Mexico, in exchange for our imports there, as also for the new issue of Treasury notes now asked from Congress, as constituting a part of the loan recommended, will, it is believed, greatly augment the coinage of silver during the ensuing year.

Under the export duty upon specie now existing in Mexico, it is believed that when the new Treasury notes now asked for shall be issued, they may be sold, it is to be hoped, to a considerable extent, on account of the Government, for specie, at a premium in Mexico; and, as the Government funds will not be subject to the export duty, the specie may be brought into the country by this Department, in exchange for these notes, and recoined at the mint in New Orleans into American coin.

It has been seen that the amount of foreign coin or bullion coined this year at our mint and branch mints, under the new orders of this Department, estimating December the same as November, would be $23,844,001 92. At which rate, we would soon supply our own people with our own coin, and in time, also, with our augmenting commerce, Americanize, to a great extent, the coin of the world; and thus introduce our simple and beautiful decimal currency gradually throughout all nations, substituting it for the complex system of pounds, shillings, and pence, or of doubloons, ducats, and rupees, which retard business and complicate accounts.

Heretofore the world has supplied us with foreign coin, which will not circulate among our people, because of its extreme complexity; but now our own coin is flowing into the channels of our own circulation, and must soon begin to diffuse itself into other nations, for their benefit as well as our own. The three things which most concern the progress of the wealth of the world are free trade and uniformity in coinage and in weights and measures. Coins, as well as weights and measures, for the benefit of all nations, ought to be uniform throughout the world; and if our decimal system of coinage should be more simple and perfect than that of any other nation, it ought to be, and ultimately will be, adopted, and lead, as far as practicable, to the introduction of the decimal system of weights and measures, so that ultimately the coin and the weights and measures may be simple and uniform throughout the world.

Table T shows the imports and exports of specie for the fiscal years ending 30th June, 1846, and 30th June, 1847; being for 1846 an import of $3,777,732, and the export $3,481,417, leaving the gain of specie that year $296,315; and in 1847 the specie imported was $24,121,289, and the export $1,845,119, leaving the specie gained in 1847 $22,276,170.

Table U shows the amount received in specie from all sources—customs, lands, miscellaneous, and loans, from 1st January, 1847, to 1st December, 1847, being $48,667,886 18; and the amount of disbursements in specie during the same period, $48,226,516 31; showing the aggregate of receipts and disbursements in specie during the first eleven months of the new system, $96,894,402 49, and proving that the Department has been enabled, during the last eleven months, to circulate by disbursements among the people the sum of $48,226,516 31, under the specie-receiving and specie-circulating Constitutional Treasury.

Annexed are tables (marked 1 and 2) showing the market value, as also the actual sales of Treasury notes and United States stock in the market at New York and New Orleans, from the prices current of those cities, from December 1, 1846, to December 1, 1847; as also a table (KK) showing the amount of Treasury notes received each month in payment for duties—$2,029,900 in the whole from 1st December, 1846, to 1st December, 1847; from which Congress may judge of the probable rate at which another loan can be effected. These tables show how much these stocks and notes have fluctuated, being at a rate occasionally below par, for a long time at par, subsequently several per cent. above par, and again, upon the 1st of the present month, at par in New York and New Orleans. These notes (per table KK) were paid in for public dues during every month from 1st December, 1846, to 1st December, 1847, to the amount of $2,029,900; and during April, 1847, the month in which the loan for them was negotiated at a premium, they were paid in for customs alone to the amount of $101,850. They are now being used, to some extent, in payments to the Government, and may be regarded as at par. The total amount of the Treasury notes advertised was eighteen millions of dollars, and the amount of the bids, as exhibited in table 3, hereto annexed, $57,722,983; of which the sum of $2,839,800 was bid for at par, and $54,883,183 above par. The notes were assigned to the highest bidders, at rates varying from one-eighth of one per cent. to two per cent. above par, all the lower bids being, of course, rejected; and the table last above mentioned will exhibit fully and in detail the course pursued on that occasion. The law conferred the power to have changed all these notes for specie, without advertisement, with any one, at or above par; but, in hopes of obtaining a premium for the loan in whole or in part, bids were invited for the amount of $18,000,000.

Annexed is a copy of the advertisement of this loan, marked 5, dated the 9th of February, 1847, having been issued during the session of Congress, and extensively published throughout the Union, from the 9th of February to the 10th of April, 1847. The remainder of the loan beyond the amount advertised was exchanged at par, partly for money to be deposited without charge at New Orleans, where the wants of the Government were great, and the rest paid out chiefly in Treasury notes at par to the Smithsonian Institution, also to other creditors of the Government; the notes at that time being generally at par, and the wants of the Government requiring the use of the money before it could be obtained upon the advertisement. On the 22d October, 1846, (as per printed notice hereto annexed, marked 4,) the Department advertised for the exchange of $3,000,000 of Treasury notes at par for deposites of specie with the assistant treasurers. For a considerable time but very few of such deposites were made, or Treasury notes thus taken; and from this long delay, and continued reluctance upon the part of the community in taking these Treasury notes at par, although at any time after the 28th of January last they were convertible into the twenty-years' six per cent. stock at par, many of the notes heretofore offered at par not having been taken at the date of my advertisement of the 9th of February last, serious doubts were entertained whether the whole of the new loan could be taken at or above par. It had been usual heretofore, with my predecessors, in advertising for loans, to emit no sum to any individual under $25,000; but, with a view to ensure the largest possible subscription, and at the best rates, and to diffuse the loan as far as practicable throughout all classes of the community, bids were authorized to be received by the advertisement as low as the lowest denomination of Treasury notes permitted by law—namely, fifty dollars. It was the duty of the Department to accept nothing but specie, being the first loan ever negotiated in specie from the foundation of the Government down to that date, and the first loan, except that of last fall, ever thus negotiated at or above par during a period of war. The magnitude of the loan, the fluctuations below par of the previous stock and notes; the untried, and, to many, alarming restraining operation of the Constitutional Treasury; the heavy expenditures of the war, and the requirement of all the payments from time to time in specie, were deemed by many as insuperable obstacles to the negotiation of the whole of the loan at or above par. But, under the salutary provisions of the Constitutional Treasury, the credit of the Government was in truth enhanced by receiving and disbursing nothing but coin; thus placing all its transactions upon a basis more sound and entitled to higher credit than when it held no specie, had no money in its own possession, and none even in the banks to pay its creditors but bank paper. Then, it was dependant upon the credit of the banks, and was subjected to every fluctuation which affected their credit. Now, it stands upon the basis of specie, so as to be above all suspicion of discredit, whilst by its demand for coin for revenue payments it sustains not only its own credit, but renders more safe the credit, and currency, and business of the whole Union.

