

REPORT

OF

THE TARIFF COMMISSION,

APPOINTED

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ISAAC A. HEDGES.

SAINT LOUIS, MO., *September 10, 1882.*

Mr. ISAAC A. HEDGES, of Saint Louis, addressed the Commission as follows:

The subject upon which I desire to speak is that of sorghum culture. This industry is a growing one, and I have devoted considerable time and attention to it. I have brought with me numerous samples of sorghum, produced in different parts of the country, to which I call the attention of the Commission. I have brought these samples with me from various sections to show you what is being done in Iowa, Kansas, Tennessee, Illinois, Missouri, Texas, and other States in this direction. You will see from the variety of specimens before you that this industry is spread over a large section of the country, although it is in its infancy comparatively. What we need at present is proper encouragement from the government in our efforts to permanently establish its production. We ask the Commission to recommend to Congress that they encourage and assist us in this enterprise and in our effort to maintain this business.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. What amount of protection do you desire?—Answer. Whatever protection is sufficient for our brethren of the South who are cultivating sugar cane is sufficient for us. We join hands; our interests are alike. We are both engaged in producing the same pure article of sugar; there is no glucose mixture or deceptive colors used in our production. They are pure and good. The present tariff is satisfactory, so far as I know. There is no difference between our interests and the sugar-planters; they are one and the same.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. What is the acreage devoted to sorghum in this country at the present time?—A. I can only state this, that the seed we have sold amounted to more than we have ever sold before. All the seed we had on hand was disposed of.

Q. What has been the acreage of sorghum heretofore?—A. I cannot state, as we have not been able to gather statistics to any extent. We have been expecting that the government would assist us in that way, by gathering the statistics at Washington. I think the acreage, however, this year, is at least double what it has ever been before in the United States.

Q. What is the probable amount of the product of sirup for 1882?—A. It will go far up into the million gallons. There are five large establishments in Kansas all the while at work, and in Illinois there are three or four more; also some in Iowa, and in Mississippi (on the college farm) they will probably work up 50 or 100 acres this year. It is a new industry with them.

Q. What is the average yield of sirup per acre?—A. It ought to amount to about 100 gallons, though a crop such as we are growing right here at the fair grounds will yield about 150 gallons. I have known the orange cane, a larger, more vigorous, and productive cane, to yield 317 gallons.

Q. What is the average wholesale price of it?—A. That depends upon the color. Very few of the gentlemen are sending in a product that is uniform in color. The specimens I have here would probably bring, some of them, 50 cents a gallon, and others 40 cents a gallon.

Q. Is the color owing to the peculiarity of the cane, or to the process of manufacture?—A. It is owing to both. For instance, this specimen [exhibiting a bottle of the sirup] was produced from a crop of 800 acres, where it was necessary for them to start early in order to get through during the season, and they worked the green cane, which accounts for the color.

Q. Could you give us the cost per gallon of manufacturing that sirup from the cane to the finished article?—A. That would be difficult to do. Nearly all the persons engaged in this business are inexperienced—have not been long in the business and are working to a disadvantage. We cannot run machinery as our friends in the South do in the culture of sugar cane. But it is estimated, taking into account the cost of equipment, and all that is necessary to produce it, that the cost would be about 15 to 18 cents a gallon.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. Has this product ever been put on the market here in Saint Louis in any quantity?—A. I sold here last year ten car-loads of it at 47 cents a gallon.

Q. How many barrels to a car-load?—A. About 44 or 45 barrels; This year they are sending 40 barrels to a car load. I have sold one car-load to-day. I should like to show you how beautiful it appears when it has gone through the refinery.

Q. What did you receive per gallon for that car-load you sold to-day?—A. 40 cents a gallon.

Q. And it cost you 18 or 20 cents a gallon to manufacture it?—A. It would cost that where it was made; but then there is 10 cents a gallon freight to be added, and other expenses.

Q. But I wanted to develop the fact that it was a profitable business for a farmer to engage in?—A. Oh, yes, sir; this same sirup is sold at retail for 50 cents a gallon.

Q. Has your attention ever been called to the fact that in New Jersey a bonus is given to the cultivators of this product?—A. Yes, sir; I am familiar with that. If Kansas should offer such a bonus it would bankrupt the State in a single season.

Q. What is the bonus given by the State of New Jersey?—A. It is a cent a pound for all sugar manufactured, and \$1 a ton for the cane used.

Q. Are you aware that there is a farm of 1,200 acres in New Jersey, of which 900 acres are devoted to the culture of sorghum?—A. No, sir; I have not heard of that before.

A. A. MELLIER.

SAINT LOUIS, MO.; *September 19, 1882.*

Mr. A. A. MELLIER, druggist, of Saint Louis, addressed the Commission as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: Among the diversified interests which have occasion to ask consideration at your hands, not the least important is the one which we have the honor of representing, namely, the wholesale druggists and importers of this city. Next to New York, there is no question but that Saint Louis is the largest distributing point for articles of this class in the entire country; our gross sales of foreign and domestic drugs, chemicals and essential oils, and druggists' sundries aggregating annually well up in the millions.

In our views upon the tariff we count ourselves among the *conservative element*, disclaiming free trade on the one hand and excessive duties on the other. We fully recognize the importance of a judicious tariff for the purposes of revenue towards meeting the full obligations of our government, but are opposed to granting governmental *subsidies* for the protection of private individuals and corporations at the expense of the general public. It is no exaggeration on our part when we assert that the home manufacturers of many articles in our line have enjoyed and are now enjoying under the existing tariff the benefits of protection to such an extent as to produce a lack of competition far beyond what is right, just, or healthy for the general trade. They have not only been *protected*, but they have been granted monopolies and thereby possess absolute power in controlling and fixing the prices of their products. The most earnest advocate of what is called "protection" will concede the injustice of this and will confess that these evidences of misapplied *charity* form a serious and threatening objection to the whole system.

We would urge a thorough revision of the tariff on these special goods to which this objection applies, granting home industries all just and reasonable facilities for the successful protection of their work by fair and proper legislation, but scrupulously avoiding such as removes all competition and establishes them as monopolists.

We would ask that all crude materials which are not or cannot be produced in this country, and which enter into the composition of these articles, be admitted *duty free*, and thus place our home manufacturers in a position to compete with foreigners on an even footing. Let them combat the alleged *bugbear* of cheap labor by the acknowledged Yankee superiority in mechanical ingenuity. Let them show their competitors, as has been done before, that brains and determination can accomplish in one day with ten men what has occupied the time of one hundred men for many days. Americans should scorn protection as a means of support. They have always been believed capable of protecting themselves, and their name all over the world is a synonym for independence and resistless energy and perseverance in the attainment of their objects.

Quinine is a drug most familiar to the public on account of its very general use, and has engaged the attention of Congress in connection with the tariff question for many years. Some two years ago it was placed on the free list at urgent solicitation, and since that time the price has certainly averaged somewhat lower. We sincerely believe

that it would now be only just to the home manufacturers to restore it to an import duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem, and we would anticipate if not a lower at least a more uniform price as a consequence. We have therefore signified our approval of this change in a memorial signed by the members of the Western Drug Association. We would also recommend that the cinchona barks, from which quinine is made, be admitted without any exceptions free of duty, and trust that in the revision of the internal-revenue laws all spirits for use in the manufacture of this article will be absolved from tax.

Sulphate of cinchonidia is a twin product of cinchona bark, and is used in the proportion of over two ounces to one of quinine. It has the same therapeutic properties as quinine and costing only one-half as much. It may be appropriately called the quinine of the poor. While quinine has been admitted free, this article, classed as a medicinal salt, is now taxed 40 per cent. When first introduced, with all the advantage of being a new preparation, and in a measure a substitute for a higher priced article, its marketable value was only 60 and 65 cents per ounce, while now it commands \$1, and has been considerably higher at other times. We would therefore recommend a reduction from 40 to 20 per cent.

To be as concise as possible in our enumeration of what we conceive to be some of the defects of our tariff, we will first direct your attention to the very complicated subject of duties on chemical preparations, and accordingly suggest as a corrective, to place them all, with exception of sulphate of quinine, on a uniform scale of 20 per cent. ad valorem duty.

Another feature of the existing law to which we are opposed is the discriminating duties on articles imported indirectly from countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope. This is not only burdensome, but unjust, and is purely a step in promoting a special marine interest, which has only at the best a very ephemeral existence. This provision, we are happy to say, however, will, after the first of January, 1883, be no longer in force, but during its existence it certainly works great injury to both commerce and manufacturers. We also favor the discontinuance hereafter of what we term "compound duties," which means levying a specific and ad valorem duty upon the same article. We also recommend the abolition of the 2½ and 5 per cent. commissions added to the original cost of our foreign invoices, it being simply an additional duty levied without apparent cause or reason.

Another ridiculous interpretation of the law to which we are subjected is the imposition of a duty on glass bottles and vials when the article itself is admitted free.

We name below a list of articles on which we think the tax excessive, and which appear to have no other justification than that they have always been so taxed, presumably for the special benefit of a few. Of these we would call particular attention to what is termed on the tariff book "toilet articles," on which we would ask a reduction of 50 per cent. on the present tax. Also to the brush list, embracing hair, tooth, cloth, nail brushes, and a variety of such necessaries, on which the duties should not exceed 20 per cent. These are articles which are erroneously called luxuries, and yet they must be had by every family in the land. In addition to an increased revenue to the general government, of which we must not lose sight altogether, we believe this reduction will result in a greatly improved manufacture of these very essential articles, brought about by a stimulation to competition, where now there is comparatively none. We have every advantage in the way of material and should be willing to compete honorably for the trade. In conclusion,

we would state that we have purposely limited our list, knowing the great number of articles which will be brought before you for revision, and realizing that the great extent of work before your Commission will preclude any examination in detail of special classes.

We submit the foregoing with great respect for your thoughtful consideration.

A. A. MELLIER.
 RICHARDSON & Co.
 MEYER, BROS. & Co.
 COLLINS BROS.
 GEO. K. HOPKINS & Co.
 JACOB S. MERRELL.

This report is signed by five of the wholesale druggists of the city of Saint Louis, besides myself. If you desire, I will read the names of a portion of the articles to which we call your particular attention.

Articles.	Present duty.	Proposed duty.
Acid, tartaric	per lb. 15 cents. . .	5 cents.
Asafoetida	ad valorem.. 20 per cent..	Free.
Cassia	per lb. 10 cents . . .	5 cents.
Chlan turpentine	ad valorem.. 40 per cent..	Free.
Chinoidine	do 40 per cent..	20 per cent.
Cinchonidia sulphate	do 40 per cent..	20 per cent.
Cod-liver oil for medicinal purposes	do 40 per cent..	20 per cent.
Oil, lemon	per lb. 50 cents . . .	Free.
Oil, croton	do \$1	60 cents.
Toilet articles, viz: Essences, extracts, toilet waters, cosmetics, hair oils, pomades, hair dressings, hair restoratives, hair dyes, tooth washes, dentifrices, tooth pastes, aromatic sachons, or other perfumeries or cosmetics used or applied as perfumes or applications to the hair, mouth, or skin.	50 per cent. ad valorem.	25 per cent.
Tooth brushes, hair brushes, and others made of bristles or hair.....	40 per cent..	20 per cent.
Pomades. The article known by the French word "pomade," being the odor of flowers preserved in grease and used as a basis for manufacturing perfumes, is taxed.	50 per cent. ad valorem.	
Recommended to be		Free.
Cologne waters and other alcoholic perfumeries. ad valorem and \$3 per gall..	50 per cent..	25 per cent. and \$2.
Toilet soaps: Fancy, honey, perfumed, transparent, and all descriptions of toilet and shaving.	10 cents per lb. and 25 percent. ad valorem.	20 per cent.
Castile soap	1 cent per lb..	30 per cent..
Sponges	20 per cent..	Free.
Bay rum	per proof gall. \$1	50 cents.
Fincoilve oil (salad oil, whether in flasks, bottles, tins, or barrels) . . per gall..	\$1	25 cents.
Patent medicines, viz: All pills, powders, tinctures, troches or lozenges, sirups, cordials, bitters, anodynes, tonics, plasters, liniments, salves, pastes, drops, waters, or medicinal preparations or compositions recommended to the public as proprietary medicines.	50 per cent..	25 per cent.

In regard to the pomades referred to, I will state that all the American manufacturers of perfumes import this grease from France. The perfumes are extracted from the flowers there, and brought to this country in large cans in grease, and they have these fine essences extracted from them to make extracts. It is really an article in which the manufacturers themselves are probably more interested than the druggists, because we do not import them directly. We merely suggest that they ought to come in free of duty as a crude material.

We also propose a duty on cologne waters of 25 per cent. and \$2 a gallon, which is more than the internal-revenue tax on the alcohol itself, because it is presumed that much of the alcohol is exported from this country and brought back in the shape of these perfumes and extracts.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Question. From whom do you purchase your quinine?—Answer. I presume over 50 per cent. is the American product.

Q. Who are the manufacturers of it?—A. Powers & Weightman, of Philadelphia; McKesson & Robbins, of New York; Rosengarten & Sons, of Philadelphia; Keasbey & Mattison, and White. I think there are five manufacturers in the United States.

Q. Do you find any difference in their prices?—A. Oh, no; they have to conform to the market price, and that is regulated now according to the supply and demand. Foreign quinine, you might say, virtually regulates the market price.

Q. I am not after inferences; I am after facts. They are all the same price, are they not?—A. The American quinine commands 10 to 15 cents an ounce more than the foreign quinine.

Q. But the American quinine is all of the same price?—A. Yes, sir; Powers & Weightman's quinine runs about 5 cents above that of the other American manufacturers on account of its reputation.

Q. You are engaged in the drug business here, are you not?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You have made your recommendations. Now, can you call to mind any article in the *materia medica* on which you have recommended an increase of duty, or one on the free list which you propose to have taxed, except quinine?—A. In the suggestions we have made we have not recommended the abolishing of any duty; we merely plead for a reduction.

Q. Except on the single article of quinine, and on that you propose an increase?—A. Yes; but many of us have recommended that under protest.

Q. I should think it ought to have been under protest. Is not quinine a medicine?—A. Yes, sir.

Q.—And in very general use?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. It is on the free list?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And you propose to tax it 10 per cent., do you?—A. We did that, thinking it would probably be an equipoise to the foreign competition.

Q. You have recommended a reduction of about 50 per cent. of duties upon all the perfumes used in this country?—A. No, sir; only about 25 per cent.

Q. Well, put it at 25 per cent.; while you have recommended that a medicine now free and in general use shall be taxed. Is not quinine very generally used by all the people, rich and poor?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Who are the principal purchasers of these perfumes?—A. It is not confined to any particular class.

Q. But some people buy more than others; what class of people usually buy them?—A. The extremely poor may not indulge in perfumery, but I believe even the colored race are very fond of it.

Q. I understand that; but I ask you a plain, simple question, which you can answer if you want to, or you can evade. Who are the principal consumers of the perfumery sold by the druggists of this country?—A. I should say that the wealthy and middle classes were.

Q. Precisely so. Now, can you give any reason why you propose to reduce the tariff upon these articles and put it upon quinine, which is now admitted free?—A. I would not like to have you draw any inference from the fact that I suggest the restoration of 10 per cent. on quinine. In the goodness of our hearts—

Q. In the goodness of your hearts you respond to the request of five or

six manufacturers, and in obedience to their desire you ask that the tax of 10 per cent. on quinine shall be restored?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Now, one other question and I am through. You say that the taking off of the duty on quinine has reduced the price?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you not believe that the restoring of the duty would increase the price?—A. I do not think an addition of 10 per cent. duty would have any effect upon the price whatever.

Q. Then why do the manufacturers so earnestly desire it as to ask all the druggists of the country to come to their relief and have the duty restored if it would not increase the price?—A. I think foreign quinine would—

Q. I am not talking about foreign quinine, I am talking about American quinine, and that is a plain question.—A. I will leave that question to be answered by the manufacturers themselves. I have no desire to press that point at all, but as to the other articles I have referred to, I think the duties upon them are very excessive.

Q. I may not disagree with you entirely on that point, but I am trying to ascertain the reason why you have made a discrimination against quinine, which is a medicine of universal use; why you should recommend a tax upon that and let these other things go free?—A. Well, we have counterbalanced that by recommending a reduction of 20 per cent. on sulphate of cinchonidia, and the manufacturers will not thank us for making that suggestion. The same manufacturers make both these articles.

Q. How many firms in the United States are engaged in the manufacture of quinine?—A. Only five.

Q. And you would increase the price of quinine used by 50,000,000 people for the benefit of those five manufacturers. Won't you reconsider your recommendation and take it back?—A. I have already stated that I did that in obedience to the wishes of the Western Wholesale Drug Association. I do not come before you as an individual asking for it.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. That is exactly what I believed before I began to question you.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You have referred to the matter of charges and commissions; what are the commissions generally paid on imports in the drug line—I mean the commissions on foreign invoices?—A. Two and a half per cent. on some and 5 per cent. on others.

Q. Have you any idea what percentage of charges there is in addition to that?—A. There are the consular charges.

Q. I mean the charges for packing and freight.—A. I do not know; I will refer you to Mr. Meyer, one of my colleagues, who can probably answer that question more accurately than I could.

Q. Can you suggest a rate which would be equivalent to what your charges and commissions now cost you, and which would cover them?

Mr. MEYER. I should say it would simplify matters if it was made 3 per cent., or not more than 5 per cent.

Commissioner OLIVER. I want figures which will cover your present charges and commissions.

Mr. MEYER. I should think about 5 per cent. would cover them.

Commissioner OLIVER. And you think that would be preferable to the present system?

Mr. MEYER. Yes, sir.

Mr. C. F. G. MEYER, druggist, of Saint Louis, said :

I will only consume your time for a few moments. We are willing to admit that we are asking the reimposition of the duty on quinine in the interest of the manufacturers; but we believe that it is not an unjust thing that we are asking. Even supposing that this 10 per cent. tax would increase the price of the article to that extent, we do not think the consumer would suffer by it, and for these reasons: Nearly all the quinine that the consumer buys from the retail druggist is bought by the drachm or scruple, or by the two drachms, or by the grain. I have been in the retail drug business a great many years myself, and I know there is no difference made in the price to the consumer in putting up prescriptions whether we pay \$2.25 or \$2.75 an ounce for quinine. The price is hardly ever changed in that way unless there comes to be a very great increase in the wholesale price. If the wholesale price was 100 per cent. more or 100 per cent. less, there would be a change in the price to the consumer. So that we can say positively, and I think all the retail druggists who are before you will confirm this, that the consumer, whom I suppose we ought to consider first in the matter, will not suffer by any such action at all. It simply results in this, that the retail druggist pays 10 or 15 cents an ounce more for it and the addition goes to the profit of the manufacturers. But we believe that the manufacturers need that protection in regard to this particular article, because of the greater expense in manufacturing it in this country. Furthermore, we think it would act as a kind of a governor to regulate matters. We are now subject to fluctuations which we think would be stopped, and the trade would have a little more confidence in prices, and the article would be more stable in its character, if a small duty was imposed upon foreign quinine.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Do you understand that Messrs. Powers & Weightman are in embarrassed circumstances?—A. Oh, no, sir; I do not think that they would suffer if they went out of the quinine business altogether.

