

Library

University of Pittsburgh

Darlington Memorial Library

Class AP2

Book S92


v.2

WILLIAM & MARY DARLINGTON
MEMORIAL LIBRARY
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

2032
—
17







Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2009 with funding from
University of Pittsburgh Library System









Stryker's American register

THE

WILLIAM & MARY DEPARTMENT
MEMORIAL LIBRARY
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

American

QUARTERLY REGISTER

AND

MAGAZINE.

Causas rerum videt, earumque progressus. — CICERO.

End of first part at page 384

Conducted by James Stryker.

the 2 parts in this one book

MARCH, 1849. . . . VOL. II. No. I.

*March 31/56 by this vol in cloth
for both parts — cost per*

Philadelphia:

PUBLISHED BY THE PROPRIETOR,

NO. 520 CHESTNUT STREET.

1849
APR 3
v. 2

1795

1849
APR 3
v. 2

Entered according to the Act of Congress, in the year 1849, by
JAMES STRYKER,
in the Clerk's Office of the District Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania.

WILLIAM S. YOUNG, Printer.

CONTENTS.

No. 1. VOL. II.

INTRODUCTION,	5
HISTORICAL REGISTER of 1848, <i>United States, Mexico, Guatemala, Venezuela, Buenos Ayres, France, Great Britain, Germany, Prussia, Denmark, Russia, Spain and Portugal, Italy, Asia and Africa,</i>	6—56
STATISTICS:	
Common Schools of Connecticut, <i>with statistical tables,</i>	56
do Pennsylvania, do	60
do New York, do	63
do Michigan, Wisconsin, New Jersey, <i>with statistical tables,</i>	68—69
Smithsonian Institution,	69
Schools of France,	71
Commerce of the United States, <i>with statistical tables,</i>	73
Tonnage of do do do	84—85
Imports and exports for a series of years, do	86
Public debt of the United States, do	87
Estimate of population and crop for 1848, do	89
New Census bill, do	91
United States Navy, do	93
do Army, do	95
Post Office, do	96
Coast Survey, do	98
National Armories, do	99
Steam boiler explosions, do	100
Coinage at the mint during 1848, do	101
British and Irish produce and Manufactures,	102—103
Mahogany trade,	104
Debts of European nations— <i>income and expenditure,</i>	105
American Colporteurs,	106
Religious denominations of England and Scotland,	107
French Church and Catholics,	107—8
Accounts from the Sandwich Islands,	108
Reports of Emigrants arrived in 1848 at New York,	109
Religious Items,	111
Climate of Europe and cold winters,	113
Meteorological Table,	114
Emigration to California, <i>with statistical tables,</i>	115
Exports to do do	118
All the Presidents of the United States,	120
Executive Governments,	120
Thirty-first congress,	121—123
Electoral votes for President and Vice President,	124
Popular vote for do do	125

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS:

Memoir of Governor Belcher,	126
The Press and Periodical Literature,	137
China and the Chinese,	144
California, a descriptive account of,	151
Junction of Atlantic and Pacific Oceans,	158
Historical Sketch of Slavery,	169
Agriculture,	176
Education of Orphans,	180
President of France,	187

MISCELLANEOUS:

Anecdotes of Talleyrand,	191
Phenomena of Death,	196
Insect Slavery,	202
Wild beast fight,	203
Introduction of Forks,	204
First Newspaper,	205
Man—his mental power,	206
The Friendless,	208
The ten Tribes,	209

POETRY:

Translators and Translations,	213
The Old Tree,	216
California Adventurers,	217
To my Mother,	218
Doubt not,	220

QUARTERLY CHRONICLE for *December, January, and February*, from 221 to 243

OBITUARY NOTICES, 243—256

DOCUMENTS:

The President's Annual Message,	256
Reports of the Secretaries of War, Treasury, Navy, and Postmaster General,	267—273
Inaugural address of President Taylor,	273
Speech of the Queen of Great Britain,	275
Message of the Mexican President,	276
Letter of President Roberts,	277
Manifesto of Pope Pius IX.,	278
Protest of do	279
Protocol to Mexican Treaty,	281
Message of President in relation thereto,	282
Report of Col. Mason,	288
Letters of T. O. Larkin, Commodore Jones, and William Rich,	292—294
Revenue Laws of California,	295
Proclamation of Gen. Persifer F. Smith,	296
Memorials of Aspinwall and Hargous,	296—300
List of Acts of last session of Congress,	301

THE AMERICAN
QUARTERLY REGISTER
AND MAGAZINE.

NO. I. VOL. II.

MARCH, 1849.

TO THE PUBLIC.

THE present number of the Register having been delayed beyond the regular period of publication, it is due to the patrons of the work to state the cause of this irregularity.

The materials for the third number were mostly prepared and ready for the press by the first of November last, when the editor being called from home in relation to necessary business arrangements, was suddenly and severely attacked by sickness. During a confinement of several weeks, rendered wholly incapable of completing his arrangements, or of superintending the press, he was obliged to abandon all hope of getting out the third number in the month of December. Having but recently been restored to a state of sufficient strength to resume his labours, he has at once recommenced the prosecution of his work.

The second volume therefore begins with the month of March instead of December, but there will still be two volumes within the year as originally proposed; so that from this temporary delay and derangement, there will result, in fact, no loss to the subscribers.

In addition to the circumstances just related, it is proper to state, by way of further explanation, that the editor has hitherto been compelled to depend mainly on his own personal efforts in regard to the preparation and publication of the work; an arduous task, it is true, but one to which he has cheerfully applied himself, and which he has hitherto accomplished, until the recent providential hinderance. He is now making arrangements to prevent, as far as possible, the recurrence of a similar failure, and no effort will be wanting on his part to secure the regular quarterly issues hereafter.

HISTORICAL REGISTER.

THE HISTORY OF 1848, CONCLUDED.

UNITED STATES.

OUR country being now at peace with all the world, and the national legislature having terminated its session on the 14th of August, it has furnished few incidents deserving the notice of history, since our last number. Its late harvest was unusually abundant, and the crops of wheat and maize were equally good, which is not often the case, as the dry summers, which are most favourable to wheat, are unpropitious to Indian corn.

Thus blessed with abundance and peace, the public concerns which have chiefly interested the American people, have been the political changes that are now going on in Europe, the election of a President for the next four years, and the emigration to their new possessions on the Pacific.

The features of the presidential contest have differed from most of those which preceded it, in having more than two candidates, and in being attended with less popular excitement. In general, those distinguished individuals who are at once deemed worthy of this high office, and are sufficiently known and esteemed by the people to be likely to obtain their suffrages, however numerous at first, have finally settled down to two. In the fifteen elections which had previously taken place, there were but two exceptions—that in 1824, when there were four candidates, all hoping for success, either with the people, or in the house of Representatives, and that in 1836, when Gen. Harrison of Ohio, and Judge White of Tennessee, were brought forward in opposition to Mr. Van Buren. On the present occasion, there were in like manner, three prominent candidates, General Taylor, General Cass, and Mr. Van Buren. That the popular interest should have been far less than at the election in 1844, may be ascribed to the extraordinary enthusiasm with which Mr. Clay's public and party services had inspired his friends, and the almost equal hostility felt by his opponents. That this interest should even have been less than has been usually felt at such elections, may be referred to the fact that the public mind, so often and so forcibly excited by the victories in the Mexican war, and by the late astounding events in Europe, was less sensitive to the wonted stimulus of political controversy.

It has, of late years, been the practice of those conventions, which, by mere party machinery, without any operation of law, voluntarily assemble for the nomination of suitable candidates of the presidency,

to set forth the leading principles of their political faith, and this exposition, by a figure of rhetoric, like that which extended the meaning of the word *rostra** at Rome, it has been the fashion of late to call the *platform* of the party.

The more ostensible and avowed principles of these parties are ever varying with the changing circumstances of the times, but there are some more fundamental points of difference which undergo no change. These, having their foundation in human nature, make an essential element in political parties every where, and have the most activity and force in the countries that are most free. Society in such countries naturally divides itself into those who, having more than an average share of property, feel solicitude for its preservation, and those who own less than an average share, and view the richer class, if not with envy, at least with jealousy of the power and influence produced by wealth. Too many of the one class, like Cæsar, are intolerant of equality, while most of the other class, like Pompey, resist the claims of superiority. The one, having more to gain than to lose by change, are ever ready to attempt reform: the other, having more to lose than gain, instinctively dread innovation. Other circumstances besides wealth, doubtless contribute to engender pride on the one hand, and jealousy on the other, but property is the chief agent in dividing all civilized countries into two discordant classes; and a large majority of those who compose the great political parties, are ranged under the one or the other, by the affinities and sympathies to which the possession of property, or the want of it, give occasion. Fortunately, for the peace of society, many, both of the rich and the poor, are placed, by the force of circumstances, in the class to which they do not naturally belong.

Other principles occasionally may be mingled with the fundamental one that has been mentioned, but unless they have the closest natural alliance with the *αριστοι* on the one hand, or the *πολλοι* on the other, they are sometimes found in the ranks of one party, and sometimes in those of the other. Thus, a bank of the United States was supported by the federal party in 1790, and opposed by the republicans. In 1816, it was supported by the latter party, then in power, and opposed by the federalists. Afterwards it was supported by whigs and federalists, and opposed by the democratic party, headed by General Jackson.

War has generally been denounced by the democratic party as repugnant to republican principles, and unfriendly to civil liberty; yet the recent war was defended and justified chiefly by the democratic party, and the war in 1816 was exclusively the act of the same party.

The restrictive policy in commerce, by way of retaliation, was advocated in 1793 by the republicans, and opposed by the federalists;

* — *rostrisque earum, suggestum, in foro extractum, adornari placuit: rostraque id templum appellatum.*—LIVY.

but, of late years, a similar policy has been supported by the conservative party, and opposed by the democrats. So, too, with the exercise of the President's qualified negative on questions of public policy, which the whigs now condemn, and the democrats not only justify, but exalt into a merit, it will probably not be long before the parties change places.

Bearing in mind that the radical principles growing out of man's moral nature, are at the bottom of this, as well as of all preceding presidential contests, and animate nearly all those who are not operated upon by personal ambition, or the desire of office, and their adherents, let us see what are the minor principles which the three parties severally profess, and by which they seek to recommend themselves to popular favour.

The principles of the democratic party were set forth by the convention which assembled at Baltimore on the 22d of May, and were as follows:

“*Resolved*, That the American democracy place their trust in the intelligence, the patriotism, and the discriminating justice of the American people.

“*Resolved*, That we regard this as a distinctive feature of our political creed, which we are proud to maintain before the world as the great moral element in a form of government, springing from and upheld by the popular will; and we contrast it with the creed and practice of federalism, under whatever name or form, which seeks to palsy the will of the constituents, and which conceives no imposture too monstrous for the popular credulity.

“*Resolved, therefore*, That entertaining these views, the democratic party of this Union, through their delegates assembled in general convention of the states, coming together in a spirit of concord, of devotion to the doctrines and faith of a free representative government, and appealing to their fellow citizens for the rectitude of their intention, renew and repeat before the American people the declarations of principles avowed by them, when, on a former occasion, in general convention, they presented their candidates for the popular suffrages.

“1. That the federal government is one of limited powers, derived solely from the constitution, and the grants of power shown therein ought to be strictly construed by all the departments and agents of the government; and that it is inexpedient and dangerous to exercise doubtful constitutional powers.

“2. That the constitution does not confer upon the general government the power to commence and carry on a general system of internal improvements.

“3. That the constitution does not confer authority upon the federal government, directly or indirectly, to assume the debts of the several states, contracted for local internal improvements, or state purposes; nor would such assumption be just or expedient.

“4. That justice and sound policy forbid the federal government to foster one branch of industry to the detriment of another, or to cherish the interest of one portion to the injury of another portion of our common country; that every citizen, and every section of the country, has a right to demand, and insist upon an equality of rights and privileges, and to a complete and ample protection, of persons and property, from domestic violence or foreign aggression.

“5. That it is the duty of every branch of the government to enforce and practise the most rigid economy in conducting our public affairs, and that no more revenue ought to be raised than is required to defray the necessary expenses of the government, and for the gradual but certain extinction of the debt created by the prosecution of a just and necessary war, after peaceful relations shall have been restored.

“6. That Congress has no power to charter a national bank; that we believe such an institution one of deadly hostility to the best interests of the country, dangerous to our republican institutions and to the liberties of the people, and calculated to place the business of the country within the control of a concentrated money power, and above the laws and the will of the people; and that the results of democratic legislation, in this and all other financial measures, upon which issues have been made between the two political parties of the country, have demonstrated to candid and practical men of all parties, their soundness, safety, and utility in all business pursuits.

“7. That Congress has no power under the constitution to interfere with or control the domestic institutions of the several states, and that such states are the sole and proper judges of every thing appertaining to their own affairs not prohibited by the constitution; that all efforts of the abolitionists or others, made to induce Congress to interfere with questions of slavery, or to take incipient steps in relation thereto, are calculated to lead to the most alarming and dangerous consequences; and that all such efforts have an inevitable tendency to diminish the happiness of the people, and endanger the stability and permanency of the Union, and ought not to be countenanced by any friend to our political institutions.

“8. That the separation of the moneys of the government from banking institutions is indispensable for the safety of the funds of the government, and the rights of the people.

“9. That the liberal principles embodied by Jefferson in the declaration of independence, and sanctioned in the constitution, which makes ours the land of liberty, and the asylum of the oppressed of every nation, have ever been cardinal principles in the democratic faith, and every attempt to abridge the privilege of becoming citizens and owners of soil among us ought to be resisted with the same spirit which swept the alien and sedition laws from our statute books.

“Resolved: That the proceeds of the public lands ought to be sacredly applied to the national objects specified in the constitution; and that

we are opposed to any law for the distribution of such proceeds among the states, as alike inexpedient in policy and repugnant to the constitution.

“*Resolved:* That we are decidedly opposed to taking from the President the qualified veto power, by which he is enabled, under restrictions and responsibilities amply sufficient to guard the public interest, to suspend the passage of a bill whose merits cannot secure the approval of two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, until the judgment of the people can be obtained thereon, and which has saved the American people from the corrupt and tyrannical domination of the bank of the United States, and from a corrupting system of general internal improvements.”

Then follow several resolutions relative to the war with Mexico, the recent revolutions in France, and approving the present administration.

The Whig Convention which met at Philadelphia in June, and nominated General Taylor, deemed it most prudent not to make any formal exposition of its principles. The candidate whom they had selected to receive the suffrages of their party, while he had repeatedly declared that he was a whig, had also professed great moderation in his political sentiments, and had affirmed in his letters, expected to be published, that, if elected, his purpose was to be the president of the American people, and not of a party. He had even gone so far as to declare that, adhering to his political opinions and predilections, he would accept the nomination of any party.

The convention, content with the evidence thus afforded of his general concurrence with them in sentiment, and which had the more weight for the not very conciliatory avowals which accompanied it, did not wish, in tendering their nomination to General Taylor, to subject him to the alternative of either discountenancing, perhaps disclaiming, any of the principles they cherished, or of seeming to abandon the elevated ground he had taken. To his published letters, then, we must look for the principles, which the whig party, by adopting him as their candidate, may be considered mainly to have supported and approved on the present occasion. We say mainly, because it is absurd to maintain, as has often been done, that every single political principle or opinion which a presidential candidate has avowed, has, by the election, received the popular sanction; since on that particular question he might have been in a minority, and, consequently, have been elected not by reason of it, but in spite of it.

Many letters of General Taylor have been published in answer to those who have importuned him for his opinions; but two, addressed to a friend and relative, Mr. J. S. Allison, of Louisiana, may be regarded as an exposition of his political sentiments, and seem to have been so intended by him. Acquiring additional importance from the recent election, they will be given at length.

The first is dated April 22d, 1848, and is in these words:

“Dear Sir,

“BATON ROUGE, April 22, 1848.

“My opinions have so often been misconceived and misrepresented, that I deem it due to myself, if not to my friends, to make a brief exposition of them upon the topics to which you have called my attention.

“I have consented to the use of my name as a candidate for the presidency. I have frankly avowed my own distrust of my fitness for this high station; but having, at the solicitation of many of my countrymen, taken my position as a candidate, I do not feel at liberty to surrender that position until my friends manifest a wish that I should retire from it. I will then most gladly do so. I have no private purposes to accomplish, no party projects to build up, no enemies to punish,—nothing to serve but my country. I have been very often addressed by letter, and my opinions have been asked upon almost every question that might occur to the writers, as affecting the interests of their country or their party. I have not always responded to these inquiries, for various reasons.

“I confess, while I have great cardinal principles which will regulate my political life, I am not sufficiently familiar with all the minute details of political legislation to give solemn pledges to exert myself to carry out this or defeat that measure. I have no concealment. I hold no opinion which I would not readily proclaim to my assembled countrymen; but crude impressions upon matters of policy, which may be right to-day and wrong to-morrow, are, perhaps, not the best tests of the fitness for office. One who cannot be trusted without pledges cannot be confided in merely on account of them.

“I will proceed, however, now to respond to your inquiries.

“*First.* I reiterate what I have so often said. I am a whig. If elected, I would not be the mere president of party. I would endeavour to act independent of party domination. I should feel bound to administer the government untrammelled by any party schemes.

“*Second.* The veto power. The power given by the constitution to the Executive to interfere his veto, is a high conservative power; but in my opinion should never be exercised except in cases of clear violation of the constitution, or manifest haste or want of consideration by Congress. Indeed, I have often thought that, for many years past, the known opinion and wishes of the executive have received an undue and injurious influence upon the legislative department of the government, and for this cause I have thought our system was in danger of undergoing a great change from its true theory. The personal opinions of the individual who has happened to occupy the executive chair ought not to control the action of Congress upon questions of domestic policy; nor ought his objections to be interposed where questions of constitutional power have been settled by the general government, and acquiesced in by the people.

“*Third.* Upon the subject of the tariff, the currency, the improvement of our great highways, rivers, lakes, and harbours, the will of the people, as expressed through their representatives in Congress, ought to be respected and carried out by the executive.

“*Fourth.* The Mexican war. I sincerely rejoice at the prospect of peace. My life has been devoted to arms, yet I look upon war, at all times, and under all circumstances, as a national calamity, to be avoided if compatible with the national honour. The principles of our government, as well as its true policy, are opposed to the subjugation of other nations, and the dismemberment of other countries by conquest. In the language of the great Washington, ‘Why should we quit our own to stand on foreign ground?’ In the Mexican war our national honour has been vindicated; and, in dictating terms of peace, we may well afford to be forbearing and magnanimous to a fallen foe.

“These are my opinions on the subjects referred to by you, and any reports or publications, written or verbal, from any source, differing in any essential particular from what is here written, are unauthorized and untrue.

“I do not know that I shall again write upon the subject of national politics. I shall engage in no schemes, no combinations, no intrigues. If the American people have not confidence in me, they ought not to give me their suffrages. If they do not, you know me well enough to believe me, when I declare I shall be content. I am too old a soldier to murmur against such high authority.

• “Z. TAYLOR.

“To Capt. J. S. ALLISON.”

General Taylor’s first letter having set forth his political principles, he afterwards found it necessary to write another to the same correspondent, to correct some misrepresentations, and to deny opinions imputed to him.

After noticing at some length the circumstances that induced him to become a candidate for the presidency, and to accept nomination from one or all of the great political parties, he adds:

“The Democratic convention met in May, and composed their ticket to suit them. This they had a right to do. The National Whig Convention met in June, and selected me as their candidate. I accepted the nomination with gratitude and with pride. I was proud of the confidence of such a body of men, representing such a constituency as the Whig party of the United States,—a manifestation the more grateful because it was not cumbered with exactions incompatible with the dignity of the presidential office, and the responsibilities of its incumbent to the whole people of the nation. And I may add, that these emotions were increased by associating my name with that of the distinguished citizen of New York, whose acknowledged abilities and sound conservative opinions might have justly entitled him to the first place on the ticket.

“The convention adopted me as it found me—a Whig—decided, but not ultra in my opinions, and I should be without excuse if I were to shift the relationships which subsisted at the time. They took me with the declaration of principles I had published to the world, and I should be without defence if I were to say or do any thing to impair the force of that declaration.

“I have said that I would accept a nomination from Democrats; but in doing so I would not abate one jot or tittle of my opinion as written down. Such a nomination, as indicating a coincidence of opinion on the part of those making it, should not be regarded with disfavour by those who think with me; as a compliment personal to myself, it should not be expected that I would repulse them with insult. I shall not modify my views to entice them to my side: I shall not reject their aid when they join my friends voluntarily.

“I have said that I was not a party candidate, nor am I, in that straightened and sectarian sense which would prevent my being the president of the whole people in case of my election. I did not regard myself as one before the convention met, and that body did not seek to make me different from what I was. They did not fetter me down to a series of pledges, which were to be an iron rule of action in all, and in despite of all the contingencies that might arise in the course of a presidential term. I am not engaged to lay violent hands indiscriminately upon public officers, good or bad, who may differ in opinion with me. I am not expected to force Congress, by the coercion of the veto, to pass laws to suit me, or to pass none. This is what I mean by not being a party candidate; and I understand this to be good Whig doctrine—I would not be a *partisan* president, and hence should not be a party candidate in the sense that would make one. This is the sum and substance of my meaning, and this is the purport of the facts and circumstances attending my nomination, when considered in their connexion with, and dependence upon one another.

“I refer all persons, who are anxious on the subject, to this statement for the proper understanding of my position towards the presidency and the people. If it is not intelligible, I cannot make it so, and shall cease to attempt it.

“In taking leave of the subject, I have only to add, that my two letters to you embrace all the topics I design to speak of pending this canvass. If I am elected, I shall do all an honest zeal may effect to cement the bonds of our Union, and establish the happiness of my countrymen upon an enduring basis.

“Z. TAYLOR.

“To Capt. J. S. ALLISON.”

The convention which met at Buffalo, in New York, on the 10th of August, not approving of either of the other nominees, as not being sufficiently opposed to the extension of domestic slavery, indicated their particular principles, or “platform,” in the six following resolutions:

“1. *Resolved*, That we demand freedom and established institutions for our brethren in Oregon, now exposed to hardship, peril, and massacre, by the reckless hostility of the slave power to the establishment of free government for free Territories; and not only for them, but for our brethren in New Mexico and California.

“And whereas, it is due not only to this occasion, but to the whole people of the United States, that we should declare ourselves on certain other questions of national policy: therefore,

“2. *Resolved*, That we demand cheap postage for the people; a retrenchment of the expenses and patronage of the federal government; the abolition of all unnecessary offices and salaries, and the election by the people of all civil officers in the service of the government, so far as the same may be practicable.

“3. *Resolved*, That the river and harbour improvements, whenever demanded by the safety or convenience of commerce with foreign nations, or among the several States, are objects of national concern, and that it is the duty of Congress, in the exercise of its constitutional powers, to provide therefor.

“4. *Resolved*, That the free grant to actual settlers, in consideration of the expenses they incur in making settlements in the wilderness, which are usually fully equal to their actual cost, and of the public benefits resulting therefrom, of reasonable portions of the public lands, under suitable limitations, is a wise and just measure of public policy, which will promote, in various ways, the interests of all the States of this Union; and we therefore recommend it to the favourable consideration of the American people.

“5. *Resolved*, That the obligations of honour and patriotism require the earliest practicable payment of the national debt; and we are, therefore, in favour of such a tariff of duties as will raise revenue adequate to defray the necessary expenses of the federal government, and to pay annual instalments of our debt, and the interest thereon.

“6. *Resolved*, That we inscribe on our banner, “Free soil, free speech, free labour, and free men,” and under it will fight, and fight ever, until a triumphant victory shall reward our exertions.”

Such were the rival principles which struggled for ascendancy, and aspired to the honour of administering the affairs of this great Confederacy for the next four years. And although the Whigs were reproached by their adversaries with having no political principles, or with being afraid to avow them, and that they supported General Taylor only for his military merit, yet in point of fact, this presidential contest as decidedly hinged on party principles as any which preceded it, and with the exception of the “free soil men,” who voted for Mr. Van Buren, and who deemed the question of extending domestic slavery the most important of any, nineteen-twentieths of the American people voted for General Taylor or General Cass, as they agreed with one or the other in political sentiment, as they favoured or disapproved

a protective tariff—a metallic currency—the power of the general government to make river and harbour improvements, and other facilities of transportation—the exercise of the presidential veto—and as they inclined to range themselves under the class of reformers or conservatives. At the present day, whoever would obtain the popular suffrage, must elect between the two great parties, which by well-known lines, and in nearly equal portions, divide the American people. Nor could General Taylor, though his personal popularity is, perhaps, greater than that of any other citizen, have possibly been elected, and in all probability, would not have received the votes of a single State, if he had not belonged to one or the other of those parties.

After a less animated and active canvass than has been usual, except in a few States, on the 7th of November, electors were chosen in all the States, as a late act of Congress requires. Although the power of electing a President from the citizens at large is vested absolutely in a majority of the whole body of electors, without regard to any nomination whatever, and though the framers of the Constitution intended that they should exercise this power according to their own discretion, without limitation or control; yet, according to the settled usage ever since the retirement of General Washington left the presidential chair a subject of controversy, the electors are held bound to obey the wishes and instructions of their constituents, and the choice of the electors, in the conflict of parties, is, by the force of this moral law, now regarded as deciding the choice of the President and Vice President.

Regarding the two elections then as identical, the returns from the several states showed that General Taylor and Millard Fillmore had received from

Massachusetts,	12 votes.	Maryland,	8 votes.
Vermont,	6	North Carolina,	11
Connecticut,	6	Georgia,	10
Rhode Island,	4	Florida,	3
New York,	36	Louisiana,	6
New Jersey,	7	Tennessee,	13
Pennsylvania,	26	Kentucky,	12
Delaware,	3		—163

General Cass and General Butler received the votes of

Maine,	9	Missouri,	7
New Hampshire,	6	Ohio,	23
Virginia,	17	Indiana,	12
South Carolina,	9	Illinois,	9
Alabama,	9	Wisconsin,	4
Texas,	4	Iowa,	4
Mississippi,	6		—127
Arkansas,	3		

Mr. Van Buren and Mr. Charles Adams received no electoral vote whatever.

The popular vote for the three prominent candidates, or rather for their respective electors, was as follows:

For Gen. Taylor,	-	-	-	1,356,697.
“ Gen. Cass,	-	-	-	1,220,071.
“ Mr. Van Buren	-	-	-	291,470.

The whole number of votes given in 29 states—for in South Carolina, the legislature chooses the electors—was, 2,872,783, which is about one-seventh of the present population, after deducting the coloured portion, a very small proportion of which have the privilege of voting.

Gen. Taylor and Gen. Cass received the suffrages of an equal number of states, fifteen states having voted for each. Of these, seven free and eight slave-holding states, voted for Gen. Taylor; while eight free, and seven slave-holding states, voted for Gen. Cass. These three millions of votes were given on the same day, without tumult or disorder, freely, fairly, and with very few exceptions, according to conviction of right; and though the result of the election was looked to with anxious interest by all, yet when once the result was known, it was quietly acquiesced in by the minority, as well in those states in which that minority was the stronger party, as in those in which it was the weaker. The disappointed, as well as the successful voter, returned to his wonted pursuits, and all the great and the little wheels of the social machine continue to perform their appropriate parts, just as if this great movement of the whole had never taken place.

After the territorial government in Oregon was established, and the acquisition of California by the Mexican treaty, the executive, under the authority given by congress in August last, provided for the transmission of the mail between those distant points, and other parts of the Union. Once a month it is to be carried by a line of steamers, from Charleston to Havana and to Chagres, a small town on the Atlantic, east of the Isthmus of Panama, across the Isthmus to the town of Panama, and thence, by another line of steamers, to be conveyed to the several towns on the Pacific, in California and Oregon. It is expected that this communication between New York and Oregon will require thirty-five days, and that it will be in complete operation in the ensuing spring.* From San Francisco, in California, it is expected that there will soon be an active and increasing commerce with China, and that the voyage from that port to Canton, though upwards of 6000 geographical miles, may be made by steamers in from 25 to 30 days.

A traffic between two countries under the relative circumstances of

* See a statement on a subsequent page in this number, of the several routes to the Pacific.

China and California, would seem to be particularly profitable, notwithstanding the distance which separates them, since in one, the price of manufactured goods is at its minimum, and in the other, the price of raw produce may be expected to be so.

But the recent discoveries of gold in California seem likely to check this trade for a time, or at all events, to alter its character. That metal has been already found there in abundance equalled no where on the globe, except it may be in the Ural mountains; and the success of those who have lately engaged in searching for it has been so great as to divert the labour of that country from every other species of industry; and consequently to make the prices of the necessaries of life, and of every species of human labour exorbitantly high. This feverish thirst for gold is rapidly extending to other parts of the Union, and companies are already formed in several of our principal sea-ports to send off expeditions to this new Eldorado of the west.

The effects of this abundance of gold may be very beneficial to the commerce of the United States, and may greatly hasten the settlement of California, but this benefit must be taken with the disadvantages inseparable from all countries, which owe their prosperity to mines of the precious metals. The extraordinary profits they occasionally give to adventurers, cause them by the illusions of hope to attract more than a fair proportion of labour and capital so as to reduce the profits of both so employed to less than the average rate; and, thus to divert industry from a more profitable to a less profitable employment. When, moreover, rich mines, after having built up flourishing towns and improved the surrounding country, cease to be worked, from having been exhausted or filled with water, or for want of a supply of fuel, &c., of which there are many examples in Spanish America, those towns and the neighbouring country, no longer nourished by the mines, sink into poverty and decay.

Another good consequence of the mines in California, may be in affording employment to the Indians in that Territory, by which they will be at once kept quiet, be trained to habits of industry and advance in civilization. It is gratifying to learn that the experiment now going on with the tribes west of the Mississippi, promises to be successful. They steadily improve in husbandry, the mechanical arts, and above all in the school instruction given to their children.

On the 4th of December, Congress assembled, and the next day the President sent in his annual message. As it not only sets forth with much detail the condition of the country, but superadds copious arguments on some controverted topics, it is, among papers of this character, of unprecedented length.*

* The extreme length of the presidential messages is become the subject of general remark, and is seriously objected to. The first two presidents, following the example which prevailed in the colonies, as well as in the mother country, made speeches to the two houses of Congress on the opening of every session; and when

After congratulating the country on its unwonted prosperity, both in its foreign and domestic relations, it dwells with complacency on the benefits resulting from the war with Mexico, in proving the capacity both of our people and their government, for even offensive hostility without a standing army, and in the value of the territory acquired. He estimates the area of Texas, New Mexico, and Upper California, united at 861,598 square miles, which estimate, supposing Texas to contain 260,000 square miles, rates the new acquisitions about 590,000. With these recent accessions, he remarks that the area of the United States is now nearly equal to that of all Europe exclusive of Russia; and that 970 miles have been added to the line of Coast on the Pacific, which, including that of Oregon, amounts to 1620 miles. The value of California, in reference to the whale fishery, to a vast commerce with China, and other parts of Asia, other ports on the western coast of America, and the islands in the Pacific, and to its fertile mines of gold, quicksilver, and other minerals, are particularly dwelt on. In consideration of the great abundance of gold, he recommends the establishment of a branch mint in California. He urges on Congress the importance of organizing territorial governments for New Mexico, and California; and the conflicting views on the subject of slavery, in those territories which such organization produced at the last session, are adverted to, and earnestly deprecated. He argues at some length that this subject should be left exclusively to the territories themselves, but that under the example of the Missouri compromise between the slave-holding, and non-slave-holding States, the line of 36° 30' may, and should by a like compromise be extended to the Pacific. The immediate attention of Congress is invoked to this question, which he remarks is the only one that seriously threatens, or probably ever can threaten to disturb the harmony of the Union. The hostilities of Indian tribes in Oregon is mentioned as an additional reason for the establishment of a territorial government there. A liberal policy towards the Indians is recommended.

By the increase of foreign commerce the imports for the year ending on the last day of June, the exports amounted to 154 millions of dollars; and the imports to about a million more, of which 132 millions were retained for domestic use. The receipts into the treasury were 35,436,000 dollars, and the expenditures 42,811,000 dollars. The receipts into the treasury for the succeeding year, ending in June 25, 1849, including a balance in the treasury, are estimated at 57,480,000 dollars, and the expenditures at 54,195,000 dollars. Of this sum, about 26 millions are thought sufficient for the ordinary peace expenditure, and the residue will be expended in the reimbursement of Treasury notes, and in the payment of the public debt.

Mr. Jefferson, thinking there was a tinge of royalty in this mode of executive communication, substituted written messages, the change was hailed as a decided improvement. These written papers have, however, given rise to a prolixity of detail, which probably no spoken address would have hazarded.

He notices the greater productiveness of the tariff of 1846, notwithstanding the predictions to the contrary, and recommends a continuance of it, as equally beneficial to the people and the treasury. He also recommends the constitutional treasury, to which he attributes an exemption from that inflation of the currency which the heavy import of the precious metals would otherwise have caused.

He strongly urges the adoption of a system for the certain and early reduction of the debt, and suggests a reduction in the minimum price of such public lands as have long remained unsold.

In the notice of some particulars relative to the departments of War, Navy, and Post-Office, he states, that within the last four years eight treaties had been made with Indian tribes, by which, for the sum of 1,842,200 dollars, 18,500,000 acres of land had been regained, and that with some insignificant exceptions, the title to all the Indian lands within the limits of the existing territories has been extinguished; that in the course of another year there would be not less than 17 war-steamers afloat, which in time of peace will be employed in the transportation of the mail. The importance of a line of steamers from New York to Chagres, and from Panama to California and Oregon, is pointed out: the success of the policy of low postage has been so great, that a further reduction is recommended.

Something less than two-thirds of the Message having been given to customary and official topics, the remainder is a dissertation on the true construction of the federal Constitution, which, he thinks, denies to congress the power to establish banks; or a protective tariff; or a system of internal improvements; or to distribute among the states the proceeds of the public lands; and he concludes by giving his reasons for refusing his sanction to two bills (for internal improvements,) and with an elaborate defence of the exercise of the executive veto on the ground of expediency no less than of constitutionality.

Without offering any opinions on these important topics—we take the liberty of remarking, that they are all questions on which the two great parties of the United States are divided; that the doctrines urged by the President are those which are most strenuously maintained by most of the democratic party to which he belongs; and that they are as strenuously opposed by nearly all the whig party; and that, if the election of Mr. Polk as President may be regarded as a sanction to those doctrines by a majority of the people, the election of General Taylor may be with equal propriety regarded as the disapprobation and rejection of them by a more recent popular majority; but we consider all such inferences unwarranted, for the reasons already stated.

On the 11th of December, Mr. Douglas of Illinois introduced a bill for the admission of the newly acquired territories of California and New Mexico into the union, and to be entitled to two representatives until the next census. This admission of a new state before it had passed through the probationary course of a territorial government,

was prompted by the wish to get clear of the question of slavery in the new territories, on which two great divisions of the states were directly opposed and apparently unchangeably fixed. . . It soon, however, appeared that there was as little probability of evading the question as of settling it.

This agitating subject was presented to the House of Representatives in a new form. On the 18th of the month, Mr. Giddings, of Ohio, obtained leave to introduce a bill to give the people of the District of Columbia an opportunity of expressing their sentiments on the question of abolishing slavery in the district; and in answer to inquiries as to the persons who were to be permitted to vote on the question, he promptly replied, that the bill meant to comprehend both whites and blacks, bond or free, between whom he knew no difference on this question; a motion to lay the bill on the table was carried by 105 votes against 77.

On the 21st, a resolution offered by Mr. Gott of N. Y., instructing the committee on the District of Columbia to bring in a bill prohibiting slavery in the district, was passed in the house, by a decided vote of 98 to 87. These movements on the part of the anti-slavery members, produced a great sensation among the members of the slaveholding States, and a few days afterwards a meeting was called of these members, at which 68 attended. Resolutions in vindication of their rights were offered, but were not finally acted on, and the meeting was postponed for further deliberation. Subsequent meetings were held, and their final action will be stated in our next number.

The question of slavery and that of aiding in providing a communication by railroad across the Isthmus of Panama, were the only measures of importance brought before congress during the month of December, and the last appeared as little likely as the first to be brought to a successful termination.

MEXICO.

The armies of the United States had scarcely left the Mexican Territory before the civil dissensions from which that ill-fated country has been never free, broke out into open war. Political rivals contended for power with arms, and some frontier states already formed schemes of independence. Herrera, who had been elected President in the preceding May, was supported by Bustamente; and Paredes, who opposed him, was the friend of Santa Anna, who was still in exile—Paredes was finally defeated, and saved himself by flight. The new President had now to contend with the difficulties of an empty treasury, a precarious revenue, a mortified and discontented people. He seems to have met them, however, with firmness and prudence. Under the relaxation of the laws, and the interruption to regular industry, numbers had taken to highway robbery, and the frontier States were harassed by incursions of the Indians. One of his first measures was to establish three military colonies on the frontier; one at Tamaulipas and Cho-

lula, another at Chihuahua, and a third at Sonora and Lower California. The three millions of dollars received from the United States, afforded a very seasonable, though temporary relief.

On the 6th of June, President Herrera officially informed the President of the United States of his election, to which Mr. Polk answered on the 9th of August, in a letter of congratulation, with the expression of sentiments of amity, and a desire for the continuance of peace between the two nations. The suspense in which the treaty, after it was amended by the United States, remained in Mexico, had doubtless caused the delay of Mr. Polk's answer. On delivering it, Mr. Clifford, the American minister, took occasion to make a brief address to President Herrera, in which he enforced the friendly sentiments expressed by President Polk.

Immediately after the Congress of the United States adjourned, rumours were afloat that an expedition was in preparation in the United States against Sierra Madre, in Mexico, for the purpose of forming an American settlement, with a view to its future annexation to the United States, and to disguise its purpose, it was *got up under the pretext* of a great Buffalo Hunt. The government, on hearing of this lawless scheme, lost no time in taking steps to arrest it at once. The Secretary of State, Mr. Buchanan, immediately directed the District Attorney of the United States in Texas, to prosecute all enlistments and other measures contrary to the act of Congress respecting military enterprises against nations at peace with the United States, and Mr. Mason, the Secretary of the Navy, instructed the naval commander on that station to prevent the execution of such enterprise. It was of course abandoned.

About the same time, schemes were formed in the State of Tamaulipas, especially in Tampico, and also, it is said, in the States of Vera Cruz, Cohahuila, and Nuevo Leon, to separate from the Mexican confederacy, and some of the agitators had the further object of annexation to the United States, and were probably connected with the projected enterprise called "The Buffalo Hunt." But this restless spirit, enkindled by the war, has already effervesced, and under the restoration of law and order, is not likely to revive. Much, however, remains to be done to effect that restoration. The Indians on the frontier are still troublesome—the highways are still infested by banditti—the revolt in Sierra Madre is not yet quelled—and Santa Anna still has his partisans who desire his recall. The Congress too sees ruin before it, without reducing and regulating its tariff, by which the revenue would be increased, and the government finds it very difficult, if not impracticable, to borrow \$800,000 at 1 per cent. per month on the credit of the \$3,000,000 which the United States is to pay to Mexico in 1849.

Under these circumstances, the future of this fine country is involved in gloomy uncertainty.

Yucatan, which had withdrawn from the Mexican confederacy, has, since the peace with the United States, received aid from the Mexican government, and is now recognised as one of the Mexican states, but the war between the whites and the Indians, in which each party has alternately prevailed, still rages with its original fierceness and barbarity. A regiment of volunteers under the command of Col. White, which was permitted to go to the assistance of the whites, has had several severe encounters with the Indians. On the 24th December, a detachment about 300 strong, under Lieut. Col. Besancon, engaged a large body of Indians at Tihosuco. The Indian force was estimated at six or eight thousand. Capt. Kelly and Lieut. Campbell were severely wounded. The next morning, (Christmas day) the action was resumed, Col. White being now in command. The Indians were driven back several miles through a constant rain, when the Americans, having expended their ammunition, returned to Tihosuco, with a loss of thirty-eight in killed and wounded. Lieut. I. H. Gallagher was among the killed. On the 27th, Col. White marched for Tela, an Indian town, six leagues distant. The road was barricaded in many places, and the Indians made a desperate resistance; but after a hard day's work and much fighting, the Americans reached the town and burnt it. They lost, on this day, eight men killed and wounded.

A still more decisive battle was expected with the celebrated chieftain, Pat, who is represented to be in great force near Bacala, a port on the bay of Honduras.

GUATEMALA.

This southern neighbour of Mexico, and the largest of the states of Central America, having separated from the other four, in March of the preceding year, has been ever since the scene of political contests, and of civil war. A part of the population in the mountainous districts, following their example, formed themselves into an independent state. The late president, Cabrera, having resigned, Don Juan Antonio Martinez has been elected in his place, and there is some reason to hope that under his auspices, the confederacy of Central America will be re-established as it was. Their federal government was modelled upon that of the United States, but the population of the five states is less than two millions, of whom, more than two-fifths are Indians, and two more fifths are of mixed races, called there hadinos.

VENEZUELA.

The contest between the two parties, of which Monagas heads one, and Gen. Paez the other, appears to be nearly terminated. Monagas being in the possession of the power and resources of the government, had so far succeeded, as to compel Paez to leave the country. In September last, the latter went to the Dutch Island of Curaçoa, off the coast, where

he remained, while his whole fleet had possession of the fine harbour afforded by lake Maracaybo, ready to take him back to Venezuela, as soon as the expected ascendancy of the constitutional party should offer him the promise of success, or an addition to his fleet would give him the superiority at sea. The two fleets, then nearly equal, engaged on the 13th December, and the result was disastrous to Paez. On the 31st, a still more decisive action took place. The insurgents, to the number of 1200, were surprised by the government troops, at a place called San Carlos on the river Zulia, and after a lively combat of four hours, were defeated. The steamer Buena Vista, with several feluccas and piroques belonging to the Paez party, were captured—Among the prisoners taken, were three sons of Paez. Congress was to meet on the 20th January, when Monagas intended to announce the pacification of the Republic.

BUENOS AYRES.

Montevideo, the only part of the republic of Uruguay, or Banda Oriental, that had not submitted to the victorious arms of Rosas, had not surrendered on the 16th of September. The city has been sustained by a subsidy from the French government of \$40,000 a month. Rosas continues to defy the intervention of the English and French, and makes heavy exactions from both for affording them the benefits of a commerce with Buenos Ayres.

FRANCE.

The insurrection of June, which had sacrificed so many lives, both on the part of the insurgents and the government, and filled the friends of the revolution every where with alarm and anxiety, afforded ample occupation to the national assembly, and the new administration under General Cavaignac. Their purpose was to punish the offenders; to make provision for the sufferers; and to investigate the causes and circumstances of the insurrection so indicative of military skill, and so marked by daring valour and unappeasable ferocity.

The punishment decided on by the national assembly was transportation. In the month of July, it decreed that such of the prisoners as should be proved to have taken part in the insurrection should be transported to some distant French colony, Algeria being excluded, and that their wives and children should be permitted to accompany them.

It was also decided to abolish the national work-shops; to close the political clubs for the time; to disarm the insurgent quarters of Paris; to maintain a force in the city of 50,000 men, and to interdict anti-social and anarchical publications.

In proposing the abolition of the work-shops, General Cavaignac stated to the assembly that the number of workmen engaged in the insurrection did not exceed 50,000; and as the whole number employed amounted to 105,000 or 106,000, less than one-half were actually en-

gaged: he admitted, however, that a decided majority sympathized in the efforts of the rest. He considered, that guilty as they were, so large a number in indigence, and out of employment, had claims on the public bounty; and he recommended that they should have pecuniary aid for the present, but that it should be distributed to them at their homes, under the superintendence of the Mayor: which plan was adopted.

Pensions were occasionally granted to the widows of meritorious officers who had lost their lives in the insurrection. By way of favouring those classes of workmen who were employed in house-building, those buildings begun since Feb. 22d, were exempted from taxation for five years, and those begun since the 1st of July, were exempted for ten years.

A committee of fifteen members, with Odillon Barrot at the head, had been appointed to investigate the circumstances of the insurrection, and also the *emeute* of the 15th of May, and on the 3d of August they made their report. After some opposition, it was decided to publish the evidence on which the report was founded, (*preces justificifs*.) This fills three large volumes, which were distributed amongst the members on the 18th, 21st, and 23d of August.

The committee state, as the principal causes and elements of the insurrection in June, that after the revolution, the rich left Paris, and the poor of all countries flocked thither. Among the last, some came from the provinces, and some from Italy and Germany.

Clubs were formed, and towards the end of March their number was about 140. In many of these the rich were attacked, and were feebly defended. Hence naturally arose social animosities with the indigent classes. The government then adopted the unfortunate expedient of organizing the national workshops. These have never ceased to be a cause of disturbance. The workmen there fell into habits of indolence: their labours amounted to little or nothing. Instead of the order essential to productive industry, crowds of clock-makers, blacksmiths, jewellers, carpenters, and others, congregated in one spot, produced nothing but confusion. The committee say that if half the sum thus thrown away had been lent to great manufactories, every workman would have been left in his own workshop, and a ten fold value would have been produced. The richer classes too, thus inspired with confidence, would have returned, and business have resumed its ordinary course.

One of their documents, from the prefect of police, thus enumerates the classes who took part in the insurrection:

1. A large number of working-men, whose wives and children were dependent on their labour for subsistence, and whom they saw without bread.
2. Men, ardent and honest, but ignorant and easily duped. They

were made to believe that the national assembly meant to restore, by degrees, Louis Philippe's system of government.

3. Communists, and other utopian dreamers, each one according to his own fancy.

4. The legitimists, who insisted that it was necessary to pass by the republic to reach Henry V. According to them, the republican government was but the halt of a moment, but one that was indispensable.

5. The Bonapartists, who joined their money to that of the legitimists, to effect civil commotion.

6. The partisans of the Orleans regency, who were known by their unwillingness to pay taxes.

7. And lastly, the scum of all parties, convicts and vagabonds, men instinctively inclined to insurrection, robbery, and plunder.

The committee showed that the disturbances in Paris in April and May, were closely connected with the insurrection in June; and they openly charged that Ledru Rollin was implicated in the affair of May, and Louis Blanc and Causidiere both in that and the insurrection of June. It afforded general satisfaction that Lamartine, who had been the friend or the apologist of these men, escaped all accusation; for, though most of his former admirers believed that he was not suited to the times, and was disposed to view the schemers and visionaries of the day with too much indulgence, they still had confidence in his integrity and patriotism, and a grateful recollection of his signal services in the first days of the revolution. The report stated that the money found on the persons of the insurgents was furnished by the workshops. It averred that, after the most diligent search, the committee had been able to trace it to no other source. The assembly, on the faith of this report, having ordered prosecutions against Louis Blanc and Causidiere, notwithstanding their remonstrances and protestations, they made their escape to England.

The revolutionary government soon began to experience difficulty in its finances. Nearly 200 millions of francs, when the revolution broke out, was the amount on hand, and this sum being soon exhausted, there was found to be not only a diminished revenue, as was to be expected in the interruption to every species of industry and commerce, but also an increased expenditure which seems to require explanation: but if some of the expenses of the monarchical government were now saved, other were increased. The cost of maintaining upwards of 100,000 workmen, whose employments yielded little or no return, was, of itself, a most burdensome charge on the treasury. Indeed, such was the indigence and suffering in Paris at this time, that it was said the number of persons supported by the government was not less than 200,000. The expenditure, too, of the legislature and the members of the administration, was not an inconsiderable item. Besides, where so many men are thrown into offices for which they were unprepared, as must

be the case in the first stages of revolution, some loss must be set down to the want of skill, and something, perhaps, to speculation. The bank of France proved a convenient resort in this financial distress. Garnier Pagès, the first minister of finance, obtained from it, in March, a loan of 50,000,000 francs; and subsequently, 3,000,000 more. Duclerc, who was his successor, contracted a further loan of 150,000,000, to pay for the railroads, of which the government with an unwise cupidity took possession; and to enable the bank to make these heavy loans with safety, the government authorized it to suspend specie payments.

These aids, however, afforded but a temporary relief, and Duclerc, as well as his predecessor, Garnier Pagès, being professedly incompetent to devise a system of taxation suited to the wants and circumstances of the country, General Cavaignac appointed M. Goudchaux minister of finance. He took an early occasion to declare in the national assembly that the government would not take possession of the railroads and insurance companies, which had been among the financial projects of his predecessors; but he, at the same time, asserted the right of the state to take the property of joint stock companies, on paying them an indemnity. He showed that the treasury had a deficit of 210 millions of francs for the year 1848, exclusive of the 230 millions required to reimburse the bank. To meet the deficiency, he proposed, in addition to the existing taxes, an income tax, and a tax on property acquired by inheritance. "Such property," he said, "not being the fruit of labour and intelligence, it is just that he whom society permits to enjoy this property should pay for the privilege." The national assembly gave its sanction to the income tax, but by so small a majority—378 to 339—that he did not venture to avail himself of it. To supply the deficiency, application was again made to the bank, by which 150 millions more were obtained, and a public loan of 200 millions was decreed. But it was found that for this sum, the state, which a year before had been able to borrow money at four per cent., was obliged to pay what was equivalent to seven and three quarters per cent.; and financial critics undertook to show, that the difference of rate caused a loss to the nation on its several loans of 482 millions.

These are difficulties which the government must obviously encounter in its finances; and the same difficulties may serve to explain, if not to justify, some of the wild schemes that were suggested on that intricate and important subject. Garnier Pagès, when at the head of the treasury, had proposed a progressive impost on property, that is, one in which the per centage *rate* of the tax should increase with the amount of property, and he looked to the constant tendency of such an impost to break down large estates. His purpose, it was said, was to destroy all fortunes that exceeded 30,000 fr., (less than \$6000,) of income.

The project of M. Proudhon went a step further, and what M. Garnier Pagès aimed to bring about slowly and indirectly, he proposed to effectuate openly and at once. He was one of those who maintained

that all property was a robbery, and he proposed in committee, "by way of conciliation and compromise" with its unrighteous holders, that one-third of all incomes and capitals should be given to the state. This compromise, he said, would allow property to exist 300 years. He grounded his defence of these views upon the rights of labour asserted in the new constitution. He stated that the way he proposed would bring three milliards, or 3,000,000,000 francs into the treasury, one-half of which he would assign to the public creditors. This proposition being unanimously rejected in committee, M. Thiers, one of their number, thought proper to bring the subject before the assembly, and to expose the absurd extremes entertained by some of the members concerning property and the rights of labour, which he did in a speech of great ability.

After M. Thiers had concluded, M. Proudhon asked for time to reply, and that day week was fixed upon for the purpose. When the day arrived, the galleries were crowded to hear Proudhon's defence of the extremes attributed to him. In a prepared discourse which he read from the tribunal, he boldly avowed the proposition that all property had been destroyed by the revolution, since which time, if debtors submit to their contracts, it is because they choose to do so. He further insisted that the rent of land is a gratuitous privilege, which society may at any time revoke. But common sense prevailed, and M. Proudhon's scheme received the support of but two voices against 690.

An anecdote which circulated in Paris at this time, is not a bad commentary on M. Proudhon's text. Among the presses which Gen. Cavaignac, under the authority given him, thought it prudent to suspend, was one set up by M. Proudhon. While he was declaiming against this tyrannical act, one whom he addressed, said to him, "Do you own that press?" "Certainly." "Then, what do you complain of? you know that all property is robbery!"

But with all its financial embarrassments, the national assembly refused to confiscate the property of Louis Philippe. The report of M. Jules Farres proposed to sequester the private domain of the late King—pay his creditors out of its revenues, and to allow him and his family an annual sum. The moveable property of the princes to be restored to them. The ex-king's debts were estimated at 70,000,000 francs, and his property from 80 to 100 millions. This report was adopted, and it is said that Louis Philippe has consented to the arrangements.

On the 3d September, the national assembly having disposed of the various matters of legislation which grew out of the insurrection of June, entered on the consideration of the new constitution, which had been referred to the several bureaux for revision and amendment, which were fifteen in number. Some of the questions and votes on this subject, are very characteristic of the prevalent views and feelings of the members.

Among the original inherent rights of the citizen, asserted in the

first chapter, is the right of labour. This being thought to favour the doctrine of communism, which had produced such serious consequences, was rejected in the bureaux. Its friends in the assembly offered a modification of it, by substituting for the term "right of labour," that of "right to existence by labour;" and though this amendment was supported in an elaborate speech by M. Lamartine, according to his usual course of conciliation, it was negatived by an immense majority. The assembly then passed this amendment of the clause; "that society is bound to assist the necessitous."

The punishment of death for political offences having been abolished by the constitution, it was proposed to extend this provision to all offences whatever, but the amendment was rejected by a large majority.

On the subject of the impost and taxes, the draft of the constitution was silent on the question whether they should be proportional or progressive; that is, at the same rate on all property of the same description, or increasing in rate with the amount of the property. On an amendment proposed to this article, there was a majority of 644 to 96, in favour of the proportional taxes. An amendment was also proposed, that the legislature should consist of two houses or chambers instead of one. It was supported by M. Odillon Barrot, and opposed by MM. Lamartine and Dupin. A decisive majority voted in favour of a single assembly. They seemed not to think it necessary to have any guard against excessive legislation, or to admit that no legislation was often better than hasty legislation. On this subject, an unwillingness to seem to copy the English constitution more than neutralized the example afforded by the general government of the United States, and by all the separate states.

An amendment, by which the holding of a public office was rendered incompatible with the character of a representative—was carried by 523 votes to 212. Exceptions, however, were to be provided when they framed their organic laws.

But the most exciting of constitutional questions was the mode of electing the president of the republic. Three different schemes were spoken of. One was, that he should be elected by the national assembly, and removable by them at pleasure. Another was, that he should be independent of the assembly when thus elected. A third was, that he should be elected by the people. In the discussion that ensued, M. Lamartine supported the mode by universal suffrage, with more than his wonted ability. The first plan was moved by M. Grévy, one of the party of the Mountain, who would have dispensed with the office of president altogether, as bearing too close a resemblance to monarchy: but if they must have a president, wished him removable by the national assembly. His motion was rejected by 653 votes to 158. The second, supported by MM. Labland and Flocon, was also rejected. That by popular suffrage was supported by MM. de Tocqueville and Lamartine, and was carried by 637 votes to 130.

Gen. Cavaignac, and most of the administration, having voted in fa-

your of giving the election to the national assembly, seemed to lessen his chance of obtaining the votes of those whom he was thus unwilling to trust.

The constitution further provided on this subject, if no candidate obtained at least two millions of votes, and one-half of the whole number given, or if the conditions of age or nationality were not fulfilled, the national assembly should elect a president out of the five highest on the list. These conditions are, that the president must be thirty years of age, have been born a Frenchman, and never have lost his national character. He serves four years, as the original draft of the constitution had provided, and is ineligible till after an interval of four years. His salary was fixed at 600,000*f.*, though lower sums were proposed.

In the original draft of the constitution, the votes of the people were required to be given at the chief town of each canton, instead of each commune; and as many were thus prevented from giving their votes on account of the distance, it was proposed that the votes should be taken in each commune; but the motion, after some discussion, was lost: (the number of communes in France is 36,000.) In the revision of the constitution, this clause was so modified that it is discretionary with the local authorities to divide each canton into electoral districts, not exceeding four.

That clause of the constitution which prohibits substitutes in military service, was first adopted; but the provision having given rise to much complaint and remonstrance, the question was reconsidered, when M. Thiers showed, with much ingenuity, that it was more consonant with the principles of equality and republicanism to allow the citizens to make contracts of substitution for their mutual convenience, than to interdict them, and the clause was reconsidered by the decisive majority of six. Here, too, the ministers were in the minority. The clause relative to the legion of honour was retained.

In the final revision which the constitution underwent, the communists, though so often defeated, again moved to insert in the declaration of rights, that of labour; but it only obtained 86 votes out of 714. A system of agricultural instruction, by a number of pattern farms, was authorized at the instance of the agricultural committee, and 200,000,000*f.* was appropriated for that purpose.

On the 10th October, the same committee, by way of affording relief to the landed proprietors, proposed to issue two milliards *fr.* (2,000,000,000,) of paper on landed security. The scheme was opposed by MM. Faucher, Thiers, and Goudchaux, in speeches which clearly pointed out the mischief of such a measure. The scheme was rejected by a large majority.

It appeared in the discussion, that the rental of France is two milliards (two hundred millions) of francs, about four hundred millions of dollars, which M. Thiers supposes makes the gross value of the landed property to be seventy-two milliards francs. The mortgages and actual incumbrances on it he estimates at four and a half milliards, and

the metallic circulation at two milliards, so that the proposed emission of paper would have doubled the currency.

It further appeared from the statement of the minister of finance, that of credits obtained from the bank, but seventy-five millions had been used at that date, (Oct. 10th;) that the average daily expenses of the government, since the revolution, have exceeded the daily average receipts one million, and that the money and credits then possessed by the treasury, amounted to four hundred and twenty-eight millions; which, at the same rate of expenditure, would be sufficient until February 28, 1850. The expenses of the year 1848, he estimated at six hundred and forty-six millions of francs, equivalent to one hundred and twenty-two millions of dollars.

The most important acts of the national assembly, in the way of ordinary legislation, may now be noticed.

Provision was made for the indemnity of the slave-holders in the colonies. There were two partial attempts at insurrection in Martinique, and some lives were lost; but order was at length restored. The three members which that island was allowed to send to the national assembly, were elected in August. They were MM. Schœlcher, Bisette, and Pory-Papy. The last two were people of colour, and the first has been denominated the Wilberforce of France. The whites complained of fraud and irregularities in the election, and M. Bisette has since resigned.

In Cayenne, the slaves quietly awaited the day of their emancipation, which was the 10th of August. The colony had previously elected two deputies. A like tranquillity seems to have prevailed in Gaudaloupe.

In the Isle of Bourbon, or Reunion, the republic was proclaimed on the 9th of June, and the decree of liberation having arrived on the 20th July, a colonial assembly of ninety members was formed, and the 31st of December was appointed for the emancipation of the slaves.

The Republic was proclaimed at Tahiti, (Otaheite,) on the 20th of June. The sanguine hopes entertained concerning Algeria, seem not to have abated under the new government. The national assembly voted 50,000,000 francs to aid new settlers in that colony, but only 5,000,000 of the sum to be expended in the present year.

The clubs, which had proved such formidable political machines were, after the insurrection in June, subjected to regulations. Among other restrictions, they were required to be open to the admission of all, and one third of their seats to be reserved for strangers. They were forbidden to discuss propositions that had been declared criminal, and the members were to attend without arms.

Periodicals published more than twice a week, were required to give security to the amount of 24,000fr. Those published less frequently in a smaller sum; but this restriction is to be abrogated on the first of May, 1849. The favourite public amusement of the Parisians, was thought to afford a good claim on the treasury, straitened as were

its means, and the sum of 1,300,000 francs was voted as an aid to the theatres.

In the foreign relations of France, the government was studiously pacific; though there was a party, not inconsiderable in numbers, vehemently for war; not merely from sympathy with the nations that were struggling for independence, as Italy, or for greater civil liberty, as Prussia and Austria, but because, it would strengthen the cause of revolution at home. It was known that General Cavaignac, and the provisional government, had united with England, in an intervention between Prussia and Denmark, in their dispute about the duchies, and also between Austria and Italy; but though strongly urged to grant efficient aid to Italy, General Cavaignac could not be brought to do more than to use equivocal language on the subject, and to keep himself uncommitted as to his final course; and subsequently, when the King of Sardinia sent deputies to France, after the insurrection at Vienna in October, they were advised against the renewal of hostilities.

In the latter end of October, another change in the minister of finance but too plainly indicated the difficulties of the treasury department. M. Goudchaux, at once pained by those difficulties and worried by the attacks of members in the opposition, which he was not skilful at parrying, resigned, and M. Trouvel Chausel was appointed to succeed him.

On the fourth of November, the new constitution, consisting of 116 articles, was completed, and the vote in favour of its adoption was 739 against 30. It was received with no signs of popular enthusiasm, and it had excited so little interest, that the first guns fired from the Invalides in honour of the occasion produced among the Parisians the alarm of a new insurrection. It was however promulgated with great pomp and solemnity, in the Place de la Concorde, on Sunday the 12th, and in the departments on the Sunday following.

But all other subjects ceased now to excite interest compared with the approaching presidential election, which, after some ineffectual efforts to postpone, was appointed to take place on the tenth of December, and became the most engrossing topic in France.

Of the various individuals named for that high office, the most conspicuous were Prince Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, General Cavaignac, General Changarnier, M. Raspail, Ledru Rollin, and M. Lamartine. The latter had publicly declared, in language not widely different from that used by Mr. Lowndes, of South Carolina, on a similar occasion, that he neither solicited the office nor should feel himself at liberty to refuse it.

In the national assembly, besides those members who were friendly to the Bourbon, or Napoleon dynasties, there were clearly three distinct parties—1. Those who favoured the doctrines of communism. 2. Those who would resort to violence and proscription, to carry out their ultra schemes of republicanism; and 3, Those who not being op-

posed to extremes, aimed to give their more moderate notions of a republic a fair trial.

The most active exertions were made by the friends of the respective candidates, especially by those of General Cavaignac, who were believed to comprehend a large majority of the national assembly; but the popular feeling was so decidedly favourable to the nephew of Napoleon, that the public journals, with few exceptions, confidently predicted his election.

It was generally believed, out of France, that the cause of civil liberty and republicanism would be entirely safe with either General Cavaignac or Lamartine, so far as depends upon purity and uprightness of intention. But both of them, in discharging offices of great power and responsibility, under very embarrassing circumstances, and surrounded by enemies and rivals, had lost much of their first popularity.

The decline of General Cavaignac's popularity merits special notice. If the possession of power is sure to bring flatterers and friends, it is equally sure to make enemies of those who do not share its favour, of those whom it punishes, and those who hate it from sheer envy. Besides, surrounded as General Cavaignac was by rivals or their agents, who lost no occasion in lessening him in the popular estimation, it was morally impossible that he could retain the high place he had first held in the public esteem. But the cause of these rivals was greatly aided by certain acts of his administration.

In the first place, by suspending such journals as he deemed seditious or dangerous, he excited the resentment or the sympathy of a body, who, of all others, were most able to injure him with the people. On the 24th of August, about sixty of them had a meeting in Paris, and, after protesting in very strong terms against the arbitrary acts of the executive power against the press, they appointed deputies to present their address to General Cavaignac. This was done on the 27th. The General somewhat surprised them by the frankness of his reply, which was to this effect:

“Your demand,” he said, “does you honour. It is your duty to protest, as it is mine to suspend you. I will do the same with ‘The Constitutional,’ if it continues its attacks on the republic, in behalf of monarchy. I act *officially* in thus notifying its editors that if they continue their attacks for the benefit of a dynasty I have had the honour of serving, but which I no longer support, because France no longer supports it, I will suspend *the Constitutional* with as little hesitation as I have suspended *the Lamp*. The republic is yet in its swaddling clothes; it is too weak to withstand the journalists of the opposition: when it has its growth, you may make what attacks on it you please.”

This answer was not satisfactory, and one or more similar meetings were held afterwards.

General Cavaignac also suffered greatly from the discussion in the

national assembly, on the 30th September; which is memorable, also, for the disorder produced among the members.

There had been several banquets on the 22d September, at which great disaffection for the existing republic, and a decided preference for that of 1793 had been manifested. These having altogether escaped the animadversion of the government, on the 30th September, M. Denjoy brought the subject to the notice of the national assembly. At Bourges, he said, a representative of the people had demanded that the real equality which makes an equal share of the goods and evils of life, should become our law. He entered into details of the banquet at Toulouse, where the toasts of the national assembly and General Cavaignac were hissed, while in the street cries were heard of "Down with the national assembly! Vive Marat—Vive Robespierre—Vive la guillotine!" He also adverted to a speech made by Ledru Rollin at the banquet of the Châlet at Paris, in favour of assignats, and he asked if it was by bankruptcy and the guillotine that they expected to make friends for the republic. This produced a burst of indignation from the Mountain party, many of whom ran to the tribune as if to attack M. Denjoy, who was immediately surrounded by his friends and the officers of the assembly. In the uproar and confusion which ensued, the President put on his hat, and it was some ten or fifteen minutes before order was restored. The intrepid orator kept his place, and after the tumult had subsided, he asked the ministers what they had done, and what they intended to do? M. Senard, the minister of the interior, said he had not been informed of the real character of the banquet at Toulouse, and he doubted the correctness of the reports: but General Lamoriciere, with characteristic and soldierly frankness, admitted that he was informed of that banquet, and had written to the military authorities at Toulouse, not to partake of it; but that he had not found time to confer with the minister of the interior on the subject. This affair greatly injured M. Senard, and, in some degree, General Cavaignac, in the public estimation.

Six days afterwards, the ministers made a false step, in voting against the election of a president by the people.

On the 11th October, M. Durriens, the editor of a journal, from the tribune made some inquiries of the ministers concerning the indefinite suspension of certain journals. He was seconded by two members. The minister of justice replied, that the course of the Executive had been sanctioned by the assembly, and that they should persist in it as long as the city remained in a state of siege. M. Senard then calling for the previous question, it was carried by a majority of only five votes; so as to show, that deducting their own nine votes, the administration was in a minority.

General Cavaignac's prospect of success was also clouded by a development made just before the election, of the names of the persons recommended for pensions in the projet of a law presented by the

president of the council, on the 19th of September. The list of names which the minister of the interior was required to produce, embraced some flagrant violators of the law—even assassins and galley convicts. It appeared that General Cavaignac did not, in fact, know what names were on the list, and was exonerated by the assembly from all blame; yet the explanation came too late to reach all parts of the country before the day of the election. With the loss of popularity on the part of General Cavaignac, the chances of his most favoured rival, Prince Louis, were greatly increased. Of the requisite qualifications of the latter, but little was known. His principal support was expected from those classes with whom the *prestige* of his name and family would have weight. He would also combine in his favour all those, who favoured the old régime, but who having no present hope of putting at the head of the nation a Bourbon prince, in their hostility to republicanism, preferred the elevation of the descendant and heir of an emperor.

The success of Louis Napoleon was greater than was expected. He received nearly four-fifths of all the votes polled.

The results of the election of the 10th of December, were as follows :

Number of votes in the 86 departments, not including Algeria,	7,449,471
Number of votes expressed,	7,426,252
Majority of votes expressed,	3,713,126
<hr/>	
Votes for Louis Napoleon Bonaparte,	5,534,520
“ Eugene Cavaignac,	1,448,302
“ Ledru Rollin,	381,431
“ Raspail,	36,964
“ Lamartine,	17,914
“ Changarnier,	4,687
Divers votes,	2,434
	<hr/>
	7,426,252
Unconstitutional votes,	23,219
	<hr/>
Total as above,	7,449,471

Universal suffrage was deemed a bold experiment for such a country as France, but the election passed without any disturbance of the public tranquillity; and on the 20th December, the ceremony of the proclamation took place in the national assembly. M. Marrast, the President of that body, in a loud voice declared Louis Napoleon Bonaparte President of the French Republic from that day to the second Sunday in May, 1852. After he had taken the oath required by the constitution, the new President in a firm voice read the following address:—

“Citizens—Republicans—The suffrages of the nation, and the oath I have just taken, trace out to me my future conduct. I shall follow it as a man of honour. I shall regard as the enemies of our country all those who shall attempt to change by illegal means what all France has established. Between you and me, citizen representatives, there cannot be any real difference of opinion: our wishes and desires are the same.

“I wish, like you, to place society on a true basis, to strengthen democratic institutions, and to alleviate the miseries of that generous and intelligent people which has just given me such striking proofs of its confidence. The majority I have obtained not only penetrates me with gratitude, but will give to the new government that moral force without which there is no authority.

“With peace and order, our country can again improve, can cure its wounds, and bring back the men that have been misled, and calm down every passion. Animated by a sincere spirit of conciliation, I have called around me capable and patriotic men, who, in spite of the diversity of their political origin, are ready to devote themselves with you to the application, the improvement of the laws, and the glory of the republic.

“As a republican government coming into power, we owe a debt of thanks to its predecessors, where the deposit of its authority is handed over to it intact; and, in particular, I owe it to Gen. Cavaignac to say, that his conduct has been worthy of the generosity of his character, and that sentiment of duty which is the first quality of a statesman. (Hear! hear!)

“We have, citizen representatives, a grand mission to fulfil. We have to found a republic in which the interests of all shall be guarded by a just and firm government, which shall be animated by a sincere desire to progress without being either reactionary or utopian. Let us be the men of the country, not the men of a party, and with the aid of God, we will at least do good, if we cannot achieve great things.”

At the head of the ministry chosen by President Bonaparte, was placed M. Odillon Barrot; who, on the 26th December, ascended the tribune in the national assembly, and said that the new cabinet perfectly concurred in the declaration of principles made by the President of the republic, and that he came forward to repeat the same engagements in the presence of France and of Europe. The country, he said, wished for material and moral order; for order in the streets, as well as in the administration of the government. In strongly constituting the national force, the government had given the best guarantee of its determination to maintain order. Security was the first want of all. It was indispensable that calmness and confidence in the future be restored, as otherwise, manufactures and trade would not revive. The cabinet would exert itself to introduce the severest economy in the public expenditure, and to impart a salutary impulse to public works. He

would not enter upon any *expose* of the foreign affairs of France. Negotiations were pending which imposed great reserve on the government. All he could say was, that the cabinet would not rashly engage the word of France, and that it would exert itself to preserve peace as the interest of France and Europe. He pledged the efforts of himself and his colleagues to consolidate the republic, and promote the development of the political education of the country.

Gen. Changarnier was appointed commander-in-chief of the national guards; Gen. Bugeaud to the command of the army of the Alps, and the prince of Montfort, (Jerome Bonaparte,) Governor of the Invalides.

On the 24th, the new President made his first appearance at a grand review of the troops. He was received with enthusiastic cheering by the national guards and the people generally. The cries were principally, "Vive Napoleon!" "Vive Louis Napoleon!" His own bearing on the occasion is said to have been "graceful, engaging, and dignified."

Many approve or disapprove of the election of Louis Napoleon for no better reason than that they approve or disapprove of every thing done in France; but others looking to it only as an index of public sentiment in France, think it affords conclusive evidence that republicanism is not in high estimation in that country, since it has elected as its chief magistrate one, whose great recommendation was his relationship to a former emperor, and has thus shown its favour to that principle of hereditary sovereignty, which is most fundamental in monarchies, and most repugnant to popular government; while others, again, find in the fact that the imperial conqueror, to whose memory homage is thus paid, sprung from the body of the people, the extinction of the principle of legitimacy, and, therefore, in the elevation of his nephew and appointed heir, they see the vindication of popular rights.

When it is recollected that M. Lamartine, who was the lowest on the list, would have once stood the highest; that a few months later, General Cavaignac, now so far behind, would have been the popular favourite, it leads us to inquire whether this tide of unbought popularity is likely to last, and whether the wheel of fortune, which has whirled so rapidly with others, will stand still with Napoleon. His character as a ruler is to be developed, and it remains to be seen how far he is competent to guide the helm of state of a people so impulsive, and placed in circumstances, both at home and abroad, so likely to agitate them: and whether, after the example of his far-famed relative, he will use his great popularity to convert the present government into one of more pomp and energy, or whether, abiding by the promise made at his installation into office, he will maintain the ascendancy of the republic; and lastly, whether his administration will be able to raise the requisite revenue without calling forth discontents dangerous to the public tranquillity, and perhaps fatal to his power, or will seek to prevent them by engaging in war.

These are questions which time will solve; for the present, however, his popularity has experienced no decline, and he is firm in his government.

GREAT BRITAIN.

In June, the subject of the repeal of the navigation laws was discussed in the British parliament. The advocates for the repeal maintained in the House of Commons, that all the arguments in favour of free-trade in corn applied to free-trade in shipping; and that if the nation had been benefited by removing the restrictions on the importation of foreign corn, it would be similarly benefited by removing the restrictions on transportation in foreign ships. That the English ship-owner and sailor are better able than the English agriculturist to meet foreign competition, because they are not, like the last, subject to peculiar taxes, as poor rates, highway rates, and church rates. That ships can be built as cheaply as elsewhere, if regard be had to their quality. It was admitted in the discussion, that American shipwrights were superior to the English, and that American captains and their crews also had some superiority: the former, because they commonly had an interest in the cargo, and consequently in the shortness of the voyage; the latter, because more sober and better educated. It was, however, insisted that the English sailor had natural advantages superior to the sailor of any other country.

It was further urged, that English ships had no protection in the export trade, which was extensive and flourishing; why, then, it was asked, should they have protection in the import trade?

The opponents of the repeal relied on the past benefits of the navigation laws, as was shown by the steady increase and vast amount of British shipping; on the greater cost of English ships, from the workmanship being higher than in most countries, and the timber being higher than in any, and from the rapid increase of American shipping, notwithstanding the preference given to English ships by the navigation laws; all of which arguments were elaborately supported by statistics. On the question of going into committee on the subject, the ministry prevailed by a vote of 294 against 177. The subject was, however, subsequently postponed to the next session. It seems probable that in ship-building the respective advantages of Great Britain and the United States are nearly equal. Timber, masts, and spars, tar, pitch, and turpentine, are much cheaper in the United States. Iron, copper sheathing, carpenter's work, and sails are cheaper in Great Britain. But in navigation the United States have the advantage—their ships are generally better constructed for speed—they crowd more sail, and, though wages are somewhat higher, they navigate with fewer men: provisions are also much lower. The difference, however, is not so great but that the shipping of both nations will continue to increase with the increase of population and wealth.

Ireland continues to afford a subject of undiminished anxiety to the British statesman; for, although all attempts at rebellion are effectually put down, yet the deep-rooted discontent of its people still continues ready to break out whenever a favourable occasion is presented. The sufferings of the peasantry, too, in three-fourths of the island, from scarcity, though far less than they lately were, are still very great, and neither humanity nor policy permit the administration to look on them with indifference. Yet as the immediate cause of the distress in Ireland is in her over-crowded population, it is not seen that the evil admits of any speedy remedy, or how the government can greatly meliorate her condition. In the mean time, its power has been chiefly exercised in its harsher attributes of restraint and punishment. Besides acts of parliament for the suspension of the habeas corpus, and to confine all suspected persons until March, 1849, a force of from 40,000 to 45,000 men were sent over to suppress insurrection the moment it should break out, and prosecutions were commenced against the most conspicuous and efficient leaders of the malcontents. Some of these being men of family, fortune, and great private respectability, their conviction, which has always followed prosecutions, powerfully appealed to the feelings of the Irish, and met with no little sympathy both in foreign countries and other parts of the British dominions. Among these, Mr. Smith O'Brien has been the most distinguished. He was on the 9th October sentenced to undergo the punishment which a barbarous age had affixed to treason, but which the administration wisely commuted for transportation. He would deserve a statue of gold who would devise a plan of securing an average of national comfort permanently to the Irish people; but so long as between eight and nine millions are crowded on a territory of no greater extent than the state of Maine or South Carolina, and who, for the most part, are wanting in capital, skill, and industry, it would seem that such a result must be the slow work of time, even if they were left to the sole management of their own affairs.

It appeared by the budget of the minister that the deficit of the year was about £2,000,000. After some hesitation on the part of Lord John Russell, and an apparent disposition to increase the income tax, it was decided to be the safer course to supply the deficiency by exchequer bills, and of course by an addition to the public debt. Probably but for the revolution in France, and its consequences, certain and uncertain, which caused the conservative party to support the whig ministry, a change of administration would have been the result of this financial difficulty in a time of peace.

The session was protracted to the 5th of September, when it was prorogued by the Queen, who embarked the same day with Prince Albert in a steamer for Scotland. Parliament, thus prorogued, was not to meet till January.

The relief granted to the West Indies gave satisfaction neither at home nor in the colonies. In the latter it was considered to be alto-

gether inadequate, and in the former to have conceded too much. In Jamaica, which has commonly taken the lead in complaining of colonial grievances, the language of discontent has been unusually bold, and the difficulties and losses of the planters have been very great. It is still obstinately maintained in England that free labour is, under all circumstances, cheaper than slave labour, and that it has not yet had a fair trial in the West Indies, though every experiment as yet made in the English islands seems to show that the sugar-making business in the torrid zone is an exception to the general rule.

Symptoms of discontent have also manifested themselves in Canada and other British possessions in North America; nor are they likely to abate unless there is a repeal of the navigation laws, or at least some partial relaxation of them in the timber trade.

Rebellion to British authority has again shown itself in that part of northern India known as the Punjaub country. In the month of June, Moolraj, a chief of that country, attempted to surprise and overpower a small British force under the command of Lieutenant Edwardes, but was gallantly repulsed. A second battle was fought with the like result. Moolraj took refuge in the city of Moultan, to which the British, after they were re-enforced, laid siege. Moolraj made efforts to seduce the Sepoys in the British service, but without success. He seems, however, to have defended his capital with valour and talent. It was attacked by the British with a force of 26,000 men, and though it was defended by only from 7,000 to 12,000, the British were compelled to retire. The whole of the Punjaub country, containing about four millions of people, is said to be opposed to English dominion, but, according to past experience, that fact would but the more certainly provoke and afford a justification for its complete subjugation, and, accordingly, the British government has since decided that it would be expedient to annex the whole of the Punjaub, estimated at about 60,000 square miles, and containing 4,000,000 of inhabitants, to the British dominions. Notwithstanding some partial successes of the insurgents, the large force brought into the field against them by Lord Gough, and said to be 80,000 men, seems to leave scarce a doubt of that result.

GERMANY.

The seed sown by the late French revolution seems likely to produce as abundant a harvest of good or evil in Germany, as in France itself. The republican spirit, formerly confined to her students and a few speculative minds, after the events of February 1848, rapidly increased, and was extensively diffused among the people.

The most prominent event in that part of Europe, since our last number, was the outbreak in Vienna, happening on the 5th and 6th of October, and which threatened to put an end to the Austrian monarchy.

The civil dissensions in the Austrian dominions are very complicated, not merely from the different nations of which the empire is composed, but also from the different races which are sometimes found in the same portion of the imperial domain. Their mutual jealousies and animosities have so mingled in their political contests, that the latter cannot be well understood without some historical notice of these diversities.

Hungary, which has been so conspicuous in the recent history of Austria, contains with its associate or dependent states, eleven or twelve millions of inhabitants. It has always claimed to be an independent kingdom; the emperor is there called king of Hungary, and it has its own legislative council or diet. Of the distinct races found there, the Magyars, so called from the oriental or Turkish name of their ancestors who conquered the country in the ninth century, claim supremacy, though they constitute but one-third of the population. They are exclusively the landholders in Hungary, and have many special privileges; which circumstances, making of the other races an inferior caste, have not only prevented an amalgamation, but kept the races in a state of perpetual hostility. Another circumstance has contributed to strengthen the national feelings of the Magyars. Joseph II., among his other schemes of reform, endeavoured to identify the Hungarians with the Germans, and the enthusiastic opposition thus excited among the Magyars laid the foundation for that sentiment of nationality which is known by the name of *Magyarism*. This sentiment, which is often in conflict with Austria's supremacy, is no less opposed to the equal rights of the Slavonian races. Their principal landholders live in great pomp, often maintaining large bands of armed retainers; and they regard even the nobility of the other provinces as inferior to the humblest Magyar. They alone have the right of voting in their county diets; and the poorest of them becoming farmers to the more wealthy, the latter are thereby able to control their votes. With the personal pride thus engendered, these county diets being deliberative assemblies, have been a school for orators and politicians. If in the cities this feudal haughtiness disappears, the taste for politics and talent for public speaking are no less conspicuous there, and makes the Magyars members of clubs, and active in all political meetings. Their ancient privileges and franchises, which have been abridged under Austrian rule, have been the subject of continual claim from the emperor, and about twenty years since they succeeded in substituting their own language for the latin, which had been previously used in all solemn acts and public proceedings. Not content with this success, they insisted that the Magyar language should be similarly used throughout all Hungary. The Croats, the Slavonians, and Transylvanians vehemently resisted this attempt, maintaining that they too had a language of their own, and pleading the example of the objection made by the Magyars to the latin, they universally cried "*nolumus Magyarari*." Bohemia, whose

population is three-fourths Slavonian, sympathized with their brethren in Hungary, and the reaction thus produced, evoked and strengthened the antagonist nationality of *panslavism*, which comprehended ten times the numbers of Magyarism. These feuds between the Magyar and Slavonian races, were systematically fomented by the tortuous policy of the Austrian cabinet.

It is said that from policy or liberality still further concessions were about to be made to the Magyars by the Austrian government, when the revolution broke out in Vienna in March. This was a signal for the Magyars to enforce and enlarge their claims. But if it was thought a favourable occasion for them to press their demands on Austria, it was deemed equally favourable to the Slavonians for resisting the oppression or injustice of the Magyars. They insisted upon equal representation according to numbers—upon a separate ministry for Hungary, and for the removal of the diet from Presburg to Pesth, and upon equal civil rights with the Magyars. The emperor, in no condition after March to refuse popular demands, granted them all they asked; and it is due to the Magyars to say that the diet of Pesth, in the assertion of their political rights against Austria, admitted that all the inhabitants of Hungary, of whatever race, had equal claims with themselves: but notwithstanding this admission, they still contended for the general adoption of their language. The little that was thus refused outweighed the much that was surrendered, particularly when joined to the recollection of past wrongs. The Croats and other Slavonians, encouraged by the central government, were more violent in their opposition than ever, until the dispute broke out into open war. In an address by the Croats to the emperor, in defence of their course, they declared that they preferred the Russian knout to Magyar insolence; and they reminded the emperor that though their country is but a 35th part of the Austrian empire in extent, it furnished one-third of the infantry of his army. The ban or governor of Croatia, baron Jellachich, at the head of one of the most warlike people in the Austrian dominions, stepped forth as the champion of the Slavonian cause, and declared that he would never lay down his arms until he had obtained for it ample justice.

The Magyars, or rather the diet at Pesth, having no troops embodied, and unable to contend against the regular forces under Jellachich, who also had the sympathy and favour of all the Slavonian race, found it prudent to temporize. They determined to send a deputation to the emperor; and to secure it a welcome, voted by acclamation 200,000 men, and 100,000,000 of florins, (about \$50,000,000,) for the double purpose of terminating the war with the Croatians, and of assisting the Austrians in Italy. They also ordered an issue of paper money of 2,000,000 florins. The deputation consisted of 160 members. They insisted that Hungary is a free and independent kingdom. They made professions of loyalty, and invited the emperor to make Pesth his residence.

In the negotiations which took place about this time between the Austrian cabinet and the Hungarian diet, each party accused the other of double dealing and bad faith, and the charges of both appeared to be but too well founded.

Notwithstanding their professions of amity, other measures showed that the Hungarians looked to independence. They sent agents to the national assembly at Frankfort, to negotiate for assistance. They represented to the latter that the Austrian army composed mostly of Slavonians, could not be regarded as German or as consistent with German safety, and that Germany had the same interests as Hungary in a separation of the different states of the empire.

The Austrian cabinet, as we shall see hereafter, was not inferior to the diet in acts of diplomacy. The emperor declined the invitation to Pesth on the score of health, and gave evasive answers to the other applications; except that he positively refused to sanction the proposed issue of paper money. The diet, indignant, threw off the mask, asserted complete independence, and made the refusal of their assignats punishable with death. The leader of the patriotic party in the diet was Kossuth, a lawyer of great talent and force of character, who had been for many years an obscure country attorney, and had been active in preparing and enlightening the public mind, as the editor of an humble journal, for which he had suffered imprisonment.

In September, Jellachich entered Hungary with a large force, and published a proclamation in which he stated his purpose to be to defend the rights of the emperor, and to quell the rebellious spirit manifested in Pesth. The diet then tried a second deputation, which was on the 17th September, sent to the assembly at Frankfort, with instructions to denounce the central government, and to demand assistance against the Croats. The assembly refused to receive them. On learning this, the diet gave unlimited powers to Kossuth, who associated seven other persons with him in the duties of the government, but their acts continued to be, as before, in the name of the king, and they set about making preparations for defence. The Archduke Stephen, having resigned his office of Palatine of Hungary, the emperor appointed Count Mailath in his place, and sent Count Lamberg commissioner extraordinary to Hungary, and gave him command of the whole Austrian force there. He reached Pesth on the 29th September, and the Hungarian party decided on his arrest that evening, as well as on resisting the emperor's orders. The count, unaware of his danger or rashly braving it, while passing in a carriage without guards or attendants, was seized by some peasants armed with scythes and hay forks, and savagely murdered. Having taken off his clothes, they fastened a rope to the naked body, and dragged it through the streets. It appeared that the Austrian government, pursuing its wonted policy of playing off the Slavonians against the Magyars, had ordered or encouraged the march of Jellachich into Hungary, under the expectation that the

diet at Pesth would appeal to the emperor for his interposition or assistance, and that he might thus obtain from them a surrender of their recent claims, and also of his former concessions, without violating his oath. Count Lamberg, the instrument for carrying out this crooked scheme, thus became its first victim.

An imperial edict was forthwith issued at Schoenbrun, dissolving the diet of Pesth, appointing Jellachich to the command of the Austrian forces, enjoining the severest punishment on Count Lamberg's murderers, and proclaiming martial law in Hungary.

The diet responded by declaring itself a national assembly under the dictatorship of Kossuth. It appointed a committee of public safety. The whole country took up arms.

Jellachich, now likely to encounter a more formidable resistance than he expected, arrested his march, and while he hesitated whether he should persevere in his attack on Pesth, or form a junction with the Austrian troops on the upper Danube, the intelligence from Vienna decided him to hasten to the metropolis.

The insurrection at Vienna on the 6th of October, which for some weeks absorbed the attention of all Europe, arose from the order to two battalions of grenadiers, suspected of disaffection, to march to Hungary, and a part refusing to obey. They were ordered to be escorted by a regiment of cuirassiers. In approaching the bridges on the Danube, they were met by armed peasants, who fraternized with them and broke down the bridges.

The national guards joined the disaffected troops, and an engagement took place between them, supported by the people and a battalion of fusileers, together with some troops from Prague. In the afternoon, the office of the minister of war, Count Latour, was attacked; he was seized and hung at the lamp-post. It was supposed that there were 150 killed, and 500 or 600 wounded in the insurrection. It is said that among the papers of the minister of war, was found the correspondence with Jellachich, concerning Count Lamberg's mission, which confirms the suspicion of the intrigue that has been mentioned, and to which, consequently, Count Latour must be regarded as the second victim.

The Emperor, who is known to be nervously timid, as well as mentally imbecile, fled to Innsbruck, and a message was despatched to him by the provisional government in Vienna, demanding a popular minister, and the revocation of the order appointing Jellachich to the command of the troops in Hungary. They then made preparations for the attack they were certain to encounter from the troops still faithful to the Emperor.

The Bohemians have always sided with the Slavonians in these contests of race, from a recollection of their common origin; and their deputies at the diet of Vienna after the insurrection withdrew to Prague, where they formed a distinct diet, and protested against the proceedings at Vienna.

Prince Windischgratz lost no time in marching to Vienna with the troops under his command, and he was there joined by Jellachich, whose united force was said to amount to 80,000 or 100,000 men, and which Vienna, without assistance, could not long resist. The Hungarian diet, on the 12th, sent an address to the diet of Vienna, expressive of their liveliest sympathy and gratitude, and their determination to make common cause with them, as well as to adjust their respective interests to their satisfaction. They further declared Jellachich a traitor, and requested the diet of Vienna to do the same, adding that if they should pursue him into the Austrian territory, the soil of Austria should be sacred, and the rights of the Austrians scrupulously respected.

A force was despatched from Hungary, and it is said to have encountered on its march a detachment of Jellachich's army, and to have obtained a decisive victory over it, but the particulars are not fully known, and there is reason to believe the success to have been greatly exaggerated.

In the mean while, the aid so anxiously looked for from Hungary not having arrived, and the danger which threatened Vienna becoming more imminent every day, negotiations were opened between the parties, and the Viennese offered to admit Windischgratz and his troops into the city on certain conditions; but he refused to enter unless all the disaffected were disarmed, and the Count Latour's assassins, whom he named, were surrendered to him. If these terms were refused, a bombardment was threatened, which was accordingly commenced on the 28th of October, and on the 31st the city surrendered.

On the 1st of November, Prince Windischgratz issued a proclamation, by which Vienna and its environs were declared to be in a state of siege in consequence of the breach of the terms of capitulation.

The victors exhibited little clemency or moderation in their success, and military executions soon followed the surrender of Vienna. Among the victims were several students, the general who commanded the insurgent forces in Vienna, and Robert Blum, who was a deputy from Saxony in the German parliament at Frankfort, and who having been elected an honorary member of the academical legion at Vienna, had been induced to come to Vienna to aid the republican party by his counsels. The severity of these punishments producing great sensation throughout Germany, have contributed to widen the separation between the opposition, and the execution of Blum was regarded as an indignity to the parliament of which he was a member.

The imperial authority being completely re-established at Vienna, the whole force of the government was concentrated on Hungary, which, however brave and determined, is not likely to make effectual resistance.

On the 2d of December, it was unexpectedly announced by a proclamation from the emperor of Austria at Olmutz, that he had abdicated in favour of his nephew, Francis Joseph, the son of his brother,

Francis Charles, who is still living, and who also resigns all claims to the Austrian crown in favour of his son.

The reason assigned by the emperor for this step is his conviction that "more youthful powers" are required for that comprehensive reformation he had been desirous to effect.

The proclamation of the new emperor, who is said to be but nineteen years of age, and to have made a favourable impression on those who know him, breathes a very liberal spirit. "We are convinced," he says, "of the necessity and the value of free institutions, and enter with confidence on the path of a prosperous reformation of the monarchy."

After predicting that the country will rise to its ancient grandeur "on the basis of true liberty, on the basis of equal justice to all his people, on the equality of all citizens before the law, and on their equal share in legislation and representation," he avows himself "jealous of the glory of the crown," and resolved to preserve the monarchy uncurtailed, but ready to share his privilege with the representatives of the people. He adverts to the existing rebellion, and appeals to the loyalty of the people, the fidelity and bravery of the army.

The central diet or parliament at Frankfort, are still in session, and labouring to effect a federal union of the several German sovereignties. The details of the constitution they have formed, are of a liberal character, as might have been expected, not only from the known sentiments of most of its members, but also because the sovereigns there represented would concede power with the same jealous caution as individuals in the structure of a republican constitution. But the chief difficulties in their main purpose still remain, and the success of their labours can be tested only by experiment. That alone can determine whether the several sovereigns will submit to duties and burdens more or less onerous, and to restraints to which they have not been familiarized, and whether states differing so widely in numbers and power, in religion and local interests, can permanently remain united. Nor is this all. In the structure of the executive power of the confederacy, the diadem of the federal empire presents a tempting object of ambition to the individual members, and though but two of them, Austria and Prussia, have any reasonable pretensions to it, it can be given to neither without furnishing new aliment to that ancient jealousy and animosity which had long subsisted between these members of the empire, and for which the confederate government was looked to by many as a remedy. The new emperor of Austria is, apparently, not a candidate for the honour, either because he thinks, as some not doubtful symptoms seem to indicate, that a majority of the states prefer the king of Prussia, or because he sees in the confederation a diminution of his authority in his own dominions, and is therefore averse to it. The king of Prussia has always been supposed ambitious of being placed at the head of the confederacy.

Questions of right and political power are, of all others, the most fruitful of controversy, and arguments of the greatest subtlety. During the sixty years that our federal government has existed, a majority of the states, probably a large majority, have severally committed acts and passed laws, which most of their associates have thought unconstitutional: but violations which we here wisely suffer to pass unnoticed, when they are intrinsically unimportant, or which merely give rise to a question in the supreme court, might in Germany occasion bloodshed and war. It remains then to be seen whether the new confederation prove an ill-compacted mass which will soon fall into its original fragments, or will hold together until time has hardened its cement; or, whether it may not give rise to new and more embittered jealousies, which will outweigh the benefits conferred by the qualified unity of the government.

PRUSSIA.

The republican spirit was yet stronger in Prussia than in Austria, for it had been of longer standing and was more widely diffused among the people. The national assembly or diet which met at Berlin, in May, to frame a constitution, were thus employed until the beginning of November, without having completed their work. The king, who it was generally believed by the public was really disposed to make those concessions to the people which his father had repeatedly promised and had always evaded, was perplexed with difficulties on all sides. On the one hand, he found his people, whom moderate concessions would lately have satisfied, now under the contagious influence of the recent revolution in France, rising in their demands, and not a few of them fondly looking to the entire subversion of the kingly power. Supposing this party either not formidable, or encountered and subdued, he also had apprehensions from the new confederation of the German states, which would deprive him, in common with the other members of the confederation, of some sovereign attributes, and of that ascendancy in German affairs which he shared with the emperor of Austria. Besides, now that Austria seemed likely to lose part of her dominions, and to hold a more circumscribed power over the remainder, he was disposed to contest with her the honour of becoming the head of the confederation; and, lastly, he was engaged in a contest with Denmark, whose power indeed was not very great, but who was supported both by England and Russia. If he insisted on maintaining the Schleswig Holstein claims, he might be brought into open collision with those powers; and if he abandoned those claims, he might make himself unpopular in Germany, and thus defeat his aspirations at Frankfort. These conflicting considerations occasioned a hesitating and temporizing course on the part of the king, that gave more boldness to the republican party, and which on several occasions manifested itself in popular

tumults and rencounters between the citizens and the military; and occasionally, some of the latter, as in France, sided with the people.

The march of the imperial forces on Vienna, and its actual bombardment, naturally called forth the sympathies of the popular party in Berlin. They made most earnest solicitations to the constituent assembly, to interfere in behalf of the Viennese. The assembly, aware that their efforts would be unavailing, even if they could be legitimately exerted, yielded so far to the popular clamour as to vote that the national parliament at Frankfort should take measures for the protection of Vienna. This, however, not being satisfactory to the people, they continued to besiege the assembly with fresh applications, in so disorderly a way that it was found necessary to call out the burgher guard to protect the members from insult.

In the mean time, the jealousy which had for some time existed between the king and the popular party in the assembly, grew every day wider. The purpose of many of the latter to establish a republic became more manifest every day. On the 25th of October, the abolition of nobility was proposed, but it was rejected by a large majority. After the surrender of Vienna, General Pfuel, the prime minister of Prussia, resigned, and the king appointed Count Brandenburg in his place, instead of some member of the assembly, as that body wished. This appointment was vehemently opposed by the assembly; on which the king, profiting by the recent attempts of the populace to overawe the assembly, by proclamation on the 9th of November, transferred it from Berlin to Brandenburg, a town containing some 12,000 persons, thirty-five miles from Berlin. The assembly resisted the order, declared its sittings permanent, and further, voted that if the government attempted to prevent their assembling in the hall they then occupied, their president should call a meeting at some other place in the city. The burgher guard was thereupon ordered to prevent the members from passing to the hall. They openly refused to obey, alleging that it would be destructive to the liberties of the people. The troops of the line, under General Wrangel, were then called out with orders to close the assembly, and the burgher guard were ordered to deliver up their arms and to be disbanded. Berlin was declared to be in a state of siege. The burgher guard refused to surrender their arms, and but for the interposition of the respectable citizens of Berlin, these guards and the regulars might have come into open collision. But some six or seven thousand of the guards having voluntarily surrendered their arms, the rest finally consented, or were forced to yield. The triumph of the Austrian ministry over the popular party, had, without doubt, its influence on all parties during this controversy.

The assembly, prevented by the troops from meeting at its own hall, were, in accordance with it, convoked at another place. They there passed a resolution on the 15th of November, that no minister was authorized to levy taxes, until that resolution was revoked; and that

the Brandenburg ministry was not authorized to levy taxes, or disburse public money, until the national assembly could fulfil its duties in safety in Berlin. The same day an officer with an escort entered their chamber, and stated that he had orders from General Wrangel to evacuate it. After a scene of great confusion, in which all the members protested against this violation of their privileges, and some were disposed to make resistance, the president proposed an adjournment, adding that he would communicate to them the time and place of their future meeting, and they accordingly adjourned. During these agitations, General Wrangel took possession of the several rail-roads which lead to Berlin, to prevent any accessions to the popular party from the interior. He also suppressed nearly all the journals.

During these occurrences in Prussia, the confederate assembly or parliament at Frankfort, by resolutions or votes, required the imperial commissioner at Berlin to endeavour to procure the nomination of a ministry which would have the confidence of the people, and at the same time it pronounced the attempt of the Prussian assembly to prevent the collection of taxes, to be null and void. Archduke John, as regent of the empire, issued an address to the German people, in conformity with the views of the imperial assembly.

On the 27th of November, a number of the members of the assembly met at Brandenburg, but there not being enough to make a constitutional quorum, which is two-thirds of the whole number, they adjourned to the following day.

They attempted several subsequent meetings, but either because there was not a quorum, or because eighty members of the extreme left, or the ultra liberals, who at length attended, refused to join in the election of a president, they adjourned to the 7th of December; but before that day the king dissolved the assembly, and, at the same time, published the outline of a new constitution of a liberal character. By another decree, he convoked the chambers to meet in Berlin on the 26th of February, ordered the primary elections for the choice of electors, to be held on the 22d of January, and those of the second degree (the election of the members) on the fifth of February. Thus the cause of monarchy seems to have regained the same ascendancy for the present in Prussia that it has in Austria.

DENMARK.

The convention or treaty of Malmac, between this power and Prussia, which produced a suspension of hostilities between them, was as unacceptable to the German generals, as to the people of Schleswig, and the German parliament at Frankfort refused their sanction to it by a vote of 238 to 221. The claim thus asserted by the parliament, does not seem to have been admitted by Prussia, but its exercise in the present instance probably not being really unacceptable, she readily acquiesced in it. In consequence of this defect of ratification, the rela-

tions between the two countries remained in the same unsettled state. The provisional government in Schleswig, which the treaty had abrogated, continued to exercise authority. The Danish ships which had been seized, were not restored; persons imprisoned by Prussia for political offences, were not discharged, and the Danish emigrants from Schleswig, were not allowed to return. Denmark seems to have acted with good faith throughout the whole affair, but if she escapes a renewal of hostilities, it may be mainly attributed to the mediation and friendly offices of Great Britain and Russia, both of whom, however, would for different reasons be unwilling at this time to be at war with the Prussian monarchy.

Though the constitution of Denmark was absolute in theory, the power of the crown was greatly restrained by public opinion, and was generally exercised with moderation. It was, however, deemed prudent, as well as liberal in the present monarch, on his accession, to offer a free constitution to his people, and that promise, was this year carried into execution. According to the new constitution, the legislative power, which had been solely in the king, is now vested in the king and the diet; a popular assembly, chosen by the general suffrage of all persons over thirty years of age of good reputation. In default of a successor to the throne, the diet may elect a king, and establish the order of succession. The new states, in which there was a large infusion of the democratic spirit, assembled at Copenhagen on the 23d of October. The main purpose of their meeting was to consider the provisions of the new constitution. The king, however, frankly declared to them, in his opening speech, that he should not permit the new constitution to go into operation, until it was submitted to a new diet. It would seem from this declaration, that more is demanded by the leaders of the popular party than he is willing to concede.

There was some months since an insurrection of the negroes, at the Danish island of Santa Cruz, of no very serious character. It was soon quelled; and since that time the slaves have been emancipated.

RUSSIA.

The forbearance of Russia to take an active part in the civil commotions of Europe still continues; and her colossal power has as yet been exerted rather in the way of diplomatic influence, than in that of physical force. The only way in which the last has been manifested, has been in marching troops into Moldavia in the month of July.

The principalities of Wallachia, and Moldavia, lying on the north side of the Danube, near its mouth, and containing from two to three millions of inhabitants, on an area of about 40,000 square miles, though nominally appertaining to Turkey, were by treaty in 1829, placed under the protection of Russia, and have been, in fact, ever since subjected to her control. They are each governed by a hospodar, or prince, selected from a list presented by the Boyars, but he

really owes his appointment to Russian intrigue. After the revolution in France, the contagious spirit of liberty broke out in this remote corner of Europe. A democratic constitution was adopted at Bucharest, the capital of Wallachia, and a provisional government appointed. It is however believed, that this popular effervescence was the result of an intrigue between the Russian general, and the Hospodar Bidisco, that it might afford a pretext to Russia for marching troops into the principalities. When they entered Wallachia, General Luders, the commander, issued a proclamation, in which he stated that the Emperor of Russia, in accordance with the sultan, had resolved to put a stop to the disorders in Wallachia, and to re-establish its legal government. He, therefore, when joined by the troops of the sultan, purposed a military occupation of the country until the propagandists of insurrection were put down, and the lawful authority was restored. The force under him was about 16,000 men, and 40,000 more were said to have crossed the Pruth into Moldavia.

Notwithstanding this public declaration of the concurrence of Turkey, the sultan early in September, viewing this movement of his formidable neighbour with a natural jealousy, and, to say the least, as derogatory to the dignity of the Sublime Porte, earnestly protested against it, insisted that he was able to protect his own rights, and ordered troops into the principalities, as much apparently to maintain his authority against his domineering neighbour, as against his rebellious subjects. Russia, on her part, looking to the more important occasions for her intervention, which the troubled state of Europe was likely soon to present, met the spirited course pursued by Turkey in a more pacific mood than she was likely to have done under other circumstances, and ordered her troops to withdraw from the principalities. She still, however, keeps up her warlike attitude on her western frontier, and has a large army ready to march into Europe, whenever policy shall recommend it. With that spirit of moderation which it suits the Russian cabinet now to assume, Count Nesselrode, in a circular to all the diplomatic agents of Russia, in July, asserts the pacific intentions of the emperor; and while he expresses doubts about the success of the French in their scheme of national government, he says that if, however, they should succeed, without disturbing the repose of other nations, the emperor would rejoice at it.

These professions, accompanied as they are with warlike preparations, do not hinder the nations of Europe from watching her movements with lively interest, which is increased by their utter ignorance of her schemes and purposes. But, in truth, her future movements are probably as unknown to herself as her neighbours, since, with that consummate policy which characterizes her cabinet, she will be influenced by circumstances, and either use her vast physical means to extend her conquests, or be content with an increase of her influence in diplomacy, according as one or the other course shall promise the most advantage and the surest success.

Several of the recent political events in Europe appear to be very auspicious to the further aggrandizement of Russia. The Schleswig Holstein controversy has made her intervention a protection to Denmark, and converted that nation and Sweden, to whom she has always been an object of jealousy and dread, into grateful friends. The popular struggles for civil liberty or national independence in Prussia and Austria have weakened the two powers which would, by position, be the first objects of her incursions into Europe: and lastly, the war now waged among the different races has divided those whose obvious interests lay in a united resistance against her power, whether Magyars, Germans, or Slavonians, and has also greatly weakened, and perhaps neutralized the hostile feelings of the Poles, who, like the Russians, belong to the Slavonian family.

The only deduction to be made from these accessions to her weight and influence is to be found in the new confederation of all the German states, and which, presenting a stronger barrier to her on the west than ever before existed, may be more than an equipoise to all the favourable circumstances that have been mentioned. But this political union may be ranked, as we have seen, among the uncertain problems of the future.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

Both of these countries indicate a restless and discontented people, and an unsettled state of things. In Spain, the energy of the minister, Narvaez, has repressed popular commotions, but has not proved sufficient to prevent them. Partial insurrections have, throughout the year, appeared in different parts of the kingdom, but these disturbances in their details seem to be as little deserving of historical notice as the disputes and wars of our Indian tribes. They do, indeed, show an unsound state of the body politic, but do not afford evidence of the character of the distemper, nor, indeed, whether the disease is simple or complicated, and of course leave us ignorant of the remedy.

ITALY.

This ill-fated country has met with sad reverses of late, and its emancipation from Austrian rule is now as distant as ever. The successes which first attended the arms of Sardinia and Lombardy, under Charles Albert, surprised the world as much as it gratified the hopes and pride of the Italians. But the military character of the Austrians has at length resumed its wonted ascendancy, and the hopes of Italian independence, and yet more of Italian liberty, are for the season extinguished. The Austrian army under Radetsky, receiving large re-enforcements, while the efforts of Charles Albert gradually became feebler, had an uninterrupted tide of success until it entered the city of Milan on the 9th of August. From that moment Charles Albert lost the character both of a great captain and a patriot, and the cause of which

he had been the leader became hopeless. It was to no purpose that England and France interposed, in behalf of the independence of Lombardy. The Austrian government felt too well assured of her power, to surrender any part of her former dominions in Italy, and it suited neither France nor Great Britain to present to Austria, if she refused their intervention, the alternative of war. So far from taking that course, they made a merit of necessity, and when envoys from Sardinia, seeking to profit by the insurrection of October in Vienna, applied to those governments for aid, they both positively declined giving any promise of assistance, and Lord Palmerston stated that he had advised against the unequal struggle with Austria, and that the renewal of hostilities would lead to a war of extermination in Lombardy. He added that if Sardinia refused to confide her destinies to her friends, France and Great Britain, the latter would withdraw from the mediation.

The French government, in a gentler tone of refusal, urged that the recent events in Germany threatened to produce complicated diplomatic relations with other powers, alluding, no doubt, to the probable hostile interposition of Russia, for which France must be prepared; and that as France had decided to enforce non-intervention in Germany, she was compelled to conform to it in Italy. Thus the only hopes of Italian independence now rest on the success of the republican party in Germany, or, perhaps, the separation of Hungary from Austria.

Sicily, too, after she thought her independence was achieved, has experienced like disappointment. The king of Naples having succeeded in quelling the rebellion in Calabria, set about regaining the sovereignty of Sicily. On the 31st of August, two Neapolitan frigates, and about twenty steamers, anchored opposite Messina, but in their first attempt to land, they were repulsed by the Sicilians. They then, according to their previous practice, tried the effect of a bombardment, not on the forts, but on the city, and thus destroyed some of its best buildings. They finally effected a landing, and the inhabitants either fled to the mountains, or took refuge on board the English and French ships of war at anchor in the road. Great excesses are said to have been committed both by the invaders and the Sicilians. The resentment of the people was roused to the highest pitch, and the commanding officer at Syracuse being suspected of cowardice or treachery, was first thrown into prison, and then torn to pieces by the multitude.

The French admiral Baudin urged an armistice on the Neapolitan admiral, and being seconded by the English admiral Parker, it was signed on the 4th of September.

The offer of the sovereignty of the island was prudently declined by the king of Sardinia, and it being thought by the English and French governments that Sicily, exposed as she was to a maritime invasion, would not be able to maintain her independence, they exerted themselves to bring about a reconciliation between the Sicilians and the king

of Naples, which, it is said, will be effected, as the former have again agreed to accept Ferdinand as their sovereign, on the condition of their constituting a separate kingdom altogether independent of Naples.

The Pope, with all the disposition he has shown to ameliorate the condition of his subjects, had a difficult part to act between his desire of peace and his unwillingness to break with Austria on the one part, and the very lively sympathy of the people for Venice and Lombardy on the other, and especially as the more turbulent part of the Roman population has been more than once on the verge of insurrection and revolt.

It has for some time been evident, that while the Pope was actuated by a sincere and anxious desire to improve the condition of his people, he meant not essentially to abridge his own temporal authority, and that in this respect his schemes of reform have been somewhat misunderstood both at home and abroad. As soon as this fact became known, the popularity of his Holiness began to decline, and this result was furthered by the character of his prime minister, Count Rossi, who was understood to be unfriendly to reform, and to have decided on employing military force, if necessary to check it.

The fears and suspicions of this sensitive population were strongly excited by the sudden arrival at Rome of a body of carabineers; their review by Count Rossi, and a violent attack on the chamber of deputies in the official gazette. While the minister was on his way to the chamber, he was first hooted and insulted by the mob when he alighted from his carriage, and then mortally stabbed by an unknown hand. There was great agitation among the people during the night, and the next day a large body of people assembled in a public square, and hand-bills were circulated among them proposing five points of reform, to wit: The adoption of Italian nationality: the convocation of a constituent assembly, and the federal pact: a war of independence: the adoption of the entire programme of Mamiani, and his appointment with that of six other named persons as ministers. They proceeded in a body with these propositions to the chamber of deputies, but when there, it was then proposed to go to the Pope's palace, where they accordingly proceeded, and the chamber itself consented to communicate their requests to the Pope. Cardinal Soglia replied, that his Holiness would take the subject into consideration. But this answer not proving satisfactory, the crowd insisted that their deputation should have a personal audience with the Pope. This was granted, and the people were duly informed that the Pope would not grant applications thus made. It was by this time evident that the native troops, including the carabineers, sided with the people, and that a small body of Swiss soldiers was the only part of the public force on whose fidelity he could rely. This guard barred the gates of the palace and prepared to resist the attack of the mob. The attack was made, and some were killed on both sides, among them Signor Palma, the Pope's private

secretary, but the Swiss, finding it impossible to resist the assault of 6000 men, re-enforced by two cannon, capitulated. The people renewed their demand of the five propositions, and allowed the Pope one hour to answer it, declaring at the same time that if it was not granted, they would put to death every inhabitant of the palace except the Pope himself. The Pope yielded, and the next day Mamiani and his five associates were proclaimed as the new ministry.

The business of the government was then conducted by the ministers thus appointed, but in the name of the Pope, who remained a cypher and a prisoner in the palace of the Quirinal. On the 24th, however, he effected his escape to Gaeta in Naples, which he reached on the following night. He succeeded in eluding the vigilance of his keepers by the friendly agency of Count de Spaur, the Bavarian envoy, whose footman the Pope assumed to be, and whose livery he wore. He was immediately visited by the King and Queen of Naples, and two regiments were sent from Naples to attend him as a guard of honour.

Three days after the Pope's arrival at Gaeta, he issued a manifesto to the people of Rome, in which he states that the outrages committed against him personally had compelled him to separate himself from them for a time. He denounces in strong terms the wickedness of those who have brought about this necessity, and threatens them with the anger of Heaven. He formally protests against all their acts. He nominates commissioners to act as a temporary executive: he enjoins on his subjects the preservation of tranquillity and order; and he requires daily prayers to be offered for his safety.

The commissioners thus named lost no time in disclaiming the dangerous honour; and the manifesto was promptly answered by a proclamation from the chamber of deputies, in which they deny the Pope's constitutional power to issue such a paper; and recommend that the present ministry should continue to manage the affairs of the country; that a deputation from their body should wait on the pope, and request his return to Rome; that the upper house should be invited to join in the deputation; and that the national guards should be invited to preserve order.

AFRICA AND ASIA.

Having now noticed at some length the interesting occurrences of America and Europe, we pass to the other quarters of the world, which will not detain us long.

In Africa, Algeria remains tranquil, and, to all appearance, a permanent colony of France, under all the changes of its government. Ali Pacha, of Egypt, who was emphatically the maker of his own fortunes and celebrity, after a protracted state of disease and utter helplessness, has at length paid the debt of nature, and has been succeeded by his son, Ibrahim Pacha, who was, by late accounts, also suffering from ill health.

Liberia continues gradually to advance in numbers, prosperity, and in the estimation of mankind. Its President, Roberts, has lately visited Europe for the purpose of obtaining the recognition and favour of the leading nations there, and he seems to have been every where received with favour and distinction. Although this settlement seems less and less likely to make any important reduction of the slaves in the United States, the chief purpose for which the colonization society established it, it does bid fair to exercise an influence, perhaps a great one, on the destinies of Africa itself.

The unequal contest between the British government and the indigenous Africans near the cape of Good Hope, has been revived, but it has, probably, ere this, been terminated by Sir Harry Smith.

It is somewhat remarkable that the only instances of war of which we have any accurate knowledge at this time on these great continents, are carried on by England. These are, that in Africa, which has been just mentioned, and the war against the Sikhs in India, and their allies. Without doubt they will soon share the fate of one hundred millions of their countrymen, but their subjugation will scarcely bring more money into the treasury of India, than it will cost to keep them in subjection. The obstinate valour of these people seems to indicate that whenever the British empire in India is subverted, it will be affected by its north-western inhabitants.

In the early part of the year, there was an insurrection of Chinese labourers in Siam, against their Siamese task-masters, and the insurgents were finally overpowered, but not until there had been some hundreds of lives lost on both sides.

A collision similar to those which have of late so frequently occurred between the Chinese at Canton, and the English, took place some months since with the Americans at Canton, and which had very nearly ended in the bombardment of the city by the American squadron then before it. It is attributed by some to an undue importance attached by a Chinese mandarin to some frivolous points of etiquette, and by others to a want of discretion in the American consul.

Christianity seems to be making its way slowly but surely in that vast empire, and the intercourse between its ports and the territories of the United States on the Pacific, will be very conducive to the same great result.

NOTE.—The next number will contain a continuation of our history, commencing with the first of January, 1849.

By referring to the quarterly chronicle of the present number, the reader will find a record of the most important events that have occurred within the current quarter.

☞ There is an omission of the vote of Michigan in the table on the fifteenth page of the history, which was overlooked until the form was struck off. A correct statement of the presidential vote is inserted under the statistical head.

STATISTICS.

We commence the articles under this head with a continuation of the *Education Statistics* from our second number.

The first in order is the contribution of Hon. H. Barnard on *the Common Schools of New England*, continued from page 433, Vol. I.

COMMON SCHOOLS OF CONNECTICUT.

Prior to 1650, the education of children in Connecticut was left to parents and the magistrates of the several towns, after making some "allowance" out of the common means of the town towards paying the schoolmaster. In 1646, Mr. Ludlow was requested to compile "a body of laws," which was done, and adopted by the colony in 1650. The enactments respecting children, or domestic education schools, were literal transcripts from the Massachusetts law on the same subjects, and need not be repeated in this place.

In 1838 official information respecting the condition of the common schools was, for the first time, laid before the legislature, in the form of returns from 104 out of 211 school societies in the state. As the particular attention of the General Assembly had been called to this subject by the Governor in his annual message, a select committee on the part of the House and Senate was raised, to whom these and other documents were referred. Among these documents were complete returns respecting every school society and district in one county, and letters from school visitors, teachers and friends of common schools in 105 towns, embracing nearly all which had made no returns to the Comptroller. In addition to this documentary and written information, one member of the committee had spent one month in visiting schools, and conferring with teachers and parents in three counties previous to the meeting of the Legislature; and several gentlemen interested in the improvement of schools were invited to present their views to the committee.

With these facts before them, the committee unanimously recommended a bill for a public act "to provide for the better supervision of common schools," which was passed into a law by the unanimous vote of the Senate, and with but a single dissenting voice in the House.

This act constituted the Governor the Commissioner of the School Fund, and one person for each county in the State, a "Board of Commissioners of common Schools," and aims to secure the better supervision of schools, by bringing their condition in the form of annual reports, first before the school societies by the local visitors, and afterwards before the Legislature and the State in the communications of the Board. To make these reports subserve the progress of the system, both the State Board and the local visitors are required to submit such plans of improvement as their observation and reflection may suggest. To enable the Board to ascertain the condition of the schools, and collect the material for sound legislative action, they are authorized to call for information from the proper local school authorities, and to appoint a Secretary, who shall devote his whole time, if required, under their direction, "to ascertain the condition, increase the interest, and promote the usefulness of the common schools."

In 1839 the Board submitted their first Annual Report to the Legislature, including a report from their Secretary, [Henry Barnard,] with minute statistical information respecting more than twelve hundred schools.

The following are some of the facts in the condition of the schools and of the public mind respecting them, as ascertained by the measures of the Board—

“That out of the 67,000 children between the ages of four and sixteen returned, not more than 50,000 attended the common schools in the winter of 1838-9, or more than 54,000 of all ages, and that the average daily attendance did not exceed 42,000; that there were in the State, 12,000 children in private schools at an expense of more than \$200,000, which exceeded all that was expended on the education of the 54,000; and that 4,700 children of the proper school age were returned as in no school, public or private, and the whole number could not be less than 8000 in the State—

That previous to the act of 1838 requiring annual reports, there was but one town or school society which had made provision for a written report from school visitors, as to their doings, or the condition of the several schools;—

That it was difficult to find any one who could give information of the common schools out of his own district;—

That school meetings, both of school societies and school districts, were thinly attended;—

That school officers were appointed at meetings, where, apart from the officers of the preceding year, there was not a quorum to do business;—

That the length of the school varied with the compensation of the teacher, which was governed not so much by his qualifications, as by the amount of public money accruing to the district;—

That there was not even a formal compliance with the law requiring teachers to be examined and approved, and schools to be visited twice during each season of schooling in regard to summer schools;—

In 1841 the laws relating to common schools were revised and consolidated in one Act, drawn up by Mr. Barnard, and among the visible and immediate results, not of compulsory legislation, but of the voluntary efforts of parents, committees, and districts, acting on the information and impulse given directly and indirectly by the measures of the Board, the following were specified in the fourth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board, in May, 1842.

“The attendance at society and district school meetings is more numerous.”

More than fifty new school-houses have been built, and a much greater number repaired after approved models, and more has been done in this respect within four years, than for twenty years before.

School visitors are more strict in their examination of teachers, and regular and vigilant in visiting the schools as required by law.

A uniform set of books in all the schools of a society has been in some instances prescribed, and in others recommended, by the proper committee.

The evils of crowding children of different ages in a great variety of studies and in different stages of progress in the same study, under one teacher, have been obviated in more than one hundred districts, by employing a female teacher for the younger children and primary studies, and a male teacher for the older and more advanced scholars—and in a few instances, by the establishment of a central or union school for the older children of a society, or of two or more districts.

In 1844, Gov. Baldwin strongly called the attention of the legislature to the importance of more liberal and enlightened legislation in behalf of Common Schools, and that legislature authorized the Governor to appoint a committee to ascertain the condition of the schools, and to report plans to the next session.

In 1845, the committee on education, of which John T. Norton of Farmington was chairman, reported to the legislature a plan for the improvement of the common schools, according to which the state was to resume its supervision over the schools, the school societies were required to report to a state officer, or board, the condition of the schools every year, and a normal school for the education of teachers was to be established by the state. The plan was in

part adopted. The office of superintendence of common schools was established, but its duties were devolved on the Commissioner of the School Fund. School visitors were required to make annual reports, and were authorized to appoint "an acting school visitor," with a small compensation for the time devoted to the visitation of schools.

In 1846, Mr. James M. Buner of Hartford offered a premium of \$100 "for the best Essay on the improvement of the Common Schools of Connecticut." The premium was awarded to an Essay by the Rev. Noah Porter, Jr., now Professor in Yale College. This essay was printed, and widely disseminated over the state, in a pamphlet form, and in connexion with the Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools.

The essay, after pointing out in severe, but correct terms the condition of the schools, and rebuking the niggardly policy which had characterized the recent legislation of the state on the subject, recommends that teachers' institutes should be held throughout the state, and a normal school established for the education of teachers, that in the cities, and large villages, a graduation of schools, and especially a public high school to be established, and that the old doctrine of Connecticut, that the support of the common school is a proper charge on the property of the community, should be again revived. In the plan of operations which accompanied the essay, the formation of voluntary associations of teachers, and of the friends of school improvement; the publication of facts and suggestions by a journal or tract, &c., were recommended.

In the fall of 1846, a teacher's institute, or convention, was held in Hartford, which was attended by 256 teachers; and a school journal was started by Rev. Merrill Richardson. In 1847, the legislature made provisions for holding the teachers' institute in each county in the state.

In 1848, a bill to establish a normal state school, passed in the House of Representatives almost unanimously, and was lost in the Senate by one vote.

The outline of the school system as it now stands is briefly this:—

The state is divided into school societies, (215,) which were formerly ecclesiastical corporations created without reference to the boundaries of towns, but to the convenient attendance and support of divine worship. They are mainly subdivisions of large towns. These societies have all the powers given in the other New England States to towns in reference to schools, viz. the power of creating school districts, establishing, supporting and regulating schools, and of appointing committees and laying taxes for this purpose. Each school society is divided into (1655,) small territorial corporations called school districts, with powers to build school-houses, appoint local committees, establish schools, lay taxes, and make regulations not inconsistent with those of the school society to which they belong.

The *authorities* intrusted with the administration of the system are, 1. A *district committee* of one or three persons, chosen annually by the legal voters of each district, with other district officers, such as clerk, collector and treasurer. 2. A *school committee* of three persons in each society, who take care of all the financial business, with a clerk, collector and treasurer. 3. A Board of *school visitors or overseers*, of not more than nine persons, also elected annually in each society, who theoretically are intrusted with the entire management of the schools. This board must examine teachers; visit all the schools twice during each season of schooling; annul the certificates of teachers whom they find unqualified, and make an annual report to the school society. 4. The *commissioner of the school fund*, who is intrusted with the management and distribution of the avails of the school fund. His duties are strictly financial. This board may appoint "an acting school visitor" to perform all the duties of visitation, examination of teachers, and make an annual report. 5. A *superintendent of common schools*, whose duty it is to collect, and dissemi-

THE COMMON SCHOOLS OF PENNSYLVANIA.

(CONTRIBUTED BY PROFESSOR VOGDES.)

The constitution of Pennsylvania makes it the duty of the legislature "to provide, by law, for the establishment of schools throughout the state in such manner that the poor may be taught gratis." Many difficulties arose to prevent the adoption of such a system of schools throughout the commonwealth for many years. The Friends, in the eastern counties, had already established society schools under their own rules, and they neither wished to give them up, nor to support others; the Germans, in the interior, did not wish to give their support to any untried scheme, especially one which they thought was intended to teach the English language only, to the neglect of that which they were in the habit of speaking. The conflicting interests of the representatives of the different ranges of the state, thus long prevented the adoption of such a general system as was intended by the framers of the constitution. Nevertheless, attempts were often made to frame laws for certain districts, which were necessarily partial and temporary in their operation. Prior to 1834, the common schools, under these laws, were few, and badly managed. The laws passed for their organization into a system, and their government, were found to be so defective that they were completely changed at almost every session of the legislature. As soon as one law was published and understood, it was superseded by another so different that much of the labour bestowed upon the different provisions and exertions made under the first were found to be useless. These continual changes disheartened many of the warmest friends of the common school system, and created a strong prejudice against it in the minds of many others.

As early as 1818, the city and county of Philadelphia were created into a separate district for common school purposes, and the success which there attended the efforts of public education, finally led to the passage of a consolidated law in 1834, for the establishment of a general system of education by common schools throughout the state. By that act it was made the duty of the Secretary of the Commonwealth, who was constituted superintendent of common schools, to make an annual report to the legislature of the condition of the schools, stating also the estimates and accounts of expenditures of the money appropriated for school purposes. He was also directed to submit to the legislature such plans for the improvement of the system as he should deem expedient. These reports, making known to the teachers and directors of the schools in every part of the state the plans for the improvement of the schools under their charge, the operation of those improvements in the schools in which they had been tried, the progress of the system elsewhere, and their position in comparison to all others, added to the fact that the schools under their charge were no longer to be *pauper*, but *common* schools, had a material effect in giving form and stability to a system which has since become of vast importance to the state, of which it is one of the proudest ornaments.

The act of 1834, though incomparably superior to those which had preceded it, was not yet perfected. In the course of two years, various defects were found in it, and plans for its modification were submitted to the consideration of the legislature. Accordingly, in June, 1836, a law was passed "to consolidate and amend the several acts relative to a general system of education by common schools." This law is still in operation, having undergone but very slight modifications since its adoption. It was designed for the whole commonwealth, with the exception of the city and county of Philadelphia, which were still to constitute one district, and be governed as before provided.

By the law of 1836, every township, ward, or borough, in the commonwealth, not within the city and incorporated districts of the county of Philadelphia, forms a separate school district. Each district has a board of school directors, consisting of six members, two of whom are chosen every year. The directors are au-

thorized, if they deem it expedient, to divide the district into sub-districts, with power to elect a primary committee of three in each, who act as a committee of the board to attend to the local affairs of their respective sub-districts, subject to the orders of the board. In wards and boroughs, the directors have power to appoint an inspector, for the purpose of visiting, inspecting, and superintending the schools. In all other cases, each board of directors is required, by one or more of their number, to visit every school within their district, at least once in every month, and to cause the result of such visits to be entered on the minutes of the board. Neither the directors, their treasurer, nor the primary committees, receive any compensation for their services as such. The directors have also the power to examine and appoint teachers.

Each district thus constitutes a distinct and independent organization, represented by the board of directors, and having no connexion with the township or county officers; the only other officer being the secretary of the commonwealth, who is ex-officio superintendent of common schools, and to whom the directors are required to make a report on the first Monday of June in every year, setting forth the progress and condition of the schools, the expenses incurred in maintaining them, and communicating such other information as might be of use in forming a just estimate of the value of common schools. The whole number of districts during the school year 1847, was one thousand two hundred and forty-nine, of which number one thousand one hundred and five, had accepted, and one hundred and forty-four had not accepted, the provisions of the law. An act, however, was passed on the 11th of April, 1848, making it obligatory upon all the districts in the commonwealth to accept the provisions of the act of 1834, and by which the common school system was established throughout the whole state.

A fund for the support of common schools was first established in Pennsylvania in 1831. By an act of the 2d of April of that year, certain moneys arising from the sale of lands, and other sources, were set apart for a common school fund, to be held by the commonwealth, for the use of said fund, at an interest of five per cent. The interest was directed to be added to the principal, until the proceeds thereof should amount to one hundred thousand dollars annually, when the whole was to be applied to the support of the common schools.

By the act of April 1st, 1834, seventy-five thousand dollars were ordered to be paid out of the school fund, for the year 1835, and annually thereafter, to be distributed among the several counties that should entitle themselves to it under the provisions of that act. The portion due each county was deposited in the respective county treasuries, to be paid out to the accepting districts in each county. The appropriation of 1835 was paid to whatever districts in the county adopted the system; those that refused to adopt thereby forfeiting their share. But under the act of 13th June, 1836, the appropriation for that year due to the non-accepting districts, was to be retained in the county treasury for their use, for any term not exceeding one year, from the first of November, 1837.

By the act of 13th of June, 1836, one hundred thousand dollars, in addition to another one hundred thousand dollars, payable by the United States Bank, were appropriated to common schools, for the school year 1837, which was made to commence on the first Monday of June following. These two hundred thousand dollars, instead of being deposited in the county treasuries, like the appropriations of the two preceding years, were to remain in the state treasury, subject to the drafts of the superintendent; and warrants for the payment thereof were to be issued by him in favour of such districts as should entitle themselves to the same, by adopting the system, and levying a school tax not less than equal to, nor more than treble, their portion of the appropriation under this act.

By resolution of 3d of April, 1837, the sum of five hundred thousand dollars was appropriated to common schools for the year 1838, to be expended either in building or in defraying the expenses of tuition.

On the 12th of April, 1838, the school appropriation was increased to a sum

equal to one dollar on every taxable inhabitant in the commonwealth, and was to increase triennially with the increase of inhabitants, so as always to equal one dollar per taxable, but without any increase of taxation above that mentioned in the act of 1836.

The appropriation for 1844, was two hundred and fifty thousand dollars; and since that time two hundred thousand dollars have been annually appropriated for the use of common schools. These several sums were divided among the districts, including the city and county of Philadelphia.

The undrawn balance of the appropriations made under the act of 1834, and all subsequent acts, had been allowed to remain and accumulate for the use of such districts as should entitle themselves to the same. By the act of the 8th of April, 1843, these and all subsequent balances were to remain in the treasury and accumulate for the benefit of the district entitled thereto, "for any time not exceeding two years from the first of November, 1844." But by the act of the 31st of May, 1844, all these balances, including the undrawn balance of the appropriation for the school year 1844, were repealed, and the state treasurer was prohibited from paying out any money not appropriated in that act.

It will appear, from an inspection of the annexed table, that the schools of Pennsylvania are rapidly improving. The number of schools and scholars is gradually increasing—the interest felt by the people in the cause of general education is becoming greater—customs and prejudices that have existed for years, and furnished the greatest obstacles to the progress of the school system, are fast yielding to its influence, and districts, before hostile, are year after year becoming reconciled, and voluntarily adopting its provisions. A knowledge of the beneficial influence of these schools, and their happy conformity to the character of our citizens, and the principles of our government secure for them the favour and support of the people.

A Tabular view of the progress of the present common school system of Pennsylvania, since its establishment in 1835, exclusive of the city and county of Philadelphia.

Date	Schools.	TEACHERS.			SCHOLARS.			Expense.
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
1835	762	524	284	808	16,734	15,810	32,544	\$41,635 50
1836	3,384	2,428	966	3,394	74,253	65,351	139,604	305,775 91
1837	4,089	3,351	1,490	4,841	98,763	83,592	182,355	695,301 91
1838	3,939	3,546	1,488	5,034	127,677	106,042	233,719	709,582 92
1839	5,488	3,363	1,669	5,032	141,063	113,845	254,908	740,548 84
1840	5,649	4,488	2,050	6,538	141,124	113,784	254,908	711,646 69
1841	6,470	5,234	2,368	7,602	156,225	128,244	284,469	647,352 85
1842	6,116	5,176	2,318	7,494	154,454	126,631	281,085	608,879 32
1843	6,156	5,264	2,330	7,594	161,164	127,598	288,762	577,203 13
1844	5,993	5,175	2,410	7,585	158,787	129,615	288,402	546,147 30
1845	6,690	5,551	2,480	8,031	180,328	147,090	327,418	453,155 50
1846	7,096	5,775	2,693	8,468	188,138	150,667	338,805	547,436 41
1847	7,320	5,907	2,767	8,674	183,844	148,123	331,967	547,612 39

NEW YORK COMMON SCHOOLS.

The last annual report of Hon. Christopher Morgan, Secretary of state, and ex-officio superintendent of common schools in New York, is a long and able document, filling nine columns of the Albany Evening Journal. We regret that we have not space to give it entire, and content ourselves with an abstract, for which we are mainly indebted to the New York Tribune.

From an abstract of the reports of the town superintendents and commissioners, it appears, that on the 31st day of December last, there were in the state, 10,621 school districts, the school-houses of which were situated in the town or ward; 8,070 whole districts; and 5,462 parts of joint districts.

The following is a comparative statement for the last four years:

	1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.
Whole number of districts, - -	10,621	11,052	11,008	11,018
Number of whole districts, - -	8,070	8,241	8,327	8,419
Parts of joint districts, - - -	5,462	5,565	5,348	5,311

The number reported the past year less than the previous year is, whole number of districts, 431; whole districts, 171; parts of joint districts, 103. The variation from year to year shows either remarkable inaccuracy in the reports, or numerous alterations and divisions of districts.

Returns were received from 8,006 whole districts, and 5,315 parts of districts, showing 54 whole districts, and 147 parts of districts, from which no reports were received.

The following is a comparative statement of the number of districts and parts of districts from which reports have been received for the last four years:

	1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.
Whole districts, - - - - -	8,006	8,013	8,193	8,291
Parts of districts, - - - - -	5,315	5,400	5,207	5,042

The number of non-reporting districts and parts of districts for each of said years, is as follows:

	1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.
Whole districts, - - - - -	54	139	134	124
Parts of districts, - - - - -	147	165	120	269

The deficiencies for the past year are so few in comparison to the whole number reported, that it may justly be assumed that most of them have occurred through accident or justifiable causes.

The number of incorporated and private schools reported, is 1,785; in 1848, 1,704; in 1846, 1,730; and in 1845, 1,981; exhibiting an increase of eighty-one during the past year, but a decrease of ninety-six since 1845.

The reports of the number of scholars attending private schools are very unsatisfactory, but it is estimated that about 75,000 children are annually taught in them. It is suggested that such schools ought not to receive any assistance from the state, but that our district schools may be so elevated, that those who seek superior advantages for their children, can find them only in the common schools.

The whole number of children between the ages of five and sixteen, reported on the 31st day of December, 1845, exclusive of the city of New York, was 625,399.

The whole number reported on the 31st day of December, 1846, exclusive of New York, was 624,848.

The whole number reported on the 31st day of December, 1847, exclusive of New York, was 718,123.

The whole number of children reported as attending school during some portion of the year 1847, is 775,723.

And of these, 17,805 attended school the whole year.

25,028 attended ten and less than twelve months.

50,823 attended eight and less than ten months.

104,016 attended six and less than eight months.

154,673 attended four and less than six months.

194,892 attended two and less than four months.

198,625 attended less than two months.

The aggregate of this periodical attendance is 745,892, while the whole number reported taught during the year is 775,723, a difference of 29,831. If the returns were accurate, those two aggregates would be equal.

Measures are suggested to secure correctness in the reports hereafter.

The average time during which schools have been kept during the past year, in the state, may be stated at eight months, which is the same as last year.

In Hamilton county, the average is five months, and in Warren, five and seven-tenths.

No other counties average less than six months.

In the counties of New York and Kings, the average is eleven months; in Richmond and Queens, ten, and in Suffolk, Westchester and Rockland, nine.

The average of Rensselaer, according to the reports, would be twelve months.

SCHOOLS FOR COLOURED CHILDREN.

The reports of the county clerks in regard to coloured schools are unsatisfactory and in many instances palpably incorrect. The superintendent says:

Such reports are worse than useless, for they are false and delusive. It is plain that, in a large number of counties, no effort has been made to collect accurate statistics relating to schools for coloured children, and that such as have been collected are in many cases deficient and deceptive.

By chap. 258, sec. 3, laws of 1847, a sum not exceeding \$5,000, was appropriated from the income of the United States deposit fund, to the trustees of any incorporated village which should, during one year from the passage of this act, support, for three months or more, a school for the exclusive instruction of coloured children.

As the coloured population is enumerated in the census of the state, and forms a part of the basis of the distribution of the school fund, and where unreasonable prejudice excludes them from the white schools, the trustees are empowered to establish separate schools for them, the superintendent sees no good reason for the special appropriation provided for above, and respectfully recommends the repeal of the anomalous act.

INDIAN SCHOOLS.

Schools for the instruction of Indian children are now established upon the St. Regis, the Onondaga, the Cattaraugus and Allegany, and Shinnecock reservations.

The Shinnecock Indians occupy a small promontory, containing about 600 acres, on the southern shore of Long-Island, and within the limits of the town of Southampton. The whole number of children between the ages of 5 and 16 years, is 50, and the number who have attended school some portion of the time is 40. They are represented in an improving condition. The number of children between the ages of 5 and 16 years upon the Cattaraugus reservation is 322, and the whole number who have attended school the preceding year is 229; and the whole number between the said ages upon the Allegany reservation, is 180, and the number who have attended school is 110.

These Indians feel very grateful for the instruction which the state is bestowing upon them, and take an increasing interest in the schools.

The agent of the St. Regis reservation reports that a school has been kept nine months during the year, with an average attendance of 50 children.

Upon the Onondaga reservation a school was kept by a male teacher for five months previous to the 1st day of May, 1848, and for the ensuing six months by a male teacher with a female assistant.

The whole number of scholars who had attended at the date of the agent's report was 61; of whom 40 had been quite regular, and 25 had been absent but a few days during the year.

The whole number of children on the reservation between the ages of 5 and 16 is about 94.

The Indian reservations in Allegany, Erie, Cattaraugus, Onondaga and other counties, comprise many thousand acres of the finest agricultural land in the state. Yet the Indians on these lands are, in the main, miserably poor and destitute. This state of things the superintendent attributes to the system of communism prevailing among these red men. The labour of the industrious (says the report) contributes alike to the support of the idle. The usual incentives to toil and thrift, the hope of personal gain, and the acquisition of exclusive property, are wanting.

It is intimated that a remedy for these evils might be found in the passage of a law by which the Indians could be allowed to divide the land equitably among themselves, and giving to each an estate of inheritance, but not permitting the land to be disposed of by devise, or deed, nor to be encumbered by mortgage or judgment. It is now held in common and inalienable; it would then be held in partition, not devisable nor alienable, nor subject to any lien or incumbrance.

OF THE ORGANIZATION OF THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

The number of school districts in the state, according to the last report, is 10,621.

The school money is apportioned to the several counties and towns in proportion to their population. If we divide the amount of public money by the number of the districts, we have \$580,000, (the sum distributed the coming year,) divided by 10,621, giving \$54.60 to each district. And yet there are twenty-five towns in the state receiving less than that sum, and seventy-nine receiving less than \$100.

The distribution among the districts of the several towns is made in proportion to the number of children in each, between five and sixteen years of age.

The distribution of the school money according to population, gives the cities an advantage over the rural districts. New York has 80,500 children between the ages of five and sixteen, and the portion of school money is \$40,621 53, or fifty cents for each child. Madison county has 10,705 children between five and sixteen years of age, and has \$4,485 05 school money, or about forty-two cents for each child. The difference in favour of New York is eight cents for each child.

Dividing the number of acres of improved land in the state, 11,757,276, by the number of districts, 10,621, we have 1,107 acres to each district. The aggregate valuation of the whole state in 1847 was \$632,699,993, or \$60,000 to each district; or including the valuation of New York, (\$247,152,303,) about \$36,000.

There are many towns in the state with a valuation less than \$100,000, and there are very few towns which do not contain districts with a valuation less than \$5,000; but as each district must have its school-houses, &c., the expense of maintaining the present system is much more burdensome to the agricultural districts than the cities and villages. And yet while the cities and villages

are consolidating and uniting districts, thus lessening the expense and increasing the means and facilities of supporting schools, the operation of dividing and creating new districts is still going on in the country.

The number of districts in the state is too large, and should be lessened. As a means of checking the increase of districts it is proposed to repeal that section of the law which authorizes a sale of the school-houses and other property of the districts from whose territory the new one is formed, and a division of the proceeds of such sale among the several districts entitled thereto.

It is also proposed that the formation of new districts of the town superintendent shall have the concurrence of the supervisor and town clerk, and give the trustees and others interested an opportunity to be heard before the board.

ESTIMATES AND ACCOUNTS OF EXPENDITURES OF THE SCHOOL FUND.

The balance of this fund, on the 30th Sept., 1847, was	-	\$124,947
Amount received during the year ending Sept. 30, 1848,	-	117,220
Amount from income of U. S. deposit fund, - - -	-	165,000
		<hr/>
		\$407,167

RECEIPTS AND APPORTIONMENTS FOR 1848.

The whole amount of public money received from all sources, by the commissioners of cities and town superintendents, during the year ending July 1, 1848, was - - - - - \$858,594 84

Apportioned for teachers' wages, - - - - -	657,331 09
For libraries, - - - - -	91,485 92
	<hr/>
	\$748,817 01

Balance unapportioned, - - - - -	\$109,777 85
The capital of the school fund is - - - - -	\$2,211,475 14

The productive capital of the school fund, provided the legislature shall continue its annual appropriation of \$165,000 for the support of schools, may be stated as follows:—

Productive capital of the school fund as above, - - -	\$2,211,475 14
Amount from the U. S. deposit fund, which would produce the sum of \$165,000 annually, appropriated for the support of common schools, at six per cent. interest, - - -	2,750,000 00
To this may be added a sum that will produce annually \$25,000, which is reserved by the constitution, to be added to the capital of the school fund, - - - - -	416,666 67

Making a total of - - - - -	\$5,378,141 81
The annual interest on this sum at six per cent. is	\$322,688 50.

SCHOOL DISTRICT LIBRARIES.

The number of volumes in the school district libraries in 1844 was 1,145,280; in 1845, 1,203,139; in 1846, 1,310,986; and in 1847, 1,333,848. Reports from sixteen teachers' institutes have been received, situated in so many counties. The number of teachers in attendance was 1096. An increase of the appropriation for these institutes is recommended.

FREE SCHOOLS.

The present system of schools is regarded as imperfect, and in its practical working, in many respects, extremely vexatious. A system of entirely free schools is recommended to take the place of the present system. It may be

applicable only to the towns, requiring the cities, however, to make their schools free, but allowing them to adopt such an organization as their peculiar circumstances may require. Free schools now prevail in New York, Buffalo, Brooklyn, Syracuse, Rochester, Lansingburg, Williamsburg, Poughkeepsie, Flushing, Newtown and Bushwick. These cities and towns are estimated to contain about one-fifth of the population of the whole state. Adding Albany, Troy, and Utica, where the schools are substantially free, although not so by force of law, we find that free schools now prevail in about one-fourth of the state.

It is believed that the people are not opposed to a free school system. The money now raised by the supervisors, equal to the amount appropriated from the funds of the state, is cheerfully voted and paid. In addition to this, many towns at their annual meetings, vote to raise another sum equal to that required to be raised by general laws. The aggregate sum thus voted in the state is very large.

It was in 1847	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$199,008 00
" 1846	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	155,974 20
" 1845	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	195,051 15
" 1844	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	191,473 93
" 1843	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	179,800 52

These sums were raised by the inhabitants of towns, voluntarily, and under special laws inserted in the charters of cities and villages.

The probable taxation, and the rate per cent. necessary to support a free school system, can be ascertained, by showing the actual expense in the cities and towns where it is established.

In the following table the first column shows the valuation of the city or town in 1847; the second, the whole amount of school money from all sources; the third, the amount of public money apportioned to the city, or town; the fourth, the amount actually raised in the city, or town, besides the public money; and the fifth, the rate of tax upon \$100, of valuation:

	Valuation.	School money.	Public money.	Amount of tax.	Rate upon.
Albany,	11,387,376	13,044 50	4,331 50	8,713 00	0,07.5
Brooklyn,	29,565,189	26,039 50	6,286 35	19,753 15	1,06.7
Buffalo,	8,497,152	21,142 60	3,142 60	18,000 00	0,21.2
Brunswick,	755,160	1,289 30	196 00	1,093 30	1,14.6
Flushing,	2,393,135	1,593 03	413 60	1,179 43	0,00.5
Hudson,	1,159,550	4,084 27	597 11	3,487 16	0,30.0
Newtown,	1,989,175	3,743 77	582 75	2,763 54	0,15.0
New York,	247,152,303	295,453 80	39,183 58	256,270 22	0,10.4
Poughkeepsie,	3,499,191	5,470 66	1,244 58	4,226 08	0,12.0
Rochester,	4,634,681	11,808 47	2,666 83	9,141 64	0,19.8
Utica,	3,480,766	10,278 16	1,286 70	8,991 46	0,25.8
Williamsburg,	3,125,162	8,640 37	420 31	7,443 77	0,23.8

With this table, any one can tell what would be his tax for the support of schools in either of the places named.

If he is a resident of New York, and is assessed \$4,000, he pays a tax of \$4 17. If he is assessed \$100,000, he pays \$104. The sum raised in New York for school purposes appears to be very large, but when it is apportioned upon the tax payers according to their property, it is a very little tax. And it would be light, even if it were doubled. If the common schools were what they used to be, and a system of high schools were engrafted upon them, every child could be educated in them—the poor gratuitously, and the rich at a less expense than at a private school.

In the city of Brooklyn the free schools are supported at the low rate of \$6 tax upon \$10,000 valuation.

In the cities the support of schools by a general tax, is but the association of all the citizens to effect an object in which all are mutually interested, and which can be better done by a combination of the means of all.

The Normal School, under the direction of its accomplished principal, continues to meet the expectations of its founders and friends, and to deserve the patronage of the state.

The continuance of the annual appropriation of \$2,400 to the *District School Journal* is strongly recommended.

There is a gradual improvement in the construction of school-houses throughout the state. The log huts and unsuitable structures built at the first organization of many of the school districts, are giving place to more comfortable and convenient buildings.

The institutions for the deaf and dumb and blind in the city of New York, are commended to the continued favour of the state.

There are instances in the state, of trustees who are unable to read or write, intemperate, averse to schools and education; of town superintendents incompetent, and dishonest; of districts quarrelsome and blind to their true interests; yet these are all exceptions to the general rule.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN MICHIGAN.]

The report of the superintendent of public instruction in Michigan, just rendered, evinces a clear appreciation of the wants and the capabilities of the school system of the state, and proves the superintendent to be a zealous and very efficient officer. Beside his weekly labours, he has been engaged during the past year, in addressing the churches of the state, every Sabbath, on the subject of popular education, and with such success as thoroughly to persuade himself of the utility of the practice. In the statistical information of the report, a gratifying improvement in the workings of the common school system is observable. Reports have been received from four hundred and forty-two townships—seventeen more than the preceding year. The number of school districts reported is 3,071—one hundred and twenty-nine more than in any former year. Of this number, 2,548 have maintained schools for the constitutional term kept by qualified teachers—an increase of one hundred and seventy-seven over former years. Of children who have attended school, the number is 98,044, between the ages of four and eighteen—an increase of 9,964 over former years. The whole number reported in the state between these ages, is 117,952. The interest money of the school fund, last year, was \$32,605 20—an increase of \$1,330 46. Little doubt is entertained that the annual increase of the primary school interest fund, will be eight or ten thousand dollars per year, for several years to come.

The report states that while the number of scholars in the common schools has increased, the last year, nearly 10,000, the number in select schools has decreased upward of a hundred, whence an inference may be drawn of the increasing favour with which the common school system is regarded.

The libraries of the three hundred and forty-five townships contain 58,203 volumes—an increase, in the last year, of forty-five libraries and 14,277 volumes. The annual increase, it is presumed, is even much greater than this, as many libraries are not reported. The superintendent has also visited every organized county in the state, except the upper peninsula, and has established an educational society in each. In many counties, auxiliary societies have been organized in the townships, and another has been formed under the title of the Michigan State Educational Society. The aid of the press is acknowledged by the superintendent, and he also urges the importance of an exclusive journal for the state.

SCHOOL FUND IN WISCONSIN.

In Wisconsin, the school fund, set apart for the purpose of securing to every child in the state, hereafter born, a good and sufficient school education, is a munificent and charitable provision. From a report on schools recently made to the senate, by Col. Philo White, we gather the following items of the present extent and value of this fund: the number of townships in the state, is 2,200; school sections, 2,200; number of acres in these sections, 1,408,000—add to this 500,000 acres ceded by congress, and the total number of acres is 1,908,000. The estimated number of acres in the surveyed portion of the state, is 272,571—the average value of which, at three dollars per acre, is \$817,713. Annual interest on this, at seven per cent., \$57,239, and half that amount to be raised by the people, and an annual available fund is formed of \$85,859.

Here, then, is a school fund of nearly 2,000,000 acres of land! The present value in the surveyed portions of the state, at the moderate estimate of three dollars per acre, is almost sufficient to educate every child. Many of these lands are now worth, and will bring, fifteen dollars per acre. With the rapid growth of population, the fund hourly increases, and an average of five dollars per acre will undoubtedly in time be realized, for the whole fund, or \$10,000,000.

The university fund comprises seventy-two sections of the best land in the state, in addition to the above; thus, common schools, academies, normal schools, colleges, and a parent university are all provided for.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN NEW JERSEY.

From the last report of the superintendent, made to the legislature, we gather that there are one hundred and sixty-four townships, and 1,640 school districts in the state, of which reports were received last year from 1,446. In 1845, only nine hundred and ninety-one districts were reported, and the amount then raised and appropriated for school purposes, was \$54,632; in 1848, it was 101,767. Of this sum, \$30,000 was appropriated by the state government.

In 1845, the number of scholars was 41,752; in 1848, it was 66,406. The amount of money raised for school purposes by the townships, it would seem, has overrun the limit of the law, which is \$60,000 for the whole state. Several townships have petitioned for permission to lay a tax for the support of free schools, and the superintendent recommends the establishment, at some future but not far distant day, of a general free school system. The advantages of district school libraries are urged, and the institution of a normal school recommended.

The pupils supported by the state in the institutions for the blind and the deaf and dumb in this city, have been visited by the school authorities of New Jersey, and very favourable accounts are given by them. Among the specific alterations recommended in the school laws, is one to authorize the trustees to exempt from the charges of tuition, the children of parents unable to pay; and another to authorize the townships to raise by tax, for the support of schools, four times as much as they receive from the state. There are other good features in the recommendations of the report.*

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

The National Intelligencer has the following notice of the proceedings of the Board of Regents of this Institution which met at Washington on Monday last:

* We have further statements relative to the progress of school systems, and public instruction in other states, which we will insert, as we have room, in future numbers.

Mr. SEATON, on behalf of the executive committee, presented a report of the state of the funds of the institution. From this report, it appears that its financial affairs are in a very prosperous condition. At the time of the establishment of the institution, in addition to the original fund of \$514,169, there had accrued in the form of interest, \$242,129; the latter sum the regents were authorized, by the act of congress, to expend for the erection of a building, and for other purposes. They have, however, thus far encroached upon this sum only to the amount of about \$30,000; and it is confidently believed that, by adhering to the plan of finance adopted, at the end of three years (within which time the building is to be completed,) there will be left at least \$150,000 of interest, to be added to the original principal for other objects of the bequest.

General TOTTEN, from the building committee, reported upon the progress of the Smithsonian edifice. From this it appears that the east wing will be finished by the first of January, and the west wing early in the spring. The main part of the building has been commenced, and, from the results thus far, it is confidently expected that the building will be completed, and the grounds improved for the sum of \$250,000, appropriated by the board for these purposes.

The secretary, Professor HENRY, presented his report of the operations of the past year, from which we glean the following particulars:

The programme of organization has been submitted to a number of literary and scientific societies, and has, in every case, received their approbation. The officers of these institutions have expressed a willingness to co-operate with this institution in carrying out the plans which have been adopted. Until the end of three years from next March, only one-half of the income of the original fund is to be appropriated to the active operations of the institution, the other part of the whole income to be devoted to the building fund; and, therefore, the institution cannot be put in full operation until after the end of the time above mentioned.

It will be recollected that the programme embraces, 1st, The plan of publishing original memoirs on all branches of knowledge, in a series of volumes; 2dly, the institution of original researches under the direction of suitable persons; 3dly, the publication of a series of reports, from year to year, giving an account of the progress of the different branches of knowledge; and 4thly, the foundation of a library and a museum of objects of nature and art.

The first volume of the contributions has been published, and partially distributed to colleges and learned societies. Before the types were distributed, the authors were permitted to strike off an edition for their own benefit, and it is this edition which is now offered for sale. Applications have been made for the first volume from many academies and minor institutions, and, were the means sufficient for the purpose, the institution would supply all demands; but, with its limited income, this is impossible. The periodical reports, however, being less expensive, will be much more widely distributed. Preparations have been made for the publication of the second volume of the contributions, and a sufficient number of memoirs have been already accepted, or are in preparation, to supply the materials.

Under the second head is mentioned the publication of occultations for facilitating the determination of the longitude of important places, ordered at the last meeting of the board. These have been so well received that another set has been prepared, and is now ready for distribution for 1849, among all persons interested in practical astronomy. An ephemeris has also been prepared and published of the planet Neptune. A beginning has been made towards establishing a system of meteorological observations, ordered at the last meeting, the blank forms being now in the hands of the lithographer, and will shortly be ready to send to those who may be willing to join in the observations. Several sets of instruments have been sent to remote stations on the coast of the Pacific, and in the interior of our continent, and investigations in reference to terrestrial magnetism have been instituted. Under the auspices of the institution, an important

literary enterprise has been commenced, viz.: the preparation of a biographical account of all books relating to or published in America prior to the year 1700; the expense of preparation of this work being defrayed by the subscriptions of a number of institutions and individuals. This work will indicate the libraries in this country and Europe where the books are to be found. Instruments have been ordered for observations in astronomy, magnetism, and other terrestrial phenomena, to be placed under the direction of Lieut. GILLISS, in his expedition to Chili. These, it is hoped, will be paid for by a further appropriation by the general government towards this object.

With regard to the periodical reports to be published, we learn the following particulars: These reports are to be as extensively circulated as the funds of the institution will allow, and are intended to give an account of the progress of the different branches of knowledge throughout the world. In many cases the periodical reports will be preceded by preliminary reports on the previous state of the branch of knowledge to which the former pertain. A number of these are in process of preparation, viz.: one upon chemistry, applied to agriculture; one upon the forest trees of America; one on the phenomena of lightning; one on the later discoveries in astronomy; and on the practical use of meteorological instruments.

Appended to the Secretary's report, is the report of the assistant Secretary, (Professor Jewett,) on the library, an account of which we will give our readers in a future number.

Professor Henry's report ends with an allusion to the munificent donation of Dr. Hare, of Philadelphia.

THE SCHOOLS OF FRANCE.

BY G. W. SNETHEN.

Under Bonaparte, a body of educated men was organized under the title of "Universite," which has continued, with some modifications, to the beginning of the present year, to hold the chief direction of education in France. Of this body, which is incorporated by law, and which possesses large disposable funds, arising from real estate of government grants, and pay pupils, all public teachers are members. The highest officer of this university is the minister of public instruction, who has a seat in the cabinet. He makes all the appointments in the university, and fills all vacancies in the academies and colleges upon the recommendation of the local authorities, by whom the strictest examinations are instituted. He is assisted by a council of ten members, men of the highest rank in the literary and scientific world. No school of any kind can be opened in any part of France without permission from the university. The proposition to abolish this restriction in the new constitution failed. Twenty-six university academies are established in France, and the whole territory is divided into as many academical circuits, of which the following towns are the seats of the respective academies, viz:

Aix, Amiens, Angers, Besançon, Bordeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Clermont, Dijon, Douai, Grenoble, Limoges, Lyons, Metz, Montpellier, Nancy, Nîmes, Orleans, Paris, Pan, Poitiers, Rennes, Rouen, Strasbourg, Toulouse.

Each academy consists of a superintendent, who inspects all schools of public instruction within his circuit, and reports to the university at Paris. He is assisted in the exercise of his functions by a council of ten, and this body is an administrative portion of the academy. If the academy be complete, the course of instruction comprehends five faculties, theology, law, medicine, literature, and sciences. To each academy is attached one college or more, which is a preparatory school, and corresponds to the American high school. Paris has several colleges, and all the principal towns one or more. No one is admitted into the academies who has not passed the colleges. In 1833, a law was passed requiring that every commune by itself, or by union with other communes, should have one pri-

mary or elementary school, in which, reading, writing, and the system of weights and measures should be taught. Every commune having more than 6,000 population was also required to have a high school, in which the elements of geometry and its application to the arts, the elements of chemistry and natural history as applied to the ordinary habits and pursuits of life, the elements of history and geography, and especially of France, should be taught. It was further required that every department should have a national school, or school for the instruction of teachers, either by itself or by union with an adjoining department. These schools might be established and supported by private foundations, donations, and legacies, but the commercial, departmental, and general governments were required to establish and support them in the absence of private enterprise.

All who are incapable of paying for the instruction of their children have them educated gratis at the elementary institution, and a certain number of the non-paying pupils are selected, after an examination, and educated gratis at the commercial high schools, the colleges, and the academies. The teachers of the elementary schools have a residence, and receive forty dollars annual salary. The teachers of the commercial high schools have a residence also, and receive eighty dollars a year.

The whole charge to France of the department of public instruction, according to the budgets of 1838 and 1848, is exhibited in the following table:

	1838.	1848.
	Francs.	Francs.
General administration, - - - -	686,623	622,000
General services, - - - -	238,000	716,700
Departmental and academical administration, - - - -	919,900	749,100
Academic instruction, - - - -	1,972,050	3,007,206
Collegiate instruction, - - - -	1,655,600	2,511,700
Elementary instruction, - - - -	1,600,000	7,767,000
High school instruction, - - - -	3,500,000	
Normal schools, - - - -	200,000	
Literary and scientific establishments, - - - -	7,676,500	2,086,277
Subscription to literary works, encouragement to authors, and publications of unedited works, - - - -	557,000	767,200
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	19,005,673	18,258,183

Notwithstanding this great annual expenditure, the French people, at the present hour, are universally deficient in common school education. The law for creating common schools has not been, and is not now rigorously executed. The monarchy of Louis Philippe was recreant to the cause of education. It kept up a show in favour of it, but in reality did nothing to promote it.

In 1836, there were

36,000 elementary schools for boys,
11,000 elementary schools for girls,

47,000, containing in winter 2,170,000 pupils, and in summer 1,300,000.

In the same year there were 73 normal schools for training teachers for the elementary schools; 873 boarding schools; 94 high schools; 322 commercial colleges, with only 27,000 pupils; 41 royal colleges, with 15,900 pupils.

In the year 1829, out of every 100 young men enrolled in the military census, the proportion of them that could read and write, in the department of Meuse, was 74; in that of Seine, 71; and in that of Corege, 21. Going to the field to learn the military art is not a very favourable school for the acquirement of letters and morals.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

(For the year ending 30th June, 1848.)

Compiled from the Annual Report on Commerce and Navigation for the
N. Y. Tribune.

DOMESTIC EXPORTS.

THE SEA.

FISHERIES.

	VALUE.
Dried fish, or cod fisheries . . .	\$609,482
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, her- ring, shad, salmon, mackerel . . .	109,315
Whale and other fish oil . . .	552,388
Spermaceti oil	208,832
Whalebone	314,107
Spermaceti candles	186,839—\$1,980,663

THE FOREST.

Skins and furs	607,786
Ginseng	162,647
<i>Products of Wood.</i>	
Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber	\$2,429,883
Other lumber	283,433
Masts and spars	129,760
Oak bark and other dye	184,126
All manufactures of wood	2,042,695
Naval stores, tar pitch, rosin, and turpentine	752,303
Ashes, pot and pearl	466,477
	<u>6,288,657—7,059,084</u>

AGRICULTURE.

Products of Animals.

Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle . . .	1,905,341
Butter and cheese	1,361,668
Pork (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs	9,003,272
Horses and mules	190,295
Sheep	20,823
Wool	57,497—12,538,896

Vegetable Food.

Wheat	2,669,175
Flour	13,194,109
Indian corn	3,837,483
Indian meal	1,807,601
Rye meal	174,566
Rye oats, and small grain, and pulse	376,572
Biscuit or ship-bread	619,096
Potatoes	86,277
Apples	88,944
Rice	<u>2,331,824—25,187,647—37,726,543</u>

Tobacco	7,551,122
Cotton	61,998,294
Hemp	27,657

All other Agricultural Products.

Flaxseed	1,584
Hops	17,671
Brown sugar	8,891
Indigo	1,100—29,246

MANUFACTURES.

Soap and tallow candles	670,223
Leather boots and shoes	194,095
Household furniture	297,358
Coaches and other carriages	89,963
Hats	55,493
Saddlery	27,435
Wax	134,577
Spirits from grain	90,957
Beer, ale, porter, and cider	78,071
Snuff and tobacco	568,435
Linseed oil and spirits of turpentine	331,404
Cordage	29,911

Iron.

Pig, bar and nails	154,036
Castings	83,188
All manufactures of iron	1,022,408
Spirits from molasses	269,467
Sugar, refined	253,900
Chocolate	2,207
Gunpowder	125,263
Copper and brass	61,468
Medicinal drugs	210,581—4,750,440

Cotton Piece Goods.

Printed and coloured	351,169
White	4,866,559
Nankeen	2,365
Twist yarn and thread	170,633
All other manufactures of	327,479—5,718,205

Flax and Hemp.

Cloth and thread	495
Rags and all manufactures of	6,218
Wearing apparel	574,834
Combs and buttons	16,461
Brushes	2,160
Billiard tables and apparatus	12
Umbrellas and parasols	2,916
Leather and Morocco skins, not sold per lb.	16,483
Fire engines and apparatus	7,686
Printing presses and type	30,403
Musical instruments	38,508

Books and maps	75,193
Paper and stationery	78,307
Paints and varnish	50,739
Vinegar	13,920
Earthen and stone ware	8,512
Manufactures of glass	76,007
“ “ tin	12,353
“ “ pewter and lead	7,139
“ “ marble and stone	22,466
“ “ gold and silver and gold leaf	6,241
Gold and silver coin	2,700,412
Artificial flowers and jewelry	11,217
Molasses	5,563
Trunks	6,126
Bricks and lime	24,174
Domestic salt	73,274—9,586,624
Coal	47,112
Lead	84,278
Ice	75,547
<i>Articles not enumerated.</i>	
Manufactured	1,137,828
All other	851,383—\$1,989,211

Total domestic exports \$132,904,121

EXPORTS OF FOREIGN PRODUCE, &c.

<i>Bullion</i> , Silver	174,971
<i>Specie</i> , Gold	8,370,785
“ Silver	4,595,448
Other articles free of duty	1,410,307
Total, free of duty	\$14,551,511
“ paying duty	6,576,499
Total foreign exports	\$21,123,010

Total of Foreign and Domestic Exports \$154,027,131
 Of the goods exported there were from the
 warehouses \$2,869,941

FOREIGN ARTICLES IMPORTED.

FREE OF DUTY.

Animals for breed	\$53,432
<i>Bullion</i> , Gold	56,882
“ Silver	392,939
<i>Specie</i> , Gold	3,351,873
“ Silver	2,558,590
Cabinets of coins, medals, and other collections of antiquities	32
Models of inventions and improvements in the arts	36,799

Teas	6,217,111
Coffee	8,199,129
Copper in plates suited to the sheathing of ships	831,848
“ ore	158,302
Cotton unmanufactured	6,814
Adhesive felt for sheathing vessels	7,328
Paintings and statuary of American artists and others	67,822
Specimens of natural history, &c.	9,143
Sheathing metal	226,014
Platina unmanufactured	12,778
Plaster unground	61,194
Wearing apparel, and other personal effects of immigrants	65,511
Personal and household effects of citizens dying abroad	26,819
Old junk	16,605
Oakum	5,237
Garden seeds, trees, plants, shrubs, &c.	83,125
Articles, the produce of the U. States brought back	187,117
Guano	20,839
All other articles	63,660
<hr/>	
Total free of duty	\$22,716,603
Of which there was imported in American vessels	18,575,317
“ “ “ in foreign vessels	4,141,286

PAYING DUTIES.

<i>Manufactures of Wool</i> —Cloths and cassimeres	\$6,364,145
“ Merino shawls and wool	1,357,329
“ Blankets	1,146,587
“ Hosiery and articles made on frames	731,009
“ Worsted stuff goods	3,858,416
“ Woollen and worsted yarn	143,407
“ Woollen and worsted articles, embroidered	18,856
“ Manufactures of, not specified, &c.	771,252
“ Flannels	88,909
“ Baizes	117,986
<i>Carpeting</i> —Wilton Saxony and Aubusson	110,275
“ Brussels, Turkey and treble ingrained	485,190
“ Venitian and other ingrained	38,895
“ Not specified	8,827
<i>Manufactures of Cotton</i> —Printed, stained or coloured	12,490,501
“ White or uncoloured	2,487,256
“ Tamboured articles	495,576
“ Velvets wholly of cotton	189,029
“ Velvets of cotton and silk	28,942
“ Cords, gimps and galloons	175,090
“ Hosiery and articles made on frames	1,383,871
“ Twist, yarn and thread	727,422
“ Hatters' plush of silk and cotton	5,015
“ Manufactures of, not specified	438,887

<i>Manufactures of Silk</i> —Piece goods	10,762,801
“ Hosiery and articles made on frames	427,703
“ Sewing silk	561,027
“ Articles tamboured	1,026,235
“ Hats and bonnets	59,866
“ Manufactures not specified	1,640,343
“ Floss silk	14,204
“ Raw silk	340,769
“ Bolting cloths	65,659
Silk and worsted goods	2456,652
Camlets of goats' hair or mohair,	54,704
<i>Manufactures of Flax</i> —Linens bleached and unbleached	6,012,197
“ Hosiery and articles made on frames	1,998
“ Articles tamboured or embroidered	21,018
“ Manufactures not specified	589,435
<i>Manufactures of Hemp</i> —Sheetings, ticklenburgs, osna- burgs, &c.	244,703
“ Articles not specified	105,329
“ Sail duck	153,886
“ Ravens	126,632
Cotton bagging	27,525
Clothing ready made	98,283
Articles of wear	553,939
Laces, thread, cotton, braids, &c.	980,411
Floor Cloth—Patent, painted, &c.	7,351
Oil cloth of all kinds	25,637
Hair cloth and hair seating	150,442
Lasting and mohair cloths for shoes and buttons	143,360
Gunny cloth	87,070
Matting, Chinese and others, and flags, &c.	104,643
<i>Hats, Caps, Bonnets, &c. of</i> —Leghorn straw, grass, chip, &c.	982,923
“ “ Palm leaf, whalebone, &c.	108,701
<i>Manufactures of Iron and Steel</i> —Muskets and rifles	75
“ Arms, fire and side	307,914
“ Drawing and cutting knives	21,343
“ Hatchets, axes and adzes	4,043
“ Socket chisels	12,163
“ Steel-yards and scale-beams	13,602
“ Vices	37,415
“ Sickles and reaping hooks	2,481
“ Scythes	29,828
“ Wood screws	756
“ Sad irons, tailors' irons, &c.	1,429
“ Spades and shovels	6,629
“ Squares	4,381
“ Needles, sewing, darning, &c.	218,330
“ Cast iron butts and hinges	21,000
“ Cutlery not specified	1,146,843
“ Other manufactures not specified	3,590,172
“ Bonnet wire	25,047

<i>Manufactures of Iron and Steel—(continued)—</i>		
"	All other	44,085
"	Tacks, brads and springs	124
"	Nails	88,390
"	Spikes	444
"	Chain cables	369,574
"	Mill, cross-cut, and pit saws	8,016
"	Anchors, and parts thereof	42,449
"	Anvils, and parts thereof	117,606
"	Smiths' hammers, and sledges	5,288
"	Castings, vessels of	15,665
"	" all other	16,798
"	Round or square brazier's rods from 3-16 to 10-16 in diameter	13,296
"	Nail or spike rods, slit, rolled or hammered	4,734
"	Band or scroll	16,720
"	Sheet and hoop iron	729,955
"	Pig iron	815,415
"	Old scrap	140,037
"	Bar manufactured by rolling	3,679,598
"	" " otherwise	975,214
<i>Steel—Cast, shear, and German</i>		1,061,560
"	All other	223,377
<i>Copper, and Manufactures of Copper—In pigs, bars, and old</i>		702,907
"	Wire and screws	1,226
"	Brazier's, and copper bottoms	14,264
"	Manufactures of, not specified	137,993
"	Rods and bolts	97
"	Nails and spikes	477
<i>Brass, and Manufactures of Brass—In pigs, bars, and old</i>		24,191
"	Wires and screws	11,641
"	Manufactures of, not specified	164,087
<i>Tin, and Manufactures of Tin—In pigs and bars</i>		438,520
"	In plates and sheets	1,586,754
"	Foil	13,010
"	Manufactures of, not specified	25,166
<i>Lead, and Manufactures of Lead—Pig, bar, shot, and pipes</i>		6,288
"	Manufactures of, not specified	904
<i>Pewter, Manufactures of</i>		2,216
<i>Manufactures of Gold & Silver—Lace, galloons, tassels, &c.</i>		34,334
"	" Epaulettes and wings	3,939
"	" Gold and silver leaf	1,183
"	" Jewelry	162,596
"	" Gems, diamonds, pearls, &c., set or otherwise	130,348
"	" Manuf. of, not specified	61,326
Glaziers' Diamonds		206
Clocks		57,488
Chronometers		16,505
Watches, and parts of watches		1,733,221

Metallic pens	61,566
Square iron for umbrella stretchers	37,778
Pins in packs, and otherwise	30,363
Buttons, metal and other	385,893
<i>Glass</i> —Silvered and in frames	359,130
“ Paintings on glass, porcelain, and coloured	22,370
“ Polished plate	212,267
“ Manufactures of, not specified	95,507
“ Cut	70,557
“ Plain	37,808
“ Watch crystals	9,874
“ Glasses or pebbles for spectacles	4,363
“ Apothecaries’ vials	2,415
“ Perfumery and fancy vials	167
“ Bottles not above 2 quarts	52,075
“ Demijohns	14,942
“ Window glass not above 8 in. by 10 in.	58,130
“ “ “ 10 in. by 12 in.	71,406
“ “ “ above 10 in. by 12 in.	31,491
<i>Manuf. of Paper</i> —Antiquarian, imperial, and superfine	4,975
“ Medium, cap, demy, and other writing	57,857
“ Folio and quarto	82,838
“ Bank and bank-note paper	33,704
“ Binders’ boards, box, pressing, and paste	579
“ Copper-plate, printing, and drawing	6,393
“ Sheathing paper	77
“ Playing cards	1,825
“ Paper, maché articles and wares of	22,129
“ Paper boxes and fancy boxes	85,620
“ Paper hangings	72,784
“ Paper, and manufactures of, not specified	45,051
“ Blank books	2,336
<i>Books Printed</i> —In Hebrew	914
“ In Latin and Greek	4,808
“ In English	315,102
“ In other languages	144,068
“ Illustrated periodicals and other works, &c.	7,980
<i>Leather</i> —Tanned, bend, and sole	5,491
“ Tanned and dressed upper	26,005
“ Skins tanned and dressed	295,605
“ “ and not dressed	4,596
“ Skivers	84,272
<i>Manufactures of Leather</i> —Boots and shoes	30,454
“ Gloves	794,976
“ Manufactures of, not specified	149,993
<i>Wares</i> —China, porcelain, earthen, and stone	2,332,996
“ Plated or gilt	192,934
“ Japanned, Britannia, and wedgewood	72,616
“ Silver plate, and silver or plated wire	2,307
“ Saddlery, common tinned, plated, and brass.	310,779

<i>Furs</i> —Undressed on the skin	221,245
“ Hatters’ dressed or undressed not on the skin	222,712
“ Dressed on the skin	99,986
“ Hats, caps, and manufactures of, not specified	27,334
<i>Wood</i> —Manufactures of	79,857
“ Unmanufactured	439,090
“ Dyewood in sticks	428,145
“ Bark of the cork tree	115,758
Marble	69,793
Quicksilver	3,060
Brushes and brooms	122,080
Black lead pencils	26,958
Slates of all kinds	216,497
Raw hides and skins	4,262,069
Boots and bootees of silk and prunella	128
Shoes and slippers of do	537
“ of India rubber	70,982
Grass cloth	27,426
Gunny bags	292,138
Umbrellas, parasols, and sun-shades of silk	39,109
“ all other	286
Flaxseed or linseed	214,900
Thibet, angora, and other goat’s hair and mohair	7,481
Wool	857,034
<i>Wines in casks</i> —Burgundy	1,716
“ Madeira	21,630
“ Sherry and San Lucar	109,983
“ Port	179,134
“ Claret	221,416
“ Teneriffe and other Canary	14,087
“ Fayal and other Azores	5,816
“ Sicily and other Mediterranean	67,364
“ Austria and other of Germany	1,998
“ Red Wines not enumerated	180,928
“ White do “	193,358
<i>In Bottles</i> —Burgundy	2,181
“ Champagne	288,256
“ Madeira	1,916
“ Sherry	1,379
“ Port	4,141
“ Claret	109,638
“ All other	38,068
<i>Foreign Distilled Spirits</i> —Brandy	1,135,089
“ “ From grain	327,493
“ “ From other matter	75,943
“ “ Cordials	24,647
<i>Beer, Ale, and Porter</i> —In casks	32,463
“ “ In bottles	91,342
Vinegar	6,037
Molasses	3,435,703

<i>Oil of foreign fisheries</i> —Spermaceti, whale, and other fish	16,899
Olive oil, in casks	63,783
Linseed	484,101
Castor, rapeseed, hempseed, and neatsfoot	674
Tea	8,868
Coffee	50,868
Chocolate	1,058
Cocoa	86,019
<i>Sugar</i> —Brown	8,963,654
“ White, clayed, or powdered	347,052
“ Loaf, and other refined	169,111
“ Candy	889
“ Syrup of sugar cane	885
<i>Fruit</i> —Almonds	190,291
“ Currants	111,171
“ Prunes and plums	26,382
“ Figs	96,203
“ Dates	14,046
“ Raisins	582,540
“ Nuts	137,758
<i>Spices</i> —Mace	15,367
“ Nutmegs	205,705
“ Cinnamon	13,790
“ Cloves	44,537
“ Pepper, black	136,436
“ “ red	8,004
“ Pimento	130,440
“ Cassia	83,717
“ Ginger, in root	74,252
<i>Camphor</i> —Crude	52,224
“ Refined	159
<i>Candles</i> —Wax and spermaceti	527
“ Tallow	10
Soap, other than perfumed	14,843
Tallow	67,162
Starch	2,021
Pearl Barley	804
Butter	202
Lard	9,179
Beef and pork	2,688
Hams and other bacon	2,769
Bristles	175,025
Saltpetre, crude and refined	564,415
Indigo	961,849
Woad or pastel	1,774
Ivory or bone black	1,689
Opium	129,279
Glue	8,586
Gunpowder	583
Alum	2,494

Copperas	4,993
Sulphate of quinine	45,005
Oil of vitriol	18
Bleaching powder	133,058
Soda ash	575,024
Sulphate of barytes	3,276
<i>Tobacco</i> —Unmanufactured	415,727
“ Snuff	320
“ Cigars	1,360,468
“ Manufactured, other than snuff or cigars	1,720
<i>Paints</i> —Dry ochre	29,299
“ Ochre in oil	331
“ Red and white lead	15,288
“ Whiting and Paris white	3,383
Litharge	105
Sugar of lead	2,031
<i>Cordage</i> —Tarred and cables	223,904
“ Untarred	15,622
Twine	41,575
Seines	502
Hemp, unmanufactured	187,905
Manilla, sun and other hemsps of India	342,445
Jute, sisal, grass, coir, &c.	379,399
Cordilla or tow of hemp and flax	1,512
Flax, unmanufactured	102,261
Rags of all kinds	626,607
Salt	1,042,500
Coal	461,140
Coke or culm	29
<i>Breadstuffs</i> —Wheat	194,415
“ Barley	1,809
“ Rye	36
“ Oats	1,838
“ Wheat flour	163,424
“ Oat meal	1,363
“ Potatoes	14,385
<i>Fish</i> —Dried or smoked	127,799
“ Salmon	80,944
“ Mackerel	535,128
“ Herrings and shad	24,566
“ All other	47,208
<i>Unenumerated</i> —At 5 per cent.	2,052,111
“ 10 “	1,313,834
“ 15 “	568,374
“ 20 “	2,971,149
“ 25 “	137,823
“ 30 “	1,693,097
“ 40 “	180,047
Total	\$132,281,325

Of which was imported in American vessels	110,070,915
“ “ Foreign vessels	22,210,410

A STATEMENT OF THE VALUES OF THE EXPORTS AND IMPORTS FOR THE SAME YEAR, DESIGNATING THE COUNTRIES TRADED WITH.

VALUE OF EXPORTS.

COUNTRIES.	Dom. Produce.	For. Produce.	Total.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.
Russia	1,047,582	108,428	1,156,010	1,319,084
Prussia	145,074	15,385	160,459	22,817
Sweden and Norway	625,972	32,844	658,816	750,817
Swedish W. I. . . .	75,496	800	76,296	13,785
Denmark	164,661	17,252	181,913	19,617
Danish W. I. . . .	876,969	76,874	953,843	535,738
Holland	1,595,450	271,513	1,866,963	1,417,908
Dutch E. I. . . .	133,905	107,954	241,859	249,346
“ W. I. . . .	316,666	22,147	338,813	453,616
“ Guiana	115,501	1,517	117,018	51,297
Hanse Towns. . . .	3,856,676	465,109	4,321,785	6,293,280
Belgium	1,989,764	200,171	2,189,935	1,325,061
England	62,928,024	8,924,291	71,852,315	59,763,502
Scotland	2,456,426	38,419	2,493,845	1,666,694
Ireland	2,379,291	1,303	2,380,594	415,923
Gibraltar	310,400	61,545	371,945	4,445
Malta	33,128	15,955	49,083	384
British E. I. . . .	510,284	156,715	666,999	2,069,632
“ W. I. . . .	4,344,536	40,347	4,384,883	1,158,563
“ Guiana	595,114	1,365	596,479	24,254
“ Honduras	249,648	44,181	293,829	185,684
Cape of Good Hope	100,338	19,939	120,277	60,431
British Am. Colonies	6,399,959	1,982,696	8,382,655	3,646,467
France Atlan. . . .	14,159,798	4,278,159	18,437,957	27,059,714
“ Medit. . . .	1,215,087	166,266	1,381,353	1,036,317
French W. I. . . .	469,353	20,071	489,224	127,039
“ Guiana	48,737	1,684	50,241	63,988
“ Fisheries	52,866	—	52,866	733
“ Afric. Pts. . . .	839	—	839	—
Spain Atlan. . . .	597,797	—	597,797	277,105
“ Medit. . . .	1,741,474	6,875	1,748,349	919,346
Teneriffe, &c. . . .	9,921	1,229	11,150	35,061
Manilla	36,949	13,543	50,942	1,197,027
Cuba	6,432,380	464,333	6,896,713	12,853,472
Porto Rico	801,722	37,012	838,734	2,106,296
Portugal	112,260	2,984	115,244	214,782
Madeira	110,842	7,407	118,249	9,432
Azores	3,660	—	3,660	11,438
Cape de Verds	101,723	6,849	108,572	225
Sardinia	175,583	18,389	193,072	—
Tuscany	5,197	—	5,197	—
Sicily	17,754	9,075	26,839	618,029

Italian States . . .	1,101,113	159,488	1,260,601	1,616,100
Ionian Rep.	—	—	—	15,106
Trieste, &c.	1,708,495	107,727	1,209,222	385,813
Turkey	114,830	110,321	225,151	406,028
Mexico	2,095,485	1,962,951	4,058,436	1,581,247
Central America . . .	34,940	15,438	50,378	18,272
New Granada	79,165	45,438	124,603	213,296
Venezuela	400,230	62,798	463,028	1,225,611
Brazil	3,092,736	279,698	3,372,434	7,992,648
Cisalpine R.	339,859	43,869	383,728	523,064
Argentine R.	208,703	25,225	233,928	1,026,097
Chili	1,073,625	220,886	1,924,511	1,310,451
Peru	124,618	16,731	141,349	317,759
China	2,063,625	126,388	2,190,013	8,083,496
Hayti	937,586	156,229	1,093,815	1,367,174
Asia generally	266,452	28,279	294,731	255,400
Africa	771,388	61,403	832,792	655,585
West Indies	132,961	1,337	134,298	10,594
South America	86,385	—	86,385	—
Pacific Ocean	305,118	67,483	372,601	9,960
Sandwich Islands . . .	—	—	—	6,588
Uncertain places . . .	—	—	—	371
Total	\$132,904,121	\$21,132,315	\$154,036,436	\$154,998,928

STATEMENT showing the number and class of vessels built in each state and territory of the U. S. in the year ending 30th June, 1848, with their tonnage.

STATES.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sl'ps & cal. bts.	Stmrs.	To'l No. ves. b'lt.	Total tonnage.
Maine	130	118	114	3	1	366	89,974.18
N. Hampshire	7	—	2	—	—	9	5,326.33
Vermont	—	—	7	—	2	9	1,189.18
Massachusetts	53	17	107	2	2	181	39,366.39
Rhode Island	5	—	4	4	—	13	4,053.44
Connecticut	2	4	36	8	5	55	7,387.19
New York	27	5	100	229	21	382	68,434.88
New Jersey	—	—	51	24	2	77	8,177.63
Pennsylvania	7	5	26	210	40	296	29,638.12
Delaware	—	—	21	9	1	31	3,205.59
Maryland	15	13	117	—	1	146	17,480.93
Virginia	4	1	24	5	—	34	2,980.28
North Carolina	—	—	40	3	—	43	2,946.85
South Carolina	1	1	2	—	—	4	449.65
Georgia	—	—	—	—	1	1	212.09
Ohio	1	8	26	11	17	63	13,656.20
Missouri	—	—	—	18	20	38	6,256.24
Illinois	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tennessee	—	—	—	—	1	1	54.90
Kentucky	—	—	—	—	39	39	9,274.60
Louisiana	1	—	11	4	2	18	18,620.39

STATES.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sl'ps & cal. bts.	Stmr's.	To'l No. ves. b'lt.	Total ton- nage.
Florida	—	—	3	—	1	4	317.57
Michigan	1	2	8	—	9	20	5,301.89
Alabama	—	—	2	—	2	4	265.01
Texas	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dis. of Columb.	—	—	—	17	—	17	500.46
Totals	254	174	701	547	175	1851	318,075.54

STATEMENT showing the increase of the registered tonnage in 1848.

	ships.	brigs.	schs.	slps.	stmr's.	tonnage.
Built during the year	213	72	36	1	5	135,885.70
Sold to foreigners		18	18	10	0	11,079.00
Condemned, unseaworthy		9	4	6	0	3,602.11
Lost at sea		48	28	20	1	26,872.42
Increase	138	22	0	0	4	94,332.17
Totals	213	72	36	1	5	135,885.70

STATEMENT showing the increase of the enrolled tonnage in 1848.

	ships.	brigs.	schs.	slps.	stmr's.	tonnage.
Built during the year	41	102	666	546	170	182,189.79
Sold to foreigners	0	0	4	0	1	1,377.31
Condemned, unseaworthy	0	1	19	16	8	3,552.71
Lost at sea	0	9	55	9	35	14,794.91
Increase	41	92	588	521	126	162,464.76
Totals	41	102	666	546	170	182,189.79

THE TOTAL increase in the tonnage of the United States during the year, is 314,996.08 tons, as follows:

New registered	94,332.17	Increase in enrolled	30,914.75
New enrolled	162,464.76	do. licen. under 20 tons	2,042.54
Increase in register	25,241.71	Total	314,996.08

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

	Tons.	95ths.
The aggregate amount of the tonnage of the United States, on the 30th of June, 1848,		3,154,041.85
Whereof permanent registered tonnage	1,067,976.60	
Temporary registered tonnage	292,910.25	
Total registered tonnage		*1,360,886.85
Permanent enrolled licensed tonnage	1,691,327.20	
Temporary enrolled and licensed tonnage	56,304.41	
Total enrolled and licensed tonnage		*1,747,631.61

* Of the registered tonnage as above, 1,360,886.85 tons, there were employed in the whale fishery, on the 30th June, 1848, 192,179.90 tons.