By the act of Congress of 3d March, 1845, this Department was authorized to select a plan for the erection of a custom-house in the city of New Orleans. By the act of 3d March, 1847, the sum of $100,000 was appropriated towards the erection of the custom-house, on the custom-house square, or so much thereof as could be procured by the Department. After some delay, I was enabled to obtain a cession from the 1st municipality of New Orleans of the whole of this square, which munificent donation to the Government has been estimated as of nearly the value of $500,000. Commissioners have been appointed to aid in carrying the law into effect, and instructions issued to them, a copy of which is hereto annexed. Much time was occupied and great attention bestowed in examining the various plans and estimates submitted. As a custom-house is designed exclusively for the transaction of business, every thing calculated merely for ornament or display was rejected, and that plan selected which united good taste with the greatest economy and the largest and best accommodations.

In a building of such magnitude and importance, it appeared to me necessary, before expending any part of the appropriation, to procure the best talents that could be obtained to direct the construction of the work; and I have, it is believed, succeeded in securing the services of a gentleman of high scientific attainments and great practical experience. Upon my application to the War Department, Major Wm. Turnbull, of the Topographical Corps, will, it is hoped, be detailed for this work. The great aqueduct across the Potomac at Georgetown, admitted both in Europe and in this country to be one of the greatest works of the age, was constructed under the direction of this gentleman, and wherever he is known the greatest confidence is reposed in his talents and worth, and especially in his judicious and economical expenditure of the public money. Further estimates and specifications will be submitted to Congress at the earliest practicable period. The thanks of this Department have been already tendered to the 1st municipality of New Orleans for the munificent donation of the entire custom-house square made by them to the Government. In other cities where custom-houses have been erected, large sums were paid by the Government merely for the ground; but here, the best site in New Orleans, covering an entire square, has been bestowed as a gift; and this fact, together with the great and growing commerce of New Orleans, the increased and increasing revenues collected there, being the depot of the greatest and richest valley of the globe, and destined to surpass in business, wealth, and population, nearly every other city, render it just and proper that a building commensurate with the future growth and progress of New Orleans should be erected, and that it should be placed upon an equal footing with other cities where Congress have paid both for the ground and the building; and it will be the anxious desire of this Department, with the sanction of Congress, to make the building a model of usefulness and economy. The action of the Department as to the erection of other custom-houses authorized by Congress, will be made the subject of a special report at an early period of the session.

This Department has proceeded, aided by the Fifth Auditor of the Treasury and the Chief of the Topographical Bureau, to carry into effect the act of the 3d of March, 1847, requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to cause certain light-houses and other public works to be erected, as well as to execute the other duty devolved upon the Department in regard to the light-house establishment. If we would extend our foreign and coastwise trade, and make our country the depot of universal commerce, our coast as well as lakes must be well lighted, and the coast survey must ascertain and give accurate, minute, and faithful charts of all the points accessible to commerce. In my report to Congress of the 5th of August, 1846, our light-house system was fully discussed, a comparison instituted between it and the European system, and the refracting or lenticular apparatus strongly recommended to the adoption of Congress. At the same time the Department suggested the organization of a board, attended with no expense, consisting of the Fifth Auditor, the Superintendent of the Coast Survey, two officers of the navy, an officer of the engineers, as also of the topographical corps, who would combine the information possessed by no one individual as regards our coast and navigation, the location and construction of the houses, the proper apparatus to be employed in lighting, as well as to the administrative duties appertaining to the system. As the safety of life as well as property is involved in the improvement of our light-house system, the organization of this board is respectfully recommended to the consideration of Congress. The survey of the coast of the United States, under the superintendence of Professor A. D. Bache, has made great and rapid progress, having been carried during the past year into eighteen States on the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico, including Maine on the northeast and Texas on the southwest. The publication of the results has also kept pace with the extension of the field work. The plan developed by the superintendent in successive annual reports, for the execution of this work, and the estimates, have received the approval of this Department. The sums asked for are believed to be the smallest consistent with the due progress of this great work. The introduction of steam vessels in the hydrography will tend greatly to expedite that branch of the coast survey.

Annexed is a table (marked LL) containing the value and description of foreign goods in warehouse, at the close of the last quarter, in the several ports of the Union. By the warehousing act, this Department is required to make such regulations from time to time as may be necessary to give full effect to the law, and to report to each succeeding session of Congress such regulations. Those heretofore made under the large and continuous discretionary powers granted by this act to the Department, were reported to Congress at the last session. After examing the practical working of the system under these regulations, it seemed to me susceptible of improvement; and, as it was entirely new here, I proceeded to collect information in regard to it in those countries where it had been for so many years in full and successful operation. Accordingly Messrs. C. C. Walden and D. P. Barhydt, of the New York custom-house, were sent by me to Europe last August, under specific and detailed instructions, (a copy of which is annexed,) to investigate the operation of the system in Great Britain and elsewhere in Europe, and report to me the results. The warehousing system, as it exists in Great Britain, as also in France and Belgium, was investigated by them, the fullest information being kindly afforded to them by the gentlemen connected with those establishments abroad, and especially in Great Britain. All the details were obtained by them, and communicated in an able and voluminous report to me, with an appendix covering several volumes of general as well as specific and detailed information, together with all the forms for the transaction of business, and the most full and minute information as to the mode of conducting the same. The system was found to be the most perfect in Great Britain, where it had long been in successful operation, and cherished by all parties, whether for or against protection. It is one of the principal means by which Great Britain has built up her commerce and navigation, extended the market for her fabrics, and placed under her control for so many years the exchanges and trade of the world. She has thus made London the great depot where not only all her own fabrics could be purchased, but also assorted cargoes of the products and fabrics of all other nations. According to the report of these gentlemen, the value of the goods of all kinds in warehouse in Great Britain is $387,200,000. The buildings, docks, and structures erected under free competition, almost exclusively by private enterprise, for the convenient storage of these goods in London, is estimated to have cost $40,000,000. Great as was the importance attached by this Department to the introduction here of the warehousing-system, and earnest as was the recommendation for it in my first annual report, the results, as ascertained in England, surpass my highest expectations. There it is regarded by their intelligent manufacturers as among the most important means of bringing customers to their own doors to purchase assorted cargoes, including their own manufactures.