Q. Are Rosengarten & Sons in embarrassed circumstances?—A. No, sir; not at all.

Q. Do you know of anybody else engaged in the manufacture of quinine that you think liable to fail?—A. No, sir.

Q. You admit that a tax would have the effect of putting money into the pockets of the manufacturers?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is there any necessity for putting any more money into their pockets than they have already got? Is the government of the United States under any obligations to put money into their pockets when such action is of no benefit to the people?—A. No, sir, not at all; but I think we should foster, to a certain extent, our home industries, and I believe that if quinine can be imported free, we shall in time have to look entirely abroad for our supply, which, under certain circumstances, I think, would be unwise.

Q. You say there would be no difference in the retail price. Would there be no difference in the price by the drachm?—A. No, sir; you will find there is no difference in the retail price whether quinine costs \$2 or \$2.50 an ounce.

Q. There may not be any difference in Saint Louis, but from what I can ascertain there is a difference made elsewhere in the price by the grain, scruple, or drachm.—A. I have been in business elsewhere and I have talked with many druggists, and they all agree to what I have stated. I am speaking from my own experience, which has been very extensive.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. Do you know who are the principal manufacturers and shippers of quinine abroad?—A. The largest manufacturer of quinine is Alexander Boehringer, of Milan, Italy, whose product is probably more extensively used than any other. There are also manufacturers at Mannheim, Germany; at Brunswick and Stuttgart, at Paris, and the Howards, in London.

Q. It has been stated to the Commission that there is a syndicate abroad controlled by Mr. Boehringer that really monopolizes the manufacture of quinine; is that so?—A. I have heard that stated, but have no positive knowledge of the fact. Mr. Boehringer, of Milan, has operated largely in the bark syndicate, so called, but it is not exactly known what the character of that syndicate is, to me at least.

Q. Is it the object of the wholesale dealers and jobbers in drugs, in recommending the reimposition of a 10 per cent. duty on quinine, to encourage the manufacture of it in this country, so that we will not be left to depend wholly on the foreign manufacturers for our supply?—A. That is it, partly, and also because we think it will act as a governor on the prices. I think the prices would be more stable and uniform with a small duty. As it is now they are fluctuating.

By Commissioner PORTER.

Q. In either instance we should have the choice of the two monopolies—the one abroad or the one here?—A. I do not think a moderate duty of 10 per cent. would create a monopoly, such as there formerly was when the duty was 20 per cent. or other high rates. I think it would not much more than equalize the matter. If an ounce of quinine, for instance, costs \$2, the addition of 10 per cent. duty would simply make it cost that much more to the wholesaler, and it will be a protection against the foreign manufacturer, which I think is required on account of the higher price of labor and material used in this country.

WILLIAM S. HASTIE.

CHARLESTON, S. C., *September 26, 1882.*

MR. WILLIAM S. HASTIE, of Charleston, S. C., made the following statement:

I have been in business in this State for fifty-two years, and my impression is that the people here do not wish any change in the present tariff. We are now building cotton factories, and we hope in time to make it to the interest of the manufacturers of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island to move to our State. The interior of our State is well adapted, by reason of its superior water-power and climate, to the manufacture of cotton goods, and to the support of a manufacturing population. Lands are cheap, and we can make all our laborers comfortable by enabling them to build houses cheaply and raise their own produce. This is the first time in the history of South Carolina when the people have really felt an interest in the tariff. A large number of factories are now being built in this State, and a very large amount of capital is invested in them, and if we begin now to change the duties on cotton and other goods, or on rice or other products, then other industries will want the duty changed on their products, and there will be no end to the matter. Since the war our interests have been identical with those of Massachusetts. It was different before the war, when we were wholly an agricultural country. All that has changed. I remember when Greenville in the upper part of our State was regarded as being in a wholly agricultural community. I have sold wheat flour that was raised in Greenville. It was carried 130 miles in wagons to Hamburg on the Savannah River, then transported to Savannah on the boat and sold at a profit. Now they are raising cotton at the foot of the mountains by the aid of these phosphates, where they were formerly in the habit of raising wheat; they can grow better cotton there than they can in the neighborhood of Charleston. In that way the whole industry of the country is changing, and our wants are not the same as they were. It has become a sort of stereotyped idea in South Carolina to oppose all tariffs, but now we are in a condition to take advantage of the change, and we think under the present tariff we can succeed as well as we could wish. As has been said, however, we want our protective tariff to be a permanent one. Our sugars require protection, so does our rice, and we are beginning now to require protection upon our cotton manufactures. Therefore I think that we do not desire any change in the present tariff.

W. H. JACKSON, ET AL.

NASHVILLE, TENN., *September 20, 1882.*

General W. H. JACKSON, of Nashville, Tenn., representing the farming interest, addressed the Commission as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF TARIFF COMMISSION: The limited time (twenty-four hours) since notice was served on me, requesting me to appear before you to offer a statement in regard to the present tariff system of the government, in so far as it affects injuriously the agricultural interests of this State, must be my excuse and apology for treating this important subject in a crude, farmer-like way.

It is conceded, on all hands, that agriculture is the source of all wealth, and the nursing mother of manufactures and commerce. While this is the case, it is made to bear unjustly, as we think, the heaviest burdens of government, through this indirect system of taxation. The agriculturists, from our situation, resources, and ability, do not need and can have no substantial protection, for the reason that no foreign country can bring agricultural products here in competition with us; but under the operation of the present tariff system, which gives to our home manufacturers practically the monopoly of the home market, the agricultural population are made to bear thereby by far the largest portion of this tariff on customs duty, for the great bulk of the articles consumed by agricultural people are increased in price to them just in proportion to the duties on the articles. This is too plain and self-evident to you, gentlemen, to need amplification. The present tariff system appears to me to undertake to protect every description of home industry without reference to its being of national importance. The old idea of Mr. Clay and the earlier statesmen, if I remember aright, was that the discrimination made by the tariff revenue system should be confined to industries of national importance—such industries as would be needed in case of foreign war, etc. Protection was originally afforded as a mere incident to revenue, but we have proceeded step by step until protection has become the main object, and revenue the incident. Such a system is steadily growing more and more oppressive and burdensome to the farming classes. It should, in my opinion, and I may add in the opinion of the great agricultural community, be so revised as to equalize the burdens and benefits of taxation to all classes and industries.

Agriculture should receive that protection from the government which she is entitled to by reason of the numbers, aggregate wealth, and taxes of all kinds paid by the farmers. That business which sustains the government the government should hold up. The goose that lays the golden egg should be cared for. Under the present system the farmer pays a duty of from 33½ to 60 per cent. on all articles consumed and on all articles or farm implements used by him. This, we think, is entirely too much.

The foreign market, on all our surplus agricultural products, regulates not only the price of what we export, but fixes the price of what we sell at home; for example, the price of cotton in Liverpool regulates the price of cotton in every village in the South, and while this is the case as regards what the farmer has to sell, what he has to buy is not at all controlled by the foreign market, but by the monopoly given to the

home manufacturer under the operations of the tariff system, thus making the farmer pay the enhanced price by reason of such protection, and I conceived that just in proportion as your duties operate to exclude the foreigner from our markets you limit to that extent the purchasing power of the man or people who are to buy our surplus agricultural products, while at the same time we are made to pay the enhanced price to our protected home articles. So it works an injury to the farmer both ways—at home and abroad—both in selling and buying. I am not insensible to the importance and value to the farmers in building up manufactories in our midst, as furnishing in some degree a home market for agricultural products, and as reducing the disproportion now existing in our State between agricultural producers and consumers, the producers being now 70 per cent. of our population. Markets are as necessary as products, and since grain bins multiply faster than grain cars, and therefore we cannot ship our produce by rail at a price that will pay us, home markets are very beneficial to the farmers, provided, under the protection system, we (the farmers) are not called upon to pay too much for the luxury.

Another point of apprehension shared by a great many thinking agriculturists is that if the protective system is carried too far, as seems the disposition of the manufacturing classes—as judged from their utterances in their conventions at New York and Chicago—it may lead to retaliatory measures on the part of foreign governments where our surplus agricultural products find a market. We are now sending vast amounts of grain, flour, beef, pork, butter, cheese, and cotton to Europe. These exports have turned the balance of trade in our favor, and has given to our government ample revenues—it has enabled us to buy and import much from the countries to which we sell. By statistics, land and nature furnished of the exports in 1879 (which were about \$710,000,000) \$609,617,299, while protected manufactures furnished \$89,921,443, a poor showing for manufacturing as compared to land in giving our country the balance of trade. Now our duties are felt to be severe upon those abroad who buy our products, and while they have submitted (with some murmuring) because of our large debt created on account of the war, yet they are now clamorous for a fair degree of reciprocity, and we fear, in the effort to protect the workers of the raw material, the farmers may have heavy imports laid on their productions in foreign countries, which would injure us very much, for if confined to home markets, our production would lower prices below a remunerative point, and the large surplus would have to be used for fuel—actually burned.

Already Bismarck, for Germany, is trying to impose duties upon our produce, and France, under the pretext that our pork is unhealthy, has shut it out once from its borders. An effort is being made in England to tax the cotton of the South, with a view of helping the British East India colonies, and also have increased the duties on tobacco from about 72 cents per pound to 82 cents. Our country is now seriously menaced by plans of this character.

These are my general views on this important question of public policy, and I may add, the views of the great body of leading agriculturists throughout the West, Northwest, and South, so far as I have been able to glean them from mingling with them, and participating in their conventions and associations, from 1865 to the present time. I cannot undertake to go into details and specify each and every article consumed by the farmer on which the customs duty, as at present laid, is too high.

They will readily suggest themselves to the Commission in the revision of dutiable articles.

It is proper that I should say that there is a growing tendency on the part of not only our people, but parties from other States, to invest in manufactories in Tennessee, to work up iron, cotton, and wool, and the farmers are so much interested in their establishment, as creating an increased home market for their surplus products, that I do not believe the farmers in this section desire any change in the tariff on these articles, viz, iron, cotton, and wool.

We think that revenue should be raised in large part from luxuries. The necessaries of life should be taxed light. And we further think that when from \$200,000,000 to \$260,000,000 of revenue is annually raised from customs duties, this surely ought to afford incidental protection enough to all our manufacturing interests, many of which are successfully competing abroad with English and other foreign industries.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Question. What has been the condition of the farming element in this State for the last few years?—Answer. I think the condition of the farmer has been gradually growing better for the past few years. Last year there was a great drouth in Tennessee and an almost entire failure of the crops. This year we have very fine crops and an increase of about 50 per cent. in the product, especially in the wheat crop. So that I think I may say that their condition is not only improving, but their methods of culture are becoming more advanced. There is a greater disposition to use improved implements in farming than there ever has been, and I think the farming community are taking a more correct view of the subject of rotation in crops, deep plowing, &c., and are paying more attention to renovating their soils, so far as my observation extends, by the free use of clover, which I recognize as a very important advance step.

Q. How do the prices of grain and cattle at present compare with the prices received, say, twenty-five years ago?—A. I do not think the prices are any better on grain, but I think they are on cattle. That is to say, we can by reason of the improvement in the grasses raise cattle more cheaply in this section than we were able to do twenty-five years ago. There can be no better section of country, I think, for raising cattle or stock than the six counties known as the Cumberland Basin of Tennessee.

Q. My object was to ascertain your opinion as to the general prosperity of the farming classes twenty-five years ago when we had what might be called free-trade, and now under what is called high protection; as to whether they are in better condition or making more money now than they were then.—A. So far as that is concerned I am inclined to think they had more money twenty-five years ago than they have now, but I am not prepared to say whether that was the effect of free trade or the result of the labor system. But, whatever it was, certainly they had more money twenty-five years ago than they have now, judging from outward appearances at least. But I am not able to answer that question accurately, and only judge from the reports that have reached me. I was not engaged in agriculture in Tennessee at that time. I was in the Regular Army of the United States and on the frontier, so that I cannot claim to speak of that period.

Q. Suppose the changes you recommend were made, and the tariff materially reduced, how would you propose to raise the money neces-

sary to carry on the government?—A. I do not think you should take off tariff duties altogether; and that is not my suggestion. I believe in a revision of the tariff and the formation of a judicious tariff for the purpose of raising such revenue as is absolutely necessary. That, however, is only my individual opinion.

Q. Do you think the farmers would oppose any material change in the tariff that would reduce the revenues of the government, and make it necessary to impose direct taxation?—A. I do not think they would like direct taxation.

Q. They would rather have it where they do not feel it so directly, you think?—A. Yes, sir; that would enable them to bear it more patiently as they are bearing it now, because it is indirect.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. I infer from what you have said that you appreciate the vital importance to agriculturists of diverting the industries of the country so as to keep as many people in other industries as possible, who will be the customers of the farmer and the consumers of his products?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. In that view, do you not think it important to encourage manufacturing and other industries?—A. Yes, sir; I think it is important to do so.

Q. In raising a revenue by taxation, do you not think it is better in the long run to discriminate, wherever it is possible, in favor of American industries as against foreign industries?—A. As a general proposition, I do. I think encouragement should be given to our home industries and manufactures. As I have said, what we especially want is, by the building up of these manufactures, to reduce the proportion relatively between the agricultural producers and the consumers. In our own State we can never attain the greatest prosperity until we can, by building up these manufactures, bring in more consumers and reduce the proportion between the agricultural producers and the consumers from 70, as now, to at least 60, and I think a greater prosperity would be produced by making it 50.

Q. You have no desire that our farmers (who constitute the most important and largest part of the community) shall be dependent on foreign countries for the sale of their products?—A. I would hope not; but I do not and can not look forward to the day when our home markets will be sufficient to consume our surplus farm products. We are producing so much with improved agricultural implements in the north-western part of our country, that I think we are obliged to have foreign markets, and it should be our policy to open up all our water routes so as to get those products transported as cheaply as possible.

Q. You have no idea that England will take our products unless she needs or requires them?—A. No, sir; it is her necessity which compels her to become a purchaser. But I think she will be very slow to adopt any retaliatory measures, because she might produce commotion among her own people by so doing. We shall be able not only to supply our home markets at a cheap rate, but to compete with Russia, which is one of the greatest wheat-producing countries in the world, in the foreign trade.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. You have made a statement that tariffs laid by other countries were laid by way of retaliation. Please explain how you come to that conclusion.—A. Simply from the fact that I have observed that such

tariffs were being laid and I have gathered the impression from my reading that that is the object of them. They permit everything to go into their countries free, while we allow but few articles to come in here free; and I have gotten the general idea that it is more in the nature of a retaliatory measure than anything else. I may be right or wrong in that impression. If wrong, I would be glad to be corrected.

Prof. J. B. KILLIBREW, of Nashville, said:

I can state generally, as a matter of information to the Commission, that there are in operation in the State of Tennessee at the present time, seven coke furnaces and five charcoal furnaces; the seven coke furnaces making about 12,000 tons a month; and the five charcoal furnaces making about 3,000 tons a month. I believe I have had a very favorable opportunity of ascertaining the wishes of iron masters in regard to the tariff, and so far as I can ascertain I do not think they want any change whatever in the tariff. The reason assigned is usually this: that if the tariff rates are made higher, an immense amount of capital would be put into the business in Pennsylvania and elsewhere, and it would tend to make them formidable competitors of our interests here. All the old furnaces there would be revived, and it might act very injuriously to our industry here. Our State is in its second growth in that respect. In 1855, or 1856, there were thirty-five or forty charcoal blast furnaces in operation in the State, and it is a curious commentary on the improvements in the methods of manufacture, that we are making more iron with our smaller number of furnaces than we were then with this large number. I think the first furnace started in this State was in 1797. That made a very small quantity indeed compared with what we make now. The disposition of people here who have surplus capital is to invest in iron-making, and within the next two years I think we shall have in the State of Tennessee (or supplied with ores from the State of Tennessee), double the number of furnaces we have now in operation. I believe our people are perfectly satisfied with the present tariff duty on iron, and neither want it increased or decreased.

There is, however, a desire among the people here, so far as my enquiries have gone, that the \$28 a ton duty on Bessemer steel rails, should be reduced somewhat, for this reason: railroad building is now going on probably more extensively in the Southern States than at any time heretofore. The South has made very little Bessemer steel except at Chattanooga, and one or two other places, and the demand for steel rails is very great, and we think the rate of duty on Bessemer-steel rails has a tendency to retard the railroad development of the South.

In regard to the cost of making iron, I would rather that Mr. Shook, of Nashville, who is present, should address you, because he has all the statistics at his fingers' ends, having been a director in these furnaces for several years, and he can give you definite information.

I had the pleasure of being at Atlanta for five months during the exposition, and I found a great disposition among the people of the South wherever their resources permitted, to enter into the manufacture of iron. I think the determination of most of the capitalists in the State is, to invest a part of their capital, at least, in the iron manufacture. We look upon it as one of our growing interests.

In relation to cotton and woolen goods, there are gentlemen present who can speak on that question with more authority than I can.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. You suggest a reduction of duty on steel rails. What

rate of duty would you recommend?—Answer. So far as I have heard any expression of feeling I should say that \$15 a ton would be considered a proper figure. I do not wish to do anything to injure the industry, but I think we should try and protect ourselves in this matter of railroad building. We want to live and let live; but \$28 a ton on rails is a very heavy tax on the building of our railroads, and we want to build a great many. Poor's Manual shows that we have made very rapid progress in the South in the building of roads during the past twelve months.

Mr. A. M. SPOOK, of Nashville, said:

I have been referred to as being able to answer the question about the cost of manufacturing pig-iron. I should be happy to answer any questions upon that subject that the Commission may put to me.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. What is the cost of manufacturing a ton of pig-iron here and elsewhere in the State of Tennessee?—Answer. It is about \$15 a ton here.

Q. How much of that cost is for labor, and what is the value of the raw material before the labor is performed?—A. It all represents labor. Do you want me to give you the cost of manufacturing the material at the furnace? Taking the ores in the mine and the coal and limestone in the ground and bringing them together and converting them into a ton of pig-iron costs \$15.

Q. That is exclusive of the value of the ore in the ground and the value of the timber or ore on the ground?—A. Yes, sir. That is the cost of the labor in making a ton of pig-iron.

Q. What does the material cost?—A. I do not know that I can answer that question except in this way, that the royalty paid in this country varies from ten to twenty-five cents a ton on coal and ore. Nothing has ever been paid on the limestone. I do not know anything about the charcoal.

Q. What is the difference in the cost of labor here and in England, Scotland, or Wales in the making of a ton of pig-iron?—A. The cost of labor required to make a ton of pig-iron here is about two and a half times the cost in England. I make that statement upon information I have derived from a former manager we had who has gone to England, and is now running three furnaces there. He wrote me only a short time ago that the labor of manipulating it from the raw materials cost 75 cents a ton, while the lowest we can do it for here is \$2 a ton. So that I think the cost here is at least two and a half times as great.