Licensed tonnage under 20 tons, employed in the coasting trade	38,328.67	
Licensed tonnage under 20 tons, employed in the cod-fishery	7,194.62	
	<hr/>	
Total licensed tonnage under 20 tons		45,523.34
		<hr/>
Total		3,154,041.85
Of the enrolled and licensed tonnage there were employed in the coasting trade		1,620,988.16
Do. in the mackerel fishery		43,558.73
Do. in the cod-fishery		82,651.82
Do. in the whale fishery		432.75
		<hr/>
Total as above		1,747,631.61

Of the enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the coasting trade, amounting, as stated above, to 1,620,988.16 tons, there were employed in steam navigation, 411,823.40 tons.

TABLES OF THE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES
FOR A SERIES OF YEARS FROM 1821 TO 1848.

UNITED STATES IMPORTS, &c.

The following table will exhibit the value of articles of foreign growth or manufacture imported, exported and consumed in the United States, during a series of years.

	Foreign imports.	Re-exported.	Consumed.
1821, .	\$62,583,724	\$21,302,488	\$41,283,236
1822, .	83,241,511	22,286,202	60,956,309
1823, .	77,579,267	28,543,622	50,035,645
1824, .	80,549,007	25,337,157	55,211,850
1825, .	96,340,075	31,590,643	63,749,432
1826, .	84,974,477	24,539,612	60,434,865
1827, .	79,484,068	23,403,136	56,080,932
1828, .	88,509,824	21,595,017	66,914,807
1829, .	74,492,527	16,658,478	57,834,049
1830, .	70,876,920	14,387,479	56,489,441
1831, .	103,191,124	20,033,526	83,157,598
1832, .	101,029,266	24,039,473	76,989,783
1833, .	108,118,311	19,822,735	88,295,576
1834, .	126,521,332	23,312,811	103,208,521
1835, .	149,895,742	20,504,495	129,391,247
1836, .	189,980,035	21,746,360	168,233,675
1837, .	140,980,035	21,854,962	119,134,255
1838, .	113,717,404	12,452,795	101,264,609
1839, .	162,092,132	17,494,525	144,597,607
1840, .	107,141,519	18,190,312	88,951,207
1841, .	127,946,177	15,499,081	112,447,096
1842, .	100,162,087	11,721,538	88,440,549

*1843,	64,753,799	6,552,707	58,201,092
1844,	108,435,035	11,484,867	96,950,168
1845,	117,254,564	15,346,830	101,907,734
1846,	121,691,797	11,346,623	110,345,174
1847,	146,545,638	8,011,158	138,534,480
1848,	154,977,876	21,128,010	133,849,866

DOMESTIC EXPORTS.

The following statements show the total value of all articles of domestic produce and manufacture exported from the United States since 1821, and also the value of bread-stuffs and provisions, alone, during the same period—in order to show the per centage of these articles in the whole amount.

	Total Domestic Exports.	Bread-stuffs and Provisions.
1821,	\$43,671,894	\$12,341,901
1822,	49,874,079	13,886,856
1823,	47,155,408	13,767,847
1824,	53,649,500	15,059,484
1825,	66,944,745	11,634,449
1826,	53,055,710	11,303,496
1827,	58,921,691	11,085,556
1828,	50,609,699	11,461,144
1829,	55,700,193	13,131,858
1830,	59,462,029	12,075,430
1831,	61,277,057	17,538,227
1832,	63,137,470	12,424,703
1833,	70,317,698	14,209,128
1834,	81,024,162	11,524,024
1835,	101,189,082	12,009,399
1836,	106,916,680	10,614,130
1837,	95,564,414	9,558,359
1838,	96,033,821	9,636,650
1839,	103,533,891	14,147,779
1840,	113,895,634	19,067,535
1841,	106,382,722	17,196,102
1842,	92,969,996	16,902,876
1843,	77,993,783	11,204,123
1844,	99,725,179	17,970,135
1845,	99,299,776	16,743,421
1846,	102,141,869	27,701,121
1847,	150,637,464	68,701,921
1848,	132,904,121	37,472,754

PUBLIC DEBT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement, exhibiting the public debt, the receipts, exclusive of treasury notes and loans, and the payments on account of the debt each year, from 1791, to September, 1843, inclusive.

* Prior to 1843, the commercial year ended 30th September. In 1843 and since, on the 30th June.

	Debt.	Revenue, exclusive of Loans and Treasury Notes.	Principal and Inter- est of Debt paid.
1791,	75,463,476 52	4,418,913 19	5,287,949 50
2,	77,227,924 66	3,069,960 31	7,263,665 99
3,	80,352,634 04	4,652,923 14	5,819,505 29
4,	78,427,404 77	5,431,904 87	5,801,578 09
5,	80,747,587 39	6,114,534 59	6,084,411 61
6,	83,762,172 07	8,377,529 65	5,835,846 44
7,	82,064,479 33	8,688,780 99	5,792,421 82
8,	79,228,539 12	7,900,495 80	3,990,294 14
9,	78,408,669 77	7,546,813 31	4,596,876 78
1800,	82,976,294 35	10,848,749 10	4,578,369 95
1,	84,038,050 90	12,930,335 95	7,291,707 04
2,	80,712,632 25	14,995,793 95	9,539,004 76
3,	77,054,686 30	11,664,097 63	7,256,150 43
4,	86,427,120 88	11,826,307 38	8,171,787 45
5,	82,312,150 50	13,560,693 20	5,369,889 79
6,	75,723,270 66	15,759,931 07	8,989,884 61
7,	69,216,398 54	16,398,019 26	6,307,720 10
8,	65,196,317 97	17,060,661 93	10,260,245 35
9,	57,023,192 09	7,773,473 12	6,452,554 16
1810,	53,173,217 52	9,384,214 28	8,008,904 46
11,	48,005,587 76	14,423,529 09	8,009,204 05
12,	45,209,737 90	9,801,132 76	4,449,622 45
13,	55,962,827 57	14,340,409 95	11,108,123 44
14,	81,487,846 24	11,181,625 16	7,900,543 94
15,	99,833,660 15	15,696,916 82	12,628,922 35
16,	127,334,933 74	47,676,985 66	24,871,062 93
17,	123,491,965 16	33,099,049 74	25,423,036 12
18,	103,466,633 83	21,585,171 04	21,296,201 62
19,	95,529,648 28	24,603,374 37	7,703,926 29
1820,	91,015,566 15	17,840,669 55	8,628,494 28
1,	89,987,427 66	14,573,370 72	8,367,093 62
2,	93,546,676 98	20,232,427 94	7,848,949 12
3,	90,775,877 28	20,540,666 26	5,530,016 41
4,	90,269,777 77	19,381,212 79	16,568,393 76
5,	83,788,432 71	21,840,858 02	12,095,344 78
6,	81,054,059 99	25,260,434 21	11,041,082 19
7,	73,987,357 20	22,960,363 96	10,003,668 30
8,	67,475,043 87	24,763,629 23	12,163,438 07
9,	58,421,413 67	24,827,627 38	12,383,867 78
1830,	48,565,406 50	24,844,116 51	11,355,718 22
1,	39,123,191 68	28,526,820 82	16,174,378 22
2,	24,322,235 18	31,865,561 16	17,840,309 29
3,	7,001,032 88	33,948,426 25	1,543,543 38
4,	4,760,082 08	21,791,935 55	6,176,565 19
5,	351,289 05	35,430,087 10	58,191 28
6,	291,089 05	50,826,796 08	
7,	1,878,223 55	24,890,864 69	21,822 91
8,	4,857,660 46	26,302,561 74	5,605,720 27
9,	11,983,737 53	30,023,966 68	11,117,987 42

1840,	5,125,077	63	19,442,646	08	4,086,613	70
1,	6,737,398	00	16,860,160	27	5,600,689	74
2,	15,028,486	37	19,965,009	25	8,575,539	24
*3,	27,203,450	69	8,231,001	26	861,596	55
4,	24,748,188	23	29,320,707	78	12,991,902	84
5,	17,093,794	30	29,941,853	90	8,595,039	10
6,	16,750,926	33	29,699,967	74	1,213,823	31
7,	38,956,623	38	26,437,403	16	6,719,282	37
8,	48,526,379	37	35,635,779	21	15,429,197	21
1848,	69,805,104	56	9,607,914	82	3,451,400	20

Treasury Department,

Register's Office, September, 1848.

DANIEL GRAHAM, Register.

ESTIMATES OF THE POPULATION AND CROPS OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE
YEAR 1848.

By Mr. BURKE, U. S. Commissioner of Patents.

States and Territories.	Population in 1840.	Present estimated population.	Number bushels wheat.	Bushels Barley.	Bushels Oats.
Maine	501,793	615,000	900,000	290,000	2,000,000
N. Hampshire	284,574	308,000	620,000	132,000	2,500,000
Massachusetts	737,699	875,000	260,000	175,000	2,300,000
Rhode Island	108,830	135,000	4,600	55,000	220,000
Connecticut	309,978	340,000	130,000	30,000	2,000,000
Vermont	291,948	310,000	680,000	60,000	3,500,000
New York	2,428,921	2,880,000	15,500,000	4,300,000	28,000,000
New Jersey	373,306	425,000	1,200,000	12,000	5,800,000
Pennsylvania	1,724,033	2,220,000	15,200,000	155,000	20,000,000
Delaware	78,085	85,000	450,000	4,500	700,000
Maryland	470,009	510,000	5,150,000	3,000	2,200,000
Virginia	1,239,797	1,295,000	12,250,000	94,000	11,000,000
N. Carolina	753,419	780,000	2,450,000	4,200	4,000,000
S. Carolina	594,308	620,000	1,400,000	4,880	1,250,000
Georgia	691,392	825,000	2,100,000	12,600	1,500,000
Alabama	590,756	716,000	1,300,000	7,800	2,000,000
Mississippi	375,651	670,000	550,000	2,250	1,500,000
Louisiana	352,411	490,000
Tennessee	829,210	980,000	9,000,000	6,800	10,500,000
Kentucky	779,828	890,000	1,500,000	20,000	15,000,000
Ohio	1,519,467	1,980,000	20,000,000	400,000	30,000,000
Indiana	685,866	1,000,000	8,500,000	42,000	17,000,000
Illinois	476,183	800,000	5,400,000	120,000	5,000,000
Missouri	383,702	589,000	2,000,000	15,000	7,000,000
Arkansas	95,574	200,000	500,000	1,100	500,000

* See note to p. 87.

States and Territories.	Population in 1840.	Present estimated population.	Number bush'ls of wheat.	Bushels of Barley.	Bushels Oats.
Michigan	212,267	420,000	10,000,000	300,000	6,000,000
Florida	54,477	80,000	13,000
Wisconsin	30,945	250,000	1,600,000	35,000	2,500,000
Iowa	43,112	150,000	1,300,000	40,000	1,500,000
Texas	150,000	1,300,000
Dist. of Col.	43,712	48,000	20,000	17,000
Oregon	50,000	100,000
Total	17,063,353	21,686,000	126,364,600	6,220,050	185,500,000

States and Territories.	Bushels Rye.	Bushels Buckwheat.	Bushels Indian Corn.	Bushels Potatoes.	Number tons of Hay.
Maine	100,000	80,000	3,000,000	9,000,000	1,200,000
N. Hamp.	500,000	175,000	2,600,000	5,000,000	680,000
Massachus's	750,000	145,000	3,800,000	4,800,000	750,000
Rhode Island	55,000	5,000	900,000	800,000	90,000
Connecticut	1,500,000	500,000	3,400,000	3,500,000	650,000
Vermont	370,000	350,000	2,500,000	8,000,000	1,400,000
New York	4,000,000	3,860,000	17,500,000	27,000,000	4,200,000
New Jersey	3,300,000	1,000,000	9,000,000	2,100,000	470,000
Pennsylvania	13,500,000	3,800,000	21,000,000	8,200,000	2,000,000
Delaware	65,000	16,000	3,850,000	200,000	25,000
Maryland	1,200,000	120,000	8,800,000	1,000,000	130,000
Virginia	1,800,000	270,000	38,000,000	3,500,000	430,000
N. Carolina	300,000	20,000	26,000,000	3,200,000	140,000
S. Carolina	60,000	13,500,000	4,200,000	35,000
Georgia	80,000	27,000,000	2,000,000	28,000
Alabama	85,000	27,000,000	2,500,000	21,000
Mississippi	30,000	17,000,000	2,600,000	1,000
Louisiana	2,500	10,600,000	1,800,000	30,000
Tennessee	400,000	34,000	76,600,000	3,000,000	50,000
Kentucky	2,800,000	18,000	65,000,000	2,200,000	140,000
Ohio	1,250,000	1,500,000	70,000,000	5,000,000	1,600,000
Indiana	300,000	110,000	45,000,000	2,500,000	500,000
Illinois	170,000	130,000	40,000,000	2,300,000	450,000
Missouri	90,000	30,000	28,000,000	1,200,000	100,000
Arkansas	12,000	8,000,000	800,000	1,500
Michigan	100,000	340,000	10,000,000	5,000,000	400,000
Florida	1,250,000	500,000	1,500
Wisconsin	10,000	40,000	1,500,000	1,250,000	150,000
Iowa	15,000	25,000	3,500,000	1,000,000	60,000
Texas	1,800,000	300,000
Dist. of Col.	8,000	50,000	25,000	2,000
Oregon	1,000,000
Total	32,952,500	12,538,000	588,150,000	114,475,000	15,735,000

States.	Rolls of Tobacco.	Pounds Cotton.	Pounds Rice.	Tons Hemp.	Pounds Sugar.
Massachus's	150,000				
Connecticut	825,000				
New York	36,000				
Pennsylv'a	610,000				
Maryland	23,000,000				
Virginia	45,000,000	2,800,000	3,500		
N. Carolina	13,000,000	45,000,000	3,600,000		
S. Carolina	33,000	105,000,000	90,000,000		
Georgia	220,000	220,000,000	18,000,000		
Alabama	360,000	165,000,000	350,000		
Mississippi	215,000	245,000,000	1,200,000		
Louisiana		190,000,000	5,000,000		200,000,000
Tennessee	36,500,000	36,000,000	12,000	800	
Kentucky	68,000,000	2,200,000	25,000	11,000	
Ohio	9,500,000			500	
Indiana	3,950,000			480	
Illinois	1,340,000		9,000	550	
Missouri	15,600,000			7,000	
Arkansas	220,000	25,000,000			
Florida	350,000	18,000,000	1,000,000		
Texas		12,000,000			
Total	218,909,000	1,066,000,000	119,199,500	20,330	200,000,000

THE NEW CENSUS BILL,

Reported by Mr. Cameron, provides for returns to be made under plans and forms prepared by the Secretary of the Treasury. The following are some of the principal items—

- White males under five and every five years over.
- Females, do. do.
- Free coloured under ten years, ten and twenty-four, twenty-four and thirty-seven, &c., number taxed and entitled to vote.
- Free coloured females, same.
- Slaves under ten, ten and twenty-four, twenty-four and thirty-six, thirty-six and fifty-five, fifty-five and one hundred, over.
- Female slaves, do. do. do. do.
- Number of persons subject to militia duty.
- To vote for all elective officers.
- Aliens not naturalized.
- Paupers.
- Married females under forty-five.
- Unmarried between sixteen and forty-five.
- Marriages preceding year.
- Births do. males and females.
- Deaths do. do. do.
- Persons born in the state.
- Do. New England States.
- Do. other States.

Persons born in Mexico or South America.

Do. France.

Do. Germany.

Do. other parts of Europe.

Deaf and Dumb under twelve, twelve and twenty-five. Total number.

Number do. do. do. whose parents are unable to support them. Whose parents are able.

Blind under eight, eight and twenty-five, poor and not poor as to education.

Idiots do. do. and number supported by charity.

Number of persons employed, value produced, and capital invested in mining, agriculture, commerce, manufactures and trades, navigation, ocean, canals, lakes, rivers, fisheries, products, forests, learned professions, engineers, &c.

Pensioners, and for what service.

Schools and universities of all kinds, and number of students, and cost of buildings and property.

Churches, cost, improvements, members, Baptist, Episcopalian, Presbyterian, Congregational, Methodist, Roman catholic, Dutch reformed, Universalist, —Unitarians, Jews, Quakers, Lutherans, and all others.

Agriculture and Horticulture.—Acres improved, uncultivated, average value.

Acres sown and products, barley, peas, beans, buckwheat, turnips, potatoes, flax, wheat, corn, rye, oats, hemp, cotton, rice, silk.

Mineral lands, all kinds, value per acre, number of mines worked, capital.

Neat cattle and hogs, horses, mules, and sheep, do.

Number of fleeces, pounds of wool, yards of woollen, cotton, linen goods, and those manufactured by families.

Mills, number and cost of construction, value of material raw and manufactured.

Returns of grist, yarn, oil, fulling and carding mills.

All cotton, woollen, and iron works.

Glass, rolling mills, furnaces, forges, distilleries, asheries, pot and pearl, oil cloths, dyed and printed goods, flour mills, paper do., tanneries, breweries, and all their products.

Internal improvements.—Railroads completed, and cost, in progress and cost of completion. Canals completed, and cost of same, in progress and cost.

Turnpikes do., bridges and cost.

Assistant Marshals to receive \$2 for every one hundred persons, instead of \$2,25 as before, and where the people are sparsely settled, \$2,25.

Marshals of Maine and N. Hampshire to receive as compensation, \$400	South Carolina, Georgia, Wisconsin, Indiana, Illinois, each,	450
Massachusetts and Vermont, 450	East Tennessee and west Tennessee, each,	250
Connecticut, 350	Two marshals, Mississippi, each,	200
Rhode Island and Delaware, 250	Michigan and Arkansas, each,	300
New York, the two marshals each, 450	Ohio, 500	
New Jersey, 350	District of Columbia and Florida,	100
Pennsylvania, Maryland, Kentucky, North Carolina, Iowa,		

Also extra compensation when performing the duty of deputies.

UNITED STATES NAVY.

The official documents recently communicated to congress contain the following statement of vessels in commission on the 1st November, 1848.

SHIPS OF THE LINE.

Ohio,	Pacific squadron.
Pennsylvania,	Receiving ship, Norfolk.
North Carolina,	“ New York.
Franklin,	“ Boston.

RAZEE.

Independence,	Pacific squadron.
---------------	-------------------

FRIGATES.

United States,	Mediterranean.
Congress,	Pacific squadron.
Brandywine,	Brazil station.
St. Lawrence,	European seas.
Raritan,	Home squadron.
Constitution,	Mediterranean.

SLOOPS OF WAR.

Saratoga,	Home squadron.
Albany,	Norfolk.
Germantown,	Home squadron.
Portsmouth,	Coast of Africa.
Jamestown,	Mediterranean.
Plymouth,	East Indies.
St. Mary's,	Pacific squadron.
Warren,	do.
Ontario,	Receiving ship, Baltimore.
St. Louis,	Brazil station.
Decatur,	Coast of Africa.
Preble,	Pacific squadron.
Dale,	do.
Yorktown,	Coast of Africa.

BRIGS.

Flirt,	Home squadron.
Wave,	Coast survey.
Phoenix,	do.
Taney,	Mediterranean.

STEAMERS.

Princeton,	Mediterranean.
Michigan,	Upper lakes.
Allegheny,	Brazil station.
Union,	Receiving ship, Philadelphia.
Iris,	Home squadron.
Waterwitch,	do.
Engineer,	Norfolk.
General Taylor,	Pensacola.

STORE-SHIPS.

Erie,	Mediterranean.
Lexington,	Pacific squadron.
Southampton,	do.
Fredonia,	do.
Supply,	Mediterranean.
Relief,	Brazil station.

From this statement it appears that there were in commission 4 ships of the line, 1 razee, 6 frigates, 14 sloops, 4 brigs, 4 schooners, 8 steamers, 6 store-ships. Total 47.

The following is a statement of vessels in ordinary at the same date:

SHIPS OF THE LINE.	
Vermont,	Boston.
Columbus,	Norfolk.
Delaware,	do.
FRIGATES.	
Potomac,	Norfolk.
Columbia,	do.
Cumberland,	New York.
Savannah, (repairing,)	do.
Constellation,	Norfolk.
Macedonian,	New York.
SLOOPS OF WAR.	
John Adams, (repairing,)	Boston.
Falmouth, (equipping,)	do.
Marion,	do.
Vincennes, (repairing,)	New York.
Fairfield,	Norfolk.
Vandalia, (repairing,)	do.
Cyane,	do.
Levant,	do.
STEAMERS.	
Mississippi, (repairing,)	Norfolk.
Vixen,	do.
Fulton,	New York.
STORE-SHIP.	
Electra,	New York.

There were thus in ordinary 3 ships of the line, 6 frigates, 8 sloops of war, 3 steamers, 1 store ship. Total 21.

The following is a statement of *vessels on the stocks*, and in progress of construction at the same date:

At Kittery, Me., the Alabama ship of the line, the Santee frigate, and the Saranac steamer, of the first class.

At Charlestown, Mass., the Virginia ship of the line.

At New York, the Sabine frigate, and the San Jacinto steamer, of the first class.

At Hoboken, N. J., an iron steamer is in process of construction.

At Philadelphia, the Susquehanna, a steamer of the first class.

At Gosport, Va., the New York ship of the line, and the Powhattan steamer, of the first class.

At Sackett's Harbour, the New Orleans ship of the line.

There are thus 4 ships of the line, 2 frigates, and 5 steamers—total 11—on the stocks, and in progress of construction.

The following is a statement of vessels broken up, sold, or lost, since the last annual report:

Broken up—As unworthy of repairs, the Austin sloop of war, at Pensacola.

Sold—Brig Boxer; Experiment, Bonito, Reefer, Mahonese, Falcon, and Tampico, schooners; Ætna, Stromboli, Vesuvius, and Hecla, bomb vessels; Spitfire, Scorpion, and Scourge, steamers, at Philadelphia.

Lost—On-ka-hy-e schooner, on Caicos Reef; Petrita, (captured from Mexico,) at Alvarado.

Making in all 1 sloop, 1 brig, 7 schooners, 4 bomb vessels, and 4 steamers Total 17.

THE UNITED STATES ARMY.

(From the official report of the adjutant general.)

The authorized regular force of the army consists of 865 commissioned officers, and 8940 enlisted men—aggregate 9805: and is constituted as follows:—

DESIGNATION OF CORPS AND TROOPS OF THE LINE.	Commissioned officers.	Non-commissioned officers, musicians, artificers, and privates.	Aggregate.
General officers,	5	. . .	5
General staff,	75	. . .	75
Medical department,	81	. . .	81
Pay department,	31	. . .	31
Officers of the corps of engineers,	43	. . .	43
Officers of the corps of topographical engineers,	37	. . .	37
Officers of the ordnance department,	37	. . .	37
Military storekeepers,	17
Aggregate,	309	. . .	326
Two regiments of dragoons,	72	1230	1302
The regiment of mounted riflemen,	36	765	801
Four regiments of artillery,	216	2600	2816
Eight regiments of infantry,	288	4192	4480
Aggregate troops of the line,	612	8787	8399
One company of engineer soldiers, (sappers, miners, and pontoniers,)	100	100
Ordnance sergeants,	53	53
Aggregate of the authorized military establishment, *921	921	8940	9878

The authorized number of troops of the line, consisting of cavalry, artillery, and infantry, (15 regiments,) is 8,789 non-commissioned officers and men.

The actual force in service, non-commissioned officers and men, is 8,458—leaving a deficiency of 329 to be recruited.

The mechanics and labourers belonging to the ordnance department not being restricted in number by law, are not included in the foregoing exhibit. The number now in service is 495.

Immediately after the President's proclamation of July 4, 1848, announcing the termination of the war between the United States and the republic of Mexico, prompt measures were taken by the department for the withdrawal of all the troops from the field, and the disbanding of both regulars and volunteers raised for the period of the war, who were honourably discharged the service as soon after their arrival at the places of rendezvous within the

* The actual number of commissioned officers is 865; fifty-six hold commissions both in the staff and line, are counted twice, and should be deducted from the number 921, obtained by adding the full number allowed by each regiment and corps. This number (921) does not include the military store-keepers, (17,) but these are accounted for in the column of "aggregate."

United States as was practicable. The measures adopted may be best seen by reference to "general orders," Nos. 25, 35, and 36, respectively dated June 8, July 6, and July 7, 1848, submitted with the report.

The accompanying returns show the number of regulars and volunteer troops in service at the termination of the late war, as follows:—

REGULARS.

Commissioned officers,	1,338
Non-commissioned officers and men,	22,695
Aggregate regulars,	24,033

VOLUNTEERS.

Commissioned officers,	1,527
Non-commissioned officers and men,	21,590
Aggregate volunteers,	23,117
Aggregate regulars and volunteers,	47,150

Of the regular force in service at the close of the war, (enlisted men,) 9,418 were recruited for five years, and 13,277 for the period of the war.

POST OFFICE STATISTICS.

(From the tables accompanying the Report of the Post Master General.)

The entire length of post routes in operation during the year ending 30th June, 1848, was 163,208 miles. The aggregate transportation of the mails over these routes during the year was 41,012,579 miles; and the cost for the year was \$2,394,703.

The following table will show what amount of the above aggregate of mail service was performed in steamboats, and by railroads, and also the proportion of cost which was paid for those kinds of mail service:—

	In Steamboat.		By Railroad.	
	Miles.	Dollars.	Miles.	Dollars.
Maine,	—	—	70,824	6,733
New Hampshire,	—	—	144,768	10,504
Vermont,	—	—	—	—
Massachusetts,	62,574	2,888	906,284	70,706
Rhode Island,	—	—	30,264	4,850
Connecticut,	—	—	230,444	22,192
New York,	720,306	42,311	735,076	62,958
New Jersey,	14,560	250	208,728	37,551
Pennsylvania,	—	—	356,720	43,357
Delaware,	—	—	—	—
Maryland,	—	—	391,768	95,745
Virginia,	287,872	36,610	118,248	25,043
North Carolina,	162,824	39,500	179,816	46,700
South Carolina,	116,480	14,000	150,696	39,812
Georgia,	74,464	7,500	404,196	74,037
Florida,	39,000	4,100	—	—
Ohio,	353,862	11,713	95,928	9,115
Michigan,	50,960	2,700	149,760	13,374
Indiana,	38,688	3,000	53,664	3,729
Illinois,	—	—	—	—
Wisconsin,	—	—	—	—
Iowa,	—	—	—	—
Missouri,	475,696	7,800	—	—

	In Steamboat.		By Railroad.	
	Miles.	Dollars.	Miles.	Dollars.
Kentucky,	1,504,872	20,230		
Tennessee,				
Alabama,	182,210	36,272	70,512	13,843
Mississippi,	23,400	1,975	28,704	3,943
Arkansas,	55,536	6,000		
Louisiana,	205,856	15,920		
Texas,	16,640	1,250		
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	4,385,800	\$262,019	4,327,400	\$584,193

Some of the results shown by these tables are :—

I. The average cost of transporting the mails, taking all the modes together, is not quite *six cents per mile*.

II. The average cost of transportation in all modes, exclusive of steamboats and railroads, is *thirteen and a half cents per mile*.

III. The average cost of transportation in steamboats is *six cents per mile*.

IV. The average cost of transportation by railroads is *thirteen and a half cents per mile*.

V. If the cost of transportation by railroads were at the same rate as by other modes, (and the uniform result of the substitution of steamboats and railroads for other modes of conveyance, has been in all cases, except that of the mail, a reduction in the prices of passage and freight) then the cost of transportation for the past year would have been \$1,966,218 instead of \$2,394,703, being a difference of \$428,485.

The post office army directly under the control of the post office department, numbers twenty thousand four hundred and twenty-four.

Deputy post masters	16,159
Contractors	4,017
Route agents	47
Local agents	21
Mail messengers	180
	<hr/>
Total	20,424

And this is entirely irrespective of the immense army of drivers, owners of coaches, teams, &c., indirectly under the influence of the department. It is not, therefore, wonderful that the people should be jealous of the manner in which such a powerful department is controlled.

The immense mass of business performed in the office of the post office auditor, may be imagined from the following statement of the number of accounts, &c., during the last fiscal year:—

The number of quarterly accounts of postmasters examined, was	62,048.
“ “ “ “ contractors examined, was	9,688
“ “ “ “ errors discovered and corrected in former accounts, was	8,977
“ “ “ “ letters of packets received was	84,525
“ “ “ “ “ “ sent	68,011

An idea may be formed of the immense number of letters and packets received and sent, by reflecting that they averaged *four hundred and ninety* for every day in the year, except Sundays.

THE COAST SURVEY.

From the report of Professor Bache, superintendent of the coast survey, we gather the subjoined results of the last four years' labours. The work has been carried into every state on the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico, with one exception, and surveying parties are now on their way to the Pacific coast:

The differences of longitude of New York and Cambridge, New York and Philadelphia, and Philadelphia and Washington, have been ascertained by telegraph. The primary reconnaissance and triangulation have been carried from the south-west part of Rhode Island into Maine. A base line of verification, of eleven miles in length, has been measured. The topography has been carried from Point Judith to Cape Cod, and has included the shores of Boston harbour and its approaches.

The map of New York bay and harbour and its environs, in six sheets, and the smaller map in one sheet, have been published. Five charts of harbours of refuge, &c., in Long Island Sound, have been published. One large sheet of the chart of Long Island Sound has been published, and another is well advanced toward completion. The complete chart of Delaware bay and river, in three sheets, has been published. The off-shore chart, from Cape May to Point Judith, is nearly completed. One sheet of the south side of Long Island, delayed for work of verification, is nearly completed.

The primary triangulation has been extended across from the Delaware to the Chesapeake, and down the bay to the Virginia line. The triangulation of all the rivers emptying into the Chesapeake, north of the Patuxent, and part of the Patuxent, has been made. The triangulation has extended over Albemarle, Croatan and Roanoke Sounds. The triangulation of the rivers emptying into the north and south sides of Albemarle Sound has been made, and the topography of the shores (with one exception) and of the Sound, has been completed.

A general reconnaissance has been made of the coast of South Carolina and Georgia. Also a part of the coast of Florida. A complete reconnaissance has been made of the coast of Alabama, Mississippi, and part of Louisiana. The topography of the shores of Mississippi Sound, as far west as Pascagoula, is complete, and of Dauphin, Petit Bois, Round, Ship, and Cat Islands. The hydrography of the entrance to Mobile Bay, and of Cat and Ship Island Harbours, and their approaches, and of part of Mississippi Sound, is complete. The computations and reductions have been kept up, and charts of the entrance to Mobile Bay and of Cat and Ship Island Harbours, are in preparation.

During this period, an area of 17,555 square miles has been triangulated; the topographical surveys, with the plane table, have covered 2,318 square miles, and embraced an extent of shore line, roads, &c. of 7,179 miles. The hydrography has covered an area of 20,086 square miles, of which 16,824 were principally off shore or deep sea work. Four thousand four hundred and four copies of maps and charts have been distributed to literary and scientific institutions in our country, and to departments of our own and foreign governments. In the estimates for the next fiscal year, the total sum asked is \$186,000.

In answer to a call from the senate, the president sent in the following statement of appropriations for the coast survey from the commencement of the work.

Dates of appropriations.	Amount.
1807, February 10, - - - - -	\$50,000 00
1812, February 26, re-appropriation, - - - - -	49,284 05
1816, April 16, do. - - - - -	29,720 57
1816, April 27, - - - - -	54,720 57

1832, July 10,	-	-	-	-	-	20,000	00
1833, March 2,	-	-	-	-	-	20,000	20
1834, June 27,	-	-	-	-	-	30,000	00
1835, February 13,	-	-	-	-	-	30,000	00
1836, May 9,	-	-	-	-	-	80,000	00
1837, March 3,	-	-	-	-	-	60,000	00
1838, July 7,	-	-	-	-	-	90,000	00
1839, March 3,	-	-	-	-	-	90,000	00
1840, May 8,	-	-	-	-	-	100,000	00
1841, March 3,	-	-	-	-	-	100,000	00
1842, May 18,	-	-	-	-	-	100,000	00
1843, March 3,	-	-	-	-	-	100,000	00
1844, June 17,	-	-	-	-	-	80,000	00
1845, March 3,	-	-	-	-	-	100,000	00
1846, August 10,	-	-	-	-	-	111,000	00
1847, March 3,	-	-	-	-	-	146,000	00
1848, August 12,	-	-	-	-	-	165,000	00
						\$1,605,725	39

Deduct amounts carried to the surplus fund, viz.:

In 1809,	-	-	-	-	\$49,284	25	
In 1814,	-	-	-	-	29,720	57	
In 1822,	-	-	-	-	14,816	75	
In 1826,	-	-	-	-	2,586	00	
						96,407	57

\$1,509,317 82

DANIEL GRAHAM, Register.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,

Register's Office, December 22, 1848.

THE NATIONAL ARMORIES.

The secretary of war transmitted to congress the following statement of the expenses of the national armories, and number of arms and appendages manufactured under government, during the fiscal year just closed, which we find in the Philadelphia Bulletin.

EXPENDITURES.

Springfield—For repairs and improvements, including lands,							
buildings, dams, &c.	-	-	-	-	-	\$65,911	29
For materials, workmanship, salaries, &c.	-	-	-	-	-	161,632	92
Total	-	-	-	-	-	\$227,544	21
Harper's Ferry—For repairs, improvements, &c.	-	-	-	-	-	75,269	63
For materials, workmanship, &c.	-	-	-	-	-	183,264	56
Total	-	-	-	-	-	258,534	18
Total expenditures	-	-	-	-	-	\$486,078	38

ARMS AND APPENDAGES MANUFACTURED.

Springfield—Muskets (percussion,) 15,817; rifles (percussion,) none; sapper's musketoons, 252; cavalry musketoons, 4; artillery musketoons, 701; ball screws, 1,994; wipers, 24,273; screw-drivers, 22,020; bullet moulds, none; spring vices, 302; cones, extra, 2,081; cone wrenches, none; arm chests, 287.

Harper's Ferry—Muskets (percussion,) 11,000; rifles (percussion,) 2,802;

sapper's musketoons, none; cavalry musketoons, none; artillery do., none; ball screws, 1,810; wipers, 12,664; screw-drivers, 13,296; bullet moulds, 918; spring vices, 1,321; cones, extra, 18,882; cone wrenches, 483; arm chests, 624.

STEAM BOILER EXPLOSIONS.

At a former session of congress a resolution was adopted by the senate calling upon the commissioner of patents for information in regard to *explosions of steam boilers*, with a view to farther legislation for their prevention, should it be deemed proper. In obedience to this resolution, Mr. Burke submitted to the senate a full and valuable report upon the subject. We copy the following summary of its statements from the *Courier and Enquirer*.

Whole number of boats on which explosions have occurred	-	233
Whole number of passengers killed (enumerated in 6 cases,)	-	140
Whole number of officers killed, (enumerated in 31 cases)	-	57
Whole number of crew killed, (enumerated in 25 cases)	-	103
Whole number killed (in 164 cases)	-	1805
Whole number wounded (in 111 cases)	-	1015
Total amount of damages (in 75 cases)	-	\$997,650
Average number of passengers killed in the enumerated cases	-	*23
Average number of officers	"	2
Average number of crew	"	4
Average number of killed	"	11
Average number of wounded	"	9
Average amount of damages	-	\$13,302
The cause is stated in 98 cases; not stated in 125; unknown, 10;		
together	-	233
I. Excessive pressure gradually increased was the cause in	-	16
II. The presence of unduly heated metals	-	16
III. Defective construction	-	33
IV. Carelessness or ignorance	-	31
Accidental (rolling of the boat)	-	2

NATURE OF THE ACCIDENTS.

Bursting boiler	-	101
Collapsing flue	-	71
Bursting steam-pipe	-	9
" chests	-	1
Bolt of boiler forced out	-	1
Struck by lightning	-	1
Blew out boiler-head	-	4
Breaking cylinder-head	-	1
" flange of steam-pipe	-	2
Bridge wall exploded	-	1
Unknown	-	3
Not stated	-	38
Total	-	233

CLASSIFICATION OF CAUSES.

1. Under pressure within a boiler, the pressure being gradually increased. In this class are the cases marked "excessive pressure."
2. Presence of unduly heated metal within a boiler. In this class are included,

* This average is not a fair one, as it is derived from but six cases, in one of which (the Pulaski) the very unusual number of 120 lives were lost.

Deficiency of water	- - - - -	14
Deposits	- - - - -	2—16
3. Defective construction of the boiler and its appendages.		
	{ In this class are included—	
Improper or defective materials.	{ Cast iron boiler-head	5
	{ Inferior iron	5
	{ Iron too thin	3
	{ Cast iron boiler	1
	{ Defective iron in flue	1—15
Bad workmanship.	{ Want of proper gauge cocks	3
	{ Defective flue	1
	{ Extending wire walls	1
	{ Pipe badly constructed	1
	{ Want of slip joint on pipe	1—7
Defective boiler (nature of defect not stated)	- - - - -	11
Total in this class,		33
4. Carelessness or ignorance of those intrusted with the management of the boiler.		
In this class—		
Racing	- - - - -	1
Incompetent engineer	- - - - -	2
Old boilers	- - - - -	6
Stopping off water	- - - - -	1
Carelessness	- - - - -	22—
Total	- - - - -	32

DATE OF EXPLOSIONS.

1816	3	1825	2	1831	2	1837	13	1843	9
1817	4	1826	3	1832	1	1838	11	1844	4
1819	1	1827	2	1833	5	1839	3	1845	11
1820	1	1828	1	1834	7	1840	8	1846	7
1821	1	1829	4	1835	10	1841	7	1847	12
1822	1	1830	12	1836	13	1842	7	1848	12

Date given in 177 cases, not stated in 56.—Total 233.

GENERAL ESTIMATE.

Of the total loss of life and property, calculated from the average of the given cases.

Pecuniary loss, 233 cases, at \$13,302 each	- - - - -	\$3,099,366
Loss of life, 233 cases, 11 each	- - - - -	2,563
Wounded, 233 cases, 9 each	- - - - -	2,097
Total killed and wounded	- - - - -	4,660

COINAGE AT THE MINT.

The report of the Director of the United States Mint, which has just been laid before congress, shows the coinage of the mint during the year 1848 to have been as follows:

At Philadelphia, in gold,	- - - - -	\$2,780,930
" in silver,	- - - - -	420,050
" in copper,	- - - - -	64,158

Total, - - - - - \$3,265,138

[Number of pieces coined, 8,691,444.]

The deposits for coinage amount to, in gold, \$2,584,460; in silver, \$466,732.

At New Orleans, in gold,	-	-	-	-	\$358,500
“ in silver,	-	-	-	-	1,620,000
Total,	-	-	-	-	\$1,978,500

[Number of pieces coined, 3,815,850.]

The deposits for coinage amounted to, in gold, \$183,360; in silver, \$1,659,774.

At Charlotte, North Carolina, the amount received during the year for coinage in gold, was \$370,799; the coinage amounted to \$364,330—composed of, half eagles 64,472, quarter eagles 16,788.

At Dahlonega, Georgia, the amount received during the year for coinage in gold, was \$274,473; amount coined, \$271,752½—composed in number of, half eagles 47,465, quarter eagles 13,771.

The deposits at the four mints during the year amounted in all to \$5,539,598.

In gold,	-	-	-	-	\$3,413,092
In silver,	-	-	-	-	2,126,506
The coinage amounted to—					
In gold,	-	-	-	-	\$3,775,512½
In silver,	-	-	-	-	2,040,050
In copper,	-	-	-	-	64,158
Total,	-	-	-	-	\$5,879,720½

The coinage of the British mint, for a period of ten years, from 1837 to 1847, was—

Of gold,	-	-	-	-	£31,878,666
Of silver,	-	-	-	-	3,329,717
Of copper,	-	-	-	-	67,103
					£38,275,486

Equal in dollars to about 153½ millions.

The greatest sum coined in gold in any one year in the mints of the United States, was in 1847, when the amount was \$20,211,385, coined in the principal mint and branches.*

The largest amount of gold coinage in England for any one year is put at £9,000,000, equal to \$43,200,000.

It is estimated that the whole coinage of Great Britain for the thirty-three years ending with Dec. 1847, amounted to *ninety-two million pounds*, equal to *four hundred and forty-one and a half millions of dollars*.

Our coinage during the same thirty-three years, was about one hundred millions, making an aggregate of money coined by the United States and Great Britain alone, in the last third of a century, 541½ millions of dollars; yet both these countries have, during the whole of that period, been in the constant use of a paper currency.

THE IRISH POTATO CROP.

An estimate has just been published of the loss occasioned by the destruction of the potato crop in Ireland in 1846. In parliament, the loss was admitted to be £16,000,000.

In the statistics of Ireland, (Thom's Almanac, 1848,) it is stated that the land devoted to the production of potatoes, is 2,457,409 statute acres, equal in Irish acres to 1,500,000.

The annual estimated consumption of potatoes, exclusive of seed, amounts to (in tons) 13,650,000.

Which at 1s. 7d. per cwt. £1 11s. 8d. per ton, would be worth	£21,600,000
The supply of potato seed required in 1841, is estimated at	2,700,000
Making the whole value of the crop for consumption and seed	£24,300,000

* See p. 92, Vol. 1.

The Dublin Evening Journal, alluding to the subject, says,—“In losses by the potato alone, between 1845—8, the amount is fixed at thirty-seven millions sterling, to which must be added, for the rise in the price of seed, an additional sum of six millions, making a total of forty-three millions! Imagine such a sum swept away from the labour and subsistence fund of such a country as Ireland! It only surprises that with such overwhelming losses our people have been enabled to make such head against the calamity.”

BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES.

The following is a table of the total value of British and Irish produce and manufactures exported from the United Kingdom to various countries in the year 1847 :

United States of America	£10,974,161	Egypt; ports on the Mediter-	
Mexico	100,688	anean	538,308
Central America	86,983	Tunis	697
New Grenada	145,606	Algeria	13,881
Venezuela	182,279	Morocco	16,231
Hanseatic towns	6,007,366	Western coast of Africa	518,420
Heligoland	250	Colonial territory of the Cape	
British territories in the East		of Good Hope	688,208
Indies	5,470,105	Eastern coast of Africa	13,751
Islands in the Indian seas :		African ports on the Red sea	505
“ Java	357,870	Cape Verd Islands	4,145
“ Philippine Islands	101,486	Ascension and St. Helena	31,378
“ Lomboc	307	Mauritius	223,563
British North American co-		Aden	11,488
lonies	3,233,014	Persia	929
Holland	3,017,423	British West Indies and Bri-	
Brazil	2,568,804	tish Guiana	2,102,577
Oriental republic of Uruguay	334,083	Honduras British settlements	170,947
Buenos Ayres or Argentine		Foreign West India Islands :	
republic	156,421	“ Cuba	896,554
Chili	866,325	“ Porto Rico	16,822
Bolivia	22,375	“ Gaudaloupe	164
Peru	600,814	“ Martinique	196
Falkland islands	2,088	“ Curaçoa	1,089
Russian settlements on the		“ St. Croix	14,797
N. W. coast of America	8,193	“ St. Thomas	386,599
France	2,554,283	Dutch Guiana	1,466
Portugal proper	889,916	Hayti	192,089
“ Azores	42,980	Russia; Northern ports	1,700,733
“ Madeira	33,853	“ Ports within the Black	
Spain, continental, and the		sea	143,810
Balearic islands	770,729	Sweden	179,367
Spain, Canary Islands	30,680	Norway	169,149
Gibraltar	466,845	Denmark	253,701
Italy, Sardinian territories	355,366	Prussia	553,968
“ Duchy of Tuscany	637,748	Mecklenburg Schwerin	105,164
“ Papal territories	181,894	Hanover	147,357
“ Naples and Sicily	630,690	Oldenburg and Kniphausen	26,080
“ Austrian territories	537,009	British settlements in Austra-	
Malta and Gozo	195,836	lia	1,644,170
Ionian Islands	143,426	South Sea Islands	25,368
Kingdom of Greece	233,913	China and Hong Kong	1,503,969
Turkish dominions, exclusive		Belgium	1,059,456
of Wallachia and Moldavia	2,363,442	Channel Islands,	542,191
Wallachia and Moldavia	213,547		
Syria and Palestine	415,292	Total	£58,842,377

It will be seen by this table that out of fifty-eight millions of exports from the United Kingdom last year, twenty-three millions were to the new world.

THE HONDURAS MAHOGANY TRADE.

The New York Express has taken the trouble to condense the following summary of the long account in the Honduras Observer, of the mahogany trade of that country. It will be found interesting.

This staple is so closely connected with the prosperity of the colony,* that the Observer says any reverse in prices is felt at once, at the place of production—causing severe losses to all, from the woodman in the forest, to the merchant who makes the export. The mahogany shipped from Honduras, may be classed under three heads. The first in value is that from the northern district. The texture of the wood is harder, and more durable as well as better adapted to cabinet work. The middle district extends as far south as “Stan creek,” producing wood nearly as good as the northern, and nearly equalling it in price. The extreme southern district produces a coarse-grained wood, of little value for any work exposed to the action of the elements. The mahogany cutters have extended their labours into the Musquito territory, but the character of the wood is the same as that in the colonial boundary.

The cost of cutting mahogany in the southern district is \$40 to \$45 per thousand feet. In the middle district mahogany averaging 12 to 16 inches is cut at an expense of \$40, 17 to 20 inches at an expense of \$50 to \$55, and 21 inches to 24 inches, of which there is but little, and that very distant, cannot be produced at a less cost than \$70 to \$75.

In the northern district the mahogany is generally of easier access, but as the ships to embark cannot load at the mouths of the respective rivers as they do in the middle and southern districts, because of the insufficiency of water for their draft and burden, the mahogany is brought in large and expensive coasters to Balize, or its close vicinity, paying a freight of \$10 to \$12 per thousand feet.

Among the establishments out of the colony are those on the banks of the rivers Montague, Chimlicon, Ulloa, Ajuan or Reman, Limas, Saccaliah and Black river. All these rivers empty themselves into the bay of Honduras at the distance of 120 to 200 miles from Balize, from whence they draw all their supplies. The large size of the wood cut in these rivers, and the easy access to them, gives to the cutters of it the advantage of a nearer approach between cost and proceeds, than they obtain for the wood cut within the English limits. The cost of production may be estimated at \$50 per thousand feet, and the nett proceeds of its sale in the home markets, excepting where the wood has been particularly faulty, have been about \$40 per thousand feet, during the last three years.

Besides the rivers in the states of Guatemala and Honduras, and the kingdom of Musquito already adverted to, a large field of enterprise in mahogany lies yet unoccupied in the state of Tobasco, within the republic of Mexico. Three attempts have been made unsuccessfully, to enter upon this field, and a fourth attempt is now being made, which, if successful, will still require large outlay, vast care and a lengthened period of time, to bring the enterprise to completion. It must, too, be conducted in direct connexion with London and without contingent dependence upon Balize.

The mahogany trade has suffered at Honduras for some years, in consequence of over production, which, however, will be soon removed. Shipments

* The British colony on Honduras bay extends about 150 miles. The town of Balize, the capital, is situated on the river of the same name.

of mahogany are made from Honduras to the United States and England alone; Continental purchasers obtaining their supplies in England.

The Observer states the consumption of Great Britain to be, on an average, inclusive of supplies to the continent, about 9,000,000 ft. annually; that of the United States, something under 1,000,000. The shipping employed in the carrying trade of this mahogany is not less than 30,000 tons.

The following is a comparative statement of the shipments made from Balize in

	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
In the limits,	7,945,210	9,567,570	6,502,717	7,351,777
Out of do.	1,974,297	3,186,878	2,250,000	2,191,840
	<u>9,919,507</u>	<u>12,754,448</u>	<u>8,752,717</u>	<u>9,543,617</u>

The statement for 1848 is made up for the first of November only, and of the shipments of this year 3,805,600 feet were of last year's cuttings. There are remaining in hands, in course of shipment, or ready for shipment, of the present year's cuttings:—

Within the settlement - - - - -	3,130,204 feet.
Without the limits - - - - -	1,495,000 " 4,625,204 feet
Forming a total for shipment for 1848 - - -	14,168,151 "
On the 31st Aug., 1847, the stock in the docks in London was reported to be - - -	12,833 logs. 4,488,050 feet
On 31st August, 1848 - - - - -	9,008 " 2,647,000 "

This shows a very essential decrease, but it may be accounted for by the reason, that the shipments of this year have been unusually late, and but little of last year's wood was shipped this year, and no wood of the present year's cutting had reached England on the 1st of September, to be included in the statement of 31st August.

The cutting of 1849, is proposed to be limited to 4,470,000 feet. This diminution of the cutting, says the Observer, must materially aid the market to enhance prices.

DEBTS OF EUROPEAN NATIONS—INCOME AND EXPENDITURES.

Country.	Debt.	Revenue.	Expenditures.
Great Britain	\$4,000,000,000	\$293,801,700	\$276,363,850
France	1,200,000,000	271,469,265	291,744,651
Holland	800,000,000		
Frankfort on Maine	5,000,000		
Bremen	3,000,000		
Hamburg	7,000,000		
Denmark	93,000,000		
Greece	41,000,000		
Portugal	142,000,000	10,870,036	10,797,302
Spain	467,000,000	144,908,185	124,923,137
Austria	380,000,000	64,240,000	76,379,903
Belgium	120,000,000	22,602,814	22,548,443
Papal states	67,000,000		
Naples	126,000,000		
Prussia	150,000,000	78,984,231	79,349,475
Russia and Poland	545,000,000	41,366,948	41,366,948
Bavaria	15,000,000		
Sicily	70,000,000		
	<u>\$8,221,000,000</u>		

	Population.	Av. of debt to each inh.
Great Britain	27,000,000	\$222
France	35,000,000	30
Holland	3,500,000	260
Frankfort on Maine	1,000,000	100
Denmark	2,200,000	45
Greece	1,000,000	44
Portugal	3,800,000	38
Spain	13,000,000	35
Austria	37,000,000	31
Belgium	4,500,000	30
Papal states	3,300,000	23
Prussia	15,000,000	10
Russia and Poland	60,000,000	9
Sicily	8,000,000	9
Total population	214,000,000	
Population not enumerated	36,000,000	
Total	250,000,000	

THE AMERICAN COLPORTEUR ENTERPRISE.

A spirited and successful effort is now in progress in Washington to awaken interest and raise funds in behalf of this great enterprise. It has been met by the President and his cabinet, the judges of the supreme court, the senate, house of representatives, and the citizens generally, with a liberality worthy of the cause, and honourable to its benefactors. Rev. Mr. Ridgely of the Episcopal church, general agent of the American Tract Society, addressed the Episcopal church; and Rev. Mr. Vail, general agent for the southern Atlantic states, presented the cause in other churches, and also had the privilege of preaching in the hall of the house of representatives to a large audience: "On the influence of the Christian press in perpetuating our republican institutions." It was seen from these public presentations, that this benevolent institution has for one of its objects the supply of our whole nation with a Christian literature free from sectarian and denominational peculiarities—embracing the great principles of civil and religious liberty, and of our common Christianity. In the prosecution of its work, it has already issued more than one hundred millions of publications in different languages; is now printing by eight or ten steam presses (at the rate of 1500 pages for one dollar,) about 25,000 publications a day; the issues of the last eight months being equal to about *seven hundred and fifty thousand volumes!* Millions of these works—many of them standard volumes, such as Baxter, Bunyan, Edwards, and Bishop Hall, have been circulated amongst the destitute population of thirty different states and territories, by the agency of several hundred colporteurs. These are intelligent and self-denying men—who at a salary of \$150 a year, have visited from house to house, and supplied about a million of our native and foreign population during the past year, promoting education, elevating the standard of morals, and disseminating a scriptural Christianity; thus contributing to qualify the people for self-government, and laying deeper and broader the foundations of our republican institutions.

All must see the peculiar adaptation of this great scheme to reach speedily and bless the increasing millions of our new states and territories, who are so soon to hold the reins of government—make the laws—mould the character, and decide the destiny of our nation.

By an effort of our public men and the citizens of the District of Columbia, a subscription for this object has been raised, amounting already to near \$2000. It cannot but be regarded as a matter of congratulation that so many of our representatives from all parts of this land are disposed to contribute their personal influence and means to an institution belonging alike to our whole nation—cementing the bonds of our glorious Union—and intimately connected with the best interests of our country; and the progress of the cause of God upon the earth.—*Recorder.*

DENOMINATIONS IN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

An English correspondent of the *Christian Reflector* and *Watchman*, communicates the following religious statistics:

In a former letter I gave you an account of the religious denominations in Wales, and am now about to present you with a statement of the number of churches and chapels in England and Scotland, derived from the best authorities that can be obtained. Of the Dissenters it appears that, in England, the number of

Independent chapels is	1,920	Presbyterian church, England,	77
Baptist,	1,450	United Presbyterian synod, .	30
Wesleyan connexion about	3,000	Unitarian,	227
New connexion,	273	Roman Catholic,	534
Primitive Methodist,	1,421	Friends,	360
Wesleyan association,	320	United Brethren, (Moravian,) .	22
Bible Christians,	390	Various sects; Plymouth Brethren,	
Independent Methodist,	24	Swedenborgians, &c., about	500
Lady Huntingdon's,	30		
Old English Presbyterian,	150	Total,	10,729

In Scotland, the number of chapels in the

Free church is	847	Evangelical Union,	18
Presbyterian, various,	579	Roman Catholic	80
Congregationalists,	141	Various smaller sects, about .	50
Scottish Episcopal,	118		
Baptist,	120	Total,	1,989
Wesleyan Methodist,	26		

From the above account, it appears that 12,718 places of worship are built and supported by voluntary efforts in England and Scotland.

The national church of Scotland comprehends 1152 congregations, including parliamentary churches.

The Diocesan returns, printed by order of parliament, report the total number of resident clergy in England and Wales to be 7445; non-resident and exempt, 1635; total number of benefices, 11,386. It appears, also, that the number of Episcopal churches and chapels in England is 11,825; but more than one-half of the congregations in the parish churches are small, not being equal to the number who attend the preaching of the dissenters.

ORGANIC LAW OF THE FRENCH CHURCH.

The constitution or organic law, adopted by the late general synod of the French protestant church, after being approved by the "minister of public instruction and worship," becomes the constitution of the reformed church.

The reformed church of France embraces pastors, particular consistories, general consistories, particular synods, theological faculties, and a general synod.

A pastor must be a Frenchman, or of French origin, and twenty-five years old. He must be provided with a diploma of bachelor in divinity from a

French theological seminary, legally established, and be ordained by seven actual pastors of the reformed church. An elder must be thirty years old, the head of a family, and educate his children in the protestant church. Half of the elders must be dropped every three years, and others chosen. Each particular consistory or church session has the power of electing the pastors of the church, subject to the approval of the general synod, or assembly, and the national government. The general synod is to hold its sessions once in three years, but may be convened upon extraordinary occasions.

The whole territory of France, including 'Algeria,' is divided into districts for the convenient formation of presbyteries and synods, the number of synods being nineteen, and of presbyteries ninety-three. One synod is located in Algeria, a circumstance indicating the large emigration from France to Northern Africa, as well as the more important fact that the fires of Christianity have been kindled up anew on these savage coasts, once the abode of the highest civilization and intelligence, and where the most fervid strains of Christian eloquence were heard in the early ages of the church, but where for centuries the mosque has supplanted the temple, and barbarism the most brutal, succeeded the refinement of taste and the light of knowledge.

Cong. Journal.

ROMAN CATHOLIC STATISTICS.

The Catholic Almanac, published in Baltimore, generally recognised as safe authority in the statistics of its church, represents no increase in the Roman Catholic dioceses of Baltimore, New Orleans, Louisville, Boston, Philadelphia, New York, Charleston, Mobile, Detroit, Vincennes, Natchez, Pittsburgh, Little Rock, Milwaukee, Albany, Galveston and Buffalo, while in the diocese of Cleveland there has been an actual loss of five thousand souls from the last year's computation of thirty thousand. The only green spots in this widespread desert, says the Freeman's Journal, are the diocese of Cincinnati, where there has been an addition of fifteen thousand to the fifty thousand of last year; Doboque, where there is a gain of five hundred on the former sum of six thousand five hundred; Nashville, where the last year's number of Catholics has doubled, being now three thousand, while it was only fifteen hundred a year ago: Chicago, where thirty thousand have been added to the fifty thousand of last year, and Oregon, with the parts adjacent, where seventy-five hundred had grown up to eighty-one hundred, being a gain of six hundred—Indians and others. The Almanac represents the total decrease of Roman Catholics in the United States during the year, as being one hundred and nine thousand, four hundred; and the present number of that denomination in this country as one million, two hundred and seventy-six thousand three hundred.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

From the Detroit Daily Advertiser.

We have been favoured with the annual reports read before the King, to the Hawaiian legislature, in April last. We are indebted to Asher A. Bates, Esq., our former townsman, for them.

The minister of the interior, Keoui Ana, reports that the government press is under the direction of Charles E. Hitchcock, Esq. [We believe Mr. H. was formerly of Connecticut.] The receipts of the press have been \$27,554, not including government printing; the gross disbursements \$32,230. A new press has just been received from Boston.

The imports for the year ending April 1st,

1848,		\$822,729 02
Duty free—Whalers' goods,	9,558 91	
Missionaries' do	43,120 66	
Total free	\$52,649 57	

Exports of foreign goods, under drawback,	\$41,843 62
Domestic exports,	454,255 61

The gross amounts by sale at auction during the year, was \$228,882. Whole number of licenses granted, 263, of which 19 are for sale of liquor, and 24 for billiard rooms and ball alleys. The report says considerable has been done in internal improvements: and a new powder magazine has been erected—a new prison on an extensive plan—a new custom-house and a bonded ware-house, three stories high. 1135 marriages have been solemnized, which is a decrease of 300 from the number the year previous. The number of constables employed is 991. The oath of naturalization has been administered to 501. A great proportion of them have married natives. The amount of shipping increased last year 2537 tons; 74 vessels are now registered—an increase of 60 per cent. in one year.

G. P. Judd* is minister of finance. He reports the receipts into the treasury of the year, \$155,158; disbursements, \$143,549.

A loan is recommended to be made in England, at four or five per cent., to build bridges, roads, wharves, and for the establishment of a National Bank, to assist farmers by loans to clear more land, &c.

The number of Protestant schools on the island is 395; scholars 16,520. Catholic schools 129; scholars 3,116. Amount of all the teacher's salaries, as paid by government, \$10,168. Number of readers, 9,642; writers, 5,599, number in arithmetic, 8052; geography, 8520; philosophy, 1,008; vocal music, 810.

The number of clergymen in the different islands is as follows:

Protestant.—Missionaries twenty-six; assistant male do. twelve; assistant female do. thirty-nine.—Total, seventy-seven.

Roman Catholic.—Priests fifteen; missionaries, ten:—twenty-five.

Mr. Judd recommends that the lands held by missionaries should be secured to them by fixed tenures, and held perpetually. The number of children belonging to missionaries is 129.

Robert C. Wylie is minister of foreign relations. The report says the negotiations with Mr. Ten Eyck, the commissioner of the United States, were suspended in May, 1847—the commissioner contending for a principle in regard to juries, which they could not admit. The proposed treaty and objections, correspondence, &c., have been sent to this country.

The imports for three years are thus given:—

1846	\$444,208
1847	156,173
1848	822,729

Labourers' wages at Hawaii are from six to twelve and a-half cents per day; at Waiheka, labourers' wages are from two to three cents a day. Several of the islanders' wages range from four to twelve cents a day.

At Hawaii, Joseph Gardner, an American, has erected a woollen factory, in company with the Governor of Kania. Mr. G. has charge of the government sheep, and has the wool and some other perquisites for his trouble. He also makes cotton fabrics, blankets and girting. Cotton can be grown in the district.

The plantation of Rhodes & Co., on the same island, raised 20,000 lbs. of coffee last year.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONERS OF EMIGRATION.

The following is an abstract of the Report of the Commissioners of Emigration, which was presented to the Legislature of New York.—(*Courier and Enq.*)

* Charges have recently been preferred against this gentleman for an abuse of the public funds.

The number of passengers arrived at the port of New York during the year 1848, for whom commutation and hospital money was paid, was 189,176, of whom were:

Natives of Ireland,	98,061
Natives of Germany,	51,973
Natives of other countries,	39,142—189,176

Statement of vessels with emigrants that have arrived at the port of New York in the year 1848, together with the number of sick, deaths, and births, &c.:

Nation of vessel.	No.	Passengers.	Sick.	Deaths.	Births.
American,	531	116,009	1,094	477	179
British,	341	60,022	1,830	414	120
German,	125	14,873	127	78	47
French,	14	1,548	1	7	2
Belgian,	10	1,431	3	9	1
Sweden, Norway, and Denm.	20	1,626	24	17	6
Total,	1,041	195,509	3,079	1,002	346

The following table shows the number of passengers which have arrived here from different ports in Europe:

From Ireland,	98,961	From Germany,	51,973
“ England,	23,061	“ Scotland,	6,415
“ France,	2,734	“ Wales,	1,054
“ Spain,	254	“ Switzerland,	1,622
“ Holland,	1,560	“ Norway,	1,207
“ Sweden,	165	“ West Indies,	399
“ Portugal,	57	“ Italy,	321
“ Poland,	79	“ Denmark,	52
“ South America,	31	“ Russia,	28
“ Mexico,	12	“ China,	1
“ Greece,	1	Total,	189,176

Place of birth unknown. The place of nativity of many of the persons admitted at the Marine Hospital from ship-board, and of those who have become chargeable in other counties than New York, cannot be ascertained. Of those applying and relieved at the office of the commissioners, being, in all, 16,820; 12,261 were Irish, 4,157 Germans, and 399 others.

The temporary relief granted to 6,640 persons, consisted principally of a supper and night's lodging, and in some instances it was allowed to parties in their dwellings, when they were too sick to be removed to the Hospital.

Of the passengers having paid commutation and hospital money, there were admitted—

AT THE MARINE HOSPITAL, STATEN ISLAND:

From ship-board,	3,944
Sent from the city,	4,617—8,561

AT THE EMIGRANTS' REFUGE, WARD'S ISLAND.

Sent from the city,	3,491
Children born in the institution,	197—3,688

There were received at the office of the fund:

At private hospitals,	282
At city hospital, lunatic asylum, &c.,	144
At Bedlow's island,	46

And there were temporarily relieved:

At the office of the commissioners,	6,640
Sent to various sections of the country,	2,102

RELIGIOUS ITEMS.

The French national assembly have decreed, unanimously, that "no employer shall be allowed to compel his men to work on Sunday."

The sultan of Turkey has taken a great stride in religious toleration, having issued a decree according to Christians the privilege of attaining the highest dignities, even that of pacha and vizier.

The London Christian Times, in contrasting the quiet of Great Britain with the agitated state of the continent says:—

Our people are largely under the influence of the Bible, millions reverence the Sabbath and assemble for worship. Forty thousand protestant pastors are engaged every Sabbath. Hundreds of thousands of Sabbath-school teachers go forth to their work; Scripture readers and benevolent visitors in endless variety of ways, are pressing on the religious movements. The religious aspect of the country is such, the religious elements at work are so effective, acceptable, and growing in the midst of us, that we do not look forward to the future with alarm.

MISSIONS IN OREGON.—Rev. Wm. Roberts, formerly of Newark, N. J., is the superintendent of the Methodist missions, which embrace six mission-aries, and twelve or fifteen local preachers. There are two Presbyterian churches and one Congregational, with seven clergymen: the Baptists have two ministers and churches, the Cumberland Presbyterians three, the Seceders two, the Campbellites one, and the Catholic priests are numerous.

Rev. G. H. Atkinson and lady, sent out to Oregon in 1848, by the A. H. M. S., arrived out in June last. He was received with great kindness at Fort Vancouver, by the British agent and officers, and was most cordially welcomed by the people in the Wahlah-math Valley. Rev. Mr. Clark, who went out several years since, had formed small churches in different neighbourhoods, but they had never enjoyed presbyterian or congregational preaching. The church at Oregon city, or falls of the Wahlah-math and some adjacent settlements, immediately demanded Mr. A.'s stated labours.

The American Tract Society, during the month of January, issued upwards of two millions, six hundred thousand pages of books and tracts, for gratuitous distribution. The committee have granted upwards of a million of pages to vessels bound for California.

EPISCOPAL CHURCH IN U. S.—Clergy in 1835, 763; 1838, 951; 1841, 1,052; 1844, 1,216; 1847, 1,438; 1850, perhaps 1,700.

Communicants: 1835, 36,416; 1838, 49,930; 1841, 55,477; 1844, 72,099; 1847, 84,208; 1850, near 100,000.

During the last twelve years, the number of communicants has increased one hundred and thirty per cent., and *doubled in nine years*. The number of the clergy doubled in little more than twelve years.

THE LUTHERAN CHURCH.—There are now in the United States thirty synods of the Lutheran church, five of which are in Pennsylvania. The first synod—the synod of Pennsylvania, was established in 1647; the next—the synod of New York, in 1785; and the third—the synod of North Carolina, in 1802. Of the thirty synods, fifteen only are connected with the general synod. The whole embraces six hundred and sixty-three ministers, sixteen hundred and four churches, two hundred thousand communicants, and a population of one million.

AMERICAN COLLEGES.—Mr. Riddel, as secretary of the American Education society, stated that the present number of colleges in the United States was one hundred and eighteen; the number of their students, under-graduates, in

regular classes, about ten thousand; but including those in preparatory and professional studies, from twelve thousand to fifteen thousand.

The number of graduates from New England colleges, the last year, was four hundred and twelve; which, added to those graduated from forty leading colleges beyond New England, whose numbers had been ascertained, would make one thousand one hundred and eighty-nine.

There had been religious revivals in ten of these colleges, the past year; all of which, it was stated, seemed to have their beginning in near connexion with the day set apart for special devotional services in their behalf. In Madison college, (Ind.) the number of conversions had been upwards of seventy.

There had entered the ministry but one hundred and eighty-six, the past year, from eleven of the principal theological schools.

THE CITY OF CHURCHES.—This cognomen has often been applied to Brooklyn. With a population of sixty thousand in 1846, there were of churches, Protestant Episcopal, twelve; Methodist Episcopal, twelve; Presbyterian, eight; Roman Catholic, four; Baptist, four; Dutch Reformed, four; Congregational, four; Unitarian, one; Universalist, one; Friends, one; German Evangelical, two; Sailor's Bethel, one. Total fifty-three, nearly two to one to New York in point of population.

MISSIONS TO CALIFORNIA.—A missionary has been despatched to California, by the domestic committee of Church missions. He takes with him his wife and four children. Several missionaries have gone to California, sent by other missionary boards, and Rev. F. S. Mines, of the Episcopal Church, has recently embarked.

Two missionaries and seventy emigrants, have lately sailed from Baltimore for Liberia.

The London Church Missionary Society has several prosperous missions in Western Africa. The station of Regent is one of much promise; the village contains about one thousand five hundred inhabitants, who have been almost wholly redeemed from paganism. The church numbers four hundred and eight communicants, besides a large number of candidates.

DONATION TO THE CAUSE OF PEACE, FROM THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.—'The native church at Hilo, Sandwich Islands, has just transmitted through their pastor, a donation of *one hundred dollars* to the American Peace society; accompanied with a letter expressive of their deep interest in the object to which the society is devoted.

PETER-PENCE.—A movement is making amongst Roman Catholics to renew this offering to the pope. The *Tablet* thus urges it:

"No partial subscription amongst the affluent will effectively re-organize this ancient practice of the faithful; the people, poor, as well as rich, all must contribute the 'penny;' not in England, only, but in Scotland; and, where practicable, even in poor Ireland. This universality of the Peter-pence will alone give it permanence, and afford a glorious example to the Catholic world.'

CLIMATE OF EUROPE IN OLDEN TIMES, AND THE COLD WINTERS OF THE LAST CENTURY.

Those who have read the ancient accounts with attention, conclude that the degrees of cold are at this time much less severe than they were formerly. The rivers in Gaul, namely, the Loire and the Rhone, were regularly frozen over every year, so that frequently whole armies, with their carriages and baggage, could march over them. Even the Tiber froze at Rome; and Juvenal says positively that it was requisite to break the ice in winter, in order to come at the water of the river. Many passages in Horace suppose the streets at Rome to be full of ice and snow. Ovid assures us that the Black Sea was frozen annually, and appeals for the truth of this to the governor of the province, whose name he mentions. He also relates several circumstances concerning that climate, which at present agree only with Norway and Sweden. The forests of Thrace and Pannonia were full of bears and wild boars, in like manner as now the forests of the north. The northern part of Spain was little inhabited, from the same cause. In short, all the ancients who mention the climate of Gaul, Germany, Pannonia, and Thrace, speak of it as insupportable, and agree that the ground was covered with snow the greatest part of the year, being incapable of producing olives, grapes, and most other fruits. In 1664 the cold was so intense that the Thames was covered with ice sixty-one inches thick. Almost all the birds perished.

In 1691 the cold was so excessive that the famished wolves entered Vienna and attacked beasts, and even men. Many people in Germany were frozen to death in 1695, and the winters of 1697 and 1699 were nearly as bad.

In 1709 occurred that famous winter called, by distinction, the cold winter. All the rivers and lakes were frozen, and even the sea for several miles from the shore. The ground was frozen nine feet deep. Birds and beasts were struck dead in the fields, and men perished by thousands in their houses. In the south of France the wine plantations were almost all destroyed; nor have they yet recovered that fatal disaster. The Adriatic sea was frozen, and even the Mediterranean about Genoa, and the citron and orange groves suffered extremely in the finest parts of Italy.

In 1716 the winter was so intense that people travelled across the straits from Copenhagen to the opposite coast, in Sweden.

In 1729, in Scotland, multitudes of cattle and sheep were buried in the snow,

In 1740 the winter was scarcely inferior to that of 1709. The snow lay ten feet deep in Spain and Portugal. The Zuyder Zee was frozen over, and thousands of people went over it. The lakes in England froze.

In 1744 the winter was very cold. Snow fell in Portugal to the depth of 23 feet on a level.

In 1754 and 1755 the winters were very severe and cold. In England the strongest ale, exposed to the air in a glass, was covered in 15 minutes with ice one-eighth of an inch thick.

In 1771 the Elbe was frozen to the bottom.

In 1776 the Danube bore ice five feet deep below Vienna. Vast numbers of the feather and finny tribes perished.

The winters of 1784 and 5 were uncommonly severe. The Little Belt was frozen over.

The winter of 1780 was intensely severe in America. New York Bay was frozen over so that people passed on the ice from the city to Staten Island.

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR THE YEAR 1848.

The following is a table showing the range of the thermometer in Wall street, for the first, middle, and last day of each month of the year 1848, in comparison with the year 1847;—

	1848.				1847.			
	6 A.M.	12 M.	3 P.M.	6 P.M.	6 A.M.	12 M.	3 P.M.	6 P.M.
January, . 1 .	48	54	46	53	42	57	61	56
15 .	42	46	46	46	36	46	48	42
31 .	36	47	49	45	22	28	32	29
February, . 1 .	27	35	38	35	30	34	34	34
15 .	29	41	44	41	32	45	50	46
29 .	36	45	43	37	35	38	40	37
March, . 1 .	27	35	55	31	29	37	38	34
15 .	15	26	28	24	29	42	42	37
31 .	49	69	69	61	34	40	40	36
April, . 1 .	57	53	62	54	26	37	41	37
15 .	41	57	63	58	44	52	56	51
30 .	50	59	60	57	50	65	66½	63
May, . 1 .	47	67	61	58	43	55	61	54
15 .	53	69	69	67	56	69	71	67
31 .	58	66	66	64	57	58	58	56
June, . 1 .	53	65	67	66	56	71	74	69
15 .	69	83	86	82	52	68	66	63
30 .	73	84	84	82	65	75	74	74
July, . 1 .	77	85	86	77	68	78	79	77
15 .	74	83	84	83	69	80	83	78
31 .	70	80	83	78	74	79	82	90
August, . 1 .	62	82	83	81	74	81	78	73
15 .	76	86	87	84	69	77	80	76
31 .	71	83	87	81	69	79	83	78
September, . 1 .	76	82	84	79	69	78	82	74
15 .	66	78	76	68	53	64	67	63
30 .	64	74	75	69	57	63	68	63
October, . 1 .	67	73	70	66	58	64	67	67
15 .	54	67	69	75	45	53	54	54
31 .	58	66	63	59	49	60	60	57
November, . 1 .	46	57	58	54	53	63	64	59
15 .	42	50	53	50	46	55	55	53
30 .	45	56	56	50	16	26	28	27
December, . 1 .	41	44	44	43	33	44	45	44
15 .	48	52	54	52	59	59	57	51
30 .	32	37	38	32	42	50	51	50

On the 11th of January, 1848, the thermometer stood at 8°, which was the coldest day of the latter, being the 22d of January, when the thermometer stood at 13°. The warmest day of the year 1848 was the 27th of July, when the thermometer stood at 92°, which was one degree cooler than the warmest day of 1847, the thermometer having stood on the 18th of July, at 93°.—*N. Y. Herald.*

EMIGRATION AND EXPORTS TO CALIFORNIA.

As a record of the movement to California within the past quarter, we present statements of the vessels and passengers that have gone from ports of the United States within the months of December and January, and also of the supplies, merchandise, &c., shipped within the same period from New York. The perfect accuracy of these statements we do not vouch for. They are from the N. Y. Herald and the Tribune, and are probably near the truth; but still they only partially exhibit the rush of adventurers to the Pacific coast in search of gold. Thousands besides have gone by different routes, and from other countries.

On a subsequent page we have given some account of our new possessions in the west, and of the routes to them.

List of vessels which have sailed from various ports of the United States to Chagres and other ports, for California, since Dec. 7, 1848.—(Herald.)

Vessels.	Passengers.	Where from.	Sailed.
Steamer Orus	50	New York,	Dec. 12
“ Crescent City	130	“	Dec. 13
“ Isthmus	60	“	Dec. 25
“ Falcon	227	“	Feb. 1
“ Crescent City	305	“	Feb. 5
Ship Florence	10	“	Dec. 14
“ Sutton	50	“	Dec. 29
“ Chris. Columbus	30	“	Jan. 6
“ B. T. Bartlett	65	“	Jan. 6
“ Albany	66	“	Jan. 9
“ Brooklyn	167	“	Jan. 12
“ Tarolinta	130	“	Jan. 14
“ Apollo	66	“	Jan. 16
“ Pacific	100	“	Jan. 23
“ South Carolina	163	“	Jan. 24
“ Montreal	8	“	Jan. 25
“ Tahmaroo	160	“	Jan. 25
“ Rose	38	“	Jan. 25
“ Orpheus	174	“	Jan. 30
“ Panama	160	“	Feb. 4
“ Daniel Webster	58	“	Feb. 5
“ Robert Bowne	175	“	Feb. 5
“ Clarissa Perkins	127	“	Feb. 7
“ George Washington	99	“	Feb. 8
Bark John Benson,	60	“	Dec. 11
“ Neumpha	81	“	Dec. 24
“ Express	25	“	Jan. 2
“ Ocean Bird	10	“	Jan. 2
“ Harriet Newell	20	“	Jan. 10
“ Croton	50	“	Jan. 14
“ Peytona	18	“	Jan. 16
“ Rolla	23	“	Jan. 16
“ Madonna	6	“	Jan. 16
“ Eugenia	134	“	Jan. 16

	Vessels.	Passengers.	Where from.	Sailed.
Bark	Hersilia	59	New York,	Jan. 20
"	Mazeppa	28	"	Jan. 23
"	Templeton	50	"	Jan. 24
"	Mary Stuart	12	"	Jan. 27
"	Victory	19	"	Jan. 27
"	Philip Hone	60	"	Jan. 27
"	Azim	48	"	Jan. 27
"	Mara	155	"	Jan. 31
"	Bonna Adele	68	"	Feb. 2
"	Ann Welch	67	"	Feb. 2
"	Strafford	101	"	Feb. 3
"	Isabel	47	"	Feb. 7
Brig	Mary Rennel	10	"	Jan. 2
"	Newcastle	10	"	Jan. 4
"	D. Henshaw	15	"	Jan. 7
"	George Henry	10	"	Jan. 10
"	Henrico	20	"	Jan. 10
"	Orbit Company of	35	"	Jan. 13
"	Isabel	20	"	Jan. 14
"	John Enders	40	"	Jan. 18
"	Georgiana	13	"	Jan. 18
"	A. Emory	47	"	Jan. 25
"	Sarah McFarland	41	"	Jan. 28
"	Cordelia	57	"	Jan. 30
"	Eudora	48	"	Jan. 30
"	Columbus	22	"	Feb. 3
Schooner	Anthem, W'd Min. co.	10	"	Jan. 13
"	Olivia	20	"	Jan. 16
"	Samuel Roberts	7	"	Jan. 16
"	Rawson	8	"	Jan. 20
"	Decatur	29	"	Jan. 27
"	Laura Virginia	26	"	Jan. 29
"	John W. Castnor	88	"	Jan. 29
"	Empire	15	"	Feb. 1
"	Sea Witch	9	"	Feb. 1
Ship	Edward Everett	150	Boston	Jan. 12
"	Capitol	195	"	Jan. 24
"	Pharsalia	150	"	Jan. 25
"	Corsair	112	"	Jan. 31
"	Drummond	47	"	Feb. 1
"	Leonore	100	"	Feb. 3
Bark	J. W. Coffin	4	"	Dec. 7
"	Carib	11	"	Dec. 31
"	Elvira	12	"	Jan. 6
"	Maria	22	"	Jan. 10
"	Josephine Company	30	"	Jan. 10
"	Oxford	63	"	Jan. 12
"	Rochelle	46	"	Feb. 3

Vessels.	Passengers.	Where from.	Sailed.
Brig Josephine	32	Boston,	Dec. 24
“ Mary Wilder	49	“	Dec. 26
“ Almena	29	“	Dec. 26
“ Saltillo	12	“	Dec. 26
“ Forest	45	“	Jan. 11
“ Attila	42	“	Jan. 12
“ North Bend	31	“	Jan. 15
“ Acadia	16	“	Feb. 3
— Naumkeag Mut. Trad. co.	20	“	Jan. 15
Schooner Anonyma	3	“	Jan. 17
“ Boston	30	“	Jan. 25
Ship Louisiana	40	Philadelphia,	Dec. 20
“ Gray Eagle	36	“	Jan. 18
Brig Oniota	17	“	Jan. 11
“ Osceola	65	“	Jan. 16
“ Marion	8	“	Jan. 21
Ship Gray Hound	56	Baltimore,	Jan. 10
“ Jane Parker	80	“	Jan. 25
“ Xylon	140	“	Feb. 3
Bark Paoli	5	“	Jan. 11
“ Hebe	7	“	Feb. 3
“ John Potter	13	“	Feb. 6
Brig Bathurst	12	“	Feb. 6
Schooner Eclipse	8	“	Jan. 11
“ Sovereign	40	“	Jan. 17
Steamer Falcon	200	New Orleans,	Dec. —
“ Telegraph	5	“	Jan. 12
“ Fanny	214	“	Jan. 14
Ship Architect	63	“	Jan. 18
Bark Florida	7	“	Jan. 14
Schooner Macon	60	“	Dec. 10
“ Othello	67	Charleston,	— —
Ship Mary and Adeline	212	Norfolk,	Dec. 27
Brig John Petty	14	“	Jan. 10
Ship Aurora	31	Nantucket,	Jan. 11
— Plymouth and Cal. Min. co.	50	Plymouth,	Jan. 16
Ship Magnolia	87	New Bedford,	Feb. 1
Bark Dimon	55	“	— —
Schooner Favourite	8	“	Dec. 13
“ Pomona	17	“	— —
— Suliote	50	Belfast, Me.	Jan. 28
Brig Charlotte	43	Newburyport,	Jan. 23
“ Pauline	30	Charlestown,	Jan. 13
Schooner Montague	47	New Haven,	Jan. 24
Brig Sterling	10	Salem,	Dec. 30
“ Eliza	37	“	Jan. 27
“ Mentor	57	New London,	Jan. 31
Schooner Mary Taylor	10	“	Jan. 13

Vessels.	Passengers.	Where from.	Sailed.
Schooner Velasco	38	New London,	Jan. 25
“ Odd Fellow	22	“	Feb. 2
Ship Trescott	50	Mystic,	Jan. 24
Brig J. Goodhue	5	Eastport,	Jan. 17
Ship Hopewell	105	Warren, R. I.	Jan. 29
— California Overland Assoc.	300	Buffalo,	Jan. 20
Ship Sabina	67	Sag Harbor,	Feb. 8
<hr/>			
<i>From N. York</i> —In steamers	772	<i>From Baltimore</i> —In ships	276
“ In ships	1,846	“ In barks	25
“ In barks	1,141	“ In brigs	12
“ In brigs	388	“ In schooners	48
“ In schooners	212		
		Total	361
Total	4,359	<i>From N. Orleans</i> —In steamers	419
<i>From Boston</i> —In ships	754	“ In ships	63
“ In barks	188	“ In barks	7
“ In brigs	256	“ In sch'rs	60
“ In schooners	53		
		Total	549
Total	1,251	<i>From other ports</i>	1,412
<i>From Philadelphia</i> —In ships	76	Making a total of	8,098
“ In brigs	90		
Total	166		

CALIFORNIA EXPORTS.

We have been greatly edified concerning the character of the supplies taken out to the gold region by emigrants from this port, by the following table, which we copy from the *Dry Goods Reporter*. We know not whether the goods were selected according to the wants of the gold hunters, or the expected demand of residents in California, but certainly the proportionate amount of different articles taken is curious, if not characteristic. Thus, it will be seen that 819 barrels of rum, and 601 of brandy, were taken, and *seven* packages of books!—873 gold washers, and 47 ploughs—1 case of musical instruments, and 254 packages of medicine—38 boxes of pipes, and 3 hogsheds, 17 bales, and 992 packages of tobacco—4 cases of *umbrellas*, and 24 casks of crucibles—21 frames of houses, and 64 packages of clocks. But here is the list, embracing the exports to California from this port, from Dec. 1, 1848, to Feb. 1, 1849:—(*N. Y. Tribune.*)

Fish, dried	pkgs	567	Carts and wagons	No	76
“ pickled	bbls	449	Scows	No	7
Lamp oil	bbls	31	Wheelbarrows	No	214
Naval stores	bbls	319	F. Matches	pkgs	89
Shingles		11	Ladders	No	2
Boards	No	4,009	Corn shellers	No	23
Joist	No	260	Lumber	pieces	2,887
Lumber	feet	248	Clocks	packages	64
Frames of houses	No	21	Beef	bbls	711
Wooden ware	pkgs	240	Pork	bbls	2,913
“ boats	No	16	Hams	hhds 4, cts 8, bales	94
Spars	No	5	Lard	kegs	197

Butter	hhds and bbls	186	Boots and shoes	cases	281
Cheese	boxes	408	Soap	boxes	956
Flour	bbls	3,988	Candles	boxes	539
Corn meal	bbls	1,376	Manufactured tobacco	pkgs	992
Bran	bbls	513	Linseed oil	bbls	17
Bread	bbls	2,792	Spirits of Turpentine	bbls	10
Dried apples	bbls	219	Rope	coils	142
Rice	pkgs	394	Iron bars	tons	9
Furniture	pkgs	285	“	bdls	497
Hats	pkgs	40	“ sheet	pkgs	26
Saddlery	pkgs	61	“ castings	pcs	2,249
Gridirons, spiders	bdls	409	“ nails	kegs	1,354
Road scraper		1	“ safes	No	52
Cement	lbs	20	“ boats	No	8
Sieves	pkgs	230	Shovels and spades	bdls	1,375
Copper	cases	3	Picks, hoes, and axes	bdls	563
Jewelry	cases	1	Steel	bxs	161
Umbrellas	cases	4	Iron bars	No	300
Hammocks	bndls	12	Hardware	pkgs	455
Watches	pkgs	1	Iron bedsteads		3
Perfumery	pkgs	11	Stoves		64
Ploughs		47	Axe handles	bdls	117
Iron springs	cases	17	Gunpowder	kegs	183
Demijohns		140	Portable forges	No	34
India Rubber goods	cases	83	Gold washers		373
Grindstones		81	Crucibles	cks	24
Silks	cases	21	Crowbars		340
Saleratus	cks	35	Screws	cks	1
Pipes	bxs	38	Tin ware	pkgs	236
Coal	tons	29	Do. plates	bxs	29
Hops	bales	4	Soda water	cases	14
Tobacco	bales	17	Dry Goods	pkgs	491
Provisions	tons	2	Clothing	pkgs	532
Preserved meats	cases	33	Blankets	pkgs	80
Paints	kegs	647	Billiard Table		1
Books	pkgs	7	Lace	cases	1
Plated ware	pkgs	6	Diaper	cases	2
Pictures	cases	2	Linens	cases	4
Spices	pkgs	22	Carpetings	cases	3
Cigars	bxs	341	Drills	cases	2
Pickles	pkgs	168	Shirtings	cases	18
Vinegar	bbls	178	Prints	cases	13
Bricks		25,000	Tobacco	hhds	3
Carbines	cases	12	Pots	No	107
Dried fruits		44	Lead	pigs	19
Salt	bbls and sacks	101	Glass	pkgs	144
Leather	bndls	21	Crockery	pkgs	144
Lamps	cks	11	Looking glasses	cases	13
Starch	bxs	73	Guns	cases	27
Preserved fruits	bxs	25	Bellows	No	19
Beer	bbls	55	Anvils		51
“ bd	doz	135	Shot	bags	40
Cider, bd	doz	66	Medicines	pkgs	254
“	bbls	272	Paper	pkgs	20
Gin	bbls	189	Stationery	pkgs	16
Whiskey	bbls	460	Burlaps	bxs	1
Rum	bbls	819	Cloth	bxs	1
“	kegs	1,167	Sewing Silk	cases	1
Brandy	kegs	227	Duck	bolts	106
Brandy	bbls	601	Fancy Goods	pkgs	9

Lamp wick	bs	14	Sardines	cases	1
Copper stills	2	Napkins	cases	1
Cauldrons	3	Sugar	bbls	220
Quicksilver	jars	4	“ refined	pkgs	215
Wine, claret	cases	225	Sarsaparilla	cases	12
“ champagne	bkts	550	Musical instruments	cases	1
“ madeira	cks	119	Molasses	cks	138
“ other	cks	272	Almonds	bales	20
“ “	cases	318	Tea	pkgs	202
Cordials	cases	92	Coffee	bags and bbls	105
Olive oil	cases	371	As merchandise	pkgs	18,754

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES FROM THE ADOPTION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

		Term began.	Term ended.
1. George Washington,	Virginia,	April 30, 1789,	March 3, 1797.
2. John Adams,	Massachusetts,	March 4, 1797,	March 3, 1801.
3. Thomas Jefferson,	Virginia,	March 4, 1801,	March 3, 1809.
4. James Madison,	Virginia,	March 4, 1809,	March 3, 1817.
5. James Munroe,	Virginia,	March 4, 1817,	March 3, 1825.
6. John Quincy Adams,	Massachusetts,	March 4, 1825,	March 3, 1829.
7. Andrew Jackson,	Tennessee,	March 4, 1829,	March 3, 1837.
8. Martin Van Buren,	New York,	March 4, 1837,	March 3, 1841.
9. *William Henry Harrison,	Ohio,	March 4, 1841,	*April 4, 1841.
10. John Tyler,	Virginia,	April 4, 1841,	March 3, 1845.
11. James Knox Polk,	Tennessee,	March 4, 1845,	March 3, 1849.
12. Zachary Taylor,	Louisiana,	March 4, 1849,	

THE LATE EXECUTIVE GOVERNMENT,

(WHICH RETIRED FROM OFFICE MARCH 3, 1849.)

JAMES K. POLK, of Tennessee, PRESIDENT.
 GEORGE M. DALLAS, of Pennsylvania, VICE PRESIDENT.

THE CABINET.

James Buchanan, Pennsylvania, *Secretary of State.*
 Robert J. Walker, Mississippi, *Secretary of the Treasury.*
 William L. Marcy, New York, *Secretary of War.*
 John Y. Mason, Virginia, *Secretary of the Navy.*
 Cave Johnson, Tennessee, *Postmaster General.*
 Isaac Toucey, Connecticut, *Attorney General.*

THE PRESENT EXECUTIVE GOVERNMENT.

ZACHARY TAYLOR, of Louisiana, PRESIDENT.
 MILLARD FILLMORE, of New York, VICE PRESIDENT.

THE CABINET.

John M. Clayton, of Delaware, *Secretary of State.*
 William M. Meredith, of Pennsylvania, *Secretary of the Treasury.**
 George W. Crawford, of Georgia, *Secretary of War.*
 William B. Preston, of Virginia, *Secretary of the Navy.*
 Thomas Ewing, of Ohio, *Secretary of the Home Department.†*
 Jacob Collamer, of Vermont, *Postmaster General.*
 Reverdy Johnson, of Maryland, *Attorney General.*

* Died in office.

† A department for the interior, embracing the Patent Office, Land Office, coast survey, &c., recently organized.

THIRTY-FIRST CONGRESS.

The present Senate of the United States is constituted as follows:—

President—MILLARD FILLMORE.

ALABAMA.	Term.	MICHIGAN.	Term.
Benjamin Fitzpatrick,	1853	Lewis Cass,	1851
Uncertain,	1855	Alpheus Felch,	1855
ARKANSAS.		MISSOURI.	
Wm. K. Sebastian,	1853	Thomas H. Benton,	1851
Solon Borland,	1855	David R. Atchison,	1855
CONNECTICUT.		NEW HAMPSHIRE.	
Roger S. Baldwin,	1851	John P. Hale, F. S.	1853
Truman Smith,	1855	Moses Norris, Jr.	1855
DELAWARE.		NEW YORK.	
John Wales,	1851	Daniel S. Dickinson,	1851
Presby Spruance,	1853	William H. Seward,	1855
FLORIDA.		NEW JERSEY.	
David Y. Yulee,	1851	William L. Dayton,	1851
Jackson Morton,	1855	Jacob W. Miller,	1853
GEORGIA.		NORTH CAROLINA.	
John M. Berrien,	1853	Willie P. Mangum,	1853
Wm. C. Dawson,	1855	George E. Badger,	1855
INDIANA.		OHIO.	
Jesse D. Bright,	1851	Thomas Corwin,	1851
James Whitcomb, F. S.	1855	S. P. Chase, F. S.	1855
ILLINOIS.		PENNSYLVANIA.	
Stephen A. Douglass,	1853	Daniel Sturgeon,	1851
James Shields,*	1855	James Cooper,	1855
IOWA.		RHODE ISLAND.	
George W. Jones,	1851	Albert C. Green,	1851
Augustus C. Dodge,	1855	John H. Clark,	1853
KENTUCKY.		SOUTH CAROLINA.	
Joseph R. Underwood,	1853	John C. Calhoun,	1853
Henry Clay,	1855	A. P. Butler,	1855
LOUISIANA.		TENNESSEE.	
Solomon U. Downs,	1853	Hopkins L. Turney,	1851
Pierre Soule,	1855	John Bell,	1853
MAINE.		TEXAS.	
Hannibal Hamlin,	1851	Thomas J. Rusk,	1851
James W. Bradbury,	1853	Samuel Houston,	1853
MASSACHUSETTS.		VERMONT.	
Daniel Webster,	1851	Samuel S. Phelps,	1851
John Davis,	1853	William Upham,	1853
MARYLAND.		VIRGINIA.	
Benjamin C. Howard,	1851	James M. Mason,	1851
James A. Pearce,	1855	Robert M. T. Hunter,	1853
MISSISSIPPI.		WISCONSIN.	
Jefferson Davis,	1851	Henry Dodge,	1851
Henry S. Foote,	1853	Isaac P. Walker,	1855

* Now vacant—Gen. Shields declared ineligible.

The following is the list of all the members of the *House of Representatives* that have yet been elected. (Whigs in italics.)

Dist. ARKANSAS.

1—Robert W. Johnson.

GEORGIA.

1—*Thomas B. King.*

2—M. J. Welborn.

3—*Allen T. Owen.*

4—H. A. Haralson.

5—Thomas C. Hackett.

6—Howell Cobb.

7—*Alex. H. Stephens.*8—*Robert Toombs.*

ILLINOIS.

1—Wm. H. Bissell.

2—John A. M'Clernand.

3—Thomas R. Young.

4—John Wentworth.

5—Wm. A. Richardson.

6—*Edward D. Baker.*

7—Thomas L. Harris.

IOWA.

1—Wm. Thompson.

2—Shepherd Leffler.

MAINE.

1—Elbridge Gerry.

2—Nathaniel S. Littlefield.

3—*John Otis.*4—*Rufus K. Goodenow.*

5—Cullen Sawtelle.

6—Charles Stetson.

7—Thos. J. D. Fuller.

MASSACHUSETTS.

1—*Robt. C. Winthrop.*2—*Daniel P. King.*3—*James H. Duncan.*

4—No choice.

5—*Charles Allen, F. S.*6—*George Ashmun.*7—*Julius Rockwell.*8—*Horace Mann.*9—*Orin Fowler.*10—*Joseph Grinnell.*

NEW JERSEY.

1—*Andrew R. Hay.*2—*Wm. A. Newell.*

3—Isaac Wildrick.

4—*John Van Dyke.*5—*James G. King.*

NEW YORK.

1—*John A. King.*2—*David A. Bokee.*3—*J. Philips Phœnix.*4—*Walter Underhill.*5—*George Briggs.*6—*James Brooks,*7—*William Nelson.*8—*R. Holloway.*9—*Thomas M'Kissock.*10—*Herman D. Gould.*11—*C. R. Sylvester.*12—*Gideon O. Reynolds.*13—*John L. Schoolcraft.*14—*George R. Andrews.*15—*J. R. Thurman.*16—*Hugh White.*17—*H. P. Alexander.*18—*Preston King, F. S.*19—*Charles E. Clarke.*20—*O. B. Mattison.*

21—Hiram Walden.

22—*Henry Burnett.*23—*William Duer.*24—*Daniel Gott.*25—*Harmon S. Conger.*26—*W. T. Jackson.*27—*W. A. Sackett.*28—*A. M. Schermerhorn.*29—*Rob't. L. Rose.*30—*David Rumsey.*31—*E. Risley.*32—*E. G. Spaulding.*33—*Harvey Putnam.*34—*L. Burrows.*

SOUTH CAROLINA.

1—Daniel Wallace.

2—J. L. Orr.

3—J. A. Woodward.

4—James M'Queen.

5—Armistead Burt.

6—Isaac E. Holmes.

7—W. F. Colcook.

WISCONSIN.

1—Charles Durkee, F. S.

2—*Orsamus Cole.*

3—James D. Doty.

OHIO.

- 1—David T. Disney.
- 2—*L. D. Campbell*, F. S.
- 3—*R. C. Schenck*.
- 4—*Moses B. Corwin*.
- 5—Emery D. Potter.
- 6—Rodolphus Dickinson.
- 7—Jonathan D. Morris.
- 8—*John L. Taylor*.
- 9—Edson B. Olds.
- 10—Charles Sweetzer.
- 11—John K. Miller.
- 12—*Samuel F. Vinton*.
- 13—W. A. Whittlesey.
- 14—*Nathan Evans*.
- 15—*Wm. F. Hunter*, F. S.
- 16—Moses Hoagland.
- 17—Joseph Cable.
- 18—David K. Carter.
- 19—*John Crowell*, F. S.
- 20—*Jos. R. Giddings*, F. S.
- 21—*Joseph M. Root*, F. S.

VERMONT.

- 1—*Wm. Henry*.
- 2—*Wm. Hebard*.
- 3—*Geo. P. Marsh*.
- 4—L. B. Peck.

DELAWARE.

- 1—*John W. Houston*.

MICHIGAN.

- 1—A. W. Buel.
- 2—*William Sprague*, F. S.
- 3—R. S. Bingham.

MISSOURI.

- 1—James B. Bowlin.
- 2—Wm. V. N. Bay.
- 3—James S. Green.
- 4—Willard P. Hall.
- 5—John S. Phelps.

PENNSYLVANIA.

- 1—LEWIS C. LEVIN.
- 2—*Jos. R. Chandler*.
- 3—*Henry D. Moore*.
- 4—John Robbins, Jr.
- 5—*John Freedly*.
- 6—Thos. Ross.
- 7—*Jesse C. Dickey*.
- 8—*Thaddeus Stevens*.
- 9—Wm. Strong.
- 10—M. M. Dimmick.
- 11—*Chester Butler*.
- 12—David Wilmot, F. S.
- 13—*Joseph Casey*.
- 14—*Charles W. Pitman*.
- 15—*Henry Nes*.
- 16—Jas. X. McLanahan.
- 17—*Samuel Calvin*.
- 18—*A. Jackson Ogle*.
- 19—Job Mann.
- 20—*R. R. Reed*.
- 21—*Moses Hampton*.
- 22—*John W. Howe*, F. S.
- 23—James Thompson.
- 24—Alfred Gilmore.

FLORIDA.

- 1—*E. C. Cabell*.

CONGRESSIONAL ELECTIONS YET TO BE HELD IN THE SEVERAL STATES.

Alabama,	Aug. 6	Mississippi,	Nov. 5
Connecticut,	Apr. 2	New Hampshire,	June 6
Indiana,	Aug. 6	North Carolina,	Aug. 2
Iowa,	Aug. 6	Rhode Island,	Apr. 4
Kentucky,	Aug. 6	Tennessee,	Aug. 2
Louisiana,	Nov. 5	Texas,	Nov. 5
Mass. (1 vacancy)	—	Virginia,	Apr. 24
Maryland,	Oct. 3		

ELECTORAL VOTES FOR PRESIDENT AND VICE PRESIDENT.

On the 14th of February, 1849, the senate and house of representatives of the United States assembled in joint meeting to ascertain and declare the electoral vote of the several states, *Hon. George M. Dallas*, Vice President of the United States, presiding, the following result was obtained on opening the certificates:—

List of votes for President and Vice President of the United States for four years, commencing March 4, 1849.

No. of votes of each state.	STATES.	For President.		For Vice President.	
		Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana.	Lewis Cass, of Michigan.	Millard Fillmore, of New York.	William O. Butler of Kentucky.
9	Maine,		9		9
6	N. Hampshire,		6		6
12	Massachusetts,	12		12	
4	Rhode Island,	4		4	
6	Connecticut,	6		6	
6	Vermont,	6		6	
36	New York,	36		36	
7	New Jersey,	7		7	
26	Pennsylvania,	26		26	
3	Delaware,	3		3	
8	Maryland,	8		8	
17	Virginia,		17		17
11	N. Carolina,	11		11	
9	S. Carolina,		9		9
10	Georgia,	10		10	
12	Kentucky,	12		12	
13	Tennessee,	13		13	
23	Ohio,		23		23
6	Louisiana,	6			
6	Mississippi,		6	6	6
12	Indiana,		12		12
9	Illinois,		9		9
9	Alabama,		9		9
7	Missouri,		7		7
3	Arkansas,		3		3
5	Michigan,		5		5
3	Florida,	3		3	
4	Texas,		4		4
4	Iowa,		4		4
4	Wisconsin,		4		4
290		163	127	163	127

RECAPITULATION.

Whole number of votes given, - - - - -	290
Necessary to a choice, - - - - -	146
<i>Of which for President,</i>	
Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana, received, - - - - -	163
Lewis Cass, of Michigan, received, - - - - -	127
	<hr/>
	290
<i>For Vice President,</i>	
Millard Fillmore, of New York, received, - - - - -	163
William O. Butler, of Kentucky, received, - - - - -	127
	<hr/>
	290

PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS OF 1848 AND 1844.

POPULAR VOTE BY STATES.

	1848.			1844.		
	TAYLOR.	CASS.	VAN BUREN.	POLK.	CLAY.	BIRNEY.
Maine	35,125	39,880	12,096	45,719	34,378	4,836
Massachusetts	61,070	35,281	38,058	52,846	67,418	10,860
Rhode Island	6,779	3,646	730	4,867	7,332	
Vermont	23,122	10,968	13,837	18,041	26,770	3,954
New Hamp.	14,781	27,763	7,560	27,160	17,866	4,161
Connecticut	30,314	27,046	5,005	29,841	32,832	1,943
New York	218,603	114,312	120,510	237,588	232,482	18,512
New Jersey	40,015	36,901	849	37,495	38,318	
Pennsylvania	185,513	171,176	11,263	167,535	161,203	3,138
Maryland	37,702	34,828	125	32,776	35,984	
Delaware	6,421	5,898	80	5,996	6,278	
Virginia	45,124	46,536		49,570	43,677	
N. Carolina	43,519	34,869		39,287	43,232	
S. Carolina	Electors chosen by the legislature; voted for Gen. Cass.					
Alabama	30,482	31,363		37,740	26,084	
Georgia	47,544	44,802		44,147	42,100	
Louisiana	18,217	15,370		13,782	13,083	
Mississippi	25,922	26,537		25,126	19,206	
Tennessee	64,705	58,419		59,917	60,030	
Kentucky	67,141	49,720		51,988	61,255	
Ohio	138,360	154,775	35,354	149,117	155,057	8,050
Indiana	69,907	74,745	8,100	70,181	67,887	2,106
Illinois	53,047	56,300	15,774	57,920	45,528	3,570
Missouri	32,671	40,077		41,324	31,250	
Michigan	23,940	30,687	10,389	27,759	24,337	3,632
Wisconsin	13,747	15,001	10,418	Admitted since 1844.		
Iowa	11,084	12,093	1,126	Do.	do.	do.
Arkansas	7,588	9,300		9,546	5,504	
Florida	4,539	3,238		Admitted since 1844.		
Texas	3,770	8,695		Do.	do.	do.

(ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.)

MEMOIR OF GOVERNOR BELCHER.

One of the most distinguished of the provincial governors appointed for America, during the reign of Charles the Second, was Governor BELCHER, a native of Boston, who was for ten years governor of Massachusetts and New Hampshire, and afterwards, for nearly as long a period, governor of New Jersey. Prince, in a strain of adulation, perhaps too common in all times from men of letters to persons in authority, dedicates to him his *Annals*; and the celebrated Dr. Watts, on hearing that Mr. Belcher had been invested by the king with the government of Massachusetts, addressed to him a poem, concluding in the following strain of panegyric:—

“Go, Belcher, go, assume thy glorious sway;
 Faction expires, and Boston longs to obey.
 Beneath thy rule may truth and virtue spread,
 Divine religion raise aloft her head,
 And deal her blessings round. Let India hear
 That Jesus reigns, and her wild tribes prepare
 For heavenly joys. Thy power shall rule by love;
 So reigns our Jesus in the realms above.
 Illustrious pattern! Let him fix thine eye,
 And guide thy hand. He from the worlds on high
 Came once an envoy, and returned a king;
 The sons of light in throngs their homage bring,
 While glory, life, and joy beneath his sceptre spring.”

JONATHAN BELCHER, the only son of the honourable Andrew Belcher, and grandson of Andrew Belcher, who came from England in 1640, and settled soon after at Cambridge, was born in Boston, on the 8th of January, 1682. His father was born in Cambridge, 19th of January, 1647, and removed to Boston in 1677. He became the most opulent merchant of his time in Boston, and is mentioned as “an ornament and blessing to his country.” He was for some years an assistant of the colony, and was one of the council of safety appointed by the people on the occasion of the deposition of Andros in 1689. He was afterwards a member of the council of the province, from May, 1702, until 31st of October, 1717, when he died, at the age of 70 years. His son received the best education which the country afforded, and graduated at Harvard College, in 1699, in a class distinguished for talents and character.

Mr. Belcher did not incline to enter upon professional studies, and soon after leaving college, commenced business as a merchant in Boston.

To extend his business and correspondence, as well as to reap the advantages of foreign travel, he went to Europe in 1704, spent several years in England and on the continent, where he became known to many eminent characters, and received the highest marks of their esteem. Returning to Boston in 1710, he enlarged his business, and was generally successful in his commercial enterprises. He also became an active politician, and a candidate for public honours. He represented his native town in the provincial assembly, and was afterwards a member of the council. In this body he became distinguished for his activity and devotion to the interests of the province. He had been, from his entrance into public life, the intimate associate of Governor Shute, and an advocate of the measures pursued by him, and followed up by his successor, Governor Burnet. These measures were unsatisfactory to the people, who generally returned a majority of the assembly opposed to the governor. Perceiving no smooth road to preferment in this direction, Mr. Belcher, with that facility which has distinguished a certain class of politicians in later times, suddenly changed his ground, and joined the party in opposition to Governor Burnet.

Mr. Belcher's commanding abilities and popular manners were circumstances that operated in his favour, and in 1731, he was chosen as the agent of the province to repair to the court of George II. On the 28th of May, 1729, while Mr. Belcher was making his arrangements to proceed to London, the assembly sent up to Governor Burnet for approval, the list of counsellors and assistants at that time chosen. The governor approved of all but two; one of the two being Mr. Belcher, who was designated by the governor as "a leader of the opposition." Belcher soon after left for England. There he represented to the king the true situation of the province, and in particular, the general opposition which existed among the people to the establishment of a fixed salary for the governor, in whose appointment they were permitted to have no choice. While in England, Mr. Belcher was also appointed an agent for the colony of Connecticut, and rendered important services at a time when they were apprehensive of the loss of their charter. After his return to Massachusetts, the legislature of Connecticut voted him the thanks of the colony, and sent a committee to Boston to congratulate him on his appointment as governor.

The spirit of resistance which the people of Massachusetts manifested against the instructions to Governor Burnet, gave great offence in England, and for a time the government seriously contemplated measures which would subject them to a still more absolute dependence on the crown than that of which they complained. But Mr. Belcher being on the ground, and being supported by a strong interest at court, aided also by that of the former Governor, Shute, who generously waived his own claims, the English government determined on appoint-

ing him to the office of governor, rendered vacant by the sudden death of Burnet.* They supposed that being a native of Massachusetts, and acquainted with the temper and wishes of the people, Governor Belcher would have influence enough to conquer the opposition by carrying the favourite point of a fixed salary, which the assembly had so long resisted. On the other hand, the people, whose agent he had been, were also gratified at his appointment, believing that he would not perplex the legislature by pressing those instructions which had occasioned so much difficulty with his predecessors. In this, however, they were soon undeceived.

Governor Belcher arrived at Boston on the 10th of August, 1730, and at his first meeting with the general court, proposed to have his salary established and provided for by the province, according to the instructions accompanying his commission, which were precisely like those given to his predecessors. He could scarcely have adopted a more unpopular course, and yet it was one which, bound as he was by the royal instructions, he could hardly avoid. The prominent leaders among the people, who until this time had been the warmest friends of Governor Belcher, now became his opponents. They at first dissembled their opposition, and attempted to avoid altercation; but when he refused his assent to a bill which they had passed for his support, they assumed a bolder attitude, and he found them not to be moved by his arguments or persuasions, but resolutely bent on supporting the views of former legislatures. The governor, anxious to avoid further collision, finally induced the assembly to apply for such a modification of the royal instructions as to permit him to receive their grants from time to time, and thus the controversy was ended.

In Governor Belcher's commission was included the government of New Hampshire; and on the 25th of August, he met the assembly of that province at Portsmouth. Here he at first accepted an invitation, and resided at the house of the Lieutenant-governor, Wentworth; but soon became his enemy, from the following circumstance. While Belcher was in England, and when it was uncertain whether he or Shute would be appointed to succeed Burnet, lieutenant-governor Wentworth, like some politicians of more modern schools, anxious to secure the friendship of the successful competitor, wrote complimentary letters both to Shute and Belcher. This coming to the knowledge of the latter while in Portsmouth, he resented it as an act of duplicity, and reproached Mr. Wentworth in severe terms, and refused to visit him. Nor did his resentment stop here. He limited Wentworth's compensation to certain fees and perquisites amounting to about fifty pounds sterling a year; and removed some of Wentworth's connexions from office, to make way for his own friends. Atkinson, who married a daughter of

* The news of Gov. Burnet's death reached London on the 24th of Oct., 1729, and the appointment of Gov. Belcher was announced on the 29th of November following. The royal commission, however, bears date of the 23th of January, 1730.

Wentworth, and at that time held the offices of collector, naval officer, and sheriff of the province, was deprived of the first two, and in the last, another person was appointed to share the emoluments. Atkinson, being somewhat of a wag, turned the latter into ridicule. On one occasion the military being called out to escort the governor, all the officers of government were required to join the cavalcade. Atkinson appeared, on a jaded horse, with only half his wand as a badge of office. The governor reprimanded him for being late; when Atkinson apologized by saying that he had only half a horse to ride.

From the most trifling causes not unfrequently spring important events; and this dispute between the governor and lieutenant-governor, embittered as it was by the executive proscription of individuals at that time popular in the province, led to a combination in New Hampshire, which not long afterward caused the severance of that province from Massachusetts.

Lieutenant-governor Wentworth did not long survive his quarrel with Belcher, and died on the 12th of December following. He was succeeded in office, on the 24th of June, 1731, by Col. David Dunbar, an Irish officer, who had been in command of the fort at Pemaquid, and had there assumed to act as governor over the few scattered inhabitants of Maine. This coming to the knowledge of Belcher, on his arrival in Boston, he had issued his proclamation requiring them to submit only to the jurisdiction of Massachusetts. He also sent home a representation of the affair to the king in council, and Dunbar's authority was revoked. From the hostility which had thus been engendered in the bosom of Dunbar, his appointment as lieutenant-governor of New Hampshire, was by no means welcome to Governor Belcher. Dunbar immediately on his arrival joined the party in opposition to the governor, and was afterwards active in all the intrigues to procure his removal.

Among the popular delusions of that period, was the issuing of bills of credit by the legislatures of the colonies, and making such a currency, however depreciated, a legal tender in the payment of debts. To such an extent had this system of paper issues been carried, that it attracted the notice of parliament; and in the royal instructions to Shute, Burnet, and Belcher, they were severally enjoined to restrain the further extension of this species of currency. Governor Belcher, in his speech to the Massachusetts legislature, December 16th, 1730, emphatically calls their attention to the state of their bills of credit, and characterizes them as being "a common delusion to mankind." The law compelling creditors to receive paper at par value, however depreciated, came before the governor for re-approval. He at first promptly vetoed the measure; but in the course of the year following, being wearied with the importunities of the people, he consented to have it further prolonged. This was disapproved by the king; and the assembly afterwards petitioning that the royal instructions imposing restrictions

on paper money might be rescinded, they were answered with a sharp rebuke from the royal council.*

Governor Belcher, who was determined as far as possible to carry out the royal instructions, now exerted himself to the utmost to restrain the flood of paper money. The issues of treasury notes were curtailed, and attempts were made to call in as large an amount of the former issues as possible. There was a universal complaint and outcry. The governor was assailed by a strong and unyielding opposition. The assembly becoming obnoxious, the governor dissolved them; but the people, in such case, generally re-elected the same members, or others equally bold in opposition.

There being no bar in the royal instructions against private issues, a number of merchants and others in Boston associated together, and issued what was called the merchants' notes, a species of currency which, being redeemable in silver at a specified rate per ounce, in consequence of the depreciation of the public bills, were preferred in the market, and hoarded up. This operation led to multitudes of similar speculations in the different provinces. The scheme of a great land bank was proposed to the general court, which was speedily followed by another proposition for a mammoth specie-paying bank. The people were in a feverish state, and a large majority were in favour of one or the other of these schemes, in which the prominent men of the province were, or proposed to become interested. Governor Belcher exerted himself to blast the land bank scheme, and issued a proclamation warning the people against receiving its bills. Military and civil officers were forbidden to receive or pass any of those bills, and were promptly displaced from office for disobeying the order. The governor also negatived the speaker of the assembly for being a director in this bank, and afterwards negatived thirteen of the newly elected counsellors for the same cause, or for being favourers of the scheme. But all to little purpose. The bank went on. Large sums of its worthless paper were pushed off in exchange for any description of property, and the fraud was only arrested by an act of parliament suppressing the company.†

The bold and vigorous measures adopted by Governor Belcher, rendered him obnoxious to a majority of the people of Massachusetts,

* The temper of parliament on this occasion may be seen in the following notice in the London Magazine of that year: "May 10.—A memorial of the council and representatives of the *Massachusetts-Bay* was presented to the house and read, laying before them the difficulties and distresses they laboured under, arising from a royal instruction given to the then present governor of the said province in relation to the issuing and disposing of the public money of the said province," &c. "After some little debate, it was resolved that the complaint contained in the memorial and petition is *frivolous* and *groundless*, an *high insult* upon His Majesty's government, and *tending to shake off the dependency of the said colony upon this kingdom*," &c. Whereupon the petition was rejected.

† In the very valuable work of the Rev. Joseph B. Felt, on the "History of the Massachusetts Currency," a minute account of this interesting controversy is given.

and a formidable combination to effect his removal, was soon after formed.

Another question proved a source of embarrassment, and connected as it became, with the resentments which the governor had kindled in New Hampshire, finally contributed to his recall. This was the dispute between Massachusetts and New Hampshire about the boundary. The governor, although he had repeatedly, as he was required to do by his instructions, called the attention of both provinces to a settlement of the dispute—was, in reality, averse to any adjustment. He was in favour of uniting both provinces permanently under one government. He was placed in a delicate position, as governor over both, and it behoved him to carry a steady hand during the controversy. His opponents in New Hampshire, among whom were Dunbar and Benning Wentworth, son of the late lieutenant-governor, and Atkinson, were indefatigable in their intrigues. Within a few weeks after Dunbar's appointment, he had procured a complaint to be drawn up against Belcher, complaining of his government as arbitrary and oppressive, and praying the king for his removal. This was forwarded to London, and paved the way for the appointment of Theodore Atkinson, Benning Wentworth, and Joshua Pierce, as counsellors. Governor Belcher remonstrated against these appointments, and the two former were not admitted to the council board for nearly two years. They were, however, chosen to the assembly, and there exerted themselves in opposition to the governor.

A committee of both provinces met at Newbury, 21st September, 1731, on the subject of the boundary, but separated without coming to any understanding. This determined the New Hampshire legislature to despatch an agent to London, and John Rindge, a wealthy merchant of Portsmouth, soon after sailed. While the matter was pending in England, a most bitter controversy was kept up between the two parties in New Hampshire. Governor Belcher, in his frequent letters to England, constantly represented Dunbar, as in truth he was, a fomentor of sedition, a reckless and perfidious citizen; while Dunbar and his associates in opposition were no less severe in their animadversions upon the character and conduct of the governor. The assemblies in both provinces were almost invariably opposed to him; and hence he frequently dissolved them, but with no favourable results, for the same persons were generally re-elected, and came back encouraged in their opposition by the strong support of the people.

At this period, the public debts in New Hampshire were suffered to remain unpaid. The fort, prison, and other public buildings, were out of repair; for which the assembly was frequently complained of by the governor. The reason of their delay to provide the means, was their desire to make new emissions of paper money, which the governor there, as in Massachusetts, resisted. The scarcity of money being great, a number of merchants in Portsmouth, following the Boston ex-

ample, combined for the purpose of issuing private notes as a currency. As soon as their notes appeared, Gov. Belcher issued a proclamation against them, and in a speech to the assembly, condemned the proceeding in very strong terms. The assembly, which favoured the scheme, attempting to vindicate the character of the bills, he dissolved them with a reprimand, charging them with being guilty of injustice and hypocrisy.

It is not to be supposed that decisive measures of this description, in opposition to the will of the people, were adapted to lessen the prejudices, already strong, against the governor. On the contrary, every new grievance, real or imaginary, only hurried forward the spirit which was working his overthrow. Although no provincial governor was ever more loyal to the crown he served than Belcher, he was subjected to severe mortifications, through the sinister influence of his enemies, who had succeeded in prejudicing the royal ear. Among the appointments to office which he had made, was that of his son-in-law, to the naval office in Massachusetts. There could be no objection to the appointment, as he was a faithful and efficient officer. But the king ordered Governor Belcher to appoint another to his place, although the act of parliament expressly vested the appointment in the governor. When advised to evade the command, he replied, "that although the king could not make a naval officer, he could make a governor;" and so gave up his son-in-law. One or two other incidental triumphs of his enemies, in New Hampshire, were no less mortifying.*

In August, 1735, Governor Belcher with his council from Massachusetts, held a conference with the chiefs of the six nations at Albany, an interesting account of which is preserved in Colden's *Memoirs of the Indian nations*.

After a long and weary controversy before the lords of trade, a commission for the settlement of the boundary question was decided upon. The commissioners were to be selected from the counsellors of New York, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Nova Scotia, and they were to hold their preliminary meeting at Hampton, New-Hampshire, on the 1st of August, 1737. On the day appointed, they assembled. The assembly of Massachusetts met at Boston, on the 4th, and were prorogued to meet at Salisbury on the 10th. The New Hampshire assembly, which had met at Portsmouth, on the same day, was also adjourned to the 10th, to meet at Hampton Falls. Thus the two as-

* On the first of January, 1734, Gov. Belcher sent for Benning Wentworth to appear at the council board, and on his appearance there, he addressed him thus: "Mr. Wentworth, I have His Majesty's royal mandamus for admitting you into his Majesty's council, and am now ready to do it, and have ordered the secretary to administer the proper oaths to you accordingly." Mr. Wentworth replied, "I should have been glad to have known it sooner, sir, for I am engaged to serve in the Assembly for this term, and therefore cannot accept now, but when the session is over, I may be ready." He then withdrew. He was not qualified until the 12th of Oct. 1734.—*Council and Assembly Records of New Hampshire.*

semblies were drawn within five miles of each other, and the governor, in his speech, declared that he would "act as the common father of both." The assemblies met at the places appointed. From Boston, a cavalcade was formed, and the governor rode in state, escorted by a troop of horse. At the Newbury ferry he was met by another, which joined by three others, at the supposed division line, escorted him to his head quarters, in Hampton Falls, where he held a council and addressed the assembly.* Even here, the antagonist spirit of the assembly provoked the governor; and on the very day that the commissioners adjourned for the purpose of giving the two assemblies time to consider their decrees, and frame their appeals, if necessary, Governor Belcher adjourned the New Hampshire assembly to the 12th of October. This was a hasty and imprudent step, and his enemies did not fail to use it to his disadvantage. The Massachusetts assembly remained in session five days longer, during which they obtained copies of all the papers they wanted, framed their appeal, and then adjourned.

From this period, the adversaries of the governor became more active than ever. They contrived so to connect the boundary question with their own personal objections against him, that they produced an impression upon the king. The agent of New Hampshire, Tomlinson, who was continually pressing the affair before the ministry, was a sagacious politician, and so adroitly used the weapons furnished by the opponents of Belcher in Massachusetts, as to defeat the claims of that province, and at the same time procure the recall of the governor. Other, and even criminal means were resorted to, until his enemies, by the use of falsehood and misrepresentation, and finally, by acts of forgery and perjury, accomplished their objects.† He was superseded in office by

* The regal pomp of this procession was made the subject of severe comment by the adversaries of Governor Belcher, and occasioned several pasquinades, among which the following, in an assumed Hibernian style, is the best natured:

"Dear Paddy, you ne'er did behold such a sight,
As yesterday morning took place before night.
You in all your born days saw, nor I didn't neither,
So many fine horses and men ride together.
At the head of the lower house trotted two in a row,
Then all the higher house pranced after the low;
Then the governor's coach gallop'd on like the wind,
And the last that came foremost were troopers behind.
But I fear it means no good to your neck or mine,
For they say 'tis to fix a right place for the line."

† The effect of the calumnies circulated in England against Governor Belcher is seen in the following extract of a letter from Dr. Watts to Rev. Mr. Colman, written in May, 1734:—"The unhappy differences between him (Governor Belcher) and the people, have given occasion for hard things to be said of him here, almost in all companies where his name is mentioned." Douglass thus sums up the chief points of the intrigue against Belcher. His enemies charged him, 1. With being friendly to the land bank scheme; 2. With having countenanced the waste of the king's timber; and 3. With contriving the ruin of the dissenting church in New England. The first charge was so far from being true, that most of the opposition to his admi-

Benning Wentworth, as governor of New Hampshire, and William Shirley, as governor of Massachusetts, whose commissions arrived 14th of August, 1741.

The historians, both of Massachusetts and New Hampshire, speak in strong terms of reprobation of the unwarrantable means resorted to by the enemies of Governor Belcher. Hutchinson says, that a few weeks' longer delay would have enabled him to defeat the machinations of his enemies; and it is well known that the king, in a short time after, discovering the injustice which had been done him, voluntarily promised him the first vacant government in the colonies. Belknap expresses the surprise which would naturally affect the mind of any one at this distance of time, that Governor Belcher should have met such treatment from a British court, in the reign of so mild and just a prince as George II. But Belknap was not probably aware of the full force of the intrigue against him. It happened that Lord Euston, son of the Duke of Grafton, was a candidate for the honour of representing the city of Coventry in parliament. A rival candidate seeming likely to prevail, a zealous dissenting clergyman of the name of Maltby, who possessed great influence among the electors of Coventry, and who rashly credited the assertions of Belcher's enemies that he was conspiring against the dissenters in New England, offered to the Duke of Grafton, to secure the election of his son, Lord Euston, on condition that Belcher should be dismissed from office. The offer was accepted: Lord Euston was returned to parliament, and Belcher was sacrificed to an intrigue, as Spottiswoode in Virginia, and Burnet in New York, had been before him.

Governor Belcher was a warm admirer of the preaching of the celebrated Whitefield, and accompanied him not unfrequently in his journeyings through the province, always treating him with the greatest consideration. When this powerful preacher was on his way to New York, in October, 1740, the governor accompanied him as far as Worcester, and parted from him with great affection.

Soon after the appointment of his successor, Governor Belcher went to London, where the nature of the intrigues against him being exposed, he was treated with great consideration by the king and court. They felt that he had been injured, and unjustly recompensed by the government he had most zealously laboured to serve.

A vacancy happening in the province of New Jersey, occasioned by the death of Governor Hamilton, in 1747, Governor Belcher was appointed to succeed him, and met the assembly, for the first time, at

nistration in Massachusetts, arose from his decided opposition to the land bank. The second was equally false, and originated with the adherents of Dunbar, in New Hampshire, who sent a *forged* representation to London, using the names of J. Gilman, Jos. Lord, George Gerrish, Peter Thing, and John Hall, of Exeter. The third had no better foundation, and was supported only by forged anonymous letters addressed from Massachusetts to dissenting clergymen in England.

Burlington, on the 20th of August, 1747. In this province, his administration was generally acceptable. He was popular among the people, took pains to cultivate a good understanding with the assembly, and rarely interfered with their wishes, when their measures did not conflict with what he deemed his prerogative under the royal instructions. His course was dignified and conciliatory. In the difficult questions which arose during his administration, and the exigencies of the French and Indian war, his conduct was marked by prudence and good judgment.

The College of New Jersey, which was first opened at Newark, was, in 1752, removed to Princeton, where, on the recommendation of Governor Belcher, it was decided to erect a large building for its use. The trustees proposed to name the building *Belcher Hall*; but this the governor declined, requesting that it might be called *Nassau Hall*, in memory of King William III., a branch of the illustrious house of Nassau.

Governor Belcher seems heartily to have enjoyed his government in New Jersey. In a letter to Richard Waldron, of Portsmouth, dated at Burlington, N. J., 28th July, 1748, he says—"I bless God, I am placid and easy in my present situation, and think I have abundant reason to be so, for this climate and government seem calculated for my advanced years." Mr. Waldron, who was secretary of the province of New Hampshire from 1730 to 1742, was the confidential friend and correspondent of Gov. Belcher until the close of his life. It seems that Waldron, and some other of his friends, had looked forward to an effort to reinstate Gov. Belcher in New Hampshire; in allusion to which he thus writes to Waldron, under date of 7th August, 1749: "I can form no rational view as to what my friends seem to be warmly desirous of. Wish-ers and would-ers are but poor house-builders. A good solicitor at home, with a pocket full of yellow dust, might do something; but, alas, where is such a one to be found? As to myself, I would not pass through another purgatory of three years' voyage, dancing attendance, and expense, for the king's favour in making me vice-roy of his English America. Indeed, sir, if I know my own heart, I would not." In another letter, dated 22d November, 1750, he thus speaks of his own course of conduct:—"In my public life, I was always desirous to be able to chant with the poet—

' Nil conscire sibi nulla pallescere culpa
Hic murus Athenæus esto.' "

Solomon tells us, a good name is rather to be chosen than great riches, and is one of the rewards of virtue. The world is captious and censorious, and too apt to reproach a man's memory; therefore Pope, in caution, says—

" The flame extinct, the snuff will tell
If wax, or tallow, by the smell."

For several years, Governor Belcher resided at Burlington, but afterwards removed to Elizabethtown. During the closing years of his life, he suffered under great debility of body from paralysis, yet he bore up with great fortitude and resignation, and devoted himself with unremitting zeal to the duties of his office. During the two years preceding his death, the assembly held their sessions at Elizabethtown, on account of his inability to meet them at Burlington or Amboy. He died on the 31st August, 1757, in the 76th year of his age.

Inheriting a large fortune, Governor Belcher affected an elegant and even splendid style of living, far beyond the income of his office, and was, through life, distinguished for his generosity and hospitality. He was graceful in person, and polished in his manners and conversation. In the judgment of President Burr, who preached the funeral sermon at his interment, "the scholar, the accomplished gentleman, and the true Christian, were seldom more happily and thoroughly united, than in him. His ears were always open to real grievances. The cause of the poor, the widow, the fatherless, as well as of the rich and great, was by him favourably heard, and the wrongs of all readily and impartially redressed. He was indeed a minister of God for good unto his people. Nor should I (continues his eulogist) pass over in silence what will distinguish Governor Belcher's administration, not only in the present, but, I trust in all succeeding ages. I mean, his being the founder and promoter, the chief patron and benefactor, of the college of New Jersey. He lived to see his generous designs of doing good, in this respect, have something of their desired effect." His remains were taken to Massachusetts, and deposited in the family tomb, near the entrance of the burial-place, in Cambridge.

Two sons of Governor Belcher were educated at Harvard College, viz. Andrew, who graduated in 1724, was afterwards a member of the council, and died at the family seat, in Milton, Mass., 24th Jan. 1771, aged 65;* and Jonathan, who graduated in 1728, studied law at the Temple in London, rose to some eminence at the English bar, settled in Nova Scotia, was counsellor, lieutenant governor, and chief justice of the province, and died 29th March, 1776, aged 65.

Governor Belcher's first wife was Mary, daughter of Lieutenant Governor Partridge, and she died at Boston, 6th October, 1736, aged 51. He married a second time in 1748, and his widow, after his decease, went to Milton, Massachusetts, and there resided with Andrew Belcher, Esq., eldest son of the governor.

J. B. M.

* The Belcher mansion, at Milton, was burned in 1776, in the night, by accident. The widow of Andrew B., with the old lady, Governor Belcher's widow, hardly escaped the flames. They were carried into the barn, placed in the family coach, and forgotten till all was over. Elliot, the biographer, says he took tea with those ladies in that barn.

THE PRESS AND THE PERIODICAL LITERATURE OF
THE UNITED STATES.

The statistics of the press exhibit a very striking difference between the circulation of newspapers and periodicals in this country and in Europe. That there is a cause for this cannot be questioned, but what that cause may be, and what the relative effects of that cause may be, are matters worthy of serious consideration, especially to Americans.

Political economists who have written upon their theory for *Europe*, divide society into three classes, namely, land owners, capitalists and operatives, representing the three great points of their so termed *science; rents, profits and wages*. We accept this division as the best key to explain the relative positions of men in European countries.

The land owners, generally confined to the barons of the realm, forming the nobility, surround the throne, and aid by their luxurious splendour to keep up the show of its external glory, and by their intellect, to sustain its dignity. They are men who have been educated with care, both mentally and physically; inheriting the refined tastes of the cultivated generations that have preceded them, and exercising an acknowledged influence upon all society.

Their position, their wealth, and their education, induce too luxurious habits, pardonable in them, because they are the result of long continued custom and usages. They are identified with the representative of sovereignty who wears the crown. Their existence is identified with that of the monarchy, which, as has been but lately demonstrated, if it falls, carries this class with it. They are taxed to support the reigning sovereign and his estate. Their lands must supply these taxes, and must also supply the means of gratifying expensive tastes. There is also a church to be supported, which in some countries is part of the state. These lands are leased, and leased in a manner to produce the highest rents. The lessees must live; they find a strict economy necessary to meet their engagements, and are forced to obtain the labour necessary for tilling the soil at the least possible price. The labourer has to take what is offered him, for *he has no alternative but to starve*. He receives enough to keep him in working condition, and his family alive—and he receives no more. He has nothing to do with his government. He has had no time in youth, and his father no means to educate him. He is not eligible to office,—and having no voice in public affairs, he knows and feels that his condition is not to be altered or amended by any efforts of his. *He has no future*. His cares are for the day.

The next class are the capitalists, generally not among the nobility. They have the vanity, however, to vie with their superiors in the exhibition of wealth before the world. They ape their habits; they imitate their tastes. What is natural to the first, becomes mere imitation

in the latter. They have their taxes to pay, and their extravagant follies to provide for. The means are derived from the profits of their investments. If their capital be invested in manufactures, as is most generally the case, they seek to realize the largest possible returns. This can only be done by getting their labour at a cheap rate. The operative has *no alternative* but to take what is offered. He finds all the channels by which he might earn his daily bread literally choked with competitors. He is forced to receive the mite awarded him by the capitalist, or starve. This mite is only enough to support himself and family, too often insufficient even for this end. What is he to do? He has no education himself, nor has he time, if he had, to educate his family. He has no means to provide schooling, and he requires the assistance of his children, so soon as they are able, to help him in the effort to gain their daily bread. They are shut out from any participation in government affairs; they have no voice in making laws; no means of altering their condition. The care for the day occupies their time and thought. They know no future.

All these operatives feel that their condition is hopeless. Ambition, aspiration, honour, are to them hollow sounds. Their souls are crushed by their slavish position. If they have a heart left, it knows but tears, sorrow, woes and despair, or else the mere brutish enjoyment of physical existence. The world beyond their plough or their workshop, is an unknown country, and so it must remain, unless want and desperation force them to burst their prison bounds, like the pent up lava of a volcano, and by annihilating the established governments, breaking down the long acknowledged barriers of society, spread desolation far and wide, until the genial glow of freedom's sun, and man's awakening consciousness shall warm the ashes into life, into a healthy and a fruitful soil.

Among the two former of these classes are alone to be found the patrons of the press in Europe. They are identified with the government. Their happiness and welfare depend upon the maintenance of a peaceful administration of affairs. They would do any thing to avoid political convulsions. Tranquillity is essential to their enjoyment, their wealth, their being. To preserve this tranquillity the press and its patrons know, that the operatives, the millions, must be kept in ignorance of their degradation. They must be deprived of education, nor be permitted to contrast their own forlorn condition with the luxury, wealth and splendour of the nobility, and the capitalists. They must not be suffered to ask, why that nobleman, or their king even, is permitted to wallow in riches, while they suffer for food, shelter and raiment. If the question should be asked by the millions, they know and dread the answer. In some countries the question has been asked, and the answer shattered thrones, exiled sovereigns and nobles, and made the wealthy tremble.

This state of affairs has, heretofore in all countries, and now still in

some; of necessity limited the press to the few, and those few identified with monarchical principles. But there is a great difference discernible between the English and the continental press. This difference must be ascribed to the construction of their governments. The constitutional monarchy of England places the representative of sovereignty beyond the sole control of public affairs. The right to vote, to be represented in the national legislature, and having thus indirectly a voice in the government, gives the right to those thus privileged to know how their representatives perform their duties. Of course this right to know, permits the press to discuss public affairs; to criticise public men and public acts. They have in these discussions, however, only the first two classes, representing *rents* and *profits*, to cater for, and they must consequently write to suit such tastes. These tastes demand ability, talent, experience and learning. Such requisites are very expensive, and necessarily place the subscriptions to such journals on a relative scale, putting newspapers and periodicals at once beyond the means of all save the wealthy. To these expenses add also the tax imposed upon every sheet issued, and the secret of the high cost of all that issues from the press may be understood.

On the continent a tax is also imposed, but the press is there, or has heretofore been under a very different control. The law-making power is more centred in the sovereign, who looks with a jealous eye upon all encroachments on his power, all attacks made upon the government. Censors are established under pay of the crown to examine and exclude all articles, or even allusions, that might tend in the least degree to breed discontent, or open the eyes of subjects. Such restrictions limit the topics of discussion, but in those left to the press, they have the same tastes to cater for as in England, requiring talent and ability, which can only be had at great expense. These requisites place the press, on the continent, beyond the means of all but the wealthy.

The censorship of the press is often carried to an excessive degree. There was in Berlin, (Prussia) a certain editor, whose wit had made his paper popular. He sometimes allowed himself to point his satire at the king, his ministers, and their measures. This propensity redoubled the watchfulness of the censors. On one occasion they literally crossed out every article of his paper. The next morning Saphir, for such was the editor's name, published a blank sheet, having only the heading of his paper upon it. The king was much incensed, fearing this want of matter would be ascribed to the true source, and give rise to complaints. Saphir was arrested and brought before the king, who inquired in no mild manner the cause of such an issue. Saphir, nothing daunted, replied: "How can the eagle soar when his wings are clipped." "Let him learn to curb his aspirations," said the king, and dismissed him. The scheme had its desired effect, in making the royal censorship more unpopular, but it in no wise softened the rigour of its inspection.

From the above facts, it will at once be seen, how limited the circulation of the European press must be under the old forms of government. What it may become under the present change—*nous verrons*.

How is it in America? Sovereignty here begins with the individual. Each adult citizen, rich or poor, with or without education, is a sovereign. He has unalienable rights: he says how he will be governed. To secure his person, his property, and these rights, to defend them against his stronger neighbours, he resigns a portion of that sovereignty to his township, county and state. They, in return, shield him, protect his home, and enable him to enjoy the fruits of his labour. As a matter of policy, he yields to the majority, knowing that that majority individually have the same stake in government as himself; he abides by their decision, and has the satisfaction to know, that injurious administrations of government must light alike on all, be felt at large through the community, and that the ballot-box will redress his evils. If men professing one set of principles, are proved to be incompetent, and their policy injudicious or pernicious, another set may be found to supplant them, and he has a voice in placing these in office. He cannot be called upon to pay taxes or perform public duties, without the assent of those he has sent to represent him in the legislative body of his country. He is a part of the government. He feels it. He is a freeman.

If he be a labourer, he demands a fair compensation for his labour. If it be refused, he can go to the west, where land is cheap, and industry is sure to be rewarded with abundance; or he may seek among the many channels open to enterprise, his livelihood elsewhere. No man says to him, "Here is a fair compensation for your labour, take it; it is enough to support life! You must be content with a bare subsistence!" He demands more, and he receives more. Public schools are provided for his children, and the fruits of his industry enable him to lay by more than his family requires for their support. Feeling himself a part of the social and political compact, of the local state and national government, he feels a natural curiosity to know what is taking place, and what laws are made to protect him and his property. He has a desire to know how his money, paid in taxes, is expended, and how his representatives dispose of his contributions. He, of necessity, belongs to some of the political parties of the day. He desires to learn the principles of the party; their projects; to know the names and characters of men, proposed as candidates to represent his party. There is a division in his church, or some question of a social character raised, wherein he has attached himself to one side or the other;—he wants to know how the question is to be discussed, and to ascertain the views of the contending sides. He is of European birth, or of European descent; he is anxious to be informed of what is going on in the "old country," how his relations are affected, and the condition of the government, politically and socially. Where does he seek for

his information? He seeks for it and finds it in newspapers. But how can a poor man, a labourer, afford a newspaper? Very well: because our press is not weighed down by stamp-taxes, and our editors are the owners of the papers, and having only the printing, paper, type-setting and their own support to provide for, are enabled to sell their journals at the lowest possible price; a price within the reach of any and every one. Hence it is, that our newspapers penetrate every corner of the land; find their way into every house, domicile and log-cabin; and are read by, or read to nearly every man, woman and child throughout the country. It is true, the matter they contain may not compare with the character of that found in foreign papers, nor would it suit the generality of readers if it did; but it is matter *intended* to meet the demand of those who read it. There are some of our papers, called leading papers, long established and having a certain subscription and advertising list, which places them in a situation to take a loftier position. These are at once more expensive papers than the generality issued, and often contain articles worthy the attention of the wisest and best of all countries. We are not now speaking so much of the press, but rather of the peculiar construction of our institutions, which invites the circulation of newspapers, and creates a demand for them.

The reason why our papers, as a general rule, are inferior to the European, is easily found. Individual enterprise is the seed from which all things spring in this country. Our governments have little power beyond protecting the fruits of such enterprise, and by this protection to encourage it. They do not themselves contribute the means, nor lend their aid to develop the enterprise. To "start a paper," capital is necessary to some extent, or credit, to defray the expenses of printing, paper, etc., until the income from subscriptions and advertising supplies the means. The uncertainty of obtaining these sources of income amid the competition of established journals, with so many channels open for the investment of capital, promising speedy and ample profit, makes capitalists reluctant to invest in newspapers just commencing, whose fate is always precarious. Hence nearly all our journals are started by owners, who act as publishers and editors. They obtain credit, or possess sufficient capital to commence, and if they succeed, owe it entirely to their own energy and perseverance.

The surprise is, that so many papers succeed under such untoward circumstances. But we come now to the influence they exercise, and this is by far the most important branch of the subject.

The occupations of our men throughout the land, with the exception of the few professional ones, forbid much study, or much deep learning. There is probably no country in the world where education, up to a certain point, is so generally diffused as in the United States; but beyond that, the diffusion ceases. There is probably no country where, for the number possessing the general elements of education, so few

books and so many newspapers are read as in our own. Many, very many, especially among the labouring classes, read newspapers only. Their newspaper is their text book; the opinions therein promulgated are devoured without question, and made their own; prejudices there recorded are accepted and assumed; and the doctrines, news, deductions and assertions regarded as sober truth. This is a fact, beyond all doubt. What a responsibility rests then upon those who conduct the press? And do those who conduct the press feel this responsibility? Do they acknowledge and conform to it? What might not be effected by such a weapon, such an instrument, such a power in proper hands, and under proper control? Instead of yielding to political partisanship and contention, instead of succumbing to prejudices and popular dissensions, the press should stand forth a public monitor. The great questions of national interests should be discussed with reason, impartially, and, if possible, without bias. If the side advocated by an editor will not stand the test of investigation and scrutiny, it cannot be the truth, and should be abandoned for the sake of the country, the welfare of the nation! If any policy be found injurious, it should attack it, regardless of party, regardless of all save the well-being of the state, or union. It should stand forth the advocate of public as well as private virtue; condemn that which is base, be it among the high in station, or the lowly of lot; it should hold the rod of exposure and of condemnation over all abuse in office, all misfeasance and neglect of duty, public and private; it should promulgate a high standard of public and private morals, and by upholding the honest, the virtuous, the good, elevate the general mind, and educate the many to comprehend, and thoroughly understand the invaluable boon of civil, political and religious liberty! This is the only country where the influence of the press is felt throughout the ramifications of society. Here alone can the press effect so great an end; and wield so unlimited, beneficial and healthy a sway. The obligation imposed is too often disregarded; but there is a way to accomplish this desirable object, and only one way; by giving a ready support, a willing aid to such journals and newspapers, as have this laudable end in view, and by discountenancing those which tend only to produce a demoralizing effect upon the community.

The press deserves, and should receive more attention than it meets. Does any one reflect upon the protection it gives to society? the *morale* it exercises in our army? the shield it forms against crime and immorality? Every instance of crime is published in our papers, with the names and descriptions of the criminals; every instance of cowardice, neglect of duty, or disobedience of orders of any gross character in our army, is made known through the press, and the delinquent's, the disgraced one's name attached to the notice; any striking instance of immorality is likewise circulated through this medium far and near. How many a crime may not have been stayed in its conception by the re-

membrance of this publicity? How many a weak mind may not have been saved from temptation, by the fear of exposure? And how many a man in our late war may not have been incited to daring deeds, and to contend fearlessly against overwhelming odds, by the knowledge that his bravery and his courage would be proclaimed throughout his native country? And many a good deed, many a generous action has been accomplished and performed, from a sense, that the press would do justice to the motive that incited it. Let every one look to it, reflect upon it, ponder over it, until the importance of this vast engine to American liberty shall be recognised; its power known, and be made to apply itself in exalting, educating and cultivating the millions who look to it for truth, information and amusement. Let no one say, "these things regulate themselves!" You have made your engine of prodigious power, and unless superintended and controlled by skilful hands, it will rattle down the temple in which you have intended it to work.

Nor is our periodical literature of less importance? The remarks above are intended to apply to the press generally, and are as applicable to this branch as to the newspapers. Young minds, both male and female, often receive their early impressions from these works. Early impressions often leave lasting effects, and the mind tainted in youth, seldom recovers its purity. Our women, and the position they hold, the influence they exercise among us, are the first and best proofs of our civilization. Let no one forget the necessity of early impressing high moral sentiments upon the maiden's mind, for she is to be a wife and a mother, than which no position is more responsible.

Let the wise men of the nation exert themselves in developing the necessity of a high standard in our press, and they can find no work more essential to the public welfare, no labour more patriotic, nor one that would be likely to reap a richer reward. The press is the bulwark of our liberties!

S.

CHINA AND THE CHINESE.

(By the author of "Opium and the Opium trade."*)

As the physiognomy of a people is oftentimes borrowed from the natural features of their country, so may their national character be said to take its impress from the institutions under which they live. We look in vain among the inhabitants of the lower Rhine, for those bold and daring features which distinguish the hardy race that dwells near its mountain source, and we shall be equally disappointed if we seek among idolaters for the high-toned moral sentiment which moulds the character of a Christian people. In forming a correct estimate of the character of the Chinese, many difficulties oppose us. They live under peculiar institutions, and secluded from the rest of the world, and are of course unaffected by those reciprocal relations which influence other civilized nations. And so marked, so *sui generis*, is every thing connected with them and their country, that the adjective China is a convenient mode of designating them. Porcelain and China are synonymous with many persons. A set of China or China-ware, China silks, China sweetmeats, China orange and China rose, are all sufficiently marked, merely by the adjective. But of all the odd things China produces, a China *man* himself is the oddest. He is in truth a curious specimen of the genus homo. Judge him by our standard, and he is to it a very antipode; but weigh him in his own scales, and he is of great gravity: try him by his own measure, and he is faultless. It is difficult to determine which of the two standards is the best for arriving at a correct decision.

A true Chinaman thinks himself to be the greatest man in the world, and China, beyond compare, to be the most civilized, the most learned, the most fruitful, the most ancient, in fact, the *best* country beneath the starry firmament. It is useless to tell him to the contrary, for he will no more believe you, than you do him. "If your country is so good, why do you come here after tea and rhubarb?" is a puzzler. "If your people are so good, why do you bring opium here to destroy us?" is unanswerable in his mind to prove his own goodness and our wickedness, and he clinches both by saying, "We can do without you, but you cannot live without us." When he is thus intrenched in his own wisdom, a Chinaman is beyond persuasion.

Ask some people what they think of the Chinese, and they will tell you that they are a most infamous and degraded people, a set of rascals without one redeeming quality. Ask others, and they will give it as their opinion, that the Chinese are a most excellent people; that they are honest and prompt in their dealings, industrious and nice in their habits—in short, a paragon among the nations. The first, in my

* See page 158, vol. I.

humble opinion, are as nearly correct in their estimate, as the last. If we expect too much from a pagan nation, we shall be disappointed; if we deny the existence of every good quality among them, we wrong the Chinese as a people.

The national virtues and vices of a Chinaman, naturally take their impress from his circumstances. He is less the master of his movements than others are, and to a great extent he spends his life in mental, as well as bodily thralldom. From the structure of the government, the sphere of an individual is much circumscribed. His thoughts, energies and exertions, are limited first by precept, and soon after by habit. Does he wish to become a scholar, he learns whatever the sages have bequeathed to him. When a boy, he goes to school, listens to the exhortations of Confucius, and moves in the circle of ideas therein marked out for him. Though the sages never intended to make man an automaton, he becomes so by habit. Nothing is taught in the schools besides the classics, and the literature of the country is based upon them. Would a Chinese soar beyond the dull circle of these acquirements, he must mark out a track for life, and enrolling himself among the candidates for literary distinction, devote all his time and all the energies of his mind to literature. The general belief is, that whatever the ancients did not teach, is unworthy the attention of a son of Hán. The mind is, therefore, kept in subjection; it may not proceed farther than the prescribed limits, and must model all its thoughts according to the orthodox canon. This has a tendency to blunt the faculties, and to produce slavish submission to authority without permitting the right of inquiry. Thus there is, strictly speaking, no mental cultivation, and the yoke of submission to dogmatic precept is easily borne, as its pressure is not felt by such callous minds. Such is exactly the state in which a despotic government wishes its subjects to be. Control then becomes easy; the people are kept in subjection by working upon their prejudices, and when all minds are tutored in the same manner, the same measures will be equally applicable to the whole commonwealth. The emperor has always been anxious to uphold this acquiescence in what is written. The advantages accruing to the rulers are immense, and with such subjects they can safely venture a little upon their endurance. A whole code of laws is therefore drawn up to suit this mental slavery. There is law upon law, and precept upon precept; regulations, edicts, proclamations, commands and behests without end. They are calculated to restrain every action, and to make an immense people the puppets of their superiors. This is indeed a thralldom, for the fear of this arbitrary power paralyzes their energies. Since it cannot be resisted by open force, the sufferers use corresponding craftiness to escape from its clutches, or to protect themselves against its assaults. To this we trace one cause of the deceitfulness of the Chinese character.

When we remember that the Chinese have no religious instruction,

and are also without the fear of the only true God, and acknowledge no accountability to Him for their actions, we are by no means astonished at the existence of so much vice among them. Whatever does not attract the attention of government, is committed without compromise of character. In judging, therefore, of this character, we should take into consideration the circumstances under which it is found—this will help us to have more patience with the people, and it ought to make us grateful that the “lines are fallen to us in such pleasant places.”

“It is,” says Bishop Berkeley, “as we are Christians, that we profess more excellent and divine truths than the rest of mankind.” And in this the Chinese are sadly deficient. To us, upon whom from our earliest infancy, the mild, the peaceable and the redeeming influences of the Christian religion have been shed, the dark mazes of heathenism and the superstitious rites of its votaries are indeed abhorrent. If we examine the so-called religion of China, we will find the seeds of many of the vices which exist among its people. That of Confucius, is rather a system of ethics, than a systematic faith—that of Taou-Tza embraces doctrines dangerous in practice and disreputable in precept—repudiating all recollections of the past and thoughts of the future. The founders of these two systems were contemporaries. The one sought to captivate the heart by virtuous and rational theories; the other to surprise and win by means which ministered to the gratification of the passions. The first is the doctrine of the Stoics—the second of the Epicureans. The religion of the masses—Buddhism—is a mere concoction of traditions imported by crafty priests, and precepts extracted from the sacred writings. The objects of worship of these several religions are almost innumerable, but among them all we look in vain for the object of our adoration. The Chinaman worships nature, but he neither recognises the existence of, nor pays the homage of a grateful heart, to nature’s God. He worships not Him who made the earth and clothed it with pleasing verdure, and bid it teem with fruits and flowers—who spread out the lofty firmament and studded it with light-giving gems—who bade the sun its circuit run and lend to the pale moon its milder light—who gave to the sea bounds that it should not pass—who stills the tempest in its^o might, and rules the stormy billows—who made man in His own image, and gave to him high and holy attributes of mind and heart, to appreciate and to enjoy the blessings of His hand.

Having thus glanced, hastily it is true, at the system of government, education and religion of China, we are prepared in a measure to contemplate the dark lineaments in the character of its people.

The horrible crime of infanticide is practised to a great extent among the Chinese. Foul, indeed, is the stain it casts upon their character. The little infant is cast by its inhuman parents upon the waters, or more savagely strangled with cords. The tiger, the fiercest of all beasts, nurses with kindly care its young; the lion

will die of hunger in ministering to the wants of its little ones, but the Chinaman, with no compunction of conscience, will coldly and deliberately murder the infant of whose being he himself is the author. No excuse can be offered for the commission of this horrid crime. Neither his poverty, nor the character of their institutions, which wink at it; nor the antiquity of the practice, can be offered in palliation, or relieve the crime, in the least, of its enormity. Is it through poverty that they commit this inhuman crime? If this were the only alternative to a lingering death from starvation, it might be regarded as the dictate of humanity. But even the Chinese themselves do not believe that such a resort is necessary. They can sell their infants to those who have no offspring, or to parents who thus provide wives for their sons, for the female children are the only victims of this crime. This is a common custom among the poor. Instead of paying a comparatively large price for an adult daughter-in-law, they prefer obtaining infants for little or nothing, and bringing them up in ways which render their services valuable, or at least preclude much additional expense. If they cannot sell their children, there is but little difficulty in giving them away. And if both these expedients should fail, they need keep them but a little longer and go a little farther in order to accomplish their object. After they have arrived at a certain age, they can take their young children to foundling asylums which are to be found all over the empire, where the children of the poor are provided for without expense to their parents. But alas! want of affection is one great, repulsive feature of heathenism. Rather than subject themselves to the least trouble, multitudes prefer destroying their offspring as soon as they appear. Many of these worse than brutal parents, think it necessary to furnish themselves with some excuses for their inhuman conduct. And what are they? The poor say, that as they have not the means of support, it is not right that they should nourish those who will become only an increasing source of expenditure. They are unwilling to give them to others, through fear that they will be ill-treated, or brought up to some improper purpose, and they refuse to take them to asylums, because when they grow up, they may involve them in expense and trouble. But the practice is not confined to the poor alone; all classes are involved in its guilt. With the rich it is an act of heartless calculation, a balancing of mere pecuniary loss and gain. They boldly and fearlessly assert as an excuse, that such slender tenants of the nursery can never be raised to any important post in the household. True, some of them profess to be governed by the selfish fear, that their daughters may bring disgrace upon them—but the common course of reasoning carried on in their cold, selfish hearts, is, that they will cost much both before and after marriage—that they will then be transferred to another connexion, (their laws not permitting them to marry one of their own surname,) which will be of no advantage, and may be of detriment to their parents, and that

if their husbands die, they will probably be thrown back upon them as a dead weight for future support! Do any doubt the prevalence of this inhuman crime? I do not make vague, unfounded assertions—I am supported by facts.

During the year 1843, the Christian missionaries stationed at Amoy, in the Fokeen province, for the purpose of ascertaining the proportion of female children murdered in their infancy in that city and neighbourhood, commenced a course of investigation and inquiry which they continued for a twelvemonth. They found that seven out of ten of the female children were destroyed at, or shortly after birth. There was no difficulty in obtaining facts on the subject. The Chinese did not hesitate to acknowledge, not their guilt, but their frequent commission of the practice. A Chinese woman, employed in one of the missionary families there, confessed that she had destroyed two of her infant children. A Chinaman also stated to one of the missionaries, that he and his two brothers had killed fifteen of their children, and saved but three. Dr. Cumming, who, while I was there, was stationed at Koolongsue, told me that one day, when a large crowd had collected in his hospital, to witness the operation of removing a large tumour from the neck of a Chinaman, he put the question publicly, "What number of female children are destroyed in this village, at birth?" The answer returned was, "more than one-half." One Chinaman held up in the crowd a little female child, and shamelessly stated, that he had "killed five, and saved but that one." When the newly appointed commandant at Amoy visited, in 1844, the English authorities there, he expressed surprise at the equal fondness of the English ladies for the children of both sexes. When asked by the consul, Mr. Alcock, what proportion of female children were destroyed by violence at Amoy, he replied, about one-half. A gentleman who was attached to the medical mission at Amoy, pointed out to me, one day while I was walking with him, a stream in the southern part of the city, a stream which was called by the Chinese, "dead infants' river," and he told me that he had frequently seen the corpses of infants floating upon its surface. Horrible, and almost incredible as these statements may appear, they are derived from authentic sources, and in their truth I place the most implicit belief. I should state, however, that the province of Fokeen is notorious, throughout the whole empire, for the number of its infanticides. Its practice, however, is not confined to Fokeen, and I should be doing the Chinese authorities injustice, did I omit to state, that by edicts they endeavour to suppress this cruel crime. I have seen a proclamation, which was issued in 1838, by Ke, at that time governor of the Quangtung province, in which he exhorts the people by arguments addressed to their reason, and by appeals to their kindlier feelings, to save all their little ones, whether male or female. "Surely," he says, "you forget that your mothers and wives were once female children. If you have no wives, where will be your posterity? If there had been no female children,

where would you have obtained your own bodies? Being yourselves the children of those who were once female children, why cast your own into the field of death? Reflect! consider what you are doing! The destruction of female children is nothing less than the slaughter of human beings. That those who kill, shall themselves be killed, is the sure retribution of Omniscient Heaven." But it must be observed, that infanticide is not recognised or punished as a crime. By the laws of the empire, a child is as much the property of his father, as the ox which draws his plough. To a heart ignorant of its relations to the true God, destitute of natural affection, and perfectly alive—and alive only—to its worldly interests, the temptations to infanticide must be great in China. It does not come under the cognizance of their civil laws. Society imposes no restraint: it never frowns upon such an act, and their friends lose none of their respect for those who commit it.

It has been justly remarked, that a nation's civilization may be estimated from the rank its females hold in society.

If the civilization of China be estimated by this test, then is she far from deserving that place among the nations she so presumptuously claims. Females have always been regarded with contempt by the Chinese; their ancient sages having deemed them hardly worthy of their attention. Confucius thus speaks of them:—"The lady who is to be betrothed to a husband, should follow blindly the wishes of her parents, yielding implicit obedience to their will. From the moment she is joined in wedlock, she ceases to exist; her whole being is absorbed in that of her lord. She ought to know nothing but his will, and to deny herself in order to please him. She should speak only to her husband, and never be seen out of doors." Pau Hwuy-pau, a much admired female historian of China, has laid down rules for the government of her sex, in which she treats of their proper station in society. She tells them that "they hold the lowest rank among mankind, and that employments the least honourable ought to be, and are their lot." We could not expect that this doctrine, coming from a *female* who ought to have been an advocate for her sex, and one too held in so much esteem as Pau Hwuy-pau, esteemed perhaps on account of this very doctrine, would be overlooked by the "lords of creation," especially as it accords so well with their domineering disposition in China.

A species of middle state between rudeness and civilization, is the portion of a Chinese lady of quality. Inhumanly deprived of the use of her limbs, whenever she desires to go out, she is concealed in a close sedan—and so strictly is this incognito observed, that less wealthy persons keep covered wheel-barrow for their captive wives—not to prevent the winds of heaven from visiting them too roughly, but to deprive them of the homage of earthly eyes. Notwithstanding all this jealous care, the females of the lower classes are treated with little, in fact with no respect. Often is the poor man's wife seen labouring in

the fields of rice, the farm of cotton, the nurseries of silk, her infant being safely tied to her back, while her husband is engaged in the excitement of smoking or gambling. In the character of the Chinese females we see somewhat to admire. A woman spends most of her time at *home*, in the discharge of her domestic duties and in the education, so far as she is able, of her young children. Her authority over the male children ends, however, when they have arrived at their tenth year. At this age the boys are removed from their mother's care, nor are they ever after permitted to visit the place in which they were born. In their love of apparel the Chinese ladies are not a whit behind their sisters of the west, and the dresses of the wealthy are magnificent in the extreme. There is no indecency in their costume, for the garments encase their whole person like a tortoise shell; even the small feet are completely hid, for it would be a violation of female propriety to make a parade of this criterion of beauty. To prove that I have not exaggerated the ill-treatment which females suffer at the hands of their husbands, I would state that Dr. Medhurst bears testimony to the fact that in the interior of the country females are sometimes compelled to draw light ploughs and harrows. I have myself seen them at work in the rice fields near Shanghai, half immersed in mud and water. Dr. Parker, who from his station as head of the hospital at Canton, has probably had better means of judging in this matter than any other foreigner, told me that females in the common ranks of life were held in the greatest degradation and were treated as slaves. No one who has seen Chinese females in their own country has failed to observe, that their countenances bear a care-worn expression, as though they were conscious of the inferiority in which they are held. The institutions of the country tend to degrade females. They are purchased by the father as wives for his sons, and the female seldom knows to whom she is to be married until she is carried in the bridal sedan to the door of her intended husband's house. Polygamy is allowed in China, and this includes within itself so much to depress the mind of woman and to benumb her affections, that until public opinion and the laws of the country are changed in this respect, she can never rise to her proper place. The idea that a man *can* have more than one wife, seems to have more injurious effects, both upon his own affections and the condition of females, than the actual evils resulting from a plurality of wives. Facility of divorce has also a tendency to make a wife more of a slave than a companion and friend. Even Confucius himself, divorced his wife without cause, and such an example the Chinese do not hesitate to follow, when their choice impels them. The ignorance of Chinese females generally, is properly considered as degrading, but we may observe that if they are taught to be virtuous, industrious and decorous, Chinese literature can add but little which is calculated to expand the mind, or purify the heart. In fine, we may sum up all the evils by saying, that as all social intercourse

between unmarried youths of opposite sexes is strictly forbidden, so there being no cordial friendship or reciprocity of esteem before marriage, there is but little afterwards. The husband thinks he has conferred a favour upon his wife by taking away the reproach of being single; and the wife feels her dependence too acutely to think of ever becoming the companion of her lord. Christianity is the only remedy for these evils: its code the only emancipation act that can be found to relieve the daughters of Eve from the slavery of public opinion thus arrayed against them.

G. H. V.

(To be continued.)

CALIFORNIA.

Upper or Alta California, ceded to the United States by the late treaty with Mexico, extends from the 32d to the 42d parallels of north latitude. It has Oregon on the north, the Pacific ocean on the west, Lower California and Sonora on the south. On the east the boundary is not clearly defined; according to some, the Rio Colorado is the eastern limit; according to others, the Rocky mountains. The Anahuac range lies east of the Colorado, and the Wahsatch to the west of it.

The Sierra Nevada or Snowy range of mountains, runs parallel with the Pacific and divides the inhabited portion of California from that which is unexplored and desert. That part which lies between the Sierra Nevada and the Pacific, is the region known to travellers and emigrants, and contains the valleys of Sacramento and San Joaquin. The other division which lies east of the Sierra Nevada, embraces within it the Great Basin, the Wahsatch mountains, the Great salt lake and the Rio Colorado of the west. Of this portion of California, but little is known. The Mormons have made the only white settlement within its limits, near the salt lake. The Great Basin extends from the Sierra Nevada to the Wahsatch mountains. It has an elevation of four or five thousand feet above the level of the sea, and, so far as the observations of travellers have reached, is covered with evidences of volcanic action. The existence of this great basin is vouched for, by American traders and hunters; and Col. Fremont, who traversed its outer rim, and visited the great salt lake and the Wahsatch mountains, ascertained that there was a succession of lakes and rivers which had no visible outlet to the sea, or connexion with the Columbia or Colorado rivers. He believed that the basin extends four or five hundred miles each way, and that sterility is its prominent characteristic. It is peopled; but from all he heard and saw, humanity is there in its lowest form and in its most elementary state. The greater part of the inhabitants are dispersed in single families—without fire-arms—eating seeds and insects, and digging roots; whilst others, a degree higher, live in communities upon some lake or river that sup-

plies fish, and from which they repulse the miserable *digger*. The rabbit is the largest animal known in this desert—its skin affords a covering to the savages. The wild sage which grows six or eight feet high, serves them for fuel, and for building materials.

The western division of Alta California, to which our attention must be principally directed, lies, as we have stated, between the Sierra Nevada range and the Pacific ocean. It is thus described by Col. Fremont:

“West of Sierra Nevada, and between that mountain and the sea, is the second grand division of California, and the only part to which the name applies in the current language of the country. It is the occupied and inhabited part, and so different in character—so divided by the mountain wall of the Sierra from the great basin above—as to constitute a region to itself, with a structure and configuration—a soil, climate and productions—of its own; and as northern Persia may be referred to as some type of the former, so may Italy be referred to as some point of comparison for the latter. North and south, this region embraces about ten degrees of latitude—from 32° where it touches the peninsula of California, to 42°, where it bounds on Oregon. East and west, from the Sierra Nevada to the sea, it will average, in the middle parts, one hundred and fifty miles; in the northern parts, two hundred—giving an area of above one hundred thousand square miles. Looking westward from the summit of the Sierra, the main feature presented is, the long, low, broad valley of the Joaquin and Sacramento rivers—the two valleys forming one—five hundred miles long and fifty broad, lying along the base of the Sierra, and bounded to the west by the low coast range of mountains, which separates it from the sea. Long dark lines of timber indicate the streams, and bright spots mark the intervening plains. Lateral ranges, parallel to the Sierra Nevada and the coast, make the structure of the country and break it into a surface of valleys and mountains—the valleys a few hundred, and the mountains two or four thousand feet above the sea. These form greater masses, and become more elevated in the north, where some peaks, as the Shasti, enter the regions of perpetual snow. Stretched along the mild coast of the Pacific, with a general elevation in its plains and valleys of only a few hundred feet above the level of the sea—and backed by the long and lofty wall of the Sierra—mildness and geniality may be assumed as the characteristic of its climate. The inhabitant of corresponding latitudes on the Atlantic side of this continent can with difficulty conceive of the soft air and southern productions under the same latitudes in the maritime regions of Upper California. The singular beauty and purity of the sky in the south of this region is characterized by Humboldt as a rare phenomenon, and all travellers realize the truth of his description.

“The present condition of the country affords but slight data for forming correct opinions of the agricultural capacity and fertility of

the soil. Vancouver found, at the mission of San Buenaventura, in 1792, latitude 34 deg. 16 min., apples, pears, plums, figs, oranges, grapes, peaches, and pomegranates growing together with the plantain, banana, cocoa nut, sugar cane, and indigo, all yielding fruit in abundance, and of excellent quality. Humboldt mentions the olive oil of California as equal to that of Andalusia, and the wine like that of the Canary Islands. At present, but little remains of the high and various cultivation which had been attained at the missions. Under the mild and paternal administration of the 'Fathers,' the docile character of the Indians was made available for labour, and thousands were employed in the fields, the orchards, and the vineyards. At present, but little of this former cultivation is seen. The fertile valleys are overgrown with wild mustard; vineyards and olive orchards, decayed and neglected, are among the remaining vestiges; only in some places do we see the evidences of what the country is capable. At San Buenaventura, we found the olive trees, in January, bending under the weight of neglected fruit; and the mission of San Luis Obispo (latitude 35 deg.) is still distinguished for the excellence of its olives, considered finer and larger than those of the Mediterranean.

"The productions of the south differ from those of the north and of the middle. Grapes, olives, Indian corn, have been its staples, with many assimilated fruits and grains. Tobacco has been recently introduced; and the uniform summer heat which follows the wet season, and is uninterrupted by rain, would make the southern country well adapted to cotton.—Wheat is the first product of the north, where it always constituted the principal cultivation of the missions. This promises to be the grain-growing region of California. The moisture of the coast seems particularly suited to the potato and to the vegetables common to the United States, which grow to an extraordinary size."

The principal towns in California are Monterey, San Francisco, Puebla de los Angeles, San Diego, San Jose, &c. Monterey is the seat of government, and is situated on a bay of the same name; but San Francisco or Yerba Buena is the principal point of attraction, for thither is bound the great body of emigrants and adventurers from all parts of the world now crowding to the western Eldorado on the shores of the Pacific. The *California Star*, a paper published in San Francisco, gives the following description of the place.

"Yerba Buena, (San Francisco) the name of our town, which means "good herb," is situated on the south-west side of the principal arm of San Francisco bay, about five miles from the ocean, on a narrow neck of land, varying from four to ten miles in width—the narrowest place being sixteen miles south-west of the town. It is in latitude 37 45 N. This narrow strip of land is about sixty miles in length, extending from the point formed by the bay and the ocean, to the valley of San Jose. The site of the town is handsome and commanding—being an

inclined plane of about a mile in extent, from the water's edge to the hills in the rear. Two points of land—one on each side, extending into the bay, form a crescent, or small bay, in the shape of a crescent, in front, which bears the name of the town. These points afford a fine view of the surrounding country—the snow-capped mountains in the distance—the green valleys beneath them—the beautiful, smooth, and unruffled bay in front and on either side, at once burst upon the eye. There is in front of the town a small island, rising high above the surface of the bay, about two miles long, and one wide, which is covered the greater part of the year with the most exuberant herbage of untrodden freshness. This little island is about three miles from the shore. Between it and the town is the principal anchorage. Here vessels of all nations rest in safety and peace, and their flags are displayed by the aromatic breeze. Two hundred yards from the shore there is twenty-four feet water, and a short distance beyond that, as many fathoms. The beach immediately in front of the now business part of the town is shelving; but it will, no doubt, in a short time be filled up and become the most valuable part of the place.

The climate here is, in the winter, which is the rainy season, damp and chilly. During the balance of the year it is dry, but chilly, in consequence of the continual strong winds from the north and north-west. There is but little variation in the atmosphere throughout the year; the thermometer ranging from fifty-five to seventy degrees of Fahrenheit. Yerba Buena is one of the most healthy places on the whole coast of the Pacific. Sickness of any kind is rarely known among us. The salubrity of the climate—beauty of the site of the town—its contiguity to the mouth of the bay—the finest harbour on the whole coast in front—the rich and beautiful country around it, all conspire to render it one of the best commercial points in the world. The town is new, having been laid off in 1839, by Cap. John Vioget; and, notwithstanding all the troubles in the country, has gradually increased in size and importance. It now contains a population of about five hundred permanent citizens."

The following account of the bay of San Francisco is from Col. Fremont's report to congress.

"The bay of San Francisco has been celebrated, from the time of its first discovery, as one of the finest in the world, and is justly entitled to that character, even under the seaman's view of a mere harbour. But when all the accessory advantages which belong to it—fertile and picturesque, dependent country; mildness and salubrity of climate; connexion with the great interior valley of the Sacramento and San Joaquin; its vast resources for ship timber, grain, and cattle—when these advantages are taken into the account, with its geographical position on the line of communication with Asia, it arises into an importance far above that of a mere harbour, and deserves a particular notice in any account of maritime California. Its latitudinal position is that of Lis-

bon; its climate is that of southern Italy; settlements upon it for more than half a century attest its healthfulness; bold shores and mountains give it grandeur; the extent and fertility of its dependent country give it great resources for agriculture, commerce, and population.

The bay of San Francisco is separated from the sea by low mountain ranges. Looking from the peaks of the Sierra Nevada, the coast mountains present an apparently continuous line, with only a single gap, resembling a mountain pass. This is the entrance to the great bay, and is the only water communication from the coast to the interior country. Approaching from the sea, the coast presents a bold outline. On the south, the bordering mountains come down in a narrow ridge of broken hills, terminating in a precipitous point, against which the sea breaks heavily. On the northern side, the mountain presents a bold promontory, rising in a few miles to two or three thousand feet. Between these points is the strait, about one mile broad, in the narrowest part, and five miles long from the sea to the bay. Passing through this gate, the bay opens to the right and left, extending in each direction about 35 miles, having a total length of more than 70, and a coast of about 275 miles. It is divided by straits and projecting points into three separate bays, of which the northern two are called San Pablo and Suisoon bays. Within, the view presented is of a mountainous country, the bay resembling an interior lake of deep water, lying between parallel ranges of mountains. Islands, which have the bold character of the shores—some mere masses of rock, and others grass-covered, rising to the height of three and eight hundred feet—break its surface and add to its picturesque appearance. Directly fronting the entrance, mountains a few miles from the shore rise about 2,000 feet above the water, crowned by a forest of the lofty cypress, which is visible from the sea, and makes a conspicuous land-mark for vessels entering the bay. Behind, the rugged peak of Mount Diavolo, nearly 4,000 feet high, (3,770,) overlooks the surrounding country of the bay and San Joaquin. The immediate shore of the bay derives, from its proximate and opposite relation to the sea, the name of *contra costa* (counter coast, or opposite coast.) It presents a varied character of rugged and broken hills, rolling and undulating land, and rich alluvial shores, backed by wooded ranges, suitable for towns, villages, and farms, with which it is beginning to be dotted."

The credit of having discovered California, is, by some writers, accorded to *Cortes*, who as early as 1521 fitted out several expeditions for the purpose of exploring the northern coast of the Pacific. One of his officers, in 1537, reached the Gulf of California, but after some unsuccessful cruising, returned to Acapulco. About the same time, three hundred Spaniards under Pamfilo de Narvaez entered Florida with the design of subjugating it, but were defeated and driven out; the survivors wandered over Louisiana, Texas, and parts unknown, and one of them, De Vaca, reached Sonora, and afterwards returned

to Mexico. He told marvellous stories of the wealth of that unknown land—of plains covered with cattle, and mountains shining with precious metals. In consequence of these representations, several expeditions were fitted out, but they all proved unsuccessful, until at length, in 1602, Sebastian Viscayno set sail from Acapulco with a large fleet, and exploring the entire coast of upper and lower California, entered the harbours of Monterey, San Diego, and San Francisco. He returned, however, in a deplorable condition, having suffered greatly, and failed altogether in the great object of his expedition, which was to bring within his reach the treasures of gold and jewels that were reported to abound in that country.

Some years after, the Jesuits traversed California, and established missionary stations. For a long time they were unprotected, and endured many hardships, but at last they obtained relief, and fortresses were erected at Santo Barbara, Monterey, and San Francisco, to defend them from encroachments. They devoted themselves with great zeal to the civilization and conversion of the Indians, who formed an ardent attachment to their spiritual fathers and benefactors. The establishment of these priests continued in full vigour until 1760, when they had sixteen chief missions, and forty villages dependent on them. After the expulsion of the Jesuits from Spain in 1767, the guidance of California was committed to other hands, and its prosperity was soon on the decline.

In 1842, the number of whites, exclusive of Indians, in California, was estimated, by a French traveller, M. de Mofras, at five thousand, of whom emigrants from the United States were put down at 360. Subsequently, many foreigners came into the country; the majority of them were natives of the United States, and trappers from the Rocky mountains and head waters of the Columbia river, and the inhabitants increased so rapidly, that in 1846 they were believed to amount to ten thousand.

In the year 1842, Commodore Jones, of the American navy, then in command of the Pacific squadron, having been informed that California had been transferred by Santa Anna to England, for the purpose of preventing the occupation of the country by a European power, took possession of Monterey. It was immediately returned to the Mexican authorities on learning that the report was unfounded.

In 1845, a revolutionary movement, headed by Don José Castro, Alvarado, Pico, and others, in which the foreigners participated, resulted in deposing the Mexican governor—Pico became the civil governor, and Castro the military commandant. In June, 1846, Castro issued an order to remove his horses and government property from San Rafael to Santa Clara; and to do this, the officer in charge was obliged to cross the river Sacramento near Sutter's Fort. The settlers supposing that he was proceeding in that direction to attack the camp of Capt. Fremont, U. S. Engineer, who was then with a party sur-

veying 70 miles above New Helvetia, immediately hurried to Fremont's camp to assist him. On learning that Castro's real intention was to organize a sufficient force to prevent the ingress of emigrants, a party set out under Mr. Merritt, who seized the arms and horses of the Mexican detachment, and proceeded to Sonoma, which they took possession of. On the 25th June, Col. Fremont arrived at Sonoma, with ninety riflemen, to meet Castro, who was expected to attack the place, but had not arrived. A scouting party of twenty fell in with seventy Mexican dragoons, and routed them. A declaration of independence was then made by the people, and Fremont was requested to take the direction of affairs. Castro, who had intrenched himself at Santa Clara, abandoned that position, and retreated to Ciudad de los Angeles, with 400 men. As Col. Fremont was on the point of setting out for that place in pursuit of him, he received intelligence that the war with Mexico had commenced, and that Monterey had been taken on the 7th July by our naval forces under Commodore Sloat.

On the 12th August Commodore Stockton, then in command of the squadron, with Colonel Fremont, entered the city of Angels without resistance, and taking possession of the whole country as a conquest of the United States, the latter was appointed civil governor.

In the mean time, General S. W. Kearney had performed one of the most masterly marches on record, in pursuance of orders from the government to effect the conquest of New Mexico and Upper California. On the 18th August, 1846, he entered Santa Fe with the force under his command, and having reduced New Mexico to subjection, proceeded, on the 25th September, with three hundred dragoons to complete the work assigned him. On the 6th October he met Kit Carson, with an express from Commodore Stockton, on his way to Washington, who reported the occupation of California by the Americans. General Kearney thereupon sent back two hundred of the dragoons, and with the other one hundred as a guard continued his march. When within forty miles of San Diego, fatigued and worn out with travel, he encountered at San Pasqual an armed party of Mexicans, and after a severe and bloody fight totally routed them; but with the loss of three of his officers, and the general himself being wounded in two places. Having, shortly after, joined Commodore Stockton, with five hundred men under their command, they fought the enemy six hundred strong at San Gabriel, and gained a signal victory. Then followed the unfortunate difficulty between General Kearney, Colonel Fremont and Commodore Stockton. The latter officer, having been relieved in the command of the squadron by Commodore Dallas, returned home, and General Kearney assumed the government of California.

By the treaty of peace which was concluded and ratified between the United States and Mexico on the 30th day of May, 1848, Alta California and New Mexico, were ceded to the United States. These possessions are still, however, without a territorial government. General Persifer F.

Smith has been sent out as military commander, and the inhabitants contemplate organizing a provisional government, until better provided for by congress, or until they can be admitted into the union.

The recent discoveries of gold in Upper California, have given to this country an interest and importance in the public estimation, which was not anticipated at the time of its cession to the United States. The gold region lies principally on and about the Sacramento river, and its branches, the American Fork or Rio de los Americanos, Feather river or Rio de los Plumas, etc.

The first discovery of gold was made in February, 1848, by workmen who were engaged in building a saw-mill, on the south branch of the American Fork, about fifty miles from New Helvetia or Sutter's Fort. In digging a mill-race or canal, pieces of gold were discovered, and the workmen, who were principally Mormons, soon spread the news. Other discoveries were quickly made, and considerable sums obtained. In the month of April the great quantities of precious metal brought into the principal towns, attracted the attention of the people generally, and, in the course of a few weeks, the greatest portion of the male population abandoned their ordinary occupations, and started for the gold placers. The gold is found in the beds and banks of the streams, in small scales mixed with sand, from which it is washed; but in the intervening mountains it is found in coarser lumps, varying in size from three to six ounces. These *placers*, where the gold is discovered and washed, take this Spanish name from the Latin word *placere*, to please.

For a minute description of the gold region; the effect of the discovery upon the inhabitants of California; the success of those who are engaged in collecting the coveted metal; the amount found, and various other particulars of interest, we refer our readers to several interesting official communications, which we have placed on a subsequent page under the head of *Documents*. In our *Statistical* department, page 115, will also be found a list of vessels, passengers, goods, &c., that have left the ports of the United States bound to California.

JUNCTION OF THE ATLANTIC AND PACIFIC.

MARITIME AND OVERLAND ROUTES.

Since the acquisition of Oregon and California, by which the Pacific ocean has become our western boundary, the public mind has been directed to the most feasible routes of trade and travel from the eastern to the western limit of the republic. The subject of a junction of the two oceans has been long agitated, and for many years various projects have been suggested to effect that object; but now a fresh stimulus is imparted to human ingenuity and enterprise by the discovery

of the golden treasures on the Sacramento, and besides the revival of projects that have long slept, new ones are proposed for which superior advantages are claimed.

The question of communication embraces two great divisions. The first, an ocean-way for commerce and travel by intermarine canals or rail-roads across the narrow tracts or necks of land which separate the Caribbean Sea from the Pacific; the second, a national thoroughfare, or great central rail-road on our own soil from the Mississippi river to San Francisco or Monterey.

Whether only one, or both of these modes is to be adopted, is left to the future action of congress; but whatever be done, it is obvious that immense advantages must accrue to the union by an outlay of means upon a scale commensurate with the object. In the able report recently made to congress by Hon. T. Butler King, he remarks:

That "the completion of this system of communication would undoubtedly in a few years cause the balance of trade with all nations to turn in our favour, and make New York what London now is, the great settling house of the world. Situated as this continent is on the globe, almost midway between Europe and Asia, with this concentration of intelligence by steam-ships, rail-ways, and telegraphs, we should extend our communications with equal facility to both, and each would be dependent on us for information from the other."

We propose to give an account of the most prominent projects that are now before the public, arranged according to the divisions just mentioned.

THE OCEAN ROUTES.

From almost the period of 1513, when the chivalrous but unfortunate Nunez de Balboa discovered the South sea, the project of an intermarine communication—suggested by its obvious importance and apparent feasibility—between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, has occupied the attention of the commercial world; but now, for the first time, under the magic touch of American enterprise and genius, it has assumed a definite and tangible form.

As early as the year 1525, the Spanish government commenced a series of explorations in reference to a ship canal between the two oceans over several routes; the principal of which were by the isthmus of Tehuantepec, of Panama, and of Nicaragua; and these examinations have been continued at different times, down to the present, by several governments and individuals; amongst the latter, Baron Humboldt, who designates nine routes as being susceptible of canal navigation; and charters have been granted for canals and rail-roads across those three lines by the various governments exercising jurisdiction over them.

We are necessarily restricted at this time to the consideration only of the two principal routes, Panama and Tehuantepec.

PANAMA ROUTE.

The attention of Mr. Buchanan, the late Secretary of State, soon after his accession to office, was directed to the communication between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans over the isthmus of Panama; and, with the concurrence of the President, instructed our charge d'affaires at New Granada to secure to the citizens of the United States the rights of way by any road or roads then existing, or thereafter to be made at that point. The effort of the secretary was successful; and in a treaty with that government, ratified on the 10th June, 1848, the right of way was obtained, and the neutrality of the isthmus guaranteed by the United States.

Previously, an act of congress had been passed on the 3d March, 1847, establishing a line of monthly mail steamers from Panama to the Columbia river, touching at intermediate ports on the coasts of Mexico and California, in connexion with a line from New York and New Orleans to Havana, and thence to Chagres. The contract for the Pacific mail was obtained by William H. Aspinwall, a merchant of New York, and his associates, who immediately turned their attention to the construction of a railway from the mouth of the Chagres river on the Atlantic, to the port of Panama on the Pacific. For this purpose negotiations were opened by them with Gen. Herran, the New-Granadian minister at Washington, who being fully authorized for that purpose by his government, transferred to them a grant originally made to a French company, but the stipulations of which had not been performed. Some alterations were made in the terms of the original conveyance; but the privileges granted to the American company are very great, and substantially as follows:

In addition to the exclusive right of constructing and occupying a rail-road across the isthmus for forty-nine years, the Granadian government grants gratuitously to the company all the public lands required for the track of the road, together with those which may be wanted for depots, ports, wharves, warehouses, &c. The ports at the termini of the road to be free ports.