It is thus Great Britain seeks for the products of all her industry the markets of the world; and this is what we must do, if we would compete with her successfully for those markets for the products of all our industry, including manufactures. The report of Messrs. Walden and Barhydt has been very recently made to me, and is herewith communicated to Congress, retaining for reference the voluminous appendices in the Department, subject, however, at all times, to the call of Congress. At the earliest practicable period, I will make such further regulations as are authorized by the powers delegated to me by the 5th section of the warehousing act, and will report the same to Congress. The American manufacturer, the farmer and planter, in enlarged markets at home and abroad, and in the sale of their products and fabrics to complete assortments, will derive the greatest advantage from the system; whilst the merchant and those concerned in navigation will find an increased business and augmenting profits; property in our warehousing cities will be rendered more valuable, and every branch of industry stimulated and improved. A commercial nation without warehousing accommodations is like a merchant without a storehouse; and no nation can enter upon the field of fair and open competition with other countries without such a system.

The new tariff has now been in operation more than twelve months, and has greatly augmented the revenue and prosperity of the country. The nett revenue from duties (see table NN) during the twelve months ending 1st December, 1847, under the new tariff, is $31,500,000, being $8,528,596 more than was received during the twelve months preceding, under the tariff of 1842. The nett revenue of the first quarter of the first fiscal year under the new tariff was $11,106,257 41, whilst in the same quarter of the preceding year, under the tariff of 1842, the nett revenue was only $6,153,826 58. If the revenue for the three remaining quarters should equal in the average the first, then the nett revenue from duties during the first fiscal year of the new tariff would be $44,425,029 64. If, however, the comparison is founded on all the quarterly returns for forty-eight years, (as far back as given quarterly in the Treasury records,) and the same proportion for the several quarters applied to the first quarter of this year, it would make its nett revenue $46,388,045, (per table C.) Although the nett revenue from duties already received, being $15,506,257 41 during the five months of this fiscal year, would seem to indicate its probable amount as not less than $35,000,000, yet it is estimated at $31,000,000 for the fiscal year ending 30th June, 1848, and $32,000,000 for the succeeding year, in view of the possible effects of the revulsion in Great Britain. Although our prosperity is ascribed by some to the famine there, as though Providence had made the advance of one country depend upon the calamities of another, yet it is certain that our trade with Great Britain must be greater in a series of years, when prosperity would enable her to buy more from us, (and especially cotton,) and at better prices, and sell us more in exchange, accompanied by an augmentation of revenue.

In my report of July 22, 1846, it was shown that the annual value of our products exceeds three thousand millions of dollars. Our population doubles once in every twenty-three years, and our products quadruple in the same period—that being the time within which a sum compounding itself quarter yearly at six per cent. interest will be quadrupled—as is sustained here by the actual results. Of this three thousand millions of dollars, only about $150,000,000 was exported abroad, leaving $2,850,000,000, used at home, of which at least $500,000,000 is annually interchanged between the several States of the Union. Under this system, the larger the area, and the greater the variety of climate, soil, and products, the more extensive is the commerce which must exist between the States, and the greater the value of the Union. We see then here, under the system of free trade among the States of the Union, an interchange of products of the annual value of at least $500,000,000 among our twenty-one millions of people; whilst our total exchanges, including imports and exports, with all the world besides, containing a population of a thousand millions, was last year $305,194,260, being an increase since the new tariff over the preceding year of $70,014,647. Yet the exchanges between our States, consisting of a population of twenty-one millions, being of the yearly value of $500,000,000 exchanged, make such exchange in our own country equal to $23.81 per individual annually of our own products, and reduces the exchange of our own and foreign products, (our imports and exports,) considered as $300,000,000 with all the rest of the world, to the annual value of thirty cents to each individual. That is, one person of the Union receives and exchanges annually of our own products as much as seventy-nine persons of other countries. Were this exchange with foreign countries extended to ninety cents each, it would bring our imports and exports up to $900,000,000 per annum, and raise our annual revenue from duties to a sum exceeding $90,000,000. An addition of thirty cents each to the consumption of our products exchanged from State to State by our own people, would furnish an increased market of the value only of $6,300,000; whereas an increase of thirty cents each, by a system of liberal exchanges with the people of all the world, would give us a market for an additional value of $300,000,000 per annum of our exports. Such an addition cannot occur by refusing to receive in exchange the products of other nations, and demanding the $300,000,000 per annum in specie, which could never be supplied. But, by receiving foreign products at low duties in exchange for our exports, such an augmentation might take place. The only obstacles to such exchanges are the duties and the freights. But the freight from New Orleans to Boston differs but little from that between Liverpool and Boston; and the freight from many points in the interior is greater than from England to the United States. Thus the average freight from the Ohio river to Baltimore is greater than from the same place to Liverpool; yet the annual exchanges of products between the Ohio and Baltimore exceed by many millions that between Baltimore and Liverpool. The Canadas and adjacent provinces upon our borders, with a population less than two millions, exchange imports and exports with us less in amount than the State of Connecticut, with a population of 300,000; showing that, if these provinces were united with us by free trade, our annual exchanges with them would rise to $40,000,000. It is not the freight, then, that creates the chief obstacle to interchanges of products between ourselves and foreign countries, but the duties. When we reflect, also, that exchange of products depends chiefly upon diversity—which is greater between our own country and the rest of the world than between the different States of the Union—under a system of reciprocal free trade with all the world, the augmentation arising from greater diversity of products would equal the diminution caused by freight. Thus, the Southern States exchange no cotton with each other, nor the Western States flour, nor the manufacturing States like fabrics. Diversity of products is essential to exchanges; and if England and America were united by absolute free trade, the reciprocal exchanges between them would soon far exceed the whole foreign commerce of both; and with reciprocal free trade with all nations our own country, with its pre-eminent advantages, would measure its annual trade in imports and exports by thousands of millions of dollars.

In my last annual report, and that which preceded, it was proved that the home market was wholly inadequate for our vast agricultural products. We have long had for grain and provisions the undivided markets of our own people. But these are not sufficient; and in a single year we have, with abundance of food retained at home, supplied the world with an addition at once during the last year, as shown by table AA, of $41,332,282 in value of breadstuffs and provisions, bringing the value exported that year up to $65,906,273. Our manufacturers could not have consumed this surplus, or their non-consuming machines, which are substituted in their workshops for the labor of man. If the energy of our own people can add $41,332,282 to the export and supply of our breadstuffs and provisions in a single year, what could they not add to such products if they enjoyed free of duty the markets of the world? By table BB, it appears that the augmentation of our domestic exports, exclusive of specie, last year, compared with the preceding year was $48,856,802, or upwards of 48 per cent.; and, at the same rate per cent. per annum of augmentation, would amount in 1849, per table CC, to $329,959,993, or much greater than the domestic export from State to State. (See tables from 7 to 12, inclusive.) The future per centage of increase may not be so great; but our capacity for such increased production is proved to exist, and that we could furnish these exports far above the domestic demand, if they could be exchanged free of duty in the ports of all nations.