Q. Do you know what the cost of labor is in England in the production of a ton of pig-iron?—A. I think it costs about \$6.

Q. And you say it costs \$15 in this country?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. That would make a difference of about \$9 a ton?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What do you think should be allowed for the geographical protection which we have here, which means simply the cost of getting a ton of pig-iron from England to this country?—A. I do not know what the ocean freights are now, and it would depend also where the iron was delivered. If you delivered iron on the eastern coast it would cost much less than if you delivered it at St. Louis. I think it would cost from \$7 to \$7.50 a ton to deliver Liverpool pig-iron at St. Louis if it went by rail.

Q. What would it be, delivered in New York?—A. I could not say; I do not know what the ocean freights are.

Q. You are satisfied with \$7 a ton on pig-iron?—A. Yes, sir; I am.

Q. If the duty was reduced do you think it would interfere with the prosperity of the iron business in this country to such an extent as to cause a suspension in the business?—A. It would materially reduce the business, certainly.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. What does it cost to put a ton of pig-iron on the market, say, from the furnace to the Cincinnati market?—A. The furnaces of the South have made a favorable rate with the railroads based on the cost of the pig-iron, and it varies. But the lowest limit from Chattanooga to Louisville and Cincinnati is about \$2.25 a ton, and it costs from that up to \$4 a ton freight.

Q. Is the quality of pig-iron produced in this State what is called "cold short"?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Have you any Bessemer ores?—A. No, sir; none developed.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. Do you regard the conditions as favorable for the making of iron in this State?—A. Yes, sir; I regard the conditions as very favorable.

The PRESIDENT. A very distinguished manufacturer of iron in New England once said to me that the conditions for producing iron favorably were expressed in one word, in the word *c-o-l-t*—coal, ore, labor, and transportation.

The WITNESS. That embraces them all.

Q. And these conditions are all prevailing in your State?—A. Yes, sir; they are.

Col. A. S. COLYAR said :

There is certainly a very decided change going on in the public sentiment of the South in regard to tariff questions, especially here in Tennessee. Up to a recent period our farming people were all in favor of free trade, with few exceptions. I think the statement General Jackson has made upon that subject is a very correct one; that in regard to the three great interests of iron, cotton, and wool the farmers of this State do not desire any change. Our people lately have been considering these tariff questions and discussing the effect of the tariff upon iron, wool, and cotton. So far as public discussions of the question have been had they have usually been pretty much on one side. The politicians were generally for free trade and the subject was discussed from that standpoint. But since the war all classes are coming to consider the question more fairly, and perhaps it would be difficult to find a more marked change in the sentiments of any community than is found here in regard to all these tariff questions. I think, from my interchange of opinion with business men, merchants, bankers, and others, that they are generally satisfied with the tariff as it is.

The iron interest is getting to be, in the minds of all our thinking people, one of the great interests of this country. We believe that Tennessee is to have in the future considerable commercial prosperity, and that, in a great measure, is to come from the development of our great iron resources. Those who have studied the subject think a change in the present tariff would illy affect our interests and the growth of this industry. We have found, from actual experiment, that having coal and iron ore in the same localities we can make iron cheaper somewhat than

they can in Pennsylvania, and, perhaps, if there was a reduction of the duty on iron we should in one way be benefited. Up to a certain point we could compete in the production of iron where they could not in Western Pennsylvania. I do not know so much about the other portions of the State. But certainly if the tariff on iron was materially changed it would tend to break up this growing industry in our State.

In talking with a gentleman connected with this industry a few days since he gave me some information that was quite surprising. He had control of perhaps five furnaces, and the trade of those five furnaces passed through his office and the aggregate of it came to more than the gross income received by the Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad, which is 500 miles long and which connects with the Chattanooga and Alabama Railroad, some 200 or 300 miles long. The aggregate gross income to the people, or to the State, through this one single iron office is much more than the gross income brought in by these large railroads. So that you see at once how important this iron industry is to us and to the entire community.

I think every one who has examined the matter believes that any material change in the tariff affecting this industry would materially affect our future growth and prosperity.

I think I may say we are fast becoming a tariff people. I do not mean to say that the great body or mass of our people yet approve of a protective tariff, for the question has not yet been discussed fully; that is, there has not been any general discussion of it, but our people are generally coming to consider two or three of these general questions. One is whether or not if we adopt the theory of free trade, or verge on the borders of free trade, our laboring people will not have to submit to a reduction of wages which will be on a plane with those received in England. Whenever that proposition is stated to them, as it is occasionally, I find there is but one sentiment on the subject, and that is that we cannot submit to such a reduction. Yet, it would seem, if the free trade theory was adopted they would have to submit to it. As that question is being discussed public sentiment is settling down in favor of a protective tariff, to some extent at least, although I do not mean to make the assertion that that is the sentiment of our people generally.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. In *ante-bellum* times, when political parties were divided in this region between the Democrats and the Whigs, these issues in regard to the tariff were discussed at political gatherings and the people became very well informed in regard to the principal points at issue for or against a tariff. Has there been during the last thirty years any such discussions in this State, so that the people have been able to acquire any information on the subject?—Answer. No, sir.

Q. And the present generation has grown up without such information?—A. Yes, sir; without any public discussion of the question at all, except that some politicians on the stump have tried to show how we are oppressed by the tariff, and that side of the question has been presented without having anybody on the other side to answer it. I think public sentiment here will be unanimous that the tariff should be so regulated as to raise a revenue only sufficient for the support of the government.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. And in doing that protect incidentally the three great industries you have named?—A. Yes, sir. I think public sentiment would be in

favor of such protection as could be legitimately and properly exerted in favor of these great industries. I think it would be very foolish for us, just at this time, when we are waking up to the benefits derived from diversity of pursuits, to demand that all protection should be taken from American industries; because we are now just reaching the point where we propose to benefit ourselves by pursuing a course of diversified industries such as the North has pursued for many years. We are just beginning to realize that; we did not realize it before the war. If we are simply an agricultural people and nothing else, we shall grow poorer and poorer; but whenever we change and become, to some extent, at least, a manufacturing people we shall find our condition rapidly improving.

Mr. JAMES WHITWORTH, of Nashville, president of the Tennessee Manufacturing Association, said:

The manufacture of cotton goods in this city has in the last five years greatly increased, and it is now on a boom, so to speak. Mills are going up in various parts of the State, and especially in this city, to an extent that no man could have predicted a few years ago, and have been held to be sane. That is a pretty broad assertion, I know, but I believe I am speaking strictly within bounds. In regard to the three interests of cotton, iron, and wool, I feel sure that our people of every class would submit to almost anything to have these three interests fostered.

By the PRESIDENT:

Question. Do you mean by wool both wool and woollen manufactures?—Answer. Yes, sir. Of course we do not wish the tariff placed at a point where it will produce more revenue than is necessary, or even enable us to pay off our national debt too rapidly. I say develop the country first, and we can then pay off the debt more easily. I think the people would be in favor of abolishing the internal-revenue system and continuing of the tariff system; at least that is my idea of it. In a word, in the revision of the tariff, let it be so framed that the South shall have an equal opportunity with the North to develop its natural resources. We ask for nothing that shall be to their injury; we simply ask that we be put on an equality with the most favored sections.

Mr. LEONARD PARKES, of Nashville, said:

I desire to say a few words in reference to the wool-growing interests of this State. As merchants dealing in wool, we desire that the protective tariff be continued to encourage the raising of sheep and the production of wool and the growing of mutton and lamb. We desire, also, that the tariff be so fixed that the changes which now occur every few years will not be necessary. The continual changes in and constructions placed upon the tariff laws, work serious damage to our trade. There has been scarcely a year since we have been in the business that we have not been uneasy and apprehensive of the action of Congress in regard to the tariff on wool. As manufacturers of woollen goods, we desire the present tariff to remain as it is. We are just entering into the business as manufacturers, and upon our success depends, to some extent, the future manufacturing interests of this section. If we should lose money it would discourage others from entering into the business. We cannot manufacture goods at as low a price, even if we could obtain the wool as cheaply, as they do on the other side, on account of the higher cost of labor in this country. Labor is more expensive with us here than it is in the East; that is to say, skilled labor is. If the wool

which is raised in Australia and other countries should be brought to this country and admitted free of duty it would discourage our farmers so that they would stop the production, and it would affect the prices, also, of mutton and lamb. So I think, in the interests of the farmers, as well as for the future prosperity of this section of the country, the present protective tariff on wool is essential.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Question. We were told by a witness who came before us in Iowa that he thought the high tariff on wool had diminished the number of sheep raised in that State.—Answer. I noticed that statement in a St. Louis paper and I was surprised to see it. I am glad that some members of the Commission interrogated the gentleman upon that subject.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. What is the condition of sheep husbandry in Tennessee?—A. It is growing somewhat. There is a disposition, though, to sell our lambs instead of raising sheep.

Q. What does that result from?—A. I think from the high prices paid for lambs for food. I think a lamb is worth now as much as the sheep with the wool on it after it has been kept for twelve months. In other words, the value of the sheep and the wool, say at its clip, is but little more than the value of the young lamb.

Q. How long has that condition of things existed?—A. Only for about a year or so. There seems to be a growing demand for lambs. As soon as a lamb gets to weigh about 60 pounds, it is sold, and driven to the cars and sent off to be slaughtered.

Q. You say, notwithstanding that fact, the number of sheep is gradually increasing in the State?—A. Yes, sir. Winter before last the season was very severe and we lost a great many, but this last winter they have done better.

Q. What does your wool clip amount to in this State?—A. I could not speak for the State.

Q. Can you tell what portion of the wool is manufactured in the State?—A. A very small portion; not one-tenth, I presume.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. You are a manufacturer of wool?—A. Yes, sir; we are just beginning to manufacture here.

Q. As a manufacturer of wool I understand you to say you oppose any introduction of free wool from Australia?—A. Yes, sir; because I think that would injure the farming interests of this section. It would be cheaper, perhaps, for us to use foreign wools in the production of our goods; perhaps we could manufacture them a little cheaper. But if you remove the tariff from wools and woollen goods both, we would then be left where we were before, at a disadvantage to our farming friends.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. What goods do you make?—A. We are making jeans.

Q. Do you find the system of manufacture which encourages the farmer and the manufacturer at the same time working well?—A. So far as I can see, it is; we have not been in the business long enough to judge, perhaps. I think my advantage is the farmer's advantage, and the farmer's advantage mine.

Q. Is not that the general sentiment of the country?—A. Yes, sir; and it is a growing sentiment.

ADAM WOOLF ET AL.

NASHVILLE, TENN., *September 20, 1882.*

Mr. ADAM WOOLF, surveyor of customs, Nashville, Tenn., addressed the Commission as follows :

I will state to the Commission that Nashville is a port of delivery only. We have had a great deal of trouble here for several years in regard to some of the customs regulations. In 1880 a law was passed making this a port where goods could come without appraisement at the outer port under the immediate transportation act. The Secretary of the Treasury ruled against Nashville, however, for the reason that we had no custom-house officers here except the collector, no appraiser to appraise the goods, and the business was not sufficient in his opinion to justify the appointment of an appraiser. We have not got credit for all the goods that should come to Nashville, because the duty is paid on them at New York City and the amount collected we do not get any credit for. The goods are compelled to come by bonded lines and there are only one or two bonded lines from here to New York. Oftentimes the rates of freight are cheaper by other routes not bonded, and the merchants therefore bring their goods by these other routes and pay duty at New York. Our Congressman has agitated the question, but we have not succeeded so far in getting Nashville made a port of entry where goods can come direct without appraisement. We have a custom-house here and plenty of room for the storage of bonded goods, and we have some bonded goods there which have come by bonded lines.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Question. Have the statistics of the trade of Nashville been fully laid before the Secretary of the Treasury?—Answer. We have tried to present the case properly through our Congressman and have had much correspondence in regard to it. But there seems to be a prejudice against giving us what we ask; they say that our trade is not sufficient. The reason for that I have already stated: that the merchants are compelled to pay the duties in New York rather than to have any delay occur in their shipment or pay the difference of freight charged by these bonded lines. There are some of the importers here now, and I hope they will address the Commission on this point.

Mr. B. W. SPIRE, of Nashville, importer of crockery ware, said :

I have been engaged in importing crockery ware here for a number of years, and I find it very difficult to get crockery through the original ports of entry. It seems that the delay and inconvenience is caused by various conflicting interests. The manufacturers in England give to purchasers a discount of five per cent. cash on the other side. It is optional, however, with the purchaser whether he pays on the other side or on this side. If he chooses not to send the money over there, but to pay on this side, it has been customary for him to bill the goods to his agent in the East as though they had been paid for, taking off this five per cent. discount. When they arrive in New York it is to the interest of the manufacturer, and also to the interest of the collector of the port, to stop the goods from going into the interior. The col-

lector's interest consists in his commission on the collection of duties at the original port of entry, and the manufacturer's interest is the duty that he gets on the five per cent. I remember an instance where one hundred crates of crockery came to New Orleans consigned to Carroll & Co. Mr. Carroll, knowing that he had to have a custom-house power of attorney, wrote to Nashville for that power of attorney. It was furnished in proper form, as I supposed, but the officer discovered a flaw in it; he found that the word Carroll was spelled with one "r" instead of two. That was the only irregularity, and on that he ordered the goods back to the custom-house. For that simple reason they were charged 75 cents a crate for hauling each of those one hundred crates back to the custom-house; the custom-house officer received 25 cents a crate for putting it in the custom-house and 50 cents a crate for storing it (although it only remained there one day), also 25 cents for hauling it out again, and 75 drynige back to the steamer. There was all this trouble and inconvenience in getting the goods through to Nashville, and a great many others which it would take too long to mention. Those are some of the drawbacks in importing goods to the interior of the country.

I also think that there are many unnecessary and superfluous laws in connection with this matter. For instance, we wish to bring the goods to this point by the quickest and safest route possible, by a responsible railroad company. But the government says we shall not do so, because it is not a bonded road. The road is considered safe for commercial purposes, and bankers will advance money on products sent over that road. The value of products sent over the road is stated in the bill of lading, and I think it would be a very simple thing for the government to allow us to bring in goods in that manner.

Commissioner OLIVER. I think you misapprehend the meaning of the law in that respect. The government delivers the goods to the railroad company at the port of delivery, and requires a bond of them that they will take care of those goods until they reach the custom-house in the interior. It is the neglect of the railroad to give the required bond which causes you the trouble. All the great trunk lines of the East are bonded lines; all the roads that center in New York are bonded. I think the law is a wise one and that it would not be proper to change it.

The WITNESS. I do not see how there could be any loss to the government, because if the goods were totally lost the government would not ask any duty; it is only when they go into general use that the government wishes to collect the duty. There could be no danger except from loss by thieves, &c. The transportation company is responsible for breakage.

Commissioner OLIVER. I think the remedy could be obtained if the importers would bring in their goods for a time over these bonded roads, and then you could show by the increased rates of duty at this place that you had business enough to warrant the payment of an appraiser, and one would be appointed.

The WITNESS. I think there would be no difficulty in getting an appraiser to serve here without salary if it was necessary. If that is all there is in the way we could provide for it. But what I fail to see is why the government should require more protection for the duty on the goods transported from one government officer to another than one citizen does of another. All the transportation companies are supposed to be responsible for the safe delivery of the goods at the port of destination.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Question. They have only lately become responsible, and the government takes care to make them responsible for the goods until they deliver them in the interior 1,000 or 2,000 miles. You are an importer of crockery, I believe?—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. It has been recommended to the Commission that the mode of levying duties on crockery be changed and that a cubic measurement be adopted. What would you think of that?—A. I do not think that would be practicable or of any advantage to the importer.

Q. They say a crate will measure so much, and that the charge should be so much a cubic foot; that the crates average about the same, particularly in common goods, and they advocate that a compound duty be levied at a certain percentage ad valorem and an additional amount per cubic foot.—A. That would suit parties who are importing a very common class of goods, no doubt.

Q. The recommendation does not come from the importers, but from the manufacturers?—A. Well, they are equally interested in it.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. Have you ever heard any charges made that your goods, or the goods in your line, were undervalued for the purpose of evading the payment of revenue?—A. No, sir; I never have.

There is another point I desire to call attention to, which causes a great deal of complaint among Western importers: In importing sets of goods, the custom-house officer at the original port of entry usually orders two packages of the importation, or possibly only one package, to be sent to the store for examination, and where the goods consist of these fine bed-room sets, or something of that sort, consisting of twenty or twenty-five pieces to the set, in almost every instance when we come to unpack the goods here we find many of the smaller pieces missing, which makes the whole set incomplete. We have no redress for this little pilfering, wherever it may occur. That, I think, could be avoided if the goods were shipped here direct for appraisement.

Q. Is it your impression that that loss occurs in the custom-house?—A. It occurs in the very package that they have taken out to examine.

Q. Is that a matter of general complaint?—A. Yes, sir; it is. I have heard it mentioned in regard to liquors, champagnes, and things of that sort as well.

Mr. C. A. R. THOMPSON, of Nashville, said :

We have made an experiment this season of importing fine silks and dress goods from France direct, but we have had a great deal of trouble on account of the detention of the goods in New York, and I think the appointment of an appraiser at this port would remedy the evil which we suffer. I have no doubt if an appraiser was appointed with the facilities for getting goods through rapidly the business of importing here would increase. In our line of business fashion determines the value of the goods. After the season passes by, of course the value of the goods is very much depreciated. Therefore it is important that we should get them through without loss of time. I do not know that I have any recommendation to make, except that I would suggest that some steps should be taken to hasten the delivery of goods sent from New York to Nashville.

We have an importation of goods lying in New York now that we cannot seem to hurry up. We have written to the Merchant's Dispatch

line, a bonded line, to hurry them through but they say that we have to wait our time, and give us no encouragement about it.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Question. You are an importer of silks?—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you ever have your invoices advanced at the custom-house?

—A. The importation of goods is only a recent thing with us; I know that we do not get our goods through quickly.

Q. I am speaking of the advance on the invoices you import. Have you had any invoices advanced at the custom-house?—A. No, sir. In the case to which I allude the goods have not yet been appraised.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. What is your idea of the comparative advantages of specific and ad valorem duties in your business; which do you prefer and which do you think the best?—A. I think ad valorem duties would be the best.

Q. Have you ever heard the idea advanced of valuation on this side of the water; that is, home valuation?—A. No, sir.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. I would like to ask your opinion, as you come in contact with the people of this section, as to the views generally of the business men and merchants in regard to any radical changes in the tariff laws.—A. Ours is a retail business and I do not come much in contact with other merchants, and have no means of speaking authoritatively. I do not think there is much agitation on that subject in the State.