Moreover the Granadian government conveys gratuitously to the company 100,000 fanegadas [a fanegada is something more than an acre, we believe,] of vacant land, to be selected by the latter in the provinces of Panama and Veraguas, which grant may be increased to 150,000 fanegadas, if such an extent of public land shall be found within those provinces. This land is to be conveyed absolutely, as soon as the obligations of the company have been carried into effect, and in no case is to revert to the government. There is also an agreement, subject to the approval of the Granadian government, that in making the selection, the company may extend their choice for one-half of the amount, to the territories of Boca del Toro and Darien.

Any mines on the lands so chosen, are to be the unconditional property of the company, by whomsoever discovered.

The road must be completed in six years; and if undertaken by the present company, will doubtless occupy a much less time. As a security for the performance of the contract, the company deposited 600,000 francs with the New York Life and Trust Company, which is to be returned when the road is completed, (in the mean time drawing six per cent. interest,) but to be forfeited in case of non-fulfilment. At the end of twenty years from its completion, the Granadian government may take possession of the road and its appurtenances, on the payment of \$5,000,000 to the company; at the end of thirty years, for \$4,000,000, or at the end of forty years for \$2,000,000. At the end of forty-nine years, it may take possession without payment or condition of any kind, except that it must repay to the company any excess of value above 25,000,000 francs.

This grant having been thus procured, the company memorialized congress at its last session for the purpose of obtaining from the government a contract for the transportation over the isthmus rail-road, for the period of twenty years, the naval and army supplies, troops, munitions of war, and mails of the United States, at a specific sum; the memorialists to commence the road in one year, and complete it in three.

Mr. King of Georgia, from the committee on naval affairs, to whom the memorial was referred, made an elaborate and able report on the subject, with the programme of a bill granting assistance to the applicants, and authorizing the secretary of the navy to contract with them upon certain terms, and that the government pay them \$250,000 per annum for twenty years for their services. Owing to the variety of propositions on the same subject before congress, the magnitude of the undertaking and the shortness of the session, no definite action was had on this bill, and the whole question is still open for the consideration of the next congress.

The report of Mr. King sets forth in a very strong and imposing manner the immense advantages that would result commercially from the proposed communications between the two oceans. As some of his statements apply with equal force to either of the routes suggested, we insert the most prominent points suggested by him.

The report furnishes a table showing that European ports are 1,500 miles, or two weeks nearer than we are to all the other ports of the world, except the Atlantic ports of the American continent north of the equator and the West Indies. The cause of this is, that all vessels bound from our ports to places south of the line, or beyond either of the capes, cross the Atlantic to the Azores or Western Islands, for the purpose of finding favourable winds, while vessels from British ports run down to the same latitude and longitude without the necessity of crossing the ocean, to avail themselves of the same advantages.

The construction of the proposed rail-road across the isthmus will not only do away this advantage over us now possessed by European commerce and navigation, but will turn the tide in our favour.

The average distance from Liverpool, London and Havre to Panama is 4,700 miles, from New-York the distance is 2,000 miles, from Charleston 1,400, from Savannah 1,300, from New-Orleans and Mobile 1,600—making an average distance from our principal exporting Atlantic and Gulf ports of about 1,600 miles to Panama. If, therefore, we admit, for the sake of the argument, that European commerce with the Pacific Ocean, the East India and China seas, will take the new route across the isthmus, there will be a difference of 3,100 miles in our favour. Add to this the 1,500 miles now against us, and we find that we shall gain by this channel of communication, in our relative position to those parts of the world, a distance of 4,600 miles, or 42 days. In the voyage out and home we shall have the advantage of our European competitors 9,200 miles and 84 days, as compared with the present route.

The report argues that the commerce of Europe with the East Indies, China and the west coast of America must fall into our hands. A table of distances to various ports beyond the capes is given, showing, according to the report, that the new route across the isthmus will bring us more than an average of 10,000 miles nearer to the East Indies, China, and the ports of South America on the Pacific, and will actually, for all the purposes of navigation and commercial intercourse, bring the ports of the west coast of Mexico, California and Oregon, 14,000 miles nearer to us than they now are! With steamers on each side of the isthmus that will go 15 miles an hour—a speed ascertained to be quite practicable—passengers, the mails, and small packages of light and valuable goods may be conveyed from New-York to San-Francisco in 14 days, and from our southern ports in less time.

The average saving of time in our commercial intercourse with the west coast of America, China and the East Indies, which will be effected by the construction of the proposed rail-road, is exhibited in the following table:

Table showing the saving of time from New York by the new route via the Isthmus of Panama, as compared with the old routes via Cape Horn and the Cape of Good Hope, to the places therein named, estimating the distance which a common trading ship will sail per day to be 110 miles, and calculating for the voyage out and home.

To	Distance via Cape of Good Hope.	Length of passage out and home.	Distance via Cape Horn.	Length of passage out and home.	Distance via Isthmus of Panama.	Length of passage out and home.	Saving via Isthmus, over route via Cape of Good Hope, out and home.	Saving via the Isthmus over the route via Cape Horn, out and home.
	Miles.	Days.	Miles.	Days.	Miles.	Days.	Days.	Days.
Calcutta . . .	17,500	318	23,000	418	13,400	244	74	174
Canton . . .	19,500	354	21,500	390	10,600	192	163	198
Shanghai . . .	20,000	362	22,000	400	10,400	188	174	212
Valparaiso . . .			12,900	234	4,800	86		148
Callao . . .			13,500	244	3,500	62		182
Guayaquil . . .			14,300	260	2,800	50		210
Panama . . .			16,000	290	2,000	36		254
San Blas . . .			17,860	322	3,800	68		254
Mazatlan . . .			18,000	326	4,000	72		254
San Diego . . .			18,500	336	4,500	82		254
San Francisco . . .			19,000	344	5,000	90		254

The employment of steam vessels would render the contrast in our favour still more striking.

Steamers, with a speed of twelve miles an hour, would go from New York, via the isthmus, (throwing out the fractions,) to Calcutta in 47 days; to Canton in 36; to Shanghai in 35; to Valparaiso in 17; to Callao in 12; to Guayaquil in 9½; to Panama in 7; to San Blas in 12; to Mazatlan in 14; to San Diego in 16; to San Francisco in 18 days.

The statement that the voyage could be made by the isthmus, from New York to San Francisco in fourteen days, cannot be sustained by any precedent in ocean steam navigation.

The Isthmus of Tehuantepec project is despatched so summarily by the Committee that we are constrained to believe that they knew or cared very little about the merits of that line. The report then concludes with the following estimates of the benefits which our commerce, agriculture and manufactures will derive from the completion of the proposed road:

In the year 1844, 57 American ships cleared at the custom house of Canton; and it is believed, from reliable information, that there are now 65 American ships engaged in the China trade, or 65 voyages made in it. It is stated by the merchants engaged in that trade

that the new route across the isthmus will save an average of \$10,000 a voyage, or \$605,000 per annum, in our commerce with China, beside the saving of interest on the capital employed in it, by making two voyages a year instead of one. This may be set down at about \$150,000 per annum.

Those who have been long engaged in the whale fishery say that about one-fourth of the time employed in a whaling voyage is consumed in going to and returning from the fishing ground. The annual product of that branch of commerce is about ten millions of dollars. This shows an actual loss of time equal to about \$2,500,000. It is estimated that the new route will save one half of this, or \$1,250,000 per annum. The length of the voyage now causes an average loss of 10 per cent. of the oil, or an annual loss of \$1,000,000. It is admitted that the new route will prevent this. There will be, therefore, a saving on this item of \$1,000,000 annually. As we have no returns of the number of voyages made to the west coast of America, and as the distances by the new route to Chili, Peru, Ecuador, San Blas, and Mazatlan, are reduced more than between the United States and China, it will not be considered an over-estimate if we assume that there will be a saving of about the same per cent. on our commerce with those ports, as has been stated with respect to the trade with China. This gives a little over \$200,000 per annum.

It is estimated in this report that, at the end of three years there will probably be 500,000 people in California, and that they will require an equal number of barrels of flour and the same quantity of beef, and pork, and other articles of provision annually. The saving on the freight by the new route will be at least one dollar per barrel, or one million of dollars a year on these agricultural products, to say nothing of the market thus afforded, which would otherwise be unavailable, beside the saving of time in the voyage, and the interest on the capital employed in the trade. It is, of course, impossible to estimate the saving on the freight of manufactured goods. That, however, will necessarily be very large.

The amounts expected to be saved by the proposed rail-road are thus recapitulated.

In the China trade \$800,000 per annum for 20 years,	\$16,000,000
In whale fishery, \$2,250,000 per annum for 20 years,	45,000,000
In the trade with the west coast of America, exclusive of our territories, \$200,000 per annum for 20 years,	4,000,000
On the freight of flour, beef, pork, &c. &c. \$1,000,000 per annum for 20 years,	20,000,000
Total,	\$85,000,000

It is, perhaps, well for the country that congress has determined to have no premature or hasty legislation in regard to these intermarine

communications, inasmuch as the least costly, most feasible, and most expeditious route should be selected.

TEHUANTEPEC ROUTE.

The route across the isthmus of Tehuantepec is not as circuitous as that by Panama, and its claims to the consideration of the government have also been presented in the shape of a memorial to congress. On the Atlantic side is the port of Coatzacoalcos, at the mouth of the river of the same name. This river is represented to be navigable thirty miles for ships of the largest class, and for lighter craft fifteen miles. Thus the distance from the head of navigation of that river to Tehuantepec, on the Pacific coast, would be only one hundred and fifteen miles for the contemplated line of rail-road. In 1521, Cortes caused a survey to be made of this isthmus for the purpose of uniting the two oceans. Afterwards it became the favourite route by which the Manilla merchants passed from Acapulco to the gulf of Mexico. During the last century, some heavy brass pieces in the castle of San Juan D'Ulloa were observed to have on them the stamp of the Manilla foundry, and an inquiry was instituted to ascertain how they were brought to the gulf. It was discovered from the archives of the city of Tehuantepec that they had been transported across the isthmus; the route from Tehuantepec being up the river Chicapa, across the Mal-paso, thence by land over the Cordilleras to the head waters of the Coatzacoalcos, which empties into the gulf.

In 1842, a survey of the route was made by Cayetano Moro, in connexion with a grant from the Mexican government to Don José Garay. This survey is described by the "Sun of Anahuaco," a paper published in the city of Vera Cruz, in an article setting forth the advantages of the route. The paper is of the date of July 4th, 1847. We have only room for some extracts. The editor thus opens the subject:

"We have heard that it was the intention of Commodore Perry, before the U. S. Marine corps were detached from the navy to be joined to the army of the interior, not only with the approbation of his government to hold Tabasco, and if necessary to take possession of the state of Chiapas, by ascending the river to Teapa, and marching thence over land to San Christoval, but to prosecute the most minute inquiry with reference to the isthmus of Tehuantepec, the navigation of the rivers which at that point empty into the Pacific and the gulf, and the exact character of the country which intervenes between their sources.

"Those were projects worthy of the navy and its enterprising commodore, but since the government has chosen to deprive that arm of our service of its power to garrison the places which it may capture, their noble enterprise must, as a matter of course, be deferred.

"This scheme to open a direct and speedy communication between the two oceans, has attracted the attention of the world. It is un-

doubtedly feasible—and what nation should achieve it but the United States of America? There never has been, there never will be, a period so suitable for a commencement as the present moment—and who so well qualified for the task as the enterprising commander of the home squadron?”

The survey made by Moro is thus described:—“On the 28th of May, 1842, Don Cayetano Moro arrived at Tehuantepec to commence his observations as chief engineer, assisted by Don Manuel Robles, captain of engineers, and professor of astronomy in the military college of Mexico. Other engineers of inferior note assisted in the survey. They found eighteen feet of water on the Boca Barra of Tehuantepec, but a shoal of sand obstructed it within, the whole way across. The engineers subsequently crossed from Tehuantepec to Coatzacoalcos, by the Chicapa, la Chirela, Guchiovi, Boca de Morete, and Mal Paso. At Mal Paso, the Coatzacoalcos surprised them by the slowness of its current, and the limpidity of its waters. It seemed already a canal. Its banks of a tenacious clay, seemed to undergo little change. The Sierra Madre appeared to intercept its course entirely, between the Santa Maria Petapa and San Miguel Chimalapa. The highlands on the route of the proposed canal, like the low, is of the greatest possible fertility, abounding in noble trees of the most valuable kinds, among others the vanilla and wild cocoa.

“From Tarifa, the waters descend naturally towards the Coatzacoalcos. On the shores of the river, noble pines abound, which formerly were taken to Wasana, to mast the ships built there for the Spanish navy; also jaricanes, huyacanes, macayes, and paques. These last were used for the timbers of large ships. The abundance of excellent ship timber on the banks of the Coatzacoalcos, the convenience and security of its port, and the natural facilities for defending it, combine to make it the most suitable place for a naval arsenal in the Gulf of Mexico. The Spanish government seriously entertain the project of establishing an arsenal there.

“From the confluence of the Malatengo to the sea, the Coatzacoalcos has only a fall of forty metres, or one hundred and thirty-two feet. The accounts of the depth of water on the bar varies from fourteen to twenty-two feet. Commodore Perry found it only twelve feet at the commencement of the rainy season. It will be an easy task to open the Boca Barra of San Francisco on the Pacific side, and to deepen a channel through the lakes, whose bottom is sand and shells.”

The advantages in point of distance by this route are very considerable. The distance from the mouth of the Mississippi to San Francisco by the isthmus of Tehuantepec, is three thousand, two hundred and ninety-four miles; by the isthmus of Panama, five thousand miles, thus showing a difference of one thousand, seven hundred and six miles. From New York, by the Tehuantepec route, the distance to San Francisco is, four thousand, seven hundred and forty-four miles, by the

Panama, five thousand, eight hundred and fifty-eight miles, making one thousand, one hundred and fourteen miles in favour of the former. During the war, Commodore Perry paid much attention to the collection of information in regard to this route and the country about it, and obtained a manuscript copy of the original survey made by Moro. So impressed was he with the importance of this line of communication to our government, that he projected an expedition to take possession of the commanding points, and recommended that they should be held until the war was ended, and that then an exclusive right of way should be stipulated for in the treaty. As we have stated, a memorial has been presented to congress on the subject of this route. The memorialist, P. A. Hargous, of New York, in behalf of himself and associates represented, that he was invested with full powers from the Mexican government, to open the communication across the isthmus of Tehuantepec; that the grant secured to them the privilege for fifty years without contributions or taxes.

For the purpose of presenting the projects of the contending claimants to the public with equal advantage to both, we insert among our documents, their respective memorials at length. We hope to add, also, the able and valuable letter of Hon. Geo. M. Dallas, on the junction of the two oceans, either in this, or in a future number.

2. GREAT INLAND COMMUNICATION ACROSS THE CONTINENT.

We come now to the second grand division of the subject, namely: *a national rail-road within our own territory.* Several different routes have been proposed. Whitney's memorial, presented to congress on the 24th February, 1846, to obtain a grant of land for a rail-road from lake Michigan to the Pacific ocean, was the first proposition that attracted the public attention; it was planned upon a magnificent scale, making the road two thousand, four hundred miles long—and to cost sixty-five million dollars—asking a grant of land sixty-four miles wide along the whole line, which would amount to ninety-two millions, one hundred and sixty thousand acres—and engaging, on the completion of the road, to convey passengers from the Atlantic and Pacific cities in eight days; to China in twenty, and to the extremes of the globe in thirty days!

Since the acquisition of California this proposition, which was objected to as being a private enterprise, seems to have found less favour, while other routes, taking a more southerly direction, and terminating at San Francisco or Monterey, have accorded better with the increased information and spirit of the times. Col. Benton's plan is to make a central national road from St. Louis to San Francisco, with a branch from some suitable point west of the Rocky Mountains to the Columbia River, by which arrangement the whole western territory will be accommodated. He insists that nothing but the authority of the nation is equal to the opening of a road through some 1600 miles

of country occupied by savages with a right of domain over it which it requires national authority to extinguish—that no private means would be equal to the construction of such a road, or fit to be intrusted with it.

On asking leave to introduce a bill embracing his plan, the speech of Col. Benton to the senate was forcible and eloquent. The ample results which must follow the completion of this mighty work, are glowingly portrayed:

“Since the discovery of the new world by Columbus there has not been such an unsettling of the foundations of society. Not merely individuals and companies, but communities and nations are in commotion, all bound to the setting sun—to the gilded horizon of western America. For want of an American road, they seek foreign routes, far round by sea and land. Until we can get a road of our own, we must use and support a foreign route; but that is a temporary resource, demanded by the exigency of the times, and until we can get our own ready.

“Never did so great an object present itself to the acceptance of a nation. We own the country from sea to sea—from the Atlantic to the Pacific—and upon a breadth equal to the length of the Mississippi—and embracing the whole temperate zone. Three thousand miles across, and half that breadth, is the magnificent parallelogram of our domain. We can run a national central road, through and through, the whole distance, under our flag and our laws. Military reasons require us to make it: for troops and munitions must go there. Political reasons require us to make it: it will be a chain of union between the Atlantic and Pacific states. Commercial reasons demand it from us: and here I touch a boundless field, dazzling and bewildering the imagination from its vastness and importance. The trade of the Pacific ocean, of the western coast of North America, and of Eastern Asia will all take its track; and not only for ourselves, but for posterity. That trade of India which has been shifting its channels from the time of the Phœnicians to the present, is destined to shift once more, and to realize the grand idea of Columbus. The American road to India will also become the European track to that region. The European merchant, as well as the American, will fly across our continent on a straight line to China.

“The rich commerce of Asia will flow through our centre. And where has that commerce ever flowed without carrying wealth and dominion with it? Look at its ancient channels, and the cities which it raised into kingdoms, and the populations which upon its treasures became resplendent in science, learning, and the arts.

“In no instance has it failed to carry the nation, or the people which possessed it, to the highest pinnacle of wealth and power, and with it the highest attainments of letters, arts, and sciences. And so will it continue to be. An American road to India, through the heart of our country, will revive upon its line all the wonders of which we have

read—and eclipse them. The western wilderness, from the Pacific to the Mississippi, will start into life under its magic touch. A long line of cities will grow up. Existing cities will take a new start. The state of the world calls for a new road to India, and it is our destiny to give it—the last and greatest. Let us act up to the greatness of the occasion, and show ourselves worthy of the extraordinary circumstances in which we are placed, by securing while we can an American road to India—central and national—for ourselves and our posterity—now, and hereafter, for thousands of years to come.”

Lieut. Maury of the National Observatory selects the route from Memphis on the Mississippi, to Monterey on the Pacific, as the best, geographically.

He says, “Crossing the Mississippi midway between the gulf and the lakes, the proposed route from Memphis would be through a healthy and, for the most part, fertile country. It never would be blocked up with snow. Of all the routes ever proposed from the United States to China, it is the most direct for the people of the United States, the West Indies, and all the intermediate country. The length of the rail-road may be shortened several hundred miles for the present at least, by starting it from the sources or head of the navigation of the Arkansas. The effects of a substantial rail-road from the Mississippi to one of the ports of California, in connexion with a line of steamers thence to China, would do much to break up old thoroughfares and channels of commerce, and to turn them through the United States. Let such a rail-road be given to the country, and after it shall have been for a little while in successful operation, you will hear no more said by the people on the Atlantic side in favour of a canal or rail-road across the isthmus of the continent, for their convenience in communicating with China and the ‘Old East.’” S.

[To be continued.]

SLAVERY.

We have been induced by the importance which this subject has latterly assumed, to throw together some historic facts for the benefit of our readers, without intending to discuss the question growing out of the compulsory servitude of one portion of the human family to another.

Slavery existed at a very remote period of society. In the patriarchal age of the world, every family or community had its bondsmen doomed to hereditary servitude. This practice was continued among the descendants of Abraham and Jacob in Judea, and the countries adjacent. The Greeks, in the infancy of their states, and subsequently, in their pride of liberty, of refinement and science, imposed on slaves

the menial and severe labours of life. The name *Helot*, originally applied to Spartan slaves, was afterwards often applied to bondsmen in general. In ancient Rome, the slaves formed a large portion of the population, and were obtained from all the then known parts of the world—from Britain and Greece, from Asia and Africa. Carthaginian and Egyptian slaves were often brought from the interior of Africa, and thence exported into the southern parts of Europe.

At that early day, Africans bought and sold each other; thus the Ethiopians acquired slaves by purchase and by war, and held them in perpetual servitude. The Negro, as far back as his history is traced, subjected his own race and colour to slavery, and has continued to do so up to the present time. It is a mistake that he was *first* induced to do this by the demand of the white race for slaves; indeed, a writer well acquainted with the subject, without intending to excuse the slave dealer, has remarked, “that if the negroes had not been in the practice of making slaves of each other at the time when they became known to Europeans, negro slavery as it now exists, would not probably have been known.” We may add, that there are black slave merchants who sell white girls in the eastern markets, under the most degrading circumstances.

In the same markets, slaves are brought from the eastern part of Africa, for the supply of Egypt and the Turkish territories. The late Viceroy, Mehemet Ali, was accustomed to fit out slave expeditions for the capture of slaves in Nubia and the other districts. In 1840, the preparations for this purpose were witnessed by Dr. Madden, who states that the force employed, consisted of two or three thousand foot soldiers, and five hundred or a thousand Bedouins; that they entered Nubia and levied a tribute of slaves on the inhabitants, and if they failed to comply with it, were immediately attacked, overpowered and carried into bondage.

Without prosecuting the subject in this direction any farther, we proceed to our main design, which is to state the leading facts in the history of slavery, as it is seen and understood by us.

The Portuguese were the first of the moderns who explored the western side of Africa. In 1412, they commenced their voyages, and by the year 1470, the whole Guinea coast had been explored. The Spaniards followed in their track; and in 1434, some negro boys brought thence by Gonzales, a Spanish captain, were sold in the south of Spain. Afterwards, it was customary for both Spanish and Portuguese traders to the gold or Guinea coast, to carry away a few negroes of both sexes; and the practice soon grew into a traffic.

In the year 1503, ten years after the discovery of America by Columbus, a few negroes had been carried from Spain to her transatlantic possessions, and it was soon ascertained that they far surpassed the Indians in the power of endurance, and ability to work. The climate, too, agreed with them; their health improved, and they in-

creased in numbers. The Indian race, on the contrary, was fast diminishing under the ill-treatment and severe burdens imposed by the conquerors. In St. Domingo alone, they were reduced in seven years, from sixty thousand to fourteen thousand. They were averse to labour, and constitutionally unfit for it, and when obliged to work or carry burdens, they drooped and died. Bartholomew Las Casas, a Spanish priest, therefore interfered in their behalf, and denounced their employment as slaves. Whether he recommended the substitution of negroes in their stead, is not decided; but at any rate, it resulted from his interposition in favour of the Indians. Therefore it is said, that the benevolent design of Las Casas originated negro slavery in America.

After the experiment had been fairly tried, ships were loaded with negroes by the authority of the king of Spain himself. In Hispaniola, they increased astonishingly, until they outnumbered their masters.

The Spaniards for a time had the whole country to themselves, monopolized the trade, and introduced slaves from Africa into all their possessions. But when adventurers from other European nations followed them to the new world and planted colonies, they too adopted the use of negro labour.

In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, in the year 1562, an act was passed legalizing the purchase of slaves, but it was not until about the year 1620, that negroes were imported into the colonies. It is said the first slaves introduced into this country were twenty in number, brought by a Dutch ship, from the coast of Guinea. They were landed on James' river, in Virginia. After that period the English merchants engaged earnestly in the traffic, and along with wax and elephants' teeth, brought over negroes from Africa. At a recent meeting of the colonization society, it was stated, that Great Britain at one time, enjoyed a monopoly of the slave trade for thirty years.

The French, Dutch and Portuguese, had also embarked in the traffic, and by the middle of the seventeenth century a very active trade was carried on, and slaves introduced into America in great numbers. The consequence was an increase in the demand, and a corresponding supply from the interior of Africa was required. Instead, therefore, of pursuing the original plan of sailing along the coast, and picking up the slaves at the different villages, the traders established a line of settlements or factories as depots for the slaves that were brought to market. Towards the close of the eighteenth century, the number of factories around the shores of the gulf of Guinea, were said to be forty in all; of these, fifteen belonged to the Dutch, fourteen to the English, four to the Portuguese, four to the Danes and three to the French. Slave markets were, as a consequence, created in the interior, and from them the slaves were for the most part brought down in droves by the slattees or slave merchants to the factories on the coast.

Mungo Park, the celebrated traveller in Africa, observed that the abduction of the negroes had grown into a profession, and that the

native merchants treated their slaves whom they were bringing to market, with considerable kindness. They would halt in the march occasionally, and encourage them to sing, play and dance.

Slaves were obtained in various ways. There were instances in times of famine and great distress when the negroes would surrender themselves to servitude, and beg to be put upon the slave chain. Sometimes parents sold their children—sometimes a creditor sold his debtor; but generally they were obtained from captures made in battle or on a slave hunt. The tribes of the interior were constantly engaged in conflicts, and powerful chiefs made inroads into the territories of their weaker neighbours. The king of the Foulahs* kept at one time a force of sixteen thousand men, who were constantly occupied in depredations upon the surrounding tribes, and in forcibly carrying off the inhabitants into slavery.

We have no data from which to estimate the number of those who have been carried into slavery, or of those now in slavery.

Up to the end of the last century it was estimated that as many as thirty millions had been taken from the coast of Africa. Since that time the drain has been incessant. But it seems impossible from the very nature of the trade and the secrecy with which it is conducted, to arrive at an approximation even of the number who have embarked—of those who have been lost in the passage, or of those who have arrived at the places of destination. Slaves are still in great numbers in Brazil—in the Spanish, Dutch, Danish and Portuguese islands and colonies, and in the Mahomedan empire. In the French and English colonies they are emancipated.

At the time of the declaration of independence in 1776, the whole number of slaves in the United States was estimated as follows:

Massachusetts,	- -	3,500	Delaware,	- -	9,000
Rhode Island,	- -	4,375	Maryland,	- -	80,000
Connecticut,	- -	6,000	Virginia,	- -	165,000
New Hampshire,	- -	629	N. Carolina,	- -	75,000
New York,	- -	15,000	S. Carolina,	- -	110,000
New Jersey,	- -	7,600	Georgia,	- -	16,000
Pennsylvania,	- -	10,000			
Total,	- -			- -	502,104

By the census of 1840, the slaves and free people of colour in the United States, were numbered as follows:

* The Foulahs, a remarkable race, are of doubtful origin, but probably Asiatic. Throughout the whole of Nigritia or negro-land, they have the pre-eminence. They are spread over a large surface of country, extending from the desert of Sahara, to the mountains of Guinea, and from the Atlantic ocean to the kingdom of Bornou. In some places they are politically supreme—and every where have great influence. They differ essentially from the negro race, and occupy the intermediate space between the Arab and the Negro. They are rigid Mohammedans, and where they have conquered, they force the adoption of the Koran by the sword; and suppress the barbarous rites of *agan* idolatry.

Slave States.	No. slaves.	Free States.	No. Free coloured.
Delaware, - - -	2,600	Maine, - - -	2,355
Maryland, - - -	89,737	New Hampshire, - - -	537
Virginia, - - -	448,987	Vermont, - - -	730
N. Carolina, - - -	240,817	Connecticut, - - -	8,105
S. Carolina, - - -	327,038	Rhode Island, - - -	3,238
Georgia, - - -	280,944	Massachusetts, - - -	8,669
Alabama, - - -	253,532	New York, - - -	50,025
Mississippi, - - -	195,514	New Jersey, - - -	21,044
Louisiana, - - -	168,452	Pennsylvania, - - -	47,854
Kentucky, - - -	182,278	Ohio, - - -	17,342
Tennessee, - - -	183,059	Indiana, - - -	7,165
Missouri, - - -	58,240	Illinois, - - -	3,598
Arkansas, - - -	19,935	Michigan, - - -	707
Florida, - - -	25,747	Iowa, - - -	172
District of Columbia, -	4,694	Wisconsin, - - -	185
Total, - - -	2,486,726	Total, - - -	386,293

In eleven of the free states, one thousand, one hundred and twenty-nine persons are returned as slaves—by what title or degree of servitude, we are not informed.

There is said to have been an alarming increase in the African slave trade, during the year 1848. The English and American squadrons stationed on the coast of Africa, in pursuance of a convention between the two nations for the suppression of the traffic, have been successful to some extent; but in several instances, the shots fired by the cruisers into the slave ships have killed the slaves, and the traders have forced the poor creatures into a narrower space—and increased their sufferings. The Edinburgh Review condemns the maintenance of a squadron by the British government as having produced no ascertainable results, “except the loss of officers and men, and the aggravation of the horrors of slavery.”

Emancipation has been gradually progressive in the United States. In one half the states the work has been completed, and there seems now to be a majority in congress opposed to any further extension of slavery. The question on this subject has violently agitated the whole country, arrayed to some extent the north against the south, and at times has appeared to threaten the perpetuity of the union. It is hoped, however, that the greatest violence of the excitement has subsided, and that the causes of danger are passing away. The Hon. Henry Clay, of Kentucky, in a letter dated 17th of February, 1849, written in view of the approaching convention of that state, to amend the constitution, has declared himself in favour of the gradual emancipation of the slaves. We make the following extract from this remarkable letter:—

“A vast majority of the people of the United States, I believe, regret the introduction of slavery into the colonies, lament that a single slave treads our soil, deplore the necessity of the continuance of slavery in

any of the states, regard the institution as a great evil to both races, and would rejoice in the adoption of any safe, just and practicable plan for the removal of all slaves among us. Hitherto no such satisfactory plan has been presented. When, on the occasion of the formation of our present constitution of Kentucky, in 1799, the question of the gradual emancipation of slavery in the state was agitated, its friends had to encounter a great obstacle, in the fact that there then existed no established colony to which they could be transported.

“Now by the successful establishment of flourishing colonies on the western coast of Africa, that difficulty has been obviated. And I confess that, without indulging in any undue feelings of superstition, it does seem to me that, it may have been among the dispensations of Providence to prevent the wrongs under which Africa has been suffered to be inflicted, that her children might be returned to their original home, civilized, and imbued with the benign spirit of Christianity, and prepared ultimately to redeem that great continent from barbarism and idolatry.

“Without undertaking to judge for any other state, it was my opinion in 1799, that Kentucky was in a state to admit of the gradual emancipation of her slaves; and how deeply do I lament that a system with that object, had not been then established! If it had been, the state would now be rid of all slaves. My opinion has never changed, and I have frequently publicly expressed it. I should be most happy if what was impracticable at that epoch could now be accomplished.

“After a full and deliberate consideration of the subject, it appears to me three principles should regulate the establishment of a system of emancipation. The first is, that it should be slow in its operation, cautious, and gradual, so as to occasion no convulsion, nor any rash or sudden disturbance in the existing habits of society. Second, that as an indispensable condition, the emancipated slaves should be removed from the state to some colony. And, thirdly, that the expenses of their transportation to such a colony, including an outfit for six months after their arrival, should be defrayed by a fund to be raised from the labour of each freed slave.

“Nothing could be more unwise than the immediate liberation of all the slaves in the state, comprehending both sexes and all ages, from that of tender infancy to extreme old age. It would lead to the most frightful and fatal consequences. Any great change in the condition of society should be marked by extreme care and circumspection. The introduction of slavery into the colonies was an operation of many years’ duration; and the work of their removal from the United States can only be effected after the lapse of a great length of time.

“I think that a period should be fixed when all born after it should be free at a specified age, all born before it remaining slaves for life. That period I would suggest should be 1855, or even 1860; for on this and other arrangements of the system, if adopted, I incline to a

liberal margin, so as to obviate as many objections, and to unite as many opinions as possible. Whether the commencement of the operation of the system be a little earlier or later, is not so important as that a day should be permanently *fixed*, from which we could look forward, with confidence, to the final termination of slavery within the limits of the commonwealth."

Mr. Clay is not alone in these sentiments. Many of the leading men in the south accord with him in opinion, and those opposed to him will hardly now venture upon any extreme measures to sustain slavery. We look therefore to the most beneficial results from these wise and patriotic declarations, emanating from so distinguished a statesman.

The American colonization society instituted for the purpose of ameliorating the condition of the African race, has been very successful. It is composed of many eminent and philanthropic gentlemen from every section of the union.

To carry out its object, a tract of land was purchased, and a colony formed in the year 1822 at Cape Mesurado, on the western coast of Africa. As fresh emigrants arrived, additional tracts were purchased, and the town of Monrovia was built. The greater part of the emigrants were men of eminent piety, and by their just, humane, and benevolent policy have acquired much influence over the surrounding tribes. They have been diligent and successful in agricultural and mechanical pursuits, and are now in a highly flourishing condition.

The colony was called Liberia, and has lately been organized as an independent republic. It has a population of 80,000, of which 10,000 are native Americans: and it exercises an influence over 2,000,000 of people inhabiting the neighbouring districts and states. President Roberts, a coloured man, is at the head of this new republic, and is peculiarly well qualified for the office. He has lately effected a recognition of their independence by England and France.

At a recent meeting of the colonization society held in Washington, it was stated that 443 emigrants had been sent to Liberia, during the past year, of whom 324 were liberated slaves, and that the greater part of them came from Virginia. The applications for emigration then numbered 657, and would probably exceed a thousand. Some very distinguished gentlemen addressed the society on the occasion, among whom were Mr. Walker, late secretary of the treasury, Hon. J. R. Ingersoll of Philadelphia, and Hugh Maxwell, Esq., of New York.

S.

AGRICULTURE.

(BY HON. J. C. SPENCER.*)

“In no department of knowledge has such extraordinary progress been made within the present generation, as in the development of the laws of nature which govern the germination, nutriment, growth and perfection of seeds and plants. The simple truth that plants, like animals, have their peculiar food in the soil—that what is nutritious to one, is useless or injurious to another, unlocks the whole mystery of agriculture, and reduces it to a question of fact, or rather many facts. modern chemistry, although it may not have discovered this truth, has illustrated and sustained it, and given it a force and application of which our fathers had no conception. Every intelligent farmer now knows that he must feed his wheat, his corn, his barley, his oats, his potatoes and his turnips, with the same care and discrimination that he would feed his cattle, his horses, and his sheep. Yes, and he is told with what he is to feed them. By the analysis of the component parts of plants, it is ascertained of what chemical and other elements they are constituted, and then the application of these elements to their subsistence becomes as easy and familiar as the preparation of food for cattle.

“For these great results we are indebted to the labours of scientific men who have devoted their lives to study, and to innumerable experiments, before general rules and principles could be established. And these men have been mostly retired students and professors, who have derived their facts from the observations of practical agriculturists. And I am sure that in this connexion your grateful sympathies will concur in awarding the highest merit to Professor Liebig, of Germany, whose work on agricultural chemistry has opened such new and comprehensive views, as to form an epoch in the natural history of the world. I advert to this great triumph of science, for the purpose of dispelling, if possible, the prejudice against abstract investigation and scientific pursuit. The man who acts upon a single, or at most a few experiments, without understanding the principles which govern them, and who proclaims the result as a general law, is essentially a quack, in every profession and in every department of knowledge. But he who has many facts collected from distant sources, arising under the most varied circumstances, who examines them carefully and compares them with each other so as to separate the accidental from the permanent and invariable, and fixes these beyond dispute—reduces his elements into a science, and becomes a safe guide. Few practical men can devote the necessary time to such investigations, or the necessary reflection and study to draw from them these useful results. And hence it was that until recently, agriculture was not a science, but a collection of confused, miscellaneous and inconsistent facts and

* Address before the State Agricultural Society, N. Y.

observations, fruitful of error and consequent loss and injury. And such will always be the consequence of limited, narrow, local observations and facts, received as general truths.

“Let me not be understood as discouraging observations and experiments. Far from it. They furnish the elements and materials for science to work with. But what is deprecated, is a reliance upon these experiments before they have undergone the analysis and purification of science. I do not suppose it possible for the great body of farmers to become thoroughly versed in geology, botany and chemistry, nor is it necessary they should be. But they can be acquainted with the practical results attained in each of these branches by those who are thoroughly versed in them, and with the general reasons and principles upon which those results depend, so that they can apply them as occasion may require. The mariner who from his meridian observations fixes the precise spot on the earth’s surface where his vessel floats, does not, and ordinarily cannot, know or understand the processes by which Newton developed the principles and rules which enables him to determine in a few minutes his latitude and longitude. So with the farmer. He may well comprehend and apply the results of scientific investigation, without being able to follow the various steps through which it has been conducted, and those results become as completely his own as if he himself had developed them.

“These remarks are made in the hope of convincing those who cultivate the earth, that the quantity of reading and study necessary to enable them to pursue their profession with the greatest possible advantage to themselves and their farms, is not so great as to preclude them from acquiring the fruits of the most thorough and exact investigations, and particularly the leading principles of the science of improving soils. Their experiments, instead of being isolated facts, will become speaking illustrations of the laws of nature, and each one will afford new cause to admire the wonderful economies of Providence, and to praise and adore the goodness of their great Author.”

Mr. Spencer then proceeds to the examination of the question, “where the farmer is to look for the best market for his products.” In doing this, he comes in conflict with the views presented by the Hon. Silas Wright in his able address on a similar occasion, read, as it will be recollected, by Gen. Dix, in consequence of the sudden and lamented death of its gifted author. We omit the argument of Mr. Spencer on the points raised, until, according to our rule of impartiality, we have room to present the opposing arguments, side by side.

The subject is one of great interest to the country, and deserving of close examination and study by every intelligent and practical farmer. Mr. Spencer has treated the question with great ability, and that he

does not regard it in a narrow and party light may be gathered from the following extract:

“Having never been a partisan on either side, and having no interests present or prospective to gratify in the decision of this question, I feel that I can approach it without prejudice, or any other bias than that which may be caused by the love of my own country, its interests, and its people, in preference to all others. It is not apprehended that political party feelings can be wounded by a frank, open, and candid discussion of the subject. It is not a party question, but is, in fact, a local one. States known for their support of one party, are equally well known for their adherence to what some choose to call the American system, and prominent individuals of the other party are known to be hostile to that system. But I go farther, and deny the right of politicians to seize upon a topic of universal interest and appropriate it to electioneering purposes. The great mass have interests which are *superior* to the ephemeral success or defeat of party leaders, and they should not suffer themselves to be compelled to take one side or another, when the truth may perchance be found between both. And I have the less reluctance to engage in this discussion after the example of the distinguished man whose address was read to you at your last anniversary. The tendency of that address was to favour the extreme southern view, which has been exhibited to you, and to convince you that your reliance for the purchase and consumption of the products of your farms should be upon a foreign market. I am quite sure that you are not only willing, but desirous to hear an examination of the grounds of that opinion, conducted with all the respect for great merit and high talent, which the occasion demands, and which long association and the most agreeable personal relations have deeply impressed upon me. And I am equally confident that no name, however distinguished, can cast any shadow over your field of vision, which your penetration will not dissipate.”

Mr. Spencer then enters into an elaborate discussion of the main question, and to show the results to which he comes, we give his closing remarks, in which he insists that our independence, as a nation, depends upon the maintenance of a home as well as a foreign market, by fostering alike the great interests of manufactures and agriculture.

“The security of a country is deeply connected with the maintenance of manufactures. How hopeless must that nation be, which a war will cut off from the necessaries and from the comforts to which its inhabitants have been accustomed, and from its means of defence? The ability to make our own gunpowder, our own cannon and arms, is not more essential than our capacity to clothe our troops, or to furnish the various fabrics of metal required in military operations. Indeed, *iron* in its various formations, may be said to constitute the muscle of a na-

tion. With the raw material in profusion, how strange and unnatural must be the policy which would interdict its fabrication by ourselves into all the forms which our condition requires. This principle of security is applicable to most of the manufactures now existing in this country, which even in their present state, render us safe from the hostility of other nations. How dangerous would it be to abandon them.

“A people engaged exclusively in any one pursuit, must necessarily be a dependent people. Their chances of prosperity are obviously increased with the number and variety of their resources. So that if one fails, they have others upon which they may rely. And no pursuit is subject to more casualties than agriculture, from causes too well known to you. How important then that an agricultural people should have other employments. A self-sustaining people must be the most independent, the most active and enterprising, the most wealthy, and the most happy. Independent, because neither their necessaries nor comforts will depend upon foreign policy, or upon foreign wars and revolutions; active and enterprising, because the variety of employment gives scope to faculties of every grade and character, invigorates genius, and stimulates to exertion. These produce the really valuable wealth of a country,—the active, circulating, animating wealth, which forms the life blood of the system, moving rapidly through its veins and arteries, and carrying health, vigour, and cheerfulness into every part. And such a people must therefore be the most happy; unfettered by restraints, the choice of employment is before them; if one fails, another is at hand; hope continually illumines their path, competition rouses their energies, and man is developed in all his best faculties and proportions.

“That such has been mainly the condition of our own country, is owing, in my humble judgment, not only to our free institutions, but chiefly to the diversified employments of our people, which have been created, fostered, and extended by the policy of the government, which, with a few exceptions, has generally been pursued. Friendly and just relations have been maintained with foreign nations; treaties have secured us access to their ports and markets upon the most favourable terms, discriminating duties have compelled the abandonment of onerous charges upon our products, or upon the ships that transported them; exchanges of *our* surpluses for *theirs*, have been freely made, and thus a healthful, mutually beneficial foreign market has been opened and preserved for what we did not consume at home, and for the products of our manufacturing and mechanical industry. At the same time, the home market has been nursed, established, and expanded by judicious duties upon foreign fabrics, until it has come to consume an amount of our bread-stuffs and provisions, greater than that exported to the other countries of the world. This general policy, originating with the great and wise men who laid the foundations of our political fabric, has been, with occasional exceptions, pursued by their succes-

sors. I have endeavoured to show, that by maintaining this policy, your interests as agriculturists will be cherished and promoted, that the best markets, and a choice of them, will be provided for your products, and that the whole country will be really independent, prosperous, and happy."

EDUCATION OF ORPHANS.

GIRARD COLLEGE.

The able discourse of J. R. Tyson, Esq., delivered on the first anniversary of the Girard College for orphans, exhibits in a very strong light the munificent charity of Stephen Girard. This institution is one of the most remarkable in the world. Its object is to educate poor orphan boys, according to a system entirely original. The founder, who died in Philadelphia, the possessor of an immense fortune which he had acquired by persevering and patient toil, seems to have experienced in his own case, the disadvantages of orphanage and poverty combined, and left a large sum to establish and perpetuate a school for the instruction of those labouring under similar difficulties. The building erected for the purpose is after the plan prescribed by himself. The style of architecture is imposing, and the finish costly. The corner-stone has been laid fifteen years, but only a year ago was the edifice completed, and ready for the admission of pupils. The management of the college is confided to able hands; its prospects of usefulness are highly gratifying, and it must exert a great influence upon the community in which it is located. Mr. Tyson thus draws the character of the founder.

"Stephen Girard was a Frenchman by birth. He came to this country at an early age, and acquired his immense estate in Philadelphia. While his heart glowed with fondness for the civil and religious freedom of his adopted country, he imbibed a peculiar attachment to the city of his residence, as the scene of his labours, and the field of his financial glory. Removed by local distance, but still further by personal peculiarities from the endearments of childhood, he nursed, in the stern austerity of solitude, a spirit of social aversion, which grew more intense, from year to year, until it seemed to divorce itself from any communion with his fellows. When his fortune became so expanded and colossal, as to be a subject of general notice, he was a stranger to familiar life. He interchanged few or no offices of courtesy and kindness with his neighbours. He seemed to glide through the world unobserved; not knowing others, and unknown himself. When ap-

proached, his speech was short and to the immediate subject; not a word escaped beyond the business of the occasion. It was only in the commercial relations of society, that he permitted himself to appear. He was satisfied that his *deeds* should speak for him.—At early dawn he issued from the damps of his abode in Water street, in the plain garb of a decent citizen. He might be traced to his banking-house, in Third street, where, until the closing hour of three, he transacted, in person, his extensive concerns as a banker; instructed and received reports from the captains of his vessels, sailing to and from the remotest seas; and entered into all the details of his multiplied affairs. After the engagements of the morning, he retired to his farm, and there directed, and sometimes led the workmen in their rural employments. Returning to his bank in the evening, the midnight hour found him alone, silently revising the business of his officers of the previous day, and subjecting the account of each to a keenness of inspection, which no error, inadvertence, or oversight, could hope to escape. In this incessant toil, this unintermitted diligence, the history of a day is the history of his life.—Though publicity attended his footsteps, he shunned the gaze of the multitude. He seemed to shrink from observation. Without a note of warning, the public ear was occasionally startled by some grand project or daring and gigantic enterprise. While the air was ringing with the rumour, he quietly withdrew to the retirement of his farm, and seemed dead to the sensation it produced.

“We may cease to wonder at the magical transformations of his Midas touch. His secret lay in the patient application of a remarkably clear and sagacious intellect to the single work of accumulation, aided by inexpensive personal habits and the observance of general frugality. He sought, through a long life, the philosopher’s stone, with a sedulous and untiring assiduity. Assuming that he intended to apply it, when discovered, to the erection of one of the greatest monuments of benevolence of which history or tradition speaks, it cannot be doubted, that the *means* and the *end* may be justified, upon the principles of an elevated philosophy.

“Girard either threw himself or was thrown, at an early period of his life, beyond the protection of the paternal roof. Poor, and practically an orphan, he comes within the description of the persons for whom his college is erected. Houseless and exposed, surrounded by temptation, degraded by ignorance, and chilled by penury,—can we doubt that the recollections of his own bitter experience suggested the first idea of a safe-guard and an asylum to the fatherless wanderer?”

Mr. Tyson then proceeds to set forth the object, plan, and benefits of the institution.

“But in whatever motive and from whatever feeling, the idea of this college had its origin, its plan is a high philosophical conception, and

does honour to the mind which conceived it. Its direct effect will be not merely to diffuse individual blessings, but to stem, at their source, the torrents of pauperism and crime; to elevate the working classes of society; and to come in aid of our free institutions by giving them the sustaining props of moral virtue and cultivated intelligence, from the least promising members of the state.

“The ample endowment of the Girard College, is now and hereafter to be applied to the moral and intellectual training of *poor white male orphans*. In the exposition of his system, the testator did not omit the delineation of any feature necessary to its completeness. His mind surveyed the whole, and took in each particular part. No child is eligible until the age of six, nor after the age of ten years. Between the ages of six and eighteen years, the inmates may be taught all those branches of useful learning which the interval permits. But not stopping here, the founder, with equal sagacity and benevolence, follows these youths from the college walls. At the moment of quitting college, they are to be severally *apprenticed* to some useful calling or pursuit. He does not launch them into the dangerous ocean of life, and expose them, like inexperienced mariners, to the rocks and tempests of the voyage, but he gives them a conductor through the insidious narrows, and a chart for the open sea.

“The institution has little in common with the ordinary colleges of Europe, or of this country. It is accessible only at a tender age, and is confined to a particular class. The founder knew the ills to which youthful poverty was exposed, in a large city, when emancipated from parental restraint. Aware of the lasting influence of young impressions, he assumes the whole work of their moral as well as mental cultivation. He begins at the dawn of childhood; he quits them only at the age of legal maturity.

“But it is no less distinguished from an ordinary college by the age and character of the inmate, than by his studious and future career. He is to be taught, says the testator, *things* and not *words*. The modern, and even the ancient languages, may and perhaps will be taught, but as each scholar is to serve an apprenticeship to some useful art, pure and practical science will form the ground-work of the educational scheme.

“The pupils are drawn from the ranks of the poor, and are to belong to the productive classes of society; to those who aid the necessities, and multiply the comforts and conveniences of life. They are the children of adversity, not the spoiled expectants of fortune; not the *nati consumere fruges*, who may subsist without the necessity of labour. This college does not propose to change the destiny of their lot, but to assist them in the fulfilment of its duties. It does not intend to change the nature of a calling, but to exalt it by increasing the ability of its professors. The terms of the will look to practical utility and

chiefly to manual art, but do not exclude high and various scholarship, nor any variety of useful pursuit. It enjoins apprenticeships 'to suitable occupations, as those of agriculture, navigation, arts, mechanical trades, and manufactures, according to the capabilities and acquirements of the scholars respectively, consulting, as far as prudence shall justify it, the inclination of the several scholars as to the occupation, art, or trade to be learned.'

"The training will, of course, be adapted to the various parts which the learners are to play in the drama of practical life. The physical powers, and those of the understanding, will be developed together, in order that the habits of mental and manual activity, formed at college, may be successfully applied to such pursuits as fitness or choice may determine to be best. Though the cultivation of the understanding and judgment, is an object of paramount importance, the extent and period of studies permit, that the *taste* should be cultivated and improved. The studies will be as various as the capacities and destinations of the learners, and commensurate, in dignity, completeness, and extent, with the highest aims of learning. They include all the branches of a thorough education, whether in the sterner fields of science or in the flowery gardens of literature, whether in the experimental arts or in those which embellish and adorn existence.

"In the attempt to make good citizens, reason and experience show, that we must begin with the child. It is the *young idea* that must be taught *how to shoot*. We must watch it in the tender germ of infancy, remove the weeds which would choke or poison it, and so water and invigorate it, as it rises to catch the air and the sun, that like a healthy and useful plant, it may bring forth fruit, as well as leaves and flowers. SMITHSON, the munificent benefactor of the nation, believed that he could add to the sum of human happiness, by the diffusion of knowledge among *men*. GIRARD, with the same object in view, thought that it could be better attained, by means of a school and nursery for *boys*.

"It offers not merely an asylum, but a nursery and a school. Not only these, but a *home*, with all the comforts, and more than the security and advantages of the parental roof. It takes the poor orphan at the age of six years, trains, nurtures, and educates him, teaches him a trade, and sends him into the world at the age of majority.

"The social atmosphere which surrounds him in the college, is invigorating and healthy. Snatched from the polluted air which environed him in the world, he is transplanted into a soil which will rear him into a genial and fructifying manhood. The taints he has contracted, which the superficial eye cannot detect, and superficial remedies cannot remove, will be purged away by the refining process to which he is subjected. No spectacle can be more pleasing and beautiful than to see

the order and propriety of the infant scholars at their evening meal, under the eye of their matron; and at their evening devotions, under the solemn ministrations of their President.* Let those who underrate this philanthropy, or who fear its tendency as inimical to the growth of a sustaining faith and vital piety, witness these, and have all their apprehensions resolved and dispelled!

The chief officers and teachers of the institution are ladies. It is to women of superior parts and education; to women of cultivated manners, minds, and hearts; that the care of these children is chiefly committed. The circle of feminine employments, whose bounds are constantly enlarged by fresh discoveries, was believed to embrace those delicate functions of instruction and nurture, which are incident to a young and numerous household. Experience has justified the trial of the experiment. The government is essentially maternal. Under the plastic discipline of their teachers, the young scholars are led to the observance of rule, and the performance of their tasks, by kind language and affectionate remonstrance. Where the law of kindness is effectual, is it not preferable to the authority of force? And where the tender child is accustomed to the former, will he need a resort to the latter in subsequent years?

“It is upon the foundations of such a beginning that this great college is to be reared,—a college whose inmates, at no distant day, may assemble within its walls a thousand scholars.”

“Is it expecting too much to anticipate important improvements and inventions, in the various pursuits to which these pupils will be devoted? Experience has not proved that useful knowledge and proper training, disqualify men for the handicraft occupations of life. On the contrary, the knowledge of Franklin and Rittenhouse did not prevent one from being a most assiduous and accurate printer, nor the other from being a pains-taking and finished instrument-maker. Roger Sherman was not the less a good shoemaker, because he comprehended the grounds of civil freedom, and the principles of the constitution of his country. Simpson, the mathematician, worked at the weaver’s loom. Herschel, one of the greatest astronomers that ever lived, commenced life as a poor fifer-boy in the army. Elihu Burritt, whose learning is a subject of wonder, was a blacksmith. The late George Stevenson, a most distinguished, ingenious and useful man, was an engine tender at a colliery, near New Castle-upon-Tyne. The female operatives of Lowell show as much assiduity in the cultivation of their minds and tastes, as in the application of their hands to the labours of the loom.—On the other hand, who can tell what such original minds as those of John Fitch and Oliver Evans might have accomplished, if they had enjoyed, in early life, some of the advantages offered to the pupils of this institution? Evans has been called the American Watt. His

* The Hon. Joel Jones, the learned President of the College.

curious inventions in steam carriages, locomotive engines, the hopper-boy and other machines, entitle him to the honour of an original projector. Nothing was wanting but a knowledge of scientific principles, to enable him to bring his ingenious but crude suggestions to a productive and successful maturity. Fitch, illiterate as he was, by the unaided power of his native genius, devised a steam-boat which plied in the Delaware in 1786, and by the force of his sagacity, foresaw and predicted in 1792, *the regular navigation of the Atlantic by steam.*"

One of the most serious objections that we have heard made against this institution, is, that by the will of the founder, instruction in the principles of the Christian religion is prohibited. He ENJOINS and *requires* "that no *ecclesiastic, missionary, or minister*, of any sect whatever, shall ever hold or exercise any station or duty whatever in the said college; nor *shall any such person ever be admitted for any purpose, or as a visiter within the premises* appropriated to the purposes of the said college." He disclaims, however, any intention "to cast a reflection upon any sect or person," by this total exclusion of the ministers of religion from the bounds of the institution, and desires that pains be taken to instil the purest principles of morality, leaving the pupils free to adopt "such religious tenets as their *matured* reason may enable them to prefer." On this subject the prevailing opinion of Christian communities is certainly opposed to the design and scope of the bequest. It seems to be admitted generally, that the religious training of a child ought to be "in the way he should go." The essential and leading principles of revealed truth are taught by almost all sects, and, therefore, it is insisted that the danger is less in impressing these principles upon the mind in early life, even according to the forms of sectarian teaching, than to omit them altogether through fear of improper bias and party influence.

But let us give to the founder of the Girard College the benefit of the justification contained in the eloquent discourse of Mr. Tyson.

"In the bright array of influences with which the college is to be guarded and encircled, we find coupled, in beautiful sisterhood, virtue and morality, sustained and nurtured by their foster-mother, RELIGION. The virtue is to be elevated, the religion to be holy—a religion of the affections and the reason; purified from intolerance, and redeemed from bigotry. Are not these comprised in the following remarkable passages of the will? 'I desire that, by every proper means, a pure attachment to our republican institutions, and to the sacred rights of conscience, as guarantied by our happy constitutions, shall be formed and

fostered in the minds of the scholars.

As there is such a multitude of sects, and such a diversity of opinion among them, I desire to keep the tender minds of the orphans, who are to derive advantages from this bequest, free from the excitement which clashing doctrines and sectarian controversy are so apt to produce: My desire is that all the instructors and teachers in the college, shall take pains to instil into the minds of the scholars, the purest principles of morality, so that on their entrance into active life they may, from inclination and habit, evince benevolence towards their fellow-creatures, and a love of truth, sobriety, and industry, adopting, at the same time, such religious tenets as their matured reason may enable them to prefer.’

“Saving one restrictive and somewhat invidious prohibition,* at war with those sublime ideas, from which it is deduced as a corollary, or upon which it professes to lean for support, no one can fail to perceive whence these principles are derived. In Pennsylvania, the great law of 1682, and the successive constitutions of the province, all recognise ‘*the sacred rights of conscience,*’ and proclaim the unfettered liberty of faith and worship. The constitutions of the state, which succeeded to a colonial dependency,—first that of 1776, then that of 1790, and the recent one of 1838, all repeat that fundamental doctrine of political freedom which was announced at the first settlement. It was introduced into the great charter of the national government, as one of the richest trophies of the revolution. It is now assumed as a fixed law of the social state, that man is answerable only to his Maker for the modes of faith and worship he may adopt; and that however opposed to reason, or condemned by authority, these cannot abridge the consciences of others, or interfere between men in the relations of society. This genius of a free land, thus caught by the fathers of our commonwealths, and diffused through a wide-spread and mixed population, was imbibed by Girard, and breathed into his college. He saw that an institution which could be made an arena for heated sectaries, or be torn in pieces by contending factions, would be rather a curse than a blessing. He saw that its pupils might become entangled in the mazes of polemics, or fall a prey to the embittered spirit of party. He saw that though he might err, in unduly fortifying his walls against the insidious approaches, he was vindicating the majesty of a noble principle of our history, and was arming champions to battle for the extension of its sceptre over the world.”

S.

* Exclusion of ministers of religion.

THE PRESIDENT OF FRANCE.

CHARLES LOUIS NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, the President of the French Republic, is the son of Louis Bonaparte, ex-king of Holland; and Hortense de Beauharnais, daughter of the Empress Josephine. His birth, which took place at Paris on the 26th of April, 1808, was announced by the roar of cannon. As the Emperor Napoleon, his uncle, had at that time no son of his own, the young prince was born heir apparent to the imperial throne. The Emperor was then supposed to hold in his hands the destinies of Europe; but when, seven years afterwards, he was defeated and dethroned by the allied powers, Prince Louis fled with his mother to Augsburgh; and his grief at parting with the Emperor is said to have made a lasting impression on the mind of the great captain.

His mother had purchased the chateau of Arenenberg, in Switzerland, where he received a thorough education, and published, at an early age, a work on the science of artillery, which he had studied under Col. Dufaure.

The revolution of July, 1830, inspired in him the hope of again seeing his native city. In this he was disappointed, Louis Philippe's government refusing to withdraw the edict of proscription against the Bonaparte family. He and his brother, proceeding to Italy, took part in the important revolutionary movements of that year, and in several engagements, sustained the honour of their name. The brother died at Forli, from disease contracted in the service, and Louis Napoleon himself fell dangerously ill. His mother repaired to his bed-side, at Ancona; and as soon as he was able to travel, they left Italy, and in March 1831, arrived incognito in Paris. Hortense requested permission to remain till her son's health should be restored. It was refused, and they returned to Arenenberg, where he devoted himself to the preparation for the press of his "Literary and political considerations upon Switzerland."

This work procured for him the honour of citizenship from the Helvetic Republic. In 1834 he received the commission of captain in the Swiss service. In 1835 he published "A Manual of Artillery for Switzerland." During his military residence in Berne he had intimate relations with several French officers. Concerting with these gentlemen and other friends of his family a revolutionary movement in 1836, for the purpose of gaining possession of the French throne, young Napoleon landed, on the 30th of October, at Strasburgh; but his partisans were overpowered by the military, and he himself was taken prisoner, after a brief but spirited resistance. Some time after his arrest he was pardoned by the French government, on condition of his emigrating to some other country. He accepted this condition,

and set sail for America, arriving at New York in 1837. He took an early opportunity to speak favourably of America and Americans. In a letter to the President of the United States he wrote: "I wished to study the customs and institutions of a people who have achieved more lasting triumphs by commerce and enterprise, than we in Europe have gained by arms. I hoped to have travelled through a country which excites my sympathy, from the fact that its history and prosperity are closely connected with the remembrance of that which is a glory to Frenchmen." This letter was an apology for his sudden return to Europe, whither he was summoned to attend the death-bed of his mother, who died October 5, 1837.

In that year the prince took up his residence in Switzerland, and resumed his efforts for permission to return to France as a French citizen. It is stated that this request was not only denied, but that Louis Philippe required of the Swiss authorities that he should not be permitted to reside so near to France. He then repaired to England, and, exercising a large hospitality, gathered around him, as associates, some of the old officers of the empire. Acknowledged by them as the legal heir to whatever imperial rights Napoleon had transmitted, another attempt was made to place him on the throne. Aided by Gen. Montholon, he made his famous descent, with a handful of followers, upon the French coast, near Boulogne, August 5th, 1840. This expedition terminated more disastrously than that of Strasburgh. In the melee which ensued, the prince, after severely wounding a grenadier with his own hand, was taken prisoner. His associates, attempting to escape, were fired on, some of them killed, and the survivors were all captured, with the "Edinburgh castle" steamer, which had brought the expedition over the channel.

Louis Napoleon was brought to trial, and sentenced to imprisonment for life. He was confined in the castle of Ham until the 25th of May, 1846, when, taking advantage of the occasion offered by some repairs in the prison, he escaped in the disguise of a workman, and immediately repaired to England, where he lived in an unobtrusive manner until the breaking out of the revolution, in February, 1848. By the revolution he was restored to the privileges of a French citizen, and was elected to the National Assembly by no less than four separate districts. One of these districts being his native city, and able to accept only one, he of course chose the return from Paris.

He was among the first to declare in favour of the revolution of February, and although somewhat reserved in the expression of his views, he has preserved great consistency in his course as a friend of the republic. When first elected to the Assembly, objections were made in that body to repeal the law of banishment against the Bonaparte family, when the cries of "Vive Louis Napoleon!" "Vive l'Empereur!" were soon heard in the streets of Paris. On the next day the question of admission was decided in his favour; but he declined, at

the time, to take his seat, alleging that his presence in France might serve as a dangerous pretext for the enemies of the republic. Subsequently he came to Paris, and assumed the duties of representative of the people; and at the period fixed upon by the new constitution for the election of a President of the republic, he became the prominent candidate for that office. He was elected on the 10th of December, 1849, in opposition to Cavaignac, Lamartine, Rollin, and other candidates, by an overwhelming majority, having received nearly four-fifths of all the votes polled. On the 20th of December he took the oath of office, and delivered an address on the occasion full of generous and noble sentiments. Preceding and immediately after his election most of the English journals expressed a want of confidence both in his capacity and sincerity, and predicted that he would soon give evidence both of imbecility and of anti-republican tendencies. Thus far his conduct as a ruler has disappointed these conceptions of his character. He has, on the contrary, manifested much tact and judgment in the administration of the government; and the same papers, both in Europe and in this country, which at first decried him, now give him credit for purity of motive, and for more than ordinary talent. His popularity with the French people is unbounded; and it is believed by some that if the Bonapartists have a majority in the new Assembly, he will be declared President for life; and that in this movement there will be a general acquiescence, for the purpose of entirely allaying popular ferment, and securing a permanent government.

President Bonaparte appears to have inherited that singular art by which the Emperor Napoleon managed, through solitary and apparently unconsidered incidents, to attract to himself an admiration amounting to idolatry. Among the many examples of this trait we find the following anecdote in a late London paper, which is not friendly to him:—

“On the occasion of the distribution of crosses of the legion of honour a few days since to the troops assembled in the Champ de Mars, it was observed that a sergeant whose name was on the list of candidates for the honour, failed to answer when his name was called. The president having demanded the cause, was informed that the sergeant had obtained leave of absence to visit his mother, who, it was feared, was dying. On hearing the words ‘dying mother,’ Louis, who idolizes the memory of his maternal parent, turned to an aide-de-camp and ordered him forthwith to send an express after the sergeant, at the private expense of the president, in order that his mother should see the *croix d’honneur* on her son’s breast before she expired. ‘Perhaps,’ added he, ‘the sight of the cross may restore her to health.’ A courier was forthwith despatched at the command of the president. It is said that the joy occasioned by the good news actually effected a revolution in the poor woman’s health, and that she is now in a fair way

of recovery. The sergeant on his return related to his companions the noble conduct of the emperor's nephew, and of which he cannot speak without shedding tears."

It may not be inappropriate to append to this sketch of the president of France, a copy of the letter addressed to him, soon after his accession to office, by the celebrated Arab chief Abd-el Kader:—

"To Prince Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, president of the republic—the Emir Abd-el-Kader, detained with his family in the chateau of Amnois.

'I will die in prison if unexampled rigors condemn me so to do, but never will I be brought to lower my character.'—PRINCE LOUIS NAPOLEON, at Ham.

"God is great, and Mahomet is his prophet. May this God of clemency, under whose protection the national assembly has placed the French constitution, inspire the chief of the republic with an act of justice and humanity, which will give to all the nations of the globe a high opinion of the hospitality of France, which country is already renowned by her bravery and chivalrous spirit at all times. When, guided by my confidence in the bravery and the promise of the French, I came to place myself and mine under the protection of France, by giving myself up to General Lamoriciere, at that time commandant of Oran, I received the formal promise that I should be sent to the noble land of France, and be afterwards conveyed to Egypt, and from thence to Syria, near the sacred tomb of the prophet, that I might enlighten myself with new light, and my days be wholly devoted to the happiness of my family and far from the hazards of war, the theatre of which I abandoned for ever to the domination of France, in execution of the will of the Almighty, who lowers or raises empires as he pleases.

"Far from these sacred promises having been fulfilled, I and mine have been subjected to captivity, without being able to cause justice to be rendered to me. If the sufferings of my poor mother, old and infirm, can excite some interest in the hearts of the French people, and especially in those of wives and mothers, I demand of the chief of the French government to fulfil the promises that were made to me by the generals of Africa, and to accord me the liberty of going on parole, with my family into Syria, to follow the precepts of our religion. Grateful for such an act of clemency and justice, I would pray our God to bestow on France and her chiefs all his great consolations and blessings. I rely on the wisdom of the president of the Republic and of the national assembly.

"The Emir ABD-EL-KADER.

"Amboise, 27 Moharrem, 1265 (Dec. 23, 1848.)"

ANECDOTES OF TALLEYRAND.

Charles Maurice Talleyrand was born in Paris, in the year 1754. In the middle ages his ancestors were sovereigns of Quercy. The name Talleyrand, which appears originally to have been that of an estate or manor, was formerly written Taleran, Tailleran, Talairant, or Talliran. In the commencement of the twelfth century it was adopted as a surname by the family of the sovereign counts of Perigord. After the extinction of the elder branch, the younger, known by the designation of the Counts de Grignols, and afterwards by that of the Princes de Chalias and de Talleyrand, succeeded to the family title and honours.

Having stated so much, or rather, so little, for the benefit of the curious in genealogy, we crave permission not only to proceed at once to lighter, and to us more attractive matter, but to present it without any ceremonious attention to time, place, or circumstance, and after that unconnected fashion which to narrators is a sort of second nature.

Early in life, Talleyrand de Perigord figured among the most influential personages of France, and formed a close connexion with the principal republican leaders of the day; to some of them, however, the outset of his political career rendered him an object of distrust. Carnot, in particular, manifested a deep-rooted aversion for the *prêtre défroqué*, as he contemptuously termed the ex-bishop of Autun. Chenier compared him to a sponge that absorbs a portion of every liquor in which it is steeped, with this difference, that the sponge, when squeezed, disgorges its contents, whilst Talleyrand still imbibes and still retains. It must be admitted, that one whose career belongs to so many epochs, one who passed unscathed through so many political convulsions, and still as the horizon blackened, seemed to "ride on the whirlwind and direct the storm"—one who survived the old regime, the directory, the consular power, the empire, and the final fall of the Bourbons, still rising on the wreck of each crumbling dynasty that overwhelmed in its ruin his less fortunate or less skilful compeers, such a one might well engender in others that sour and sullen spirit in which envy is ever ready to rail at vice when its rewards fall not to her share.

His first friend was the Comte d'Artois. While he was a plain abbé, the comte wearied Louis XVI. with prayers to make his friend a bishop. Louis for a long time positively refused, alleging as his objection the rather negligent course of M. de Perigord's mode of life; but being farther solicited, promised to grant the request on condition that the abbé would go to the country, and do something ecclesiastical that would make people forget his *escapades* in Paris. Accordingly, Talleyrand left the city, and preached two or three fine sermons, and otherwise behaved himself so as to lay in a sufficient stock of merit. The Comte d'Artois obtained his prayer; and the abbé was turned into the Bishop d'Autun. This was his first rise in the world—mark the end!

During the consular regime, Talleyrand was the wit *par excellence* of the court, and it must be confessed, that in common with most wits, he could rarely be accused of good-natured consideration for the feelings of those at whom his shafts were levelled. A certain distinguished personage, in his presence, once passed a high encomium on the beauty of the Marchioness de Luchesini, the wife of the Prussian ambassador, a lady whose stature was colossal, and whose attractions were altogether of the masculine order. "Bah!" exclaimed Talleyrand, in answer to the panegyrist, "I could show you better than that in the consular guard." As nothing is more unstable than the vogue of a court beauty, the ambassadress, after this cruel sarcasm, was at a discount of fifty per cent.

"Never write a book," said he to Prince Kofflosky; "if you do, we shall know all that your brains are worth for as many francs as your book will cost. No man of sense writes books—the emperor writes no books—[this was before the emperor went to St. Helena]—Socrates never wrote a book." To which Talleyrand added a name we decline introducing into any light discourse, even after the example of a bishop. When Kofflosky pressed him with the names of men acknowledged to be great in other niches of the temple of fame, who had yet written books, such as Julius Cæsar, Frederick the great, &c., the prince replied, that the examples are rare, and that these books must have been written in order to lead people astray.

It has been stated that Talleyrand's main incentive to the attainment of power was his love of wealth. If so, avarice and ambition may be said to have gone hand in hand, for both were amply gratified. The elevated position of the minister for foreign affairs, by giving him the key to all political secrets, enabled him to speculate with advantage in the public funds, and it appears that he liberally availed himself of his facilities. Some of his minor satellites, too, reaped the benefit of them second-hand, catching, as it were, a refraction of the light which shone so resplendently on his fortunes. Every morning, whilst under the hand of his *perruquier*, it was Talleyrand's custom to enter into familiar conversation with that functionary, sometimes touching on political matters, and on such occasions the barber would "with a greedy ear devour his excellency's discourse," from which he derived many a valuable hint for his own guidance. If Talleyrand muttered between his teeth, "Now is the time to sell," Strap hied him in haste to the Bourse, and sold out his five per cents. He then remained perfectly quiet, continued his daily routine, and powdered the minister's caput as usual, taking care to avail himself of the first hint of 'Now is the time to buy stock.' By diligently attending to these little soliloquies of Talleyrand, the *perruquier* gradually amassed an enormous fortune.

Napoleon had by some means or other been apprized of Talleyrand's hits on 'change. The great captain hated stock-jobbing of every description, and took his prime minister severely to task. "So," said he,

with a sarcastic sneer, "I am informed that your excellency is making a fortune on the Bourse."—"I never speculated but on one occasion," was Talleyrand's reply,—“And when may that have been?” resumed the first consul. "I bought in on the 18th Brumaire, and I sold out the next day." The force of the *repartée* will be evident to the reader who recollects that the stormy period alluded to was that of the *coup d'état* which placed the consular power in the hands of Bonaparte, and consequently laid the foundation of his subsequent greatness.

Napoleon, when his power was on the decline, began, and not without reason, to entertain some distrust of Talleyrand's fidelity. On one occasion the emperor observed in a menacing tone to the wary statesman—"You imagine that in the event of my fall you would be placed at the head of a council of regency. Be warned in time; you will gain nothing by joining the ranks of my enemies. Were I to be suddenly attacked with a dangerous illness, your death would take place before mine." "Sire," replied Talleyrand, not in the least disconcerted by this abrupt apostrophe, "I need not such a warning to urge me to offer up my prayers for the prolongation of your Majesty's days."

The colossus was at length overthrown, and a new order of things was established in Europe. In 1815, Talleyrand, still unshaken by the political storm, was the representative of France at the ever memorable congress of Vienna.

Louis XVIII. formed a just appreciation of Talleyrand's superior abilities; he knew the man well, though he carefully abstained from openly pronouncing a judgment upon his character. When pressed to declare his opinion on this subject, the King usually replied by quoting the following lines from Corneille, in allusion to the famous Cardinal Richelieu:

"Qu'on dise mal ou bien du fameux Cardinal,
Ma prose ni mes vers n'en diront jamais rien;
Il m'a fait trop de bien pour en dire du mal,
Il m'a fait trop de mal pour en dire du bien."

But notwithstanding this cautious moderation, Louis XVIII. evidently nurtured a secret grudge against Talleyrand, and occasionally displayed the feeling in various practical illustrations of the art of ingeniously tormenting. To be more explicit, his majesty was rather *taquin* with his grand chamberlain—for such was the dignity with which the *ci-devant* minister for foreign affairs was invested at the epoch of the restoration. In 1823, when France interposed in the affairs of Spain, Talleyrand took occasion to comment rather freely on the course pursued by government. This was by no means agreeable to Louis XVIII. and a report was soon spread that the grand chamberlain was not only in disgrace, but on the point of being exiled. Not long after the circulation of this rumour, Talleyrand made his appearance at the Tuilleries, and was received by the King in a manner which proved that something like a storm was impending. "Apropos," said the monarch, "I

hear you are about to retire into the country." "Sire," rejoined Talleyrand, "I have no such intention, unless your majesty should think of going to Fontainebleau, for in that case I shall of course solicit permission to accompany you, in discharge of the duties of my office." "No, no," said the king, "I do not exactly mean that—but—in short, let us change the subject." There the matter rested for a few days, but when Louis XVIII. again saw Talleyrand, he repeated his question, to which he received the same answer as before. A third time his Majesty returned to the charge, by asking his grand chamberlain if he was acquainted with the distance from Paris to Valençay—a place to which Talleyrand had once before retired when under a cloud. "Not exactly, sire," replied the practised tactician, "but I believe it to be about twice as far as from Paris to Ghent."

In 1814, at the period of the conferences with the Emperor of Russia, M. Alexis de G**** addressed a number of questions to Talleyrand, on the course which government was likely to adopt. "Well, Prince," at last said the querist, who squinted so horribly that his eyes seemed turned almost inside out, "how go state affairs?"—"Comme vous voyez," replied Talleyrand. The reader will perceive that the point is untranslatable.

On another occasion, the prince was greatly blamed for having been amongst the first to desert the cause of Napoleon. "Bah!" exclaimed Talleyrand, "the fact is simply that my watch went rather too fast; for every body else did the same thing just in the nick of time."

"Some very important discussion must have taken place to-day in the cabinet council," observed a friend to Talleyrand, "for the sitting lasted full five hours. What can have passed?"—"Five hours," said Talleyrand. An emigrant once spoke to the prince in the most contemptuous terms of the empire, and concluded by asserting, that the regime of the restoration could alone administer effectually to the wants of the country. "Very true," said Talleyrand; "under the empire we proceeded but slowly: we merely achieved wonders, whereas now we work miracles."

A courtier, with sundry bows and scrapes, and "many-wreathed smiles," once accosted Talleyrand with, "Your excellency has deigned to promise me your protection; accordingly I take the liberty of reminding your excellency that such a place is vacant" (designating a particular office.) "Vacant!" exclaimed Talleyrand, with an emphasis on the word, which he repeated: "my good friend, you have yet to learn that when a place is vacant, it is already given away."

When the second restoration took place, a certain pompous personage applied to Talleyrand for a diplomatic post. "What may be your claim?" demanded Talleyrand. "Your excellency," said the applicant with much importance, "must know that I have been at Ghent." "At Ghent? are you certain of the fact?" "Quite positive," replied the courtier, with a feeling of indignation that the truth

of his assertion should for a moment have been called in question. "Now," said Talleyrand, "tell me candidly if you have really been at Ghent, or if you have merely returned from it?" "I do not understand your excellency," replied the suitor in unspeakable amazement. Talleyrand proceeded to explain. "The truth is," said he, "that at Ghent there were seven or eight hundred royalists; not one more; and yet not less than fifty thousand have already returned from that city!"

He seems to have been a wholesale dealer in *facetiae*.

During the last illness of Louis XVIII., Talleyrand, speaking of certain projected government measures, observed, "His majesty must now open his eyes, or close them for ever."

When he took the oath of allegiance to Louis Philippe, he said, "Thank God, this is the thirteenth I have taken."

Under the Vilele administration, M. Ferraud was in the habit of appearing in the chamber of peers, supported by a couple of lackeys. "There goes an exact personification of the government," cried Talleyrand,— "carried like a child, and fancying itself walking."

When Prince Polignac was placed at the head of the administration, he was reported to have said that under his auspices and those of his colleagues, France would be saved. "Why not?" said Talleyrand, "a flock of geese saved the capitol."

One day at the Tuilleries, where Talleyrand was in attendance as grand chamberlain, he remained for a considerable time in silent contemplation of the minister of Baden, who was remarkable for a spare habit of body. At length he broke silence. "His excellency," observed Talleyrand, "always puzzles me prodigiously. I never can tell to a certainty whether he walks on three legs or wears three swords."

We have thus ventured to give a few of the miscellaneous *bon mots* of this extraordinary character. They want the support of that inappreciable phlegm which would render even an indifferent pleasantry irresistible; but in spite of this disadvantage we trust they will not derogate from Talleyrand's European reputation as a wit of the first water. Such of our readers as have seen the veteran diplomatist must call fancy to their aid; they must conjure up before their "mind's eye" a countenance to which no description of ours could render adequate justice, and they will thus more fully appreciate the good things here set before them, without much scrupulous attention to the mode of their arrangement or the order of their presentation.

To abler pens we leave the task of dwelling on a political career which exhibits the constant struggle of a man of genius with the grandest epochs of the French history. To Talleyrand belongs the triumph—and to him at least it has proved no empty vain-glorious boast—that whether he stemmed the torrent or swam with the stream, he still rose proudly above the waves which engulfed so many of his contemporaries. Monarchs have been made and unmade; dynasties have flourished and faded; nations and empires have risen and fallen; but the architect who had so prominent a share in rearing the political Babel, survived its wreck.

PHENOMENA OF DEATH.

FROM THE ESSAYS OF SIR HENRY HALFORD, M. D., G. C. B.

Whatever be the causes of dissolution, whether sudden violence, or lingering malady, the immediate modes by which death is brought about appear to be but two. In the one, the nervous system is primarily attacked, and there is a sinking, sometimes an instantaneous extinction, of the powers of life; in the other, dissolution is effected by the circulation of the black venous blood in the arteries of the body instead of the red arterial blood. The former is termed death by syncope, or fainting,—the latter, death by asphyxia. In the last mentioned manner of death, when it is the result of disease, the struggle is long protracted, and accompanied by all the visible marks of agony which the imagination associates with the closing scene of life,—the pinched and pallid features, the cold, clammy skin, the up-turned eye, and the heaving, laborious, rattling respiration. Death does not strike all the organs of the body at the same time; some may be said to survive others; and the lungs are among the last to give up the performance of their function and die. As death approaches, they become gradually more and more oppressed; the air-cells are loaded with an increased quantity of the fluid, which naturally lubricates their surfaces; the atmosphere can now no longer come into contact with the minute blood-vessels spread over the air-cells, without first permeating this viscid fluid,—hence the rattle; nor is the contact sufficiently perfect to change the black venous into the red arterial blood; an unprepared fluid consequently issues from the lungs into the heart, and is thence transmitted to every other organ of the body. The brain receives it, its energies appear to be lulled thereby into sleep—generally tranquil sleep—filled with dreams which impel the dying lip to murmur out the names of friends and the occupations and recollections of past life; the peasant “babbles o’ green fields,” and Napoleon expires amid visions of battle, uttering with his last breath “*tête d’armée.*”

The contrast between the state of the body and that of the mind is often very striking: the struggles of the former are no measure of the emotion of the latter. Indeed, the laborious and convulsive heavings of the chest are wholly automatic, independent of the will,—a part of the mechanism of the body, contrived for its safety, which continues to act when the mind is unconscious of the sufferings of the frame, or is occupied by soothing illusions. No one has described this better than Abernethy.

“Delirium often takes place in consequence of an accident of no very momentous kind,—it may occur without fever, or it may be accompanied with that irritative sympathetic action which is often the ‘last stage of all, that closes the sad eventful history’ of a compound fracture. Delirium seems to be a very curious affection; in this state a man is

quite unconscious of his disease; he will give rational answers to any questions you put to him, when you rouse him, but he relapses into a state of wandering, and his actions correspond with his dreaming. I remember a man with compound fracture in this hospital, whose leg was in a horrible state of sloughing. I have roused him, and said, "Thomas, what is the matter with you? how do you do?" He would reply, "Pretty hearty, thank ye; nothing is the matter with me: how do you do?" He would then go on dreaming of one thing or another; I have listened at his bed-side, and I am sure his dreams were often of a pleasant kind. He met old acquaintances in his dreams,—people whom he remembered *lang syne*, his former companions, his kindred and relations, and he expressed his delight at seeing them. He would exclaim every now and then,—“That’s a good one; well, I never heard a better joke,” and so on. It is a curious circumstance that all consciousness of suffering is thus cut off, as it were, from the body, and it cannot but be regarded as a very benevolent effect of nature’s operations that extremity of suffering should thus bring with it its antidote.”

Occasionally the last dreams of existence are of a more painful nature;—guilt is delirious with dread,—remorse peoples the fancy with terrific visions—but even these are chequered with scenes of a tranquil, not to say trivial character. The death-bed of Cardinal Beaufort, terribly true, is rare; the mixed feelings and shadowings of past life, exhibited in that of Falstaff, are much more frequent.

The second mode of dissolution is marked by the absence of all corporeal struggle. The mind is left free and unclouded, to the very verge of the grave, save by the influence which the particular malady itself exercises on the current of ideas and feelings. The sufferings of the patient are incidental to the progress of the disease; but the “end of all” is placid, painless, and generally sudden. Death, in these cases, attacks the sentient principle, through the nervous system, as it were, directly. It surprises the sufferer sometimes when sighing for the consummation of life, but believing the term yet distant; sometimes in the midst of plans and schemes which are destined never to be realized. In consumption, and, in general, in diseases which are slow in their progress, this sudden termination of life is as common as that more protracted form, already noticed. It is best exemplified by a death produced by lightning, in which the visible alterations in the frame afford a striking contrast to the ordinary ravages of what is termed disease. The machinery of the body appears nearly perfect, and unscathed, and yet in none of the multitudinous forms of death is the living principle so summarily annihilated. Certain poisons appear to act in a similar manner; and, occasionally, the more important operations of surgery are followed by the like result; for which the genius of John Hunter could find no better explanation than the figurative hypothesis, that

the *vis medicatrix*, conscious that the injury is irreparable, gives up the contest in despair.

Severe injuries inflicted on the great centres of the nervous system, the brain, spine, and stomach, are followed by instantaneous death; of which, pithing or wounding the uppermost part of the spinal-marrow of the bull, in the arena, and the *coup de grace*, or blow on the stomach of the criminal, whose limbs have been previously broken on the wheel, are well-known examples. Emotions of the mind, especially such as, by their depressing character, exhaust the energies of life, often terminate in this mode of death. The slightest causes, a mere fainting fit, trivial in every other state of the frame, in this may be fatal. It is the euthanasia of a healthy old age, and the termination assigned by nature to a life in which the passions have been controlled, and the energies regulated by the authority of reason and a sense of duty.

Whether we look at the one mode of dissolution or the other, the sting of death is certainly not contained in the physical act of dying. Sir Henry Hallford, after forty years' experience, says—

“Of the great number to whom it has been my painful professional duty to have administered in the last hours of their lives, I have sometimes felt surprised that so few have appeared reluctant to go to ‘the undiscovered country from whose bourne no traveller returns.’ Many, we may easily suppose, have manifested this willingness to die, from an impatience of suffering, or from that passive indifference which is sometimes the result of debility and extreme bodily exhaustion. But I have seen those who have arrived at a fearless contemplation of the future from faith in the doctrine which our religion teaches. Such men were not only calm and supported, but even cheerful in the hour of death; and I never quitted such a sick chamber without a wish that ‘my last end might be like theirs.’

“Some, indeed, have clung to life anxiously—painfully; but they were not influenced so much by a love of life for its own sake, as by the distressing prospect of leaving children, dependent upon them, to the mercy of the world, deprived of their parental care, in the pathetic language of Andromache—

Νιν δ'αν' πολλα παθησι, φιλον απο Πατρος αμαρτων.

These, indeed, have sometimes wrung my heart.

“And here you will forgive me, perhaps, if I presume to state what appears to me to be the conduct proper to be observed by a physician in withholding, or making his patient acquainted with, his opinion of the probable issue of a malady manifesting mortal symptoms. I own I think it my first duty to protract his life by all practicable means, and to interpose myself between him and every thing which may possibly aggravate his danger. And unless I shall have found him averse from doing what was necessary in aid of my remedies, from a want of

a proper sense of his perilous situation, I forbear to step out of the bounds of my province in order to offer any advice which is not necessary to promote his cure. At the same time, I think it indispensable to let his friends know the danger of his case the instant I discover it. An arrangement of his worldly affairs, in which the comfort or unhappiness of those who are to come after him is involved, may be necessary; and a suggestion of his danger, by which the accomplishment of this object is to be attained, naturally induces a contemplation of his more important spiritual concerns, a careful review of his past life, and such sincere sorrow and contrition for what he has done amiss, as justifies our humble hope of his pardon and acceptance hereafter. If friends can do their good offices at a proper time, and under the suggestions of the physician, it is far better that they should undertake them than the medical adviser. They do so without destroying his hopes, for the patient will still believe that he has an appeal to his physician beyond their fears; whereas, if the physician lay open his danger to him, however delicately he may do this, he runs a risk of appearing to pronounce a sentence of condemnation to death, against which there is no appeal—*no hope*; and, *on that account*, what is most awful to think of, perhaps the sick man's repentance may be less available.

“But friends may be absent, and nobody near the patient in his extremity, of sufficient influence or pretension to inform him of his dangerous condition. And surely it is lamentable to think that any human being should leave the world unprepared to meet his Creator and Judge, ‘with all his crimes broad blown!’ Rather than so, I have departed from my strict professional duty, done that which I would have done by myself, and apprized my patient of the great change he was about to undergo.”

“Lord Bacon encourages physicians to make it a part of their art to smooth the bed of death, and to render the departure from life easy, placid and gentle. This doctrine, so accordant with the best principles of our nature, commended not only by the wisdom of this consummate philosopher, but also by the experience of one of the most judicious and conscientious physicians of modern times (the late Dr. Heberden) was practised with such happy success in the case of our late lamented sovereign, that at the close of his painful disease ‘non tam mori videretur (as was said of a Roman emperor) quam dulci et alto sopore excipi.’”—p. 89.

“Occasionally, the last scene of life is marked by such strength, such unwonted vivacity of thought and solemnity of feeling, as led Aretæus to attribute prophetic power to individuals dying of peculiar maladies—especially of brain fever; the effect of which, when the violence subsides, is, he says, to clear the patient's mind, and render his sensations exquisitely keen. ‘He is the first to discover that he is about to die, and announces this to the attendants; he seems to hold converse

with the spirits of those departed before him, as if they stood in his presence.”

To these interesting notices of Sir H. Halford, we add the following remarkable account of the sensations produced by *drowning* contained in a letter from Admiral Beaufort to Dr. Wollaston, in the Memoirs of Sir John Barrow, just published in London:

“Many years ago, when I was a youngster on board one of his majesty’s ships in Portsmouth harbour, after sculling about in a very small boat, I was endeavouring to fasten her alongside the ship to one of the scuttle rings; in foolish eagerness I stepped upon the gunwale, the boat of course upset, and I fell into the water, and not knowing how to swim, all my efforts to lay hold either of the boat or the floating sculls were fruitless. The transaction had not been observed by the sentinel on the gangway, and, therefore, it was not till the tide had drifted me some distance astern of the ship that a man in the foretop saw me splashing in the water, and gave the alarm. The first lieutenant instantly and gallantly jumped overboard, the carpenter followed his example, and the gunner hastened into a boat and pulled after them.

“With the violent but vain attempts to make myself heard, I had swallowed much water; I was soon exhausted by my struggles, and before any relief reached me I had sunk below the surface—all hope had fled—all exertion ceased—and I *felt* that I was drowning.

“So far, these facts were either partially remembered after my recovery, or supplied by those who had latterly witnessed the scene; for during an interval of such agitation, a drowning person is too much occupied in catching at every passing straw, or too much absorbed by alternate hope and despair, to mark the succession of events very accurately. Not so, however, with the facts which immediately ensued; my mind had then undergone the sudden revolution which appeared to you so remarkable—and all the circumstances of which are now as vividly fresh in my memory as if they had occurred but yesterday.

“From the moment that every exertion had ceased—which I imagine was the immediate consequence of complete suffocation—a calm feeling of the most perfect tranquillity superseded the previous tumultuous sensations—it might be called apathy, certainly not resignation, for drowning no longer appeared to be an evil—I no longer thought of being rescued, nor was I in any bodily pain. On the contrary, my sensations were now of rather a pleasurable cast, partaking of that dull but contented sort of feeling which precedes the sleep produced by fatigue. Though the senses were thus deadened, not so the mind; its activity seemed to be invigorated in a ratio which defies all description—for thought rose after thought with a rapidity of succession that is not only indescribable, but probably inconceivable, by any one who has not himself been in a similar situation. The course of these thoughts I can even now in a great measure retrace—the event which

had just taken place, the awkwardness that had produced it—the bustle it must have occasioned (for I had observed two persons jump from the chains)—the effect it would have on a most affectionate father—the manner in which he would disclose it to the rest of the family—and a thousand other circumstances minutely associated with home, were the first series of reflections that occurred. They took then a wider range—our last cruise—a former voyage, and shipwreck—my school—the progress I had made there, and the time I misspent—and even all my boyish pursuits and adventures. Thus travelling backwards, every past incident of my life seemed to glance across my recollection in retrograde succession; not, however, in mere outline, as here stated, but the picture filled up with every minute and collateral feature; in short, the whole period of my existence seemed to be placed before me in a kind of panoramic review, and each act of it seemed to be accompanied by some reflection on its cause, or its consequences; indeed, many trifling events which had been long forgotten then crowded into my imagination, and with the character of recent familiarity.

“May not all this be some indication of the almost infinite power of memory with which we may awaken in another world, and thus be compelled to contemplate our past lives? Or might it not in some degree warrant the inference that death is only a change or modification of our existence, in which there is no real pause or interruption? But, however that may be, one circumstance was highly remarkable; that the innumerable ideas which flashed into my mind, were all retrospective—yet I had been religiously brought up—my hopes and fears of the next world had lost nothing of their early strength, and at any other period intense interest and awful anxiety would have been excited by the mere probability that I was floating on the threshold of eternity: yet at that inexplicable moment, when I had a full conviction that I had already crossed the threshold, not a single thought wandered into the future—I was wrapped entirely in the past.

“The length of time that was occupied by this deluge of ideas, or rather the shortness of time into which they were condensed, I cannot now state with precision, yet certainly two minutes could not have elapsed from the moment of suffocation to that of my being hauled up.

“The strength of the flood tide made it expedient to pull the boat at once to another ship, where I underwent the usual vulgar process of emptying the water by letting my head hang downwards, then bleeding, chafing, and even administering gin; but my submersion had been really so brief, that, according to the account of the lookers on, I was very quickly restored to animation.

“My feelings while life was returning were the reverse in every point of those which have been described above. One single but confused idea—a miserable belief that I was drowning—dwelt upon my mind, instead of the many clear and definite ideas which had recently

rushed through it—a helpless anxiety—a kind of continuous nightmare, seemed to press heavily on every sense, and to prevent the formation of any one distinct thought—and it was with difficulty that I became convinced that I was really alive. Again; instead of being absolutely free from all bodily pain, as in my drowning state, I was now tortured with pain all over me; and though I have been since wounded in several places, and have often submitted to severe surgical discipline, yet my sufferings were at that time far greater, at least in general distress. On one occasion I was shot in the lungs, and after lying on the deck at night for some hours bleeding from other wounds, I at length fainted. Now, as I felt sure that the wound in the lungs was mortal, it will appear obvious that the overwhelming sensation which accompanies fainting must have produced a perfect conviction that I was then in the act of dying. Yet nothing in the least resembling the operations of my mind when drowning then took place; and when I began to recover, I returned to a clear conception of my real state.”

INSECT SLAVERY.

The most remarkable fact connected with the history of ants is the propensity possessed by certain species to kidnap the workers of other species and compel them to labour for the benefit of the community, thus using them completely as slaves; and, as far as we yet know, the kidnapers are red, or pale-coloured ants, and the slaves, like the captured natives of Africa, are of a jet black. The time for taking slaves extends over a period of about ten weeks, and never commences until the male and female are about emerging from the pupa state; and thus the ruthless marauders never interfere with the continuation of the species. This instinct seems specially provided; for were the slave ants created for no other end than to fill the station of slavery to which they appear to be doomed, still even that office must fail, were the attacks to be made on their nest before the winged myriads have departed or are departing, charged with the duty of continuing their kind. When the red ants are about to sally forth on a marauding expedition, they send scouts to ascertain the exact position in which a colony of negroes may be found. These scouts having discovered the object of their search, return to the nest and report their success. Shortly afterwards the army of red ants marches forth, headed by a vanguard, which is perpetually changing; the individuals which constitute it, when they have advanced a little before the main body halt, falling into the rear, and being replaced by others. This vanguard consists of eight or ten ants only. When they have arrived near the negro colony they disperse, wandering through the herbage and hunting about, as aware of the propinquity of the object of their search,

yet ignorant of its exact position. At last they discover the settlements; and the foremost of the invaders, rushing impetuously to the attack, are met, grappled with, and frequently killed by the negroes on guard. The alarm is quickly communicated to the interior of the nest; the negroes sally forth by thousands; and the red ants rushing to the rescue, a desperate conflict ensues, which, however, always terminates in the defeat of the negroes, who retire to the innermost recesses of their habitation. Now follows the scene of pillage. The red ants, with their powerful mandibles, tear open the sides of the negro ant-hills, and rush into the heart of the citadel. In a few minutes each invader emerges, carrying in its mouth the pupa of a worker negro, which it has obtained in spite of the vigilance and valour of its natural guardians. The red ants return in perfect order to their nest, bearing with them their living burdens. On reaching their nest, the pupa appears to be treated precisely as their own; and the workers, when they emerge, perform the various duties of the community with the greatest energy and apparent good will. They repair the nest, excavate passages, collect food, feed the larvæ, take the pupæ into the sunshine, and perform every office which the welfare of the colony seems to require. They conduct themselves entirely as if fulfilling their original destination.—*Newman's History of Insects.*

A WILD BEAST FIGHT AT OUDE.

We were conducted to a gallery which commanded a view of a narrow court or arena beneath, enclosed by walls and palisades. This was the area in which the spectacle was to take place. Unfortunately, the place allotted to spectators was so narrowed by the great number of European ladies who were present, that we could only find indifferent standing room, where, in addition to this inconvenience, the glare of the sun was very oppressively felt; but the drama which began to be acted in our sight, in the deep space below, was such that every discomfort was forgotten in beholding it. We there beheld six mighty buffaloes, not of the tame species, but the sturdy offspring of the Armbuffalo of the hilly country, at least four feet and a half high from the ground to the withers, with enormous widely spread horns, several feet long. There they stood on their short clumsy hoofs; and, snorting violently, blew out their angry breath from their protruded muzzles as if they were already aware of the nearly approaching danger. What terribly powerful brutes! What vast strength in their broad and brawny necks! It would have been a noble sight, had not their eyes all the while expressed such entire stupidity. A rattling of sticks and the cries of several kinds of bestial voices were heard, to which the buffaloes replied with a deep bellowing. On a sudden, from an

open side door, there darted forth a huge tiger, certainly from ten to eleven feet in length and four feet in height. Without much hesitation he sprang with a single long bound right amidst the buffaloes, and winding his body out of the reach of their formidable horns, he seized one of them by the neck with both of his claws and teeth at once. The weight of the tiger almost overthrew the buffalo. A hideous combat now took place. Groaning and bellowing the buffalo dragged his powerful assailant up and down the arena; while the others, with their heavy, pointed horns, dealt the tiger fearful gashes to liberate their fellow-beast. A deep stillness reigned amongst the public; all the spectators awaited with eager suspense the issue of the contest between the tiger and the buffaloes, as well as the fate of some unfortunate asses; which latter, to increase the sport, being made per force witnesses of the sanguinary action, at first looking down upon it from their poles with inexpressible horror, and afterwards, when their supports were shaken by the butting of the buffaloes, fell to the ground as if dead, and, with outstretched limbs, lay expecting their fate with the greatest resignation, without making a single effort to save themselves. Two other tigers of somewhat less stature, were now, with great difficulty driven in, while the main struggle was still going forward. But no efforts could induce them to attempt an attack of any kind; they shrank down like cats, crouching as closely as possible to the walls of the enclosure, whenever the buffaloes, which still continued, however, to butt at their enemy with the utmost desperation, approached them. The great tiger had at last received a push in the ribs which lifted him from his seat. He came tumbling down and crawled like a craven into a corner, whither he was pursued by the buffalo, maddened by the pain of his lacerated neck, and there had to endure many thrusts with the horns, at each of which he only drew up his mouth with a grimace of pain, without making the smallest motion to ward off the attack.—*Hoffmeister's Letters from the East Indies.*

INTRODUCTION OF FORKS.

As any well authenticated account of the invention or introduction of any of our present customs, or modes of living, cannot but be both instructive and amusing, we insert the following account of the first introduction of the table-fork into England, as related by Thomas Corgate, in his book of travels through a part of Europe, A. D. 1608.

“Here I will mention what might have been spoken of before in discourse of the first Italian towne. I observed a custom in all those Italian cities and towns through which I passed, that is not used in any other country that I saw in my travels, neither doe I thinke that any other nation of Christendom doth use it, but only Italy. The Italian,

and also most strangers that are commorant in Italy, doe alwaies at their meales use a little forke when they cut their meate. For while with their knife, which they hold in one hand, they cut the meate out of the dish, they fasten the fork, which they hold in the other hand, upon the same dish; so that whatsoever he be that, setting in companie with any others at meale, should unadvisedly touch the dish of meate with his fingers, from which all the table doe cut, he will give occasion of offence to the companie, as having transgressed the laws of good manners, insomuch that for his error he shall be at least brow-beaten, if not reprehended in wordes. This forme of feeding I understand is generally used in all places of Italy; their forkes being for the most part made of yron or steele and some of silver, but these are only used by gentlemen. The reason of this their curiosity is, because the Italian cannot by any meanes indure to have his dish touched with fingers, seeing all men's fingers are not alike cleane. Hereupon I myself thought good to imitate the Italian fashion, by this forked manner of cutting meate, not only while I was in Italy, but also in Germany, and oftentimes in England, since I came home, being once equipped for that frequent using of my forke, and by a certaine learned gentleman, a familiar friend of mine, one Mr. Lawrence Whitaker, who in his merry humour doubted not to call me at table furcifer, only for using a forke at feeding, and for no other cause."

FIRST NEWSPAPER.

The first printed newspaper was published in England, in 1588, called "The English Mercury, imprinted by her Majesty's printer." This paper was not regularly published.

In 1624, the "Public Intelligencer and London Gazette" was established. Soon afterwards various papers had "their entrances and their exits," in London, among which were "The Scots' Dove," "The Parliament Kite," "The Secret Owl," &c.

"The Spectator" was the first purely literary periodical. It appeared in 1711. This publication, as is known, owes its immortality to Addison. "The Tattler," conducted by Sir Richard Steele, though published a short time previous, was not exclusively literary.

The first French newspaper was established at Paris, in 1631, by Ronandot, a physician.

The first "Literary Journal and Review" ever published, was "The Journal des Savans," commenced in 1565, in France.

There are now published in France seven hundred and fifty journals, of which three hundred and ten are political.

The first American paper was the "Boston News Letter," which appeared on the 24th of April, 1704, by James Campbell. In 1719, "The Boston Gazette" was started.

The third American newspaper was the "American Weekly Mercury," which appeared in Philadelphia, on the 22d of December, 1719.

The fourth American newspaper was the "New England Courant," established at Boston, August 17, 1721, by James Franklin, elder brother to him who rendered the name illustrious.

The oldest living paper in America is the New Hampshire Gazette. It was the first paper printed in New Hampshire, and was established by Daniel Fowle, at Portsmouth, in August, 1756. It was originally printed on half a sheet of foolscap, quarto, as were all the papers of that day; but was soon enlarged to half a sheet crown, folio, and sometimes appeared on a whole sheet of crown. It is now in its 93d year, and is a well conducted paper of goodly dimensions.

The oldest living newspaper in England is the Lincoln Mercury, first published in 1695. The oldest in London is the St. James' Chronicle, of 1761. The oldest paper in Scotland is the Edinburgh Evening Courant, of 1705. The oldest in Ireland, the Belfast News Letter, of 1787.

MAN—HIS MENTAL POWER.

EXTRACTS FROM A SPEECH BY HORACE MANN.

"Now, a man is weak in his muscles; he is strong only in his faculties. In physical strength how much superior is an ox or a horse to a man—in fleetness, the dromedary or the eagle! It is through mental strength only that man becomes the superior and governor of all animals. But it was not the design of Providence that the work of the world should be performed by muscular strength. God has filled the earth and imbued the elements with energies of greater power than all the inhabitants of a thousand planets like ours. Whence come our necessities and our luxuries? those comforts and appliances that make the difference between a houseless, wandering tribe of Indians in the far west, and a New England village? They do not come wholly or principally from the original, unassisted strength of the human arm, but from the employment, through intelligence and skill, of those great natural forces with which the bountiful Creator has filled every part of the material universe. Caloric, gravitation, expansibility, comprehensibility, electricity, chemical affinities and repulsions, spontaneous velocities—these are the mighty agents which the intellect of man harnesses to the car of improvement. The water, wind and steam to the propulsion of machinery, and to the transportation of men and merchandise from place to place, has added ten thousandfold to the actual products of human industry. How small the wheel which the stoutest labourer can turn, and how soon will he be weary! Compare this with a wheel driving a thousand spindles or looms, which a stream of

water can turn, and never tire. A locomotive will take five hundred men, and bear them on their journey hundreds of miles a day. Look at these same five hundred men starting from the same post, and attempting the same distance, with all the equestrian toil and tardiness.

“The cotton mills of Massachusetts will turn out more cloth in one day than could have been manufactured by all the inhabitants of the Eastern continent during the tenth century. On an element, which in ancient times was supposed to be exclusively within the control of the gods, and where it was deemed impious for human power to intrude, even there the gigantic forces of nature, which human science and skill have enlisted in their service, confront and overcome the raging of the elements—breasting tempests and tides, escaping reefs and lea shores, and careering, triumphantly, around the globe. The velocity of winds, the weight of waters, and the rage of steam, are powers; each one of which is infinitely stronger than all the strength of all the nations and races of mankind, were it all gathered into a single arm. And all these energies are given us on one condition—the condition of intelligence—that is, of education. Had God intended that the work of the world should be done by human bones and sinews, He would have given us an arm as solid and as strong as the shaft of a steam engine, and enabled us to stand, day and night, and turn the crank of a steamship, while sailing to Liverpool and Calcutta. Had God designed the human muscles to do the work of the world, then, instead of the ingredients of gun-powder, or gun-cotton, and the expansive force of heat, He would have given us hands which could take a granite quarry and break its solid acres into suitable symmetrical blocks, as easily as we now open an orange. Had he intended us for bearing burdens, he would have given us Atlantean shoulders, by which we could carry the vast freights of rail-car and steamship as a porter carries his pack. He would have given us lungs by which we could blow fleets before us, and wings to sweep over ocean wastes.

“But, instead of iron arms, and Atlantean shoulders, and the lungs of Boreas, He has given us a mind, a soul, a capacity of knowledge, and thus a power of appropriating all these energies of nature to our own use. Instead of a telegraphic and microscopic eye, he has given us power to invent the telescope and microscope. Instead of ten thousand fingers, he has given us genius inventive of the power-loom and the printing-press. Without a cultivated intellect, man is the weakest of all the dynamical forces of nature; with a cultivated intellect he commands them all. A thousand slaves may stand by a river, and to them it is only an object of fear and superstition. An intelligent man surpasses the ancient idea of a river god; he stands by the Penobscot, the Kennebec, the Merrimac, or the Connecticut; he commands each to do more work than could be performed by a hundred thousand men—to saw timber, to make cloth, to grind corn—and they obey. Ignorant slaves stand upon a coal mine, and to them it is only a

worthless part of the inanimate earth. An intelligent man uses the same mine to print a million of books.

“Slaves will seek to obtain the same crop from the same field year after year, though the *pabulum* of that crop is exhausted; the intelligent man, with his chemist’s eye, sees not only the minutest atoms of the earth, but the imponderable gases that permeate it, and he is rewarded with a luxuriant harvest. Nor are these advantages confined to those departments of nature where her mightiest forces are brought into requisition. In accomplishing whatever requires delicacy and precision, nature is as much more perfect than man, as she is more powerful in whatever requires strength. Whether in great or in small operations, all the improvement in the mechanical and the useful arts comes as directly from intelligence as a bird comes out of a shell, or the beautiful colours of a flower out of the sunshine. The slave-worker is for ever prying at the short end of nature’s lever, and using the back, instead of the edge, of her finest instruments.”

THE FRIENDLESS.

At the recent dedication of the *Home for the Friendless*, in the city of New York, the Rev. Dr. Tyng, with his usual felicity of expression, concluded an eloquent discourse in these words:—

“Little do many of you know the toil and distress of mind and spirit through which this great work has been carried on. We have seen Christian ladies willing to encounter every difficulty, and even contumely, in pursuit of the means wherewith to erect an institution for the reception of the poor and friendless, and with a spirit that nothing could discourage or repress. They have endured their burdens and toils with an inextinguishable ardour; and if a cruel and careless world will undervalue them, hundreds of souls which they will have redeemed from misery and destitution will invoke upon them a blessing. God will estimate them by the good they have done; while the world, regardless of their moral worth, looks only to their station in life as the means of estimating their value. Too much praise cannot be accorded to those who, in the midst of every discouragement, were determined to prosecute, with every energy, the work which they had so generously engaged in. Some have been the sympathizing witnesses of the perils through which they have passed, and the amount of suffering which they have relieved. They have not been actuated, as represented, by a proselytizing spirit, but rather by a true and sincere desire of doing good to their fellow mortals, whose fortune has not been so favourable, and who have been subjected to privations and hardship. Their deeds are recorded in heaven, and the sighs of the

miserable to whom they have extended the hand of charity are written in the book of the Eternal, and those sighs will be changed to a chorus of thanksgiving before the throne of the Creator. These ladies have been permitted, under the favouring influence of divine sanction, to erect a building which will stand as a monument of the Christian love that laboured so perseveringly and successfully in its erection.

“We meet here to congratulate those ladies; and while we speak in the language of congratulation, let us not forget that there is still more to be done for those who are to be the recipients of their charity. The road they have travelled has indeed been a *via dolorosa*, but it is a path that has been cheered by bright and precious beams; and for the good work they have done, and for this example to posterity, the Almighty will open a house of refuge for their souls.

“Multitudes of friendless creatures will here find a home. The mother who, on her death-bed, leaves her helpless children to the care of a heartless world, will rejoice as she reflects on the home where they will be sheltered from the storms of life. Here is a building which has cost some eighteen thousand dollars, built in the most substantial manner, examined by the committee and commended in the highest terms, and capable of containing a family of two hundred persons, giving them protection, and instilling into their minds Christian principles for their future life. Adult females are to be received here, and afforded temporary protection. Children will also find a refuge here until the Christian’s God has provided them with parents—until families will come forward and say, ‘We will adopt them as our own.’”

THE TEN TRIBES.

ABORIGINES OF AMERICA.

Many years ago, Dr. Boudinot, of New Jersey, published a work of great interest, called the “Star in the West,” in which he attempted to prove, that the North American Indians were the descendants of the missing tribes. The work was read and laid aside with incredulity—forty years, however, have developed many circumstances and discoveries, tending to confirm the opinion of Dr. Boudinot, and the work, though out of print, is one which, to the curious, would amply repay a perusal. We have never doubted the fact. Nine and a half tribes, were carried captives from Samaria, two and a half, Judah, Benjamin, and half Manasseh, remained in Judea, or in the trans-Jordanic cities, and the latter constitute the eight millions of the existing nation. All that we know of the route taken, is from the Second Esdras, an

Apocryphal book, but one of great antiquity, and entitled to respect. The notice runs thus:

“Whereas thou sawest that he gathered another peaceable multitude unto him: those are the ten tribes, which were carried away prisoners out of their own land, in the time of Osea the king, whom Salmanazer, king of Assyria, led away captive, and he carried them over the waters, and so they came into another land.

“But they took this counsel among themselves, that they would leave the multitude of the *heathen*, and go forth into a farther country, wherein never mankind dwelt, that they might there keep their statutes, which they never kept in their own land, (Assyria,)—and there was a great way to go, namely, a year and a half.”

They marched towards the north-east coast of Asia—some remained in Tartary, and many went into China, where they have been sixteen hundred years, and are numerous at this day. The main body crossed at Behring's Straits to our continent, the more hardy keeping to the north, Hudson's Bay and Greenland; the more cultivated passed down on the shores of the Pacific, through California to Mexico, Central America and Peru, and there they met with their old enemy, the Phœnicians, (the Canaanites,) who, having discovered the country five hundred years previously, had formed colonies, built the city of Palenque, with pyramids like those they had erected in Egypt, at Cholula, Otamba, Paxaca, Mitlan, Tlascalala, together with hieroglyphics, planispheres, zodiacs, temples, military roads, aqueducts, viaducts, bridges of great grandeur, existing at this day, and all proving that they were built and settled by those who had erected Tyre, Babylon, and Carthage. When the tribes of Israel encountered their old enemy in the new world, they fell upon and destroyed them a second time, and when Columbus discovered the country, he found various tribes of Indians whose origin was unknown. These are the missing tribes, and this is the opinion of Adair, Heckwelder, Cherleveaux, M'Kenzie, Bartram, Beltrame, Smith, Penn, Menassah Ben Israel, the Earl of Crawford, Lopez de Gamara, Acosta, Malvenda, Major Long, Boudinot, and Catlin; all eminent writers and travellers.

We trace the march of the tribes through Asia to this continent. After 2000 years, we find the red men of America bearing the strongest marks of Asiatic origin, and divided into 300 different nations, remarkable for their intellectual superiority, their bravery in war, their good faith in peace, to be the descendants of the lost tribes, and identify them by the following religious rites, peculiar to all our Indians; and to the Israelites:

1. Their belief in one God.
2. In their computation of time by their ceremonies of the new moon.
3. In their division of the year into four seasons.
4. In their erection of a temple—having an ark of the covenant—and also in their erection of altars.

5. By the division of the nation into tribes, with a chief or general sachem at their head.

6. By their laws of sacrifices, ablutions, marriages, ceremonies in war and in peace, prohibition of eating certain things, by traditions, history, character, appearance, affinity of their language to the Hebrew, and finally by that everlasting covenant of heirship exhibited in a perpetual transmission of its seal in their flesh, a custom only of late relinquished. All the Indians on the American continent from Labrador to Cape Horn, are the descendants of the tribes, which, as Esdras says, went into a farther country.

Mr. Catlin, who lived some years among the Indians of the northwest, assured us that all the Mosaic laws, traditionary with them, were strictly enforced; and William Penn, who had no suspicion of their origin, says, "I found them with like countenances to the Hebrew race. I consider these people under a dark night, yet they believe in God and immortality, without the aid of metaphysics. They reckon by moons—they offer their first ripe fruits—they have a kind of feast of tabernacles—they are said to lay their altars with twelve stones—they mourn a year—and observe the Mosaic law with regard to separation."—(M. M. NOAH.)

(As corroborative of, and in connexion with these remarks of M. M. Noah, Esq., we add a short extract which we have taken the liberty to make from an unpublished work of our distinguished countryman and friend, JOHN M. PAYNE, Esq. His long residence and laborious researches among the Indian tribes of the South, especially the Cherokees, have enabled him to collect very valuable information concerning their historical and moral traditions. We hope Mr. Payne will ere long give to the public the results of his labours—which cannot fail to prove an important addition to American history.

The extract we have made seems to identify the ancient Cherokees with the lost tribes, and is as follows:)

"THE CHEROKEES.

"There appears to have been a belief, as far back as the history of their nation can be traced, that certain Beings came down from on high and formed the world, the moon, and the stars. These beings were supposed to have always existed together, and always to have been identified with each other; one in sentiment and action, and so remaining eternally.

"We call them Beings, because the Cherokee word designating them, implies according to the peculiar genius of the original language, not only more than one, but more than two. One part of the nation only designate them in general terms: in another part, the aged employ three different words to express their name, which are at present obsolete, but which analogy, as well as the definitions given by such natives as remember them, explain to mean, first: *U, ha, lo, te, ga*, that is, *Head*

of all power, or, literally, *Great beyond expression*—second, *A, ta, no, ti*, that is, *United*, or, literally, *The place of uniting*; allusive to the spot where vows of perpetual friendship are made, and third; *Usgo, hu, la*, signifying, as nearly as can be ascertained, the bowels just below the breast; and supposed to be here employed synonymously with the same word in our own language, when applied to affection or the mind.

“These Beings, say the Cherokee, will ever continue unchanged. They created all things—know all things, and are present every where, and govern all things. The Beings thus described, are understood to be the same with One mysterious Being, of whom the ancients among the Cherokees say that he was a God, and yet a king, appearing sometimes as a man; in short, that he was both spiritual and material. He had a name which must never be uttered, except by some one specially consecrated for the purpose, nor even by him except upon a hal-
lowed day.

“This name was *Ye, ho, waah*. He gave a hymn to their ancestors which might only be sung by persons selected for that purpose. The language in which it is expressed is not understood by the present race, and is what they call the old language. Many yet living remember the last of the speakers of that language, and represent them as having been devoutly wedded to their ancient usages.

“These three Beings employed seven days in the creation. The world was created at the commencement of the autumnal new moon, with the fruits all ripe. Hence that moon begins the year, and is called the great moon.

“Man was made of red earth. The first man and the first woman were red. The red people are, therefore, the real people, as their name, *Yo, wi, ya*, indicates.

“At first serpents were not poisonous—no roots were poison;—and man would have lived for ever, but the sun passing over, perceived that the earth was not large enough to support all in immortality that would be born. Poison was inserted in the tooth of the snake, in the root of the wild parsnip, and elsewhere; and one of the first family was soon bitten by a snake and died. All possible means were used to bring him to life, but in vain. Being overcome in this first instance, the whole race was doomed to death.”

[ORIGINAL.]

TRANSLATORS AND TRANSLATIONS.

[This article was received from its accomplished author, J. T. S. SULLIVAN, Esq., a few weeks before his death, and is therefore one of the latest, if not the very last of his productions.

Mr. Sullivan received a finished education at a German university. His perfect acquaintance with the German language, and high literary attainments, qualified him to correct the errors here noticed, and insure the accuracy of his own translations. The beauty and force of the latter will be apparent to every reader.

Under the obituary head the editor has given all the notice that his scanty materials afforded of his generous and gifted friend, and hopes he will be pardoned for remarking here, that he was indebted to him for many kind offices, and for timely sympathies and encouragements, which the heart feels, but the pen cannot describe.]

English literature has received numerous additions to its valuable treasures, or rather to its folios, by the so-termed *translations* from foreign authors. A foreign work may be rendered in English, it may have an English version given of it; it may be *done* into English, and it may be *translated* into English. When a work purports, upon its title-page, to be a *translation*, we look not to be disappointed; but, unfortunately, our hopes are too often bitterly checked, and we sometimes begin to think the word *translate* cannot be understood.

To *translate*, says the dictionary, is "to interpret in another language;" which means, we presume, to give in one language what is spoken, written, or promulgated, by whatever means, in another language. This is not, to give something *like* what is spoken or written in another language, but to give the ideas, convey the impression, and produce the same effect to and upon the mind of one nation which the original does, or is intended to produce, when understood, upon that of another. If we are correct in this, to *translate* is no easy matter. It is not merely the taking up of a foreign author, and, aided by a dictionary, to give the literal meaning of the words he uses. Far from it! To be a *translator*, one must be familiar with both languages; and not only with the languages, but with the associations connected with certain words and expressions used in different ways, and with the shades given to expressions. To acquire this, one must do more than sit in his study, and, by reading and application, learn what words mean. It may do for a scientific work, where the subject is confined to the technicalities of science, and intended only for scientific minds; but if you travel beyond, something more is necessary. If you

would commune with the spirit of the inspired poet—if you would laugh with the humorist, or follow the steps of one who can guide you into the hearts of men, and unfold to you the mysteries, the beauties, and the blemishes of our nature, at the same time that he tells you what you yourself are—if you would, I say, hold intercourse with such, and let your countrymen enjoy the like privilege, you must leave your study and go forth among the people who do know and understand them—who are familiar with the great points to be admired, with the truthfulness of the master's pen and pencil; and while you thus learn to know the one, you inevitably learn to comprehend the other. And this intercourse is the only road to such knowledge—the only means whereby to fit one's self to be a *translator*. As a proof of this, open your dictionary, and hunt for the German word *gemüthlich*, and what does the definition say?—"disposed, in a humour;" which definition no more conveys to the mind of one speaking English as the mother tongue the same idea which the German word conveys to a German, than *convenience* would convey the idea of *comfort* to an Englishman. If a person undertaking to translate the word *gemüthlich* does not know all that a German understands and feels by it, how can he interpret what he does not comprehend—or even describe it? And if this difficulty is met in words, what becomes of the ideas, sentiments, associations and views, as untranslatable by the mere dictionary definitions as many of their words? What becomes of poetry, the language of a nation's heart? Must not the *translator* of poetry be intimately familiar with a nation's characteristics, the effect given by certain rhythm, and be, in some measure, a poet himself?

These remarks have been called forth by a perusal of some of "The Poems and Ballads of Schiller, translated by Sir Edward Lytton Bulwer, Bart.," many of which are not *translations*, but mere versions of the original, unworthy the pen of one who bears so great a name. And the same remark applies to some of the so-termed translations of Thomas Carlyle.

We are no poet, but it seems to us rather surprising that the two poems quoted below, from these two authors, should have been so poorly translated. We give almost a literal translation, which imparts, we do not hesitate to say, a better idea of the original than that of Bulwer or Carlyle. And we do not hesitate to add, further, that such translations are an imposition, let them come from ever so high a source, and ought to be condemned, if only to save the public from such productions in future, purporting to be *translations*.

KNOW'ST THOU THE LAND?

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF GOETHE BY
THOMAS CARLYLE.Know'st thou the land where citron apples
bloom,

And oranges like gold, like gold in leafy gloom;

KNOW'ST THOU THE LAND?

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF GOETHE BY
THE CONTRIBUTOR.Know'st thou the land? where citron-flower
blows,

Midst dark'ning shade the golden orange glows;

A gentle wind from deep blue heaven blows,
The myrtle thick, and high the laurel grows?
Know'st thou it, then?

"Tis there, 'tis there,
O, my true loved one, thou with me must go!

Know'st thou the house, its porch with pillars
tall?

The rooms do glitter, glitters bright the hall,
And marble statues stand, and look each one:
What's this, poor child, what's this to thee
they've done?

Know'st thou it then?
"Tis there, 'tis there,
O, my protector, thou with me must go!

Know'st thou the hill, the bridge that hangs
on cloud,*

The mules in mist grope o'er the torrent loud,†
In caves lie coiled the dragon's ancient brood;
The crag leaps down, and over it the flood!
Know'st thou it, then?

"Tis there, 'tis there,
Our way runs: O, my father, wilt thou go?

THE SHARING OF THE EARTH.‡

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF SCHILLER BY
SIR EDWARD BULWER LYTTON, BART.

"Take the world," cried the God from his
heaven

To men: "I proclaim you its heirs;
To divide it among you 'tis given,
You have only to settle the shares."

Each takes for himself as it pleases,
Old and young have alike their desire;
The harvest the husbandman seizes,
Through the wood and the chase sweeps
the squire.

The merchant his warehouse is locking,
The abbot is choosing his wine,
Cries the monarch, the thoroughfares block-
ing,
"Every toll for the passage is mine!"

All too late, when the sharing was over,
Comes the poet—he came from afar—
Nothing left can the laggard discover,
Not an inch but its owners there are.

"Wo is me, is there nothing remaining
For the son who best loves thee alone?"
Thus to Jove went his voice in complaining,
As he fell at the Thunderer's throne.

There waves from azure skies the gentle breeze,
There stand the myrtle, there the laurel trees!
Know'st thou it well?

"Tis there! 'tis there!
Would I with thee, O my belov'd, repair!

Know'st thou the house? with dome on co-
lumn light,

The chambers glitter, and the hall is bright,
And marble statues stand, and gaze on me:
What has the world, poor wand'rer, done to
thee?

Know'st thou it well?
"Tis there! 'tis there!
Would I with thee, my guardian friend, repair!

Know'st thou the hill, its high and misty steep,
Where mules 'mid clouds their pathway strive
to keep?

There dwell in caves the dragon's ancient brood,
There leap the crags, and o'er them leaps the
flood!

Know'st thou it well?
"Tis there! 'tis there!
Our pathway lies; O father, come, repair!

THE DIVISION OF THE EARTH.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF SCHILLER BY
THE CONTRIBUTOR.

"Take ye the earth," spoke Jove from his
high throne

To all mankind, "your own henceforth to be,
An heritage, and an eternal loan!
Divide the gift in friendly harmony!"

With haste all strove, that could, their share
to find,
And all were active, both the young and old:
The soil's rich fruits appeased the farmer's mind,
To sweep the forest pleased the huntsman
bold;

The merchant took what his rich stores dis-
closed,
The abbot chose the noble Firné wine;
The king the bridges and the highways closed.
And proudly said, "the tithe of all is mine!"

At last, when all things had divided been,
From the far distance, lo! the poet came;
For him, alas! was nothing to be seen,
For ev'ry thing an owner now could claim.

"Wo unto me! must I alone of all
Forgotten be, who am thy truest son?"
Repining thus, ascends his plaintive call,
And prostrate falls the poet at Jove's throne.

* Wolkensteg is the original, and is not here translated.

† No mention is made of torrent by the author.

‡ From Harper and Brother's edition, p. 151.

"In the land of the dreams if abiding,"
 Quoth the God, "canst thou murmur at me?
 Where wert *thou* when the earth was di-
 viding?"

"I was," said the poet, "with *Thee!*"

"Mine eye by thy glory was captured—
 Mine ear by thy music of bliss;
 Pardon him whom *thy* world so enraptured,
 As to lose him his portion in this!"

"Alas!" said the God, "earth is given!
 Field, forest, and market, and all!
 What say you to quarters in heaven?
 We'll admit you whenever you call!"

"If in the land of dreams thou 'st loitered there,"
 Replied the God, "the blame is not to me!
 Where wast thou when to each I gave his
 share?"

"I was," replied the poet, "then with thee!"

"Mine eyes were feasting on thy glories bright;
 Mine ears were charmed by heav'n's pure
 harmony:
 Forgive the soul, absorbed in thine own light,
 That thus has lost all earthly things to me!"

"What's to be done?" spoke Jove; "I've
 naught to give;
 Nor harvests, woods, nor commerce of the
 sea!
 If thou with me in mine own heav'n will live,
 Whene'er thou com'st it shall be ope to thee!"

Sir Edward Lytton Bulwer, in the above version of this poem, did not even deign to give the metre of the original, and thereby lost the dignity in which the author clothed his thought.

J. T. S. S.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

(For the Register.)

THE OLD TREE.

(BY A LADY.)

During a ride in Connecticut, I found an old leafless tree, covered with moss pendant from its branches. It was a rare sight to northern eyes, and suggested the following lines.

Old Time had come, and with his scythe,
 Had touched that tree, once young and blithe,
 Nor Spring's warm breath—nor summer rain,
 Could e'er bring back its leaves again.

It would have stood unsightly, old,
 A mockery of the wind and cold.
 It would have been a blighted thing,
 But for its mossy covering,
 Which hung each bough in rich festoon,
 Decking the tree in heavenly bloom;
 A mantle green, which God had given—
 As if Elijah's, dropped from heaven,
 Had rested on that old gray tree,
 And clothed it with sublimity!
 While many a bird had made its nest,
 Within this lovely place of rest,—
 Filling the boughs with music rare,
 As if King David's harp were there.

Protected thus from wintry frost,
 It stands among the tempest-tost.
 And while the beautiful young trees
 Tremble to meet the autumn breeze,
 And give in grief their treasured leaves
 Which summer in her kindness weaves,—
 And with shorn locks bow down their head
 Impatient, waiting Spring's light tread;
 This aged tree, just ripe for death,
 With outstretched arms stands up and saith:

“Would'st thou—Oh! youth—be good and sage?
 Would'st thou enjoy a green old age?
 And when thy laurels low are laid,
 And thy green bays in darkness fade,
 Would'st thou,—thy youth and beauty fled—
 With glory crowned, lift up thy head;
 With music filled, lift up thy voice,
 With songs of praise the heart rejoice?”

“Give to thy God the ‘dew of youth,’
 And clothe thee with His love and truth;
 Then thy *last* days shall be thy *best*;
 And on thy form in honour rest,
 The mantle of the prophet blest.”

E. G. T.

Hartford.

CALIFORNIA ADVENTURERS.

WRITTEN BY CALEB LYON, OF LYONSDALE,

Who sailed in the Tarolinta from New York.

Where the Sacramento's waters roll their golden tide along,
 Which echoes through the mountains like a merry drinking song;
 Where the Sierra Nevada lifts its crests unto the sky,
 A home for freedom's eagles when the tempest's sweeping by.
 Where the bay of San Francisco—the Naples of the West—
 Lies sleeping like an infant beside the ocean's breast;
 There we go with dauntless spirits, and we go with hearts elate,
 To build another empire—to found another state.

Ho! ye who love adventure, and ye who thirst for gold,
 Remember ye the story of the Argonauts of old?
 From the Pascagoula's valley to Kaataden's snowy land,
 From beyond the Mississippi to our own Atlantic strand,
 The Jasons are arousing, they who never dream'd of fears,
 The sons of hardy puritans and gallant cavaliers,
 Who go with dauntless spirits, and who go with hearts elate,
 To build another empire—to found another state.

'Then good-bye to old Manhattan—our bark is on the tide;
 Farewell to father, mother, to sister, wife, and bride,
 And when her shores are fading, we'll bless her through our tears,
 She filled the cup of happiness through many pleasant years.
 And the friends who dearly love us, within our hearts are set,
 Whose tenderness and kindness we never can forget;
 Yet we go with dauntless spirits, and go with hearts elate,
 To build another empire—to found another state.

The good ship Tarolinta, with her gallant Captain Cave,
 From our native shore will bear us in triumph o'er the wave;
 By the isles of fair Bermuda—the emeralds of the west—
 Where gales of ladened incense for ever love to rest.
 And when the storm-wind rages, and thunders echo free,
 We'll pass Terra del Fuego, the Charybdis of the sea;
 By the land of Chimborazo we will sail with hearts elate,
 To build another empire—to found another state.

TO MY MOTHER.

Mother, I kneel upon thy grave,
 And tears are falling fast,
 As o'er me now, come rushing on
 The memories of the past,

Of summer days, when youth and hope
 Were glowing in my soul,
 Life's silver chord was tuned to joy,
 And full its golden bowl;

When earth seemed fair around me,
 When skies looked bright above,
 When my spirit leaped in gladness,
 For thou wert near to love;

When thy sweet voice, my mother,
 When the close of day had come,
 Rose in low prayer to *Him* on high,
 That *He* would bless our home.

Again I see thee, mother,
 Again that loved voice hear,
 Like an angel tone of a better world,
 It is falling on my ear.

I see thee stand with out-stretched arms,
 With joy upon thy face,
 I feel thy warm kiss on my cheek,
 I fall in thy embrace.

Thou chidest me, my mother,
Yet thy words are soft and mild,
And amid thick tears of sorrow,
You bless your erring child.

Thou cheerest me, my mother,
An honoured name to win,
And not from virtue's peaceful ways,
To stray in paths of sin.

Since the grave has held thee, mother,
Winter hath spent its blast,
Spring's flowers have bloomed and withered,
The tree its leaf hath cast,

And I have walked with spirit sad,
Amid earth's busy throng,
And felt their joy was not for me,
Or their merry dance, or song.

I have felt alone, deserted,
In a world both dark and drear,
Where most will blame, discourage,
And few forgive and cheer.

Yet, mother, now I'll nerve myself
To break this gloomy spell,
And tread the path where duty points,
Both wisely, true and well.

And be thy spirit o'er me,
With a meek and holy power,
When darkness lies upon my path,
And tempests round me lower;

Be o'er me in my hour of joy,
Lest pride my heart should fill,—
Be o'er me in my hour of grief,
My troubled bosom still,—

Be o'er me in my hour of strife,
And calm the raging soul,—
Be o'er me when temptation holds
Her wreathed and sparkling bowl.

I leave thy grave, my mother,
To journey on through life,
To mingle with its restless tide,
Its battle and its strife:

And when a few more flowers shall bloom,
And summer suns shall shine,
They'll bear me to this narrow house,
And lay my head by thine.

'Then my freed spirit, mother,
 Shall stand with thine in light,
 Before yon throne of glory,
 With God's own radiance bright,

In never-fading realms of bliss,
 With angel harps to raise,
 As endless ages roll their course,
 The songs of joy and praise.

J. S.

DOUBT NOT.

BY J. M. KNOWLTON.

When the day of life is dreary,
 And when gloom thy course enshrouds—
 When thy steps are faint and weary,
 And thy spirit dark with clouds,
 Steadfast still in thy well doing,
 Let thy soul forget the past—
 Steadfast still, the right pursuing,
 Doubt not! joy shall come at last.

Striving still, and onward pressing,
 Seek not future years to know,
 But *deserve* the wished for blessing,
 It shall come, though it be slow.
 Never tiring—upward gazing—
 Let thy fears aside be cast,
 Are thy trials tempting, braving—
 Doubt not! joy shall come at last!

Keep not thou thy soul regretting,
 Seek the good—spurn evil's thrall,
 Though thy foes thy path besetting,
 Thou shalt triumph o'er them all.
 Though each year but bring thee sadness,
 And thy youth be fleeting fast,
 There'll be time enough for gladness—
 Doubt not! joy shall come at last!

His fond eye is watching o'er thee—
 His strong arm shall be thy guard—
 Duty's path is straight before thee,
 It shall lead to thy reward.
 By thy ills thy faith made stronger,
 Mould the future by the past—
 Hope thou on a little longer!
 Doubt not! joy shall come at last!

QUARTERLY CHRONICLE.

(In the following record of events will be found many interesting particulars which it was impossible to insert elsewhere; among them are judicial decisions—accounts of telegraphs—improvements in art and science—cholera, weather, &c., with many incidents interesting to the general reader.)

DECEMBER, 1848.

Dec. 1st. Bond's comet visible between Epsilon and Zeta Cygni.
A severe snow storm in Cincinnati, Ohio.

Cholera in New York. The ship *New York*, Captain Lines, arrived in twenty-two days from Havre, with 328 steerage, and 17 cabin passengers. She had a fine run to the neighbourhood of Cape Sable, but was there delayed by light winds.

On the fourteenth day out, a case of sickness called cholera, appeared among the steerage passengers, and at the time of her arrival here, there had been nineteen cases, of which some had proved fatal. Two or three also deceased after they were landed at quarantine. In all six died. It was pronounced cholera by the health officer and Board of Health.

2d. The Mexican minister was formally received and recognised by the President. The minister made a speech highly complimentary to the Americans; he rejoiced that hostilities were ended between the two countries, and hoped that the friendly relations now existing would continue, concluding with an assurance that his government would observe the treaty in good faith. The President replied, in a short speech, proffering continued friendship and respect for Mexico, and rejoicing in the restoration of peace.

The California mania raging in New York, Baltimore, and Boston; hundreds are preparing to start for the gold region on the Pacific—very little excitement as yet in Philadelphia.

In Philadelphia the robbers of the Chester county bank, John Thompson, alias "Tobacco Jack," and John Whitehouse, or "Old Duke," were sentenced to pay a fine of \$10,000 each, and to three years' imprisonment. The robbery was considered one of the most daring and flagrant kind.

An awful and fatal disaster occurred on board an Irish steamer which left Sligo on the 1st December, with 150 emigrant passengers on board. A heavy gale came on towards night, and these passengers were driven

below and crowded together into the narrow compass of the fore cabin, only eighteen feet long, eleven broad, and seven high. The companion, the only aperture, was closed, and a piece of tarpaulin nailed over it. The scene that ensued in the cabin is described by the survivors of that dreadful night as being horrible and heart-rending in the extreme. Their cries were unheard by the seamen, who were directing the steamer through the tempest, but who seemed to have taken no thought of the consequences that were the inevitable result of such inhuman and reckless conduct. One passenger at length broke his way out, and described the condition of those below. The mate attempted to descend, but his light was extinguished by the foul air—at length the partition was broken away, and the real nature of the catastrophe exhibited.

There lay, in heaps, the living, the dying, and the dead, one frightful mass of mingled agony and death, a spectacle enough to appal the stoutest heart. Men, women, and children, were huddled together, blackened with suffocation, distorted by convulsions, bruised and bleeding from the desperate struggles for existence, which preceded the moment when exhausted nature resigned the strife. After some time the living were separated from the dead, and it was then found that the latter amounted to nearly one-half of the entire number.

The scene, on entering the steerage of the steamer, was perhaps as awful a spectacle as could be witnessed. Seventy-two dead bodies of men, women, and children, lay piled indiscriminately over each other, four deep, all presenting the ghastly appearance of persons who had died in the agonies of suffocation; very many of them covered with the blood which had gushed from the mouth and nose, or had flowed from the wounds inflicted by the trampling of nail-studded brogues, and by the frantic violence of those who struggled for escape—for it was but too evident that, in that struggle, the poor creatures had torn the clothes from off each other's backs, and even the flesh from each other's limbs.

We are not informed what punishment has been inflicted on the authors of this frightful calamity, equalled only by the brutal outrage committed many years ago in the "Black Hole" of Calcutta. The first and second mates are said to have been arrested for manslaughter.

The Emperor Ferdinand, of Austria, abdicated the throne in favour of his nephew, Francis Joseph, whose father, the arch-duke Francis Charles, had resigned his claims. Ferdinand was born 19th April, 1793, and has reigned thirteen years. The present emperor was born 18th August, 1830, and is therefore in his nineteenth year.

The Guerilla war in Spain was still carried on by the Carlist chief Cabrera, who was near Barcelona at the head of 800 men.

3d. Off Cape Look-out, at half-past 2 o'clock on Sunday morning, the steamship Columbus came in collision with the schooner Mission,

of Edenton, N. C. The schooner was perceived by the watch on board the Columbus, and fearing a collision, her engine was stopped and reversed, but the schooner being on a wind, and not seeing the steamer, sailed direct under her bow; the wind having just hauled from south-east to north-west, and a heavy sea running at the time, the bow of the Columbus riding over the bulwarks of the schooner, sunk her almost instantly. The Mission was from Rum Key, eight days, loaded with salt, for Edenton, N. C. Captain John Cobb, and son, twelve years old; T. G. Doubty, mate; James Chatham and Joseph Brown, seamen; and P. M. Gordon, cook, all of and near Edenton, were lost.

4th. The Supreme Court of the United States commenced its sitting in the basement story of the capitol, at 12 o'clock, M. Chief Justice Taney would not probably be in attendance until Wednesday, but was expected at that time. Justice Wayne was likewise absent. The following constituted the quorum present:

- Justice M'Lane, of Ohio,
- “ Catron, of Tennessee,
- “ M'Kinley, of Kentucky,
- “ Daniel, of Virginia,
- “ Woodbury, of New Hampshire,
- “ Nelson, of New York, and
- “ Grier, of Pennsylvania.

Both houses of congress convened at the capitol, and organized for the transaction of business. In the absence of Vice President Dallas, Senator Atchison presided. Mr. Winthrop, Speaker of the House, called it to order. The credentials of the delegate from the new territory of Minesota were presented.

A patent was obtained by Mr. Bain for telegraphing—a line has been projected from New York to Boston and Halifax, on which it is to be used, under the direction of Mr. O'Reilly.

A serious riot occurred at Baltimore at a ball given by the Patapsco Riflemen. During the evening an attack was made upon the party by a fire company. Several persons were seriously wounded. During the attack some of the assailants penetrated the passage, and succeeded in turning off the meter which supplied the ball room with gas, leaving them instantly in total darkness. The screams of the females, of whom there were about a hundred present, the firing of pistols, and throwing of bricks by the assailants, together with their shouts and imprecations, made up a scene scarcely to be described.

5th. The President sent to congress his annual message.

Extraordinary Telegraphic feat. For the purpose of testing the availability of the lightning line, Messrs. O'Reilly of the Atlantic and Lake Telegraph company, and H. J. Rogers, of the American Telegraph company, stationed their most experienced operators on the

various lines under their charge, extending from Baltimore, Maryland, to St. Louis, Missouri, and undertook the arduous task of transmitting the entire President's message verbatim from Baltimore to St. Louis. This document contained about 50,000 words! The work was commenced and finished in 24 hours.

In its progress to St. Louis, the message was dropped at the following stations on the line, viz. York, Harrisburg, Carlisle, Chambersburg, Bedford, and Pittsburgh, in Pennsylvania; Massillon, Cleveland, Zanesville, Columbus, Dayton, and Cincinnati, in Ohio; Madison and Evansville, in Indiana; Louisville, in Kentucky, and Saline, in Illinois. A large portion of the message reached Buffalo, New York, but the connexion was broken off by a storm prevailing at that end of the line before its completion; it was also received at the minor intermediate stations between Baltimore and Evansville, Indiana—the above places having all acknowledged its receipt entire. This is truly a wonderful performance.

REBUILDING OF THE TEMPLE.—The Jews, both here and in Europe, are just now making great efforts to raise subscriptions for the rebuilding of the temple of Jerusalem,—permission to that effect having been given them by the Turkish government. The subject has been in agitation in this city of late, and at the Hebrew festival the other evening, at the Coliseum, it was prominently discussed. Among the guests there, not mentioned in our report of proceedings, was a Greek Rabbi, who comes here specially commissioned to raise money for the enterprise in question; and we are told his errand, thus far, has been pretty liberally rewarded. The Rabbi goes south, we are told, and, before going back to Europe, will visit the eastern states. However chimerical this new movement may appear, we confess to us there seems a sublimity of purpose about it which must claim the respect at least, if not the sympathy, of all Christendom.—*N. Y. Express.*

The king of Prussia has, by a decree, dissolved the assembly called together for “concording a constitution;” and at the same time granted a charter to the nation. The main points of this new constitution we give, as exhibiting the spirit of the times:

“Personal freedom is guaranteed by virtue of the habeas corpus act of September 24, 1848. The domicile is inviolate, and the punishment of death and confiscation of property are abolished. Freedom of religious worship is secured; the right of the general education of the people is guaranteed; every Prussian may freely express his opinions; freedom of the press is conceded without censorship or pecuniary security; public meetings may be held in houses without restraint, in the open air by permission of the police; the secrecy of the post is inviolate; several feudal privileges are abolished; the king is not responsible, but his ministers are; there are to be two chambers, the first composed of 180 members, to be elected by the provincial circle and district re-

presentatives, and to sit for six years; the second to consist of 350 members, to be elected indirectly by universal suffrage, and directly by electors in the second degree, that is, by electors chosen by general suffrage; no property qualification required for either chamber."

7th. President Roberts, of the republic of Liberia, embarked from England for Africa in a government ship. His reception in Europe has been most flattering. He is the son of a pious methodist mulatto, and not many years since was a hand on board of a lighter, upon the Appomattock river, at Petersburg, Va. He has contributed as a civilian and soldier to the establishment of the colony at Liberia; was a brave general, an enterprising merchant, the first coloured governor, and as its honoured chief magistrate, has had personal interviews with Lord Palmerston, Gen. Cavaignac, and Queen Victoria; and made treaties with the governments of England and France. He has left a young daughter to be educated in one of the first seminaries in England.

8th. An attempt was made to rob the sub-treasury, New York, by a boy sixteen or seventeen years of age. One of the porters found him concealed in a large box in the basement. His name was Judson,—he had run away from home. On being searched, the following articles were found upon him:—Several books, "The Life of Monroe Edwards," "The Life of Dr. Jennings, the celebrated victimizer," "The Newgate Calendar," and "Traveller's Guide;" a pair of handsome revolving pistols, one of which was loaded and capped; a flask of powder, bullets and moulds; a box of matches and two short sperm candles; a pair of false whiskers and moustaches; a piece of yellow ochre, used to discolour the skin, and make one look older; \$45 in gold; and last, but not least, a small bottle of chloroform and a sponge. The latter, his intention doubtless was, to administer to the watchman.

The first deposite of gold from California was made in the mint at Philadelphia. The average fineness, on being assayed, was found to be 894 thousandths, which is a little below the standard fineness, 900. It is about equal to the Virginia gold.

Hostilities commenced between the Imperialists and Hungarians—Jellachich arrived on the banks of the Leitna. The Magyar army of Kossuth is said to exceed 100,000 men. The excesses committed were very great; above two hundred villages and small towns have been burnt within a few weeks.

9th. The cholera at the quarantine, New York, still continued at this date. During the preceding week there were thirty-six cases, fifteen of which proved fatal.

Gen. Worth arrived at Pittsburgh, on his way to take charge of the military department of Texas, New Mexico, &c. He was received at his landing by a large assemblage of the citizens, who gave him an enthusiastic welcome.

10th. (Sunday.) Louis Napoleon Bonaparte elected President of the French Republic. The number of votes in his favour was 5,534,520, nearly four-fifths of all the votes polled.

11th. A serious difficulty occurred in the Ohio Legislature, which, at this date, was convened at Columbus, growing out of a law passed the preceding winter, organizing the assembly and senatorial districts. The democrats got possession of one side of the house, and the whigs of the other; both had separate organizations, but neither the necessary number to proceed to business. The latter adjourned from time to time; the former maintained their position for several days, eating and sleeping in their seats. After a war of words, in which the most offensive terms were used, a compromise was at length effected.

Mr. Douglas introduced this day a bill into the United States Senate for the admission of California into the Union as a state.

A meeting of the citizens of Upper California has been held at Puebla de San Jose, for the purpose of considering the establishment of a territorial government. They recommended a general convention, and appointed delegates to attend it. Other meetings were called with the like intention.

A provisional government proclaimed in Rome. The Pope having fled from Rome on the 24th November, his temporal deposition has now been proclaimed by the Romans.

12th. Mr. Benton presented to the Senate the petition of the people of New Mexico, assembled in convention, soliciting the speedy organization by law of a territorial government. They stated that New Mexico contained from 75,000 to 100,000 souls; protested against the dismemberment of their territory, and against domestic slavery. The petition was characterized by Mr. Calhoun as "insolent," coming as it did from the people of a conquered territory. This led to an angry debate between him and Mr. Benton.

13th. The fleet of Paez defeated by the government squadron of Venezuela.

15th. The opening of the Spanish cortes at Madrid.

The postal treaty between the United States and Great Britain exchanged in London.

16th. The Park theatre in New York burnt; the property destroyed estimated at \$60,000. The Park theatre was first built in the year 1796; altered and improved in 1806; leased by Messrs. Edmund Simpson and Stephen Price in 1816; burnt down in 1820; rebuilt in 1821; altered, improved, and leased by Mr. Hamblin a few months since, and now once more destroyed by fire.

18th. The cholera at this date was on the increase both in the London district and in the provinces, as well as in Scotland. The total number of

cases from the first was 6,506, of which 2,948 died, and 1,249 had recovered, leaving 2,819 under treatment. It broke out with fresh violence among the pauper children of London.

The official journal of the kingdom of Poland contains the following statistics of the cholera since its first appearance to the 18th December:—Warsaw, 4,086 cases—2,445 recovered, 1,623 died; Government of Warsaw, exclusive of the capital, 11,804 cases—5,547 recovered, 6,145 died; Government of Lublin, 15,355 cases—8,623 recovered, 6,626 died; Government of Radon, 4,607 cases—1,920 recovered, 2,380 died; Government of Plock, 7,317 cases—3,233 recovered, 4,610 died; Government of Augustowow, 8,046 cases—5,217 recovered, 2,775 died. Total, 51,214 cases—26,985 recovered, 23,560 died.

The California fever has raged in England quite as violently as it has done here. Great numbers of vessels were up for the gold region, some carrying passengers to Chagrés, others to Galveston, &c.; rates ranging from £25 upwards. All sorts of schemes for raising companies and capital were advertised. One of the companies alone proposed to raise a capital of £600,000, reserving half to be taken in the United States.

20th. The official proclamation of Prince Louis Napoleon, as President of the French people, took place after the following manner:—On Wednesday evening, 20th, Gen. Changarnier ordered the Tuilleries to be closed, and had all the issues leading to the Hall of Assembly guarded by detachments of National Guards. The debate in the Chamber was going on. A member was speaking, when a noise was heard outside, and the moment after a number of representatives entered, Gen. Lebreton (in full uniform) at their head, and followed by M. Veillard and others. M. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte took his place near M. O. Barrot.

An immense agitation then ensued, and it was utterly impossible for the discussion to go on.

The President of the assembly, in a loud voice, though somewhat broken with emotion, then said:—In the name of the French people, before God, and in presence of the National Assembly—seeing that Louis Napoleon Bonaparte has obtained the absolute majority required by Arts. 47 and 48 of the constitution—I proclaim him to be President of the French Republic democratic, one and indivisible, from the present day to the second Sunday of May, 1852. I invite the new President to come forward and take the oath required by the Constitution. [M. Louis Napoleon then came forward and ascended the tribune.] The following is the oath:—

“Before God, and in the presence of the French people, represented by the National Assembly, I swear to remain faithful to the Republic, and that I shall always forward its interests in all respects.”

M. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, in a loud voice:—"I swear." [The loudest cries of *Vive la République!* here arose; one voice responding with the cry of *Vive la Constitution!*]

21st. Mr. Gott's resolution instructing the committee to report a bill favourable to the abolition of the slave traffic in the District of Columbia passed the House of Representatives by a vote of 98 to 87; 46 members absent.

22d. The caucus of the southern members of Congress was held in the Senate chamber, in reference to southern rights and interests. Ex-Governor Metcalfe, of Kentucky, presided: between sixty and seventy members were present. A series of resolutions were offered, and referred to a committee consisting of one member from each of the slave-holding states.

23d. A horrible murder and suicide was committed in New York, by Francis Geiger, a German, in a fit of jealousy. A woman of the name of Maria Kloster, to whom he was attached, had gone to live with Frederick W. Marks. Geiger entered the dwelling where they resided, and first attacked Marks with a knife, inflicting several wounds, which proved fatal. He then directed his weapon against Maria, wounding her severely; and believing her to be dead, he placed the knife to his breast, and took his own life. Upon the coming in of the police, Marks and Geiger were dead, but Maria revived, and afterwards recovered from the effects of her wounds.

24th. Severe battle in Yucatan, between the American auxiliaries under Cols. White and Besancon, and the Indians under the chief Pat.

25th. A grand banquet of democratic socialist women was held at Paris, at which eight hundred women, men, and children were present. Says Galignani's Messenger:—"The first speech delivered was by a woman, and was, we understand, called the 'Sermon on the Mount,' in which socialism was enjoined in the name of Christ. This was followed by toasts of '*A la Fraternité universelle!*' by Mme. Simon; '*A l'Avènement du Règne de Dieu sur la Terre!*' by Mme. Desroches, and '*A la Liberté!*' by Mme. Candelot. M. Pierre Leroux addressed the company in a short speech, which he concluded with saying:—"Jesus Christ, our redeemer, has not created castes. We socialists, therefore, take off the veil in which the priests have wished to envelop for ever the altars of truth." Mme. Granet delivered a rhapsody on the subject of Christmas, into which she contrived to introduce the names of Saint Simon and Fourier. M. Hervé delivered an apology for Saint Just, and finished with proposing his name as a toast, in conjunction with those of Couthon and Robespierre.

26th. The cultivation of the tea-plant commenced in Greenville, South

Carolina, by Mr. Junius Smith. Over five hundred plants were set out, mostly in a thriving condition. Some seed had been previously sown on the 16th.

The New Haven Railroad opened to New York.

The New York and Erie Railroad opened to Binghamton, N. Y.

27th. ARABIAN CALVES.—The two calves procured by Lieutenant Lynch in his Dead Sea expedition, and presented by him, through the Secretary of the Navy, to the agriculturists of Virginia, were brought to Richmond. The "Compiler" says they are very interesting animals, differing in many respects from the American or English stocks. They are red, like most of the Devonshire breed, but are taller and more slender. Their heads and limbs remind one very much of the deer. They are perfectly gentle, and, considering their six months' confinement on board ship, are in remarkably good condition. Their age is ten months, and their height is uncommon.

28th. A dinner was given, at the Astor House, to Col. Duncan, and a gold medal presented.

29th. A violent snow storm in New York and vicinity.

30th. A sword was presented, at Albany, to General Wool, by the Legislature of the state. The ceremony was very imposing.

31st. The insurgents of Venezuela were surprised by the troops of President Monagas, and totally routed. The three sons of Gen. Paez were taken prisoners.

RAILROADS AT THE CLOSE OF THE YEAR 1848.—The Railroad Journal, summing up the extraordinary influences of railroads upon the country and upon the world; says it may be safely estimated that the entire expenditure, within the last twenty-five years, in the projection and construction of railroads, will not fall short of one thousand millions of dollars; and that their influences in facilitating business, in reducing the expenses and *time* of travel, and in opening up new regions of country, has given an *increased* value to property of *twice* that amount; and yet their influences are only just *beginning* to be felt.

RUSS PAVEMENT.—Besides the improvements just mentioned in rail roads, we might record many others of the past year, did our limits permit.

We deem it proper, however, to mention one which has not received, we think, all the notice it deserves; we mean the RUSS PAVEMENT. It has been satisfactorily proven to be far superior to common cobble stone pavement, and indeed, to any other. The experiment made in the city of New York, having been entirely successful, has given to the ingenious and enterprising inventor a place among the benefactors of the public. The improvement consists in grading the street so that the centre or

crown rises seven inches above the gutter stones; granite chips, with the flat side up, are rammed down flush with the grading; to this is added a concrete foundation of hydraulic cement, broken stone and coarse sand six inches in thickness—when this is fully consolidated, the superstructure is laid, consisting of green stone blocks, from ten to eighteen inches long, and from five to twelve inches wide and ten inches deep, so as to form the ranges of stone into lozenge form, by which the edges are presented diagonally to the wheel-tire of carriages or to any other passing weight. Wooden frames or panels, of the best pine, are placed over each sewer, pipe and branch beneath. The construction of the whole is admirable for its solidity and durability. It saves an important item in city expenses for repairing old pavements, and to all who pass over it, is invaluable for the ease and comfort which it gives.

WESTERN STEAMERS LOST.—The Pittsburgh Journal gives an account of 55 steamboats lost during the past year, on the western rivers alone.

Of this aggregate there were <i>snagged</i>	-	-	-	24
Lost by collision	-	-	-	6
Boilers exploded	-	-	-	6
Burnt	-	-	-	19
				55

Of the whole number there were raised and restored to service but 3

This leaves a clear loss of 52 steamers, precisely *one boat* per week for the year.

It is a remarkable circumstance that the number of boats lost on the whole western waters, in the year, corresponds exactly with the number of steamboats built, or finished and registered at the single port of Pittsburgh, during the same time. One boat per week lost, and one boat per week fitted out at Pittsburgh, in the year 1848.

JANUARY, 1849.

Jan. 1st. The New York legislature convened, and Governor Hamilton Fish was installed into office.—His message is an able document. With Governor Johnson of Pennsylvania, he takes strong ground against slavery in the new territories. He represents the state credit to be very high.

2d. The Augusta Bank robbed of \$21,000. A reward of \$1,000 was offered. Two brothers of the name of Wingate, charged with the crime, were arrested with an accomplice, after a desperate fight, at Braintree, Massachusetts. The money was all recovered.

The cholera, since the 20th December, had prevailed to an alarming extent in New Orleans. In forty-eight hours 166 died and

20,000 people left the city. At the New York quarantine the cases were diminishing, and no new cases had occurred in the city.

Professor A. C. Bache, the learned and able superintendent of coast survey, reported on the use of a galvanic circuit connected with an astronomical clock, of which Dr. Locke of Cincinnati claims to be the inventor. Mr. Bache says, that "the number of observations which can be made in a given period is many times increased—the specimens received of recording by the electro-magnetic clock entirely fulfil all the conditions required by the astronomer." It may be used on a line of any length at pleasure. The clock and astronomer may be a thousand miles apart. He prints the date of an astronomical event by tapping on a *break circuit* key, and imprints a small *break circuit space* on the registering line of seconds.

Congress has appropriated \$10,000 to apply the discovery.

The annual report of the national division of the SONS OF TEMPERANCE for the year 1848 presents a very flattering condition.

Number of divisions in the United States, - - -	2,651
" Members initiated during the past year, -	88,237
Whole number of members, - - - - -	149,372
Whole amount of receipts of subordinate divisions in the United States, - - - - -	\$475,987 57
Whole amount of benefits paid out, - - - - -	140,058 39
" " cash on hand, - - - - -	208,666 68
Number of deaths, - - - - -	772

5th. The postal treaty was ratified by the senate and officially noticed by Cave Johnson, who informed his subordinates throughout the States of its conclusion, rescinded his former orders, and directed them to observe the new stipulations, the principal of which are as follows:

Postage across the sea, sixteen cents. English inland postage, three cents. United States inland postage, five cents. The sea postage paid to the vessel performing the service. Transit rate through this country to Canada, five cents: twenty-five per cent. for paying by the ounce, instead of paying by letter. Transit through England, the inland postage and twenty-five per cent. Transit through Canada, the Canadian rates. Newspapers between England and the United States, and vice versa, two cents. Periodicals weighing two ounces, one penny, or two cents. Over two ounces, and under three, six pence, or twelve cents. Over three ounces, and under six, eight pence, or sixteen cents. And two pence, or four cents for each ounce or fraction.

Maj. Lewis Cass, jr., was confirmed by the senate as chargé to Rome.

6th. The message of Governor Johnson of Pennsylvania, was sent to the legislature; he declares himself favourable to the protection of American industry; opposed to the institution of slavery. He pays a high tribute to the memory of his predecessor, Governor Shunk.

During the past year, three thousand three hundred and forty-two volumes have been added to the library of the Boston Athenæum by purchase, and eight hundred and thirty by gifts. There have also been purchased eleven thousand pamphlets and seven thousand, three hundred and ninety-three have been received as donations. Among the latter is a very valuable collection, six thousand in number, belonging to the late John Quincy Adams. These were presented by his son, the Hon. Charles Francis Adams. The Athenæum library now contains about fifty thousand bound volumes, and one hundred thousand pamphlets.

6th. The secretary of the Smithsonian Institution reported to the agents on the subject of libraries in the United States.

The aggregate number of volumes in these libraries is, one million two hundred and ninety-four thousand. The number of libraries is one hundred and eighty-two. Of these, forty-three contain over ten thousand volumes each, nine over twenty thousand, and only two over fifty thousand.

These statistics suggest an instructive comparison between our libraries and those of the principal nations of Europe.

In the number of public libraries, France is the only country in the world which excels us. She has two hundred and forty-one.

In the aggregate number of volumes, Germany with five and a half millions, France, with about five millions, Great Britain with perhaps two and a half millions, and Russia, with one and a half millions, take rank of us.

In the average size of libraries containing over ten thousand volumes, we are the last of all.

In the size of the largest library, we are also last of all.

In the number of volumes, compared with the population, we are below all but Russia and Spain.

7th. Buda and Pesth, in Hungary, had been hemmed in by the imperialists—and Jellachich was reported to have obtained some advantages over Kossuth, the Hungarian leader.

Further contests are reported in Spain between the Carlist and government troops.

The news from India is disheartening to the British authorities. The city of Moultan had been taken by storm, but Lord Gough, who seems to be deficient in scientific generalship, was hemmed in by the Sikh leaders.

The St. Petersburg Journal speaks with much satisfaction of the amicable relations between the pope and the emperor, since the convention signed between them in August, 1847.

8th. Riot among the labourers on the canal at Buffalo—the military called out to quell them.

The cholera was subsiding at New Orleans. There have been many

cases on the western rivers at the principal places, Louisville, Memphis, Cincinnati, &c.

This disease attacked the 8th regiment of infantry at Port Lavacca, Texas, and carried off from twenty to thirty a day, for several days, when the survivors left the place.

The season now became remarkably cold. The Mississippi, at St. Louis, was entirely frozen over. The Potomac, the Allegany and Monongahela, were closed with ice—and the cholera disappeared as the cold increased.

In New Orleans, the reported deaths were as follows:

	Asiatic Cholera.	Chol.	Total.		Asiatic Cholera.
Week ending Dec. 16	3	14	17	December 29	84
December 16 to 21	53	34	87	December 30	77
December 22	39	7	46	December 31	71
December 23	56	15	71	January 1	67
December 24	76	8	84	January 2	84
December 25	69	8	77	January 3	67
December 26	8	46	54	January 4	39
December 27	22	39	61	January 5	44
December 28	4	88	92		

Whole number of deaths from cholera, one thousand, one hundred and fifteen,—reported Asiatic eight hundred and seventy; cholera otherwise designated, two hundred and forty-five. This total, added to the deaths on the sixth, seventh and eighth, makes one thousand one hundred and eighty-nine deaths up to the latter date.

13th. The convention of the coloured freemen of the state of Ohio, met at Columbus, in the Methodist Episcopal church; Charles Langston, President. The address was by William H. Day, a young coloured man from the Oberlin institute.

14th. The splendid steamer Empire State, was totally destroyed by fire during the last night, while at Fall river. She was insured for one hundred thousand dollars, but her cost was one hundred and fifty thousand dollars. Fortunately no lives were lost.

16th. Hon. John B. Weller, of Ohio, appointed commissioner to run the boundary line between the United States and Mexico.

PANAMA.—The passengers by the Falcon, two hundred and one in number, and those by the John Benson, about fifty, all reached Panama in safety. The natives about Chagres were much astonished at the irruption of these northern Argonauts, and more especially at the quantity of luggage they carried; there being among the party one thousand seven hundred trunks, and one hundred tons of other baggage. No passenger was sick at Chagres. The letters from Panama do not speak of any crowd of persons there awaiting conveyance to the north.

17th. The annual meeting of the American colonization society was held at Washington; the Hon. Henry Clay was unanimously chosen President, and sixty-five other gentlemen, of all sections of the United States, as well as of England, Vice Presidents. The list contains many of the most distinguished names of the nation, including Gen. Scott, Theodore Frelinghuysen, R. J. Walker, Thomas Corwin, Bishop Waugh, Daniel Webster, Bishop Soule, etc.

23d. The southern manifesto was adopted as prepared by Mr. Calhoun—Senators Rusk, Berrien, Houston, and others dissenting. It sets forth the complaints of the south against the north on the subject of slavery in very strong terms.

24th. The Massachusetts anti-slavery society met—among other resolutions passed was one declaring “that the church which does not make the immediate abolition of slavery its special concern is not worthy to be recognised as a church of Christ.” An amendment proposed by Mr. S. Mitchell, to the following effect, *was lost*: “that as the American church has been fully proved to be the bulwark of slavery, we believe the time has come when it should be destroyed root and branch.”

The Supreme court of the United States decided against the constitutionality of the acts of Massachusetts and New York, imposing a tax on passengers coming into those ports from abroad, on the ground that they are regulations of commerce contrary to the constitutional provision, and to the spirit of the laws of congress admitting foreigners free of duty; that they interfere with the powers of Congress, &c. The chief justice and other judges dissented.

26th. In a libel suit lately tried in New York, in which M. Y. Beach & Sons were defendants, the jury rendered a verdict of \$10,000 for having stated that the defendant (a broker,) had stolen, when changing money.

The verdict was rendered in an unusual and extra-judicial form, in these words:—“We return a verdict for the full amount claimed, \$10,000, *as security for the public against the publication by newspapers of libels against individuals.*”

The supreme court of the United States have decided the Governor Dorr case, affirming the judgment of the circuit court, which sustains the chartered government. Among other points decided was one that the legislature of Rhode Island had power to declare martial law; from which Judge Woodbury dissented.

THE RICE CULTURE ABATED AS A NUISANCE.—Believing that the rice fields in the vicinity of Savannah were detrimental to the health of the city, the mayor and aldermen passed ordinances prohibiting the culture of rice within certain limits. From the decree in the court below, sustaining the ordinances, an appeal was taken by Thomas Green,

the owner of a rice plantation, but the supreme court affirmed the original decision.

27th. The judges of the court of Queen's bench in England, have overruled the errors assigned in the cases of Smith O'Brien and his associates; any hope, therefore, of overturning the verdict is presumed to be hopeless.

In Rome, preparations were making for the election of members to the constituent assembly. The protest of the Pope has been without effect. In France, the question on the dissolution of the national assembly had been carried.

Austria has withdrawn from the circle of the central authority at Frankfort, and the action of the diet is surrounded with difficulties.

30th. The ice in the Susquehanna renders it impassible at Havre de Grace, thus preventing the use of the direct rail-road line between Philadelphia and Baltimore.

The Medical College at Geneva, N. Y., has conferred the degree of M. D. on a woman, who is reported to have passed through the whole course of study, and strictly attended at the dissecting rooms, not only without evincing the least annoyance, but on the contrary, proving herself a very close inquirer. The professors have declined receiving any more students of the gentler sex, though it is said that many have since applied for admittance.

FEBRUARY.

Feb. 1st. The parliament of Great Britain was opened by the Queen in person.

Sir H. L. Bulwer is appointed to succeed Mr. Pakenham as minister to the United States.

The steamships Atlantic and Pacific, the first of the United States mail steamers to Liverpool, were launched into the East river, N. Y., in the presence of thousands of spectators. They are said to be the most magnificent specimens of naval architecture in the world.

M. Boulay has been elected vice president of France. His salary is \$9,600.

2d. A murder which caused a great sensation was committed in Cincinnati, at this date. A Mrs. Howard, the discarded wife of Captain John C. Howard, of Cincinnati, called at her husband's boarding-house, and desired to see a lady to whom he had been married subsequently to the divorce. The second wife made her appearance, and was instantly attacked by Mrs. Howard, who plunged a knife into her throat, inflicting a wound from the effects of which the unfortunate woman died in a few minutes. The murderess boasted of the deed, and was soon afterwards arrested. It appears that Captain Howard

had deprived her of her children by violence and without legal authority, and that she was almost frantic with jealousy and the agony occasioned by this unwarrantable act.

The *Mormons* recently held a meeting in Wales. The hall, capable of containing 1500, was incapable of holding all those who sought for admittance. The platform contained from 60 to 100 "officers." The chair was taken by "Captain Dan Jones," when the following particulars relative to the society in Wales were stated—10 conferences; 1,001 baptized during the last six months; total baptized in the year, 1,939; (very few excluded;) 70 branches, 156 elders, 180 priests, 147 teachers, 67 deacons.

England and Wales with a population of 16,000,000 contain nearly 8,000,000 unable to write their names.

The cholera was making sad havoc in Paisley, Scotland. Out of three hundred cases, which occurred during one month, one hundred and forty-four died. The reports state that fully one-half of those attacked were carried off in from five to ten hours' illness. In Edinburgh and the western towns it has also been very severe, though it has as yet been generally confined to the poorer classes. In Glasgow it has almost disappeared. The treatment generally resorted to in Scotland is of a mild and soothing character; such as simple gruels, with a little hot brandy punch, with from twenty to thirty drops of the tincture of opium every hour until the vomiting subsides;—these, with well heated blankets, and, as far as possible, the keeping of the patient's mind at ease, have, as yet, proved the best means of restoration.

5th. Dr. Anderson secretary of the American Board of Foreign Missions, in an address which he delivered at Washington city, stated that the society during thirty seven years of its operations, had disbursed \$5,000,000, and, that \$275,000 were needed for the operations of the ensuing year, and \$60,000 more to pay off its debts.

Submarine Telegraph.—A memorial was recently presented to congress, by Horatio Hubbell and John H. Sherburne, for aid to establish a telegraphic communication between this continent and Europe. They state that there is incontestable evidence of a submarine table land, extending from Cape Race in Newfoundland, across the Atlantic Ocean to the Headlands of Dingle Bay in Ireland, being about 1900 miles. They propose to station buoys at five miles distant from each other, and a coated telegraphic wire to be attached to them.

7th. BRITISH HONDURAS.—At the last accounts the whole country was in an unsettled state, and it was unsafe travelling; robberies and murders were of frequent occurrence; all, without discrimination, were the victims of the Indians. The road from Ysabal to Guatemala was filled with bandits. Yucatan is in a most deplorable condition. Accounts from Bacalar state that a large number of dead bodies of mur-

dered Spaniards were strewn in every direction in the neighbourhood of Bacalar, no one daring to bury them.

We may mention, in this place, the return of the American regiment to New Orleans about the 1st March. It was disbanded in Yucatan. Governor Barbachano having violated all his promises to the volunteers after their hard-fought battles. 250 arrived in New Orleans. Captain Kelly remained with one company.

The great prize fight between Sullivan and Hyer, two pugilists from New York, took place in Kent county, Maryland. Great numbers attended to see the fight. The authorities endeavoured to prevent it, but were unsuccessful. It caused an intense excitement throughout the country. Hyer was arrested, subsequently, and is now on trial for the offence. He was the winner after fighting sixteen rounds. His antagonist was terribly beaten. The whole affair was disgraceful and brutal; but still the victor was greeted by the crowd on his return with cheers. It is hoped that no similar scene will again be permitted.

9th. The republic proclaimed at Rome—and the formal deposition of the temporal power of the pope.

10th. Heavy damages, for injuries sustained in a rail-road car, were recently awarded at Herkimer, New York. In the case of *Bennett vs. the Utica and Schenectady Rail-road Company*, a verdict of \$10,000 was awarded the plaintiff. It appears that "on a Sunday" in last May, the plaintiff took passage on board of one of the defendant's cars, as a "dead head," or *free* passenger, and there was a collision, in which two persons were killed, and three or four more or less injured, and among them the plaintiff, who was maimed for life.—The court decided that his being a *free* passenger did not lessen the responsibility of the defendants, and that they should be punished more severely, because they were running on the Sabbath, which was contrary to custom.

The president sent in to congress his message in relation to the Mexican Protocol. See documents.

12th. The civil and diplomatic bill being under discussion in the senate, an amendment, to *abolish flogging in the Navy*, was negatived by a decided vote.

13th. The governor of Maine commuted the sentence of Dr. Coolidge, the murderer, to imprisonment for life.

14th. The electoral votes for president and vice president were counted in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, Honourable George M. Dallas, vice president, presiding, who declared the result to be 163 votes for Taylor and Fillmore, and 127 for Cass and Butler.

15th. A dreadful catastrophe occurred at Hempstead, Long Island. The house of Mr. Miller was burned, and his wife and five children perished in the flames. To complete the horror of the affair, Miller was arrested, charged with the commission of the act, and the murder of his own family. He is said to have presented the appearance of a broken-hearted man, crushed to the earth by this second blow. After an examination he was released. He is a respectable farmer.

16th. A man of the name of Joseph Kelsey, died at Buffalo at an advanced age, who had been an inhabitant of that city for twenty years. Many years ago he was arrested on a charge of murder, but acquitted. He kept a small hotel at the foot of Main street. Being informed that his death was near, he made a confession of several robberies committed by him of guests at his house, and also of the murder of which he had been acquitted.

20th. *Indian Republic.* Governor Fish, of New York, transmitted to the legislature a message, informing that body of the application on the part of a portion of the Seneca Indians for the recognition of a new form of government which they propose for their nation, with a written constitution, legislature, council, &c., and abolishing the old government of chiefs. It seems the Indian commissioner at Washington approved of the movement. There is also an adverse delegation at Albany, who insist upon retaining the ancient form of chief-government. They have been heard before the committee of the Legislature. These Indians reside in the state of New York, on reservations at Cattaraugus, Allegheny, &c., and are subject to the laws of the state. How they can remain subject to those laws and form a republic and enjoy a government of their own would seem to be a difficult question. The authority of the chiefs now is almost nominal, and necessarily so, for they have no power to enforce laws or to punish offences without violating the paramount jurisdiction of that state. What better authority could the new executive or legislature have? Their plan of a republic might have been realized had they removed west as the Cherokees have done, where they could have enjoyed the powers of an independent government in a territory of their own.

In connexion with Indian matters, we may here notice the fact that Hon. WM. MEDILL, the able commissioner of Indian affairs, some time since bought out all the right of the Menominee Indians in the territory of Wisconsin, whereby the United States have acquired the title to 4,000,000 acres of new territory in Wisconsin, embracing land on the Fox and Wisconsin rivers, and laid down in the recent maps as parts of Brown, Portage, and Wisconsin counties. It embraces little and big Bull Falls, Whitney's Mills, &c., &c.

The treaty is a very fair one for both parties. The Indians get about \$300,000; and, out of this, a specific sum is set apart for a manual-labour school, a grist mill, blacksmith's shop, and the support

of a miller for fifteen years. The Indians remove themselves, and thus save those operations which are gone into by contractors in their removal. There are no reservations for speculators. Thus the whole matter is a plain business transaction between the Indians and the government. There are no reserves in the matter to make trouble.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.—The Hon. Henry Clay has been elected by the legislature of Kentucky, General Lewis Cass by the legislature of Michigan, and the Hon. William H. Seward by the legislature of New York, as United States Senators, for six years from the 4th of March next. See list of Senators, p. 121.

23d. The President elect, General Taylor and suite, arrived in Washington. The next day the Vice President, Mr. Fillmore, arrived.

On the 26th, they were waited on by a committee of congress and informed of their election.

The President's family, consisting of Mrs. Taylor and Colonel Bliss and lady, arrived in Washington before him. On his journey from his residence in Louisiana to Washington, whilst stopping at Frankfort, Kentucky, General Taylor was presented by the ladies of that place with a beautiful copy of the Bible. His answer is well worth recording, and was in these words: "I accept with gratitude and pleasure your gift of this inestimable volume. It was for their love of the truths of this great and good book that our fathers abandoned their native shores for the wilderness. Animated by its lofty principles, they toiled and suffered till the desert blossomed as the rose. These same truths sustained them in their resolution to become a free nation. And guided by the wisdom of this book, they founded a government under which we have grown from three millions to more than twenty millions of people, and from being but a speck on the borders of this continent, we have spread from the Atlantic to the Pacific. I trust that their principles of liberty may extend, if without bloodshed, from the northern to the southern extremities of this continent. If there were in that book nothing but its great precept, 'All things whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so unto them,' and that precept were obeyed by us, our government might be extended with safety over the whole continent."

25th. PANAMA.—The accounts at this date state that there were about 1800 persons on the isthmus, waiting the means of transportation to San Francisco. At Panama alone the number was estimated at 1100, all well and in good health. At Valparaiso and Callao persons would have paid them as high as \$600 for a passage in the steamer Oregon. A great many persons here have no tickets on the Pacific side, and have offered as high as \$500 for a ticket.

A correspondent of the "Boston Traveller," writing from Panama, says:—

"All the accounts from the gold region are of the most flattering

character. Two men arrived here, the other day, from thence, as is here stated, with \$750,000 in gold, and chartered a brig at Chagres for Charleston, S. C."

26th. The reports from California continue to excite the most intense interest in Europe. The excitement has now extended to all classes. The French Government has despatched an engineer to California, with the object of surveying the discoveries.

The British Parliament has voted £50,000 for the relief of Ireland; and at the same time passed a bill to continue for a time longer the suspension of the habeas corpus act. Ireland is becoming poorer every day: the heart of the nation seems broken. The trial of Gavan Duffy has fallen through: the jury did not agree.

The new Assembly of France will meet in May. The President, Louis Napoleon, is increasingly popular.

Persia is at present disturbed by a serious rebellion. An army sent by the Shah to suppress it joined the insurgents, and it was announced that they would march against the Shah, with the intention of de-throning him.

In the British Parliament, Mr. Cobden's proposition for a financial reform was negatived by a majority of 197.

The news from Europe confirm the prior accounts that a central Italian Republic is being formed in connexion with the Romans. The Prince of Canino (M. Bonaparte) is declared President of the Roman Republic. The revolution in Tuscany is complete. The Pope has sought aid from Austria to restore him, and Radetsky entered Ferrara,* levied a contribution of 200,000 scudi, and sent it to the Pope. The executive Committee of Rome thereupon issued the following proclamation:—

"Romans:—The territory of the Republic has been violated by the implacable enemies of Italy. The Austrians have crossed the Po, and threatened Ferrara. Among the pretexts they adduce for their occupation there is the fact of the republican government having been proclaimed by us. Austria, hard pressed by internal revolution—trembling on account of the victories of the Hungarians—attempts a desperate blow, in the hope that the Italians are still in discord when the common enemy is to be fought. Facts will prove the contrary. Our cause is the cause of Italy, and this invasion will prove how great is the affection of all the people of our peninsula for our independence. The generous people of the Romagna and of Bologna, who drove away the Austrians at the time when the sacerdotal caste still weighed upon us, will do it now with still greater vigour and energy. The republican spirit redoubles the strength of the body; and, supported by the universal consent of the people, the government of the republic has taken all those measures which have ever, in difficult times, saved na-

* Since evacuated by the Austrians.

tions from slavery and dishonour. The Minister of War is hastening to Bologna, and troops of the line, bodies of civic mobilized guard, and volunteers, are on their way to repel the enemy.”

In India, the British forces under Lord Gough have suffered severely at the hands of the valiant Sikhs. The “Bombay Telegraph” says another murderous conflict with the Sikhs has occurred on the left bank of the river Ithel, between the army of the Punjab, under Lord Gough, and the Sikh force—the Sikhs under Rajah Shwere Singh. A struggle in which the British have to deplore the loss of 93 officers and 2,500 men, killed and wounded—four guns captured, and four or five regimental colours taken by the enemy. The struggle terminated in victory, but was disgraced by the flight of the Bengal cavalry regiments, and the retreat, as yet scarcely satisfactorily explained, of two British corps of dragoons.

Sir C. Napier has been sent out from England to supersede Lord Gough in the command.

The victories, too, claimed by the Austrians over the Magyars are said to be such victories as will soon bring the latter to the gates of Vienna, unless they are checked.

27th. A mysterious and tragical affair occurred in New York at this date—the death of Mrs. Walker, the lady whose abduction as Mrs. Miller, some years since, caused a great sensation. She was found shot by a pistol in the house where she resided. Her husband, Mr. Walker, was arrested, and is supposed to have killed her in a fit of jealousy. He alleges that she shot herself.

28th. A terrible shipwreck occurred on the Long Lands Coast of England. The American brig Floridian, Capt. Whitmore, having on board nearly 200 German emigrant passengers from Amherst, foundered, and only four were saved. The vessel struck with such fatal violence, that she immediately went to pieces, and the unfortunate beings aboard were precipitated into the deep.

THE IMPORTANT TELEGRAPH CASES lately argued in Washington have excited considerable public attention. In the one case, before Judge Catron, the contest was between Messrs. O'Reilly and Morse; in the other, before Judge Cranch, between Messrs. Bain and Morse.

The first was an application, on the part of Mr. Morse, for an injunction against Mr. O'Reilly on account of the telegraph lines constructed by him in Tennessee. Very able counsel were engaged—Gov. Seward on the part of Mr. Morse, Gen. R. H. Gillett for Mr. O'Reilly. Judge Catron stated substantially that *he could not consistently grant an injunction in such a case as this telegraph matter*; and the most he would probably have done (if the case seemed to justify the prudential proceeding) would have been, not to have stopped the working of the lines, (which might seriously and wrongfully injure the defendant,)

but to have required security to indemnify the complainants, in case the suit should ultimately result in their favour. The tenor of his remarks was understood to be quite different from the language and acts of Judge Monroe, who granted an injunction in the Kentucky case, where the same parties were concerned.

The second case was an appeal from a decision of the Patent Commissioner on the second patent asked for by Mr. Bain. Mr. Gillett's remarks on this argument are said to have been very forcible. He analyzed the respective claims of the contending parties, with a view of showing there is nothing original in the claim of Professor Morse for an electro-chemical telegraph, and nothing which is not already substantially included in the patent granted to Mr. Bain by the United States, as well as by Great Britain.

The Judge reversed the decision of the Commissioner, and the telegraph monopoly no longer exists. The "Buffalo Courier" takes the following view of the decision:—

"The material point settled by the Judge is, that there cannot be a patent for a principle, nor for the application of a principle, nor for an effect. Two persons *may use the same principle and produce the same effect by different means*, and without interference or infringement, and each would be entitled to a patent for his own invention. In this case the effect is produced by means so different as to prevent an interference, and the question of priority of invention does not arise.

"Therefore, the Judge decides that Mr. Morse and Mr. Bain are each entitled to a patent for the combination which each has invented, and claimed, and described. Under this decision, it is understood, the proprietors of Bain's invention will proceed immediately to erect telegraph lines over most of the routes in this country now worked under the Morse patent. The consequence of such a competition as will ensue must necessarily be to cheapen communication by telegraph, and bring the whole system nearer perfection—a result which few will regret."

[We embrace the opportunity to state here that we have in preparation an article on telegraphs, in which we propose to give a condensed account of this wonderful and incalculably valuable discovery, its progress, &c. It will appear in our next number.]

OBITUARY.*

1848.

Died, at *Monterey*, California, last autumn, ADMIRAL WOOSTER, late commander in chief of the Chilian Navy. He was formerly a citizen of New York, and in the last war with Great Britain was engaged extensively in privateering.

“Admiral Wooster was the grandson of General Wooster of revolutionary memory, who was one of the eight brigadier generals originally appointed by congress, and lost his life while leading a charge at the battle of Danbury, Connecticut. He leaves one son, who was educated at West Point, and is now, we believe, a lieutenant in the fourth regiment of artillery, U. S. A.

“The whole history of the Wooster family has been one abounding in incident. The founder of the family, General Wooster, though born in Stratford, Connecticut, went abroad early, held a commission in the British army, and returned to his native country one of the twenty-two original patentees of a large tract of land at Weathersfield, Connecticut. He was engaged in the French war in Canada, and finally lost his life in that service.

About the same time died the king of Persia, MOHAMMED SHAH. He was the son of Abbas, and grandson of Fetti Ali Shah, who died in 1834, and whom he succeeded to the throne of Persia, was the third sovereign of the dynasty of the Kadjars, founded in 1794 by Aga Mohammed Khan. He was born in 1806, and his heir, Naibus Solthanet, governor of Azerbaidjan, is 18 years of age.

OCTOBER, 1848.

Oct. 8th. At *Philadelphia*, COMMODORE BIDDLE, of the United States Navy. He entered the navy at the commencement of this century, through the recommendation of vice-president Burr. He was a nephew of the Commodore Biddle who was blown up in the Randolph frigate in an engagement with a British 64 gun ship, off the capes of the Delaware, in 1778, and was a brother of the late Nicholas Biddle, president of the bank of the United States. Commodore Biddle was 1st lieutenant of the Wasp when she took the British sloop-of-war Frolic, and Commodore Jones speaks of his conduct on that occasion in the highest terms. He participated in other battles. As

* We insert some obituary notices, which in the order of date precede the current quarter. They were prepared for December.

a sailor, and a gentleman in all the private socialities of life, Commodore Biddle had no superiors.

5th. At *Onondaga Castle*, New York, ABRAM LE FORT, head chief of the Onondaga tribe, aged 54. He had served as chief for twenty years, and was respected for his talent, and friendship to the whites. The tribe numbers about 400, but it is said to be gradually decreasing.

7th. In *England*, the EARL OF CARLISLE, father of Lord Morpeth. He was born 17th September, 1773, the eldest son of Frederick, fifth earl of Carlisle, K. C., by Margaret Caroline, his wife, daughter of Granville-Leveson, first marquis of Stafford, and derived in direct descent from Lord William Howard, so well known in border minstrelsy as "Belted Will," second son of Thomas, fourth duke of Norfolk. His father, the fifth earl, in honourable rivalry of his illustrious ancestor, "the Surrey," added another poetic laurel to the bright wreath won by his predecessors, in the council, the cabinet, and the field. He was guardian of his kinsman, Lord Byron, and appears to have enjoyed for a period the affection and esteem of his wayward ward, who inscribed to him the second edition of the "Hours of Idleness."

He had several times a seat in the British cabinet; and retired from public life in 1843. He has left a large family.

14th. At *Boston*, Mass., JEREMIAH MASON. He was formerly a distinguished member of congress from New Hampshire, and for sixty years an eminent member of the New England bar. Mr. Mason was in his 84th year, and until his final illness, had never been in the hands of a physician.