The energetic American freeman can and does perform far more effective labor in a day than what is called by the restrictionists the pauper labor of Europe, and therefore the employer here can pay more for a day's toil to our workingmen. Measured by the day, the wages here may be higher than in Europe, but measured by the work done on that day, there is but little difference; and when all our capitalists (as some already have) shall find it to be their true interest, in addition to the wages paid to the American workman, to allow him voluntarily, because it augments the profits of capital, a fair interest in those profits, and elevate him to the rank of a partner in the concern, we may then defy all competition. This is the same principle illustrated by uniform experience, proving that he who rents his farm, builds his house, sails his ships, or conducts any other business upon shares, realizes the largest return; and that he who works by the job produces more in the same time than the laborer whose wages are paid by the day. The skill, energy, and industry, the interest and pride in success, the vigilance and perseverance that will be manifested by our intelligent workingmen under such a system, will far more than refund to capital such reasonable participation in its profits, and enable such American establishments to supply all the nations of the world. The introduction of this system will be voluntary, because it is most just and beneficial to all parties. It is the participation of all our people in the Government that is one great cause of our prosperity, and the participation of our workingmen in the profits of our industrial establishments would exhibit similar results. Our whale and other fisheries present strong evidence of the success attending American industry, when our intelligent freemen—the workingmen of the concern—stimulated by a just participation in the profits, have driven from the most distant seas the whale ships of most other nations, and nearly monopolized this pursuit. The intelligent workingmen of our country are far better prepared for the adoption of this truly republican system than those of any other nation; and this elevation of the toiling millions of America to a just participation in the profits of that capital which is made fruitful only by their industry, will yet enjoy as great a triumph as that unfettered trade and untaxed and unrestricted labor with which it ought to be, and certainly yet will be, proudly associated. Under this system, the laboring men, whilst they received the full wages heretofore allowed them, would also participate to a reasonable extent in the profits as an addition to their wages, and a most powerful and certain stimulus to render their labor more productive, and thus increase, for the benefit of all concerned, the capitalists and workingmen, the profits of the establishment. What is called the pauper labor of Europe is already inferior to our labor, but would be rendered still more powerless to compete with us when labor here participated with capital in the profits. When we reflect that the working freemen of the Union must constitute the great mass of the people, whose votes will control the Government and direct the policy of the nation, the superior comfort, education, intelligence, and information necessarily resulting to them from this improvement of our social system is important to the successful progress and perpetuity of our free institutions, and must be grateful to every republican patriot and lover of mankind. Whilst all have derived great benefits from the new tariff, it is labor that has realized the largest reward. It was contended by the advocates of protection that it enhanced the wages of labor, and that low duties would reduce wages here to the rate allowed for what they call the pauper labor of Europe. On the contrary, the opponents of high tariffs insisted that labor, left to seek freely the markets of the world, would find for its products the best prices, and as a consequence the highest reward for the labor by which they were produced. The duties have been reduced, and yet wages have advanced, and are higher now than under any protective tariff. There are many more workingmen concerned in other pursuits than in manufactures, and with much less of machinery as a substitute for labor; and by depressing agriculture, commerce, and navigation, by restricting their business and the markets for their products, the wages of those engaged in such pursuits are reduced, many workmen also lose employment, and, competing for work in manufactures, the wages of all are diminished.

It is not only the reduced duties that have produced these happy results, but the mode of reduction—the substitution of the ad valorem for unequal and oppressive minimum and specific duties. The higher duty was thus always imposed, by the very nature of the duty, upon the article of the lowest value consumed by the poor; and the lower duty assessed upon the article of the higher value used by the more wealthy, often operating as a duty of 10, 20, 30 per cent. upon the high-priced goods, and of 100 or 200 per cent. ad valorem upon articles of lower price. Nearly the entire burden of the tariff was thus thrown upon labor, by whose wages chiefly the cheaper articles were purchased; whilst capital, with whose profits the more costly goods were bought, was almost exempt from the tax. It never would have been tolerated to have imposed a duty of 10, 20, or 30 per cent. by name upon costly articles and of 100 or 200 per cent. upon cheaper fabrics, where the ad valorem rates would have exhibited the injustice and inequality of the duty; but it was accomplished by minimum and specific duties, which assessed a higher duty in proportion to value upon the cheaper articles, and the lower duty upon similar articles more costly in price; thus imposing the higher duty upon labor and the wages of labor as effectually as though the tax-gatherer had collected from the workingman a third or a fourth of his wages every day, whilst capital was comparatively exempt from taxation. Such is the system which has been overthrown by the substitution of the reduced ad valorem, operating the reverse of the former system in favor of the poor and the wages of labor as far as any tariff can so operate, and, as we see, even with lower duties collecting a larger revenue. A tax in proportion to the value of imports or property must always be more productive than one which is the reverse of that rule, or which disregards it altogether. Thus if we impose a tax of ten dollars each upon all houses, it must produce less revenue than the ad valorem tax in proportion to value; because the former tax would fall most heavily upon the poor, who were the least able to bear it, and more lightly upon the wealthy, who had greater means of payment; and thereby revenue would be diminished. Thus if the tax of ten dollars were imposed alike on the cabin and the costly dwelling, it would bring less revenue than if the same rate ad valorem, beginning with the lowest at the rate of ten dollars, were assessed in proportion to value upon all houses. Indeed, the tax upon the cabin might be reduced to a dollar, or say one per cent., and applied ad valorem to all dwellings, and it would yield a larger revenue than the anti-ad-valorem specific tax of ten dollars upon all houses, irrespective of their value, which is no more unjust or unequal than the same minimum or specific duties upon hats, caps, boots, shoes, &c., and like articles of import, without regard to their value. The ad valorem duty incorporates itself inseparably with the exact value of the article and collects the tax in exact proportion to the value; the form which, of all others, must yield the largest revenue. Perhaps the most perfect model of an anti-ad-valorem tariff was that of New Mexico, by which a duty of five hundred dollars was imposed on each wagon-load of goods introduced there, wholly irrespective of their value.