Mr. JAMES M. HAMILTON, of Nashville, said :

I merely wish to add my testimony to that of Mr. Thompson and Mr. Spire in regard to Nashville being a port of entry instead of merely being a port of delivery. I have been engaged in the importation of hardware in this city for nearly fifty years for myself and others, and have experienced all the difficulties that Mr. Spire has spoken of in regard to the delay of the goods in New York City, and also in New Orleans when we get goods via New Orleans. But while the quantity of goods imported now in the hardware line is much less than it was forty-eight years ago, when we commenced business, still it is a matter of great importance, I think. Mr. Woolf omitted to state one fact that the revenue duties paid by this place are not represented at all owing to the fact that they are paid at New York. Very little of the money paid for duties passes through his hands. And when the Treasury Department rules us out because the amount paid in by the city does not justify the appointment of an appraiser, it does us a very great injustice from the fact that the revenue we pay into the public Treasury is all reported through New York and the tax we pay is all put into the custom-house at New York, or nearly all of it. I believe that even the railroad iron and street rails that are imported in large quantities for building our railroads here have been reported to the New York custom-house and the revenues paid there. If we could receive credit for the amount of money which is absolutely paid into the public Treasury by the city of Nashville we should be entitled to be made a port of entry as well as a port of delivery. The government has built us a very handsome custom-house building and we have every facility here for transacting the business.

I want to say a word also in regard to the tariff. The tariff is high, and probably is yielding more than the government needs at present. I have thought on this subject a great deal. I believe it will be better

to let the tariff remain as far as possible as it is, and make as few changes as need be, from the fact that the country has become accustomed to paying a certain amount of revenue regularly and I do not think it wise to disturb the present system. What the hardware merchants want is stability; we do not want any change. We also suffer when any change takes place. The farmer pays a tariff on everything he buys, it is true, whether it is made in the United States or in England. When I first commenced importing hardware 95 per cent. of all the hardware used in the United States was brought from foreign countries. Now there is not 5 per cent. brought from foreign countries. So that the tariff has absolutely made us a great manufacturing people. Now that the people are accustomed to paying these tariff duties, why not let the matter rest; why not let the revenue be collected and applied towards paying the public debt?

By Commissioner GARLAND.

Question. You mentioned the fact that a certain number of years ago 95 per cent. of the hardware used in this country was imported, against about 5 per cent. that is imported now?—Answer. Yes, sir; that was in 1835.

Q. What was the character of the goods at that time compared with those at present in use?—A. The American hardware is very much superior to the foreign hardware.

Q. What is the difference in prices between that times and the present?—A. Prices have been reduced.

Q. The goods have been improved and the prices have been reduced by American manufacture?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner BOTELER.

Q. And the farmer benefited to that extent?—A. Yes, sir. We used to import a very common shovel, used on the railroads, and all the picks, mattocks, and grub-hoes, chisels, augers, and all those things used on a plantation, and nearly everything.

By Commissioner GARLAND.

Q. But now you get better goods for less money?—A. Yes, sir; Mr. Henry Disston, the saw manufacturer of Philadelphia, has not only run the English saws out of the American market, but he has actually gone over to Sheffield and established an office next door to one of the largest English importers.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD.

Q. Are we not extending our trade abroad?—A. Yes, sir; very largely. For instance, the agent for the saw company I speak of in England has shut up his office in New York and gone to England and opened an office for the sale of American hardware, such as locks and hinges, which are vastly better made in the United States, are handsomer and much better in every way than the English productions. Our spokes, hubs, and even iron axletrees are exported to England; they are made cheaper in this country than they can be in England under the patents. American goods are also shipped to Australia, and our axes, hatchets, and drawing-knives are sent all over the world. There is no nation that can make a hatchet or an axe as it is made in the United States.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Do you think the superiority of your industries in that respect is

to be attributed in any degree to the encouragement the manufacturers have received from a protective tariff?—A. Yes, sir; almost altogether. There is no doubt an impetus was given to the business by the protective tariff that was placed upon the foreign importation. It was in that way that the business was started.

Mr. GEORGE S. KINNEY, of Nashville, said:

In exporting whiskies we find a great deal of trouble because we have no government officer here to clear our whiskies to foreign ports. We have to send them to New York, and there consign to a commission merchant, and it takes eight to ten months for us to get the drawback on exported whisky. If we had like officers here, I presume we could get the same business transacted in two months at the outside. If this was a port of entry our goods would come directly to Nashville instead of having to be appraised at New York as at present. We have a growing trade in Nashville, and it is an important one, and the general sentiment of the people is that Nashville should be made a port of entry.

J. E. MACGOWAN ET AL.

CHATTANOOGA, TENN., *Sept. 21, 1882.*

Mr. J. E. MACGOWAN, of Chattanooga, addressed the Commission as follows:

I suppose the Commission would like to hear something of the general resources of this country, which consist almost exclusively of coal, iron, timber, and cotton. The iron interest of the South has been developed rapidly since 1869. There were a large number of failures in 1873 and 1874 in the furnaces and mills throughout the South. I can now think of but two mills that were built before or since the war that weathered the financial squeeze of 1873. There were a large number of failures in furnaces also. There has been an immense amount of money lost or wasted in the South in all branches of the iron trade. My observation leads me to think that it would not be to the interest of the South if the duty on pig metal were reduced. I should oppose an increase of the duty, but I think it would be unjust to the pig-iron interest to reduce it. A large amount of Scotch pig is used in the South. In Rome, Ga., there is a large amount of Scotch pig-iron used every year, and in New Orleans, Mobile, Savannah, and Macon, also, as well as a large amount in Memphis. One of the works there used a considerable amount of Scotch pig-iron. The last quotations, I notice, show that Cleveland pig-iron can be made at about \$7.50, put on the furnace bank at \$9.50, or for the best Scotch about \$13. Scotch pig-iron can be placed in New York, Philadelphia, Pensacola, or Mobile as low as \$17.50 to \$18 a ton. It cannot be made for that money in the South, taking a decade for the basis of calculations. Therefore the owners of the large coke-furnaces in Scotland could break down our charcoal men in the South completely. There is no question in my mind but what they could do that. We cannot make the average mill irons, or ordinary brands of pig in the South, taking, as I said before, a decade as the basis of calculation, for less than \$15 a ton, and they certainly can place theirs at the seacoast for something less than that, upon the average of the Cleveland and ordinary English brands of iron, which would confine our product here solely to the home market. We could not haul pig-iron to the coast and compete with them in the eastern and southern points of consumption in its manufacture.

Probably in bar-iron and all grades of the coarser forms of iron the tariff as it stands, while it may need some simplification and pruning, is not excessive. While I should not expect that a very liberal reduction in the tariff on bar-iron would bring in foreign competition seriously in the southern district, it would break down to a very considerable extent the bar-iron interest in the South by furnishing to mills in the eastern districts an article of pig at very much lower rates than we could furnish it from here. Therefore they would have a material advantage over us in bars, rails, and all the coarser forms of manufactured materials. I notice that the average price of steel rails at present is about \$48 at the mills. They can be put in New York at \$30 to \$32 to-day at a fair profit to the makers in England, and adding brokerage and other expenses they could be sold, under free trade I will say, at \$35 a ton. Our duty is \$28 a ton, and that would show that our iron-makers

(although we are told that these things are in the nature of bounties) are not getting within \$12 or \$15 of the bounty; the bounty is going somewhere else, probably to the government. That is true of all other articles protected in the iron interest. The duty is very seldom, if ever, added to the price of English iron, duty free, in New York, Philadelphia, or other controlling eastern markets; not much more than half, as a rule. That might or not indicate that one-half of the protection would be sufficient to answer the purposes of the southern districts.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. Is there an abundance of iron ore in this country?—Answer. Yes, sir; a very great abundance.

Q. Is it contiguous to coal?—A. Yes, sir; it lies very close to coal.

Q. Is it of a character that cokes easily?—A. Yes, sir; we have large amounts of good coking materials through the South.

Q. Is limestone abundant in the country?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. That is the flux you usually use?—A. Yes, sir. I have seen limestone, coal, and iron ore all within a circuit of a mile or a mile and a half.

Q. Are you aware of the difference in price of labor in this country and in Europe?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What is the difference?—A. In the iron industry I think the difference is about 110 per cent.

Q. It is your opinion, then, that the American producer of pig-iron and such other forms of iron should have sufficient protection to put him on an even plane with the foreign maker in regard to wages?—A. That is my idea exactly, and I would say in that connection that in the pig-iron interest every dollar of the protection goes to the laborer.

Q. You do not think it desirable that the price of labor in this country should be reduced to the price of labor in England?—A. No, sir; I think not. The cost of living is quite as low as it is in Europe, and I think our laborers have a much better chance.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. What do you know in regard to the sentiment of the agricultural portion of the community on this subject; have you any information in regard to their wishes?—A. Yes, sir; considerable. I am the editor of a paper which circulates largely in the agricultural districts here, and among the most intelligent agriculturists I find that there has been since 1874 a very rapid change in regard to all tariff questions. I think there is a growing sentiment in the community in favor of proper protection.

Q. There has been no agitation of that question for the last twenty years in the South, has there?—A. No, sir; but we have advocated a tariff for protection pretty rigorously, and our paper is taken and read by a large number of prominent agriculturists, and I take it that if our readers did not like the views contained in the paper they would be apt to say something to us about it, which they have not done. I do not remember hearing any criticism of our protection views, except from a few gentlemen who run small weeklies—"patent insiders." That class of people have sometimes criticised our views. There is a very general lack of information in regard to all these tariff matters in the South,

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. In your judgment, then, there is no great desire among the people to have any radical changes made in the present tariff laws?—A. I find no such desire among them. I know quite a number of gentle-

men who are importers and large dealers throughout the South who are pretty stiff democrats—pretty extreme—and I know several of those gentlemen quietly voted at the last Presidential election for General Garfield simply because they favored the doctrine of protection. I know quite a number of instances of that kind of my own knowledge, and these men were not manufacturers either.

Q. Are the people in this section generally in a prosperous condition?—A. Yes, sir; there is a very general condition of prosperity at present.

Q. Both among the farmers and the trading classes?—A. Yes, sir; our farmers are better off than they ever have been since the war.

By Commissioner BOTTLER :

Q. And they cordially welcome among them all those who are disposed to start new enterprises?—A. Yes, sir; there is no place anywhere where men with money are more warmly welcomed or better treated than in the South.

Q. You are from the North yourself, I believe?—A. Yes, sir; I commanded a Federal regiment during the war, and was mustered out here and have staid here ever since.

Mr. A. M. JOHNSON, of Chattanooga, representing the Lookout Rolling Mill, said: -

I am a Georgian by birth, but have been a resident of Chattanooga for about thirty years. I came here quite young, and have been connected with the iron business here only about three years. I am a novice in it yet, but have learned a great deal and have more to learn. I have listened very attentively to the statement made by Colonel MacGowan, who has been a resident here and editor of a paper for some time, and I fully agree to all that he has said in regard to our manufacturing and agricultural interests; his views accord with my own in all respects.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. What is your opinion in regard to the wishes of the people of this section so far as any changes in the tariff laws are concerned?—A. I do not believe that the people here desire any reduction or any change in the tariff at all. I do not believe there is even a respectable minority who favor any change in the present tariff system.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. Are you a manufacturer of bar-iron?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then you are a purchaser and consumer of pig-iron?—A. Yes, sir; I would not have the tariff altered or changed in any respect. There is now a legitimate margin of profit in the manufacture of pig-iron into bar-iron, and if we were to buy pig-iron for less money bar-iron would come down in proportion. There is a legitimate margin in competition and trade which will always bring the price down to a fair figure. If pig-iron was imported and the duty was less, or removed altogether, in order to enable the pig-iron manufacturers to produce their product here, the price of labor would have to be reduced also. I think labor is, if anything, too low now.

Q. Do you regard it as an advantage to yourself, as a consumer, that there are manufacturers of pig-iron here at your command, and domestic competition among the blast furnaces, so that you can get your pig-iron cheaper?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you think you are better off than if you were dependent wholly upon the foreign supply?—A. Yes, sir. I would not have the tariff placed so as to enable the manufacturers to keep their prices up too high. I think the matter is very well adjusted, however, as it is at present. I would not have the pig-iron manufacturers get rich at the expense of the general interests of the country, but I think they ought to receive a fair share of protection. Although I am a manufacturer myself I would not, if I know myself, have the tariff placed at such a figure that it would enable me to get rich if at the same time it was impoverishing my neighbor. I think the interests of all classes should be considered.

Capt. H. T. CHAMBERLIN, president of the Roane Iron Company, of Chattanooga, said:

I can only repeat what Mr. Johnson has said, and indorse all that Colonel MacGowan told you in regard to the sentiments of the people in this section of the country on tariff questions. Ever since the war I have been in the iron business here, or in this vicinity. I first went into the business at Knoxville, Tenn., directly after the war, and engaged in making bars, railroad stock, &c., and afterward came to Chattanooga, and have been in business here making pig-iron and rails. My opinion is, so far as my observation goes, that the present duties are perfectly satisfactory both to the manufacturer in my department of the business and to the people in this section. This is not what might be called a free trade district or section. I think the sentiment here, among all classes of people, is pretty fairly unanimous. While there are quite a number who would say, on general principles, that they were in favor of free trade or in favor of a tariff for revenue only, yet when they are pinned down to a statement of their views they all agree in the benefits conferred by a judicious protective tariff. The iron interest is the principal interest of this section of the country, comprising Chattanooga, Birmingham, Knoxville, and quite a district about here. There are quite a number of blast furnaces in this section. The ore is plentiful, coal is abundant, and the people engaged in these industries are generally fairly prosperous at this time. I think that is true of this whole section. We had a pretty severe time during the panic, as other sections of the country did, but we have about gotten over the effects of that and are now in a prosperous condition. I do not think there is any feeling against the present tariff on iron or iron products amongst the agricultural portion of the community.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. Are you acquainted with the iron works of Noble & Tyler at Anniston, Ala.?—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. How much iron are they making?—A. Somewhere about 40 to 50 tons a day of charcoal iron.

Q. Do you know whether they have a cotton factory also?—A. Yes, sir, they have a cotton factory as well.

Q. What is the size of the town they have built up?—A. I do not know that I could speak authoritatively on that subject, but I have heard it estimated at 2,000 people.

Q. They have churches and schools there?—A. Yes, sir; both churches and schools built by themselves.

Q. And women and children work in the cotton factory and the men in the iron works?—A. Yes, sir; that is the case. I was talking with Mr. Noble yesterday about it.

Q. Are you acquainted with General Warner's establishment at Te-cumseh, just over the line?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. How is that establishment prospering?—A. I think they are doing well at present, although they have had a pretty hard time of it.

Q. Did General Warner go through the panic of 1873 safely?—A. Yes, sir; he did, and the sheriff has not got him yet.

Q. Are you acquainted with the Etna Works, now run by Colonel Pennington in Polk County, Georgia?—A. Yes, sir. They are doing well also, I believe.

Q. Have you any acquaintance with Captain West's works at Cedartown, Ga., 20 miles south of Rome?—A. Yes, sir; I know of him. He is doing well, and has built a very nice town there.

Q. Has he not afforded a very good market there for the agricultural products of that part of the country?—A. Yes, sir; and he carries on a large farm, a grist-mill, and saw-mill. He has built up large industries there in several directions.

Q. The establishment of his works there has more than trebled the population of the town, has it not?—A. Yes, sir; it has.

Q. Are you acquainted with the iron works at Round Mountain, Ala.?—A. No, sir; I am not.

Q. Do you know the quality of the ores about Round Mountain; the red phosphorous ores?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Are they valuable ores?—A. They are good ores, but not considered the most valuable.

Q. Are they not very useful in mixing with iron made from the hematite ores for making car-wheels?—A. They are so considered. They are mixed largely.

Q. Do you know Mr. Noble's establishment at Rome, Ga.?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is not that establishment making a fine quality of car-wheels?—A. Yes, sir. The wheels made there have a very fine reputation, and they are being used all over the country.

Q. Do they find a ready sale for all they can make?—A. I do not know how that is, but I know they have built up a large business there.

Q. From Chattanooga to Birmingham, and from Chattanooga to Mr. Noble's works in Alabama, is not the country filled with valuable classes of iron ore?—A. Yes, sir. There is a vein of ore called there the Clinton red fossil ore, which extends through Pennsylvania and southward, and enters this State at Cumberland Gap within sight of Chattanooga, and runs down along the Alabama and Great Southern Railroad to Birmingham, and loses itself below Birmingham. It is called a vein of red fossil ore. To the southeast of that there are occasional crops of the same ore. For instance, here is Lookout Mountain. On one side of it the Alabama and Great Southern Railroad runs along, and that ore crops out on that road the whole length of it, while on this side the same vein dips under the same mountain and extends for 100 miles or more.

Q. Is there not on the other side of the Coosa River fine beds of hematite ore?—A. Yes, sir; and it crops out occasionally in ridges throughout the whole Tennessee valley.

Q. Do you know whether they have found manganese in Barton County towards the lower edge of Floyd County and the upper edge of Polk County?—A. Yes, sir; they are shipping manganese ore from there.

Q. Are you acquainted with the ores in Taylor's Ridge, beginning with Ringgold and running 50 miles to the Coosa River?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is it not a continuous body of good iron ore for at least 50 miles?
—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Are there not large forests of timber suitable for the making of charcoal all along that line?—A. Yes, sir; I suppose not over 10 per cent. of the ridges in the vicinity of these iron ores are cleared. The land is all in timber, especially in the Alabama district. Of course you understand that these are not Bessemer ores.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. What does this ore you have spoken of yield in iron?—A. They run from about 35 per cent. to about 55 per cent. Taylor's Ridge ores run up to about 50 per cent., and on the Southern Alabama road they run from 35 up to 55. I should say that 45 was about an average.

Q. How are they in phosphorus and silicon?—A. The vein that runs west to the Cumberland Mountains produces a pig-iron of about 85 of phosphorus, and as you go south on this vein the phosphorus is less, and when you get down in the neighborhood of Birmingham there is a little less phosphorus than there is in this section of the country. There is more alumina here and more silicon in that country. It is not excessive in alumina or silicon, and makes a good cold-short iron. Each of these veins I have spoken of seems to be a little different from the other. On this side of Lookout Mountain there is less phosphorus than the other side. I cannot say why that should be so.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. In speaking of the agricultural classes of this section, I understand you to say that they are generally satisfied, in your opinion, with the tariff upon the manufactures of iron. Can you give us some idea of their feeling with regard to the tariff on other manufactures?—A. In regard to that matter I may say that I have traveled over this section of the country very considerably, looking for ores in North Georgia, Tennessee, and Kentucky, during the last ten years, and have seen a great many people in the agricultural districts, and have conversed with them frequently on tariff questions, especially with regard to the tariff on iron. I never have heard any dissatisfaction expressed by any of these people in regard to the present tariff.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. These ores which you refer to are secondary ores. Are there any primitive ores or magnetic iron ores?—A. There is a large vein of magnetic ore on the border where North Carolina and Tennessee join, which is in what is called the Greenboro' district, about 200 miles from here. It does not come very near us. There are no primary ores that we know of nearer than 200 miles, I suppose, from this town.