If aught was wanting to perpetuate his memory, it is supplied in the striking and masterly-drawn eulogy pronounced by the *Hon. Daniel Webster*, before the Supreme Court of Massachusetts. After describing the characteristics of Mr. Mason's mind as "real greatness, strength and sagacity," and his conversation and professional attainments of the first order, Mr. Webster proceeded, with a power of expression peculiarly his own, to say:

"But—sir—political eminence and professional fame fade away and die with all things earthly. Nothing of character is really permanent, but virtue and personal worth. They remain. Whatever of excellence is wrought into the soul itself, belongs to both worlds. Real goodness does not attach itself merely to this life, it points to another world. Political or professional fame cannot last for ever, but a conscience void of offence before God and man, is an inheritance for eternity. *Religion*, therefore, is a necessary, an indispensable element in any great human character. There is no living without it. Religion is the tie that connects man with his Creator, and holds him to his throne. If that tie be all sundered, all broken, he floats away, a

worthless atom in the universe, its proper attractions all gone, its destiny thwarted, and its whole future nothing but darkness, desolation and death. A man with no sense of religious duty is he whom the scriptures describe,—in such terse but terrific manner,—as ‘living without God in the world.’ Such a man is out of his proper being, out of the circle of all his duties, out of the circle of all his happiness, and away, far, far away from the purposes of his creation.

“A mind like Mr. Mason’s, active, thoughtful, penetrating, sedate, could not but meditate deeply on the condition of man below, and feel its responsibilities. He could not look on this wondrous frame—

‘This universal frame thus wondrous fair,’—

without feeling that it was created and upheld by an intelligence to which all other intelligences must be responsible. I am bound to say that in the course of my life I never met with an individual, in any profession or condition of life, who always spoke and always thought with such awful reverence of the power and presence of God. No irreverence, no lightness, even no too familiar allusion to God and his attributes ever escaped his lips. The very notion of a Supreme Being was with him made up of awe and solemnity. It filled the whole of his great mind with the strongest emotions. A man, like him, with all his proper sentiments and sensibilities alive in him, must, in this state of existence, have something to believe and something to hope for; or else as life is advancing to its close and parting, all is heart-sinking and oppression. Depend upon it,—whatever else may be the mind of an old man—old age is only really happy when on feeling the enjoyments of this world pass away it begins to lay a stronger hold on those of another.”

William Lawrence, an aged and eminent merchant of Boston, died almost simultaneously with Mr. Mason.

25th, in the city of New York, DIXON H. LEWIS, United States senator from Alabama, in his 47th year. Colonel Lewis was a native of Dinwiddie county, Virginia, and, it is believed, was descended, on his father’s side, from Wales, in England. His ancestors came over at an early period to the then colony of Virginia. When quite young, the family of Colonel Lewis emigrated to Georgia, where the deceased grew up to manhood. He subsequently entered South Carolina College, where he distinguished himself for the successful prosecution of his studies; winning the esteem and friendship of all with whom he associated. He chose the profession of law as his future pursuit, and settled in Alabama, where he soon rose into notice at the bar as a successful practitioner. While quite young, he was elected to the state legislature, and afterwards became a representative in congress. His subsequent elevation to the senate of the United States, and his

varied public services in congress for many years past, are well known to the public throughout the country.

He was remarkable for his extraordinary size of body: when enclosed in the coffin, the whole together was said to have weighed nine hundred pounds.

21st. In England, REV. GERARD VALERIAN WELLESLEY, D. D. He was born on the 7th December, 1776, and was, consequently, in the seventy-second year of his age. On the second of June, 1802, he married the lady Emily Mary Cadogan, eldest daughter of Charles Sloane, first earl of Cadogan, by whom he had issue four daughters and three sons. The deceased was the fourth son of the earl of Mornington, and a younger brother of the duke of Wellington. He was a gentleman of kind and conciliatory manners, and of great benevolence of heart.

26th, at New York, WILLIAM PAXSON HALLETT, for a number of years, clerk of the supreme court of the state.

28th. At Boston, Mass., HARRISON GRAY OTIS. He was a descendant of JOHN OTIS, who came from England to this country, and settled in Hingham, Massachusetts, in the year 1630; and a nephew of the celebrated JAMES OTIS, of revolutionary memory, to whose eloquence and patriotism the cause of American independence was so largely indebted.

Mr. Otis was born in Boston, October 8th, 1765, and was, consequently, in his eighty-fourth year, on this the closing day of his life. He graduated at Harvard University, in 1783. Mr. Otis has filled many important public offices, and represented Massachusetts in both houses of congress.

He was appointed district attorney under John Adams; was subsequently a member of the celebrated Hartford convention; was a president of our state senate, judge of the Boston court of common pleas; and the third mayor of Boston.

Few men have ever impressed themselves so largely upon the political character and destinies of the commonwealth. In all great public questions he took an earnest and active interest up to the last few weeks of his earthly career. His eloquence was of the Ulysses stamp; graceful, conciliatory, elegant and argumentative, rather than impassioned and turbulent. It appealed more to the reason than the passions; and the graces of literature gave it an intellectual charm.

At Chicago, ROBERT STEWART. This distinguished western pioneer, was for several years past a resident of Detroit, but more recently connected with the management of the Illinois and Michigan canals. In his early life he was extensively engaged in the fur business, with John Jacob Astor, and occupies quite a prominent position in Washington Irving's "Astoria." He was a native of Scotland. His venerable uncle, David Stewart, also mentioned in Irving's book, resides at Sandwich, Canada West.

31st. At St. Louis, Missouri, GENERAL STEPHEN WATTS KEARNEY, aged about fifty-five years. He was born at Newark, New Jersey, and entered the army in 1812, at the age of eighteen; he was attached to the company of Captain J. E. Wool (now General Wool) and at the battle of Queenstown, Upper Canada, behaved with great gallantry. At the close of the war he was transferred to the western department, and in 1842 was promoted to a majority, and accompanied General Atkinson in the expedition to the upper Missouri.

He married a step-daughter of General Clarke, the companion of Lewis in his expedition to the Pacific. In 1833, he was commissioned as lieutenant colonel, and in 1836, as colonel of the 1st Dragoons; in 1846, as brigadier general. He was acknowledged to be a superior tactician and brave officer. After the commencement of the war with Mexico, he was sent on an expedition against New Mexico and California; entered Santa Fe on the 10th August, 1846: then proceeded to California, and fought the battles of San Pasqual and San Diego—the latter in union with Commodore Stockton. He returned to the United States; was afterwards sent to Mexico, and at one time was in command at the city of Mexico.

NOVEMBER, 1848.

Nov. 9th. At Vienna, Germany, Robert Blum, the celebrated champion of German liberty, shot by order of court martial. He was delegate from Leipsic to the diet at Frankfort, and was captured among the insurgents of Vienna.

After sentence, he was allowed only two hours to prepare for death. He wrote to his wife "to bring up their children so that they would not disgrace his name." At his execution he said, "I die for German freedom—for that I have fought. My country, forget me not."

Such was the end of a man of great talent, though of humble birth and self-education. He commenced, when a boy, as a boot black and "candle snuffer," at the theatre at Leipsic. He afterwards became ticket taker, finally cashier, and was one of the most enterprising of the establishment. During the latter years of his life he was a book merchant.

15th. FRANCIS DE VICO, the learned Jesuit astronomer, died suddenly in England, where he went on business for the Georgetown college. He was for several years professor of astronomy in the university of Rome, and superintendent of the Roman observatory. It was while holding the latter important office, that he announced to the world his distinguished and brilliant discoveries in astronomical science, for which several gold medals and other marks of honour and distinction were awarded him by the academy of sciences. He is also well known as an author.

16th. At Rome, Italy, COUNT ROSSI, prime minister to Pius IX., murdered by the populace whilst on his way to the chamber of deputies. Born at Carrara, in 1787, Count Rossi became an advocate and professor of laws in the university of Bologna as early as 1809. In 1815, he acted as civil commissioner during the occupation of the legations by Murat, and was, in consequence, proscribed. He escaped to Geneva, where the rights of a citizen were conferred upon him in time to rescue him from the persecution of the Austrian government. He occupied, for nearly twenty years, the chair of Roman law in the academy of Geneva. Afterwards he removed to Paris—was ambassador from Louis Philippe to Rome, contributed to the elevation of the present pope to the papal throne, and subsequently took up his residence at Rome.

The London Times says of him, that “his vast and unclouded judgment illuminated whatever he contemplated, and his singularly descriptive eloquence ornamented whatever he touched. His voice and the gravity of his presence had in them something of the grandeur of the statesmen and scholars of the best ages of Italy.”

At Alexandria, Egypt, IBRAHIM PACHA, viceroy of Egypt. Abbas Pacha, his nephew, succeeds him in the pachalic of that country, according to the firman granted by the sultan, in June, 1841, at the close of the Syrian war, by which the succession to the government of Egypt is to descend in a direct line in Mehemet Ali's male posterity, from the elder to the elder among his sons and grandsons. For many years Ibrahim suffered acutely from a complication of complaints, brought on principally by excesses committed during his youth.

21st. At Columbus, Ohio, LYNE STARLING, one of the original proprietors of that city. He was distinguished for his private charities and public munificence.

The *Medical College* in Columbus, which bears his name, and which will (in default of his leaving any posterity to do so) transmit that name to future generations, was endowed by his liberality. He was about 70 years of age.

22d. At Utica, N. Y., Rev. JOHN C. RUDD, D. D., one of the oldest clergymen in the Episcopal church. He was a long time editor of the “Gospel Messenger,” and highly respected for his talents and piety.

At Brooklyn, L. I., ALDEN SPOONER, formerly editor and proprietor of the *Brooklyn Star*.

Colonel Spooner was sixty-five years old. With the exception, perhaps, of Thomas Ritchie, Esq., of the *Washington Union*, he was the oldest editor in the United States. Of New England origin, tracing his descent on the maternal side from the famous old puritan, John Alden, he settled on the east end of Long Island, at a very early age, and commenced the publication of the *Suffolk County Gazette*. The

first types ever seen in that county were set up by Colonel Spooner's own hands, in his little office at Sag Harbour. Thence he removed to Brooklyn, in 1810 or '11, we believe, and purchased the Star, which he conducted for years with great success.

24th. At New York, JONATHAN GOODHUE, a highly respectable merchant, in his 66th year.

In England, WILLIAM LAMB, second LORD MELBOURNE, late prime minister of Great Britain, born 15th of March, 1779. By Mr. Canning he was made chief secretary for Ireland. He took office with the whigs under Lord Grey, and on the resignation of that nobleman became first lord of the treasury, and remained so until displaced by Sir Robert Peel, in 1841.

DECEMBER, 1848.

Dec. 1st. At Newton, Va., Rev. ANDREW BROADUS, a distinguished divine. He was remarkable for his eloquence, and for being totally destitute of ambition. He refused the degrees of A. M. and D. D., which were conferred upon him by several colleges. Among his admirers were Chief Justice Marshall and many of his famous cotemporaries.

11th. At Utica, N. Y., JOHN C. DEVEREUX, aged 74 years. He was a native of the county of Wexford, Ireland, and emigrated to America when nineteen years of age. In 1800, he settled in what is now the city of Utica, then a hamlet in the wilderness. He became wealthy with the growth of the place, to which his enterprise greatly contributed.

20th. At Philadelphia, ROBERT TOLAND, an eminent merchant, high-minded, honourable, conscientious, and upright in all his dealings; courteous and affable in his deportment, he secured the respect and won the esteem of all who knew him.

At New York, CHARLES M'VEAN, United States District Attorney, appointed in the place of B. F. Butler, Esq.

25th. At Huntley, Louisiana, DADDY TOM, aged 102 years. He was forty years old when brought to America, and has left a widow, Mammy Juba, acknowledged to be 15 years older than himself. For the last ten years he amused himself with fishing. He knew something of Mahommedanism, but was baptized and had become a Christian within a few years. He never took medicine, and died as a fire goes out when the fuel is consumed.

28th. At Turin, Italy, Mrs. ROSELLA NILES, wife of the Hon. Nathaniel Niles, chargé d'affaires of the United States to Sardinia.

Mrs. Niles was descended from one of the most ancient, respectable, and noble families in the south of France. Her more immediate an-

cestors had taken up their residence in the West Indies, from whence they fled to the United States on the occurrence of the revolution in San Domingo. She was born in Wilmington, Delaware, from whence her father, Mr. De Milhau, soon after removed to Baltimore. A part of her family went to France many years ago, where she married the late Professor Sue, father of Eugene Sue. She was married to Mr. Niles in July, 1831.

30th. At Boston, Massachusetts, JOHN TURNER SERGEANT SULLIVAN, of Philadelphia, at the age of 35.

Mr. Sullivan was a member of the bar, and son of the late Hon. William Sullivan, one of the most eminent practitioners in Boston. He was educated in the best schools of his native country and of Europe. He spoke and wrote in several languages with elegance; as a magazineist, he had distinguished himself by many graceful compositions in prose and verse, and as a historical writer by many reviews, and by an edition of his father's "Letters on Public Characters," published last year by Carey & Hart, Philadelphia. He had for some time been engaged upon a history of parties in the United States, for which his father's MS. collections, notes, and extensive correspondence furnished a great amount of valuable material. Mr. Sullivan, however, was best known as a man of society, in which his various accomplishments gave him an extraordinary reputation.

On the occasion of his death, a meeting of the Philadelphia bar was called. The North American thus introduces the proceedings of the meeting: "We have seldom known the death of any individual who had not attained maturer manhood, or held any public station, to excite a more general regret than that of Mr. Sullivan, to which most of our papers have recently alluded. In the social circle he was widely known, and ever a welcome guest. Indeed he was so pre-eminently the admiration and charm of every festive scene, that few persons were aware how accomplished he was in letters, how laborious in the discharge of his professional concerns, or how intimate in his relations with his professional brethren. Yet no death has lately occurred at our bar which has called forth so strong an expression of feeling from its members. An unusually large and respectable assemblage took place on Wednesday morning, in the supreme court room, where business was suspended; and the meeting was called to order by Henry T. Williams, Esq. The chief justice of Pennsylvania was unanimously requested to preside. J. G. Clarkson, Esq., having stated the object of the meeting, alluded, in a few sentences of deeply pathetic beauty, to those qualities of Mr. Sullivan's character which won for him the kindest regard wherever he was known. He spoke in just and eloquent terms of his aspirations for professional distinction, and, with a touching sensibility, which drew from nearly every eye the tribute of its tear, alluded to the void which his sudden death would cause in his

family, where, as a son and a brother,—the survivor of many others—he had ever been eminently affectionate and beloved.”

The resolutions passed were expressive of the feelings of the bar—their sorrow at his sudden death—“an event by which they have been bereaved of an associate whose high accomplishments, varied talents, elegant manners, and kindly nature had endeared him to them during the few years that he had been a member of their body.”

Mr. H. J. Williams, Mr. W. M. Meredith, Mr. Bouvier, Mr. Henry D. Gilpin, Mr. Wm. B. Reed, Mr. Clarkson, and Mr. J. T. Montgomery were appointed a committee to convey to his mother, Mrs. William Sullivan, the expression of their deep sympathy.

30th. At *Philadelphia*, Major ISAAC ROACH, late Treasurer of the Mint of the United States. Major Roach bore the commission of captain in the war of 1812, and was distinguished for his brave and noble bearing in every trying emergency. In one of the battles on the northern frontier, he was severely wounded. His fellow-citizens of this city, some years ago, elected him to the office of Mayor, in which capacity he acquitted himself to their entire satisfaction.

31st. Ex-Senator SEVIER, of Arkansas. He died, we are told, “surrounded by his family and relations, in the last hour of the last day of the last month of the year 1848.”

Colonel Sevier was born among the mountains of East Tennessee, in the year 1802. He was the nephew of General John Sevier, who was distinguished as one of the prominent officers at the battle of King’s mountain, but still more as the governor of the short-lived revolutionary State of Frankland, and for the numerous battles he fought, and the victories he won over the Southern Indians, while personally leading, as their commander-in-chief, the military forces of the little sovereignty—which was indeed revolutionized out of existence while he was absent on one of his Indian expeditions. Ex-Senator Sevier was left an orphan at an early age, and emigrated to Arkansas while only nineteen, being admitted to the bar before he was twenty-one. He was elected to the legislature in 1825, and in 1827 to congress, where he continued a member of the house for five successive terms, until finally advanced to the senate. He left this to accept an appointment as one of the peace commissioners to Mexico; and returned to receive, a few days before his death, the new post of commissioner to run the new boundary line.

JANUARY, 1849.

Jan. 1st. At *Boston*, Massachusetts, P. C. BROOKS, at a very advanced age. He is described as a truly estimable gentleman, methodical in the arrangement of his affairs, and a liberal contributor to all benevolent objects. He died immensely rich.

At *St. Charles*, Mo., Gen. JOHN RULAND. He was born in the

year 1789, on the banks of the river Raisin, in what is now the state of Michigan. He lived the principal part of the early period of his life at Detroit. At the age of nineteen he entered the north-western army under the command of Gen. Harrison, and served with reputation for several years.

4th. At *Lancaster*, Ohio, SAMUEL JENKINS, a coloured man, 115 years old. He was born a slave in Fairfax, Virginia, in the year 1734, and drove his master's provision wagon over the Alleghenies in Braddock's campaign of 1755, remaining in service until the close. He is believed to be the last survivor of that expedition.

6th. At *Brighton*, Nova Scotia, GEORGE SINNETT, 120 years old, the sole survivor of the army of Gen. Wolfe, 1759, and stood by the General when he expired. He was a native of Germany.

At *Cincinnati*, Rev. Dr. LEVINGS, one of the Secretaries of the American Bible Society. Dr. Levings entered upon the ministry of the Methodist Episcopal church early in the year 1818, consequently he was in the thirty-first year of his ministry, and we believe in the fifty-third year of his age.

At *Bogota*, BENJAMIN A. BIDLACK, American Charge d'Affaires to the republic of New Grenada. Mr. Bidlack was a Pennsylvanian—a citizen of Wilkesbarre, Luzerne county. He had served with distinction in the legislature and in congress, and was appointed in 1845 by President Polk to the mission which he filled at the time of his death.

7th. At *Hillsboro*, Penn'a., on his way from New Orleans to Washington city, Lieutenant Colonel ROGER S. DIX. He died of cholera. Colonel Dix was a native of New Hampshire, a brother of the Senator in Congress from New York, and the son of Colonel Timothy Dix, of the army, who lost his life in the ill-fated expedition of General Wilkinson against Montreal, in 1813. He was educated at West Point; and at the moment of completing his course of study, in 1832, instead of accepting the leave of absence for a few months usually granted to graduates, he volunteered his services, and accompanied General Scott on the Black Hawk expedition. After serving for several years in the quartermaster's department, as one of its most efficient officers, he was appointed by Mr. Polk, near the commencement of his administration, a paymaster in the army. He accompanied General Taylor, with whom he had previously served several years at Fort Jessup, to Corpus Christi, before the war with Mexico. He was with the General during the two days of Buena Vista, officiating part of the time as his aid-de-camp, and part of the time in the same capacity with General Wool, the gallant second in command. For his distinguished gallantry on that bloody battle-field Major Dix was breveted a lieutenant colonel at the last session of Congress.

8th. At *New Orleans*, of cholera, Colonel GEORGE CROGHAN, son of Major William Croghan, of the revolutionary war. His mother was the sister of the celebrated General George Rogers Clark, who overran the north-western territory during the struggle for American independence. Both upon the father and mother's side he inherited the blood of the revolution. Upon the breaking out of the last war Colonel Croghan entered the army. At the early age of nineteen he made the gallant defence of Fort Sandusky. By this brilliant feat he inscribed his name upon the scroll of fame. He married and resigned his commission shortly after the peace. But, during the administration of General Jackson, he returned to the service with the commission of inspector general, which was tendered to him by that illustrious commander. He held this office up to the time of his death. He was in his fifty-ninth year, and leaves behind him a wife and family.

11th. At *Baltimore*, Rev. J. L. DINWIDDIE, D. D., Professor in the Theological Seminary at Allegheny. Dr. Dinwiddie was a ripe scholar, a sound and extensive theologian, an exemplary Christian and minister, a Christian gentleman of most honourable feelings, and a warm and unwavering friend.

20. At *Belfast*, Maine, NATHAN READ, in his 90th year. He was educated at Harvard University, and was a tutor there when Harrison G. Otis, Ambrose Spencer, and John Q. Adams were pupils. He is said to have been the first petitioner for a patent in the United States, and to have applied steam-power to a boat on Wendham pond long before Fulton succeeded.

At *Fredericksburgh*, Va., whither he had gone for the benefit of his health, DAVID HALE, one of the editors of the *Journal of Commerce*, New York.

David Hale was born at Lisbon, Conn., on the 25th of April, 1791. His father was, for several years, pastor of the church in that town. His mother was a sister of Samuel Austin, D. D., long a distinguished pastor at Worcester, Mass.

The father of Mr. Hale is said to have been a man of uncommon amiability. His son always spoke of him with profound respect, and acknowledged his great indebtedness to the instruction and example of his deceased parent.

He was thrown upon his own resources in early life, and during his clerkship in Boston retained his morals pure. This was owing chiefly to his early education. He became a member of the Park Street Church in 1813. His plans of business were at first not successful, and he learned to endure hardship in his youth. The *Journal of Commerce* was established through the liberality of Arthur Tappan, as a commercial paper, to be conducted with a strict reference to Christian morality. Mr. Hale was selected as the editor. After struggling two

years with embarrassments and difficulties, he became a joint proprietor with Mr. Hallock, and the paper was raised to the first rank of the daily press. He was the owner of the New York Tabernacle. He gave liberally according to his means: he lived in the strict observance of religious duties, and died with the calmness and reliance of a Christian. At the funeral services, in the Tabernacle, there is said to have been fifteen hundred persons present.

26th. In *Warren county, N. J.*, Colonel JONAH HOWELL, at the age of 93. Colonel Howell was born in Hunterdon county; but, when six weeks old, his parents removed to Warren, and the son has continued to live ever since, now near a century, on his paternal farm, which is now in the hands of the third generation. Rather an unusual instance of permanence in this age of change.

At *Fort Gibson*, MICCONOPY, (Pond-king,) the head chief of the Seminole nation. He was one of the few warriors who, at the head of a mere handful of men, resisted our government for six years, and maintained possession of their country during that time against twenty times their number of well equipped troops, led by our most experienced generals. We believe that it was to General Taylor, then Colonel Taylor, that Micconopy finally surrendered. He commanded the Indians in person at the time of Dade's massacre, and, with Osceola, successfully resisted the crossing of the Withlacooche by General Gaines, in 1836.

At *Milwaukie, Wisconsin*, THOMAS WILLIAMS, aged 90 years, a distinguished chief of the Iroquois nation, and descended from the Rev. John Williams, of Deerfield, Mass., who, with his family and parishioners, was taken captive at the sacking of his native town by the Indians and French, in the year 1704. The deceased was an active participant in the scenes of the revolution, espousing the cause of the British at Bennington and Saratoga. During the war of 1812, by special invitation of the United States Government, he placed himself under the protection of its flag, and was present at the battle of Plattsburgh. He had for many years maintained the tenets of the Christian faith, and died as he had lived, respected and beloved by his people.

FEBRUARY, 1849.

2d. At *New York*, ALEXANDER MING, one of the oldest printers in the city, aged 76, died on Friday. He was a very worthy man. When General Washington arrived at Paulus's Hook, on his way to this city to be inaugurated, he was rowed across the North River in a barge by sea captains—Captain Randall, of the Sailors' snug harbour memory, acting as coxswain. Alexander Ming, then a lad, was one of the pages in attendance on the general.

10th. At *Mobile*, WILLIAM R. JOHNSON, of Virginia, the "Napoleon of the Turf," aged 77. Col. Johnson was a native of North Carolina, but lived in Virginia from his early days. He was repeatedly elected to the legislature. His connexion with the turf, dates from childhood; he was trained to it by his father.

11th. At *New Haven*, NATHAN BEERS, aged 96, an old revolutionary soldier. He left Yale College to enlist in the army, served for a time under Benedict Arnold, and was present at the execution of Andre.

In *Virginia*, BENJAMIN WATKINS LEIGH, formerly a member of the U. S. Senate. Commencing the practice of the law at an early age, he was employed to revise the laws of the state, the result of which was the well-known revisal of 1819. He was also for a long time reporter of the Court of Appeals, and there are twelve volumes of reports that bear his name. In the Virginia State Convention of 1829-30 he occupied a prominent position. In national politics he has been not less conspicuous. In both branches of congress he has served repeatedly and with ability.

At *Genoa*, Italy, COMMODORE BOLTON of the United States navy. He was an experienced and excellent officer—the account of his death has just been received at the navy department, as having happened the 22d February. The letter states:

"His whole soul seemed absorbed by his duties, and he had intended to embark on the very day of his death for Leghorn, to meet with his presence, the requirements of the consul, for the appearance of some of the squadron, and from which he was restrained only by the urgent entreaty of his wife, and the remonstrance of the physician, upon the duty he owed himself. He was heard to say, 'I have no care for myself, it is my duty.'"

The following obituary notice, also just come to hand, is worthy of record.

DONNA AUGUSTINA FERRANDO, of *Tlaliscoyan*, in Mexico, died early in January. The residence of this lady was on the route from Vera Cruz to Orizaba—about forty miles from the former. She had frequent occasions, and never neglected one, of showing kindness to American prisoners, during the late war.

21st. At *Hollis*, New Hampshire, the venerable TIMOTHY FARRAR, at the age of one hundred and one years, seven months and ten days—having been born on the 11th of July, 1747.

Of the 6200 graduates of Harvard, we believe four have completed a century of years—namely:—

Doctor ED. HOLYOKE,	who died aged	100	years	7	months.
HON. SAMSON S. BLOWERS,	"	100	"	6	"
Dr. EZRA GREEN,	"	101	"	1	" and
TIMOTHY FARRAR,	"	101	"	7	"

DOCUMENTS.

STATE PAPERS.

(The great length of the President's annual message, renders it impossible to insert it entire in the present number; we, therefore, only give a part, reserving the remainder for our next. The annual message is always an important paper, belonging to the political history of the times, and has, therefore, appropriately a place in the Register. It is due to the head of the government, to insert it as written, and not in the mutilated shape of a synopsis.)

THE PRESIDENT'S ANNUAL MESSAGE TO THE CONGRESS OF
THE UNITED STATES, DEC. 5th, 1848.

Fellow Citizens of the Senate and of the House of Representatives:—

Under the benignant providence of Almighty God, the representatives of the states and of the people are again brought together to deliberate for the public good. The gratitude of the nation to the sovereign Arbiter of all human events, should be commensurate with the boundless blessings which we enjoy.

Peace, plenty and contentment reign throughout our borders, and our beloved country presents a sublime moral spectacle to the world.

The troubled and unsettled condition of some of the principal European powers has had a necessary tendency to check and embarrass trade, and to depress prices throughout all commercial nations; but notwithstanding these causes, the United States, with their abundant products, have felt their effects less severely than any other country, and all our great interests are still prosperous and successful.

In reviewing the great events of the past year, and contrasting the agitated and disturbed state of other countries with our own happy and tranquil condition, we may congratulate ourselves that we are the most favoured people on the face of the earth. While the people of other countries are struggling to establish free institutions, under which man may govern himself, we are in the actual enjoyment of them—a rich inheritance from our fathers. While enlightened nations of Europe are convulsed and distracted by civil war or intestine strife, we settle all our political controversies by the peaceful exercise of the rights of freemen at the ballot box. The great republican maxim so deeply engraven on the hearts of our people, that the will of the majority, constitutionally expressed, shall prevail, is our safeguard against force and violence. It is a subject of just pride, that our fame and character as a nation continue rapidly to advance in the estimation of the civilized world. To our wise and free institutions it is to be attributed, that while other nations have achieved glory at the price of the suffering, distress and impoverishment of the people, we have won our honourable position in the midst of an uninterrupted prosperity, and of an increasing individual comfort and happiness. I am happy to inform you that our relations with all nations are friendly and pacific.

Advantageous treaties of commerce have been concluded within the last four years with New Granada, Peru, the two Sicilies, Belgium, Hanover, Oldenburg and Mecklenburg-Schwerin. Pursuing our example, the restrictive system of Great Britain, our principal foreign customer, has been relaxed; a more liberal commercial policy has been adopted by other enlightened

nations, and our trade has been greatly enlarged and extended. Our country stands higher in the respect of the world than at any former period. To continue to occupy this proud position, it is only necessary to preserve peace, and faithfully adhere to the great and fundamental principle of our foreign policy, of non-interference in the domestic concerns of other nations. We recognise in all nations the rights which we enjoy ourselves, to change and reform their political institutions, according to their own will and pleasure. Hence we do not look behind existing governments, capable of maintaining their own authority. We recognise all such actual governments, not only from the dictates of true policy, but from a sacred regard for the independence of nations.

While this is our settled policy, it does not follow that we can ever be indifferent spectators of the progress of liberal principles. The government and people of the United States hailed with enthusiasm and delight the establishment of the French republic, as we now hail the efforts in progress to unite the states of Germany in a confederation, similar in many respects to our own federal union. If the great and enlightened German states, occupying, as they do, a central and commanding position in Europe, shall succeed in establishing such a confederated government, securing at the same time to the citizens of each state, local governments adapted to the peculiar condition of each, with unrestricted trade and intercourse with each other, it will be an important era in the history of human events. Whilst it will consolidate and strengthen the power of Germany, it must essentially promote the cause of peace, commerce, civilization and constitutional liberty, throughout the world.

With all the governments on this continent, our relations, it is believed, are now on a more friendly and satisfactory footing than they have ever been at any former period.

Since the exchange of ratifications of the treaty of peace with Mexico, our intercourse with the government of that republic has been of the most friendly character. The envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States to Mexico has been received and accredited; and a diplomatic representative from Mexico of similar rank has been received and accredited by this government. The amicable relations between the two countries which had been suspended have been happily restored, and are destined, I trust, to be long preserved. The two republics, both situated on this continent, and with coterminous territories, have every motive of sympathy and of interest to bind them together in perpetual amity.

The gratifying condition of our foreign relations renders it unnecessary for me to call your attention more specifically to them.

It has been my constant aim and desire to cultivate peace and commerce with all nations. Tranquillity at home, and peaceful relations abroad, constitute the true and permanent policy of our country. War, the scourge of nations, sometimes becomes inevitable, but it is always to be avoided when it can be done consistently with the rights and honour of the nation.

One of the most important results of the war into which we were recently forced with a neighbouring nation, is the demonstration it has afforded of the military strength of our country. Before the late war with Mexico, European and other foreign powers entertained imperfect and erroneous views of our physical strength as a nation and of our ability to prosecute war, and especially a war waged out of our own country. They saw that our standing army on the peace establishment did not exceed ten thousand men. Accustomed themselves to maintain in peace large standing armies for the protection of thrones against their own subjects, as well as against foreign enemies, they had not conceived that it was possible for a nation without such an army, well disciplined and of long service, to wage war successfully. They held in low

repute our militia, and were far from regarding them as an effective force, unless it might be for temporary defensive operations when invaded on our own soil.

The events of the late war with Mexico have not only undeceived them, but have removed erroneous impressions which prevailed to some extent even among a portion of our own countrymen. That war has demonstrated, that upon the breaking out of hostilities not anticipated, and for which no previous preparation had been made, a volunteer army of citizen soldiers equal to veteran troops, and in numbers equal to any emergency, can in a short period be brought into the field. Unlike what would have occurred in any other country, we were under no necessity of resorting to draughts or conscriptions. On the contrary, such was the number of volunteers who patriotically tendered their services, that the chief difficulty was in making selections and determining who should be disappointed and compelled to remain at home. Our citizen soldiers are unlike those drawn from the population of any other country. They are composed indiscriminately of all professions and pursuits; of farmers, lawyers, physicians, merchants, manufacturers, mechanics and labourers; and this, not only among the officers, but the private soldiers in the ranks. Our citizen soldiers are unlike those of any other country in other respects. They are armed, and have been accustomed from their youth up to handle and use fire arms; and a large proportion of them, especially in the western and more newly settled states, are expert marksmen. They are men who have a reputation to maintain at home by their good conduct in the field. They are intelligent, and there is an individuality of character which is found in the ranks of no other army. In battle, each private man, as well as every officer, fights not only for his country, but for glory and distinction among his fellow citizens when he shall return to civil life.

The war with Mexico has demonstrated not only the ability of the government to organize a numerous army upon a sudden call, but also to provide it with all the munitions and necessary supplies with despatch, convenience and ease, and to direct its operations with efficiency. The strength of our institutions has not only been displayed in the valour and skill of our troops engaged in active service in the field, but in the organization of those executive branches which were charged with the general direction and conduct of the war. While too great praise cannot be bestowed upon the officers and men who fought our battles, it would be unjust to withhold from those officers necessarily stationed at home, who were charged with the duty of furnishing the army, in proper time, and in proper places, with all the munitions of war and other supplies so necessary to make it efficient, the commendation to which they are entitled. The credit due to this class of our officers is the greater, when it is considered that no army in ancient or modern times was ever better appointed or provided than our army in Mexico. Operating in an enemy's country, removed two thousand miles from the seat of the federal government, its different corps spread over a vast extent of territory, hundreds and even thousands of miles apart from each other, nothing short of the untiring vigilance and extraordinary energy of these officers could have enabled them to provide the army at all points, and in proper season, with all that was required for the most efficient service.

It is but an act of justice to declare, that the officers in charge of the several executive bureaux, all under the immediate eye and supervision of the secretary of war, performed their respective duties with ability, energy and efficiency. They have reaped less of the glory of the war, not having been personally exposed to its perils in battle, than their companions in arms; but without their forecast, efficient aid and co-operation, those in the field would not have been provided with the ample means they possessed of achieving

for themselves and their country the unfading honours which they have won for both.

When all these facts are considered, it may cease to be a matter of so much amazement abroad how it happened that our noble army in Mexico, regulars and volunteers, were victorious upon every battle field, however fearful the odds against them.

The war with Mexico has thus fully developed the capacity of republican governments to prosecute successfully a just and necessary foreign war with all the vigour usually attributed to more arbitrary forms of government. It has been usual for writers on public law to impute to republics a want of that unity, concentration of purpose and vigour of execution, which are generally admitted to belong to the monarchical and aristocratic forms; and this feature of popular government has been supposed to display itself more particularly in the conduct of a war carried on in an enemy's territory. The war with Great Britain, in 1812, was to a great extent confined within our own limits, and shed but little light on this subject. But the war which we have just closed by an honourable peace, evinces beyond all doubt, that a popular representative government is equal to any emergency which is likely to arise in the affairs of a nation.

The war with Mexico has developed most strikingly and conspicuously another feature in our institutions—it is, that without cost to the government or danger to our liberties, we have in the bosom of our society of freemen, available in a just and necessary war, virtually a standing army of two millions of armed citizen-soldiers such as fought the battles of Mexico.

But our military strength does not consist alone in our capacity for extended and successful operations on land. The navy is an important arm of the national defence. If the services of the navy were not so brilliant as those of the army in the late war with Mexico, it was because they had no enemy to meet on their own element. While the army had opportunity of performing more conspicuous service, the navy largely participated in the conduct of the war. Both branches of the service performed their whole duty to the country. For the able and gallant services of the officers and men of the army—acting independently as well as in co-operation with our troops—in the conquest of the Californias, the capture of Vera Cruz, and the seizure and occupation of other important positions on the Gulf and Pacific coasts, the highest praise is due. Their vigilance, energy and skill, rendered the most effective service in excluding munitions of war and other supplies from the enemy, while they secured a safe entrance for abundant supplies for our own army. Our extended commerce was nowhere interrupted; and for this immunity from the evils of war, the country is indebted to the navy.

High praise is due to the officers of the several executive bureaux, navy yards and stations connected with the service, all under the immediate direction of the secretary of the navy, for the industry, foresight and energy, with which every thing was directed and furnished, to give efficiency to that branch of the service. The same vigilance existed in directing the operations of the navy as of the army. There was concert of action and of purpose between the heads of the two arms of the service. By the orders which were from time to time issued, our vessels of war on the Pacific and the Gulf of Mexico were stationed in proper time and in proper positions to co-operate efficiently with the army. By this means their combined power was brought to bear successfully on the enemy.

The great results which have been developed and brought to light by this war, will be of immeasurable importance in the future progress of our country. They will tend powerfully to preserve us from foreign collisions, and to enable us to pursue uninterruptedly our cherished policy of "peace with all nations, entangling alliances with none."

Occupying, as we do, a more commanding position among nations than at any former period, our duties and our responsibilities to ourselves and to posterity are correspondingly increased. This will be the more obvious when we consider the vast additions which have been recently made to our territorial possessions, and their great importance and value.

Within less than four years the annexation of Texas to the Union has been consummated; all conflicting title to the Oregon territory, south of the forty-ninth degree of north latitude, being all that was insisted on by any of my predecessors, has been adjusted; and New Mexico and Upper California have been acquired by treaty. The area of these several territories, according to a report carefully prepared by the commissioners of the general land office from the most authentic information in his possession, and which is herewith transmitted, contains one million one hundred and ninety-three thousand and sixty-one square miles, or seven hundred and sixty-three millions five hundred and fifty-nine thousand and forty acres, while the area of the remaining twenty-nine states, and the territory not yet organized into states east of the Rocky Mountains, contains two million fifty-nine thousand five hundred and thirteen square miles, or thirteen hundred and eighteen million one hundred and twenty-six thousand and fifty-eight acres. These estimates show that the territories recently acquired, and over which our exclusive jurisdiction and dominion have been extended, constitute a country more than half as large as that which was held by the United States before their acquisition.

If Oregon be excluded from the estimate, there will still remain within the limits of Texas, New Mexico, and California, eight hundred and fifty-one thousand five hundred and ninety-eight square miles, or five hundred and forty-five million twelve thousand seven hundred and twenty acres; being an addition equal to more than one-third of all the territory owned by the United States before their acquisition; and, including Oregon, nearly as great an extent of territory as the whole of Europe, Russia only excepted. The Mississippi, so lately the frontier of our country, is now only its centre. With the addition of the late acquisitions, the United States are now estimated to be nearly as large as the whole of Europe. It is estimated by the superintendent of the coast survey, in the accompanying report, that the extent of the sea-coast of Texas on the Gulf of Mexico is upwards of four hundred miles; of the coast of Upper California, on the Pacific, of nine hundred and seventy miles; and of Oregon including the straits of Fuca, of six hundred and fifty miles; making the whole extent of sea-coast on the Pacific one thousand six hundred and twenty miles, and the whole extent on both the Pacific and the Gulf of Mexico two thousand and twenty miles.

The length of the coast on the Atlantic, from the northern limits of the United States around the Capes of Florida to the Sabine, on the eastern boundary of Texas, is estimated to be three thousand one hundred miles; so that the addition of sea-coast, including Oregon, is very nearly two-thirds as great as all we possessed before; and excluding Oregon, is an addition of one thousand three hundred and seventy miles; being nearly equal to one-half of the coast which we possessed before these acquisitions. We have now three great maritime fronts—on the Atlantic, the Gulf of Mexico, and the Pacific—making, in the whole, an extent of sea-coast exceeding five thousand miles. This is the extent of the sea-coast of the United States, not including bays, sounds, and small irregularities of the main shore, and of the sea islands. If these be included, the length of the shore line of coast, as estimated by the superintendent of the coast survey, in his report, would be thirty-three thousand and sixty-three miles.

It would be difficult to calculate the value of these immense additions to our territorial possessions. Texas, lying contiguous to the western boundary of Louisiana, embracing within its limits a part of the navigable tributary waters of the Mississippi, and an extensive sea-coast, could not long have remained in the

hands of a foreign power without endangering the peace of our south-western frontier. Her products in the vicinity of the tributaries of the Mississippi must have sought a market through these streams, running into and through our territory; and the danger of irritation and collision of interests between Texas, as a foreign state, and ourselves would have been imminent, while the embarrassments in the commercial intercourse between them must have been constant and unavoidable. Had Texas fallen into the hands, or under the influence and control of a strong maritime or military foreign power, as she might have done, these dangers would have been still greater. They have been avoided by her voluntary and peaceful annexation to the United States. Texas, from her position, was a natural and almost indispensable part of our territories. Fortunately, she has been restored to our country, and now constitutes one of the states of our confederacy, "upon an equal footing with the original states." The salubrity of climate, the fertility of soil, peculiarly adapted to the production of some of our most valuable staple commodities, and her commercial advantages, must soon make her one of our most populous states.

New Mexico, though situated in the interior, and without a sea-coast, is known to contain much fertile land, to abound in rich mines of the precious metals, and to be capable of sustaining a large population. From its position, it is the intermediate and connecting territory between our settlements and our possessions in Texas, and those of the Pacific coast.

Upper California, irrespective of the vast mineral wealth recently developed there, holds, at this day, in point of value and importance to the rest of the union, the same relation that Louisiana did when that fine territory was acquired from France, forty-five years ago. Extending nearly ten degrees of latitude along the Pacific, and embracing the only safe and commodious harbours on that coast for many hundreds of miles, with a temperate climate, and an extensive interior of fertile lands, it is scarcely possible to estimate its wealth until it shall be brought under the government of our laws, and its resources fully developed. From its position, it must command the rich commerce of China, of Asia, and islands of the Pacific, of Western Mexico, of Central America, the South American states, and of the Russian possessions bordering on that ocean.

A great emporium will doubtless speedily arise on the California coast, which may be destined to rival in importance New Orleans itself. The depot of the vast commerce which must exist on the Pacific will probably be at some point on the bay of San Francisco, and will occupy the same relation to the whole western coast of that ocean, as New Orleans does to the valley of the Mississippi and the gulf of Mexico. To this depot our numerous whale ships will resort with their cargoes, to trade, refit, and obtain supplies. This of itself will largely contribute to build up a city, which would soon become the centre of a great and rapidly increasing commerce. Situated on a safe harbour, sufficiently capacious for all the navies as well as the marine of the world, and convenient to excellent timber for ship building, owned by the United States, it must become our great western naval depot.

It was known that mines of the precious metals existed to a considerable extent in California at the time of its acquisition. Recent discoveries render it probable that these mines are more extensive and valuable than was anticipated. The accounts of the abundance of gold in that territory are of such an extraordinary character as would scarcely command belief, were they not corroborated by the authentic reports of officers in the public service, who have visited the mineral district, and derived the facts which they detail from personal observation. Reluctant to credit the reports in general circulation as to the quantity of gold, the officer commanding our forces in California visited the mineral district in July last, for the purpose of obtaining accurate information on the subject. His report to the war department of the result of his examination, and the facts obtained on the spot, is herewith laid before

Congress. When he visited the country, there were about four thousand persons engaged in collecting gold. There is every reason to believe that the number of persons so employed has since been augmented. The explorations already made warrant the belief that the supply is very large, and that gold is found at various places in an extensive district of country.

Information received from officers of the navy, and other sources, though not so full and minute, confirm the accounts of the commander of our military force in California. It appears also, from these reports, that mines of quick-silver are found in the vicinity of the gold region. One of them is now being worked, and is believed to be among the most productive in the world.

The effects produced by the discovery of these rich mineral deposits, and the success which has attended the labours of those who have resorted to them, have produced a surprising change in the state of affairs in California. Labour commands a most exorbitant price, and all other pursuits but that of searching for the precious metals are abandoned. Nearly the whole of the male population of the country have gone to the gold district. Ships arriving on the coast are deserted by their crews, and their voyages suspended for want of sailors. Our commanding officer there entertains apprehensions that soldiers cannot be kept in public service without a large increase of pay. Desertions in his command have become frequent, and he recommends that those who shall withstand the strong temptation, and remain faithful, should be rewarded.

This abundance of gold, and the all-engrossing pursuit of it, have already caused in California an unprecedented rise in the prices of the necessaries of life.

That we may the more speedily and fully avail ourselves of the undeveloped wealth of these mines, it is deemed of vast importance that a branch of the mint of the United States be authorized to be established, at your present session, in California. Among other signal advantages which would result from such an establishment would be that of raising the gold to its par value in that territory. A branch mint of the United States at the great commercial depot on the west coast, would convert into our own coin not only the gold derived from our own rich mines, but also the bullion and specie which our commerce may bring from the whole west coast of central and South America. The west coast of America and the adjacent interior embrace the richest and best mines of Mexico, New Granada, Central America, Chili, and Peru.

The bullion and specie drawn from these countries, and especially from those of western Mexico and Peru, to an amount in value of many millions of dollars, are now annually diverted and carried by the ships of Great Britain to her own ports, to be recoined or used to sustain her national bank, and thus contribute to increase her ability to command so much of the commerce of the world. If a branch mint be established at the great commercial point upon that coast, a vast amount of bullion and specie would flow thither to be recoined, and pass thence to New Orleans, New York, and other Atlantic cities. The amount of our constitutional currency at home would be greatly increased, while its circulation abroad would be promoted. It is well known to our merchants trading to China and the west coast of America, that great inconvenience and loss are experienced from the fact that our coins are not current at their par value in those countries.

The powers of Europe, far removed from the west coast of America by the Atlantic Ocean which intervenes, and by a tedious and dangerous navigation around the southern cape of the continent of America, can never successfully compete with the United States in the rich and extensive commerce which is opened to us at so much less cost by the acquisition of California.

The vast importance and commercial advantages of California have heretofore remained undeveloped by the government of the country of which it

constituted a part. Now that this fine province is a part of our country, all the states of the Union, some more immediately and directly than others, are deeply interested in the speedy development of its wealth and resources. No section of our country is more interested, or will be more benefited, than the commercial, navigating, and manufacturing interests of the eastern States. Our planting and farming interests in every part of the union will be greatly benefited by it. As our commerce and navigation are enlarged and extended, our exports of agricultural products and of manufactures will be increased; and in the new markets thus opened, they cannot fail to command remunerating and profitable prices.

The acquisition of California and New Mexico, the settlement of the Oregon boundary, and the annexation of Texas, extending to the Rio Grande, are results which, combined, are of greater consequence, and will add more to the strength and wealth of the nation, than any which have preceded them since the adoption of the constitution.

But to effect these great results, not only California, but New Mexico, must be brought under the control of regularly organized governments. The existing condition of California, and of that part of New Mexico lying west of the Rio Grande, and without the limits of Texas, imperiously demand that Congress should, at its present session, organize territorial governments over them.

Upon the exchange of ratifications of the treaty of peace with Mexico on the thirtieth of May last, the temporary governments which had been established over New Mexico and California by our military and naval commanders, by virtue of the rights of war, ceased to derive any obligatory force from that source of authority; and having been ceded to the United States, all government and control over them under the authority of Mexico had ceased to exist. Impressed with the necessity of establishing territorial governments over them, I recommended the subject to the favourable consideration of Congress in my message communicating the ratified treaty of peace, on the sixth of July last, and invoked their action at that session. Congress adjourned without making any provision for their government. The inhabitants, by the transfer of their country, had become entitled to the benefits of our laws and constitution, and yet were left without any regularly organized government. Since that time the very limited power possessed by the executive has been exercised to preserve and protect them from the inevitable consequences of a state of anarchy. The only government which remained was that established by the military authority during the war. Regarding this to be a *de facto* government, and that by the presumed consent of the inhabitants it might be continued temporarily, they were advised to conform and submit to it for the short intervening period before Congress would again assemble and legislate on the subject. The views entertained by the Executive on this point are contained in a communication of the secretary of state, dated the seventh of October last, which was forwarded for publication to California and New Mexico, a copy of which is herewith transmitted.

The small military force of the regular army, which was serving within the limits of the acquired territories at the close of the war, was retained in them, and additional forces have been ordered there for the protection of the inhabitants, and to preserve and secure the rights and interests of the United States.

No revenue has been or could be collected at the ports in California, because Congress failed to authorize the establishment of custom-houses, or the appointment of officers for that purpose.

The secretary of the treasury, by a circular letter addressed to collectors of the customs on the seventh day of October last, a copy of which is herewith transmitted, exercised all the power with which he was invested by law.

In pursuance of the act of the fourteenth of August last, extending the

benefit of our post office laws to the people of California, the post master general has appointed two agents, who have proceeded, the one to California, and the other to Oregon, with authority to make the necessary arrangements for carrying their provisions into effect.

The monthly line of mail steamers from Panama to Astoria has been required to "stop and deliver and take mails at San Diego, Monterey, and San Francisco." These mail steamers, connected by the isthmus of Panama with the line of mail steamers on the Atlantic between New York and Chagres, will establish a regular mail communication with California.

It is our solemn duty to provide with the least practicable delay, for New Mexico and California, regularly organized territorial governments. The causes of the failure to do this at the last session of Congress are well known, and deeply to be regretted. With the opening prospects of increased prosperity and national greatness which the acquisition of these rich and extensive territorial possessions affords, how irrational it would be to forego or to reject these advantages, by the agitation of a domestic question which is coeval with the existence of our government itself, and to endanger by internal strifes, geographical divisions, and heated contests for political power, or for any other cause, the harmony of the glorious union of our confederated States; that union which binds us together as one people, and which for sixty years has been our shield and protection against every danger. In the eyes of the world and of posterity, how trivial and insignificant will be all our internal divisions and struggles compared with the preservation of this union of the states in all its vigour and with all its countless blessings! No patriot would foment and excite geographical and sectional divisions. No lover of his country would deliberately calculate the value of the union.

Future generations would look in amazement upon such a course. Other nations at the present day would look upon it with astonishment; and such of them as desire to maintain and perpetuate thrones and monarchical or aristocratical principles, will view it with exultation and delight, because in it they will see the elements of faction, which they hope must ultimately overturn our system. Ours is the great example of a prosperous and free self-governed republic, commanding the admiration and the imitation of all the lovers of freedom throughout the world. How solemn, therefore, is the duty, how impressive the call upon us and upon all parts of our country to cultivate a patriotic spirit of harmony, of good fellowship, of compromise and mutual concession, in the administration of the incomparable system of government formed by our fathers in the midst of almost insuperable difficulties, and transmitted to us with the injunction that we should enjoy its blessings and hand it down unimpaired to those who may come after us!

In view of the high and responsible duties which we owe to ourselves and to mankind, I trust you may be able, at the present session, to approach the adjustment of the only domestic question which seriously threatens, or probably ever can threaten, to disturb the harmony and successful operation of our system.

The immensely valuable possessions of New Mexico and California are already inhabited by a considerable population. Attracted by their great fertility, their mineral wealth, their commercial advantages and the salubrity of the climate, emigrants from the older states, in great numbers, are already preparing to seek new homes in these inviting regions.

Shall the dissimilarity of the domestic institutions in the different states prevent us from providing for them suitable governments? These institutions existed at the adoption of the constitution, but the obstacles which they interposed were overcome by that spirit of compromise which is now invoked. In a conflict of opinions or of interests, real or imaginary, between different sections of our country, neither can justly demand all which it might desire to

obtain. Each, in the true spirit of our institutions, should concede something to the other.

Our gallant forces in the Mexican war, by whose patriotism and unparalleled deeds of arms, we obtained these possessions as an indemnity for our just demands against Mexico, were composed of citizens who belong to no one state or section of the union. They were men from slaveholding and non-slaveholding states, from the north and the south, from the east and the west. They were all companions in arms and fellow citizens of the same common country, engaged in the same common cause. When prosecuting that war, they were brethren and friends, and shared alike with each other common toils, dangers and sufferings. Now, when their work is ended, when peace is restored, and they return again to their homes, put off the habiliments of war, take their places in society, and resume their pursuits in civil life, surely a spirit of harmony and concession, and of equal regard for the rights of all, and of all sections of the union, ought to prevail in providing governments for the acquired territories—the fruits of their common service. The whole people of the United States and of every state, contributed to defray the expenses of that war, and it would not be just for any one section to exclude another from all participation in the acquired territory. This would not be in consonance with that just system of government which the framers of the constitution adopted.

The question is believed to be rather abstract than practical, whether slavery ever can or would exist in any portion of the acquired territory, even if it were left to the option of the slaveholding states themselves. From the nature of the climate and productions, in much the larger portion of it, it is certain it could never exist; and in the remainder, the probabilities are it would not. But however this may be, the question, involving, as it does, a principle of equality of rights of the separate and several states, as equal co-partners in the confederacy, should not be disregarded.

In organizing governments over these territories, no duty imposed on congress by the constitution requires that they should legislate on the subject of slavery, while their power to do so is not only seriously questioned, but denied by many of the soundest expounders of that instrument. Whether congress shall legislate or not, the people of the acquired territories, when assembled in convention to form state constitutions, will possess the sole and exclusive power to determine for themselves whether slavery shall or shall not exist within their limits. If congress shall abstain from interfering with the question, the people of these territories will be left free to adjust it as they may think proper when they apply for admission as states into the union. No enactment of congress could restrain the people of any of the sovereign states of the union, old or new, north or south, slave-holding or non-slaveholding, from determining the character of their own domestic institutions as they may deem wise and proper. Any and all the states possess this right, and congress cannot deprive them of it. The people of Georgia might, if they chose, so alter their constitution as to abolish slavery within its limits; and the people of Vermont might so alter their constitution as to admit slavery within its limits. Both states would possess the right; though, as all know, it is not probable that either would exert it.

It is fortunate for the peace and harmony of the union that this question is in its nature temporary, and can only continue for the brief period which will intervene before California and New Mexico may be admitted as states into the union. From the tide of population now flowing into them, it is highly probable that this will soon occur.

Considering the several states and the citizens of the several states as equals, and entitled to equal rights under the constitution, if this were an original question, it might well be insisted on that the principle of non-interfe-

rence is the true doctrine, and that congress could not, in the absence of any express grant of power, interfere with their relative rights. Upon a great emergency, however, and under menacing dangers to the union, the Missouri compromise line in respect to slavery was adopted. The same line was extended further west in the acquisition of Texas. After an acquiescence of nearly thirty years in the principle of compromise recognised and established by these acts, and to avoid the danger to the union which might follow if it were now disregarded, I have heretofore expressed the opinion that that line of compromise should be extended on the parallel of thirty-six degrees thirty minutes from the western boundary of Texas, where it now terminates, to the Pacific Ocean. This is the middle ground of compromise, upon which the different sections of the union may meet, as they have heretofore met. If this be done, it is confidently believed a large majority of the people of every section of the country, however widely their abstract opinions on the subject of slavery may differ, would cheerfully and patriotically acquiesce in it, and peace and harmony would again fill our borders.

The restriction north of the line was only yielded to in the case of Missouri and Texas upon a principle of compromise, made necessary for the sake of preserving the harmony, and possibly the existence of the union.

It was upon these considerations that at the close of your last session, I gave my sanction to the principles of the Missouri compromise line, by approving and signing the bill to establish "the territorial government of Oregon." From a sincere desire to preserve the harmony of the union, and in deference for the acts of my predecessors, I felt constrained to yield my acquiescence to the extent to which they had gone in compromising this delicate and dangerous question. But if congress shall now reverse the decision by which the Missouri compromise was effected, and shall propose to extend the restriction over the whole territory, south as well as north of the parallel of thirty-six degrees thirty minutes, it will cease to be a compromise, and must be regarded as an original question.

If congress, instead of observing the course of non-interference, leaving the adoption of their own domestic institutions to the people who may inhabit these territories; or if, instead of extending the Missouri compromise line to the Pacific, shall prefer to submit the legal and constitutional questions which may arise to the decision of the judicial tribunals, as was proposed in a bill which passed the senate at your last session, an adjustment may be effected in this mode. If the whole subject be referred to the judiciary, all parts of the union should cheerfully acquiesce in the final decision of the tribunal created by the constitution for the settlement of all questions which may arise under the constitution, treaties, and laws of the United States.

Congress is earnestly invoked, for the sake of the union, its harmony, and our continued prosperity as a nation, to adjust at its present session, this, the only dangerous question which lies in our path—if not in some one of the modes suggested, in some other which may be satisfactory.

(The remainder in the next number.)

REPORTS OF SECRETARIES.

We give abstracts of the reports of the heads of the different departments.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF WAR.

This document commences with a brief account of the operations of our troops in Mexico after the taking of the capitol, and then adds:

Our military peace establishment is now nearly the same in numerical strength as it was at the commencement of the war with Mexico. Filled up to the utmost limit allowed by law, it would be nine thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight officers and soldiers, exclusive of the enlisted men of the ordnance; but its actual numerical strength will generally fall considerably below this number. The great extension of our territorial limits required a new arrangement of our military divisions and departments. The eastern, or first division, is not changed. Texas and New Mexico have been added to the western, or second; and California and Oregon constitute the third—or the division of the Pacific.

In allusion to the neglect to send troops to Oregon to protect the settlements from the attacks of the Indians, the secretary says that the mounted rifle regiment was ordered on that service, but that this arrangement was frustrated by the act of congress passed at the close of the last session, which gave permission to the enlisted men of the regiment who had been in service in Mexico to "receive, on application, an honourable discharge from the service of the United States, and stand as if they had served out their respective terms." By the operation of this act, the regiment, as to the rank and file, was in effect disbanded. Prompt measures were taken to recruit it; and no doubt is entertained but that early in the spring it will be in a condition to leave for its destination.

The other regiments of the permanent military establishment were greatly reduced at the close of the war. They had been, to considerable extent, filled up by recruits enlisted to serve only during its continuance. Owing to the late period of their return to Mexico, and the unavoidable delay in recruiting or organizing, such as were destined for distant service could not be prepared to proceed by land to Oregon, California, or New Mexico, until the season was so far advanced as to render a march across the country impracticable. Orders, in anticipation of peace, were given to the general in chief command to send a regiment from the headquarters in Mexico to California; but the Mexican government refused to permit its passage to the Pacific coast.

The secretary then mentions in detail the troops sent up the Rio Grande to California and Oregon.

Troops to guard the Rio Grande frontier and keep in check the Indians in that quarter have been ordered to Texas, and have arrived at or are on their way to their respective stations.

The remainder of the army is distributed on the Indian and northern frontiers, and on the Atlantic and Gulf coasts.

The report notices the establishment of military posts at Grand Island and Fort Laramie, on the Oregon route.

The amount of contributions and avails of captured property received by officers of the army in Mexico, thus far reported, is \$3,844,373 77, which will be somewhat increased by amounts collected in New Mexico and California. Of this amount, \$67,492 33 have been retained for expenses of collections; \$346,369 30 paid into the treasury of the United States; \$3,267,540 84 turned over to disbursing officers; \$49,712 28 credited by the Mexican government to the United States in payment of the first instalment under the treaty; and the remaining \$113,259 02 charged against the collecting officers. Of the amount turned over to disbursing officers \$769,650 were applied towards the payment of the first in-

stalment under the treaty with Mexico, and the greater part of the balance has been disbursed for regular and ordinary purposes. Against the balances remaining, charged to collecting officers, they may be entitled to further credits on the several accounts above stated to the amount of about \$79,000.

No fund was placed by special appropriation at the disposal of the executive, or commanding generals, to meet expenses for secret services, or for extraordinary objects. Disbursements of this character are not only usual, but indispensable in the prosecution of a war, and particularly a foreign war. The collections in Mexico have been resorted to for these purposes. It is not reasonable to expect that regular vouchers of payment for secret services should be produced, and the accounts embracing such items must remain unadjusted, unless congress should deem it proper to provide some mode for settling them.

To prevent delay, and to subserve the convenience of the volunteers, paymasters have been sent into the several sections of the country where these troops were raised and organized. It is estimated that from eighty to one hundred thousand persons became entitled to three months' extra pay under the act of the 19th of July last; the greater part of this number had left the service before this provision of law was adopted. Scattered, as they are, through every section of the United States, much labour and time will be required to adjust these claims. The vast increase in the extent of our territory, and in the number of military posts, has induced the Paymaster General to ask that the additional paymasters appointed for the war, and whose services were continued by an act of congress passed at the last session until the 4th of March next, may be retained permanently in the public service.

The number of military posts will probably exceed the number of medical officers now authorized by law. Should that be the case, the employment of physicians in civil life will become necessary. The secretary therefore recommends the addition of two surgeons and twelve assistant surgeons to the medical staff of the army.

The appropriations for the army proper required for the next fiscal year amount to \$4,432,286. The estimates for the transportation of the troops far exceed that of any other year previous to the war. The increase in this item is to meet the expense of sending troops to Oregon, New Mexico, and California.

In none of the branches of this department has the business been so much augmented as in the pension bureau. The number of invalid pensioners has increased, during the last year, six hundred and ninety-one; the whole number on the list is three thousand one hundred and twenty-six.

More than sixty thousand claims have been presented under the act of the 11th of February, 1847, for bounty land and treasury scrip. About forty thousand of them have been acted on and allowed, twenty thousand are now pending, and it is estimated that there are forty thousand yet to be presented. Great efforts have been made to despatch these applications, and about two hundred and fifty are daily investigated and passed.

The report then concludes with a glowing picture of the Indian affairs.

There are sixteen manual-labour schools, and eighty-seven boarding and district schools now in successful operation among the various Indian tribes, and the number of Indian youths attending them, according to the reports received at the department, is three thousand six hundred and eighty-two—of which two thousand six hundred and fifty are males, and the remaining one thousand and thirty-two are females. The schools are generally in charge of missionary societies, and are well conducted. These facts afford the most gratifying evidence that nearly all our colonized tribes are rapidly advancing in civilization and moral improvement.

Within the newly acquired territories there is a numerous Indian population, over which our supervision and guardianship must necessarily be extended; but this cannot be effectually done without the action of congress on the subject.

Additional agencies are required to manage Indian affairs in these territories, and to extend to them our Indian system of control and management.

The secretary asks attention to the following subjects; the settlement of claims in California, a retired list of officers of the army, and an asylum for disabled and wounded soldiers.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

The total resources of the year, including a balance of \$1,701,251 on hand at its commencement, were \$58,394,701:—the total expenses \$58,241,167,—showing a balance in the Treasury of \$153,534. At the close of next year it is estimated that there will be on hand a balance of \$2,853,694:—in 1850, it is put at \$5,040,542.

The secretary states the annual average revenue under the tariff of 1842 at \$23,895,208: that under the tariff of 1846 at \$30,902,489. He then proceeds to point out the bad consequences that would have followed the continuance of the tariff of 1842, and the distribution of the proceeds of the sales of the public lands. The result of protection, he urges, would have been the destruction of commerce, the great importance of which he then sets forth. Specific duties, moreover, he says, constantly increase, as the foreign article falls in price,—which proposition he illustrates at length. Our manufacturers, he says, do not desire the restoration of the tariff of '42, because it stimulated too much competition.

Our exports of breadstuffs during the year amounted to \$37,472,751—double the amount exported under the tariff of '42. Our tonnage also increased from 2,839,046 to 3,150,502 tons. The most of this increase is attributed to the present tariff. A re-enactment of the tariff of '42 will increase smuggling,—great advantages for which exist along our coast, as is shown by elaborate tables.

Mr. Walker refers to the revulsions of Europe, which have injured our trade, and then enters upon an elaborate vindication of Free-Trade principles, in opposition to those of protection,—enforced by the example of the several States of the Union, among which free-trade prevails. A large section of the report is occupied with this argument, which is skilfully handled. The repeal of the British Corn Laws is attributed to our arguments. The protective system is characterized as “agrarian,” and a war upon property.

A cutter has been sent to Oregon to enforce the revenue laws there. No duties can be collected in California as yet. It is recommended that other collection districts on the Pacific Coast be authorized. Reference is made to the facilities for commerce in the Pacific,—to the propriety of sending steamers there, and to the great desirableness of a railroad across the isthmus of Darien.

The Secretary recommends that an act be passed allowing goods to be taken across the Isthmus to our Pacific ports, the same as from one port to another on the Atlantic coast.

Consuls are needed at Chagres and Panama.

Drawback should be allowed on goods exported by the Rio Grande.

A variety of suggestions in regard to our trade in our new possessions are submitted. Reciprocal free trade between Canada and Mexico and the United States is recommended.

The Mexican Tariff imposed upon Mexico during the war greatly increased our means, and set a salutary example to belligerents in future wars.

The Secretary strongly renews his recommendation for a branch mint in the city of New York. It is urged as necessary, in order to secure to the city the command of her due proportion of coin. The storehouse of the goods of the Union, he says, must become the storehouse of its specie.

The department, since March, 1845, has coined at our mints the sum of \$38,717,709. Much more would have been coined, had there been a branch mint at New York. The branch mint would also greatly aid the operations of the assistant treasurer.

The merchants of New York, from January 1, 1847, to November 30, 1848, paid \$35,360,678 for duties. The amount of specie received during the same period by the assistant treasurer at New York was \$57,328,369, and the coin disbursed \$55,496,269.

The sub-treasury system is vindicated as against the State bank deposit system.

The transactions in regard to the loan of \$16,000,000 in March last, are detailed. The whole premium obtained was \$487,168.

The public debt has been punctually paid whenever it became due. Statements are made showing that this has been done at every period of our history.

Our present debt is about \$65,304,450,—less than *half* the annual interest on the public debt of Great Britain.

Our whole public domain unsold amounts to 1,442,217,837.

The Secretary advises that power be given the department to purchase all the public debt exclusive of Treasury notes without premium, and also to purchase at the market rate any portion of the rest of the debt. Details are given of the purchase already made. Reasons are given why the debt should be discharged as rapidly as possible.

The Coast survey is making rapid progress.—Six new sections of coast have been surveyed, and six new shoals discovered.

Improvements in our Light House system are urgently recommended.

New standards for weights and measures, and the adoption of the decimal system are urged.

A scientific commission is asked to survey the mineral lands of California.

The warehousing system is reserved for a special report. Its progress has been successful and satisfactory.

The Secretary makes some suggestions concerning the organization of the Treasury Department, the separation from it of the Land Office, supervision of the Marshals, and the appointment of an Assistant Secretary. He advises also the detachment of the Indian Office and the Pension Office from the War Department; and that of the Patent Office from the State Department; and the organization of them all under a new head, to be called the *Secretary of the Interior*. The whole expense would not exceed \$20,000 per annum.

The report closes with invoking the blessing of Heaven upon our beloved Union.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE NAVY.

The construction of the four steamships of war authorized by the act of congress of 3d of March, 1847, is in a satisfactory state of progress. The Saranac, built at the navy yard at Kittery, has been launched. The Powhatan, at Norfolk; the Susquehanna, at Philadelphia; and the San Jacinto, at New York, may be launched and ready for sea in the course of the next year.

There are unfinished on the stocks at the several navy yards four ships of the rate of seventy-four guns, and two frigates of forty-four guns. They are so near completion that they can be readily launched and fitted for sea service on short notice, if public exigencies shall require it. The vessels in commission during the past year have been employed as follows:—

With a view to the general convenience, one of the three store-ships at-

tached to the Pacific squadron sails on her return to the United States semi-annually.

The report enlarges, with justness and propriety, upon the value and services rendered by the navy in the war with Mexico; presenting the fact that although the enemy could not be encountered upon the water, yet the operations of the army were facilitated and derived much of their success from the presence of the navy upon the Mexican coasts. Reference is properly made to the aid afforded the Yucatanese by the American squadron in the Gulf; being, in fact, aid to a portion of the people of a country with which we were at war.

It is remarked that not a single American vessel was lost to her owners by capture by the enemy under the rights of war; and there was not, it is believed, any material effect produced on marine insurance.

Upon the subject of promotions the report remarks, that the safest and best mode is to require by law that officers rendered unfit for duty otherwise than by wounds received in battle, or not qualified for promotion to higher grades, should be placed on reduced pay, out of the line of promotion. Justice and policy would require that great care should be taken against the exercise of such a power capriciously, or without a due regard to the rights of all.

The advantages of such a system in guarding officers against contracting disqualifying habits—in stimulating them to the active and zealous performance of duty—in exciting them to the acquisition of professional knowledge, and in securing to the meritorious the rewards of promotion, without having the way blocked up by others inferior and incompetent, would speedily develop themselves. Such a measure would reduce the expense of the navy; because, under existing laws, officers who do not perform duty, and are incapable of it, are in the receipt of the full pay of the rank.

Another great security for efficiency in the navy will be found in the education, and in affording the means of instruction to the officers.

The beneficial effects of the naval school at Annapolis upon the service are already beginning to be sensibly felt.

A necessary appendage to the institution is a vessel of the navy, fitted as a school of practice in gunnery and navigation. I earnestly recommend that the appropriation for the next fiscal year, for which an estimate has been submitted, may be made; and as no appropriation was made for the general wants of the school for the present year, I recommend the propriety of making it at the approaching session of congress.

There are now in one of the rooms of the building occupied by the navy department a considerable number of flags and other trophies taken by the navy from public enemies in war. I recommend that authority may be given by congress to the Secretary of the Navy, under the direction of the President, to cause them to be placed, with suitable labels, at the naval school, in the care of the superintendent.

The contracts for the naval works at Pensacola, Philadelphia, and at Kittery—the prices to be paid for the works complete—are:—

At Pensacola,	\$921,937
At Philadelphia,	813,742
At Kittery,	732,905
Total,	\$2,468,584

The report speaks in high terms of the observatory, and suggests the publication of a nautical almanac.

The report bears testimony, as the result of experience, to the efficient organization of the navy department. Grateful obligations to the distinguished men who are and have been in charge of the several bureaus are acknowledged.

Besides the ships on the stocks, in ordinary, undergoing repairs, and in commission, and excluding navy yards and other public lands required for purposes of the navy, with their costly improvements, the reports herewith submitted show that the public property on hand for naval purposes amounts in the aggregate to \$9,400,370.

The establishment of a bureau for the ordering and detailing of officers for service, for the general superintendence of enlistments, for deciding primarily on applications for service, relief or discharges, which duties now occupy too large a portion of the Secretary's time, is recommended.

The efficiency of our ships of war, it is deemed, would be promoted, if the marine guard allowed by the regulation could be enlarged, and an increase of the rank and file of the corps from one thousand to fifteen hundred be made. The number of landsmen might be reduced to the same amount. Such an increase of the non-commissioned officers and privates would justify an additional number of commissioned officers equal to the number dismissed.

The report concludes with the recommendation that the marine guards attached, under orders, to the ships of war in the Pacific and Gulf of Mexico, who, it is known, were often on land, co-operating, in the most gallant manner, with the land forces, and encountering all the dangers and privations of the service with the army, be put on footing, as to bounty land and other remuneration, with those who have already received what was given by law to the officers and men of the army.

REPORT OF THE POSTMASTER GENERAL.

This document is of considerable length. We have prepared the following, which is an abstract of all that is important in it.

He commences with the mail services for the year ending June 30th, 1848; from which it appears that there is an increase in the length of routes of 9,390 miles; an increase on the annual transportation of 2,124,680 miles; but a decrease in the cost of \$12,145. The new foreign mails have, however, added to the expense of the department. The annual transportation, June 30th, 1848, amounted to 41,012,579 miles at a cost of \$2,448,766; which, as compared with 1845, shows an increase in transportation of 5,378,310 miles, but a reduction of cost of \$456,738.

The foreign mails, by steamships, are noticed favourably; lines being contracted for, and some of them already in operation, between Charleston and Havana; New York and California, (via Panama;) and New York and Bremen, (via Southampton.)

The revenues of the office more than justify the predictions of those who advocated the reduction in the rates of postage. In the last fiscal year the gross receipts were \$4,371,077, being an increase of \$425,184 on the preceding year, and exceeding by \$6,445 the annual average of the nine years preceding the 1st of July, 1845, (when the reduced postage went into operation,) thus demonstrating that under the low rate of postage the receipts are increased.

The letter postage amounted to \$3,550,304, exceeding that of the previous year \$295,791.

The newspaper postage amounted to \$767,334, being an increase of \$124,174.

The number of post offices on 1st July last was 16,159, being an increase during the year of 1,013. The number of offices established was 1,309. The number discontinued 296.

It is estimated that the expenses of the department for the next year (including the sums paid for carrying foreign mails in steamers) will be \$4,746,-

845; and the receipts are estimated at \$5,211,404, leaving an excess of receipts over expenditures of \$464,562.

In view of these results, the postmaster general enters into an examination of the question, whether a further reduction in postage ought to be made, and he arrives at the conclusion that it should, and recommends—

That the rate of postage on letters be five cents per half ounce or less, for all distances.

That newspapers be weighed; and pay at the rate of one cent per ounce.

Periodicals and all other printed matter, two cents per ounce.

Letters sent to foreign countries, fifteen cents the half ounce.

The total abolition of the franking privilege.

The pre-payment of the postage on all letters, newspapers and other matter sent by mail.

A change in the term of the office of the postmaster general, so as to make his appointment hold for a number of years, he being subject to removal only by impeachment, and the appointment, by him, of his principal subordinates or deputies for a like term of years. In case of the removal of any subordinate or deputy, the fact and the causes of it to be reported to the senate.

THE INAUGURAL ADDRESS OF PRESIDENT TAYLOR.

5th March, 1849.

Elected by the American people to the highest office known to our laws, I appear here to take the oath prescribed by the constitution; and, in compliance with a time-honoured custom, to address those who are now assembled.

The confidence and respect shown by my countrymen in calling me to be the chief magistrate of a republic holding a high rank among the nations of the earth, have inspired me with feelings of the most profound gratitude; but, when I reflect that the acceptance of the office which their partiality has bestowed, imposes the discharge of the most arduous duties, and involves the weightiest obligations, I am conscious that the position which I have been called to fill, though sufficient to satisfy the loftiest ambition, is surrounded by fearful responsibilities. Happily, however, in the performance of my new duties, I shall not be without able co-operation. The legislative and judicial branches of the government present prominent examples of distinguished civil attainments and matured experience; and it shall be my endeavour to call to my assistance in the executive departments, individuals whose talents, integrity, and purity of character, will furnish ample guarantees for the faithful and honourable performance of the trusts to be committed to their charge. With such aids, and an honest purpose to do whatever is right, I hope to execute diligently, impartially, and for the best interests of the country, the manifold duties devolved upon me.

In the discharge of these duties, my guide will be the constitution, which I this day swear to “preserve, protect, and defend.” For the interpretation of that instrument, I shall look to the decisions of the judicial tribunals established by its authority, and to the practice of the government under the earlier presidents, who had so large a share in its formation. To the example of those illustrious patriots, I shall always defer with reverence; and especially to his example, who was, by so many titles, “the Father of his country.”

To command the army and navy of the United States; with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, and to appoint ambassadors and other officers; to give to Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend such measures as he shall judge to be necessary; and to take care that the laws shall be faithfully executed—these are the most important functions intrusted to the President by the constitution; and it may be expected that I shall, briefly, indicate the principles which will control me in their execution.

Chosen by the body of the people, under the assurance that my administration would be devoted to the welfare of the whole country, and not to support any particular section or merely local interest, I this day renew the declarations I have heretofore made, and proclaim my fixed determination to maintain, to the extent of my ability, the government in its original purity, and to adopt as the basis of my public policy, those great republican doctrines which constitute the strength of our national existence.

In reference to the army and navy, lately employed with so much distinction on active service, care shall be taken to ensure the highest condition of efficiency; and, in furtherance of that object, the military and naval schools, sustained by the liberality of congress, shall receive the special attention of the executive.

As American freemen, we cannot but sympathize in all efforts to extend the blessings of civil and political liberty; but, at the same time, we are warned by the admonitions of history, and the voice of our own beloved Washington, to abstain from entangling alliances with foreign nations. In all disputes between conflicting governments, it is our interest, not less than our duty, to remain strictly neutral; while our geographical position, the genius of our institutions and our people, and the advancing spirit of civilization, and, above all, the dictates of religion, direct us to the cultivation of peaceful and friendly relations with all other powers. It is to be hoped that no international question can now arise which a government, confident in its own strength, and resolved to protect its own just rights, may not settle by wise negotiation; and it eminently becomes a government like our own, founded on the morality and intelligence of its citizens, and upheld by their affections, to exhaust every resort of honourable diplomacy before appealing to arms. In the conduct of our foreign relations, I shall conform to these views, as I believe them essential to the best interests and true honour of the country.

The appointing power vested in the President, imposes delicate and onerous duties. So far as it is possible to be informed, I shall make honesty, capacity, and fidelity, indispensable prerequisites to the bestowal of office, and the absence of either of these qualities shall be deemed sufficient cause for removal.

It shall be my study to recommend such constitutional measures to congress as may be necessary and proper to secure encouragement and protection to the great interests of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures; to improve our rivers and harbours; to provide for the speedy extinguishment of the public debt; to enforce a strict accountability on the part of all officers of the government, and the utmost economy in all public expenditures. But it is for the wisdom of congress itself, in which all legislative powers are vested by the constitution, to regulate these and other matters of domestic policy. I shall look with confidence to the enlightened patriotism of that body, to adopt such measures of conciliation as may harmonize conflicting interests, and tend to perpetuate that union which should be the paramount object of our hopes and affections. In any action calculated to promote an object so near the heart of every one who truly loves his country, I will zealously unite with the co-ordinate branches of the government.

In conclusion, I congratulate you, my fellow-citizens, upon the high state of prosperity to which the goodness of Divine Providence has conducted our common country. Let us invoke a continuance of the same protecting care, which has led us from small beginnings to the eminence we this day occupy, and let us seek to deserve that continuance, by prudence and moderation in our councils; by well-directed attempts to assuage the bitterness which too often marks unavoidable differences of opinion; by the promulgation and practice of just and liberal principles; and by an enlarged patriotism, which shall acknowledge no limits but those of our own wide-spread republic.

SPEECH OF THE QUEEN OF GREAT BRITAIN,

AT THE OPENING OF PARLIAMENT, FEB. 1, 1849.

My Lords and Gentlemen.—The period being arrived at which the business of parliament is usually resumed, I have called you together for the discharge of your important duties.

It is satisfactory to me to be enabled to state that both in the north and in the south of Europe the contending parties have consented to a suspension of arms for the purpose of negotiating terms of peace.

The hostilities carried on in the island of Sicily were attended with circumstances so revolting, that the British and French admirals were impelled, by motives of humanity, to interpose and stop the further effusion of blood.

I have availed myself of the interval thus obtained to propose, in conjunction with France, to the king of Naples, an arrangement calculated to produce a permanent settlement of affairs in Sicily.

The negotiation on these matters is still pending. It has been my anxious endeavour, in offering my good offices to the various contending powers, to prevent the extension of a calamitous war, and to lay the foundations of lasting and honourable peace.

It is my constant desire to maintain with all foreign states most friendly relations.

As soon as the interests of the public service will permit, I shall direct the papers connected with these transactions to be laid before you.

A rebellion of a formidable character has broken out in the Punjab, and the governor-general of India has been compelled, for the preservation of the peace of the country, to assemble a considerable force, which is now engaged in military operations against the insurgents; but the tranquillity of British India has not been affected by these unprovoked disturbances.

I again commend to your attention the restrictions imposed on commerce by the navigation laws.

If you shall find that these laws are, in whole or in part, unnecessary for the maintenance of our maritime power, while they fetter trade and industry, you will no doubt deem it right to repeal or modify their provisions.

Gentlemen of the House of Commons:—I have directed the estimates for the service of the year to be laid before you. They will be framed with the most anxious attention to a wise economy. The present aspect of affairs has enabled me to make large reductions on the estimates of last year.

My Lords and Gentlemen:—I observe with satisfaction that this portion of the united kingdom has remained tranquil amidst the convulsions which have disturbed so many parts of Europe. The insurrection in Ireland has not been renewed, but a spirit of disaffection still exists, and I am compelled, to my great regret, to ask for a continuance, for a limited time, of those powers which, in the last session, you deemed necessary for the preservation of the public tranquillity.

I have great satisfaction in stating that commerce is reviving from those shocks which, at the commencement of last session, I had to deplore.

The condition of the manufacturing districts is likewise more encouraging than it has been for a considerable period.

It is also gratifying to me to observe that the state of the revenue is one of progressive improvement.

I have to lament, however, that another failure in the potato crop has caused very severe distress in some parts of Ireland.

The operation of the laws for the relief of the poor in Ireland will properly be a subject of your inquiry, and any measures by which those laws may be

beneficially amended, and the condition of the people may be improved, will receive my cordial assent.

It is with pride and thankfulness that I advert to the loyal spirit of my people, and that attachment to our institutions which has animated them during the period of commercial difficulty, deficient production of food, and political revolution.

I look to the protection of Almighty God for favour in our continued progress, and I trust you will assist me in upholding the fabric of the constitution, founded as it is upon the principles of freedom and justice.

MESSAGE OF THE MEXICAN PRESIDENT,

AT THE OPENING OF THE CONGRESS ON THE FIRST OF JANUARY.

GENTLEMEN:—

Favoured by the hopes of the country, by a general feeling of the necessity of public order, and by a tranquillity which our revolutions had long forbidden, you are once more about to begin the constitutional period of your labours. A happy change in the state of things is realizing itself, such as assures, under those auspices of law and of concord which we have, a further and regular melioration. I congratulate you, gentlemen, most sincerely, that this assembly of the people's representatives begins under circumstances so flattering, and, besides, so favourable to the successful discharge of your legislative duties.

Since the close of your last session I have nothing very notable to announce to you. The government, although contending with incessant obstacles, has gone forward in a course both steady and entirely constitutional. In the several states the same spirit prevails, and much is doing toward the reorganization of the different public business and private pursuits, which were destroyed or paralyzed.

Faithful to its principles, the government will labour unweariedly to carry forward those which it proclaimed in Queretaro, reduced to this single point—"good administration." The papers which shall be laid before you by the secretaries of the several departments will let you see what progress has been made toward accomplishing that great object. Much is yet to be done; and to you it belongs to establish, by wise and just laws, the foundations of an administrative system that shall not permit change and corruption, frequent and fatal.

To-morrow, the treasury department will submit to the congress the estimates of the public expenditures for the coming year; and I may, in advance, felicitate you upon the performance of a duty, about to be perfected by you, which has never been executed, except once, in the long period of twenty-seven years. The estimates once settled by your vote, the treasury will assume a clear and regular orderliness, and the taxes will be paid without repugnance, because it will be known that they are spent in conformity to law. I can assure you, gentlemen, that it is not only not impossible, but quite practicable and even easy, to square our public expenditures with our receipts, and the public debt will be paid with punctuality, and must become a fountain of credit and confidence, if the idea be adopted of establishing a national bank, which, aiding the financial operations of the government, shall banish that confusion in which we have hitherto wavered, without any body's being able to tell what revenues belonged to the treasury and what to its creditors.

Free from any such serious difficulty as might interrupt the friendly relations in which we stand with foreign nations; our administration of justice making with success efforts to render secure all the guarantees of the person

and of property; our public expenditures met by our receipts; the vicious organization of our army reformed, and a militia raised; you can, gentlemen, perceive that our present condition is far from that which, all probabilities considered, was to be expected from us. Let us, then, not lament our past disorders, unless that we may guard against them henceforth. If they recur, it will not be the people's fault; the people desire nothing but rest and tranquillity.

Let us do all that we can to accomplish that popular vow; let the efforts and the feelings of congress and of government be the same, for the principles of moderation and of justice, for a sincere unitedness among the citizens, and for the preservation of that peace within and without, which we owe to the bounty of Divine Providence.

LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF LIBERIA
TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK COLONIZATION
SOCIETY.

DEVONPORT, Dec. 6, 1848.

My Dear Sir:—Since my return from Paris my engagements have been so numerous and pressing that I have not been able to send you even a line to advise you of my doings. I am happy now, however, to inform you that I have succeeded in England quite to my satisfaction. The English and French governments especially have been exceedingly kind. I have concluded with the British government a treaty of amity and commerce, which places the republic upon the footing of the most favoured nations.

Upon an application which I had the honour of making to her majesty's government, they have kindly ordered the British commodore on the African coast to render to the republic the necessary assistance to enable the Liberian authorities to remove from their recently acquired territory at New Cestors the slavers established there. The French government have also placed at our disposal two vessels for the same purpose.

We have every prospect of obtaining from her majesty's government the necessary assistance to enable us to secure the territory of Gallenas. They have also promised to present to the republic a small vessel, to be fitted and sent out soon, to be employed against slavers on the Liberian coast, which will enable us, with the pecuniary aid to purchase Gallenas, no doubt thoroughly and effectually to abolish the inhuman traffic in slaves from the entire coast lying between Sierra Leone and Cape Palmas.

At Brussels I found the government so engaged as not to be able to devote any time to my business, unless I could remain there several days, which I could not conveniently do. I have not been able to visit any of the German states. Chevalier Bunsen, the Prussian minister in London, informed me that his government had been notified of the change which had been effected in the political relations of Liberia, and that he was authorized to say that the Prussian government would follow the example of England and France, and recognise the independence of the republic. I have addressed a letter through their embassy at London to the Prussian court, asking a recognition, and proposing a commercial treaty. I have every assurance that it will be favourably received, but I must leave Europe without arranging any thing definitely with that court. A reply to my communication will be forwarded to Liberia.

I embark to-morrow with my family on board her majesty's ship Amazon, in which vessel the government have been kind enough to grant me a passage for my own country. Therefore I leave England under many, very many obligations to her majesty's government for the kindness and attention I have received at their hands. Not only am I indebted to all the officers of the British government with whom I have had to do; private individuals also have

rendered me important services. Dr. Hodgkin, Samuel Gurney, G. Ralston, George Thompson, and Petty Vaughan, Esq., have been unwearied in their efforts to serve me. Indeed, sir, to name all from whom I have received great attention and kindness during my visit to this country would be impossible.

I have every reason to believe that my visit to Europe will result in great good to Africa in general, and to Liberia in particular. I found much ignorance here with regard to Liberia, and the operations of the society, and many sincere good friends of the African race totally misinformed with respect to the real objects of the Colonization Society, and, in consequence, prejudiced against it. You, however, are aware of these prejudices, and of the arguments used to sustain them. During my sojourn here I have conversed freely with many who hitherto have been violent in their opposition to the society, and think in many instances I have succeeded in correcting their erroneous impressions.

I cannot fail to mention that in Paris I received great assistance and attention from that unwearied friend to liberty, Hon. George Washington Lafayette. He did all in his power, backed by all the members of his family, to facilitate the objects of my mission. I am sure that it was by his assistance, and the assistance of letters furnished me by his son-in-law, Mr. Beaumont, French minister in London, to his government, that I succeeded in arranging my business so quickly in Paris.

I have not time, dear sir, to write another letter; I beg, therefore, that you will inform Rev. Messrs. McLain, Pinney, Tracy, and Mr. Cresson, of my doings in Europe, as far as I have been able to detail them here. When I reach home, the Lord willing, I will send you and them a full account of my proceedings. I cannot omit to mention a noble and generous act of my friend, Samuel Gurney, Esq., of London, who, when I informed him of the desire of the Liberians to secure the Gallenas, that they might extirpate the slave factories at that place, and effectually abolish the slave trade at that point, and that the natives were disposed to sell the territory, but that the consideration demanded was more than the present ability of the Liberian government to meet, pledged himself for *one thousand pounds* to aid them in the purchase.

I beg that you will remember me kindly to all your family. Say to Messrs. Dodge, Stokes, Altenburg, and your son Anson, that I can never forget their kindness to me during my stay in New York. I shall entertain a grateful remembrance of them as long as I live. I am also under lasting obligations to your dear daughters.

I am, dear sir, yours, &c.

ANSON G. PHELPS, Esq.

J. J. ROBERTS.

MANIFESTO OF POPE PIUS IX.

"PIUS IX. TO THE ROMAN PEOPLE.

"The outrage in latter days committed against our person, and the intention openly manifested to continue these acts of violence, (which the Almighty, inspiring men's minds with sentiments of union and moderation, has prevented,) have compelled us to separate ourselves temporarily from our subjects and children, whom we love, and ever shall love.

"The reasons which have induced us to take this important step—heaven knows how painful it is to our hearts—have arisen from the necessity of our enjoying free liberty in the exercise of the sacred duties of the Holy See, as under the circumstances by which we were then afflicted, the Catholic world might reasonably doubt of the freedom of that exercise. The acts of violence of which we complain can alone be attributed to the machinations which have been used, and the measures that have been taken by a class of men degraded in the face of Europe and the world. This is the more evident, as the wrath

of the Almighty has already fallen on their souls, and as it will call down on them, sooner or later, the punishment which is prescribed for them by his church. We recognise humbly, in the ingratitude of these misguided children, the anger of the Almighty, who permits their misfortunes as an atonement for the sins of ourselves and those of our people. But still we cannot, without betraying the sacred duties imposed on us, refrain from protesting formally against their acts, as we did do verbally on the 16th day of November, of painful memory, in presence of the whole diplomatic corps, who on that occasion honourably encircled us, and brought comfort and consolation to our soul, in recognising that a violent and unprecedented sacrilege had been committed. That protest we did intend, as we now do, openly and publicly to repeat, inasmuch as we yielded only to violence, and because we were, and are desirous, it should be made known that all proceedings emanating from such acts of violence were and are devoid of all efficacy and legality. This protesting is a necessary consequence of the malicious labours of these wicked men, and we publish it from the suggestion of our conscience, stimulated as it has been by the circumstances in which we were placed, and the impediments offered to the exercise of our sacred duties. Nevertheless, we confide upon the Most High that the continuance of these evils may be abridged, and we humbly supplicate the God of heaven to avert His wrath, in the language of the royal prophet—*‘Memento Domine David, is et omnis mansuetudinis ejus.’*

“In order that the city of Rome and our states be not deprived of a legal executive, we have nominated a governing commission, composed of the following persons:

“The Cardinal Castricane, President; Monsignor Roberto Roberti Principe di Roviano, Principe Barberini, Marquis Bevilacque di Bologna, Lieut. General Zucchi.

“In confiding to the said governing commission the temporary direction of public affairs, we recommend to our subjects and children, without exception, the conservation of tranquillity and good order. Finally, we desire and command that daily and earnest prayers shall be offered for the safety of our person, and that the peace of the world may be preserved, especially that of our state of Rome, where and with, when children, our heart shall be wherever we in person may dwell within the fold of Christ. And in the fulfilment of our duty as supreme pontiff, we thus humbly and devoutly invoke the great Mother of Mercy, and the holy apostles, Peter and Paul, for their intercession that the city and state of Rome may be saved from the wrath of the Omnipotent God.”

“PIUS PAPA IX.”

“Gaeta, die Nov. 28.”

PROTEST OF POPE PIUS AGAINST THE CREATION OF A JUNTA.

The following is the protest of the Pope, made at Gaeta, against the creation of a Junta at Rome:—

“Raised by divine dispensation, in a manner almost miraculous, in spite of our unworthiness, to the sovereign Pontificate, one of our first cares was to endeavour to establish a union between the subjects of the temporal state of the church, to make peace between families, to do them good in all ways, and as far as depended upon us, to render the state peaceable and flourishing, But the benefits which we did all in our power to heap upon our subjects, the wide-founded institutions which we have granted to their desires, far, as we must in all candour declare, from inspiring that acknowledgment and gratitude which we have every right to expect, have occasioned to our hearts only reiterated pain and bitterness, caused by those ungrateful men whom our paternal eye wished to see daily diminishing in number. All the world can now

tell how our benefits have been answered, what abuse has been made of our concessions; how, by denaturalizing them, and perverting the meaning of our words, they have sought to mislead the multitude, so that these very benefits and institutions have been turned by certain men into arms, with which they have committed the most violent outrages upon our sovereign authority, and against the temporal rights of our Holy See. Our hearts refuse to repeat in detail the events which have taken place since Nov. 15, the day on which a minister who had our confidence was barbarously murdered by the hand of an assassin, applauded with a still greater barbarity by a troop of infuriated enemies to God, to man, and to every just and political institution.

“The first crime opened the way to a series of crimes committed the following day with sacrilegious audacity. They have already incurred the execration of every upright mind in our state, in Italy and in Europe; they have incurred execration in all parts of the earth. This is the reason why we can spare our hearts the intense pain of recapitulating them here. We were constrained to withdraw from the place in which they were committed, from that place where violence prevented us from applying any remedy, reduced to weep over and deplore with good men those sad events, and the still more lamentable want of power in justice to act against the perpetrators of those abominable crimes. Providence has conducted us to the town of Gaeta, where, finding ourselves at full liberty, we have, against the authority of the aforesaid attempts and acts of violence, solemnly renewed the protests which we issued at Rome at the first moment, in the presence of the representatives accredited to us of the courts of Europe, and of other and distant nations. By the same act, without in any manner departing from the institutions we had created, we took care to give temporarily to our States a legitimate governmental representation, in order that in the capital and throughout the state, provision should be made for the regular and ordinary course of public affairs, as well as for the protection of the persons and property of our subjects. By us, moreover, has been prorogued the session of the High Council and Council of deputies, who had recently been called to resume their interrupted sittings

“But these determinations of our authority, instead of causing the perturbators and the authors of the acts of sacrilegious violence of which we have spoken to return to the path of duty, have urged them to make still greater attempts. Arrogating to themselves the rights of sovereignty, which belong only to us, they have, by means of two councils, instituted in the capital an illegitimate governmental representation, under the title of Provisional supreme Junta of the State, which they have published by an act dated the 12th of the present month. The duties of our sovereignty, in which we cannot fail, the solemn oaths by which we have, in the presence of God, promised to preserve the patrimony of the Holy See, and to transmit it in all its integrity to our successors, oblige us to raise our voice solemnly, and protest before God and in the face of the whole universe, against this grand and sacrilegious attempt. Therefore we declare to be null and of no force or effect in law, the acts which have followed the violence committed upon us, protesting, above all, that this Junta of State, established at Rome, is a usurpation of our sovereign power, and that the said Junta has not and cannot have any authority. Be it known, then, to all our subjects, whatever may be their rank or condition, that at Rome, and throughout the whole extent of the pontifical states, there is not, and cannot be, any legitimate power which does not emanate expressly from us; that we have, by the sovereign *motu proprio*, of the 27th of November, instituted a temporary commission of Government, and that to it belongs exclusively the government of the nation during our absence, and until we ourselves shall have otherwise ordained.”

“PIUS PAPA IX.”

PROTOCOL TO THE MEXICAN TREATY.

The house of representatives, on the 5th of February, 1849, by a resolution, called upon the president for the correspondence in relation to the 9th, 10th and 12th articles of the treaty with Mexico, and for explanations, in relation to the following document:

PROTOCOL

Of the conference, previous to the ratification and change of the treaty of peace, between Ambrose H. Sevier and Nathan Clifford, commissioned as ministers plenipotentiary on the part of the United States of America, and Don Luis de la Rosa, minister of foreign and internal affairs of the Mexican republic.

In the city of Queretaro, on the 26th of the month of May, 1848, at a conference between their excellencies, Nathan Clifford and Ambrose H. Sevier, commissioners of the United States of America, with full powers from their government to make to the Mexican republic suitable explanations, in regard to the amendments which the senate and government of the said United States have made in the treaty of peace, friendship, limits and definite settlement, between the two republics, signed in the city of Guadalupe Hidalgo, on the 2d day of February of the present year, and his excellency, Don Luis de la Rosa, minister of foreign affairs of the republic of Mexico, it was agreed, after adequate conversation, respecting the changes alluded to, to record in the present protocol, the following explanations which their aforesaid excellencies, the commissioners, gave, in the name of their government, and in fulfilment of the commission conferred upon them, near the Mexican republic.

1. The American government, by suppressing the 9th article of the treaty of Guadalupe, and substituting the 3d article of the treaty of Louisiana, did not intend to diminish in any way what was agreed upon by the aforesaid article 9th, in favour of the inhabitants of the territories ceded by Mexico. Its understanding is, that all of that agreement is contained in the 3d article of the treaty of Louisiana. In consequence, all the privileges and guarantees, civil, political and religious, which would have been possessed by the inhabitants of the ceded territories, if the 9th article of the treaty had been retained, will be enjoyed by them without any difference, under the article which has been substituted.

2. The American government, by suppressing the 10th article of the treaty of Guadalupe, did not in any way intend to annul the grants of lands made by Mexico in the ceded territories. These grants, notwithstanding the suppression of the article of the treaty, preserve the legal value which they may possess, and the grantees may cause their legitimate titles to be acknowledged before the American tribunals.

Conformably to the law of the United States, legitimate titles to every description of property, personal and real, existing in the ceded territories, are those which were legitimate titles under the Mexican law in California and New Mexico up to the 13th May, 1846, and in Texas, up to the 2d March, 1836.

3. The government of the United States, by suppressing the concluding paragraph of article 12 of the treaty, did not intend to deprive the Mexican republic of the free and unrestrained faculty of ceding, conveying or transferring, at any time, (as it may judge best,) the sum of twelve millions of dollars, which the said government of the United States is to deliver in the places designated by the amended article.

And these explanations having been accepted by the minister of foreign affairs of the Mexican republic, he declared in the name of his government that, with the understanding conveyed by them, the said government would proceed to ratify the treaty of Guadalupe as modified by the senate and

government of the United States. In testimony of which, their excellencies, the aforesaid commissioners and the minister have signed and sealed, in quintuplicate, the present protocol.

(L. S.)

[Signed]

NATHAN CLIFFORD.

(L. S.)

[Signed]

AMBROSE H. SEVIER.

(L. S.)

[Signed]

LUIS DE LA ROSA.

MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES IN RELATION TO THE MEXICAN PROTOCOL.

To the House of Representatives of the United States:—

In reply to the resolutions of the house of representatives of the fifth instant, I communicate herewith a report from the secretary of state, accompanied with all the documents and correspondence relating to the treaty of peace concluded between the United States and Mexico, at Guadalupe Hidalgo, on the 2d of February, 1848, and to the amendments of the senate thereto, as requested by the house in the said resolutions.

Amongst the documents transmitted will be found a copy of the instructions given to the commissioners of the United States, who took to Mexico the treaty as amended by the senate, and ratified by the president of the United States. In my message to the house of representatives of the twenty-ninth of July, 1848, I gave as my reason for declining to furnish these instructions, in compliance with a resolution of the house, that "in my opinion it would be inconsistent with the public interests to give publicity to them at the present time." Although it may still be doubted whether giving them publicity in our own country, and as a necessary consequence, in Mexico, may not have a prejudicial influence on our public interests, yet, as they have been again called for by the house, and called for in connexion with other documents, to the correct understanding of which they are indispensable, I have deemed it my duty to transmit them.

I still entertain the opinion, expressed in the message referred to, "that, as a general rule, applicable to all our important negotiations with foreign powers, it could not fail to be prejudicial to the public interests to publish the instructions to our ministers, until some time had elapsed after the conclusion of such negotiations."

In these instructions of the 18th of March, 1848, it will be perceived "that the task was assigned to the commissioners of the United States of consummating the treaty of peace, which was signed at Guadalupe Hidalgo, on the 2d day of February last, between the United States and the Mexican republic; and which, on the tenth of March last, was ratified by the senate, with amendments."

They were informed "that this brief statement will indicate to you clearly the line of your duty. You are not sent to Mexico for the purpose of negotiating any new treaty, or of changing in any particular the ratified treaty which you will bear with you. None of the amendments adopted by the senate can be rejected or modified, except by the authority of that body. Your whole duty will, then, consist in using every honourable effort to obtain from the Mexican government a ratification of the treaty in the form in which it has been ratified by the senate, and this with the least practicable delay." "For this purpose, it may, and most probably will, become necessary that you should explain to the Mexican minister for foreign affairs, or to the authorized agents of the Mexican government, the reasons which have influenced the senate in adopting these several amendments to the treaty. This duty

you will perform, as much as possible, by personal conferences. Diplomatic notes are to be avoided, unless in case of necessity. These might lead to endless discussions and indefinite delay. Besides, they could not have any practical result, as your mission is confined to procuring a ratification from the Mexican government of the treaty as it came from the senate, and does not extend to the slightest modification in any of its provisions."

The commissioners were sent to Mexico to procure the ratification of the treaty as amended by the senate. Their instructions confined them to this point. It was proper that the amendments to the treaty adopted by the United States should be explained to the Mexican government, and explanations were made by the secretary of state, in his letter of the 18th of March, 1848, to the Mexican minister of foreign affairs under my direction. This despatch was communicated to congress with my message of the 6th of July last, communicating the treaty of peace, and published by their order. This despatch was transmitted by our commissioners from the city of Mexico to the Mexican government, then at Queretaro, on the 17th of April, 1848, and its receipt acknowledged on the 19th of the same month. During the whole time that the treaty, as amended, was before, the congress of Mexico, these explanations of the secretary of state, and these alone, were before them.

The president of Mexico, on these explanations, on the 8th day of May, 1848, submitted the amended treaty to the Mexican congress and on the 25th of May that congress approved the treaty as amended without modification or alteration. The final action of the Mexican congress has taken place before the commissioners of the United States had been officially received by the Mexican authorities, or held any conference with them, or had any other communication on the subject of the treaty, except to transmit the letter of the secretary of state.

In their despatch transmitted to congress, with my message of the 6th of July last, communicating the treaty of peace dated "City of Queretaro, May 25th, 1848, nine o'clock, P. M.," the commissioners say:—"We have the satisfaction to inform you that we reached this city this afternoon, at about five o'clock, and that the treaty, as amended by the senate of the United States, passed the Mexican senate about the hour of our arrival, by a vote of 33 to 5. It having previously passed the house of deputies, nothing now remains but to exchange the ratifications of the treaty."

On the next day, (the 26th of May) the commissioners were, for the first time, presented to the president of the republic, and their credentials placed in his hands. On this occasion, the commissioners delivered an address to the president of Mexico, and he replied. In their despatch of the 30th of May, the commissioners say:—"We enclose a copy of our address to the president, and also a copy of his reply. Several conferences afterwards took place between Messrs. Rosa, Cuevas, Couto, and ourselves, which it is thought not necessary to recapitulate, as we enclose a copy of the protocol, which contains the substance of the conversations. We have now the satisfaction to announce that the exchange of ratifications was effected to-day." This despatch was communicated with my message of the 6th of July last, and published by order of congress.

The treaty, as amended by the senate of the United States, with the accompanying papers, and the evidence that in that form it had been ratified by Mexico, was received at Washington on the 4th day of July, 1848, and immediately proclaimed as the supreme law of the land. On the 6th of July, I communicated to congress the ratified treaty, with such accompanying documents as were deemed material to a full understanding of the subject, to the end that congress might adopt the legislation necessary and proper to carry the treaty into effect. Neither the address of the commissioners, nor the reply of the president of Mexico, on the occasion of their presentation, nor

the memorandum of conversations embraced in the paper called a protocol, nor the correspondence now sent, were communicated, because they were not regarded as in any way material; and in this I conformed to the practice of our government. It rarely, if ever, happens that all the correspondence, and especially the instructions to our ministers is communicated. Copies of these papers are now transmitted, as being within the resolutions of the House, calling for all such "correspondence as appertains to said treaty."

When these papers were received at Washington, peace had been restored, the first instalment of three millions paid to Mexico, the blockades were raised, the city of Mexico evacuated, and our troops on their return home. The war was at an end, and the treaty as ratified by the United States was binding on both parties, and already executed in a great degree. In this condition of things, it was not competent for the President alone, or for the President and Senate, or for the President, Senate, and House of Representatives, combined, to abrogate the treaty, to annul the peace, and restore a state of war, except by a solemn declaration of war.

Had the protocol varied the treaty as amended by the Senate of the United States, it would have had no binding effect.

It was obvious that the commissioners of the United States did not regard the protocol as in any degree a part of the treaty nor as modifying or altering the treaty as amended by the Senate. They communicated it as the substance of conversations held after the Mexican Congress had ratified the treaty, and they knew that the approval of the Mexican Congress was as essential to the validity of a treaty in all its parts, as the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States. They knew, too, that they had no authority to alter or modify the treaty in the form in which it had been ratified by the United States, but that if failing to procure the ratification of the Mexican government, otherwise than with amendments, their duty, imposed by express instructions, was to ask of Mexico to send without delay a commissioner to Washington to exchange ratifications here, if the amendments of the treaty proposed by Mexico, on being submitted, should be adopted by the senate of the United States.

I was equally well satisfied that the government of Mexico had agreed to the treaty as amended by the senate of the United States, and did not regard the protocol as modifying, enlarging, or diminishing its terms or effect.

The president of that republic, in submitting the amended treaty to the Mexican Congress, in his message on the 8th day of May, 1848, said,—“If the treaty could have been submitted to your deliberations precisely as it came from the hands of the plenipotentiaries, my satisfaction at seeing the war at last brought to an end would not have been lessened, as it this day is, in consequence of the modifications introduced into it by the senate of the United States, and which have received the sanction of the president.” “At present it is sufficient for us to say to you, that if in the opinion of the government justice had not been evinced on the part of the senate and government of the United States, in introducing such modifications, it is presumed on the other hand, that they are not of such importance that they should set aside the treaty. I believe, on the contrary, that it ought to be ratified upon the same terms in which it has already received the sanction of the American government. My opinion is also greatly strengthened by the fact that a new negotiation is neither expected nor considered possible; much less could another be brought forward upon a basis more favourable for the republic.”

The deliberations of the Mexican congress, with no explanation before that body from the United States, except the letter of the secretary of state, resulted in the ratification of the treaty as recommended by the president of that republic, in the form in which it had been amended and ratified by the United States. The conversations embodied in the paper called a protocol,

took place after the action of the Mexican congress was complete; and there is no reason to suppose that the government of Mexico ever submitted the protocol to the congress, or ever treated it or regarded it as in any sense a new negotiation, or as operating any modification or change of the amended treaty. If such had been its effect, it was a nullity until approved by the Mexican congress; and such approval was never made or intimated to the United States. In the final consummation of the ratification of the treaty by the president of Mexico, no reference is made to it. On the contrary, this ratification, which was delivered to the commissioners of the United States, and is now in the state department, contains a full and explicit recognition of the amendments of the senate just as they had been communicated to that government by the secretary of state, and had been afterwards approved by the Mexican congress. It declares that, "having seen and examined the said treaty, and the modifications made by the senate of the United States of America, and having given an account thereof to the general congress, conformably to the requirement in the 14th paragraph of the 110th article of the federal constitution of these United States, that body has thought proper to approve of the said treaty with the modifications thereto, in all their parts; and in consequence thereof, exerting the power granted to me by the constitution, I accept, ratify, and confirm the said treaty with its modifications, and promise, in the name of the Mexican republic, to fulfil and observe it, and cause it to be fulfilled and observed."

Upon an examination of this protocol, when it was received with the ratified treaty, I did not regard it as material, or as in any way attempting to modify or change the treaty, as it had been amended by the Senate of the United States.

The first explanation which it contains is, "That the American government, by suppressing the ninth article of the treaty of Guadaloupe, and substituting the third article of the treaty of Louisiana, did not intend to diminish, in any way, what was agreed upon by the aforesaid article (ninth,) in favour of the inhabitants of the territories ceded by Mexico. Its understanding is, that all of that agreement is contained in the third article of the treaty of Louisiana. In consequence, all the privileges and guarantees, civil, political, and religious, which would have been possessed by the inhabitants of the ceded territories, if the ninth article of the treaty had been ratified, will be enjoyed by them without any difference under the article which has been substituted."

The ninth article of the original treaty stipulated for the incorporation of the Mexican inhabitants of the ceded territories, and their admission into the Union, "as soon as possible, according to the principles of the federal constitution, to the enjoyment of all the rights of citizens of the United States." It provided, also, that in the mean time they should be maintained "in the enjoyment of their liberty, their property, and the civil rights now vested in them, according to the Mexican laws." It secured to them similar political rights with the inhabitants of the other territories of the United States, and at least equal to the inhabitants of Louisiana and Florida, when they were in a territorial condition. It then proceeded to guarantee that ecclesiastics and religious corporations should be protected in the discharge of the offices of their ministry, and the enjoyment of their property of every kind, whether individual or corporate; and, finally, that there should be a free communication between the catholics of the ceded territories and their ecclesiastical authorities, "even although such authorities should reside within the limits of the Mexican republic, as defined by this treaty."

The ninth article of the treaty as adopted by the Senate is much more comprehensive in its terms, and explicit in its meaning, and it clearly embraces, in comparatively few words, all the guarantees inserted in the original article. It is as follows: "Mexicans who, in the territories aforesaid, shall not pre-

serve the character of citizens of the Mexican republic conformably with what is stipulated in the preceding article, shall be incorporated into the Union of the United States, and be admitted, at the proper time (to be judged of by the Congress of the United States,) to the enjoyment of all the rights of citizens of the United States, according to the principles of the constitution, and in the mean time shall be maintained and protected in the free enjoyment of their liberty and property, and secured in the free exercise of their religion without restriction." This article, which was substantially copied from the Louisiana treaty, provides equally with the original article for the admission of these inhabitants into the Union; and, in the mean time, whilst they shall remain in a territorial state, by one sweeping provision, declares that they shall be maintained and protected in the free enjoyment of their liberty and property, and secured in the free exercise of their religion without restriction."

This guarantee embraces every kind of property, whether held by ecclesiastics or laymen, whether belonging to corporations or individuals. It secures to these inhabitants the free exercise of their religion, without restriction, whether they choose to place themselves under the spiritual authority of pastors resident within the Mexican republic or the ceded territories. It was, it is presumed, to place this construction beyond all question, that the Senate superadded the words, "without restriction," to the religious guarantee contained in the corresponding article of the Louisiana treaty. Congress itself does not possess the power, under the constitution, to make any law prohibiting the free exercise of religion. If the ninth article of the treaty, whether in its original or amended form, had been entirely omitted in the treaty, all the rights and privileges which either of them confers, would have been secured to the inhabitants of the ceded territories, by the constitution and laws of the United States.

The protocol asserts that "the American government, by suppressing the tenth article of the treaty of Guadaloupe, did not, in any way, intend to annul the grants of land made by Mexico in the ceded territories;" that "these grants, notwithstanding the suppression of the articles of the treaty, preserve the legal value which they may possess; and the grantees may cause their legitimate titles to be acknowledged before the American tribunals;" and then proceeds to state, that "conformably to the law of the United States, legitimate titles to every description of property, personal and real, existing in the ceded territories, are those which were legitimate titles, under the Mexican law in California and New Mexico, up to the thirteenth of May, 1846; and in Texas, up to the second of March, 1836." The former was the date of the declaration of war against Mexico, and the latter that of the declaration of independence by Texas.

The objection to the tenth article of the original treaty was, not that it protected legitimate titles which our laws would have equally protected without it, but that it most unjustly attempted to resuscitate grants which had become a mere nullity, by allowing the grantees the same period after the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty to which they had been originally entitled after the date of their grants, for the purpose of performing the conditions on which they had been made. In submitting the treaty to the Senate, I had recommended the rejection of this article. That portion of it in regard to lands in Texas did not receive a single vote in the Senate. This information was communicated by the letter of the Secretary of State to the minister for foreign affairs of Mexico, and was in possession of the Mexican government during the whole period the treaty was before the Mexican congress, and the article itself was reprobated in that letter in the strongest terms. Besides, our commissioners to Mexico had been instructed that "neither the President nor the Senate of the United States can ever consent to ratify any

treaty containing the tenth article of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in favour of grantees of land in Texas or elsewhere." And again: "Should the Mexican government persist in retaining this article, then all prospect of immediate peace is ended, and of this you may give them an absolute assurance."

On this point the language of the protocol is free from ambiguity; but if it were otherwise, is there any individual, American or Mexican, who would place such a construction upon it as to convert it into a vain attempt to revive this article, which had been so often and so solemnly condemned? Surely no person could for one moment suppose that either the commissioners of the United States or the Mexican minister for foreign affairs, ever entertained the purpose of thus setting at naught the deliberate decision of the President and Senate, which had been communicated to the Mexican government with the assurance that their abandonment of this obnoxious article was essential to the restoration of peace.

But the meaning of the protocol is plain. It is simply that the nullification of this article was not intended to destroy valid legitimate titles to land which existed and were in full force independently of the provisions, and without the aid of this article. Notwithstanding it has been expunged from the treaty, these grants were to "preserve the legal value which they may possess." The refusal to revive grants which had become extinct was not to invalidate those which were in full force and vigour. That such was the clear understanding of the Senate of the United States, and this in perfect accordance with the protocol, is manifest from the fact, that whilst they struck from the treaty this unjust article, they at the same time sanctioned and ratified the last paragraph of the eighth article of the treaty, which declares that, "In the said territories, property of every kind, now belonging to Mexicans not established there, shall be inviolably respected. The present owners, the heirs of these, and all Mexicans who may hereafter acquire said property by contract, shall enjoy with respect to it guarantees equally ample as if the same belonged to citizens of the United States."

Without any stipulation in the treaty to this effect, all such valid titles under the Mexican government would have been protected under the constitution and laws of the United States.

The third and last explanation contained in the protocol is, that "the government of the United States, by suppressing the concluding paragraph of article twelfth of the treaty, did not intend to deprive the Mexican republic of the free and unrestrained faculty of ceding, conveying, or transferring, at any time, (as it may judge best,) the sum of twelve millions of dollars which the same government of the United States is to deliver in the places designated by the amended article."

The concluding paragraph, or rather sentence, of the original twelfth article thus suppressed by the Senate, is in the following language: "Certificates, in proper form, for the said instalments respectively, in such sums as shall be desired by the Mexican government, and transferable by it, shall be delivered to the said government by that of the United States."

From this bare statement of facts, the meaning of the protocol is obvious. Although the Senate had declined to create a government stock for the twelve millions of dollars, and issue transferable certificates for the amount, in such sums as the Mexican government might desire; yet they could not have intended thereby to deprive that government of the faculty which every creditor possesses of transferring for his own benefit the obligation of his debtor, whatever this may be worth, according to his will and pleasure.

It cannot be doubted that the twelfth article of the treaty, as it now stands, contains a positive obligation, "in consideration of the extension acquired by the boundaries of the United States," to pay to the Mexican republic twelve millions of dollars in four equal annual instalments of three millions each.

This obligation may be assigned by the Mexican government to any person whatever; but the assignee, in such case, would stand in no better condition than that government. The amendment of the Senate, prohibiting the issue of a government transferable stock for the amount, produces this effect, and no more.

The protocol contains nothing from which it can be inferred that the assignee could rightfully demand the payment of the money, in case the consideration should fail, which is stated on the face of the obligation.

With this view of the whole protocol, and considering that the explanations which it contained were in accordance with the treaty, I did not deem it necessary to take any action upon the subject. Had it varied from the terms of the treaty, as amended by the Senate, although it would even then have been a nullity in itself, yet duty might have required that I should make this fact known to the Mexican government. This not being the case, I treated it in the same manner I would have done had these explanations been made verbally by the commissioners to the Mexican minister for foreign affairs, and communicated in a despatch to the state department.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 8, 1849.

JAMES K. POLK.

REPORT OF COL. R. B. MASON, MILITARY GOVERNOR OF CALIFORNIA.

[We make copious extracts from this important despatch from Col. Mason to the Adjutant General, under date of the 17th August, 1848. Col. M. left Monterey on the 17th of June, accompanied by Lieut. Sherman, on a visit to "the newly discovered gold placer in the valley of the Sacramento."]

We reached San Francisco on the 20th, and found that all, or nearly all its male inhabitants had gone to the mines. The town, which, a few months before, was so busy and thriving, was then almost deserted. On the evening of the 24th the horses of the escort were crossed to Sousoleto in a launch, and on the following day we resumed the journey, by way of Bodega and Sonoma, to Sutter's fort, where we arrived on the morning of the 2d of July. Along the whole route mills were lying idle, fields of wheat were open to cattle and horses, houses vacant, and farms going to waste. At Sutter's there was more life and business. Launches were discharging their cargoes at the river, and carts were hauling goods to the fort, where already were established several stores, a hotel, &c. Captain Sutter had only two mechanics in his employ (a wagon-maker and a blacksmith,) whom he was then paying ten dollars a day. Merchants pay him a monthly rent of \$100 per room; and whilst I was there, a two-story house in the fort was rented as a hotel for \$500 a month.

At the urgent solicitation of many gentlemen, I delayed there to participate in the first public celebration of our national anniversary at that fort, but on the 5th resumed the journey, and proceeded twenty-five miles up the American fork, to a point on it now known as the Lower Mines, or Mormon Diggings. The hill sides were thickly strewn with canvass tents and bush arbours; a store was erected, and several boarding shanties in operation. The day was intensely hot, yet about two hundred men were at work in the full glare of the sun, washing for gold—some with tin pans, some with close-woven Indian baskets, but the greater part had a rude machine, known as the cradle. This is on rockers, six or eight feet long, open at the foot, and at its head has a coarse grate or sieve; the bottom is rounded, with small cleets nailed across. Four men are required to work this machine; one digs

the ground in the bank close by the stream, another carries it to the cradle and empties it on the grate, a third gives a violent rocking motion to the machine, whilst a fourth dashes on water from the stream itself.

The sieve keeps the coarse stones from entering the cradle, the current of water washes off the earthy matter, and the gravel is gradually carried out at the foot of the machine, leaving the gold mixed with a heavy fine black sand above the first clefts. The sand and gold mixed together are then drawn off through auger holes into a pan below, are dried in the sun, and afterwards separated by blowing off the sand. A party of four men thus employed at the lower mines averaged \$100 a day. The Indians, and those who have nothing but pans or willow baskets, gradually wash out the earth, and separate the gravel by hand, leaving nothing but the gold mixed with sand, which is separated in the manner before described. The gold in the lower mines is in fine, bright scales, of which I send several specimens.

As we ascended the south branch of the American fork, the country became more broken and mountainous; and at the saw-mill, twenty-five miles above the lower washings, or fifty miles from Sutter's, the hills rise to about a thousand feet above the level of the Sacramento plain. Here a species of pine occurs, which led to the discovery of the gold. Capt. Sutter, feeling the great want of lumber, contracted, in September last, with a Mr. Marshall, to build a saw-mill at that place. It was erected in the course of the past winter and spring—a dam and race constructed; but when the water was let on the wheel, the tail-race was found to be too narrow to permit the water to escape with sufficient rapidity. Mr. Marshall, to save labour, let the water directly into the race with a strong current, so as to wash it wider and deeper. He effected his purpose, and a large bed of mud and gravel was carried to the foot of the race.

One day Mr. Marshall, as he was walking down the race to this deposit of mud, observed some glittering particles at its upper edge; he gathered a few, examined them, and became satisfied of their value. He then went to the fort, told Capt. Sutter of his discovery, and they agreed to keep it secret until a certain grist-mill of Sutter's was finished. It, however, got out, and spread like magic. Remarkable success attended the labours of the first explorers, and in a few weeks hundreds of men were drawn thither. . . .

. . . The gold is in scales a little coarser than those of the lower mines. From the mill, Mr. Marshall guided me up the mountain, on the opposite or north bank of the south fork, where, in the bed of small streams or ravines, now dry, a great deal of coarse gold has been found. I there saw several parties at work, all of whom were doing very well; a great many specimens were shown me, some as heavy as four or five ounces in weight. . . . You will perceive that some of the specimens accompanying this hold mechanically pieces of quartz; that the surface is rough, and evidently moulded in the crevice of a rock. This gold cannot have been carried far by water, but must have remained near where it was first deposited from the rock that once bound it. . . . On the 7th of July I left the mill, and crossed to a small stream emptying into the American fork, three or four miles below the saw-mill. I struck this stream (now known as Weber's creek) at the washings of Sunol & Co. They had about thirty Indians employed, whom they pay in merchandise. They were getting gold of a character similar to that found in the main fork. . . .

From this point we proceeded up the stream about eight miles, where we found a great many people and Indians—some engaged in the bed of the stream, and others in the small valleys that put into it. These latter are exceedingly rich, and two ounces were considered an ordinary yield for a day's work. A small gutter, not more than a hundred yards long by four feet wide, and two or three feet deep, was pointed out to me as the one where two men,

William Daly and Perry M'Coon, had, a short time before, obtained \$17,000 worth of gold. Capt. Weber informed me that he knew that these two men had employed four white men and about a hundred Indians, and that, at the end of one week's work, they paid off their party, and had left \$10,000 worth of this gold. Another small ravine was shown me, from which had been taken upwards of \$12,000 worth of gold. Hundreds of similar ravines, to all appearances, are as yet untouched.

Mr. Neligh, an agent of Commodore Stockton, had been at work about three weeks in the neighbourhood, and showed me, in bags and bottles, over \$2,000 worth of gold; and Mr. Lyman, a gentleman of education, and worthy of every credit, said he had been engaged with four others, with a machine, on the American fork, just below Sutter's mill; that they worked eight days, and that his share was at the rate of \$50 a day.

The country on either side of Weber's creek is much broken up by hills, and is intersected in every direction by small streams or ravines, which contain more or less gold. Those that have been worked are barely scratched; and although thousands of ounces have been carried away, I do not consider that a serious impression has been made upon the whole. Every day was developing new and richer deposits; and the only impression seemed to be, that the metal would be found in such abundance as seriously to depreciate in value.

On the 8th of July I returned to the lower mines, and on the following day to Sutter's, where, on the 10th, I was making preparations for a visit to the Feather, Yubah, and Bear rivers, when I received a letter from Commander A. R. Long, United States navy, who had just arrived at San Francisco from Mazatlan, with a crew for the sloop-of-war Warren, with orders to take that vessel to the squadron at La Paz. Capt. Long wrote to me that the Mexican Congress had adjourned without ratifying the treaty of peace; that he had letters for me from Commodore Jones, and that his orders were to sail with the Warren on or before the 20th of July. In consequence of these, I determined to return to Monterey, and accordingly arrived there on the 17th of July. Before leaving Sutter's I satisfied myself that gold existed in the bed of the Feather river, in the Yubah and Bear, and in many of the small streams that lie between the latter and the American fork; also, that it had been found in the Cosummes, to the south of the American fork. In each of these streams the gold is found in small scales, whereas in the intervening mountains it occurs in coarser lumps.

Mr. Sinclair, whose rancho is three miles above Sutter's, on the north side of the American, employs about fifty Indians on the north fork, not far from its junction with the main stream. He had been engaged about five weeks when I saw him, and up to that time his Indians had used simply closely woven willow baskets. His nett proceeds (which I saw) were about \$16,000 worth of gold. He showed me the proceeds of his last week's work—fourteen pounds avoirdupois of clean-washed gold.

The principal store at Sutter's fort, that of Brannan & Co., had received, in payment for goods, \$36,000 worth of this gold from the 1st of May to the 10th of July. Other merchants had also made extensive sales. Large quantities of goods were daily sent forward to the mines, as the Indians, heretofore so poor and degraded, have suddenly become consumers of the luxuries of life.

The most moderate estimate I could obtain from men acquainted with the subject was, that upwards of four thousand men were working in the gold district, of whom more than one-half were Indians; and that from \$30,000 to \$50,000 worth of gold, if not more, was daily obtained. The entire gold district, with very few exceptions of grants made some years ago by the Mexican authorities, is on land belonging to the United States.

The discovery of these vast deposits of gold has entirely changed the character of Upper California. Its people, before engaged in cultivating their small patches of ground, and guarding their heads of cattle and horses, have all gone to the mines, or are on their way thither. Labourers of every trade have left their work-benches, and tradesmen their shops. Sailors desert their ships as fast as they arrive on the coast, and several vessels have gone to sea with hardly enough hands to spread a sail. Two or three are now at anchor in San Francisco, with no crew on board. Many desertions, too, have taken place from the garrisons within the influence of these mines: twenty-six soldiers have deserted from the post of Sonoma, twenty-four from that of San Francisco, and twenty-four from Monterey.

I really think some extraordinary mark of favour should be given to those soldiers who remain faithful to their flag throughout this tempting crisis. No officer can now live in California on his pay, money has so little value; the prices of necessary articles of clothing and subsistence are so exorbitant, and labour so high, that to hire a cook or servant has become an impossibility, save to those who are earning from thirty to fifty dollars a day. This state of things cannot last for ever. Yet, from the geographical position of California, and the new character it has assumed as a mining country, prices of labour will always be high, and will hold out temptations to desert. I therefore have to report, if the government wish to prevent desertions here on the part of men, and to secure zeal on the part of officers, their pay must be increased very materially.

Mr. Dye, a gentleman residing in Monterey, and worthy of every credit, has just returned from Feather river. He tells me that the company to which he belonged worked seven weeks and two days, with an average of fifty Indians (washers,) and that their gross product was two hundred and seventy-three pounds of gold. His share (one-seventh,) after paying all expenses, is about thirty-seven pounds, which he brought with him and exhibited in Monterey. I see no labouring man from the mines who does not show his two, three, or four pounds of gold. A soldier of the artillery company returned here, a few days ago, from the mines, having been absent on furlough twenty days. He made, by trading and working during that time, \$1500. During these twenty days he was travelling ten or eleven days, leaving but a week, in which he made a sum of money greater than he receives in pay, clothes, and rations, during a whole enlistment of five years.

Gold is also believed to exist on the eastern slope of the Sierra Nevada; and, when at the mines, I was informed by an intelligent Mormon that it had been found near the Great Salt Lake by some of his fraternity. Nearly all the Mormons are leaving California to go to the Salt Lake; and this they surely would not do unless they were sure of finding gold there in the same abundance as they now do on the Sacramento.

The gold "placer" near the mission of San Fernando has long been known, but has been little wrought, for want of water. This is in a spur that puts off from the Sierra Nevada, (see Fremont's map;) the same in which the present mines occur. There is, therefore, every reason to believe that, in the intervening spaces of five hundred miles (entirely unexplored) there must be many hidden and rich deposits. The "placer" gold is now substituted as the currency of this country.

I would recommend that a mint be established at some eligible point of the bay of San Francisco; and that machinery, and all the necessary apparatus and workmen, be sent out by sea. These workmen must be bound by high wages, and even bonds, to secure their faithful services, else the whole plan may be frustrated by their going to the mines as soon as they arrive in California. . . . Before leaving the subject of mines I will mention that, on my return from the Sacramento, I touched at New Almoder, the

quicksilver mine of Mr. Alexander Forbes, consul of her Britannic majesty at Tepic. This mine is in a spur of mountains one thousand feet above the level of the bay of San Francisco, and is distant, in a southern direction, from the Pueblo de San Jose about twelve miles. The ore (cinnabar) occurs in a large vein dipping at a strong angle to the horizon. Mexican miners are employed in working it, and driving shafts and galleries about six feet by seven, following the vein.

The fragments of rock and ore are removed on the backs of Indians, in raw-hide sacks. The ore is then hauled in an ox-wagon from the mouth of the mine down to a valley well supplied with wood and water, in which the furnaces are situated. The furnaces are of the simplest construction—exactly like a common bake-oven—in the crown of which is inserted a whaler's trying-kettle; another inverted kettle forms the lid. From a hole in the lid a small brick channel leads to an apartment, or chamber, in the bottom of which is inserted a small iron kettle. This chamber has a chimney.

In the morning of each day the kettles are filled with the mineral (broken in small pieces), mixed with lime; fire is then applied, and kept up all day. The mercury is volatilized, passes into the chamber, is condensed on the sides and bottom of the chamber, and flows into the pot prepared for it. No water is used to condense the mercury.

During a visit I made last spring, four such ovens were in operation, and yielded, in the two days I was there, six hundred and fifty-six pounds of quicksilver, worth, at Mazatlan, \$1 80 per pound. Mr. Walkinshaw, the gentleman now in charge of this mine, tells me that the vein is improving, and that he can afford to keep his people employed even in these extraordinary times. This mine is very valuable of itself, and becomes the more so as mercury is extensively used in obtaining gold. It is not, at present, used in California for that purpose, but it will be at some future time. When I was at this mine last spring other parties were engaged in searching for veins, but none have been discovered that are worth following up, although the earth in that whole range of hills is highly discoloured, indicating the presence of this ore. I send several beautiful specimens, properly labelled. The amount of quicksilver in Mr. Forbes' vats on the 15th of July was about twenty-five hundred pounds.

STATE DEPARTMENT.

Extract of a letter from Thomas O. Larkin, Esq., late consul, and now navy agent of the United States, to the Secretary of State, dated at Monterey, November 16th, 1848, and received in this city on Friday evening last.

"The digging and washing for gold continues to increase on the Sacramento placer, so far as regards the number of persons engaged in the business, and the size and quantity of the metal daily obtained. I have had in my hands several pieces of gold, about twenty-three carats fine, weighing from one to two pounds, and have it from good authority that pieces have been found weighing sixteen pounds. Indeed, I have heard of one specimen that weighed twenty-five pounds.

There are many at the placer, who in June last had not one hundred dollars, now in possession of from five to twenty thousand dollars, which they made by digging gold, and trading with the Indians. Several, I believe, have made more. A common calico shirt, or even a silver dollar, has been taken by an Indian for gold, without regard to size; and a half to one ounce of gold—say \$8 to \$16—is now considered the price of a shirt, while from three to ten ounces is the price of a blanket. One hundred dollars a day for several days, was, and is considered, a common remuneration for the labour of a gold digger, though few work over a

month at a time, as the fatigue is very great. From July to October, one-half the gold hunters have been afflicted either with the ague and fever, or the intermittent fever, and twenty days' absence from the placer during these months, is necessary to escape these diseases. There have not, however, been many fatal cases.

The gold is now sold, from the smallest imaginary piece in size, to pieces of one pound in weight, at \$16 per troy ounce, for all the purposes of commerce; but those who are under the necessity of raising coin to pay duties to the government, are obliged to accept from \$10 to \$11 per ounce. All the coin in California is likely to be locked up in the custom-house, as the last tariff of our congress is in force here in regard to the receipt of money.

Could you know the value of the California placer, as I know it, you would think you had been instrumental in obtaining a most splendid purchase for our country, to put no other construction on the late treaty.

The placer is known to be two or three hundred miles long; and as discoveries are constantly being made, it may prove 1,000 miles in length—in fact, it is, not counting the intermediate miles yet unexplored. From five to ten millions of gold must be our exports this and next year. How many more years this state of things will continue, I cannot say. You may wonder why I continue my correspondence. I answer, from habit, and your many remarks of the interest you take in my letters."

NAVY DEPARTMENT.

Extract from letter No. 34, October 25, 1848, from Commodore Jones to the Secretary of the Navy.

"Nothing, sir, can exceed the deplorable state of things in all upper California at this time, growing out of the maddening effect of the gold mania. I am sorry to say that even in this squadron some of the officers are a little tainted, and have manifested restlessness under moderate restrictions imperiously demanded by the exigencies of the times, as you will perceive by the enclosed paper, addressed to three of the lieutenants.

"I am, however, happy to say that I have not been disappointed in the good effects of the means employed to prevent desertion, and to maintain order in the squadron, as but one desertion has taken place since the rush of eight from this ship on the evening of the 18th instant; and that the views and opinions of the few officers who were so skeptical as to the right or efficacy of the means employed to prevent offences and to punish crime, have undergone a most favourable change, whereby I shall be enabled to keep on this coast until the whirlwind of anarchy and confusion confounded is superseded by the establishment of some legal government potent enough to enforce law, and to protect life and property, which at this time is in great jeopardy every where outside our bulwarks."

FLAG SHIP OHIO, BAY OF MONTEREY, }
Nov. 2, 1848. }

[No. 36.]

SIR,—In my letter No. 24, from La Paz, I recommended the retention on this coast of all cruising ships of the Pacific squadron, and pointed out how they could be kept in repair and manned without returning round Cape Horn to the Atlantic States. When that recommendation was made, I had no conception of the state of things in Upper California. For the present, and I fear for some years to come, it will be impossible for the United States to maintain any naval or military establishment in California; as at present no hope of reward nor fear of punishment is sufficient to make binding any contract between man and man upon the soil of California.

To send troops out here would be needless, for they would immediately desert. To show what chance there is for apprehending deserters, I enclose an advertisement which has been widely circulated for a fortnight, but without bringing in a single deserter. Among the deserters from the squadron are some of the best petty officers and seamen, having but few months to serve, and large balances due them, amounting in the aggregate to over ten thousand dollars.

* * * * *

There is a great deficiency of coin in the country, and especially in the mines; the traders, by taking advantage of the pressing necessity of the digger, not unfrequently compelling him to sell his ounce of good gold for a silver dollar; and it has been bought, under like circumstances, for fifty cents per ounce, of Indians. To this state of dependence, labouring miners are now subjected, and must be until coin is more abundant. Disease, congestive and intermittent fever, is making great havoc among the diggers, as they are almost destitute of food and raiment, and, for the most part, without houses of any kind to protect them from the inclement season now at hand.

The commerce of this coast may be said to be entirely cut off by desertion. No sooner does a merchant ship arrive in any of the ports of California, than all hands leave her; in some instances, *captain, cook, and all*. At this moment, there are a number of merchant ships thus abandoned at San Francisco, and such will be the fate of all that subsequently arrive. The master of the ship "Izaak Walton," that brought stores for the squadron at this port, offered, without success, \$50 per month to Callao, and thence \$20 per month home, to *disbanded volunteers*, not seamen.

We were obliged at last to supply him with four men, whose terms of service were drawing to a close.* This state of things is not confined to California alone. Oregon is fast depopulating; her inhabitants pour into the gold diggings; and foreign residents and runaway sailors from the Sandwich Islands are arriving by every vessel that approaches this coast.

* * * * *

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

THOMAS AP C. JONES,

Commander-in-Chief, Pacific Squadron.

Hon. J. Y. MASON, Secretary of the Navy.

WAR DEPARTMENT.

MONTEREY, (CAL.) Oct. 23, 1848.

GENERAL,—I arrived here on the 18th inst. from San Diego, and have paid the four companies of the 1st New York regiment in full, and they have all started for the gold mines. The three companies composing the command of Lieut. Col. Burton, are now here, and will be mustered out to-day or to-morrow, and paid by Major Hill immediately, as the residents are extremely anxious to get rid of them; they have the place in their power. Nearly all the men of Company "F," 3d artillery, have deserted.

We have the Ohio, Warren, Dale, Lexington, and Southampton in port; but they *cannot land a man*, as they desert as soon as they set foot on shore. The only thing the ships could do in case of an outbreak, would be to fire upon the town. The volunteers at Santa Barbara, Los Angeles, &c., behaved very well—no murmuring or difficulties of any kind with them—they complained that they were not allowed travelling allowance.

The funds from Mazatlan have at last reached here; the amount is \$130,000. It arrived very opportunely, as we have expended nearly all we had. The

* Our ships are all short of their complements; the Ohio 145 short. We can spare no more to our merchantmen.

amount is a great deal more than will be required, as there are at present but two companies in California—one of 1st dragoons, the other of 3d artillery; the latter reduced to a mere skeleton by desertion, and the former in a fair way to share the same fate. I should suppose that \$20,000 would be sufficient to pay the present force (provided the companies are filled up,) for a year.

Treasury notes are good for nothing now; bills on the United States could not be negotiated on any terms. Gold dust can be purchased for eight or ten dollars the ounce, and it is said to be worth \$18 in the United States—consequently all remittances are made in it.

Colonel Mason, and most of the army officers, are at Fort Sutter. Commodore Jones thinks it would be very imprudent to bring the public funds on shore, except in such sums as may be required for immediate use. He does not like to leave a ship here, on account of the difficulty of keeping the men. * * *

The gold fever rages as bad as ever, and the quantity collected has not diminished, but increased. Provisions, clothing, and all the necessaries of life, are at most exorbitant prices. Living was always expensive in this country, but now it passes all reason—board four dollars per day, washing five to six dollars per dozen. Merchants' clerks are receiving from \$1800 to \$3000 per annum salary. What the government will do for civil officers, I do not know. Salaries will have to correspond with the times.

The pay of governors, judges, &c., as allowed in the United States, will hardly compare with that paid to salesmen and shop clerks here.

I am, sir, respectfully, your obedient servant,

WILLIAM RICH, A. P. U. S. A.

Gen. N. Towson, Paymaster General U. S. A., Washington, D. C.

REVENUE LAWS IN CALIFORNIA.

The following is the bill introduced in the house of representatives on the 24th of January, which passed the house yesterday:

A BILL to extend the revenue laws of the United States over the territory and waters of Upper California, and to create a collection district therein.

Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the United States of America, in congress assembled, That the revenue laws of the United States be, and are hereby, extended to and over the main land and waters of all that portion of territory ceded to the United States by the "treaty of peace, friendship, and limits between the United States of America and the Mexican Republic," concluded on the second day of February, in the year eighteen hundred and forty-eight, heretofore designated and known as Upper California.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That all the ports, harbours, bays, rivers, and waters of the main land of the territory of Upper California shall constitute a collection district by the name of Upper California, and a port of entry shall be, and is hereby established for said district at San Francisco, on the bay of San Francisco, and a collector of the customs shall be appointed by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to reside at said port of entry.

SEC. 3. *And be it farther enacted,* That the ports of delivery shall be, and are hereby established in the collection district aforesaid, at San Diego, Monterey, and at some convenient point within the territory of the United States, to be selected by the secretary of the treasury, as near as may be to the junction of the rivers Gila and Colorado, at the head of the Gulf of California. And the collector of the said district of California is hereby authorized to appoint, with the approbation of the secretary of the treasury, three deputy collectors, to be stationed at the ports of delivery aforesaid.

SEC. 4. *And be it farther enacted,* That the collector of said district shall be allowed a compensation of fifteen hundred dollars per annum, and the fees and

commissions allowed by law; and the said deputy collectors shall each be allowed a compensation of one thousand dollars per annum, and the fees and commissions allowed by law.

SEC. 5. *And be it farther enacted*, That until otherwise provided by law, all violations of the revenue laws of the United States, committed within the district of Upper California, shall be prosecuted in the district court of Louisiana, or the supreme court of Oregon, which courts shall have original jurisdiction, and may take cognizance of all cases arising under the revenue laws in said district of Upper California, and shall proceed therein in the same manner and with the like effect as if such cases had arisen within the district or territory where the prosecution shall be brought.

SEC. 6. *And be it farther enacted*, That this act shall take effect from and after the tenth day of March next.

IMPORTANT NOTIFICATION.

PANAMA, January 19th, 1849.

To WM. NELSON, Esq., United States Consul at Panama:—

SIR:—The laws of the United States inflict the penalty of fine and imprisonment on trespassers on the public lands. As nothing can be more unreasonable or unjust than the conduct pursued by persons not citizens of the United States, who are flocking from all parts to search for and carry off gold from the lands belonging to the United States in California, and as such conduct is in direct violation of law, it will become my duty, immediately on my arrival there, to put these laws in force, and to prevent their infraction in future, by punishing, with the penalties provided by law, all those who offend.

As these laws are probably not known to many who are about starting for California, it would be well to make it publicly known that there are such laws in existence, and that they will be, in future, enforced against all persons who are not citizens of the United States, who shall commit any trespass on the lands of the United States in California.

Your position as consul here, being in communication with our consuls on the coast of South America, affords you the opportunity of making this known most generally, and I will be much obliged to you if you will do it.

With sincere respect, your obedient servant,

PERSIFER F. SMITH,

Br. Major General U. S. A., Commanding Pacific Division.

PANAMA.

MEMORIAL OF ASPINWALL & CO.

To the Honorable the Senate and House of Representatives:

The memorial of William H. Aspinwall, John L. Stephens, Henry Chauncey, and their associates, respectfully represents:

That the acquisition of California and the settlement of our boundary line in Oregon have opened a new era in the history of this country. Of the value of these new territories they do not propose to speak, further than to say that the mildness of the climate, the richness of the soil, the great promise of mineral wealth, and, above all, the long line of coast, with the magnificent harbours on the Pacific, seem to be sufficiently appreciated by all classes of our people. At this moment hundreds of young men, full of enterprise, from our eastern states, are buffeting the storms of Cape Horn, while, in the coming spring, the hardy pioneers of the west will be moving by thousands over the desolate prairies, or climbing the rugged steeps of the Rocky Mountains, to build up for us new states on the Pacific. Already it is felt as a hardship by

those who go out from amongst us, that, once settled in California and Oregon, they are, to a great extent, cut off from all the dearest relations of life, and that there are no means of returning, or of personal intercourse with friends at home, except by the stormiest passage ever known at sea, or the most toilsome journey ever made by land.

In view of this condition of things, and to hold out some encouragement to emigrants, that they might not be virtually expatriated when upon our own soil, and with a further view of facilitating our communications with our military and naval stations on the Pacific, Congress, at its session before the last, established a line of monthly mail steamers from New York to Chagres, on the Atlantic side of the Isthmus of Panama, and from Panama, on the Pacific side, to California and Oregon. This will, no doubt, answer sufficiently the great purpose of facilitating correspondence by mail with those territories, but it cannot answer, to any extent, the immediate and pressing want of a thoroughfare for travel, which women and children may pass over, nor can it answer at all the constant and sometimes pressing occasions for the transportation of men, munitions of war, and naval stores for our military and naval stations on the Pacific; all of which, however great the emergency, and at whatever sacrifice of time and money, must go by the long and hazardous voyage around Cape Horn, or by the wild paths across the Rocky Mountains, for half the year covered with snows, and entirely impracticable.

The Isthmus of Panama is about fifty miles in breadth, less than on any other part of the continent of America, and from the falling off of the great range of Cordilleras, running from the Rocky Mountains to the Andes, it has always been considered as the region in which, if ever, an easy communication would be effected, either by canal or road, between the two seas. The route over it is probably worse now than in the early days of Spanish dominion, when the gold of Peru passed over it to freight with almost fabulous wealth the argosies of Spain. No wheel carriage has ever attempted to cross it. The present mode of doing so is by canoe, up the Chagres river; set, for a great part of the distance, by poles against the current, and requiring twenty-eight to thirty hours to Cruces. Thence to Panama there is a mule road, difficult at all times for women and children, particularly with the effects of a moving or emigrating party, and, during the rainy season, almost impassable.

The memorialists then state that the Pacific Mail Company, with which they are identified, had attempted a survey of the route, which was broken up during the rainy season. They were, however, satisfied that the road was practicable. They also refer to the treaty with New Granada, securing to the United States the right of way across the Isthmus of Panama, and thus proceed:—

Impressed with the importance of this matter, as involving the prosperity of California and Oregon, and the welfare of all who are in any way connected with our citizens in those territories, and regarding it as vitally affecting the best interests of our government, in a political and pecuniary point of view, and having under their control the maps, drawing, and other information procured by the Pacific Mail Company, your memorialists have secured to themselves an exclusive grant or privilege of ninety-nine years from the Republic of New Granada for constructing a railroad across the Isthmus of Panama, and they come before your honourable body to ask the co-operation and aid necessary for carrying out this great American work. They beg leave to say that its speedy completion, by private enterprise alone, without the countenance of Government, cannot be expected. Privilege after privilege, similar to that which they now hold, has been granted to others, and all have failed. It does not promise any immediate or certain returns; and, for complete and

early success, it requires some engagement for employment and compensation by this government, as an inducement to capitalists to unite with your memorialists in furnishing the necessary means.

After urging that the great interests of the country call for the speedy accomplishment of so important a work, the memorial concludes:—

Your memorialists hope that these and other considerations of the like nature may have all proper influence upon your honourable body: but they ask your co-operation on none of these grounds; they ask it only on the ground, first, of economy and pecuniary saving to the government, in the transportation of men, munitions of war, and naval stores to our military and naval stations in California and Oregon; and, second, on the higher and more important political ground of being able, on an emergency, and when occasion requires, to send re-enforcements in less than thirty days, instead of six months, as required to send them around Cape Horn or across the Rocky Mountains. They ask no advance of money towards the construction of the road, and no compensation until services are performed; but they respectfully pray your honourable bodies to empower and direct the Secretary of the Navy to enter into a contract with your memorialists for the transportation on said road, for a period of twenty years, of naval and army supplies, including troops, munitions of war, provisions, naval stores, the mails of the United States, and its public agents, at a sum not exceeding the amount now specified by law to be paid for the transportation of the mails alone from New York to Liverpool; provided that your memorialists shall within one year commence, and within three years complete, the construction of a railroad across the Isthmus of Panama, connecting the waters of the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

W. H. ASPINWALL,
JOHN L. STEPHENS,
HENRY CHAUNCEY.

TEHUANTEPEC.

MEMORIAL of *P. A. Hargous and others.*

To the Honourable the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States in Congress assembled:

The petition of Peter A. Hargous, of the city of New York, for himself and in behalf of others interested with him, respectfully represents, that they are invested with full authority from the Mexican republic, under the most solemn guarantees from that government, to open a communication between the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific ocean, across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

Your petitioner respectfully presents the following facts, which he has derived from the authentic and published report of the engineer who made the surveys in relation to this route, in order that your honourable body may possess all the necessary information on this highly important subject.

The grant from the Mexican government, by which the privilege is secured to your petitioner of opening a communication across the Isthmus, is of the most liberal character, and offers the strongest inducements for undertaking the enterprise. The privileges of the grant are secured to your petitioner, and those associated with him, for the period of fifty years; and during this time the government of Mexico has pledged itself "not to impose any contributions or taxes upon travellers, or their effects in transitu, and not to levy any imposts or forced loans on the grantees." The grant also secures the right to "all foreigners to acquire real property, and to exercise any trade or calling, not even excepting

that of mining, within the distance of fifty leagues on either side of the line of transit."

Finally, "In the name of the supreme government, and under the most solemn assurances, it is declared and promised that all and every one of the concessions mentioned shall be honourably fulfilled, now, and at all times, pledging the honour and public faith of the nation to maintain the projector, Don Jose Garay, as well as any private individual or company succeeding or representing him, either natives or foreigners, in the undisturbed enjoyment of all the concessions granted, holding the national administration responsible for any acts of its own or its agents, which, from want of proper fulfilment of this covenant, might injure the interests of the proprietor."

Under this grant, topographical, geological, and hydrographical surveys of the line of communication across the Isthmus have been made. They were made under the direction of Mr. Moro, an Italian engineer of high distinction, assisted by two other scientific gentlemen. "The entire line of country was carefully surveyed and mapped. The face of the land, its productions and capabilities, were examined with untiring perseverance," and a very full report was subsequently drawn up, which has been published, with accompanying maps, all of which are now in the possession of your petitioner.

"From these surveys it is established that the entire distance from sea to sea is 135 miles in a straight line, and presents a wide plain from the mouth of the Coatzacoalcos to the port of the Mesa de Tarifa, a table or elevated plain on the line of the Andes, which rises to the height of 650 feet above the level of the sea, and at the distance of five miles again descends to a plain which reaches the Pacific. The summit level to be overcome is only 650 feet. Thirty miles of the Coatzacoalcos are navigable for ships of the largest class, and fifteen miles beyond this for vessels of light draught, leaving only about one hundred and fifteen miles of rail-road to be made. It would occupy too much space to enumerate all the details of these surveys, and which go to show so strongly how easily a rail-road can be constructed across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. It is sufficient to say that the absolute practicability has been clearly ascertained."

In other respects it affords great facilities for construction. "The entire course of the Coatzacoalcos is bounded by forests, which can supply immense quantities of the proper kind of timber suitable for the construction of a rail-road, and all of which is, by the terms of the grant, the property of the company undertaking the construction of the road. Limestone, strong clay, asphaltum, and building stone of the best quality, suitable for bridges where necessary, are placed, as if purposely by nature, all along the direction of this route. The Zacatecos and other Indians can be found in quite sufficient number to carry on the work, and at those points where foreign labour is indispensable, the temperature is such as to allow them to pursue their labour without either inconvenience or injury to their health. The climate, though warm, is healthy. The natives are mild, submissive, and tractable. There are ample sources whence to obtain a stock of domestic animals and beasts of burden. Throughout the whole line secured by this grant, as well for the purpose of a communication across the Isthmus as for the settlement of the country by foreigners, all the productions of the equatorial and temperate regions are found in the greatest abundance;" for the valley of the Isthmus produces the former, and on ascending to the more elevated country bordering on the valley, the climate of the temperate zone is found there as well as its productions. At each end of the rail-road are suitable places for fine harbours, as well as to depth, size, and security from storms. It is true there is a bar at the mouth of the Coatzacoalcos. By different navigators the water has been sounded, and from twelve to eighteen feet have been found on it at low water. Commodore Perry, in his surveys in 1847, found twelve feet. At a small pass at the entrance of the ocean on the Pacific side, there is, at low water, seven feet. Your petitioner, however, is convinced, from the character of the obstruc-

tions, that they can, at a small expense of time and money, be easily removed, and will then open an entrance for vessels of large size into ports equal to any in the world. He is prepared to show this to the satisfaction of your honourable body.

Such are some of the physical advantages connected with this route. There are others, however, no less important. The distance from the mouth of the Mississippi to San Francisco, by the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, is 3,294 miles; by the Isthmus of Panama 5000; thus showing that the route by the Isthmus of Tehuantepec is 1,706 miles shorter than by Panama. The distance from New York, by the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, is 4,744 miles; by the Isthmus of Panama 5,858; making the route by Tehuantepec, from New York to San Francisco, 1,104 miles shorter than by the Isthmus of Panama.

The mere statement of this fact carries with it its own importance, for it is an axiom that, in all human operations, the saving of time is the saving of labour and money. This fact is already exercising its influence, for enterprising men are at this very moment turning their attention to this route, without the advantages of an artificial communication across it.

In time of war, too, the route by the Caribbean seas would bring us under the guns of hostile forts and fleets, without any port of our own to resort to, either for shelter or repairs; whereas, by the Tehuantepec route we would be all the time within the limits of our own sea—for such, in truth, the Gulf of Mexico may be considered in relation to us.

The petitioner then adverts to the advantages offered to emigrants to hold lands in fee; and to the tendency of the project when completed to produce friendly relations between the United States and Mexico on the basis of mutual interests. He pledges himself to obtain from the Mexican government all the necessary guarantees for the security of all parties concerned, and concludes as follows:

As to the practicability of the route, it may be well to give the very words of the distinguished engineer who surveyed it, and all of which has the confident conviction of your petitioner as to its truth. He says:—"The careful survey of the line of transit over the isthmus demonstrates the practicability of the project, since it presents no one serious difficulty which may not be readily conquered by means of capital and science, the gigantic development of which at this auspicious period seem to have placed at the disposal of the engineer an inexhaustible and unlimited power."

Your petitioner has brought the principal facts to the notice of your honourable body, in the hope further steps may be adopted which will insure a full examination of the results of the survey, in the firm conviction, on his part, that such an examination will establish the value of this route to the United States in a communication with its possessions on the Pacific shore.

P. A. HARGOUS.

LIST OF ACTS PASSED AT THE LAST SESSION OF CONGRESS.

Private Bills.—For the relief of B. O. Payne, of Albany, N. Y., Joshua Barney, U. S. agent, Joel Thacker, Mary G. Leverett, James Morehead, Major Charles Larrabee, Capt. Alex. M'Ewen, David Thomas, of Philadelphia, John P. Skinner and the legal representatives of Isaac Green, Dr. Adolphus Wislizenus, W. Gott, Edward Quinn, George Newton, Robert Ramsay, Elizabeth S. Cobbs, Daniel Robinson, Jesse Washington Jackson, Mrs. Anne W. Angus, Elizabeth Mays, Nancy Tompkins, James Glynn and others, Jas. H. Comley, Jesse Young, Stephen Champlin, William De Buys, late postmaster at New Orleans, William Fuller and Orlando Saltmarsh, Esther Russell, Reuben Perry and Thomas P. Ligon, the owners of the Spanish Restaurator; Anthony Bessee, G. F. de la Roche and W. P. S. Sanger, Zilpha White, Hugh Riddle, Thomas Badger, Archibald Bell and L. P. Finch, Noah A. Phelps, Charles Waldron, Col. Robert Wallace, aid-de-camp of Gen. Wm. Hull, James B. Davenport, Flisha Thomasson, James P. Sexton, Joshua Holden, Elizabeth Burris, Simon Rodriguez, M. F. Johnson, Joseph Bryan, the heirs of W. Evans, William Fuller, Charles Savage, Captain John Percival, U. S. N., John Morrison, John Hibbart, W. Harding, Sarah D. Caldwell, John B. Smith, Simeon Darden, S. C. Bryan and others, Capt. Dan Drake Henrie, Eliza A. Mellor, Philip J. Fontaine, Levi H. Carson, B. Cogswell, James Y. Smith, Thomas T. Gamage, Salsy Darby, Charles Wilson, Solomon Davis, Peterill Grant, Sizur B. Canfield, the legal representatives of Capt. G. R. Shoemaker, Chas. Bennis, James Norris, Chas. McLane, James Fagate, Commander J. J. Young, U. S. Navy, John Campbell, John Savage, W. U. Wilson, Andrew Flanagan, the heirs of J. F. Perry, J. Bleakly, N. Garrott and R. Morrison, George Center, Henry Washington, Thos. Douglass, U. S. Attorney, East Florida, Jos. F. Caldwell, Creed Taylor, Jeanette C. Huntingdon, Mary Macrea, J. M. Moore, Thos. Talbot and others, Timothy Cuvan, Patrick Walker, James Hotchkiss, James M. Scantland, William Plummer, William L. Wigent, Nehemiah Brush, P. Chouteare, Jr. & Co., Henry D. Garrison, James G. Carson, Peter Capella, John Caho, Elijah Petty, Jas. F. Sothoron, Thomas W. Chinn, Capt. Alex. Montgomery, A. Q. M. of the U. S. Army, W. P. Yonge, Lowry Williams, Mary Buck, Amelia Convillier, J. W. Hockett, H. Carrington, Peter Shaffer, Polly Aldrich, Eve Boggs, Jas. H. Noble, Hervey Jones, Satterlee Clark, Daniel Wilson, Sidney Flower, John T. Ohl, M. R. Simmons, Catherine Clark, Polly Dameron, A. S. & A. W. Benson, H. M. Barney, John B. Nevitt, George R. Smith, J. Melville Gilliss and others.

An act for the relief of the citizens of Cedar Bluff, in the state of Alabama, and for other purposes.

An act to authorize the judges of the courts of the United States of the 5th circuit to hold the circuit court for the district of Kentucky.

An act concerning the selection of jurors in certain courts of the United States.

An act declaring Fort Covington, in the State of New York, to be a port of delivery, and for other purposes.

An act to transfer the towns of Vinal Haven, North Haven, and Isleborough from the collection district of Penobscot to that of Belfast, in the state of Maine.

An act to provide for the payment of horses and other property lost or destroyed in the military service of the United States.

An act to authorize the coinage of \$20 and \$1 gold pieces at the mint of the United States and its branches.

An act for the settlement of the claims of New Hampshire against the United States.

An act amendatory of the act entitled "An act amendatory of the act entitled 'An act to incorporate the Provident Association of Clerks in the Civil Departments of the Government of the United States, in the District of Columbia,'" approved March 3, 1825.

An act supplemental to the act approved the 6th day of July, 1842, entitled, "An act confirming certain land claims in Louisiana."

An act to extend certain privileges to the town of Whitehall, in the State of New York.

An act to make arrangements for taking the seventh census.

An act granting a half section of land for the use of schools within fractional townships nineteen south of range eighteen west, county of Lowndes, state of Mississippi.

An act to aid the State of Louisiana in draining the swamp lands therein.

An act to supply deficiencies in the appropriations for the service of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1849.

An act to provide for carrying into execution, in part, the twelfth article of the treaty with Mexico, concluded at Guadalupe Hidalgo.

An act making appropriations for the support of the Military Academy for the year ending 30th June, 1850.

An act making appropriations for the payment of revolutionary and other pensions of the United States for the year ending 30th June, 1850.

An act making appropriations for the payment of navy pensions for the year ending June 30, 1850.

An act granting five years' half pay to certain widows and orphans of officers and non-commissioned officers, musicians, and privates, both regulars and volunteers.

An act to establish an additional land office in the State of Missouri.

An act in relation to the Fox and Wisconsin river reservation in the state of Wisconsin.

An act making appropriations for certain fortifications of the United States for the year ending the 30th June, 1850.

An act to provide for the final settlement of the accounts of Thomas C. Sheldon, late receiver of public moneys at Kalamazoo, Michigan.

An act to allow subsistence to certain Arkansas and other volunteers who have been prisoners of war in Mexico.

An act for the relief of the forward officers of the late exploring expedition.

An act to settle the title to certain tracts of land in the state of Arkansas.

An act to amend the act entitled "an act supplemental to the act for the admission of the states of Iowa and Florida into the Union."

An act to incorporate the Oak Hill Cemetery in the District of Columbia.

An act for the relief of the President and Directors of the Union Bank of Florida.

An act to authorize the citizens of Ozark county, of Missouri, to enter less than a quarter section of land for the seat of justice in said county.

An act making appropriations for the service of the Post Office Department for the year ending the 30th of June, 1850.

An act for the relief of Samuel A. Grier.

An act to provide for the settlement of the accounts of public officers and others who may have received moneys arising from military contributions or otherwise in Mexico.

An act to extend the provisions of all laws now in force relating to the carriage of passengers in merchant vessels, and the regulation thereof.

An act requiring all moneys receivable from customs and from all other

sources to be paid immediately into the treasury, without abatement or deduction, and for other purposes.

An act to establish the home department, and to provide for the treasury department an assistant secretary of the treasury, and a commissioner of the customs.

An act making appropriations for the support of the army for the year ending the 30th June, 1850.

An act making appropriations for the naval service for the year ending 30th June, 1850.

An act making appropriations for the present and contingent expenses of the Indian department, and for fulfilling treaty stipulations with the various Indian tribes, for the year ending June 30th, 1850.

An act making appropriations for the civil and diplomatic expenses of government for the year ending the 30th June, 1850, and for other purposes.

An act to extend the revenue laws of the United States over the territory and waters of Upper California, and to create a collection district therein.

An act declaratory of the act for the admission of the state of Iowa into the Union.

An act to extend the provisions of an act, approved the third of March, eighteen hundred and forty-seven, for carrying into effect the existing compacts with the states of Alabama and Mississippi with regard to the five per cent. fund and school reservations.

An act to continue the light at Sand's Point on Long Island.

An act to amend an act, entitled "An act for authenticating certain records," approved February 22, 1849.

An act making appropriation for light houses, light boats, buoys, &c., and providing for the erection and establishment of the same, and for other purposes.

An act for the better organization of the district court of the United States within the State of Louisiana.

An act concerning the pay department of the army.

An act to establish the collection district of Brazos de Santiago, in the state of Texas, and for other purposes.

An act authorizing the payment of interest upon the advance made by the state of Alabama, for the use of the United States government, in the suppression of the Creek Indian hostilities in 1839 and 1837 in Alabama.

An act to authorize the secretary of war to make reparation for the killing of a Caddo boy by volunteer troops in Texas.

An act to authorize the issuing of a register or enrolment to the ship Annie Teft.

An act in addition to the act entitled "An act to incorporate the Washington, Alexandria, and Georgetown steam packet company."

An act to cause the northern boundary line of the state of Iowa to be run and marked.

An act to continue the office of the Commissioner of Pensions.

An act to grant the right of way to the Mobile and Ohio railroad company.

An act to provide for the increase of the medical staff, and for an additional number of chaplains of the army of the United States.

An act to define the period of disability imposed upon certain bidders for mail contracts.

An act to grant to the Atlantic and Gulf rail-road company the right of way through the public lands of the United States.

An act for changing the location of the land office in the Chippewa land district, and establishing an additional land district in the state of Wisconsin.

An act for authenticating certain records.

An act to establish the territorial government of Minesota.

An act to carry into effect certain stipulations of the treaty between the United States of America and the republic of Mexico, of the 2d day of February, 1848.

An act to provide for the final settlement of the accounts of Abraham Edwards, register of the land office at Kalamazoo, Michigan.

An act granting a pension to Bethiah Healy, widow of George Healy, deceased.

An act to relinquish the reversionary interest of the United States to a certain Indian reservation in the state of Alabama.

Joint resolution granting to the secretary of the treasury further time to make the report concerning the sale and entry of certain lands in Cincinnati.

Joint resolution relative to evidence in applications for pensions by widows of deceased soldiers under the act of July 21, 1848.

Joint resolution for the purchase of copies of the general Navy Register and Laws.

Joint resolution concerning the settlement of the accounts of William Speiden, purser in the army of the United States.

Joint resolution authorizing a settlement of the accounts of Thomas M. Howe, late pension agent at Pittsburgh, upon equitable principles.

Joint resolution for the distribution of the Official Register or Blue Book among the several states.

Joint resolution authorizing the secretary of the senate and clerk of the house of representatives, to subscribe for 1000 copies of a further publication of the debates and proceedings of Congress, and for other purposes.

Joint resolution for the relief of the pursers in the navy as to expenditures made in pursuance of orders during the war with Mexico.

Joint resolution directing that the government of Russia be supplied with certain volumes of the narrative of the exploring expedition, in lieu of those which were lost at sea.

A resolution for the appointment of regents in the Smithsonian Institution.

A resolution relating to the compensation of persons appointed to deliver the votes for president and vice president of the United States to the president of the senate.

A resolution authorizing the secretary of war to furnish arms and ammunition to persons emigrating to the territories of Oregon, California and New Mexico.

A resolution to authorize the secretary of the treasury to make an equitable settlement with the sureties of Robert T. Lytle, late surveyor general of the district of Ohio.

A resolution to defray the expenses of certain Chippewa Indians and their interpreters.

A resolution to fix the meaning of the second section of an act for changing the location of the land office in the Chippewa land district, and establishing an additional land district in the state of Wisconsin.

A resolution relative to the public printing.

(The proceedings and debates of the last Congress, with several valuable documents, are deferred until the next number. We have also in reserve some valuable information in relation to Insurance, and Insurance companies, as well as interesting accounts of the operations and official acts of our naval commanders during the past six years, &c., &c.—all of which have been crowded out by the press of matter.)

THE
American
QUARTERLY REGISTER
AND
MAGAZINE.

Causas rerum videt, earumque progressus. — CICERO.

~~~~~  
Conducted by James Stryker.  
~~~~~

JUNE, 1849. . . . VOL. II. No. II.

Philadelphia:
PUBLISHED BY THE PROPRIETOR,
NO. 520 CHESTNUT STREET.
1849.

Entered according to the Act of Congress, in the year 1849, by
JAMES STRYKER,
in the Clerk's Office of the District Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania.

WILLIAM S. YOUNG, *Printer.*

CONTENTS.

No. 2. VOL. II.

INTRODUCTION,	309
HISTORICAL REGISTER OF 1849,— <i>United States, Mexico, Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria, Prussia, Italy, Russia,</i>	310—364
STATISTICS:	
Legal Business of the Federal Government,	365
International Exchanges,	371
The Post Office,	373
Progress of Canada,	375
Territorial Area and Internal Commerce,	381
Plank Roads,	386
Factory Statistics,—Byfield and Lowell,	388—9
The Whale Fishery,	390
American Religious and Benevolent Societies, (anniversaries,)	393
London Anniversaries,	400
Progress of Mormonism,	400
American Medical Association,	401
Penitentiaries in 1848, (<i>statistical tables</i>),	402
Mechanical Industry of America, do.	404
Agriculture,—Clearing Lands, &c.,	407
Liberia and Australia,—Statements, &c.,	410—412
Tea Plant and Varieties,	413
Climate of California,	416
Education in Virginia,	417
Armies of Europe, (<i>tables</i>),	418
Statistics of the Weather for the Quarter,	420
Distance from England to the United States,	422
Libraries,—Tables, &c.,	422
ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS:	
Tenure of Land, (continued,)	423
China and the Chinese, (continued,)	433
Comparative View of Education in Great Britain and the United States,	439
Human Speech, or Apparatus of Language,	444
Rivers of Florida,	450
Texts of Discourses,	453

MISCELLANEOUS:

Nineveh and its Remains,	457
The Law of Human Progress,	468
Escape of Charles Albert,	472
Napoleon—his Genius,	476
Mist and Clouds,	477
Garden Culture, (Meigs,)	478

POETRY:

Minnesota—(Mrs. Sigourney,)	480
Sonnet—(A. B. Street,)	481
Course of Life—(Translation,)	482
Heroine of Monterey—(Rev. Dr. Lyons,)	483
World full of Beauty,	484
Resignation, (Longfellow,)	485

BIOGRAPHY:

James Knox Polk,	487
Edmund P. Gaines,	490
Louis Kossuth,	492

OBITUARY NOTICES,	495—505
-----------------------------	---------

NOTICES OF BOOKS:

Life of John Q. Adams,	506
History of the Mexican War,	507
Generals of the last War,	508
Life of Gen. Taylor,	509
Memorial of Ambrose Spencer,	510

QUARTERLY CHRONICLE, for <i>March, April, May,</i> and Appendix for <i>June,</i>	from 514 to 528
---	-----------------

DOCUMENTS:

President's Annual Message, (concluded,)	529
On Internal Improvement,	551
Veto Message of the River and Harbor Bill,	551
Memorial to Congress by Chicago Convention,	564
Address of the Peace Congress,	588
Arctic Expedition—Lady Franklin's Letter and Mr. Clayton's answer,	589
Manifesto of the Turkish government,	592
Constitution of the French Republic,	593
Capt. Folsom's Letter to Gen. Jessup,	599
British Navigation Act,	602
Index to Vol. II.,	605

THE AMERICAN
QUARTERLY REGISTER
AND MAGAZINE.

NO. II. VOL. II.

JUNE, 1849.

With this number we complete the second volume of the Register. Although we have had to encounter many difficulties and hinderances in the first stages of a work, exacting a very large amount of labour and expenditure, still we believe that our original plan has been faithfully carried out. We have, in all the numbers, given a digested summary of the leading events of the times, carefully and impartially prepared—a body of statistical information invaluable for future reference—a miscellaneous department which has been received with general approval—and a chronicle and obituary for every quarter, with a large body of important official documents; forming, altogether, such a Register and Magazine as we promised to the public.

In the present number, according to our original intention, we have embodied in the Historical Register of the United States, the debates in Congress on the great and absorbing questions now before the people, which must prove acceptable to all who wish to be possessed of the political history of the country.

In relation to our time of publication, we wish it to be borne in mind by all our subscribers, that unlike most other periodicals, the very nature and arrangement of the work, prevent its coming out at the beginning of a month. If, for instance, the June number were issued from the press before the 20th of that month, we could not embrace in it the chronicle and obituary for May, nor would we be able to write out the history for the preceding quarter; we are therefore, necessarily compelled to consume the greater part of June in getting through the press a June number. The same cause must produce a like result at every period of publication hereafter.

HISTORICAL REGISTER.

1849.

UNITED STATES.

The new year found the United States in a condition singularly prosperous. With every foreign nation they were not only at peace, but seemingly on terms of cordial amity. Never had their national character stood so high. Their military success in the Mexican war had shed a new lustre on their civil polity, and procured for it an admiration and respect which its fitness to promote human happiness had never before attained. The country was blessed, too, with plenty as well as peace. Provisions of all kinds were abundant, and agriculture was more than compensated by the quantity of its products for their extraordinary cheapness. The profits of some classes of manufacturers were indeed somewhat reduced, but they were still able to carry on their business: and all the other classes profited by their partial loss. The rich mines of California opened a new field to the shipping interests and commercial enterprise, which they had otherwise wanted.

But in the midst of so many causes of public gratulation, there was seen on the horizon a dark spot which, already disturbing the harmony of our public councils, caused lively anxiety for the more serious storm it portended. This was the question of domestic slavery, which is viewed so differently by the states which have it and those which are exempt from it: by reason of which diversity the sympathies of one-half of them are in constant collision with the feelings of self-preservation in the other. As this discrepancy of sentiment has been steadily growing in importance since the Declaration of Independence, a notice of its progress may not be uninteresting, and may, moreover, make us better able to estimate the danger which most threatens our social harmony, and, perhaps, our political unity.

As an element of discord in the distribution of political power among the several States on the one hand, and of their liability to taxation on the other, it first manifested itself in the old Congress, in framing the articles of confederation.

In determining the quotas of the different States of the money to be expended for their common defence, after it was decided that they should be in the ratio of their respective populations, the slaveholding States proposed that slaves should not be counted, they being merely a species of property, while the other States insisted that, as numbers were an index of wealth, the whole population, whether bond or free,

should be reckoned. A member from Virginia, Mr. Harrison, proposed, by way of compromise, that two slaves should be counted as one free man, there probably being that difference in the productive powers of the two classes, as there actually was in their wages. Seven States, however, voted against the discrimination, five in favour of it, and Georgia was divided; so that in bearing the burdens of government, no distinction was made between free men and slaves.

In the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, in 1789, the question again occurred in apportioning the representatives among the several States, when a different rule was adopted. It was there agreed by the two parties, by way of compromise, that both in the distribution of power in the house of representatives and in the liability to direct taxes, five slaves should be deemed equivalent to three free men: so that the slaveholding States had no representation for two-fifths of their slaves, and a correspondent exemption from direct taxes.

The subject, though thus settled by the constitution, failed to give general satisfaction, and both parties objected to the compromise as unjust to their respective divisions. The free States maintained that slaves being as decidedly property in the south as horses and cattle were with them, had no better claim to be represented, and ought to be excluded altogether; while the slaveholding States insisted that slaves being persons, part of the human family, and whose labour contributed to the wealth and revenue of the state, ought no more to be left out in the estimates of population than women and children, who are equally excluded from political rights, and therefore ought all to be counted. They further added that as direct taxes were but occasional, and may become entirely disused, the slaveholding States lost their full share of representation, without receiving the compensation intended by the compromise.

At first, slavery was regarded by the northern and southern divisions of the States merely as it affected their political power or liability to taxation; but, after a while, a new element of far greater influence than they mingled in the controversy. This was sympathy for the enslaved race. It is remarkable that this sentiment, which the wildest fervour engendered by the French revolution had not been able to evoke, made its appearance after that moral effervescence had passed away. It probably owed its new force to the discussions on both sides of the Atlantic on the enormities of the slave trade, to the emancipation of the slaves in the British West Indies, and to the unceasing taunts of Europeans against Americans for being slaveholders while they professed the principles of liberty and equality.

The discordant feelings, thus enforced, first fully manifested themselves in the year 1818, when a bill having been introduced into Congress for the admission of the Missouri territory into the Union as a State, an amendment was proposed to it on the 19th of February, 1819,

which prohibited the further introduction of slavery into the new State, and provided that all slaves born within the State should be free, but might be held to service until the age of 25. The bill, thus amended, passed the house of representatives by a small majority, but the proviso respecting slaves having been struck out by the senate, and each house adhering to the ground it had taken, the bill was lost.

The subject excited a lively interest, which, however, was confined chiefly to the politicians, and both parties in Congress prepared for the contest at the succeeding session. The warm and protracted discussion that then ensued, enlisted the feelings of the whole nation, and for a brief interval the permanency of the Union, which had seemed exempt from all danger, except in the minds of a timid few, from the growing power of the west, was all at once threatened from a quarter which no one had dreamt of. The proposed restriction was discussed as to its constitutionality and expediency in both houses, with a zeal and ability perhaps never before exhibited in Congress. It was nearly four weeks in passing through the committee of the whole in the house of representatives, and when neither party gave the smallest symptom of yielding, and every patriot was looking with intense anxiety at the result, Mr. Clay availed himself of his popularity in the house, then unequalled, and his influence as Speaker, to bring about a compromise, by which it was agreed that slavery should not thereafter be introduced in any new State north of 36° 30', and that there should be no attempt to prohibit it south of that line.

Though the controversy was thus rendered innocuous for the time by the compromise, the feelings that accompanied it were but little allayed; and not long afterwards it was revived in petitions from the northern States to Congress for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. The right to abolish it was vehemently denied by the slaveholding States, and viewing the measure as one highly injurious to their interests, and perhaps dangerous to their peace, they objected even to the reading of such petitions, as well as to their reference; and having succeeded in thus rejecting them, the cause of the petitioners acquired favour from all those who regarded the right of petition as sacred and inviolable. This gave to the abolitionists a strength they had not otherwise attained. Year after year these petitions were renewed, and being disposed of in the same summary way, they received at home an obvious accession of support. If these petitions gave rise to bitter altercations in Congress, these same altercations greatly increased the popular excitement on the subject in every part of the Union; a natural effect of which action and reaction was, that ready materials were thus afforded to demagogues and political adventurers of all parties to play the patriot by fanning the flames of civil discord.

During this progress of the controversy, it was furnished with new aliment by the acquisition of Texas. The annexation, when first presented to the public notice, was viewed with unanimous abhorrence

by the northern States, not only because they saw in it the extension of slavery, but also a preponderance in the senate of the slaveholding States. The overtures of Texas to be admitted into the Union were unhesitatingly rejected during the administration of Mr. Van Buren, yet but four years afterwards, when other councils prevailed under the administration of his immediate successor, the annexation became a favourite project both in Mr. Tyler's cabinet and in the southern States; and, such is the force of party discipline, it received the sanction of several of the northern States, and is believed to have mainly decided the presidential election in favour of Mr. Polk.

The opponents of slavery seemed then disposed to redouble their efforts to compensate the retrograde movement in the annexation of Texas. It being foreseen, during the war with Mexico, that a part of her territory would also be annexed to the United States, Mr. Wilmot of Pennsylvania brought forward that resolution to interdict slavery in all new territories, which, under the name of "the Wilmot proviso," has acquired so much celebrity. This has ever since been the cardinal point on which this agitating controversy has turned. Its application to the Oregon territory was opposed by the slaveholding States, as out of the sphere of the constitutional powers of Congress, and this opposition prevented for the time the organization of a government for that territory. It, however, prevailed at the succeeding session, and President Polk gave his sanction to the bill which contained the prohibitory proviso, but, at the same time, declared that he would negative any bill regarding the territories acquired from Mexico which should contain the same proviso.

The recent session of Congress was chiefly occupied by this question—one party insisting on inserting it in the bills for the territorial governments of California and New Mexico, and the other party as steadily, and with yet more warmth, resisting the attempt.

Frequent were the occasions when this theme of discord gave rise to angry discussion. The first was when a petition was presented in the senate by Mr. Benton, from the people of New Mexico, asking for a territorial government, denying the claims of Texas to any part of their territory, and earnestly protesting against the introduction of slavery among them. Mr. Calhoun opposed the reception of the petition, which he denounced as "insolent." The petitioners were warmly defended by the member who presented their petition.

Mr. Douglas' bill for the admission of California and New Mexico into the Union, as States, which was mentioned in our last number, gave rise, both before and after its reference to a committee, to repeated discussions. The resolutions of several States on the same subject, particularly of Virginia, South Carolina, and Florida, against the restriction of slavery in the new territories, and of New York in favour of it, all called forth animated, and often intemperate debate.

But this feverish agitation was brought to a crisis by a renewed

attempt to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia. Hitherto the members from the free States, content with offering the petitions of their constituents for the same object, and urging their reception, had generally expressed themselves unwilling to interfere with slavery in the district, though they insisted on their right to abolish it. The subject was, however, now brought forward by two members, Mr. Giddings of Ohio, and Mr. Gott of New York, at their own instance; and as has been already stated, both the motion to take the sense of the district on the subject of abolition, and that instructing a committee to bring in a bill prohibiting all traffic in slaves in the district, passed the house of representatives by small majorities.

When Mr. Giddings, whose resolution proposed to take the sense of the district upon abolishing slavery in it, was asked whether he meant that free negroes and slaves should vote, he replied, that he had no regard to difference of colour, but said he would be willing to exclude slaves from voting, if the slaveholders were excluded also.

Mr. Palfrey of Massachusetts, afterwards asked for leave to bring in a bill for the direct abolition of slavery in the district, which, as well as Mr. Giddings', was rejected by a small majority.

This offensive resolution was afterwards reconsidered, on the motion of Mr. Stuart of Michigan. His motion was, on the 10th of January, supported by Mr. M'Lane of Maryland, who gave a full detail of the laws of that state against the importation of slaves, and who wished the subject, if it should be reconsidered, to be referred either to the judiciary committee or the committee on the District, to inquire whether the slave trade in the District could be constitutionally and legally prohibited. The vote for reconsideration was carried by 119 yeas to 81 noes.

About the same time, too, a resolution instructing the committee on the territories to prohibit slavery, passed the house of representatives by 119 votes to 81.

The sensibility of the members from the Slaveholding states, always sufficiently alive on the mere proposition for the interference of Congress on this delicate subject, was excited to the highest pitch on its present success. An informal meeting of those members was immediately called, and the whole delegations from the fifteen slaveholding States attended in the senate chamber on the night of the 22d of December. It soon appeared that though all considered the course pursued by the majority in the house of representatives to indicate a culpable disregard of their rights and interests, they differed widely as to the measures to be adopted. While some, in the heat of sudden resentment, were for staking their continuance in the Union on the interposition of the Federal Government on the subject of domestic slavery, others were content for the present with remonstrance and an earnest appeal to the justice and prudence of the community. As unanimity was important towards success, the more vehement party, in the hope

of attaining it, consented to the postponement of their final action, which the more moderate, under the belief that the existing fervour would be thereby allayed, had prudently proposed. After some days, an address from the southern members of Congress to their constituents was submitted to the meeting by Mr. Calhoun. It states forcibly, but with temper, the complaints urged by the slaveholding States against the northern States for interference in their domestic concerns; it refers to the Federal Constitution, in which the institution of slavery, now so earnestly and systematically opposed, is distinctly recognised, and the rights of the slaveholder are expressly guaranteed: without which sanction, it is well known, the constitution would not have been adopted. It adverts to repeated decisions of the Supreme Court, in which the same rights are amply vindicated, all of which sanctions and guarantees have been disregarded by citizens of the northern States, and either evaded or openly violated, for the purpose of compelling the southern States to emancipate their slaves. In a review of the Missouri compromise, he states that it was regarded as a permanent adjustment of the territorial limits of slavery, yet since the acquisition of California and New Mexico, it is no longer respected by the northern States. He denies that the Federal Government can rightfully legislate upon the subject of slavery, either to extend or restrict it. He insists that, as the South contributed even more than its share of men and money to the acquisition of the new territories, the principles of justice and equality require that they should have the right of migrating thither with their property, including their slaves. He referred to the resolutions of Mr. Giddings and Mr. Gott, as well as to another by a member from Illinois, which was not acted on, to show that "a greater number of aggressive measures, and they 'more aggravated and dangerous,' had been introduced into Congress at the present session, than had been 'for years before.'" He maintained that this system of aggression and encroachment, if suffered "to operate unchecked," must end in emancipation, without any formal act of abolition: and should that not be the result of the course of aggression now pursued, the same object would be obtained by an amendment to the constitution. He adverts to the consequences of emancipation, and discriminates between its results in this country and the British West Indies; he maintains that the free and servile races of the South cannot live together in peace and harmony, except in their present relations; that if emancipated, the coloured race would, by the natural course of events, obtain first a political equality with the whites, and finally an ascendancy, by which the last would be doomed to a state of degradation, poverty, and wretchedness never before experienced by a free and enlightened people.

He then asks, what is to be done to avert these direful and imminent evils? and answers, that the slaveholding States must, in the first place, be united on this "vital question;" and then they must convince their adversaries that all other questions are considered by the South

to be subordinate to this; that by such a course the North might be brought to pause in their purposes of aggression, and should that not be the case, the South should be prepared to defend their rights, involving their property, prosperity, liberty, and safety, "without looking to the consequences," for which their assailants, and not they, would be responsible.

On the motion of Mr. Clayton of Delaware, to lay the whole subject on the table, 60 voted in the negative, against 28 in the affirmative.

On the motion of Mr. Berrien of Georgia, the subject of the address was referred to a committee, 41 ayes to 40 noes, and the meeting adjourned to meet in the same place, the senate chamber, on the evening of the 22d of January.

At the meeting in the senate chamber, according to adjournment, a substitute for the address offered by Mr. Calhoun, and which was prepared by Mr. Berrien, was offered, but after some discussion, a majority were against its adoption, and preferred the original address. They were, however, very similar in character—the principal points of difference being, that the first address was from members of congress to their constituents, while the substitute purported to be from individuals to the people of the United States. The substitute, too, after detailing the grievances of the South, forbore to make any suggestion about the redress that should be aimed, but left that expressly for the consideration of the people.

We will now notice the other proceedings of Congress on this important subject.

The judiciary committee in the senate, to whom the bill for the admission of California and New Mexico together as a State had been referred, on the 9th of January submitted an elaborate report on the subject. They objected to the bill, first, that it was repugnant to the constitution of the United States, which had given to Congress the power to *admit* states into the Union, not to *create* them, as the bill proposed to do; and, in the next place, that the provision in the bill for a future division of the California into other States, was inconsistent with the rights of a sovereign State. They further objected to the bill on account of the claim made by Texas to the whole of that part of New Mexico which lies east of the Rio Grande, since the new State would be thereby involved with the State of Texas, in the litigation of a question that ought to be previously determined.