The great argument for protection is, that by diminishing imports the balance of trade is turned in our favor, bringing specie into the country. The anti-protectionists contend that commerce is chiefly but an exchange of imports for exports, and that in diminishing imports we will necessarily decrease exports in quantity or price, or both; that if we purchase more imports we will sell more exports in exchange, and at a better price; and, that if commerce is profitable, we should have a larger balance of trade in our favor, and usually larger imports of specie; and that the profits of commerce, in the increased exchange of our own for foreign products, augment the wealth of the nation. The four protective tariffs were enacted in 1816, 1824, 1828, and 1842. The compromise act intervened from March, 1833, until after the 30th of August, 1842, and the revenue tariff of 1846 went into operation last year. Let us now look at the effect of high and low tariffs upon the gain of specie during these periods, from 1821, being the earliest date to which the records of the Treasury go back on this subject. From the beginning of 1821 until the commencement of 1833, and from 30th September, 1842, until 1st July, 1846, our excess of imports of specie over the export was $12,660,312, being an average annual gain of $791,216 in specie during these sixteen years of high tariffs; whilst the excess of specie during the eleven years of the compromise act of 1833 and low tariff of 1846 was $68,507,630, and the average annual gain of specie was $6,227,967. Omitting the tariffs of 1842 and 1846, and comparing the ten years of comparatively low duties from 1833 to 1842 with the twelve years under the protective tariff, from 1821 to 1832, we find under the latter an actual loss of specie to the country by the excess of the exports of specie over the imports of $3,851,652 as the result of protection, and a gain during the succeeding ten years of comparatively low duties of $46,294,090, or at the rate per annum of $4,629,409, and in the single year under the new tariff again of $22,213,550; thus exhibiting a uniform gain of specie in the years of low as compared with high duties. The protective theory, founded upon this assumed balance of trade and gain of specie under high tariffs, is disproved by the results, and it is shown by the experience here of more than a fourth of a century, even as to specie, that it accumulates most rapidly by the gains of trade under a liberal commercial policy. Let us now see, under the same cycles of free trade and protection, whether it is true, as contended, that our domestic exports are not diminished by the restrictive system.

The records of the Treasury do not go back beyond 1821 as regards our domestic exports exclusive of specie: we must, therefore, make the comparison from that date. From 1821 to 1832, both inclusive, under high duties, the aggregate of our exports of domestic products, exclusive of specie, was $653,157,527, or at the rate of $54,429,794 per annum; from 30th Sept, 1842, to 30th June, 1846, $377,391,500, or at the rate of $94,347,875 per annum, making a total aggregate during these sixteen years of high duties, of $1,030,549,027, or at the rate of $64,409,314 per annum. During the compromise act—from 1833 to 30th September, 1842—the total of these exports was $956,168,288, or at the rate of $95,616,828 per annum; and in the year ending 30th June, 1847, $150,574,844; making, in the eleven years of low duties, an aggregate of $1,106,743,132, or at the rate of $100,613,012; being an average gain under low as compared with high duties, of domestic exports exclusive of specie, of $36,203,698 per annum, and excluding altogether the last year, a gain of $31,207,514 per annum under low as compared with high duties.

Having thus shown, both as to specie and domestic exports, the great gain in years of low as compared with high duties, let us now compare the low duty and high duty cycles as to our tonnage, foreign and coastwise.

During the eighteen years of low duties, from 1789 to 1807, (see table MM,) our tonnage increased at the rate of 29.41 per cent. per annum; from 1832 to 1842, at the rate of 4.53 per cent. per annum; and from 1846 to 1847, 10.81 per cent. in a single year. Such has been the uniform high rate of increase of our tonnage during every period of low duties. Now, under high tariffs, from 1816 to 1832, our tonnage increased 0.30 per cent.—being less than one-third of one per cent. per annum; and from 1842 to 1846, at the rate of 5.61 per cent. per annum. If it is said that the increase from 1789 to 1807 was occasioned, to some extent, by the war between France and England, this table, which is taken from the records of the Treasury, shows that from 1789 to the close of 1792, immediately preceding that war, which was declared early in 1793, our tonnage increased at the high rate of 60.16 per cent. per annum, when France and England were at peace, before the era of steam navigation, and before the acquisition of Louisiana, and the addition of the great Mississippi and of the Mexican gulf to the navigable waters of the Union, and when our flag was unknown on the great lakes of the northwest. The great increase is uniform at all times under low duties, and depressed under high duties, during the whole period of fifty years, from 1789 to 1847.

It is urged, however, that although our foreign commerce may have decreased, yet the home market has augmented in a ratio more than equivalent to the loss of our foreign trade. If this were so, it would be exhibited in the augmentation of our coastwise trade, embracing our lakes and coasts, as well as rivers; the coastwise tonnage of course augmenting in the number of vessels with the goods to be transported between the States. By reference to the same tables, it appears that our coastwise tonnage increased, from 1789 to 1807, at the rate of 22.71 per cent. per annum, from 1789 to 1792 at the rate of 25.23 per cent. per annum, from 1832 to 1842 at the rate of 6.09 per cent. per annum, and in the single year from 1846 to 1847, 13.15 per cent. Such was the great and uniform increase of our coastwise tonnage under low duties. Now, under high duties, the increase from 1816 to 1832 was at the rate of 1.50 per cent. per annum, and from 1842 to 1846, 6.45 per cent. per annum. Thus we see an immense increase, under low as compared with high duties, of the coastwise tonnage; proving that the paralysis of foreign commerce, resulting from the restrictive system, affects injuriously the home market and the trade between the States, and furnishing a demonstrative proof that, whether we look at home or abroad, we progress more rapidly under a liberal commercial policy. As the foreign tonnage rose under low duties, (as the table proves,) so did the coastwise; and as the foreign tonnage declined, so also did the coastwise tonnage; and during the high duties from 1816 to 1832, whilst the foreign tonnage actually decreased at the rate of 0.88 per cent. per annum, that of the coastwise tonnage only increased at the rate of 1.50 per cent. per annum. Yet during that period the increase of the coastwise trade ought to have been immense, including, as it did, the era of the introduction of steam navigation to a vast extent upon the rivers of the West, as also upon the lakes of the Northwest, and the opening of the great canal of New York.

It is said that the famine in Ireland was the sole cause of our late large export of breadstuffs and provisions. Now, from 1790 the values are not given so as to be stated in amounts, but the quantities are; and these prove that, even omitting the last year altogether, and comparing the low-duty periods from 1790 to 1807, and from 1833 to 1842, with the years of protection from 1817 to 1832, and from 1842 to 1846, the average export of breadstuffs and provisions was much larger in the years of low as compared with high duties, especially considering the difference of population.