Q. I have heard a great deal of the ores of Alabama; what kind of ores are they?—A. They are brown hematite and phosphorus ores generally. In this section the ores are phosphorus ores, while in Alabama they are more generally brown hematite ores. The hematites are very generally used for making car-wheel iron, but would hardly make a stronger iron than certain of these phosphorus ores.

Q. Are they as easily worked in the furnace?—A. About the same as the other; not more so.

Q. Are the materials for making charcoal iron in Georgia or Alabama in the regions you have referred to very great or almost unlimited?—A. I think they are very great in Georgia, Alabama, and in certain sections in Tennessee. I will state that I called on Major O'Brien, the president of the board of trade here, and asked him to bring the

representative free-trade men of this place with him to give their views to the Commission on that side of the question, but I am sorry to say that they have not responded.

Mr. S. B. LOWE, commission merchant of Chattanooga, Tenn., said :

I endorse all that has been said by those who have preceded me. If I should address the Commission, it would only be a repetition of what they have told you, and therefore I will not at this time make any statement, but if any of the Commission desire to interrogate me I should be happy to answer their questions.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Question. Do you agree with what Captain Chamberlin has said in regard to the iron ores of this country, especially with regard to their extending from here to the county of Floyd, and down by Tecumseh, to Noble & Tyler's Iron Works?—Answer. Yes, sir; I do. I have made personal inspection of many of the ore banks through Alabama and Georgia both. There is a difference between the brown hematite ores and the red fossiliferous ores, as we designate them here. The brown ores have more manganese mixed with them than the red ores.

By Commissioner OLIVIER :

Q. That helps to make a softer iron, does it not?—A. My impression was that manganese in iron made it harder, but that may not be so. It is an iron that comes to nature quicker than the other. I have seen two or three beds down in Tennessee where there was 50 per cent. of manganese, which would make a white iron. There seems to be an almost unlimited supply of ore through this section of the country. To express my idea about it, I will repeat a remark made by Mr. Powell, who went through this section of the country investigating the different qualities of ore. Some one asked him as to the extent of the ores through this country, and he said that he had been making calculations upon that subject, and as near as he could ascertain there was enough ore through this section to last the whole world for five or six eternities; that was the expression he used. The supply of iron ore throughout this country is almost unlimited.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Q. Are you acquainted with Taylor's Ridge?—A. Yes, sir. I have worked a great deal of ore from there.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. You seem to be familiar with ores. Are you familiar with the brown hematite ore of Connecticut?—A. No, sir; only with the iron itself. I know of it.

Q. It was pronounced by La Place, the most eminent geologist in the world, as making the best iron known. I would like to know whether the hematites of Georgia compare with it?—A. I can tell you of an ore bank (and I suppose there are plenty of them in Tennessee) called the Tellico ore bank, which is situated 60 miles from here, in East Tennessee. Some forty years ago there was a charcoal furnace that used that ore. That iron was brought here to Chattanooga and made into car-wheels here and at Nashville, at least forty or fifty years ago, and about ten years ago some of those wheels were still being used on the Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad. I think that is unprecedented in the history of car-wheel manufacture anywhere. It was the strongest iron I ever saw.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Are any nails manufactured here?—A. Yes, sir; they manufacture about 500 to 700 kegs of nails a day.

Q. Is the quality of iron used suitable for the making of nails?—A. Yes, sir; I think so, very suitable indeed.

Q. Do they make a nail as good as the Old Dominion nail?—A. Yes, sir; I think so.

Mr. CHARLES D. MCGUFFEY, of Chattanooga, said:

I have no practical knowledge of iron, but I have lived sixteen years in this part of the country and have a pretty thorough acquaintance with its natural advantages. I have traveled a good deal, and had a good opportunity for ascertaining the sentiments of the people on tariff and other questions, and believe the opinion of the agricultural class is favorable toward a continuance of the present tariff, especially in those sections where they have been brought within the influence and have seen the practical workings of the iron factories established in this State. I know of the growth of Rookwood and Oakworth, two furnaces that were located in the wilderness, and now they are surrounded by a growing and thriving population. As far as I can ascertain the farming class do not like direct taxation; they prefer another form of taxation. During the sixteen years I have been in East Tennessee I have traveled considerably through the country on horseback and in remote agricultural regions, as well as in the mining districts, and I do not remember ever to have heard a word of complaint about the tariff, although I have heard complaints on many other subjects during that time.

As to the manufacture of iron, which is the principal industry throughout this section, I am sure that it would excite much dismay among the agriculturists if there was a prospect of anything being done in connection with the tariff which would interfere with the iron interests. Land that was comparatively of no value before these establishments were erected now bring a good price; the farmers have sold their ore rights and their timber, and men with small farms who before could hardly get along find themselves in a condition of comparative competence. These tariff questions are not very well understood among our people generally, I think, as they are not brought directly in contact with the workings of the tariff law. As far as I have been able to ascertain there is no desire for any change in the tariff among the people of this section of the country.

Mr. LUKE LEE, of Jackson, Miss., said:

I do not know that I can consider myself a representative of the views of the people of my State, but I understand that the Commission would like to be informed as to the public sentiment on economic questions pertaining to tariff matters in Mississippi. I can only say, in a general way, that in Mississippi, apart from the professional politicians, there is no dissatisfaction felt in regard to the tariff. Our newspapers and our politicians mostly advocate free trade, but I am satisfied that there has been a change in public sentiment in regard to these matters. I think the sentiment is increasing in favor of a general policy of protection. We have some few manufacturing establishments in Mississippi, but we have no mineral resources. It is very strictly an agricultural country. Some manufacturing establishments have sprung up of late, and are doing a most excellent business. There is a large cotton

and woolen mill at Wesson, on the Chicago, Saint Louis and New Orleans Railroad, between Jackson, the capital of the State, and New Orleans, known as the Wesson Mills. It is mostly owned by Colonel Richardson, a man of great wealth, and who is perhaps the largest cotton planter in the world. He owns, I suppose, some eighteen or twenty large cotton plantations in what is called the Mississippi Delta, and raises more cotton than any other man in Mississippi or in the South. He told me, not a great while ago, that his investment in his cotton and woolen manufacturing establishment, at Wesson, was far more profitable than his mining investments. He is now engaged in erecting at Vicksburg a large oil mill, being the second one erected there.

I think the people of the State of Mississippi appreciate the advantage of having manufacturing industries established among them, although as a rule the people in the agricultural districts are indifferent on the subject of the tariff, never having investigated it, and they know or care but little about it. The politicians are generally in favor of what is called free trade. I should not be surprised if in the course of a few years we had an entire revolution of public sentiment on this subject, and a feeling in favor of what might be called a protective tariff.

By the PRESIDENT :

Question. At this factory that you speak of, established by Colonel Richardson, what are they manufacturing?—Answer. Principally jeans.

Q. Do you know anything about the character of those fabrics?—A. They are very good quality and are sold in New York.

Q. I believe their extraordinary cheapness was spoken of at the Centennial Exposition.—A. Yes, sir. They are making a variety of these fabrics, which they send mostly to the North and Northwest. There is quite a demand for them in New York, I am told. I think there is a growing desire to see these tariff questions placed upon a footing that will give us prominence and prevent the tariff from being subject to incessant changes and agitation. The idea seems to be that it does not matter so much what the duty is, as long as it is a fixed and stable one; that the business of the country will adapt itself to the tariff, and that as we have to raise a revenue to carry on the government, the people prefer to have it raised in that way rather than by internal taxation. I think there is a feeling among our people in favor of abolishing the internal-revenue system, and collecting the revenues of the government from imports. If that is the policy to be adopted, and the tariff can be adjusted and put upon a permanent basis, I think it would be satisfactory to the people of the section of the State where I live.

Mr. W. S. MARSHALL, of Chattanooga, said :

I desire to call the attention of the Commission to the development of the tanning industry in Tennessee. Messrs. J. B. Hoyt & Co., of New York, have established a tannery here, and have met with good success. It was established here because of the large quantity of chestnut-oak bark of good quality for tanning purposes to be obtained in this vicinity, and they have been increasing their capacity until now it is one of the largest tanneries in the United States, if not in the world, with a capacity of tanning about 400 hides a day. They purchase their hides in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and other Eastern cities, and ship them here and tan them, and ship them back to New York. They get their bark along the line of the Alabama and Great Southern Railroad, which runs into the northern part of Alabama, and along the line

of the Cincinnati Southern Railroad. Each of these roads run close to the mountains where they get their bark. They pay now from \$6 to \$8 a cord for the bark, delivered on the road. That furnishes employment and capital to the farmers, and to the persons living on these poor lands along these roads, where the land is almost worthless in other respects. I believe the land on the sides and tops of these mountains has only been worth on the average, about \$1 or \$2 an acre, until now.

The people bringing bark down to the railroad station, sometimes a distance of 10 or 15 miles, are getting more for their bark than their land was worth before, with the timber on it. I know of one man in an adjoining county that bought a piece of land on a side of a mountain, for which he paid \$3,000 a few years ago. He is a farmer in Ray County. A few months ago he sold the bark standing in the tree to this tannery here off that same piece of land for \$11,000 cash, and he also contracted to deliver the pine timber standing there for \$1,000, and has the land with coal in it yet. There is a large amount of this chestnut-oak bark, and since this tannery has been in operation here it has called the attention of the tanners in other parts of the country to this bark, and it has been shipped from here to Louisville, Cincinnati, and Saint Louis for the last two or three years, so that it has made a great deal of business for this region of country.

I notice an improvement also in those localities where iron manufacturing companies have been located within the last few years. They have been located in sections where the people were not very extensive farmers, where the land was not productive, and they had but little market for anything that they produced. But where these factories have been established towns have grown up, the people find a market for all they have to sell—their butter, eggs, cheese, &c. The markets are being brought to the doors of the farmers; and, so far as I can see, the farmers are very anxious to have these establishments located among them. I find in such cases a very decided change in the sentiments of the people, and that they are almost universally in favor of a tariff, not only a tariff for revenue, but a protective tariff.

By the PRESIDENT :

Question. Is the southern chestnut-oak to which you have alluded, superior to any other kind for tanning purposes?—Answer. It is superior to any bark that can be found in the North. Before locating here Messrs. J. B. Hoyt & Co. had a person employed to travel through the country to find out where the best quality of bark for tanning purposes was located. They are the largest tanners in the United States, and have four or five tanneries besides the one established here. They investigated the question thoroughly and thought they found the best bark here, and experiments have proved their supposition to be correct.

J. A. HUTCHISON.

ATLANTA, GA., *September 22, 1882.*

Mr. J. A. HUTCHISON, of the firm of Hutchison & Bro., druggists, Atlanta, Ga., addressed the Commission as follows:

I desire to say a few words to the Commission on the subject of quinine. The price of quinine is cheaper now than it has been for a number of years, and in my opinion that has been brought about entirely by taking off the duty on quinine. We now get the French and German quinine, and other firms have commenced making quinine in this country that were not engaged in that manufacture before, and these new houses have come in competition with the old firms such as Powers & Weightman, who are now asking to have the duty on quinine reimposed.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. You do not recommend then the reimposition of the duty upon quinine?—Answer. No, sir; it should not be imposed, if you desire to furnish the article cheaply to the consumers.

Q. A great deal of quinine is consumed in this part of the country, I believe?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And you say it is cheaper now than it has ever been?—A. Yes, sir; it is cheaper now than it was before the war.

Q. Are you making as much profit out of it as you were formerly?—A. Yes, sir; we are making more. The price was so high before that we could not make much profit. Now we only pay \$2.50 an ounce, instead of \$4 an ounce, as formerly. Quinine has been sold here as high as \$5 an ounce since I have been in the business.

Q. So that you think that with a tariff as it is at present it is an advantage to the consumer of quinine, better for the retailer, and not very injurious to the manufacturers?—A. I don't think it hurts them a particle, for more people have gone into the business of manufacturing it since the duty was taken off than before. The firm of Powers & Weightman, of Philadelphia, had almost the control of the business before the duty was taken off.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. What is the difference in the retail price of quinine now and a few years ago?—A. It is now worth 1 cent a grain; before it was worth 2½ cents a grain. We give 5 grains now for 5 cents, while before it cost 10 or 15 cents for 5 grains.

Q. That is a reduction of over 100 per cent. on the retail price?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then the removal of the duty of 20 per cent., you think, has reduced the price over 100 per cent?—A. Yes, sir; and we make more money on it now than we did before. A great many of the druggists keep the German quinine, which is cheaper than the American quinine.

Q. What is your opinion in regard to the present duty on bark of which quinine is made?—A. I don't know anything about that, but the

supposition is that if the duty was taken off that quinine would be even cheaper than it is now.

Q. Would you recommend that the duty be taken off the bark?—

A. I think it would be an advantage to our manufacturers in this country.

Q. In other words, you mean as long as the article of quinine is admitted free the material of which it is made should be admitted free?—

A. Yes, sir; I think so; and I think it would make the price of quinine still cheaper, which is what we want.

JAMES W. ENGLISH, ET AL.

ATLANTA, GA., *September 22, 1882.*

Mr. JAMES W. ENGLISH, mayor of Atlanta, addressed the Commission as follows :

I have but a word or two to say upon the subject of the tariff. I am very decided in my convictions in regard to these tariff questions. I do not believe the Southern country can ever become the prosperous section we would like it to be if it relies wholly upon agriculture. We have started many manufacturing enterprises, and we have got to have protection or else we cannot compete with the manufacturers of Europe and the New England States. In past times the Southern people were disposed to take the other side of the question in favor of free trade, as they have been engaged almost wholly in agricultural pursuits. But of late years large manufacturing industries have been started here, much capital has been invested, and skilled labor employed, and I think the sentiment of the people is that these establishments should receive the necessary protection in order to make them successful. I hope to live to see the day when the South will manufacture the greater portion of her own products in her own factories. When that condition of things exists, our people will find ready and profitable employment. There are here, as you will find in many sections of the country, people averse to agricultural pursuits, who would rather turn their attention in other directions, such as manufacturing and the mechanical arts. Up to this time there have been no such opportunities, but under the new start taken in manufactures here there is a large field for development. Of course the agricultural people as a class take the other side of the question, and are mostly in favor of free trade. But I have given you my own views of the matter, and I think I may say they represent the views of a considerable portion of this community as well.

Maj. B. E. CRANE, of Atlanta, president of the Chamber of Commerce, said:

I had not intended to say a word when I came here to-day, and will not now attempt to discuss the general principles of the tariff, simply stating that I differ from Mr. English in the views he has expressed. There is one matter, however, which as a merchant I should be glad to call your attention to, and that is the matter of the duty on iron ties for baling cotton. I observe in the newspapers that that question has been brought before your Commission, and as we are largely engaged in handling these ties I may possibly give you a few points upon that subject.

The present ruling of the Treasury Department is that iron ties shall pay a duty of 35 per centum ad valorem. The law, I learn, is somewhat vague, and there has been occasionally a ruling that they should pay a specific duty of 1½ cents a pound. The ties are put in bundles weighing from 50 to 56 pounds each. They cost in England about \$1 a bundle, or in the neighborhood of 2 cents a pound. The duty of 35 per centum ad valorem makes a bundle of ties cost at our ports \$1.35, and they are being sold to the planters now at about \$1.50 to \$1.55 a bundle. A

specific duty of 1½ cents a pound would make us pay a duty of about 75 cents a bundle, which added to the original cost would make the price \$1.75 delivered at our sea-ports. In other words, it would put an additional tax on iron ties of between 40 and 50 cents a bundle, or about three or four million dollars for the entire crop of the South, which has been estimated at six million bales. The duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem we have ought to be a sufficient duty on these ties. Any additional duty is really a tax on the cotton planter.

I have heard it said that it made no difference what the planter paid for his ties; that he bought his ties for about 3 cents a pound and sold his cotton for 10 cents a pound, and the cotton and ties were all weighed together. That would appear at first sight to be true, but really it is not the fact. For commercial convenience, we weigh a bale of cotton here and pay for the gross weight. When that cotton is landed in Liverpool and sold, 6 per cent. is deducted for the tare, just as 10 per cent. is deducted for tare on New Orleans sugar. We regulate that matter here, not by taking this 6 per cent. off, as they do on the other side, but in the price of cotton. Therefore, the cotton planter does not get any allowance for the weight of the cotton tie and the bagging, as has been stated.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. Cotton ties are used entirely for the purpose of preparing cotton; an agricultural product for shipment?—Answer. Yes, sir. In former years we used rope for baling cotton, but iron has replaced rope since the war, for several reasons. One is it is cheaper, and in case of fire it protects the cotton very much better than the rope tie did.

Q. And therefore reduces the insurance?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. The 6 per cent. that is deducted in Liverpool is the tare on the ties and bagging?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. So that, in fact, the cotton is sold in Liverpool net—by its actual weight in cotton?—A. Yes, sir; the same as sugar or anything else.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Which do you prefer, a specific or an ad valorem duty?—A. I prefer the ad valorem duty of 35 per centum, as is levied now under the present ruling of the Treasury Department.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. There have been several rulings upon that point?—A. Yes, sir; and in a very few instances, I believe, a specific duty of 1½ cents a pound has been paid. But they have changed that now and they require that the buckle which used to be just slipped on to the band shall now be riveted to the band, and in that way they come under this ruling of a duty of 35 per centum ad valorem. I am not well enough versed in tariff matters to be able to give you the reason why that was done.

Commissioner OLIVER. It is wholly a matter of decision in the Treasury Department, and has been changed several times within a few years, and the duties are now collected under a decision of the Treasury Department putting these articles under the "not otherwise provided for" clause. Another decision next year may put the duty back again to 1½ cents a pound. Don't you think a specific duty should be named by law?

The WITNESS. Yes, sir; I think in trade everything ought to be made as permanent and stable as possible. I do not think the duty should be at a higher rate, however, than 35 per centum ad valorem. I do not

know whether that is enough protection to the American mills or not, but I think it ought to be.

Q. It has been stated to us that ten years ago the duty of 35 per centum ad valorem amounted to about $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound.—A. Ten years ago cotton ties were sold at 8 cents a pound, while they are now sold at 3 cents a pound. The difference in the price of iron ties was caused not only by the protection which was afforded, but by patents which existed at that time. Those patents have expired, and hence the article can be made by any manufacturing establishment at present.

Q. Is it not a fact that at that time the cotton-tie business was in the hands of what might be termed a great monopoly?—A. It is now practically.

Q. I mean did not an English firm or syndicate control that manufacture and deal out the ties to the cotton planter in such quantities and at such prices as they thought the trade could stand?—A. No, sir; I think not; I may be mistaken. My information is that the iron-tie trade of this country is in the hands, practically, of Mr. McComb of New York City. Under this ruling of the Treasury there is enough competition coming in from abroad to keep his prices down. The patent was the only thing that protected him when the prices were high.