Some days afterwards, Mr. Douglas offered a substitute for the bill against which the judiciary committee had reported, which was received by the senate: in consequence of which substitute, and of the several amendments offered to it, the subject was referred to a special committee* of seven members.

As chairman of that committee, on the 29th of January, he offered

* Messrs. Douglas of Illinois, Johnson of Maryland, Jones of Iowa, Clayton of Delaware, Davis of Mississippi, Badger of North Carolina, and Niles of Connecticut.

amendments to the bill referred to them, by which bill a portion of California, according to designated limits, should be set apart as the territory of one State, and should be admitted as one of the States of the Union, as soon as the people had formed a constitution and established a government; and that the residue of the country acquired from Texas should, in like manner, become a State, under the name of New Mexico, as soon as it contained the proper number of inhabitants, and formed a constitution and state government; by which course he sought to obviate the constitutional objection made to his original bill by the judiciary committee.

The question of admitting the new territories was then suffered to sleep by both parties, as probably both despaired of obtaining a satisfactory vote on it, relative to the subject of slavery; but on the 21st of February, Mr. Walker of Wisconsin, revived it in the anomalous form of an amendment to an appropriation bill. This amendment declared that the constitution of the United States, and all the laws concerning navigation, the impost, the Indian tribes, and the government lands, which were of a public nature, and applicable to the new territory, should be extended to it; and the president was authorized and required to establish such regulations in that territory as should be requisite to administer justice and preserve order. Mr. Bell of Tennessee, with a view of testing the sense of the senate, offered an amendment to Mr. Walker's proposition, by which California was forthwith to be admitted as a state. He supported it with great zeal and ability, but it was unacceptable to both parties: one, because it did not contain the Wilmot prohibition—and the other, because the exclusion of slaves, by the people of California themselves, would be the almost certain consequence of their having the rights of a State. But four members voted for the amendment, while thirty-nine voted against it. In the course of the debate on Mr. Walker's proposition, which occupied several days, Mr. Drayton of New Jersey, offered an amendment by which the president was authorized to establish a temporary government in the new territories, as had been formerly done in Louisiana and Florida. He was opposed to Mr. Walker's amendment, because it was without precedent to admit a State before it had gone through the stage of territorial government; because it assumes to settle the boundary between New Mexico and Texas; and because it undertakes to extend the constitution of the United States over the new territories. There were, moreover, strong objections to the admission of California as a State, derived from the circumstances of that country; from the insufficiency of its original population—which, probably, did not exceed 15,000 persons; from the motley character of the adventurers who are now flocking thither in pursuit of gold; from its vast area—entirely too great for a single State—and, lastly, from the numerous tribes of Indians it probably contains, for whose protection, we may, according to past experience, find it a most troublesome duty to provide.

Mr. Webster said that having opposed all wars which led to the acquisition of those territories, and all treaties that ceded them, he was not responsible for the present embarrassing state of things, which he had always foreseen. He was, however, not disposed to dwell on the past, nor yet to look too far into the future, but to look only to the present, which is sufficient to occupy us. For this single object he had laid a proposition before the senate, to provide a temporary government for these territories.* He thought that, for the present, their government must be substantially military, the first object being to keep the peace. He was opposed to all amendments to the appropriation bill which provided a government for these territories, there being another bill before the senate, more suited to the purpose, and better deserving the consideration of the senate. If that bill failed, he should submit his proposition, by way of amendment, to the bill from the house, which extended the revenue laws to the territories. He was also opposed to the extension of those laws to the territories, because it gave unnecessary power to the executive, and would prove at once expensive and nugatory, as had been the result of a similar provision for Florida.

Mr. Foote, of Mississippi, supported Mr. Walker's amendment. After vindicating the democratic party for their agency in the acquisition of the new territories, he addressed an argument *ad hominem* to the supporters of General Taylor's election, to show their inconsistency in objecting to the discretionary powers which the proposed amendment conferred on the President, while those who opposed his election show no such want of confidence. He argued against Mr. Drayton's amendment, as not going far enough; and then assailed Mr. Webster's, because he was for giving to the territories a military government, which he thought both unconstitutional and inexpedient, and which, moreover, was inconsistent with Mr. Webster's exclusion of martial law. He also objected to the provision for retaining "the existing laws" of the territories, as repugnant to our settled principles of jurisprudence, &c. He maintained, at some length, that the constitution of the United States did extend to the new territories, they being acquired by treaties, which is a part of the supreme law of the land. He urged that the people of the slaveholding States ought not to be excluded from the new territories, as they virtually would be by excluding their slaves, whose labour was as well suited to working mines as was that of free men. He defended those States from the charge of wishing to secede from the Union, which, however, he insisted they had the con-

* According to this proposition, the President was authorized to hold possession of California and New Mexico, and there maintain the authority of the United States, for which purpose, and to preserve order, he might send such part of the army and navy as he deemed necessary. That until the end of the succeeding session of Congress, unless Congress should sooner provide for the government of those territories, the existing laws should be maintained, provided, however, that martial law should not be declared.

stitutional right to do; and justified himself for the part he had taken in calling the meeting of the southern members of Congress, in the senate chamber, a few nights before.

The debate was continued the next day by Mr. Walker. He laid great stress on the necessity for immediate action, as admitted by all who had spoken on the subject. He professed himself disappointed that the senator from Massachusetts, to whose political wisdom he had been accustomed to look with reverence, had suggested nothing adequate to the exigency of the occasion. He examined Mr. Webster's amendments, in detail, for the purpose of showing that they were either superfluous or inefficient. He denied that his proposition was new in its essential points, or that it undertook to settle the boundary line between the United States and Texas, but that it merely applied to that territory west of the Rio del Norte that is beyond dispute. The claim of Texas was purposely left undisturbed. He maintained that the constitution of the United States extended to the territories, and while he was as much opposed to slavery as any one, if the constitution permitted the introduction of slaves into the territories, he was willing to let them go; and though that instrument may not, by its own inherent force, reach the new territories, its provisions might, as Mr. Berrien of Georgia asserted, certainly be extended to them by an act of legislature. This proposition was here denied by Mr. Drayton, and defended by Mr. Berrien. Mr. Walker vindicated the southern States from the charge of being less attached to the Union than the northern, and made references to a northern confederacy in 1804, to Aaron Burr, and the Hartford Convention; and he again insisted that this was the time to meet this question of slavery and amicably settle it.

Mr. Hale of New Hampshire, after jocularly adverting to some of the topics of declamation of those who had gone before him, denied that the constitution of the United States, with all its elasticity, could be made to extend over these territories. If its provisions could be extended by legislation, they could in the same manner be taken away. It could be extended to no people who were not parties to it, or who did not assent to its provisions. He then referred to the course taken at the preceding session on the Oregon bill, the appointment of a special committee, the passage, in the senate, of the bill that committee reported, and, finally, its rejection by the house. It was then found necessary to meet the question boldly, it was so met, and "its settlement very easily effected." The same thing could now be done. He warmly remonstrated against planting slavery in the new territories, against the instructions of the legislatures of every free State in the Union. He said that when they had "tried and failed, it would be time enough to tell their constituents they could not succeed." He warned northern members who were afraid to meet this question of the fate which awaited them on returning to their constituents, and he

was for no amendment, no experiment, no compromise of any sort, but for adhering to the old ordinance of 1787, "which perpetually excluded slavery from the North Western territory."

Mr. Butler of South Carolina had been inclined to vote for the amendment offered by Mr. Drayton until he had heard the reasons offered in support of it. He had understood Mr. Drayton to say that if the constitution could be extended to the new territories, Congress ought not to extend it, as it might give to the South some advantage in the present contest. He pressed with great force the monstrous injustice of seeking to withhold from the South any rights or benefits which the constitution conferred on them. He then argued that the constitution, the moment that territories are acquired by treaty, attaches itself to them—though the machinery of courts and officers may be wanting; and he asked whether Congress could make a distinction between the ports of California and New York as to the revenue laws, or whether if the people of the territories gave aid to the enemy they would not be guilty of treason. He preferred the amendment of Mr. Walker, because it provides that the Constitution should be, if it was not already in force in the territories; because he was opposed to any further compromises in which he had no faith; because it may put this subject beyond the control of agitating politicians; and may enable the people of California to make a constitution for themselves. In whatever way they might decide the question of slavery, he should acquiesce. He adverted in conclusion to a remark of Mr. Drayton that the highest honors of the republic had been bestowed on southern politicians, and remarked that the fact was not attributable to the institutions of the South, but because those eminent men had won the confidence of their fellow citizens, and because, perhaps, northern men were less ambitious of political honors.

Mr. Webster remarked that the member from South Carolina had said that the northern States have not observed the compromises of the constitution; and though he was not bound to take up a glove that was thrown to the world, yet if Mr. Butler would inform the senate wherein Massachusetts had broken those compromises, it would be his duty to defend the State he represented, if able to do so. He denied that a law could extend the constitution of the United States to the territories—"the thing was utterly impossible." The whole authority of Congress on this subject is derived from the brief clause in the constitution concerning *territories*, and we have never had a *territory* governed as the United States are governed, for while it remains a territory it is no part of the United States.

Mr. Calhoun combated this doctrine, and maintained that the constitution interprets itself in pronouncing itself to be "the supreme law of the land." It is the supreme law, not merely within the limits of the States, but wherever our flag waves. He said that the member from Massachusetts admitted that the fundamental principles of the

constitution applied to the territories, and he asked if there could be a more fundamental principle than that all the States had a community of interest in all that belongs to the Union, and that there should be perfect equality among them. On expressing some doubt whether the Supreme Court had decided that the constitution did not extend to the territories, Mr. Webster replied that they had so decided, and urged further arguments in support of the doctrine, when a spirited discussion took place, in which both of the senators spoke several times.

Mr. Douglas was desirous that the senate should take up the bill he had introduced for the admission of California rather than discuss this amendment, but the senate adjourned without taking the question.

When the subject was resumed on the 28th, Mr. Bell offered explanation of his former speech on the subject, which he said had been misrepresented by other members, and he, at the same time, replied to the arguments of Mr. Webster that the constitution of the United States did not extend to the territories, in which he questioned the fact of a decision by the supreme court on this point. He was followed by Mr. Underwood, of Kentucky, who urged further arguments on the same side, drawn both from the words of the constitution and the principles of international law. He was for allowing the people of California and New Mexico to settle the question of slavery for themselves, by organizing for them territorial governments, but not by creating them into States, to which he was opposed. To refuse these people the right to settle this question for themselves is injustice to the southern States, and despotism to the territories. The debate was continued by Mr. Hunter of Virginia, and Mr. Westcott of Florida, in favour of the amendment, and Mr. Niles of Connecticut who was opposed to it, both for the large powers it vested in the President, and because it might be used to get around the Mexican law that excludes slavery. Mr. Hunter disclaimed any such purpose as had apparently been imputed to him by the senator from Connecticut, on whom he retorted with some asperity, and stated that in supporting Mr. Walker's proposition he was actuated only by a desire to settle this vexed question, and give peace, order, and government to the territories. The question being then taken on Mr. Drayton's amendment which simply gave to the President the power to provide a temporary government for the territories, it was rejected by 47 nays to 8 yeas.

Before the question was taken on Mr. Walker's amendment, the part relative to the extension of the United States was modified by these words with his consent, "so far as its provisions can be applied to the conditions of a territory." Mr. Underwood offered an amendment which impliedly denied the claim of Texas to a part of the province of New Mexico, which was on that account opposed by the senators from Texas, Mr. Houston and Mr. Rusk, and also by Mr. Webster, who wished to remain uncommitted on that question. Mr. Underwood insisted that his amendment was no more an expression of opinion on

the Texas boundary than Mr. Walker's. It was however rejected. The original amendment was then passed by 29 votes to 27.

The preceding debate took place in committee of the whole, and two days afterwards, when the appropriation bill being before the senate as reported, the discussion on Mr. Walker's amendment was renewed with unabated vigour.

Mr. Dix, of New York, noticed in succession the propositions of Mr. Bell, which had been disposed of, and the three others yet before the senate—that is, Mr. Douglas' bill for the admission of new territories as States, the bill from the house to provide for the collection of revenue in the new territories, and Mr. Walker's amendment to the appropriation bill, which last he considered the most objectionable of all. He pointed out the difference between this amendment and the cases of Louisiana and Florida, which have been relied on as precedents. He then referred to the debates of the convention which formed the Federal Constitution, to show that no State should be admitted into the Union until it had gone through a course of probation as a territory;—and that this consideration was particularly applicable to California, which differed in so many ways from the other States that had been admitted into the Union. He thought that territorial governments should be organized for California and New Mexico, and that slavery should be there prohibited by Congress. He then gave a historical review of slavery in the United States, down to the Ordinance of 1787, which excluded slavery from the north western territories. In this review he cited Mr. Jefferson's plan for the government of the north western territories, laid before the old Congress in 1784, which proposed to divide it into ten States, then designated by name and boundary; and as it contained an express prohibition of slavery in the form of a proviso, such prohibition ought henceforth to be known as "the Jefferson proviso." He adverted to the uniform opposition of some of the southern States, especially Virginia, to the slave trade, and to the abolition of slavery in Mexico, first declared in 1829, and afterwards confirmed in 1837 and 1844, and insisted that the introduction of slaves into the new territories would be unjust to them. In answer to the question of a member whether he considered that any injustice would result to California by allowing them to do as they please in this matter, he replied, that he was in favour of doing what the fathers of the republic had done as to the north western territory;—of preventing the extension of what they considered, and he considered, a great evil. He proceeded to show that slaves were not needed in the new territories, but added that they had been carried, and always would be carried whithersoever they are not prohibited, of which he considered Missouri an instance.

He said that when those who supported the Mexican war were charged with the intention of acquiring territories with the view of carrying slaves thither, the charge was indignantly repelled; yet in the

first attempt to establish a government in the territories thus acquired, "the right is insisted on, the purpose is confessed." He then adverted to the negotiation of the Mexican treaty, during which the Mexican Commissioners expressed the utmost abhorrence at the introduction of slavery in the territory they ceded. He concluded with referring to the instructions from the State of New York on this subject two years ago, and he declared now, as he declared then, she never would give her consent that slavery should be carried where it does not exist, but that in whatever way the question should be settled, her devotion to the Union would remain unshaken.

Mr. Dickinson, of New York, was in favour of Mr. Walker's amendment. In answer to the objections urged against it, he said that the powers it proposed to vest in the President were not greater than had been given in the cases of Louisiana and Florida: and that the character of the motley population in California, which his colleague had urged against the amendment, presented a strong argument in its favour, as it subjected them to the restraints of civil government. He spoke of the rapid advancement of these States since their independence, notwithstanding the existence of slavery in one-half of them, and said it had been wisely decided to prefer union with slavery, to slavery without union. He remarked that the frantic outcry against slavery was not confined to fanatics, as some allege, but was also raised by political ambition. The Ordinance of 1787 was passed before we had a constitution of the United States, but the case is very different now—besides, both the temporary and permanent governments established by that ordinance were to pay their quotas of the federal debts, which no one would now think of imposing on the territories. He denied that Congress stands in the same relation to the people of the territories that a state legislature does to the people of a state, or that Congress had a right, under the constitution, to legislate for the *people* of a territory. Congress may legislate for the property of territories, and may prescribe general enactments to aid the infant settlements in forming a government; and to this course the people of the territories had assented. He urged that the people of New York were less excited on the subject of slavery than was represented by those who claim to speak for them. They regard it indeed as an evil, and they abolished it when it suited them to do so, but they know that it did not originate under the constitution, and they are willing to leave its sins and vexations, as well as its profits, with the States that still tolerate it. He referred to the rights of the slaveholder under the constitution, and said it is as much a violation of the letter and spirit of that constitution to harbor a fugitive from the laws of a State, as "to protect a fugitive from justice." The North, he said, as a people, wanted not this race among them, and that the races cannot exist together "upon terms of equality," without degrading both. He thought nothing could subvert this happy Union but "the formation of sectional parties," to create which is "the evil

tendency of the times." He believed, however, that the greatest danger had passed away.

He did not consider himself bound by instructions, on which topic he dilated. He thought it better to meet this agitation now than hereafter, as it must progressively increase, if not immediately checked. He insisted that New York, in spite of the efforts of desperate politicians, would respect the rights of other States, and would stand by "the principles of *non-interference* and *the constitution*." He concluded with professions of his fidelity to her interests and wishes.

Mr. Johnson, of Georgia, dilated upon the importance of providing a government for our new possessions on the Pacific, on account of the large number of our citizens who were attracted thither by the gold mines; of the revenue we should derive from impost, and the extensive commerce likely to be carried on with China and other eastern countries from those territories. He adverted to the special committee appointed at the last session, on the subject of a territorial government for Oregon, and the several points which the North conceded by way of compromise, and gave in detail the history of the passage of the bill which passed the senate by a large majority, but failed in the house of representatives,—the consequence of which failure had been that citizens of the southern States have not gone to California; and the northern States were alone reaping the benefit of the gold mines. He was, therefore, in favour of the amendment, which if we did not adopt, we must either pass the territorial bill sent from the house, or admit these territories as States, or consign them to the horrors of anarchy. Of the three alternatives presented, he greatly preferred Mr. Walker's proposition. He maintained that the territories were the common property of the several States, that the federal government was merely their trustee, and that they could not be admitted into the Union without the consent of the States, though he agreed that such consent might be inferred from the consent of Congress; and he added that if Congress were to attempt to impose unreasonable or unequal conditions on a new State, it would be justified in forming for itself an independent government, as Mr. Lowndes had shown on the Missouri question. He objected to Mr. Douglas' proposition for the immediate admission of California into the Union as contrary to established usage, and on several accounts inexpedient. He said it was insisted that no bill for a territorial government could be passed unless it contained the Wilmot proviso, and, therefore, the south were urged to vote for a bill (Mr. Douglas') which would lead to the same result. He could not be operated on by this threat, though he would not vote against the admission of the territories, because they would exclude slavery, provided they had gone through the usual course of probation. He wished this question settled, as did all the southern States, provided it could be done on terms consistent with their honor and safety, and that, almost without a dissenting voice, at the last session, they supported the Missouri compromise.

He referred then to other points of controversy between the North and the South, particularly the laws passed to prevent the recapture of fugitive slaves, and an attempt to interdict the trade in slaves. He insisted that a part of New Mexico and California was adapted to slave labour, and he defended the institution of slavery in the abstract by reference to several passages in the Old and New Testament. That thus sanctioned by religion, it was also expressly recognised and protected by the constitution, and that the peace, the prosperity, the honor and safety of the southern States were all staked in defending it. All they asked of Congress was non-interference. The South was devoted to the Union, but it was the Union which was formed "to establish justice, *ensure domestic tranquillity*, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty."

Mr. Niles considered all the propositions to provide for the new territories to have been framed for the purpose of escaping the great question the subject presented, and which it was their duty to meet. He adverted playfully to the zeal of Mr. Douglas and Mr. Walker on this subject, and to the disputed claim of originating it made by Mr. Foote. He said the discussion had all been on one side, with the exception of what was said by Mr. Dix. He proceeded to reply to Mr. Dickinson of New York, and first as to the great agitation caused by this question, for which the other side and Mr. Dickinson himself were chiefly responsible. He affirmed that the Wilmot proviso when offered produced no excitement, and received, he believed, thirty votes or near it, in the house from the slaveholding States.

This was contradicted by Mr. Butler, and Mr. King, of Alabama, said there was but one vote from a southern State for it.

Mr. Niles resumed: The bill which contained the proviso certainly produced no agitation here, and passed as an ordinary bill. What, he asked, has produced the change? It was, he said, brought to bear on the presidential contest, and was used for this purpose by a portion of the people of the North. Had the Northern States been united on the question, it would have passed away quietly. The South too shared in this responsibility. They made it a test question in the election of president, which contributed to divide the democratic party in the North. He adverted to Mr. Dickinson's declaration that he never had voted for the extension of slavery, and he aimed to show that both at this session and the last he had virtually done so. He combated Mr. Johnson's position that the course pursued by the North on this question was "an aggression on the South." The South being benefited by one decision, and the North by another, if there was any aggression it was natural. But as neither had any exclusive right, there was no aggression. He renewed the objections to the amendment on account of the transfer of a part of New Mexico to Texas, a slave State, and the large powers vested in the President, and he said our citizens there would not submit to such despotism. If we failed to act, the people

of California would establish a provisional government for themselves. He had no fears of anarchy from men who had arms in one hand and the Bible in the other. He asked the member from New York how this amendment could be reconciled with the Nicholson letter which asserted that the right of governing a territory was in the people of that territory, and not in Congress. As to the constitution, he maintained that if it extended at all to the territories, it is only so far as its powers are there necessary and applicable, and he made numerous references to the constitution and its amendments in support of his views. He exhibited a comparison between the free and the slave States, to show that the claims of the former were not unreasonable. The free States have a larger population on a smaller territory—they averaging 27 to the square mile, while the slave States average but 9, and it will take perhaps a century to make the population in the slave States as dense as it now is in the free States—and since the new territories, excluding the worthless portions, are not greater than Texas, which was given up to the South, those territories ought in justice to be given to the North. He then replied to what had been personal in the speech of Mr. Hunter—and to Mr. Butler's remarks on the large share of the public honors conferred on southern men, which, after being called to order by several members, and sustained by the chair, he presumed must be attributed to their "peculiar institutions." He noticed the resolutions of the legislatures of Virginia, South Carolina, and Florida. He contrasted the patriotic opposition of Virginia to the alien and sedition law with her present course, when she "speaks not in the cause of liberty but of oppression." South Carolina, though a very respectable State, had suffered from a nervous affection, which seemed to assume a chronic form. He said the advocates of slavery used bold language, but that violence did not indicate a just cause. He considered the real dangers to the Union were to be found in the extension of slavery in a government like ours, where there is no standing army to preserve order. That slave labour in agriculture deteriorates the soil, and desolates the earth, and that every friend of the Union ought to resist the extension of slavery as unjust to the free States, and injurious to the whole.

Mr. Mason defended the course of Virginia, which, he said, was not uncertain, and who has been responded to by the States further South. Her declaration is, that if there be legislation by Congress, which shall forbid her people to migrate to those territories with any species of property whatsoever, such legislation shall be resisted "at every hazard, and to the last extremity."

Mr. Niles asked if that was a threat?

Mr. Mason replied, "No more a threat than the declared purpose of an honorable man to defend himself from impending assault." He also adverted to the terms, "mode and measure of redress," contained in the resolutions, and on which Mr. Niles had commented. He re-

marked, he was not afraid to say it would be "such a measure" as would "redress the wrong." It would be more—it would "place the State of Virginia beyond the reach of further aggression." He added that two elections had taken place since she passed those resolutions, and he was "yet to hear the first voice from the people of the state in condemnation." They have sustained the legislature without regard to party distinction, and will do so at every hazard.

Mr. Phelps, of Vermont, considered the whole discussion as *mal apropos*. He was convinced that this irritating question could not be settled by the present Congress, and that, therefore, the appropriation bill should not be embarrassed by it. He thought if the subject were let alone, it would adjust itself in a few years. He had voted last year in favor of the report of the select committee, but he was opposed to the present amendment. The question was then taken at a late hour of the night, when it was carried by 25 votes against 18.

While the subject of slavery, in relation to the new territories, thus agitated the senate, it was also the theme of animated discussion in the House of representatives, but with a very different result.

The bill introduced into the House for the government of the new territories, containing the Wilmot proviso, several times during the session afforded occasion for warm debate; and, in some instances, the speakers called forth an admiration, which, perhaps, had not been equalled since the Missouri question: yet as their arguments were substantially the same as those urged in the Senate, of which we have already given an abstract, we forbear to take a more particular notice of them. This bill, near the close of the session, passed the house by 119 votes to 81; and when the appropriation bill was sent to the house, from the Senate, Mr. Walker's amendment was also struck out by a decisive majority.

The two Houses of Congress thus disagreeing on this question, and each one adhering to the ground it had taken, no government was organized for the new territories, and they were left under that military authority which was created by the laws of war, and which, as Mr. Buchanan thought,* must continue, from the necessity of the case, until a legitimate government was provided for them by Congress, or by themselves. The two houses, however, so far concurred as to pass an act for extending the revenue laws to California, in which they made a port of entry at San Francisco, and three ports of delivery at San Diego, Monterey, and another to be selected by the secretary of the treasury, near the junction of the Gila and Colorado, on the Gulf of California.

So engrossing was this subject of slavery, that the members in both houses availed themselves of every occasion to express their sentiments on it. Thus on the 10th of January, a petition from Kentucky asking

* In his letter, written in October last, to W. V. Voorhies, appointed a post-office agent for the new territories.

for an annual appropriation to assist the Colonization society in transporting colored persons to Liberia, gave rise to a warm debate, which occupied the senate until a late hour.

Mr. Underwood, who had presented the petition, asked its reference to the judiciary committee, with instructions to inquire whether Congress possessed the constitutional power of making the appropriation, and if so, whether it was expedient to exercise it. He professed also to have another purpose. The southern States are habitually reproached for the institution of slavery, on which it is known that their citizens are divided: many of them being willing to manumit their slaves, provided they could be sent out of the country. He wished, therefore, to test the opinion of northern men on the power and expediency of appropriating money to relieve the country of this evil. He saw no difference between this case and that of appropriations for the removal of Indians and recaptured Africans. He considered all attempts to suppress discussion on this subject hopeless—he wished to ascertain the sentiments of the North. He was opposed to the refusal of Congress to hear petitions on the subject, under the 21st rule, which had only aggravated the evil. He did indeed consider that the right of petition had its limits, which he stated, but still he was for hearing those petitions, and allowing free discussion.

Mr. Metcalfe, his colleague, knew the petitioner, and testified to his respectability. He is a slave owner, and is desirous of emancipation. There are thousands disposed to the same course, if the liberated persons can be sent out of the country: but there is the difficulty. Some of the States have prohibited their introduction, and the citizens of Kentucky would not tolerate their remaining there in political equality with themselves. As the policy of emancipation is now agitated in Kentucky, it is important to know if it can be aided by the national treasury in transporting them. There would be no philanthropy in liberating them, and allowing them to remain in the state, as their condition would be thereby rendered worse—a fact which well deserves the consideration of all who move in this matter.

Mr. Hale, of New Hampshire, made acknowledgments for the liberal course of Mr. Underwood, but dissented from his restrictions on the right of petition, which he severally examined. He said the northern men had been upbraided for being aggressive on this subject. He averred that their conduct had been pusillanimous—that even women and children reproached them for their timidity. Slavery, he said, has so ruled this government, that if they attempt to exercise the right of the beggar, and cry for some relief, they are denounced as insolent. They had been too submissive. He had no wish to interfere with the rights of the South, he would go to the “full limits and letter of the bond;” but when his friends, in the name of humanity, ask not to transcend their constitutional obligations, he desired they may not be called aggressive.

Mr. Douglas denied that the North had suffered degradation from the South. They had always maintained their rights, and if they had shown any submission, it was only to the constitution. He had voted to exclude abolition petitions from the halls of Congress, and to keep down the spirit of fanaticism, which was arraying the North and the South against each other, to build up political factions. He wished to execute the powers of the government in that spirit of conciliation which brought the constitution into existence. If they would settle this question, let us, he said, banish this agitation from these halls. Let us remove the causes which produce it—let us settle it in the territory acquired, so as to satisfy the honor, and respect the feelings of all. Do not insult one section by the prohibition of slavery, nor defy the other by threats of disunion. Bring the new territories into the Union as States, and let them settle the question of slavery as any other question. Neither the North nor the South have any right to enforce their peculiar notions on them. Let it be settled in this district in the same way, by a retrocession to Maryland.

Mr. Underwood denied that the right of petition could be assimilated to the right of prayer. He regarded it as a practical thing, and it was not a matter of right with most of the petitioners, as slavery did not affect them. He admitted, in answer to a question from Mr. Hale, that the people of the United States contributed to the expense of supporting slavery in the district to some extent, but this had an unappreciable bearing on the subject, and afforded no justification to petitioners to ask for the repeal or modification of a law which did not operate on themselves.

Mr. Drayton re-enforced the objections he had made to instructions to the judiciary committee, when the petition was presented. He was for leaving the whole subject to the discretion of the committee. Besides, by forestalling the action of the committee, they would drag into the question the only institution—the Colonization society—which now conciliates the kind feeling both of the North and the South. On his motion, the instructions to the committee were struck out.

Mr. Mason could not give his sanction to any inquiry on the subject of slavery, as it was not permitted by the constitution, and it could be approached in no form in the Senate without injury to that institution. He presumed that no one who was capable of understanding the constitution, believed that Congress had any authority to appropriate money for the proposed object—he was, therefore, opposed to the reference.

Mr. Davis, of Mississippi, argued against the right of petition on this subject, and was opposed to the reference. He was even unwilling to allow any influence to operate on the present convention in Kentucky, one way or the other. He denied that slavery in the United States had made any man a slave more than he was before. Slaves were originally purchased from warring bands in Africa, and were thus saved from a more degrading servitude. Slavery had brought with it com-

merce, which was the parent of civilization. He invoked others to follow the example of the senator from Illinois, (Mr. Douglas,) and said that if our republican institutions are destined to fall, it is this question which will destroy them.

Mr. Butler was opposed to the reference. He had previously determined to be drawn into no discussion by petitions relative to slavery, and if the present petition were referred to the judiciary committee, he should ask to be discharged from it.

Mr. Berrien and Mr. Niles both considered the appropriation asked for to be unconstitutional, but were in favor of referring the petition.

On the motion of Mr. Dickinson for indefinite postponement, there were 27 yeas to 23 noes.

A similar discussion was called forth on the 22d of January, when Mr. Dix presented to the senate a preamble and resolutions, passed by the legislature of New York. The senators of that State were instructed, and its representatives requested, on the following points:

1. To procure the passage of laws for the government of the new territories, and that involuntary servitude, except for crime, be there excluded.

2. That the territory between the Nueces and the Rio Grande, and that part of New Mexico lying east of the Rio Grande, are the common property of the United States, and that the senators and representatives of the State use their efforts to protect it from the unfounded claims of Texas, and to prohibit the extension over it of the laws of Texas, or of domestic slavery.

3. That the existence of prisons for the confinement of slaves, and of marts for their sale, at the seat of the national government, is viewed by the legislature of New York with "deep regret and mortification," and that they ought to be forthwith abolished.

4. That the senators and representatives of the State use strenuous efforts to procure a law that shall protect slaves from "unjust imprisonment," and "shall effectually put an end to the slave trade in the District."

Mr. Rusk, of Texas, said he would not question the jurisdiction of the legislature of New York on the slavery question, which seemed likely to agitate the Union from one extremity to the other, but he would question their jurisdiction relative to the boundaries of Texas. The territory claimed by his State has cost her a ten years' war, and the loss of hundreds of lives: and he was prepared at all times to prove that the Rio Grande is her boundary, but would have preferred that the question had been left to the proper jurisdiction. Texas would surrender her rights only with her existence as a sovereign State.

Mr. Yulee of Florida, was opposed to printing the resolutions, as they were insulting to fifteen States, in saying, as the preamble did, that "it would be unjust to Mexico and California, and revolting to

the spirit of the age," to permit domestic slavery, from which they are now free, to be introduced among them.

Mr. Dickinson said there had been no previous instance of refusing to print the resolutions of a sovereign State. Though he differed in sentiment from a majority of the Legislature of his State on this subject, he thought she had a right to be heard through her Legislature.

Mr. Foote was also in favor of printing, according to precedent, and the respect due to a sovereign State.

Mr. Dix examined the preamble and resolutions *seriatim*, to show that they contained nothing on the subject of slavery which had not been reiterated in speeches and resolutions there and elsewhere. That as to the boundary of Texas, they expressed the opinion entertained by a large majority of the State Legislatures. When the subject came up, he would listen to the senator from Texas with respectful attention. That the last resolution embodies the opinions of the members of the Legislature, on the traffic in slaves in the District, which concerns the people of the whole Union. That this traffic had been prevented by a grand jury of Alexandria 46 years ago; and that John Randolph of Virginia, in 1816, introduced a resolution to inquire if such traffic existed: that the inhabitants of Washington had presented it as a grievance. He had in his hand a memorial to Congress from the inhabitants of the District, in 1828, praying for the gradual abolition of slavery, which he then read. It was signed by 1060 persons, among whom were persons of the first respectability. This memorial goes much farther than the New York resolutions, and uses much stronger language.

Mr. Mason was in favor of printing, because every State has a right to be heard, and he moreover wished these resolutions to be reported to the southern States in the very language in which they were uttered: he wanted nothing suppressed. He expected Virginia also to speak, and should ask that her resolutions should also be received and printed. He drew a distinction between the people of this District speaking of their own institutions, and the people of New York, where slavery no longer exists; for such a State to speak of an institution which exists in fifteen States, as "revolting to the spirit of the age," was to hold "the language of contumely and indignity."

Mr. Dix remarked that New York did not speak of slavery as it exists in the States, but only of its introduction into new territories, where it does not exist, and whose inhabitants have petitioned against it.

Mr. Mason insisted on the offensive character of the language used, but said it was important to the southern States, to know the sentiments of the northern States, and in the very terms used. He said that if the introduction of slavery in the Territories, the common property of all the States, was persisted in, there would be "no other alternative but submission or resistance," and he appealed to history to show whether his constituents were likely to choose submission.

Mr. Rusk was in favor of printing the resolutions. He asked if New York had alone sent her armies to conquer Mexico. He averred that the little State of Texas had contributed more men to that object than the State of New York; that these resolutions were based on the petition from New Mexico, but that petition emanated from a few individuals of doubtful character, and he traced it to local intrigue. He vehemently remonstrated against the interference with the boundaries of a sovereign State.

Mr. Yulee affirmed that the South had furnished more than its quota of troops to the Mexican war.

Mr. Dickinson replied that New York had raised her full quota, but that her troops were prevented from marching, out of favor to the South.

Mr. Yulee was opposed to receiving the resolutions on account of their disrespectful language, now introduced for the first time.

Mr. King, of Alabama, stated that resolutions of this character from other States had contained language highly improper, but while he regretted that such should have been used on the present occasion, he thought the State of New York had a right to be heard, and that the publication and diffusion of her sentiments would have a better effect than their suppression.

Mr. Butler and Mr. Berrien were also in favor of printing the resolutions.

Mr. Davis, of Mississippi, was opposed to the printing, and pronounced the assertion, as to the prisons in which slaves "are unjustly and illegally immured," in the District, a falsehood.

Mr. Fitzpatrick, of Alabama, was opposed to printing the resolutions, as he would not aid in "disseminating the slanders and assaults" made upon his section of the country and its institutions.

Mr. Niles wished to know of the member from Florida, (Mr. Yulee,) who had said the Union was "tottering to its base," whether he knew of any combination there or elsewhere against the Union.

Mr. Yulee answered that the Union was tottering under the blows of northern fanatics and northern injustice. He places liberty before union.

Mr. Douglas was in favor of printing, according to general usage. He does not believe that the question endangers the Union. The resolutions had fallen into the common error of supposing it was wished to extend slavery to countries now free. He knew of none who wished that, but only that the Territories should decide this question as they pleased.

Mr. Downs was opposed to the printing, as the facts stated in the resolutions were false. He called in question the fact that the people of New Mexico did send such a memorial to Congress; it had upon its face only fourteen names, but two of which were American. He doubted the correctness of the statement as to the slave trade and slave prisons

in the District. He adverted to the course of the Northern States, as to the recovery of fugitive slaves; which he said was practically abrogated. He admitted that the Union was in danger from these agitations. The people of the South were attached to the Union, and if it should be destroyed, its destruction would not be caused by them, but by the "gradual, constant, and determined purpose of the North to deprive them of some of their great constitutional privileges."

Mr. Foote justified himself for differing from his friends on the question of printing the resolutions.

Mr. Niles alleged that the Senator from Louisiana, (Mr. Downs,) was mistaken as to the difficulties in recovering fugitive slaves. He denied that the North was disposed to interfere with slavery in the States. He thought that the Union might be endangered by extending slavery with the extension of our limits, and the endeavours to prevent its extension in Territories was very different from interfering with it in the States. The course of Congress towards those Territories should be just; but whether just or not, it does not invade the rights of the States. If this question of slavery in the Territories be decided one way, one portion of the country regards it as an aggression; if in another way, then the other portion so regards it. He was deciding it as the interests of the whole Union required.

Mr. Butler stated the facts of a particular case, relied on by Mr. Niles, in which a master had recovered damages for personal injury to himself, as well as for the value of his fugitive slaves. He alleged that it is a penal offence in many of the States for any municipal officer to aid a master in the recovery of his runaway slaves.

Mr. Dickinson declared that there was no such law in New York, and Mr. Cameron said there was none in Pennsylvania.

Mr. Butler said that a bill had been introduced into the Senate which made it the duty of State officers to aid in the recovery of fugitive slaves. When that should come up, he feared that many of those who profess respect for the constitution, would not aid him in the support of that bill. He said that the discussions in Congress had made the slaves discontented. He believed it had been better for the country if Congress had not met for the last ten years. He insisted on the South's sharing in what had been purchased by its blood; it was vain to say that the institution of slavery in the States had not been invaded—it had been invaded, and the lives of himself and his children had been thereby put in jeopardy.

Mr. Dickinson again stated there was no such law in New York as Mr. Butler had supposed; there had been some such proposition in the legislature, but was rejected.

A case in Michigan concerning fugitive slaves having been mentioned by Mr. Downs, Mr. Felch of that State, said, that was a suit brought to recover damages for the loss of slaves, when full justice was done to the injured party.

Mr. Baldwin, of Connecticut, said that it had formerly been the general opinion in the North, that under the constitution, the States were bound to provide for the surrender of fugitive slaves. Connecticut had, accordingly, passed a law for that purpose; but it being afterwards decided by the Supreme Court that this duty devolved, not on the States, but the Federal Government, Connecticut repealed her law, and going a step further, prohibited her magistrates from acting.

Mr. Downs referred to a particular case of interference with the recovery of a fugitive slave in New York.

Mr. Metcalfe said he had been often asked where Kentucky would go in case of a separation of the States. He believed she would unite neither with the North nor the South when separated, but would unite with both when constituting one whole. Now, said he, when thrones are every where tottering; when the world is looking to this confederacy as the polar star of human liberty, and the nations of Europe are endeavouring to shape their governments after our own, let it not go forth that this our Union is in danger. Let our motto be, "Union now, and Union for ever."

On the motion to print, there were 45 ayes and 6 noes.

Besides these discussions when the merits of the slave question were directly presented to the consideration of the legislature, the same exciting topic was discussed in the House of Representatives, in committee of the whole on a bill for carrying into execution the 12th article* of the Mexican treaty,—especially by Mr. Thompson of Kentucky, and Mr. Crisfield of Maryland.

It was thought better to present in an uninterrupted form all that was done at the last session of Congress on a subject which has excited more interest, both in Congress and out of it, than any other, and which still greatly agitates the public mind, especially in the southern States, and may be revived in unabated vigour at the next session.

Let us now revert to the other important proceedings of Congress. On the 2d of January, the President sent to the House of Representatives an answer to their resolution of the 18th of December, inquiring by what authority duties had been established in Mexico by the Secretary of the Treasury, and that the revenue thence arising had been appropriated to the support of the army in Mexico.

After referring to his annual message in 1847, and to two other messages during the preceding session to the Senate and House of Representatives, responding to their several calls, he states that the duties referred to were not established by the Secretary of the Treasury, but by a military order issued by the President, and he cites copiously from those messages, to show that this course was justified by the laws of war, and was farther recommended by considerations of policy. The mode of levying contributions authorized by the right of Congress,

* The article providing for the payment of fifteen millions of dollars.

he said, was altogether discretionary, and the mode adopted had been sanctioned by the treaty of peace with Mexico. As to his constitutional power, he assimilates the right of levying contributions to the right of blockade, which it is not disputed the President has, though the constitution does not expressly give it; and he adds that these contributions mainly contributed to hasten the peace.

On the 8th of January, the bill for reciprocal free trade between the United States and Canada in certain agricultural products, came up for consideration, on the benefits of which arrangement to both countries, Mr. Dix dwelt with much emphasis.

Mr. Pearce of Maryland opposed the bill on the ground that the reciprocity was delusive. The bill, he said, provides that wheat and certain other products may be imported into either country from the other free of duty. Should it pass, not a dollar's worth of these products would come into the United States from Canada, but the effect would be to give her a share of our home market. He denied that the effect of the bill would be to open the St. Lawrence to the United States, and though it should, he considered that navigation, with the existing artificial channels of commerce, to be of no value. Formerly, when Great Britain had differential duties in favour of colonial wheat, we did import grain into Canada which was shipped as colonial produce to England; but since these duties have ceased, that trade is at an end. He further objected that by the operation of our treaties with other nations, those nations might insist on importing their breadstuffs into this country, free of duty. He referred to the convention with France in 1831, which lowered the duties on French wine, as an example. He insisted that the bill would not profit the agriculture of the United States, and that if it rendered any benefit, it would be only to the millers of New York.

Mr. Niles of Connecticut supported the bill, as being mutually beneficial. In general, both countries have a surplus of the articles in which a reciprocal free trade is allowed, and consequently there would in general be no importation of them; but if, on extraordinary occasions, either should want what the other could spare, both countries would be benefited. As we possess greater resources and facilities than Canada in every thing except timber, we should derive the most benefit. Our carrying trade would also profit by the arrangement, and much of their traffic would pass through the United States. He considered that as Canada is not a foreign power, but only a colony, the advantages granted to her could not be claimed by other countries.

Mr. Hunter, though a friend to free trade, spoke against the bill. He was opposed to a course of policy which put the agricultural interests on the footing of free trade, and afforded to other interests high protection. He thought that if we admitted the wheat of Canada free of duty, we must also admit that of the Baltic, or the treaty provisions of granting the same benefits as had been granted to other nations

would be evaded. We have already encouraged the Canadian trade by allowing a drawback on their goods imported into this country, and they say that they can now export at less expense through our ports than through their own.

Mr. Douglas did not see that the trade of Canada could interfere with us. He had no fear they could undersell us. The effect of this bill would be to enable the produce of Canada, when the St. Lawrence was closed, to find access to foreign markets through the United States. It was important that the people on the opposite sides of the St. Lawrence and lakes should have reciprocity in trade and kind feelings.

Mr. Phelps was opposed to the bill, which gave an advantage to Canada without an equivalent to the United States; but if the principle of reciprocity were adopted, he proposed to extend it to manufactures, and he offered an amendment to that effect, to which Mr. Davis of Mississippi, proposed to add, cotton, sugar and tobacco.

Mr. Westcott was in favour of the bill, because he was in favour of free trade. He said that while the North was asking for special legislation, he would also ask it in behalf of the six southern States. This was the repeal of a law which now subjected small Spanish vessels from Cuba and Porto Rico to retaliatory duties, and thus put an end to a commercial intercourse that had been very beneficial.

Mr. Downs was opposed to the bill as repugnant to the constitution, which forbids any commercial regulation that gives a preference to one port over another. It allows articles to be imported in some ports free of duty which are subjected to it in others.

The subject was resumed on the 24th of January, when the bill was supported by Mr. Dix. He denied that the privilege proposed to be granted to Canada would be extended to the nations with whom we had reciprocity treaties. If those nations had colonies on this continent like Great Britain, they perhaps might claim the same privilege, but not otherwise. Nor would Great Britain herself be entitled to it. These treaties relate to commerce on the ocean, not to land trade. If this were not the case, we should be entitled to the same exemptions from the *zollverein* duty as Prussia. Our treaties are made solely for the regulation of commerce on the sea, and even if it were otherwise, we should gain as much as we conceded. There would be no danger that the nations on the Baltic would bring wheat here. Since the repeal of the British corn laws, it is now as advantageous to export Canadian wheat through the United States as directly from Canada. The differential duties have been repealed in Canada. The effect of their change of policy is, that there are now extensive imports of British goods into Canada through the United States, and large importations of products of the United States for consumption. Flour is the only product of Canada likely to compete with our productions. She now competes with us in foreign markets, and this bill would afford her no new facilities. The benefits to us would be, first, it

would relieve us from custom house regulations in Canada, and secondly, it would enable the Canadians to export their products to foreign markets through the United States. The surplus production of wheat in Canada is about 2,000,000 bushels. In 1847 she produced 4,560,000 bushels, and imported but 92. In the same year, she exported 4,047,000 bushels. Her annual product is worth $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions of dollars, ours 114 millions. Her export is less than 600,000 barrels of flour; ours 4,500,000 barrels, and 20,000,000 of bushels of Indian corn. We shall also be greatly gainers in the exports of cattle and other commodities. Our exports to the British American colonies greatly exceed our imports from them. Canada, however, cannot admit our manufactures duty free, as she relies on her impost for revenue. Besides, she imposes like duties on British manufactures.

In reply to the suggestion of the member from Virginia (Mr. Hunter) that the measure seemed to look to annexation, he said that such was not the wish of the people of Canada who were first for union with Great Britain, then independence, and annexation last of all, that the anti-liberal party are opposed to free trade between their country and this, and ask for differential duties to prevent the Canadians from being tempted by the benefits of commercial intercourse to desire political union. The present restrictions, he added, would not long be submitted to, and if not relieved by their government the people would look to annexation, as the only practical remedy. He said we had long wished for the navigation of the St. Lawrence. We had claimed it as a right. Canada was now willing to grant it without an equivalent. It would be granted he said if we did not decline the reciprocity proposed by this bill. The utility of that navigation would be very great. If we possessed it, vessels might be laden with wheat at Chicago, Green Bay, Detroit or Cleveland, and unlade at Liverpool. Ship owners, producers, and all would be benefited by this free commerce, which saved the necessity of transshipment between the points of embarkation and the sea or the foreign market. The St. Lawrence is the only outlet of the Northwest to the sea for vessels of any magnitude. This navigation would be defeated by the anti-liberal party, if the present bill failed. The first use the Canadians had made of their commercial freedom was to tender to us liberal terms of commercial exchange, and without an equivalent. They now ask equality in exchanging a few agricultural products common to both countries, in accordance with the liberal principles we profess.

The consideration of the bill was postponed, on the motion of Mr. Pearce until the next day, but was not afterwards acted upon, all other questions of public policy seeming to have been swallowed up in that of admitting or excluding slavery in the newly acquired territories.

The acquisition of California, especially after the discovery of its rich mines of gold gave a new spring to the scheme of facilitating the

intercourse between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, which has never ceased to be a favourite purpose of projectors for near two centuries. Some enterprising individuals of New York,* having obtained a charter from the government of New Grenada to make a rail-road across the Isthmus from Chagres to Panama, applied to Congress for pecuniary aid in consideration of securing to the United States the free passage of its mails and military stores, and of limited and moderate tolls of citizens of the United States and their merchandize.

Mr. King from the committee on naval affairs, to whom the memorial of Aspinwall and company was referred, made a full report on the subject. It stated that England was 1500 miles nearer than the United States to all parts of the world except the Atlantic ports of the American continent. The proposed rail-road would turn this advantage in our favour. In our trade to the Pacific ocean, the East Indies and China, the gain would be in the voyage out and home, 9,200 miles. It concluded by submitting a bill which authorized the secretary of the navy to make a contract with the memorialists whereby they were to make a rail-road across the isthmus within three years; to transport all persons in the service of the United States, and all freight belonging to them, free of cost for twenty years: to charge citizens of the United States not more than \$5 for each person and each ton of merchandize passing the road. The government to pay them \$250,000 a year for twenty years after the road was completed.

The bill gave rise to much discussion during the session, and it soon appeared that it had to contend with rival projects for connecting the Atlantic and Pacific: one was by a railroad across the isthmus of Tehuantepec, and another by Nicaragua. Others again gave a preference to a connexion through our own territory; and two other routes of this description were suggested besides the one proposed last year by Mr. Whitney. In this conflict of views there was nothing done, and the subject was postponed to the next session, by which time more accurate information may be obtained of the comparative advantages of these several modes of communication, as to cost, security from interruption, and saving of distance.

It having been rumoured that the American commissioners who concluded the Mexican treaty had given some explanations of the amendments it had undergone in the Senate which were inconsistent with the intention of the Senate and with their true purport, Mr. Stephens of Georgia on the 2d of February offered a resolution requesting the President to furnish to the House a correct copy of the treaty, and particularly of those articles which had been stricken out or amended by the Senate, and whether there was any evidence in the State Department of an agreement or assurance by the American commissioners, before the ratification of the amendments of a protocol to the following effect:

* Wm. H. Aspinwall, John L. Stephens, and Henry Chauncey.

1. The American government, by suppressing the 9th article of the original treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, did not intend to diminish in any way what was agreed upon by that article in favour of the inhabitants of the Territories ceded by Mexico, and consequently, that "all privileges and guarantees, civil, political, and religious," which would have been possessed by those inhabitants, "will be still enjoyed by them."

2. The American government, by suppressing the 10th article of the treaty, did not intend "to annul the grants of lands made by Mexico in the ceded territories," which grants, notwithstanding their suppression, preserve their legal value, and the grantees "may cause their legitimate titles to be *acknowledged* before the American tribunals." . . . By the law of the United States, all Mexican titles to property in California and New Mexico that were good up to the 13th of May, 1846, and in Texas, up to the 2d of March, 1836, are legitimate titles in the United States.

3. The government of the United States, by suppressing the concluding paragraph of the 12th article of the treaty did not intend to deprive the Mexican Republic of the unrestrained faculty of ceding or transferring at any time the twelve millions of dollars to be paid by the United States.

"And these explanations having been accepted by the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Mexican Republic, he declared in the name of his Government that, with the understanding conveyed by them, the same Government would proceed to ratify the treaty of Guadalupe, as modified by the Senate and Government of the United States." Signed by Nathan Clifford, Ambrose H. Sevier, and Luis de la Rosa.

The resolution further inquired of the president whether the American commissioners were empowered to make those explanations, and give those guarantees, and by what authority they were so empowered, and whether the protocol had been submitted to the Senate and sanctioned by that body; and also whether the president was aware of the existence of such protocol when he issued his proclamation of the final exchange of ratifications on the 4th of July, 1848.

Two days afterwards Mr. Stephens addressed the House upon the subject of these explanations, which he declared to be unwarrantable. He spoke at some length to show that the president had no power to bind us thus by treaty, and that the explanation was at variance with the intention of the Senate.

Mr. Houston, of Alabama, denied that there was any assurance or guarantee given by the American commissioners which had not been given by the treaty, and he referred to Mr. Buchanan's letter to the Mexican secretary of foreign affairs in proof of it. He relied on the Mexican claims referred to as vested rights.

Mr. Stephens said he had read Mr. Buchanan's letter, and he was quite competent to give the Mexican government that explanation;

but it was one thing to make an argument in support of a proposition, and another to pledge the honor of the United States in its support. He assimilated claims to land under grants of the Mexican government to claims to land in Georgia under British grants before the revolution, notwithstanding which grants these lands were confiscated by the state of Georgia, and given to other persons. Mr. Houston distinguished between the two cases, since in the case of the Mexican grants there was no confiscation. He defended all the articles of the protocol. Besides, he said the treaty was ratified on the 25th of May, as appeared by the despatches of the American commissioners, and the protocol was dated the day afterwards. The fact of priority was controverted by Mr. Stephens.

Mr. Houston offered an amendment to the resolution, provided the information asked for "was not incompatible with the public interests."

Mr. Schenck argued that the Mexican government was unwilling to ratify the treaty without the protocol. He admitted that the American commissioners might give their construction of the treaty if called upon, but it should have been given simply as their own construction. If the protocol amounted to nothing, the Mexican government had been deceived.

Mr. Houston's amendment was rejected, and the resolution of Mr. Stephens passed.

A resolution similar to Mr. Stephens' had also passed the senate, on the motion of Mr. Mangum, of North Carolina.

On the 9th of February the president communicated to both houses of Congress the papers called for. These were, 1. The letter from Mr. Buchanan to the Mexican minister of foreign affairs informs him of the qualified ratification of the treaty by the Senate of the United States, and gives explanations of the amendments made by the Senate. 2. Mr. Buchanan's letters to the American commissioners, who were informed that they could not change or modify the treaty. Should the Mexican government refuse to ratify the treaty because of the amendment to the 12th article, (concerning the twelve millions,) they were authorized to conclude a new treaty as to the mode of payment, "provided that government shall have first ratified the original treaty, with the amendments adopted by the Senate."

3. Two letters from the American commissioners to Mr. Buchanan, informing him of the ratification of the treaty, by which letters it appears that the treaty was dated on the 25th of May, and the protocol on the 26th.

The new territory of Minesota was established at this session. It was framed out of what was the Northwest territory, and lies north of the state of Iowa, and west of Wisconsin. Its limits are thus described in the act which created it: beginning on the Mississippi at the latitude of 43° 30', its southern line runs along the northern boundary of the state of Iowa, to the northwest corner of that state, on the Missouri;

thence up the Missouri to the mouth of White-earth river; thence up this river to the British boundary line; thence along this line to lake Superior; thence in a straight line to the northernmost point of Wisconsin; thence along the western boundary of Wisconsin to the Mississippi; thence down the river to the beginning. The act provides that Congress may divide this territory into two or more territories, or attach any portion of it to another state or territory. The legislature is, as usual, vested in a Governor and Legislative Assembly, consisting of a Council and House of Representatives. The Council to consist at present of nine members, and the Representatives of eighteen members; but both may be hereafter increased so as not to exceed fifteen councillors and thirty-nine representatives. The Governor has a qualified veto on the laws. The territory has a right to send a delegate to Congress. The laws of Wisconsin are in force until they substitute laws of their own. An act was also passed authorizing the Secretary of War, in his discretion, to furnish emigrants to Oregon, California, and New Mexico with arms, on paying the cost of them.

On the 4th of March, General Taylor was inaugurated as the twelfth President of the United States. He took the oath of office, and delivered his address in the open air, before the eastern portico of the capitol, in presence of a more numerous crowd than probably Washington had ever before witnessed. His discourse was distinguished for its brevity, as well as its good sense and moderation; and was very grateful to the friends of peace both in this country and in Europe.

The duties hitherto assigned to the Secretary of the Treasury, now become too numerous for one department, were, at this session, divided, and a part of them assigned to a secretary of the Home Department, who was to be a member of the cabinet.

The following gentlemen were soon afterwards appointed members of his cabinet, now extended to seven members:—

JOHN M. CLAYTON of Delaware, Secretary of State.

WM. M. MEREDITH of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Treasury.

G. M. CRAWFORD of Georgia, Secretary of War.

WM. B. PRESTON of Virginia, Secretary of the Navy.

THOMAS EWING of Ohio, Secretary of the Home Department.

JACOB COLLAMER of Vermont, Postmaster-General.

REVERDY JOHNSON of Maryland, Attorney-General.

Most of these gentlemen were members of the bar, and at the head of their profession in their respective states.

The United States being on friendly terms with all nations, and having no important negotiation depending, the new administration was able to give an undivided attention to matters of domestic policy. Of these one of the first, as well as most important, presented to their consideration, was the subject of appointments to offices of trust and emolument. As nearly all of these were held by the party which had been defeated in the late presidential election, the question was as to

the justice and policy of removals, and of their extent, on which points it was understood that there was some diversity of views in the cabinet.

Different States also feel and act very differently on this subject. In general, public sentiment, in most of the southern States, is not in favor of removing men from office merely on account of their political opinions or votes. It is considered that offices are created for the community, not for those who hold them, and that one who is experienced is probably better qualified and more to be trusted than he who is untried; and that if the interests of individuals are to be taken into account, the injury sustained by the man displaced is likely to be far greater than the benefit conferred on his successor. But in the northern and middle States the practice of removing the members of a vanquished party to make way for the victors has been so prevalent that it is generally expected. It is clamorously demanded by those who hope to profit by it, and the incumbent who is to be ejected becomes resigned to it. Such seems to be the settled state of public sentiment in much the largest part of the Union, without any probability of change. Yet, if it could be effected, it would be desirable to see some qualification to this species of proscription, which so greatly contributes to imbitter party strife, to draw men from the more quiet and useful pursuits of life to that of noisy and intriguing politicians; and which tends to make mere zeal in a canvass supply the place of more substantial merit,—nay sometimes to be used as a set-off to moral delinquency. Upon the whole, the function of appointing to office is one of the most delicate and perplexing exercises of executive power, and no course can entirely escape discontent, censure and complaint, even among the supporters of the administration. If removals are not made, the clamour is vehement and unceasing. If they are made, there is for one rendered grateful probably twenty disappointed, and perhaps resentful.

Among the memorable occurrences in our domestic history we must not pass over the feverish excitement produced throughout the Union by the gold mines of California. The rumours which prevailed concerning the fertility of those mines were for some months little heeded in the Atlantic States, but those rumours having at length received confirmation from officers of the government, and every succeeding account tending to raise the reputation of their extent as well as richness, California became, in the latter end of the preceding year, the most engrossing object of public attention. Schemes of emigration to this new El Dorado were immediately formed by individuals, by associations, and joint-stock companies, in every part of the United States, and promptly put in execution. Some aiming at the shortest route, proceeded to Chagres, and, crossing the isthmus, they trusted to take passage at Panama in a mail steamer or other vessel for San Francisco. Others preferred the longer but more certain route round Cape Horn, by which they could also carry provisions, tools, and merchandise, both for their own use and for sale: and not a few from the

western States formed parties for reaching the mines by a march across the continent of near two thousand miles. Ships for California were advertised in all the principal ports, and it is supposed that more than two hundred actually sailed. Though many of those who chose the route by Panama, were detained there for want of the means of conveyance to St. Francisco, and some even returned, the number of adventurers in California from every country was estimated early in the year at from ten to fifteen thousand. Those who were engaged in the search for gold, before the winter intercepted their labours, with few exceptions, met with all the success they had anticipated as to the quantity of gold they found; but its extraordinary local cheapness, on which they had not reckoned, often left them no more than the ordinary profits of labour. The price of every species of merchandize, especially of provisions, became enormously high, and at the mines on the Sacramento river, were with difficulty obtained at any price. In the frantic desire of sudden wealth and in the absence of any regular government, there were of course many instances of disorder and crime, until the more respectable portion of the community found it necessary to make temporary regulations for the preservation of order. One of the most serious inconveniences experienced from the abundance of gold was, that on the arrival of every ship in the port of St. Francisco, she was immediately abandoned by her crew, who ran off to the mines, in the expectation of making as much there in one month as they had commonly received in a year; and in some instances, these hopes were realized. A like inconvenience was felt in the small number of troops then in garrison in California, whom no severity of discipline or skill of management on the part of their officers could prevent from deserting for the mines.

As all classes of persons were thus drawn off to the business of mining, nothing rose so much in price as human labour of every species; so that its wages, in the ordinary occupations of life were quite equal, and probably somewhat above the average gains of mining, which are ever overrated by the hopes of those who engage in that tempting pursuit. Thus, if we are to believe the correspondents of the public journals, a carpenter could earn ten dollars a day, a washerwoman five or six dollars per dozen, a cook one hundred dollars a month, a seamstress six or eight dollars a day, and all other personal services in the like proportion.

Under the inconveniences felt by the inhabitants of California, old and new, for want of the restraints of law, they had meetings as early as December to take measures for providing themselves with a temporary Territorial Government, and after several other meetings, they, on the 5th of January, passed resolutions to elect delegates to a Convention, on the 5th of March, to prepare a form of government to be submitted to the people for their sanction. In this way it is understood that they were provided with a legislative body and with magistrates. The

meeting of that Convention was however postponed to the 1st of May; and it is understood that on the 1st of August it is proposed to have a general meeting of Deputies to form a Constitution to be submitted to the next Congress. In the mean time those exercising local authority have solicited the co-operation of General Smith and Commodore Jones, who command the United States military and naval forces there, to enforce their regulations for the administration of justice, and the preservation of order.

It is too soon yet to make any estimate of the quantity of gold which these Californian mines are likely to yield in a year, but it will doubtless make a considerable addition to the product of the world: and there has been much speculation of the effect the increase is to have on the precious metals, especially of gold. This is not the place to enter into that investigation; it may, however, be briefly observed, that those who have anticipated a fall in the value of those metals, or at least of gold, similar to that which took place after the discovery of America, do not seem to have sufficiently regarded the very great difference of circumstances in the two cases, as then the estimated amount of the precious metals in Europe was but one-fifteenth of that which is now supposed to exist; and an increase which had produced a great effect in one case would have an insignificant influence in the other.

MEXICO, &c.

Having allotted so many pages of our journal to the record of recent events in the United States, we must be content with a brief notice of the other nations of this continent.

Mexico is still disturbed by the predatory incursions of Indians who continue to defy General Bustamente, and by insurrections of her own discontented citizens, thus showing at once a want of respect for law and order among the people and a want of power in the government to enforce it. But, by the last accounts, it appeared that the propositions of the insurgents of Sierra Gordo to lay down their arms and submit to the authorities, had been accepted, and that this interruption to the public tranquillity would be removed.

Her Congress has divided lower California into two parts, and their financial difficulties have suggested to them the doubtful expedient of a national bank, on which, however, they do not appear to have decided. The war between the Indians and the people of the province of Yucatan is still carried on, and with the same savage ferocity as ever. The whites, being aided by troops from Mexico, as well as American volunteers, the tide of success has turned in their favour, and, taking shameful advantage of victory, they had sent their Indian prisoners to Havana, and there sold them as slaves for ten years. The Mexican Senate has made a formal inquiry of President Herrera concerning this

enormity. The American volunteers to Yucatan had been dismissed; and, as is not unusual with auxiliaries in war, the allied parties separated with very different sentiments from those which brought them together. By the latest accounts the Yucatan forces had made an unsuccessful attack on the town of Bacalar, a town in the southwestern part of the province, which the Indians had captured a twelvemonth before, and which is the only place of force in their possession.

The adjoining republic of Guatemala has lately been the scene of civil war and of political change. Rafael Carrera, who had ruled the country for ten years by military force, had been compelled in August last, by an armed opposition, to resign and leave the country. A constituent assembly elected Juan A. Martinez provisional President, but his appointment being also opposed by an armed force, he convoked the assembly and resigned. Bernardo was then chosen, and he was also compelled to resign. General Mariano Paredes was afterwards chosen President, and a general pacification has taken place. But the government, pressed for money, resorted to a forced loan, which falling principally on the merchants from old Spain, they claimed the protection of the French consul, C. A. de Challaye, who, in March last, interfered on their behalf. He imperiously required that the money paid into the treasury by Spanish subjects should be refunded to them, and he threatens the government, on its failure to pay back the money, with the resentment of France. He alludes to former insults from Guatémala to France. In consequence of this communication, the government sent to Mr. de Challaye his passports.

In Venezuela, President Monagas, armed with the power of the government, finally prevailed against his persevering adversary, General Paez. But in April last, Monagas sent in his resignation, and a committee of the legislature having advised against its acceptance, the result is not yet known. By some this resignation of the President is regarded as an artifice to strengthen his power, and perhaps to lead to a dictatorship.

The Island of Hayti has again been the scene of civil war. What was once the Spanish part of that Island having united with the other part while Petion was President, again separated, and early in the year Soulouque, the President of Hayti, treating the separation as an act of rebellion, raised an army to compel them to return to their allegiance. He seemed at first likely to bear down all opposition, but when within thirty miles of the city of St. Domingo, his career was arrested. On the 18th of April the Dominicans obtained a decisive victory, which drove their enemies out of their country, and which Soulouque in a proclamation after his return home said cost him in killed, wounded, and prisoners, 5000 men.

It is said that General Rosas has at length agreed to accept the friendly interposition of England and France between him and Montevideo.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The tranquillity and security which reigned in Great Britain on the opening of the present year were in striking contrast with the state of political agitation and change in which most of the nations of Europe were then found. Her manufactures, commerce, and revenue, which had not long before given symptoms of decline, all appeared to be in a state of improvement: yet amid these signs of national prosperity, there were not wanting causes of anxiety to her statesmen. A large portion of the people of Ireland continued to suffer the evils of an over-crowded, poor, and thriftless population, and some aid from the government seemed to be necessary to save thousands from starvation. The spirit of insurrection, indeed, had been quelled, but the same military force and stringent regulations which had been required to subdue it, were still required to keep it under. Her finances, too, had become an object of more solicitude than had been usual in time of peace. It is true that from her immense resources she draws an ample revenue, and that large as is her expenditure, she is able to meet it without adding to her debt, yet there is reason to believe that her expenses could not be much increased without the risk of serious popular discontent. Though the pressure of taxation, heavy as it is in England, is not perceived by the labouring class, and is little regarded by the wealthy few, it is both seen and felt by the middle class, whose power and influence are even now the greatest in the State, and are every day growing stronger. Thoroughly persuaded of these facts, one of the objects of the ministry was a retrenchment of the national expenditure, both by a reduction of its armed force and of official salaries. They had, therefore, the strongest motives to wish for a continuance of peace, and accordingly every effort was made to preserve it, not only in their own foreign relations, but to prevent ruptures between other nations. Hence it was that England offered her mediation between Prussia and Denmark; between the king of Naples and the Sicilians; and between Austria and the king of Sardinia. She also endeavoured by negotiation to prevent the advance of Russian troops farther into Europe, and to encourage Turkey to make such preparations for resistance as would be most likely to prevent the attack of her potent neighbour, whose ambition has been commonly regulated by policy.

In all these endeavours to preserve peace, she has had the cordial co-operation of France, ever since the revolution in February, and there are manifestations of a better understanding both between the governments and the people than has ever before been witnessed.

Parliament met on the 1st of February, and on this arena, on which the two great divisions of the aristocracy and their followers are wont to struggle for the power and patronage of that proud empire, the ministers were determined to persevere in their system of free trade, though it had fallen far short of the expected benefits, and even to extend it

to the repeal of the navigation laws, believing that they were no longer necessary for the protection of the shipping interests, or to secure an adequate supply of seamen for the navy. On this question, which they were aware would be vigorously contested, and in which they knew they must encounter so many opinions and prejudices become venerable by time, they seemed willing to stake their continuance in office. The bill, introduced for the purpose, after vehement opposition, passed the House of Commons in April, by a majority of 61, and in the House of Lords, where its enemies had confidently looked for its defeat, it has passed the second reading by a majority of 10, which seems to promise a continuance of the whig ministry in office. The measure was further recommended by the fact that it would be particularly acceptable to the British colonies on this continent, which, injured by the free trade system that subjects their great staple—timber—to the competition of Norway and Sweden, look to compensation in an unrestricted competition in navigation.

The measures brought forward for the relief of Ireland, were first a grant of £50,000 for the immediate relief of the suffering districts: and secondly, a general provision, that wherever the ordinary poor rate is insufficient for its purpose, there may be an additional levy on the district requiring it, which is called a "rate-in-aid." This bill, which has been warmly resisted in both houses, has passed the House of Commons, and is now before the Lords.

Sir Robert Peel took occasion to intimate a plan for the relief of the most distressed part of Ireland, by which he proposed, by the agency of the government, to subdivide large tracts of land, so as to increase the number of small landholders. This subject merits the consideration of England's wisest statesmen.

The distant settlements and numerous colonies of Great Britain afford no little occupation to her Ministry. In India she was, at the beginning of the year, still engaged in a war of a formidable character. The Sikhs, who had been apparently subdued last summer, had, however, renewed hostilities in the latter part of the year with unexpected and alarming success. In a premature attack by Lord Gough, though finally victorious, he lost between two and three thousand men, besides several pieces of cannon, and a part of his troops ignominiously fled. He incurred the censure that commonly attends ill success, and the Ministry concurring in the popular sentiment, or at least yielding to it, appointed Sir Charles Napier to take the chief command in India; but before a month had elapsed, intelligence was received that Lord Gough had redeemed his former error by a decisive victory at Goojerat, and that with the termination of the war, the whole country of the Punjab was subjected to British rule. He for this victory, and General Whish for the recapture of Moulton, as well as the whole Indian army, received a unanimous vote of thanks severally from the Lords, the Commons, and the East India Company.

Canada has recently been the theatre of serious civil disturbances. During the rebellion in 1837 and 1838, there were great losses incurred by the inhabitants from the destruction of property by the troops and volunteers employed against the insurgents. The liberal party having obtained, in the recent election, a majority in the provincial parliament, succeeded in passing a law to grant indemnity for the losses. Their political opponents had previously granted £40,000, or \$200,000, to the loyal sufferers in Upper Canada, and the party now in power proposed to give £100,000 for the losses in Lower Canada, that having been the amount, according to an estimate of commissioners appointed by the loyalist or tory party, then in power, to ascertain it. This measure was warmly opposed by the loyalists, partly on account of the fund from which the money was to be taken, but principally because much of it would be received by those who were engaged in the rebellion, or had favoured it—for, according to the rule laid down by the same commissioners, no persons were to be excluded, except those who had been actually convicted of high treason. The bill having passed both houses of the legislature, its opponents endeavoured to prevail on the Governor-General, Lord Elgin, to negative the bill; and the day that he gave it his sanction, he was grossly insulted by the mob as he left the Parliament House, and the next night they attacked and entered that building, and after several acts of violence and disorder, which compelled the members of the legislature to disperse, they set fire to the edifice, and the whole, together with the archives of the colony, was destroyed. The arrest of 150 persons was immediately ordered, and a large number of special constables were appointed to execute the order; but as they were mostly of the French population, or their party, their appointment heightened the resentment of the loyalists, who assailed them in the street, and their employment being also, it is said, objected to by the military, they were discharged; and with the aid of the troops there in garrison, order was restored, and the authority of the government maintained. It was a curious spectacle to see the military in conflict with the habitual friends of strong government, and supporting those with whom they had commonly been objects of jealousy and ill-will: and the men who, never forgetting their French descent, had hitherto been alien to the government in feeling, now its chief supporters in Canada.

The last hope of defeating the indemnity bill is in the ministry at home, and Sir Allan M'Nab has taken several petitions to England to effect this object, and to solicit the recall of Lord Elgin; but, in all probability, he truly represented their sentiments, and the will of the popular majority in Canada will be sustained. The consequence is, that the party who have hitherto been most active and efficient in maintaining the British authority in Canada are now the most discontented, and a separation from the mother country is openly talked of by those who have heretofore been most opposed to it; and thus the

strongest ligament which bound that country to Great Britain seems, for the time, to have been severed by this local controversy. It remains to be seen whether the new malcontents will unite with the old to effect a separation, or whether the same general causes which formerly attached the former to Great Britain, and made them uphold the power of the crown, may not return, and again make them loyalists.

It deserves to be remarked, that an address from the Canadian Parliament to the British Government, in January last, asking a repeal of the navigation laws, as to the St. Lawrence, received a unanimous vote. The people of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia are still more interested in the repeal of these laws, and in the unrestricted navigation which such repeal would lead to, as they can build vessels yet cheaper than the United States, and they are navigated by the same frugal, hardy, enterprising race as the people of New England. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at that Mr. Webster inquired on the floor of the Senate, if Mr. Bancroft had given the British Government assurance that the United States would agree to a reciprocal removal of the restrictions on its coasting trade, and that he very clearly indicated his decided opposition to such a policy. The present administration of the United States, it is said, has countermanded the instructions on this subject, which Mr. Bancroft had received from their predecessors.

Discontents still continue in Jamaica, whose sugars, no longer protected in the English market by less duties than the sugars of foreign countries, cannot enter into competition with those produced in Cuba and Brazil by slave labour; which, in spite of the general principles of political economy, have proved to be much cheaper than any free labour the British West Indies have yet been able to produce. The value of the estates in that Island (as in Demerara, Trinidad, and most of their other sugar colonies,) has been steadily declining in value, and its legislature show their dissatisfaction in unavailing bickerings with the representative of the British Government; but the present Ministry cannot give the protection they ask, without departing from their own favorite and avowed principles of free trade, and without producing discontent among the people of Great Britain by raising the price of sugar. This retrograde movement from the system of free trade would be far more difficult than to return to the protecting duties on corn: since, in that policy, they would be supported by the whole agricultural interests, comprehending land owners, farmers, and their dependants; whereas all classes, except a small number connected with the West India interests, are in favor of cheap sugar, and, of course, opposed to those duties which would raise its price, and which constitute the only mode of protecting the West India planter.

Mr. Cobden, who seems lately to have limited his efforts at reform to a reduction of the public expenditure, made a long speech recently in support of his plan of retrenchment; according to which, there would be an annual saving of £10,000,000—leaving the charges of the na-

tional debt unchanged—but his proposition received the support of only about one-fifth of the members voting.

FRANCE.

France was now about to bring her new constitution to the test of experiment, after having failed in some twenty or more, which she had tried within little more than half a century. Her first President under that constitution, was installed in office on the 20th of December, in the hall of the National Assembly, without any of the pomp which both the people and the occasion would have led us to expect. His inaugural address, too, had a correspondent brevity and simplicity. After expressing his fidelity to the republic, and his gratitude for so striking a proof of the popular confidence, he said that “animated by a sincere spirit of conciliation,” he had called around him “capable and patriotic men, who, in spite of the diversity of their political origin, were ready to devote themselves to the application of the constitution, the improvement of the laws, and the glory of the republic.” With great good taste, then, as well as policy, in a commendatory notice of his predecessors, he particularized General Cavaignac, whose conduct, he said, had been “worthy of the generosity of his character, and that sentiment of duty which is the first quality of a statesman.” They had, he added, a great mission to fulfil. To found the republic, he pronounced to be the interest of all, and that “a just and firm government should be animated by a sincere desire of progress, without being re-actionary or utopian.” “Let us,” he concluded, “be the men of our country, not the men of party; and, with the aid of God, we shall at least do good, if we cannot achieve great things.”

Having read the address, the new President, suiting the action to the word, turned to General Cavaignac, and shook him cordially by the hand, which incident called forth the plaudits of the Assembly.

The next day, the President announced to the Assembly the members of his Cabinet, which, it is understood, he had empowered M. Odillon Barrot to form.

Minister of Justice and Premier—Odillon Barrot, who had been in opposition to Louis Phillippe.

Minister of Foreign Affairs—Drouyn de Lhuys, who had supported the reform banquets.

Minister of the Interior—Leon de Malleville, an adherent of Thiers.

Minister of War—General Rulhiers, uncommitted.

Minister of the Marine and Colonies—De Tracy, a liberal.

Minister of Public Instruction and Worship—Falloux, a legitimist.

Minister of Public Works—Leon Faucher, formerly a journalist.

Minister of Agriculture—Bixio, an Italian liberal.

Minister of the Finances—Hyppolite Passy, a conservative.

All of whom, except the Minister of War, were members of the National Assembly.

This Cabinet did not long remain unchanged. A few days after its appointment, the President applied to M. de Malleville for sixteen boxes of papers relative to his own former attempts at Strasburg and Boulogne, but the Minister refused to deliver them, because they formed part of the public records. The President then wrote to the Minister a letter, in which he renewed the application for these papers, and complained of other acts of disrespect from M. de Malleville, and the Ministers generally, in a style of more frankness than dignity.

"I do not intend, either," he said, "that the Minister of the Interior should prepare articles personal to myself. This was not the case under Louis Phillippe, and should not be the practice now. Besides, I have not received, for some days, any telegraphic despatches. On the whole, I perceive that the Ministers I have named wish to treat me as if the famous constitution of Sieyes was in vogue, but I will not suffer it."

This letter having been laid by M. de Malleville before his colleagues, they all sent in their resignations. The President, alarmed at this result, immediately waited on the assembled ministry, expressed so much regret for what he had done, which he attributed to his inexperience, and made such excuses and entreaties, that they all resumed office, except M. de Malleville and M. Bixio. In consequence of these resignations, M. Leon Faucher was appointed Minister of the Interior, in the place of M. Leon de Malleville; M. Lacrosse, Minister of Public Works, in the place of M. Leon Faucher; and M. Buffet, Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, in the place of M. Bixio.

Though Louis Napoleon had been elected by so large a majority of the people, it was known that a majority of the National Assembly were opposed to his election, and, as is usual, their opposition was extended to the acts of his administration. It was headed by Ledru Rollin, who was the leader of the socialists and ultra republican party, and it commonly received the support of the friends of General Cavaignac and other moderates. But notwithstanding this hostility, and his indiscreet letter to De Malleville, he seemed to be steadily gaining ground in the public confidence. That alarm which the insurrection in June and the wild doctrines of the communists excited among the holders of property and lovers of order, which had occasioned them to rally round one who bore a revered name, continued to uphold him, and generally to secure to his ministers a majority in the national administration. They were, however, far from being personally popular in that body, and sometimes they seemed to have a separate set of interests of their own, independent of the President and the legislature. Thus, of the three names sent to the legislature, from which one was to be selected for Vice President, it was understood that M. Vivien was their choice, and M. Boulay de la Meurthe that of the President. The third was

added for form's sake; and although when the name of De la Meurthe was announced, it occasioned a general laugh in the Assembly, they gave him a decisive majority—417 to 277—for the sake of thwarting the ministry.

In this state of feeling, one of the first objects of the ministers was that of the dissolution of the National Assembly, and, accordingly, a proposition to that effect was brought forward in January by M. Rateau, to dissolve on the 19th of March, but after giving rise to several debates, a middle course between widely different views was adopted on the 14th of February; and it was decided that as soon as four or five important laws were passed, the Assembly should be dissolved.

The suppression of the political clubs was also a bone of contention between the ministers and the National Assembly; and when it was first proposed in January, the ministers were in a minority, 342 to 418, but when the proposition was renewed in March, they succeeded by a vote of 378 to 359.

On the 17th of April, the ministry obtained the sanction of the National Assembly to interfere, by an armed force, in the affairs of Italy, for the alleged purpose of preserving the integrity of the Roman States, not, however, without strenuous opposition from Ledru Rollin, who deprecated the restoration of the civil authority of the Pope. The vote in favour of the proposed appropriation and authority, was 388 to 161.

The expedition thus authorized, was to consist of 14,000 men, under the command of General Oudinot. The advance of their force landed at Civita Vecchia on the 25th of April without opposition. The Roman prefect, then commanding, was immediately suspended; and General Oudinot declared in a proclamation next day, that had the French troops not been amicably received, he would have entered the town by force. He suggested that his object was to preserve the Roman States from Austrian invasion, and to seek to effect a reconciliation between the Pope and the Roman people. He then marched his troops from Civita Vecchia to Rome, but the Constitutional Assembly having, in the mean time, decided on opposing his entrance into the city, a deputation was sent from that body to the General, protesting against his invasion of their territory, and informing him that his entrance would be forcibly resisted; to this he replied that his instructions were peremptory, and that if not permitted to enter peaceably, he would do so by force. Two attempts were accordingly made on the 30th, but the French were repulsed with the loss of some 500 men in killed and wounded, besides several hundred prisoners. They then retreated, to wait for re-enforcements.

This affair created a lively sensation in France, and the opposition in the National Assembly readily profited by the public discontent and mortification to assail the ministry. On the 7th of May, M. Jules Favre opened the debate on the subject. He said that the expedition had

been professedly to prevent the interference of Austria, and to secure the liberty of Italy, yet the conduct of the French General had been any thing but that of the leader of a friendly force; and that ministers were responsible for the French blood that had been spilled. He should be opposed to sending re-enforcements, and he contrasted the present conduct of the French government with that in which it had assisted America to achieve her independence. He proposed a committee of inquiry.

M. Odillon Barrot reminded the Assembly that it had been unwilling that France should interfere in the affairs of the Roman Republic, and had authorized the expedition to Civita Vecchia, because she would not allow the interposition of Austria. He suggested that the French army had probably "fallen into some snare." After some further debate, a committee was appointed. In the evening of the same day, the committee reported that the instructions given to the expedition were not conformable to the previous declarations made to the Assembly by the government; that the General also appeared to have transcended his instructions, and the committee propose that the government should take immediate measures that the expedition should no longer be diverted from the object for which it was designed. This proposition was adopted by 328 to 241.

The next day, a letter from the President to General Oudinot was published, in which, after expressing his regret at the check the French had received at Rome, he said he had hoped the people of Rome would have given a cordial reception to an army which had arrived to accomplish a friendly and disinterested mission. That, on the contrary, they had been received as enemies, and the military honor of France was injured. He would not "suffer it to be impugned," and added that re-enforcements should be sent.

This letter furnished a new theme of complaint and attack in the National Assembly, as it was in direct opposition to the resolution passed in the Assembly the day before, and seemed to set that body at defiance.

On the following day, the 9th, M. Grevy, referring to the President's letter, inquired if that letter, which was not countersigned by a minister, was to be considered an official or a private one. M. Odillon Barrot replied that it was evidently of a private character, dictated by sympathy and gratitude to the soldiers in Italy. There was nothing in it, however, which the government should disavow. Referring to the resolution of the 7th, he said, that on the earnest application of the cabinet to the committee, as to the course the government ought to pursue, the committee had unanimously declared they did not wish to bind the government to any fixed line of conduct. He warned the Assembly against allowing the force and influence of France to be weakened by internal divisions; and he disavowed all intention on the part of the President of acting contrary to the intentions of the legislature.

M. Ledru Rollin insisted that the letter was an official one, and that it must be construed into a wish to put down the Roman republic.

The debate was adjourned until further information was received.

On the 11th, later despatches having been received from General Oudinot, they were, after a debate of some hours, read; and it appeared very clearly, from the address to the army, that he had not affected any respect for the existing authorities of Rome; that his object was the restoration of the Pope, and that if he met with any opposition he was determined to put it down. His purpose appeared to be unchanged in two letters to the minister, dated the 4th of May. He said that both the Roman troops and people were friendly to the expedition.

The debate to which these documents gave rise, was deferred until the next day, when after a spirited debate, in which the ministry were vehemently assailed by Ledru Rollin and Jules Favre, and adroitly defended by Odillon Barrot and others, a motion to evade a direct decision, by passing to the order of the day, was carried by a vote of 329 to 292.

This rather doubtful victory afforded matter of congratulation to the ministers; and on the same day, the 12th, M. Leon Faucher, Minister of the Interior, sent off a circular to all the prefects, informing them of the vote, and adding that if the opposition had succeeded in obtaining a majority against the ministers, they would have run off to the barricades, and the scenes of June would have been renewed. He sent, at the same time, the names of the members who had voted on the question. This letter was brought to the notice of the Assembly on the 14th, and a vote of censure was passed with only five dissentients. The minister, the day after, sent in his resignation.

A subsequent despatch from General Oudinot showed that in consequence of the approach of a Neapolitan army to Rome, he and his army, now increased to near 15,000 men, would be invited to enter the city, and from this circumstance, and the friendly treatment of the French prisoners, it seemed probable that the French would soon gain quiet admission into the city, whether they aimed at the restoration of the papal authority or not. Other accounts represent the Neapolitans to have been driven back, and the Romans resolutely bent on resisting to the last all foreign interference.

The elections to the first National Assembly, under the new constitution, took place on the 13th and 14th of May without disorder, and although the entire result is not yet known, there is reason to believe that the socialist party has received a considerable accession of strength, and that the moderate republicans have lost ground. The conservatives made up of very heterogeneous materials, still constitute a decided majority.

GERMANY.

In the early part of the year, the Frankfort Parliament, which saw the national safety, greatness, and probably civil freedom of Germany in its political unity, promulgated that Federal Constitution which they had been eight months constructing; but which had no efficacy until it was adopted by those for whom it was intended. It was understood that of the 37 independent sovereign States of Germany, all the smaller ones, amounting to 31, were in favour of the new constitution, as affording them a security they had not before possessed, and as adding to their political power; but for the same reason that they approved it, it was unacceptable to the larger States.

Austria especially was opposed to it, for the constitution contained two provisions which might exclude more than half of her dominions from any weight or representation in the confederate government. These were:

“No part of the German empire can be united into one State with a non-German country.

“In case a German country has the same sovereign as a non-German country, the German country shall have a separate constitution, government, and administration.”

She, therefore, soon manifested her unwillingness to become a member of the confederacy, and finally ordered deputies to the Parliament to withdraw from it.

Prussia long vacillated on the subject. On the one hand, some of her most important and highly prized attributes of sovereignty would be abridged by the new constitution, and her relative weight in the politics of Europe might be less felt; but on the other, the rank and power of emperor of the confederate empire, to which she might fairly aspire, after Austria was shorn of her “non-German” dominions, presented tempting objects of ambition, and might give to the king of Prussia more power and influence than other parts of the constitution had taken away.

Bavaria and Hanover were both opposed to the new constitution; but Saxony and Wurtemberg, though their sovereigns were disinclined to it, it was understood might, by the influence of their subjects, be brought to adopt it. When the king of Prussia was first nominated by the Frankfort Assembly, as emperor, he was not elected; all the members from the Austrian dominions, except four, having voted against him. On a subsequent day, however, he was chosen by 290 votes to 248. He neither accepted nor rejected the proffered crown, but rested his future acceptance on the contingency of its obtaining the sanction of all the other members of the confederacy.

The emperor of Austria had previously issued a manifesto, in which he declared that the formation of one out of all the German States was neither practicable for Austria, nor desirable for Germany. That the

union between the German and non-German territories of Austria could not be dissolved; and he protested against being subjected to the central power exercised by any other German prince.

As soon as the election of the king of Prussia was known, the larger States refused to give it their sanction, and, after a while, the king of Prussia himself decided to reject both the constitution and the imperial crown.

This act was the signal for both the friends and enemies of the constitution to declare themselves throughout Germany. Not only were the smaller States in favour of it, but the body of the people also in the larger States. Even in Prussia, the popular branch of the legislature, of which a majority were considered to be democratic, gave its direct sanction to the constitution. It was, therefore, dissolved by the king. A like offence was committed by the legislature in Hanover, and was followed by the like punishment. In Wurttemberg the government was compelled by the people to accept the constitution.

In the mean time, the Parliament or National Assembly of Frankfort was not backward in endeavouring to maintain and enforce its authority. It passed a vote of censure on the governments of Prussia and Hanover for dissolving their respective legislative chambers; and voted to summon those governments to issue writs for another election; and it expressed its expectation that the remaining public authorities would inform their governments of the sentiments of the people.

It also passed a resolution to summon the Prussian government, and the other German powers which had not accepted the constitution, to notify their recognition of it.

On the 4th of May, resolutions to the following effect were passed by the same body:

1. The National Assembly calls upon the governments, the legislative bodies, and the monarchical authorities of all single States to bring about the acknowledgment and validity of the imperial constitution of the 28th of March.

2. The 15th of August was appointed for the first constitutional Parliament to meet at Frankfort.

3. Elections to the lower house to be made on the 15th of July.

4. Should other States than Austria not be represented in Parliament, and should some parts of the constitution prove, therefore, impracticable, provisional alterations to be made until the constitution is valid in every part of Germany.

5. Should Prussia not be represented, and not have acknowledged the constitution, then the sovereign of the State which has the greatest number of inhabitants shall be elected emperor.

6. As soon as the constitution shall be acknowledged by Prussia, the dignity of emperor shall be confirmed on the king.

7. As soon as the emperor takes the oath, and opens the Parliament, the National Assembly shall be dissolved.

The king of Prussia has since ordered the deputies to the Parliament from his dominions to withdraw, and it is expected that he, together with Austria and Bavaria will give yet more decided demonstrations of their determination to put an end to a body which becomes alarming to them in the same degree that it is favoured by the people. Fifty-five of the Prussian deputies have protested against the recall, and refused to obey it.

A conflict between the government and the people in Saxony, like to that which has been mentioned, gave rise to a recent insurrection in Dresden, but it was suppressed by Saxon and Prussian troops. In Berlin, Baden, Leipsic, and other towns, there have also been popular insurrections in favour of the new constitution. Even in Bavaria, one branch of the legislature petitioned their sovereign to accept it. The fate of liberal principles in Germany seems to depend on this question, and both parties are preparing for the struggle.

AUSTRIA.

The emperor of Austria, who last year appeared to have irretrievably lost his dominions in Italy, to be likely to lose those of Hungary and its dependencies, and to have a very restricted power in those he retained, was found in the early part of the present year to have regained much that he had lost, with a fair prospect of being soon reinstated in all the power and authority he had ever possessed. The tide of success, which had set so strongly in his favour every where, has since turned against him in Hungary: and he has yet to struggle, with the aid of Russia, for a sovereignty which, single-handed, he could not have recovered.

After the authority of the emperor was re-established in Vienna, and the whole imperial force was directed against Hungary, the resistance made by the people of that country, always ranking high for their bravery, greatly disappointed public expectation, and mortified the friends of civil liberty. Town after town capitulated to the Austrian armies; the Hungarian troops were every where beaten, or obliged to save themselves by retreat; and there seemed to be no mode of resisting their powerful invaders, but by a sort of guerilla warfare, attacking them in some eight or nine different directions, for which both the habits of the people and many parts of the country were very well fitted. But that love of country and spirit of freedom which animated them, wrought a wondrous change, and it was soon found that while the Hungarian troops, exhibiting their ancient valour, fought as well as the Austrian regulars, their officers, who owed their rank solely to their merit, were very superior to their adversaries in skill, so that they often gained the victory with very inferior force. The consequence was that the Austrians were compelled, in the latter part of April, to evacuate Pesth, which had surrendered to them some months before, and the Hunga-

rians, after having driven almost all the Austrian forces out of Hungary, were, in the middle of May, before the city of Presburg, and even threatened Vienna.

On the application of the Emperor of Austria to aid him in quelling his rebellious subjects, the Czar readily agreed to place 150,000 men at the disposal of the Austrian government, but 50,000 were to be retained in Russia as a reserve.

In the mean timê, Hungary has made a formal declaration of independence, (on the 14th of April,) has organized a government of a republican form, and having chosen Ludwig Kossuth as its President, is making every preparation to meet the united forces of Austria and Russia. With the Slavonians not only in Hungary, but in the neighbouring countries of Bohemia, Croatia, Servia, Transylvania, and Galicia, the new-born sympathies in favor of civil freedom have prevailed against the ancient animosities of race, and they are all now well-wishers to the cause of Hungary.

In Italy, the power of Austria proved resistless. Charles Albert, of Sardinia, alleging that Austria had violated the terms of the armistice, and thinking that the war in Hungary would give full occupation to the Austrians, was disposed to hazard the chances of battle with them once more. As soon as his purpose was manifested, Radetsky prepared an overpowering force to defeat it. The armistice terminated on the 12th of March, and on the 23d the Austrian and Sardinian armies were found opposed to each other on the plain of Novara. The Austrians amounted, it is said, to 60,000, and the Sardinians, actually engaged, to little more than half that number. The issue was not doubtful. At 5 o'clock in the evening, a white flag was seen at the head-quarters of Charles Albert, and a message was sent from him to Radetsky, communicating the fact that he had abdicated in favor of his son, Victor Emanuel. The loss of each army was estimated at upwards of 4,000 men. Within twenty-four hours the terms of an armistice were agreed to by the new king and signed by the Polish General, Chrzanowsky, on the part of Sardinia, and by Radetsky on that of Austria. Thus in the brief space of nine days, a war was begun and was ended, and with it terminated the ambitious career of Charles Albert, and the hopes of present emancipation from Austrian rule in Italy.

No attempt was made, in consequence of this victory, to impair the sovereignty of Sardinia, or to curtail its dominions, but the victors were content to exact conditions, the most onerous of which was a heavy contribution of money—one hundred millions of francs. But they wreaked severe vengeance on the town of Brescia. There having been an insurrection in that city about the time of the battle of Novara, the Austrian troops in the citadel fired upon the town on the 24th, and the next day the citadel was stormed, and the garrison put to the sword. The city was bombarded by the Austrians, and the citizens refusing to surrender, were bayoneted without mercy by the troops. Every house

from which guns had been fired was burned to the ground, and their inhabitants consumed with them. All prisoners taken with arms in their hands were publicly shot. The city is said to be a heap of ruins.

The city of Genoa refused to submit to the conditions agreed on between Austria and Sardinia, and prepared for resistance by building barricades in the streets. Some Austrian troops having gained admission into the city by treachery, it is supposed, others followed to the amount of 10,000, when the city capitulated. An amnesty was granted to all, except twelve named persons.

The Austrian monarchy had not only to contend against its revolted provinces, but to exercise unceasing vigilance at home for the maintenance of its ancient authority, which its people, electrified as they had been by the late revolution in France, openly assailed, and the German Parliament were steadily trying to undermine.

Thus beset with difficulties, its statesmen recently resorted to new schemes of policy. They showed themselves willing to make concessions to the liberal spirit of the times: either by way of temporizing until they could safely resist it, or, perhaps, honestly wishing to compromise with what they saw no prospect of resisting. Thus the world witnessed with surprise the liberality of a constitution which in March was promulgated in the name of the emperor, for the whole Austrian empire. Among other provisions of which, were the freedom of religion, of speech, and of the press, and a legislature partly chosen by popular suffrage. The same policy induced them to oppose to the German confederation which the Frankfort parliament sought to effect, a confederation of the various nations and races that compose the Austrian empire.

Amid so much defection on all sides, the army was, with few exceptions, as true as it was brave. It maintained the despotic sway of its master against Hungarian and Italian independence no less than against Austrian insurgents, with a fidelity worthy of a better cause, and by the aid of its new allies, it now threatens to crush the new-born spirit of liberty in every part of that great empire.

PRUSSIA.

The legislative assembly having been dissolved by the king about the latter end of the preceding year, and another election having taken place, according to the complicated process prescribed by the new constitution, the new assembly met at Berlin on the 26th of February, and the session was opened in due form by an address from the king. Little seemed to have been gained to the cause of monarchy by the recent election, and it was believed that a majority of the new members were democratic.

Besides the controversy with Denmark about the duchies, Frederick William had cause of anxiety in the republican tendencies of his people,

which were manifestly gaining ground, and in the Frankfort parliament, now too plainly exhibiting a similar spirit.

In the notice he took of the Danish controversy in his opening speech, he said that pending negotiations led him to hope that the differences would soon be satisfactorily adjusted.

Towards his own subjects, his policy was to unite conciliation with severity. It was therefore that he had given them a constitution, which, though far short of what the popular leaders sought, possessed many liberal features, either in abridging the power of the sovereign, or enlarging the rights of the people. On the other hand, he first exiled the legislature from Berlin to Brandenburg, and then dissolved them; and he continued to hold Berlin in a state of siege long after the occasion seemed to require it. It has continued from last November to the present time.

As to the Frankfort parliament, after having given it his countenance and support, and led the world to believe that he was ambitious of the imperial diadem that assembly had the power of conferring, he, in January, issued a manifesto which plainly indicated that his views were not in harmony with those of the assembly. He declared that if Austria refused to co-operate in the plan of a German confederation, (and it was then known that she would refuse,) the project must be abandoned. He added that Prussia would take no position without the free concurrence of the united governments.

Having thus thrown off the mask, his hostility to the Frankfort parliament has been open and direct. On the 28th of April, the Prussian minister, Count Brandenburg, issued a manifesto to the other German States, in which he states the king's reasons for not accepting the German constitution, his desire of German unity, and his efforts to effect it by safe and practical means. He alludes to the dangers to which the course of the National assembly at Frankfort leads, and he invites the other German States to confer with Prussia on the subject of the constitution. The paper has this remarkable passage:

“The Prussian government, confiding fully in the approval of the healthy and honest elements of the country, is prepared energetically and powerfully to oppose all revolutionary and destructive attempts, and it will take its measures in such guise as to be enabled to render any assistance that may be required by the combined governments.”

Accordingly, when an insurrection soon afterwards broke out in Dresden, the king sent a thousand troops to aid in putting it down; and he has recalled the Prussian delegates to the Frankfort assembly. The contest between monarchical and popular government seems now to have passed beyond the chance of peaceable adjustment, and that the struggle must continue until one or the other remains master of the field.

The efforts of Great Britain and others to mediate between Prussia and Denmark having proved fruitless, they prepared for a renewal of

the war, after the expiration of the armistice agreed on by the treaty of Malmo, and in their first conflicts, the advantage was on the side of the Prussians and their allies. They even had an unlooked for success on the element in which the strength of Denmark chiefly lies. Early in April a Danish squadron of a ship of 84 guns, a frigate, and three steamers, attacked the batteries of Eckernforde, a seaport in the Duchy of Schleswig, and after exchanging shots for six hours, a suspension of the fight and a renewal of it followed, and in the evening the frigate struck her colours: the ship of the line followed her example, and soon afterwards took fire and blew up. Better fortune afterwards attended the Danish arms; and it is said that since Prussia has broken with the Frankfort parliament, the king feels little interest in the Schleswig question, and that he is likely to listen to the mediation of Great Britain, which it seems from recent declarations of Lord Palmerston, has never been intermitted.

ITALY.

The numerous and sudden changes in this divided and unfortunate country remind one of the magic lantern of a showman. In Sicily, in the Papal territory, in Tuscany, in Lombardy, and in Piedmont, the sovereign power has, within the space of a few months, changed hands, and, in some cases, more than once. The Sicilians not being willing to accept the terms offered them by the king of Sicily, war was renewed at the termination of the armistice, and early in April, Catania and Syracuse surrendered to the arms of Ferdinand. After a short suspension of hostilities, with a view to a pacification, they were resumed by the king, and soon Palermo was the only strong hold in the possession of the Sicilians; after an obstinate resistance, it has at length submitted, and all Sicily is now in the possession of Ferdinand. In all the negotiations between these contending parties, the English and French naval commanders have exerted themselves to bring about a reconciliation, and it is said that those powers advised the Sicilians to accept the terms which they rejected early in the year.

The breach between the provisional government of Rome and the Pope at Gaeta becoming wider, the constituent assembly of Rome, on the 9th of February, formally deposed the Holy Pontiff as their temporal sovereign, and decided in favor of a republic, by 134 votes to 20. The executive power was vested in three consuls. The Catholic sovereigns of Austria, Spain, and Naples have decided, it is believed, to unite in reinstating Pius IX. in his former authority. The President of the French Republic seemed disposed, as we have seen, to lend his concurrence, but the opposition he has experienced, in France, to that course, and the sentiments excited by the alliance between Austria and Russia, may make an entire change in the purpose of the French army before Rome. The Neapolitan army, on its march to the holy city, is

about 8,000 men. Spain appears not yet to have moved in the business; and, for the present, Austria has full employment from the Hungarians for all her troops.

The popular party in Tuscany, encouraged by the success of the republicans at Rome, in February overturned the authority of the Grand Duke, who thought it prudent to make his escape, and they decided in favor of a republic, and appointed a provisional government. An alliance, offensive and defensive, was forthwith formed between Tuscany and Rome, and Venice was expected to join in it. But by a popular reaction, the Grand Duke has been subsequently re-established in his power.

We have seen how, throughout all Tuscany, except Leghorn, the Austrian government, after having regained its authority in Lombardy, prostrated the king of Sardinia in nine days after hostilities were renewed. By the terms of a pacification with his successor, Victor Emanuel, dated the 25th of March, Sardinia was to pay to Austria one hundred millions of francs; was to enter into an alliance, offensive and defensive, with Austria; the Lombardo-Venitian territory was to be erected into a separate government; the Grand Duke of Tuscany and the Pope were to be restored to their dominions; and an Italian Congress was to be called to organize a confederation of Italian states, under the protection of Austria. The people of Genoa refused to submit to the terms of this armistice. They proclaimed themselves a republic, and appointed a provisional government; but in a few days, the Austrian General, La Marmora, with 10,000 troops, entered the city, and the revolters submitted. They also took a bitter vengeance on the town of Brescia, in Lombardy, as has been mentioned, for vindictive cruelty to the Austrian garrison there. Since that time, all has been quiet in Piedmont; and Austria has regained her former possessions in Italy, except Venice, which still holds out against her authority. In Tuscany, Leghorn has been subdued by the Austrians; and in the Roman States, Bologna, their second city, bombarded by Radetsky, has probably surrendered ere this. The animosity of the Italians against the Austrians, as well as their republican zeal, may be overpowered by the superior military force of their enemies, but the feelings are not extinguished; they still live, and will show themselves on the first favorable occasion. In the present political struggles of Europe, the success of either party in one country is intimately associated with its success in another. Thus the cause of German republicanism may be won or lost in Hungary; and Italian independence be achieved in Germany.

RUSSIA.

The emperor of Russia, after having exhibited great moderation in forbearing to take any advantage of the troubled state of Europe, and observed a guarded silence as to his future course, first slightly deviated from this line of neutrality by sending troops into Wallachia and Moldavia, which, though nominally subject to Turkey, were placed by the treaty of Ackerman, in 1826, under the protection of Russia. As there was an attempt to establish a republican government in Wallachia, and great disorder in consequence, a good pretext was afforded for the introduction of Russian troops, to co-operate with those of the Sultan in restoring tranquillity and order. This measure was, however, unacceptable to Turkey, who openly complained of it, and the course pursued by Russia led the world to apprehend that the arms brought professedly to reduce the Sultan's rebellious subjects to subjection, would be soon turned against himself. Russia insisted that the treaties respecting the Hospodars of Wallachia and Moldavia should be changed, and the change desired manifestly tending to increase the Russian influence over them, it was opposed not only by Turkey, but also by the English minister at Constantinople, Sir Stratford Canning. The Sultan, aware that this opposition would afford to Russia a sufficient pretext for war, if she was disposed to make it, made vigorous preparations for that result. The French minister concurred with the British minister in remonstrating against the occupation of the Danubian provinces by Russia, and in encouraging Turkey to resistance.

Such was the state of things in the early part of the year, but in April, the Russian policy assumed a new aspect, owing no doubt to the extraordinary success of the Hungarians, and Nicholas, who had threatened to be the enemy of Turkey, was suddenly transformed into the ally of Austria. By a new treaty with the Sultan, the points in difference between him and the emperor, respecting Wallachia and Moldavia, have been adjusted by a compromise, and Nicholas agrees with the emperor of Austria to aid him with a large army to reduce Hungary to subjection. In this change of policy, the court of St. Petersburg seems to have acted with its usual prudence and sagacity: for by taking the part of Austria, she not only is better able to keep her Polish dominions in subjection, and to punish those Poles who had already joined the Hungarians, but she will have certainly one enemy less than she would have had, if she had made war on Turkey; nay, the difference may be yet greater, since England, France, and Austria would probably all have assisted Turkey, but it is quite problematical whether either England or France will assist Hungary.

In a ukase issued by Nicholas at St. Petersburg, on the 26th of April, after stating that his troops, together with those of Turkey, had restored order in Moldavia and Wallachia, he mentioned the rebellion in Hungary and Transylvania, which the Austrian government,

distracted by another war in Italy, had not been yet able to subdue. That the emperor of Austria had sought his assistance against "their common enemies," and he should not refuse it.

Before this declaration, he had taken a part in the contest by sending troops into Transylvania to the aid of Austria, but the Hungarian General, Bem, having taken Hermanstadt, and driven 6,000 Russians out of it, they soon afterwards returned with 40,000, and compelled him to retreat into Wallachia. Since that, he is said to have defeated them, and that more than 30,000 Russians have surrendered to him.

One effect of the late successes of the Hungarians has been to encourage the disaffected Poles in Austrian Galicia, in Prussian Posen, and in the Polish provinces of Russia, and, in fact, Nicholas pronounces the war in which he is now engaged to be as much Polish as it is Hungarian.

Both France and Great Britain have earnestly protested against the intervention of Russia in the Hungarian war, but this has not hindered the emperor from making his tardy recognition of the French republic.

[We have occupied the usual space allotted to the Historical Register principally with the history of the United States and Europe. The record for the other parts of the world is necessarily deferred to the next number.

We refer the reader, as usual, to the Quarterly Chronicle for many interesting and important items relating to the times, which cannot be noticed elsewhere.]

STATISTICS.

THE LEGAL BUSINESS OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

The recent report made by the able and vigilant solicitor of treasury, Hon. R. H. Gillet, presents a view of the operations of his office from the time of its organization, in May, 1830, to February, 1849. We make copious extracts from it, which will interest many of our readers.

“The solicitor of the treasury has control of all suits of a *civil* nature, including prosecutions for fines, penalties and forfeitures, ‘except debts to the post office department, and penalties and forfeitures imposed upon postmasters for failing to make returns, or pay over the proceeds of their offices.’ District attorneys and others, having charge of such suits, are subject to such special directions as the solicitor may give, and also to general rules established by him with the consent of the secretary of the treasury. The solicitor is also authorized to request the advice of the attorney general, in relation to the ‘manner of conducting suits, proceedings, and prosecutions;’ and when he does so, the directions of the latter are to be followed by him.

“The official duties of the solicitor do not, however, extend to *criminal* cases of any description. These, except when brought to the supreme court on a certificate of a division of opinion by the judges of the circuit courts, are under the exclusive control of the district attorneys, unaided by the advice or assistance of any other officer of the government.

“Owing to the practice of giving credit for duties, there were formerly more suits commenced and reported to this office than at present. Suits on duty bonds, however, required less attention by the solicitor than those which were the subject of defences. The number of contested suits has increased.

“The suits, in which the United States are parties, may be divided into five classes, to wit:

“1. *Those commenced on treasury transcripts.*—These are against defaulters, and others, against whom balances may be found by the accounting officers. Such suits are instituted at the request of the first or second comptroller, by direction of the solicitor; whose duty it is to examine the documentary evidence in the respective cases, prior to its transmission to the district attorneys, to ascertain whether it is in conformity with law. The solicitor also indicates to the district attorneys the sources from whence other testimony is to be drawn, and the principal steps to be taken preparatory to and on the trial. Such cases often require a critical examination of the law of evidence, and the construction of statutes; and the preparations for their trial often involve much labour. As an illustration, it may be mentioned that there is now one suit pending in which thirteen large trunks, filled with statements, accounts, and vouchers, have been more than once sent from the treasury department to a distant city, to be used, if necessary, on the trial.

“The records of the office show the institution of four hundred and fifty-six suits of this class, brought to recover \$17,169,850 95. Two hundred and eighty-three of these have been decided in favour of the United States, and forty-five against them. The aggregate of the collections, including costs, is \$1,140,647 68. Table No. 1 of the appendix hereto annexed shows the number of this class of suits in each state. Rhode Island is the only one in which

none have been instituted. The number of suits instituted against banks is twelve. The amount claimed is \$1,900,891 84. The aggregate of collections is \$2,148,712 75, including interest. (See appendix No. 1 A.)

"2. *Suits instituted to recover fines, penalties, and forfeitures.*—These are mostly commenced by direction of the collectors of the customs for violations of the revenue and navigation acts. They are reported to the solicitor, and are under his direction. In their progress he is often called upon to examine and express his opinion upon various statutory enactments, many of which are of doubtful construction. This forms an important and laborious branch of his duties. Whenever, in the exercise of his discretion, the secretary remits a fine, penalty, or forfeiture, the necessary instruction for that purpose is given by the solicitor. Table No. 2 shows the whole number of suits instituted to recover fines, penalties, and forfeitures in each judicial district. The aggregate is 3,967. Of these 1,867 have been decided in favour of, and 355 against the United States. Four hundred and twenty-five suits have been dismissed, and 459 remitted. The amount of recoveries for fines and penalties appears to be \$99,742 47; of which \$34,867 09 has been collected. The amount realized to the United States from forfeitures is \$612,950 08. Total collections, \$647,817 17.

"3. *Suits on duty bonds.*—Table No. 3 shows the whole number of suits brought on duty bonds to be 8,440. Of these 3,662 were brought in the state of New York, 1,498 in the states north, and 3,280 south of that state. Of these 2,717 have been decided in favour of, and 91 against the United States. These suits were instituted to recover \$6,489,197 31. The amount collected is \$2,229,130 54. The number of suits dismissed is 294, and 142 remitted. Nearly all the remaining suits of this class are understood to have been discontinued by a general order of the secretary of the treasury, and by virtue of certain acts of congress, without the fact of such discontinuance having been reported to this office by the district attorneys. In addition to the duty bonds in suit or in judgment, there are many old bonds which have never been prosecuted. The books of the register of the treasury show that there stands charged against the collectors, duty bonds (some in judgment, and some not) to the amount of \$6,196,865 24. Many of these are nearly half a century old, and are valueless.

"Table No. 4 shows what officers are charged with these bonds. The collectors are debited with them on coming into office, and credited when they retire. This useless formality produces in the published statements a delusive exhibition of means in the collector's hands, equally vexatious to the collector and incomprehensible to the public.

"4. *Suits against the United States for the recovery of lands, under the act of May 26, 1824, extended by the act of June 17, 1844.*—This class of suits is confined to Louisiana, Florida, Arkansas, Alabama, and Mississippi. Table No. 5 shows the number in each state, and the quantity of lands directly and indirectly involved. The whole number is 216, nearly three-fourths of which are in Louisiana. Of these 32 were decided in favour of, and 42 against the United States. In Louisiana 11 out of 13 have been determined against the government, 6 of which have been removed to the supreme court. The quantity of land claimed in all these suits, excluding those tracts the contents of which are not stated in the petition, is about 5,127,019 acres; and it is estimated that those tracts comprise about 5,000,000 acres—making in all, say 10,127,019. There are still pending 142 cases, all except two of which are in Louisiana. These suits embrace about 9,620,594 acres. Indirectly the quantity involved is supposed to be many millions more. The land in litigation in these suits is of very great value. Some portion of it is in a high state of cultivation, and has been long held under title supposed to be good. Some of the occupants derived title from the United States. The government en-

ters upon this kind of litigation at a very great disadvantage. The claimant takes his own time to prepare his case, and institutes his suit when he believes it to be in such a condition as will enable him to recover. Prior to its commencement, the United States know nothing of his intentions; nor can they easily learn the facts which are to be urged against them. The testimony that may exist in favour of the government is often unknown to any of its officers. Except what may be derived from the general land office, little information can be obtained. Hence the trials so often result in favour of the claimant.

"These cases usually involve the action of the French and Spanish authorities, and the laws of those countries, as well as the codes of procedure in the states where the lands are situated; and they therefore impose a laborious and complicated duty, as well upon the solicitor, as on the district attorneys. A single land case has, in some instances, constantly occupied this office for many days in its examination, and in the preparation of the necessary instructions for a district attorney. These cases occupy much of the time of the solicitor. Many of them involve the examination of the most difficult questions of law.

"5. *Miscellaneous suits.*—This class includes all cases where the United States sue for debts due on contracts, and for injury to property, as well as suits in equity, actions of ejectment, &c. It also embraces all cases in which, directly or indirectly, they have an interest. The most numerous and important of these latter consist of suits against collectors to recover back duties claimed to have been illegally exacted of the importer. These suits are not usually for very large sums, but the principles decided may involve immense amounts. Although suits by the government in revenue cases can be carried to the supreme court without reference to the amount involved, the act authorizing such removal does not extend to suits against its officers. Suits, therefore, not unfrequently arise in which the judgment of an inferior tribunal is final, because the sum in controversy will not allow an appeal to the supreme court. As these tariff questions are usually finally disposed of in the district and circuit courts, they necessarily require much preparation and attention.

"Of miscellaneous suits, 844 have been commenced; 311 of which have been decided in favour of, and 87 against the United States, 87 dismissed, and 1 remitted. Table No. 6 will show the number in each state.

"From the foregoing it appears that since this office was created 13,719 suits have been instituted in favour of the United States, and 216 against it; making in all 13,935. Of these 5,221 have been determined in favour of, and 620 against the government, 837 have been dismissed, and 602 remitted; leaving 6,661 still undisposed of. Of this number it is believed that over five thousand, commenced on duty bonds, have been discontinued by district attorneys without reporting that fact to this office. The amount sued for is \$25,559,940 10; the total collected is \$6,195,160 68. (See appendix No. 6, A, B, and C.)

"Since the tables above referred to were compiled, returns have been received from several clerks of courts, in pursuance of a new general rule, of all pending suits wherein the United States are parties. These returns have developed the fact that there are pending many government suits which had not been reported to this office, while others have been finally disposed of without a proper return. Hence the tables given can only be relied upon as approximating to the truth, but not as giving the exact number of each class. Some of these errors may, perhaps, be chargeable to this office, but mostly to other sources. The new forms and instructions concerning returns, and the concentration of all suits reported to the office upon one docket, it is confidently expected, will prevent all further difficulties of the kind.

“Property received in the collection of debts.—In the collection of debts due to the United States, it is often necessary, to prevent loss, that the property of the debtor be bid in at public sale, or that an assignment of his assets be received. This duty is confided by law to the solicitor, much of which he is compelled to perform through the agency of the district attorneys and others, who act in pursuance of permanent regulations, or special instructions issued by him. Heretofore numerous tracts of land have been bid in, upon the resale of which great losses have been sustained by the government. Agents are now much more restricted in their bids than formerly, and since June 1st, 1847, but one instance has occurred of lands being bid in for the government.

“When entering upon the duties of this office, the undersigned deemed it his duty to dispose of all the lands then belonging to the United States controlled by him. The mode of sale adopted, and which has proved an advantageous one, was to advertise, inviting bids for the interest of the United States in each piece of land. A copy of one of these advertisements is hereto annexed, marked No. 7 in the appendix. On examination, the solicitor found nearly a thousand lots of land subject to the disposition of the office, some of which were acquired as early as 1816, and all of which were by him advertised for sale. These, with some subsequently discovered and sold, have realized to the treasury about a quarter of a million of dollars. A large number of assignments and conveyances made many years since, have also been recently discovered which cover real estate. A thorough examination of some of these has resulted in ascertaining that the United States are owners of several valuable lots. This investigation it is designed to continue, and it is expected that another year will be sufficient to close all these old land matters.

“Old judgments, and other old debts.—The records of this office show about six millions and a half of old judgments on duty bonds alone, including those judgments recovered prior to 1830. A statement from the register's office (No. 4 in the appendix) makes the amount between three and four hundred thousand dollars less. This difference may be accounted for by adverting to the fact that when the bonds on which judgments were obtained were charged to the collectors, no interest, probably, was included. The aggregate of all other unsatisfied judgments is estimated at about the same sum; making, in round numbers, about \$13,000,000. To this sum may be added over \$7,000,000 of balances standing on the books of the register of the treasury, not known to be in judgment, which make a total of \$20,000,000 due to the United States. These debts have been accumulating ever since the organization of the government. This enormous mass of debt, excepting recent judgments and claims, is of but trifling value. So far as is known, the parties owing most of it have long since been dead, or have become insolvent. The greatest possible vigilance by this office, and those acting under its direction, has almost entirely failed to realize any thing from this vast amount of old debts.”

The solicitor after presenting the foregoing statements relative to the business of his office, urges the necessity of a revision of the statute law of the United States. He remarks that “few even of the most learned members of the legal profession profess to understand the laws of congress. The mass of the people have no opportunity to see or learn our national laws.” He thus proceeds:

“Our statutes are scattered through sixty years of legislation. In their most compact form they extend to about four thousand very large pages of fine print, without any reliable evidence to distinguish those which are in force from those that are obsolete or repealed. The ablest and most learned lawyers often differ in opinion whether certain statutes are in force or not. At

each session laws are passed repealing or changing former ones, in a manner to increase this difficulty. We often see it provided that a law referred to shall not be construed to mean what is specified in it. Statutes are frequently repealed by enacting 'that all acts and parts of acts which are inconsistent with the provisions of this act, are hereby repealed.' What is thus repealed is often involved in doubt, especially when several acts have been passed on the same subject, with similar repealing clauses. Acts are often passed referring to and adopting others. An instance of this kind, showing the effect of such legislation, will be cited. By the 11th section of the act of 3d March, 1847, establishing post-routes, the postmaster general is authorized to procure and issue postage stamps. It is also provided that 'any person who shall falsely and fraudulently make, utter, or forge any postage stamp, with intent to defraud the post office department, shall be deemed guilty of felony; and on conviction be subject to the 'same punishment' provided in the 21st section of the post office law of March 3, 1825.' By examining the section referred to, it will be seen that it provides *four different penalties*; the first, a fine not exceeding \$300, or six months' imprisonment, or both; the second, imprisonment not less than ten, nor over twenty-one years; the third, a penalty not exceeding \$500; and the fourth a like penalty of not exceeding \$50. Although a forgery of postage stamps is understood to have been discovered, the proper court is said to have held that the provision of the act of 1847, above referred to, is in effect void, for uncertainty. The act of 22d February, 1849, concerning the authenticating certain records, may also be cited. The first section of the bill, as originally reported, contained a provision authorizing our ministers and consuls abroad, and judges at home, to take testimony in certain cases under commission; which, when certified under their seals, was declared to be legal evidence. The second section provided that, on certain records being authenticated in a peculiar manner, and *certified under the hand and seal of the said minister, consul, or judge, mentioned in the first section*, to be true copies of the originals, they might be filed and used in a certain manner. In its progress through the two houses, the bill was amended by striking out the first, without changing the second section, which thereby became first. As it stands in the statute, it reads, 'and when the same shall be certified by such *minister, consul, or judge* mentioned in the first section of this act, under his hand,' &c.; although, in fact, there is no minister, consul, or judge described in said first section; so that the provision seems to be entirely without meaning.* Again, it often occurs that the legislature use words of doubtful import, which are the subject of different constructions in different states by the national courts, seriously affecting the rights and the interests of the citizen as well as the government. A single example will be given. By statute, no person shall be imprisoned for debt in any state on process from a United States court, when by the laws of such state imprisonment for debt has been or shall be abolished. This reference adopts thirty statutory enactments, and many of them supposed to be widely different. In many of the states imprisonment is abolished in all cases *arising on contract*. It is supposed that congress, in using the words 'imprisonment for debt,' intended only to include cases of this character. But it has been recently held by a United States judge that it extends to all cases of fines and penalties for violation of the revenue and other laws, where the *remedy* is by 'action of debt.' The consequences are, that masters of vessels, and especially those from foreign countries, commit offences and incur penalties without being really in any manner responsible. This, in effect, annuls the statutes imposing fines and penalties when the remedy is by action of debt. It is also known that subordinate national courts have made deci-

* This has been remedied by an after act.

sions which are not acquiesced in by the executive departments. The number and extent of the laws relating to particular subjects renders the task of examining and understanding some of them almost hopeless. In 1844 the revenue laws theretofore passed were collected in a volume containing 486 chapters, and extending to about 1,000 pages. It is believed that not over two hundred pages of all this mass of undigested matter is now in force. Several important statutes on that subject have been since enacted.

"More than twenty years since the land laws were published in the same manner, and extended to over 1,000 pages. Numerous acts have been since passed on that subject; but it is probable that not over one hundred pages of the land laws are now operative. It is known that some of these were so difficult to be understood that a commissioner issued land patents that required special legislation to render them valid. A suit has been directed under a special law which will involve among other things the validity of a president's signature to a land patent. A suit is also pending which involves the boundaries of a land district. Indeed, numerous questions are raised under these land laws, most of which grow out of their confusion and obscurity.

"By the act creating the state department a specific oath is prescribed for the secretary and others. But this does not dispense with another oath, which is provided in a different statute, and required by the constitution. There are other singularities in the statutes concerning oaths of office.

"Out of two hundred and ninety acts relating to the judiciary, not over one hundred pages of the whole are now in force. Some of these acts have been repealed, while an occasional provision has been annulled by judicial interpretation, as unauthorized by the constitution. But which acts are in force, and which not, is not easily determined even by the best jurists. Owing to this difficulty it is understood that officers in the departments, who have devoted years to particular branches of the public service, are often in doubt as to what the law really is. This difficulty is greatly increased by numerous authorized instructions issued by the departments, having the force and effect of statutes. These extend to volumes, and are so complicated as to render it doubtful which are binding. The government is also involved in litigation growing out of these instructions. Suits of this character are now pending in our national courts, and one among them involving the question whether a particular instruction was really in force or not.

"If these laws and instructions embarrass the officers of the government, and are questionable before the judiciary, can it be expected that masters and owners of vessels, the sailor, the soldier, the ordinary citizen, and the stranger, can understand them? The thing is impossible. The national laws are not, and cannot now be understood by those who are bound to know and obey them at the hazard of life, liberty, and property. They should be revised and compressed, as they well can be, into *one common-sized volume*, and placed within the reach of every citizen at simple cost, if not without expense. To say nothing of foreign governments, most of the states composing the confederacy have set the example of revising their statutes; bringing them into as small a compass as practicable. The revisions in several of the states are included in a single volume. Some of the states have revised their laws several times within the last fifty years. If any person doubts the propriety and necessity of a revision of our national laws, he will cease to do so when he attempts to point out those in force prescribing the duties of the various officers of government, and of the citizen. In examining more than sixty volumes of session laws, he will with difficulty satisfy himself which provisions are in force and which not. The undersigned speaks advisedly when he states that nothing in any published edition can be relied upon as decisive of this question. It can only be settled by a thorough and careful examination of the statutes themselves. In doubtful cases it is frequently necessary to

refer to the adjudications of the courts to determine the matter; and it will be found that the judges of our highest courts sometimes differ in opinion on such questions.

"It is possible there will be some difference of opinion concerning the mode of accomplishing this great and necessary work. The extent and difficulty of the labour will be great; and will necessarily require protracted and patient industry. No one can properly engage in such an undertaking who is not an experienced lawyer, and conversant with construing statutes. To accomplish this work with success, those employed in it must be familiar with the questions raised under the laws as they exist, in order to understand and propose the proper remedy. While register of the treasury the undersigned made a report, which was communicated to congress by the secretary, (House Doc. No. 43, 2d sess. 29th congress,) which is appended to this report, marked No. 9, wherein his views are briefly given, and are in part as follows, to wit:

"6. *The resolution of the House requires the suggestion of a mode to secure the framing of a proper and satisfactory code (relative to navigation laws) to be submitted to congress for its consideration.* If such a code is to be confined to the matters included in the terms of the resolution, I think it should be prepared in the treasury department, by those who have been long engaged in executing those laws, and who best know their defects. These persons should be aided by the advice of the secretary of the treasury, and other officers of the department, whose experience would enable them to make useful suggestions. *But if congress should conclude to include all the general laws in the revision, then other persons should be added, whose experience and legal acquirements have qualified them for the task. Instead of creating a new office for the purpose, it would be much more preferable to assign it to those whose duties will permit them to attend to it, and whose practical knowledge of the existing evils will best enable them to know what remedies ought to be applied.*

"*A board of three such persons, with authority to employ a clerk, could, within a reasonable time, perform this duty in a manner calculated to promote the public interest. This codification should be incident and subordinate to other official duties, and should be under the general direction of the president.*

"These views have undergone no change by lapse of time or change of position. Experience in this office strengthens and confirms them."

INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGES.

It is due to the enterprise of Mr. Vattemare to present in a condensed form, some of the facts in relation to it.

The system of exchanges is designed "to place at the disposal of every nation all the sources of intellectual culture and of refinement of taste, which are possessed by the most favoured of its fellows; and to accomplish this desirable object by means which shall open, foster and cement relations of amity and good fellowship between the parties concerned." The principal objects of the contemplated exchange would seem to be valuable books, documents, maps, specimens of arts and of natural history, that thus each nation may become better acquainted with the laws, manners, intellectual wealth, progress in science and arts, national resources and strength, of other nations. The exchange contemplates "the establishment, in every quarter of the world, of free public libraries and museums." In the year 1840, Mr. Vattemare submitted to the congress of the United States, a memorial containing an outline of his plan. To this application, congress responded by the adoption of resolutions authorizing the exchange of duplicate copies of books and documents in the national library, and the printing of fifty additional copies of public documents for exchange in foreign countries.

After an absence of eight years in Europe, during which time he had devoted himself to the collection of objects of exchange to be distributed in America, Mr. V. returned to this country. The result of his labours during that period we give in his own words:

"I either transmitted, during my absence, or brought with me on my return, a vast collection of legislative documents, scientific works, objects of art, &c., all of which were presented as tokens of esteem, good will, and brotherly feeling, by the French executive, the chambers of peers and deputies, by their excellencies the ministers of justice, war, navy, interior, commerce and agriculture, public instruction, finances, and public works; by the city council of the city of Paris; by the academy of sciences, the academy of moral and political sciences, and by the museum of natural history, as well as by the most distinguished statesmen, authors, artists, mechanics, and private individuals of France, to the congress; the supreme court of the United States; to the departments of war, navy, and treasury; and to the states of Maine, Massachusetts, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Ohio, Louisiana, Indiana, Michigan, Kentucky, and Texas; also to the United States military academy at West Point; to the cities of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore; and to the universities of Cambridge, Brown's, Brunswick, and Waterville; to the colleges of Burlington, &c.; and, finally, to the National institute of the United States."

In June, 1848, congress passed an act regulating the exchange of documents and publications, by which the library committee was directed to appoint agents to carry into effect the exchange of documents, &c; the sum of two thousand dollars was appropriated to bear the expenses of such exchange, and all books transmitted for the use of the government or of any state, or for the use of any department of either or of the West Point academy or national institute should be admitted into the United States, duty free.

The library committee appointed Mr. Vattemare their agent to carry into effect the donation and exchange of books and publications. An attempt was made to obtain for him the franking privilege, but the resolution to that effect was lost in the house of representatives. Congress directed the secretary of state to furnish Mr. Vattemare with a complete series of the standard weights and measures of the United States to be presented to the government of France. The different departments, the national institute, the patent office, coast survey office, the mint, and the city of Washington, all made large and valuable contributions to promote the operations of exchange. Liberal supplies of documents and legislative acts have been furnished by several states. A central depot has been established in the United States to which all objects of exchange intended for foreign countries can be sent, and where all returns may be received from abroad. By the direction of the secretary of the treasury this depot is at the New York custom house.

There is to be a similar depot in Paris, through which all exchanges are to pass, and Paris is also to be the seat of the general or central agency, having collateral branches in the capitals of the several states who unite in the support of the system. To sustain this agency the following states have subscribed:—*Maine*, \$300; *Massachusetts*, \$300; *Vermont*, \$200; *New York*, \$400; *New Jersey*, \$300; *Indiana*, \$400; *Virginia*, \$400; which with the sum of \$2000 appropriated by the federal government amount to \$4,300. The sum yearly required for the purpose is stated at \$10,250.

THE POST OFFICE.

(FROM THE REPORT OF THE ASSISTANT POSTMASTER GENERAL OF THE U. S.)

The post office had no existence as an institution for general use till toward the close of the fifteenth century. The establishment of posts we can trace as far back as the Persian empire and the reign of Darius the First. The correspondence between Julius Cæsar and Cicero makes memorable those established by the great triumvir, between Britain and Rome. His skill in such arrangements, acquired possibly while surveyor of the Appian Way, gave them a speed unsurpassed in modern times till the introduction of steam. Augustus and his successors maintained them on a larger scale, but their character is indicated by the fact, that the head of this mail establishment was the captain of the Prætorian guard. They were courier despatches between the government and the army. Military posts furnished the relays that performed the service, and whether they did not also confer their name upon it is a matter that the lexicographers who derive it from the past participle of a latin verb, may have yet to settle with the historians. Posts of a like character, the Spanish adventurers found under the Incas of Peru.

The post office was introduced into England from Italy, but under ecclesiastical auspices. The pope's nuncio was the chief functionary. It was but little used in this form, and was at length flung aside as one of the papal encroachments. The office of postmaster general in England enjoys the honor of having been created by Elizabeth, who conferred it upon Thomas Randolph, a gentleman of distinction in the foreign service of the queen, where he had acquired, as we may presume, a knowledge of the mail establishment of the continent.

It is a notable circumstance that in the seventeenth century the post office establishment was given away in Germany, as a feudatory monopoly, to the family of Taxis—in France it was set up at auction and farmed out for a term of years, and so continued till near the close of the eighteenth century, in 1791. And the same disposition was made of it during the commonwealth of England. In the reign of Queen Anne the post office department for the British empire was re-organized under a statute of parliament that embraced the American colonies, and provided for the establishment of one chief letter office in New York, with others in convenient places in the other provinces.

But it was long anterior to this—as early as the reign of Charles II.—that the popular movements brought the post office into existence in America, as a convenience of the people, a character in which it had never originated in any nation or country before. A post office was established in Boston, under John Heyward, by the colonial court, in 1677; and in Philadelphia, under Henry Waldy, by order of William Penn, in 1643. The Virginia assembly gave Mr. Neal a patent as postmaster general in 1692—which never went into effect. But in 1700, Colonel John Hamilton, of New Jersey, obtained a patent from the colonial government for a post office scheme for the whole country, which he carried into successful operation, and for which he obtained indemnity from the English government when it was suppressed by the statute of Anne, in 1710.

The illustrious name of Franklin first appears in connexion with the American post office in 1737. He was then appointed postmaster of Philadelphia, and was commissioned as one of the two deputy postmaster generals of British North America in 1753. The length of the post roads in the thirteen colonies was then one thousand, five hundred and thirty-two miles, North Carolina having the most, New Hampshire the least, and New York fifty-seven miles. After improving and enlarging the service, and returning to the British crown, as he says, three times as much clear revenue as the post offices of Ireland,

he was dismissed as deputy postmaster general "by a freak of ministers," in 1774. But in the next year, July 26, 1775, he was elected postmaster general of the United Colonies by the unanimous voice of the continental congress.

An advance of fifteen years brings us to 1790, the official documents of which exhibit through some meagre details the extent of post office operations of the first year of the present government of the United States. The whole mail service was comprised in twelve contracts, and consisted of a line of posts from Wiscasset to Savannah, with branches to Providence and Newport, to Norwich and New London, to Middletown, to Pittsburgh, to Dover and Easton, to Annapolis, and to Norfolk and Richmond—upon no portion of which was the mail sent oftener than tri-weekly, and on much of it but once in two weeks. Between Philadelphia and Pittsburg a "complete tour" was performed once in twenty days. The annual cost of the whole service was twenty-two thousand, seven hundred and two dollars seven cents. The number of post offices was seventy-five, and the length of post routes was eighteen hundred and seventy-five miles.

If with this service of the first year we compare that of the fifty-eighth year of the government, we shall find the growth of this institution in the United States in the number of its offices, the length of its routes, and the frequency of its mails, unequalled in rapidity and extent by any other nation since the beginning of time.

We have sixteen thousand, one hundred and fifty-nine post offices, whilst those of France in 1847 were three thousand, five hundred and eighty-two, and of Great Britain, including three thousand receiving houses, four thousand, seven hundred and eighty-five. We have one hundred and sixty-three thousand, two hundred and eight miles of rail roads, and forty-one million, twelve thousand, five hundred and seventy-nine miles of annual transportation of the mail inland. What extent of the transportation is in France and Great Britain, there are no statistics at hand to show—much less than ours, undoubtedly.

But the circulation in the French mails was about one hundred and fifteen millions of letters in 1847, and in the British about three hundred millions, while ours was less than sixty millions; whereas our population is about forty-three per cent. less than that of France and twenty-six less than that of Great Britain. This shows that we make a greater provision of mails per capita, but that they are less used by the public in proportion to population than in England or France. The greater equality of our service in favour of the dispersed and remote population, and the greater absorption in the French and English mails of the city and town letters going from street to street with little comparative loss of accommodation, on our part are more than sufficient to account for the small difference in favour of France, whose Paris letters alone number millions annually. Not so with Great Britain.

For the differences in her favour we must look to other causes—and we find them in the higher rates of our postage and the defective machinery of our system; both of which interpose checks to a universal resort to the mails. A change in the mode of business at the offices, that will give more regularity to the mails, more certainty to the accounts, and more exactness to all the details of the service, and the liberalizing of the system by reducing the charge of transport, will produce inevitably a larger use of the post office by the people, and result in a vast improvement to all the business and social interests of the country.

PROGRESS OF CANADA.

(From the first report of the Board of Registration and Statistics.)

LANDS.

The total number of surveyed acres in Lower Canada, according to Bouchette's last survey, was 18,871,040; but the return of lands disposed of is made with reference to a previous survey of 17,685,942, and is dated in 1845. Of this quantity of land 2,377,733 acres have been set apart for clergy reserves. The Jesuits' estates now employed in promoting education in the united province, and other lands disposed of for charitable purposes, amount to 3,424,213 acres; and the grants *en seigneurie*, and free and common soccage to 11,343,629 acres. The surveyed lands, therefore, four years ago, stood thus:

	Acres.
The survey was	17,685,942
Disposed of for public purposes	3,424,213
Grants to individuals, &c.	11,343,629
	14,767,842
So that there remained	3,928,100

From Canada West, the return is as follows for 1848:

	Acres.
The whole survey was	15,902,006
Clergy reserves	2,142,145
Grants	12,242,145
	14,384,983
	1,597,123

If we take the entire province, therefore, and add the difference between the survey of 1845, and the later one of Bouchette, amounting to 1,185,098 acres, we have 6,710,322 acres for the quantity of unsurveyed land still in the hands of the government, less the sales in Canada East since 1845, which probably amount to 500,000 acres = 6,210,322 acres. During the present session, the provincial parliament has set apart a specific quantity of 100,000 acres for the endowment of common schools, with the farther provision that the money received for all future sales of crown lands shall be applied to the same purpose, until a school fund of £1,000,000 shall have been formed.

Between the years 1836 and 1847, both inclusive, 933,229 acres of land were disposed of by the crown, in Canada East, by sale or gift, and 2,145,502 acres in Canada West. These figures, however, furnish little indication of the actual amount of settlement in either section, as they include large grants or sales to individuals far beyond the capacity of the grantees to occupy or cultivate, and, on the other hand, do not include the sales of wild land made by individuals to settlers. The average price of public lands in Canada West, is given for several years, down to 1840, in which year the prices are reported at 11s. 2d. per acre for crown lands; 12s. 8d. for clergy reserves, and 12s. 6d. for school lands—the two latter classes being often found in detached lots in settled parts of the country. The price has not varied very considerably since that period. There are still vast wildernesses unsurveyed.

POPULATION.

The population of Canada East is estimated according to the mean of three calculations by Colonel Tache, Mr. Couchon, and Mr. Crofton, founded on previous census. The result shows a population of 768,334 in Canada East, in 1848. The census of Canada West, for the same year, gives 723,292 souls;

so that the population of the province is about 1,491,626 souls. The ratio of increase has been very different at different periods, owing to the fluctuations of the volume of the stream of emigration. The following figures will give some idea of the progress of population respectively, in the two sections:

CANADA EAST.							
In 1825	-	-	-	-	-	-	423,630
In 1848	-	-	-	-	-	-	768,334
Increase in 23 years -							334,704

At this rate the population of Eastern Canada will require about thirty years to double itself.

CANADA WEST.							
In 1825	-	-	-	-	-	-	158,027
In 1848	-	-	-	-	-	-	723,292
Increase in 23 years -							565,265

So that in Western Canada the population doubled itself in about eleven years.

The report gives the following comparative statement of the progress of population for ten years, in the two sections of the province, in Great Britain, and in the United States. Increase—in Great Britain from 1831 to 1841, 1.11 per cent.; in United States from 1830 to 1840, 3.26 per cent.; in Canada East from 1834 to 1844, 3.18 per cent.; in Canada West from 1832 to 1842, 8.61 per cent. But this comparison is liable to the same observation, which we have previously made.

The per centage of persons, who are deaf and dumb, blind, and idiotic or lunatic, is we believe higher in Canada than in any part of the world—a fact, for which we have never heard any plausible reason assigned. From the report we glean the following figures: Of deaf and dumb in Canada East, 1 in every 1011—in Canada West, 1 in every 1699, of blind in Canada East, 1 in 1328—Canada West, 1 in 1621, and of lunatics and idiots there are in Canada East, 1 in every 1515—Canada West, 1 in every 968.

The proportion of all classes afflicted by any of these calamities, throughout Canada is 1 in every 370—in the United States 1 in every 533.

The number of paupers in Canada East, is set down at 1 in every 399 of the population. In Canada West the paupers are but 1 in every 1469. It must be observed, however, that these consist principally of the aged and infirm; and except the monastic establishments of Canada East, there is no provision for the poor in Canada. As an encouragement to spinsters who may incline to try their fortune in Canada, we may mention that the proportion of the sexes throughout the country is about 88 females to 100 males, so that bating fresh importations, twelve gentlemen out of every hundred, must be constrained to the desolate state of bachelorship. The statistics of schools and school attendance for Canada East—unfortunately there are none for Canada West—are perhaps the most pleasing part of the report. The common schools, which in 1842 numbered only 927, had increased in 1848, to 2,464; and the attendance of children under fourteen years of age; from 13 per cent. of the entire number in 1842 to 24.27 per cent. in 1848. Or taking the children between the ages of five and fifteen, the proportion of those who attended school increased from 22 per cent. in 1842, to over 42 per cent. in 1848. If this exhibits a favourable degree of advance in intellectual culture, we have other items, which afford encouraging proof of increasing material prosperity. Thus the male farm servants who, in 1841, were but 3184, had increased in 1848 to 7514—far more than double. This, says the compiler of the report, affords direct evidence of the increasing prosperity of the agricultural body of

Western Canada. It moreover furnishes an excellent demonstration of the inexhaustible field for successful emigration, which farm labourers may find in this country. It may safely be affirmed that every steady man of the large number, who have thus been added to the population of the farm servants, has a fair prospect of employing labourers on his own farm in the course of a moderate number of years. The increased number of females employed as domestic servants may also be looked on as a further indication of the same character. In 1842, the number of persons thus employed was one seventh of all the unmarried females between the ages of fourteen and forty-five. In 1848 this proportion had increased to one sixth.

RELIGIOUS CENSUS.

Under this head we have the following:

Church of England	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	166,340
Church of Scotland Presbyterians	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	65,762
Free Church Presbyterians	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	62,690
Other Presbyterians	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19,730
								<hr/> 148,182
Wesleyan Methodists	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	87,516
Episcopal Methodists	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	35,731
Other Methodists	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14,505
								<hr/> 137,752
Church of Rome	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	119,810
Baptists	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	28,053
Lutherans	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7,186
								<hr/> 607,323
Deficiency	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	115,969
								<hr/> 723,292

This enormous deficiency of nearly a sixth of the whole population is partly accounted for in the remarks accompanying the census—25,000 not being returned at all in the religious head, and 30,000 being classed under the head of “no creed or denomination.” In 1842, the deficiency amounted to 80,000.

AGRICULTURAL AND OTHER PROPERTY.

The information on this subject is principally to be found in the enumeration prepared for the purpose of local taxation in Canada West. We find in these returns an account of the cultivated lands, grist mills, live stock, carriages, and other kinds of property assessed to the district councils. The steady increase for 23 years without any considerable falling off is highly instructive. We give the value of assessed property for every year from 1825 to 1848, both inclusive: £2,256,874; £2,409,064; £2,442,847; £2,579,083; £2,735,783; £2,929,269; £3,143,484; £3,415,822; £3,796,040; £3,918,712; £3,880,994; £4,605,103; £4,431,098; £4,282,544; £5,345,372; £5,607,426; £6,269,398; £6,913,341; £7,155,324; £7,556,514; £7,778,917; £8,236,677; £8,567,001.

In the same time the number of grist mills had increased from 232 to 527, and of saw mills from 394 to 1,489; the number of acres under cultivation from 535,212, to 2,673,820; of houses from 8,876 to 42,957; and of horses, oxen, milch cows and young cattle together, from 121,206 to 481,417.

According to the enumeration already given from the assessment rolls of the district councils, the Western Canadians possess one head of cattle and horses together, to every one and four-tenths of the population; but this census taken for the purpose of taxation excludes all animals which are not taxed. The census returns of the commissioners, which include the exempted classes,

makes the number of neat cattle and horses 717,234 instead of 481,417. As no one has any interest in exaggerating the return to the commissioners, while there is a manifest profit in diminishing the number of animals assessed for taxation, it is probable that the larger return—besides the exempted classes—may include many animals not enumerated by the district councils, and that it is the most correct.

The pleasure carriages in Upper Canada—in which none are included that are ever used for agricultural purposes—were 587 in 1825, and 4,685 in 1847. The population had increased three-fold: the pleasure carriages eight-fold—a proof of augmented wealth and comfort.

An account of the crop in Canada West for 1847:

Wheat	-	-	-	-	-	-	7,558,773	bushels.
Barley	-	-	-	-	-	-	515,727	"
Oats	-	-	-	-	-	-	7,055,730	"
Rye	-	-	-	-	-	-	446,293	"
Maize	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,137,555	"
Buckwheat	-	-	-	-	-	-	432,573	"
Peas	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,753,880	"
Potatoes	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,751,331	"

The value of this crop is estimated at £2,676,285 currency.

We have taken these calculations from Upper Canada because the census of the eastern part of the province is not very reliable, and is doubtless considerably under the truth. We find, however, the whole produce of Canada East in bushels, for the year 1844, set down in the census of that period as 21,325,596 = 30 bushels per unit of population. This is about one-fourth less per head than the produce of Canada West for 1842. This, we believe, is a much smaller difference between the produce of the two sections of the province than is generally supposed to exist. If it be remembered that the eastern part of Canada comprises a large population who inhabit the bleak shores of the St. Lawrence below Quebec, the far greater portion of the lumbering population, and the two largest cities, it will be evident that when opinions are compared with figures, the inferiority of the really good portions of Lower Canada is by no means borne out. But to arrive at a just appreciation of the truth, we must also remember the calamitous visitation of the wheat fly, which for several years before and after the date of our statement (1844) so cruelly disappointed the hopes of the Lower Canadian farmer. Here are the statistics of this article of produce, for three different periods. For 1831, by Bouchette's estimate, 3,404,756 bushels of wheat; for 1831, by census, 3,404,756 bushels; for 1844, by census, 942,835. The introduction of new seed, especially of Black Sea wheat, however, has, it is hoped, remedied this evil: it is at any rate well known that the wheat crops in Canada East, for the last three years, have been very much larger, than for several years before.

The manufacture of maple sugar in 1848, in Canada West, according to the census of that year, was 3,764,243 lbs., to which Mr. Crofton thinks 10 per cent. should be added for omissions. This brings the crop up to 4,160,667 lbs., or nearly 6 lbs. to each individual—and we have specimens on our desk, which no one could distinguish from the best "lump." Of wool there were 2,339,756 lbs. produced in 1848, which is an increase of more than fifty per cent. in six years. Of tobacco, 1,865 lbs.; of flax 41,599 lbs.; of beef and pork 99,251 barrels.

MANUFACTURES.

We come now to manufactures: premising that when we speak of united Canada we take the imperfect census of Eastern Canada as representing the statistics of that part of the province. In the united province, then, there are

661 fulling and carding mills; 130 breweries; 174 distilleries; 389 tanneries; 1,040 asheries; 10 paper mills; 19 trip hammers; 14 oil mills, and 9 nail factories. Besides these there are in Western Canada 1 rope walk, 1 candle factory, 1 cement mill, 1 saleratus factory, 8 soap factories, 11 pail factories, 1 last factory, 3 tobacco factories, 2 steam engine factories, 1 ship-yard, 3 potteries, 1 vinegar factory, 5 chair factories, 2 brick yards, 1 axe factory, 6 plaster mills, 1 comb factory, 10 shingle, 67 woollen factories, and 105 foundries.

The following is the produce of some of these factories—all in Canada West: Of fulled cloth 624,971 yards; of linen 71,715 yards; flannel 1,295,172 yards. The total increase in the annual production of these articles in six years has been 664,141 yards—the increase being very nearly equal to 1 yard for each individual of the population. The whole of the increment, however, has occurred upon the woollen goods, as there is a considerable falling off in linens, which we have deducted to arrive at the above figures.

SHIPPING.

On water "the progress of the nation" has been as satisfactory as on shore. Thus we find that the Upper Canada shipping amounted in 1838 to 4,505 tons; in 1839 to 5,787 tons; and in 1840 to 8,629½ tons: the tables go no farther than that year, but there is every reason to suppose that the progress has been, at least, as rapid since. On the canals a new class of steamers have been made to supersede the old 500 barrel vessels; and cargoes of 2,800 or 3,000 barrels of flour may now be conveyed from Chicago to the ocean—a distance of 1,500 miles, without breaking bulk, so that there is every reason to look for a greatly increased trade in this department.

REVENUE.

Since the union the net revenue of the province has been as follows:—For 1842, £365,505; 1843, £320,987; 1844, £515,783; 1845, £524,366; 1846, £512,993; 1847, £506,826. The customs in the first year of this period amounted to £265,386; they reached their highest point in 1844, when they were £429,722; and declined to £381,063 in 1847, the last year given in the report. The impost of 1 per cent. on the circulation of the notes of chartered banks rose pretty steadily, except in the year 1843, from £10,277 in 1842, to £16,008 in 1847. The net revenue from tolls in 1842 was £16,369, and it had risen in 1847 to £42,577. The gross revenue, a better criterion of the amount of traffic on these gigantic highways, presents a still more encouraging statement. There was, as will be seen, a slight decrease in 1845, but on the whole the progress of receipts since 1842 has been large and steady. Here follow the figures for each year from 1842 to 1847, both inclusive—£24,232; £34,604; £44,429; £41,039; £61,486; £83,335.

PUBLIC DEBT.

It is worth while to compare the revenue of these works with the obligations of the province to the public creditor. The interest on the whole provincial debt in 1847 was £148,264. We have seen that the public works in the same year yielded £42,557 of net revenue; the enormous difference between that sum and the gross receipts arising from the deduction of £31,307 for repairs. This is an unusual charge, and should not, of course, be made to fall upon one year. That item, on an average of the six years, which is the only fair manner of arriving at the actual net revenue, was but £10,500. These figures show that our public works would average net profits, at the same rate of gross receipts as in 1847, of £63,364 = 42 per cent. of the entire interest on the public debt.

The taxes paid by the people of Canada for the purposes of the provincial government is comprised in the following items:—customs, excise, light-house

and tonnage duties, bank imposts, militia commissions, and various fines and forfeitures.

The whole of these amount to £429,044 per annum—about 5s. 8d. per head.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

In 1848 there was here, as elsewhere, a very great falling off in almost every description of business, so that neither our imports nor exports by sea equalled in value those of any preceding year since 1843. The actual value of exports by sea, in currency, as given in the official tables for 1848 is £1,749,167, which is less by £831,125 than in the preceding year; but no doubt a portion of this difference is to be imputed to the lower prices of all kinds of articles. The reduction in the value of exportations is, in round numbers, about 33 per cent., and the reduction in price appears from a rough inspection of the tables in the Brokers' Annual Circular to account for 10 or 15 per cent. of this difference.

Exportations to the United States.

Flour in 1847, - -	£24,722 9 3	Flour in 1848, - -	£310,965 9 3
Butter do. - -	1,016 16 0	Butter do. - -	8,722 6 0
Ashes do. - -	6,052 0 0	Ashes do. - -	43,000 0 0
Wool do. - -	5,654 0 0	Wool do. - -	5,324 16 1
Horses do. - -	15,723 15 0	Horses do. - -	33,451 15 0
Wheat do. - -	9,421 15 0	Wheat do. - -	63,127 5 6
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	£62,590 15 3		£464,591 5 10

If we add 15 per cent. to this to represent the difference in values, caused by lower prices in 1848, we shall have a total increase of southern trade equal to £462,301 currency. Let us see, then, what may fairly be set down as the whole decrease in quantity of exports last year.—The apparent decrease by sea, reckoning in value, was £831,215;—less, for decreased prices, at say 11 per cent. on the whole export of 1847, £294,841=for actual decrease, as representing quantity, £536,284; increased export to United States £462,301; will leave for the actual diminution of the trade of the whole province, as representing quantity, only £73,983. For the exports of Canadian goods to the United States we have taken the American customs returns of goods entered there. It is certain, however, that this must be very far below the true value. The returns from our own custom house is as follows for 1848:

Produce of the forest, - - - - -	£159,551 6 5
Agricultural production, - - - - -	454,350 0 9
Live stock, - - - - -	54,243 7 6
Other articles, - - - - -	104,287 10 8
	<hr/>
	£772,432 5 4

“And to this,” says Mr. Crofton, “we might add a very liberal per centage: for, on the most minute inquiry among persons capable of forming an estimate on such matters, it has been universally asserted that many of the articles, particularly lumber, are far underrated, pine lumber especially; we have certain returns from several saw-mills in Upper Canada, by which it appears that even in those which have given in the quantity manufactured, the produce was upwards of two hundred million of feet, and as the consumption does not equal one half of that amount, we have nearly double the quantity stated for export, that is allowing the produce of the Lower Canada saw-mills to balance the quantities exported by sea.”

We have yet to add the fisheries: we shall then have the following account of our exports for 1848:

By sea, - - - - -	£1,749,167
Fisheries not included, - - - - -	91,252
To United States, - - - - -	772,432
	<hr/>
	£2,612,851

The imports by sea in 1848 were £2,107,264 currency, to which are to be added the imports from the United States.

We shall conclude this review by a statement of the quantities of several articles of general consumption imported into Canada: it fully bears out the remark of Mr. Crofton, that "in no country do the agricultural classes enjoy a greater degree of comfort, or are liable to fewer privations." Of sugar and molasses there were imported in 1847, 20,673,389 lbs.; add maple sugar 6,463,845 lbs.=27,137,234 lbs.; or nearly 18½ lbs. to each person, besides the large quantity which is believed to be smuggled. Of coffee 1,101,621 lbs. paid duty in 1847, and 1,018,803 lbs. in 1848=11 oz. per head. Of tea the average quantity which pays duty annually is estimated at 2,817,440 lbs., and the smuggled at 432,560 lbs.=3,750,000 lbs.=to 2 lbs. 4 oz. per head. The importation of foreign coffee and tea in the United States, as quoted in the appendix from the report of the secretary of the treasury to the United States, was in 1848 respectively—coffee, 8,200,000=nearly 6½ oz. per head; and tea 6,217,111=nearly 5 oz. per head. The quantity of wine and spirits which paid duty in Canada in 1847 was 553,849 gallons, with 2,134,721 gallons of whiskey distilled in the country; and in 1848, 392,580 gallons, with 1,905,150 gallons of whiskey distilled in the country. The average of the two years is, therefore, 1 6-10 gallons per head, men, women, and children.

TERRITORIAL AREA AND INTERNAL COMMERCE.

We insert the following interesting and valuable statements from the Philadelphia Bulletin as supplementary to our statistics on the same subjects at pages 375, 377, 378, 408, &c., of Vol. I. Some of the figures are only approximations.

The area of territory comprised within the limits of the United States, prior to the admission of Texas, was 1,065,188 square miles, or 681,720,320 acres, and apportioned in the following order, viz.:

Free States.	Acres of State Surface.	Totals.
Maine	22,400,000	
Vermont	5,120,000	
New Hampshire	5,139,200	
Massachusetts	4,640,000	
Rhode Island	768,000	
Connecticut	3,040,000	
New York	29,440,000	
New Jersey	4,384,640	
Pennsylvania	30,080,000	
Ohio	25,576,960	
Indiana	21,637,760	
Illinois	35,459,200	
Michigan	35,995,520	
Iowa	32,584,060	
Wisconsin	34,511,360	
	<hr/>	290,777,600

Slave States.

Delaware	1,356,800
Maryland	7,040,000
Virginia	39,265,280
North Carolina	29,120,000
South Carolina	17,920,000
Georgia	37,120,000
Kentucky	24,115,200
Tennessee	28,160,000
Louisiana	29,715,840
Mississippi	30,174,080
Alabama	32,462,080
Missouri	43,123,200
Arkansas	33,406,720
Florida	37,931,520
District of Columbia	32,000
	<hr/>
	390,942,720
Grand Total	681,720,320

Independently of the territory thus belonging to incorporated states, we had, and still have, an extent of country lying east of the Rocky Mountains, commonly known as Nebraska, Minesota, and the Indian territory, which contains 636,438,400 additional acres, and which is divided, geographically, as follows:

	North of 36° 30' Acres.	South of 36° 30' Acres.
Tract bounded by the 49th degree of north latitude, the Mississippi river, the river Platte, and the Rocky Mountains	462,878,720	
Balance of Northwestern territory, east of the Mississippi river	14,295,040	
Indian territory, west of Missouri and south of river Platte	121,923,200	37,341,440
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	In all, 636,438,400 acres.	

Minesota, since added to the Union as a governed province, includes the 14,295,040 acres, described as the balance of the old north-western territory. Nebraska, when incorporated, will contain 87,488,000 acres, apportioned from the 462,878,720 acres of Rocky Mountain district, and the balance, 375,390,720 acres, will continue as Indian territory.

It will be observed from this statement, that our original possessions embrace an area of surface almost as large as the Union itself. The aggregate thus exhibited is 2,059,623 square miles, or 1,318,158,720 acres—equal in extent to all Europe, with the single exception of Russia. By acquisition, we have increased the number of acres to 2,081,717,760, or equal to the whole of Europe, *inclusive* of the empire of Russia. These acquisitions have been by

	North of 36° 30' Acres.	South of 36° 30' Acres.
Annexation of Texas	27,863,680	180,469,120
“ “ Oregon	218,536,320	
“ “ California and New Mexico	205,884,800	130,805,120
	<hr/>	<hr/>
In all	763,559,040 acres.	

Prior to the admission of Texas, we had an extent of Atlantic, Pacific and Gulf sea coast of 3,100 miles.

Since the admission of Texas, California, and Oregon, we have increased it to 5,120 miles.

ESTIMATE.

	MILES.
From the northern limits of the United States, to the mouth of St. Mary's river	1,450
From the mouth of St. Mary's to the Cape of Florida	450
	<hr/>
Making of Atlantic coast	1,900
	<hr/>
From Cape of Florida, along Gulf coast, to mouth of Sabine river .	1,200
Coast of Texas, from mouth of Sabine, to the mouth of the Rio Grande	400
	<hr/>
Making of Atlantic and Gulf coast	3,500
	<hr/>
From one league south of San Diego, (by treaty,) to the 42d parallel of north latitude, on the Pacific	970
From the 42d degree of north latitude to the 49th degree, including Straits of Fuca	650
	<hr/>
Making of coast on the Pacific	1,620
	<hr/>
And making, altogether, of coast	5,120

The above is understood to mean sea coast *in a direct line*. The *shore line* we measure, inclusive of bays, sounds, and other irregularities of the shore, is 12,605 miles, or more than double the extent of direct line. In shore line of islands, we measure 9,237 miles, and river shore line, *to the head of tide water*, 11,211 miles. The following analyses may prove useful to those interested in collecting material of this character. (We have, however, no correct data of the *direct* shore line of *States*, and therefore omit the estimate in the annexed statement, and give the total in general figures, as above.)

	Shore line, incl'g bays, sounds and other irre- gularities of mainshore.	Of Islands.	Of rivers to the head of tide.	Total.
Maine	1365 miles	777 miles	291 miles	2433 miles
New Hampshire	17	14	...	31
Massachusetts	887	270	70	1221
Rhode Island	230	80	310
Connecticut	236	33	121	390
New York	50	955	297	1302
New Jersey	510	245	153	908
Delaware	230	20	40	290
Maryland	730	575	1140	2445
Pennsylvania	80	80
Virginia	247	85	1233	1549
North Carolina	845	650	1060	2564
South Carolina	205	670	1015	1890
Georgia	250	480	145	875
Florida	1943	2149	1720	5812
Alabama	240	70	200	510
Mississippi	155	65	280	500
Louisiana	1247	1017	2306	4570
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Totals	9384	8145	10,151	27,690

Add Texas	940	390	350	1680
" Oregon	1171	557	320	2048
" California	1110	145	390	1645
	<u>3221</u>	<u>1092</u>	<u>1060</u>	<u>5373</u>
Add the above	9384	8145	10,151	27,690
Grand totals	12,605	9,237	11,211	33,063

We have, according to these figures, a sea coast of over 33,000 miles, and an actual line of navigation, of nearly one hundred thousand miles—greater, in point of fact, than that of Europe and Asia together—as the subjoined recapitulation will show:

RECAPITULATION.

Direct line of sea coast	5,120	ms.
Irregularities	7,485	"
	<u>12,605</u>	"
Shore line inclusive	12,605	ms.
Island coasts	9,237	"
Rivers to head of navigation	11,211	"
Sea coast inclusive	33,063	ms.
Shore line of rivers, above tide, and navigable—		
Texas	1,210	"
Islands and bayous—Lower Mississippi	8,372	"
Mississippi Upper, and tributaries	2,736	"
Big Black, Yazoo, and bayous	1,190	"
Red river and tributaries	4,924	"
Arkansas river and tributaries	3,250	"
Missouri river and tributaries	7,830	"
Ohio river and tributaries	7,342	"
Grand total of sea coast and navigable rivers	69,854	ms.
Add to the above, a lake coast of	6,240	"
And we have a grand aggregate of	76,094	"

This alone refers to coasts and streams, navigable for vessels; and when we reflect, that hundreds of inland rivers are to be appended to the estimate, not included, because not classed with the commercial waters of the country, we find that our shore line, if any thing, extends *beyond* 100,000 miles, instead of falling short of the calculation. We have, too, beside the walls of water thus encircling us, a frontier dividing us from the British possessions, of 3,303 miles, extending from the mouth of the St. Croix to the Pacific ocean; and a frontier separating us from Mexico, of 1,456 miles, commencing at the mouth of the Rio Grande, and terminating also at the Pacific ocean. Our Lakes measure in length 1,573 miles, and in width 316 miles, and sustain upon their bosoms as many crafts as are floated by many nations in their intercourse with the whole world. The following are the measurements of each:

	Length.	Greatest width.	Average width.
Lake Champlain	105 miles.	12 miles.	8 miles.
Lake Ontario	180 "	52 "	40 "
Lake Erie	240 "	57 "	38 "
*Lake St. Clair	18 "	25 "	12 "
Lake Huron	270 "	105 "	70 "
Lake Michigan,	340 "	83 "	58 "
Lake Superior	420 "	135 "	100 "
	<u>1573</u> "	<u>369</u> "	<u>316</u> "

* Not including the Bay of Georgian, which is 120 miles long, and 45 miles wide.

The aggregate value of the commerce of the Lakes has been computed at \$125,000,000 per annum, and by competent authorities, at as high as \$130,000,000. The latest returns show an average value, on—

Lake Champlain, of	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$11,266,059
Lake Ontario, of	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14,025,707
Lake Erie, of	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	91,358,350
Lake Michigan, of	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,927,150
Total,									\$122,677,266

The returns from Lake Erie and Michigan, are greatly deficient; whereas, these, if full, with the returns of the Oswegatchie district, would increase the amount to that stated—\$130,000,000. It will be remarked, however, that a portion of the commerce creating this sum, is the imports of one place enumerated in the estimate, as exported from another, which, in the calculation of net value, would materially reduce the amount. But it cannot be doubted, that the net amount approaches nearly, if not altogether, \$100,000,000.

The tonnage of merchandise thus exported and imported, is set down at 3,861,088 tons; the tonnage capacity of vessels employed in its transportation, 106,836 tons. From more recent returns, however, we are led to suppose the vessel tonnage now to be nearly 120,000 tons, and the merchandise tonnage 4,500,000.

The passenger trade, as an item of the commerce of the Lakes, is computed to be worth \$1,500,000.

Add the net value of merchandise, \$100,000,000.

And we have the grand aggregate of \$101,500,000, as the full value of the trade on these internal waters, annually.

The steam tonnage of the western waters, is estimated at 300,000 tons; that of flat-bottoms, and other boats, at 600,000 tons—making altogether 900,000 tons. The amount of merchandise transported, is set down in net value at \$200,000,000, or the gross at \$296,000,000. This great disparity is accounted for, (as on the Lakes,) from the fact of one cargo of goods being twice entered—once as an export, and again, as an import—when the same should be confined to a single entry. The passenger trade is computed at \$6,000,000, which increases the sum to \$206,000,000.

Accordingly, our lake and river trade, per annum, amounts to \$307,500,000; or nearly equal to our gross trade, in imports and exports, with the whole habitable world. The official statement of the commerce and navigation of the United States, for 1848 and 1849, furnishes us with the following facts, in illustration of this position:

Value of domestic exports for the fiscal year ending	
June 30, 1848	\$132,904,121
Value of foreign exports for do.	21,128,010—\$154,032,131
Value of foreign imports	154,998,928— 154,998,928
<hr/>	
Total exports and imports	309,031,059
Total exports and imports on lakes and rivers	307,500,000
<hr/>	
Balance in favour of foreign trade,	\$1,531,059

If these official returns and calculations be correct—and we are assured they are—the balance in favour of our foreign trade is a mere trifle. The increase, too, on our internal waters, is nearly 5 per cent. greater than that of our ocean trade, in which case, in a very few years, the latter will become, (though the principal channel of our revenues,) subsidiary to this mightier element of our internal prosperity.

PLANK ROADS.

A letter from Professor Gillespie (author of the "*Manual of road-making*") which was read at a recent public meeting in Schenectady, contains much valuable information on this important subject.

"To inland towns roads are substitutes for navigable rivers. The more widely they radiate in every direction, and the better their condition, the greater will be the consequent prosperity. Their comparative value is determined by the different weights which a horse can draw upon them at any uniform speed, or by the different speeds at which he can draw the same load. Of all modes of improving their surface, plank roads are the most effectual at the smallest cost. If we take the load drawn on a new gravel road as our standard of comparison, experiments show that on a good broken stone, or Macadam road, a horse can draw *four* times as much, and on a smooth plank road *eight* times as much, or *twice* as much as on a good Macadam road.

Plank roads, therefore, enable a horse to do more than any other arrangement except railroads. But invaluable as the latter are to the hurrying traveller, the ordinary roads on which every farmer can drive his own team, when not needed for the farm labours, are incomparably more useful to the community at large—and of all such, plank roads are the perfection. They are the *Farmer's Railroads*.

MODE OF CONSTRUCTION.—The best mode of constructing them is briefly this: Lay out the intended line with great care to avoid steep inclinations, never ascending more than one foot in going thirty or forty, and winding many feet around rather than go up one. Grade the road bed wide enough for two wagon tracks, but plank only one, and that on the right hand side coming towards a city, for teams generally come in heavy and go out light, and this arrangement makes the heavy ones keep the track, and the light ones do all the turning out. Lay down flatwise two stringers, twelve by three, four feet apart, centre to centre. Imbed them well in the earth; across them, at right angles, lay three inch hemlock plank, eight feet long. The lengthwise and skewing methods of laying them are now abandoned. Pack the earth well up to them; slope the earth track toward the ditches (which should be wide and deep,) and your plank road is made.

Many minor points must, however, be attended to, to make your road as perfect as possible. The inner stringers should be higher than the outer ones, so as to carry the water off freely. They should be in two pieces, each 6 by 3, so as to break joints. The ends of the planks should not be laid to a line, but project a few inches, on each side alternately, so as to make it easy for wheels to get on the track, and to avoid forming a rut alongside. They need not be fastened down, but I would recommend spiking down, say, every fifth or tenth plank, the rest being well driven home against these. The stringers are now made heavier than formerly and the plank lighter. When hemlock planks get worn down two inches, the knots project so as to make the road too rough, and to require renewal. Allow one inch more to hold them in, and we have three inches thickness. Hemlock is generally used, as cheapest, but pine or oak would be better.

A single track will be sufficient for almost any amount of travel. The turnings out upon the earth road by the side of it are at such varied points, that its surface, if made properly crowning, will always remain in good condition. 160,000 teams passed over a Syracuse road in two years, averaging more than 200 a day; and for three days in succession 700 a day passed over it; and all this was on a single track.

COST.—The cost of the road will of course vary with the price of lumber. On the plan recommended it will require 127,000 feet of plank, and 32,000

feet of stringers per mile; in all say 160,000 feet board measure. Other items of cost are the levelling the road bed and laying the plank, which costs from 50 cents to \$1 per rod. The excavations and embankments necessary to give the road proper grades, and the bridges and sluices cannot be estimated without the data of a survey. Omitting these, as also gate-houses, we will have the following rough estimate of cost per mile:

Lumber, 160,000 feet, at \$9 per M. - - - - -	\$1,440
Levelling and laying, at 75c. per rod - - - - -	240
Engineering and superintendence - - - - -	100
	<hr/>
In all - - - - -	1,780
Add for contingencies, 10 per cent. - - - - -	178
	<hr/>
Total - - - - -	\$1,958

Or say \$2,000 per mile, with lumber at \$9, and omitting extra excavations and embankments, and gate houses. The difference of a dollar per M. in the price of lumber, makes a difference of \$160 per mile.

DURATION.—As for durability, seven years for hemlock would be a safe estimate, though our experience is as yet very limited. One set of stringers will out-last two or three coverings of plank. But, to be profitable, the planks must have so much travel as to *wear* them out before they rot out. The wear and tear of the first year equals that of the following six, as a tough elastic coating of woody fibres, &c., is soon formed, and protects the plank from wear. And the sooner they wear out, the better; for the sooner will their cost be thus repaid. On one road, the passage of 160,000 teams wore the plank down but one inch.

PROFITS.—Before hemlock planks have been worn out, they will earn at the rate of tolls established by the general plank road law from \$2,500 to \$3,000 per mile above repairs and expenses, or double their original cost, which they will thus reimburse, and leave as much more for dividends, which will of course be more or less large, according as the wearing out, and concomitant earning is done in a shorter or longer time. On the Syracuse and Central Square Plank road, the tolls on 8 miles, for two years, ending last July, were \$12,900; the expenses of salaries and repairs were \$1,500, leaving \$11,400. The planks were half worn out (one inch) so that their net profits before renewal would be \$22,800, for the eight miles, or \$2,850 per mile.

ADVANTAGES.—In improvements of this character it is difficult to say who gains the most—whether it is the stockholder, the farmer, the city merchant, or the consumer of the produce brought in. The *farmer* can bring his potatoes, apples, grain, pork, wood, &c., to market at seasons when he would otherwise be imprisoned at home by the state of the road, and could not there work to advantage. He could also carry twice as heavy a load as ever before, and therefore at half the former cost. He could therefore sell cheaper and yet make larger profits. The *consumer* would consequently get the articles that he uses at lower prices. Wood, for example, would be greatly lowered in cost by being brought from distant forests now inaccessible to us. So with other articles. Every inhabitant would therefore be benefited, for every one must be warmed and fed. The *merchant* will find his old country-customers and many new ones coming at all times, and will share their larger profits. The *stockholder*, beside his gains as a member of one of these three classes, of producer, merchant or consumer, will in addition receive his dividends from tolls. It is one of those rare business transactions by which all the parties gain.”

FACTORY STATISTICS.

We give below an account of the *first* regular factory establishment in the United States; and, for the purpose of showing what has been effected in fifty years, we add a recent statement of a *single* manufacturing town—*Lowell*, in Massachusetts.

The whole capital invested in manufactures in the United States, in 1840, was \$267,726,579. The number of persons employed 349,506, and the value of cotton and woollen goods manufactured was about \$70,000,000.

BYFIELD FACTORY,

Was erected in 1793 at the falls of Parker river in Newbury, Byfield Parish, on the site of the ancient Spencer Mill lot, which was conveyed by Spencer to Henry Sewall, who came from England, and it descended by inheritance to his posterity. Mr. Samuel Slater had perhaps a small spinning establishment previous at Pawtucket, but the one at Byfield was the first regular factory.—The machinery was made at Newburyport, by Messrs. Stranding, Armstrong and Guppy. The company of stockholders consisted of Wm. Bartlett, Esq., principal, Capt. William Johnson, Capt. Nicholas Johnson, Capt. Michael Hodge, Capt. Joseph Stanwood, Mark Fitz, a Mr. Currier of Amesbury, Chief Justice Parsons, (then a lawyer in Newburyport,) Jonathan Greenleaf, Esq., James Prince, Esq., Abraham Wheelwright, Philip Coombs, and others, whose names are not now known to the writer.

It will be seen, then, that the history of this establishment is the commencement of all factory history in the United States. Of the individuals who were concerned in erecting the building, only two remain, Mr. Samuel Kimball of Bradford, and Dea. Charles Foster of Andover. Mr. David Poor, deceased, was master carpenter. The English operatives who started the establishment were Arthur Scofield, John Scofield, James Scofield, John Lee, Mr. Aspenwall, Abraham Taylor, John Taylor, John Shaw, James Hall, principally from the towns of Oldham and Saddleworth, in England.

At first the establishment was entirely woollen, but owing to the circumstance that the workmen manufactured the wool promiscuously, without assorting, into fine or coarse fabric as best suited their fancy or convenience, it became unprofitable, and the stockholders gradually sold to one another till it all went into Mr. Bartlett's hands. He again sold it to Mr. John Lee, a native of Saddleworth, in Yorkshire, who carried on the manufacture of broadcloth and flannel till about the year 1806. Then the circumstance of Arkwright's invention gave a new impulse to the manufacturing business; and Mr. Lee went to England after cotton machinery. The exportation of this was forbidden by English law. The machinery was therefore packed in large casks, and labelled "hardware." Mr. Lee came in another vessel to prevent trouble by detection. This machinery was first set up in the large story over the grist mill, by two English machinists, viz.: John Hancock and James Mallelow, and over the door was placed a huge placard, with the inscription, "No admittance without leave."

This machinery consisted of drawing frames, spinning frames technically called mules' throttles. This machinery was afterwards transferred to the third story of the factory building, where it was successfully worked for a number of years. The product consisted chiefly of cotton yarn wicking, coarse gingham and sheeting. The cotton cloth was all woven at the factory, by females. The price of sheeting at this time, covered with cotton burrs, was fifty cents per yard, and gingham perhaps seventy cents. About this time, (perhaps the year 1809,) an event occurred which had like to have anticipated an invention in England. Dr. Josiah Richards, now of Claremont, N. H., then

a student of Dr. Bricket, of Newburyport, and afterwards of Dr. Cogswell, of Atkinson, N. H., who took a medical degree at Dartmouth college in 1813, projected a power loom to move by water. He went to Byfield and made an attempt to set it up, but owing to some defect in the machinery it failed to work well. Perhaps if he had had more perseverance he would have had the honour of inventing the power loom in America, and like the inventor himself realized a fortune. This brings down the history of cotton mills to the time of Dr. Arkwright in England, the true inventor of the power loom. This with the Cotton Gin, invented by Whitney of New Haven, changed the condition of the cotton business entirely.

The Boston Chronicle for 1816, speaks thus of the cotton business at this time, and about the year 1815-16 the Boston manufacturing company was formed; Mr. Francis C. Lowell having been previously in England in 1812, and Mr. Boot likewise having resided in England. Mr. Lowell, whose penetrating mind had ascertained that the cotton business could successfully be engaged in the United States made the attempt. It is, then, owing to the genius and application of Francis C. Lowell, aided by the talent and skill of his surviving relative and associate, Patrick T. Jackson, and by the mechanical science and ingenuity of that profound but unpretending mechanic, Mr. Paul Moody, that the country is indebted for the first establishment which satisfied our most intelligent citizens that the business of cotton milling could be engaged in with safety and success.

Byfield factory was carried on till about the year 1821, when Mr. Lee died, and at his decease it was sold. It was purchased by Gorham Parsons, Esq., and Major Paul Moody of Lowell. It was thoroughly repaired and raised several feet, a new basement of stone being added and of course altered. It was subsequently worked by Mr. Wm. Cleaveland a number of years.

LOWELL

IN 1849.

The whole number of mills is 48, under the care of 12 corporations, whose aggregate capital stock amounts to \$12,110,000. The 48 mills give employment to 7,644 females and 3,629 males—total, 11,273. The whole number of yards manufactured per week is 1,732,827, viz.: 1,704,996 of cotton, 21,291 of woollen, 6,500 of carpets, and 40 rugs. The amount of cotton consumed is 559,000 pounds per week, and of wool 46,000 pounds. The number of yards printed is 380,000, and of dyed 2,015,000.

The different companies use 25,100 tons of anthracite coal per annum, with 36,303 bushels of charcoal and 2,790 cords of wood. They also consume 70,510 gallons of sperm oil and 35,000 lbs. of lard; 1,090,000 lbs. of starch, and 765 barrels of flour. The buildings are warmed by steam.

Other manufactures are produced in the city to the value of \$1,500,000, employing a capital of \$400,000 and about 1,500 hands.

The average wages of females is \$2 per week, clear of board; males 80 cents per day. The medium produce of a loom is 45 yards per day with No. 14 yarn; with No. 30, 33 yards; and the average per spindle $1\frac{1}{2}$ yards per day.

The Middlesex company make use annually of 6,000,000 teasels; 1,716,000 lbs. of fine wool; 80,000 lbs. glue; \$60,000 worth of dye stuffs; and \$17,000 worth of soap. The same company also consume at their Wamesit carpet mill, on the Concord river, 93,000 lbs. coarse wool and 36,400 lbs. worsted yarn—producing 91,000 yards of ingrain carpeting.

There are two institutions for the savings of the operatives—the Lowell and the city. The former had on deposit, in September last, \$852,280, from 5,066 depositors. The "city" has been in operation only since March, 1848; yet had on deposit on the 1st of January last, \$27,717, from 258 persons—most of the depositors in both banks being the factory operatives.

An hospital, established by the several manufacturing corporations, is always open for the convenience and comfort of those employed by the different companies. It is under the superintendence of one of the best surgeons and physicians, and is said to be in a flourishing condition.

The population of Lowell, nineteen years ago, was a little over 3,500; now it is estimated at 35,000.

THE WHALE FISHERY.

We publish below our annual statement of the Whale Fishery, showing its progress in 1848, and its condition at the present time, compared with previous years. Our tables include imports and exports of oil and whalebone, prices, stocks, number, and description of vessels employed in the business, &c., &c., all of which have been compiled with great care, and we need give no better guarantee of their correctness, than to state that they have been kept and carefully revised by Dennis Wood, Esq., of this city, a gentleman well known as an able statistician, and who has given much attention to statistics of the whale fishery for several years past. The table of importations of oils and whalebone published below, is made from the gaugers' and weighers' returns of cargoes, in every instance, with one exception, that of the Solo, Salties, of Fall River, the exact amount of which cargo we have been unable to ascertain, and we therefore use the reported quantity on her arrival. It will be seen that the import of oils falls short of that of the preceding year by 13,000 barrels of sperm, and 33,000 barrels of whale; and of bone by upwards of a million pounds; while the prices of each article have also ruled lower. The number of vessels employed in the business has also been diminished to a considerable extent, partly by losses at sea, but principally by the withdrawal of the larger vessels from the Right Whaling Fleet. A considerable diminution has also been made in the Atlantic Ocean Fleet. The number of vessels now employed in the sperm whale fishery, is as large, if not larger, than for several years past.

Importations of Sperm and Whale oil and Whalebone into the United States in 1848.

Ports.	Ships and Barks.	Brigs and Schs.	Bbls. spm. Oil.	Bbls. Wh. Oil.	Lbs. Wh. Bone.
New Bedford, - -	75		48,827	115,436	621,900
Fairhaven, - -	10		4,096	13,102	61,200
Mattapoisett - -	5	1	2,625	2,639	2,800
Sippican - - -	1		450		
Wareham - - -	1		624	10	
Westport - - -	5	2	1,588	93	
Dist. of N. Bedford,	97	3	58,210	131,280	685,900
Falmouth - - -	2		2,670	2,226	8,200
Edgartown - - -	3	1	1,798	4,107	28,400
Nantucket - - -	16		22,362	7,479	27,500
Yarmouth - - -		1	30		
Provincetown - -	1	11	3,149	37	
Plymouth, - - -	1		550		
* Boston - - -	3	3	2,300	1,747	
Lynn - - -	1		171	1,643	
Salem - - -	1		588	1,413	8,100
Portsmouth - - -	1		566		
Somerset - - -	1		310		

* Merchant vessels.

Ports.	Ships and Barks.	Brigs and Schs.	Bbls. sperm Oil.	Bbls. Wh. Oil.	Lbs. Wh Bone.
Fall River -	1		150	2,000	20,000
Bristol -	1		700	100	
Warren -	7		3,751	10,058	54,300
Newport, -	1		1,006		
Stonington -	7		1,755	11,654	50,500
Mystic -	5		677	11,484	72,000
New London -	20	2	3,006	54,115	408,000
Sag Harbor -	14		2,271	27,700	146,300
Greenport, -	5		616	8,731	74,000
Cold Spring -	3		351	4,230	8,300
New Suffolk -	1		249	162	1,300
*New York -	1	2	300	500	410,000
Total, 1848, -	193	23	107,976	280,656	2,003,000

	Bbls. Sp'm.	Bbls. Wh.	Lbs. Bone.
Imports for 1848, . . .	107,976	280,656	2,003,000
" 1847, . . .	120,753	313,150	3,341,680
" 1846, . . .	95,217	207,493	2,376,939
" 1845, . . .	157,917	272,730	3,167,142
" 1844, . . .	139,594	262,047	2,532,445
" 1843, . . .	166,985	206,727	2,000,000
" 1842, . . .	165,637	161,041	1,600,000
" 1841, . . .	159,304	207,348	2,000,000
" 1840, . . .	157,791	207,908	2,000,000
Average for 9 years, . . .	141,242	235,456	2,324,578

Of the arrivals the past years, 52 were Pacific and Indian Ocean Sperm Whalers, and 122 were Right Whalers. Of the Sperm Whalers, 1 sailed in 1843; 28 in 1844; 20 in 1845; and 3 in 1846, the average length of their voyages being $41\frac{1}{2}$ months, and the average quantity of Sperm oil taken 1292 bbls. Of the Right Whalers, 20 sailed in 1844; 86 in '45; and 16 in '46; the average length of voyages being 32 months, and the average quantity of Whale oil taken 2187 bbls. Besides these, 30 Atlantic Sperm Whalers arrived, whose average length of voyages was $16\frac{1}{2}$ months, and bringing an average of 300 bbls. sperm oil.

The number of Sperm Whalers now at sea, exclusive of Atlantic Whalers, is 246. Of these, 1 sailed in 1843; 6 in '44; 48 in '45; 50 in '46; 70 in '47; and 71 in '48. Assuming that all of these which sailed in '43 and '44, will arrive the present year, and also an average number of those which sailed in '45 and '46, compared with the arrival in '48, of ships which sailed in '44 and '45, and bringing cargoes equal to the average of last year, and we have an importation of 77,520 bbls. Sperm oil. Add to which an equal average amount to be brought in by Right Whalers, by the Atlantic fleet, and to be sent home from outward bound, wrecked, and condemned whalers, we have a total of 109,154 bbls. Sperm oil as the importation of the present year.

The number of Right Whalers now at sea is 285. Of these 5 sailed in '44; 35 in '45; 69 in '46; 92 in '47, and 84 in '48. In like manner, assuming that all the Right Whalers which sailed in '44 and '45 will arrive the present year, with an average number of the ships which sailed in '46 and '47, compared with the arrivals last year of ships which sailed in '45 and '46, and bringing cargoes equal to the average of last year, and we have an importation of 209,592 bbls. of Whale oil. Add to which an average equal to that of last

* Merchant vessels.

year to be brought in Sperm whalers, and an equal quantity to be sent home from wrecked, condemned, &c., will give a total of 224,037 bbls. of Whale oil as the importation for 1842. We give, therefore, as our estimate of importations for the present year, in round numbers,—109,000 bbls. of Sperm oil; and 224,000 bbls. of Whale oil; remarking that the importation of Whale oil will be more likely to fall short of this estimate than to exceed it, as the average of the last year upon which it is founded, is greater than for several years, as will be seen by our table below.

In regard to whalebone, it is difficult to form an estimate of the amount of importation for the present year. The proportion usually taken is about 900 lbs. to 100 lbs. of whale oil, which would give an importation of about 2,000,000 lbs.; but as a majority of the ships which will arrive in 1849, have already sent home their first and second years' catchings, the importation will fall far short of the amount, and unless an inducement is furnished for the shipping home of bone from foreign ports, by an increased consumption, and, consequently higher prices, the amount of imports of this article will not probably exceed 1,400,000 lbs.

Statement of Sperm and Whale Oil, and Whalebone on hand January 1, 1849 :

	Sp. Oil.	Wh. Oil.	Bone.
New Bedford	4,227	3,136	507,600
Fairhaven	870		57,600
Westport	950		
Mattapoisett		100	
Nantucket	1,400		1000
Newport	200		
Bristol	700	100	
New York	600	500	225,000
New London		4,500	60,000
Mystic		500	9,000
Sag Harbor	360	1,500	60,000
Warren	840	10,600	75,000
Total Jan. 1, 1849,	10,147	20,936	994,600
" " 1848,*	5,696	26,501	543,500
" " 1847,	14,614	7,776	112,800
" " 1846,	40,701	5,221	211,000
" " 1845,	32,992	12,950	unk'n.