As a still more conclusive proof that the export of breadstuffs and provisions was much greater under low than high duties, it appears by table DD, that our total export of cotton from 1790 to 1807, both inclusive, was of the value of $81,074,843; and during the same period our export of domestic produce, exclusive of cotton, was $530,411,134; making our exports of domestic produce, exclusive of cotton, at the rate, from 1790 to 1807, of $29,467,285; which, it will be perceived at once, vastly exceeds the average annual exports of domestic produce exclusive of cotton under years of high duties.

Indeed, the tables of the Treasury clearly prove that—whether we look at imports or exports, the revenue, the gain of specie, the tonnage coastwise or foreign, the coinage at the mint, or the export of breadstuffs and provisions—the balance is largely in favor of the low-duty periods.

The Department has thus reviewed the books of the Treasury, and presented the results, constituting the record of a nation's history from the foundation of the Government down to the present period, in condemnation of the protective policy. These records show as to imports and exports, revenue, the gain of specie, the tonnage foreign and coastwise, the rate of increase in each and all of these cases is greater under low than high duties. These records are not arguments merely, but ascertained results, amounting to mathematical proof that the nation's advance in wealth is most rapid under low duties; thus sustaining the views of those great philosophic writers, unconnected with party, who, both in Europe and America, have uniformly maintained the same position.

Comparing the first twelve months, ending the 1st of December, 1847, under the new tariff with preceding years we find proofs of increased prosperity. The revenue has largely augmented; so also have the imports, exports, and tonnage, our imports of specie, our coinage at the mint, our agricultural and mineral products, our commerce and navigation, the business upon our lakes, rivers, and coastwise—upon our railroads and canals, whilst in every direction manufactories are being established or enlarged, and new manufacturing towns and cities are springing into existence. Even the revulsion in England, which always produces such disasters to all our great interests, including cotton, this year, with the famine combined, affects nothing thus far compared with former years but the great staple of cotton. Instead of ruin we find prosperity; the manufacturers receiving fair profits, and the workingmen augmented wages and employment. Coal and iron are in greater demand and bringing better prices than before the repeal of the tariff of 1842; yet they can derive no portion of their augmented price from that famine abroad, to which is attributed by some all our existing prosperity, but which famine, in fact, is causing a temporary drain of specie to England, not to pay balances, but because bills are discredited, which has for the time depressed the price of cotton, and which is the only brief check at this period to our advancing prosperity. If, as is truly the case, our wealth as connected with the mines, the forest, and the fisheries, our agriculture, commerce, manufactures, and navigation are more prosperous, and, above all, wages are augmented, why should we change the existing system? The predictions of its failure have themselves failed. The new tariff is no longer an experiment; the problem is solved; and experience proves that the new system yields more revenue, enhances wages, and advances more rapidly the public prosperity. In the midst of all this success, why put in jeopardy by any change the nation's revenue and welfare? When free trade is advancing so rapidly throughout the world, shall we retrograde and invite Great Britain to re-enact her corn laws and drive again from her ports our breadstuffs and provisions? And now, when under our successful example the ports of Europe are most probably about being more widely opened to all our exports, shall we check the advancing spirit of the age and extinguish the dawning light of commercial freedom? Every where nations are being aroused up on this subject; their statesmen are resisting the interested classes, and exposing the injury and injustice of shackles upon trade, and will soon enrol the names of other countries on the great international league of commercial freedom for the benefit of mankind. It was our own country and her public functionaries who proclaimed these great truths before they had received the sanction of other nations. Our great movement was felt in British councils, was quoted as a precedent in the halls of British legislation, where American free-trade documents were recorded among their archives, and our doctrines approved and example followed by the repeal of the British corn laws and the reduction or repeal of other duties upon our exports. Indeed, it has been conceded by some of our most distinguished protectionists that the promulgation of free-trade doctrines in the American official documents of 1845 certainly accelerated, if indeed it did not actually ensure, the repeal of the British corn laws. With such results already from our efforts, we have every motive to persevere until the free-trade doctrines of Great Britain and America, the two great nations of kindred blood and language, shall open the ports and disenthral the commerce of the world. What may we not hope from our efforts with other nations if they have succeeded in Great Britain? That country, so long the bulwark of protection, applying it by a sliding scale upon the masses of her people down to the utmost point of human endurance, has at length overcome the errors of ages. One of her own great statesmen, the most able and efficient champion of the protective policy, at length lifts his eyes to the light of truth, and, with that moral firmness and intrepidity which is the highest evidence of real greatness, abandons the cherished policy of his life only because he found it to be injurious to his country, and unites in the support of commercial freedom with his truly illustrious but untitled countryman, who has earned for himself the highest of all earthly distinctions—that of benefactor of his country and of mankind.

France, Russia, Germany, Austria, Italy, Prussia, Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, Denmark, and Sweden, and even China, have moved, or are vibrating or preparing to move, in favor of the same great principle; and if our own country and Great Britain adhere to their present enlightened policy, the rest of the world must lose their commerce, or adopt, as they will, our example.

Pennsylvania, surpassingly rich in coal and iron, and but a year since so unanimous for protection, has tried low duties. Her coal and iron pour forth their treasures in increasing abundance; her breadstuffs and provisions find a better and more abundant market; her agriculture, her commerce, her manufactures and navigation, her miners, farmers, merchants, and seamen, manufacturers, and mechanics; and, above all, her toiling workmen with enhanced wages, and every pursuit of industry blessed with increased prosperity, rise up in favor of the new and more liberal commercial policy, and her people, by a majority unprecedented, largest in the counties where her coal and iron do most abound, recall their former verdict in favor of protection, and Pennsylvania becomes the very keystone of the arch of commercial freedom, which must span the hemisphere we inhabit, and unite the interests of mankind.