Q. Is it not a fact that in the "70's" he was compelled by the American manufacturers to reduce his prices nearly one-half by competition?—A. I do not recollect. The price of ties has been gradually declining. The parties who owned and controlled the patents made a very handsome profit out of them, I imagine, and got very high prices. As we have introduced, however, other modes of fastening the band, there has been competition which has gradually cut down the prices until now they are low.

Q. There are no cotton ties made in this country at all now, so we were told the other day.—A. They were made in this country two years ago, I believe.

Q. Do you think it a wise policy in regard to an article that is absolutely necessary for the use of the Southern people that the duty should be placed at such a figure that we have to depend upon a foreign country entirely for our supply; do you think it a wise public policy to do that?—A. I do not know how to answer that question. I cannot say that it affects us injuriously.

Q. The fact is that the whole supply of cotton ties comes from England.—A. Yes, under this 35 per cent. ad valorem duty; but with $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound specific duty, none would come from England.

Q. But I ask you if you think it a wise public policy for us to have the tariff at such a figure that the home manufacturer is discouraged and we are obliged to depend upon the foreign manufacturer altogether for our supplies?—A. Yes, sir; unless our own American manufacturers will make them cheaply.

Q. Don't you think it would be better to stimulate the production in this country to some extent, so that they could be made here?—A. I do not think one section of the country where the ties are used ought to be taxed for the benefit of the other section of the country where they are made. These ties are only used in the South, and this tax is levied for the benefit of Pennsylvania and Ohio manufacturers. I understand there are ties manufactured in Alabama this year at the present prices. There is a small mill over there which has been making ties for several years, and which is making them this year, I understand.

Q. Under the old arrangement, when ties cost 8 cents a pound, the ad valorem duty of 35 per cent. was a very heavy tax; but prices might

increase again. In that view, do you think it wise policy to put the duty at a specific rate per pound; is it not your opinion that that is the best way of assessing the duty?—A. I had not thought of the matter in that light, and am not prepared to answer.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Is not this tax upon cotton ties a tax upon the productions of one section of the country alone?—A. I think so.

Q. Do you believe that the removal of the tax would reduce the price of the ties?—A. I know it would reduce the price of the ties.

Mr. JONATHAN NORCROSS, of Atlanta said:

I have been in the South ever since 1830, and I have seen the time when it was almost as unpopular for a man here to announce himself as in favor of a protective tariff as to announce himself in favor of anti-slavery. I mention this to show that there has been a great revolution in the sentiment of the people of the South in regard to these tariff questions. At the present time, from my observation and from what I have read in the papers, and the speeches I have heard given, I think the sentiment of the majority of the people of Georgia is in favor of a reasonable and just protective tariff, although I do not think they believe in a high protective tariff. The people are beginning to see that they can benefit themselves pecuniarily by a discriminating protective tariff on everything that is manufactured out of cotton and iron particularly. I think, however, on one point the people of this section all agree, and that is that there should be an intelligent revision of the tariff. I think when a tariff yields a revenue sufficient to pay all the expenses of the government, and give a surplus besides, then the tariff on some articles ought to be reduced, while perhaps on others it ought to be advanced; in other words, there should be a revision.

By the PRESIDENT:

Question. I believe you are one of the oldest residents of Atlanta?—Answer. Yes, sir; I claim to be one of the oldest residents; I came here thirty-eight years ago when it was all woods around here.

By Commissioner BOTTLER:

Q. There has been no agitation of the question of the tariff since the war in this section?—A. No, sir; there has been no general discussion of it.

Q. Under the old system which obtained here before the war, these questions were generally discussed on the stump, and the people had an opportunity of being educated in regard to them, did they not?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. While the present generation have not had any such opportunities of obtaining information upon the subject?—A. No, sir. I think the people of this section of the country are lamentably ignorant in regard to tariff questions. Georgia at present is going extensively into manufacturing operations, and it is apparently her desire to take advantage of the present tariff and reach a state of financial prosperity by the method that New England has adopted.

Q. Then you think it is a growing sentiment among the people here that there should be some protection to encourage the development of American products as against those of foreign countries?—A. Yes, sir; I think so. As an evidence of that, I refer the Commission to the tariff speech made by Governor Brown in the Senate last winter.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Do you think there is any general sentiment in this State in favor of retaining the tariff on cotton-ties?—A. Yes, sir, I do; although I cannot tell you how extensive it is, because I am not now actively engaged in business. I have heard men say, "If we must pay a tax to support the government may we not as well pay it in a tariff duty for the benefit of New England as to pay it for the benefit of old England?"

Q. Do you think that the tariff on cotton-ties, if it was reduced, would be a governmental act in favor of old England?—A. I do.

Q. What makes you think so?—A. Because they would furnish them so cheaply that we could not produce them here at all.

Q. That might be; but would not the cotton planter get his ties cheaper?—A. I doubt if he would get them so cheap.

Q. How would New England be injured?—A. New England would be cheated out of the profit, if there was any profit. If that was the only section of our country where they were manufactured, she would lose by it.

Q. But suppose New England does not manufacture iron?—A. I am only giving New England as an illustration. I do not think iron ties would be manufactured in New England whether there was a tariff or no tariff. I think cotton-ties are going to be manufactured in the South, amongst ourselves, if we have a little protection to start us. We have cheaper coal and iron, labor, and provisions than they have in any other part of the country, and I cannot see any reason, if we are given a little chance, why these cotton-ties could not be wholly manufactured here at the South.

Q. Do you think our labor at the South is cheaper than it is in England?—A. No, sir; not cheaper than it is in England, but cheaper than it is in New England. Our common laborers do not get as much, and many of the mechanics work for less wages than they could get in New England. The cotton-factory operatives do not get paid more than half as much here as they do in New England.

Q. They have strikes in New England occasionally, don't they?—A. Yes; I suppose so.

Q. Then why do they not strike here?—A. There is too much competition, and the places of the operatives would be filled up the next day; that is one reason why. It is just the same in regard to farming; the farmers do not strike because they cannot gain anything by it. I believe these strikes are fostered by the manufacturers sometimes in order to stop operations, so that the price of their goods may go up.

Mr. GEORGE W. ADAIR, of Atlanta, said:

I suppose the Commission desires to ascertain the views of the people in this section in regard to tariff subjects. From my association with them, I think I am safe in saying that the general sentiment here is that the tariff laws should be framed for the purpose of producing a revenue, and perhaps for giving incidental protection. I think that is the sentiment of the majority of our people. Georgia is the empire State of the South. She is more progressive and more alive to the varied interests of human life than any other State in the South. There is springing up in our midst quite a manufacturing industry in the matter of iron and cotton goods. I have noticed that whenever a man here engages in any manufacturing operations he immediately becomes a tariff man, because it is a matter of dollars and cents with him; and whenever a man starts a manufacture he wants protection, and he wants a heap of

it, and wants it quick. But when you look to the masses, the large portion of our agricultural people, I think you will find that they would favor only a tariff for revenue with incidental protection; whereas these iron and coal manufacturers want a tariff for protection chiefly. This tariff question has been lost sight of ever since the war began, because there have been other issues before the people which have overshadowed it.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. You have used the term "incidental protection" as indicating the general sentiment of the people. By that you do not mean accidental protection, do you?—Answer. No law can be made so positive that it will fit every case. I mean that any just tariff that would provide for the revenues of the country, if it should at the same time protect some of the standard productions of the country, would not be objectionable, provided it was not done for the purpose of building up special interests.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. As you are very well acquainted with the resources of this State, I would be glad if you would give us your idea as to the nature and extent of the water-power in this section of the country which can be used for the running of machinery?—A. The water-power of the State of Georgia is as fine as in any State of the Union; it is almost unlimited. We have streams that are accessible by rail that furnish an abundant supply of water to run all the manufacturing establishments of the world. We have also a large coal and iron supply, and I believe the State has a very bright future before it in the way of increasing her manufactures. We have three cotton factories here, and soap, starch, and match factories, iron foundries, wagon and carriage factories, box factories, a watch factory, paper-bag factory, and a factory employing 300 women engaged in the manufacture of hats and bonnets.

Q. Are there not large deposits of marble in this State?—A. Yes, sir; and we have slate enough to supply the world, and marble enough for all the mantel pieces in it. We have also mica, iron, and copper. In the northern part of the State about Dahlonega the gold and silver mining industry is being conducted on a very large scale. There has been \$500,000 worth of machinery brought to Georgia and put into gold-mining operations since the war.

Q. The iron ore deposits are also very extensive, are they not?—A. Yes, sir; the supply of coal and iron is almost inexhaustible, and Georgia copper is known all over the world.

Q. Are you not also manufacturing sulphuric acid from pyrites obtained in Georgia?—A. Yes, sir; \$100,000 has been spent here since last January in developing that industry.

Mr. M. E. THORNTON, of Atlanta, said:

I am engaged in the publication of a newspaper in Atlanta. I want to speak to you as one living in the South who looks forward to a commercial future for the South. I am in favor of a protective tariff on all goods that can be manufactured in the South, as well as on iron and all articles entering into the consumption of our manufactures. At present most of the iron and coal is supplied by the State of Pennsylvania; but I claim that with the requisite capital and proper administration, we in the South have as fine a field for the development of the coal and iron industry as any Northern State. I think the South will eventually

demand a high protective tariff, because we have here all the natural resources and elements requisite to make us a great manufacturing people. The South at present is undeveloped. It requires capital, energy, and enterprise to develop its resources. We hope and believe that this Commission will be able to practically solve all these business problems for us, and, by recommending the imposition of a judicious tariff, bring relief to the whole Southern people. I desire to have the working people of the South protected in their labor, and that can only be done by the adoption of a judicious tariff. For myself, I am in favor of a high protective tariff system in all its essential features.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. What proportion of the citizens of Georgia are with you in that belief?—Answer. I would not say that there was a majority; but I undertake to say that a large number of influential people here entertain similar views to my own.

By Commissioner BOTTLER:

Q. You are the editor of a newspaper here?—A. I am editor and proprietor of the Post-Appeal, an afternoon newspaper.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Do you know of any other paper in the State which is advocating a high protective tariff?—A. Yes, sir; the Rome Tribune, a weekly newspaper, edited by T. Hanbury.

Q. Is the present tariff sufficiently protective to suit your views?—A. I do not think it is. In many particulars I think it should be a little higher, though in some respects I think it might be a little lower.

Q. On what articles do you think the duty should be increased?—A. I could not answer that question without going into specific details and statistics, which I have not had an opportunity of preparing.

Q. Do you claim that the sentiments which you express are those of a majority of the people of Georgia?—A. I would not undertake to say that; but there are large numbers of people in Georgia who entertain the same views that I do.

Q. Can you give us the names of any of them?—A. Mr. Thomas J. Hightower is one, and Mr. Norcross is another. Although I may not express the sentiments of the majority of the people, yet I would undertake to carry an election on a platform such as I have advocated.

Mr. J. H. Goss, of Decatur, Ga., farmer and physician, said:

As a member of the DeKalb Central Farmers' Club, I have been requested by some of the members to appear before this Commission to express some ideas in regard to our system of taxation and its bearing on our poorer classes of people. As an individual I am opposed to all indirect systems of taxation. Indirect taxation, I hold, works an injury to labor. Under our present tariff system I think labor is degraded by enticing it from its natural channel to follow unprofitable pursuits, and by inducing it to engage in business that it is not qualified to pursue. That diminishes the common production of the world.

The people of this section of the country—I mean the agriculturists—are, as a rule, poor people; the richest of them do not possess property valued at more than a few thousand dollars; and I think it is for the interest of this section of the country at least that all indirect taxation should be abolished. I think we should all be benefited here by a sys-

tem of direct taxation. I am opposed to the internal revenue system as well as to the system of collecting duties on imports. Of the two I would rather have a tariff. If we continue to have a tariff, I would say, "do away with all internal revenue taxes, and raise revenue from the tariff alone." Then we would have, perhaps, a tariff for revenue and not for protection. Then the masses might be benefited while at the same time the government would receive a sufficient revenue.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. Your idea is that we should do away with all custom-houses, and have the revenues required by the government collected directly from the people?—Answer. Yes, sir; collected directly from the people on real estate.

Q. Your idea is that the tax gatherer should go around annually and call upon all the people, and they should pay directly from their pockets the hundreds of millions of dollars required to carry on the government?—A. Yes, sir; exactly. In doing that of course the rich man will have the most of these taxes to pay, and he is the man who has it in his power to see that the government is run economically, and to correct any abuses that may arise. My suggestion would be that the State and county officers should collect all the taxes for the general government, as well as those for the State and county. In that way we would get rid of custom-houses and internal revenue taxes, and of a vast horde of officials.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. Are these the views of the club which you represent?—A. They are the views of a large number of the more intelligent farmers of Georgia.

Q. I understood that you appeared as the representative of a farmer's club?—A. No, sir. Our club has held no meetings lately; but I was requested to come before you by some individual members of it.

Has your club made any official expression of its opinion?—A. No, sir; it has not. I simply represent my own views as a farmer and a citizen.

Mr. WOODROW WILSON, of Atlanta, said:

It is not my purpose to represent or advocate any particular interest, but only to say a few words upon the general issues before you on the subject of protection or free trade. This question of the tariff is one which has been under consideration in Congress for 90 odd years. Early in the century protection was introduced for the purpose of fostering new manufactures in this country. That system was continued down to the time of the war; but since the war it has been upheld professedly for the purpose of raising revenue, and to enable the government to recover from the indebtedness caused by the war. Free trade, therefore, has been a slumbering question, but it will soon become one of the leading questions in all political discussions, because, now that peace has come, the people of the South will insist upon having the fruits of peace, and not being kept down under the burdens of war.

As you have already been told, there is a great deal of ignorance and indifference in regard to these questions in the South. The people here have been content to let things remain as they were. Probably this has resulted from the fact that the tariff is an indirect way of placing taxes upon the people, and they do not feel the immediate effects of it. But when the farmers and others begin to investigate these mat-

ters, they soon discover that they are, after all, paying these duties for the benefit of a few manufacturing classes. When a farmer discovers that he can buy a jack-knife of English manufacture for \$1.30, while he has to pay \$2 for a knife of American manufacture of the same quality, in order that the American manufacturer of cutlery may compete on equal terms with the British, then he feels that he has a personal interest in these subjects.

In thinking of this matter of indirect taxation, I am reminded of one of the few playful passages which illumine the utterances of Mr. Gladstone. In introducing his "budget" in 1861, he referred to direct and indirect taxation, and called them two sisters, the daughters of necessity and invention, one indeed more open and direct than the other, her sister more shy and insinuating; but he said that, as chancellor of the exchequer, he felt bound to pay his addresses to both. We have these two charming sisters in America, but they cannot be said to be the daughters of necessity and invention; they are rather the daughters of invention and monopoly. The necessities of our government are the necessities of the revenue; and it is well known that our government is not embarrassed from any necessities of revenue; on the contrary, it has an immense surplus. It is undoubtedly a part of true wisdom that the taxes laid by the general government should be indirect taxes. The province of direct taxation should be left to the States, and in order that the two systems may not clash and overburden the people, it is a part of wise policy that the national government shall make the most of its taxation indirect.

No man with his senses about him would recommend perfect freedom of trade in the sense that there should be no duties whatever laid on imports. The only thing that free traders contend for is, that there shall be only so much duty laid as will be necessary to defray the expenses of the government, reduce the public debt, and leave a small surplus for accumulation. But that surplus should be so small that it will not lead to jobbery and corruption of the worst sort.

We often hear the question asked by the advocates of protection whether it is a wise and consistent public policy for us to be dependent for supplies upon foreign governments. That was asked in reference to cotton-ties. It was said that the cotton-tie was manufactured almost wholly in England, and the question was put to the witness, "Is it a part of wise policy that we should be dependent on England for our cotton-ties?" In other words, we fear dependence on foreign manufacturers. Now, gentlemen, what does that mean? There is no danger in time of peace in being dependent on foreign manufacturers, because, if they raise their prices, the inevitable result will be that Americans will go into the manufacture and undersell them, and their prices must come down again. Therefore we are in no danger in time of peace. So that the argument of the protectionist must be a war argument. Of course, if a war should occur between this country and Great Britain, it would be greatly to the disadvantage of our southern cotton-balers to be dependent entirely on the English manufacturer for their cotton-ties. So that the protectionist advocates a system which prepares for war, while it has not any consideration for the requirements of the country in time of peace. I ask, is it worth while during fifty years of peace to provide by taxation for one year of war? Is it wise and just to tax the people for a contingency so that millions may be accumulated in the Treasury from the tax on these cotton-ties in order that war at some distant period, which no man sees, may be

provided for? War will cost a great deal when it comes; let it not be costing us in the mean time.

Another stronghold of the protectionists is the question of wages. They say, "How can we compete with the foreigners when the remuneration of labor is so much lower in foreign countries than in our own country?" Well, we can compete with them just as we do in regard to agricultural products. Of course every gentleman knows that our principal agricultural products have no duty imposed upon them. English wheat and other produce may come into our markets free of duty, and there is a freedom of trade in that regard, so far as the farmer is concerned.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. Do I understand you to say that there is no duty on wheat?

—Answer. So I understand by looking at the last returns.

Commissioner GARLAND. Such is not my understanding.

Commissioner OLIVER. Wheat pays 20 cents a bushel, and the farmers have been asking us to keep that duty on, because they say otherwise it would be imported from Manitoba.

The WITNESS. Then I was misinformed. But it is a well-known fact that there is a greater disparity in the wages paid for agricultural labor in this country and in England than there is between wages paid in other industries, and although the duties on these agricultural products are lower, our competition with foreigners in this regard is more successful. In other words, we make up for the high price of our wages by the fertility of our land. There is no land in the world that can compare in fertility with the land of the West, and the consequence is, we have an immense advantage in that regard. We have advantages also in other industries, such as in mining and in cotton productions. These are compensations which are provided, and which no human laws can take away.

There are positive grounds, however, upon which protection can be objected to. It is understood that the protective tariff policy was adopted in this country in the beginning on the idea advocated by John Stuart Mill and one or two other eminent writers on the subject in England, who said that a new country might with advantage protect its infant industries, provided the tariff which was laid for that purpose was merely a temporary expedient for building up those industries. It was upon that idea that America first established this protective system. What has been the result? These infant industries at first were protected by very small duties, but, instead of growing into manhood and strength, they have gone into weaker decrepitude. They have needed more and more protection as years have gone on, until the climax has been reached at the present time. That ought to overthrow the whole doctrine in itself. But the danger in imposing protective duties is, that when the policy is once embarked upon, it cannot be easily receded from. Protection is nothing more than a bounty, and when we offer bounties to manufacturers they will enter into industries and build up interests, and when at a later day we seek to overthrow this protective tariff, we must hurt somebody, and of course there is objection. They will say, "Thousands of men will be thrown out of employment, and hundreds of people will lose their capital." This seems very plausible; but I maintain that manufacturers are made better manufacturers whenever they are thrown upon their own resources and left to the natural competition of trade rather than when they are told, "You shall be held in the lap of the government, and you need not stand upon your feet".