Statement of the prices of Sperm and Whale Oil, and Whalebone, on the first and fifteenth of each month of the year 1848, together with the average price per year for eight years past :

	Sp. Oil.			Wh. Oil.				Wh. Bone.	
	1st.	15th.		1st.	15th.			1st.	15th.
January,	105	105		36	36			26 $\frac{1}{2}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$
February,	105	105	106	34	36	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	35	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$
March,	108	108		35	36	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$
April,	105	100	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	32	35	31	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$
May,	100	100		32	34	29	94	25	25
June,	95	88 $\frac{1}{2}$	90		32	29	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	25	23
July,	90a92	93	95	30	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	32	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	23	23
August,	93	93	25	32	34	32 $\frac{1}{2}$		23 $\frac{1}{2}$	23
September,	95	96	97 $\frac{3}{4}$	34	35	34	25	24	26
October,	100	100	101	33	35	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	35	26	27
November,	103	105			35	35	36	26	26
December,	105	103	107	33	36	32	36	26	26
Average for '48,	100 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.			33c.				25 4-10c.	

* The quantity of Oil and Bone on hand at New York and Greenport, and Bone at Sag Harbor, not ascertained January 1, 1848.

Average for '47,	100½c.	36c.	30½c.
" '46,	87½	33¾	34
" '45,	88	[32½	33½
" '44,	90½	36½	40
" '43,	63	34¼	35¾
" '42,	73	32¾	23
" '41,	94	31¾	19¾
" '40,	100	30½	19

NORTH-WEST COAST FISHERY.

1839,	2 ships averaged	1400 bbls—	2,800 bbls.
1840,	3 " "	587 bbls—	1,760 bbls.
1841,	20 " "	1412 bbls—	28,200 bbls.
1842,	29 " "	1627 bbls—	47,900 bbls.
1843,	100 " "	1349 bbls—	146,800 bbls.
1844,	170 " "	1523 bbls—	259,570 bbls.
1845,	263 " "	953 bbls—	250,600 bbls.
1846,	292 " "	869 bbls—	253,800 bbls.
1847,	177 " "	1059 bbls—	187,443 bbls.

In 1848, 145 ships are estimated to have cruised upon the north-west coast. Six of this fleet only have yet been heard from, the average catching of which is 766 bbls.—*N. Bedford Transcript*.

AMERICAN RELIGIOUS AND BENEVOLENT SOCIETIES.

The month of May is the season selected for the anniversary meetings of the principal benevolent societies in the Union; the greater part of them being held in the cities of New York, Philadelphia, and Boston.

These celebrations first commenced in London about the year 1796, when the Missionary Society was formed; afterwards, in 1804, the British and Foreign Bible Society was instituted; then the Congregational Union, the Sunday School Union, the Church Missionary Society, the Prayer-book and Homily Society, &c., came into existence: so that almost the whole month of May is devoted to religious festivals in the city of London.

In the year 1816, the American Bible Society was formed in the city of New York, and its anniversary was appointed for the month of May. Then came the Education, Tract, Home Missionary, Colonization, Temperance, Anti-Slavery, Board of Foreign Missions, &c., by all of whom the anniversary celebrations were fixed for the same month.

The first anniversary of the American Bible Society was held in New York in Washington Hall, afterwards at the City Hotel, the Middle Dutch Church, the Chatham Street Chapel, and, lastly, at the Broadway Tabernacle.

We have given in a condensed form the proceedings and statements of the principal meetings held.

NEW YORK ANNIVERSARIES.

AMERICAN BIBLE SOCIETY.—The thirty-third anniversary of this venerable and truly benevolent institution was celebrated in New York, the Hon. Theodore Frelinghuysen presiding. The following were among the facts stated:

The *Receipts* of the Society have been, from all sources, \$251,870 16.

The *Issues* of Bibles, 205,307; of Testaments, 359,419—total for the year, 564,726.

During the 33 years of its existence, it has issued 2,510,610 Bibles, and 3,836,530 Testaments, making a total of 6,347,140 copies.

Seventy-eight auxiliary Societies have been formed, forty-four persons have been made life directors, and seven hundred and thirty-six life members.

The publications distributed during the year have been as follows:

A number of new Bibles have been printed in foreign languages. A Choc-taw New Testament has been printed at the Society's House, and the Gospel of Luke in the Grebo tongue—the latter for Western Africa.

Besides distributions in all the other States and Territories, nearly 12,000 copies have been sent, on request, to California and Oregon. They were granted to officers of the army, to various Missionaries, and to forty companies for mining and other purposes.

To France has been remitted \$10,000 in cash for circulating the Scriptures, according to the proposal at the last Anniversary—while there are farther applications for aid before for the same object from France, Turkey, Syria, Persia, India, China, and Africa, amounting in all to \$27,131.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR CONVERTING THE JEWS.—The 26th anniversary of this organization was celebrated, Rev. Dr. Dewitt presiding. The report stated in substance that the Board will extend its operations to Southern cities; that a large number of tracts have been issued. The state of Europe has greatly increased the number of Jews in this country.

The treasury, though embarrassed, has met its expenses. The receipts have been \$3,221, the expenditures \$3,208, and a balance is left in the treasury of \$12 36. The *Jewish Chronicle* continues to be published, reaching 2,000 copies per month.

AMERICAN TRACT SOCIETY.—The American Tract Society held its twenty-fourth Anniversary on Wednesday forenoon, at the Broadway Tabernacle, Hon. Chief Justice Williams presiding.

From the Report, it appeared that the Society had circulated, during the year, 734,664 volumes, 7,203,682 publications, including 234,409,300 pages; gratuitously the last year, 47,890,225 pages.

The receipts of the year, in donations, had been \$94,081; and for sales, \$164,218. The amount paid out for paper, printing, binding, engraving, translating, and copy-right, \$148,677; for presses, \$2,723; for colporteurs, (at \$150 a year,) \$58,106; for distribution in foreign and pagan lands, \$14,000.

The Society have employed, the last year, 480 colporteurs; (including 106 College and Seminary students of ten different denominations, during their vacations.)

The colporteurs have visited 341,071 families; conversed on personal religion, or prayed with 129,657 families; addressed 12,623 public meetings, sold 377,258 religious books, and given to the destitute 98,819; beside 13,274 Bibles and Testaments.

The foreign distributions (to the amount of \$14,000,) have been made chiefly through the Missionary agents of other Societies, of various denominations, in China, Burmah, India, Africa, Russia, Italy, the Sandwich Islands, and other regions needing the aid of Christian philanthropy.

AMERICAN HOME MISSIONARY SOCIETY.—This was the twenty-third anniversary—Henry Dwight, Esq., of Geneva, N. Y., President.

Three of the Vice Presidents of the Society—Hon. Charles Marsh, LL. D., Hon. David L. Morrell, LL. D., and Rev. Eliphalet Gillett, D. D.—have died within the year.

The Society has had in its service the last year 1,019 ministers of the gospel in 26 different States and Territories:—in the New England States, 302; the Middle States, 239; the Southern States, 15; the Western States and Territories, 463. Of these, 698 have been the pastors or stated supplies of single congregations; and 321 have occupied larger fields. Eight have preached to

congregations of colored people, 13 to Welsh, and 25 to German congregations; and two of them to Norwegians—one of them through an interpreter.

The number of congregations supplied, in whole or in part, are 1,510; and the aggregate of ministerial service performed, is equal to 808 years.

The pupils of Sabbath schools amount to nearly 83,500; and subscribers to the temperance pledge to 105,000.

There have been added to the churches 5,550, namely, 2,706 by profession, 2,844 by letter. Many of the Western churches, particularly, have within a few months, been visited with special effusions of the Spirit. Sixty-five missionaries, in their recent communications, speak of revivals of religion, and report 1,104 hopeful conversions.

Resources.—Balance, March 1, 1848, \$1,246 55. The receipts of twelve months following, \$145,925 91—making the resources of the year, \$147,172 46.

Progress of the Society.—The receipts of the year exceed those of the last by \$5,728 81. The number of missionaries is 13 greater; and the years of labor performed 35 more. Sixty-three congregations more have been blessed with the preaching of the gospel; 530 more added to the churches; and 6,500 more instructed in Sabbath schools. This year, the Society has also found the far West!—and has now two missionaries in Oregon, and two in California.

During the last ten years, the advance on the receipts has been \$63,361— or more than 76 per cent. The number of missionaries has increased from 665 to 1,019; and the years of labor performed, from 473 to 808. This advance has given 303 additional laborers, or six-sevenths of the increase on the whole field, to our Western States and Territories.

It further stated that during the twenty-three years of its existence, the Society “has been the means of planting the gospel on all the great lines of emigration and trade in the West, and also at hundreds of important interior points. Immigration is fast increasing the amount of this work, and multiplying its difficulties. The prospect now is that the immigrants from abroad, in 1849, will average 1000 every day throughout the year. These might at once settle five new States, with a population sufficient to entitle them to admission as States to the Union, and to elect five representatives and ten senators to Congress.”

AMERICAN BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS FOR FOREIGN MISSIONS.—The regular anniversary of the Board does not occur until September, but two anniversary meetings in behalf of it were held, one in New York on the 11th of May, and the other in Philadelphia on the 22d. At the first, the Hon. Theodore Frelinghuysen presided, and at the last Samuel H. Perkins, Esq.

From the statement of the results of the year, the following particulars are extracted:

“Missions of the American Board are in operation among the Indians in Lower Canada, in Western New York, among the Ojibwas, the Sioux, the Cherokees, Choctaws, and Pawnees, in the Oregon Territory; the Sandwich Islands; at Fou-Chou, Amoy, and Canton, in China; in the Island of Borneo, at Madras, Madura, Ceylon, Bombay, Ahmednuggur, Oroomiah, in Persia; at Erzroom, Trebizond, Constantinople, Broosa, Smyrna, and Salonica; at Athens, Beyroot, Mount Lebanon, in South Africa, and on the Gaboon river, just under the Equator, on the Western side of that dark continent. The Missions thus encircling the globe are shedding, it is believed, some light upon the benighted nations.

“In September last, the number of missionaries, assistant missionaries, and native helpers in the employ of the Board, was 557. Since that time, fifteen missionaries and assistant missionaries, with their wives—making thirty persons—have been sent into the field; some to India, some to Africa, and some to the Turkish empire.

“The Board has now under its care 75 churches, with 26,000 members.

There are 12 seminaries for training native preachers and teachers, 18 other boarding-schools, 302 free schools; whole number of pupils under instruction, about 12,000. The schools at the Sandwich Islands do not come into this account, being provided for by the Government of the Islands. It has eleven printing establishments, with facilities for printing in nearly thirty languages.

"The ordinary receipts, irrespective of the debt, for the nine months of the financial year ending April 30, amounted to \$178,387—making the total receipts for nine months \$217,000."

AMERICAN SEAMEN'S FRIEND SOCIETY.—The twenty-first anniversary.—The Sailors' Home, New York, established by the society, is continued under judicious management. The number of its sailor boarders for the year ending the 1st May is 3,635; and the whole number within seven years 25,554. To all these men it has furnished a refuge and protection; to the wrecked and destitute it has been a house of mercy.

The receipts of the society the past year have been \$18,582, and the expenditures \$18,497.

The foreign field of the society embraces Gottenberg, Stockholm, and the island of Gottland, in Sweden; Havre, Bordeaux, and Marseilles, in France; Canton in China; Havana and St. Thomas in the West Indies; Valparaiso in Chili; Lahaina and Honolulu in the Sandwich Islands; and other ports.

FOREIGN EVANGELICAL SOCIETY.—Meeting on the 8th May. Annual report was read by Dr. Baird. From the treasurer's report, it appears that the society's receipts during the year now closed were \$24,298; the expenditures \$24,485. Of the appropriations, \$6326 were for agencies and travelling charges—\$10,820 for the missions, &c., in France—\$1000 for do. in Canada—\$1360 in Mexico—\$500 in Russia—\$850 in Italy and Marseilles—\$640 in New Orleans—\$735 in Hayti, &c.

NEW YORK COLONIZATION SOCIETY.—The receipts for the year have been \$12,516, while the total receipts of the parent society for the year exceed \$58,000. Under the auspices of the society nine vessels, with 870 emigrants, have sailed for Liberia. Of these more than 100 were Christian communicants of various denominations; 7 were preachers of the gospel; more than 30 had purchased their freedom by extra industry, at a cost of over \$20,000; and 103 in one vessel had learned to write a decent hand, while upwards of 600 had been voluntarily emancipated by their owners.

AMERICAN ANTI-SLAVERY SOCIETY, Wm. Lloyd Garrison president, held its meeting on the 11th May, at the Tabernacle.

AMERICAN AND FOREIGN ANTI-SLAVERY SOCIETY.—*Lewis Tappan* president. Meeting on the 8th May.

ABOLITION OF CAPITAL PUNISHMENT.—Hon. Wm. T. M'Coun president. Meeting on the 8th May. Addressed by Wendell Phillips, of Boston, Horace Greeley, of New York, and Dr. Elder, of Philadelphia.

CLERICAL TEMPERANCE CONVENTION.—Rev. Dr. Dewitt president. The report advocated total abstinence, and the use of church influence in the temperance movement; objected to temperance meetings held "for entertainment and tragic effect."

ANNIVERSARY OF THE "HOME."—The meeting was held in the Tabernacle. Two hundred children from Randall's Island were present.

In the absence of Judge Edmonds Mr. F. A. Buckingham made the address, and read a report from which we gather,

Number received during the year	Sent to other charities,	-	-	13
1848,	Left to find places,	-	-	2
Places found for,	Returned to evil,	-	-	21
Returned to friends,	Remaining,	-	-	22

BAPTIST HOME MISSION SOCIETY.—This was the seventeenth anniversary. From the annual report it appeared that the amount received from all sources for the year ending March 31st, 1849, is \$29,105 90; and the total amount of disbursements for the same period is \$25,180 35; leaving a balance in the treasurer's hands of \$3,925 55.

During the year 134 agents and missionaries have laboured under the commission of the society.

The whole number of states and territories occupied is 18; in which they supplied 453 stations and out-stations, and bestowed an aggregate amount of time in their labours equal to that of one man for ninety-two and a half years.

They report the baptism of 774 persons, the organization of 45 churches, and the ordination of 27 ministers.

Since the formation of the society 1,314 ministers of the gospel have received its commission; they have jointly performed 1,150 years of labour; baptized 17,374 persons, organized 673 churches, and ordained 212 ministers.

METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH MISSIONS.—Anniversary on the 7th May. It appears from the report presented by the secretary that the receipts for the year ending on the 1st of May, at the offices in New York, and at Cincinnati, amounted to \$84,045; the disbursements within the same period, to \$102,940; the balance in the treasurer's hands, \$3,256; and the expenditures \$18,894 more than the twelve months' income.

The German and Oregon and Liberia Missions were reported as highly prosperous. The Oregon mission is rising in importance and in interest, yielding a rich return to the missionaries. There were 317 church members, three Sabbath schools, with 108 scholars, and 300 volumes in their library.

Among the home missions, the secretary first named those of our German brethren within the limits of the Union. The number of members in communion is 6,350, being an increase of a thousand within a year. There are 8 missionaries and 30 local preachers, 112 Sabbath schools, 3,220 scholars; also 3,012 volumes in the libraries.

Most of the Indian missions are now included within the limits of the Michigan conference, and extend to 10 mission circuits, containing 17 regular missionaries, 902 Indian members of the church, 9 week-day schools, and 960 scholars.

The following condensed statement of the receipts and expenditures of the benevolent societies held in New York is from the Journal of Commerce.

	<i>Receipts.</i>	<i>Ex.</i>
American Tract Society,	\$258,440	\$258,483
“ Bible Society,	251,870	
“ and Foreign Bible Society,	39,840	38,321
“ Home Mission,	145,925	143,771
“ Baptist Home Mission,	29,105	25,180
Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions,	110,081	110,207
Methodist Episcopal Mission Society,	84,045	102,940
American Seamen's Friend Society,	18,582	18,497
“ Anti-Slavery Society,	6,992	6,975
“ and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society, (not reported.)		
“ Colonization Society,	36,000	37,000
New York State Colonization Society,	12,358	12,358
American and Foreign Evangelical Society,	24,298	24,484
“ Protestant Society,	18,411	18,212
“ Temperance Union,	1,350	
Society for Ameliorating the condition of the Jews,	3,221	3,208

\$1,040,518

PHILADELPHIA ANNIVERSARIES.

Several anniversaries of interest and importance were held in PHILADELPHIA.

PENNSYLVANIA BIBLE SOCIETY.—The forty-first anniversary of this society was held on Tuesday evening, May 15th, at the Musical Fund Hall.

The Rev. Dr. Mayer, the venerable president of the society, took the chair.

The Rev. Mr. Howe read an abstract of the annual report, of which the following is the substance:

The society was instituted in the year 1808. During the last year there were issued 23,305 Bibles, and 30,571 Testaments—making a total of 53,876 copies of the scriptures. Since the year 1840 there have been issued the large number of 360,000 copies of Bibles and Testaments. The receipts last year amounted to \$22,547 62, showing an increase in funds of \$1,308 66 over the receipts of the previous year.

BAPTIST UNION.—The American Baptist Missionary Union held their annual meeting on the 16th of May. From an abstract of the thirty-fifth annual report, for 1848—9, we gather the following facts, viz.: The receipts of the year ending March 31, 1849, have been \$105,526 29, and the expenditures \$101,121 62. The number of missions is 17, of stations and out-stations 198, missionaries and assistants, 109; with 194 native preachers and assistants; whole number of labourers, 303.

AMERICAN SUNDAY-SCHOOL UNION.—The twenty-fifth annual meeting was held in Philadelphia, May 17.

Receipts, \$164,024 47, of which \$31,189 10 were donations and legacies, \$128,093 70 for sales, \$4,541 67 for rents of the society's building in Chestnut street, \$200 00 loans.

Balances from last year, \$4,099 75, and stock of books on hand, \$70,123 64.

Expenditures.—For stereotype plates, \$3,712 88; copy-rights and editing, \$3,397 24; engravings, \$1,839 60; paper, \$32,629 08; printing, \$11,006 79; binding, \$37,320 25; Bibles, Testaments, and other books, \$6,707 58; interest on loans, \$2,834 36; loans paid, \$1,000; salaries in Philadelphia depository, \$7,542 31; rent of depository and offices, \$3,000 00; taxes, \$579 25; missionaries, agents, and donations made to poor-schools, &c., \$39,570 42, which, with the overdraft of last year, \$8,017 99, makes \$47,588 42, (being \$12,471 16 more than the whole amount contributed to the donation fund.) Miscellaneous items, \$3,443 50; balance, cash on hand, \$101 84; stock of books on hand \$75,544 76.

Sunday-School Missionary Colporteurs.—Seventy-one of these labourers have been employed for various periods of time in twenty-two different states and territories.

These Sunday-school missionary colporteurs have established 700 new schools, and have visited and revived 2,098 other schools, altogether embracing 25,181 teachers, and 157,069 scholars. They have distributed, by sale and donation, nearly \$23,000 worth of religious books for children and youth. Their salaries and expenses were \$12,710 60.

The total value of publications distributed during the year is \$130,543 89, a larger amount than has ever been circulated by the society in any one year since its organization.

BISHOP WHITE PRAYER BOOK SOCIETY.—This was the sixteenth anniversary. Bishop Potter presided. The annual report states that the society has, during the sixteen years of its existence, distributed the Book of Common Prayer in every part of the state of Pennsylvania—to every state in the Union—to every part of the world—and to all sorts and conditions of men.

In 1823 there was but one set of plates of this book in Philadelphia, and

the yearly issues of copies was 5000. Now there are twenty sets of plates, from which are issued upwards of 42,000 copies annually—such has been the improvement.

The society distributed last year 3,105 copies of the Prayer Book. Of these 1,631 were distributed in Pennsylvania; 42 in California; 25 to the army; 263 to seamen sailing out of the port of Philadelphia; and 142 to prisons and humane institutions. The remainder were distributed to the other parts of the United States, out of Pennsylvania, and elsewhere.

The receipts of the past year were	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$822	76
Balance on hand last year,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	30	41
Expenses,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	843	72

Present balance of cash, - - - - - \$9 45

Of the above receipts, there was derived from Pennsylvania \$684 51. The rest from the states of New Jersey, Kentucky, Illinois, Wisconsin, Virginia, Georgia, and Mississippi.

A sermon was preached by the Rev. Dr. Stevens, rector of St. Andrew's, the occasion being the three hundredth anniversary of the introduction of the Prayer Book, in our vernacular, into the worship of the English churches.

At the close of the sermon a liberal collection was taken up to aid the society in a resolution to distribute, during the next year, 25,000 copies of the Prayer Book.

BOSTON ANNIVERSARIES.

THE MASSACHUSETTS BIBLE SOCIETY held its fortieth anniversary in Boston, on the 28th of May. Hon. Simon Greenleaf, LL. D., president.

During the past year the society has issued 3,625 Bibles, and 2,708 Testaments, making a total of 6,333 copies. Of this number a proportion have been in foreign languages, to meet specific wants. The distribution has been among the destitute in the city, various associations and institutions, to seamen, to emigrants, immigrants, and on board our national vessels. 2,505 copies have been distributed to seamen and United States vessels alone.

The whole number of Bibles distributed by the different societies of Christendom, within forty years, amount to 35,735,675, which were in 162 different languages.

AMERICAN EDUCATION SOCIETY celebrated its twenty-third anniversary on the 28th of May. The report states that the number of young under education by the society during the year was 396, of whom 103 are new applicants. In the classical course 186, in the theological course 210—increase above last year 31. Number aided at the west 91; increase at the west 23. 60 have entered the ministry this year, and 10 who were brought into the ministry by the society have embarked, during the year as foreign missionaries. The receipts exceed those of the previous year \$2,327. The receipts during the year were \$27,301.

AMERICAN PEACE SOCIETY.—The twenty-third anniversary took place the same evening. The report, read by the secretary, Rev. Geo. C. Beckwith, gave an encouraging view of the cause during the past year. The receipts of the society have been \$3,697 58, and its expenditures \$3,680 62, leaving in the treasury a balance of \$16 96. Five agents have been in its service during the year, some all the time, and others only a part. The publications issued, and mostly put in circulation, had, during the year, amounted in all to nearly five million duodecimo pages. Charles Sumner, Esq., delivered the annual address.

THE BOSTON PORT SOCIETY held its twentieth anniversary. The cost of the Mariners' house was about \$38,000. It was proposed to establish floating naval schools.

AMERICAN UNITARIAN ASSOCIATION was held in Boston.

The expenditures for the past year have been \$65,000. Twenty-four missionaries have been employed. Twenty-six packages of Unitarian books have been sent to California. Eighty-four thousand tracts were issued.

ANNIVERSARIES IN LONDON.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN BIBLE SOCIETY held its annual meeting at Exeter Hall, the marquis of Cholmondeley in the chair.

The entire receipts of the year were £95,933. The issues of Bibles and Testaments amounted to 1,107,518. The total issue of the society has been 21,973,355.

CHURCH MISSIONARY SOCIETY.—The earl of Chichester presided at the meeting.

The total fund of the society amounted to £101,003. £20,000 was to be appropriated to the support of disabled missionaries, and the education of their children.

NAVAL AND MILITARY BIBLE SOCIETY.—This was the sixty-ninth anniversary. The marquis of Cholmondeley occupied the chair. The income for the year was £2,439. The distribution of Bibles and Testaments amounted to 23,175.

LONDON MISSIONARY SOCIETY.—The duke of Argyle presided, and the meeting was very large.

The income of the society for the past year was £64,508, and the expenditures £67,238.

BRITISH TRACT SOCIETY.—The fiftieth anniversary was celebrated at Exeter Hall.

The issues from the depository during the past year have been 18,223,955,—making the total circulation at home and abroad amount to about 500,000,000, in one hundred different languages. The total receipts of the society were £59,495.

LONDON SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF CHRISTIANITY AMONG THE JEWS.—At this meeting Lord Ashley was in the chair. The total receipts for the year had been £27,343. The circulation amounted to 3,983 Hebrew Bibles, 2,748 Testaments, 6,782 Pentateuchs. In the Episcopal Jews' Chapel 25 persons had been baptized, making a total of 522 Israelites that had been received into the Christian church since the establishment of the society.

PROGRESS OF MORMONISM.

The St. Louis Reveille of the 21st April states some interesting facts, derived from Mr. Robert Martin, the leader of a party of Mormons which recently arrived at that place.

The tide of public opinion in England, which some years back had been strongly set against the Mormons, is now, Mr. Martin says, turning gradually in their favour. Their doctrines are being industriously and successfully disseminated, and in some places where four years ago they could scarcely gain a foot-hold, they have established themselves on a permanent and firm footing. In the city of London they have five churches, four of which were erected since the year 1847. In Manchester, as also in Liverpool, they have meeting-houses. Their creed is daily gaining proselytes, not from the lower

orders only, but among the wealthiest and most influential classes. They have also gained many converts in Wales, where they form a very large and respectable portion of the population. The facts that a Mormon paper, published in a little town of Wales, receives liberal support from the members of the creed, and that the Mormon church of Wales is represented in the Manchester Mormon General Assembly, go to show that they must at least have acquired some importance in that country. One of their apostles is the editor of the *Millenium Star*, a paper published semi-monthly in Liverpool. He interests himself in facilitating emigration to this country, employing a portion of his time in chartering vessels, purchasing provisions, &c., &c., for the emigrants. They have long since sent missionaries to France and Ireland, and are now contemplating to send one to Russia.

Before the departure of Mr. Martin's party from Liverpool, three large companies of emigrants had already been organized, one of which, consisting of one hundred members, had left some days before, on the ship *Ashland*; another, consisting of three hundred Welsh, were to sail about the first of March, and still another, composed of three hundred Welsh and English, expected to take their departure about the fifteenth of the same month. Other companies have no doubt been formed since, which may arrive here in a short time.

The Mormons have left their homes in England with the view of congregating at their city in the great salt valley of California.

AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION.

The annual meeting for the year 1849 commenced in Boston on the first Tuesday of May. Between four and five hundred physicians were present as delegates from twenty-two different states.

The following officers were chosen for the ensuing year:—President—Dr. John C. Warren, of Massachusetts. Vice Presidents—Dr. J. P. Harrison, of Ohio; Dr. H. H. Maguire, of Va.; Dr. A. Flint of New York; Dr. R. S. Stewart, of Md. Secretaries—Dr. A. Stillé, of Pa.; Dr. H. I. Bowditch, of Mass. Treasurer—Dr. Isaac Hays, of Pa.

This body having become an object of interest to the public, some account of its origin and design is given.

In the year 1840 a convention of medical delegates was held in the city of New York, for the purpose of taking into consideration the state of the profession in this country, particularly in regard to education. Medical schools had sprung up in various parts of the United States, on various plans of instruction, and with different requisitions for practice. All these it was necessary to harmonize and to place on a strong and uniform foundation for the benefit of the country. This convention determined to form an association of a permanent character, which was effected the following year at a meeting in Philadelphia.

Two years have elapsed since the organization, and its operation has been found highly gratifying to the profession, and worthy of commendation from the public. One prominent and important result has presented itself as more beneficial than any other, the fact of its bringing together educated and experienced men from every part of the country, and thus giving an opportunity of interchanging opinions of a professional and scientific character, and uniting in harmonious sentiment the different and distant sections of this great people.

The reports of the committees were ably and carefully prepared. The committee on surgery, in relation to chloroform, say, that this most powerful of all anæsthetic agents has been administered to millions of subjects, and has only proved injurious or fatal in fifteen cases—that when administered by a judicious practitioner there is no reason for apprehension. It should not

be used where there is a disease of the heart, and inhalation should stop immediately when insensibility is produced.

The report of the committee on adulterated medicines stated the results of the investigation ordered by Congress on the memorial of the committee.

The following are some of the facts:—"More than one half of many of the most important chemical and medicinal preparations entered at the New York custom house, in the year 1847, were worthless, and often dangerous. Within the short period of about five months after the law petitioned for by this association went into operation, the same examiner, Dr. Bailey, condemned and rejected as adulterated or worthless no less than 13,000 pounds of rhubarb, 2,500 pounds of opium, 7,200 pounds of jalap, 1,414 pounds of gum gamboge, 1,400 pounds of senna, 30,000 pounds of spurious yellow bark, 3,000 pounds of iodine, 1,700 pounds of gum myrrh, all of which but for this law would have found their way throughout our extensive country, and into the stomachs of the sick and suffering.

"The committee have now the pleasure of congratulating the association on the success of its labours. The evils complained of are remedied. The country is no longer flooded with adulterated and worthless drugs, prepared in foreign laboratories, and the sick are effectually secured against their deceptive and sometimes deleterious effects."

The committee on medical literature presented the subject in a clear and impartial manner. Many important contributions have been made to this department of medicine. Among them is one from a woman, Elizabeth Blackwell, M. D., of Geneva college, N. Y., on ship fever.

The largest medical library in the country is that of the Philadelphia Hospital. It was commenced in 1762, by the donation of a book from a Mr. Fothergill, of London, who shortly afterwards made another donation of books, six cases of anatomical specimens, and a skeleton and fœtus. The library now contains upwards of *ten thousand volumes*. There are other libraries in universities and colleges, containing, some seven thousand, three thousand, and two thousand volumes. The catalogue of medical works in the library of Harvard college numbers one thousand seven hundred and sixty-nine volumes; that of the medical department of Harvard university, in Boston, twelve hundred volumes. The libraries of some of the most eminent Boston physicians contain upwards of five thousand volumes.

The reports of the committees on medical science, practical medicine, medical education, &c., were all interesting, and evinced in the preparation much labour and ability.

PENITENTIARIES IN 1848.

(From the Annual Report of the Prison Discipline Society.)

1st. Increase or diminution in the number of prisoners.

In Maine the number diminished from 70 to 67,	3-00
In Vermont the number diminished from 55 to 52,	3-00
In Massachusetts the number diminished from 288 to 281,	7-00
In Rhode Island the number increased from 18 to 20,	0-2
At Auburn, N. Y., the number diminished from 492 to 473,	19-00
At Sing Sing, N. Y., the number diminished among the men from 682 to 611,	71-00
Do. do. do. do. among the women, 89 to 83,	6-00
At the Clinton county, N. Y., State prison, the number increased from 146 to 181,	0-35
In the New Jersey State prison, at Trenton, the number increased from 153 to 176,	0-23

In the new penitentiary in Philadelphia, the number diminished from 296 to 294,	2-00
In the Virginia penitentiary, at Richmond, the number diminished from 211 to 200,	11-00
In eleven penitentiaries, a diminution in eight of	122-00
In three penitentiaries, an increase of	00-60

2d. *Productive industry of Penitentiaries in 1848.*

In the Maine state prison, each prisoner earned	\$83 00
“ Vermont state prison, each prisoner earned	70 72
“ Massachusetts state prison, each prisoner earned	107 38
“ Rhode Island prison, each prisoner earned	47 26
“ prison at Auburn, N. Y., each prisoner earned	90 47
“ state prison at Sing Sing, N. Y., each prisoner earned	71 29
“ New Jersey state prison, at Trenton, each prisoner earned	92 19
“ new penitentiary, in Philadelphia, each prisoner earned	45 91
“ seven first named, the average earnings of each prisoner were	80 01

3d. *Total amount of earnings, compared with the average number of prisoners.*

In the Maine state prison 68½ prisoners earned	\$5,644 36
“ Vermont state prison 53½ prisoners earned	3,748 41
“ Massachusetts state prison 284½ prisoners earned	30,596 91
“ Rhode Island state prison 19 prisoners earned	945 27
“ state prison at Auburn, N. Y., 487 prisoners earned	44,061 52
“ state prison at Sing Sing, N. Y., 646 prisoners earned	52,185 90
“ New Jersey state prison 164½ prisoners earned	15,119 43
“ new penitentiary in Philadelphia 293 prisoners earned	13,454 27

In eight penitentiaries 2016 prisoners in 1848 earned . . . \$165,755 67

4th. *Penitentiaries where expenses exceeded earnings, and where earnings exceeded expenses in 1848.*

In the Maine state prison each prisoner's earnings exceeded his expenses	\$12 18
“ Vermont state prison each prisoner's earnings exceeded his expenses	5 59
“ Massachusetts state prison each prisoner's earnings exceeded his expenses	46 71
“ state prison at Auburn, N. Y., each prisoner's earnings exceeded his expenses	38 83
“ state prison at Sing Sing each prisoner's earnings exceeded his expenses	8 90
“ New Jersey state prison each prisoner's earnings exceeded his expenses	23 70
“ new penitentiary in Philadelphia each prisoner's expenses exceeded his earnings	17 88

The expenses do not include in this summary the salary of the officers in any case.

Rhode Island is omitted, because it is difficult to ascertain with accuracy this result from the report.

5th. *Mortality of Penitentiaries in 1848.*

In the Maine state prison, average number of prisoners	68½,	deaths	00
“ Vermont state prison, average number of prisoners	53½,	“	00
“ Massachusetts state prison, average number of prisoners	284½,	“	3
“ Rhode Island state prison, average number of prisoners	19,	“	1
“ Auburn, N. Y., state prison, average number of prisoners	487,	“	2

In the Sing Sing, N. Y., state prison, average number of prisoners	646,	deaths 30
“ Sing Sing, N. Y., state prison for females, average number of prisoners	86,	“ 4
“ Clinton county, N. Y., state prison, average number of prisoners	143½,	“ 4
“ New Jersey state prison, average number of prisoners	164½,	“ 2
“ new penitentiary in Philadelphia, average number of prisoners	293,	“ 16

In each of the prisons above mentioned, in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, one suicide is included among the deaths.

In the prison at Sing Sing was the only epidemic in the prisons above named last year, in which 300 were sick with malignant dysentery, to which half the deaths were imputed.

6th. Insanity in Penitentiaries in 1848.

In the Maine state prison, out of 68½ prisoners, 2 were removed to the insane hospital, of whom one became insane during the year.

In the Vermont state prison, out of 53½ prisoners, none were removed to the insane hospital; one was insane, but it does not appear when he became insane.

In the Massachusetts state prison, out of 284½ prisoners, 2 were removed to the insane hospital; none became insane.

In the Rhode Island state prison, out of 19 prisoners, none were removed; none became insane.

In the Auburn, N. Y., state prison, out of 487 prisoners, 3 were removed to the insane hospital, and five others were wholly or partially insane.

In the Sing Sing, N. Y., state prison, out of 646 prisoners, 7 were removed to the insane hospital, and one other was occasionally insane.

In the Clinton county, N. Y., state prison, out of 163½ prisoners, 1 was removed to the insane hospital, and no other case of insanity.

In the New Jersey state prison, out of 164½ prisoners, none were removed to the insane hospital; none became insane; and one old case of insanity.

In the new penitentiary in Philadelphia, out of 293 prisoners, 10 became insane during the year; 4 old cases died insane, and one insane before committed suicide.

MECHANICAL INDUSTRY AND INVENTIVE GENIUS OF AMERICA.

We make the following interesting extracts from a lecture lately delivered by Professor WALTER R. JOHNSON, of Washington, before the Maryland Institute.

“The patent laws of the United States have now been in existence fifty-nine years. From the commencement down to the 1st of January, 1849, the number of patents issued has been 16,208; and this number would doubtless have been much greater, had the laws continued as they were before 1836, when the system of examinations prior to the grant of letters patent was established. Under that system a large proportion of all the applications is now rejected; some for want of essential novelty, and others for want of suitable care and ability in preparing the required specifications and other documents. Notwithstanding this, it may be mentioned as a fact indicative of the high degree to which inventive genius is excited among us, that the number of patents granted in 1848 (exclusive of a few granted to foreigners) was 649.

“To what subjects all this ingenuity has been devoted, and how it has been

divided among the different branches of art, is an inquiry at once interesting and practical, and I will endeavour concisely to state the result.

"1. Of the whole 16,208 patents issued, 1,966, or 12.03 per cent. have had for their object *agriculture*, its instruments and operations. This, as might have been anticipated from the vast interest and importance of that department of industry, is the largest class.

"2. To the *manufacture of fibrous and textile substances*, including machines for preparing wool, cotton, silk, fur, and paper, 1,579 patented inventions, or 9.74 per cent. of the whole number, have been devoted.

"3. For *calorific purposes*, comprising lamps, fire-places, stoves, grates, furnaces for heating buildings, cooking apparatus, and preparation of fuel, 1,479, or 9.12 per cent. of the whole number of patents have been granted.

"4. To *metallurgy*, and the manufacture of metals and instruments therefor, 1,384 patents, or 8.54 per cent. of the whole number.

"5. For *chemical purposes*, manufactures, and compounds, including medicines, dyeing, colour-making, distilling, soap and candle making, mortars, cements, &c., 1,051 patents, or 6.47 per cent.

"6. For *hydraulics* and pneumatics, including water-wheels, wind-mills, and other implements operated on by air or water, or employed in the raising and delivery of fluids, 976 patents, or exactly 6.02 per cent. of the entire number have been granted.

"7. For *lumber working*, including machines and tools for preparing and manufacturing, such as sawing, planing, mortising, shingle and stave, carpenters' and coopers' implements, 950 patents, or 5.86 per cent.

"8. For *household furniture*, machines and implements for domestic purposes, including washing machines, bread and cracker machines, feather dressing, &c., 724 patents, or 4.46 per cent. of the whole.

"9. For *grinding mills* and mill gearing, containing grain mills, mechanical movements, and horse-powers, &c., 686 patents, or 4.23 per cent.

"10. For *navigation* and maritime implements, comprising all vessels for conveyance on water, their construction, rigging, and propulsion, diving-dresses, and life-preservers, 615 patents—3.79 per cent.

"11. *Steam and gas engines*, including boilers and furnaces therefor, 654 patents—4.03 per cent.

"12. *Civil engineering and architecture*, comprising works on rail and common roads, bridges, canals, wharves, docks, rivers, weirs, dams, and other internal improvements, building roofs, &c., have had 596 patents—3.67 per cent. of the whole.

"13. *Leather manufactures*, including tanning and dressing, making of boots, shoes, saddlery, and harness, 558 patents—3.44 per cent.

"14. *Land conveyance*, comprising carriages, cars, and other vehicles used on roads, 558 patents—3.44 per cent.

"15. *Fine arts*, polite and ornamental, including music, painting, sculpture, engraving, books, printing, binding, and jewelry, 475 patents—2.93 per cent.

"16. *Mechanical powers*, viz., lever, screw, &c., as applied to pressing, weighing, raising, and moving weights, 402 patents—2.47 per cent.

"17. *Stone and clay manufactures*, including machines for pottery, glass making, brick making, dressing and preparing stone, cements, and other building materials, 338 patents—2.08 per cent.

"18. *Wearing apparel*, articles for the toilet, &c., including instruments for manufacturing them, 287 patents—1.77 per cent.

"19. *Mathematical instruments*, philosophical, optical, clocks, chronometers, &c., 258 patents—1.59 per cent.

"20. *Surgical and medical instruments*, including trusses, dental instruments, bathing apparatus, 253 patents—1.56 per cent.

"21. *Warlike implements*, fire-arms and parts thereof, including the manufacture of shot and gunpowder, 230 patents, or only 1.41 per cent.

"22. And finally, a *miscellaneous* and very heterogeneous class, forbidding systematic arrangement, 182 patents, or 1.12 per cent.

"Of all this varied multitude of objects towards which the inventive genius of America has for the last fifty-nine years been directed, it will be remarked that the first four classes, viz., *agriculture*, which yields food to man and beast; the *manufacture of textile fibres*, which affords clothing and various furniture; *metallurgy*, which supplies all the tools and implements of industry; and *calorific processes*, which give heat and light for the comfort and manifold uses of daily life, comprise two-fifths of the entire number of inventions which have been patented in the United States.

"Another remark is, that though in this aggregate of all the patents issued, *agriculture and textile fibres* occupy the two highest places, yet when we compare shorter and more recent periods, as the last two years, for example, we find that *metallurgy and calorific processes* both had higher proportions of the entire number of patents issued during that period than either *agriculture* or the *textile fibre* class. The multitude of important discoveries of minerals and metals in our own country within that time has turned a vast amount of inventive power in that direction. One should not, therefore, be surprised to learn that there is at this moment a perfect rush of gold-washing machines in the patent office, all ultimately bound (like the rest of the world) to California. The great and constantly increasing consumption of coal may, in like manner, account for the large increase in late years of the *calorific* class of inventions. Another remark worthy of attention is the small number of inventions which have had in view the implements and materials of warfare—a very significant fact which may serve to indicate that ours is, after all, essentially a peace-loving nation.

"In respect to the *distribution* of the inventions now annually patented in the United States, a few facts may not be without interest. During the years 1847 and 1848, out of 1,165 patents granted, the state of New York received 381, or almost exactly 33 per cent. of the entire number; of these, the *city of New York* alone obtained 174, or 45 per cent. of those granted to the state, and 15 per cent. of all which were obtained in the whole Union. New York city is, therefore, doubtless the focus where inventive genius is concentrated and acting with the greatest intensity.

"In the same two years Pennsylvania received 177 patents, or 15 per cent. of the whole number granted; and of those of the whole state, *Philadelphia* received 55, or 31 per cent.

"In the same time Massachusetts obtained 141 patents, or 12 per cent. of those of the Union; and *Boston* had 54 of that number, or 31 per cent. of those given to the state.

"Ohio obtained 82, Connecticut 72, and Maryland 33; of which last number Baltimore alone had 24, or 72 per cent., being a larger proportion of those of her state than that of any other city in the Union.

"From this it appears that the three states of New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts have within the last two years contributed exactly 60 per cent., of all the patentable inventions of the country. And these three are the states in which mechanics' institutes and mechanics' fairs have been longest established; that of the Franklin Institute of Philadelphia having led the way in 1826.

"In 1847 the total number of patents granted to the fifteen southern states was only 65; of which number Maryland received 13, or exactly one-fifth of the whole.

"It is probably unnecessary to pursue the comparison. What has already been adduced is sufficient to show that where the mechanic arts and the

practical sciences are in the greatest activity, there *inventive genius* is also in the highest degree stimulated and most successfully applied.

“And let it not be imagined that all this activity of the inventive powers begins and ends with the production of some fanciful toy, or some vain and trivial change in old familiar things. If time allowed, we could recount multitudes of facts to show how much every department of art and industry has been indebted for its advancement to the inventions of our ingenious American mechanics.

“American ingenuity alone has given us those improved implements of husbandry, without which more than three-fourths of the present immense productions of our corn-growing states could never have had an existence. “Where were all the cotton fabrics of the world without the invention of Whitney? Where, without Fitch, and Rumsey, and Fulton, were the defiance alike of calms and storms, on the broad bosom of the ocean?”

AGRICULTURE.

I. SETTLEMENT AND CLEARING OF NEW LANDS.

We commence a series of articles under our statistical head, on the subject of American agriculture, to be continued from time to time as our limits will permit.

In pursuance of the plan of our work, we shall prosecute the subject for the sole purpose of exhibiting the advancement of society, and of enlightening the public mind by the presentation of facts.

We have already given many important statistics for the especial use of the farmer, and we believe that the whole work embodies just such information as every intelligent farmer should desire to possess; for nothing can contribute so much to the elevation of the character of the agriculturist, to the dignity and usefulness of his profession, as a familiar acquaintance with those facts which make up the sum of human knowledge.

Our object in the present article is to exhibit some of the first operations of the American farmer, in settling and subduing wild land; with a few preliminary remarks on the early state of agriculture in this country.

As to the former depressed state of husbandry, and the progress of its improvements, we find some difference of opinion among the American writers of agriculture. “It is, indeed, a lamentable truth,” says Mr. Watson, “that, for the most part, our knowledge and practice of agriculture at the close of the revolutionary war, were in a state of demi-barbarism, with some solitary exceptions. The labours, I may say, of only three agricultural societies in America, at that epoch, conducted by ardent patriots, by philosophers and gentlemen, in New York, Philadelphia and Boston, kept alive a spirit of inquiry, often resulting in useful and practical operations; and yet these measures did not reach the doors of practical farmers to any extent. Nor was their plan of organization calculated to infuse a spirit of emulation, which county or state should excel in the honourable strife of competition in discoveries and improvements, in drawing from the soil the greatest quantum of net profits within a given space; at the same time, keeping the land in an improving condition, in reference to its native vigour. These results, and the renovation of lands exhausted by the means of a barbarous course of husbandry, for nearly two centuries, are the cardinal points now in progression in old settled countries, stimulated by the influence of agricultural societies. Nor did their measures produce any essential or extensive effects in the improvement of the breeds of domestic animals; much less in exciting the rival efforts of the female portion of the community, in calling forth the active

energies of our native resources in relation to household manufactures. The scene is now happily reversed in all directions. Perhaps there is no instance, in any age or country, where a whole nation has emerged, in so short a period, from such general depression, into such a rapid change in the several branches already alluded to; in some instances it has been like the work of magic.*

The early neglect of agriculture is traced to various causes. The first settlements were made along the shores of the ocean and bays, or on the banks of rivers. The population was scattered along the sea coast, where enterprise was directed, as the readier means of employment to the fisheries and navigation. The cultivation of the soil was limited to the production of the necessaries of life. Agriculture did not generally attract industry, though it was found far more certain than other pursuits. The more immediately lucrative pursuits of trade and navigation, were preferred to the more enduring labour of cultivating the soil, and to the more distant time required to await its profits, or casualties.

When we, however, consider the formidable and disheartening difficulties that the wilds of America have presented, and, in the remote districts of America, still present to the new settler, we are not surprised at the slow, but at the comparatively rapid progress of agriculture.

It is curious and interesting to observe the progress which a new settler makes in clearing and cultivating a wood farm, from the time he commences in the forests until he has reclaimed a sufficient quantity of land to enable him to follow the mode of cultivation which is practised in the old agricultural countries. As this course is, with little variation, followed by all new settlers in every part of America, the following description, which we draw from observation, may be useful to those about to emigrate.

The first object is to select the farm among such vacant lands as are most desirable, and, after obtaining the necessary tenure, the settler commences (the nearest inhabitants usually assisting him) by cutting down the trees on the site of his intended habitation, and those growing upon the ground immediately adjoining. This operation is performed with the axe, by cutting a notch on each side of the tree, about two feet above the ground, and rather more than half through on the side on which it is intended the tree should fall.

The trees are all felled in the same direction; and, after lopping off the principal branches, cut into ten or fifteen feet lengths. On the spot on which his dwelling is to be erected, these junks are all rolled away, and the smaller parts carried off or burnt. The best time of the year for felling timber depends in a great measure on the season's being wet or dry. Many persons prefer the month of June, when the leaves are of full size. Then by spreading the leaves and brush over the ground, if there should be a very dry time next May, fire may be turned through and a crop of Indian corn and pumpkins may be raised. If what is called a *good burn* cannot be had in May, then some dry time in July or August may be chosen; and after the land is cleared and repeated harrowings, wheat or rye and timothy are sown.

The habitations which the new settlers first erect, are all nearly in the same style, and constructed in the rudest manner. Round logs from fifteen to twenty feet long, without the least dressing, are laid horizontally over each other, and notched at the corners to allow them to come along the walls within about an inch of each other. One is first laid on each side to begin the walls, then one at each end, and the building is thus raised by a succession of logs cross-

* General Washington was a skilful agriculturist for his time—Buel, Livingston and Powell, have done much to improve the systems of cultivation in America—Very important auxiliaries in the great work have been the conductors of the Genesee Farmer, Agriculturist, Instructor, &c.; the authors of the Patent Office Reports, and the proceedings and exhibitions of agricultural societies by which an unusual stimulus has been communicated to the efforts of the farmer.

ing and binding each other at the corners, until seven or eight feet high. The seams are closed with moss or clay; three or four rafters are then raised to support the roof, which is covered with boards, or with the rinds of birch or spruce trees, bound down with poles covered with withes. A wooden framework, placed upon a foundation of stone, roughly dressed, is raised a few feet from the ground, and leading through the roof with its sides closed up with clay and straw kneaded together, forms the chimney. A space large enough for a door, and another for a window, is then cut through the walls; and, in the centre of the cabin, a square pit or cellar is dug, for the purpose of preserving potatoes or other vegetables through the winter. Over this pit, a floor of boards or logs hewn flat upon the upper side, is laid, and another over head to form a sort of garret. When a door is hung, a window-sash with six, nine, or sometimes twelve panes of glass is fixed, a cupboard and two or three bed-stocks put up; the habitation is then considered ready to receive the new settler and his family. Although such a dwelling has nothing attractive in its appearance unless it be rudeness, yet it is by no means so uncomfortable a lodging as the habitations of the poor peasantry in Ireland, and in some parts of England and Scotland. New settlers who have the means build much better houses at first, with two or more rooms; but the majority of emigrants live for a few years in habitations similar to the one here described; after which, a good comfortable house is built by all steady, industrious settlers.

When the occupant or first settler of new land or forest, finds himself in comfortable circumstances, he builds what is styled a frame house, composed of timber, held together by tenons, mortices, and pins, and boarded, shingled, and clap-boarded on the outside, and often painted white, sometimes red. Houses of this kind generally contain a dining-room and kitchen, and three or four bed-rooms upon the same floor. They are rarely destitute of good cellars, which the nature of the climate renders almost indispensable. The farm-buildings consist of a barn, proportioned to the size of the farm, with stalls for horses and cattle on each side, and a threshing floor in the middle; and the more wealthy farmers add a cellar under the barn, a part of which receives the manure from the stalls, and another part serves as a store-room for roots, &c., for feeding stock. What is called a *corn-barn* or *crib* is likewise very common, which is built exclusively for storing the ears of Indian corn. The sleepers of this building are generally set up four or five feet from the ground, on smooth stone posts or pillars, which rats, mice, or other vermin cannot ascend.

Previous to commencing the cultivation of woodlands, the trees which are cut down, lopped, and cut into lengths, are, when the proper season arrives, (generally in May,) set on fire, which consumes all the branches and small wood. The logs are then either piled in heaps and burnt, or rolled away for making a fence. Those who can afford it, use oxen to haul off the large unconsumed timber. The surface of the ground and the remaining wood is all black and charred, and working on it, and preparing the soil for seed, is as disagreeable, at first, as any labour in which a man can be engaged. Men, women, and children must, however, employ themselves in gathering and burning the rubbish, and in such parts of the labour as their respective strengths adapt them for. If the ground be intended for grain, it is generally sown without tillage over the surface, and the seed covered in with a hoe. By some, a triangular harrow, which shortens the labour, is used instead of the hoe, and drawn by oxen. Others break up the earth with a one-handled plough, the old Dutch plough, which has the share and coulter locked into each other, drawn also by oxen, while a man attends with an axe to cut the roots in its way. Little regard is paid, in this case, to make straight furrows, the object being no more than to break up the ground.

With such rude preparations, however, three successive good crops are

raised on fertile uplands without any manure; intervale lands, being fertilized by irrigation, never require any. Potatoes are planted (in new lands,) in round hollows, scooped with the hoe four or five inches deep, and about forty in circumference, in which three or five sets are planted and covered over with a hoe. Indian corn, pumpkins, cucumbers, peas, and beans, are cultivated, in new lands, in the same manner as potatoes. Grain of all kinds, turnips, hemp, flax, and grass seeds, are sown over the surface, and covered by means of a hoe, rake, or triangular harrow. Wheat is usually sown on the same ground the year after potatoes, without any tillage, but merely covering the seed with a rake or harrow; and followed the third year by oats. Some farmers, and it is certainly a prudent plan, sow timothy and clover seed the second year, along with the wheat, and afterwards let the ground remain under grass until the stumps of the trees can be easily got out, which requires three or four years. With a little additional labour, these obstructions to ploughing may be removed by the ordinary means the second year; but there has lately been constructed a machine, on the lever principle, that readily removes them at once. The roots of beech, birch, and spruce, decay the soonest; those of pine and hemlock seem to require an age. After the stumps are removed from the soil, and those small natural hillocks called cradle hills, caused by the ground swelling near the roots of trees in consequence of their growth, are levelled, the plough may always be used, and the most approved system of husbandry followed.

Whenever a settlement is formed amidst the woodlands, and some progress is made in the clearing and cultivation of the soil, it begins gradually to develop the usual features of an American village. First, a saw-mill, a grist mill, and a blacksmith's shop appear, then a school house, and a place of worship; and in a little time the village doctor, and pedlar, with his wares, introduce themselves.

A saw-mill, of itself, soon forms a settlement, for, attached to it, must be a blacksmith's forge, dwellings for carpenters, millwrights, and labourers, stables, and ox-houses. A shop and tavern are sure to spring up close to it—tailors and shoemakers are also required.*

LIBERIA AND AUSTRALIA.

We give some interesting statistics of these growing colonies. Sprung recently into existence, they have already attained to national prosperity and importance. Enlightened minds in Europe and America regard with deep interest the positions which they seem destined to occupy, when by their strength, their commerce, and example, and aided by other influences, they may effect the moral and political regeneration of Africa, and of the islands of the Eastern seas.

LIBERIA.

The colony of Liberia lies midway between Sierra Leone and Cape Palmas, and was established by the American Colonization Society in 1820, by an immigration of free or liberated people of color from the United States. Since that period, its population, including the aborigines who have incorporated themselves with the immigrants, has increased to upwards of 80,000, while the land they occupy extends along 320 miles of coast, and reaches, on an average, about 80 miles into the interior. The proportion of the population born in America, or of American descent, is estimated at about 10,000, and such has been the effect of their example and influence, that out of the remaining 70,000, consisting of aborigines, or of captives released from slavers,

* See M'Gregor's Statistics of America.

at least 50,000 can speak the English language, so that any one would perfectly understand them, while their habits are rapidly becoming those of civilized and steady agriculturists. The desire for education is also manifested by the surrounding tribes, and instances are not uncommon of natives sending their children four or five hundred miles from the interior to be instructed in the primary schools established in the republic. Of these there are 36 in operation, with an average attendance in each of about 40 aboriginal pupils.

The whole of the territory of Liberia has been purchased from time to time from the aboriginal owners, and in this way at least twenty petty sovereignties have been extinguished. In its former condition, the coast was the constant resort of slavers, but the traffic is now effectually suppressed as far as the jurisdiction of the Republic extends, and its entire abandonment is an invariable stipulation in every treaty of trade and protection into which the Republic may consent to enter with neighboring States. The disposition to avail themselves of treaties of this description is plainly on the increase on the part of the surrounding natives, and it is estimated that not less than 2,000,000 of persons in the interior now obtain their supply of European goods from the Republic, and from the kindred colony of Cape Palmas. Last year 82 foreign vessels visited Liberia, and exchanged merchandise for articles of African production to the amount of \$600,000.

The natural resources of Liberia are immense, and are steadily in process of development. The principal articles of export are ivory, palm oil, (of which \$150,000 worth was shipped in 1847,) camwood, gold dust, &c. Coffee is indigenous, and of excellent quality, and is now being cultivated extensively. It yields more than in the West Indies, and the belief is entertained that it may be produced so as to compete with slave labor. Sugar also thrives well, but enough only is grown for home consumption, and there is no present hope of competing with Cuba and Brazil. Cocoa has just been introduced, and promises well. Cotton, it is expected, will soon become an article of export. Indigo, ginger, arrow-root, and various other articles of commerce, likewise grow luxuriantly. Rich metallic mines exist in the country, and only require capital to open them up.

The population is, upon the whole, well-disposed to work, and the rate of wages per day is about one shilling sterling. It is an extraordinary feature of this part of the coast, that horses and other draught animals will not live, and hence every kind of transport, except that upon the rivers, is performed by manual labor. Much of the camwood which is exported from Liberia is brought a distance of two hundred miles on men's backs. It is seen, however, that this difficulty, which appears a great one at first, may have the effect not only of inuring the people to labor, but of stimulating them to every kind of mechanical contrivance by which it may be overcome. The climate of Liberia, although more healthy than Sierra Leone, is still deadly to the European; but the improvement it has undergone during the last ten years from the effect of clearing, drainage, &c., is stated to have been most remarkable. The colored immigrants from America, who used invariably to suffer from fever on their arrival, are now able to go to work at once. The duration of life amongst the colonists is considered to be about the same as in England.

At Monrovia, the port and capital, the population amounts to about 9,000. A large portion of the territory has been accurately surveyed, and is sold in sections by the government, at from fifty cents to one dollar per acre. The government of the country is precisely on the American model, consisting of a president, vice-president, a senate, and house of representatives, the number of members in the former being six, and the latter twenty-eight. The possession of real estate to the value of \$30 is the electoral qualification. The revenue, which was last year about \$20,000, is derived entirely from an *ad valorem* duty of six per cent. on imports, and the produce of land sales. Ar-

dent spirits, the use of which it is sought to discourage, form an exception, and are taxed twenty-five cents per gallon. The principal trade is carried on by barter, but there is a small paper circulation of about \$6,000, redeemable on demand.

The organization of the Republic, as an independent State, took place in July, last year, when Mr. Roberts, who had formerly acted as Governor under the Colonization Society, was elected President. Speaking of his qualifications, Commodore Perry, of the United States Navy, says in a report to the American government, dated in 1844:

"Governor Roberts, of Liberia, and Russworm, of Cape Palmas, are intelligent and estimable men, executing their responsible functions with wisdom and dignity; and we have, in the example of these two gentlemen, irrefragable proof of the capability of colored people to govern themselves."

While, with regard to the advantages of the colony, he adds:

"So far as the influence of the colonists has extended, it has been exerted to suppress the slave trade. Their endeavors have been eminently successful, and it is by planting these settlements, whether American or European, along the whole extent of coast from Cape Verd to Benguela, that the exportation of slaves will be most effectually prevented."—*London Times*.

— AUSTRALIA.

Australia may be considered as one of the modern wonders among the nations, and while its onward march in population and wealth has been extraordinary, its future, we venture to predict, will present still more surprising results. By recent arrivals we have late accounts from Sydney, the principal town of New South Wales. The legislative council was in session, and the governor's annual address, which had just appeared, gave a highly flattering picture of the affairs of the colony. The revenue had increased, and was in such a prosperous condition as to suggest additional outlays to promote immigration to the colony, and also the establishment of steam communication between England and the colony, by way of the Cape of Good Hope, and by means of auxiliary screw propellers. The exports of wool had reached, in the last year, 22,000,000 lbs., the official value of which was £1,200,000, being an increase of 5,700,000 lbs. over the previous year, and equal to the whole exportation of the year 1838, only seven years before. The export of tallow in the year 1847, had been 60,000 cwt., the official value of which was £107,000, being an increase over the previous year of £47,000.

We perceive also that in the British House of Lords, on the 10th of March, Earl Grey, on submitting certain papers relative to emigration to Australia, took occasion to enter into an elaborate review of the growing prosperity of the colonies there, with particular reference to the advantages they held out for promoting the great national object of emigration. It seems that taking the average of the last seven years, the annual emigration to Australia from England and Ireland has been 122,000; but last year it was 138,000. In 1828 the only English colonies in that quarter of the globe were New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, the extent of settlement in each being small, and the whole population of both not exceeding 53,000, of whom 23,000 were convicts. Now, New South Wales, including Fort Philip, extends about 1,000 miles by 300 broad, the whole area of the colony being three and a half times larger than Great Britain, and the coast line extending 1,500 miles. Besides this, the English occupy Southern and Western Australia, and the valuable island of New Zealand; and the whole British population in the Australian colonies now amounts to about 300,000. In twenty years, therefore, that population has increased about five or six fold; but their wealth has increased still more rapidly. In 1828 the whole exports were £181,000; in 1845—the

last year up to which the returns have been made—the exports had arisen to £2,189,000, twelve-fold in seventeen years.

Earl Grey—after remarking that the colonies of Australia had not been formed merely by the emigration of laborers, but that the population consisted of officers of the army and navy, gentlemen who had taken degrees at the universities, and other persons of station and intelligence, makes the following curious comparison between the Australian colonies and the American colonies, now the United States:

“The population of Sydney in 1836 was 19,000; and in 1846, 38,000. Let their Lordships compare this with the old American colonies; the population of Boston 160 years after it was founded, in 1790, was only 18,000, and the population of what was now the great city of New York, in 1773, immediately before the breaking out of the war of independence, was only 21,800. Having then been founded for a much longer period than Sydney had been at the present time, it contained a population of 17,000 less than Sydney now did. In 1790 the population of Philadelphia was only 28,000. But what would be found to be still more remarkable was a comparison of wealth, and the advantage to the mother country of the Australian colonies over the American. The population of the American colonies in 1772 was 2,300,000; the population of the Australian colonies in 1845 was 283,000. Now the imports of all descriptions into the American colonies in 1773 were about one million sterling, whilst the imports into the Australian colonies in 1845 had been £2,070,000. The value per head of exports and imports in both cases would show the result more strikingly. The imports in the old American colonies were 8s. 9d. per head of the population, whilst the imports in the Australian colonies were £7 5s. 16d. The exports in the American colonies were 16s. 8d. per head, and in the Australian colonies £7 14s. 3d. per head. It could not be said, therefore, that the population of our colonies were less capable of carrying on their enterprise now than they had been in former days: and when the difficulty of a voyage to Australia, as compared with America, was considered, the result was still more remarkable.—*Inquirer*.

THE TEA PLANT AND VARIETIES OF TEAS.*

“There are few subjects connected with the vegetable kingdom which have attracted such a large share of public notice as the tea plant of China. Its cultivation on the Chinese hills, the particular species or variety which produces the black and green teas of commerce, and the method of preparing the leaves, have always been objects of peculiar interest. The jealousy of the Chinese government, in former times, prevented foreigners from visiting any of the districts where tea is cultivated; and the information derived from the Chinese merchants, even scanty as it was, was not to be depended upon. And hence we find our English authors contradicting each other; some asserting that the black and green teas are produced by the same variety, and that the difference in colour is the result of a different mode of preparation; while others say that the black teas are produced from the plant called by botanists *Thea Bohea*, and the green from *Thea viridis*, both of which we have had for many years in our gardens in England. During my travels in China since the last war, I have had frequent opportunities of inspecting some extensive tea districts in the black and green tea countries of Canton, Fokien, and Chekiang: the result of these observations is now laid before the reader. It will prove that even those who have the best means of judging have been deceived, and that the greater part of the black and green teas which are brought yearly from China to Europe and America are obtained from the same

* Compiled by A. H. Palmer, from Fortescue's China, and Williams' Middle Kingdom.

species or variety, namely, from the *Thea viridis*. Dried specimens of this plant were prepared in the districts I have named, by myself, and are now in the herbarium of the Horticultural Society of London, so that there can be no longer any doubt on the subject. In various parts of the Canton provinces where I have had an opportunity of seeing tea cultivated, the species proved to be the *Thea Bohea*, or what is commonly called the black tea plant. In the green tea districts of the north—I allude more particularly to the province of Chekiang—I never met with a single plant of this species, which is so common in the fields and gardens near Canton. All the plants in the green tea country near Ningpo, on the islands of the Chusan Archipelago, and in every part of the province which I have had an opportunity of visiting, proved, without exception, to be the *Thea viridis*. Two hundred miles further to the north-west, in the province of Kiang-nan, and only a short distance from the tea hills in that quarter, I also found in the gardens this same species of tea. Thus far my actual observations exactly verified the opinions I had formed on the subject before I left England, viz.: that the black teas were prepared from the *Thea Bohea*, and the green from *Thea viridis*. When I left the north, on my way to the city of Foo-chow-foo, on the river of Min, in the province of Fokien, I had no doubt that I should find the hills there covered with the other species, *Thea Bohea*, from which we generally suppose the black teas are made; and this was the more likely to be the case as this species actually derives its specific name from the Bohea hills in this province. Great was my surprise to find all the plants on the tea hills near Foo-chow exactly the same as those in the green tea districts of the north. Here were, then, green tea plantations on the black tea hills, and not a single plant of the *Thea Bohea* to be seen. Moreover, at the time of my visit, the natives were busily employed in the manufacture of black teas. Although the specific differences of the tea plant were well known to me, I was so much surprised, and I may add, amused, at this discovery, that I procured a set of specimens for the herbarium, and also dug up a living plant, which I took northward to Chekiang. On comparing it with those which grow on the green tea hills, no difference whatever was observed. It appears, therefore, that the black and green teas of the northern districts of China (those districts in which the greater part of the teas for the foreign markets are made) are both produced from the same variety, and that variety is the *Thea viridis*, or what is commonly called the green tea plant. On the other hand, those black and green teas which are manufactured in considerable quantities in the vicinity of Canton, are obtained from the *Thea Bohea*, or black teas. * * * * *

“In the green tea districts of Chekiang, near Ningpo, the first crop of leaves is generally gathered about the middle of April. This consists of the young leaf buds just as they begin to unfold, and form a fine and delicate kind of young hyson, which is held in high estimation by the natives, and is generally sent about in small quantities as presents to their friends. It is a scarce and expensive article, and the picking off the leaves in such a young state does considerable injury to the tea plantation. The summer rains, however, which fall copiously about this season, moisten the earth and the air, and if the plants are young and vigorous, they soon push out fresh leaves. In a fortnight or three weeks from the time of the first picking, the shrubs are again covered with fresh leaves, and are ready for the second gathering, which is the most important of the season. The third and last gathering, which takes place as soon as new leaves are formed, produce a very inferior kind of tea, which is rarely sent out of the district. The mode of gathering and preparing the leaves of the tea plant is very simple. We have been so long accustomed to magnify and mystify every thing relating to the Chinese, that, in all their arts and manufactures we expect to find some peculiar practice, when the fact is, that many operations in China are more simple in their character than in

most other parts of the world. To rightly understand the process of rolling and drying the leaves, which I am about to describe, it must be borne in mind that the grand object is to expel the moisture, and at the same time to retain as much as possible of the aromatic and other desirable secretions of the species. The system adopted to attain this end is as simple as it is efficacious. In the harvest seasons, the natives are seen in little family groups on the side of every hill, when the weather is dry, engaged in gathering the tea leaves. They do not seem so particular as I imagined they would have been in this operation, but strip the leaves off rapidly and promiscuously, and throw them all into round baskets made for the purpose out of split bamboo or rattan. In the beginning of May, when the principal gathering takes place, the young seed-vessels are about as large as peas. These are also stripped off and mixed with the leaves; it is these seed-vessels which we often see in our tea, and which has some slight resemblance to young capers. When a sufficient quantity of leaves are gathered, they are carried home to the cottage or barn, where the operation of drying is performed."

This is minutely described, and the author continues:

"I have stated that the plants grown in the district of Chekiang produce green teas, but it must not be supposed that they are the green teas which are exported to England. The leaf has a much more natural colour, and has little or none of what we call the 'beautiful bloom' upon it, which is so much admired in Europe and America. There is now no doubt that all these 'blooming' green teas which are manufactured at Canton are dyed with Prussian blue and gypsum, to suit the taste of the foreign 'barbarians;' indeed the process may be seen any day, during the season, by those who give themselves the trouble to seek after it. It is very likely that the same ingredients are also used in dyeing the northern green teas for the foreign market; of this, however, I am not quite certain. There is a vegetable dye obtained from *Isatis indigotica* much used in the northern districts, and called *Teinsing*; and it is not unlikely that it may be the substance which is employed. The Chinese never use these dyed teas themselves, and I certainly think their taste in this respect is more correct than ours. It is not to be supposed that the dye used can produce any very bad effects upon the consumer, for, had this been the case, it would have been discovered before now; but if entirely harmless or inert, its being so must be ascribed to the very small quantity which is employed in the manufacture."

In short, the black and green teas which are generally exported to England and the United States from the northern provinces of China, are made from the same species; and the difference of colour, flavour, &c., is solely the result of the different modes of preparation.

"The native names given to the various sorts of tea are derived for the most part from their appearance or place of growth; the names of many of the best kinds are not commonly known abroad. *Bohea* is the name of the Wu-í hills, (or Bu-í, as the people on the spot call them,) where the tea is grown, and not a term for a particular sort among the Chinese, though it is applied to a very poor kind of black tea at Canton. *Sunglo* is likewise a general term for the green teas produced on the hills in Kiangsu. The names of the principal varieties of black tea are as follows: *Pecco*, 'white hairs,' so called from the whitish down on the young leaves, is one of the choicest kinds, and has a peculiar taste; *Orange Pecco*, called *shang hiang* or 'most fragrant,' differs from it slightly; *Hungmuey*, 'red plum blossoms,' has a slightly reddish tinge; the terms *prince's eyebrows*, *carnation hair*, *lotus kernel*, *sparrow's tongue*, *fir-leaf pattern*, *dragon's pellet*, and *dragon's whiskers*, are all translations of the native name of different kinds of Souchong or Pecco. *Souchong*, or *siau chung*, means *little plant* or sort, as *Pouchong*, or *folded sort*, re-

fers to the mode of packing it; *Campoi* is corrupted from *kan pei*, that is, carefully fired; *Chulan* is the tea scented with the chulan flower, and applied to some kinds of scented green tea. The names of green teas are less numerous: *Gunpowder*, or *ma chu*, that is, hemp pearl, derives its name from the form into which its leaves are rolled; *ta chu*, or 'great pearl,' and *chu lan*, or 'pearl flower,' denotes two kinds of *Imperial*; *Hyson*, or *yu tsien*, that is, before the rains, originally denoted the tenderest leaves of the plant, and is now applied to *Young Hyson*; as is also another name, *mei pien*, or 'plum petals;' while *hi chun*, 'flourishing spring,' describes *Hyson*; *T'wankay* is the name of a stream in Chehkiang, where this sort is produced; and *Hyson skin*, or *pi cha*, that is, skin tea, is the poorest kind, the siftings of the other varieties; *Oolung*, 'black dragon,' is a kind of black tea with green flavour. Ankoï teas are produced in the district of Nangki, not far from Tsiuenchau fu, possessing a peculiar taste, supposed to be owing to the ferruginous nature of the soil. De Guignes speaks of the Pu-'rh tea, from the place in Kiangsu where it grows, and says it is cured from wild plants found there; the infusion is unpleasant, and used for medical purposes. The Mongols and others in the west of China prepare tea by pressing it, when fresh, into cakes like bricks, and thoroughly drying it in that shape to carry in their wanderings.

"Considering the enormous labour of preparing tea, it is surprising that even the poorest kind can be afforded to the foreign purchaser at Canton, more than a thousand miles from the place of its growth, for eighteen cents and less a pound; and in their ability to furnish it at this rate, the Chinese have a security of retaining the trade in their hands, notwithstanding the efforts to grow the plant elsewhere. Comparatively little adulteration is practised, if the amount used at home and abroad be considered, though the temptation is great, as the infusion of other plants is drunk instead of the true tea. The poorer natives substitute the leaves of a species of *Rhamnus* or *Fallopia*, which they dry; *Camellia* leaves are perhaps mixed with it, but probably to no great extent. The refuse of packing-houses is sold to the poor at a low rate, under the names of tea endings and tea bones; and if a few of the rarest sorts do not go abroad, neither do the poorest. It is a necessary of life to all classes of Chinese, and that its use is not injurious is abundantly evident from its general acceptance and extending adoption; and the prejudice against it among some out of China may be attributed chiefly to the use of strong green tea, which is no doubt prejudicial. If those who have given it up on this account will adopt a weaker infusion of black tea, general experience is proof that it will do them no great harm, and they may be sure that they will not be so likely to be deceived by a coloured article. Neither the Chinese nor Japanese use milk or sugar in their tea, and the peculiar taste and aroma of the infusion is much better perceived without those additions; nor can it be drunk so strong without tasting an unpleasant bitterness, which the milk partly hides. The Japanese sometimes reduce the leaves to a powder, and pouring boiling water through them in a cullender, in the same way that coffee is often made."

CLIMATE OF CALIFORNIA.

We have received meteorological tables of the weather and thermometer at Monterey, Upper California, kept by Talbot H. Greene, Esq., a merchant at Monterey, during the space of a year, viz.: from March, 1845, to February, 1846. From these tables, a pretty good idea may be formed of the climate of California.

In March, 1845, the thermometer averaged 65 at noon. There was no rain; the sky generally clear.

In April, same degree of heat; five rainy days, four foggy, the others clear.

In May, the thermometer at noon never rose higher than 64, and never fell lower than 58; weather clear.

In June, the highest noonday heat was 73; the lowest 60; weather clear.

In July, the highest heat at noon, 74; lowest 60; clear skies.

In August, greatest heat at noon, 72; lowest 63; clear skies.

In September, greatest heat at noon, 73; lowest 61; clear skies, occasional fogs at 8 in the morning; rain once only.

In October, greatest heat at noon, 70; lowest 59; fogs in the morning, days clear; rain three times within this month—a little rain in the night on two occasions.

In November, greatest heat, 76; lowest 60; weather generally clear; rains in the night occasionally.

In December, greatest heat 66; lowest 57; clear weather; rain on four different nights this month.

In January, 1846, greatest heat, 62; lowest 48; more rain this month than the former months.

In February, 1846, average heat at noon, 62; lowest, 50; clear skies; rain on three different nights.

A pretty general idea may be formed from this of the climate as to warmth. It appears to be remarkably mild and temperate. This is the result of the facts, not a conclusion of mere opinion.—[*Herald*.

EDUCATION IN VIRGINIA.

ABSTRACT OF SCHOOL LAWS, BY J. S. RANDALL.

By an act of the General Assembly of Virginia, passed in 1846, it was made the duty of the several county courts of that State to lay out school districts in their respective counties, having regard to the territorial extent and population, and to appoint a commissioner for each district. The Board of County Commissioners thus appointed were required annually to assemble at the November term of the county court, and to elect a county Superintendent, whose duty it is to keep an accurate register of all children of indigent parents entered by the Commissioners for gratuitous tuition in the public schools, to receive reports from such Commissioners, and annually to communicate to the Board such information in relation to the condition of the school within his county as he may deem useful and necessary; to fix the per diem compensation of teachers for the instruction of indigent children, subject to revision by the Board; to keep accurate accounts with the several school districts of the public money appropriated to each from the revenue of the Literary Fund; and generally to superintend the course of instruction pursued within the schools participating in the public money. For his services he is entitled to a percentage upon the whole amount of his official receipts and expenditures.

The commissioner of each district is required to register and report to the superintendent the number of children between the ages of five and sixteen residing in his district; to enter with any teacher the names of so many indigent children as the share of public money apportioned to the district will allow, and having ascertained the number of days' instruction which such proportion will pay for, to subscribe such number of days to each teacher as he may think proper. At the expiration of the term he is to draw upon the county Superintendent for the amounts respectively due such teachers therefor.

On the petition of one fourth of the legal voters of any county in the State, the county court is required to direct a poll to be opened at the first annual election thereafter, for taking the sense of the people on the adoption of a system of Free Schools by a vote of two-thirds of the election, or of any other system previously adopted in any other county, or established by law by a majority vote.

In case two-thirds of the voters of any county decide in favour of the adoption of the district system of public schools, the Commissioners of the county, after laying out and establishing districts, are to divide their county into precincts or sections, each embracing a convenient number of districts, in each of which a Commissioner is to be annually elected. The Commissioners thus chosen are vested with corporate powers, and authorized to take and hold real estate for school purposes, to fix the salaries of teachers, apportion the school money among the several districts, visit and inspect the schools twice at least during each term, regulate the course of study and discipline, advise and counsel the trustees in relation to their duties, and make an annual report of the condition of the several schools under their charge to the Board of Commissioners. They are to see that a school is established in every district within their jurisdiction, in which reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, history, and the elements of physical science are taught free of charge to all the white children over six years of age resident therein.

Each district so established is placed under the immediate control of three trustees, to be annually appointed, two by the qualified voters of the district at the annual election of Commissioners, and one by the Board at their first meeting thereafter.

The trustees of the several districts are required to select and purchase sites, build and furnish school-houses, appoint teachers, duly qualified by the Commissioners or some one of them, visit the schools monthly, and annually to report to the Commissioners their condition, the number of children in their respective districts, and such other information as may be required of them. It is made their especial duty to visit poor families and to prevail on them to send their children regularly to school.

The ordinary expenses of the districts for sites, buildings, furniture, books, and apparatus is defrayed by taxation.

Any county, city, or town having adopted this system, and carried it into effect for one year or more, may reject it by a majority vote and substitute any other authorized by law.

In several counties of the state, the Commissioners discharge the duties above devolved upon trustees.

ARMIES OF EUROPE.

At this period, when Europe seems to be threatened with a general war, the following statement will prove interesting.

RUSSIA, AUSTRIA, PRUSSIA, AND FRANCE.

Some useful statistics of the military and financial resources of Russia, Austria, Prussia, and France are given in the New York Herald. The whole military force of Russia in Europe, consisting of the regular army of the Imperial Guard, is estimated at 665,640 men, which is equal to more than twelve large armies, of 50,000 men each, well supplied with cannon and artillery. Added to this, Russia has a large army in the Caucasus, amounting to 150,167. She has also hordes of Cossacks in the plains of Asia, ready and eager to serve, not estimated in the above, but whose number, it is estimated, does not fall far short of 300,000.

THE MILITARY FORCE OF AUSTRIA

Is constituted as follows:

The Grand Staff,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	728
Imperial Guards,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	666
Infantry,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	319,912
Cavalry,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	48,842
Artillery,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25,675

Constituting, in time of peace, a military force of - - - 391,023

In time of war this force is nearly doubled, when Austria can command a military force amounting to about 500,000.

THE MILITARY FORCE OF PRUSSIA

Is constituted as follows:

The Royal Guard, consisting of Infantry,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11,202
The Line,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	68,384
Cavalry, (the Royal Guard,)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,764
The Line,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19,360
Artillery,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15,651
Corps of Engineers,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,544
<hr/>									
Total,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	115,905
<hr/>									
Landwehr of the First Ban,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	81,048
Landwehr of the Second Ban,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	62,608
<hr/>									
Total,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	143,656

The above is only the peace establishment of the Prussian military forces. It is here seen that Prussia, in time of peace, has at her disposal a military force of 259,561. The whole army, when placed on the war footing, amounts to

Troops of the Line,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	205,000
Landwehr,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	130,000
<hr/>									
Total,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	335,000

The Landwehr of the First Ban consists of those who are destined in time of war to garrison the fortresses, and is composed of men from 25 to 39 years old. The Landwehr of the Second Ban is composed of young men from 20 to 25 years old, called into actual service.

MILITARY FORCE OF FRANCE.

The French army, on the peace establishment, is composed as follows:

The Staff,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,652
Infantry,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	173,886
Cavalry,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	72,860
Artillery,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26,500
Engineers,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5,890
Gendarmes,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19,500
Veterans,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,900
Troops of the Administration,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,900
Native Corps in Africa,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6,380
Cavalry in Africa,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,675
<hr/>									
Total,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	300,143

Thus it will be seen that, in time of peace, the military establishment of France amounts to a force of 300,000 men. This is an immense force; but this does not include one half of the military power of France. These are all troops of the line. The National Guards, exceeding the line in number by at least a hundred thousand, constitute a truly formidable force, ever ready and equipped, and capable of being called into actual service in twenty-four hours.

It is not possible to estimate, with any precision, the military force of France in time of war, because much depends upon the nature of the war.

If it were a national war, and the people fought under the direction of an energetic government, as in the time of the first revolution, France could send into the field armies amounting to at least five or six millions of citizen soldiers.

STATISTICS OF THE WEATHER

(For the quarter, from the first March to the first of June, 1849, at Philad.)

For the following statements we are indebted to the correspondent (P. S.) of the North American.

MARCH.

The 1st was a clear, pleasant day, with a W. wind, mercury 34 at sunrise and 44 at 2 P. M. (the uniform times of our thermometrical observations.)

On the 2d the wind was N. with snow from 11 A. M. to 5 P. M., mostly melting as it fell. Rained all day in Pittsburgh. Mercury 38 at sunrise, and fell to 33 P. M.

The 3d was clear after the morning, with wind at N. W.; 5 inches of snow had fallen during the night. Thermometer 28 and 37.

The 4th was clear and fine. Wind N. W. Thermometer 23 and 35.

The 5th was overcast with N. W. wind. Rained heavily all day at Pittsburgh. Thermometer 26 and 40.

The 6th was cloudy with a N. E. wind. Thermometer 34 and 40.

The morning of the 7th was drizzly, followed by a clear P. M. Wind westerly. Thermometer 38 and 44.

From the 8th to the 13th was pleasant spring-like weather, (though not uniformly clear,) with westerly wind, and a temperature at, and a little above freezing in the morning, and from 38 to 54 at mid-day. The maple, the daffy, the crocus, etc., are in full bloom.

The 14th was rainy with N. E. wind; thermometer 42 and 47.

On the 15th the wind was still N. E., downcast; thermometer 34 and 42.

On the morning of the 16th there was rain, followed by a pleasant P. M. Wind S. W.; thermometer 38 and 54.

The 17th was fine and clear, with S. W. wind. Thermometer 34 in the morning, and rose to 62 at midday.

The 18th and 19th were pleasant, with N. wind. Thermometer 42 and 32 at sunrise, and 46 and 49 at 2 P. M.

The 20th was fair, with a high southerly wind. Thermometer 38 and 60.

On the 21st the wind was still S., with a little rain in the P. M. Thermometer 56 and 62, or a mean temperature of 59°, the warmest day of the whole month.

The 22d was fair, with a high wind; thermometer 34 and 46.

From the 23d to the 25th the wind was southerly and fine. Some rain fell on the 25th. Mercury from 32 to 48 at sunrise, and from 54 to 59 at noon.

From the 26th to the 29th inclusive, a strong northerly wind prevailed, with clouds, rain, sleet and snow. The 27th, especially, was cold, the mercury being at 31 all day, the coldest day of the month.

On the 30th the wind was still north, but some clear sky and a few rays from the sun appeared in the morning. The P. M. was overcast; wind veered slightly to the west. Thermometer 50 and 57.

We have marked ten days only as clear, and fifteen as cloudy. Rain fell on eight days, and snow on two. The whole quantity of rain for the month, as recorded at the Pennsylvania hospital, was 5½ inches.

On the 10th the Pennsylvania canal was opened for navigation, and it has continued unobstructed by ice since. The first steamer reached Albany from New York on the 18th, through much ice. Her canals are not yet open.

APRIL.

From the 1st to the 6th the weather was fair, with a south and west wind—some ice on the morning of the 2d; highest midday temperature 64.

On the 7th and 8th still fair; mercury at 70 at midday, apricot in bloom. Wind westerly.

The 9th was hazy in the morning, clear P. M. Wind N. W. in the morning, and veered to the S. at 2 P. M.; thermometer 52 and 62.

The 10th was overcast, with some rain, the first this month. Wind changed from N. to S.; thermometer 46 and 58.

From the 11th to the 14th, inclusive, was fair. Wind N. and W.; thermometer from 42 to 49 at sunrise, and from 48 to 70 at noon. Snow in Pittsburgh on the 14th.

The 15th was clear but cold, with a west wind; thermometer at 27 at sunrise, and rose to 40 only at noon. Good sleighing at Montpelier, Vt.

The 16th and 17th were still cold; thermometer 27 and 32 only at sunrise, and 42 and 55 at P. M. Wind westerly.

There was some rain on the morning of the 18th, with a S. wind. P. M. wind veered to the W., with snow, increasing towards evening to a severe storm; thermometer 45 at sunrise, but fell to 36 at 2 P. M.

The morning of the 19th was cold. Thermometer at 29 only, and the roofs covered with four inches of snow; on the earth not much remained. Wind N. W.

The 20th and 21st were fine pleasant days, with a S. W. wind; thermometer 40 and 34 at sunrise, and 50 and 54 at 2 P. M.

From the 22d to the 28th, inclusive, there was not one fair day. A N. E. wind prevailed with slight drizzly rain, alternately with huge floating clouds and transient sunshine. The morning temperature varied from 46 to 56, and the afternoon from 54 to 67.

The 29th was fair and pleasant, but cool; thermometer 53 to 64. Wind N.

The 30th was clear and cool in the A. M., with a west wind, which changed to S. E., and the thermometer rose from 44 at sunrise to 70 at 2 P. M.

We have put down 20 days as clear, and 3 as cloudy. Some rain fell on 6 days and snow on 2. The whole quantity of rain and snow for the month, as observed at the Pennsylvania hospital, was $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches.

The highest temperature of the month was 70, the lowest 27, and the mean, as given above, was $51\frac{1}{2}$.

MAY.

It appears from our record that the morning of the 1st was cool. Thermometer 52 at sunrise, and rose to 77, with a strong S. wind at 2 P. M.

The 2d and 3d were cool, with a N. W. wind. Thermometer 48 at sunrise and 68 at 2 P. M.

On the 4th, we had a high south wind, which by 2 P. M. had carried the mercury up from 52 in the morning to 78° . In the evening there was some rain, with thunder and sharp lightning—one charge of electric fluid passing through a tree in Logan square on its way from a cloud to the earth.

From the 5th to the 12th, inclusive, the wind was every day from some point in the north, varying from N. W. to N. E.—for a few hours only it was east, and once south. The range of the thermometer during this time was from 42 to 68. Fires in our rooms, with winter clothing, were required for comfort and safety. The heavens were mostly overcast, and some rain fell on 3 days.

The morning of the 13th was still cold, and the wind, which was S., veered to the S. E. in the afternoon, and there was a heavy fall of rain. Thermometer 55 and 60.

From the 14th to the 19th, the wind was again northerly, twice springing up for a few hours at the S. W. The mean temperature ranged from 55 on the 14th, to 63 on the 19th. The weather was mostly clear, but windy.

From the 20th to the 23d, inclusive, we had fine clear bland weather, with a S. and S. W. wind. The mean temperature ranged from 67 on the 20th, to $74\frac{1}{2}$ on the 23d; and the mid day heat, from 76 on the 20th, to 84 on the 23d. These few days of summer temperature induced some (in other respects very

prudent) mothers to put away their stoves, which, two days after, they had cause to regret.

On the 24th the wind was at the north, and remained so to the end of the month, varying only 4 or 5 points to the E. or W. On 4 days rain fell, and the remainder were cloudy. Range of Thermometer from 49 at sunrise, to 64 at 2 P. M.; and the mean (since the 24th, which was 69,) has varied from 52½ on the 25th, to 63½ on the 31st.

We have put down 17 days as clear, and 7 as cloudy. Some rain fell on 7 days, and the whole quantity for the month, at the Pennsylvania hospital, was 4 inches.

DISTANCE FROM THE UNITED STATES TO ENGLAND.—The frequent contradictions as to the distance sailed by the Atlantic steamers have led us to the compilation of the following table for reference. By Mercator's sailing: Boston dock to Liverpool dock, 2,883 miles; Battery, New York to Liverpool dock, 3,084 miles: Boston dock to Southampton dock, 2,882 miles; Battery, New York to Southampton dock, 3,156 miles. By Mercator and great circle: Boston dock to Liverpool dock, 2,849 miles; Battery, New York to Liverpool dock, 3,023 miles; Boston dock to Southampton dock, 2,849 miles; Battery, New York to Southampton dock, 3,087 miles. These calculations allow for the *detour* made by the British steamers in touching at Halifax.

LIBRARIES.—In London there are four public libraries, containing, in the aggregate, 397,000 volumes. Paris possesses five public libraries, to which the people have free access, that contain 1,300,000 volumes. Besides these, there are libraries belonging to the Institute, the University, and the two Chambers, to which admission can be obtained with satisfactory recommendations. Here we see that London, with twice the population of Paris, contains only one-fourth the number of books.

The following table, compiled by Dr. Ludwig, of New York, shows the number of public libraries, and the volumes in the United States:

STATES.	No.	Vols.	STATES.	No.	Vols.
Maine,	4	4,300	Delaware,	1	3,600
New Hampshire,	5	26,800	Maryland,	11	54,500
Vermont,	2	16,000	Virginia,	9	58,300
Rhode Island,	5	43,400	North Carolina,	3	16,000
Massachusetts,	30	203,000	South Carolina,	5	38,400
Connecticut,	4	71,000	Georgia,	4	22,000
New York,	33	174,900	Alabama,	3	12,200
Pennsylvania,	32	176,100	Louisiana,	5	13,300
New Jersey,	2	28,500	Mississippi,	2	5,000
Ohio,	23	68,800	Arkansas,	0	000
Michigan,	5	9,500	Tennessee,	6	26,700
Indiana,	5	6,800	Kentucky,	9	44,600
Illinois,	3	3,700	Missouri,	5	20,500
Iowa,	0	000	Texas,	0	000
Wisconsin,	0	000	Florida,	0	000
			District of Columbia,	9	75,000
	163	871,800		72	338,000

(ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.)

TENURE OF LAND.

(Continued from page 469, vol. 1.)

We now come to the second part of our subject, namely, the tenure of land in Hindostan, Egypt, and Palestine, and in ancient Greece and Rome.

1. OF HINDOSTAN.

The most ancient laws regulating real estate are to be found among the records of the Hindus. "The sages who were acquainted with the times of old," says Menu, the great Hindu law-giver, "declare that cultivated land is the property of him who first cut away the wood, or who cleared and tilled it; just as an antelope belongs to the first hunter by whom it is mortally wounded." Menu is supposed by some to have been a more ancient law-giver than Moses, and it would appear from his definition of the right of freehold, that in his day, at least, princes and states did not hold, undisputed, their claim of "eminent domain." Originally, therefore, it is to be presumed that each cultivator was also absolute proprietor of his field.

From the constitution of a Hindu township, we may form some judgment of the true condition of the great mass of the population of southern Asia. The earliest knowledge of this people, obtained from any other source than their own books, is the account left us by the historian of Alexander the Great's expedition; and such as they were then described to be, such are they to this day. Even the mountain tribes with whom the British were at war, the Sikhs, were the same then as now, in their laws, customs, and warlike character.

"Each Hindu township is, and indeed always was, a particular community, or petty republic by itself; and furnishes us with a vivid representation of the early state of things when men first joined themselves together in societies for the purpose of relieving their mutual wants. Every community of the above kind, in addition to the landed proprietors, contains twelve different members; the judge and magistrate, (Potail;) the registrar; the watchman of the place and fields; the distributors of water for the purposes of inundation; the astrologer, for determining lucky and unlucky days and hours; the cartwright; the potter; the washerwoman of the few garments for which there is occasion, and which are generally manufactured in the family itself, or purchased at the nearest market; the barber; and, lastly, the goldsmith, or maker of ornaments for the women, or young maids, who is in many

villages replaced by the poet (rhapsodist,) and schoolmaster. These noted functionaries are paid either in land, or in a certain quantity of grain, furnished by the agriculturists of the community. 'The whole of India is nothing more than a vast aggregation of such republics.'—*Heeren's Researches*, vol. 3, pages 341-2.

The tenure by which the landholders in each township held their land is thus stated by Colonel Tod:

"The proprietor of the soil, that is, he who redeemed it from sterility, is the ryot cultivator by whom a rent or land tax (in kind,) was paid to the prince. It is this rent, this tax, this tribute of the land, with which the prince enfeoffs; it is this alone which he alienates, or can alienate, because it is this alone over which he possesses dominion. Such is the state of landed property in Rajpootana; every where, there are 'two properties in one thing,' namely, the ryot cultivator's property in the land, and the prince's property in the usufruct thereof. It is this usufruct with which the prince enfeoffs, which descends by fixed rules to the eldest sons lineally of such proprietor."—*Asiatic Journal*, N. S., vol. V., p. 40.

How or when this ancient Hindu tenure of land was first changed, or modified, or by whom and what means, any other system was introduced, it is impossible now to ascertain.

"One of the most important, but at the same time, one of the most difficult questions for us to determine, is, to what extent was the sovereign considered as the proprietor of the soil; and, consequently, whether the cultivators held their lands in fee simple, or were merely tenants upon lease from the crown? The latter kind of tenure having been found to prevail, though under very mild forms, during the period of Mogul dominion, as far as this extended, it is therefore generally supposed to have been the case in earlier times also, when India was still an independent country.

"This institution, (of tenure by lease,) of which we meet with no traces in ancient Hindu, or in Mohammedan law, would seem to have been introduced, like the system of villenage, or feudal tenure in the middle ages, by usurpation during great political convulsions."—*Heeren's Researches*, vol. 3, pages 346, 347.

2. OF EGYPT.

The following extract gives the substance of all that is related of the land-proprietorship of the Egyptians, by Herodotus, and Diodorus Siculus, the only historians who mention the subject:

"The most important difference between Herodotus and Diodorus in the division of the castes, consists in the latter making a separate caste of the husbandmen, which the other does not mention. Must we suppose that he comprised them under the trading caste? This is a very difficult question, and is connected with the inquiry respecting the manner of holding landed property in Egypt. According to Diodorus,

all the landed property was in the hands of the king, the priests, and the warriors. According to Herodotus, Sesostris is said to have divided all Egypt, giving to each individual an equal quadrangular portion, determined by lot, and from these allotments his own revenue proceeded. The idea of landed proprietorship, however, is very ambiguous. There is a full proprietorship, and there is, as in the case of vassalage, a conditional proprietorship. In the East, the kings are usually regarded as the lords paramount of the land. In the state where Joseph lived, it became the king's by his management. Previous to that time, the possessors seem to have been full proprietors. If, indeed, Sesostris, at a later period, divided all the lands of Egypt, according to a strict measurement, it follows, as a matter of course, that he considered himself as chief proprietor. It is certain that Sesostris might have had the distribution of a good deal of land, because he completely expelled the Hyksos, who had appropriated it to themselves. And that the account which the priests imparted to Herodotus was limited to this, seems most agreeable to the nature of the thing altogether. It seems, also, evident that he left, or restored again to the temples and priests, the land belonging to them. Diodorus' account, that all the land was the property of the kings, priests, and warriors, cannot well be taken in the strictest sense, as from the merchants' contracts, lately discovered, (certainly, however, not older than the period of the Ptolemies,) it appears that the cities had their land-marks. All then that we can conclude with certainty is, that if not all, yet at least the best, and largest portion of the land, did belong to the three proprietors above-mentioned. It is, moreover, certain that these estates were cultivated by farmers: but by what tenure these held their lands, whether as copy-holders, lease-holders, or yearly tenants, it is impossible to determine. Their condition may perhaps have been similar to that of the present Fellahs, who are by no means independent landed proprietors. There can, however, be no doubt but that the cultivation of the soil, if not altogether, yet principally, was carried on by farmers. These consequently formed the Egyptian peasantry, of whose manner of life Herodotus has furnished us with an accurate description, to which I shall presently return. Many of the other classes of the trade caste, however, might cultivate land; and the husbandmen in general could not form a distinct caste, because, according to the ruling maxim of the priests, this employment was, as far as possible, to be common to all the citizens. They, therefore, in general, belonged to the caste of tradesmen.

“To each temple, or to every settlement of priests, were attached extensive estates; these formed the original territory of the settlement, and therefore belonged to the whole body in common. They were accordingly farmed at moderate rents, and the revenue which they produced formed the common treasury of the temple, which was under the charge of a person, or steward, appointed to manage it, who likewise

appertained to the priest caste. Out of this common fund the necessaries of life were supplied to the priests and their families belonging to each temple; they and their households living at free tables. 'So many dishes,' says Herodotus, 'were furnished daily of those kinds of meat of which by their laws they were allowed to eat, and with them a certain quantity of wine, (for they had the privilege of enjoying this luxury, which was denied to the lower castes.) Thus there was no need for them to contribute anything from their private means towards their support.'

"That besides these public and common benefits, each priest, or family of priests, (for it need scarcely be remarked that they married,) possessed also, or might possess, their private means, and consequently private estates, would be sufficiently evident, even if Herodotus had not expressly said as much in the passage just quoted. The families of priests were in reality the first, the highest, and the richest in the country! The priests had, indeed, exclusively, the transacting of all state affairs; and carried on besides many of the most profitable branches of business. They formed, in fact, to a certain extent, a *highly privileged nobility*."—*Heeren's Researches*, vol. 5, pages 127 and 128, on the Egyptians.

Next to the priests, was the warrior caste, also by the ancient laws, landed proprietors, of whose tenure the following are all the particulars that can be collected:

"The Egyptian warriors, according to Herodotus, were a race, and, certainly, as well as the priest caste, one of the most distinguished races of the nation. They were subdivided into the *Hermotybi* and the *Calasiri*; and both these possessed certain nomes, or districts, which are mentioned by name in Herodotus. The *Hermotybi*, at the time of their greatest power, were 160,000 men strong; the *Calasiri* 250,000. Neither one nor the other durst carry on any trade; they were destined to war alone, and their destination descended from father to son. Their pay consisted of the produce of their estates; for they, as well as the kings and priests, were large landed proprietors. Each man had twelve acres of land, the acre being reckoned at one hundred Egyptian ells. One thousand of the *Calasiri*, and one thousand of the *Hermotybi*, were appointed every year for the king's body-guard; and these obtained, in addition to their estates, a certain allowance of meat, bread, and wine. They are made landed proprietors, (adds Diodorus,) in order to induce them to marry, and thereby to insure an increase of their number, and to give them a greater interest in the protection of their country."—*Heeren's Researches*, vol. 5, pages 131 and 132, on the Egyptians.

"'A nome,' says an Egyptian father of the Church, 'is a name given by the Egyptians to a city, with its surrounding territory, and the villages lying therein.'"—*Ibid.* vol. 5, page 111, on the Egyptians.

While this warrior caste existed, Egypt could not only resist a

foreign foe, but was a conquering people. But when the Egyptian kings came to hire Greek mercenaries, and to maintain standing armies, and after they had driven this warrior caste from the country, there was no longer left any portion of the people who had an interest in defending the soil, and henceforth the valley of the Nile became the easy prey of every invader.

The present condition of the population of Egypt is thus graphically described by a recent traveler, and it certainly is far worse than in the days of Joseph, Herodotus, or the Ptolemies.

“Along the river and among the villages, the poor man is occupied with agriculture, boat-building, or the most laborious occupation of pumping up water to irrigate the fields. His children of both sexes run about naked, or nearly so; and if the little girls *have* a rag upon them, they coquettishly cover their *faces* with it. The peasant’s utmost exertions scarcely suffice to earn two pence per day; and even this pittance is often wrung from him for the Pasha, when some neighbour has failed in the taxes, for which the community is answerable. Yet happy does he consider himself, if allowed even thus to struggle on through life. The bright sun shines and the cool river flows for him, however deep his poverty; and the faint shadow of freedom that he enjoys gives energy to his labours, however severe. But the Pasha must have workmen for his factories, and labourers for his crops. Conscription for these purposes then seizes those whom that for war has spared; and the fellah is torn from his home, to work under the lash of a task-master, for the nominal wages of two pence half-penny a day. This is sometimes two years in arrear, and even then paid half in kind, at the Pasha’s valuation of whatever he has least occasion for.

“Never does patriotism appear in a narrower form than in the Egyptian, for it is entirely distinct from dignity, or moral pride; his wretched race have poured their blood in battle from all time, *but never in defence of a father-land*; and tyrant after tyrant have made use of his blood and sinews, with as little benefit to himself as those of the Roman gladiator. The Egyptian’s attachment to the soil is simply feline, he is uncomfortable any where else. All the factitious luxuries of Europe could not compensate to him for his own voluptuous climate, his loved river with its indolent flow, the whispers of the palm-forest bending with his favourite fruit. The Pasha and the Sheikh may rob him to the uttermost; his sense of destiny and unconsciousness of wrong will make him submit to tyranny and oppression without repining; leave him but his liberty, such as it is, and his sunny home, and he asks no more on this side of Paradise. See him reduced from man’s proud estate—*divested of all interest in the land, which is but farmed to a foreign adventurer—excluded from all share in politics—without a ray of freedom to light him on through thought to action.*”—Warburton’s “*Crescent and the Cross*,” vol. 1, chap. 12.

The manner in which Mehemet Ali asserted and established his right of “*eminent domain*,” is related in the following brief narrative:

“In 1814, suddenly appeared that astonishing decree, by which the Pasha announced to the inhabitants of Egypt that the whole country belonged to him, and that all the dwellers therein were but labourers on his great farm, or at best but tenants at his will. Mehemet Ali made a pretext to visit Arabia; while this decree was being carried into effect by his Minister. The men bowed tamely to the decree, but the women rose tumultuously, and excited some leading Sheikhs to make a demonstration of resistance. One of the latter was arrested and executed on some pretence foreign to the occasion; the women were allowed to talk out their indignation, and Egypt has been ever since the unquestioned private property of the Pasha. Soon afterwards he appropriated all the revenues belonging to pious institutions, and took them under his own protection. This last measure created more dissatisfaction than the former one, as it rendered many desperate. Previous to this appropriation, 6000 persons received daily alms from the Mosque of El Azhar alone, and 2000 slept within its walls.

“It is true that Mehemet Ali had a precedent for thus taking possession of all the land in Egypt, in the case of Joseph’s Pharaoh, Osirtesen the First, in the year 1706 before Christ; but, in the latter case, the Egyptians received a consideration for the loss of their possessions, and Pharaoh only virtually possessed himself of quit rents, amounting to one-fifth of the value of the agricultural produce. From Mehemet Ali, the Egyptians received nothing in lieu of their possessions, except a somewhat better administration of public affairs, and some better irrigation for the lands. In return for this, the Pasha claims four-fifths of the produce of the land.”—*Idem.*, *Appendix, B.*, 2d vol., page 231.

3. OF THE JEWS.

The people next in antiquity, though first in interest, is the Jews. Their law-giver, Moses, was learned in all the wisdom of the Egyptians. He had been prepared by the Almighty to be the deliverer of his people, and the founder of the Hebrew commonwealth. The agrarian law established by him is the most remarkable feature of the Jewish constitution. After the conquest of the promised land, it was divided among the tribes of Israel, and the whole territory partitioned among the inhabitants. The following exposition of this law is from Milman’s History of the Jews:

“The whole land was subject to the common law of property. The great principle of this law was the *inalienability of estates*. Houses in walled towns might be sold in perpetuity, if unredeemed within the year; land only for a limited period. At the jubilee, every estate reverted, without repurchase, to the original proprietor. Even during this period it might be redeemed, should the proprietor become rich enough, at the value which the estate would produce during the years unelapsed before the jubilee. *This remarkable agrarian law secured the political equality of the people, and anticipated all the mischiefs*

so fatal to the early republics of Greece and Italy, the appropriation of the whole territory of the State by a rich and powerful landed oligarchy, with the consequent convulsions of the community, from the deadly struggle between the patrician and plebeian orders. In the Hebrew State, the improvident individual might reduce himself and his family to penury, or servitude, but he could not perpetuate a race of slaves or paupers. Every fifty years, God, the King and Lord of the soil, as it were, resumed the whole territory, and granted it back in the same portions to the descendants of the original possessors. It is curious to observe in this earliest practical Utopia, the realization of Machiavelli's great maxim, *the constant renovation of the State, according to the first principles of its constitution*. The outline of this plan may have been Egyptian. The king of that country, during the administration of Joseph, became proprietor of the whole land, and leased it out on a *reserved rent* of one-fifth, exactly the two-tenths, or tithes, paid by the Israelites. Thus the body of the people were an independent yeomanry, residing on their hereditary farms, the boundaries of which remained for ever of the same extent; for the removal of a neighbour's landmark was among the crimes against which the law uttered its severest malediction: an invasion of family property, that of Naboth's vineyard, is selected as the worst crime of a most tyrannical king; and in the decline of the State, the prophets denounce, with their sternest energy, this violation of the very basis of the commonwealth. In this luxuriant soil, each man had the only capital necessary to cultivate his property to the highest degree of productiveness, the industry of himself and sons. Hence, large properties would by no means have increased the general wealth, while they might have endangered the independence of the people. The greater danger to be apprehended in so populous a country, might seem to have been the minute subdivisions of the estates, as all the sons inherited: the oldest had a double portion. Females succeeded only in default of males, and then under the restriction that they might not marry out of their own tribe. Yet the inconvenience seems never to have been practically felt. The land, though closely, was never over-peopled. Periods of famine are by no means common.

“Each estate was held on the tenure of military service; all Israel was one standing army. Some curious exemptions were made, which show the attention of the law-giver to the agricultural habits and domestic comfort of his people—the being just married, or having newly taken a piece of land into cultivation.”—*Milman's History of the Jews*, vol. 1, page 148.

4. OF ANCIENT GREECE.

Let us now look at the Grecian States. Sparta is supposed to have owed its power and durability to the laws of Lycurgus. Among the first and most important of the acts of Lycurgus, was an agrarian law by

which the whole of Laconia was divided into 39,000 parcels, of which the Spartans had 9000, and their Laconian subjects 30,000. Whether these parcels were of equal size, is not known, nor is it a matter of any consequence. How these lands were cultivated, or how the products were distributed, is not known.

It is known, however, that the Spartans themselves never performed any kind of agricultural, mechanical, or menial work. Their sole occupation was war. They were of the Dorian race, the conquerors of Greece, the Normans of that age. The former inhabitants were their subjects, personally free, yet deprived of all political privileges, and denied all participation in the affairs of State.

But the mass of the population of Laconia were Helots or serfs. They were bound to the soil; but in return, they could not be torn from it, and were secured by express compact, or unbroken custom, from the danger of being sold to be carried away from their homes.

The servitude of the Helots was the foundation on which the existence of the Spartans, as a separate people, rested. The subjection of the rest of Laconia contributed, indeed, very materially to their power and security; but the district cultivated by the Helots, and their services in the field and in the city, were required to afford the ruling class that leisure which was the essential condition of all the Spartan institutions. To minister by his toil to this leisure was, according to the Spartan system, the only end for which the Helot existed; to enjoy it, or to use it in the immediate service of the commonwealth, was the only occupation that did not degrade a free man. In this respect the Spartans were all equal; contrasted with the serfs who tilled their land, and waited at their table, all gentle; compared with the tributary provincials, who were excluded from the councils and the government of the State, all noble.

Such was the condition of the agricultural population in Sparta. In Athens it was still worse.

“The government had long been in the hands of men who appear to have wielded it only as a means of aggrandizing and enriching themselves. They had reduced a great part of the class whose industry was employed in the labors of agriculture, to a state of abject dependence, in which they were not only debarred from all—but, perhaps, a merely nominal share of political rights, but held even their personal freedom by a precarious tenure, and were frequently reduced to actual slavery. The smaller proprietors, impoverished by bad times and casual disasters, were compelled to borrow money at high interest, and to mortgage their lands to the rich: or to receive them again as tenants, upon the same hard terms as were imposed upon those who cultivated the estates of the great land-holders. The laws made by the nobles enabled the creditor to seize the person of his insolvent debtor, and to sell him as a slave, and this right had been frequently exercised; numbers had been torn from their homes, and condemned to end their days

in the service of a foreign master; others were driven to the still harder necessity of selling their own children. One who traveled at this time through Attica saw the dismal monuments of aristocratic oppression scattered over its fields, in the stone posts, (inscribed with the name of the creditor and the amount of the debt,) which marked that what was once a property had become a pledge, and that its former owner had lost his independence, and was in danger of sinking into a still more degraded and miserable condition."—*Thirlwal's History of Greece*, vol. 1, page 180.

Such was the condition of Athens and its citizens previous to the time of Solon. His laws mitigated the condition of the poor, but he did not, like Lycurgus, cause a new distribution of the land. He left the land-holders in the possession of all their acres, however acquired, but took away their right to imprison, or enslave their debtors. He also gave every citizen, rich or poor, an equal voice in the public assembly. But we must recollect that the citizens of Athens were but a small portion of the population of Attica. There was a large number of resident aliens, who were not allowed to hold land, and who were seldom admitted to the right of citizenship, and were also subject to severe taxes and other disabilities. A great majority of the inhabitants of Attica were slaves.

The state of things in Sparta and Athens may be taken as an example for all Greece. The citizens of nearly all the little republics were only the Dorian conquerors, like the Normans in England. The former inhabitants having been subjugated, were excluded from all participation in government.

5. OF ANCIENT ROME.

From the earliest times, the city of Rome was continually embroiled in contests between patricians and plebeians, about the ownership of land. The Senators, being possessed of all the political power, had gradually appropriated to their own use all the public land.

To own, or not to own land, was the principal subject of controversy in Rome between the poor and the rich—between the people and the senate. The people demanded a portion of the lands—the senate refused.

“To feel the full force of the severity of the senate, in the constant refusal of these demands, it is necessary to recollect that during the earlier periods of the history of Rome, the frequent incursions of enemies upon the territories of the republic, and the interruption of cultivation by repeated wars, ruined the people, and rendered debtors insolvent. These were delivered like slaves to their creditors, were detained in close custody, and reduced to a state a hundred fold worse than slavery. The people had no other business than war and agriculture; the rich, by little and little, made themselves masters of all the lands of the republic, and caused them to be cultivated by their slaves, to the

exclusion of the free men, so that the people, even in time of peace, had no resource from labor."

The first AGRARIAN LAW proposed in Rome was, not to distribute the private property of the rich among the poor, but that the senate should divide among the people the newly conquered lands, and those, which, though they *belonged to the republic, had been usurped by the nobility*. This law was passed: but the rich at first eluded it, then violated, and finally wholly neglected it.

A similar law was again proposed by Lucius Dentatus, who had fought with distinction in a hundred and twenty-one pitched battles, and, finally, lost his life in a civil broil.

Again the people demanded a division of the public lands; Camillus and the senate opposed it; Camillus was banished; the people refused to fight; and the Gauls sacked Rome. The senate afterwards consented to a law permitting the intermarriage of patricians and plebeians, and yielded many political rights to the people.

Manlius and the Gracchi, who subsequently proposed an agrarian law, met the fate of Dentatus.

The best historians, and wisest statesmen of the present day, do not hesitate to attribute the downfall of the republic, to the insatiable avarice of the rich nobility—to their gradual usurpation of all the land of the State—to their systematic, invariable practice of appropriating all conquered territory among themselves, refusing constantly to share any part of it with the plebeians—and, to accomplish their ends, resorting unscrupulously to fraud, corruption, violence, falsehood, and assassination.

On the part of the people, we see fitful and feverish attempts, occasionally rising into something like insurrection, to break the power of the nobility, and recover their just share of the public land; but on the part of the aristocracy, we see all these popular efforts resisted with that unbending steadiness of purpose, characteristic of a privileged body, in whom hereditary wealth and hereditary political power are united.

A. G. J.

[To be continued.]

(For the Register.)

CHINA AND THE CHINESE.

(Continued from page 151, vol. 2.)

Truth is one of the most beautiful flowers of the human heart. Its chaste and simple elegance renders it indeed lovely. And how fruitful are its seeds when sown—how perfect and full of promise the virtues evolved from their germ. But a Chinaman sees not the moral beauty of truth. One of the most predominant characteristics of this people is that love of specious falsehood which stamps almost all their words and actions. This must be attributed in part to their long subjection under a despotic sway, and to the almost universal tyranny of their corrupt rulers, and partly to the influence of the much vaunted code of Confucius. It was one great object of Confucius' writings to regulate the manners of the people. He thought outward decorum to be the true emblem of excellence of heart, and he collected all the various ceremonies into one general code of rites. Some of them are most excellent—the duties towards parents, the respect due to superiors, the decorum in the common intercourse of life, all speak highly in favor of Confucius. But of his substituting ceremony for simplicity and true politeness, we cannot say as much. True gentility is indeed a sure sign of civilization, but when etiquette becomes an object of life, and unmeaning compliments are substituted for the genuine feelings of the heart, the character of the man is most materially deteriorated. Such, in a great degree, is the case with the Chinese. Taught to conceal their true sentiments, they dissemble, lie, and prevaricate; look satisfied, indeed gratified when they are displeased, and appear grave and imperturbable when every passion is aroused. Falsehood with them becomes a system, and every one endeavours to overreach his neighbour. The most solemn expressions of respect and kindness will pass between them almost upon no occasion: the greatest honour and esteem they will declare for one whom perhaps they never saw before; they will be entirely devoted to his service and interest without any reason; infinitely and eternally obliged for no favour, and extremely concerned for him, indeed afflicted for no cause. The terms they apply to each other partake of the same deceitful character; nothing is too self-abasing in the appellations by which they designate themselves; no terms too high and honourable to be applied to their neighbours. The minds of the people being thus perverted by the repetition of unmeaning compliments, truth in all matters is constantly violated by the majority of the people. They are, indeed, a formal nation, but deceit and hypocrisy are great lineaments in their character. They have, for ages, been distinguished for their facility and falsehood. The early Jesuits make mention of this. Alvares Samado, a Portuguese priest,

who wrote as early as 1655, takes notice of their love of lies.* The first Chinaman I saw told our captain a lie, and the last stole our mate's watch. Almost the first question asked a new comer (and leave John Chinaman alone for finding it out,) is, "hab catcher China now number one time?" If forewarned, he will evade the question; if not, and he confesses it *is* the first time, he is sure to become the victim of sharpers. When we were boarded by an outside pilot, after we had made the land on our passage out, our captain told me that I would find him an unadulterated rascal. The captain assumed an air of great ignorance in regard to the navigation of the coast, and of China in general, and in speaking with the pilot used the ordinary and correct English. The Chinese pilot observing this, thought that he had caught a green one, and asked him twenty-five dollars to take the ship into Macao, assuring him that this was the usual price. The captain immediately turned to him, and said, in the Canton lingo, "my savey alla dat pidgeon," (I understand all that business,) when the pilot, perceiving his mistake, immediately came down to five dollars, the regular charge, making the moderate deduction of 400 per cent. In the practice of deception and knavery they are very adroit. Mr. Forbes, the agent at Amoy of the extensive house of Jardine, Matheson, & Co., related to me the following story: One day a wealthy Chinaman whom he knew came on board his ship, and selected a chest of opium, which he said he would send for, with the money to pay for it the next day. The next morning a Chinaman came along side, and in going up the ship's ladder, he dropt into the river a straw bag, such as they use for carrying dollars, and which was noticed by those aboard ship. The poor unfortunate Chinaman came aboard, and in the agony of his grief commenced plucking his hair from his head—"he had lost six hundred dollars which his master had sent to pay for the chest of opium he had selected the day before, and if he went home without it he would lose his tail." Captain Forbes, pitying the poor fellow, and knowing that he could drag up the lost bag of dollars at low tide, delivered to him the chest of opium. The Chinaman, after pouring forth on his knees his gratitude, departed. At the proper time a drag was let down, and the bag recovered. It was found to contain, instead of six hundred dollars, a quantity of pebbles. One day I visited a garden below Whampoa where cut flowers were sold, and in walking about the garden with its Chinese owners, we conversed very fluently together in the Canton dialect. Before leaving I plucked two or three tuber roses, and wishing to pay the Chinaman something for them, I handed him a rupee, supposing that he would keep perhaps a maa, and give me back the balance. He very coolly put it in his pocket. As I had no idea of giving him so

* The first lesson taught a stranger on his arrival in China by the foreign residents there, is, "never take the word of a Chinaman." The fact is, their institutions and prejudices teach them to regard foreigners as fine game.

much for what I could get any where else for a penny; I said to him, "very mutcher two maa." "No savey," replied the fellow. We had talked together very intelligibly for an hour, but when I asked him for change back, *he did not understand*. A Chinaman is reckless about the means whereby to enrich himself—he is ever mindful of the end he has in view. Reverses do not damp his ardour, nor disappointments paralyze his exertions in pursuit of wealth. After losing again and again, he attempts to recruit his finances, and he sustains the rude blasts of adversity or the entire destruction of his darling hopes without despair. This has connected the whole celestial empire into a large house of industry, where the god of riches sits enthroned and leads the whole people at his will. Industry and a spirit of enterprise are indeed ornaments to any nation, but where all its energies are absorbed in the acquisition of mere worldly goods, the noble feelings are blunted, and man becomes a sordid animal, concentrating all his thoughts upon self. I need not tell you that in their intercourse with foreigners they exhibit this selfishness in its most glaring light, or that they appear to consider all advantages diminished in proportion as they are communicated. In justice, however, to the Chinese, I would state that the prejudices they entertain towards foreigners, is in a great measure to be attributed to the Portuguese. They discovered the passage of the Cape of Good Hope in the latter part of the fifteenth century, and by special permission were allowed to found a colony at Macao, in 1537. Sensible of the advantages of their position, and confident that they would be able, by working upon the prejudices of the Chinese, to monopolize the foreign trade, they directed all their efforts towards degrading other nations in the estimation of the people. How well they succeeded at last in this monopoly we can judge from the fact that the Portuguese now send to China but three ships yearly, while the English send as many hundreds. The laws of China operate unfavourably against the exercise of benevolence where it is most needed. Whatever crimes are committed in a neighbourhood, all within its bounds are involved, and contrary to what is the case in other and more civilized countries, the law believes them guilty until they prove themselves innocent. When I was at Amoy, two villages were entirely destroyed by the mandarins, on account of feuds which had originated between individuals and had extended to their friends. Hence their terror of being implicated in any evil.

The morals of China, as a nation, commence in filial duty and end in political government. The learned reduce every thing to one principle, that of paternal and filial piety; every other is but a modification of this. In it they think they discern the seed of all virtues, and the motives to all duties. They trace its origin high up to those causes which at first separated chaos, and see its importance illustrated in all the workings of nature. Immediate parents are considered the father and mother of the family; the rulers of provinces, the parents of provinces; the emperor and empress the father and mother of the empire;

heaven and earth the father and mother of the emperor, and Yin and Yang the father and mother of the post-chaotic universe. This principle is supposed to teach the good emperor to treat the people with the tenderness of a father, and the people to obey the emperor with the veneration of children. Under its influence the good parent stretches his views forward to thousands of future generations, and lays up goods for his unborn posterity, and the good child turns his thoughts backward to thousands of past ages, and remunerates the favour of his deceased ancestors by offerings at their tombs. China considers herself as much of a parent when she punishes as when she rewards; when she cuts off the heads of her disobedient children as when she crowns the obedient with riches and honour; and the minister of state, but yesterday raised from plebeian ranks, is not more obliged to render thanks for the paternal grace which has elevated than the criminal just about to be cut into a thousand pieces is to bow down in gratitude for the paternal discipline which will in a moment terminate in ignominy his terrestrial being.

In the social virtues of the Chinese, we see many things to admire. A true Celestial will stand by his own flesh and blood to the last—through good report and through evil report he will be constant, and sacrifice a great deal in his behalf. He is to his race a friend in trouble, a devoted adherent, and his condoling protector under suffering. Palliating his crimes, and excusing his misdeeds, he will not allow any stain upon his memory, nor suffer injury to be inflicted upon him with impunity. Alas! with us it is too often the case that friendship depends upon interest; that with the clouds of adversity come the cold looks of those who were all sunshine in their smiles when prosperity was ours. Thank God! we are not *all* thus base—that there are some who follow with guardian interest and more exalted affection far into the shades of sorrow those upon whom the heavy hand of affliction has been laid. It is this strong bond of friendship which divides society thus into small communities or clans, who often stand in hostile attitude to one another, but who are united among themselves. Extremes of intense feeling and apathetic indifference, of cheerfulness and sullenness, are met with in China. When grief takes possession of a Chinaman, he is inconsolable, and raves like a madman; he beats his breast, tears his hair, and utters piercing lamentations, particularly at the death of a father or son. Wrath is not a passion which sways the breast of a Chinaman; on the contrary, he suppresses his emotion. He is not prone to revenge, and will forgive injuries that would make the blood of other people boil, and urge the Malay to deeds of blood. Gratitude is not, however, a leading feature in his character, though instances of the most liberal generosity are sometimes met with. That of Hongua's deserves to be mentioned, and should long be remembered as an evidence of the worth of the man. Several years since, an American gentleman who had been extensively engaged in trade at Canton, and who

had large dealings with Hongua, failed, owing him at the time about \$20,000. He remained at Canton for a considerable time with no apparent means of support. One day, Hongua asked him why he did not return to his own country, and commence the world anew. He replied that if he went to America, he would be arrested on his landing for debts due to the foreign merchants at Canton. Hongua asked him what sum would relieve him from his perplexing situation. He replied twenty-five thousand dollars. The next day he received that sum, accompanied by a letter, in which the generous Chinaman told him "to take the sum, but that he asked no acknowledgment of the debt; if he was ever able to repay him, well and good; if not, it would not materially affect his circumstances." The person thus benefited is now in his grave. Were he alive, I would not hesitate to state how he rewarded his benefactor.

That the Chinese are not of a quarrelsome disposition, any one who has been on the river near Canton, will testify. There, there is such an immense number of boats sailing about in every direction, that collisions are unavoidable, yet they are seldom the occasion of ill blood or quarrels.

In regard to the intellectual character of the Chinese, we are in a great measure ignorant. This people believe that the highest achievements of which the human mind is capable, have been attained by their own ancient kings. To the past, therefore, they look for whatever is excellent, both in precept and practice. Some, I know, have a most contemptible opinion of the intellect of the Chinese, and Maltebrun, in speaking of the state of science and arts among them, says: "It is almost a profanation of the name of science to apply it to the rude notions which the Chinese preserve as a precious inheritance from their ancient sages and law-givers;" and this, by the by, is all that he deigns to tell us of them. He tells us nothing of the discovery by them of the art of making paper, and of the existence of printed books among them, according to the authority of Marco Polo, in the 13th century;—nothing of their acquaintance with the means of ascertaining the state of the atmosphere at a day contemporary with that in which they were revealed to us;—nothing of their discovery of the polar attractions of the needle, and of its variations long before they were known to us;—nothing of their manufacture and use of gunpowder long before Friar Bacon ever dreamed of it;—nothing of their acquaintance with the properties of minerals, and of the manufacture of glass and porcelain in the 7th century;—nothing of their acquaintance with the principles upon which the arch is constructed, which must have been known to them at a very early day, unless the inscriptions upon some of them are gross falsehoods;—nothing of their discovery of the art of making cloth from the web of the silk-worm, more than three thousand years ago;—nothing of their acquaintance with the science of astronomy, and of their knowledge

of chemistry, as shown in the manufacture of colors, and of the mode of their use in the embellishment of their wares. In fine, with Maltebrun for authority, we would be led to believe that the Chinese were no further advanced in science and arts than their near neighbors, the Tartars and the Malays. I do not intend to utter undeserved encomiums upon their advancement in science, but I must say that a meed of praise is due to the Chinese for that advancement, however slight it may be. Secluded from all the benefits they would derive from an acquaintance with the works of the great minds of other countries—without the light which our philosophers possess, and guided only by the lamps of their own experience—they *have* made an advance which places them at least beyond the reach of the shafts of ridicule.

Taking them all in all, we suspect that the Chinese will not, in natural endowments, suffer in comparison with the inhabitants of any other equal portion of the globe. The impress of the Creator's hand is seen as clearly in the east as in the west; in the structure of the mind as in that of the body; and until further information is afforded us, we are disposed to admit and maintain, that the Chinese are not naturally deficient in mental capacity, and that in useful attainments they have advanced as far as any people have gone or can go, without the aid of divine revelation.

I am compelled to pass over much that to me is of interest in the character of the Chinese; yet I cannot close without observing that although China is a monarchy, there is no hereditary nobility, acting like an incubus upon the energies of the people. There are, however, two kinds of true nobility recognised by all classes: the nobility of learning, and the nobility of the plough. In no country in the world is there a greater comparative respect paid to learning than in China, and the tillers of the soil rank next in esteem to the literati of the country. He who from the vast garner of his mind diffuses abroad the seeds of learning, and he who scatters broadcast upon the generous soil the germs of plenty, go hand in hand together, and to them the tinsel aristocracy of wealth must succumb. In the respect which is paid to learning, the emperor furnishes an example which it would be well for those calling themselves more enlightened sovereigns to emulate. He gathers about him all those eminent for their attainments, whether in science or literature. From the imperial college of Haulin, he selects all his high officers of state, while upon others he confers substantial benefits which make up for the absence of the honors of office. Thus the man of letters then has something to encourage him beside the prospect that his name will live after he has descended to the tomb. Living, he is surrounded with all the comforts of life, and is in the enjoyment of the honors of rank; when he has passed from the scenes of his earthly honors, his memory is cherished among the people, and he himself is worshipped as a god. While

with us it is too often the case that the man of genius drags out his existence in penury and want, his dying moments cheered only by the effulgence of that light, which in his vision he sees glittering around his name after he himself has passed away. Thus we see that in China the path to honor and greatness is open to all—the poorest child in the empire may aspire to the highest rank; for, as I before remarked, the greatest dignity is that which learning confers. The poor scholar has a great incentive to exertion. As step by step he toils along the rugged, yet sweet paths of literature, and as other and more extensive fields unfold themselves for the exercise of his expanding intellect, he is encouraged to more and more vigorous exertions, by his near and still nearer approach to the bright crown of honor and fame awaiting him beyond.

China is full of interest to almost all classes. To the man of leisure, and one possessed of a love for the curious, it offers a most extensive and delightful field for observation. To the philosopher and statesman it is interesting, as exhibiting the workings of an ancient and peculiar system of government; to the merchant as affording ample scope for the exercise of his enterprise; but to the Christian, more than all others, does it abound in interest, melancholy interest. Its three hundred and sixty millions are sunk in the lowest depths of heathenism. A dark, impenetrable gloom is the futurity which lies beyond the confines of their graves, and it will be only when the light of love, emanating from a Saviour's throne, is shed upon them, that they will divest themselves of the shackles which now confine their intellectual and moral powers, and stand forth in the true dignity of civilized man. G. H. V.

(For the Register.)

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES.*

The object of the present article is not to give a detailed account of education either in Britain or in the United States, but only to point out in what particulars the methods and means of instruction differ. The writer's knowledge is derived from personal observation, from teachers, and from official documents.

The differences observable in the education of the two countries, has naturally arisen from the different circumstances of each. The United States have labored under the disadvantages of a more scattered population, and more urgent demands upon their time to procure the necessaries of life. When the colonists arrived in the new world, they had to clear away the forest, build houses, fence in their fields, and

* The writer of this article is a North-Briton, educated at Edinburgh.

defend themselves and their possessions against wild beasts, and more formidable wild men; besides attending to the many wants of a newly established community. This left less time and means to be devoted to education. At the same time, the value of practical knowledge would be more appreciated than in a country where less labor was requisite to procure a subsistence, and the absence of all time-honored abuses, and invidious distinctions of classes, would naturally produce a system adapted to the *whole* of the community. Hence the education of the United States aims more at *immediate* practical applications, and embraces a wider range, while it is less thorough in the amount of knowledge which it communicates on any particular subject, and less efficient as an instrument of mental discipline.

The plan of teaching the higher branches by means of printed questions, so common in the United States, is unknown in Britain, where the student is required to answer such questions as his teacher may ask. Instead of a single text-book, the British student is frequently required to master several treatises on the subject. The teacher gives out a certain subject for study, and mentions the authors that may be consulted. When he comes to examine the scholar, he does so in a general way, without caring whether the answers to his interrogatories are given in this treatise or that. On the contrary, in the United States, one book only is generally studied by the scholar. Another difference in the method of teaching exists in regard to written exercises. These are much more common in Britain, where the examinations for degrees are frequently conducted altogether in this way, some of the teachers being present the whole time to see that the student obtains no assistance, either from books or notes, or from a third party.

The branches taught in Britain are fewer in number, and consist chiefly of such as were cultivated in early times. The sciences of recent origin, such as geology and chemistry, generally form no part of the regular course in the higher seminaries; but the extent to which the subjects of study are taught is usually greater. This is particularly the case with the classic languages, and with the mental and moral sciences. The time devoted to study is nearly the same in both countries, being only a little longer in Britain. Hence, as the subjects taught there are fewer, they can afford to teach them more thoroughly and extensively. The greater number of teachers, and the larger libraries belonging to the first class seminaries, also give in that country an additional advantage.

The branches which the British student is required to master, in order to obtain a degree, differ widely in the various colleges of Britain; but they are almost always fewer than in the United States.* The more recent institutions, such as London University, require

* In this respect, the Scottish seminaries most nearly resemble those of this country. The small number of subjects requisite for an examination at Oxford would rather surprise an American student.

more studies than Oxford or Cambridge. The reader must not suppose, however, that the subjects which are not specified as essential and necessary to be pursued to obtain a degree, are therefore not taught in the British seminaries. There are no branches of human knowledge, of general interest, which may not be learned in most of the Universities. Thus Oxford has professors of Arabic, Sanscrit, Botany, Civil Law, &c., although attendance on these classes is optional with the candidates for degrees. The attendance in such classes is generally small, and the professors are paid in a great measure from the annual proceeds of endowments.

The ancient practice of declamation is much less common in Britain than in the United States. It is altogether optional in many of the English seminaries, and has been totally discontinued in most of the Scottish. The practice of giving prizes and honors to distinguished students is more common in Britain. In most seminaries, the efforts of a few students are quickened by the hope of rewards and distinctions. The general absence of these hot-bed stimulants is a decided advantage to the seminaries of this country. We state as the result of considerable observation, that prizes and honors lead to superficial attainments, and stimulate to fevered exertion those who require no stimulant, while they produce no effect whatever on those who do. The great object is the prize, not a profound knowledge of the subject; and it is a common case with distinguished prize-takers, at the end of their curriculum, to sell their books, with the fixed determination of never paying any more attention to the subject. Within a month after the opening of a class, the superior attainments, and external advantages, or abilities, of a few members make it evident to all the rest that competition will end only in defeat, and therefore they pay no regard whatever to prizes or honors which they cannot attain.

On the subject of discipline, we remark that much more severity is practised in Great Britain than in this country. The injunction of Solomon, not to spare the rod, is generally observed in the schools and academies: and the fines, public reprimands, and expulsions which are sure to follow any marked violation of the college rules, are such as would cause a loud outcry among the students of American colleges. The doctrine that moral suasion alone is in every case omnipotent, most British teachers, of every class, consider not only untrue, but ridiculous. In consequence, however, of the early discipline applied to the rising generation, they are generally less inclined to violate the rules when they enter college than pupils in the United States; and hence, rebellions, offering personal violence to teachers, playing practical jokes on their fellow-students, &c., are much less common among them. In the lower seminaries the lash is applied not only for misconduct, but for negligent study.

With respect to the price of tuition, and the facilities for obtaining an education, the advantage is decidedly in favour of the United States.

Free schools, so common in all the northern and middle states, are almost unknown in Britain. It is true that there are several such schools both in England and in Scotland, but they are not open to the public generally. They rather resemble the military school at West Point in respect to the terms of admission, which are mostly in the hands of a few individuals. These often show preferences which exclude the more deserving portion of the youth; and therefore those schools are frequently in a very languishing condition. As the wages of the working classes are lower than in the United States, while the necessaries of life are dearer, it is no wonder that illiterate parents should not care to send their children to school; and hence the gross ignorance of a large number of the poorer classes throughout England. In Scotland the public schools established in every parish are endowed,* so that the charges for tuition are much lower than in England. Hence the number of persons totally illiterate is comparatively small. The Sunday schools have done much in England in teaching children to read. The number attending these schools in England and Wales, in 1833, exceeded one million and a half. Still the number of illiterate persons in that country is very great. In 1840 one third of all the men, and one half of all the women married were unable to write. Until very recently England had no system of public education for the people at large; and the one recently started is very limited and unsatisfactory. By an estimate in the Year Book, of the number actually educated in England, it appears that in the provision for the instruction of the whole population between 5 and 12½ years there is a deficiency of half a million. In the United States provision is made for furnishing all the people with the means of educating their children at a cheap rate, and very frequently without any charge, while the prices of labour, and the necessaries of life are such that almost all possess ample means of educating their children without any public aid.

The condition of academic education in those respects is also greatly in favour of the United States. The minimum expenses of a student at Oxford or Cambridge is about \$400 a year, whereas in the colleges of the United States board is furnished at so cheap a rate, and the tuition fees are so low, that the student might defray all necessary expenses† with one third of that sum. In Britain, again, the student obtains little or no assistance from education societies; he is dependent on his own funds, and those of his relatives; whereas the associations just mentioned frequently defray a great part of his expenses in the United States, and private benevolence is also exercised towards students in narrow circumstances to an extent unknown in Britain.

* The teachers in these schools are almost all graduates of colleges, and besides the elementary branches, they teach the classics and mathematics.

† We mean, of course, *college* expenses—fees, study, books, board, and fuel,—excluding apparel, travelling expenses, and such books as are not necessary for a student. The price of text-books in this country is little more than one half of what they cost in Britain.

Hence the number of persons who receive a college education is comparatively much greater in the United States.

The standing of teachers in Britain is much higher than in this country, owing chiefly to the permanence of their situations, and their comparatively higher incomes. Amidst our rapidly increasing population, and equally rapid change of circumstances, institutions of learning do not possess, in America, that stability and fixedness of circumstances which generally characterize those of Britain: hence teachers in good situations here do not feel secure in the enjoyment of their present advantages, and therefore they are ready to adopt some other vocation. They are further urged to this course by the smallness of their incomes, which arises, in a great measure, from the comparatively small number in attendance; and this is chiefly owing to the thinness of the population, and the consequent multiplication of seminaries.* It therefore generally happens that persons who take up teaching are those who either cannot do any thing else, or who expect to relinquish it as soon as they can enter upon some more lucrative pursuit. Much has recently been said and written about *elevating the teacher*. The whole may be expressed in two words—*permanence* and *profit*. Until these be secured to teachers, all other attempts to elevate them will come to naught: when these *are* secured, they will, *ipso facto*, take a high standing in the community. The British teacher stands higher simply because his situation is more permanent and more lucrative. Compared with the earnings of other classes of the community, his remuneration is fully fifty per cent. higher than in this country. For these reasons, it is more common there for persons who assume the office of teacher to follow it for life; and it is comparatively a rare thing to see a teacher in any of the higher seminaries resigning his situation, while it is well known that in this country the case is far otherwise. The frequent change of teachers among us renders education much less thorough and efficient than if the teacher was induced to devote all his energies and confine his future expectations to his present duties, and his pupils enjoyed the advantage of a uniform and consistent course of instruction.

The above remarks, so far as they regard the higher branches of education, apply particularly to male students. Advanced female education demands a brief special notice. That of American females is distinguished as embracing a much wider range of studies, and including many branches which in Britain are studied only by persons of the other sex. We never saw in Britain a class of young ladies studying

* Although it is very convenient to have the means of college education brought near to the various sections of this widely extended country, there can be little doubt that the rapid increase in the number of colleges, without a corresponding increase in the means of efficient support, has been very detrimental to the cause of liberal education in this country. Colleges have been too often established to languish, and exist as colleges only in name, since they are in fact nothing more than high schools or academies.

logic, or psychology, nor did we ever hear or read of such a thing in that country, and a similar observation might be made regarding several other studies, whereas it is well known that in American academies we not unfrequently find more female than male students studying such branches. Until lately, British girls of the lower and middle classes studied little except the elementary branches of education, those of the upper classes were taught, in addition, music, painting, embroidery, with one or two modern languages, and nothing more. Recently they have introduced physiology, botany, and a little natural philosophy and history into the Scottish seminaries, which generally precede those of England in the work of improvement. Still, the course of female education is much less extensive than in the United States, where less time is devoted to music, needle-work, and modern languages, and much more to the solid branches of education. Hence, although we cannot suppose that female education in this country is unsusceptible of farther improvement, it may be said with truth that American ladies are more intelligent, as a class, than those of any other country. Female education in other parts of Europe is still more defective than in Britain, and intelligent and thoroughly educated ladies met with in any part of Europe are mostly self-taught, or are indebted for their attainments to parental or private instruction.

P. M. G.

(For the Register.)

HUMAN SPEECH, OR APPARATUS OF LANGUAGE.

——— *Verba, quibus voces sensusque notarent
Nominaque invenère.*—Hor.

They invented words to indicate the names of things, and to express their thoughts.

I was yesterday lounging in the city library, and being in a meditative mood, thought of the great number, as well as diversity of minds—many of them the most powerful and acute that ever existed—which had contributed to produce the thousands of volumes around me. I reflected on the long course of study, the unwearied mental labour, the happy inspiration of the several authors, and, naturally identifying them with their productions, I felt myself to be in the presence of the great men of former times, who had thus bequeathed to mankind the fruits of their genius and talents; and who from these musty shelves were able to speak to me their opinions and feelings as truly as if they were alive.

This they must do, of course, through the medium of mute signs; but all language, whether spoken or written, is nothing more than a set of signs of our thoughts and emotions; and when I reflected on the nature of that system of signs by which our invisible and intangible spirits are thus able to hold communication with each other, I was

filled with admiration at the curious and wonderful means which nature has provided to that great social end. It is my present purpose to bring these means to the notice of the uninitiated. They consist of four parts: the voice, the hearing, the imitative, and the associating faculties, on each of which we will bestow a brief consideration.

The first part of the apparatus is the power which the human species possesses of uttering articulate sounds—almost all animals possess the faculty of making audible sounds, and it is by means of their several cries that their presence, when not visible, is made known; but man has the faculty of uttering a far greater variety of sounds than any other animal. He has a vocal tube through which he can give utterance to a few musical notes, and each of these can be varied by the aid of his tongue, his lips, teeth, &c., whence they are called *articulate* sounds. Some birds also have this faculty, but in a degree far inferior to man.

If these articulate sounds be resolved into their elements, they amount but to a small number, that is, from about 25 to 30, consisting of some 7 or 8 vowels, and about 18 or 20 consonants. But when these elementary sounds are combined into words, their number may be said to be almost infinite—the same elements producing a different result to the ear, with every change in their order, as in the words art, tar, rat. Of monosyllables alone, or sounds uttered by a single emission of the breath, the human voice can utter from 80,000 to 100,000; and of words of two syllables, this large number multiplied by itself. When we further add words of more than two syllables, and the various modes in which all these words may be combined into sentences, the forms of expressing the conceptions of the mind by audible signs seem to be beyond human calculation; and we may confidently say that if ten thousand persons—nay, if a million—were to undertake to describe the same object, as a ship, an elephant, or a house, or the yet simpler objects of a comet, or a snow-storm, and were to employ ten lines in the description, no two of the million would exactly coincide.

Besides this multiplicity of articulate sounds, the human voice can express each one of them a variety of musical tones, and these tones we instinctively use to express our emotions, and we also instinctively understand. Such are the abundant materials furnished by the voice to express every shade of thought or feeling that can arise in the brain or heart of man.

It would, however, be to little purpose that our voices possessed this extraordinary flexibility, and language its great copiousness, if the ears of the hearer were not equally delicate and discriminating. This, however, is the case; and every different sound which the tongue can utter, the ear can readily distinguish. Taking mankind in general, there is a curious adaptation of the faculties of speech and hearing to each other; though to this rule there are some occasional exceptions, and in some men one of these faculties is, in a slight degree, more discriminating

than the other. Thus, where persons confound the V and W, as do many Americans, or cannot perceive whether they have aspirated a vowel or not, as is the case with the cockneys, their organs of hearing are less discriminating than those of speech. On the other hand, the ear now and then distinguishes sounds which the tongue cannot utter, as the English th with the French and Germans, or the Scotch gh with the English. This equality of the two faculties, however, in delicacy and precision, applies only to articulate sounds, for as to musical sounds, the ear often has a nicety and acuteness to which the voice can make no approach.

The next faculty which has been bountifully provided to give efficacy to the great powers of hearing and speech, is that of *imitation*. By this endowment children learn to repeat the words they hear. They do not, indeed, pronounce them accurately at first, for it takes two or three years, generally, for their vocal organs to attain that complete performance of their appropriate functions. But they do not acquire the faculty of speaking as they do that of writing or playing on an instrument, that is, by making frequent efforts, and profiting by their former failures; but they are instinctively able to imitate sounds heard for the first time, and if this imitation in its commencement is imperfect and afterwards improves, it is mainly because the organs themselves improve in flexibility and precision. Sounds adapted to their feeble, half developed muscular powers—such as those of the vowels and the easier consonants—are imitated with success on the very first trial; and but for this original power of imitation, a child could never acquire copiousness of speech. A long life would probably not suffice to enable him to pronounce the hundred thousand monosyllables his tongue can utter if he acquired the faculty by the same process of successive experiments as that by which he acquires the accomplishments of art. But by means of the short process given by nature, a child but two years old, and sometimes sooner, can utter at pleasure almost all of the millions of sounds within the range of the human voice. Some birds also have this imitative faculty, without which their power of uttering articulate sounds, as the parrot or raven, or musical sounds, as the mocking bird, and, indeed, all singing birds, would not be brought into play.

But the powers of speech, thus perfected in each individual, would not avail for the intercourse of two distinct minds, nor even for the solitary expression of our thoughts but for the *associating faculty*, that curious property of our minds, by which whenever any two ideas have been once presented to us in juxtaposition, they then become so intimately united that the subsequent recurrence of either of them will suggest the other. A consequence of this law is, that when a certain sound or word has been associated with any particular object—whether of sense or thought—whenever such sound or word is heard again it immediately suggests the object with which it was previously conjoined;

and in like manner the recurrence of the object suggests the word. It is owing to this property that we remember the meaning of words, or, indeed, that we remember any thing; and that words readily present themselves to our minds to express the objects presented to their notice. After a child is told that one object is a cup, another a spoon, and another a candle, whenever he afterwards sees or thinks of one of these objects, the sound which has been associated with it—that is, its name—immediately recurs to him,—and the name as readily brings the object before his mind.

These four faculties complete the apparatus, bodily and mental, by which we have a stock of signs adequate to the expression of all our thoughts and feelings, and by the easy and ready use of which we can transmit the same thoughts and feelings to the minds of all others who have had the same associations between words and things that we have had, that is, who speak the same language as ourselves.

Let us now take a nearer view of the operation of the associating faculty in the communication between different minds. When an idea presents itself to one of the parties conversing, the word which has been previously associated with it in his mind immediately suggests itself, and, by the imitative faculty, the vocal organs are able, without an effort, to give those words utterance. When the words reach the ears of the hearer, they, by the same power of association, suggest the ideas previously connected with them. The only difference between the two cases is, that, in the case of the speaker, the ideas suggest the words; and in the case of the hearer, the words suggest the ideas. Thus, a child perceives that John eats apples. The agent, the act, and the thing acted on, suggest those three words, because they have been previously conjoined in his mind with the objects which they express, and for the same reason they would have suggested like objects if he had heard them. In the mind of a French child, the same ideas being associated with the words *Jean mange de pommes*, those words and the ideas would suggest one another.

But for these associations, it is clear that there could have been no understanding of the outward signs of the mind, and, consequently, no intercommunication between man and man. This ingenious and complicated apparatus shows that man was made for society, since speech is of no manner of use except to make known to others of our kind our thoughts and feelings, and to compare opinions, and thus add to knowledge as well as enjoyment.

Mankind have availed themselves of the associating principle so as greatly to extend the use of those signs of what is passing within them. They have devised visible signs of the audible signs, or words, so as to give permanence to those fleeting impressions on the ear. That is to say, they have invented writing; and after words have been once associated with certain visible marks, the recurrence of the words immediately suggests the same marks, or forms of writing, as these in turn sug-

gest the words, and, consequently, the ideas with which they have been associated. The associating faculty thus performs, in written language, a double office: first, between the ideas and sounds, or spoken words; and then between those sounds and written words. And in the manual operation of writing, the functions of association do not stop there. The hand which traces the written letters soon has its several motions in forming the written letters associated with the sounds they indicate, and whenever a word is heard, (perceived by its audible signs,) or seen, (perceived by its visible signs,) it promptly repeats those motions necessary for writing it, and which were previously associated with it. But inasmuch as writing is the work of human art, it is the slow result of repeated and laborious efforts, while, in the case of speech, the utterance of the sound heard, being the gift of nature, is easy and immediate.

In thus devising visible signs of spoken language, men have taken two very different courses. The first is the more obvious and simple one of making a separate mark for each important word, in which case those marks sometimes resemble the object signified, and thus constitute a sort of picture writing,—as was practised by the Mexicans—and sometimes are arbitrary and capricious, as is the case with the Chinese. The other course is by alphabetical writing. Some gifted mind, by a happy inspiration of genius, perceiving that however numerous the words of a language were, or the sounds that the human voice could utter, they could all be resolved into a few elements, studiously ascertained those elements, and invented visible marks or letters for each, which they ranged in an alphabet, consisting of from 25 to 30 letters. Their number cannot be precisely given, because the ears of different nations, even of individuals, do not agree in their powers of making articulate sounds, and though they did, their ears would not exactly coincide in making an analysis of it. This alphabet being invented, when we have learnt the letters which compose it, we have all the constituents of a language, however copious it may be. The arts of reading and writing are thus rendered infinitely more easy, more precise, and perfect,—and this system of signs has spread over the world, and been at once the most conclusive evidence, and the most powerful agent of civilization. The system of arbitrary signs for words, that is, without regard to their elements, is sometimes partially adopted with advantage by those who use the alphabet. Our notation of numbers, borrowed from the Arabic, is of this character. Thus, in designating the current year, 1849, we express by four signs what, if written in alphabetical characters, (one thousand eight hundred and forty-nine,) would require thirty-five.

It has been said, as if it announced a paradoxical, or, at least, a questionable fact, that “words are things.” It is, in fact, universally true in one sense, since every word spoken necessarily represents an act of the mind, none being ever uttered, whether true or false, which

did not first receive its passport from the will, and have its prototype in the brain. When truth is intended, we wish to make the conception of the hearer correspondent to our own; when falsehood is our purpose, we wish to make that conception the opposite of our own.

A large portion of our lives is occupied not merely with natural existences, material and immaterial, but also with their artificial signs, audible or visible. These last have furnished materials for several sciences, and when we reckoned but seven, three of them related exclusively to the signs of language: as *Grammar*, which teaches the right use of words, so as to convey the meaning of the speaker or writer with accuracy and precision, in conformity with usage; *Rhetoric*, or that use of language which best fits it for persuasion; and *Logic*, or that use which best fits it for reasoning.

The device of expressing our thoughts by visible signs, or the invention of writing, has also suggested many ingenious arts to serve different purposes of utility. One of these is the use of signals by sea vessels. By means of different flags, placed on different parts of the ship, every one in a convoy or fleet can be told when to shorten sail, when to increase its speed, or change its position; and every one can make known its distress or want of assistance.

Another graphic art is that of writing *in cyphers*, which, by using characters previously agreed upon, and of course understood only by the parties, a secret correspondence can be carried on, so that the letters, if intercepted, cannot be read by others. Another is, short hand writing, which by simplifying and abridging the character, words can be written almost as fast as they are spoken, and thus permanence be given to the fleeting effusions of eloquence or argument.

The telegraph, invented in France, for rapid communication between distant places, was a combination of the advantage of signals and short hand writing. But this invention has been now rendered useless by one of the most splendid triumphs of modern science and art combined, in the magnetic telegraphing, by which messages are actually conveyed from the centre of the Union to some of its distant points, and answers received in a few hours, and which is capable of transmitting words as fast as they can be written, hundreds, and, perhaps, thousands of miles in a few seconds!

But all the arts to which writing has given rise, shrink into insignificance compared with that of printing, the object of which invention was merely to cheapen and multiply copies of what were written. The result of this invaluable art is, that perfected as it has become by successive improvements, the choicest productions of genius are now attainable by the poorest of the community; and the money once given for a single manuscript, is sufficient for the purchase of a tolerable library. For a single cent one may now buy a sheet, which, with its numerous daily copies, informs 100,000 readers of the more urgent business of the community, and of the great events in the four quarters

of the world. The printing press is thus the great vehicle of human knowledge, the instrument of popular instruction, and multiplies and diffuses through all classes of society the pure and harmless pleasures of the intellect. It is also the main conservative of civil liberty, by teaching mankind their rights, and by exposing all machinations against the public interest, whether made by the open force of the tyrant, or the hypocritical cunning of the demagogue.

The utility of this art has been of late years extended by the invention of stereotype printing, by which a page of moveable type is converted into one plate, so that new editions may be issued without any further work of the compositor—and also by lithography and anastatic printing, by which a single copy of a piece of writing, or a small number of copies, may be made much more cheaply and expeditiously than by moveable types, which is a cheap mode only when the copies are numerous.

Such are the vast and diversified benefits which have resulted to mankind from the happy thoughts, first, of analyzing the sounds that compose human speech; and, secondly, of embodying them in visible signs.

T.

[For the Register.]

RIVERS OF FLORIDA.

Few persons enter the Saint John's river for the first time without being struck with surprise at its great breadth and majestic magnitude. For some distance up from its mouth it increases in width, and at Mandarin, above Jacksonville, it opens seven miles from shore to shore. During the occupation of the province by the English, this expanse in the river was called lake De Brahm, and another, terminating near Picolata from the south, was known to the Spaniards as lake Valdez. As most rivers are supplied by springs rising in elevated regions, observers acquainted with the level character of the Peninsula of Florida will be at a loss to account for the great volume of this stream, the vast mass of waters contained in the ever-glades, and the innumerable lakes scattered over the country, and might naturally conjecture that they are derived from remote sources, from springs and subterranean streams that have their origin in the mountainous ridges of Georgia. But though there are no altitudes in Florida sufficiently elevated to arrest the clouds, there falls rain enough in certain seasons to account satisfactorily for this seeming phenomenon to supply all the lakes and rivers of the country, and keep them full for the greater part of the year. The floods which pour from the Okefenoke swainp at such times afford a striking proof of the abundance of this supply, and render it unnecessary to resort to other explanation than rain for the origin of the

waters. During these seasons the Sawanee, though running through banks remarkable for their height and steepness, often rises above them, so that its waters have sometimes mingled with those of the swollen Santa Fé, and their united floods been spread over much of the tract of country between the Mineral Springs and Fort White. The springs of the peninsula issue from lime rock, and collect a much less aggregate of water than the springs of an equally wide and more elevated region.

The basin of a river is the lands which supply its water, whatever may be their height or however distant. On casting the eye over the map of Florida, it will be seen that the Saint John's and its principal affluent, the Oclawaha, with their tributaries, are in the upper part of the peninsula, and that the Cacima river and the rivers which reach its waters before they unitedly flow out of Lake Okechobee occupy a drain with the ever-glades, the lower portion, and are discharged through innumerable outlets into the straits and Gulf of Mexico. It may be said that two-thirds of East Florida forms the basin of these rivers and their lakes. The Sawanee divides this district from Middle Florida to the west, and the Saint Mary's bounds it in part on the north, both rivers draining extensive territory and falling into the sea. The waters of the Saint John's and Cacima, where nearest to each other, are separated only by a ridge of pine barren. The one river passes midway through the peninsula with almost the directness of a canal to the north, the other takes an opposite direction to the south; their heads being about equidistant between the northern and southern extremities of the state. Adair, who wrote nearly a century ago, relates that the Creek Indians in their last war with the Tameesees, carried their cypress bark canoes across this narrow strip of land between the two streams, and were thus enabled to descend to the ever-glades whither their enemies had taken refuge. A passage way through the peninsula by water, an object early sought by the Spaniards, might be effected at this point at some future day, and these streams be connected by a canal for the improvement of the commerce and communications of the country.

The size of rivers, it may be generally observed, is always proportioned to the extent of their basins. Hence, those of our continent which fall into the Pacific being derived chiefly from the melting of mountain snows, and not running through extensive valleys, are of no great magnitude, while those which come to the Atlantic traverse immense basins, and are therefore among the largest rivers in the world. The velocity of water in falling may be reckoned from this, that upon a smooth strait plain, declining only three inches in the mile, it has a movement of about three miles to the hour. Some idea, therefore, may be formed of the sluggish rate at which the generality of the streams of Florida move from the level character of the country through which they flow, and also of the moderate rate at which the surface of the

lands parts with its rains. It is a general opinion that sand is a ready absorbent of water; but this is the case only after it has first been partially penetrated with moisture. Hence the water always runs off superficially at first, or at the commencement of rains, scarcely penetrating the earth, and carrying with it the recent particles of soil into the nearest hollows and streams. Hence the sudden rise of the latter after long droughts and heavy falls of rain, a circumstance which often excites surprise from inattention to the above facts. When the sand has been the least moistened, however slightly, it soon becomes saturated, and transmits water with rapidity. Thus, fresh water is often found on the brink of the sea in making slight excavations, intercepted no doubt in its course through the sand to the ocean. Swamps, marshes, and other low grounds, therefore, in times of drought, absorb more of the rain which first falls than that which subsequently descends, and probably it is not until the vegetable and richer soil is replenished with moisture that the land generally imbibes in its turn and becomes thoroughly wet.

These views are perhaps neither new nor important, and are only offered on account of their application to Florida, and their serving to clear up the question which the accumulation of water on a surface generally flat so strikingly presents. Though new principles of philosophy are not necessary to explain these peculiarities in our physical history, some satisfactory elucidation is still wanting, of the views and doctrines which our legislators have substituted for those of Adam Smith, by which we are taught that the burdens of taxation incident to a state government, by some unknown process tend to increase the value of property, and “wonderfully accelerate the progress of population and wealth.”

From many facts it has been concluded that the dews and rains in England are equal to the quantity of water discharged by the rivers, and taken off by evaporation. If this be correct, and applicable elsewhere as a general law, it will not be necessary to seek for further explanation touching the sources of the rivers and lakes of Florida, neither to syphons which are supposed to exist in the earth by which waters are raised after having run through the ground from the sea, nor to springs which have their reservoirs in distant parts. B. S.

St. Augustine, Florida.

TEXTS OF DISCOURSES.*

RIXATUR DE LANA SÆPE CAPRINA.—HOR.
He often disputes about goats' wool.

One day last week, as I was walking with my friends Grigg and Crosby, we passed a church just as the congregation were passing out, when I was led to remark that I had often wondered how our clergymen were able to provide a sufficient number of sermons for every Sunday in the year, to say nothing of intervening days of the week, when, as on that day, they are attended by most of their regular parishioners, and are, consequently, obliged to deliver a new discourse. Nay, as we seldom hear the same sermon we have heard before, they must prepare new ones for each succeeding year, so that a minister who has been a preacher in the same place for twenty years, to avoid fatiguing the ears of his hearers with sameness, has, probably, been obliged to write many hundreds, perhaps a thousand different sermons.

"That indeed," replied Grigg, "implies great copiousness of thought, but I am disposed to wonder still more how they are able to construct a long discourse from so short a text, often consisting but of half a dozen words, and seldom of more than one or two short sentences. This, to my mind, gives a higher notion of their fertility of invention than the number of their discourses; for, if a text can suggest a long discourse, as the number of texts is almost infinite, so may be that of the different discourses."

"The difficulty," said Crosby, "of producing a long homily from a short text, is rather apparent than real. It is as easy as to draw a long wire of a small piece of metal, and you are to recollect that divines have gold from which to draw their wire. Indeed, when I consider how ideas are catenated—one ever suggesting another—I verily believe I could speak an hour on any sentence you could give me. You remember what Dean Swift said of writing on a broomstick."

"I have a notion," said Grigg, giving me a wink, "of putting your powers of expatiation to the test;" and his eye, lighting at that moment on the words, "Post no bills here," "suppose," he added, "you try your hand upon this laconic cautionary notice."

"Agreed," rejoined the other, and he thus began: "'Post no bills here.' Before I make any remarks on the reasons of this caution, and the consequences of it, I will premise a few observations on the terms themselves in which it is conveyed. The word *post* may, by some phi-

* This communication is from a distinguished literary friend, who sometimes, in this way, relieves the pressure of severe study. The vein of humour which runs through the article, has in language and thought the playfulness of the philosopher.

lologers, be derived from the Latin word *ponere*, to put, so as to make the phrase synonymous with put no bills. But that would be an error. Public notices, or as the French call them, *placards*, are, in many places, affixed to *posts* provided for that purpose, and hence the verb 'post,' means to fix on the post, or any thing else that supplies the place of a post.

"The word 'bills' is one of various significations. Sometimes it means any thing written on a small piece of paper. Sometimes a bank note is called a bill. The draft of a law when under discussion in a legislative body is also called 'a bill.'" Then there are bills in chancery, and bills of lading, and the written items of change made by a tradesman, physicians, &c., are yet another kind of bills. These are all species of the same genus, which genus is, any thing written or printed on a piece of paper by way of giving others notice or information.

"In considering the language used, one is struck with its remarkable brevity—no expletive—nothing superfluous, and nothing deficient, every word pregnant with meaning. But let us, without further preamble, pass to the consideration of the whole sentence.

"'*Post no bills here.*' One of the first reflections suggested is the unqualified character of the prohibition, 'no bills,' that no bills whatever, neither play bills, nor tavern bills, nor bank bills, nor bills of costs, however urgent may seem the occasion. This act, which is thus forbidden to all persons under all circumstances, naturally leads the mind to inquire into the cause of so universal an interdict: and it is not but after some reflection that we perceive sufficient reasons why the 'posting of bills' in that particular place should be so objectionable; for we naturally ask ourselves why we have not the same liberty of 'posting up bills' here as elsewhere? Can they be more mischievous in this place than any other? Can they be mischievous at all? and is the prohibition caused by one who sought to exclude the notices of a rival dealer, or exhibitor, or artist? Or was he influenced by an over-anxious morality, and apprehended that something may be here advertised that may be of a corrupting character to youth, or offensive to the decencies of life? These, and many other reflections, will naturally suggest themselves to the inquisitive mind. When such a variety of motives occur to us as the cause of the unconditional mandate, '*Post no bills here,*' which does sound logic lead us to choose?

"The real motive appears to me to be one of the two following. Either that the owner of the edifice on which the notice is affixed, apprehended that if he permitted one bill to be posted, the indulgence would cause many persons to follow the example, and thus the appearance of the building would be impaired, and its beautiful simplicity be destroyed; or that if a general license were given to all those who wished to put up their public notices in that place, it would naturally create frequent gatherings of people in the same spot for the purpose

of reading these placards, by reason of which the privacy that every one desires in his dwelling would be interrupted. Nay, riots might be there engendered, by which not only would his tranquillity be invaded, but, perhaps, his home itself be destroyed—it being not uncommon for mobs, when once their fury is excited, to pull down the first house that comes in their way.

“Whether we adopt one or the other of these explanations, we are led irresistibly to the inference that the prohibition originated with the owner of the building or wall on which it appears; for, otherwise, the author of it would be guilty of the shameless inconsistency of violating the very rule he had prescribed to others. But if we regard the words, ‘Post no bills here,’ as proceeding from the proprietor of the locality, then they seem to say, that while he has a right to post bills on his own wall, and there exercises that right, he forbids all other persons from venturing to do the like act.

“In this point of view the notice forcibly reminds us of the nature of property, the chief characteristic of which is, that the owner may do with it what no other person can. But we are at the same time reminded that this exclusiveness is apt to be carried too far; for it must occur to every kind-hearted person that it is somewhat churlish in the owner to refuse to any one who, at a great expense, has procured a variety of curious animals, to instruct us in natural history, an opportunity of informing the public where they may obtain the interesting knowledge; or to withhold from the same public the information when and where a great singer or actor mean to electrify their audience; or where persons smitten with disease may obtain a sure remedy; or when a political meeting is to discuss the great interests of the nation.

“We have a farther evidence of the same unamiable feature of our nature in the word ‘here,’ for to say ‘Post no bills *here*,’ is the same as to say, ‘Post bills where you please, provided you do not post them *here*. Annoy my neighbour, and welcome, but do not annoy me.’”

“Hold,” said Grigg, who now began to grow impatient, and to regret the challenge he had given to our loquacious friend, “I cannot admit that to be a necessary inference, or even a fair one. You might as well say that when dame Quickly cried, ‘We want no swaggerers here,’ she meant that she wanted them somewhere else.” “Pardon me,” said Crosby, “the inference I have drawn is both natural and fair. The sentence ‘post no bills here’ is what we lawyers call a *negative pregnant*, that is, a negative proposition involving an affirmative one. Thus, suppose a law enacted against stealing *horses*, would not this be a tacit license to steal cows, sheep, &c.? Or if the law proscribed the stealing *white* horses, would not this give impunity to him who stole *black* ones?” “Go on,” said Grigg, who saw that nothing was to be gained by interrupting so tenacious a disputant.

“I have already spoken of the very condensed brevity of the sentence ‘post no bills here.’ But I omitted to call your attention to the

fact that it does not *show on its face* from whom the injunction proceeded, nor to whom it is addressed. All this is left to the reader's imagination, or rather to his powers of ratiocination. If these be exercised, they will lead us, as we have seen, to the conclusion that it is the proprietor of the structure on which the advertisement appears, who thus uses the imperative mood; and that the persons addressed are all those who have notices to affix to public places. If, then, this sentence be expanded into its full meaning, like those carefully drawn law papers which allow no room for the mistakes of a careless or wandering mind, it will amount to this: I, who am the proprietor of this house, (or wall, as the case may be,) give this public and general notice to all persons whatever, that no one or more of such persons has or have permission to post, paste, put up or affix any bills or papers of any description whatever, written or printed, on the said house (or wall) on which I myself have affixed this said notice. Certainly when we find all this contained in four words, we must admit that nothing more laconic was ever produced in Sparta, or in all Laconia.

"But if this caution exhibits some of the least amiable qualities of our common nature, it also affords us some wholesome moral lessons. It teaches us by example,—always better than mere precept,—the wisdom of *prevention*; since by this timely caution of the prudent proprietor the evil of having bills posted on his house or wall is likely to be averted, and thus the vexation arising from the offence, and the trouble and expense of punishing it is saved.

"Nor is this all. The reader may occasionally see that, notwithstanding the positive interdict, some saucy urchins have ventured to post bills on the place proscribed, from which fact we may learn, that with every precaution which prudence may suggest, our purposed prevention may be frustrated; and that we must be content to obtain good results more or less mixed with evil. Hence Seneca observes—"

"I see," said Grigg, who now showed unequivocal symptoms of weariness, and which I confess I also felt, "that you have made out your case, and I admit I was mistaken."

"Nay," said Crosby, with an air of triumph, "I would engage to deliver as long a discourse on any one of the four words composing the sentence I have been considering; or, to go still farther, on any one of the letters composing it. Thus, to take the letter P, it naturally suggests Peter and Paul; patience and prudence. It is the beginning of all our pleasures and pains. It is synonymous with one of our best vegetables"—But our ways home here separating, we were happy to wish a good morning to our indefatigable logomach.

GAMMATAN.

'NINEVEH AND ITS REMAINS.

One of the most interesting and valuable books which has come from the press is the recent work of AUSTIN HENRY LAYARD, Esq. This learned traveller and antiquarian having with commendable zeal prosecuted his Assyrian investigations, has at last brought up from the bowels of the earth beautiful entablatures and other monuments of ancient Nineveh, and revealed her palaces that have been buried and hidden in the earth for twenty centuries. Many of these relics of antiquity have been conveyed to England, comprising several curious bas-relief slabs with cuneiform inscriptions; a gigantic obelisk; vases, having the beautiful vitrified glaze of the ancient Egyptians; fragments of bronze and ivory, and many other specimens of ancient art. The illustrations of scripture are rude, but curious. On brass and marble are engravings which correspond with the facts and descriptions recorded in the Bible, and thus furnish incontestable evidence of the truthfulness of the Holy Scriptures. Mr. Layard has contributed largely to the cause of science and truth by the remarkable developments which he has made of the works and history of remote ages, and earned by his enterprise and perseverance an enviable notoriety. It is gratifying to learn that he is about to renew his labours, for which purpose the sum of £5000 has been appropriated by the British government, and from which further important results may be anticipated.

In the first volume of the Register we inserted a brief notice of the discoveries of Mr. Layard, and we now believe we shall perform an acceptable service to our readers by presenting to them the following extracts from an able and interesting article in the North British Review, from which an estimate may be formed of the importance and extent of the excavations in the mound of Nimroud.

"Nineveh, or the dwelling of Ninus, was the metropolis of the great Assyrian empire, the residence of a long line of illustrious princes, and once the largest and most populous city in the world. We learn from the book of Genesis that Ashur, one of the sons of Shem, 'went forth' from the land of Shinar, and built Nineveh; but we hear nothing more of it in the sacred writings till Jonah, its inspired missionary, describes it as 'a great city,' an 'exceeding great city of three days' journey,' and which required him to take 'a day's journey' before he reached the spot from which he was to predict its overthrow. The immense population of this great metropolis is also clearly indicated by the prophet. It contained more than six score thousand (120 000) persons that could not discern between their right hand and their left hand,' and must, therefore, have contained a population of nearly 600,000.

“Although the Ninevites repented at the preaching of Jouah, and were for a while spared, yet the prophet Nahum was, a short time afterwards, commissioned to declare ‘the burden of Nineveh,’—to announce the destruction of the city, and the downfall of the Assyrian empire. He describes it as a city with many strongholds, and many gates with bars,—her merchants as multiplied above the stars of the heavens,—her inhabitants and princes numerous as the locusts, and the ‘store and glory’ of her ‘pleasant furniture’ as endless. ‘This is the rejoicing city,’ says Zephaniah, ‘that dwelt carelessly, that said in her heart, I am, and there is none besides me: how is she become a desolation, a place for beasts to lie down in!’”

These predictions were literally fulfilled by the destruction of the city in the year 606 B. C., by the combined armies of Cyaxares, king of Persia and Media, and Nabopolassar, who was either king of Babylon, or, as Mr. Layard thinks, the Assyrian governor of the city. “He that dasheth in pieces came up before her face;” “the gates of her land were set wide open unto her enemies;” “fire devoured her bars,” and “herself;” “the noise of the whip, and of the rattling of the wheels, and of the prancing horses, and of the jumping chariots,” resounded in her “broad ways;” “the gates of the river were opened, and the palace dissolved;” “there was no end of the corpses of the slain;” “the spoil of the silver and spoil of the gold” were “taken;” “and the voice of her messengers was no more heard;” “the nations saw her nakedness, and the kingdoms her shame;” Nineveh was laid waste, “she was made a desolation, and dry like a wilderness.”

The account of Nineveh, as given by profane historians, the details of its destruction, and its present condition, as observed by modern travellers, confirm in a most remarkable manner the statements of the ancient prophets. Its walls are described by profane writers as a hundred feet high, sixty miles in circumference, and defended by 1500 towers, each of which was 200 feet in height. Diodorus Siculus informs us that the city was destroyed partly by water and partly by fire, and that many talents of gold and silver preserved from the flames were carried to Ecbatana. Lucian, a native of Samosata, near the Euphrates, who flourished in the second century, (between A. D. 90 and A. D. 180,) informs us that Nineveh had utterly perished,—that not a vestige of it remained, and that no one could ever point out the place which it occupied.

During the eighteen centuries which have elapsed since the time of Lucian, Nineveh was known only in its name. Its very ruins had disappeared; and while the traveller and the antiquary were investigating the remains of Greek and Roman grandeur, and the geologist was ranging over the globe to discover and disinter the fossil remains of the primeval world, no inquiry was made after the Nineveh and Babylon of holy writ, and no pilgrimage undertaken to search for the buried palaces of the Assyrian kings. Huge mounds, seemingly composed of earth and rubbish, had long ago attracted the notice of travellers in Assyria and Babylonia, and were conjectured to be the remains of their

mighty capitals. A vitrified mass of brick work, *Birs Nimroud*, rising out of the accumulated rubbish of centuries, was believed to be the tower of Babel. The temple of Belus, according to Herodotus, and other mounds in the neighbourhood, were supposed to be the hanging gardens and marvellous structures attributed to the two queens, Semiramis and Nitocris; but the difficulty of reaching these localities, though it excited the curiosity of the antiquarian, prevented the traveller from even paying them a passing visit. The presumed site of the Assyrian metropolis had excited still deeper interest than that of Babylonia. The enormous mounds on the left bank of the Tigris, opposite the modern city of Mosul, on the right bank, had been noticed by several travellers; and the traditional tomb of Jonah, on the top of one of the mounds, gave probability to the supposition that it marked the site of Nineveh; but notwithstanding this probability, Mr. Macdonald Kinnear, who examined these mounds, was disposed to believe that they were the site of a Roman camp of the time of Hadrian!

The reviewer then notices the *Memoirs on the Ruins of Babylon*, by Mr. Rich, the East India company's resident at Bagdad, in which an account is given of his examinations in 1812, 1818, and 1820, with some slight notice of the ruins of Nineveh. He does not appear, however, to have excavated the mounds which were seen on what he supposed to be the site of that city, "and hence all the antiquities which he did collect, including those from Babylon, would not occupy a cube of three feet."

Mr. Layard's first attempt to disinter the antiquities of this consecrated ground was made in 1840, when he visited the extensive ruins on the left bank of the Tigris, including the great mounds of Koyunjik and Nebbi Yunns. In 1842 he again visited Mosul, and found that M. Botta, a nephew of the historian, had since his former visit commenced excavations in the mound of Koyunjik.

The result of these labours was the discovery of several very large chambers or halls, and bas-reliefs, between which were cut numerous inscriptions in the cuneiform* character, proving that the building belonged to a period which preceded the conquest of Alexander. This building, Mr. Layard remarks, was "the first, probably, which has been exposed to the view of man since the fall of the Assyrian empire." M. Botta's means failed, and Mr. Layard, impressed with the importance of pursuing these researches, was anxious to devote himself to the task. In the autumn of 1845 Sir Stratford Canning, the British ambassador at Constantinople, with great liberality, offered to bear Mr. Layard's expenses for a limited time. The review thus proceeds:

Furnished with letters of introduction to the authorities at Mosul, Mr. Layard left Constantinople in the middle of October, 1845, "crossed the mountains of Pontus, and the great Steppes of the Usun Tilak, as

* Wedge-form or arrow-headed character.

fast as post-horses could carry him, descended the high lands into the valley of the Tigris, galloped over the vast plains of Assyria, and reached Mosul in twelve days." Having paid his respects to the Governor, Mohammed Pasha, and secretly procured a few tools, and engaged a mason, he left Mosul on the 8th of November, and accompanied by Mr. Ross, a British merchant in Mosul, his own Cawass, and a servant, he descended the Tigris to Nimroud in five hours, and at sunset reached the Arab village of Naifa. Awad, a Sheik of the Jeshesh, in whose house he lodged, entered his service, and speedily engaged six Arabs to assist in the excavations. In the principal mound, only twenty minutes' walk from the village, about 1800 feet long, 900 broad, and 65 high, supposed to be the pyramid of Xenophon, they found fragments with cuneiform inscriptions, and in the course of the morning, ten large slabs, forming a square, were uncovered, forming the top of a chamber, with an entrance at the north-west corner, where a slab was wanting. Cuneiform inscriptions occupied the centre of all the slabs, which were in the highest preservation. Digging into the side of the mound, the workmen came immediately to a wall having similar inscriptions, but the slabs had been exposed to intense heat, and were so cracked and reduced to lime, that they threatened to fall to pieces. The labors of this first day's work were highly encouraging, and strengthened with five Turcomans, who had been attracted by the prospect of regular wages, the party began the work of the second day. Inscribed slabs, ivory ornaments with traces of gilding, among which was a male figure in long robes, walls branching out at different angles, and a great accumulation of charcoal, proving the destruction of one of the buildings by fire, were the amount of this day's labor. During the continuance of the excavations for other three days, several of the inscriptions were uncovered, but no sculptures. Scattered fragments of gold leaf had induced the workmen to believe that Mr. Layard was in search of gold, and even his head-workman, Awad, had arrived at the same conclusion. "O Bey," said he, "here is gold, sure enough, and, please God, we shall find it all in a few days. Only don't say any thing about it to these Arabs, for they are asses, and cannot hold their tongues. The matter will come to the ears of the Pasha." The Sheikh was at once disappointed and surprised when Mr. Layard presented him with the golden treasure he had collected, and assured him he might retain "all such as he might hereafter discover."

* * * * *

No objections having been made to the continuance of the excavations, Mr. Layard rode daily from his new residence at Selamiyah, a distance of three miles, to superintend the work. Two fine bas-relief sculptures were now discovered: one representing war-chariots, with warriors, and richly caparisoned horses; and another, the siege of a castle or walled city, with warriors, some on the turrets discharging arrows and stones, and others ascending a ladder placed against the

walls. While meditating upon this interesting discovery, Daoud Agha, the commander of the irregulars, brought orders from Mosul to stop the excavations, by threatening the workmen. Mr. Layard rode off early the next morning to Mosul, to expostulate with the Pasha, who, pretending surprise, disclaimed having given any orders, and directed his secretary to write an order to the commander of the irregulars to assist rather than obstruct him. Mr. Layard requested this letter to be sent to him before he left Mosul; but the Pasha, on the ground that he was unwilling to detain him, promised to forward it in the evening. On his arrival at Selamiyah, Mr. Layard informed Daoud Agha of the success of his visit; but the commander returned to him at midnight with the news, that a horseman had just brought him the most stringent orders, that on no account was he to permit the excavations to be continued. Confounded with this intelligence, Mr. Layard visited the Pasha next day, and received the following explanation of his conduct:

“It was with deep regret,” said the Pasha, “I learned after your departure yesterday, that the mound in which you are digging, had been used as a burying-ground by the Mussulmans, and was covered with their graves. Now you are aware, that by the law it is forbidden to disturb a tomb; and the Cadi and Mufti have already made representations to me on the subject.” “In the first place,” replied I, “I can state that no graves have been disturbed; in the second, after the wise and firm *politico*, which your excellency exhibited at Siwas, grave-stones would present no difficulty.” * * * * “No,” added he, “I cannot allow you to proceed; you are my dearest and most intimate friend: if any thing happens to you, what grief should I not suffer! Your life is more valuable than old stones; besides, the responsibility would fall on my head.”—*Vol. I., p. 44.*

Mr. Layard pretended to acquiesce in this decision, and requested that a Cawass of his own might be sent with him to Nimroud, in order to have the sculptures already uncovered drawn, and the inscriptions copied. The Pasha's Cawass was readily induced to countenance the employment of a few workmen to *guard* the sculptures during the day. With regard to the graves that had been disturbed, Daoud Agha confessed that he had been ordered to *make graves* on the mound, and that his troops had for two nights been bringing stones from distant villages for that purpose. “We have destroyed,” said he, “more real tombs of true believers in making sham ones, than you could have defiled between the Zab and Selamiyah. We have killed our horses and ourselves in carrying these accursed stones.”

Continuing to employ a few men to open trenches by way of experiment, several gigantic figures, uninjured by fire, were discovered; a crouching lion, rudely carved in basalt; and a pair of gigantic winged bulls, without the head, and half the wings. On the back of these slabs, fourteen feet long, on which these animals had been carved in

high relief, were inscriptions in large and well cut characters. A pair of winged lions, without the heads, admirably designed and carefully executed, were also discovered; and a human figure, nine feet long. These sculptures were left *in situ*, the upper part only having been examined.

Having now no doubt of the existence of vast edifices in the interior of the mound of Nimroud, Mr. Layard urged on Sir Stratford Canning, the necessity of a firman order from the Porte, to prevent his proceedings from being interfered with. He covered over the sculptures, and withdrew from Nimroud, leaving an agent at Selamiyah. On entering Mosul on the 18th December, he found the population rejoicing at the dismissal of Keritli Oglu, and the appointment of Ishmael Pasha as his successor. Owing to the state of the weather, the continuance of the excavations was impossible, and Mr. Layard proceeded to Bagdad, which he reached on the 24th December, in order to consult Major Rawlinson, and make arrangements for the removal of the sculptures at a future period. On his return to Mosul early in January, the new Pasha gave him every assistance and protection. His agent at Nimroud had not been idle. The counterfeit graves had been removed, and also others which possessed more claim to respect. Mr. Layard satisfied the Arabs, that as the bodies were not turned towards Mecca, they could not be those of true believers.

The Cadi at Mosul again contrived to interrupt the excavations. He alleged that Mr. Layard was carrying off treasure, and trying to prove by the inscriptions that the Franks once held the country. The Mufti took up the same ground, and complained to the Pasha, who requested him to suspend his operations for a short time. Still, however, he made fresh experiments with only a few men, to avoid notice. He discovered two human figures about the natural size, in bas-relief, and with the freshness of a recent work. All their parts were entire. The figures were back to back, with wings, and an inscription ran across the sculptures. He now recognised at once whence many of the sculptures of the south-west buildings had been brought, and it was evident he thought he had at length discovered the earliest palace in Nimroud. In the north-west palace he discovered an eagle-headed figure, of a very singular form, furnished with wings, and clothed in long robes. On all these figures, paint could be distinctly seen, particularly on the hair, beard, eyes, and sandals, and the slabs were such that they could be easily packed and transported.

When Mr. Layard was returning to the mound on the morning after these discoveries, he saw two Arabs on their mares approaching him at the top of their speed. "Hasten, O Bey," they exclaimed, "Hasten to the diggers, for they have found Nimroud himself!"

"On reaching the ruins," says Mr. Layard, "I descended and found the workmen, who had already seen me as I approached, standing near a heap of baskets and cloaks. Whilst Awad advanced and asked for

a present to celebrate the occasion, the Arabs withdrew the screen they had hastily constructed, and disclosed an *enormous human head*, sculptured in full out of the alabaster of the country. They had uncovered the upper part of a figure, the remainder of which was still buried in the earth. I saw at once that the head must have belonged to a winged lion or bull, similar to those of Khorsabad or Persepolis. It was in admirable preservation. The expression was calm, yet majestic, and the outline of the features showed a freedom and knowledge of art scarcely to be looked for in the works of so remote a period. The cap had three horns, and, unlike that of the human-headed bulls hitherto found in Assyria, was rounded, and without ornament at the top.

I was not surprised that the Arabs had been amazed and terrified at this apparition. It required no stretch of the imagination to conjure up the most strange fancies. This gigantic head, blanched with age, thus rising from the bowels of the earth, might well have belonged to one of those fearful beings which are pictured in the traditions of the country, as appearing to mortals, slowly ascending from the regions below. One of the workmen, on first catching a glimpse of the monster, had thrown down his basket, and run off to Mosul as fast as his legs could carry him. I learned this with regret, as I anticipated the consequences.

“Whilst I was superintending the removal of the earth which still clung to the sculpture, and giving directions for the continuation of the work, a noise of horsemen were heard, and presently Abd-ur-rahman,* followed by half his tribe, appeared on the edge of the trench. As soon as the two Arabs had reached the tents, and published the wonders they had seen, every one mounted his mare and rode to the mound, to satisfy himself of the truth of these inconceivable reports. When they beheld the head, they all cried together, ‘There is no God but God, and Mahommed is his prophet.’ It was some time before the sheikh could be prevailed upon to descend into the pit, and convince himself that the image he saw was of stone. ‘This is not the work of men’s hands,’ exclaimed he, ‘but of those infidel giants of whom the Prophet (peace be with him,) has said, that they were higher than the tallest date-tree. This is one of the idols which Noah (peace be with him,) cursed before the flood.’ In this opinion, the result of a careful examination, all the by-standers concurred.

I now ordered a trench to be dug due south from the head, in the expectation of finding a *corresponding figure, and before nightfall reached the object of my search, about twelve feet deep.*—*Vol. I., p. 65–67.*

Having engaged two or three men to sleep near the sculptures, Mr. Layard celebrated the discovery by a slaughter of sheep, and by a dance, which was kept up during the greater part of the night. Mo-

* The Sheikh of the Abou Salman Arabs, whom Mr. Layard had propitiated by a friendly visit and presents.

sul was thrown into commotion by the news. Nimroud was declared by the terrified Arabs to have appeared, and the Cadi, the Mufti, and the Ulema complained to the Pasha that these excavations were contrary to the Koran. The Pasha requested the excavations to be discontinued till the sensations in the town had subsided. Two men, however, were allowed to dig leisurely, and before the end of March two additional and magnificent specimens of Assyrian art, in perfect preservation, were secured, namely, a second pair of winged human-headed lions, about twelve feet in length and height. Cuneiform inscriptions, in which not a character was wanting, covered all the parts of the slab that were not occupied by the figure.