Nations cannot grow rich by destroying or restricting their commerce; and if the restriction is good, the prohibition must be better. Commerce is an exchange of products; specie often adjusting balances, but constituting so inconsiderable a part of the value of products and property, but a small portion of sales can be for specie, but must be in exchange for other products. The attempt, then, by high tariffs, to make large sales for any length of time for the specie of other nations, is impracticable, and must diminish the quantity and price of our exports. As specie sales for long periods or great extent are impossible, that nation which, from the surplus products of its own labor, at the best price, purchases at the lowest rate the largest quantity of the products of the labor of the world, progresses in wealth most rapidly. Thus, if one nation, by high duties, should forbid its citizens purchasing any of the products of other nations, except at a greatly advanced price, or should restrict the exchange of the products of its own labor for the products of the labor of other nations, such restricting nation would certainly receive less of the comforts or necessaries of life in exchange for the products of its own labor, and in this manner (the wages of labor being connected with the value of its products) depresses wages. If there were three nations—the first raising breadstuffs, the second sugar, and the third cotton—and the first restricted the exchanges of its breadstuffs for the sugar of the second, and the cotton of the third, it would certainly get less sugar and cotton in exchange for its breadstuffs, than other nations which encourage free exchanges. Labor, then, untaxed and unrestricted in all its exchanges and markets, will certainly receive in exchange a larger amount of the products of labor, and consequently accumulate wealth more rapidly than where labor is restricted in its products to a single market, abandoning the profits of the exchanges with other nations. It is thus clear that a tax or restriction on commerce is a restriction or tax upon labor, and falls chiefly upon the wages of labor; and it will soon become an axiomatic truth that all tariffs are a tax upon labor and wages. One of the most common errors is to compare our imports, exclusive of specie, with our domestic exports, exclusive of specie; and if there are more such imports than exports in any one year, such balance of trade is set down as so much lost by foreign commerce to the nation. A single fact proves the fallacy of this position. From 1790 to the present period, our imports, exclusive of specie, have exceeded our domestic exports, exclusive of specie, several hundred millions of dollars; yet our wealth has increased with a rapidity unprecedented. The theory, therefore, is disproved by the facts; and the reasons are obvious, of which the following are among the most prominent: The products of our whale fisheries extracted by our hardy seamen from the ocean, and most clearly one of the great products of American industry, when imported here are included in the list of our foreign imports, and go to swell several millions of dollars every year this alleged unfavorable balance. The earnings of freight in foreign commerce by our crews and vessels are not brought into the account, or often against us, when invested in foreign imports. The profits of exchanging our imports, or of sales of foreign products, do not appear in the balance, or, if so, to a very limited extent, or often against us. Thus an American merchant ships from Boston a cargo of ice during the winter, valued at that time, as an export, at a very small sum. He sends it to Calcutta, and sells it at an advance of perhaps a thousand per cent. The proceeds he may invest there in the purchase of goods, which he can bring to Liverpool, and probably sell at a profit of twenty or thirty per cent.; and the aggregate profits realized at Calcutta and Liverpool he takes home in specie, or in imports, or in a bill of exchange, which he probably sells at a premium for remittance. Yet these profits may never appear, or may even appear as an unfavorable balance under the head of imports. Upon the same fallacious theory, if, instead of purchasing millions of foreign fabrics from the profits of foreign commerce, such valuable foreign articles were presented gratuitously to the American merchant, and brought by him into the country, they would swell this alleged unfavorable balance of trade. To sum up the result, as proved by the tables of the Treasury, it appears that, if the augmentation was in the same ratio as during the last fiscal year since the repeal of the tariff of 1842, our domestic exports in 1849 would exceed those of any other nation; and our imports in 1851, our specie in 1850, our tonnage in 1851, and if our revenue augmented in the same ratio in succeeding years as in the year ending on the 1st of December, 1847, compared with the preceding year, our revenue from duties in 1854 would exceed that of any other nation from the same source. It is not contended, great as the future augmentation may be as to imports or exports, tonnage, specie, and revenue, that the advance will be so rapid as it was this year, when, with the shackles stricken from commerce, we bounded forward at such a wonderful rate of progress. But that the increase under low duties in a series of years will be regular, rapid, and progressive, is not doubted. Before the repeal of the British corn laws, the argument here for high duties was as a measure of retaliation, by closing our markets against British fabrics, to force her to open her ports to our breadstuffs and provisions. Well, she has thus opened her ports freely, and invites the exchange; and yet it is still contended that we ought to keep out her fabrics by high duties, and of course induce her to re-establish her corn laws.

This is a new commercial era, and there are many causes combining at this time to augment trade among nations—the reduction or repeal of duties, the construction of railroads and canals to bring the products and fabrics of all nations from the interior to the seaboard, with ocean steamers in addition to sailing vessels to facilitate and hasten the exchange, and with China, containing nearly one-third of the population of the globe, brought at last within the range of liberal exchanges at low duties. Our canals and railroads, bringing our own products and fabrics from the interior to the seaboard or lakes and rivers of the West, the points of distribution for domestic consumption, as well as for shipment in exchange for the fabrics of other nations, are of great and increasing importance. Without these roads and canals there are very many points where coal and lime and iron, and other materials, could not be brought together for profitable use in the same establishment; there are many farms and manufactories whose products and fabrics could never have found a market, and the coal and iron of Pennsylvania and of other States must have remained almost a useless treasure. This, in itself, is a great change in favor of our domestic industry, and is a far better protection to all the products and fabrics of American labor than any restriction which may be imposed by high tariffs; and, in truth, dispenses even with the pretext for any such policy, which, when the internal communication has brought our own products or fabrics upon the seaboard, would arrest their exchange there for the productions of the world. The doctrine that we cannot encounter foreign cargoes in fair and open competition is as erroneous and as injurious to the national character as were the fears of some in 1812 that our gallant navy must be retained within our ports and harbors under the protection of their forts and ordnance, and dare not venture upon the ocean to meet on equal terms, gun for gun and man for man, the navies of the world. If our country is inferior, and cannot meet, at home and abroad, upon equal terms, the products and fabrics of other nations, it is time that we should prepare to do so. Protection may exclude rival fabrics and shrink from the encounter, but we can only assume the position of an equal by trying our strength under free trade or low duties. This we have done and succeeded, and have thereby placed our own industry upon that solid basis which fears no competition.

We knew not our strength until it had been tried by low duties, and proved that protection is unnecessary. We are not inferior to other nations in the arts or sciences, in war or in peace, upon the ocean or the land, in agriculture, commerce, manufactures, or navigation. We have the raw material in greater abundance and at a lower price, cheaper subsistence, more mineral wealth, more fertile lands, yielding from a better soil and warmer sun more to the acre, and greater variety of products, with exemption from costly government and oppressive internal taxation; at least equal skill, enterprise, industry, energy, perseverance, and inventive genius; our working freemen more vigorous and intelligent, and performing in a day more effective labor, with better and freer institutions, and with public and individual prosperity, and capital augmenting in a greater ratio than in any other nation. We require no protection, because our industry and prosperity repose upon the immovable basis of superior advantages; and advancing, as we are, more rapidly than any other nation, in all the elements of wealth and power, our exports, imports, tonnage, and specie, as has been already proved, will soon exceed those of any other country, and the prices be regulated at the creditor city of New York. Restrictions upon the commerce of the Union are especially restrictions upon her commerce, and have impeded her advance towards her destiny—predicted in my last report—as the centre and emporium of the commerce of the world. For that high position, she possesses more natural advantages and greater elements of augmenting wealth and business than any other city.