Such theories discourage skill, because it puts all industries upon an artificial basis. The basis that they rest upon is not that of the skill of the manufacturer; it is because the bounty of the government is put on his trade which enables him to get more for an inferior article than a foreigner could get for a better article.

Protection also hinders commerce immensely. The English people do not send as many goods to this country as they would if the duties were not so much, and in that way there is a restriction of commerce, and we are building up manufactories here at the expense of commerce. We are holding ourselves aloof from foreign countries in effect, and saying, "We are sufficient to ourselves; we wish to trade, not with England, but with each other." I maintain that it is not only a pernicious system, but a corrupt system.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. Are you advocating the repeal of all tariff laws?—A. Of all protective tariff laws; of establishing a tariff for revenue merely. It seems to me very absurd to maintain that we shall have free trade between different portions of this country, and at the same time shut ourselves out from free communication with other producing countries of the world. If it is necessary to impose restrictive duties on goods brought from abroad, it would seem to me, as a matter of logic, necessary to impose similar restrictions on goods taken from one State of this Union to another. That follows as a necessary consequence; there is no escape from it.

H. Mis. 6—82

A. G. WEST.

ATLANTA, GA., *September 23, 1882.*

Capt. A. G. WEST, of Cedartown, Ga., manager of the Cherokee Iron Works, addressed the Commission as follows:

About fourteen years ago I came down into this country and engaged in the manufacture of pig iron, first in Alabama and subsequently in Polk County, Georgia. I will state a few facts in regard to the iron business in this section of the country. I located in Polk County ten years ago and employ about 350 hands making charcoal pig iron. I have made some calculations about the relative cost of the raw material and the labor, and I find that I can put pig iron on the cars at \$15 a ton, expenses all paid; and out of that \$14 is the cost of labor, leaving only \$1 for the raw material, which we have in great abundance in this country. So far as the present tariff is concerned, I am satisfied with it as it is; it would do me very well. There are others, not as well located as I am, who would like a higher tariff. The laborers I employ average, right through, \$1.25 a day wages. If I could get them to work for 40 to 60 cents a day, as is done in Europe, I should not want any tariff.

The margin of profit on pig iron is not excessive. It pays a good interest on the money invested. We have \$5,000,000 invested in Polk County, and we have succeeded in making a fair rate of interest on that sum; but that is about all. If the tariff was taken off, and we had to compete with English iron laid down in New York at \$14 a ton, we should have to abandon the business—we could not compete at that figure. Neither could we compete with Charleston and Savannah under those conditions; we should soon have to stop our furnaces.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. How many tons of pig iron do you make a day at your establishment?—Answer. We average about 28 tons a day.

Q. How far is it located from Rome, Ga.?—A. About 20 miles.

Q. And how far from the Tecumseh Iron Works?—A. About 12 miles.

Q. How far from the Ettna Iron Works?—A. About 7 miles.

Q. I would be glad to have you state whether or not in your section of the country, and from 50 to 100 miles around, there are not good iron ores?—A. Yes, sir; plenty of them.

Q. What kind of ores are they?—A. Brown hematite.

Q. Where do the red fossiliferous ores come from?—A. Those are 40 or 50 miles from our place in the region of Birmingham and Round Mountain, and all through that section over the Coosa River.

Q. Are you acquainted with Taylor's Ridge?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. How are the ores there?—A. There is enough iron ore there to keep all the furnaces going for many hundred years, I think. There is no lack of good ores in this country.

Q. Are there not fine forests also for making charcoal?—A. Yes, sir. Fine forests, and coal mines which will be developed.

Q. How far is it from your furnace to the ore fields?—A. About 50 miles. We are now making a survey for a railroad which will bring us within 12 miles.

Q. At what rate can ore and coal be laid down at your place?—A. The run of the mine for about \$2, and for good coal \$2.50. There is no end to the ores up in that part of the country.

Q. Is there any part of Pennsylvania where the iron ores are superior to those found there?—A. If there is I don't know it.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Are they better than the Cornwall?—A. I have an iron better than the Cornwall. I have 400 acres in ore, and I have only exhausted one acre during the last ten years. I know there are fine ores in Pennsylvania, but it costs more to get at them.

Q. You have been making charcoal pig iron at \$15 a ton?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What do the makers of coke iron say the cost is per ton?—A. I do not know that. I suppose they make a coke iron for \$10 or \$12 where they are well located. When I get my railroad built through, I hope to do a little in that line.

Commissioner OLIVER. That is cheaper for both charcoal and coke iron by from 30 to 50 per cent. than any place I know of to-day where pig iron is made in any quantity in the United States.

The WITNESS. The trouble is, we have to ship everything away, and the freights neutralize the cheapness of the iron.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Are you acquainted with Noble and Tyler's works at Anniston?—A. Yes, sir; they have very fine works there, and are making about 60 tons of iron a day. They have a large cotton factory there, also, in a town of about 1,500 inhabitants, with churches and schools. Cedartown had about 250 inhabitants when our establishment was first located there, and they are now claiming a population of 2,000. The starting of the iron works up there has developed that portion of the country.

Q. How many bales of cotton are sold at Cedartown annually at present?—A. About 12,000 last year, I think, and they hope to increase the production. I think that as soon as the railroad is through, we will get 30,000 to 40,000 bales of cotton at Cedartown.

Q. Have you any slate quarries in Polk County?—A. Yes, sir; we have plenty of them, and of a good quality.

Q. Is not the supply inexhaustible there?—A. I suppose so. I cut through a slate bank in extending the railroad which is 20 feet deep, and the slate is as fine as any I ever saw in Pennsylvania.

Q. Is it not also a fine agricultural country?—A. Yes, sir; they raise as much there as anywhere I know of.

Q. Do your works furnish a home market for agricultural products?—A. Yes, sir; and we are even troubled to get enough at the works. I have had to buy lots of corn, wheat, and hay, and such things. I raise a good deal on my own plantation, but I cannot raise enough to support the works.

Q. Do you not consume all the perishable products around there?—A. Yes, sir. There is a market at the works for all the butter, eggs, chickens, &c., that can be had. Our supply comes from a section of country extending 15 or 20 miles around there. We consume all that the farmers raise; in fact, we have difficulty in getting all we want; articles are sometimes pretty scarce.

Q. Since the location of your works there, has not the country been more prosperous than before?—A. Yes, sir; land within 4 or 5 miles of the works is worth 25 per cent. more than other land around there. Land

is worth \$100 an acre now where it was formerly worth only \$25 an acre. There is also fine water-power there.

Q. Do you know anything about the Tallapoosa River?—A. Yes, sir; there is a great abundance of water there.

Q. Do you know anything about the Coosa River?—A. Yes, sir; on the Coosa River, until you get to the ten islands, there is not much power; but then there is as much as there is at Lowell. At Wetumpka Falls there is an immense volume of water. The river is navigable to Greensborough, though at both ends it is shallow. The government is expending money there very judiciously in improving it. There is going to be a large production of coal in that region, and we must have cheap transportation for it.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. What does your charcoal cost you?—A. Six cents a bushel. I have 20,000 acres located along our line of road, and I suppose it will last me for many years. We are shipping about 30 car-loads of lumber a day regularly. It is yellow pine entirely. We cut it into saw-logs and make it into lumber, and take the refuse and make it into charcoal.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Do you burn yellow pine to make charcoal?—A. Yes, sir; and it makes the finest charcoal in the world.

Q. Do you grow the land again?—A. Yes, sir. It grows up in oak the next time. I have some land that was cut off 9 years ago, and the young trees are now as high as the ceiling of this room.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Have you any chestnut oak there suitable for tanning purposes?—A. Yes, sir; lots of it.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Don't you use the oak for charcoal?—A. We cannot at present. In ten or fifteen years more it will make very good wood.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. What recommendation do you make with regard to the present duty on pig iron?—A. I think the tariff is about right where it is. It gives a fair margin of profit to the manufacturer, and is not excessive at all. Pig iron is now selling at from \$16 to \$20 a ton at the furnace. It costs \$15 to make it, and you can see that there is not a very large margin. I do not think there is any danger of our becoming suddenly rich, but it is a fair business, and we are entirely satisfied with it. There are other works, not quite so well located, where it costs them more. Still, if you should take off the duty of \$7 a ton, the price of labor has got to go down or the furnaces must stop, because we do not make half of that sum profit. No man will run a furnace unless he makes a profit out of it, of course.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Is the capital employed in your establishment furnished at the South?—A. No, sir; it is from New York. My brother-in-law and myself constitute the company. We have in addition to our works a railroad 38 miles long, and we are about to build 100 miles of road to Birmingham.

RICHARD PETERS.

ATLANTA, GA., *September 23, 1882.*

Col. RICHARD PETERS, of Atlanta, Ga., addressed the Commission as follows :

I desire to call the attention of the Commission to a plant that is known in America as the ramie plant. I have brought some samples of it here with me to show you. The roots of this plant I received from the Agricultural Department in the year 1868, and I have raised quite a quantity of it. The Chinese obtain the fiber by scraping it off with a knife. It can only be made valuable in commerce in this country by the invention of some machine to do that work; a machine similar to that necessary for the manipulation of hemp and flax. I understand there have been several machines invented for this purpose, and I received the other day from St. Louis this sample of the crude fiber just as it is stripped from the stalk. [Exhibiting.] I sent that to New York, and it was put through a process there, which they say is very simple and inexpensive, and as a result, this beautiful fiber was returned to me [exhibiting], showing great strength, and fineness, and length. It is said that it can be manufactured at a very cheap rate. The climate of Georgia is admirably adapted to the growth of this plant. It is a perennial, and when once planted, with a little top dressing of manure, two or three crops can be made in the course of a year. It can be produced almost anywhere in the southern portion of the United States, although the climate is too cold in New England to cultivate it successfully there. If the necessary machinery is invented to manipulate it, I think a crop of this fiber can be produced cheaper than flax or hemp. In commerce it is known as *cosmos*.

I have myself only an acre of this in cultivation. It was first introduced into this country about 1868, but there does not seem to have been any special attention paid to its culture. I think the reason is that we have been waiting for a machine which can prepare it. The British Government has offered \$20,000 premium for a machine to prepare it, and they claim that one has been invented which will take off the fiber.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Question. Can it be handled by the same machine which handles jute, flax, and hemp?—Answer. Yes, sir; it is taken off in the same way. It grows 5 or 6 feet high, and can be cut twice or three times in a year.

I also desire to call the attention of the Commission to another article I have here, made of Angora or mohair wool. Angora goats were introduced in 1848 in South Carolina, and in 1856 I brought some to Georgia, and from this point they have been distributed throughout the United States. I claim this as a Georgia production. This article has been brought into notice within the last year or two by the manufacturers of New England, who have spent two or three hundred thousand dollars in developing the manufacture, and they are calling now for millions of pounds of the mohair. I have here [exhibiting] a robe made from Georgia mohair by the Tingle Manufacturing Company, of

Connecticut. It makes a robe which keeps out moisture and rain better than anything I have ever seen.

I have also here a specimen of plush [exhibiting], which came from the same manufacturer. It is used for covering the seats in railroad cars. There is a great demand for it. These manufacturers are now calling upon the sheep raisers of Texas and the Western States, to raise more mohair so as to develop this new industry.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. What is the quality of the American mohair compared with the European mohair?—A. It is found to be superior; but they pay more for it.

Q. Do you regard it as important that there should be a protective duty on wool or mohair?—A. Yes, sir; at present it cannot stand alone; but, like other matters only partially developed, requires some protection. The animals have to be brought from Asia, and that costs large sums, and for some years the culture requires protection. We ask for nothing more than the present protection however. We do not desire any change.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. In regard to the ramie plant, you suggest that it be protected in connection with flax and hemp products, and jute?—A. Yes, sir. A few years ago it was a matter of no moment, because we were waiting for the invention of a machine to handle it. But I understand that a machine has been invented, and now I think for a few years we should have protection.

Q. Can this article be manufactured cheaply?—A. Yes, sir; it can be when the machine is perfected, and after it is developed, then it can sustain itself without protection. For the last 8 or 10 years the wheat and grain of the Northwest has been bundled together with wire, but they have found the use of that objectionable, and now they are using rope for binding purposes. This ramie is very well adapted for that purpose.

Q. Can it be grown cheaper than hemp?—A. Yes, sir; it can be in the southern country. The roots will not stand a northern frost; it would kill them. This is a perennial and stands all winter, whereas hemp is an annual, and must be sown every year. This ramie will grow for many years with only the necessary top dressing of manure, and you can gather two or three crops a year from it. I think it could be grown and manufactured very cheaply indeed.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. Which is the hardier plant, the ramie or jute?—A. There is no comparison. The jute is an annual, and will not mature its seeds here. The seeds will have to be brought from India every year. That is the great difficulty about jute. In the southern part of South Carolina jute may be planted, and some seasons you could raise seed, but it is not certain. It is an annual and liable to be killed by frost.

Q. Neither of these plants can be grown to advantage in Virginia?—A. Yes, sir; this ramie could be grown in Virginia; but you could not grow jute there; the season is not long enough.

By the PRESIDENT ?

Q. Is this the fiber that was formerly known as China grass?—A. No, sir; it belongs to the same family, but it is a much finer plant. China grass is coarser, and grows wild. This is a cultivated plant in China, and is called cosmos in trade.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Q. Could not jute be raised on the lower delta of the Mississippi River, and in the south of Florida; would it not seed there?—A. Yes, sir; it would, but it would not as far north as here. I have planted jute here, but have never been able to mature the seed so far north.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. Do you ask for any change in the duty on these fibers?—A. No, sir; no change at all.

Q. This article would come in at \$15 a ton, the same as jute?—A. I am not familiar with the duty, but I do not think it would require any higher duty than at present. We are well satisfied with the present protection.

A. B. ROSE.

CHARLESTON, S. C., *September 26, 1882.*

Mr. A. B. ROSE, of Charleston, addressed the Commission as follows:

I am president of our local agricultural society, and desire to say a few words in regard to agriculture. The agricultural resources of our section of the country comprise not only rice culture, but also the very important culture of sea-island cotton. I do not know that we are in any way affected by the duties upon our produce, except in the matter of the duty upon machinery used for agricultural purposes, and the duty upon cotton ties, which the planters would be very glad to be relieved from, and it would certainly be an assistance to them. If we could be relieved of the duties upon all agricultural machinery the planter would be able to obtain it at a very much less cost than at the present time. In the cultivation of rice, pumping machinery is coming very much into use and becoming very necessary. A large proportion of the land in our State is low, and in order to avail ourselves of the use of these lands for rice culture and other purposes, it is necessary to have pumping machinery. A large part of the rice-growing land has been abandoned for the reason that parties have not been able to cultivate rice profitably. If machinery could be obtained cheaply, it could be used in bringing these lands back into cultivation.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. You think that it would be an advantage to get machinery from abroad rather than to get it in this country?—Answer. Only because we would get it cheaper. I had occasion a short time ago to purchase a small narrow-gauge locomotive, and I found I could buy it abroad for one-half of what I was obliged to pay for it in this country; but I discovered that the duties upon it amounted to about 50 per cent. So I could not gain anything by importing it.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Suppose the manufacturers who make locomotives in this country should say that, if their operatives could buy the rice which they consume, at one-half the price they have to pay on account of the duty levied upon it to protect that industry, they could reduce proportionately the price of their engines?—A. Well, no doubt they would say truly. I suppose what we want is a duty on rice, no duty on machinery, and a duty on foreign fertilizers.

JOHN SCREVEN.

SAVANNAH, GA., *September 25, 1862.*

Col. JOHN SCREVEN, of Savannah, Ga., addressed the Commission as follows:

I desire to call attention to a report which has been prepared by a committee, specially appointed for the purpose, upon the condition and needs of the American rice industry, particularly with reference to the duty imposed on foreign rice. This report is as nearly complete as it is possible to make it. There has been some information obtained since it was prepared in reference to the importation of foreign rice into this country, to which I will take occasion to advert hereafter. The delegation of gentlemen who are present here consists of merchants and planters appointed for the purpose of approaching the Commission on this subject. They represent a very large and important interest, covering not only this State and the adjoining State of South Carolina, but the whole country along this coast down to the Florida line, say 100 miles, on the coast of Georgia and South Carolina. That district produces probably, in proportion to its area, as much rice as any part of the United States. There is also a considerable amount of what is called inland rice grown in the interior. We represent here probably 40,000 to 45,000 persons engaged in the cultivation of rice, and probably 30,000 to 40,000 acres of land devoted to that product. This would involve, as you will perceive, a very large production, and we are very greatly interested in taking care of these interests.

I make this preliminary statement so that you will understand that we do not approach you with any slight interest behind us at all. The rice production of the State of Georgia comprises about one-half of the production of the Atlantic coast, and about one-third of the production of the whole United States.

The special committee appointed to investigate the condition of American rice industry, and to ascertain in what manner and degree it is affected by the import duty on foreign rice, beg leave to report as follows:

There are three distinctive periods in the history of the rice industry in the United States: First, from its introduction into Virginia and South Carolina, in the seventeenth century, down to 1861; second, from 1861 to 1866, both inclusive; third, from 1866 to July, 1881.

Anterior to 1720, there are no data to be found as to the amount of the production of this grain, but the export of rice from South Carolina from 1720 to 1729, inclusive, was 264,788 barrels of 325 pounds each, or 86,056,100 pounds. This would be equivalent to an average annual export, for the period embracing nine years, of 9,795,777 pounds. McCullough's Dictionary of Commerce and Navigation states the production of rice in America in 1724 at 18,000 tierces, or 10,800,000 pounds, an amount so near the average annual exportation of the nine years just mentioned, which include 1724, that it is probable production is in this instance confounded with exportation.

In 1728 and 1729 the export of rice from the port of Charleston was 32,384 barrels of 400 pounds each, or 13,147,600 pounds; and in the period from November 1, 1770, to October 10, 1771, 130,500 barrels, or

52,200,000 pounds. Of the latter, showing the direction of exportation, 103,630 barrels were shipped to Great Britain and the British West India Islands. The remainder was exported to Portugal, Spain, Italy, and to ports on this continent. From November 1, 1772, to August 2, 1773, there were exported from Charleston 112,649 barrels, and from all South Carolina ports, of the crop of 1773, 125,076 barrels.

It appears that in 1770 there were exported "from the colonies" 150,529 barrels, or 60,211,600 pounds, showing that about 20,000 barrels, or 8,000,000 pounds, were exported from other than South Carolina ports. It is probable that the colony of Georgia, then in vigorous growth, chiefly assisted the increase of production.

From the year 1773 down to 1791, a period mainly covered by the revolutionary war, there are no statistics of production or of exportation, but in the latter year there were exported from the United States 96,980 tierces of 600 pounds each, or 58,368,000 pounds. The following year, 1792, the export sprung up to 141,762 tierces, or 85,057,200 pounds.