“I used to contemplate,” says Mr. Layard, “for hours these mysterious emblems, and muse over their intent and history. What more noble forms could have ushered the people into the temple of their gods? What more sublime images could have been borrowed from nature by men who sought, unaided by the light of revealed religion, to embody their conceptions of the wisdom, power, and ubiquity of a supreme being? They could find no better type of intellect and knowledge than the head of the man; of strength, than the body of the lion; of rapidity of motion, than the wing of the bird. These winged human-headed lions were not idle creations, the offspring of mere fancy, their meaning was written upon them. They had awed and instructed races which flourished 3000 years ago. Through the portals which they guarded, kings, priests, and warriors had borne sacrifices to their altars long before the wisdom of the East had penetrated to Greece, and had furnished its mythology with symbols long recognised by the Assyrian votaries. They may have been buried, and their existence may have been unknown before the foundation of the Eternal city. For twenty-five centuries they had been hidden from the eye of man, and they now stood forth once more in their ancient majesty. But how changed was the scene around them! The luxury and civilization of a mighty nation had given place to the wretchedness and ignorance of a few half-barbarous tribes. The wealth of temples, and the riches of great cities had been succeeded by ruins and shapeless heaps of earth. Above the spacious hall in which they stood the plough had passed and the corn now waved. Egypt has monuments no less ancient, and no less wonderful, but they have stood forth for ages to testify her early power and renown, whilst those before me had but now appeared to bear witness, in the words of the prophet, that once ‘the Assyrian was a cedar in Lebanon, with fair branches, and with a shadowing shroud of high stature; and his top was among the thick boughs. . . . His height was exalted above all the trees of the field, and his boughs were multiplied, and his branches became long, because of the multitude of waters when he shot forth. All the fowls of heaven made their nests in his boughs, and under his branches did all the beasts of the field bring forth their young, and under his shadow

dwelt all great nations;’ for now is ‘Nineveh a desolation, and dry like a wilderness, and flocks lie down in the midst of her! All the beasts of the nations, both the cormorant and the bittern, lodge in the upper lintels of it; their voice sings in the windows; and desolation is in the thresholds.’ ”—*Vol. I., p. 69—71.*

With his limited means Mr. Layard after this partially discontinued his excavations; but a small body of workmen continued to excavate, who dug up the winged human-headed bull, whose head had been previously found, sixteen copper lions, three interesting slabs, now in England, on which various figures are delineated remarkable for the spirit of the grouping. The sculptures were afterwards transported down the Tigris to Bagdad on rafts made of inflated skins and beams of popular wood, and thence carried to Bombay.

Mr. Layard’s health compelled him to renounce for a while his labours at Nimroud, and to visit the Tyari mountains, inhabited by the Chaldean or Nestorian Christians. Of this visit a very interesting account is given, which we are obliged to omit, and continue our extracts in relation to Nineveh. “Anxious to renew the excavations, Mr. Layard took leave of the pasha, and found on his return to Mosul, letters from England, informing him that Sir Stratford Canning had presented the sculptures discovered in Assyria to the British nation, and that government had granted funds to the British Museum for carrying on the researches commenced at Nimroud and elsewhere. Although this grant was small, and inferior to that made to M. Botta for the excavations at Khorsabad, yet Mr. Layard resolved to turn it to the best account, and was obliged to undertake the multifarious occupations of draughtsman, of cast-taker, sculpture-packer, and overseer of workmen. By the end of October he began to excavate, with a body of Arabs, fifty Nestorian Chaldeans, who brought their wives and families, a skilful marble cutter, a carpenter, a few men from Mosul, and his three servants. The success of his operations was proportional to the strength of his establishment. A great number of beautifully executed bas-reliefs were discovered. They represented the wars of the king, who stands gorgeously attired in a chariot drawn by three horses richly caparisoned. Behind him are three chariots with warriors and archers, and in several places are introduced groups of men slaying the enemy. The return after victory, the procession to the royal castle, the siege of the town, the reception of captives, the crossing of a river, the embarkation of chariots and troops are all finely represented in these interesting antiquities. Mr. Layard also found the remains of iron armour, almost decomposed, and also the remains of copper armour, and iron inlaid with copper. A perfect helmet, which immediately fell to pieces, and which is represented in the bas-reliefs, was discovered, together with vases of the finest alabaster and vessels of baked clay; but particularly a vase in glass, of elegant shape and admirable workmanship, bearing the title of the Khorsabad king.

In the centre of the mound where the pair of gigantic winged bulls, formerly mentioned, were found, the workmen disinterred an obelisk of black marble, about seven feet high. It was flat at the top, which was cut into three gradines. It contained on its four sides twenty small bas-reliefs, and above, below, and between them was an inscription of two hundred and ten lines. It was in a state of high preservation, the figures sharp and well defined, and not a character of the inscription wanting. Mr. Layard conjectures that it was in commemoration of the conquest of India, or some country far east of Assyria. In the south-east corner of the mound a pair of winged lions, with a pair of crouching sphinxes between them were discovered. The fire which destroyed the building had raged here with extraordinary fury. The sphinxes, which were about five feet in height and length, were almost reduced to lime, and Mr. Layard had just made drawings of them when they fell to pieces. In the south-east corner, the highest part of the mound, the workmen came upon the lid of an earthen sarcophagus, five feet long, but very narrow. The skeleton was well preserved, but fell to pieces when exposed to the air. The body had been doubled up when forced into it. Another like a dish cover, and scarcely four feet long, was found near the first. Neither of the skulls could be preserved, as they crumbled into dust when touched.

Mr. Layard had, early in December, collected a sufficient number of bas-reliefs to load another raft; but in consequence of the Arabs of the desert having stolen the spars, skins, and mats which he had collected for the purpose, it was not until the 25th of the month that he had the satisfaction of seeing a raft, bearing twenty-three cases, in one of which was the obelisk, floating down the Tigris to Bagdad. . . .

In excavating in the centre of the mound to the south of the great winged bulls, Mr. Layard found a tomb five feet long and eighteen inches broad, built of bricks, and covered with a slab of alabaster. The skull and large bones of the skeleton were entire, and near the right shoulder were three earthen vessels. In the dust round the skeleton were parts of a necklace, beads of opaque coloured glass, agate, cornelian, and amethyst. A small crouching lion of lapis-lazuli was also found. The vases and ornaments were Egyptian in their character. Many other tombs were found containing vases, mirrors, spears, and beads. Having removed the contents of the tombs, *the remains of a building were discovered five feet beneath them.* The slabs, containing both sculptures and inscriptions, were scattered about without order. After nearly twenty tombs had been removed from a space about fifty feet square, the uncovered ruins had a singular aspect; above one hundred slabs, packed in rows, leaned against each other like slabs in a stone-cutter's yard. As the Assyrians carved these slabs after they were placed, it was evident that this collection of them had been moved from their original position, or that the central building had been destroyed to supply materials for the construction of this edifice.

The slabs were placed in a regular series according to the sculptures upon them, which were chiefly battles and sieges. To the south of the centre building two gigantic figures were discovered similar to those discovered to the north.

From Mr. Layard's description of the appearance of the ruins as they appeared when explored, we learn that as the mound is approached, not a trace of the ruins is to be seen; but having descended by rude steps about twenty feet into the principal trench, the visiter suddenly comes between a pair of colossal lions, winged and human-headed, and forming a portal. After passing through several apartments in which are sculptured gigantic winged figures, slabs of alabaster, &c., you come to the end of the hall, where there is an elaborate sculpture of two kings standing beneath the emblem of the Supreme Deity; between them is the sacred tree—other entrances lead into new chambers, and on emerging from the buried palace, "we are inclined," says the author, "to believe that we have dreamed a dream."

One of the sculptures found was very uncommon. It was a sea piece, representing vessels filled with warriors leaving a castle on the sea-shore, and was regarded as a record of the Assyrian conquest of Tyre.

Having given a history of his excavations and a description of the discoveries to which they lead, Mr. Layard has devoted the second part of his work, consisting of seven chapters, to an inquiry into the history, the civilization, the manners, and the arts of the ancient Assyrians. These chapters, which are illustrated by a large number of admirably executed wood cuts, exhibit much learning and ingenuity, and considering how limited and incomplete were his materials, Mr. Layard's dissertation will be perused with great interest by the philosophical as well as the general reader, while the pious student will ponder with delight over the numerous illustrations and confirmations of the descriptions and statements of the Old Testament Scriptures. We regret that our too narrow limits will not allow us to make extracts from this portion of Mr. Layard's volumes. We shall merely indicate the more important conclusions at which he has arrived. From the concurring testimony of scripture and Herodotus, 606 B. C. is the date of the conquest of Nineveh by Cyaxares. The buildings must, therefore, be assigned to an epoch preceding 634 B. C., as the Scyths had held Assyria twenty-eight years before that era.

After discussing the various dates of the different buildings, Mr. Layard concluded that the first palace could not have been founded later than 900 years B. C. He considers 1100 or 1200 B. C. as the date of the most ancient palace, according to the most moderate calculation, though he thinks it probable that it is much more ancient. The following are dates of the principal events of Assyrian history according to Clinton.

	Years.	B. C.
Ninus lived,		2182
Assyrian monarchy, 1306 years before the empire,	675	1912
During the empire twenty-four kings,	526	1237
Sardanapalus reigned,		876
After the empire six kings,	105	711
	<hr/>	
	1306	
Capture of Nineveh,		606

Mr. Layard concludes in general:

1. That there were at least two distinct periods of Assyrian history, great changes having taken place between the building of the first palace at Nimroud and that of the edifices at Khorsabad and Koyunjik.
2. That the names of the kings prove a lapse of some centuries between the earliest and the latest of those edifices.
3. That there was a close connexion with Egypt, either by conquest or friendly intercourse between the dates of the edifices.
4. That the earlier palaces of Nimroud were in ruins and buried before the foundation of the latter; and,
5. That two distinct dynasties existed in Assyria, and that an Assyrian monarchy was founded about 2000 years before Christ.

THE LAW OF HUMAN PROGRESS.*

Let me state the law as I understand it. Man, as an individual, is capable of indefinite improvement. Societies and nations, which are but aggregations of men, and, finally, the human race, or collective humanity, are capable of indefinite improvement. And this is the destiny of man, of societies, of nations, and of the human race.

Assuming the unity of mankind, and their indefinite future on earth, it becomes easy to anticipate triumphs of progress, which else would seem impossible. Few will question that man, as an individual, is capable of indefinite improvement so long as he lives. This capacity is inborn. There is none so poor as not to possess it. Even the idiot, so abject in condition, is at last found to be within the sphere of education. Circumstances alone are required to call this capacity into action; and in proportion as knowledge, virtue, and religion prevail in a community, will that sacred atmosphere be diffused, under whose genial influence the most forlorn shall grow into forms of unimagined strength and beauty. But this capacity for indefinite improvement, which belongs to each individual, must belong also to society; for society does

* Extracts from an oration delivered before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of the Union College, by Charles Sumner, Esq., of Boston.

not die, and through the improvement of its individuals it has the assurance of its own advance. It is immortal on earth, and will constantly gather new and richer fruits from the successive generations as they stretch through unknown time. To Chinese vision, the period of the present may always seem barren, but it is sure to yield its contribution to the indefinite accumulations which are the token of an indefinite progress.

Figures speak sometimes as words cannot speak. Let me illustrate, then, in one aspect only, by the statistics of life, the capacity for improvement in the human race. Could Descartes, that seer of science, now re-visit this place of his comprehensive labours and divine aspirations, he might well be astonished to know the present fulfilment—in so short a period of the life of humanity—of his glowing anticipations, uttered a little more than two centuries ago, of the improved health and life of men. The following table, compiled from authentic sources, shows that even the conqueror death has been slowly driven back, and his inevitable triumph at least postponed.

Table showing the diminution of mortality in countries.

Deaths in England,	. . . in 1690, 1 in 33	. . . in 1848, 1 in 47
“ France,	. . . in 1776, 1 in 25½	. . . in 1848, 1 in 42
“ Germany,	. . . in 1788, 1 in 32	. . . in 1848, 1 in 40
“ Sweden,	. . . in 1760, 1 in 34	. . . in 1848, 1 in 41
“ Roman States,	in 1767, 1 in 21½	. . . in 1829, 1 in 28

Diminution of mortality in cities.

Deaths in London,	. . . in 1690, 1 in 24	. . . in 1844, 1 in 44
“ Paris,	. . . in 1650, 1 in 25	. . . in 1829, 1 in 32
“ Berlin,	. . . in 1755, 1 in 28	. . . in 1827, 1 in 34
“ Vienna,	. . . in 1750, 1 in 20	. . . in 1829, 1 in 25
“ Rome,	. . . in 1770, 1 in 21	. . . in 1828, 1 in 31
“ Geneva,	. . . in 1560, 1 in 18	. . . in 1821, 1 in 40

Look at the cradles of the nations and races which have risen to grandeur, and learn from the barbarous wretchedness by which they were originally surrounded, that no lot can be removed from the influence of the law of progress. The Feejee Islander, the Bushman, the Hottentot, the Congo negro cannot be too low for its care. No term of imagined “finality” can arrest it. The polished Briton, whose civilization we now admire, is a descendant, perhaps, of one of those painted barbarians whose degradation still lives in the pages of Julius Cæsar. Slowly, and by degrees, he has reached the position where he now stands; but he cannot be arrested here. The improvement of the past is the earnest of still further improvement in the long ages of the future.

The signs of improvement may appear at a special period—in a limited circle only—among the people favoured of God, who have enjoyed the peculiar benefits of commerce and Christianity; but the

blessed influence cannot be restrained to any time, to any place, or to any people. Every victory over evil redounds to the benefit of all. Every discovery, every humane thought, every truth, when declared, is a conquest of which the whole human family are partakers.* It extends by so much their dominion, while it lessens by so much the sphere of their future struggles and trials. Thus it is, while nature is always the same, the power of man is ever increasing. Each day gives him some new advantage. The mountains have not grown in size; but man has broken through their passes. The winds and waves are capricious ever, as when they first beat upon the ancient Silurian rocks; but the steamboat,

“Against the wind, against the tide,
Now steadies on with upright keel.”

The distance between two places upon the surface of the globe is the same to-day as when the continents were first heaved from their ocean bed; but the inhabitants can now, by the art of man, commune together. Much still remains to be done; but the Creator did not speak in vain, when he blessed his earliest children, and bade them “to multiply, and replenish the earth, and *subdue it*.”

But there shall be nobler triumphs than any over inanimate nature. Man himself shall be subdued—subdued to abhorrence of vice, of injustice, of violence—subdued to the sweet charities of life—subdued to all the requirements of duty and religion—subdued, according to the law of human progress, to the recognition of that gospel law, by the side of which the first is as the scaffolding upon the sacred temple, the law of human brotherhood. To labour for this end was man sent forth into the world,—not in the listlessness of idle perfections, but, endowed with infinite capacities, inspired by infinite desires, and commanded to strive perpetually after excellence—amidst the encouragements of hope, the promise of final success, and the inexpressible delights which spring from its pursuit. Thus does the law of human progress

“ — assert eternal Providence,
And justify the ways of God to men.”

In the recognition of this law, there are motives to beneficent activity, which shall endure to the last syllable of life. Let the young embrace it; they shall find in it an ever-living spring. Let the old cherish it still; they shall derive from it fresh encouragement. It shall give to all, both old and young, a new appreciation of their existence, a new sentiment of their force, a new revelation of their destiny. It shall be another covenant, like the bow in the heavens, that no honest, earnest

* The Sultan of Turkey is projecting railroads, and planning a system of primary instruction for children. He encourages also the cultivation of the Turkish language and literature by offering prizes for the best translations, and by other means.—ED.

effort for the welfare of man can be in vain—that it shall send its quickening influence through the uncounted ages before us, and contribute to the coming of that blessed future of intelligence, of peace, of freedom, which we would now fain secure for ourselves, but cannot. And though not, in our own persons, the partakers of these brighter days, ours may be the pleasure at least of foreseeing them, of enjoying them in advance, or the satisfaction sweeter still of hastening by some moments the too distant epoch.

A life filled by this thought shall have comforts and consolations, which else were unknown. In the flush of youthful ambition, in the self-confidence of success, we may be indifferent to the calls of humanity; but history, reason, and religion, all speak in vain, if any selfish works—not helping the progress of mankind—although favoured by worldly smiles, can secure that happiness and content which all covet as the crown of life. Look at the last days of Prince Talleyrand, and learn the wretchedness of an old age, which was enlightened by no memory of generous toils, by no cheerful hope for his fellow-men. Then, when the imbecilities of existence rendered him no longer able to grasp power, or to hold the threads of intrigue, he surrendered himself to discouragement and despair. By the light of a lamp which he trimmed in his solitude he traced these lines—the most melancholy lines ever written by an old man;—think of them, politician!—“Eighty-three years of life are now passed! filled with what anxieties! what agitations! what enmities! what troublous complexities! *And all this with no other result than a great fatigue, physical and moral, and a profound sentiment of discouragement with regard to the future, and of disgust for the past.*”* Poor old man! poor indeed! In his loneliness, in his failing age, with death waiting at his palace gates, what to him were the pomps he had enjoyed! What were titles! What were offices! What was the lavish wealth in which he lived! More precious far at that moment would have been the consolation, that he had laboured for his fellow-men, and the joyous confidence that all his cares had helped the progress of his race.

Be it, then, our duty and our encouragement to live and to labour, ever mindful of the future. But let us not forget the past. All ages have lived and laboured for us. From one has come art—from another jurisprudence—from another the compass—from another the printing-press—from all have proceeded priceless lessons of truth and virtue. The earliest and most distant times are not without a present influence on our daily lives.

Nor should we be too impatient to witness the fulfilment of our aspirations. The daily increasing rapidity of discovery and improvement, and the daily multiplying efforts of beneficence, in later years, outstripping the imaginations of the most sanguine, furnish well-grounded assurance that the advance of man will be with a constantly accelerating

* Louis Blanc, *Histoire de Dix Ans.* Tom. v. cap. 10.

speed. The extending intercourse among the nations of the earth, and among all the children of the human family, gives new promises of the complete diffusion of truth. . . . And yet, while confident of the future and surrounded by heralds of certain triumph, let us learn to moderate our anticipations; nor imitate those children of the Crusaders, who, in their long journey from western Europe,

— “to seek him dead in Calvary
Who lives in Heaven,”

hailed each city and castle which they approached as the Jerusalem that was to be the end of their wanderings. No; the goal is distant, and ever advancing; but the march is none the less certain.

Cultivate, then, a just moderation. Learn to reconcile order with change, stability with progress.

THE ESCAPE OF CHARLES ALBERT, KING OF SARDINIA.

The last number of the *Revue de deux Mondes* has an interesting article on the subject of the late campaign in Piedmont, prepared by a person said to have been “in a position eminently favorable for judging events and men.” The article is too long to copy entire.

“It was the success of the enemy on our left which decided the loss of this bloody and honorable day, and brought on the retreat of our centre, which marched in front, then of our right, which uncovered on its left by this retreating movement of the centre, saw itself for a moment exposed to be taken in flank on both sides. It was six o'clock in the evening, the enemy opened the fire of batteries posted on the position we had just abandoned. Several pieces placed on the bastions of the city, and before the Mortara gate, retarded the march of the enemy. The Duke of Genoa, having had three horses wounded under him, placed himself at the head of some battalions, and threw himself again into the *melée*, but the fatigued soldiers were reluctant to renew a contest which they regarded as desperate. The king, grave, depressed, but firm, turned his steps toward the city, stopping often, like a lion pursued by hunters, to look his adversaries in the face. General Chrzanowski, faithful to his duty until the last moment, never quitted the rear guard, and endeavored still to prolong the battle, even when it was hopeless. As the king was about to re-enter the city, a young artillery officer passed near him, crying out ‘Long live the King,’ then approaching the Count de Robillant, he said to him in a firm voice, ‘Are you wounded, father?’ ‘No, are you?’ ‘I, I have lost my hand.’ The Count Robillant turned pale, but settling himself in his saddle, he

said, 'Ah, well, console yourself, my son; you have done your duty.' An hour later, and poor Charles de Robillant endured courageously the amputation of his arm. I have quoted the manly answer of Count Robillant, for it is one trait more which paints the men against whom the demagogue press comes out so bitterly every day.

"The king, already near the city, saw me pass—'What news?' he asked. 'Sad, sire.' Just at that moment a bullet reached the royal escort, and several soldiers were thrown to the ground. The horses plunged, the squadron disbanded. A few minutes later, and I found myself near the king—'At least,' said this unfortunate prince, 'the honor of the army is safe.' And afterward—'And even death would not take me,' he added, with an expression of profound bitterness.

"At seven o'clock, the night had come, and the firing of the musketry had ceased. The king sent for M. Cadoma, the responsible minister, while he was yet on the ramparts, and pointing out to him the field of battle, directed him to go to the enemy's camp with General Cossato, and demand an armistice. At the aspect of the field of battle, that minister, pale and cast down, understood perhaps at last what a responsibility rested on himself and his colleagues. He immediately set out for the Austrian camp; but this time the conqueror chose to make all his power felt, and perhaps to assure himself of the more or less Roman stamp of the democratic ministry. His conditions were hard, and all the bearing of his triumph was shown by the attitude of the minister, with whom, moreover, he plainly refused to treat. General Cossato, who, though less lavish of warlike words than the orators of the Carignan palace, was not less ready to expose his life nobly for the honor of his flag, refused to submit thus to the law of the conqueror before he had taken the king's orders. He returned to Novara, and after having explained the result of his mission, awaited new instructions. Seeing the misfortunes to which his devotion to the cause of Italy had drawn the kingdom of his fathers, the king did not hesitate to consummate a last sacrifice. He summoned the princes, the generals, the minister Cadoma, and in a slow but firm voice, said to them these words, which deserve to be preserved in history:

"Gentlemen, I have sacrificed myself to the Italian cause: for that I have exposed my life, the lives of my children, and my throne. I have not been able to succeed. I understand that my person may be to-day the only obstacle to a peace which is henceforth necessary. I could not sign it. Since I have not been able to meet death, I will accomplish a last sacrifice for my country. I resign the crown, and abdicate in favor of my son, the Duke of Savoy.' The king then embraced affectionately each of the persons present, and retired into his chamber, after having made us a last sign of farewell, from the threshold of the door.

"An hour later, Charles Albert went away alone, without permitting any of his officers to follow him into the exile to which he had volun-

tarily condemned himself, without even saying towards what place he directed his steps; but of what import is it to know in what country this unfortunate monarch shall fix his residence. The respect of the people will follow every where the hero of independence—the martyr of the Italian revolution.

“A last adventure on the Piedmontese soil awaited the fallen and fugitive king. The evening of the battle, the Austrians who were encamped in the environs of Novara, had interrupted the communications between that place and Vercelli, and had stationed on the road two pieces of artillery directed toward the city. A strong piquet of infantry kept watch near the battery, and an advanced sentinel observed the road. Towards midnight a noise of wheels was heard in the distance, the captain of the guard was warned that the pieces of the Piedmontese artillery seemed to turn on that side. Immediately he ordered the matches to be lighted, the cannon to be loaded and fired at the proper moment. Meantime the sound became more distinct, the soldiers made ready their weapons, the immovable cannoniers were at their posts. At last at a turn of the road appeared a light which advanced rapidly. ‘Captain,’ said the sergeant of artillery, ‘it is not artillery, it is a carriage.’ They looked attentively, and in fact soon distinguished a carriage drawn by four post horses, passing over the causeway. Immediately the captain suspended his first order, and advanced with a patrol. He stopped the postillion, approached the door of the carriage, and demanded the name of the traveller. ‘I am the Count de Barge,’ replied the latter, who was alone in the carriage; ‘I am a Piedmontese colonel; I gave in my resignation after the battle, and I am returning to Turin.’ ‘M. Count, you will excuse me, but I cannot allow you to pass in this way, you must follow me to the general—he is here, a hundred steps off.’ ‘As you please, sir, I am at your orders’—and the carriage, escorted by a few hussars, went towards the little castle which served for the moment as head-quarters for Count Thurm. The officer went in and informed the general that a Count Barge, calling himself a Piedmontese colonel, had just been stopped on his return to Turin, and that he was waiting below in his carriage.

“‘Let him come up,’ said the general, ‘and send for the sergeant whom we have made prisoner; if that soldier recognises him, you may let him pass, if not, you will retain him as a prisoner. Inform me, in any case, of what happens.’

“In fact the Count de Barge ascended to the ante-chamber, and the sergeant was confronted with him.

“‘Do you recognise the Count de Barge, a Piedmontese colonel?’

“‘No; I do not know any such name in the army.’

“‘Look closely.’

“The sergeant approaching, examined closely the traveller, and remained speechless. The Count looked at him significantly.

“‘Ah, yes, to be sure, I know him well. The Count de Barge,’

cried the sergeant, 'parbleu, he was close to the king during the whole battle.'

"The Count made a motion with his hand, the sergeant retired, and the traveller, advancing to the door, said to the officer:

"I suppose, sir, nothing any longer prevents my departure?"

"Your pardon, colonel; General Thurm directs me to beg you to take a cup of coffee with him.'

"The Count accepts, enters the general's room, where the latter, after polite excuses on account of the rigours to which war condemns the defeated party, entered into conversation. They spoke of the battle, the Count related all that was done in the Piedmontese camp, the general told what passed on the Austrian side, and then added:

"Pardon me, Count; but I am astonished that a man so distinguished as you seem to me to be, should be so little advanced in the army.'

"What would you have? I have never been fortunate, I never could succeed. So that after the battle, seeing the military career henceforth closed to me, I gave in my resignation of the rank I held.'

"The conversation was prolonged in this way for some time, and the Count de Barge took leave of the Austrian general, who accompanied him to his carriage. As he ascended the staircase on his return, General Thurm, addressing his aides-de-camp, said:

"The Count Barge is certainly an attractive man, both in mind and manner. I should not have thought him a soldier. He seemed to me more like a diplomatist. What do you say?"

"We are of your opinion, general; but here is the sergeant. He might tell us, perhaps, the rank the colonel held at the court of Turin. Ah, my friend, who is this Count de Barge who has just left us?"

"The Count de Barge, gentlemen, is King Charles Albert.'

"The king!"

"Gentlemen,' resumed Count de Thurm, after a few minutes' silence—'God protects Austria! What would the world have said, if by a fatal mistake, the batteries had fired upon this carriage, and this unfortunate prince had been struck as it would have seemed unavoidable. We should have been called enemies as implacable as perfidious; it would have been said we had assassinated king Charles Albert in a cowardly ambushade. Let us thank God for having spared us this misfortune, and congratulate ourselves for having been able to see and appreciate so nearly our heroic adversary.'"

NAPOLEON.

“If Napoleon perished so completely, it is because he constituted in himself his renown, his dynasty, and his empire. Who would not have bowed their heads before his superiority? and who did not feel, on approaching him, the charm of his all-powerful fascination? There was no servility in this obedience to him, because it was voluntary; it was irresistible, and amounted sometimes even to passion. You were never tired of looking upon that broad and pensive forehead, which enclosed the destiny of nations; but you could not encounter his irresistible eye, which searched into the secrets of your innermost soul. All other men—emperors, kings, generals, ministers—in his presence, appeared beings of an inferior and vulgar species. There was command in the very sound of his voice, and yet a sweetness, nay, a tenderness—a sort of Italian persuasiveness, which set your nerves vibrating. It was by this inconceivable mixture of grace and strength, of simplicity and splendour, of single-heartedness and superiority, of exquisite tact and abruptness, that he subjugated the most rebellious hearts, and overcame the most prejudiced. It may be truly said, that he conquered with the word as with the sword.

“In his genius, there was oriental pomp combined with mathematic precision.

“His eloquence, which to him was not a studied accomplishment, but a means of command, could adapt itself to all times and circumstances. To the soldiers, men of the people, he spoke the language of the people, ever fond of amplification, of recollections, and of emotions. To the learned, he spoke of science; and he corrected with the clerks, in the public offices, statistical tables loaded with figures. At the council he drew up laws with Treilhard, Merlin, Beranger, and Portalis.

“He was fond of exciting discussion among the counsellors. He stimulated them to argument, either because this was the image of his favourite science, war, or because he would elicit the sparks of truth from the concussion of debate. He himself sometimes skirmished with Treilhard, an obstinate and formidable dialectician, who stuck closely to his imperial antagonist. The emperor used to say that a victory over Treilhard cost him more trouble than winning a battle.

“His style of argumentation was quick, precipitate, and overpowering; without connexion or method, but natural, and full of genius; he threw forth clouds of flame and smoke. Although he had not studied law, he guessed it; and lawyers were wonder-struck at the depth of his reasoning, and the ingenious sagacity of his interpretations.

“Endowed by nature with an incredible power of attention, he could, without the least effort, pass from a discussion of civil and political jurisprudence, to the minute details of an equipment order for the navy, or a regulation for the army contractors for bread. Neither time nor

matter could satiate the devouring activity of his genius. On leaving a council of ministers, he would proceed to the council of state, and attend afterwards the committee of public works. Whilst the counsellors of state, tired and overcome, could not resist the powers of sleep, it seemed to him an excellent joke to prolong the sitting of the council till night. He felt neither hunger nor fatigue; his indomitable will seemed to govern his constitution as it did every thing else.

MIST AND CLOUDS.

The phenomenon of *fog or mist* occurs at all seasons, and it appears always under the peculiar circumstances explained by Sir Humphrey Davy. His theory is, that radiation of vapor from land and water sends it up until it meets with a cold stratum of air, which condenses it in the form of mist—which naturally gravitates toward the surface. When the radiation is weak, the mist seems to lie upon the ground; but when more powerful, the stratum of mist may be seen elevated a few feet above the ground. Mist, too, may be seen to continue longer over the water than the land, owing to the slower radiation of vapor from water; and it is generally seen in the hollowest portions of ground, on account of the cold air, as it descends from the surrounding rising ground and mixes with the air in the hollow, diminishing its capacity for moisture.

Mist also varies in its character according to its electric state; if negatively affected, it deposits the vapor more quickly, forming a heavy sort of dew, and wetting every thing like rain; but if positively, it continues to exist as a fog, and retains the vapor in the state in which it has not the property of wetting like the other.

The fogs in hollows constitute the true stratus* cloud. We see vapor at a distance, in the atmosphere, and call it cloud; but when it sinks to earth, or will not rise, and we are immersed in it, we call it mist or fog. When immersed in a cloud on a mountain, we say we are in a mist; but the same mist will be seen by a spectator, at a distance in the valley, as a beautiful cirro-stratus resting on the mountain.

The magnifying power of mist is a well-known optical illusion. Its concealing and mystifying effects may have been observed by every one; and its causing distant sounds to be heard as if near at hand, may also have been noticed by many.

* *Stratus*, (from *sterno*,) a name given to one of the four fundamental clouds, spread out uniformly. *Cirrus*, (a curl,) a fundamental cloud resembling carded wool. *Cirro-stratus*, a cloud having stratus in the main body, and cirrus in the margin.—ED.

GARDEN CULTURE.

(Translated from the French by Judge Meigs.)

It is impossible at this day to assign, even by approximation, the epoch when men, renouncing the fruits of forests and the flesh of wild animals, addicted themselves to the culture of the earth. Among all people, mythology places in the rank of gods those who first taught the culture of the lands and brought forth useful vegetables, and such men were their first legislators. Such were Osiris among the Egyptians, Triptolemus and Ceres among the ancient Pelagians; such, probably, were the cultivator-civilizing heroes of China and India, whose names have come down to us in poetic allegories and fables. The Bible teaches us that Abraham, the chief of a shepherd people, cooked his bread in the ashes to give it hospitably to the strangers who visited him; and we find Esau selling his birthright for a dish of *lentils*.

We are not to believe that perfection in agriculture was necessarily connected exclusively with a more or less advanced civilization. The Tyrians and Carthagenians, with their purely commercial tastes, the Greeks with their literary and artistic tendencies, were only middling cultivators. Rome, from its cradle, was the capital of an eminently cultivating people. Patricians and plebeians equally did honor to themselves by cultivating the earth with their own hands. For it was the earth which nourished the people, and it was the labor of the fields which hardened their bodies. This ancient virtue was admired when compared with the subsequent effeminacy. In the latter periods of the republic the culture was left to slaves, while the Romans lived in cities where amusements, plays, sights, and idleness soon ended in their corruption. In the time of Lucullus, and those other opulent financiers, whose profusion and luxury have been so stigmatized by historians, the natural productions of their country did not satisfy their gormandizing wants; but Armenia, Persia, and even some of the countries of India, were put under contribution to furnish vegetables and fruits of luxury; and even Gaul, which had been watered with the sweat of their ancestors, was transformed into pleasure gardens, parks, and villas, where debauchery established her monstrous orgies. Now the Roman edifice was beginning to crumble in every part, and tumble into decomposition. Hordes of barbarians, led by a providential instinct, invaded Italy, then already but a carcase, and began to compose a new world on the ruins of the old. In this general cataclysm, (deluge,) in which all the arts, all nationality were forgotten, agriculture fell back to a condition almost barbarian. When, after some centuries, we see it grow again, it was by a prince, whom history calls *the great*; under his powerful action, civilization commenced giving forth new light. Charlemagne has the honor of causing agriculture to flourish again in

western Europe. Our ancient chronicles relate that he did not disdain to sell the produce of his own garden, thus giving an example to his subjects to do likewise. But, in order to secure a proper cultivation of the land, he established laws *compelling* it; and here is a list of the plants which he, in the fifty-fifth chapter of his Capitularies, *commanded* to be cultivated:

Flowers.—Roses, lilies, balsams, iris, mallows.

Aromatic Plants.—Sage, rue, mint, cummin, rosemary, dracontia, fennel, coriander, nigelle.

Kitchen Vegetables.—Cucumbers, citron melons, kidney beans, chick peas, lettuce, rocket, parsnip, beet, carrot, adripia, turnip cabbage, onions, beans, cheroil, endive, blidd, cabbage, leek, eschalotte, peas.

Dye Plants, &c.—Madder, teasels, hemp.

Drugs.—Hibisca, tamarita, euphorbium, origan, little centaury.

This table gives an idea of the garden culture in Gaul in the commencement of the ninth century. The number of plants, it is seen, is very limited. But after that period there was a rapid improvement, and trade in the products began to be general.

WHAT OUR FINE FRUITS HAVE SPRUNG FROM.

The peach, originally, was a poisonous almond. Its flesh parts were then used to poison arrows, and it was for this purpose introduced into Persia. The transplanting and cultivation, however, not only removed its poisonous qualities, but produced the delicious fruit we now enjoy.

The nectarine and apricot are natural hybridations between the peach and plum.

The cherry was originally a berry-like fruit, and cultivation has given each berry a separate stem, and improved its quality. The common mazzard is the original of most of the present kind of cherries.

The common wild pear is even inferior to the choke pear, but still, by cultivation, it has come to rank among our finest fruits.

The cabbage originally came from Germany, and is nothing more than common sea kale. Its cultivation has produced the present cabbage, and its different acclimatings the different kinds; while its hybridations with other similar plants has produced the cauliflower.

This shows the benefits of cultivation in the vegetable world; but the change which cultivation has effected in the mind of man is infinitely greater.

POETRY.

To enliven our grave and matter-of-fact journal, we have in every number devoted a few pages to entertaining sketches in prose, and to poetical compositions—original and selected—after the manner of the British Annual Register. Our original poetical contributions at this time are from the pens of Mrs. Sigourney and Alfred B. Street, Esq. The former has paid us the compliment to express, in an accompanying note, her surprise “at the great research and variety of knowledge which the Register contains;” and adds: “I send you an effusion written this morning on being informed that a periodical was already published in our new and remote territory of Minesota. I thought that probably this simple greeting to the infant scion of our great Republic, might not be an inappropriate *adjunct* to any remarks you may make on its situation, or the development of its resources.”

We have deferred a separate article on Oregon and Minesota until the results of the territorial organizations are known; and have for this number no other notices of Minesota than those contained in our History and Chronicle. We therefore put the production of our gifted and distinguished correspondent in the Muses' place.

MINESOTA.

We've a child out at nurse, where the waters run clear,
 And the Falls of St. Anthony ring on the ear,
 And there, where the breezes are bracing and free,
 She's as healthful and happy as baby can be.
 —“*Mens sana, in corpore sano*,”—you know,
 Is a treasure to all who are pilgrims below,—
 And we, with the sage, Dr. Brigham, have thought,
 The “*corpore sano*” was *first* to be sought;
 So she runs at her will in the fresh, open air,
 And takes simple food, and is vigorous and fair.

No toys at Coutant's, or Bonfanti's she buys,
 Nor at Stewart's for candies and sugar-plums cries,
 But plays on the green-sward her gambols so rude,
 With a huge timber* doll that the woodmen have hewed;
 Trots away to the bluffs on her own sturdy feet,
 Or sings with her birdlings in harmony sweet,—
 Marks the Father of Rivers, majestic and deep,
 Or sinks in the shade of her forests to sleep.

* We understand that the lumber trade has commenced in the territory of Minesota, and that the emigrants from Maine are engaged in that enterprise with their accustomed energy and hardihood.

We've been very much prospered in basket and store,
 And have brought up with care, thirty children, or more,
 And our neighbors, across the Great Water, they say,
 Regard them with envy, as surely they may;
 Still, we hope in her case some improvement to make,
 Since the wisest of parents may sometimes mistake.

Her sisters are, doubtless, a wonderful band,
 The joy of our heart, and the pride of the land,—
 Yet a few of the oldest, from strictness of rule,
 Were sent, we're afraid, rather early to school—
 And perchance, though the teachers had excellent sense,
 They developed the brain, at the body's expense;
 Then some from the heat of their climate are frail,
 And others, with fever and ague are pale,—
 And others, alas! have gone mad, we are told,
 From the bite of a dog, with a collar of gold.

Now, dear Minesota, we wish you to shun
 The faults into which your progenitors run,
 Nor rush after wealth with a perilous speed,
 Since the wealth of republics lies deeper indeed:
 In the mines of the heart, and the ore of the soil—
 In virtue, and peace, and the patience of toil.

So be pleasant, and honest, and keep as you grow,
 The pure rural tastes in your bosom of snow;
 We shall hear from you, Child, over mountain and wave,
 Your nurses will write us how well you behave—
 Let no bad reports our felicity mock,
 Here's a kiss for you, darling, the pet of our flock.

Hartford, Conn.

L. H. S.

Oh thou art far,—the evening star,
 In other scenes illumines thy musing brow,
 Yet memory's light, still lingers bright,
 And thy sweet image is before me now.

I see thee stand with lifted hand,
 As sunset's mellow beauty falls around,
 And golden beams bathe fields and streams,
 And tender sadness dwells in every sound.

Where dew-gems shine, and branches twine,
 As twilight glimmers, I behold thee stray,
 Whilst breathing flowers, 'mid leafy bowers,
 Bend down their dewy heads as if to pray.

And as the moon makes silvery noon,
 And, like a Queen, treads grandly through the sky,
 Beneath that light, so pure and bright,
 I gaze upon thee, and can only sigh.

As glow these days of other days,
 I feel I'm thine, ah thine, for ever thine!
 And though apart, this faithful heart,
 Still fondly worships at thy hallowed shrine.

Albany, N. Y.

A. B. S.

THE COURSE OF LIFE.

(Translated from the Spanish.)

O! let the soul its slumber break,
 Arouse its senses and awake,
 To see how soon
 Life, with its glories, glides away,
 And the stern footstep of decay
 Comes stealing on.

How pleasure, like the passing wind,
 Blows by, and leaves us naught behind
 But grief at last;
 How still our present happiness
 Seems to the wayward fancy, less
 Than what is past.

Our lives like hasting streams must be,
 That into one ingulfing sea
 Are doomed to fall;
 The Sea of Death, whose waves roll on,
 O'er king and kingdom, crown and throne,
 And swallow all.

Alike the river's lordly tide,
 Alike the humble riv'let's glide
 To that sad wave;
 Death levels poverty and pride,
 And rich and poor sleep side by side
 Within the grave.

Our birth is but the starting place,
 Life is the running of the race,
 And death the goal:
 There all our steps at last are brought,
 That path alone, of all unsought,
 Is found of all.

Where is the strength that mocked decay,
 The step that rose so light and gay,
 The heart's blithe tone?
 The strength is gone, the step is slow,
 And joy grows weariness and wo
 When age comes on.

Say, then, how poor and little worth
 Are all those glittering toys of earth
 That lure us here;
 Dreams of a sleep that death must break,
 Alas! before it bids us wake,
 Ye disappear.

THE HEROINE MARTYR OF MONTEREY.

By Rev. James Gilborne Lyons, D. D.

(When the American forces under General Taylor stormed Monterey, on the 21st, 22d, and 23d of September, 1846, a Mexican woman was seen going about among the disabled of both armies, binding up their wounds, and supplying them with food and water. While thus employed she fell. She was on the following day buried by the Americans, who had even then to bear an incessant discharge of shot from the Mexican batteries.)

The strife was stern at Monterey,
 When those high towers were lost and won;
 And, pealing through that mortal fray,
 Flash'd the strong battery's vengeful gun;
 Yet, heedless of its deadly rain,
 She stood in toil and danger first,
 To bind the bleeding soldier's vein,
 And slake the dying soldier's thirst.

She found a pale and stricken foe
 Sinking in nature's last eclipse,
 And, on the red earth kneeling low,
 She wet his parch'd and fever'd lips;
 When, thick as winter's driving sleet,
 The booming shot, and flaming shell,
 Swept with wild rage that gory street,
 And she—the good and gentle—fell!

They laid her in her narrow bed—
 The foemen of her land and race;
 And sighs were breath'd, and tears were shed,
 Above her lowly resting-place:—
 Ay! Glory's crimson worshippers
 Wept over her untimely fall,
 For deeds of mercy, such as hers,
 Subdue the hearts and eyes of all.

To sound her worth were guilt and shame
 In us, who love but gold and ease:—
 They heed alike *our* praise or blame,
 Who live and die in works like these.
 Far greater than the wise or brave,
 Far happier than the fair and gay,
 Was she, who found a martyr's grave
 On that red field of Monterey.

THE WORLD IS FULL OF BEAUTY.

There is a voice within me,
 And 'tis so sweet a voice,
 That its soft lispings win me,
 'Till tears start to mine eyes;
 Deep from my soul it springeth,
 Like hidden melody.
 And evermore it singeth
 This song of songs to me—
 "This world is full of beauty,
 As other worlds above;
 And if we did our duty,
 It might be full of love!"

When plenty's round us smiling,
 Why wakes this cry for bread?
 Why are crush'd millions toiling,
 Gaunt—clothed in rags—unfed?
 The sunny hills and valleys
 Blush ripe with fruit and grain,
 But the lordling in the palace
 Still robs his fellow men.
 O God! what hosts are trampled
 Amid this press for gold:
 What noble hearts are sapped of life,
 What spirits lose their hold!

And yet upon this God-blest earth
 'There's room for every one;
 Ungarner'd food still ripens,
 To waste, rot in the sun.
 If gold were not an idol,
 Were mind and merit worth,
 Oh, there would be a bridal
 Betwixt heaven and earth!
 Were truth our utter'd language,
 Angels might talk with men,
 And God-illumined earth should see
 The golden age again.

For the leaf-tongues of the forest—
 The flower-lips of the sod—
 The birds that hymn their raptures
 Into the ear of God—
 And the sweet wind that bringeth
 The music off the sea—
 Have each a voice that singeth
 'This song of songs to me:
 "This world is full of beauty,
 As other worlds above;
 And if we did our duty,
 It might be full of love!"

RESIGNATION.

BY HENRY W. LONGFELLOW.

There is no flock, however watched and tended,
 But one dead lamb is there!
 There is no fire-side, howsoe'er defended,
 But has one vacant chair!

The air is full of farewells to the dying,
 And mournings for the dead;
 The heart of Rachel for her children crying
 Will not be comforted!

Let us be patient! these severe afflictions
 Not from the ground arise,
 But oftentimes celestial benedictions
 Assume this dark disguise.

We see but dimly through the mists and vapours;
 Amid these earthly damps
 What seem to us but dim, funereal tapers,
 May be heaven's distant lamps.

There is no death! what seems so is transition;
 This life of mortal breath
 Is but a suburb of the life Elysian,
 Whose portals we call Death.

She is not dead—the child of our affection—
 But gone unto that school
 Where she no longer needs our poor protection,
 And Christ himself doth rule.

In that great Cloister's stillness and seclusion
 By guardian angels led,
 Safe from temptation, safe from sin's pollution,
 She lives, whom we call dead.

Day after day we think what she is doing
 In those bright realms of air;
Year after year her tender steps pursuing,
 Behold her grown more fair.

Thus do we walk with her, and keep unbroken
 The bond which Nature gives,
Thinking that our remembrance, though unspoken,
 May reach her where she lives.

Not as a child shall we again behold her;
 For when with raptures wild
In our embraces we again enfold her,
 She will not be a child;

But a fair maiden, in her Father's mansion,
 Clothed with celestial grace;
And beautiful with all the soul's expansion
 Shall we behold her face.

And though at times, impetuous with emotion
 And anguish long suppressed,
The swelling heart heaves moaning like the ocean,
 That cannot be at rest;

We will be patient! and assuage the feeling
 We cannot wholly stay;
By silence sanctifying, not concealing
 The grief that must have way.

BIOGRAPHY.

JAMES KNOX POLK.

EX-PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

The sudden decease of this distinguished gentleman, who was scarcely past the prime of life, has produced a strong sensation throughout the Union. His administration was one of the most eventful in the history of the country; for during its continuance the republic achieved brilliant triumphs in war, was largely increased in territorial limits, and at its close was enjoying a signal degree of prosperity.

After retiring from the chair of state, in March last, he returned to his home in Tennessee, receiving on his journey the most flattering evidences of respect from his fellow citizens, but in less than four months his earthly career was finished.

James Knox Polk was the eleventh president of the United States, and attained to the dignity at an earlier age than either of his predecessors. He was born in Mecklenburg county, North Carolina, on the 2d November, 1795, and died on the 15th June, 1849. His grandfather and grand-uncle were signers of the celebrated Mecklenburg declaration of independence. His father, who was a farmer, and warmly attached to the democratic party, removed, in 1806, with a family of ten children, to Tennessee, and was one of the pioneers of the rich valley of Duck river. This was the home of Mr. Polk until he attained the presidency. He completed his education at the University of North Carolina, where he graduated in 1818, with the highest honors of his class. He was rigidly observant of all the duties of the college course, and distinguished as a persevering and close student. The habits of application, formed at college, clung to him through life: so that he was always an industrious and hard-working man. He studied law with the late Felix Grundy, who was many years a representative and senator from Tennessee, in the Congress of the United States.

In 1823, Mr. Polk commenced his political career, being chosen to represent his county in the State Legislature.

In 1825, he was elected a representative in Congress, and took, at once, strong ground against the doctrines developed in the message of John Q. Adams, then President of the United States. He became a prominent member of the house; was a zealous advocate of what were deemed democratic principles, and always opposing the prominent measures of the whig party, was uncompromising in his hostility to a United States Bank, to a tariff for protection, and to the appropriation

of money by the general government for purposes of internal improvement. His business habits, steadiness of character, and readiness in debate, secured to him personal influence and respect. In 1833, he was again elected to Congress by a large majority, and being appointed chairman of the committee of ways and means, he vindicated the removal of the deposits from the bank of the United States, by General Jackson. By his coolness, promptitude, and skill, he carried through the resolutions of the committee relating to the bank and the deposits, and sustaining the administration, after which the cause of the bank became hopeless.

In December, 1835, Mr. Polk was elected Speaker of the House of Representatives, and was again chosen to that station in 1837; and presided at the extra session called by President Van Buren, and at two subsequent sessions of the twenty-fifth Congress, ending in March, 1839. As presiding officer of Congress at a time of unusual party agitation, he was often violently assailed by his political opponents, but maintained his place with much dignity and self-possession, and several times received the thanks of the house for his able and impartial discharge of the duties of the office.

In August, 1839, he was elected governor of Tennessee—and in 1841, when again a candidate for that office, he was defeated. In 1844, Mr. Polk received the nomination of the democratic national convention at Baltimore, for President of the United States, and Mr. Dallas the nomination to the Vice Presidency. The opposing candidates were Henry Clay, of Kentucky, for President, and Theodore Frelinghuysen, of New York, for Vice President. Mr. Polk received 170 votes, Mr. Clay 105, and Mr. Dallas succeeded by a like vote over Mr. Frelinghuysen.

The administration of Mr. Polk, as we have already remarked, was a most eventful one. The dispute with Great Britain in 1846, in relation to the Oregon boundary, threatened to involve us in a war with that country, but was at length terminated in consequence of the conservative spirit in the Senate, and the timely tone of conciliation assumed by the executive, which met with a response on the part of the British government. A treaty of compromise was accordingly ratified on the 18th of June, by which the difficulties between the two nations were settled upon terms that promise to ensure a permanent peace. The annexation of Texas, in 1845, having aggravated the troubles that existed between the United States and Mexico, a state of war between the two countries commenced in March, 1846, and in May following, two battles were fought, in which the Americans under Gen. Taylor routed the Mexicans, with great slaughter. Then followed the storming and capture of Monterey, the fierce and bloody battle of Buena Vista, the bombardment and surrender of St. Juan D'Ulloa, the brilliant victories achieved by the American forces under Gen. Scott, and their triumphant entry into the city of Mexico. After these astounding

results, which won from other nations an undisguised admiration of the martial daring and steady valour of our citizen-soldiers, a peace was concluded, by which we acquired New Mexico and California, an immense extent of territory, reaching to the Pacific ocean, and abounding in gold and other precious metals.

These great accessions to the Republic, of glory, and territory, and mineral wealth, happening within the administrative term of President Polk, gave to it a prominence which no former administration attained to, and acquired for him and his cabinet unusual eclat from their political friends, and that consideration and respect from all which talent and success ever command.

It is not our business or desire to discuss the merits of the measures which led to these results, or to endeavour to look into the future for the consequences of good or evil which are to flow from them; it is sufficient for the present to mark the period of President Polk's administration as pregnant with great events, which cannot fail to act with controlling effect upon the future destiny of the Union.

The announcement of the death of Mr. Polk was made by the President of the United States, on the 19th of June, 1849, in the following form:

“The President, with deep regret, announces to the American people, the death of James Knox Polk, late President of the United States, which occurred at Nashville, Tennessee, on the 15th instant. A nation is suddenly called upon to mourn the loss of one, the recollection of whose long services in the councils will be for ever preserved on the tablets of history.

“As a mark of respect to the memory of a citizen who has been distinguished by the highest honors which his country can bestow, it is ordered that the Executive Mansion, and the several departments at Washington, be immediately placed in mourning, and business be suspended during to-morrow. It is further ordered, that the War and Navy departments cause suitable military and naval honors to be paid on this occasion to the memory of the illustrious dead.”

Z. TAYLOR.

In consequence of the long continued and close application of Mr. Polk to his official duties, his constitution gave way, and a chronic disorder, to which he had been some time subject, proved at last the cause of his death. He bore his sickness with great fortitude, and though he was still at that time of life when he might reasonably have anticipated years of quiet enjoyment in the place of retirement which he had chosen for himself, he met death with serenity, and without a murmur. Early in his illness he was admitted to the communion of the Methodist Episcopal Church—expressed at the time his deep reverence of the scriptures, which he had read a great deal; and gave evidence, in his last moments, of a heart at peace with God and man. He

had no children, and left to his widow, a highly esteemed and pious lady, the bulk of his fortune.

Mr. Polk was, in figure, of the middle height, slender and erect—his forehead broad, rather than high, and his eyes lively and intelligent. His general appearance was not imposing, yet his demeanour was grave, courteous, and dignified; and being endowed with strong sense, and a well balanced mind, he bore himself in his high station with great propriety, and commanded the personal respect of all with whom he had intercourse.

MAJOR-GENERAL EDMUND P. GAINES.

This distinguished American officer was born in Culpepper County, Virginia, on the 20th March, 1777. His father, James Gaines, was a nephew of Judge Edmund Pendleton, (after whom the son was named,) and served in the revolutionary war. At the close of the war, he removed to North Carolina, and subsequently to East Tennessee. Young Gaines was thus thrown, at an early age, in the vicinity of the "dark and bloody ground," the legends of which were often repeated, and fired his imagination. He was expert in the use of the rifle, and manifested very soon a disposition to enter upon a military life. In 1799, through the influence of Gov. Clairborne, he obtained a commission in the army. In 1801, he was detached on a topographical survey from Nashville to Natchez, and in 1804 was appointed military collector for the district of Mobile. As the confidential agent, in 1806, of the government, he took an active part in ferreting out the parties implicated in the supposed conspiracy of Col. Aaron Burr, whom he afterwards succeeded in arresting. He was soon after made a captain, but being wearied with the inactive life he was then leading, he obtained a furlough, and entered upon the practice of the law, in what was then the Mississippi territory, but now the State of Alabama.

At the commencement of the war of 1812, he resumed his sword, and being attached to the north-western army, accompanied the expedition of Gen. Wilkinson down the St. Lawrence, and was present at the battle of Chryster's fields, where he greatly distinguished himself while in command of the 25th infantry, covering the retreat of the whole army. In March, 1814, he was appointed Brigadier-General, and on the 5th of August, took command at Fort Erie. His defence of this post, against a large force under General Drummond, was brilliant and successful. The British general had calculated confidently upon an easy victory, and the retreat or surrender of the American troops. But finding them better prepared than he had anticipated, he fortified his camp at the distance of two miles, and made steady approaches to the fort, until the morning of the 15th of August, when having made all his arrangements, he advanced his army in three columns

to the assault. With Gen. Gaines were many experienced and gallant officers. The rifle and volunteer corps were commanded by Gen. Peter B. Porter; the first brigade was led, in the absence of Gen. Scott, who was wounded, by Col. Aspinwall; the second brigade by Gen. Ripley; and Capts. Towson, Williams, Douglas, Biddle, and Fanning, were in charge of batteries, all under the command of Major Hindman, chief of artillery. The enemy advanced to the attack steadily and quickly; they were allowed to approach within good range, when the Americans opened upon them with musketry and artillery. The British troops recoiled before the terrible fire that swept down whole platoons; they were rallied again and again by their intrepid officers, but every time repulsed with great slaughter. Col. Drummond, who led one of the assaulting columns, and had succeeded in mounting a parapet, was killed soon after he had called out to his men to "give no quarter." The attack entirely failed, and was not again renewed: the loss of the British having been very severe. Gen. Gaines was wounded soon after by the bursting of a shell, and resigned the command to Gen. Ripley. For this gallant defence of Fort Erie, he received the thanks of Congress, with a gold medal, and was breveted a Major-General.

He was second in command in 1818, with Gen. Jackson, in the war against the Indians on the southern frontier, who were followed into Florida, and two of the instigators of the Indian outrages, Arbuthnot and Ambrister, were brought, by order of Gen. Jackson, to court martial, sentenced to death and executed. St. Augustine was captured by a detachment under Gen. Gaines.

Upon the reduction of the army in 1821, Gen. Gaines was selected as one of the two Brigadiers retained in service, and was, in 1828, after the death of Gen. Brown, a candidate with Gen. Scott for the office of General-in-Chief; but the President conferred the appointment on Gen. Macomb. For a brief period during the Seminole war in 1836, Gen. Gaines was in command, and encountered a body of the Indians near Fort King, whom he repulsed with loss. After the arrival of Gen. Scott at the seat of war, he gave up the command, and at that period terminated his active services in the field.

When the Mexican war broke out, Gen. Gaines was at New Orleans in command of that district; and when he understood that Gen. Taylor was surrounded on the Rio Grande, and his supplies cut off, the ardent spirit of the veteran soldier again burst forth, and obeying only the impulses of his generous nature, he mustered into service a large body of volunteers, without waiting for orders from Washington. For thus exceeding his authority, his conduct was submitted to a court of inquiry, by which it was decided that Gen. Gaines had transcended his authority, but that he was actuated by pure and patriotic motives.

Gen. Gaines was a gentleman of the old school—courteous and dignified, but of great simplicity of character. He was married to a lady whose celebrated claim as the heir of Daniel Clark, of a large estate

in New Orleans, was pending for fifteen years. He left no children, and died at New Orleans on the 6th June, 1849, of an attack of cholera, which proved fatal in twenty-four hours.

In a notice of his death, by one of the New Orleans papers, we find the following account of the last moments of this gallant soldier:

“Gen. Gaines retained his consciousness during his short illness, until the moment of the collapse. Recognising one of his young military friends who stood much affected at his bed-side, he remarked to him in measured accents: ‘Well, my young friend, my time is approaching. I suppose I must go. I have nothing on my conscience, and am not afraid to die. I am an old man, and probably have lived long enough.’ This highly characteristic address was delivered with the utmost calmness, showing the perfect peace of mind of the brave and good old soldier.

“When the moment of dissolution arrived, life passed away without a struggle. He died as he had lived, calm and collected, with a serenity that nothing—not even the terrors of the mortal pang—could discompose.”*

* We regret that we have not within our reach materials for a biographical sketch of Gen. WORTH. Amongst the obituary notices will be found the only record we can now make of that intrepid and skilful soldier, whose deeds in arms have excited universal admiration, and whose death caused a profound sorrow throughout the country.

LOUIS KOSSUTH, THE PRESIDENT OF HUNGARY.

Louis Kossuth is one of the most remarkable men of the present age. Not only is he an orator of the most surprising power, but he proves to be a statesman of consummate forethought, and a chief, civil and military, both bold and prudent.

The present position of this extraordinary man is owing purely to the force of his talents. A few years ago he was a poor and obscure lawyer in the town of Pesth, depending chiefly for subsistence by acting as secretary or steward to several deputies of the diet.

He was born in a little village of the north of Hungary, April 27th, 1806, of a poor but noble family of Slavonian origin. His father acted as steward to another nobleman of more favored circumstances, but was not able, it seems, to support his son at the university. The application and talents of the latter, however, found him friends, who not only enabled him to finish his studies, but also continued to assist him subsequently.

In 1835, when so strong an opposition existed against the Austrian government in the Hungarian diet, Kossuth, who was already somewhat known as the founder of political clubs for young men, was employed to conduct an opposition paper. The proceedings of the diet

up to this time had never been properly reported. The government would not allow the employment of stenographers, and the reports, as they appeared in the official journal, gave no idea at all of the real proceedings. All liberal speeches and propositions, as well as expositions of the abuses of the administration, were entirely suppressed. Kossuth learned stenography, and undertook to give the true reports. But, as it would be necessary to submit his paper, if printed, to the censorship, by which every thing liberal would be crossed out, he went to the immense labor of issuing it in manuscript. A great number of persons were employed to copy, and thus it was sent in the letter form to every part of the country. This extraordinary manner of proceeding surprised the government, which for a time was at a complete loss what to do. It soon, however, took its resolution. Every one of these dangerous letters was put out of the way before reaching its destination.

When this became known, they were no longer trusted to the post; but the local authorities of the different counties took the charge of conveying and distributing them to the subscribers. The county of Pesth, in which the paper appeared, even authorized publicly, in spite of the government, its issue and distribution. Thus matters continued till May 2d, 1836, about a year after the establishment of the paper, when, on the closing of the Diet by the King (Emperor of Austria,) six persons disappeared;—Baron Wesselengi, the most formidable enemy of the government in the Diet, Kossuth, the editor of the opposite paper, and four students of law, leaders in the young men's political clubs. For above three years, the public was entirely ignorant of the fate of these persons. At last, in 1839, they appeared again, as mysteriously as they had disappeared, not even knowing themselves where they had been, for they had been seized secretly, and conveyed blindfold to dungeons, from which they were brought out in the same manner. But what a horrid change three years in damp, filthy dungeons had made! Wesselengi was blind, Lovassy, one of the students, crazed, and the rest dangerously ill. Kossuth seems to have escaped the least affected, though his constitution was thereby much shattered. Such was their harsh treatment by the Austrian government.

The unjust imprisonment of Kossuth rendered him of course extremely popular. A year after, he became editor, though not openly, of a paper issued in Pesth. So popular did this paper immediately become, that from 563 subscribers, which it had in July of 1840, it amounted by the end of the year to 11,000, which is a greater number than any paper in Germany has at present, except the *Augsburg Allgemeine Zeitung*. It appeared every day, at the low price of 4 florins (\$1 62½ cts.) a year. Its character was exclusively political and national.

Besides opposing the Austrian government on general questions, it brought to light many abuses of administration, both local and general,

which, when known, surprised the people. It was very soon after its establishment to be seen in the hand of almost every peasant.

The active nature of Kossuth would not now suffer him to remain idle. He turned his attention to founding societies, for establishing and encouraging domestic manufactures, and for constructing public roads.

In six months after the founding of the "protection societies" by Kossuth, more than half the Hungarian people were pledged to wear only articles of domestic manufacture.

On the 22d of February, at Paris, Kossuth used the following words in a speech:

"Since 600 years, we form a constitutional State; we wish therefore that ministers sit on these benches, to hear and answer our questions. *From this day forth, we wish to have a Hungarian ministry.*"

Five days after, the news of the movement at Paris reached Presburg. The conduct of Kossuth at this time, not only contributed more than that of any other man to rouse up the Hungarians to demand their rights, but also had great effect in exciting to activity the people of Vienna itself. He was at the head of the population, which, on the 16th of March, demanded and obtained from the Empire a separate Hungarian ministry. From this time forth he was the soul of the Hungarian Diet. As dangers and difficulty came, his influence increased. On the 11th of June, he became finance minister. June 17th, broke out the war with the Servians. August 25th, with Croatia. September 20th, he was president of the ministry. September 26th, appeared the "Imperial manifest," which produced the open rupture between Hungary and Austria. At the head of the committee of surety, Kossuth now conducted Hungarian affairs. His history since, is that of Hungary itself—he is now President.

The effect of his oratory is said to be astonishing. In his tour through the provinces to raise the *landsturm* (all the able-bodied,) so great was his power over the peasantry, that frequently men, women and children together, running to their houses, and seizing hooks or whatever their hands could find, assembled on the spot, and insisted on being led directly against the enemy. Many women are found serving in the Hungarian ranks, and even sometimes noble ladies command in person the troops raised, equipped and paid by themselves.

The New York Sun describes him as a man of consummate ability. If his writings and speeches rouse the people to a fury of enthusiasm, his calm, clear judgment guides them through every difficulty and danger to triumph. To the Magyars he appeals in their own rich, strong language; to the Walachs, he speaks their own language; to the Slaves, the language of the Slaves; while to the Diet of Magnates and Bishops, he preaches revolution for freedom, and resistance to tyrants, in the purest Latin. Of exhaustless genius, energy and invention, he is never at a loss. Time seems to have marked him for

the events he is shaping, and it is hard to determine whether he stands highest as a soldier, statesman, orator or prophet—he certainly combines the four characters wonderfully. Here is a specimen of his oratory, addressed to the Hungarian nation:

“Two things we must do. We must rise and crush the enemy that desecrates the earth on which we live, and we must not forget! These two are needful: should the Hungarians fail in them, then they are a craven people—a people of wretches, of which the very name in history shall be kin to shame! Should the Hungarians fail in these two, then they are a people of dastards and cowards, defiling even the sacred memory of their forefathers. God the Eternal will say of them, ‘I rue the day on which I created this people!’ And should the Hungarians fail in these two, then they are an accursed people—so cursed, that the air of heaven shall disown them; so cursed, that the sweet fountain shall turn brackish as they approach it. The Hungarian shall be a vagabond on the face of the earth. Even the bread of charity shall be denied to his prayer; and the generation of the stranger, that hath taken his substance, shall give him stripes for alms. He shall be like a vagrant dog, which even the meanest may strike. Vain are his prayers; religion has no comfort for him. He has desecrated God’s work, and God will not pardon his sins—no, neither here nor in heaven! The maiden he lifts his eyes to, shall spurn him from the threshold, like a mangy beast. His wife shall spit into his eyes in the fulness of her scorn, and his child’s earliest words shall curse its father! * * * * * Let each man take up arms! But as for the women, let them go midway between Vesprim and Weissenburgh, and dig a wide grave. There will we bury the name, the honor, the nation of Hungary; or else our enemies shall lie in that wide grave!”

OBITUARY NOTICES.

MARCH, 1849.

Died, recently, at Frankfort, Germany, MADAME ROTHSCHILD, widow of the founder of the banking-house. She had lived many years alone in Jew street, an old unfrequented quarter, where her husband first established himself, and which she always refused to leave; though her eldest son, the present head of the house, has been long living childless and also alone, in one of the most splendid houses of the Geil, the principal street of Frankfort. She was 99 years old.

In India, on the passage from Madras to Ceylon, MRS. SCUDDER, wife of Rev. Wm. Scudder, of the Ceylon Mission. She was the second daughter of the distinguished musical composer and musician, Prof. Thomas Hastings of New York, and went out under the auspices of

the A. B. C. F. Missions, something more than a year since. Mrs. S. was a lady of eminent piety and worth.

In Orange, New Jersey, JOEL WILLIAMS, a soldier of the Revolution, aged 85. He died in the same house where he had lived with his wife (who survives him,) 61 years.

At New Orleans, STEPHEN MAZUREAU, Esq., at the age of 77. He was for forty-five years one of the most prominent members of the bar of the city, and at the time of his death was its oldest member. Mr. Mazureau was a native of France, and was once an officer in the French navy. He came to New Orleans in 1804, where, aided by his commanding talents, he soon became a prominent citizen. Some years after, he successively filled the offices of a member of the State Legislature, Secretary of State, and Attorney General, to his own personal credit, and to the benefit of the State.

March 6th. At Philadelphia, Capt. WILLIAM M. HUNTER, of the Navy, in his 57th year. He had been in the service for thirty-eight years, and a post captain for twelve; his original commission bearing date January, 1809, and that of his last rank, February, 1837. In his younger days, he passed through some of the most stirring scenes in our naval history, and always sustained the character of a capable and gallant officer.

8th. In West Philadelphia, THOMAS D. GROVER, Esq. He was well known in the whole community of Philadelphia, but more particularly to the citizens of Southwark, where he was born, and became the architect of his own fortune. Mr. G. had accumulated large wealth, much of which he spent in acts of benevolence to the poor, and in aiding honest and industrious young men who were struggling with difficulties. He leaves numerous friends, and hundreds will regret his death. His age was about 60. A widow survives him. He was worth at the time of his death, some \$300,000.

9th. At Harrisburg, Pa., Hon. JOHN BLANCHARD, a member of the last Congress.

12th. At Georgetown, the wife of THEOBALD WOLF TONE, who was the friend and companion of the martyred Emmet. At the time of her decease, she was the widow of Thomas Wilson, Esq., whom she married subsequent to the decease of Mr. Tone. She was in the enjoyment of a pension from the French government, upon the recommendation of Lucien Bonaparte.

12th. At New York, THOMAS MORRIS, Esq., at an advanced age. Mr. Morris was for many years U. S. Marshal of the district, and a son of the celebrated Robert Morris, of Philadelphia.

At Washington, Hon. R. DICKINSON, a member of Congress from the State of Ohio.

17th. In New Haven, Conn., MRS. ANN GERRY, in the 86th year of her age. This venerable lady was the widow of the late Elbridge Gerry, a patriot of the Revolution, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, Governor of Massachusetts, and Vice President of the United States.

Born at the commencement of those political movements which resulted in the Revolution, she passed her childhood amidst the anxious scenes which preceded it, and her youth surrounded by the conflicts of the war. In her early married life, she was intimately associated with the good and the wise, the honored and distinguished of the country. Possessed of uncommon and remarkable personal beauty, the traces of which, even her advanced age could not wholly obliterate, and educated after "the old school," she preserved throughout her long life those dignified and splendid manners peculiar to the early private history of the country.

While very young she married one much her senior, and for thirty years was the object of his tenderest solicitude and devoted affection. Her married life extended over that stormy political period in which the sanctity of home was disregarded, and even its female inmates made the objects of political rancor. But her heart clung to her husband with unabated attachment, and though thirty-five years had passed, since full of honors as ripe in age, he preceded her to the grave, she cherished his memory with the force and freshness of a recent bereavement. She was a pious and benevolent lady, and passed a long life of usefulness and honor in the midst of her children.

An historical event is connected with the death of Mrs. Gerry, which belongs to the country. Charles Carroll, of Maryland, was the last survivor of the signers of the Declaration of Independence; the widow of Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, was the last survivor of those American women holding this relation to the men of 1776, who pledged to the support of that declaration "their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honors."

18th. In the work-house of St. George's, in the East, LOUIS CHRISTOPHE, the *soi disant* Prince of Hayti.

19th. At Clermont, Va., GENERAL JOHN MASON, in his 83d year. This venerable gentleman was the last surviving son of Colonel George Mason, of Gunston Hall, in the same county, who was distinguished in Virginia, as was said by Mr. Jefferson, as "one of the wisest statesmen that Virginia ever bred, and an incorruptible patriot."

General Mason, through a long and active life, and in an extended sphere, attracted, as he deserved, the esteem, respect, and confidence of all who knew him. He was the personal and intimate friend and associate of Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, and, during the administrations of the last two, filled offices of trust and honor, which he accepted at their request, but held only for periods limited by him when they

were accepted. No man excelled this esteemed gentleman in the domestic and social relations. As a neighbor and friend, his excellence was attested by the pleasure and grace which he imparted to every circle, and the cordiality with which he was every where welcomed.

21st. At Brooklyn, L. I., BENJAMIN F. THOMPSON, Esq., author of the History of Long Island, and distinguished for his acquaintance with local and family history. He had just risen from the tea-table, and taken his seat on a sofa, feeling fatigued with a long walk, when he complained of not feeling well, and in fifteen minutes was a corpse. He was in his sixty-fifth year.

21st. At Baltimore, Capt. W. A. TUCKER, one of the oldest sea captains of Baltimore, and for seventeen years President of the Baltimore Fire Insurance Company.

23d. At Fowdon, Eng., ELIZABETH HUGHES, in her 89th year. She was the wife of a poor laborer, and in 1804 obtained some celebrity as a successful impostor. She declared, "in consequence of interviews with angels, and the particular inspiration of Heaven, she had the gift of curing all diseases and infirmities to which the human frame was liable, by touching the parts affected, and saying a prayer for the success of her endeavors." Her fame spread throughout the adjoining counties, and wagons, filled with believers in the miraculous powers of the woman, used to arrive; and, in six weeks, more than three thousand dupes were touched by the impostor, for maladies.

March 25th. In Nantucket, Hon. HEZEKIAH BARNARD, aged 86, a gentleman who has filled with credit to himself and satisfaction to his constituents, many honorable and responsible offices: having been a Representative to the General Court, a Senator, and finally Treasurer for the State of Massachusetts; he has at last passed away, full of years and full of honors, and mourned by all who knew him.

27th. At Hartford, Susquehannah Co., JAMES ADAMS, at the remarkable age of 104. He was a native of Massachusetts, and a volunteer in the revolutionary war.

At Saco, Maine, BENJAMIN SIMPSON, aged 94. He was one of the party that threw the cargoes of teas from the ships in Boston harbor.

In England, THOMAS PENNICOCK, at the age of 102. He fought and was wounded at the battle of Bunker Hill.

APRIL, 1849.

April 1st. In Boston, Mass., Hon. EDMUND DWIGHT, one of the most wealthy and respectable merchants of that city. He was a tried and active friend of the cause of education, and as director and president of the Western Rail Road, has been immediately connected with some of our most important public improvements. In every part of

the commonwealth the event of his death will call to mind instances of the honor, the munificence, and the usefulness of his life.

In England, **GENERAL SIR GEORGE NUGENT**. His age was 92. He entered the army as ensign in the 21st regiment, in May, 1773, when he was only seventeen years old. He came with his regiment to our shores in the early part of the revolution, and served in the expedition under Sir Henry Clinton and General Vaughn up the Hudson in 1777, when Forts Montgomery and Clinton were taken, and Esopus, or, as it is now called, Kingston, was burnt. He participated in other battles during the war, and at the peace in 1783 had risen to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel. He served under the Duke of York in Holland, was a short time on the peninsula, and was one of the fourteen field marshals of England at the time of his death, and the last surviving British officer, who fought against us in the revolution.

April 5th. Died, **Commander IRVINE SHUBRICK**, in his 52d year, of which 35 years had been spent in the naval service. He was born in South Carolina.

During the war with England he served under Commodore Decatur, and was with him in the very severe action of the President with the British squadron. He again served with Decatur in the *Guerriere* frigate, and was in the action of the Algerine squadron in 1816.

In 1832, while first lieutenant of the *Potomac* frigate, bearing the flag of Commodore Downes, he commanded the expedition of sailors and marines who landed on the Island of Sumatra, and after a sharp conflict with the Malays, having stormed and taken three forts, took possession of the town of Quallah Battoo, and broke up a horde of pirates, who had recently murdered the crew and captain of an American ship.

5th. At Marshfield, Mass., **Deacon JOEL HATCH**, aged 79, and the next day, **Deacon Jos. CLIFT**, aged 81. They were both elected deacons of the Congregational Church in North Marshfield, in 1801, and they were both found dead, the one in his bed and the other in his yard.

6th. In Drogheda, Ireland, of cholera, the most reverend **Dr. CROLLY**, archbishop of Armagh, the Roman Catholic primate of Ireland. The deceased prelate was highly esteemed by the members of all religious and political persuasions, being ever remarkable for Christian liberality towards his fellow countrymen, and love of peace and order. Dr. Crollly was a warm supporter of the national system of education, and, indeed, of every measure that tended to the purpose of enlightenment.

14th. At New York, **Rev. Dr. POWER**, in his 57th year. He was educated at the college of Maynooth, in Ireland, and was a class-mate with John of Tuam, Father Matthew and other eminent men.

He accepted the invitation of pastor of St. Peter's Church, New York, thirty-two years ago, and until his death, remained in the same situation. He was pre-eminent as a scholar; as intimately acquainted with the Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, German, Italian, and other languages, as he was with his own; but nothing of the pedant did he ever exhibit. His pocket was ever open to the needy, be they Protestant or Catholic. Its liberality was limited only by his means. For the sake of the poor, he lived poor and died poor—his estate not being worth five dollars.

14th. At the Patapsco Institute, Md., Hon. JOHN PHELPS, an eminent lawyer and statesman. He was a native of Vermont, and held many offices of honor and trust. In 1837 he resigned the office of Senator, and left his native state to assist his wife in her plans of female education.

15th. At Smithville, N. C., Captain LESLIE CHASE of the United States army. He graduated at the Military Academy in June, 1838, and was assigned to the Second Regiment of Artillery. He served with distinction in the early part of the war with Mexico, receiving a brevet of captain for gallant conduct in the battles of the 8th and 9th of May. In 1847 he was placed on duty in the War Department, as acting Judge Advocate of the army, for which honorable position he was particularly adapted, having applied himself in his leisure hours to the study of law, and been admitted to the bar in his native state, New York.

15th. In England, THOMAS STARKIE, an eminent English lawyer. This gentleman was called to the bar in 1810, and his industry and learning led him into an extensive and lucrative practice. Mr. Starkie was the Downing Professor at Cambridge, and afterwards a county judge at Islington. He was well known to our lawyers by his Reports, his works on Slander, on Criminal Pleading, and on the Law of Evidence.

16th. At Rome, Italy, Cardinal JOSEPH MEZZOFANTI, the celebrated linguist, in his 75th year. When Lord Byron made his acquaintance, he could fluently converse in every European idiom. Since then he became master of all the oriental forms of speech, and there was scarcely a spoken jargon, from the Himmalaya mountains to the Andes, of which Mezzofanti had not made the comparative anatomy. Personally, he was most affable, and generally beloved in Rome.

21st. At Bristol, Penn., THOMAS A. COOPER, the celebrated tragedian. He was formerly one of the most eminent actors upon the stage. His daughter was married to a son of President Tyler.

28th. At Charleston, S. C., Hon. HENRY BAILEY. He was a lawyer of distinction and formerly attorney general of the State.

At Upton, Rev. BENJAMIN WOOD, aged 76 years. He was one of the last of a venerable and venerated class of ministers, who, twenty-five years ago, composed the Harmony Association. He was settled in Upton nearly fifty-three years since, and retained through a most eventful period in the history of New England, the respect, love, and confidence of his people.

MAY.

May 1st. At New York, ALVAH STEWART, Esq., formerly of Utica. He was one of the most distinguished anti-slavery men of the north; and in 1844 was the Liberty candidate for the Vice Presidency.

3d. At Langollen, Va., CUTHBERT POWELL, Esq., in his 72d year. He was formerly a resident of Alexandria, where he was mayor; and, after his removal to Loudon, was honored with a seat in the Legislature of his native State, and afterwards represented the district in which he lived in the Congress of the United States. He was for many years a magistrate in Loudon county.

In London, Eng., the DUKE OF ST. ALBAN'S. He was best known as having a title to marry the rich Mrs. Coutts, and a sinecure of some £1,200 a year as hereditary Grand Falconer. He was the descendant of King Charles II., and of Eleanor Gwynne. The annuity of £10,000 a year, which Mrs. Coutts settled upon him for life, goes to Miss Burdett Coutts.

6th. Near Rio Grande City, Capt. EDWARD DEAS, of the 4th U. S. Artillery. He was drowned from on board the steamer Yazoo. Captain Deas served on both lines during the Mexican war, and was taken prisoner shortly before the battles of the 8th and 9th of May, and carried into Matamoros.

7th. At San Antonio, Texas, Major-General Wm. J. WORTH. In the general orders from the war department, announcing his death, it is stated that, "General Worth entered the army a Lieutenant in 1813, and served with distinguished credit during the war with Great Britain. His whole life has been devoted to the service of his country, and he has been charged with many conspicuous and important commands. His brilliant and successful conduct in the campaigns of Florida and Mexico was rewarded by promotion to the two highest grades in the army. And now, while in the performance of the responsible duties of Military Commander on the Mexican and Indian frontiers of Texas, his long, useful, and patriotic career is suddenly terminated. His loss, as a soldier of superior merit, and a gentleman of high personal accomplishments, will long be severely felt." He fell a victim to cholera, the same disease which cut off Gen. Gaines.

Gen. Worth was engaged in the following battles, from the period of his entrance into the army: Chippewa, Niagara, Fort Erie, Monterey, Vera Cruz, Cerro Gordo, Puebla, Churubusco, Chapultepec,

Molino del Rey, City of Mexico, and five battles in Florida, while in command of the eighth regiment of infantry.

The chivalric courage of Gen. Worth has been the subject of universal admiration. He was aid to Gen. Scott in the memorable battles of Chippewa and Niagara, and appointed Colonel of the 8th Regiment in 1838. At the storming of Monterey, Gen. Taylor intrusted to him a separate command. His prudence and skill on that occasion elicited much praise, and were only equalled by his courage and constancy. So, too, at the bloody assault of Molino del Rey, where he was seconded by the intrepid Garland and other gallant spirits, he exhibited the same steady valour and self-possession for which he was ever distinguished.

9th. At Newport, R. I., Hon. DUTEE J. PEARCE, at the age of sixty years; a prominent member of the bar of that State, and of its Representatives in Congress from the year 1825 to the year 1837.

In London, Eng., GENERAL SIR ROBERT T. WILSON, K. C. He was one of the most eminent military men of our time. In the year 1793 he joined the Duke of York's army as a volunteer. In the following year he was appointed to a cornetcy in the 15th hussars, and he served both in Flanders and Holland in the campaigns of 1793-4-5. He was one of the gallant officers who, in 1794, with a detachment of cavalry saved the emperor of Austria from being taken prisoner by the French cavalry.

In 1808 and 1809, Lieut. Colonel Wilson having formed the Lusitanian legion by his own exertions, commanded that force during the campaigns of those years. He had also served with the Austrian army in Italy, and with the Russian army in Russia, Poland, Germany, and France, and—particularly during the invasion of Russia by Napoleon—was distinguished by his ability in council, as well as for gallantry in the field. For his eminent services he had received the orders of Maria Theresa, of the Tower and Sword, of St. Anne of Russia, and the Grand Order of the Red Eagle of Prussia.

He was known also as the author of several military works on the British and Russian armies. In November, 1841, he was gazetted as a general, and in 1842, Sir Robert proceeded to Gibraltar as governor and commander-in-chief; he had only last month arrived in England, having been succeeded in that important command by Sir Robert Gardiner. Sir R. Wilson was born in 1777, and was the son of Benjamin Wilson, the eminent painter.

13th. At Oakfield Lodge, Isle of Wight, Hon. SIR EDWARD PAGET, Governor of Chelsea Hospital, at the age of 73. He was a distinguished officer of the British army during the Peninsular War.

14th. At Louisville, of cholera, DANFORTH MARBLE, a celebrated comedian. He is highly commended by the Buffalo Courier, as a man much esteemed within the circle of his acquaintance.

18th. In Amherst, Mass., PETER JACKSON. He was born on the passage from Africa, was a slave to a Dutchman in Kinderhook, N.

Y., and obtained his liberty by running away from his master. His age, as calculated by his neighbors, from his recollections of the old French war, and as inscribed on his coffin-plate, presented by them, was 122 years.

18th. At Washington City, Hon. DANIEL DUNCAN, a member of Congress from Ohio. He was born in Pennsylvania, July 22, 1806.

19th. At Charleston, S. C., JOHN ROBINSON, Esq., the oldest merchant in that city. "He had," the Courier says, "filled a large space in this community for a period far beyond the usual term of years allotted to man, being in the seventy-fourth year of his age. From the time he first commenced business in this city, fifty-three years ago, up to the period of the recent attack of disease, which terminated fatally, he was actively and untiringly engaged in business matters, and his death will leave a void in the commercial circle that will be seriously felt."

21st. At Edgeworthstown, Ireland, MISS EDGEWORTH, the celebrated authoress, at the age of eighty-two. No woman of our age had attained a more honorable fame. Sir Walter Scott regarded the fact that Waverley was originally ascribed to her, as among the highest compliments he ever received. Her works on education alone will preserve her memory.

Few persons, in our time, have been permitted to do so much to bless and to benefit mankind—fewer still, to persevere in their labors to the end, and live so long to witness the good they had done. In every quarter of the world—and here in the United States, more than in other countries beyond the limits of the British empire—the hearts of many will be saddened by this intelligence, as with a sense of personal loss.

But all who have loved or admired her will be consoled to learn, that her old age was serene and happy; that she enjoyed to the last, not only her extraordinary powers, but all the pleasures of life she had most valued; and that she died on the spot which was always her home, surrounded by those whom she entirely loved and trusted, and followed by the blessings of her suffering countrymen, for whose relief she made her latest literary exertion, and to whom she never ceased freely to devote her substance and her strength.

At East Greenwich, R. I., JAMES MILLER, aged 95, an old revolutionary soldier.

24th. At New Orleans, GEORGE PORTER, associate editor of the Picayune. He was engaged formerly in editing the New York Spirit of the Times, (now edited by his brother.) By his industry, experience, and talents, he contributed largely to the success of the Picayune.

25th. In Montreal, Canada, LIEUT. GEN. SIR BENJAMIN URBAN, commander of the British forces in North America. He died at the age of 72.

Sir Benjamin D'Urban, had received a cross and five clasps for Busaco, Albuhera, Badajoz, Salamanca, Vittoria, Pyrenees, Nivelle, Nive, and Toulouse. He entered the army in 1793, as Cornet in the 2d

Dragoon Guards, and in the following year obtained a troop; accompanied Sir Ralph Abercrombie's expedition. He served in the Peninsula and France, from the autumn of 1808 to the end of the war in 1814, and was never absent. In the performance of this duty, he was with Sir Robert Wilson in his operations between Ciudad Rodrigo and Salamanca, and afterwards with the Spanish army of General Cuesta, upon the Tagus and Guadiana, and at the battle of Medelin. He was then selected to be Quartermaster-General of the Portuguese army, of which Marshal Beresford had recently taken the command; and, returning to Portugal, joined it accordingly. In this appointment, he continued to serve throughout the war—occasionally employed, however, in charge of a corps of Portuguese cavalry, which he commanded at Salamanca and Vittoria; and in the other actions above mentioned, for which he received decorations, he was in the performance of his duties on the staff.

At New York, Mrs. HANNAH GALLATIN, in her 83d year. She was the daughter of James Nicholson, the first on the list of American post captains, a distinguished officer in the war of the Revolution, and the elder of the family which, through three generations, has sustained the honor of the naval service.

In 1793, the subject of this notice married the Hon. Albert Gallatin, who had then been elected a Senator of the United States from Pennsylvania. During the eventful career of this eminent statesman, Mrs. Gallatin was his constant friend and adviser, enjoying his fullest affection and esteem; and from her, none of his most secret thoughts, whether on public or private matters, were ever withheld. To Mrs. Gallatin was mainly owing the establishment of that American Church or congregation in Paris, the first minister of which was our townsman, the late Rev. Mr. Bruen, whose premature death, a few years since, the whole community had so much reason to lament. While placed in the most trying circumstances, on no occasion did Mrs. Gallatin allow the demands of court etiquette to come between her and her God. Such was the respect which her pious course commanded, even from a French Princess, that when, at the greatest *fête* that could well occur in a monarchical country—the one given to celebrate the birth of the heir presumptive, the Duke of Bordeaux—the American Minister replied to the inquiry of the Duchess d'Angoulême for his wife, "She is not here because it is Sunday:" the Duchess said, "Mrs. Gallatin does right—she teaches us our duty."

JUNE.

At Niagara Falls, Hon. AUGUSTUS PORTER, at the age of 80. He was a native of Salisbury, Connecticut, and located himself at Niagara Falls in June, 1806, where he ever after lived. Prior to the war of 1812, and during the early settlement of western New York, Judge P. acted a conspicuous part, and shared in the dangers and sufferings of that period. His dwelling, mills, &c., were burnt to ashes at the

time of the destruction of Buffalo and the whole frontier, by the British in 1813.

Judge Porter, his brother Gen. P. B. Porter, Zadock Granger, the brothers Wadsworth, O. Phelps, J. Ely, Jos. Ellicott, and others, were the pioneers of western New York, and large landed proprietors. In a narrative of events by Judge P. he states, that "in returning to Canandaigua, after completing the survey for Robert Morris, in company with Joseph Ellicott, we travelled down the lake to Buffalo, chiefly on the beach, there being no road, and as yet none other than an Indian trail from Buffalo to Canawagus, (now Avon.) There was then (1797,) but one dwelling-house between the two places, which was owned by a Mr. Wilbur. It was situated at the point where Mr. John Ganson afterwards built a large house, and kept a tavern many years, and is about one mile and a half from Le Roy."

In Concord, N. H., in his 80th year, REV. SYLVESTER DANA. His father and brother-in-law were among those slain by the British and Indians in their cruel attack upon many places in the beautiful valley of Wyoming in 1778. He, with many other survivors of that terrible massacre, fled through the wilderness, and, after severe sufferings, safely reached Connecticut. In 1786, with two brothers, he returned to Wilkesbarre, which had been entirely desolated by the Indians, and successfully commenced the cultivation of his father's lands. In 1793 he entered Yale College, and graduated in 1797. He studied theology with the eminent Dr. Backus, and in 1801 was settled as a minister of a parish in Oxford, (N. H.,) where he remained about thirty-five years. His mind was clear and vigorous to the last, though his bodily sufferings were severe, and his hopes of a blessed immortality unwavering and unclouded.

At Poughkeepsie, N. Y., Col. HENRY A. LIVINGSTON. Several years ago he represented Dutchess county in the Assembly, and in 1837 was elected State Senator for four years, from the second Senate district. He was a grandson of Philip Livingston, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence; his father was an eminent divine of the Reformed Dutch Church. They now all sleep in the old family burial-ground, near the Livingston mansion.

Recently, at Paris, of cholera, MARSHAL BUGEAUD, a very distinguished French officer. He was born on the 15th of October, 1784, at Limoges, and was consequently 64 years old when he died. He was the son of M. Jean Amboise Bugeaud, Chevalier Seigneur de la Pinconnerie, and Françoise de Sutton de Clonard, descended from a family in Ireland. He entered the French army in 1805, was made a corporal at Austerlitz, and a year afterward had the rank of sub-lieutenant. After serving with great distinction in the wars of the empire, he had reached the rank of colonel in 1814. In 1831 he was promoted to the rank of major-general. In 1840 he was made governor-general of Algeria, and in 1843 he was created a marshal.

NOTICES OF BOOKS.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

It is our intention to set apart hereafter a place in the Register for notices of new works. Such as are sent to us for that purpose will receive due attention.

LIFE AND PUBLIC SERVICES OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, SIXTH PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES, WITH THE EULOGY DELIVERED BEFORE THE LEGISLATURE OF NEW YORK, BY W. H. SEWARD. *Auburn, N. Y.*

The publishers of this work state that Governor Seward had undertaken its preparation, but being unable to complete it, owing to his "multiplied business engagements," it became necessary "to obtain the literary assistance of an able writer, who has under his auspices completed the work." We are informed in the preface that, as the history of the life and times of Ex-President Adams, expected to be prepared by his family, would not probably appear under several years, and as a general desire was expressed for a book of the kind, limited in size, and within the means of the people generally, the present work has been prepared. "It has been the aim to present such an aspect of the history and principles of this wonderful man as shall do justice to his memory, and afford an example which the youth of America may properly imitate."

The work commences with the ancestry, birth, and childhood of Mr. Adams, and traces his history to the termination of his eventful career. We have in the first volume of the Register given the prominent events in the life of Mr. Adams, and therefore do not deem it necessary to recapitulate them here. The easy style of the narrative, and the felicitous arrangement of the incidents, renders the book a very readable and agreeable one; and as the history of the man is the history of the nation, it is, therefore, a deeply interesting and instructive one. Mr. Adams was trained in boyhood to become a useful and distinguished man, and the early maturity of his mind rendered the training less difficult. When only nine years old he wrote to his father, "Mamma has a troublesome task to keep me a studying. I own I am ashamed of myself. I have but just entered the third volume of Rollin's History, but designed to have got half through it by this time. I am determined this week to be more diligent." At the age of twenty-seven he was appointed by General Washington minister plenipotentiary to the Hague. Three years afterwards Gen. Washington wrote to his father, then president of the United States, in these words,

—"Without intending to compliment the father or the mother, or to censure any others, I give it as my decided opinion that Mr. Adams is the most valuable public character that we have abroad; and that there remains no doubt in my mind that he will prove himself to be the ablest of all the diplomatic corps." Such was the man at thirty who afterwards filled the chair of state, and became one of the most experienced statesmen in the world.

The author is, perhaps, at times too eulogistic for a biographer, yet the strong points of patriotism, industry, and purity of purpose in Mr. Adams' character he well and faithfully portrays. He says of him,—
 "He was utterly incapable of proscription for proscription's sake. . . .
 He knew nothing of the jealousy and bitterness which are gendered in little minds and hearts by disparities of sentiment. High and pure in all his aims, he sought to reach them by means of a corresponding character. If he could not succeed in the use of such instruments, he was content to meet defeat."

A very graphic account is given at page 297 of the influence exerted by Mr. Adams over the House of Representatives on the occasion of a difficulty in organizing, caused by a double delegation from New Jersey. In the midst of great confusion he arose, and having made an eloquent appeal to the House, he submitted a motion that the clerk should proceed to call the roll. But the clerk who was presiding declined to entertain the question, and the inquiry was, "Who shall put the question?" The voice of Mr. Adams was heard above the tumult, "I will put the question." This restored order. He was conducted to the chair amidst deafening acclamations, and presided until the house was organized.

As Mr. Adams was not a strict party man, the history of his life can be read without giving offence to any one. He was respected by men of all parties, and, in the words of senator Benton, "he left behind him the memory of public services which are the history of the country for half a century, and the example of a life, public and private, which should be the study and model of the generations of his countrymen."

We need hardly add that the eloquent eulogium of Gov. Seward, embraced within the volume, is well worth a perusal.

The book is printed and *got up* in a very handsome manner by the publishers, Messrs. Derby, Miller & Co., who show that such things can be done well in western New York, and deserve, what their enterprise is receiving, the patronage of the public.

HISTORY OF THE WAR BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO. By JOHN S. JENKINS.

This work is also a publication of *Messrs. Derby, Miller & Co.*, of Auburn, N. Y., and in the same style of beautiful execution as the life of Mr. Adams. The plates and illustrations, which are very numerous, have been prepared at much expense, and some of them are exceed-

ingly well done. There is a life-like head of Gen. Taylor at the title-page, followed by a beautiful vignette engraving. The book is interspersed, besides, with likenesses of Gen. Scott, Santa Anna, Gen. Twiggs, Paredes, Gen. Worth, Major Ringgold, Col. Fremont, Gen. Kearney, Arista, Gen. Wool, Com. Conner, Col. May, Gen. P. F. Smith, Capt. Walker, and representations of the battles of Palo Alto, Resaca, Monterey, Buena Vista, Cerro Gordo, the bombardment of Vera Cruz, the death of Col. Clay, Gen. Scott complimenting Col. Harney, the American troops in Mexico, &c.

The author has given us a comprehensive narration of the events of the Mexican war, and of the difficulties which preceded it, that should be read by every American citizen. The battles and stirring scenes of the war are described in an easy and clear manner, that must render the work very acceptable to general readers; and it bears indubitable evidences of truthfulness and candor. We recommend it to all who desire a handsome and useful volume, and a record of brilliant deeds and important events that must ever occupy a prominent place in American history.

THE GENERALS OF THE LAST WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN. By JOHN S. JENKINS. From the press of *Derby, Miller & Co.*

Within this volume are contained the biographies of Generals Brown, Gaines, Harrison, Jackson, Macomb, Pike, and Scott, with portraits. It is brought out in a very convenient size, comprising about 400 pages. The author refers to the authorities that he has consulted, as of the highest character; and assures us that "there has been no attempt at fine writing, but great pains have been taken to render the notices full, comprehensive, and historically accurate; and they are believed to be more entitled to confidence, in this respect, than any which have preceded them."

The book certainly bears the marks of industry, and the narration is, at times, spirited. We select, as an instance, the following descriptions from the account in the biography of Gen. Scott, of the battles of Chippewa and Niagara:

. . . . "Having given the necessary orders, he (Gen. Scott,) cried out to the battalion of Major M'Neil—the 11th infantry, on the left—'The enemy say we are good at long shot, but cannot stand the cold iron! I call upon the 11th instantly to give the lie to that slander!' 'Charge!' he added, as the shot from Towson's guns ploughed through and through the British ranks:—'Charge!—Charge!'—he repeated, in thundering tones, rising up in his stirrups, and waving his men on with his sword. This masterly charge, so well conceived and executed, put an end to the contest."

"The bloody battle on the heights of Niagara followed on the night of the 25th July. General Scott opened the action with his brigade, and for nearly two hours gallantly sustained himself against the vastly superior numbers of the British army. When the enemies' batteries

were ordered to be stormed, he piloted Col. Miller, who was directed to execute this daring enterprise with the 21st infantry, through the smoke and darkness, and the iron shower that swept unceasingly down the hill-side. Twice, during the height of the engagement, after being relieved by the troops under Ripley and Porter, Scott precipitated his brigade on the British left and right. Two horses were shot under him—one literally torn from its rider. Though badly wounded in the side by a spent ball, he persisted in remaining on the ground, wading on foot through the blood and carnage, and his clear, ringing voice ever and anon heard above the roar of artillery, as he cheered and encouraged his men. At length, he was finally disabled by a musket ball, which shattered his left shoulder; and, at midnight, just as the battle closed, he was borne from the field with his aid, Lieut. Worth, also severely wounded."

THE LIFE OF MAJOR GENERAL ZACHARY TAYLOR, BY H. MONTGOMERY.
Published by DERBY, MILLER & Co., *Auburn, N. Y.*

The author, in his preface, admits that the work has been hastily prepared, and that he has laboured under much embarrassment in collecting materials for it. "So little," he remarks, "had General Taylor sought public notoriety, that almost his very name was unknown to a large portion of the American people until the victories of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma revived the recollection of it. Even his heroic defence of Fort Harrison, and his services in Florida were nearly forgotten." Notwithstanding the want of time and materials, the volume is a very creditable one. From the attention we have been able to give it, we are of the opinion that the compiler has honestly excluded every thing "not believed to be strictly authentic," and with the means within his reach has given to the public an interesting and truthful history of the distinguished soldier recently elevated to the presidency of the United States. That the style and character of the work may be properly judged of, we add to this brief notice the following extracts:

"The father of General Taylor held a colonel's commission through the revolution, and served with great valour during that long and unequal struggle, much of the time with Washington himself, and retaining in all emergencies, and under every difficulty, his confidence and esteem. He was engaged in many of the most fiercely contested and bloody battles of the war, and particularly at Trenton, where he rendered distinguished and valuable aid to the commander-in-chief in that brilliant achievement.

". . . Zachary Taylor was born in Orange county, Virginia, in 1790, and was less than a year old when his father emigrated to Kentucky. His youth was therefore spent, and his character formed, amidst the dangers and difficulties of Indian warfare, and the hardships and privations ever incident to a frontier life. . . . Many family and neighbourhood anecdotes are told to illustrate his daring and adventurous character, and his love for dangerous enterprises. Night

after night he was in the habit of seeing the house barricaded, and the arms prepared to repel any attack that might be made before the morning dawned. Scarcely a week passed that there was not an actual incursion of Indians among the settlements. Even on his way to school he was in danger of the tomahawk and scalping-knife. On one occasion some of his schoolmates were murdered and scalped by the Indians within a hundred yards of the point where he and his brother had separated from them. When but seventeen years old he swam across the Ohio river from the Kentucky to the Indiana shore, in the month of March, when the river was filled with floating ice. Many other well-attested anecdotes are related of his daring adventures, and his bold and dangerous exploits.—No obstacle could dampen his indomitable energy, or discourage him from attempting the most hazardous enterprises.”

The flight of the Mexicans after the battle of Resaca, and the distress and excitement in Matamoras, are thus described:—“At their secret crossing the Mexicans had but one flat, which was entirely insufficient for the numbers who now, in terror, sought the river. While the flat swarmed with infantry the cavalry would charge, and filling the flat, drive the wretches who had occupied it into the river. The water was covered with the miserable beings, who, confused and desperate, plunged into the waves, calling on God to help them, or venting their impotent maledictions upon those who had forced them to a watery grave. They sank by scores, clutching each other in the agonies of death; and the ‘mad river’ fairly boiled with the expiring breath of those who had sunken under its dark wave.

“The night was made hideous by the constant arrival of the wounded in sacks; many yelled like fiends as the rough carriage and contracted form started afresh their bleeding wounds; others were found dead in their sacks, having been drowned while crossing the river on swimming mules. The women of the city rushed to the ball-rooms and tore down the festoons prepared for the great festival to be given in honor of their victorious arms. They tore off and stamped upon their gay apparel, and mingled their cries of wild despair with those of the wounded.”

MEMORIAL OF AMBROSE SPENCER, FORMER CHIEF JUSTICE OF THE SUPREME COURT OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

This interesting volume, published in Albany, and intended for distribution among the friends of Judge Spencer, has been presented to us. It contains the proceedings of the senate and assembly of New York, and of the court and bar in various parts of the state, on the occasion of his death; two eloquent sermons by Rev. Drs. Potter and Sprague, of Albany, on the same occasion, and the admirable discourse on the life and character of the late chief justice by the Hon. Daniel D. Barnard, delivered at the request of the bar.

We have heretofore noticed the prominent events in the life of this

truly great man, but we cannot let the present opportunity pass without using Mr. Barnard's address for the purpose of exhibiting the eminent services of Judge Spencer in constructing the system of American jurisprudence, and his important connexion with the political history of the country.

The lights and ornaments of the New York bar, at the beginning of the present century, when Mr. Spencer was at the height of his professional fame, are thus described:

"Not to mention others of hardly less note and mark, there were, besides Richard Harrison, whom I have named before, Brockholst Livingston and Edward Livingston, both men of original and commanding ability; and Aaron Burr, the subtlest practitioner of his time, and a most dangerous adversary; and Josiah Ogden Hoffman, a man of wit and of a varied and most attractive talent; and Abraham Van Vechten, full of solid learning and solid sense; and John V. Henry, acute, logical, well-instructed, and eloquent; and William W. Van Ness, the rarest genius of them all; and, finally, the great Hamilton—great at the bar, as he was great every where else—who moved along with the weight of the heaviest causes on his shoulders, with as much ease as Atlas, standing still, bears up the world. And these were the men, and others hardly less conspicuous and powerful, with whom Mr. Spencer was associated at the bar, and with whom he was used to wrestle in high forensic debate; rarely, if ever, less than the equal of the best of them, and oftentimes *primus inter pares*."

Prior to the elevation of Mr. Spencer to the judgeship he was elected to the senate of the state. Mr. Barnard thus refers to his political position at that time:

"The election of the next year, 1795, carried Mr. Jay into the gubernatorial chair, with a majority friendly to him and his administration, in both branches of the legislature. Among the senators elected was Ambrose Spencer. I hardly need say that for the seven years of his continued service in that body he was a prominent and leading member. Indeed, from the commencement of this senatorial service forward for twenty years he exercised a prodigious influence, and a sway over the political affairs of this state, extended at times to those of the government at Washington, second to no other individual. This was a personal influence, due to the strength of his intellect, his energy and activity, his boldness and decision, and the general weight of his character rather than the result of any official power or patronage ever wielded or directed by him. It was characteristic of him to be decided, active, and zealous whatever measures, or policy, or party he espoused. Separated by the occurrences of 1788 from Gov. Clinton and the party which opposed the constitution, he was the friend and supporter of Gov. Jay, and down to 1798, whether in the assembly, or the senate, or in the council of appointment, of which he was a member in 1797, he acted uniformly with him and the federal party.

“In the spring of 1798 he was re-elected to the senate, having at that time taken his stand with the party now called republican, which, in this state and in the nation, had united to oppose the policy and administration of John Adams. A change of party is not always a change of principle—though it is quite apt to be so considered, and often is so in fact. Nor is a change of political sentiment always proof either of a want of principle or a want of sense. In this case I have not been able to discover that it was much more than a partial change of personal association.”

Of his elevation to the bench, his associates, and their important and arduous services, we have an account:

“From 1804 to 1823, was the period of his judicial service. When he came on the bench he had James Kent, Brockholst Livingston, and Smith Thompson for his associates—the last two having been appointed the preceding year, by the council, of which he and Mr. Clinton were members. In 1807, William W. Van Ness took the place of Judge Livingston; Jonas Platt came in, in 1814, when Chief Justice Kent was made Chancellor; and, in 1819, John Woodworth—on whom the office had been urged nearly twenty years before, but then declined—took the place of Judge Thompson. At this time, (1819,) Judge Spencer became Chief Justice. After this enumeration, I hardly need say that, during his whole term of service, he was associated with very able judges; and if he maintained from the first a position of eminence and marked superiority among his brethren—as I suppose it must be conceded he did—it was not because he was surrounded with feeble or inferior men. Quite the contrary. All the gentlemen I have named were men of superior ability, and good professional learning; several of them possessed talents of the highest order, and exactly of the kind which fitted them for a high judicial station. One of them, James Kent, I suppose has not had his superior, for variety and vastness of legal erudition, in or out of this country, in the present century. Perhaps, of the whole of them, the one who was less indebted to books and to laborious study for his qualifications than any other—*abnormis sapiens*—was William W. Van Ness; he was indeed a man of wonderful ability.”

“We must not fail to observe, that at the time when Judge Spencer took his seat on the bench, very little, comparatively, had yet been done any where in this country, towards constructing that comprehensive and admirable system of American common law, which certainly existed at the close of his judicial labours. The Federal Courts, in their higher jurisdiction, were occupied with questions of constitutional law, rather than in the exposition and application of the rules of the common law; and John Marshall had only begun his administration of the law in the Supreme Court of the United States in 1801. The first volume of Cranch’s Reports of the decisions of that court, was not published till 1804. There were not, up to that time, above

half a dozen volumes of Reports, if so many, from all the courts in the United States, and these contained comparatively little of importance or particular merit. Theophilus Parsons, the great light and luminary of the law in Massachusetts, was not brought on the bench till 1806.”

“In the construction of that system of American jurisprudence of which we have the record mainly in Johnson’s Reports, I shall deem it not unjust, or disparaging to their able associates, to say, that Kent and Spencer had the principal share. These great men prosecuted their labours together from 1804 to 1814. During this period each brought in his contributions, in full measure, and in full proportion, according to his particular line of ability. And this certainly must be said for Judge Kent, that, having been six years on the bench when Judge Spencer took his seat there, the first substantial course in the foundations of the new jurisprudence—for so I think it is entitled to be called—was laid by his hand. From 1814 to 1823, the mark of strong preëminence among the judges of the period, rested individually on Judge Spencer. Still, however, during all this latter period, though they held their sway in separate tribunals, their peculiar powers were frequently brought into exercise in the same causes and questions, through the part they each had in the business of the court of last resort.”

We close our extracts with the following reference to the political associations and influence of Judge Spencer:

“On his elevation to the bench in 1804, and during his judicial service, he did not suffer the ardor of his interest in public affairs, and in the public questions of the day, to abate in the least degree. The strong friendship, personal and political, between himself and Mr. De Witt Clinton, which began about the year 1798, and which was strengthened by a family alliance in 1808, continued till 1812, when it first suffered an interruption—only, however, to be afterwards renewed with increased confidence and cordiality. From 1807, when Mr. Tompkins was first elected governor, till 1812, the administration of this state was chiefly in their hands. Gov. Tompkins owed his selection as a candidate, and his election, to them, or more properly, it is believed, to Judge Spencer; and it does not, I suppose, admit of a doubt, that the whole policy of the administration, at that time, was shaped under their joint counsel. The period from 1812 to 1816, was that of the separation of the two friends; it included that of the war with England, and during that trying time, the political power and influence of Judge Spencer in this state were nearly supreme. From 1807—the year of the embargo—to the close of the war in 1815, the general government at Washington leaned for support on the arm of this great state. And during the war, particularly, the strength, firmness and energy of that support, were due to Judge Spencer, in a very great degree.”

QUARTERLY CHRONICLE.

—
MARCH, 1849.

March 1st. The waters of the Mississippi were reported to be higher at New Orleans by sixteen inches than they had ever been seen before.

Letters from St. Petersburg state that in the thirteen northern provinces of Russia and Europe more than thirty-two thousand houses have been destroyed by fire during the past year, while ordinarily in these provinces not more than about two thousand, or two thousand five hundred a year are burned.

The government has ascertained that, for the most part, these fires, which have caused a loss of twelve million of rubles, are the result of crimes, and that they were lighted by friction matches. In consequence of this the minister of police has made a decree that henceforth no factory for these matches shall be established within cities, and nowhere else without special license from the higher authorities.

French agriculture has recently been enriched by a very important new production. This precious article is the Chinese hemp, the *Loma corchorus*, the seeds of which were imported into France by M. Stier, a member of the French embassy in China, and has been cultivated and naturalized at Marseilles by M. Garnier Savatier. This hemp, the reproduction of which is now secured by the seeds which have ripened in the best possible manner, grows to a height of twenty-four or twenty-five feet, the stalk is from five to six inches in circumference, each plant produces from two to three kilograms of seed, and furnishes thread enough to make a yard of superb lawn, superior in beauty and quality to any obtained from French materials.

Letters from Ireland contain the most heart-rending accounts of destitution and death. The Rev. Mr. Callanan, of the county of Mayo, wrote that hundreds were dying of starvation around him, and adds,—“The famine years of 1846, 1847, and 1848 were halcyon years when contrasted with the dismal year of 1849! The sand-banks about me are studded with the bodies of the dead! Often have I given some aid to the poor to buy coffins; with the small sums they received from me they bought some food, and then buried their dead in the sand-banks. The very graves in my church-yard have, in my presence, been assailed by the starving dogs. From morning until night I am now hourly beset by crawling skeletons begging for food!”

2d. The meeting of the society for the development of the mineral resources of the United States was held in Philadelphia, P. A. Browne, Esq., President.

This society was incorporated by an act of the legislature of Pennsylvania, passed February, 1849. The sixth section of which declares the objects, interests, and purposes of the corporation to be to collect and preserve specimens of all the rocks and minerals of the United States useful in agriculture, architecture, manufactures and the arts, to offer them for free inspection, &c., to cause to be disseminated useful information upon economical mineralogy and geology, and to introduce into use American mineral productions; with power to appoint teachers and professors of mineralogy, geology, and mineralogical chemistry.

The New York Tribune of this date thus reports the escape of an elephant, and his wanderings through the city:

“The inhabitants of Elizabeth street were somewhat startled last night, about 10 o'clock, by the appearance of a large elephant, who had escaped from his residence corner of Bayard street. Passing down the former street, he stopped on his way to look in at one or two grocery stores, scattering and breaking the contents with little regard to the feelings of the proprietors. After doing considerable damage by smashing in doors and tearing up railing, he crossed to Broadway, and promenaded for a while between Chambers and Franklin streets, finally passing down Duane street to the North river, where he was captured by his keeper and taken quietly back to his lodgings. Had the streets been in good order, it is difficult to say what the consequences might have been. As it was, the labour of locomotion was too much for his huge frame.”

3d. The Colonization Society's bark Liberia Packet sailed from Baltimore for Liberia, having on board the Rev. Messrs. G. Rambo and C. C. Hoffman, Protestant Episcopal missionaries, and about 70 emigrants.

We learn from the *Positivo* of Rome that the prisons of the holy office had been visited by the authorities, and the prisoners set at liberty. Among them were a bishop of Egypt, condemned under Leo XII., and two nuns.

4th. This day, (Sunday,) about sunrise, the second session of the thirtieth congress was closed.

All the annual appropriation bills were finally passed, not, however, without severe conflicts, arising out of the several propositions relative to the government of the new territories. The civil and diplomatic appropriation bill was barely saved at the last moment. It was received by the senate at half past 12 o'clock from the house, with amendments. An exciting debate ensued; some contending that the thirtieth congress had expired. Mr. Webster insisted that they had a

right to sit until noon on Sunday. At ten minutes past five the question on the bill was taken. During the debate there was a personal conflict between two senators. After this bill was disposed of, at 6 o'clock the senate went into executive session, and confirmed the appointment of senator Hannegan, of Indiana, as minister to Berlin, and then adjourned.

The excitement in the house was, if possible, greater than in the senate—at two o'clock on Sunday morning there was no quorum—one member knocked another down, and a scene of indescribable uproar and confusion ensued. Order was at length restored, and after waiting for the president to sign the general appropriation bill, the house adjourned *sine die*, at a quarter before seven o'clock.

No bill was passed providing a government for either of the territories of New Mexico or California. These bills fell through from the inability of the two houses to concur in any proposition for the purpose. At the last moment, however, a bill from the house was taken up and passed by the senate, and became a law, for extending the revenue laws of the United States to these territories.

The bill to establish the home department became a law, having passed the senate after a long, arduous, and rather stormy debate; and a new and valuable department has thus been added to the government.

The bill for creating a territorial government in Minesota also became a law, the house of representatives having receded from its amendment proposing to postpone the operation of the bill to the 10th of this month.

The bill organizing this new territory bounds it on the north by the British possessions, east by the state of Wisconsin and the Mississippi river, south by Iowa, and west by the Missouri and White-earth rivers.

Provision is made for the division of the territory, if congress see fit. The government is to be organized in the usual manner, consisting of a governor, secretary, and legislative assembly. The two former to hold office for four years. The last consists of a council, elected every two years, and an assembly, chosen annually, on the principle of universal suffrage. All laws enacted by this body are to be submitted to the United States congress; and if disapproved, are annulled. The act contains the usual provisions for a territorial judiciary establishment. The governor's salary is fixed at \$1,500, but he receives \$1000 additional as superintendent of Indian affairs. The salary of the secretary and each of the judges is \$1,800. The *per diem* of members of the legislature is three dollars, and the sessions are limited to sixty days. The laws in force in Wisconsin at the date of its admission into the union remain in operation in the new territory until modified by the legislature thereof: and the laws of the United States, as far as applicable, are extended thereto. The legislature to hold its first session at St. Paul, at a time to be named by the governor, and

thereafter wherever it may establish the seat of government. The governor appoints the time and place for holding the first election of members, as also of a congressional delegate. All subsequent elections are to be regulated by the territorial law. The act appropriates \$20,000 for the erection of public buildings at the seat of government, and \$5000 for the purchase of a library.

The Hon. Alex. Ramsay, of Dauphin county, Pennsylvania, has been appointed governor and superintendent of Indians for the territory.

Congress also passed a bill in reference to the next census, directing the heads of some of the departments, and the attorney general, to prepare and report at the next session of congress a bill to authorize the taking of the seventh census of the United States.

We may here notice the fact that a census of the whole British empire is to be taken, for the first time, in 1851. Orders have been sent to all the colonies to make preparation for this labour, that it may be executed on a systematic and uniform plan throughout the British dominions in every part of the globe.

5th. The inauguration of the newly elected President of the United States, General Zachary Taylor, took place this day.

The doors of the senate chamber were opened at 10 o'clock, A.M., and the ladies' gallery was immediately filled.

The senate assembled at 11 o'clock. A resolution was adopted that Senator Atchison take the chair, and the new members were sworn in.

The vice president, Hon. Millard Fillmore, and the ex-vice president, Hon. Geo. M. Dallas, entered the chamber arm in arm, when the former, after the oath of office was administered to him by Mr. Atchison, took the chair, and delivered an address to the senate.

The judges of the supreme court, the speaker and members of the house of representatives, the diplomatic corps, and members of the last cabinet, came in and took seats in the area on the right and left of the vice president.

At half past 12 o'clock the President and Ex-president entered together and occupied, with Mr. Dallas and Col. R. M. Johnson, the crimson arm-chairs in front of the secretary's table.

After a brief space those thus assembled in the senate chamber, in conformity with the arrangements of the committee of the senate, proceeded to the eastern portico of the capitol, in the following order:

The marshal of the District of Columbia; the supreme court of the United States; the serjeant-at-arms of the senate; the committee of arrangements; the president elect and ex-president; the vice president, ex-vice president, and secretary of the senate; the members of the senate; the diplomatic corps, and the mayors of Washington and Georgetown, and the other persons admitted on the floor of the senate.

President Taylor soon after delivered his inaugural address, which was listened to throughout with the most profound attention.*

On the conclusion of the address, the oath of office was administered to the president of the United States by the chief justice; after which the members of the senate, preceded by the vice president, secretary, and sergeant-at-arms returned to the senate chamber.

The ceremony was solemn and imposing—the crowd immense.

5th. The legislative assembly of the district of San Francisco, in California, met for the first time. The oath of office was administered to the members, and Francis J. Lippit elected Speaker. A committee was appointed to wait on Gen. Persifer F. Smith and Commodore Ap. C. Jones, stating the necessity the people were under to organize a government, and to appoint magistrates, &c., and claiming the recognition of their proceedings by those officers.

A few days previous, a meeting was held in San Francisco, at which Captain J. L. Folsom presided, for the purpose of expressing an opinion on the subject of slavery, and instructing the delegates, who are to assemble at Monterey on the first Monday of August next, to form a constitution and provisional government for California. The resolutions passed on the occasion strongly oppose the introduction of domestic slavery, or of free negroes as apprentices.

A letter written about the same time from San Francisco, by Mr. Pritchette, the Secretary of Gen. Lane, Governor of Oregon, who stopped on his way at the former place, states that a provisional government will certainly be formed in California, unless Congress soon acts. The writer also gives some interesting particulars in relation to the territory. He states that day laborers receive ten dollars per day, and mechanics twenty-five dollars. Fire-arms, boots, shoes, knives, coarse cloths, &c., brought enormous prices. Forty vessels were in the harbor of San Francisco, deserted by the seamen. He saw many specimens of gold, some as large as hen's eggs. The first of May was about the time to go to the mines. Gold is obtained in three ways: 1st, by washing the sand and earth in the bottom of the streams; 2d, on the high land, where it is found in lumps; 3d, in the strata of rocks which crop out of the mountains. Every healthy, strong man of good habits can get sixteen dollars' worth of gold daily, and may get more. The price of property in San Francisco is enormously high. Every man's pocket seems full of money, and gambling and drinking are the principal amusements.

6th. The ship Liverpool, with 400 passengers, arrived at New York—having lost forty passengers by cholera, and having nine on the sick list. There were at the time of her arrival, 1200 patients in the hospital at the quarantine.

EARTHQUAKES IN THE WESTERN ISLANDS.—The Azores has been kept in a state of constant alarm for nearly two months past by a succes-

* See the address, page 273, vol. II, No. 1.

sion of earthquakes, which have thrown down many houses and churches on these islands. The alarm was heightened to an intense consternation one night in December by the appearance of a brilliant aurora borealis in the west. Such a phenomenon is without a precedent in that quarter.

The Kentucky Legislature, during its recent session, passed six hundred and seventy-one acts, and fourteen joint resolutions. Among the acts were one hundred and ninety-six granting divorces.

A law has been passed by the Ohio Legislature exempting a homestead from execution, not exceeding six hundred dollars in value, to take effect from and after July next.

President Solouque of Hayti left Port au Prince, the 6th March, on his expedition against the Dominicans.

“The campaign is undertaken,” says the order of the day, “to the end of maintaining the principle of the indivisibility of the country, by restoring to the bosom of the Republic those of our fellow-citizens now unhappily estranged from it. A major portion of the inhabitants of the East wish to reunite with us, but, deprived of support, they await our presence to manifest that disposition.” On the 18th, the Haytien army encountered at Cajul the advanced posts of the enemy which covered Lammatte. The main body of the Dominicans did not wait the advance of the Haytien army, but retired upon St. Jean. In this movement they were attacked by the columns under the command of Generals Bobo, Vincent, and L. Michel, beaten and put to flight, abandoning to their pursuers five pieces of artillery with a large quantity of munitions of war. Subsequently, however, Solouque was met by the Dominicans, and his army totally routed and dispersed.

PINE APPLES IN FLORIDA.—A writer in the Savannah Georgian says that one gentleman put out 46 slips of the pine on the 20th of August, 1843, and they ripened fruit July 10th, 1845; he has now 3,500 plants, half of which will bear next July. The apple does as well at St. Lucia, if not better than in Cuba: the fruit is larger and better. About 18,000 pines can be produced to the acre. This fruit from the pine plants of South Florida need not be plucked till it has quite matured, when it will come into market in a better condition, and of a finer flavor than any other. The average value of the pine then will be at least five cents, and an acre will yield \$800 or \$900, while the produce of the orange is about \$750 per acre.

7th. The cabinet nominations of President Taylor were this day confirmed by the Senate of the United States:

John M. Clayton, Secretary of State.

William M. Meredith, Secretary of the Treasury.

George W. Crawford, Secretary of War.

William B. Preston, Secretary of the Navy.

Thomas Ewing, Secretary of the Home Department.

Jacob Collamer, Post Master General.

Reverdy Johnson, Attorney General.

9th. The Mississippi river broke over its banks. The levee at Baton Rouge and Donaldsonville gave way, and immense damage was done to property—New Orleans threatened with an inundation.

The ship *Riga*, of Boston, was burned at sea. The captain and crew saved themselves by making a raft, on which they were four days, when they were rescued by the schooner *Duxbury*.

10th. The ice, which had closed the river Susquehannah at Havre de Grace so as to prevent the passage of the rail-road company's steamboat across the river since the 29th January, broke up this day.

The largest merchant ship in the United States was launched in New York. Length on deck, 202 feet; breadth of beam, 41 feet; depth of hold, 28 feet, 9 inches. Tonnage, 1608 tons—by carpenter's measurement, 2000 tons.

12th. A great land suit was decided in New Orleans, involving property to the amount of \$15,000,000, between the heirs of Villars and J. M. Kennedy, and others, officers of the Mint. The U. S. Government was the real party defendant; the property in controversy being the block on which the branch Mint stands. The decision was in favor of the defendants. Henry Clay and others appeared for the plaintiff, and Levi Pierce and T. J. Durant for the United States.

13th. An immense flood at Chicago. The damage to commerce alone was estimated at \$100,000. The whole harbor was a scene of confusion—all the canal boats destroyed or carried into the lake.

15th. Between the first of the month and this date, there arrived at Rio Janeiro as many as forty American vessels, with more than one thousand passengers bound to California.

The steamship *Crescent City* sailed from New York with 318 passengers for California. Among them was the wife of Col. Fremont, daughter of Senator Benton.

The Austrians have been beaten in several engagements by the Hungarians. A large force was compelled by Gen. Bem to fly into Wallachia. The losses of the imperial army have been great. Georgey was conducting the war in upper Hungary, and Dembinski is at the head of the force on the Theiss.

16th. As a freight train was passing through the tunnel at Harlem, when, at a distance of about forty feet from the east end of it, a vast mass of rock fell from its roof upon the locomotive and tender, and on several new and heavy freight cars, which were entirely destroyed. So immense was the weight, that the iron rails of the track were driven deep into the ground. Providentially, no person was at all injured.

By an arrival from Pernambuco, information has been received that in consequence of the suppression of a liberal journal, the citizens, on the 8th ult., rose against the government, and made an assault upon the government troops. Every inch of ground was firmly contested,

but the insurgents were completely routed, with the loss of 200 killed and 300 drowned.

19th. The first steamboats of the season on the Hudson river succeeded in getting through the ice to Albany.

20th. The bill to pay the rebellion losses passed the upper house of the Canadian parliament by a majority of four.

23d. A tremendous tornado occurred in Kentucky on Tuesday night, passing over the beautiful villages of Shelbyville and Bairdstown, and the adjoining country, spreading general destruction throughout its course. Many lives were lost, and the damage to property is immense. It was about one quarter of a mile wide, and swept from west to east, demolishing every thing in its course. Houses, barns, and other buildings were thrown down, and large forest trees torn up by the roots, or twisted off by the trunk. It passed over Salvisa, demolishing churches and dwellings, and crossed the Kentucky at Oregon, in which place it also did great damage.

24th. Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, defeated at Novara, in a great battle, by the Austrian General, Radetsky, who is said to be 81 years of age. The force on both sides was nearly 50,000.

The Austrians passed the Ticino simultaneously with the Piedmontese; the latter, however, speedily fell back. Three successive battles ensued. In the two latter, on the plains of Vercelli, the Austrians were completely victorious.

Finding the day going against him, the king seems to have sought every opportunity to meet his death on the battle field, and whatever may be the verdict of history as to his past conduct, certain it is that nothing graced his public life so much as the last act on his quitting it.

The Austrians having completely routed the Piedmontese, and driven them to the mountains, Charles Albert abdicated the throne in favor of his son, Victor Emanuel, and a flag of truce being sent to the Austrian camp, Radetsky at once acceded to the armistice.

The new king pledges himself to conclude a treaty of peace, to disband ten military companies of Hungarians, Poles, and Lombards, who are to receive an amnesty.

The new king of Sardinia is 29 years old, and respected for his upright character. He formed a new ministry, and issued a proclamation to the people. Charles Albert is an exile in Spain or Portugal.

27th. The gold region in North Carolina is reported to be very productive. The Lincolnton Republican states that "at the Mountain Creek mine, in Catawba county, belonging to Messrs. Cansler and Shuford, three hands collected, in two days and a half, with the simple operations of pan and hand rocker, 2,208 dwts. of gold from the vein and from the sands below—by the use of the mill, 159 dwts. more. The amount collected during the week, independent of the products of the rocker, was 2367 dwts. At one panning, Mr. Shuford got 215 dwts. some of it in particles of considerable size.

28th. A popular movement commenced at Genoa, in Italy. The governor was seized and imprisoned, and the Piedmontese General in command of the garrison was obliged to capitulate. A few days after, Gen. Marmora arrived with a strong force before the city, and after a sanguinary conflict drove out the triumvirate and obliged the insurgents to capitulate.

30th. Accounts reached St. Louis of terrible disasters to the party led by Col. Fremont *en route* to California. The winter has been excessively severe in the mountain ranges bounding the great basin. Col. F. lost 11 men by cold in the mountains, and 130 mules. The snow was fearfully deep, and the weather extremely cold. After returning to the valley, he despatched three men for relief, who not returning, he started for Taos, where he arrived in nine days, and thence sent assistance to his suffering companions. He afterwards started for California.

The Frontier Guardian, a paper published semi-monthly at Kaneshville, Iowa, on the Missouri river near Council Bluffs, states that the winter in that region had been unusually severe—the snow had fallen to the depth of four feet—good sleighing lasted three months—the thermometer had been 20° below zero. At Fort Vermillion the snow had been much deeper, and many Indians were in a state of starvation. The past winter has been generally severe—the thermometer at Mackinaw was 27° below zero.

31st. From the reports of the collector at San Francisco, California, we learn that the number of emigrants that arrived *by sea*, between the 1st October, 1848, and the 31st March, 1849, were 2433. The amount of gold dust exported in that period, 177,627½ oz., at \$16 per oz., equal to \$2,842,040. The value of goods entered, \$1,080,801. The emigrants were from all parts of the world. The number of *overland* emigrants is not given.

The city of Brescia, in Lombardy, was taken by assault by the Austrians, after a siege of several days. The inhabitants had revolted against Austrian rule, and put the garrison of the citadel to the sword. A terrible revenge was taken by the Austrians, who carried the town at the point of the bayonet. The massacre on both sides was enormous.

APRIL, 1849.

The state prisoners in France, Barbès, Albert, Blanqui, Raspail, and others condemned to transportation for political offences have been sent to their destination.

3d. The King of Prussia was offered the Imperial crown by the German assembly at Frankfort, and refused it.

4th. The Danes, who had renewed the Schleswig war, sent a naval expedition against the town of Eckenforde, which had a disastrous termination in the loss of two of their largest vessels—a line of battle ship

and a frigate. The Danish Admiral, his officers, and about 1000 men surrendered themselves prisoners of war.

14th. The Hungarian parliament declared the independence of Hungary, together with Transylvania, and the exclusion of the house of Hapsburgh Lorraine from the throne. M. Ludvig Kossuth was at the same time chosen President of the new republic.

He afterwards issued a proclamation in which he tells the Hungarians to have courage and fear nothing, for thousands of their fellow countrymen are ready to sacrifice life and property in their defence. He says the Russians are coming, called, it is true, by the Austrians to help them, but with the real motive of assisting the Hungarians, that the Slavonians, the Transylvanians, and the Gallicians are all rising in their favour, to free them from an insupportable yoke.

17th. By advices at this date from Bombay we learn that the war in the Punjaub is over, and the whole country, embracing 100,000 square miles, and a population of 3,500,000, has been annexed to the British empire.

19th. The National Assembly of France voted 1,200,000 francs to enable the government to send a military force of 14,000 men to Civita Vecchia, in Italy, for the purpose of assisting the Pope, and securing, as alleged, a liberal government to the Roman people. On the 22d the expedition sailed.

Venice besieged by the Austrians by sea and land.

In Sicily a desperate battle took place on Good Friday between the Neapolitan and Swiss troops and the people of Catania, which continued all night, and ended in the defeat of the Catanians.

26th. A very serious riot and outbreak took place in Montreal, in consequence of the assent given by Lord Elgin, the Governor General, to the rebellion losses bill. The "British party," unable to repress their indignation, assaulted the governor on his way from the parliament house with hisses, hootings, rotten eggs, and other missiles, and about nine o'clock in the evening attacked the parliament house, destroying every thing before them, and setting fire to the building. No attempt was made to arrest the progress of the flames, and the edifice, which cost £80,000, was destroyed. One of the most valuable libraries of American history was consumed with it. The governor was burnt in effigy, and the whole of Upper Canada fearfully agitated.

Sir Allen M'Nab was sent to England to ask the disallowance of the bill, and the recall of Lord Elgin.*

29th. The accounts from Venezuela are that President Monagas had

* See the Historical Register, page 348.

We have received from an English gentleman of high character a communication on the subject of the Canadian troubles, the publication of which we have postponed until some definite action is had by the British government. At present the ministry sustain Lord Elgin.

resigned—an amnesty published—and the sons of Gen. Paez released from imprisonment.

30th. A singular and horrible murder was committed at Lisle, New York.

A Mr. Houghtaling, a man of very intemperate habits, who was ploughing, in company with his son, a mere boy, laid himself in the furrow and went to sleep. The boy procured an axe and deliberately chopped off his father's head, because, as he said, he was a worthless scamp, and had chastised him the day before.

At this date the French general, Oudinot, with the force sent from France to settle the difficulties at Rome, advanced on the city with the intention to occupy it, but his entrance was resisted by the Romans, and he was repulsed with loss.

The city of Rome is surrounded by an ancient wall of great height and strength, which is 12 or 15 miles in extent, and flanked by nearly 200 square towers. The most important part of the city, situated on the right or western bank of the Tiber, is more strongly fortified than the rest. In this part of the city are situated the palace of the Vatican, the church of St. Peter, the castle of St. Angelo, and other prominent edifices of this renowned city. It was on this side, at Port Cavallagieri, and Fabrica, near St. Peters, that the French troops reached the city on their march from Civita Vecchia, their port of landing, which is 30 miles distant.

In consequence of this repulse of Oudinot the President of France despatched an additional force to aid him in what he terms "his benevolent mission."

MAY, 1849.

1st. The receipts of the Suffolk bank, Boston, of foreign money in 1848, were over one hundred and seventy millions of dollars; and the amount received from January 1st, 1849, to May 1st, exceeded sixty millions of dollars; being nearly five dollars more than was received during the corresponding time of last year.

5th. From every part of Germany, north, west, and south, each successive post brings intelligence of the most serious and alarming character. Every where there are meetings of the people, described as attended by thousands, the resolutions passed at these assemblies being nearly in all cases the same—the recognition and acceptance of the German constitution, or the determination to take up arms in support of it against the governments. At some of these meetings the people even appeared with weapons, so that the place of assembly looked like a camp.

A collision which took place at Dresden, Saxony, between the troops and the people, resulted in the withdrawal of the king from the city, and the formation of a provisional government. Troops were sent from Berlin to aid the Saxon troops, and after the city had been bombarded, the populace were overpowered, and the insurrection quelled.

On the 5th of May, the Neapolitan army, which was advancing on Rome to aid the cause of the Pope, was defeated by Garibaldi, the Roman General.

The Danes have been again defeated, and the British government is using every effort to produce a reconciliation of existing differences.

The emperor of Russia has sent into Galicia to assist the Austrians, en route for Hungary, 120 Russians with 350 cannon.

Prussia and Austria have withdrawn their delegates from the Frankfurt Parliament. A sort of Congress assembled at Berlin, and the scheme of a German confederate State had been revived.

8th. Bologna was bombarded by the Austrians, and after a spirited resistance on the part of the citizens, they obtained possession of three gates and the suburbs.

The Neapolitan army entered Palermo after two successive conflicts with the inhabitants. A general amnesty from the king was declared.

6th. The first national council of the Roman Catholic Church in the United States was convened at Baltimore, in the Metropolitan Church. The number of Bishops present was 26—the archbishop of Baltimore presided.

During this month a convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church, in Pennsylvania, was held in Philadelphia, Bishop Potter presiding. Also, a convention of the same church in Massachusetts, Bishop Eastburn presiding.

The General Assemblies of the Presbyterian Church likewise convened. The new school in Philadelphia, and the old school in Pittsburgh.

The services at all these assemblages were solemn and imposing.

10th. A great riot occurred in New York at the Astor Place Theatre, in consequence of opposition to the performance of Mr. Macready, a celebrated English actor, between whom and Mr. Forrest, the American tragedian, there was a personal controversy, in which the people took part. Macready was hissed at the theatre, and some of his admirers sent him a letter requesting him to appear again. The mob assembled for the purpose of breaking up the performance. The military were called out to disperse it, and in the fight which ensued, from 25 to 30 lives were lost. Many of the soldiers were wounded by stones and other missiles, and when they fired on the populace the excitement was terrific. The Recorder, Hon. F. A. Tallmadge, was present through the whole affair, read the riot act, and made every effort to disperse the mob without the use of force.

11th. In the celebrated case of Smith O'Brien, the Irish insurgent, it was decided in the House of Lords, that the writ of error could not be maintained, and the conviction was confirmed. The sentence of death passed on him has since been commuted to transportation for life, and he and his associates will be sent out of the country.

12th. The new king of Holland was inaugurated in the cathedral church of Amsterdam.

The count of Montemolin, the pretender to the crown of Spain, has given directions to his chieftains to retreat into France, and the men to submit to the Queen. This is an end of the affair.

15th. A battle fought between the Yucatoes and Indians—the latter defeated.

A disastrous fire took place at Watertown, New York, destroying \$250,000 worth of property.

16th. The large steamer *Empire*, whilst passing up the Hudson river, crowded with passengers, was struck at about ten o'clock at night by a large schooner and the bow stove in. The steamer filled immediately and sunk in about ten minutes. The scene which ensued was awful in the extreme.—Some passengers found their way on board the schooner—as many as thirty were drowned in the cabins. Some jumped overboard and were rescued by boats from Newburgh. Four brothers of the name of Ladd were among the lost. The pilot of the *Empire* was arrested and held to bail.

The returns of the late election in France show that from 210 to 240 socialists have been chosen as members of the new assembly—at the head of them Ledru Rollin. There are upwards of 500 members elected by the other parties. Lamartine, Guizot, Mole, Thiers, &c., have been rejected, and Cavaignac, Lamoriciere, Barrot, Dufaure, &c., elected. The moderate party, led by Cavaignac, seems for the present to have the ascendancy.

17th. A conflagration at Milwaukie consumed property to the amount of \$60,000.

The city of St. Louis was the scene of one of the most destructive fires that has occurred in this country. The number of buildings destroyed was 418, and the value of property destroyed estimated at \$1,670,000. The fire originated on a boat lying at the wharf, communicated to the vessels and buildings adjoining, and extended three quarters of a mile. The loss in steamboats alone is estimated at \$318,000. It was stated that twenty persons perished in the flames. The suffering caused by the fire was very great.

A short time previous a large fire took place at Charleston, consuming 150 dwellings.

Dr. Valorus P. Coolidge, the murderer of Matthews, committed suicide in prison by taking poison. It was said that he had planned the death of Dr. Flint, the principal witness against him; the discovery and frustration of which caused him to take his own life.

18th. The crevasse or breach of the levee at New Orleans had become serious. A part of the city was already submerged, and the distress of the citizens in that quarter very great. In the rear of

the upper part of the second municipality the appearance was that of a regular lake, and all sorts of water craft were to be seen. Boats, in this vicinity, entirely superseded carts and carriages. The shell road was covered for a considerable distance; in fact, the largest portion of it this side of the half-way house to a navigable depth, and gentlemen could either ride or sail down. Nearly all the cemeteries were under water, so as to cause great inconvenience in the burial of the dead. Hearses were driving about from one cemetery to another, in the vain search of a dry place to deposit the dead. The Protestant cemetery, at the foot of Girod street was about two feet under water. The overflow brought a great number of snakes and other venomous reptiles from the river. On the 26th of May, hopes began to be entertained of stopping the breach, which have since been realized.

19th. The Sioux Indians killed 15 of the Pawnees at the fork of the river Platte.

28th. The statement of the treasurer of the United States shows that the government has on deposit \$7,145,378 82; upon this there is to be charged drafts not yet paid to the amount of \$1,386,431 86, and there remains subject to draft \$5,760,915 07. To the account of the assistant treasurer at this city we find placed \$1,105,336 37, of which \$953,661 45 are now subject to draft,—the balance having been already drawn for.

The railroads in operation in the United States amount at this date to 6,664½ miles. The longest continuous line is from Savannah to Dalton, 392 miles. The South Carolina railroad is 242 miles.

At Frankfort, Kentucky, the United States District Court, Judges M'Kinley and Monroe present, an order was made restoring to Mr. O'Rielly his telegraph line. The court declared Bain's patent no infringement of the injunction laid by Morse and Kendall.

The message of the French President is published. It is after the American model, and evinces considerable ability.

30th. The country around Santa Fe is said to be overrun by hostile Indians,—and Bent's Fort was reported by the celebrated express rider, Love, to be besieged by five or six hundred. Col. Washington was about organizing two or three companies to make head against them. The main object of the Indians seems to be to plunder the emigrants going overland to California. On the 30th May Captain Chapman, of the Santa Fe Guards, had a fight with the Apache Indians, completely defeated them, and killed the chief and twenty braves.

The *first gold dollar* was this month issued from the Philadelphia mint, in pursuance of the provisions of an act of Congress, passed at the last session, which act provides also for the issue of double eagles of the value of twenty dollars. The dollar is a very neat coin, similar in its devices to the other United States gold coins, with the exception that the eagle is omitted. It is, however, we think, too small for con-

venient common use, on account of its liability to be lost, and we doubt whether it will come into extensive use.

APPENDIX TO CHRONICLE.

JUNE 1849.

June 3d. The French made a second attack on Rome. On the 6th Oudinot opened his trenches and regularly besieged the city. There had been several conflicts, with loss on both sides. The French general had taken a position which commanded the city. On the 7th the batteries to effect a breach had been established. There was much confusion inside the city.

10th. The United States ship Lexington arrived at New York from California, having on board 1218 pounds of grain gold, valued at \$370,000. She left 450 pounds at Valparaiso.

The last accounts from California received at this date are not so favourable as heretofore received.

About 8000 gold diggers were at the mines. Some were hardly able to earn expenses—much suffering existed.

There was no law but the law of the strongest. It was said that Gen. P. F. Smith and his men had taken refuge on board the vessels of war.

13th. Another insurrection has been attempted in Paris by 25,000 of the mountain party, headed by Etienne Arago, Jr., and Ledru Rollin. It was entirely suppressed by the troops, amounting to 70,000—Arago was arrested—Rollin fled. The President exhibited great firmness on the occasion. All the socialist and red republican journals have been suppressed.

15th. An insurrection at Lyons, and fighting in the streets—the insurgents were completely routed, and quiet restored. The cause of order has triumphed in France. The red republicans have met with a total failure.

Father Matthew, the great Irish “Apostle of Temperance,” has arrived in New York, and was received by the mayor and authorities of the city, and the temperance societies, with much ceremony.

The epidemic cholera has been raging since the beginning of March at New Orleans, and on the western rivers—in New York since the middle of May—at Philadelphia and other cities on the sea-board since the last of May. It also prevails at Albany, Buffalo, Pittsburgh, &c.

The disease has been very fatal at St. Louis and Cincinnati—at both places there have been 120 and 130 deaths a-day. In New York it has been more severe than in Philadelphia, and very slight at Boston and Baltimore, as yet. The malignity of the disease on the sea-board, as compared with 1832, may be judged of from the fact that from the time of its commencement in Philadelphia, in 1849, from May 30 to June 30, (one month,) the cases were 277, and the deaths 96. In 1832, in the same city, from its commencement, July 27, for one month, to August 26, the cases were 2123, and the deaths 716. In 1832 the population was 180,000, and in 1849 it is 300,000.

In New Orleans the cholera appeared in December last, decreased, and revived again in March. From the 3d of March to the 28th April the number of deaths were 1077—the highest was on the 31st March. The cholera has again appeared in England. At Paris it has made great havoc. In one day there were 900 cases and 600 deaths. The number has since diminished. It has also broken out at Vienna, Presburgh, &c., and is raging at Alexandria and Cairo.

It would seem that the treatment of the disease had become pretty uniform,—sina-pisms and friction, with spirits of turpentine, mustard, &c., and as internal medicines, camphor mixture, calomel or blue mass, and morphine.

The President of the United States has proclaimed a *national fast* on the *first Friday in August*, when all persons are recommended to abstain from secular employments, and “to implore the Almighty, in his own good time, to stay the destroying hand which is now lifted up against us.”

DOCUMENTS.

STATE PAPERS.

THE PRESIDENT'S ANNUAL MESSAGE TO THE CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES, DEC. 5th, 1848.

[Continued from page 266.]

In anticipation of the establishment of regular governments over the acquired territories, a joint commission of officers of the army and navy has been ordered to proceed to the coast of California and Oregon, for the purpose of making reconnoissances and a report as to the proper sites for the erection of fortifications or other defensive works on land, and of suitable situation for naval stations. The information which may be expected from a scientific and skilful examination of the whole face of the coast will be eminently useful to congress, when they come to consider the propriety of making appropriations for these great national objects. Proper defences on land will be necessary for the security and protection of our possessions; and the establishment of navy-yards, and a dock for the repair and construction of vessels, will be important alike to our navy and commercial marine. Without such establishments, every vessel, whether of the navy or of the merchant service, requiring repair, must, at great expense, come round Cape Horn to one of our Atlantic yards for that purpose. With such establishments, vessels, it is believed, may be built or repaired as cheaply in California as upon the Atlantic coast. They would give employment to many of our enterprising ship-builders and mechanics, and greatly facilitate and enlarge our commerce in the Pacific.

As it is ascertained that mines of gold, silver, copper and quicksilver, exist in New Mexico and California, and that nearly all the lands, where they are found, belong to the United States, it is deemed important to the public interests that a provision be made for a geological and mineralogical examination of these regions. Measures should be adopted to preserve the mineral lands, especially such as contain the precious metals, for the use of the United States; or, if brought into the market, to separate them from the farming lands, and dispose of them in such a manner as to secure a large return of money to the treasury, and at the same time lead to the development of their wealth by individual proprietors and purchasers. To do this, it will be necessary to provide for an immediate survey and location of the lots. If congress should deem it proper to dispose of the mineral lands, they should be sold in small quantities, and at a fixed minimum price.

I recommend that surveyor generals' offices be authorized to be established in New Mexico and California, and provision made for surveying and bringing the public lands into market at the earliest practicable period. In disposing of these lands, I recommend that the right of pre-emption be secured, and liberal grants made to the early emigrants who have settled or may settle upon them.

It will be important to extend our revenue laws over these territories, and especially over California, at an early period. There is already a considerable commerce with California; and until ports of entry shall be established and collectors appointed, no revenue can be received.

If these and other necessary and proper measures be adopted for the development of the wealth and resources of New Mexico and California, and regular territorial governments be established over them, such will probably be the rapid enlargement of our commerce and navigation, and such the addition to the national wealth, that the present generation may live to witness the controlling commercial and monetary power of the world transferred from London and other European emporiums to the city of New York.

The apprehensions which were entertained by some of our statesmen, in the earlier periods of the government, that our system was incapable of operating with sufficient energy and success over largely extended territorial limits, and that if this were attempted it would fall to pieces by its own weakness, have been dissipated by our experience. By the division of power between the states and federal government, the latter is found to operate with as much energy in the extremes as in the centre. It is as efficient in the remotest of the thirty states which now compose the union, as it was in the thirteen states which formed our constitution. Indeed, it may well be doubted whether, if our present population had been confined within the limits of the original thirteen states, the tendencies to centralization and consolidation would not have been such as to have encroached upon the essential reserved rights of the states, and thus to have made the federal government a widely different one, practically, from what it is in theory, and was intended to be by its framers. So far from entertaining apprehensions of the safety of our system by the extension of our territory, the belief is confidently entertained that each new state gives strength and an additional guarantee for the preservation of the union itself.

In pursuance of the provisions of the thirteenth article of the treaty of peace, friendship, limits and settlement, with the republic of Mexico, and of the act of July the 29th, 1848, claims of our citizens which had been "already liquidated and decided against the Mexican republic," amounting, with the interest thereon, to two millions, twenty-three thousand, eight hundred and thirty-two dollars and fifty-one cents, have been liquidated and paid. There remain to be paid of these claims, seventy-four thousand, one hundred and ninety-two dollars and twenty-six cents.

Congress, at its last session, having made no provision for executing the fifthth article of the treaty, by which the United States assume to make satisfaction for the "unliquidated claims" of our citizens against Mexico, to "an amount not exceeding three and a quarter millions of dollars," the subject is again recommended to your favourable consideration.

The exchange of ratifications of the treaty with Mexico took place on the thirtieth of May, 1848. Within one year after that time the commissioner and surveyor which each government stipulates to appoint, are required to meet "at the port of San Diego, and proceed to run and mark the said boundary in its whole course to the mouth of the Rio Bravo del Norte." It will be seen from this provision, that the period within which a commissioner and surveyor of the respective governments are to meet at San Diego, will expire on the thirtieth of May, 1849. Congress, at the close of its last session, made an appropriation for "the expenses of running and marking the boundary line" between the two countries, but did not fix the amount of salary which should be paid to the commissioner and surveyor to be appointed on the part of the United States. It is desirable that the amount of compensation which they shall receive should be prescribed by law, and not left, as at present, to executive discretion.

Measures were adopted at the earliest practicable period to organize the "territorial government of Oregon," as authorized by the act of the fourteenth of August last. The governor and marshal of the territory, accompanied by a small military escort, left the frontier of Missouri in September last, and

took the southern route, by the way of Santa Fe and the river Gila, to California, with the intention of proceeding thence in one of our vessels of war to their destination. The governor was fully advised of the great importance of his early arrival in the country, and it is confidently believed he may reach Oregon in the latter part of the present month, or early in the next. The other officers for the territory have proceeded by sea.

In the month of May last, I communicated information to Congress that an Indian war had broken out in Oregon, and recommended that authority be given to raise an adequate number of volunteers to proceed without delay to the assistance of our fellow citizens in that territory. The authority to raise such a force not having been granted by Congress, as soon as their services could be dispensed with in Mexico, orders were issued to the regiment of mounted riflemen to proceed to Jefferson barracks, in Missouri, and to prepare to march to Oregon as soon as the necessary provision could be made. Shortly before it was ready to march, it was arrested by the provision of the act passed by congress on the last day of the last session, which directed that all the non-commissioned officers, musicians, and privates of that regiment, who had been in service in Mexico, should, upon their application, be entitled to be discharged. The effect of this provision was to disband the rank and file of the regiment; and before their places could be filled by recruits, the season had so far advanced that it was impracticable for it to proceed until the opening of the next spring.

In the month of October last, the accompanying communication was received from the governor of the temporary government of Oregon, giving information of the continuance of the Indian disturbance, and of the destitution and defenceless condition of the inhabitants. Orders were immediately transmitted to the commander of our squadron on the Pacific, to despatch to their assistance a part of the naval forces on that station, to furnish them with arms and ammunition, and to continue to give them such aid and protection as the navy could afford, until the army could reach the country.

It is the policy of humanity, and one which has always been pursued by the United States, to cultivate the good will of the aboriginal tribes of this continent, and to restrain them from making war, and indulging in excesses, by mild means, rather than by force. That this could have been done with the tribes in Oregon, had that territory been brought under the government of our laws at an earlier period, and had suitable measures been adopted by congress, such as now exist in our intercourse with the other Indian tribes within our limits, cannot be doubted. Indeed, the immediate and only cause of the existing hostility of the Indians of Oregon is represented to have been, the long delay of the United States in making to them some trifling compensation, in such articles as they wanted, for the country now occupied by our emigrants, which the Indians claimed, and over which they formerly roamed.

This compensation had been promised to them by the temporary government established in Oregon, but its fulfilment had been postponed from time to time, for nearly two years, whilst those who made it had been anxiously waiting for congress to establish a territorial government over the country. The Indians became at length distrustful of their good faith, and sought redress by plunder and massacre, which finally led to the present difficulties. A few thousand dollars in suitable presents, as a compensation for the country which had been taken possession of by our citizens, would have satisfied the Indians, and have prevented the war. A small amount of property distributed, it is confidently believed, would soon restore quiet. In this Indian war our fellow citizens of Oregon have been compelled to take the field in their own defence, have performed valuable military services, and been subjected to expenses which have fallen heavily upon them. Justice demands that provision should be made by congress to compensate them for their ser-

vices, and to refund to them the necessary expenses which they have incurred.

I repeat the recommendation heretofore made to congress, that provision be made for the appointment of a suitable number of Indian agents to reside among the tribes of Oregon, and that a small sum be appropriated to enable these agents to cultivate friendly relations with them. If this be done, the presence of a small military force will be all that is necessary to keep them in check, and preserve peace.

I recommend that similar provision be made as regards the tribes inhabiting northern Texas, New Mexico, California, and the extensive region lying between our settlements in Missouri and these possessions, as the most effective means of preserving peace upon our borders, and within the recently acquired territories.

The secretary of the treasury will present in his annual report a highly satisfactory statement of the condition of the finances.

The imports for the fiscal year ending on the thirtieth of June last, were of the value of one hundred and fifty-four million, nine hundred and seventy-seven thousand, eight hundred and seventy-six dollars; of which the amount exported was twenty-one million, one hundred and twenty-eight thousand, and ten dollars, leaving one hundred and thirty-three million, eight hundred and forty-nine thousand, eight hundred and sixty-six dollars in the country for domestic use.

The value of the exports for the same period was one hundred and fifty-four million, thirty-two thousand, one hundred and thirty-one dollars, consisting of domestic productions amounting to one hundred and thirty-two million, nine hundred and four thousand, one hundred and twenty-one dollars, and twenty-one million, one hundred and twenty-eight thousand, and ten dollars, of foreign articles.

The receipts into the treasury for the same period exclusive of loans, amounted to thirty-five million, four hundred and thirty-six thousand, seven hundred and fifty dollars, and fifty-nine cents; of which there was derived from customs thirty-one million, seven hundred and fifty-seven thousand, and seventy dollars, and ninety-six cents; from sales of public lands, three million, three hundred and twenty-eight thousand, six hundred and forty-two dollars, and fifty-six cents; and from miscellaneous and incidental sources, three hundred and fifty-one thousand, and thirty-seven dollars and seven cents.

It will be perceived that the revenue from customs for the last fiscal year exceeded by seven-hundred and fifty-seven thousand, and seventy dollars, and ninety-six cents, the estimate of the secretary of the treasury in his last annual report; and that the aggregate receipts during the same period from customs, lands, and miscellaneous sources, also exceeded the estimate by the sum of five hundred and thirty-six thousand, seven hundred and fifty dollars, and fifty-nine cents—indicating, however, a very near approach in the estimate to the actual result.

The expenditures during the fiscal year ending on the thirtieth of June last, including those for the war, and exclusive of payments of principal and interest for the public debt, were forty-two million, eight hundred and eleven thousand, nine hundred and seventy dollars and three cents.

It is estimated that the receipts into the treasury for the fiscal year ending on the thirtieth of June, 1849, including the balance in the treasury on the first of July last, will amount to the sum of fifty-seven million, forty-eight thousand, nine hundred and sixty-nine dollars and ninety cents; of which, thirty-two millions of dollars, it is estimated, will be derived from customs; three millions of dollars from the sales of the public lands; and one million, two hundred thousand dollars from miscellaneous and incidental sources, including the premium upon the loan, and the amount paid and to be paid into

the treasury, on account of military contributions in Mexico and the sales of arms and vessels and other public property rendered unnecessary for the use of the government by the termination of the war; and twenty million, six hundred and ninety-five thousand, four hundred and thirty-five dollars and thirty cents from loans already negotiated, including treasury notes funded, which, together with the balance in the treasury on the first of July last, make the sum estimated.

The expenditures for the same period, including the necessary payment on account of the principal and interest of the public debt, and the principal and interest of the first instalment due to Mexico on the thirtieth of May next, and other expenditures growing out of the war, to be paid during the present year, will amount, including the reimbursement of treasury notes, to the sum of fifty-four million, one hundred and ninety-five thousand, two hundred and seventy-five dollars and six cents; leaving an estimated balance in the treasury on the first of July, 1849, of two million, eight hundred and fifty-three thousand, six hundred and ninety-four dollars and eighty-four cents.

The secretary of the treasury will present, as required by law, the estimate of the receipts and expenditures for the next fiscal year. The expenditures, as estimated for that year, are thirty-three million, two hundred and thirteen thousand, one hundred and fifty-two dollars and seventy-three cents, including three millions, seven hundred and ninety-nine thousand, one hundred and two dollars and eighteen cents for the interest on public debt, and three million, five hundred and forty thousand dollars for the principal and interest due to Mexico on the thirtieth of May, 1850; leaving the sum of twenty-five million, eight hundred and seventy-four thousand and fifty dollars, and thirty-five cents; which, it is believed, will be ample for the ordinary peace expenditures.

The operations of the tariff act of 1846 have been such during the past year as fully to meet the public expectation, and to confirm the opinion heretofore expressed of the wisdom in the change in our revenue system which was effected by it. The receipts under it into the treasury for the last fiscal year after its enactment exceeded, by the sum of five millions, forty-four thousand, four hundred and three dollars and nine cents, the amount collected during the first fiscal year under the tariff act of 1842, ending the thirtieth day of June, 1846. The total revenue realized from the commencement of its operation, on the first of December, 1846, until the close of the last quarter, on the thirtieth of December last, being twenty-two months, was fifty-six million, six hundred and fifty-four thousand, five hundred and sixty-three dollars and seventy-nine cents—being a much larger sum than was ever before received from duties during any equal period under the tariff acts of 1824, 1828, 1832, and 1842. Whilst, by the repeal of highly protective and prohibitory duties the revenue has been increased, the taxes on the people have been diminished. They have been relieved from the heavy amounts with which they were burdened under former laws in the form of increased prices or bounties paid to favoured classes and pursuits.

The predictions which were made, that the tariff act of 1846 would reduce the amount of revenue below that collected under the act of 1842, and would prostrate the business and destroy the prosperity of the country, have not been verified. With an increased and increasing revenue, the finances are in a highly flourishing condition. Agriculture, commerce and navigation, are prosperous; the prices of manufactured fabrics, and of other products, are much less injuriously affected than was to have been anticipated, from the unprecedented revulsions, which, during the last and present year, have overwhelmed the industry and paralyzed the credit and commerce of so many great and enlightened nations of Europe.

Severe commercial revulsions abroad have always heretofore operated to

depress, and often to affect disastrously, almost every branch of American industry. The temporary depression of a portion of our manufacturing interests is the effect of foreign causes, and is far less severe than has prevailed on all former similar occasions.

It is believed that, looking to the great aggregate of all our interests, the whole country was never more prosperous than at the present period, and never more rapidly advancing in wealth and population. Neither the foreign war in which we have been involved, nor the loans which have absorbed so large a portion of our capital, nor the commercial revulsion in Great Britain in 1847, nor the paralysis of credit and commerce throughout Europe in 1848, have affected injuriously to any considerable extent any of the great interests of the country, or arrested our onward march to greatness, wealth and power.

Had the disturbances in Europe not occurred, our commerce would undoubtedly have been still more extended, and would have added still more to the national wealth and public prosperity. But notwithstanding these disturbances, the operations of the revenue system established by the tariff act of 1846 have been so generally beneficial to the government and the business of the country, that no change in its provisions is demanded by a wise public policy, and none is recommended.

The operations of the constitutional treasury established by the act of the sixth of August, 1846, in the receipt, custody and disbursement of the public money, have continued to be successful. Under this system the public finances have been carried through a foreign war involving the necessity of loans and extraordinary expenditures, and requiring distant transfers and disbursements, without embarrassment, and no loss has occurred of any of the public money deposited under its provisions. Whilst it has proved to be safe and useful to the government, its effects have been most beneficial upon the business of the country. It has tended powerfully to secure an exemption from that inflation and fluctuation of the paper currency, so injurious to domestic industry, and rendering so uncertain the rewards of labour, and, it is believed, has largely contributed to preserve the whole country from a serious commercial revulsion, such as often occurred under the bank deposit system. In the year 1847, there was a revulsion in the business of Great Britain of great extent and intensity, which was followed by failures in that kingdom unprecedented in number and amount of losses. This is believed to be the first instance when such disastrous bankruptcies, occurring in a country with which we have such extensive commerce, produced little or no injurious effect upon our trade or currency. We remained but little affected in our money market, and our business and industry were still prosperous and progressive.

During the present year nearly the whole continent of Europe has been convulsed by civil war and revolutions, attended by numerous bankruptcies, by an unprecedented fall in their public securities, and an almost universal paralysis of commerce and industry; and yet, although our trade and the prices of our products must have been somewhat unfavourably affected by those causes, we have escaped a revulsion, our money market is comparatively easy, and public and private credit have advanced and improved.

It is confidently believed that we have been saved from their effect by the salutary operation of the constitutional treasury. It is certain, that if the twenty-four millions of specie imported into the country during the fiscal year ending on the thirtieth of June, 1847, had gone into the banks, as to a great extent it must have done, it would, in the absence of this system, have been made the basis of augmented bank paper issue, probably to an amount not less than sixty or seventy millions of dollars, producing, as an inevitable consequence of an inflated currency, extravagant prices for a time, and wild speculation, which must have been followed, on the reflux to Europe, the

succeeding year, of so much of that specie, by the prostration of the business of the country, the suspension of the banks, and most extensive bankruptcies. Occurring, as this would have done, at a period when the country was engaged in a foreign war; when considerable loans of specie were required for distant disbursements, and when the banks, the fiscal agents of the government, and the depositories of the money were suspended, the public credit must have sunk, and many millions of dollars, as was the case during the war of 1812, must have been sacrificed in discounts upon loans, and upon the depreciated paper currency which the government would have been compelled to use.

Under the operations of the constitutional treasury, not a dollar has been lost by the depreciation of the currency. The loans required to prosecute the war with Mexico were negotiated by the secretary of the treasury above par, realizing a large premium to the government. The restraining effect of the system upon the tendencies to excessive paper issues by banks has saved the government from heavy losses, and thousands of our business men from bankruptcy and ruin. The wisdom of the system has been tested, by the experience of the last two years; and it is the dictate of sound policy that it should remain undisturbed. The modifications in some of the details of this measure, involving none of its essential principles, heretofore recommended, are again presented for your favourable consideration.

In my message of the sixth of July last, transmitting to congress the ratified treaty of peace with Mexico, I recommended the adoption of measures for the speedy payment of the public debt. In reiterating that recommendation, I refer you to the considerations presented in that message in its support. The public debt, including that authorized to be negotiated, in pursuance of existing laws, and including treasury notes, amounted at that time to sixty-five million, seven hundred and seventy-eight thousand, four hundred and fifty dollars and forty-one cents.

Funded stock of the United States, amounting to about half a million of dollars, has been purchased as authorized by law, since that period, and the public debt has thus been reduced; the details of which will be presented in the annual report of the secretary of the treasury.

The estimate of expenditures for the next fiscal year, submitted by the secretary of the treasury, it is believed, will be ample for all necessary purposes. If the appropriations made by congress shall not exceed the amount estimated, the means of the treasury will be sufficient to defray all the expenses of the government; to pay off the next instalment of three millions of dollars to Mexico, which will fall due on the thirtieth of May next; and still a considerable surplus will remain, which should be applied to the further purchase of the public stock and reduction of the debt. Should enlarged appropriations be made, the necessary consequence will be to postpone the payment of the debt. Though our debt, as compared with that of most other nations, is small, it is our true policy, and in harmony with the genius of our institutions, that we should present to the world the rare spectacle of a great republic, possessing vast resources and wealth, wholly exempt from public indebtedness. This would add still more to our strength, and give to us a still more commanding position among the nations of the earth.

The public expenditures should be economical, and be confined to such necessary objects as are clearly within the powers of congress. All such as are not absolutely demanded should be postponed, and the payment of the public debt at the earliest practicable period should be a cardinal principle of our public policy.

For the reason assigned in my last annual message, I repeat the recommendation that a branch of the mint of the United States be established at the city of New York. The importance of this measure is greatly increased

by the acquisition of the rich mines of the precious metals in New Mexico and California, and especially in the latter.

I repeat the recommendation heretofore made, in favour of the graduation and reduction of the price of such of the public lands as have been long offered in the market, and have remained unsold, and in favour of extending the rights of pre-emption to actual settlers on the unsurveyed as well as the surveyed lands.

The condition and operations of the army, and the state of other branches of the public service under the supervision of the war department, are satisfactorily presented in the accompanying report of the secretary of war.

On the return of peace, our forces were withdrawn from Mexico, and the volunteers and that portion of the regular army engaged for the war were disbanded. Orders have been issued for stationing the forces of our permanent establishment at various positions in our extended country, where troops may be required. Owing to the remoteness of some of these positions, they have not yet reached their destination. Notwithstanding the extension of the limits of our country, and the forces required in the new territories, it is confidently believed that our present military establishment is sufficient for all exigencies, so long as our peaceful relations remain undisturbed.

Of the amount of military contributions collected in Mexico, the sum of seven hundred and sixty-nine thousand, six hundred and fifty dollars, were applied towards the payment of the first instalment due under the treaty with Mexico. The further sum of three hundred and forty-six thousand, three hundred and sixty-nine dollars and thirty cents has been paid into the treasury, and unexpended balances still remain in the hands of disbursing officers and those who were engaged in the collection of these moneys. After the proclamation of peace, no further disbursements were made of any unexpended moneys arising from this source. The balances on hand were directed to be paid into the treasury, and individual claims on the fund will remain unadjusted until congress shall authorize their settlement and payment. These claims are not considerable in number or amount.

I recommend to your favourable consideration the suggestion of the secretary of war and the secretary of the navy, in regard to legislation on this subject.

Our Indian relations are presented in a most favourable view in the report from the war department. The wisdom of our policy in regard to the tribes within our limits, is clearly manifested by their improved and rapidly improving condition.

A most important treaty with the Menomonies has been recently negotiated by the commissioner of Indian affairs in person, by which all their land in the state of Wisconsin—being about four millions of acres—has been ceded to the United States. This treaty will be submitted to the senate for ratification at an early period of your present session.

Within the last four years, eight important treaties have been negotiated with different Indian tribes, and at a cost of one million, eight hundred and forty-two thousand dollars; Indian lands to the amount of more than eighteen million, five hundred thousand acres, have been ceded to the United States; and provision has been made for settling in the country west of the Mississippi the tribes which occupied this large extent of the public domain. The title to all the Indian lands within the several states of our union, with the exception of a few small reservations, is now extinguished, and a vast region opened for settlement and cultivation.

The accompanying report of the secretary of the navy gives a satisfactory exhibit of the operations and condition of that branch of the public service.

A number of small vessels suitable for entering the mouths of rivers were judiciously purchased during the war, and gave great efficiency to the squa-

dron in the Gulf of Mexico. On the return of peace, when no longer valuable for naval purposes, and liable to constant deterioration, they were sold, and the money placed in the treasury.

The number of men in the naval service authorized by law during the war, has been reduced by discharges below the maximum fixed for the peace establishment. Adequate squadrons are maintained in the several quarters of the globe where experience has shown their services may be most usefully employed; and the naval service was never in a condition of higher discipline or greater efficiency.

I invite attention to the recommendation of the secretary of the navy on the subject of the marine corps. The reduction of the corps at the end of the war required that four officers of each of the three lower grades should be dropped from the rolls. A board of officers made the selection, and those designated were necessarily dismissed, but without any alleged fault. I concur in opinion with the secretary, that the service would be improved by reducing the number of landsmen, and increasing the marines. Such a measure would justify an increase of the number of officers to the extent of the reduction by dismissal, and still the corps would have fewer officers than a corresponding number of men in the army.

The contracts for the transportation of the mail in steamships convertible into war-steamers, promise to realize all the benefits to our commerce and to the navy which were anticipated. The first steamer thus secured to the government was launched in January, 1847. There are now seven; and in another year there will, probably, be not less than seventeen afloat. While this great national advantage is secured, our social and commercial intercourse is increased and promoted with Germany, Great Britain, and other parts of Europe, with all the countries on the west coast of our continent, especially Oregon and California, and between the northern and southern sections of the United States. Considerable revenue may be expected from postages; but the connected line from New York to Chagres, and thence across the isthmus to Oregon, cannot fail to exert a beneficial influence, not now to be estimated, on the interests of the manufactures, commerce, navigation and currency, of the United States. As an important part of the system, I recommend to your favourable consideration the establishment of the proposed line of steamers between New Orleans and Vera Cruz. It promises the most happy results in cementing friendship between the two republics, and in extending reciprocal benefits to the trade and manufactures of both.

The report of the postmaster general will make known to you the operations of that department for the past year.

It is gratifying to find the revenues of the department, under the rates of postage now established by law, so rapidly increasing. The gross amount of postages during the last fiscal year amounted to four million, three hundred and seventy-one thousand and seventy-seven dollars, exceeding the annual average received for the nine years immediately preceding the passage of the act of the third of March, 1845, by the sum of six thousand, four hundred and fifty-three dollars, and exceeding the amount received for the year ending the thirtieth of June, 1847, by the sum of four hundred and twenty-five thousand, one hundred and eighty-four dollars.

The expenditures for the year, excluding the sum of ninety-four thousand, six hundred and seventy-two dollars, allowed by congress at its last session to individual claimants, and including the sum of one hundred thousand, five hundred dollars, paid for the service of the line of steamers between Bremen and New York, amounted to four million, one hundred and ninety-eight thousand, eight hundred and forty-five dollars, which is less than the annual average for the nine years previous to the act of 1845, by three hundred thousand, seven hundred and forty-eight dollars.

The mail routes on the thirtieth day of June last, were one hundred and sixty-three thousand, two hundred and eight miles in extent—being an increase during the last year of nine thousand, three hundred and ninety miles. The mails were transported over them, during the same time, forty-one million, twelve thousand, five hundred and seventy-nine miles; making an increase of transportation for the year of two million, one hundred and twenty-four thousand, six hundred and eighty miles, whilst the expense was less than that of the previous year by four thousand, two hundred and thirty-five dollars.

The increase in the mail transportation within the last three years has been five million, three hundred and seventy-eight thousand, three hundred and ten miles, whilst the expenses were reduced four hundred and fifty-six thousand, seven hundred and thirty-eight dollars—making an increase of service at the rate of fifteen per cent., and a reduction in the expenses of more than fifteen per cent.

During the past year there have been employed, under contracts with the post office department, two ocean steamers in conveying the mails monthly between New York and Bremen, and one, since October last, performing semi-monthly service between Charleston and Havana; and a contract has been made for the transportation of the Pacific mails across the isthmus from Chagres to Panama.

Under the authority given to the secretary of the navy, three ocean steamers have been constructed and sent to the Pacific, and are expected to enter upon the mail service between Panama and Oregon, and the intermediate ports, on the first of January next, and a fourth has been engaged by him for the service between Havana and Chagres; so that a regular monthly mail line will be kept up after that time between the United States and our territories on the Pacific.

Notwithstanding the great increase in the mail service, should the revenue continue to increase the present year as it did the last, there will be received near four hundred and fifty thousand dollars more than the expenditures.

These considerations have satisfied the postmaster general that, with certain modifications of the act of 1845, the revenue may be still further increased, and a reduction of postages made to a uniform rate of five cents, without any interference with the principle, which has been constantly and properly enforced, of making that department sustain itself.

A well digested cheap postage system is the best means of diffusing intelligence among the people, and is of so much importance in a country so extensive as that of the United States, that I recommend to your favourable consideration the suggestions of the postmaster general for its improvement.

Nothing can retard the onward progress of our country, and prevent us from assuming and maintaining the first rank among nations, but a disregard of the experience of the past, and recurrence to an unwise public policy. We have just closed a foreign war by an honourable peace—a war rendered necessary and unavoidable in vindication of the national rights and honour. The present condition of the country is similar, in some respects, to that which existed immediately after the close of the war with Great Britain in 1815, and the occasion is deemed to be a proper one to take a retrospect of the measures of public policy which followed that war. There was, at that period of our history, a departure from our earlier policy. The enlargement of the powers of the federal government by CONSTRUCTION, which obtained, was not warranted by any just interpretation of the constitution. A few years after the close of that war, a series of measures was adopted, which, united and combined, constituted what was termed by their authors and advocates the "American system."

The introduction of the new policy was, for a time, favoured by the condi-

tion of the country; by the heavy debt which had been contracted during the war; by the depression of the public credit; by the deranged state of the finances and the currency; and by the commercial and pecuniary embarrassment which extensively prevailed. These were not the only causes which led to its establishment. The events of the war with Great Britain, and the embarrassments which had attended its prosecution, had left on the minds of many of our statesmen the impression that our government was not strong enough, and that to wield its resources successfully in great emergencies, and especially in war, more power should be concentrated in its hands. This increased power they did not seek to obtain by the legitimate and prescribed mode—an amendment of the constitution—but by construction. They saw governments in the old world based upon different orders of society, and so constituted as to throw the whole power of nations into the hands of a few, who taxed and controlled the many without responsibility or restraint. In that arrangement they conceived the strength of nations in war consisted.

There was also something fascinating in the ease, luxury, and display of the higher orders, who drew their wealth from the toil of the labouring millions. The authors of the system drew their ideas of political economy from what they had witnessed in Europe, and particularly in Great Britain. They had viewed the enormous wealth concentrated in few hands, and had seen the splendour of the overgrown establishments of an aristocracy which was upheld by the restrictive policy. They forgot to look down upon the poorer classes of the English population, upon whose daily and yearly labour the great establishments they so much admired were sustained and supported. They failed to perceive that the scantily-fed and half-clad operatives were not only in abject poverty, but were bound in chains of oppressive servitude for the benefit of favoured classes, who were the exclusive objects of the care of the government.

It was not possible to reconstruct society in the United States upon the European plan. Here there was a written constitution, by which orders and titles were not recognised or tolerated. A system of measures was therefore devised, calculated, if not intended, to withdraw power gradually and silently from the States and the mass of the people, and by construction to approximate our government to the European models, substituting an aristocracy of wealth for that of orders and titles.

Without reflecting upon the dissimilarity of our institutions, and of the condition of our people and those of Europe, they conceived the vain idea of building up in the United States a system similar to that which they admired abroad. Great Britain had a national bank of large capital, in whose hands was concentrated the controlling monetary and financial power of the nation; an institution wielding almost kingly power, and exerting vast influence upon all the operations of trade, and upon the policy of the government itself. Great Britain had an enormous public debt, and it had become a part of her public policy to regard this as a "public blessing." Great Britain had also a restrictive policy, which placed fetters and burdens on trade, and trammelled the productive industry of the mass of the nation. By her combined system of policy, the landlords and other property-holders were protected and enriched by the enormous taxes which were levied upon the labour of the country for their advantage.

Imitating this foreign policy, the first step in establishing the new system in the United States was the creation of a national bank. Not foreseeing the dangerous power and countless evils which such an institution might entail on the country, nor perceiving the connexion which it was designed to form between the bank and the other branches of the mis-called "American system," but feeling the embarrassments of the treasury, and of the business of the country, consequent upon the war, some of our statesmen who had held

different and sounder views were induced to yield their scruples, and, indeed, settled convictions of unconstitutionality, and to give it their sanction, as an expedient which they vainly hoped might produce relief.

It was a most unfortunate error, as the subsequent history and final catastrophe of that dangerous and corrupt institution have abundantly proved. The bank, with its numerous branches ramified into the states, soon brought many of the active political and commercial men, in different sections of the country, into the relation of debtors to it, and dependants upon it for pecuniary favours; thus diffusing throughout the mass of society a great number of individuals of power and influence to give tone to public opinion, and to act in concert in cases of emergency. The corrupt power of such a political engine is no longer a matter of speculation, having been displayed in numerous instances, but most signally in the political struggles of 1832-'3-'4, in opposition to the public will represented by a fearless and patriotic president.

But the bank was but one branch of the new system. A public debt of more than one hundred and twenty millions of dollars existed; and it is not to be disguised that many of the authors of the new system did not regard its speedy payment as essential to the public prosperity, but looked upon its continuance as no national evil. While the debt existed, it furnished aliment to the national bank, and rendered increased taxation necessary to the amount of the interest, exceeding seven millions of dollars annually.

This operated in harmony with the next branch of the new system, which was a high protective tariff. This was to afford bounties to favoured classes and particular pursuits, at the expense of all others. A proposition to tax the whole people for the purpose of enriching a few, was too monstrous to be openly made. The scheme was, therefore, veiled under the plausible but delusive pretext of a measure to protect "home industry;" and many of our people were, for a time, led to believe that a tax which in the main fell upon labour, was for the benefit of the labourer who paid it.

This branch of the system involved a partnership between the government and the favoured classes—the former receiving the proceeds of tax imposed on articles imported, and the latter the increased price of similar articles produced at home, caused by such tax. It is obvious that the portion to be received by the favoured classes would, as a general rule, be increased in proportion to the increase of the rates of taxes imposed, and diminished as those rates were reduced to the revenue standard required by the wants of the government. The rates required to produce a sufficient revenue for the ordinary expenses of government, for necessary purposes, were not likely to give to the private partners in this scheme profits sufficient to satisfy their cupidity; and hence a variety of expedients and pretexts were resorted to for the purpose of enlarging the expenditure, and thereby creating a necessity for keeping up a high protective tariff. The effect of this policy was to interpose artificial restrictions upon the natural course of the business and trade of the country, and to advance the interests of large capitalists and monopolists at the expense of the great mass of the people who were taxed to increase their wealth.

Another branch of this system was a comprehensive scheme of internal improvements, capable of indefinite enlargement, and sufficient to swallow up as many millions annually as could be exacted from the foreign commerce of the country. This was a convenient and necessary adjunct of the protective tariff. It was to be the great absorbent of any surplus which might at any time accumulate in the treasury, and of the taxes levied on the people, not for necessary revenue purposes, but for the avowed object of affording protection to the favoured classes.

Auxiliary to the same end, if it was not an essential part of the system itself, was the scheme which, at a later period, obtained, for distributing the

sales of the public lands among the states. Other expedients were devised to take money out of the treasury, and prevent its coming in from any other source than the protective tariff. The authors and supporters of the system were the advocates of the largest expenditures, whether for necessary or useful purposes or not, because the larger the expenditure the greater was the pretext for higher taxes in the form of protective duties.

These several measures were sustained by popular names and plausible arguments, by which thousands were deluded. The bank was represented to be an indispensable fiscal agent to the government; was to equalize exchange, and to regulate and furnish a sound currency always and every where of uniform value. The protective tariff was to give employment to "American labour" at advanced prices; was to protect "home industry," and furnish a steady market for the farmer. Internal improvements were to bring trade into every neighbourhood, and enhance the value of every man's property. The distribution of land money was to enrich the states, finish their public works, plant schools throughout their borders, and relieve them from taxation.

But the fact, that for every dollar taken out of the treasury for these objects a much larger sum was transferred from the pockets of the people to the favoured classes, was carefully concealed, as was also the tendency, if not the ultimate design of the system, to build up an aristocracy of wealth to control the masses of society, and monopolize the political power of the country.

The several branches of this system were so intimately blended together, that in their operation each sustained and strengthened the others. Their joint operation was to add new burdens of taxation, and to encourage a largely increased and wasteful expenditure of public money. It was the interest of the bank that the revenue collected and the disbursements made by the government should be large, because, being the depository of the public money, the larger the amount the greater would be the bank profits by its use. It was the interest of the favoured classes, who were enriched by the protective tariff, to have the rates of that protection as high as possible, for the higher those rates, the greater would be their advantage. It was the interest of the people of all those sections and localities who expected to be benefited by expenditures for internal improvements that the amount collected should be as large as possible, to the end that the sum disbursed might also be the larger.

The states, being the beneficiaries in the distribution of the land money, had an interest in having the rates of tax imposed by the protective tariff large enough to yield a sufficient revenue from that source to meet the wants of the government, without disturbing or taking from them the land fund; so that each of the branches constituting the system had a common interest in swelling the public expenditures. They had a direct interest in maintaining the public debt unpaid, and increasing its amount, because this would produce an annual increased drain upon the treasury, to the amount of the interest, and render augmented taxes necessary. The operation and necessary effect of the whole system were, to encourage large and extravagant expenditures, and thereby to increase the public patronage, and maintain a rich and splendid government at the expense of a taxed and impoverished people.

It is manifest that this scheme of enlarged taxation and expenditures, had it continued to prevail, must soon have converted the government of the union, intended by its framers to be a plain, cheap, and simple confederation of states, united together for common protection, and charged with a few specific duties, relating chiefly to our foreign affairs, into a consolidated empire, depriving the states of their reserved rights, and the people of their just power and control in the administration of their government. In this manner the whole form and character of their government would be changed, not by an amendment of the constitution, but by resorting to an unwarrantable and unauthorized construction of that instrument.

The indirect mode of levying the taxes by a duty on imports, prevents the mass of the people from readily perceiving the amount they pay, and enabled the few who are thus enriched, and who seek to wield the political power of the country, to deceive and delude them. Were the taxes collected by a direct levy upon the people, as is the case in the states, this could not occur.

The whole system was resisted from its inception by many of our ablest statesmen, some of whom doubted its constitutionality and its expediency, while others believed it was, in all its branches, a flagrant and dangerous infraction of the constitution.

That a national bank, a protective tariff, levied not to raise the revenue needed, but for protection merely, internal improvements, and the distribution of the proceeds of the public lands, are measures without the warrant of the constitution, would, upon the maturest consideration, seem to be clear. It is remarkable that no one of these measures, involving such momentous consequences, is authorized by any express grant of power in the constitution. No one of them is "incident to, as being necessary and proper for the execution of, the specific powers" granted by the constitution. The authority under which it has been attempted to justify each of them is derived from inferences and constructions of the constitution which its letter and its whole object and design do not warrant. Is it to be conceived that such immense powers would have been left by the framers of the constitution to mere inferences and doubtful constructions? Had it been intended to confer them upon the federal government, it is but reasonable to conclude that it would have been done by plain and unequivocal grants. This was not done; but the whole structure of which the "American system" consisted, was reared on no other or better foundation than forced implications and inferences of power which its authors assumed might be deduced by construction from the constitution.

But it has been urged that the national bank, which constituted so essential a branch of this combined system of measures, was not a new measure, and that its constitutionality had been previously sanctioned, because a bank had been chartered in 1791, and had received the official signature of President Washington. A few facts will show the just weight to which this precedent should be entitled as bearing upon the question of constitutionality.

Great division of opinion upon the subject existed in Congress. It is well known that President Washington entertained serious doubts both as to the constitutionality and expediency of the measure; and while the bill was before him for his official approval or disapproval, so great were these doubts that he required "the opinion in writing" of the members of his cabinet to aid him in arriving at a decision. His cabinet gave their opinion, and were divided upon the subject—General Hamilton in favour of, and Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Randolph being opposed to the constitutionality and expediency of the bank. It is well known, also, that President Washington retained the bill from Monday, the 14th, when it was presented to him, until Friday, the 25th of February—being the last moment permitted him by the constitution to deliberate, when he finally yielded to it his reluctant assent, and gave it his signature.

It is certain that as late as the 23d of February—being the ninth day after the bill was presented to him—he had arrived at no satisfactory conclusion; for on that day he addressed a note to Gen. Hamilton, in which he informs him that "this bill was presented to me by the joint committee of Congress at 12 o'clock, on Monday, the fourteenth instant;" and he requested his opinion "to what precise period, by legal interpretation of the constitution, can the President retain it in his possession before it becomes a law by the lapse of ten days." If the proper construction was, that the day on which the bill

was presented to the President, and the day on which his action was had upon it, were both to be counted inclusive, then the time allowed him, within which it would be competent for him to return it to the House in which it originated, with his objections, would expire on Thursday, the twenty-fourth of February. Gen. Hamilton on the same day returned an answer, in which he states, "I give it as my opinion that you have ten days exclusive of that on which the bill was delivered to you, and Sundays; hence, in the present case, if it is returned on Friday, it will be in time." By this construction, which the President adopted, he gained another day for deliberation, and it was not until the twenty-fifth of February that he signed the bill; thus affording conclusive proof that he had at last obtained his own consent to sign it not without great and almost insuperable difficulty.

Additional light has been recently shed upon the serious doubts which he had on the subject, amounting at one time to a conviction that it was his duty to withhold his approval from the bill. This is found among the manuscript papers of Mr. Madison, authorized to be purchased for the use of the government, by an act of the last session of Congress, and now for the first time accessible to the public. From these papers it appears that President Washington, while he yet held the bank bill in his hands, actually requested Mr. Madison, at that time a member of the House of Representatives, to prepare the draught of a veto message for him. Mr. Madison at his request did prepare the draught of such a message for him, and sent it to him on the twenty-first of February, 1791. A copy of this original draught, in Mr. Madison's own handwriting, was carefully preserved by him, and it is among the papers lately purchased by Congress. It is preceded by a note written on the same sheet, which is also in Mr. Madison's handwriting, and is as follows:

"February 21st, 1791. Copy of a paper made out and sent to the president, at his request, to be ready in case his judgment should finally decide against the bill for incorporating a national bank, the bill being then before him."

Among the objections assigned in this paper to the bill, and which were submitted to the consideration of the president, are the following:

"I object to the bill, because it is an essential principle of the government that powers not delegated by the constitution cannot be rightfully exercised; because the power proposed by the bill to be exercised is not expressly delegated, and because I cannot satisfy myself that it results from any express power by fair and safe rules of interpretation."

The weight of the precedent of the bank of 1791, and the sanction of the great name of Washington, which has been so often invoked in its support, are greatly weakened by the development of these facts. The experiment of that bank satisfied the country that it ought not to be continued, and at the end of twenty years Congress refused to re-charter it. It would have been fortunate for the country, and saved thousands from bankruptcy and ruin, had our public men of 1816 resisted the temporary pressure of the times upon our financial and pecuniary interests, and refused to charter the second bank. Of this the country became abundantly satisfied, and at the close of its twenty years' duration, as in the case of the first bank, it also ceased to exist. Under the repeated blows of President Jackson it reeled and fell, and a subsequent attempt to charter a similar institution was arrested by the veto of President Tyler.

Mr. Madison, in yielding his signature to the charter of 1816, did so upon the ground of the respect due to precedents; and, as he subsequently declared, "the Bank of the United States, though on the original question held to be unconstitutional, received the executive signature."