Let us remove the obstructions which high tariffs have erected round her magnificent harbor. Let her have free scope to develop her transcendent natural advantages, and she must become the depot of universal commerce, where international balance-sheets will be adjusted, and assorted products and fabrics of all nations interchanged; the great regulator of prices current, and the barometer of the exchanges of the world. The time is approaching when a bill upon New York will bring a higher premium than a bill upon any other city, and when the tribute of millions of dollars, paid by us to other nations upon exchange, shall be paid by them to us, and flow into our own great commercial emporium. Whilst New York must contain a large population, as well as New Orleans, the principal depot of the mighty West, and many other cities, they will all be small indeed compared with the masses of the people of the Union, who will go on augmenting in a corresponding ratio, still leaving an immense majority of the nation engaged in agricultural pursuits, and supplying with their products not only our own markets, but those of other nations, in an ever-increasing ratio, by reciprocal exchanges under free trade or low duties. Although it must gratify all our people that an American city should become the centre of universal commerce, the advantages will not be limited to that place; but all the people, and cities, and States of the Union will feel the favorable effects of this great revolution. Every branch of our industry will be enlarged and invigorated; and foreign cities, having ceased to control our commerce or currency, will no longer sink at their pleasure and with their revulsions, as heretofore, and as they now do, the price of our products. Other Atlantic cities may not be as great as New York, yet they will all be greater when the emporium of universal commerce shall be here, than they would have been with any foreign city occupying that commanding position. This destiny we can never accomplish if commerce is restricted here, and our industry, instead of seeking for its products and fabrics the markets of more than a thousand millions of people, retires within our home market, confined to twenty-one millions of people, and surrenders without an effort the markets and commerce of the world. A liberal commercial policy is essential to the fulfilment of this great destiny of New York and of the Union; but, above and beyond all, the Union itself—the free-trade Union—its perpetuity and onward progress in area, wealth, and population, are necessary to the accomplishment of these grand results. Upon this point, sectional fanatics, few in number at home, and despots abroad concurring with them, may hope or menace; but the American Union is a moral and physical, a political and commercial necessity, and never can or will be dissolved. As well might we attempt to decompose the great element of nature which holds together the planets, suns, and systems of the universe, as hope to sever the links of mighty lakes and rivers, of ever-extending telegraphs, railroads, and canals; of free trade, of intercourse, of interest, of love and affection, of the glories of the past, the present, and the future, which must forever bind together the American Union. Indeed, when we look upon the American revolution, the framing of our constitution, the addition of Louisiana, Florida, Texas, and Oregon—our ever-extending area, projects, and population, our triumphs in war and peace—we must be blind to the past and close our eyes upon the fulfilling realities of the future, if we cannot perceive and gratefully acknowledge that a higher than any earthly power still guards and directs our destiny, impels us onward, and has selected our great and happy country as a model and ultimate centre of attraction for all the nations of the world.

R. J. WALKER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

Hon. GEORGE M. DALLAS,
Vice President of the United States, &c.

The papers in the city of MEXICO are publishing a long communication by Senor OTERO, a distinguished member of the Mexican Congress, upon the late negotiations at the house of Alfaro. Senor Otero maintains that the only thing really in dispute between the two Governments is *the question of Texas*, and that all negotiations should be confined to a solution of that single affair. He invokes the aid of public opinion to induce Congress, immediately upon assembling, to declare that the Government shall enter into no treaty of peace with the United States, under any circumstances, by which national territory other than Texas shall be alienated. He condemns the conduct of the late Mexican Commissioners, in assenting to any arrangement whatever as to California, and demands that the hands of the Government shall be at once tied up absolutely, so as to render a legal peace at the expense of any territory save Texas absolutely impossible.

FROM THE NEW ORLEANS BEE.

Of the matter of Mr. CLAY'S speech, we expressed our opinion when we had nothing before us save the resolutions and the brief sketch which accompanied them. That opinion has undergone no change by a careful and attentive perusal of the entire speech. We believe Mr. CLAY correct in almost every position he has assumed, and in the main points of the speech, especially in that portion of it which asserts the exclusive control of Congress over the question of war, and its duty to proclaim the objects for which the present war with Mexico is prosecuted, the people at large, without distinction of party, cannot do otherwise than concur. If the boasted attributes of a free people are worth any thing practically, they should surely entitle us to demand of our representatives and of the Executive that they inform us why we are fighting and for what we are fighting. To keep us in ignorance of these points is to treat us like the fettered slaves of a despot, who must do his bidding without murmur or question.

On the issue of territory or no territory, Mr. CLAY occupies conservative ground. He foresees with prophetic ken all the peril that surrounds the question. He knows that while the South continues to claim the right to extend her institutions in any newly acquired soil, and the North persists in refusing that right, the attempt to increase the present limits of the Union must be fruitful in discord, heart-burning, and sectional feuds. Like a wise and prudent patriot, whose love of country is paramount to the lust of dominion, Mr. CLAY would avoid a crisis while it may yet be shunned. He is against the annexation of Mexican territory, because the effort to annex it will involve collisions of the most distracting and painful character, and because such acquisition would be dearly purchased at the price of dissensions, dangerous if not fatal to the stability of the Union. This is a growing sentiment among the reflecting and patriotic citizens of the country, and the period, we think, is not far distant when the South in self-defence will stand to the principles distinctly enunciated by Mr. CLAY.

A SCIENTIFIC CONGRESS assembled at Venice during the present year, and fourteen hundred and seventy-two men of science, and about two thousand lovers of science, met in the Ducal Palace, commencing on the 18th of September, and continued three weeks. The assembly had under its consideration questions of physics, mathematics, mechanics, geology, mineralogy, geography, archæology, agriculture, technology, botany, vegetable physiology, chemistry, zoology, comparative anatomy, and medicine.

HOGS.—Thirteen thousand hogs have been transported by the railroad to the Baltimore market during the past two weeks. There are now registered on the books of the office at this place twelve thousand one hundred more for the same destination.—*Cumberland Civilian.*