It is probable that neither the bank of 1791 nor that of 1816 would have been chartered but for the embarrassment of the government in its finances, the derangement of the currency, and the pecuniary pressure which existed

—the first in consequence of the war of the revolution, and the second the consequence of the war of 1812. Both were resorted to in the delusive hope that they would restore public credit, and afford relief to the government, and to the business of the country.

Those of our public men who opposed the whole "American system" at its commencement, and throughout its progress, foresaw and predicted that it was fraught with incalculable mischiefs, and must result in serious injury to the best interests of the country. For a series of years their wise counsels were unheeded, and the system was established. It was soon apparent that its practical operation was unequal and unjust upon different portions of the country, and upon the people engaged in different pursuits. All were equally entitled to the favour and protection of the government. It fostered and elevated the money power, and enriched the favoured few by taxing labour, and at the expense of the many. Its effect was to "make the rich richer, and the poor poorer." Its tendency was to create distinctions in society based on wealth, and to give to the favoured classes undue control and sway in our government. It was an organized money power, which resisted the popular will, and sought to shape and control the public policy.

Under the pernicious workings of this combined system of measures, the country witnessed alternate seasons of temporary apparent prosperity; of sudden and disastrous commercial revulsions; of unprecedented fluctuation of prices, and depression of the great interests of agriculture, navigation and commerce; of general pecuniary suffering, and of final bankruptcy of thousands. After a severe struggle of more than a quarter of a century, the system was overthrown.

The bank has been succeeded by a practical system of finance, conducted and controlled solely by the government. The constitutional currency has been restored; the public credit maintained unimpaired, even in a period of foreign war; and the whole country has become satisfied that banks, national or state, are not necessary as fiscal agents of the government. Revenue duties have taken the place of the protective tariff. The distribution of the money derived from the sale of the public lands has been abandoned, and the corrupting system of internal improvements, it is hoped, has been effectually checked.

It is not doubted, that if this whole train of measures designed to take wealth from the many, and bestow it upon the few, were to prevail, the effect would be to change the entire character of the government. One only danger remains. It is the seductions of that branch of the system, which consists in internal improvements, holding out, as it does, inducements to the people of particular sections and localities to embark the government in them, without stopping to calculate the inevitable consequences. This branch of the system is so intimately combined and linked with the others, that as surely as an effect is produced by an adequate cause, if it be resuscitated and revived, and firmly established, it requires no sagacity to foresee that it will necessarily and speedily draw after it the re-establishment of a national bank, the revival of a protective tariff, the distribution of the land money, and not only the postponement to the distant future of the payment of the present national debt, but its annual increase.

I entertain the solemn conviction, that if the internal improvement branch of the "American system" be not firmly resisted at this time, the whole series of measures composing it will be speedily re-established, and the country thrown back from its present high state of prosperity, which the existing policy has produced, and be destined again to witness all the evils, commercial revulsions, depression of prices, and pecuniary embarrassments, through which we have passed during the last twenty-five years.

To guard against consequences so ruinous, is an object of high national importance, involving in my judgment, the continued prosperity of the country.

I have felt it to be an imperative obligation to withhold my constitutional sanction from two bills which had passed the two houses of congress, involving the principle of the internal improvement branch of the "American system," and conflicting in their provisions with the views here expressed.

This power conferred upon the president by the constitution, I have on three occasions, during my administration of the executive department of the government, deemed it my duty to exercise; and on this last occasion of making to congress an annual communication "of the state of the union," it is not deemed inappropriate to review the principles and considerations which have governed my action. I deem this the more necessary, because, after the lapse of nearly sixty years since the adoption of the constitution, the propriety of the exercise of this undoubted constitutional power by the president has for the first time been drawn seriously in question by a portion of my fellow-citizens.

The constitution provides that "every bill which shall have passed the house of representatives and the senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the president of the United States: if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal and proceed to re-consider it."

The preservation of the constitution from infractions is the president's highest duty. He is bound to discharge that duty, at whatever hazard of incurring the displeasure of those who may differ with him in opinion. He is bound to discharge it, as well by his obligations to the people who have clothed him with his exalted trust, as by his oath of office, which he may not disregard. Nor are the obligations of the president in any degree lessened by the prevalence of views different from his own in one or both houses of congress. It is not alone hasty and inconsiderate legislation that he is required to check; but if at any time congress shall, after apparently full deliberation, resolve on measures which he deems subversive of the constitution, or of the vital interests of the country, it is his solemn duty to stand in the breach and resist them. The president is bound to approve, or disapprove, every bill which passes congress and is presented to him for his signature. The constitution makes this his duty, and he cannot escape it if he would. He has no election. In deciding upon any bill presented to him, he must exercise his own best judgment.

If he cannot approve, the constitution commands him to return the bill to the house in which it originated, with his objections; and if he fail to do this within ten days, (Sundays excepted) it shall become a law without his signature. Right or wrong, he may be over-ruled by a vote of two-thirds of each house; and, in that event, the bill becomes a law without his sanction. If his objections be not thus over-ruled, the subject is only postponed, and is referred to the states and the people for their consideration and decision. The president's power is negative merely, and not affirmative. He can enact no law. The only effect, therefore, of his withholding his approval of a bill passed by congress, is to suffer the existing laws to remain unchanged, and the delay occasioned is only that required to enable the states and the people to consider and act upon the subject in the election of public agents who will carry out their wishes and instructions. Any attempt to coerce the president to yield his sanction to measures which he cannot approve, would be a violation of the spirit of the constitution, palpable and flagrant; and if successful, would break down the independence of the executive department, and make the president, elected by the people, and clothed by the constitution with power to defend their rights, the mere instrument of a majority of congress. A surrender, on his part, of the powers with which the constitution has in-

vested his office, would effect a practical alteration of that instrument, without resorting to the prescribed process of amendment.

With the motives or considerations which may induce congress to pass any bill, the president can have nothing to do. He must presume them to be as pure as his own and look only to the practical effect of their measures when compared with the constitution or the public good.

But it has been urged by those who object to the exercise of this undoubted constitutional power, that it assails the representative principle and the capacity of the people to govern themselves; that there is greater safety in a numerous representative body than in the single executive created by the constitution, and that the executive veto is a "one-man power," despotic in its character. To expose the fallacy of this objection, it is only necessary to consider the frame and true character of our system. Ours is not a consolidated empire, but a confederated union. The states, before the adoption of the constitution, were co-ordinate, co-equal, and separate independent sovereignties, and by its adoption they did not lose that character. They clothed the federal government with certain powers, and reserved all others, including their own sovereignty, to themselves. They guarded their own rights as states and the rights of the people, by the very limitations which they incorporated into the federal constitution, whereby the different departments of the general government were checks upon each other. That the majority should govern, is a general principle, controverted by none; but they must govern according to the constitution, and not according to an undefined and unrestrained discretion, whereby they may oppress the minority.

The people of the United States are not blind to the fact that they may be temporarily misled, and that their representatives, legislative and executive, may be mistaken or influenced in their action by improper motives. They have therefore interposed between themselves and the laws which may be passed by their public agents in various representations, such as assemblies, senates, and governors in their several states; a house of representatives, a senate, and a president of the United States. The people can by their own direct agency make no law; nor can the house of representatives immediately elected by them; nor can the senate; nor can both together, without the concurrence of the president, or a vote of two-thirds of both houses.

Happily for themselves, the people, in framing our admirable system of government, were conscious of the infirmities of their representatives; and, in delegating to them the power of legislation, they have fenced them around with checks, to guard against the effects of hasty action, of error, of combination, and of possible corruption. Error, selfishness, and faction have often sought to rend asunder this web of checks, and subject the government to the control of fanatic and sinister influences; but these efforts have only satisfied the people of the wisdom of the checks which they have imposed, and of the necessity of preserving them unimpaired.

The true theory of our system is not to govern by the acts or decrees of any one set of representatives. The constitution interposes checks upon all branches of the government, in order to give time for error to be corrected, and delusion to pass away; but if the people settle down into a firm conviction different from that of their representatives, they give effect to their opinions by changing their public servants. The checks which the people imposed on their public servants in the adoption of the constitution, are the best evidence of their capacity for self-government. They know that the men whom they elect to public stations are of like infirmities and passions with themselves, and not to be trusted without being restricted by co-ordinate authorities and constitutional limitations. Who that has witnessed the legislation of congress for the last thirty years will say that he knows of no instance in which measures not demanded by the public good, have been

carried? Who will deny that in the state governments, by combinations of individuals and sections, in derogation of the general interest, banks have been chartered, systems of internal improvement adopted, and debts entailed upon the people, repressing their growth, and impairing their energies for years to come?

After so much experience, it cannot be said that absolute unchecked power is safe in the hands of any one set of representatives, or that the capacity of the people for self-government, which is admitted in its broadest extent, is a conclusive argument to prove the prudence, wisdom and integrity of their representatives.

The people, by the constitution, have commanded the president, as much as they have commanded the legislative branch of the government, to execute their will. They have said to him in the constitution, which they require he shall take a solemn oath to support, that if congress pass any bill which he cannot approve, "he shall return it to the house in which it originated, with his objections." In withholding from it his approval and signature, he is executing the will of the people constitutionally expressed, as much as the congress that passed it. No bill is presumed to be in accordance with the popular will until it shall have passed through all the branches of the government required by the constitution to make it a law. A bill which passes the house of representatives may be rejected by the senate; and so a bill passed by the senate may be rejected by the house. In each case the respective houses exercise the veto power on the other.

Congress, and each house of congress, hold under the constitution a check upon the president, and he, by the power of the qualified veto, a check upon congress. When the president recommends measures to congress, he avows, in the most solemn form, his opinions, gives his voice in their favour, and pledges himself in advance to approve them if passed by congress. If he acts without due consideration, or has been influenced by improper or corrupt motives—or if from any other cause, congress, or either house of congress, shall differ with him in opinion, they exercise their veto upon his recommendations, and reject them; and there is no appeal from their decision, but to the people at the ballot-box. These are proper checks upon the executive, wisely interposed by the constitution. None will be found to object to them, or to wish them removed. It is equally important that the constitutional checks of the executive upon the legislative branch should be preserved.

If it be said that the representatives in the popular branch of congress are chosen directly by the people, it is answered, the people elect the president. If both houses represent the states and the people, so does the president. The president represents in the executive department the whole people of the United States, as each member of the legislative department represents portions of them.

The doctrine of restriction upon legislative and executive power, while a well settled public opinion is enabled within a reasonable time to accomplish its ends, has made our country what it is, and has opened to us a career of glory and happiness to which all other nations have been strangers.

In the exercise of the power of the veto, the president is responsible not only to an enlightened public opinion, but to the people of the whole union, who elected him, as the representatives in the legislative branches, who differ with him in opinion, are responsible to the people of particular states, or districts, who compose their respective constituencies. To deny to the president the exercise of this power, would be to repeal that provision of the constitution which confers it upon him. To charge that its exercise unduly controls the legislative will, is to complain of the constitution itself.

If the presidential veto be objected to upon the ground that it checks and thwarts the public will, upon the same principle the equality of representa-

tion of the states in the senate should be stricken out of the constitution. The vote of a senator from Delaware has equal weight in deciding upon the most important measures with the votes of a senator of New York, and yet the one represents a state containing, according to the existing apportionment of representatives in the house of representatives, but one thirty-fourth part of the population of the other. By the constitutional composition of the senate, a majority of that body from the smaller states represent less than one-fourth of the people of the union. There are thirty states; and under the existing apportionment of representatives, there are two hundred and thirty members in the house of representatives.

Sixteen of the smaller states are represented in that house by but fifty members; and yet the senators from these states constitute a majority of the senate. So that the president may recommend a measure to congress, and it may receive the sanction and approval of more than three fourths of the house of representatives, and of all the senators of the large states, containing more than three-fourths of the whole population of the United States; and yet the measure may be defeated by the votes of the senators from the smaller states. None, it is presumed, can be found ready to change the organization of the senate on this account, or to strike that body out of practical existence, by requiring that its action shall be conformed to the will of the more numerous branch.

Upon the same principle that the veto of the President should be practically abolished, the power of the vice president to give the casting vote upon an equal division of the senate should be abolished also. The vice president exercises the veto power as effectually by rejecting a bill by his casting vote, as the president does by refusing to approve and sign it. This power has been exercised by the vice president in a few instances, the most important of which was the rejection of the bill to recharter the bank of the United States in 1811. It may happen that a bill may be passed by a large majority of the house of representatives, and may be supported by the senators from the larger states, and the vice president may reject it by giving his vote with the senators from the smaller states; and yet none, it is presumed, are prepared to deny to him the exercise of this power under the constitution.

But it is, in point of fact, untrue that an act passed by congress is conclusive evidence that it is an emanation of the popular will. A majority of the whole number elected to each house of congress constitutes a quorum, and a majority of that quorum is competent to pass laws. It might happen that a quorum of the house of representatives, consisting of a single member more than half of the whole number elected to that house, might pass a bill by a majority of a single vote, and in that case a fraction more than one-fourth of the people of the United States would be represented by those who voted for it. It might happen that the same bill might be passed by a majority of one, of a quorum of the senate, composed of senators from the fifteen smaller states, and a single senator from the sixteenth state, and if the senators voting for it happened to be from the eight of the smaller of these states, it would be passed by the votes of senators from states having but fourteen representatives in the house of representatives, and containing less than one-sixteenth of the whole population of the United States. This extreme case is stated to illustrate the fact, that the mere passage of a bill by congress is no conclusive evidence that those who passed it represent the majority of the people of the United States, or truly reflect their will. If such an extreme case is not likely to happen, cases that approximate to it are of constant occurrence. It is believed that not a single law has been passed since the adoption of the constitution, upon which all the members elected to both houses have been present and voted. Many of the most important acts which have passed congress have been carried by a close vote in thin houses. Many instances

of this might be given. Indeed, our experience proves that many of the most important acts of congress are postponed to the last days, and often the last hours of a session, when they are disposed of in haste, and by houses but little exceeding the number necessary to form a quorum.

Besides, in most of the states the members of the house of representatives are chosen by pluralities, and not by majorities of all the voters in their respective districts; and it may happen that a majority of that house may be returned by a less aggregate vote of the people than that received by the minority.

If the principle insisted on be sound, then the constitution should be so changed that no bill shall become a law unless it is voted for by members representing in each house a majority of the whole people of the United States. We must remodel our whole system, strike down and abolish not only the salutary checks lodged in the executive branch, but must strike out and abolish those lodged in the senate also, and thus practically invest the whole power of the government in a majority of a single assembly—a majority uncontrolled and absolute, and which may become despotic. To conform to this doctrine of the right of majorities to rule, independent of the checks and limitations of the constitution, we must revolutionize our whole system. We must destroy the constitutional compact by which the several states agreed to form a federal union, and rush into consolidation, which must end in monarchy or despotism. No one advocates such a proposition; and yet the doctrine maintained, if carried out, must lead to this result.

One great object of the constitution in conferring upon the president a qualified negative upon the legislation of congress, was to protect minorities from injustice and oppression by majorities.—The equality of their representation in the senate, and the veto power of the president, are the constitutional guarantees which the smaller states have that their rights will be respected. Without these guarantees, all their interests would be at the mercy of majorities in Congress, representing the larger states. To the smaller and weaker states, therefore, the preservation of this power, and its exercise on proper occasions demanding it, is of vital importance. They ratified the constitution, and entered into the union, securing to themselves an equal representation with the larger states in the senate; and they agreed to be bound by all laws passed by congress upon the express condition, and none other, that they should be approved by the president, or passed, his objections to the contrary notwithstanding, by a vote of two-thirds of both houses.—Upon this condition they have a right to insist, as a part of the compact to which they gave their assent.

A bill might be passed by congress against the will of the whole people of a particular state, and against the votes of its senators and all its representatives. However prejudicial it might be to the interest of such state, it would be bound by it if the president shall approve it, or it should be passed by a vote of two-thirds of both houses; but it has a right to demand that the president shall exercise his constitutional power, and arrest it, if his judgment is against it. If he surrender this power, or fail to exercise it in a case where he cannot approve, it would make his former approval a mere mockery, and would be itself a violation of the constitution, and the dissenting state would become bound by a law which had not been passed according to the sanctions of the constitution.

The objection to the exercise of the veto power is founded upon an idea respecting the popular will, which, if carried out, would annihilate state sovereignty, and substitute for the present federal government a consolidation, directed by a supposed numerical majority. A revolution of the government would be silently effected, and the states would be subjected to laws to which they had never given their constitutional consent.

The Supreme Court of the United States is invested with the power to declare, and has declared, acts of congress passed with the concurrence of the senate, the house of representatives, and the approval of the president, to be unconstitutional and void; and yet none, it is presumed, can be found, who will be disposed to strip this highest judicial tribunal under the constitution of this acknowledged power—a power necessary alike to its independence and the rights of individuals.

For the same reason that the executive veto should, according to the doctrine maintained, be rendered nugatory, and be practically expunged from the constitution, this power of the court should also be rendered nugatory and be expunged, because it restrains the legislative and executive will, and because the exercise of such a power by the court may be regarded as being in conflict with the capacity of the people to govern themselves. Indeed, there is more reason for striking this power of the court from the constitution than there is that of the qualified veto of the president; because the decision of the court is final, and can never be reversed, even though both houses of congress and the president should be unanimous in opposition to it; whereas a veto of the president may be over-ruled by a vote of two-thirds of both houses of congress, or by the people at the polls.

It is obvious that to preserve the system established by the constitution, each of the co-ordinate branches of the government—the executive, legislative, and judicial—must be left in the exercise of its appropriate powers. If the executive or the judicial branch be deprived of powers conferred upon either as checks on the legislative, the preponderance of the latter will become disproportionate and absorbing, and the others impotent for the accomplishment of the great objects for which they were established. Organized as they are by the constitution, they work together harmoniously for the public good. If the executive and the judiciary shall be deprived of the constitutional powers invested in them, and of their due proportions, the equilibrium of the system must be destroyed, and consolidation with the most pernicious results, must ensue; a consolidation of unchecked, despotic power exercised by majorities of the legislative branch.

The executive, legislative and judicial, each constitute a separate co-ordinate department of the government; and each is independent of the others. In the performance of their respective duties under the constitution, neither can, in its legitimate action, control the others. They each act upon their several responsibilities in their respective spheres; but if the doctrines now maintained be correct, the executive must become practically subordinate to the legislative, and the judiciary must become subordinate to both the legislative and the executive; and thus the whole power of the government would be merged in a single department. Whenever, if ever, this shall occur, our glorious system of well-regulated self-government will crumble into ruins—to be succeeded, first by anarchy, and finally by monarchy or despotism. I am far from believing that this doctrine is the sentiment of the American people; and during the short period which remains in which it will be my duty to administer the executive department, it will be my aim to maintain its independence, and discharge its duties, without infringing upon the powers or duties of either of the other departments of the government.

The power of the executive veto was exercised by the first and most illustrious of my predecessors, and by four of his successors who preceded me in the administration of the government, and it is believed, in no instance prejudicially to the public interests. It has never been, and there is but little danger that it ever can be abused. No president will ever desire, unnecessarily, to place his opinion in opposition to that of congress. He must always exercise the power reluctantly, and only in cases where his convictions make it a matter of stern duty which he cannot escape. Indeed, there is more

danger that the president, from the repugnance he must always feel to come in collision with congress, may fail to exercise it in cases where the preservation of the constitution from infraction, or the public good may demand it, than that he will ever exercise it unnecessarily or wantonly.

During the period I have administered the executive department of the government great and important questions of public policy, foreign and domestic, have arisen, upon which it was my duty to act. It may indeed be truly said that my administration has fallen upon eventful times. I have felt most sensibly the weight of the high responsibilities devolved upon me. With no other object than the public good, the enduring fame and permanent prosperity of my country, I have pursued the conviction of my own best judgment. The impartial arbitrament of enlightened public opinion, present and future, will determine how far the public policy I have maintained, and the measures I have from time to time recommended may have tended to advance or retard the public prosperity at home and to elevate or depress the estimate of our national character abroad.

Invoking the blessings of the Almighty upon your deliberations at your present important session, my ardent hope is, that in a spirit of harmony and concord, you may be guided to wise results, and such as may redound to the happiness, the honour, and the glory of our beloved country.

JAMES K. POLK.

Washington, December 5th, 1848.

DOCUMENTS

ON THE QUESTION OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS BY THE GENERAL GOVERNMENT.

In our history of the United States in the present number we have introduced the late congressional debate on the subject of slavery in the territories, in which some of the most distinguished men in the country took a part.

On another great and absorbing question, which must continue to occupy largely the public attention, we present the arguments on both sides in the following able papers, the first from the chief magistrate of the Union, the other from an eminent statesman of New York.

VETO OF THE RIVER AND HARBOUR BILL.

MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES, RETURNING THE BILL ENTITLED "AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR CONTINUING CERTAIN WORKS IN THE TERRITORY OF WISCONSIN, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES," AND COMMUNICATING THEREWITH HIS OBJECTIONS TO ITS BECOMING A LAW.

To the House of Representatives :

On the last day of the last session of congress, a bill entitled "An act to provide for continuing certain works in the territory of Wisconsin and for other purposes," which had passed both houses, was presented to me for my approval. I entertained insuperable objections to its becoming a law; but the short period of the session which remained, afforded me no sufficient opportunity to prepare my objections, and communicate them, with the bill, to the house of representatives, in which it originated. For this reason the bill was retained, and I deem it proper now to state my objections to it.

Although, from the title of the bill, it would seem that its main object was to make provision for continuing certain works, already commenced in the

territory of Wisconsin, it appears, on examination of its provisions, that it contains only a single appropriation of six thousand dollars to be applied within that territory, while it appropriates more than half a million of dollars for the improvement of numerous harbours and rivers, lying within the limits and jurisdiction of several of the states of the union.

At the preceding session of congress it became my duty to return to the house, in which it originated, a bill making similar appropriations, and involving like principles, and the views then expressed remain unchanged.

The circumstances under which this heavy expenditure of public money was proposed, were of imposing weight in determining upon its expediency. Congress had recognised the existence of war with Mexico, and to prosecute it to "a speedy and successful termination," had made appropriations exceeding our ordinary revenues. To meet the emergency, and provide for the expenses of the government, a loan of twenty-three millions of dollars was authorized at the same session, which has since been negotiated. The practical effect of this bill, had it become a law, would have been to add the whole amount appropriated by it to the national debt. It would, in fact, have made necessary an additional loan to that amount, as effectually as if in terms it had required the secretary of the treasury to borrow the money therein appropriated. The main question in that aspect is, whether it is wise, while all the means and credit of the government are needed to bring the existing war to an honourable close, to impair the one and endanger the other by borrowing money to be expended in a system of internal improvements, capable of an expansion sufficient to swallow up the revenues, not only of our own country, but of the civilized world. It is to be apprehended that by entering upon such a career at this moment, confidence at home and abroad, in the wisdom and prudence of the government, would be so far impaired, as to make it difficult, without an immediate resort to heavy taxation, to maintain the public credit, and to preserve the honour of the nation and the glory of our arms, in prosecuting the existing war to a successful conclusion. Had this bill become a law, it is easy to foresee that largely increased demands upon the treasury would have been made at each succeeding session of congress, for the improvement of numerous other harbours, bays, inlets and rivers, of equal importance with those embraced by its provisions. Many millions would probably have been added to the necessary amount of the war debt, the annual interest on which must also have been borrowed, and finally a permanent national debt been fastened on the country and entailed on posterity.

The policy of embarking the federal government in a general system of internal improvements, had its origin but little more than twenty years ago. In a very few years the applications to congress, for appropriations in furtherance of such objects, exceeded two hundred millions of dollars. In this alarming crisis, President Jackson refused to approve and sign the Maysville road bill, the Wabash river bill, and other bills of similar character. His interposition put a check upon the new policy of throwing the cost of local improvements upon the national treasury, preserved the revenues of the nation for their legitimate objects, by which he was enabled to extinguish the then existing public debt and to present to an admiring world the unprecedented spectacle in modern times of a nation free from debt, and advancing to greatness with unequalled strides under a government which was content to act within its appropriate sphere, in protecting the states and individuals in their own chosen career of improvement and of enterprise. Although the bill under consideration proposes no appropriation for a road or canal, it is not easy to perceive the difference in principle, or mischievous tendency, between appropriations for making roads and digging canals, and appropriations to deepen rivers and improve harbours. All are alike within the limits and jurisdiction of the states; and rivers and harbours alone open an abyss of ex-

penditure sufficient to swallow up the wealth of the nation, and load it with a debt which may fetter its energies and tax its industry for ages to come.

The experience of several of the states, as well as that of the United States, during the period that congress exercised the power of appropriating the public money for internal improvements, is full of eloquent warnings. It seems impossible in the nature of the subject, as connected with local representation, that the several objects presented for improvement, shall be weighed according to their respective merits, and appropriations confined to those whose importance would justify a tax on the whole community to effect their accomplishment.

In some of the states, systems of internal improvement have been projected, consisting of roads and canals, many of which, taken separately, were not of sufficient public importance to justify a tax on the entire population of the state to effect their construction; and, yet by a combination of local interests operating on a majority of the legislature, the whole have been authorized, and the states plunged into heavy debts. To an extent so ruinous has this system of legislation been carried in some portions of the union, that the people have found it necessary to their own safety and prosperity, to forbid their legislatures, by constitutional restrictions, to contract public debts for such purposes without their immediate consent.

If the abuse of power has been so fatal in the states where the systems of taxation are direct, and the representatives responsible at short periods to small masses of constituents, how much greater danger of abuse is to be apprehended in the general government, whose revenues are raised by indirect taxation, and whose functionaries are responsible to the people in larger masses and for longer terms.

Regarding only objects of improvement of the nature of those embraced in this bill, how inexhaustible we shall find them. Let the imagination run along our coast, from the river St. Croix to the Rio Grande, and trace every river emptying into the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico to its source; let it coast along our lakes, and ascend all their tributaries; let it pass to Oregon, and explore all its bays, inlets, and streams; and, then let it raise the curtain of the future, and contemplate the extent of this republic, and the objects of improvement it will embrace as it advances to its high destiny, and the mind will be startled at the immensity and danger of the power which the principle of this bill involves.

Already our confederacy consists of twenty-nine states. Other states may, at no distant period, be expected to be formed on the west of our present settlements. We own an extensive country in Oregon, stretching many hundreds of miles from east to west, and seven degrees of latitude from south to north. By the admission of Texas into the union, we have recently added many hundreds of miles to our sea coast. In all this vast country, bordering on the Atlantic and Pacific, there are many thousands of bays, inlets and rivers, equally entitled to appropriations for their improvement with the objects embraced in this bill.

We have seen in our states that the interests of individuals or neighbourhoods, combining against the general interest, have involved their governments in debts and bankruptcy; and when the system prevailed in the general government, and was checked by President Jackson, it had begun to be considered the highest merit, in a member of congress, to be able to procure appropriations of public money to be expended within his district or state, whatever might be the object. We should be blind to the experience of the past if we did not see abundant evidences that if this system of expenditure is to be indulged in, combinations of individual and local interests will be found strong enough to control legislation, absorb the revenues of the country, and plunge the government into a hopeless indebtedness.

What is denominated a harbour in this system does not necessarily mean a bay, inlet or arm of the sea on the ocean, or on our lake shores, on the margin of which may exist a commercial city or town, engaged in foreign or domestic trade; but is made to embrace waters where there is not only no such city or town, but no commerce of any kind. By it a bay or sheet of shoal water is called a *harbour*, and appropriations demanded from congress to deepen it, with a view to draw commerce to it, or to enable individuals to build up a town or city on its margin, upon speculation, and for their own private advantage.

What is denominated a river, which may be improved, in the system, is equally undefined in its meaning. It may be the Mississippi, or it may be the smallest and most obscure and unimportant stream, bearing the name of river, which is to be found in any state in the union.

Such a system is subject, moreover, to be perverted to the accomplishment of the worst of political purposes. During the few years it was in full operation, and which immediately preceded the veto of President Jackson of the Maysville road bill, instances were numerous of public men seeking to gain popular favour by holding out to the people, interested in particular localities, the promise of large disbursements of public money. Numerous reconnoissances and surveys were made, during that period, for roads and canals through many parts of the union; and the people, in the vicinity of each, were led to believe that their property would be enhanced in value, and they themselves be enriched by the large expenditures which they were promised, by the advocates of the system, should be made from the federal treasury in their neighbourhoods. Whole sections of the country were thus sought to be influenced, and the system was fast becoming one not only of profuse and wasteful expenditure, but a potent and political engine.

If the power to improve a harbour be admitted, it is not easy to perceive how the power to deepen every inlet on the ocean, or the lakes, and make harbours where there are none, can be denied. If the power to clear out or deepen the channel of rivers, near their mouths, be admitted, it is not easy to perceive how the power to improve them to their fountain head and make them navigable to their sources, can be denied. Where shall the exercise of the power, if it be assumed, stop? Has congress the power when an inlet is deep enough to admit a schooner, to deepen it still more, so that it will admit ships of heavy burden; and has it not the power when an inlet will admit a boat, to make it deep enough to admit a schooner? May it improve rivers deep enough already to float ships and steamboats, and has it no power to improve those which are navigable only for flat boats and barges?

May the general government exercise power and jurisdiction over the soil of a state consisting of rocks and sandbars in the beds of its rivers, and may it not excavate a canal around its waterfalls or across its lands for precisely the same object?

Giving to the subject the most serious and candid consideration of which my mind is capable, I cannot perceive any intermediate ground. The power to improve harbours and rivers for purposes of navigation, by deepening or clearing out, by dams and sluices, by locking or canalling, must be admitted, without any other limitation than the discretion of congress, or it must be denied altogether. If it be admitted, how broad and how susceptible of enormous abuse is the power thus vested in the general government. There is not an inlet of the ocean, or the lakes, not a river, creek or streamlet, within the states, which is not brought for this purpose within the power and jurisdiction of the general government.

Speculation, disguised under the cloak of public good, will call on congress to deepen shallow inlets, that it may build up new cities on their shores, or to make streams navigable which nature has closed by bars and rapids, that

it may sell at a profit its lands upon their banks. To enrich neighbourhoods, by spending within it the moneys of the nation, will be the aim and boast of those who prize their local interests above the good of the nation, and millions upon millions will be abstracted, by tariffs and taxes, from the earnings of the whole people, to foster speculation, and subserve the objects of private ambition.

Such a system could not be administered with any approach to equality among the several states and sections of the union. There is no equality among them in the objects of expenditure, and if the funds were distributed according to the merits of those objects, some would be enriched at the expense of their neighbours. But a greater practical evil would be found in the art and industry by which appropriations would be sought and obtained. The most artful and industrious would be the most successful; the true interests of the country would be lost sight of in an annual scramble for the contents of the treasury; and the member of congress who could procure the largest appropriations to be expended in his district would claim the rewards of victory from his enriched constituents. The necessary consequence would be sectional discontents and heartburnings, increased taxation and a national debt, never to be extinguished.

In view of these portentous consequences, I cannot but think that this course of legislation should be arrested, even were there nothing to forbid it in the fundamental laws of our union. This conclusion is fortified by the fact that the constitution itself indicates a process by which harbours and rivers within the states may be improved; a process, not susceptible of the abuses necessarily to flow from the assumption of the power to improve them by the general government, just in its operation, and actually practised upon, without complaint or interruption, during more than thirty years from the organization of the present government.

The constitution provides that "no state shall, without the consent of congress, lay any duty of tonnage." With the "consent" of congress, such duties may be levied, collected and expended, by the states. We are not left in darkness as to the objects of this reservation of power to the states. The subject was fully considered by the convention that framed the constitution. It appears in Mr. Madison's report of the proceedings of that body that one object of the reservation was, that the states should not be restrained from laying duties of tonnage for the purpose of clearing harbours. Other objects were named in the debates, and among them the support of seamen. Mr. Madison, treating on this subject in the *Federalist*, declares that "the restraint on the power of the states over imports and exports, is enforced by all the arguments which prove the necessity of submitting the regulation of trade to the federal councils. It is needless, therefore, to remark further on this head, than that the manner in which the restraint is qualified, seems well calculated at once to secure to the states a reasonable discretion in providing for the conveniency of their imports and exports, and to the United States a reasonable check against the abuse of this discretion." The states may lay tonnage duties for clearing harbours, improving rivers, or for other purposes, but are restrained from abusing the power; because, before such duties can take effect, the "consent" of congress must be obtained.

Here is a safe provision for the improvement of harbours and rivers in the reserved powers of the states, and in the aid they may derive from duties of tonnage levied with the consent of congress. Its safeguards are, that both the state legislatures and congress have to concur in the act of raising the funds; that they are in every instance to be levied upon the commerce of those ports which are to profit by the proposed improvement; that no question of conflicting power or jurisdiction is involved; that the expenditure being in the hands of those who are to pay the money, and be immediately benefited,

will be more carefully managed, and more productive of good, than if the funds were drawn from the national treasury and disbursed by the officers of the general government; that such a system will carry with it no enlargement of federal power and patronage, and leave the states to be the sole judges of their own wants and interests, with only a conservative negative in congress upon any abuse of the power which the states may attempt.

Under this wise system the improvement of harbours and rivers was commenced, or rather continued from the organization of the government under the present constitution. Many acts were passed by the several states levying duties of tonnage, and many were passed by congress giving their consent to those acts. Such acts have been passed by Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, and have been sanctioned by the consent of congress. Without enumerating them all, it may be instructive to refer to some of them as illustrative of the mode of improving harbours and rivers in the early periods of our government, as to the constitutionality of which there can be no doubt.

In January, 1790, the state of Rhode Island passed a law levying a tonnage duty on vessels arriving in the port of Providence, "for the purpose of clearing and deepening the channel of Providence river, and making the same more navigable."

On the second of February, 1796, the state of Massachusetts passed a law levying a tonnage duty on vessels, whether employed in the foreign or coasting trade, which might enter into the Kennebunk river, for the improvement of the same, by "rendering the passage in and out of said river less difficult and dangerous."

On the first of April, 1805, the state of Pennsylvania passed a law levying a tonnage duty on vessels, "to remove the obstructions to the navigation of the river Delaware, below the city of Philadelphia."

On the twenty-third of January, 1804, the state of Virginia passed a law levying a tonnage duty on vessels, for "improving the navigation of James river."

On the twenty-second of February, 1816, the state of Virginia passed a law levying a tonnage duty on vessels, for "improving the navigation of James river, from Warwick to Rockett's landing."

On the eighth of December, 1824, the state of Virginia passed a law levying a tonnage duty on vessels, for "improving the navigation of Appomatox river, from Pocahontas' bridge to Broadway."

In November, 1821, the state of North Carolina passed a law levying a tonnage duty on vessels, "for the purpose of opening an inlet at the lower end of Albe-marle sound, near a place called Nog's Head, and improving the navigation of said sound with its branches," and in November, 1823, an amendatory law was passed.

On the twenty-first of December, 1804, the state of South Carolina passed a law levying a tonnage duty, for the purpose of "building a marine hospital, in the vicinity of Charleston," and on the seventeenth of December, 1816, another law was passed by the legislature of that state, for the "maintenance of a marine hospital."

On the tenth of February, 1787, the state of Georgia passed a law levying a tonnage duty on all vessels entering into the port of Savannah, for the purpose of "clearing" the Savannah river of "wrecks and other obstructions" to the navigation.

On the twelfth of December, 1804, the state of Georgia passed a law levying a tonnage duty on vessels, "to be applied to the payment of the fees of the harbour master and health officers of the ports of Savannah and St. Mary's."

In April, 1783, the state of Maryland passed a law laying a tonnage duty on vessels, for the improvement of the "basin" and "harbour" of Baltimore, and the "river Patapsco."

On the twenty-sixth of December, 1791, the state of Maryland passed a law

levying a tonnage duty on vessels, for the improvement of the "harbour and port of Baltimore."

On the twenty-eighth of December, 1793, the state of Maryland passed a law authorizing the appointment of a health officer for the port of Baltimore, and laying a tonnage duty on vessels to defray the expenses.

Congress have passed many acts giving its "consent" to these and other state laws; the first of which is dated in 1790, and the last in 1843. By the latter act, the "consent" of congress was given to the law of the legislature of the state of Maryland, laying a tonnage duty on vessels, for the improvement of the harbour of Baltimore, and continuing it in force until the first day of June, 1850.

I transmit, herewith, copies of such of the acts of the legislatures of the states on the subject, and also the acts of congress giving its "consent" thereto, as have been collated.

That the power was constitutionally and rightfully exercised in these cases, does not admit of a doubt.

The injustice and inequality resulting from conceding the power to both governments is illustrated by several of the acts enumerated. Take that for the improvement of the harbour of Baltimore. That improvement is paid for exclusively by a tax on the commerce of that city; but if an appropriation be made from the national treasury for the improvement of the harbour of Boston, it must be paid, in part, out of the taxes levied on the commerce of Baltimore. The result is that the commerce of Baltimore pays the full cost of the harbour improvement designed for its own benefit, and, in addition, contributes to the cost of all other harbour and river improvements in the Union. The facts need but be stated to prove the inequality and injustice which cannot but flow from the practice embodied in this bill. Either the subject should be left as it was during the first third of a century, or the practice of levying tonnage duties by the states should be abandoned altogether, and all harbour and river improvements made under the authority of the United States, and by means of direct appropriations. In view, not only of the constitutional difficulty, but as a question of policy, I am clearly of opinion that the whole subject should be left to the states, aided by such tonnage duties on vessels navigating their waters as their respective legislatures may think proper to propose and congress see fit to sanction.

This "consent" of congress would never be refused in any case where the duty proposed to be levied by the state was reasonable, and where the object of improvement was one of importance. The funds required for the improvement of harbours and rivers may be made in this mode, as was done in the earlier periods of the government, and thus avoid a resort to a restrained construction of the constitution not warranted by its letter.

If direct appropriations be made of the money in the federal treasury for such purposes, the expenditures will be unequal and unjust. The money in the federal treasury is paid by a tax on the whole people of the United States; and, if applied to the purposes of improving harbours and rivers, it will be partially distributed, and be expended for the advantage of particular states, sections, or localities, at the expense of others.

By returning to the early and approved construction of the constitution, and to the practice under it, this inequality and injustice will be avoided, and at the same time all the really important improvements be made; and, as our experience has proved, be better made, and at less cost, than they would be by the agency of officers of the United States. The interests benefited by these improvements, too, would bear the cost of making them, upon the same principle that the expenses of the post office establishment have always been defrayed by those who derive benefits from it.

The power of appropriating money from the treasury for such improvements was not claimed nor exercised for more than thirty years after the organization of the government in 1789, when a more latitudinous construction was indicated,

though it was not broadly asserted and exercised until 1825. Small appropriations were first made, in 1820 and 1821, for surveys.

An act was passed on the third of March, 1823, authorizing the president to cause an "examination and survey to be made of the obstructions between the harbour of *Gloucester* and the harbour of *Squam*, in the state of Massachusetts," and of "the entrance of the harbour of the port of *Presque Isle*, in Pennsylvania," with a view to their removal, and a small appropriation was made to pay the necessary expenses. This appears to have been the commencement of harbour improvements by congress, thirty-four years after the government went into operation under the present constitution.

On the 30th April, 1834, an act was passed making an appropriation of thirty thousand dollars, and directing "surveys and estimates to be made of the routes of such roads and canals" as the president "may deem of national importance, in a commercial or military point of view, or necessary for the transportation of the mail." This act evidently looked to the adoption of a general system of internal improvements, to embrace roads and canals as well as harbours and rivers.

On the 26th May, 1824, an act was passed making appropriations for "deepening the channel leading into the harbour of *Presque Isle*, in the state of Pennsylvania," and to "repair *Plymouth beach*, in the state of Massachusetts, and thereby prevent the harbour at that place from being destroyed."

President Monroe yielded his approval to these measures, though he entertained, and had in a message to the house of representatives, on the 4th of May, 1822, expressed the opinion that the constitution had not conferred upon congress the power to "adopt and execute a system of internal improvements." He placed his approval upon the ground, not that congress possessed the power to "adopt and execute" such a system by virtue of any or all of the enumerated grants of power in the constitution, but upon the assumption that the power to make appropriations of the public money was limited and restrained only by the discretion of congress. In coming to this conclusion, he avowed that "in the more early stage of the government," he had entertained a different opinion. He avowed that his first opinion had been that, "as the national government is a government of limited powers, it has no right to expend money, except in the performance of acts authorized by the other specific grants, according to a strict construction of their powers;" and that the power to make appropriations gave to congress no discretionary authority to apply the public money to any other purposes or objects except to "carry into effect the powers contained in the other grants." These sound views which Mr. Monroe entertained "in the early stage of the government," he gave up in 1822, and declared "that the right of appropriation is nothing more than a right to apply the public money to this or that purpose. It has no incidental power, nor does it draw after it any consequences of that kind. All that congress could do under it, in the case of internal improvements, would be to appropriate the money necessary to make them. For any act requiring legislative sanction or support, the state authority must be relied on. The condemnation of the land, if the proprietors should refuse to sell it, the establishment of turnpikes and tolls, and the protection of the work when finished, must be done by the state. To these purposes the powers of the general government are believed to be utterly incompetent."

But it is impossible to conceive on what principle the power of appropriating public money, when in the treasury, can be construed to extend to objects for which the constitution does not authorize congress to levy taxes or imposts to raise money. The power of appropriation is but the consequence of the power to raise money; and the true inquiry is, whether congress has the right to levy taxes for the object over which power is claimed.

During the four succeeding years embraced by the administration of President Adams, the power not only to appropriate money, but to apply it, under the direction and authority of the general government, as well to the construction of

roads as to the improvement of harbours and rivers, was fully asserted and exercised.

Among other acts assuming the power, was one passed on the twentieth of May, 1826, entitled "An act for improving certain harbours, and the navigation of certain rivers and creeks, and for authorizing surveys to be made of certain bays, sounds and rivers therein mentioned." By that act large appropriations were made, which were to be "applied under the direction of the President of the United States" to numerous improvements in ten of the states. This act, passed thirty-seven years after the organization of the present government, contained the first appropriation ever made for the improvement of a navigable river, unless it be small appropriations for examinations and surveys in 1820. During the residue of that administration, many other appropriations of a similar character were made, embracing roads, rivers, harbours, and canals, and objects claiming the aid of congress multiplied without number.

This was the first breach effected in the barrier which the universal opinion of the framers of the constitution had, for more than thirty years, thrown in the way of the assumption of this power by congress. The general mind of congress and the country did not appreciate the distinction taken by President Monroe, between the right to apply and expend it without the embarrassment and delay of applications to the state governments. Probably no instance occurred in which such an application was made, and the flood-gates being thus hoisted, the principle laid down by him was disregarded, and applications for aid from the treasury, virtually to make harbours, as well as improve them, clear out rivers, cut canals, and construct roads, poured into congress in torrents, until arrested by the veto of President Jackson. His veto of the Maysville road bill was followed up by his refusal to sign the 'Act making appropriations for building light-houses, light-boats, beacons and monuments, placing buoys, improving harbours, and directing surveys;" "An act authorizing subscriptions for stock in the Louisville and Portland Canal Company;" "An act for the improvement of certain harbours and the navigation of certain rivers;" and finally, "An act to improve the navigation of the Wabash river." In his objections to the act last named, he says:

"The desire to embark the federal government in works of internal improvements prevailed, in the highest degree, during the first session of the first congress that I had the honour to meet in my present situation. When the bill authorizing a subscription on the part of the United States for stock in the Maysville and Lexington turnpike company passed the two houses, there had been reported, by the committees on internal improvements, bills containing appropriations for such objects, exclusive of those for the Cumberland road, and for harbours and light-houses, to the amount of about one hundred and six millions of dollars. In this amount was included authority to the secretary of the treasury to subscribe for the stock of different companies to a great extent, and the residue was principally for the direct construction of roads by this government. In addition to these projects, which have been presented to the two houses under the sanction and recommendation of their respective committees on internal improvements, there were then still pending before the committees, and in memorials to congress, presented, but not referred, different projects for works of a similar character, the expense of which cannot be estimated with certainty, but must have exceeded one hundred millions of dollars."

Thus within the brief period of less than ten years after the commencement of internal improvements by the general government, the sum asked for from the treasury for various projects, amounted to more than two hundred millions of dollars. President Jackson's powerful and disinterested appeals to his country appears to have put down for ever the assumption of power to make roads and cut canals, and to have checked the prevalent disposition to bring all rivers, in any degree navigable, within the control of the general government. But an immense field for expending the public money, and increasing the power and pa-

trouage of this government, was left open in the concession of even a limited power of congress to improve harbours and rivers; a field which millions will not fertilize to the satisfaction of those local and speculating interests by which these projects are in general gotten up. There cannot be a just and equal distribution of public burdens and benefits under such a system; nor can the states be relieved from the danger of fatal encroachment, nor the United States from the equal danger of consolidation, otherwise than by an arrest of the system, and a return to the doctrines and practices which prevailed during the first thirty years of the government.

How forcibly does the history of this subject illustrate the tendency of power to concentration in the hands of the general government! The power to improve their own harbours and rivers was clearly reserved to the states, who were to be aided by tonnage duties, levied and collected by themselves, with the consent of congress. For thirty-four years improvements were carried on under that system, and so careful was congress not to interfere, under any implied power, with the soil or jurisdiction of the states, that they did not even assume the power to erect light-houses or build piers, without first purchasing the ground, with the consent of the states, and obtaining jurisdiction over it. At length, after the lapse of thirty-three years, an act is passed providing for the examination of certain obstructions at the mouth of one or two harbours, almost unknown. It is followed by acts making small appropriations for the removal of those obstructions. The obstacles interposed by president Monroe, after ceding the power to appropriate, were soon swept away. Congress virtually assumed jurisdiction of the soil and waters of the states, without their consent, for the purposes of internal improvement, and the eyes of eager millions were turned from the state governments to congress, as the fountain whose golden streams were to deepen their harbours and rivers, level their mountains, and fill their valleys with canals. To what consequences this assumption of power was rapidly leading, is shown by the veto message of president Jackson; and to what end it is again tending, is witnessed by the provisions of this bill and bills of similar character.

In the proceedings and debates of the general convention which formed the constitution, and of the state conventions which adopted it, nothing is found to countenance the idea that the one intended to propose, or the others to concede, such a grant of power to the general government as the building up and maintaining of a system of internal improvements within the state necessarily implies. Whatever the general government may constitutionally create, it may lawfully protect. If it may make a road upon the soil of the states, it may protect it from destruction or injury by penal laws. So of canals, rivers and harbours. If it may put a dam in a river, it may protect that dam from removal or injury, in direct opposition to the laws, authorities and people of the state in which it is situated. If it may deepen a harbour, it may, by its own laws, protect its agents and contractors from being driven from their work, even by the laws and authorities of the state. The power to make a road or canal, or to dig up the bottom of a harbour or river, implies a right in the soil of the state and a jurisdiction over it, for which it would be impossible to find any warrant.

The states were particularly jealous of conceding to the general government any right of jurisdiction over their soil; and, in the constitution, restricted the exclusive legislation of congress to such places as might be "purchased with the consent of the states in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, dock yards and other needful buildings" That the United States should be prohibited from purchasing lands within the states, without their consent, even for the most essential purposes of national defence, while left at liberty to purchase or seize them for roads, canals, and other improvements, of immeasurably less importance, is not to be conceived.

A proposition was made in the convention to provide for the appointment of a "Secretary of Domestic Affairs," and make it his duty, among other things, "to

attend to the opening of roads and navigation, and the facilitating communications through the United States." It was referred to a committee, and that appears to have been the last of it. On a subsequent occasion a proposition was made to confer on congress the power to "provide for the cutting of canals, when deemed necessary," which was rejected by the strong majority of eight states to three. Among the reasons given for the rejection of this proposition, it was urged that "the expense in such cases will fall on the United States, and the benefits accrue to the places where the canals may be cut."

During the consideration of this proposition, a motion was made to enlarge the proposed power "for cutting canals" into a power "to grant charters of incorporation, when the interests of the United States might require, and the legislative provisions of the individual states may be incompetent;" and the reason assigned by Mr. Madison for the proposed enlargement of the power was, that it would "secure an easy communication between the states, which the free intercourse, now to be opened, seemed to call for. The political obstacles being removed, a removal of the natural ones, as far as possible, ought to follow."

The original proposition, and all the amendments, were rejected after deliberate discussion; not on the ground, as so much of that discussion as has been preserved indicates, that no direct grant was necessary, but because it was deemed inexpedient to grant it at all. When it is considered that some of the members of the convention, who afterwards participated in the organization and administration of the government, advocated and practised upon a very liberal construction of the constitution, grasping at many high powers as implied in its various provisions, not one of them, it is believed, at that day claimed the power to make roads and canals, or improve rivers and harbours, or appropriate money for that purpose. Among our early statesmen, of the strict construction class, the opinion was universal, when the subject was first broached, that congress did not possess the power, although some of them thought it desirable.

President Jefferson, in his message to congress in 1806, recommended an amendment to the constitution, with a view to apply an anticipated surplus in the treasury "to the great purposes of the public education, roads, rivers, canals, and such other objects of public improvement as it may be thought proper to add to the constitutional enumeration of the federal powers;" and he adds, "I suppose an amendment to the constitution, by consent of the states, necessary, because the objects now recommended are not among those enumerated in the constitution, and to which it permits the public moneys to be applied." In 1825 he repeated, in his published letters, the opinion that no such power has been conferred upon congress.

President Madison, in a message to the House of Representatives of the 3d of March, 1817, assigning his objections to a bill entitled "An act to set apart and pledge certain funds for internal improvements," declares that "the power to regulate commerce among the several states" cannot include a power to construct roads and canals, and to *improve the navigation of water courses*, in order to facilitate, promote, and secure such a commerce, without a latitude of construction, departing from the ordinary import of the terms, strengthened by the known inconveniences which doubtless led to the grant of this remedial power to congress."

President Monroe, in a message to the House of Representatives, of the 4th of May, 1822, containing his objections to a bill entitled "An act for the preservation and repair of the Cumberland road," declares—

"Commerce between independent powers or communities is universally regulated by duties and imposts. It was so regulated by the states before the adoption of this constitution, equally in respect to each other and to foreign powers. The goods and vessels employed in the trade are the only subjects of regulation. It can act on none other. A power, then, to impose such duties and imposts, in

regard to foreign nations, and to prevent any on the trade between the states, was the only power granted.

"If we refer to the causes which produced the adoption of this constitution, we shall find that injuries resulting from the regulation of trade by the states respectively, and the advantages anticipated from the transfer of the power to congress, were among those which had the most weight. Instead of acting as a nation in regard to foreign powers, the states, individually, had commenced a system of restraint on each other, whereby the interests of foreign powers were promoted at their expense. If one state imposed high duties on the goods or vessels of a foreign power, to countervail the regulations of such power, the next adjoining states imposed lighter duties to invite those articles into their ports, that they might be transferred thence into the other states, securing the duties to themselves. This contracted policy in some of the states was soon counteracted by others. Restraints were immediately laid on such commerce by the suffering states, and thus had grown up a state of affairs disorderly and unnatural, the tendency of which was to destroy the union itself, and with it all hope of realizing those blessings which we had anticipated from the glorious revolution, which had been so recently achieved. From this deplorable dilemma, or rather certain ruin, we were happily rescued by the adoption of the constitution.

"Among the first and most important effects of this great revolution, was the complete abolition of this pernicious policy. The states were brought together by the constitution, as to commerce, into one community, equally in regard to foreign nations and each other. The regulations that were adopted regarded us in both respects as one people. The duties and imposts that were laid on the vessels and merchandize of foreign nations were all uniform throughout the United States; and in the intercourse between the states themselves, no duties of any kind were imposed other than between different ports and countries within the same state.

"This view is supported by a series of measures, all of a marked character, preceding the adoption of the constitution. As early as the year 1781, congress recommended it to the states to vest in the United States a power to levy a duty of five per cent. on all goods imported from foreign countries into the United States, for the term of fifteen years. In 1783, this recommendation, with alterations as to the kind of duties, and an extension of this term to twenty-five years, was repeated and more earnestly urged. In 1784, it was recommended to the states to authorize congress to prohibit, under certain modifications, the importation of goods from foreign powers into the United States for fifteen years. In 1785, the consideration of the subject was resumed, and a proposition presented in a new form, with an address to the states, explaining fully the principles on which a grant of the power to regulate trade was deemed indispensable. In 1786, a meeting took place at Annapolis, of delegates from several of the states, on this subject; and, on their report, the convention was formed at Philadelphia the ensuing year, from all the states, to whose deliberations we are indebted for the present constitution.

"In none of these measures was the subject of internal improvements mentioned, or even glanced at. Those of 1784, '85, '86, and '87, leading step by step to the adoption of the constitution, had in view only the obtaining of a power to enable congress to regulate trade with foreign powers. It is manifest that the regulation of trade with the several states was altogether a secondary object suggested by and adopted in connexion with the other. If the power necessary to this system of improvement is included under either branch of this grant, I should suppose that it was the first rather than the second. The pretension to it, however, under that branch, has never been set up. In support of the claim under the second, no reason has been assigned which appears to have the least weight."

Such is a brief history of the origin, progress, and consequences of a system which, for more than thirty years after the adoption of the constitution, was unknown. The greatest embarrassment upon the subject consists in the departure

which has taken place from the early construction of the constitution, and the precedents which are found in the legislation of congress in later years. President Jackson, in his veto of the Wabash river bill, declares, that "to inherent embarrassments have been added others, from the course of our legislation concerning it." In his vetoes on the Maysville road bill, the Rockville road bill, the Wabash river bill, and other bills of like character, he reversed the precedents which existed prior to that time on the subject of internal improvements. When our experience, observation and reflection have convinced us that a legislative precedent is either unwise or unconstitutional, it should not be followed.

No express grant of this power is found in the constitution. Its advocates have differed among themselves as to the source from which it is derived as an incident. In the progress of the discussions upon this subject, the power to regulate commerce seems now to be chiefly relied upon, especially in reference to the improvement of harbours and rivers.

In relation to the regulation of commerce, the language of the grant in the constitution is, "Congress shall have power to regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes." That "to regulate commerce" does not mean to make a road, or dig a canal, or clear out a river, or deepen a harbour, would seem to be obvious to the common understanding. To "regulate" admits or affirms the pre-existence of the thing to be regulated. In this case, it presupposes the existence of commerce, and of course the means by which, and the channels through which, commerce is carried on. It confers no creative power; it only assumes control over that which may have been brought into existence through other agencies, such as state legislation, and the industry and enterprise of individuals. If the definition of the word "regulate" is to include the provisions of means to carry on commerce, then have congress not only power to deepen harbours, clear out rivers, dig canals, and make roads, but also to build ships, railroad cars, and other vehicles, all of which are necessary to commerce. There is no middle ground. If the power to regulate can be legitimately construed into a power to create or facilitate, then not only the bays and harbours, but the roads and canals, and all the means of transporting merchandize among the several states, are put at the disposition of congress.

This power to regulate commerce was construed and exercised immediately after the adoption of the constitution, and has been exercised to the present day, by prescribing general rules by which commerce should be conducted. With foreign nations it has been regulated by treaties, defining the rights of citizens and subjects, as well as by acts of congress, imposing duties and restrictions, embracing vessels, seamen, cargoes, and passengers. It has been regulated among the states by acts of congress, relating to the coasting trade and the vessels employed therein, and for the better security of passengers in vessels propelled by steam, and by the removal of all restrictions upon internal trade. It has been regulated with the Indian tribes by our intercourse laws, prescribing the manner in which it shall be carried on. Thus each branch of this grant of power was exercised soon after the adoption of the constitution, and has continued to be exercised to the present day. If a more extended construction be adopted, it is impossible for the human mind to fix on a limit to the exercise of the power, other than the will and discretion of congress.

It sweeps into the vortex of national power and jurisdiction not only harbours and inlets, rivers and little streams, but canals, turnpikes, and railroads, every species of improvement which can facilitate or create trade and intercourse "with foreign nations, among the several states, and with the Indian tribes."

Should any great object of improvement exist in our widely extended country which cannot be effected by tonnage duties, levied by the states, with the concurrence of congress, it is safer and wiser to apply to the states, in the mode prescribed by the constitution, for an amendment of that instrument, whereby the

powers of the general government may be enlarged, with such limitations and restrictions as experience has shown to be proper, than to assume and exercise a power which has not been granted, or which may be regarded as doubtful in the opinion of a large portion of our constituents. This course has been recommended successively by Presidents Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and Jackson, and I fully concur with them in opinion. If an enlargement of power should be deemed proper, it will unquestionably be granted by the states, if otherwise it would be withheld; and in either case their decision should be final. In the mean time I deem it proper to add, that the investigation of this subject has impressed me more strongly than ever with the solemn conviction, that the usefulness and permanency of this government, and the happiness of the millions over whom it spreads its protection, will be best promoted by carefully abstaining from the exercise of all powers not clearly granted by the constitution.

JAMES K. POLK.

Washington, December 15, 1848.

THE MEMORIAL TO THE CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES,

FROM THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE CONVENTION OF EIGHTEEN STATES ASSEMBLED AT CHICAGO, VINDICATING THE CONSTITUTIONALITY AND EXPEDIENCY OF RIVER AND HARBOUR IMPROVEMENTS BY THE GENERAL GOVERNMENT.

The memorial of the subscribers, members of a committee appointed at a meeting of delegates from different parts of the Union, assembled at Chicago, in the State of Illinois, on the fifth day of July, 1848, in the most numerous delegated convention ever held in this country,

RESPECTFULLY SHOWS:

That your memorialists were instructed by the said convention to transmit its proceedings to the President of the United States, and to both houses of Congress, and to communicate such information as the said committee might be able to collect, to guide intelligent and just legislation.

In obedience to these instructions, your memorialists now transmit herewith the "Declaration of Sentiments" adopted by that convention with entire unanimity, excepting the last clause of the fifth proposition, and expressing, as your memorialists believe, the universal opinions of the vast constituencies represented in that meeting. These circumstances, together with the calmness and deliberation which marked the discussions and proceedings of the convention, and the enthusiastic approbation which the principles it avowed have received from all quarters of the country, must entitle them to the respectful consideration of the representatives of the people and of the States in Congress assembled.

STATISTICAL REFERENCES.

In discharge of the duty assigned them, your memorialists have collected various and extensive statistics of the greatest interest in relation to the commerce of the country, and particularly of the inland lakes and rivers.

So far as the returns received by us extend, they not only corroborate the results contained in a report made to the senate at its present session, by the very able and enlightened chief of the topographical corps of engineers, (number four of Executive Documents,) but exhibit a prodigious increase during the year 1847 of the imports and exports of different ports. To avoid encumbering this communication with details, we annex an abstract of the reports received. The facts are taken from the books of the custom houses, where they furnished the materials, and in other cases from reliable sources of information, the respective authorities being given in the detailed reports, which

are also herewith communicated. They exhibit the actual amounts of exports during the last year from ports and places on Lake Erie, and the lakes west of and connected with it, of more than sixty-four millions of dollars. This, which is believed to be under rather than above the true result, is sufficient to satisfy you that it is an interest even now worthy of attention. But when it is recollected that it is but the childhood, the infancy of a trade, which is but of yesterday's growth, and that a boundless extent of the best land on the continent is yet to be opened to cultivation, to swell the mighty torrent of trade which is to empty itself into the Atlantic,—it will be difficult to fix limits to the vastness of the commerce which will call upon you for protection and aid.

The accounts of the losses of lives and of property caused by shipwrecks and other disasters, and which, in all human probability, would have been avoided, had there been adequate harbors on the lakes, we lament to say, are very deficient. There is an intrinsic difficulty in obtaining authentic accounts of such events which rest in the memory of so many individuals. In two reports which have been furnished us, we find the names of ninety vessels which have been lost since 1833 on the great lakes, besides four on Lake Superior, the value of which, and that of their cargoes, where known, exceeds 680,000 dollars; and we find, also, by one of those reports, that 367 lives are known to have been lost. A return from Oswego shows a loss of ten vessels within the present year on Lake Ontario, causing damage to the amount of \$26,250, besides injuries to cargoes to the amount of \$9,375. To the above should be added the vessels that have gone ashore almost every week at different places on the lake coast. It is impossible to estimate the amount of damage the vessels themselves have received, the expense of getting them afloat and repairing them, the injury to cargoes, and the loss of time and wages.

Some faint idea of the extent of suffering, arising from the causes mentioned, may be formed from a chronological account of disasters on the lakes during the year 1846, published in a newspaper of great credit, and which has not been questioned. We beg leave to annex it to this memorial, as furnishing a graphic account of the storms on the lower lakes and the frequency of their occurrence.

We know not that any language of ours could add to the impression which a simple statement of the facts ought to make upon every human heart. It is a tale of wo and distress that must excite the strongest sympathy, and prompt to the most energetic efforts to remove the causes of such unnecessary suffering. We say unnecessary, because official reports from competent and disinterested officers of the United States, have, for years, been laid before congress, demonstrating the facility and moderate expense with which the most important harbors on the lakes can be rendered accessible, and afford that shelter which is now denied to the persons and property engaged in that navigation. These reports also show the obstructions in the navigation of the lakes and rivers emptying into them, and with what great ease and little expense they can be removed.

The same remarks are applicable to the navigation of the Mississippi, and of the great rivers leading to it. The authentic report of the committee appointed at St. Louis, which is communicated herewith, exhibits the vast amount of tonnage engaged in the trade on those rivers, the almost incredible value of the cargoes transported, and the great number of persons employed in it. The difficulties and obstructions in that commerce are too well known to need description here, and the facility with which they can be removed has been demonstrated so clearly by the success which has attended the few efforts heretofore made for the purpose, that no doubt can remain with the most obtuse.

An abstract of the reports received from the ports on the Atlantic coast, and

the original returns which it condenses, are also annexed, containing much valuable local information, particularly in reference to obstructions in rivers and harbors on the sea-board.

In the further discharge of their duties, your memorialists would most respectfully submit their views in elucidation and defence of the propositions embodied in the "Declaration of Sentiments," herewith transmitted. That document was necessarily brief and condensed; its very nature forbidding any amplification of the fundamental truths it was designed to proclaim.

The subject requires the consideration,

First, Of the constitutional power of congress to make appropriations for the improvements contemplated by the convention within the limitations declared by it; and

Second, The duty and expediency of exercising that power.

And while considering the latter, it will be proper to discuss the question whether there are other means of effecting the proposed improvements, which are just in themselves, and adequate to the purpose, and which can be adopted without producing interminable difficulties between the states, and threatening the most disastrous consequences to the whole Union.

CONSTITUTIONAL POWER OF CONGRESS.

In discussing the constitutional power, we abjure at once all considerations of danger in its exercise. If there be any, of the frightful character which has been supposed, they address themselves to the sound discretion of congress, when called upon to make any specific appropriation; but they have no bearing whatever upon the inquiry, whether the power itself exists. And we cannot but lament the perversity which seeks to intimidate from a frank, deliberate and thorough investigation of the constitutional provisions on this or any other subject, by exaggerated appeals to the fears and prejudices of our citizens. It betrays a consciousness of weakness, thus to block up the very portals of truth. We are bound to presume that the illustrious men who devoted so much time and anxious deliberation to the embodying the elements of a free government for themselves and their posterity, were not so incompetent to their task, as to have adopted any provision which would produce the frauds, national demoralization and bankruptcy that have been so freely predicted. Our inquiry now is, what is the law and the testimony—what provision does the constitution in fact make? not what it ought to make. And we utterly deny that the liability to abuse of any supposed power in a government, is any argument whatever to prove that such power does not exist. For the undeniable truth is, that no government ever has been or can be created, without possessing powers which may be used to the injury, and even ruin of its subjects, and its own destruction. It is very true, that on the threshold of the inquiry, it will occur to every mind to ask, whether the power claimed is one which civilized governments usually possess; and if it be utterly unknown in the history of the world, such as never has been hitherto required by the wants of any community, then indeed the keenest vigilance may well be aroused to insist upon the clearest proofs of the most express and unequivocal grant of the power, and to watch most closely for any defect in the chain of argument to prove its existence. But if, on the contrary, it be a power which every other government in Christendom is admitted to possess—which has always been exercised by every government hitherto existing—a power essential to the progress of civilization, without which agriculture must languish and labour be unrewarded, commerce and trade must be impeded and intercourse obstructed; then the inquirer will approach the investigation in a different spirit. While he will still require satisfactory evidence, he will be prepared to give a favourable ear to what may be adduced to establish the fact of such a power having been granted.

It certainly cannot be necessary for your memorialists to do more than ask any intelligent mind, to which of these classes belongs the power of opening intercourse between the various sections of our vast country—the power of finishing what the God of nature began, when he established the mighty rivers and the still more mighty lakes which mark this continent?

Before advancing further in this inquiry, let us endeavor to understand exactly the extent of the power over this subject, claimed for congress by the convention, whose declaration of sentiments is now before you,—and it is the more necessary in consequence of the exaggerations and misrepresentations with which the public ear has been abused.

Its advocates have been described as seeking to establish a system of rapacity, by which unscrupulous men would enhance the value of petty localities in which they are interested, at the public expense; and in respect to which, the people themselves are represented as so profligate as to form extensive and dangerous combinations to render such schemes successful. What then does the convention really claim? Their first proposition asserts that the constitution was framed and mainly designed “to create a government whose functions should and would be adequate to the protection of the common interests of all the states, or of two or more of them, which interests could not be maintained by the action of separated states.” The second proposition applies this undeniable principle to “internal trade and navigation, wherever the concurrence of two or more states is necessary to its preservation, or where the expense of its maintenance should equitably be borne by two or more states, and where, of course, those states must necessarily have a voice in its regulation.” Such trade and navigation could not be maintained by the action of the separated states, and therefore if any provision was to be made for its protection and assistance, it must necessarily be by the general government.

Such, then, are the clear and well-defined limitations of the power in question, set forth by the Chicago Convention, and they afford in themselves the best answer to the idle declaration which represents the friends of internal improvement as seeking to establish a system which has no other limits than the “discretion of congress.” The mind which is really incapable of perceiving any distinction between the power to improve the great channels of intercourse *common to two or more states*, and the authority to make turnpikes and canals *within* states, must be beyond the reach of argument. That even within the limits above defined, there will necessarily be room for discretion in the selection of objects of improvement, we would not deny. And when it is shown that there is any one power of human governments that is not equally and unavoidably open to a like discretion, but not till then, we will admit that the fact, that choice and selection may be exercised in reference to the subjects of a power, is sufficient in itself to show that the power cannot exist! in other words, that a legislative body is not to be permitted to exercise judgment and caution, and to regard utility or economy in its enactments. When a constitution shall be framed upon such principles as to deny all discretion to the legislative body, there will be little occasion for such a cumbrous and expensive machinery.

Your memorialists cannot but regret that it should be necessary to enter into any extended argument to prove the accuracy of the position assumed by the declaration of sentiments accompanying this memorial, in respect to the power of congress to make appropriations for improvements of the character already indicated. That power is deduced from the express grant “to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the states,” and the concurrent and continuous exercise of the power, from the commencement of the government, with the sanction of the people, as declaratory of the sense in which the grant was understood by all parties. The fact of such a practical construction having been given, is so clearly and summarily stated by the late President Jackson,

that we prefer to use his own words in one of his messages to congress: "The practice," he says, "of defraying out of the treasury of the United States, the expenses incurred by the establishment and support of light-houses, beacons, buoys, and public piers, within the bays, inlets, and harbors and ports of the United States, to render the navigation thereof safe and easy, is coeval with the adoption of the constitution, and has continued without interruption or dispute."

We may add, that one of the first acts passed at the first session of the very first congress under the constitution, was for the establishment of light-houses, buoys, beacons, and public piers. Many of those who had been conspicuous in the debates of the convention were members of that congress; there is no evidence of any opposition to the act; and it was approved and signed by WASHINGTON. Similar provisions for affording facilities to commerce have been made annually by congress down to their last session, when an act was passed making large appropriations for the erection of light-houses, buoys, and beacons, and establishment of light-boats, at various points on the Atlantic and upon the lakes, and upon the rivers emptying into them.

It has been contended, however, that the power of the government thus uninterruptedly exercised from its foundation, to erect light-houses, &c., is derived not from their authority "to regulate commerce," but from that clause in the constitution which authorizes congress to *exercise exclusive legislation* over the territory which should become the seat of the federal government, "and to exercise *like authority* over all places purchased *by the consent of the legislature of the state* where the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings;" and then, by further contending that the consent of the state was, by this clause, required *to the erection* of such forts, magazines, &c., it has been argued, that this is inconsistent with the idea that congress possessed this power under other grants in the constitution.

The mistake in this argument is evident, in not adverting to the real object of the clause in question, which was not to confer any new power to erect these buildings, or to purchase the lands requisite for the purpose, but simply to give congress *exclusive jurisdiction* over such places as should be purchased *with the consent of the states*, so that there should not be a divided empire between the general and state governments.

In accordance with this view, the highest judicial federal authority has decided, (3 Wheaton, 388.) that congress may purchase land for a fort or light-house, and erect such buildings, *without the consent* of the state, but that in such cases the *jurisdiction* remains in the state, and cannot be acquired by the United States otherwise than by a cession, which is to be the free act of the state.

This was actually the case in respect to Fort Niagara, which was held for many years by the United States, without any cession by the state; and it was held by the courts of New York, that the state, not having ceded its jurisdiction by consenting to the purchase, or otherwise, it remained unimpaired. But when the state consents to the purchase, the jurisdiction at once passes to the federal government. (17 Johnson, 225.)

The clause referred to, it will be perceived, therefore, gives no new authority to congress to erect forts, magazines, or other needful buildings, but gives jurisdiction over the land upon which they are erected, when the purchase of such land has been made with the assent of the state. And the fact that it does not give the authority to purchase land for those purposes, or to erect the building specified, but provides for the contingency of its being purchased, and confers jurisdiction when such purchase has been made with the consent of the state, is in itself the strongest evidence that the framers of the constitution believed such authority had already been given. And yet, there is cer-

tainly no part of the constitution which can be cited to justify such purchases, or the erection of such buildings and public piers and beacons, or the establishing of light boats, but that to which we have above referred, and on which we rely—the power to regulate commerce. And thus the clause of the constitution which was adduced for the purpose of invalidating this power, in fact becomes the strongest evidence of its existence, and taken in connexion with the practice of the government, becomes conclusive and irresistible.

It surely needs no argument to show that the buoys and boats, and piers and light-houses, thus erected by the government, are not, in themselves, commerce. They are only facilities for its enjoyment. But the moment the principle is admitted, that congress may rightfully appropriate money to promote *any* such facility, their power necessarily extends over the whole subject, and has no limit but the sound discretion of the representatives of the people and of the states, and other constitutional provisions, as to the mode of its exercise. And we hence invoke the high authority, not only of all preceding administrations, but also of the present president of the United States, in approving the act passed at the last session of congress, before mentioned, as an unequivocal sanction of the powers of that body to regulate commerce by furnishing facilities for its enjoyment.

Of the same character are the appropriations for the survey of the coast of the United States. In 1807, an act was passed by which the president was authorized to cause a survey of the coast of the United States to be taken, “in which shall be designated the islands and shoals, with the roads or places of anchorage within twenty leagues of any part of the shores of the United States,” and also “to cause such examinations and observations to be made with respect to St. George’s bank, and any other bank or shoal, and the soundings and currents beyond the distance aforesaid, to the gulf stream, as in his opinion may be specially subservient to *the commercial interests* of the United States.” These surveys were warmly recommended by committees of congress, for the express purpose of rendering facilities to commerce; and the act above quoted shows that such was the object of congress. They were begun under Mr. Jefferson, the acknowledged author and founder of the system. It has been continued, with temporary suspensions, caused by war or the preparations for hostilities, from 1807 to this day, the regular annual appropriations continuing through all the successive administrations of the government down to and including the last session of congress, when one hundred and forty-six thousand dollars were appropriated, with the approbation of the present president of the United States.

Utterly in vain must be any attempt to deduce the power to make these appropriations from any other grant in the constitution, but that “to regulate commerce.” Their character and purpose is declared, not only by the avowed object stated in the first act on the subject, and by the cotemporaneous documentary history, but by the fact that the military and naval departments have no control whatever over the subject, and that it is placed, as a commercial measure, under the supervision of the secretary of the treasury. The amounts appropriated have been so large, exceeding, probably, two millions of dollars, that it is impossible they should have been made without deliberation.

In reference to this power to regulate commerce, we have the authority of the supreme court of the United States for saying, that under its sanction, congress may suspend and prohibit it, and may not only authorize importations, but may authorize the importer to sell, (12 Wheaton, 447;) and that commerce is not merely traffic, but is intercourse, and includes navigation. (9 Wheaton, 189.)

Having thus seen in what sense the framers of the constitution, the legislature, and the courts have hitherto understood the “power to regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the states,” the subject will appear in

a still clearer light when we find that the same construction has been given to the same power when applied to the remaining subject of the clause, "and with the Indian tribes."

From the earliest periods of our government, there has been one uniform course of legislation under this power, without impediment and without question, which has assumed the absolute right of providing for the health, the morals, the instruction, and the subsistence of these people. Agents are to be provided with vaccine matter, at the public expense, to prevent the spread of the small-pox among them; they are to be furnished with useful domestic animals and implements of husbandry, and they are to be instructed in agriculture; their children are to be taught the common branches of education; and appropriations have been made for geological and mineralogical researches in their country. It will not be pretended that congress has any authority to pass such laws in relation to white citizens, or the territory of the states; and the only possible ground on which they have been or can be maintained, is the authority "to regulate commerce with the Indian tribes."

But further and very satisfactory evidence of the meaning of the terms in discussion, may be derived from the use of similar language in other parts of the constitution. The second clause of section three, article fourth, contains expressions identical with those we have been discussing. It is this: "The congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory and other property belonging to the United States." No difference can be stated between the authority "to regulate commerce," and that now quoted, "to make needful rules and regulations respecting the territory."

Under this latter power, for there is confessedly none other that can touch the subject, the federal government has, from its earliest date to this day, legislated for the territories as fully and extensively as any state for its inhabitants. Governments have been organized, the salaries of the officers paid, public buildings for their accommodation erected, schools and seminaries of learning provided, and systems of municipal law established for them by congress. And, that nothing may be wanting to complete the parallel which we have instituted between the power "to regulate" in one case, and the power "to make regulations" in the other, in its application to the very subject under consideration, namely, the authority to make internal improvements in order to facilitate commerce and intercourse, we find the federal government, from the year 1806 down to and including the last congress, constantly and annually "making regulations" for the territories, by appropriating money and land to lay out and construct their roads and to improve the navigation of their rivers.

We mean no offensive crimination by the remark, that during the many years when the present incumbent of the executive chair served as a member of congress, we do not find any exceptions taken by him, or by any one else, to this continued exercise of the power to make regulations for the territories, by the appropriations referred to; but we state the fact for the purpose of quoting his high authority in favour of the construction, which we claim should be given to that and the similar power to regulate commerce.

This construction of the power in relation to territories, is noticed by the late chief justice Marshall, in 4 Wheaton, 422, in delivering the opinion of the supreme court, as having been universally admitted.

The sense in which human language is to be understood, is that which the speaker or writer intends to convey, and which is at the time conveyed to him who is addressed, as evinced by the acts of both. The exact meaning of words may be doubtful, but they are rendered precise and certain by accompanying and continuous acts. This is the basis of all interpretation. Guided by a rule so simple and plain, and of such constant use, we are not to apply

the microscope to the mere shell which contains the spirit of our constitutional provisions, as if we were examining a special pleading, but we are to look at the whole scope and design, as developed by a comparison of the different parts, and by the uniform, uninterrupted and unquestioned construction given by legislators, executives, and judges, upon the responsibility of their oaths, and sanctioned by the acquiescence of the whole people. And we cannot sum up the whole argument on this point in a more condensed form than that given by the late President Jackson, that "the public good and the nature of our political institutions, require that individual differences should yield to a well settled acquiescence of the people and confederated authorities, on particular constructions of the constitution on doubtful points."

An attempt, however, has been made to limit the application of the phrase, "regulate commerce," to such commerce as already existed, upon the assumption that it implied the pre-existence of the thing to be regulated. We submit, however, that the assumption is false in fact and in theory. The power to regulate is a power to rule, with which it is synonymous, and expresses the most unlimited authority of government over the whole subject matter, and all its incidents, and so far from being exclusively applied to subjects in existence, it ordinarily in practice precedes and anticipates the action to be regulated. And to exhibit the absurdity of the criticism we are examining, we have only to state its results almost in the language of its authors. Thus, if a river be already navigable, and a commerce is carried on from its mouth to the port of another state, it may be "regulated;" but if a sand-bar at its mouth should prevent vessels within it from launching into the ocean or the lakes, to reach another state, it would be beyond the reach of the regulating power of congress, because a commerce would thus be *created!* And such refinements, worthy of the ancient polemics, are gravely attributed to the practical men who framed our constitution. It so happens, however, that even this subtlety is wholly inapplicable to any appropriation that has hitherto passed either house of congress, for none has proposed the improvement of any harbour or river that had not already some commerce.

But there is another source of power to improve rivers, harbors and roadsteads, and which contains authority, if necessary, even to create harbors, and channels of communication. We refer to the power "to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States." Taxes and imposts may be levied to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence of the Union. It follows, that the proceeds of such taxes and imposts may be appropriated to those objects; and accordingly under this power of appropriations for the common defence, coupled with those of declaring war, of raising armies, and maintaining a navy, forts, magazines, arsenals, manufactories of arms, and military roads, navy-yards and dry and other docks, have been established and maintained from the day the constitution was adopted to this moment; and appropriations for them, or some of them, have been passed at every session of congress, without exception from any quarter. Let it be observed, that here is no latitudinarian expansion of the phrase, "general welfare," so obnoxious to certain casuists; but a plain and downright application, in good faith, of a power given for definite and precise objects—the common defence, and the employment of armies and of a navy. This "common" defence of the whole, necessarily includes the parts, and the power must be exercised in detail or not at all.

Can it be doubted that the removal of shoals, bars and snags in rivers, in order to facilitate the transmission of the munitions of war to the frontier and every exposed part of our country, would be as legitimate an exercise of the power to provide for the common defence, as the establishment of magazines or manufactories of arms, or the casting of cannon? The munitions of war

provided, and the weapons manufactured, would be of little use without the means of conveying them to the points needing the supply.

And with respect to harbors, the eleventh of the propositions contained in the declaration of sentiments herewith transmitted, states so clearly the right of "citizens inhabiting the country bordering on the interior lakes and rivers, to such safe and convenient harbors as may afford shelter to a navy," and the duty of the government to afford them such protection, that the undersigned can add very little to enforce the right, or to render the duty more obvious. The impartial and disinterested officers of your own appointment have certified to you, that along the whole chain of lakes, extending fourteen hundred miles between our territories and those of a foreign power, there is such a deficiency of safe harbors of easy entrance, that the military and commercial marine upon these lakes is absolutely at the mercy of the winds and waves. And they have shown you, that, from the peculiar dangers of the navigation, and the want of sea room, capacious harbors are more vitally important here, than on the Atlantic coast. It may happen, too, that disadvantageous circumstances may render a convenient harbor the only security against the capture of your ships by an enemy. It is not necessary to compare the relative importance of accessible harbors to the maintenance of a fleet, with navy-yards and docks; it is sufficient that they are of the same character, and are equally "necessary and proper." It would be far more difficult, in the view of your memorialists, to deduce the authority to build an executive mansion for the president of the United States, or to purchase, repair and maintain a congressional burying-ground, from any specific grant of power in the constitution, than to show that the power of improving the channels of trade and intercourse between the states, may be inferred from this power to provide for the common defence.

It is not improbable that other sources of the power in question may appear to different minds, adequate to the purpose. But the undersigned are content to rest the claim which they prefer in behalf of their constituents, upon the grants of power stated in the "Declaration of Sentiments," and herein considered. It was well remarked by distinguished judges of the supreme court, in 9th Wheaton, that "the same measures may be arranged with different classes of powers," and that "the same measures may flow from distinct powers," under our constitution. And he must be little acquainted with the history of governments, who would urge as an objection to any specific power, that its friends claimed that it might be exercised under different and harmonious provisions.

But we hear it said, that the constitution does not confer on congress the power to regulate commerce by commencing and carrying on "a general system of internal improvement;" as if the objection was not to any particular work, but to a general system. We confess our inability to perceive the force or the reason of the distinction. If any particular work can be justified by the importance of the commercial exigency which demands it, is not the power of congress to facilitate commerce by any other similar work admitted? And if any work, in the judgment of congress, possesses the requisites to bring it within the constitutional provision, does it cease to possess them because the commercial facilities it affords may be augmented by its connexion with other kindred works? Thus, the immense commercial cargoes which now descend from Lake Michigan to the ocean, in their passage meet successively the obstructions on the flats of Lake St. Clair—in the harbor of Buffalo—and in the overslaught of the Hudson. The works needed to remove these three separate impediments, each highly necessary in itself, will be still more useful when all are completed—and when constructed will naturally and necessarily group themselves together and become portions of a system. But does this afford any reason why each particular work should not be constructed? On the contrary, does it not greatly strengthen the

inducement for building them all—and that, too, on a harmonious plan—so that each portion may add to the value of the whole? As well might we object to the general system of fortifications on the seaboard, that although each separate work of the series might be requisite for the common defence, yet that no power existed to unite them in a uniform plan.

Under the general and comprehensive power to regulate commerce between the states, we claim, then, that the facilities which congress may constitutionally afford are co-extensive with that commerce, and necessarily extend to and embrace every portion of the union. That it would be alike unwise, unjust, and repugnant to the spirit of the constitution, to lavish the public funds upon favourite objects in a few states, and exclude from just participation other and equally meritorious and necessary objects in other states,—and so far from questioning the power of congress to combine these proper objects of national improvement in a general plan or system, we maintain it to be their peculiar duty, as far as practicable, to construct each work in reference to its harmonious connexion with the whole. And in taking this view of the subject, our quotation of the vague expression “internal improvements,” must not be misunderstood. We refer to works of national importance which will essentially facilitate “commerce among the states,” and not to “improvements” purely local.

With respect to the objection which has sometimes been urged of want of jurisdiction in the United States, to enter upon and occupy lands and waters, to construct and maintain the required improvements, it may be remarked, that if the power to regulate commerce includes, as we maintain, the authority to facilitate its operations, then all the means and incidents “necessary and proper,” are by the terms of the constitution given also; and these, when necessary, may include jurisdiction for the purpose. And this has been exemplified by the laws of congress authorizing the erection of lighthouses on the shores of the lakes and interior rivers, and regulating steam vessels navigating those waters. So far from questioning the full authority of the general government, it would be much more easy to doubt the power of any state to exercise jurisdiction over navigable waters common to two or more states, and which were necessary to “commerce among the states.”

And even if it were admitted that the separate states might exercise such jurisdiction, a serious, if not insuperable obstacle is interposed by the constitution to any permanent or efficient co-operation by states having navigable waters in common, for the purpose of improving the navigation of such waters.

This could be accomplished only by prospective arrangements to assess the proportions of expense, to preserve and repair the works constructed, and to provide the necessary supervision for their maintenance. These objects would require the adoption of mutual stipulations, which should reach far into the future,—but these would constitute a “treaty,”—and that is absolutely prohibited by the 10th section of the first article of the constitution, which declares “that no state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation.”

And these considerations in themselves furnish a strong argument in favour of the power of Congress, for they prove that it can exist no where else.

EXPEDIENCY OF EXERCISING THE POWER.

Having thus shown what were the avowed objects of the convention that appointed the undersigned, in relation to internal improvements, and rescued it from the misrepresentations which perverted those objects; and having, as we trust, vindicated the power of congress to appropriate money for those objects, we will now proceed to discuss the *expediency* of the exercise of that power.

Before doing so, permit us to remark that there are duties and obligations of governments and of those who administer them, which cannot be extinguished by any considerations of expediency. As an instance, provisions for the common defence of the country, according to its means may not be neglected. All vati-

cinations of the dangers that may arise from the performance of the duty, can have no influence upon those who have accepted office under an engagement to obey the injunctions of the constitution. If, like some of the religious denunciations among us, they are conscientiously, from any cause, opposed to the execution of the power, their plain duty, as honest men, is to give place to those whose constitutional phantasies or conscientious scruples are not in conflict with their vows.

And viewing the federal government in its relations to the states, there is a source of honourable obligation, more sacred, if possible, than the plain injunctions of the constitution. This arises from the fact that by that instrument the revenues derived from commerce were surrendered by the states to the general government, for the purpose and with the sole object of having them applied to the common interests which it was the design of the confederacy to protect and maintain. And they were thus surrendered under the pledge given in the preamble of the constitution, that it was framed to provide for the common defence and promote the general welfare. The states were thus deprived of the appropriate sources of revenue to improve and increase the facilities of the business which produced that revenue; and they were, as has been shown, effectually denied all power over it. Can it be supposed that the sagacious advocates of state rights and interests of that day intended to deliver up to the care of the federal government their respective states, thus stripped of the means of securing the first elements of their prosperity, and thus manacled and fettered, without an equivalent? And what was that equivalent? The only one which the case admitted—namely, the substitution of the federal government for the exercise of those powers and the performance of those co-relative duties which the exigency of the confederacy forbade to the states. In the very nature of things the federal government took the place, and received the powers, and thereby assumed those duties of the states respectively which they could not separately exercise consistent with the peace and prosperity of the whole. This was the great compromise of the constitution. And an obligation results from it upon the federal government which it is not at liberty to evade by suggestions, real or pretended, of the difficulties and hazards of performing its duty.

But what are these difficulties and dangers that are so frequently paraded with all the aggravations that may render them tragic, to “frighten us from our propriety?” Let us speak to them, and see whether, like other apparitions of the imagination, they will not dissolve in the light of day.

By classing them, we will better understand their exact dimensions.

It is urged, *First*, That combinations of individual and local interests to obtain appropriations for internal improvements, will be found strong enough to control legislation, absorb the revenues, and plunge the country into hopeless indebtedness.

Second, That the subject is liable to be perverted to the worst of political purposes.

Third, That it is impossible, in the nature of the subject, as connected with local representation, that objects of internal improvement should be weighed according to their respective merits, and appropriations confined to those whose importance would justify the employment of the revenue of the whole community.

And *Fourth*, It is emphatically asked, where shall the exercise of the power stop?

A general reply to all these forebodings of evil, is, that they are precisely such as have always been proclaimed by the adversaries of free government and of popular institutions, in Europe and in this country. Our plan of a representative democracy, in which popular sentiment should be felt, was always regarded by them as pregnant with dangers. Combinations of powerful individuals, of great states and local interests, have been freely predicted

as the inevitable result of the wide scope given for their operation, by our institutions. In vain have we urged the system of checks interposed against hasty and improvident legislation. In vain have we pointed to the diversified interests of the various sections of our country, as affording counteracting influences upon each other which must for ever prevent the predominance of any one; to the long term of service of the senate, and to the executive veto, and finally to the judicial power to arrest unconstitutional enactments. We have been answered by references to the ancient republics and their inability to restrain combinations, and more particularly to the disastrous results of the French revolution of 1794, as having been produced mainly by the dictation of combined clubs. As our arguments seemed to make no impression, we quietly waited for the proof of the sufficiency of our government to maintain liberty consistently with public order and public interests, to be developed by our history. Nearly sixty years of uninterrupted prosperity, with continual concessions to popular liberty, have furnished the expected proof. And in the meanwhile, what has become of those governments in which it was supposed the dangers to be apprehended from these combinations, were most effectually obviated by monarchical or aristocratic power? They have passed away and evaporated, like flax at the touch of flame. And this is our answer to all such forebodings; our fathers surveyed the ground calmly and deliberately, they were fully apprized of all the hazards attending the experiment, and yet they decided that the happiness of themselves, and their posterity, demanded that they should be encountered.

Similar predictions of evil were made by those who opposed the adoption of the constitution. The powers of congress were represented as overshadowing the states; the danger of combinations was dwelt upon, and state sovereignty and individual liberty were to be absorbed by the monster of their imaginations. The patriotic Patrick Henry, as their chief exponent, objected particularly to the power of TAXATION given to congress, and maintained that "it was impossible to select any subject of general taxation which would not operate unequally on different sections of the union, produce discontent and heartburnings among the people, and most probably terminate in open resistance to the laws." He objected also to the power of raising armies and building navies, and to the control of the general government over the militia, which, with the power of taxation, he represented, gave to congress the sword in one hand and the purse in the other, and declared, "unless a miracle in human affairs shall interpose, no nation ever did, or can ever retain its liberty, after the loss of the sword and purse." The treaty-making power was arraigned as a most dangerous feature, "inasmuch as it put it in the power of the president and any ten senators who might represent the five smallest states, to enter into the most ruinous foreign engagements, and even to cede away the territory of the larger states." That the pay of the members of congress was to be fixed by themselves, was also considered a very dangerous power. The anticipations of evil then indulged, might be multiplied almost indefinitely. But these are sufficient for the purpose for which they are adduced, which is to show that the conceded and uncontroverted powers of congress, are exposed to the same charges of liability to perversion, abuse and corruption, which have been so freely made against the power in question, and to show also the utter fallacy of all such prophecies.

Indeed, it is inseparable from any power to do good, that it may be perverted to evil. And the history of all governments establishes one melancholy fact, that human ingenuity has not yet devised any perfect remedy for human infirmity. The theories of other governments have placed the check on this liability to abuse, in the hands of a few, supposed to be the most intelligent and virtuous of the community. Our theory is directly the reverse; it places the restraining and remedial power in the hands of the many—of the great mass who are interested in

preserving liberty, restraining factious combinations, and sustaining law and order. To say then, that the people themselves are or will become so corrupt and selfish that they cannot be trusted in the choice of representatives to legislate on this or any other subject—that it will be impossible to have just and rational legislation on any matter, in consequence of combinations of individual and local interests, and that these combinations are liable to be perverted to the worst of political purposes, is in effect assailing democracy and representative governments in their very citadel. It is in open conflict with the first principle of our institutions—the moral and political capacity of the people to govern themselves, and with the American doctrine, which teaches that there is more safety in large numbers—in the masses, than in any individual, whether he be a president or a king.

Having ourselves a firm faith in this doctrine—a faith strengthened and confirmed by our own history, and by what is passing at this moment on the European continent—a faith delivered to us by our fathers, and consecrated by their blood, we cannot surrender it. Nor do we believe that the representatives of the people and the states in congress will be the first to renounce and repudiate it, by declaring themselves to be unworthy and incapable, by reason of individual and local interests, to legislate upon any subject committed to their care by the constitution.

But we deny that there is more selfishness, more local and private interests to influence legislation on the subject of internal improvements, than upon many other subjects within the acknowledged competency of congress. Take, for instance, the power to lay and collect imposts; in other words, the establishment of a tariff of duties on importations. Where is there a greater opportunity for the combination of local and individual interests, to promote selfish purposes at the expense of the country? What subject is more liable to be perverted to political purposes? What presents greater difficulty as connected with local representation, in adjusting the proper subjects for revenue, and the proper amounts to be charged on them?—And yet, has not this very question been repeatedly agitated in congress and disposed of, without producing any of those direful consequences? We therefore dismiss these fears to the same tomb that contains the evil prophecies of the monarchists of Europe. We have outlived and falsified them. We have proved that our people are not so selfish and unprincipled, and their representatives not so corrupt and profligate, as to be unworthy of a power to legislate upon a subject of the deepest interest to themselves.

But we are asked, where is this system to stop? We answer, where the necessities of foreign commerce and commerce among the states stop—when the country has adequate harbors for the shelter of its navy and its commercial marine on our sea coast and on our lakes—when the means of communication from the centre to every assailable point of our frontier, and from supporting distances along that frontier to each other, shall have been established and rendered as commodious as modern skill and industry can make them—then the system of appropriation for the common defence, and for facilitating commerce among the states will stop, and heaven forbid that it should stop any sooner. When, and where, we may ask in return, is the business of legislation for this vast country to stop? If the indefinite duration of the exercise of any power forms an objection to its being exercised at all, then your honorable bodies should adjourn, and leave the country without any regulation.

We are told that the policy of embarking the general government in appropriations for internal improvements, had its origin but little more than twenty years ago, and that it became so alarming as to require the strong and stern interposition of President Jackson to arrest its progress. General Jackson himself states, that the practice of appropriating money from the treasury of the United States for the establishment and support of light-houses, beacons, buoys, and public piers, to render navigation safe and easy, “is coeval with the adoption of the constitution, and has been continued without interruption or dispute.”

If any corroboration of his testimony be required, it will be found by referring to an official report made under a call of the senate, by the distinguished head of the topographical engineers, on the 7th of January, 1847, and transmitted to the senate by the present secretary of war, being number 44 of the executive documents of the second session of the 29th congress. Annexed to this report is a recapitulation of the appropriations made in each year "for the construction and repair of roads, and the improvement of harbors," reaching back to the administration of Mr. Jefferson, which, being condensed, shows those made during the different administrations, as follows:—

Under Mr. Jefferson,	-	-	-	-	\$48,400
“ Mr. Madison,	-	-	-	-	250,800
“ Mr. Monroe,	-	-	-	-	707,621
“ Mr. J. Q. Adams,	-	-	-	-	2,310,475
“ Gen. Jackson,	-	-	-	-	10,582,882
“ Mr. Van Buren,	-	-	-	-	2,222,544
“ Mr. Tyler, -	-	-	-	-	1,076,500

This topic has, however, been so fully and ably discussed recently, by a member of the present house of representatives from Connecticut, and the fallacy of the statement we have quoted, so thoroughly and triumphantly exposed, as to render quite unnecessary any farther comment from us.

FALLACY OF THE PROPOSED EXPEDIENT OF STATE TONNAGE DUTY.

But to provide some remedy for the admitted wants of the country, a suggestion has been brought out, which, if not original, has all the freshness of novelty. It is, that there is no occasion for the exercise of this power by congress, because "the constitution itself indicates a process by which harbors and rivers within the states may be improved—a process not susceptible of the abuses necessarily (supposed) to flow from the assumption of the power to impose them by the general government, just in its operation, and actually practised upon during more than thirty years from the organization of the present government." And we are told this process is indicated by a passage in the last clause of the 10th section of the first article of the constitution, by which it is provided that "no state shall, without the consent of congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace," &c. And the laying of a tonnage duty by the states with the consent of congress, is recommended as a safe provision to accomplish all the desired objects; and among its safe-guards it is specified that the funds raised "are to be in every instance levied upon the commerce of those ports which are to profit by the proposed improvement." And it is stated, that it appears in Mr. Madison's report of the proceedings of the convention, "that one object of the reservation was, that the states should not be restrained from laying duties of tonnage for the purpose of clearing harbors."

It is deemed necessary, to a full understanding of the clause, that what was actually said should be known. The report referred to says: "Mr. M^rHenry and Mr. Carroll moved that 'no state shall be restrained from laying duties of tonnage for the purpose of clearing harbors and erecting light-houses.' Col. Mason, in support of this, explained and urged the situation of the Chesapeake, which peculiarly required expenses of this sort. Mr. Madison observed that there were other objects for tonnage duties, as the support of seamen, &c. He was more and more convinced that the regulation of commerce was in its nature indivisible, and ought to be wholly under one authority." (Madison papers, 3d, p. 1587.)

It appears, then, that the establishment of light-houses was as much an object of the reservation to the states as the clearing of harbors. If then, the argument derived from the debates prove any thing, it proves that the maintenance of light houses by the general government is not a power granted by

the constitution, and that they should be sustained by tonnage duties imposed by the states. And light boats, buoys, and beacons, must stand upon the same footing. The practice of the government, as already shown, has given a very different interpretation. The congress has assumed these duties without state legislation, and no one has yet been so hardy or reckless as to deny its power and its duty to do so.

The writers of the essays collected under the title of "The Federalist," nowhere speak of this reserved power of laying a tonnage duty, and the quotation from No. 44 of that work, which has been cited as applicable to this subject, has no reference whatever to it, but relates wholly to the reserved power of laying duties on imports and exports.

It seems to your memorialists quite evident that under this reservation to the states of the right to lay a "duty on tonnage," it must be confined to the vessels of the state imposing it, and to foreign vessels, for by the sixth clause of the ninth section of the first article of the constitution, it is provided as follows: "No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one state over those of another: nor shall vessels bound to or from one state, be obliged to enter, clear, or *pay duties* in another." We are unable to comprehend how, under this prohibition, vessels navigating from one state to another, can, by any act of a state, with or without the consent of congress, be obliged to pay a tonnage duty in such other state. The provision operates to make common highways of all the navigable waters of the states, to vessels bound to or from one state, and by its terms, precludes what might otherwise be claimed, a reasonable toll or compensation for making or keeping such highways in proper condition for use.

The history of the times and of the debates in the convention furnishes abundant evidence, that among the evils of the confederation no one was deemed so intolerable and so destructive of the harmony and peace of the states or so ruinous to their commerce as the local duties imposed by several states upon cargoes and tonnage; and it seems to have been a primary object, utterly and for ever to abolish and prohibit them. And to this feeling do we attribute the clause in question.*

And we find that the qualification we have intimated, has been recognised in several of the acts of the states imposing tonnage duties, which have received the sanction of congress, and which have been specially communicated to your honourable Houses.—Thus, the act of May 6, 1796, gives the consent of congress to an act of Maryland, "so far as to enable the state aforesaid to collect one per cent. per ton upon all vessels coming into the district of Baltimore from a foreign voyage." And the act of February 28, 1806, gives the like consent that the state of Pennsylvania "may collect a duty of four cents per ton upon all vessels clearing out of Philadelphia for any port or place." By the act of March 28, 1806, consent is given to an act of South Carolina, authorizing "the city of Charleston to levy a duty not exceeding six cents per ton upon vessels entering the port of Charleston from any foreign port or place whatever." And by the act of April 29, 1816, the like consent is given to an act of the same state, for collecting a duty of ten cents per ton upon vessels from a foreign port.

Having no purpose to mislead, we state also, that we find several of the acts of congress referred to, assenting to laws of the states levying tonnage duties on ships and vessels, in some cases generally and without discrimination, and

* [The late decision of the Supreme Court of the United States on the question of the constitutionality of the passenger tax by New York and Massachusetts, declares, that this clause of the constitution, was a limitation upon the power of Congress to regulate commerce, for the purpose of producing entire commercial uniformity within the states; and also a prohibition upon the states to destroy such uniformity by any legislation prescribing a condition upon which vessels bound from one state shall enter the port of another state.—Ed.]

in others, expressly including coasting vessels. We find but eleven distinct ports or rivers in the United States which have been the subject of these acts. In respect to three of them, as above stated, the duty is confined to foreign vessels. In some of the others, the improvements are entirely local, and of a character which does not come within the facilities for "commerce among the states," as defined by the Chicago convention.—Of the acts referred to, three of them assenting to the laws of Alabama, do not impose tonnage duties upon vessels, but tolls upon specific articles for passing artificial structures—of most questionable validity.—Another, consenting to an act of North Carolina, to provide funds for a hospital, levies a tax upon seamen not upon vessels. Another sanctions an act of Georgia by which the harbor master and health officer of Savannah and St. Mary, are authorized to collect tonnage duties in full of their demands for official duties. A rigid examination of others of these acts would show that they are entitled to very little weight, as constructive of the constitution. States are employed as agencies in establishing marine hospitals, and officers of the United States are made subservient to local authorities, and other provisions are sanctioned, which at this day would find no support from any quarter.

But whatever may be the weight of these precedents, in the estimation of those who regard the continuous acts of congress, acquiesced in by the people, as just expositions of constitutional power—yet, if they are urged as being in conflict with the authority of congress which we claim, we submit that the number, variety and extent of the acts which have asserted the power of the federal government to make appropriations for internal improvements, within the limits and for the purposes indicated by our constituents, greatly outweigh in point of authority the laws assenting to state duties on tonnage. But we confess our inability to appreciate the consistency of those who quote these acts as establishing the sense of the founders of our republic, and at the same time deny to other and more numerous acts of the same persons, the least respect as constitutional expositions.

But, in truth, these acts are not in conflict—they do not assert any antagonist principles. With the exceptions hereafter mentioned, a state may be authorized by congress to levy duties of tonnage for local improvements, and for creating facilities for foreign commerce, and for commerce among the states, and yet congress may make appropriations for the same objects. And such in fact has been the practice of the government. In aid of the state duties to improve the navigation of the Delaware bay, congress has appropriated more than two millions of dollars. For improving the harbor of Baltimore, for which state tonnage duties have been levied, there have been appropriations by congress to the amount of more than fifty thousand dollars. And in like manner, more than one hundred thousand dollars have been appropriated for improving the navigation of the Savannah river, notwithstanding the duties on tonnage levied by the state of Georgia, with the assent of congress for that purpose. Conceding for the purpose of further consideration, that both powers are possessed by congress, is it not evidently one of those cases of sound judgment and discretion, which our constitution intended to leave to the decision of those more immediately and practically acquainted with all the circumstances—the representatives of the people, to adopt the mode which should be most effectual?

And here we would remark what significant proof do these appropriations by the federal government furnish of the utter and total inadequacy, under the most favourable circumstances, as in the cases of Baltimore and Savannah, of these state tonnage duties, to accomplish the objects intended.

But it seems to have been strangely forgotten, that an insuperable objection exists to the exercise of this power by the states, of levying tonnage duties upon vessels navigating the navigable waters leading into the Mississippi and the St. Lawrence rivers. It arises from the terms of the fourth article

of "the articles of compact between the original states and the people and states" in the territory which, in 1787, constituted the territory of the United States northwest of the river Ohio. Those articles are, perhaps, the most sacred among the "engagements" entered into before the adoption of the constitution, whose validity and perpetual obligation are asserted and secured by the sixth article of that instrument. The fourth article of that compact provides thus: "The navigable waters leading into the Mississippi and St. Lawrence, and the carrying places between the same, shall be common highways, and for ever free, as well to the inhabitants of the said territory, as to the citizens of the United States, and those of any other states that may be admitted into the confederacy, without any tax, impost or duty therefor." This last word in the passage quoted "therefor," is exceedingly emphatic and comprehensive. These waters are declared "common highways,"—the characteristic quality of which is, that they may be used without any charge; but as if this were not sufficient to preclude all cavil, it is further declared that there shall be no "tax, impost, or duty therefor"—for using them as common highways. By the comprehensive term "navigable waters," is included not only the lakes leading into the St. Lawrence, but the rivers flowing into them, as well as the great rivers like the Ohio, leading into the Mississippi and the navigable waters flowing into those rivers. These are "for ever free" from any tax or duty, for using them. It is, therefore, manifestly impossible for any state, with or without the consent of congress, to levy any "duty of tonnage" upon vessels navigating those waters and streams, for using them as common highways. Thus, it will be seen, that some of the most essential facilities to navigation, such as clearing the shoals or flats in Lake St. Clair, and removing obstructions in rivers leading into the St. Lawrence or Mississippi, can never be accomplished by the levying of tonnage duties upon vessels navigating them.

In the view of the undersigned, the clause in the compact of 1787 which has been quoted, strikingly exhibits the common feeling and understanding of our forefathers in relation to commercial intercourse between the states.

A still more important inference may be drawn from this provision in the compact. The ordinance in which it is contained, provides for the erection of many states out of the territory to which it relates.—The framers of that ordinance had witnessed the annoyances and collisions to which trade and navigation in the confederated states had been subjected by the local impositions of the different states; they saw in prospect what our eyes behold—a chain of states bounded or intersected by the great lakes, the Mississippi and the rivers flowing into them and the St. Lawrence, having those common water courses to conduct them to a market. And they were admonished by the examples of the old world, that interest, ambition and rivalry would stimulate those states to efforts to enrich themselves, if not to depress their neighbours, by endless exactions upon the vessels that should pass through their respective territories. And the wonderful forecast which distinguishes the whole instrument, in nothing exhibited itself so pre-eminently, as by this single provision which closed for ever this fountain of bitterness and strife.

Insurmountable obstacles of a similar character, to any imposition of tonnage duties upon vessels navigating the Mississippi, are presented by the compacts made by the federal government with several states bordering on that river, upon their admission into the union. Thus by the act for the admission of the state of Louisiana, April 8, 1812, it is provided as a condition of its admission that "the river Mississippi and the navigable rivers and waters leading into the same, and into the gulf of Mexico, shall be common highways, and for ever free as well to the inhabitants of the said state as to inhabitants of other states without any tax, duty, impost or toll therefor, imposed by the said state;" a similar provision in all respects is inserted in the act for the formation of the state of Mississippi, March 1, 1817; a condition of the same

kind is incorporated in the act authorizing a state government for Missouri, March 6, 1820. The act for the admission of Arkansas, (June 15, 1836,) imposes the same conditions and restrictions in relation to the Mississippi and its tributaries. The act of March 3, 1845, for the admission of Iowa, has the same provision declaring the Mississippi and the navigable waters leading into the same, for ever free to all citizens of the United States without any tax, duty, impost or toll therefor imposed by the said state. The act authorizing the people of Wisconsin to form a state government, August 6, 1846, provides that the river Mississippi and all other rivers and waters bordering on the Wisconsin, "and the navigable waters leading into the same, shall be common highways and for ever free, as well to the inhabitants of the said state, as to all other citizens of the United States, without any tax, duty, impost or toll therefor." And thus we see the noble Mississippi, from its mouth to its extremest source, by compact after compact, and at every step and stage of the organization of the vast communities on its borders, guarded and protected from the burdens now sought to be fastened upon it.

What then becomes of the proposed expedient of state tonnage duties, as a mode of furnishing means for improving the rivers and harbors of our wide-spreading country? Is it not utterly inadequate, baseless and fallacious? We see that all our navigable waters in the vast valley of the Mississippi and in the great basin of the lakes, by the most solemn compacts, are for ever exonerated from the imposition of any such burden, and this grand division of our national improvements, embracing the largest geographical portion of our territory,—a portion already all but predominant in political and commercial importance,—can be accomplished only by the authority and at the expense of the general government. But would it be either just or expedient, that the navigation of these great interior waters, thus shielded from the power of the states, should be improved and maintained at the common expense, while the residue of our rivers and harbors on the Atlantic coast and the gulf of Mexico, similarly situated in all respects as to the prohibition against duties, should receive no aid from the same source? Equal and exact justice requires that the common funds should be equally and fairly distributed for the common purposes in all parts of the union. The undersigned would utterly misrepresent the feelings and sentiments of those who appointed them, were they to claim for the inhabitants of any of the eighteen states represented in the Chicago convention, any peculiar or local protection or benefit not conceded to all their fellow citizens.

And here we might close our objections to the proposed expedient of state tonnage duties, having shown that in respect to the greatest portion of our navigable waters, its adoption is legally impossible, and that with regard to the others, it would be partial, inequitable and unjust; but there are other points of view in which the project may be examined, of such practical importance, and of such disastrous consequences to the whole country, that we deem it a duty to present them, in the hope that it may never again meet the favour of any statesman.

The principle itself of local duties for any such purpose, is unsound and delusive. Higher duties, of any kind, at one port than at others, must necessarily drive from it every ship that is not compelled by circumstances, or induced by some preponderating benefit to enter it. And consequently, if a harbor is avoided on account of the natural obstructions to its entrance, it will be still more avoided if artificial difficulties and impositions are super-added, so that the resources of such a port would be diminished instead of being increased, and the policy would defeat itself. It is believed that some ports of the United States have already furnished instances of such results.

The system is utterly inapplicable for the removal of obstructions in navigable waters which are common to several states and are navigated by vessels which do not enter any harbor adjacent to such obstructions. Take as an

instance, the shoals or flats in lake St. Clair, which impede the navigation of all vessels passing from Lake Michigan into Lake Erie, or from the latter into the former. These vessels are under no necessity to enter any port within hundreds of miles of these obstructions. Where shall the tonnage duty be collected? In this case how many states will be the collectors of the duty? And under whose direction is the amount to be concentrated and expended? And what are the responsibilities for its application by the collecting states? But supposing a collector's office established on the shore near the obstructions, re-enforced by a battery sufficient to compel the vessels to come to and pay their duties, are these to be collected by the agents of the state of Michigan, and to be expended by them or other agents under the regulations of the state? How long is it probable such a system of exactions would be submitted to by the states of Illinois, Wisconsin, Ohio, Pennsylvania and New York, whose citizens and vessels would be the subjects of this operation?

The same question may be put in relation to the duties levied by any state bordering on the Mississippi, to remove the snags and other obstructions in that river opposite their respective territories. The several states of Wisconsin, Iowa, Illinois, Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, Mississippi and Louisiana, have jurisdiction over portions of that river, and it is presumed that in each of those portions there are obstructions of some kind requiring removal. Are tonnage duties for these purposes to be levied by each of those states? As their jurisdiction extends to the thread of the river, would there not be some difficulty in adjusting the work to be performed, among the states opposite to the obstructions to be removed? For fear of overcharging the picture, we will say nothing of the interminable discussions likely to arise respecting the faithful and judicious application, by the agents of the individual states, of the duties collected, to the destined purpose. If the wit of man were taxed to devise a scheme utterly destructive of all trade, commerce and navigation upon these waters, a better one for the purpose than this, of artificially obstructing them by hosts of collectors of tonnage duties imposed by local legislation, could not be framed.

Allow us to refresh the memories of those who have forgotten the consequences of such a system, which prevailed under the articles of confederation and before the adoption of the constitution, by a few quotations from Mr. Madison's introduction to the debates of the convention. "The same want of a general power over commerce, (he observes) led to an exercise of the power separately by the states, which not only proved abortive, but engendered rival, conflicting and angry regulations. Besides the vain attempts to supply their respective treasuries by imposts, which turned their commerce into the neighbouring ports, * * * the states having ports for foreign commerce taxed and irritated the adjoining states trading through them." "In sundry instances, the navigation laws treated the citizens of other states as aliens." "New Jersey, placed between Philadelphia and New York, was likened to a cask tapped at both ends; and North Carolina, between Virginia and South Carolina, to a patient bleeding at both arms."

What could be more disastrous or more lamentable than a return to these interfering, unneighbourly, and intolerable exactions of the states? The Union itself was formed, and the constitution was adopted, for the express purpose of closing up for ever these sources of animosity and discord, and these injurious impediments to intercourse between different parts of our country, as the contemporaneous history abundantly shows.

Nor are we without the experience of other countries upon this same subject of local duties. In the 22d number of the "Federalist," an account was given of a similar system then existing in a portion of Europe, for the purpose of exciting the American people to its danger and its evils, and thus disposing them to adopt the new constitution, then under discussion. It is as follows: "The commerce of the German empire is in continual trammels, from the

multiplicity of the duties which the several princes and states exact upon the merchandize passing through their territories, by means of which the fine streams and navigable rivers with which Germany is so happily watered, are rendered almost useless." The absurdity of the system has induced several German states to attempt a remedy; and they have established a Zoll Verein, or commercial union, now consisting of eighteen states, who, by a delegated council, impose one set of duties upon the intercourse and trade of the combined states, by land, with other countries, which are collected on the frontiers and distributed among these states, in a prescribed proportion. Still suffering, however, under the numerous and vexatious duties which impede the commerce carried on upon their rivers, they have been striving for years to apply the American system of confederation to their navigable waters also, and nationalize them by one tariff of duties, for the benefit of the whole. And the opportunity which has recently been presented of accomplishing an object of such deep interest and warm desire among the intelligent men of the country, will unquestionably be improved to the utmost. What a singular, and may we not say, humiliating spectacle would our republic present to the world, if we were now to retrograde to a system of local duties similar to those established in barbarous ages, by petty despots, and maintained by feudal violence and oppression!

It is no answer to say that these evils are obviated by the control given to congress, by which injustice would be prevented. The system itself contemplates multitudinous duties of tonnage, by all the states having navigable waters requiring improvement; a positive and intolerable burden by whatever authority imposed or sanctioned. Besides, the efforts to obtain the sanction of congress to the various projects of the states, would at once introduce a new progeny of incalculable evils. The halls of legislation would become the theatres of conflict, by states contending for their peculiar interests; and the system of combinations, so much dreaded in reference to appropriations by congress, would be the only system by which the tonnage duty of states would be established. In order to prevent the inequalities which would induce preferences between the ports of the large states holding the keys of communication to the interior, the duties of such ports must be regulated by those states with a view to equality, and this would be the first step to an inevitable organized combination between them, by which they would tax for their own benefit the products and the industry of their neighbours, under the pretext of improving navigation, by expenditures over which those neighbours, from the very nature of the case, could have no control. In this conflict, what are the probabilities of the success of any efforts that might be made by the small and interior states, to resist oppression? It is unnecessary to follow out the consequences of such a system. The worst predictions of Patrick Henry and his associate opponents of the adoption of the constitution would be more than realized. In the view of these disastrous results, it is difficult to give too broad a construction to that provision of the constitution already quoted, which declares that vessels bound from or to one state shall never be compelled to pay duties in another.

An idea seems to be entertained that these tonnage duties would be paid only by the owners of the shipping on which they were levied. Nothing can be more fallacious; every cent of duty or toll levied upon the means of transportation, enhances the price of the produce transported, and is paid by its owners or consumers. If the competition in the particular article is such that its price cannot exceed a certain maximum, then every new imposition is a tax upon the producer, who cannot be repaid for the additional charge; but if the state of the market allows the producer to fix his own price, then the consumer pays every item of the cost of bringing the article to his hands. So that in the present state of our trade, by the system of local tonnage duties,

the agricultural and mechanical interests of the interior, forming, as they do, the great mass of producers and consumers, would pay the duties levied for the improvement of any navigable waters or of any harbors. And thus it will be seen how unsound is the theory which has been advanced, that these local tonnage duties would be collected "from the commerce of the ports which are to profit by the improvements." Although in the first instance paid by that commerce, yet, as has been shown, they are ultimately taken out of the pockets of the people at large. And as the appropriations for such improvements made by congress must come from the same source, the question at last comes to this point—shall the means for making them be obtained under the local legislation of the states, sanctioned by congress, and expended by those states through their own agents and without responsibility to the whole; or shall they be obtained by the direct consent of the representatives of all who are to pay them, be applied in the mode best calculated to promote the common and general interests of the whole, instead of the local interests of one or a few, and be expended and controlled under the authority of the government that represents all the states, with the assistance of the skill, experience and independence of agents which the government only can supply?

RIGHTS OF THE UNION AND DUTY OF THE GOVERNMENT.

It is emphatically remarked in No. 40 of the Federalist, that "the rights to the fisheries, to the navigation of the lakes, and to that of the Mississippi, are RIGHTS OF THE UNION," as contradistinguished from the rights of particular states. They are indeed national rights, they belong to the whole Union, to each and every state, and to every citizen. This right, in relation to the lakes and the Mississippi, has been consecrated by the compacts and acts to which we have already referred—national in its very nature, it would be a gross dereliction of duty in the federal government to subject it in any form, immediately or remotely, to the action of any state.

It is a grievous mistake to suppose that this glorious union was formed only to produce a unity of political interests. Almost every page of the debates in the convention, and the writings of those who defended the constitution, proclaims that a unity of *commercial interests* was equally the object of its formation. Indeed, the dangers to be apprehended from commercial conflicts were far greater than those which could arise from any other source; and the political organization was in itself chiefly desirable because it combined, regulated, and controlled the conflicting commercial interests of the different states.

No man can cast his eye over the map of the United States without being struck by the wonderful physical adaptation of its surface to the union under one government of the people inhabiting it; a union that should rest not so much upon constitutions and compacts as upon social and commercial interests and feelings, as expansive as the wants and affections of man, and as durable as time. Reaching from ocean to ocean, extending through the temperate into the torrid zone, it presents such a variety of climate and soil, such admirable proportions of land and water, as afford an infinite diversity of employment for labour and enterprise, and must for ever prevent their undue absorption by any one or by a few objects of culture, while they insure the production of the various elements of subsistence, clothing, and even of luxurious indulgence, without resort to any other country. And no country on the face of the globe presents greater capacities for the interchange of these productions. Not to dwell on the wide-spread expanse fed and watered by the Mississippi and navigable confluent, where can be found a commercial parallel for its gigantic course, reaching from the gulf of Mexico 2300 miles to the north-west, where we behold one of its branches within thirty miles of the river Iroquois, which empties into Lake Superior; passing down the most

extraordinary chain of lakes in the known world, 1500 miles to the St. Lawrence, and through that noble river 1000 miles, we reach the ocean through a circuit of 5000 miles. These great conduits—the Mississippi and the St. Lawrence—are supplied by innumerable streams intersecting the whole country in every direction, which may be connected at various points with each other, or with other navigable waters leading to the Atlantic, forming new circuits and channels, and affording water communication to every portion of the Union, capable of bearing freights more conducive to the prosperity of our people than rivers of gold. Immense as this view is, it is but a foretaste of what may be anticipated, when the boundless regions now opening in the West and South shall be thronged with the myriads destined to occupy them.

As the true and sure foundation of all government is in the interests and affections of the people, what more noble and holy duty remains to the statesman than that of completing and perfecting what nature has begun, and giving to our navigable waters their full political power in binding together one brotherhood of freemen? By intercourse the most cheap and unrestrained, and by that alone, can the intelligence and sentiments of the country be brought into contact—interests and affections commingled—mountains of prejudice removed, and the genial spirit of common sympathy be diffused throughout the land.

And shall this vast movement of commerce and intercourse be checked and obstructed by shoals, bars, snags, and driftwood, that are mere pigmy obstacles when compared with the resources of the United States, or with the immense amount of trade which they clog and impede?

The whole amount of the appropriations hitherto made by congress, during nearly sixty years, for works calculated to facilitate internal trade, is less than eighteen millions of dollars—but little more than half of your annual revenue, and probably not equal to three months' expenditure in waging a foreign war! And is this the fulfilment of the mission of civilization, liberty, peace, and prosperity to all, which our fathers undertook under the smiles of heaven? Was our government made only to furnish place, office, and honours to a few, and to afford subjects for political metaphysics? or was it created for the mighty mass of minds and souls that uphold it—to afford them protection not only in the enjoyment of political rights, but in the enjoyment and improvement of the bounties of nature? Every obstruction in a navigable river, every impediment to the entrance of a harbor, enhances the cost of transportation, and to that extent becomes a burden upon the products of labour, and diminishes their value; and thus causes a dead loss to the whole community. And while the nation suffers by this diminution of its capital, the loss falls most heavily on those very classes who compose three-fourths of our population, whose industry and enterprise constitute our wealth in peace and our defence in war.

In no one subject, therefore, are the masses more deeply interested than that which relates to their safe and easy intercourse; and none embraces more persons or greater interests. It is the most essential element in all the calculations of business and in all the arrangements of life. Would it not be most extraordinary, if it were true, that such a subject should be wholly unprovided for in the organization of our governments; and still more, that those governments should be absolutely interdicted from providing in any way for this first want of civilized man. And yet such is the inevitable result if the theories we have combated are sound. It is certain that, by the operation of the constitution, and of compacts which cannot be infringed, all jurisdiction over foreign commerce, and also over commerce among the states, so far as the principal navigable waters are concerned, is denied to the states severally, or to two or more of them united by any alliance for that purpose.

The means and funds arising from commerce, and rightfully applicable to its protection and assistance, have been surrendered by the states to the federal government, and they have neither the power nor the means to meet the exigency. And yet it is contended that the federal government is stripped of all authority to supply the funds thus surrendered, even for the purpose of augmenting its revenues by facilitating and enlarging the commerce that produces them! For you need not be told that your foreign and domestic commerce are one and indissoluble; that without exports you can have no importations, and of course no revenue from imposts. And yet it is gravely maintained that the national arm is paralyzed, so that it cannot raise a finger to remove a sand bar, or dig a trench, which would release annually millions upon millions of the products of your soil, and float them to every market of the world, to purchase these exchanges.

The objection that the grant of power "to regulate commerce" does not authorize appropriations merely to facilitate it,—to render it more safe and convenient,—it is obvious, applies to all kinds of commerce equally, to that with foreign nations, to that among the states, and to that with the Indian tribes. And it applies, also, to every species and degree of facility. If you may build a public pier, you may build two, and clear the entrance of a harbor; if you may survey your coasts to ascertain the sunken rocks or other hidden dangers of navigation, and may erect a buoy or light-house, or station a light-boat, to warn the mariner of those dangers, surely you may remove the rocks themselves, or deepen the shoals that cause the danger. No subtlety can distinguish them in principle. And the true issue is, whether you will repudiate the construction so universally given in this and all other cases, to the power "to regulate," and abandon the system for the improvement of the Indian tribes,—renounce the authority to constitute territorial governments, and provide for the wants of the citizens subjected to them,—and give up your coast surveys, your buoys, light-houses, and public piers as subjects altogether beyond your competency; or whether you will faithfully and fairly apply the principles co-eval with our government, which have been sanctioned by the most severe of the construction school, and by the whole people in repeated instances, to objects clearly and palpably within the range of those principles? The question upon this issue can meet but one response; it never has met but one response, when public sentiment has been permitted to speak through its representatives: and that response has been, and ever will be, that the general government not only has the right, but is bound, by every principle of good faith, to apply the common funds of the nation to those improvements of the means of intercourse which are beyond the power of the means of the states. The expression of that sentiment may have been temporarily stifled by false alarms, or by combinations of party interests, deemed at the time paramount to other considerations. But when these transient clouds have passed away, it has burst forth over and over again in all its effulgence and strength. The convention whose proceedings we transmit furnishes a memorable proof, which no hardihood can question, of the universality and strength of that sentiment. It was sufficient to absorb all party impulses, to defy all political organizations, and to unite on one common platform of faith and action multitudes from a large majority of the states of this union, who probably never before agreed upon any subject.

And we cannot forbear calling your attention to the stern language in which that convention rebuked and disavowed every attempt to connect the cause of internal trade and "commerce among the states" with the fortunes of any political party. It was the language of truth and of manly firmness and sincerity. But the same resolution displays the fixed determination of our constituents to press on and persevere in their efforts, regardless of party ties and associations, until the principles which they proclaimed shall be re-esta-

blished and recognised by all parties as the great elements of the political and social vitality of these confederated states.

We appeal, then, to you, representatives of the people of the states, to represent and reflect faithfully those deep-seated sentiments of that people, to satisfy their just and reasonable wants, to consult their vital interests, to perform a plain duty under the constitution, to redeem the faith plighted at its adoption, and to pursue firmly and steadily the path marked out by our wise and patriotic fathers. We and those whom we represent ask not a reckless course of extravagant appropriations for internal improvements. We deprecate it, not only for its folly and wickedness, but because it would be most fatal to the continuance of just and reasonable expenditures. We are aware that the objects which will be presented to your attention are numerous and various, but this only proves how great and pressing is the necessity of your action. Many of these objects are equally worthy, but there are some which, on account of the magnitude of the commerce concerned, the difficulties and expenses of the undertaking, or rather peculiar causes, may justly challenge priority of consideration. Plans for the gradual accomplishment of the most important objects in just and regular succession, by moderate appropriations, have been laid before congress. Let these plans be pursued, while promiscuous and desultory expenditures are carefully avoided. Let the sanction of the disinterested, able, and scientific corps of topographical engineers, already provided for the purpose, be required to every plan of improvement after thorough investigation of its merits, and let rigid estimates of all its expenses be submitted before it be undertaken, that all may judge of the proportion between its cost and its value.

And having thus provided the sure means of detecting useless or frivolous projects, or those requiring inordinate expenditures, there can be no danger of combinations to execute them, which will not be met and overcome by the honesty, disinterestedness, and intelligence of the American congress. The people are willing to trust their representatives—let not those representatives exhibit to the world the spectacle of refusing to trust themselves.

Signed by and in behalf of the members of the executive committee of the Chicago convention.

May, 1848.

ABBOTT LAWRENCE,	} Mass.	T. I. BIGHAM,	} Penn.
JOHN MILLS,		JOHN B. JOHNSON,	
*JOHN C. SPENCER,	} N. York.	RUFUS KING,	} Wis'n.
SAMUEL B. RUGGLES,		CYRUS WOODMAN,	
JAMES T. MOREHEAD,	Kent'ky.	THOS. BUTLER KING,	} Georgia.
JACOB G. SLEIGHT,	} Indiana.	WM. B. HODGSON,	
ZEBULON BAIRD,		J. G. CAMP,	Florida.
THOMAS ALLEN,	} Missouri.	JOSEPH R. WILLIAMS,	} Mich.
JOS. M. CONVERSE,		DAVID A. NOBLE,	
ALEXANDER DUNCAN,	} Rh. Isl'd.	CHARLES JARVIS,	} Maine.
ZACHARIAH ALLEN,		GEORGE EVANS,	
GEORGE C. STONE,	} Iowa.	DAVID J. BARKER,	} Illinois.
WM. B. EWING,		JESSE B. THOMAS,	
JAMES HALL,	} Ohio.	CHARLES KING,	} N. Jersey.
JOS. L. WEATHERLY,		L. KIRKPATRICK,	
THOMAS W. WILLIAMS,	} Conn.	JAMES WILSON,	} N. Hamp.
PHILIP RIPLEY,		JOHN PAGE,	

* This able paper is without doubt from the pen of Mr. Spencer. We had intended to insert with it the report on the Memphis memorial, the production of Mr. Calhoun's logical and powerful mind, but did not receive the copy promised us in time for this number.—Ed.

ADDRESS OF THE PEACE CONGRESS OF EUROPE AND AMERICA.

In the month of September last, a congress was held in the city of Brussels, whose great object was to promote and secure permanent peace among the civilized nations of the earth, by finding, if possible, an efficient substitute for the bloody, uncertain, and costly arbitrament of war. The congress was composed of numerous individuals, speaking various languages, living under diverse forms of government, and entertaining different political opinions and religious convictions, but drawn together by a common sentiment of humanity, and an ardent desire to promote the welfare of mankind, by removing the causes and incentives to war.

The eminent position which you occupy in the councils of the nations of Europe and America, induces the congress, of which we are the representatives, to submit to your serious consideration the great and important questions which formed the subject of their anxious deliberations; and respectfully, yet earnestly, to invite your attention to the conclusions at which they arrived. They will be found embodied in the following resolutions:

1st. That, in the judgment of this congress, an appeal to arms for the purpose of deciding disputes among nations, is a custom condemned alike by religion, reason, justice, humanity, and the best interests of the people; and that, therefore, it considers it to be the duty of the civilized world to adopt measures calculated to effect its entire abolition.

2d. That it is of the highest importance to urge on the several governments of Europe and America, the necessity of introducing a clause into all international treaties, providing for the settlement of all disputes by arbitration, in an amicable manner, and according to the rules of justice and equity—special arbitrators, or a supreme international court, to be invested with power to decide in cases of necessity as a last resort.

3d. That the speedy convocation of a congress of nations, composed of duly appointed representatives, for the purpose of framing a well digested and authoritative international code, is of the greatest importance, inasmuch as the organization of such a body, and the unanimous adoption of such a code, would be an effectual means of promoting universal peace.

4th. That this congress respectfully calls the attention of civilized governments to the necessity of a general and simultaneous disarmament, as a means whereby they may greatly diminish the financial burdens which press upon them; remove a fertile cause of irritation and inquietude; inspire mutual confidence; and promote the interchange of good offices, which, while they advance the interests of each state in particular, contribute largely to the maintenance of general peace, and to the lasting prosperity of nations.

These substitutes for war, adopted by the congress, require no arguments to enforce them, for it is evident that if they be adopted and applied, that terrible scourge of humanity will cease to afflict and degrade the nations.

Few, if any, of the wars, which, for centuries past, have desolated the earth, can be justified on the ground of equity, utility, or necessity; nor can any one of them be cited whose fearful results are not loudly condemned by the voice of humanity and religion. The war-spirit of past generations has loaded most, if not all civilized nations, with enormous debts, paralyzed their industry, interrupted their commerce, retarded the progress of science, literature, and art, and created a spirit of jealousy and animosity among the nations which long years of peace have not been able completely to subdue.

Europe, at this moment, presents the melancholy spectacle of an "armed peace." Her mighty legions are ready to take the field; and it is feared, that under these melancholy circumstances, a single spark from the torch of war may wrap the world in flames: may God avert so terrible a catastrophe!

The great questions of peace and war are confided to the hands of those to whom the government of the nations has been intrusted. Their responsibility is as great as their power; and while the congress would earnestly pray that "The God of Peace" may deign to preside over their counsels, it would implore them, in the name of the dearest interests of humanity, civilization, and religion, promptly to adopt the most effective measures for preventing a return of the horrors of war, and for securing to all nations the blessings of a solid and lasting peace.

The substitution of arbitration for war would be an immense step towards this object, the principle and the means for giving it effect, might be embodied in special treaties, but the progress of sound political opinions leads still farther. The convening of a congress, composed of the most enlightened and eminent men of all countries, for the purpose of framing an international code, which shall place the relations between the different nations on a solid and intelligent basis; and the institution of a high court of nations, for the final adjudication of questions in accordance with the great and comprehensive principles of such a code, would not only remove the causes of war, but cement a noble and holy alliance between both government and people.

In anticipation of so great a result, it is desirable that the necessity of a general and simultaneous disarmament should take place, as such an act, without compromising the dignity or impairing the strength of governments, would be the surest guarantee for the preservation of general peace, and the advancement of public prosperity.

The congress is fully aware that the force of circumstances, the progress of modern industry and commerce, the greater facility and frequency of communication between the nations, the diffusion of knowledge, and the more elevated sentiments of humanity and religion, all tend to prevent the recurrence of war; but it is not less assured that it remains with the governments of the civilized world to put an end to that fatal and sanguinary custom, by adopting those wise and necessary measures which shall lead to so happy a result.

In submitting to statesmen the recommendations embodied in the resolutions, the congress entertains a just and legitimate confidence that they will not be disregarded; and that the governments of Europe and America, animated by an ardent and sincere desire to promote the welfare of the great commonwealth of nations, will determine, as in the performance of a sacred duty, to give them a practical application, and thus aid in securing the peace of the world.

AUGUSTE VISSCHERS, Belgium, *President*.

WILLIAM EWART,	England,	} <i>Vice Presidents.</i>
ELIHU BURRITT,	U. States,	
FRANCISQUE BOUVET,	France,	
M. SURINGER,	Holland,	

THE ARCTIC EXPEDITION.

LADY FRANKLIN'S LETTER TO PRESIDENT TAYLOR.

Bedford Place, London, April 4, 1849.

SIR: I address myself to you as the head of a great nation, whose power to help me I cannot doubt, and in whose disposition to do so I have a confidence which I trust you will not deem presumptuous.

The name of my husband, Sir JOHN FRANKLIN, is probably not unknown to you. It is intimately connected with the northern part of that continent of which the American republic forms so vast and conspicuous a portion. When

I visited the United States, three years ago, among the many proofs I received of respect and courtesy, there was none which touched and even surprised me more than the appreciation every where expressed to me of his former services in geographical discovery, and the interest felt in the enterprise in which he was then known to be engaged.

The expedition fitted out by our government for the discovery of the north-west passage, (that question which for 300 years has engaged the interest and baffled the energies of the man of science and the navigator,) sailed under my husband's command in May, 1845. The two ships, "Erebus" and "Terror," contained 138 men, (officers and crews,) and were victualled for three years. They were not expected home, unless success had early rewarded their efforts, or some casualty hastened their return, before the close of 1847; nor were any tidings expected from them in the interval. But when the autumn of 1847 arrived, without any intelligence of the ships, the attention of her majesty's government was directed to the necessity of searching for and conveying relief to them, in case of their being imprisoned in ice or wrecked, and in want of provisions and means of transport. For this purpose, an expedition, in three divisions, was fitted out in the early part of last year, directed to three different quarters, simultaneously, namely:

First, to that by which, in case of success, the ships would come out of the Polar Sea to the westward, (or Behring's Strait.)

Second, to that by which they entered on their course of discovery on the eastern side, (or Davis's Strait.)

And third, to an intervening portion of the Arctic shore, approachable by land from the Hudson Bay Company's settlements, on which it was supposed the crews, if obliged to abandon their ships, might be found.

This last division of the expedition was placed under the command of my husband's faithful friend, the companion of his former travels, Dr. John Richardson, who landed at New York in April of last year, and hastened to join his men and boats, which were already in advance toward the Arctic shore. Of this portion of the expedition I may briefly say, that the absence of any intelligence from Sir John Richardson, at this season, proves he has been unsuccessful in the object of his search. The expedition intended for Behring's Strait has hitherto been a complete failure. It consisted of a single ship, the Plover, which owing to her setting off too late, and to her bad sailing properties, did not even approach her destination last year. The remaining and most important portion of the searching expedition consists of two ships, under the command of Sir James Ross, which sailed last May for Davis's Strait, but did not succeed, owing to the state of the ice, in getting into Lancaster Sound till the season for operations had nearly closed. These ships are now wintering in the ice, and a store-ship is about to be despatched hence with provisions and fuel to enable them to stay out another year; but one of these vessels, in a great degree, is withdrawn from active search, by the necessity of watching at the entrance of Lancaster Sound for the arrival of intelligence and instructions from England by the whalers.

I have entered into these details with a view of proving that, though the British government has not forgotten the duty it owes to the brave men whom it has sent on a perilous service, and has spent a very large sum in providing the means for their rescue, yet that, owing to various causes, the means actually in operation for this purpose are quite inadequate to meet the extreme exigency of the case; for it must be remembered that the missing ships were victualled for three years only, and that nearly four years have now elapsed, so that the survivors of so many winters in the ice must be at the last extremity; and also it must be borne in mind that the channels by which the ships may have attempted to force a passage to the westward, or which they may have been compelled by adverse circumstances to take, are very numerous

and complicated, and that one or two ships cannot possibly, in the course of the next short summer, explore them all.

The Board of Admiralty, under a conviction of the fact, has been induced to offer a reward of £20,000 sterling to any ship or ships of any country, or to any exploring party whatever, that shall render efficient assistance to the missing ships, or their crews, or to any portion of them. This announcement, which, even if the sum had been doubled or trebled, would have met with public approbation, comes, however, too late for our whalers, which had unfortunately sailed before it was issued, and which, even if the news should overtake them at their fishing-grounds, are totally unfitted for any prolonged adventure, having only a few months' provisions on board, and no additional clothing. To the American whalers, both in the Atlantic and Pacific, I look with more hope as competitors for the prize, being well aware of their numbers and strength, their thorough equipment, and the bold spirit of enterprise which animates their crews. But I venture to look even beyond these. I am not without hope that you will deem it not unworthy of a great and kindred nation to take up the cause of humanity, which I plead in a national spirit, and thus generously make it your own.

I must here, in gratitude, adduce the example of the imperial Russian government, which, as I am led to hope by his excellency, the Russian ambassador in London, who forwarded a memorial on the subject, will send out exploring parties this summer from the Asiatic side of Behring's Strait, northward, in search of the lost vessels. It would be a noble spectacle to the world if three great nations, possessed of the widest empires on the face of the globe, were thus to unite their efforts in the truly Christian work of saving their perishing fellow-men from destruction.

It is not for me to suggest the mode in which such benevolent efforts might best be made. I will only say, however, that if the conceptions of my own mind, to which I do not venture to give utterance, were realized, and that in the noble competition which followed, American seamen had the good fortune to wrest from us the glory, as might be the case, of solving the problem of the unfound passage, or the still greater glory of saving our adventurous navigators from a lingering fate which the mind sickens to dwell on, though I should in either case regret that it was not my own brave countrymen in those seas whose devotion was thus rewarded, yet should I rejoice that it was to *America* we owed our restored happiness, and should be forever bound to her by ties of affectionate gratitude.

I am not without some misgivings while I thus address you. The intense anxieties of a wife and of a daughter may have led me to press too earnestly on your notice the trial under which we are suffering, (yet not *we* only, but hundreds of others,) and to presume too much on the sympathy which we are assured is felt beyond the limits of our own land. Yet, if you deem this to be the case, you will still find, I am sure, even in that personal intensity of feeling, an excuse for the fearlessness with which I have thrown myself on your generosity, and will pardon the homage I thus pay to your own high character, and to that of the people over whom you have the high distinction to preside.

I have the honour to be, sir, with great respect, your obedient servant.

JANE FRANKLIN.

To this letter, Lady Franklin appends an explanatory notice of the plan of her husband's expedition, and of the routes taken by those who are in search of him. The following is Mr. Clayton's answer to the application of Lady Franklin:—

Department of State, Washington, April 25, 1849.

MADAM: Your letter to the president of the United States, dated April 4, 1849, has been received by him, and he has instructed me to make to you the following reply:—

The appeal made in the letter with which you have honored him, is such as would strongly enlist the sympathy of the rulers and the people of any portion of the civilized world.

To the citizens of the United States, who share so largely in the emotions which agitate the public mind of your own country, the name of Sir John Franklin has been endeared by his heroic virtues, and the sufferings and sacrifices which he has encountered for the benefit of mankind. The appeal of his wife and daughter in their distress has been borne across the waters, asking the assistance of a kindred people to save the brave men who embarked in this unfortunate expedition; and the people of the United States, who have watched with the deepest interest that hazardous enterprise, will now respond to that appeal by the expression of their united wishes that every proper effort may be made by this government for the rescue of your husband and his companions.

To accomplish the object you have in view, the attention of American navigators, and especially of our whalers, will be immediately invoked. All the information in the possession of this government, to enable them to aid in discovering the missing ships, relieving their crews, and restoring them to their families, shall be spread far and wide among our people; and all that the executive government of the United States, in the exercise of its constitutional powers, can effect to meet this requisition on American enterprise, skill, and bravery, will be promptly undertaken.

The hearts of the American people will be deeply touched by your eloquent address to their chief magistrate, and they will join with you in an earnest prayer to Him whose Spirit is on the waters, that your husband and his companions may yet be restored to their country and their friends.

I have the honour to be your ladyship's friend and obedient servant,
JOHN M. CLAYTON.

LADY JANE FRANKLIN, Bedford place, London.

MANIFESTO OF THE TURKISH GOVERNMENT.

The following is a copy of the manifesto of the Sublime Porte, explaining its motives for making military preparations. It is translated from the Turkish official gazette, the *Tuevime* of the 5th of March, 1849:—

The extraordinary events which have succeeded each other in Europe, during the past year, are known to all the world. Notwithstanding the expectation hitherto entertained of the general restoration of perfect tranquillity, it is truly deplorable to find that hope still unrealized. We know and we perceive that the majority of governments, in the exercise of their vigilance, keep an attentive eye on passing events, and maintain an attitude of armed peace.

In this state of things it would appear, at first sight, that the Sublime Porte ought also as a matter of necessity, to make great preparations; but as the preparations to be made have different degrees, it has been deemed wise and prudent well to weigh this consideration, as well as the internal necessities and the external difficulties of the state, and to adopt a resolution accordingly.

The sublime porte has, therefore, maturely reflected on the question of preparations, in order to ascertain how far it ought to proceed. Now, if, on the one hand, it has not been possible to discover motives sufficiently strong for the making of such preparations, it cannot be denied, on the other, that there is a real necessity for taking certain measures of precaution.

The disturbances that broke out towards the close of last summer in the province of Wallachia, have been quelled, by the grace of God and under the

auspices of the Sultan; and the tranquillity, which it was the object of the government to re-establish, is perfectly established. If the military force, which the Sublime Porte has despatched thither, has not yet been withdrawn thence, it does not follow that it has any secret object in view: it is a necessity, resulting from certain important questions relating to the province itself, and which are nearly arranged.

When, therefore, the state of affairs in Wallachia and Moldavia are taken into consideration, no motives are discernible for inducing the Sublime Porte to act on a large scale—no motive is discernible why it should act in such a manner, when the mere effect of this system, so full of justice and equity, which has been adopted by the Padichakh, our benefactor and master, who is under all circumstances the object of the divine favour, there are not discoverable, God be praised, in any other part of the empire any subjects of uneasiness or any sources of embarrassment to the government.

So much as regards the interior. As regards our relations abroad our ideas are as follows:—

The frank, sincere, and friendly relations of the Sublime Porte with all the neighbouring and distant powers with which it has treaties are on a very good footing, and a reciprocal security exists between the Sublime Porte and every one of these powers. Such being the real state of the case, the slightest reflection will show, and common sense sufficiently point out, that there does not exist, either at home or abroad, any well-founded motive for going to an immense expense by adopting and undertaking vast measures.

At the same time, however, it cannot be denied by prudent and enlightened men that, in order to maintain internal tranquillity as it ought to be maintained in these times of general effervescence, and in order to observe the principle of neutrality adopted by the Porte, certain measures of precaution must absolutely be taken. Such has been the unanimous opinion of all, and his imperial Majesty has consequently given corresponding orders.

Thus, the imperial fleet will be prepared this year for the spring season as every other year; and, as a measure of precaution, there will be an assemblage of troops in certain convenient places; and in order that every one may be apprized of the real motive of these movements, and that no other interpretation may be admissible, we publish the present manifesto, &c.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

“In presence of God, and in the name of the French people, the National Assembly proclaims and decrees as follows:—

DECLARATION OF DUTIES AND RIGHTS.

ART. 1. The duties of man in society are thus summed up—Respect to the constitution, obedience to the laws, defence of the country, the accomplishment of family duties, and the fraternal practice of the maxim, “Do not unto others what you would not wish others to do unto you; what you wish men to do for you, do unto them likewise.”

ART. 2. The constitution guaranties to all citizens—Liberty, equality, safety, instruction, labour, property, assistance.

ART. 3. Liberty consists in the right of going and coming, of assembling peaceably and unarmed, of associating, of petitioning, of worship according to one's creed, of manifesting one's ideas and opinions by means of the press or otherwise. The exercise of these rights has no limits but the rights and liberty of others, or public security.

ART. 4. Equality consists in the exclusion of all titles and privileges of birth, class, or caste—in the admissibility of every one to all public employments with-

out any other motive of preference than virtue and talent—and in the equitable participation of all citizens in the charges and in the advantages of society.

ART. 5. Safety consists in the protection of person, family, domicile, rights, and property of each member of society.

ART. 6. The right of instruction is that which every citizen has of receiving gratuitously from the state the education necessary to develop his physical, moral, and intellectual faculties.

ART. 7. The right of labour is that which every man has of living by his work. Society is bound, by the productive and general means at its disposal, and which will hereafter be organized, to furnish labour to every man who cannot procure it otherwise.

ART. 8. Property consists in the right of enjoying and disposing of his possessions, his revenues, the produce of his labour, of his intelligence, and of his industry.

ART. 9. The right of assistance is that which belongs to children abandoned by their parents, the infirm and aged, to receive the means of existence from the state.

THE CONSTITUTION.

CHAPTER I.—*Of the Sovereignty of the People.*

ART. 10. France is a democratic republic, one and indivisible.

ART. 11. The French republic has for its motto—Liberty, Equality, Fraternity.

ART. 12. The sovereignty resides in the universality of French citizens. It is inalienable and imprescriptible. No individual or fraction of the people can attribute to themselves the exercise of it.

ART. 13. All public power, whatever it may be, emanates from the people. It cannot be devised hereditarily.

ART. 14. The separation of the powers is the first condition of a free government.

CHAPTER II.—*Of the Legislative Power.*

ART. 15. The French people delegate the legislative power to a single Assembly.

ART. 16. The election is based on the population.

ART. 17. The number of representatives shall be 750, inclusive of those for Algeria and the colonies.

ART. 18. This number shall be increased to 900 for the assemblies, which shall revise the constitution.

ART. 19. The suffrage is direct and universal.

ART. 20. All Frenchmen who have attained the age of 21 years, and enjoy their civil and political rights, are electors.

ART. 21. All Frenchmen who have attained the age of 25 years, and enjoy their civil and political rights, are eligible to be elected.

ART. 22. The following can neither be electors nor elected:—1. Uncertified bankrupts. 2. Individuals condemned either to afflictive or infamous penalties, or to correctional penalties for acts considered by the law as crimes, or for theft, swindling, abuse of confidence, or attack on public decency.

ART. 23. The electoral law will point out the functionaries who cannot be elected within the district in which they exercise their functions.

ART. 24. The ballot is secret.

ART. 25. The election of representatives shall be made by department at the chief town of the canton, and by a ballot list.

ART. 26. The national assembly verifies the qualifications of its members, and decides on the validity of the elections.

ART. 27. It is elected for three years, and is renewed integrally.

ART. 28. It is permanent. Nevertheless, it may adjourn for a term to be fixed on, but which must not exceed three months.

ART. 29. The representatives can always be re-elected.

ART. 30. The members of the national assembly are the representatives, not of the department which elects them, but of the whole of France.

ART. 31. They cannot receive any imperative mandate.

ART. 32. The representatives of the people are inviolable. They cannot be sought for, nor accused, nor tried at any time for opinions which they may express in the national assembly.

ART. 33. They cannot be prosecuted nor arrested on any criminal offence, except in case of being taken in flagrante delicto, until after the assembly shall have given its sanction for such prosecution.

ART. 34. Are incompatible with the legislative mandate all functions, the holders of which are revocable at will.

ART. 35. No member of the national assembly can, during the term of the legislature, be named or promoted to functions, the holders of which are chosen at the will of the executive government.

ART. 36. The members of the national assembly exercising public functions are replaced in their functions, and cease to receive the salary during the term of their legislative mandate.

ART. 37. Are excepted from the provisions of articles, 34, 35, and 36, the ministers, under-secretaries of state, the procureur-general of the court of cassation, the procureur-general of the court of appeal of Paris, the mayor of Paris, the prefect of police, the commandant of the national guard of Paris, and those other functionaries pointed out by particular laws.

ART. 38. Each representative of the people receives an indemnity, to which he cannot renounce his claim.

ART. 39. The sittings of the assembly are public. Nevertheless the assembly may form itself into a secret committee on the demand of the number of representatives fixed on by the regulations.

ART. 40. The assembly publishes laws and decrees. Decrees only relate to local and private interests. The presence of one more than the half of the members of the assembly is necessary to render the vote on a bill valid. The regulations determine the number of members necessary for a vote on decrees.

ART. 41. No bill or decree, except in cases of urgency, shall be voted definitively until it has been read three times at intervals of not less than ten days.

ART. 42. Every motion of urgency is preceded by an *expose des motifs*. The proposition is to be referred in the same sitting to the bureaux. A committee, named by the bureaux, makes a report on the urgency only. If the assembly is of opinion that the case is urgent, it declares it to be so, and immediately fixes on the time for its discussion. If it decides that it is not urgent, the bill follows the ordinary course.

CHAPTER III.—Of the Executive Power.

ART. 43. The French people delegate the executive power to a citizen who receives the title of president of the republic.

ART. 44. In order to be named president, the person must be born in France, and have attained the age of thirty years at least.

ART. 45. The president is chosen by direct and universal suffrage, by secret ballot, and by the absolute majority of the voters.

ART. 46. The minutes of the elections are immediately transmitted to the national assembly, which decides without delay on the validity of the election, and proclaims the president of the republic. If no candidate shall have obtained more than a half of the votes given, the national assembly elects the president of the republic by absolute majority and secret ballot from among the five candidates who have obtained the greatest number of votes.

ART. 47. The president of the republic is elected for four years, and is not re-eligible until after an interval of four years.

ART. 48. He is charged to watch over and assure the execution of the laws.

ART. 49. He disposes of the armed force, without the power of ever commanding in person.

ART. 50. He cannot cede any portion of the territory, nor dissolve the legislative body, nor suspend in any manner the empire of the constitution and of the laws.

ART. 51. He presents every year, by message to the national assembly, the exposé of the general state of the affairs of the republic.

ART. 52. He negotiates treaties. No treaty is definitive until after it has been examined and ratified by the national assembly.

ART. 53. He has the right to grant pardon; but he can only exercise that right on the proposition of the minister of justice, and after having taken the advice of the council of state.

ART. 54. He promulgates the laws in the name of the French people.

ART. 55. Laws of urgency are promulgated within a delay of two days, and other laws within a delay of eight days, from the date of their transmission by the president of the national assembly to the president of the republic.

ART. 56. In case of the president of the republic having grave objections to a bill, or to a decree adopted by the national assembly, he may in the delay fixed for the promulgation transmit to the assembly a message pointing out his objections, and demand a fresh deliberation. The assembly deliberates; its resolution becomes definite; it is transmitted to the president of the republic. The promulgation takes place in the delay fixed for bills and decrees of urgency.

ART. 57. In default of promulgation by the president of the republic, in the delays determined by the preceding articles, it shall be provided for by the president of the national assembly.

ART. 58. The president receives the envoys and ambassadors of foreign powers accredited to the republic.

ART. 59. He presides at national solemnities.

ART. 60. He is lodged at the expense of the republic, and receives a salary of 600,000 fr. per annum.

ART. 61. He resides at the seat of government.

ART. 62. The president of the republic appoints the ministers and removes them at pleasure. He appoints and removes, in a council of ministers, diplomatic agents, generals, and military commanders of the land and sea forces, prefects, the commanders-in-chief of the national guards of the Seine, the mayor of Paris, the governors of colonies, of Algeria, and of the bank of France, the procureurs general, and other functionaries of superior order. He nominates and removes the secondary agents of the government on the proposition of the competent minister.

ART. 63. He has the right to suspend for a term, which cannot exceed three months, the mayors and other agents of the executive power elected by the citizens. He cannot remove them but with the advice of the council of state. The law determines the case in which agents removed may be declared ineligible for the same functions. That declaration of ineligibility can only be declared by a jury.

ART. 64. The number of ministers and their duties are fixed by the legislative power.

ART. 65. The acts of the president of the republic, other than those by which he nominates and dismisses the ministers, have no effect, if not counter-signed by a minister.

ART. 66. The president, ministers, agents, and depositories of public authority, are responsible, each in what concerns him, for all the acts of the government and the administration. A law will define the case of responsibility, the guarantees of functionaries, and the mode of prosecution.

ART. 67. The ministers have the right to sit in the national assembly, and to be heard as often as they may demand.

ART. 68. There is a vice president of the republic, nominated for four years by the national assembly, on the presentation made by the president, in the month following his election. In the event of the president being prevented from fulfilling his duties, the vice president replaces him, and exercises the chief power. If the presidency becomes vacant by decease, resignation of the president, or otherwise, the election of a new president shall be proceeded to within a month.

CHAPTER IV.—*Of the Council of State.*

ART. 69. There shall be a council of state, composed of forty members at least. The vice president of the republic is by right president of the council of state.

ART. 70. The members of this council are nominated for three years by the national assembly, in the first month of each legislature, by ballot, and on an absolute majority. They are always qualified for re-election.

ART. 71. Those members of the council of state who may have been chosen from the national assembly shall be immediately replaced as representatives of the people.

ART. 72. The members of the council of state can only be dismissed by the assembly, on the proposition of the president of the republic.

ART. 73. The council of state draws up the bills which the government may propose to the assembly, and those of parliamentary initiative which the assembly may send to be examined by it. It makes regulations of public administration on the special delegation of the national assembly. It exercises over departmental and municipal administrations all the powers of control and surveillance which may be conferred on it by the law. A special law shall define its other powers.

ART. 74. On the expiration of their functions, the president and vice president of the republic are by right members of the council of state.

CHAPTER V.—*Of Interior Administration.*

ART. 75. The present division of the territory into departments, arrondissements, cantons, and communes, can only be changed by the law.

ART. 76. There are—1st, in each department an administration consisting of a prefect, of a general council, and of an administrative tribunal fulfilling the functions of a council of prefecture; 2d, in each arrondissement a sub-prefect; 3d, in each canton a council consisting of the mayors of all the communes of the cantons; 4th, in each commune an administration consisting of a mayor, of deputy mayors, and a municipal council.

ART. 77. The municipal council chooses the mayor and deputies from among its members.

ART. 78. A law will define the powers of the general, communal and municipal councils.

ART. 79. The general and municipal councils are elected by the direct suffrage of all the citizens domicilled in the department or the commune. A special law will regulate the mode of election in the city of Paris, and in towns of one hundred thousand souls.

ART. 80. The general and municipal councils may be dissolved by the president of the republic, on the recommendation of the council of state.

CHAPTER VIII.—*Guarantee of Rights.*

ART. 115. The penalty of death is abolished in political matters.

ART. 116. The confiscation of property can never be re-established.

ART. 117. Slavery cannot exist on French ground.

ART. 118. The press cannot in any case be subjected to censure.

ART. 119. All citizens have the liberty of printing, or causing to be printed, observing the conditions imposed by the guarantees due to public and private rights.

ART. 120. The cognizance of the offences committed by the press, or any other mode of publication, belongs exclusively to the jury.

ART. 121. The jury alone decides on the damages claimed for offences by the press.

ART. 122. All political offences come under the exclusive cognizance of the jury.

ART. 123. Every one freely exercises his religion, and receives from the state equal protection. The ministers of religion, recognised by the law, have alone a right to receive a salary from the state.

ART. 124. Freedom of instruction is exercised under the guarantee of the laws and the surveillance of the state. That surveillance extends itself to all educational establishments without exception.

ART. 125. The residence of every citizen is an inviolable asylum. It is not permitted to be entered, but according to the forms, and in the cases determined by the law.

ART. 126. No one can be deprived of his natural judges. There cannot be created any commissions or extraordinary tribunals, under any title or denomination whatsoever.

ART. 127. No one can be arrested or detained, except according to the provision of the law.

ART. 128. All property is inviolable. Nevertheless, the state may demand the sacrifice of a property for the public interest legally established, and in return for a just and equitable indemnity.

ART. 129. All taxes are established for common utility. Every citizen contributes according to his means and his fortune.

ART. 130. No tax can be levied but in virtue of a law.

ART. 131. The direct taxes can only be voted for a year. The indirect taxes may be so for several years.

ART. 132. The essential guarantees of the rights of labour are—the liberty of work; voluntary association; equality of relations between master and workman; gratuitous instruction, professional education, provident societies, institutions of credit, and the establishment by the state of great works of public duty, destined to employ unoccupied workmen.

ART. 133. The constitution guaranties the public debt.

ART. 134. The legion of honour is maintained; its statutes shall be revised, and put in harmony with democratic and republican principles.

ART. 135. The territory of Algeria and the colonies are declared French territory and shall be governed by particular laws.

CHAPTER IX.—*Of the Revision of the Constitution.*

ART. 136. The nation has always the right to change or modify its constitution. If, at the end of the legislature, the National Assembly expresses a wish that the constitution should be reformed either wholly or in part, such revision shall be proceeded to in the following manner: The wish expressed by the assembly shall not be converted into a definitive resolution until after three successive deliberations, each taken at intervals of one month, and a vote of three-fourths of the assembly. The assembly of the revision shall not be named but for two months; it can only occupy itself with the revision for which it shall have been convoked. Nevertheless, it may, in case of urgency, provide for any legislative necessity.

CHAPTER X.—*Temporary Provisions.*

ART. 137. The existing codes, laws, and regulations remain in force until they shall have been legally abrogated.

ART. 138. All the authorities now in office shall remain in the exercise of their functions until the publication of the organic laws connected with them.

ART. 139. The law of judicial organization shall determine the special mode of nomination for the first composition of the new tribunals.

CALIFORNIA.

Letter of Capt. J. L. Folsom to Maj. Gen. Jesup.

San Francisco, Cal., Jan. 23, 1849.

* * * * Since my last private communication, nothing has occurred to change the general views I then expressed in relation to California. Within the last few weeks much has been said and done in regard to the organization of a provisional government for this territory. Several villages have appointed delegates to attend a convention for the arrangement of fundamental laws for the country; and other elections are now understood to be taking place in the remote parts of the country.

It is proposed to have the convention assembled at the Pueblo de San Jose, about sixty miles from this place, on the 4th of March, but I believe it will be found impossible to assemble all the delegates at that time, and it will probably be found expedient to defer the meeting until it is known that the present congress has not acted on the question of a territorial government. This will probably throw the whole question back more or less, and I think the meeting will not occur before the middle of April, and not at all, should congress have acted. At this time this is a most important question to every citizen of California: for life and property are and will continue to be unsafe in this territory until congress gives us a stable government. The fact is brought feelingly home to the apprehension of every intelligent man, that there is no government and no law in California. A general feeling of insecurity depresses the whole population, and operates most injuriously upon all classes of society. Crowds of men are flocking from all quarters of the country, and among them are many persons of bad character and desperate fortunes; and every thing about them affords a reasonable assurance that every kind of villany may be practised with impunity throughout the territory.

The only tribunals which have attended any jurisdiction in cases of murder, &c., some months past, are those formed for the occasion, as it arises; and offenders generally escape, or, if they are taken, it is amidst the frenzy of popular excitement, where the guilty and innocent may be victims together. Several executions have taken place in pursuance of this kind of law, and it is supposed that several others will be announced by the next mail from the south. In the mean time, outrages are occurring in all quarters of the country, and the public astonishment has scarcely subsided after one murder has transpired before another is committed more horrible than the first. House-breaking, thefts, and robberies are of almost hourly occurrence. This state of things must continue until we have the firm and steady reign of government extended over the territory by congress. I have no expectation that a provisional government (should it go into operation, and this cannot be the case in less than a year from this time,) would be found adequate to the public wants.

The materials for organizing a stable government do not exist in the country at this time, and of such as there are, the best cannot be commanded for the business. The most respectable men, who are engaged in lucrative enterprises in the country quite foreign to politics, will not desert their own interests to take public stations which promise to yield little but vexation and annoyance, and should the local organization go into operation, I very much doubt if it will produce any relief for the ills which now afflict the country. It will be temporary in its nature, and having no permanent hold upon the community, it will be only a little better than no government at all. Such has been the result of the provisional arrangement in Oregon, and such must be its result every where in new communities, composed of adventurers from almost every clime and country. Besides, the natives and foreigners have

been accustomed to different institutions and religions, and a strong antipathy exists among the former for those whom they look upon as their conquerors and enemies. In the excitement of gold-digging these various races and castes are brought into contact under circumstances which have more than once threatened to break out into open hostilities, and the ensuing summer the danger of such an occurrence will be increased a hundred fold, in consequence of the augmentation of numbers, and the constant accession of emigrants who are more reckless, adventurous, and dissolute than their predecessors. If congress has the well-being of this territory in view, an immediate organization ought to take place, and such salaries should be given to the territorial officers as to secure the highest order of talent and integrity. Any good workman can realize more from his labour in the mines than is given to our territorial governors by law, and what would be a very ample compensation in the United States would not afford a decent support in California. I believe the experience of every public officer who has been in this territory within the last twelve months will be an endorsement of what I have said.

Within the last five or six weeks we have had weather of extraordinary severity. It is said to be the coldest season experienced here since that of 1823—4. In the gold mines the snow has been four feet deep, and at Sutter's Fort ice has formed three inches in thickness. Within two weeks the streets of this village have been repeatedly whitened with snow and hail; and the hills within sight, on the opposite side of the bay, (twelve miles distant) have been capped with snow for the last fifteen days. Very heavy and protracted falls of rain have now swept off the snow from all the hills within sight; but high in the mountains, among the mines, it is thought that they have had nothing but snow. If so, it must have fallen to a very unusual depth. We now have cool winds and occasional rains, but the severity of the latter, it is believed, is now past. During the last winter we had no snow here, and only on one occasion, for two days, was there any in sight; and the falls of rain were much less heavy than those we have recently experienced.

As a general thing, the operations among the mines were suspended on the approach of winter; but large numbers of persons built log houses in the mountains, and, having laid in a winter's stock of provisions, continued among the mines for the prosecution of their business. It is now understood that the extraordinary severity of the weather has prevented them from effecting much, and there can be no doubt that much suffering will be the result. Many of the log houses were good, or at least comfortable, and some of the parties were tolerably well supplied with provisions and clothing. This remark, however, is not by any means of general application, and there can be no doubt that many are suffering for food, clothing, and shelter. After the winter rains have once set in, it is almost impossible to send goods into the mountains, and large numbers have no doubt been too reckless and improvident to foresee the consequences, and provide for them. Those who are now in the mountains are almost exclusively Indians (indigenous population) and foreigners, or emigrants. The Spaniards and Californians have retired to their ranchos, or to the various towns about the country, to await the return of spring. Many of the people who have emigrated from Oregon are in the mines.

A great stagnation in business has occurred since winter set in, and prices of goods have fallen in consequence. Vessels arriving at this time find an inconsiderable market, and it will continue bad until there is a tendency towards the mines in March, when new supplies must go in that direction. Within the last ten days, six or eight vessels have arrived from Mexico and the west coast of South America, and we hear of more than forty which are likely to follow them from Chili and Peru with about three thousand emigrants. Every vessel which leaves takes away a rich freight of gold, and there are

still very large amounts of it in the country. I am satisfied that more than three million dollars' worth of gold have been taken from the mines up to this time, and that two million dollars have been taken away from the country, mostly to foreign countries and a market. I have no doubt that one million, five hundred thousand dollars' worth will have been shipped from this port alone.

These facts ought to convince the most incredulous that the government needs a mint at this place to coin the gold produced by these mines, thereby protecting its own interests, and those of American citizens residing in this territory. We hear officially from Chili that a very large amount of spurious coin is about to be shipped from Peru and Bolivia, to be put into circulation on this coast in exchange for gold, and through the custom houses. By giving what may appear to be a high price for gold dust, it would not be strange to find the community defrauded out of their property. At present gold dust is selling for about \$13 50 per ounce troy; but it would not be surprising should the holders of spurious coin force it into circulation by giving a nominal circulation of \$17 per ounce for gold. There is no proper authority here to expose a fraud of this kind in its inception, or to make an assay of the coin supposed to be base.

* * * * *

The trade of the country is rapidly increasing, in consequence of the mines and the great influx of population. For several months past the average amount of duties collected at this port, exclusive of the expenses of the custom house, has been rising thirty thousand dollars, and it is thought that it will exceed sixty thousand dollars the present month. It will be safe, I think, to put the revenue of California, for the current year, at one million dollars, and four-fifths of this will be collected at this port. The amount paid is becoming a subject of comment, and the fact that a population paying such a tax has no government and no representation is exciting very general dissatisfaction. Should congress again adjourn without an action in relation to this territory, it will create still more violent comment, and might lead to some measures on the part of the people of the country which would bring lasting disgrace upon our flag.

All the trade of the coast is fast concentrating in this bay. Nearly all the goods consumed in the lower part of this territory are sent from this port, and as soon as coasters can be got for the business, foreign vessels will not visit those ports at all. The introduction of steamers on the coast will give additional importance to this harbour, and it is most likely that much of the business of Oregon will be done here also.

In arranging government establishments in California, I believe it will be found advisable to make this the only port of entry. This would foster American shipping interests in this ocean, and would be no injury to other points on the coast, as no foreign vessel goes to the other ports now until after visiting this place, and, indeed, generally not at all. It would be the safest for the revenue, and would be the best possible arrangement to develop our commercial interests in the Pacific, as all this traffic would then be done by coasters. Much of the coast is well fitted for the operations of smugglers, and nothing can prevent them carrying on a fraudulent trade if allowed to run along the whole coast. I have reason to know that Commodore Jones agrees with me in this matter, and he thinks that the best course would be to make but one port of entry in California for some years to come.

We are now expecting the first steamer here in about a month, and all look forward to their regular trips as a new era in the history of this coast. There are many persons here will avail themselves of their rapid trips to remit gold dust to the states; and a certain, regular, and expeditious mail communication with the states will give great assistance to the mercantile community. It is

generally believed that the business of the line will justify such an augmentation of boats as to allow of semi-monthly trips before the end of the present year; for it is presumed that an active emigration will take place from the eastern and middle states via Panama. * * *

THE ENGLISH NAVIGATION LAWS.

A BILL "ENTITLED AN ACT TO AMEND THE LAWS IN FORCE FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF BRITISH SHIPPING AND NAVIGATION," PASSED IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS AND NOW PENDING IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

Sec. 1 enumerates certain acts and parts of acts which *from and after the 1st day of January, 1850*, shall be repealed. This enumeration is of great length and embraces a great number of sections of eleven distinct acts, seven of which were passed since the commencement of the present reign, three in that of George 4, and one in the 37th of that of George 3.

Sec. 2 provides "That no goods or passengers shall be carried coastwise from one part of the United Kingdom to another" [including the Isle of Man] "except in British ships."

Sec. 3 extends the same provision to the communication between all parts of the United Kingdom, including the Isle of Man, and the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney and Sark, and each of them with one another.

Sec. 4. And be it enacted, That no goods or passengers shall be carried from one part of any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, *to another part of the same possession*, except in British ships.

Sec. 5. Provided always, and be it enacted, That if the legislature or proper legislative authority of any such British possession shall present an address to her majesty, praying her majesty to authorize or permit the conveyance of goods or passengers from one part of such possession to another part thereof in other than British ships, or if the legislatures of any two or more possessions, which for the purposes of this act her majesty in council shall declare to be neighbouring possessions, shall present addresses or a joint address to her majesty, praying her majesty to place the trade between them on the footing of a coasting trade, or of otherwise regulating the same, so far as relates to the vessels in which it is to be carried on, it shall thereupon be lawful for her majesty, by order in council, so to authorize the conveyance of such goods or passengers, or so to regulate the trade between such neighbouring possessions, as the case may be, in such terms and under such conditions, in either case, as to her majesty may seem good.

Sec. 6. And with regard to the coasting trade of India, be it enacted, That it shall be lawful for the governor general of India in council to make any regulations authorizing or permitting the conveyance of goods or passengers from one part of the possessions of the East India Company to another part thereof in other than British ships, subject to such restrictions or regulations as he may think necessary; and such regulations shall be of equal force and effect with any laws and regulations which the said governor general in council is now or may hereafter be authorized to make, and shall be subject to disallowance and repeal in like manner as any other laws or regulations made by the said governor general in council under the laws from time to time in force for the government of the British territories in India, and shall be transmitted to England, and be laid before both houses of parliament, in the same manner as any other laws or regulations which the governor general in council is now or may hereafter be empowered to make.

Sec. 7. And be it enacted, That no ship shall be admitted to be a British ship unless duly registered and navigated as such; and that every British-registered ship (so long as the registry of such ship shall be in force, or the certificate of such registry retained for the use of such ship,) shall be navigated during the

whole of every voyage (whether with a cargo or in ballast) in every part of the world by a master who is a British subject, and by a crew whereof three-fourths at least are British seamen; and if such ship be employed in a coasting voyage from one part of the United Kingdom to another, or in a voyage between the United Kingdom and the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or from one of the said islands to another of them, or from one part of either of them to another of the same, or be employed in fishing on the coasts of the United Kingdom or of any of the said islands, then the whole of the crew shall be British seamen: Provided always, that if a due proportion of British seamen cannot be procured in any foreign port, or in any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter, for the navigation of any British ship, or if such proportion be destroyed during the voyage by any unavoidable circumstance, and the master of such ship make proof of the truth of such facts to the satisfaction of the collector and controller of the customs at any British port, or of any person authorized in any other part of the world to inquire into the navigation of such ship, the same shall be deemed to be duly navigated.

Sec. 8. And be it enacted, That no person shall be deemed to be a British seaman, or to be duly qualified to be master of a British vessel, except persons of one of the following classes; (that is to say,) natural-born subjects of her majesty; persons naturalized by or under any act of parliament, or by or under any act or ordinance of the legislature or proper legislative authority of one of the British possessions, or made denizens by letters of denization; persons who have become British subjects by virtue of the conquest or cession of some newly acquired country, and who have taken the oath of allegiance to her majesty, or the oath of fidelity required by the treaty or capitulation by which such newly acquired country came into her majesty's possession; Asiatic sailors or Lascars, being natives of any of the territories, countries, islands, or places within the limits of the charter of the East India Company, and under the government of her majesty or of the said company; and persons who have served on board any of her majesty's ships of war, in time of war, for the space of three years.

Sec. 9. And be it enacted, That if her majesty shall at any time by her royal proclamation declare that the proportion of *British* seamen necessary to the due navigation of British ships shall be less than the proportion required by this act, every *British* ship navigated with the proportion of *British* seamen required by such proclamation shall be deemed to be duly navigated, so long as such proclamation shall remain in force.

Sec. 10. And be it enacted, That in case it shall be made to appear to her majesty that *British* vessels are subject in any foreign country to any prohibitions or restrictions as to the voyages in which they may engage, or as to the articles which they may import into or export from such country, it shall be lawful for her majesty (if she think fit,) by order in council, to impose such prohibitions or restrictions upon the ships of such foreign country, either as to the voyages in which they may engage, or as to the articles which they may import into or export from any part of the United Kingdom or of any British possession in any part of the world, as her majesty may think fit, so as to place the ships of such country on as nearly as possible the same footing in British ports as that on which British ships are placed in the ports of such country.

Sec. 11. And be it enacted, That in case it shall be made to appear to her majesty that British ships are either directly or indirectly subject in any foreign country to any duties or charges of any sort or kind whatsoever from which the national vessels of such country are exempt, or that any duties are imposed upon articles imported or exported in British ships which are not equally imposed upon the like articles imported or exported in national vessels, or that any preference whatsoever is shown either directly or indirectly to national vessels over British vessels, or to articles imported or exported in national vessels over the like articles imported or exported in British vessels, or that British trade and navigation

is not placed by such country upon as advantageous a footing as the trade and navigation of the most favoured nation, then and in any such case it shall be lawful for her majesty (if she think fit,) by order in council, to impose such duty or duties of tonnage upon the ships of such nation entering into or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom, or of any British possession in any part of the world, or such duty or duties on all goods, or on any specified classes of goods, imported or exported in the ships of such nation, as may appear to her majesty justly to countervail the disadvantages to which British trade or navigation is so subjected as aforesaid.

Sec. 12. And be it enacted, That in every such order her majesty may, if she so think fit, specify what ships are to be considered as ships of the country or countries to which such order applies, and all ships answering the description contained in such order shall be considered to be ships of such country or countries for the purposes of such order.

Sec. 13. And be it enacted, That it shall be lawful for her majesty from time to time to revoke any order or orders in council made under the authority of this act.

Sec. 14. And be it enacted, That every such order in council as aforesaid shall, within fourteen days after the issuing thereof, be twice published in the London Gazette, and that a copy thereof shall be laid before both houses of parliament, within six weeks after the issuing the same, if parliament be then sitting, and if not then within six weeks after the commencement of the then next session of parliament.

Sec. 15. And be it enacted, That if any goods be imported, exported or carried coastwise contrary to this act, all such goods shall be forfeited, and the master of the ship in which the same are so imported, exported, or carried coastwise shall forfeit the sum of one hundred pounds, except where any other penalty is hereby specially imposed.

Sec. 16. And be it enacted, That all penalties and forfeitures incurred under this act shall be sued for, prosecuted, recovered, and disposed of, or shall be mitigated or restored, in like manner and by the same authority as any penalty or forfeiture can be sued for, prosecuted, recovered, and disposed of, or may be mitigated or restored, under an act passed in the said session of parliament holden in the eighth and ninth years of her present majesty, entitled *An act for the prevention of smuggling*; and that the cost of all proceedings under this act shall be defrayed out of the consolidated duties of customs.

Sec. 17. And be it enacted, That all natural-born subjects of her majesty, and all persons made denizens by letters of denization, and all persons naturalized by or under any act of parliament, or by or under any act or ordinance of the legislature or proper legislative authority of any of the British possessions in Asia, Africa, or America, and all persons authorized by or under any such act or ordinance to hold shares in British shipping, shall, on taking the oath of allegiance to her majesty, her heirs and successors, be deemed to be duly qualified to be owners or part owners of British registered vessels, any thing in the said recited act for the registering of British shipping to the contrary in anywise notwithstanding.

Sec. 18 [prescribes the form of certificate of registry, and Sec. 19 the form of declaration to be made by the owner or owners of any vessel previously to the registry thereof.]

Sect. 20 [declares every ship or vessel not duly registered, to be forfeited, except boats under fifteen tons, navigated by British subjects, in the rivers and on the coasts, and boats of thirty tons fishing on the banks of Newfoundland or parts adjacent.]

Sec. 21. And be it enacted, That this act shall come into operation on the first day of January, one thousand eight hundred and fifty.

INDEX TO VOL. II.

- Africa and Asia, history of, 54.
 Agriculture—by Mr. Spencer, 176.
 settlement of lands, 407.
 Anniversaries of Benevolent Societies,
 393—400.
 Armories, national, 99.
 Army of United States, 95.
 Atlantic and Pacific, junction of, 158.
 Australia, account of, 412.
 Austria, history of, 357.

 Baltimore Convention, proceedings of, 8.
 Belcher, Gov., memoir of, 126.
 Buenos Ayres, history of, 23.
 Buffalo Convention, proceedings of, 13, 14.
 Bulwer and Carlyle, (translations,) 214.
 Byfield Factory, 388.

 California, account of, 151.
 emigration and exports to, 115, 118.
 condition of, 599.
 climate of, 416.
 adventures, (poetry,) 216.
 revenue laws, 295.
 Canada, progress of, 375.
 insurrection and riot at Montreal,
 348, 523.
 Cavaignac, administration of, 25.
 Census Bill, 91.
 Charles Albert, defeat of, 521.
 Cherokees, (J. H. Payne,) 211.
 Chicago Memorial, 564.
 China and Chinese, 144, 433.
 Cholera, progress of, 528.
 in New Orleans, 233.
 in Scotland, 236.
 Chronicle, Quarterly, 221, 514.
 Climate of Europe in olden time, 113.
 Coast Survey, 98.
 Coinage at the Mint, (1848,) 101.
 Colporteurs, American, 106.
 Commerce of United States, 73.
 Congress, the thirty first, 121.
 close of the thirtieth, 515.
 acts of, 301.
 debates in, 311—314.
 Crevasse at New Orleans, 526.

 Death, phenomena of, 196.
 Debt of United States, 87.
 Debts of European Nations, 105.
 Denmark, history of, 48.
 Distance from United States to England,
 422.
 Documents, 256, 529.
 Doubt not, (poetry,) 220.

 Education of Orphans, 180.
 in Virginia, 417.
 in Great Britain and United States
 (compared,) 439.
 Elections, presidential, 125.
 Electoral votes of President and Vice Pre-
 sident, (1844, 1848,) 124.
 Emigration, Commissioners of, (report,)
 109.
 England and Scotland, religious denomi-
 nations in, 107.
 Europe, armies of, 419.
 Executive Governments and Cabinets of
 United States, 120.

 Factory Statistics, 388.
 Florida, rivers of, 450.
 Folsom, Capt.—letter to Gen. Jessup, 599.
 Forks, introduction of, 204.
 France, history of, 23, 350.
 National Assembly of, 28.
 Constitution of, 29.
 Presidency of—candidates, 31.
 Frankfort, central power, 45, 355.
 Franklin, Lady,—letter to President, 589.
 Fremont, Col., disasters of, 523.
 French Republic, constitution of, 593.
 Church, 107.
 Friendless, the, 208.

 Genoa, city of—capitulated, 359.
 German Empire, 355.
 Germany, history of, 39, 355.
 agitation in, 524.
 Great Britain, history of, 37, 346.
 produce and manufactures of, 103.
 Queen of, her speech, 275.
 Guatemala, history of, 22, 345.

- Hayti, account of, 345.
 Historical Register, 1848 and 1849, 6, 310.
 Hungary and Magyars, 40.
- Inland communication with Pacific, 167.
 Insect Slavery, 202.
 Internal Improvements, (doc.), 551, 587.
 International Exchanges, 371.
 Ireland, distress in, 514.
 Potato crop in, and produce, 102, 103.
 Italian Republic, 240.
 Italy, history of, 51, 361.
- Kossuth, Ludvig, 358.
 declared President, 523.
- Land, tenure of, 423.
 Language, apparatus of, 444.
 Legal business of the government.
 Letter of Thos. Larkin, 292.
 of Commodore Jones, 293.
 of Mr. Rich, 294.
 Liberia, account of, 410.
 President of, his letter, 297.
 Libraries, &c., 232, 422.
 Louis Philippe, property restored, 27.
 Louis Napoleon, election of, 34.
 biographical sketch of, 187.
 his official proclamation, 127.
 his cabinet council, 350.
 Lowell, 389.
- Mahogany trade, 104.
 Man, his mental power, 206.
 Mason Col., report of, 288.
 Mechanical industry of U. S., 404.
 Medical association—(American,) 401.
 Meteorological table, for 1848, 114.
 Mexican president, message of, 276.
 Mexican treaty, protocol of, 281.
 discussion of in Congress, 338.
 Mexico, history of, 20, 345.
 Minnesota, territorial bill, 516.
 description of, 340.
 Mint, coinage at, (1848) 101.
 Mormonism, 400.
 Mother, to, (poetry) 218.
- Navigation laws of England, 602.
 Navy, secretary of, his report, 270.
 New Orleans, crevasse there, 526.
 New York, great riot there, 525.
 Newspapers, first, 205.
 Nineveh and its remains, 457.
- Obituary, 243, 495.
 Oregon, mail to by Panama, &c., 16.
 Orphans, education of, 180.
- Pacific and Atlantic, junction of, 158.
 Pacific ocean, routes to, 159.
 inland communication with, 167.
 Panama route, 160.
 memorial, 296.
 Paris, clubs of, 26.
 Parties in the United States, 7.
 Peace congress, address of, 588.
 Penitentiaries of the U. S., 402.
 Plank roads, 386.
 Pope Pius IX. manifesto of, 278.
 protest of, 279.
 Pope—agitation at Rome, 53.
 escape and flight of, 54.
 deposition of, 361.
 Population of the U. S., 89.
 Postmaster general, his report, 272.
 Post office, 96, 373.
 Presidential candidates, 6.
 elections, 125.
 President's annual message, Dec. 1848.
 17, 529, 256.
 message in relation to Mexican protocol, 282.
 message on veto of river and harbor bill, 551.
 Presidents of United States, 120.
 Press of the United States, 139.
 Progress, law of, 468.
 Prussia, history of, 46, 359.
 king of, 360.
 Punjaub war, 39, 366.
- Quarterly chronicle, 221, 514.
- Radetsky, battle with Charles Albert, 358, 521.
 Religious and benevolent societies, anniversaries, 393.
 Religious items, 111.
 Roman catholic statistics, 108.
 Rome, French expedition to, 352.
 attack on, 524, 528.
 fortifications of, 524.
 Routes to Pacific, 160.
 Russia, history of, 49, 363.
 emperor of, his policy, 363.
- Sandwich islands, 108.
 Schools common—Connecticut, 56.
 Pennsylvania, 60.
 New York, 63.
 Michigan, 68.
 Wisconsin, 69.
 New Jersey, 69.
 Schools of France, 71.
 School system of Virginia, 417.
 Sicily, revolution in, 52.
 Sikhs, battle with, 241.
 Slavery in the Dist. of Columbia, 20.
 historical sketch of, 169.

- Smith, General, proclamation of, 296.
 Smithsonian institution, 69.
 Southern members of Congress, convention of, 314.
 Spain and Portugal, history of, 51.
 St. Louis, great fire there, 526.
 Statistics, 56, 365.
 Steam-boiler explosions, 100.
 Steamboat disaster, 222.
 Supreme Court U. S., 223.
- Talleyrand, anecdotes of, 191.
 Taylor, Gen. letter to Cap. Allison, 11, 12.
 inauguration of, 341, 517.
 presentation of Bible to him, 239.
 inaugural address, 273.
 cabinet of, 341.
- Tea plant and its varieties, 413.
 Tehuantepec routes, 165.
 memorial, 298.
 Telegraph case, 241.
 Ten tribes, 209.
 Territories, admission of, discussion in Congress, 317.
 slavery in, 330.
 Texts of discourses, 453.
 Tonnage of the United States, 84.
- Translators and translations, (Sullivan,) 213.
 Treasury, secretary of, his report, 269.
 Treaty, postal, 231.
 Tree, old, poetry, 216.
 Turkey, manifesto of the government, 592.
- United States, history of, 6, 310.
 commerce of, 73.
 exports and imports of, 83, 86.
 vessels and tonnage of, 84.
 territorial area of, 381,
 public debt of, 87.
 population of, 89.
 navy of, 93.
 army of, 95.
- Venezuela, history of, 22.
 Vienna, besieged and taken by Windischgratz, 44.
- War, secretary of, his report, 267.
 Weather, statistics of, 420.
 Whale fishery, 390.
 Whig convention at Philadelphia, 10.
 Wild beast fight, 203.

