The following table shows the export of rice from the United States, beginning with 1791, and continued by decades to 1830, inclusive:

Years.	Tierces.	Pounds.
1791.....	96,980	58,368,000
1800.....	112,656	67,593,600
1810.....	131,341	78,804,600
1820.....	71,663	42,997,800
1830.....	130,097	78,418,200

Beginning with 1840, the statistics, until then wanting in positive data as to production, become more instructive as they become more complete. The following table exhibits the production, export, and home consumption in the decades stated:

Years.	Production.	Exports.	Home consumption.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
1840.....	80,841,422	60,000,000	19,841,422
1850.....	215,313,097	68,000,000	147,313,097
1860.....	187,187,032	75,373,000	111,794,032

In the first of these years the export was 75 per cent.; in the second, 31 per cent.; in the third, 40 per cent. of the production. With the year 1860 ended the first period of the American rice industry, which was distinctive, in the absence of the importation of foreign rice, in maximum home production, in low prices, and in exportation, which controlled the markets of foreign countries, and made them large contributors to American prosperity and wealth.

The second period began in 1861 and ended in 1866, with characteristics the reverse of those which distinguished the first period. In 1860 there was no import of foreign rice, and the export of domestic rice reached to 75,373,000 pounds; but in 1861, the first year of the Confederate war, there were imported 148,550 pounds, and there were exported only 39,683,000 pounds. The blockade of the Southern ports was begun in the spring of 1861, and from this time the government record of domestic rice could have been partial only, and therefore affords no criterion of the amount of production or of the capacity of the country

to export for that year. But the following year, 1862, the statistics are decisive. Domestic production and consumption of the domestic product were both exclusively confined to the Southern States, and the government statistics show that in 1862 there were imported 56,961,317 pounds of foreign rice, and that there were exported only 3,552,000 pounds, the latter being doubtless foreign rice reshipped for lack of a market.

The following table will show the status of American production and commerce in rice for the second period:

Year.	Production.	Import.	Export.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
1860-'61		148,550	39,683,000
1861-'62		56,961,317	3,552,000
1862-'63		61,193,700	1,300,000
1863-'64		99,691,447	1,632,000
1864-'65	11,592,000	44,581,519	718,500
1865-'66	12,206,720	75,514,064	703,711

The crops of 1861, 1862, and 1863 were wholly lost to the Union. Hence, the consumption in the Northern and Western States was limited to foreign rice, and exportation for these years from American ports was exclusively of foreign rice laid down in bond. Despite the crop of 1865-'66, 12,206,720 pounds, the importation of foreign rice in 1866 reached 75,514,064 pounds, or about 10,000,000 pounds more than the average annual importation of the four previous years.

This, the second period of the American rice industry, is distinctive as the period of maximum prices, in which importation took the place of domestic production, and foreign rice practically monopolized the American market.

The prices of rice in the New York market were as follows in the months of January and July of this period:

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.
JANUARY.						
	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>
Carolina	23-3 $\frac{3}{8}$	71-7 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ -13 $\frac{1}{2}$
Rangoon	47-5 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ -7 $\frac{3}{4}$	8-8 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$ -13 $\frac{3}{4}$	9-10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Patna	57-6 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ -7 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{3}{4}$ -8
Para	8-8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8-8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ -8 $\frac{1}{2}$	14-14 $\frac{1}{2}$
JULY.						
Carolina	38-6 $\frac{1}{2}$	67-7 $\frac{1}{2}$	9-9 $\frac{1}{2}$	97-10 $\frac{1}{2}$	13-13 $\frac{1}{2}$
Rangoon	47-5 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ -8 $\frac{3}{4}$	11-11 $\frac{1}{2}$	0-0 $\frac{1}{2}$	97-10
Patna	58-5 $\frac{1}{2}$	8-8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Para	12-12 $\frac{1}{2}$

The prices from 1862 onward were war prices, peculiarly the result of armed conflict between interdependent sections of the same country, one of which no longer supplied the other with a domestic, now supplanted by a foreign product, commanding prices limited only by the necessities of the consumers and their ability to purchase. Under the condition of war, rice becomes very largely an article of hospital consumption. Hence, in the years when the armies of the United States were most numerous and most active, the consumption of rice was the largest. In 1863 the consumption was 60,836,790 pounds. In 1864 it reached

98,059,447 pounds, or only 3,735,585 pounds less than the whole consumption of the United States in 1860, when they were at peace.

The third distinctive period of the American rice industry commenced in 1866, and terminated in 1881. The following table epitomizes the history of the domestic production, foreign importation, and consumption of rice in the United States in this period:

Table showing domestic production, importation, exportation, and consumption of rice.

Years.	Domestic production.	Domestic rice exported.	Domestic rice consumed.	Foreign rice imported.	Foreign rice exported.	Foreign rice consumed.	Total consumption.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
1865-'66	11,592,600	630,080	10,953,520	60,407,750	7,998,990	52,498,760	63,362,280
1866-'67	12,200,729	2,212,901	9,993,819	75,514,064	8,456,060	69,858,004	79,851,823
1867-'68	14,002,600	1,304,007	13,208,593	44,782,223	4,676,082	40,100,141	53,314,734
1868-'69	26,790,200	3,074,033	23,716,167	59,140,707	11,908,953	47,231,754	70,947,911
1869-'70	53,937,000	2,232,833	51,704,167	53,065,194	8,868,604	44,100,530	95,900,697
1870-'71	47,348,000	2,133,014	45,214,986	43,123,030	15,212,833	27,911,100	74,126,092
1871-'72	39,659,990	445,842	39,180,148	64,655,820	10,212,920	54,442,900	93,623,048
1872-'73	52,634,400	403,835	52,230,565	74,642,031	12,251,959	62,390,672	114,621,237
1873-'74	62,900,380	276,637	62,623,743	83,755,225	20,202,774	63,552,461	126,176,104
1874-'75	68,241,400	558,922	67,682,478	73,257,716	25,840,877	47,410,839	115,099,317
1875-'76	72,300,800	277,357	72,023,443	59,414,744	12,352,330	47,062,414	119,145,857
1876-'77	81,391,800	430,991	80,951,809	71,501,852	10,610,614	54,951,238	135,003,047
1877-'78	77,240,400	1,306,982	75,933,418	64,013,004	14,483,645	40,529,410	125,462,837
1878-'79	84,730,200	631,165	84,108,005	47,489,878	9,656,593	37,833,285	121,941,380
1879-'80	80,096,800	178,534	86,818,266	57,364,848	8,793,395	48,571,453	135,389,719
1880-'81	117,766,000	159,451	117,615,549	68,739,409	10,819,807	57,919,542	175,535,691

In the first year of the third period the domestic production was 11,592,600 pounds, and the foreign rice imported 60,407,756 pounds. As early as the fifth year the domestic production had swelled to 53,937,000 pounds, showing an increase of nearly 365 per cent., indeed overlapping the foreign importation; but still the gross importation (292,909,944 pounds) in the first five years exceeded the gross domestic production (119,129,120 pounds) 183,780,824 pounds.

It is remarkable that in these first five years the total exportation of domestic rice was greater by nearly 40 per cent. than in the eleven years subsequent.

In the latter period, that is, from 1870-'71 to 1880-'81, both inclusive, the domestic production sprung from 47,348,000 pounds to 117,766,000 pounds, with an annual average of 71,931,379 pounds—while the average annual consumption of the domestic product was 71,312,953 pounds—the average foreign importation being 64,365,375 pounds, and the average consumption of foreign rice 50,143,756 pounds, or about the same for annual consumption of the latter as in the half decade from 1865-'66 to 1869-'70.

The total average annual consumption of rice in the United States for this half decade was 72,075,489 pounds, and for the subsequent eleven years, to 1880-'81, 121,455,856 pounds. The consumption, however, in 1880-'81 was 175,535,091 pounds.

These data prove conclusively that the average amount of foreign rice consumed in the United States during the past sixteen years is not materially changed; that the total average annual consumption of both foreign and domestic rice has sprung from 72,075,489 pounds in 1869-'70, to 121,455,856 pounds, and that while the importation and consumption of foreign rice has not materially diminished, the production of domestic rice has increased, so as to meet the increase in domestic consumption, while an average surplus of 14,221,618 pounds of foreign rice is an-

nually bonded in the American custom-houses, holding in check the price of American rice.

This surplus is nearly equal to the whole production of the United States in 1867-'68, and exercises a decided repression on the price of rice in the American markets. Its influence would be more potential were foreign equal in quality to American rice, and did not the marked increase in domestic production strengthen the competitive forces in the American markets.

These competitive forces are two-fold: first, between domestic production and foreign importation; second, between the domestic producers themselves.

The effects of this competition would be more decided but for the increase of population, and consequent increase of consumption.

In 1869-'70 the consumption was 95,900,697 pounds, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ pounds per head; in 1880-'81, 175,500,000 pounds, or $3\frac{1}{2}$ pounds per head. This remarkable increase in consumption is in great measure due to the large Chinese immigration into the Pacific States, and to the introduction of rice into new objects of industry. It is into these States that the great bulk of foreign rice is imported, amounting for the year terminating in June, 1879, to over 80 per cent. of the gross foreign importation. Of this nearly 72 per cent. came from China and Hong-Kong, 7 per cent., duty free, from the Hawaiian Islands, and 17 per cent. from England, cent. from England, the latter the production of East Indian labor.

Holding in view these prominent facts, it may be now considered whether the protection given to the domestic rice industry by the present import duty may be justly maintained.

It has been seen that the domestic production increased 130 per cent. in twenty years, from 1840 to 1860. During this period the duty on foreign rice was 20 per cent. ad valorem. In all the rice-producing division of the country slave labor was then employed, and no foreign rice was imported. Quite contrary to present experience, when so little domestic rice is exported as to be inappreciable in the marketing of the crops, more than 147,000,000 pounds were exported in 1850, and 112,000,000 pounds in 1860. In the former year the average price of rice in the New York market was \$3.18 $\frac{1}{2}$, and in the latter year \$4.20 per 100 pounds. The average price of the whole period from 1850 to 1860 was materially increased by the great storm of 1854, which swept away the greater part of the crop of that year, and by the draught made on the labor of the South Atlantic States by emigration to the West and Southwest. But it may be stated, as an evidence of the cheapness of production not long anterior to this period, that in January, 1843, prime rice sold in the Savannah market for \$1.50 to \$1.75 per 100 pounds.

These minimum prices represented about one-third more than the sheer cost of production with slave labor before the late war between the States. The per diem of slave labor did not much, if at all, exceed twenty cents, and on this basis the cost of cultivating rice was about \$1.10 per 100 pounds.

Comparing these data, ascertained as nearly as possible for the same period and for the same industry in China, now the great competitor with the American producer, it is found that in 1847 the wages of a Chinese field laborer were about fourteen cents a day. He could live for about \$2 to \$2.50 per month, including clothes and rent, or from 7.6 to 9.3 cents per diem for twenty-six working days. We learn from the same authority that rice was worth about nine mills per pound, or ninety cents per 100 pounds.

In view of these facts alone, it is evident that if American rice was

produced at \$1.10 per 100 pounds, Chinese rice could not have been profitably brought into the United States, even if relieved of the then subsisting import tax of 20 per cent. ad valorem.

The result was a monopoly to the American producer, not only in the home markets, but practically in the European and West India markets, where the American staple predominated. This commanding position gave the American producer greater and more assured profit than is now possible with free labor, even with the advantage of a heavier import duty on foreign rice.

In the period between 1840 and 1860, the duty on foreign rice was absolutely needless as a protection to the American producer, and valueless as a source of revenue to the government. The former was wholly independent of protection to an industry maintained by labor, in cheapness second to that of Asia only, and in effectiveness unsurpassed. He was in a position to defy competition, and triumphantly met the almost free importation of East India rice, even in the English markets. He pointed to his fields as unexcelled examples of industry, skill, and profit. Holding the same rank with the American cotton producer, and moving *pari passu* with him in the commerce of the civilized world, protection was as unnecessary to him as it was useless to the government. To have called the duty protection would have been absurd; it was, in fact, merely supererogatory.

But, in 1862, the importation of foreign rice was 56,961,317 pounds. Except for the internal supply of the Southern States, the cultivation of rice was then rapidly diminishing. The rice fields, which lay chiefly in the great tidal deltas, the first to be reached in the military operations against the South, were soon laid waste or abandoned. The planters retreated with their slaves into the interior. The result was that in 1865 the crop had dwindled from 187,000,000 pounds in 1860, with an exportation of 75,000,000 pounds, to 12,000,000 pounds production, with an importation of 45,000,000 pounds! Indeed, the importation for 1864 was nearly 100,000,000 pounds, and the production *naught!* In short, Asiatic rice had taken entire possession of the American markets, except within the Confederate military lines, and at this time, despite the immense volume of importation, the prices in the New York market ranged as high as from \$12 to \$14.50, and in some exceptional instances to \$17 per 100 pounds.

The duty on cleaned rice had been raised in 1862 to 1½ cents per pound. In 1864 it was again increased to 2½ cents per pound, and so remains unchanged.

This duty was imposed in time of war, but why may it not be continued in time of peace? In time of war it was contributory to the cost of the war, but it was also a tax on a foreign monopoly. In time of peace it remains a tax on a foreign imported commodity, undiminished in volume and contributory to the maintenance of the government in undiminished amount, while it is a necessary prevention against the re-establishment of a foreign monopoly, and a protection alike to the American producer and consumer.

The conditions surrounding the American producer have changed wholly since the imposition of the present duty on foreign rice. In 1865 the American rice crop was, say, 12,000,000 pounds, about equal to the crops in the early history of the culture, say from 1725 to 1730. The industry had been remanded to its infancy. The planters had returned to their estates, to find buildings, machinery, and implements destroyed; the appliances of a wonderful system of irrigation and drainage mutilated or wrecked; the long-abandoned fields grown up in tangled wilds

of brush, vines and trees; the once disciplined and supremely efficient labor of the country turned into a mob, stolid when not outrageous, but rapt in the delusion of race supremacy, and credulous that emancipation meant unbridled license or easy indolence.

It should be no marvel that the great majority of the planters recoiled from an industry which seemed only a desperate adventure. A few who undertook the work of recuperation succeeded at the risk of the little capital or credit left to them, and often at the peril of life itself. Many failed; none so wretchedly as those who were unfamiliar with a culture demanding peculiar experience and skill, or who were unable to adapt themselves successfully to the new régime of labor and to the unexpected character of employées who had yet to learn the severe lesson of quickly earned and untried liberty.

In short, relegated to its earliest historical conditions, the rice industry of the South was practically commenced anew, and if it had any encouragement at all, it was in the protection afforded by the import tax on foreign rice. This was equivalent to giving the home producer a start of, say, 80 per cent. ad valorem in the home markets against the foreign grain delivered duty paid. But even with this advantage, while the prices glittered, they were not necessarily profitable. The crops were cultivated for many years at extraordinary cost and at great hazard. These embarrassments were diminished in process of time, and meanwhile, as labor became more efficient and less costly, and the consumption of rice increased, so the area of cultivation and the production expanded. But at no time since 1865 could rice have been cultivated, as a staple product, without the protection afforded by the import duty on the foreign grain.

Since the emancipation of the slaves, the cost of agricultural labor in the South has increased more than 100 per cent. In the rice districts of the Carolinas and Georgia, females obtain from 50 to 75 cents, males from 60 cents to \$1.25 per diem—this without the efficiency to be expected from free labor. The laborers frequently refuse to undertake tasks, easy under a sterner system, and essential to rice cultivation. A day's labor is commonly reduced to six hours instead of ten. For such reasons, great waste attends the harvests, which from the peculiar conditions required in curing this grain, do not as yet, despite the efforts of invention, admit the horse reaper, and are still conducted with the sickle. The consequences of these embarrassments are reduced production, and, commonly, minimum crops. Added to these are the disastrous storms which sweep over the tidal deltas, on which the most extensive and most productive plantations are found. As an example of the destructiveness of these great convulsions, the storm of the 27th of August, 1881, laid waste from 40 to 50 per cent. of the rice crop on the coasts of South Carolina and Georgia, besides mutilating the plantations and destroying buildings, implements, live stock, and many lives. In some instances, indeed, the crops were annihilated, and the planters were compelled to abandon their property. Storms of such extreme destructiveness seldom happen more than once in a generation, but their ravages are appalling, and their effects upon the property and fortunes of the sufferers, if not absolutely ruinous, may be protracted through many years. Storms of less violence occur, however, at much nearer intervals, and despite protectives against them, erected at extraordinary outlay, they sometimes inflict losses sufficient to cancel more than the profits of a crop.

But without taking into consideration hazards, which in this culture demand extraordinary precautions, it is evident that the price of labor

alone renders it at this stage of the industry impossible for rice to be cultivated at its low cost in the slave period, while the cost of competing Asiatic labor is not materially changed. Hence Asiatic rice may be delivered at American ports for \$2.90 per hundred pounds average value, while it is conceded that the average crops on the Carolina and Georgia coasts do not exceed thirty bushels per acre, and cost, including interest on land and annual outlay, about \$35 per acre. The cost, therefore, of making the crop would be about \$4.33 per hundred pounds, thus conceding to Asiatic rice an advantage equivalent to \$1.43 per hundred pounds. After payment of the import duty, Asiatic rice should be worth, say, \$5.40 per hundred pounds, and if the American producer is allowed the difference of cost between his and the Asiatic grain, say \$1.07 per hundred pounds, his profit would be small, especially if the extraordinary and peculiar hazards of his industry are included in the estimate.

The American producer, therefore, is dependent, under present conditions, on the protection of the import duty. With that advantage even the prices he obtains are governed by the state of the markets and the quality of his grain, and his profits may proceed wholly from his ability to exceed the average yield or to reduce the average cost of the crops. Such profits may fall to those only who are favored with lands easily cultivated and of extraordinary fertility.

If the effect of the import duty on the rice market be now considered, it will be found that the average price of good American rice in 1880-'81 did not exceed \$5.50 per hundred pounds, showing that domestic and foreign rice were nearly equal in price, and were brought into contact under the most absolute condition of competition. In round numbers, 118,000,000 pounds of American, and 69,000,000 pounds of Asiatic rice were offered in the markets, and the actual demand for home consumption was for 176,000,000 pounds. If either the American or Asiatic rice had not been supplied, it is evident that the prices must have risen proportionally to the limit of the capacity of the consumer to purchase. This was illustrated in 1864, when the price of Asiatic rice, then in sole control of the market, ranged from \$12 to \$17 per hundred pounds, while the contrary was illustrated with equal force in 1880-'81, when, American and Asiatic rice contending in the markets, prices fell in the Southern markets to \$4.25 per hundred pounds for good rice. Here the minimum was below the average prices for like qualities in 1837, 1838, 1839, 1854, 1855, and 1857, covering the most prosperous period of American rice husbandry!

It is only left to infer that the effect of the import duty has been extraordinary increase in the production of American rice and correspondent reduction of price. In sixteen years, the crops have increased more than ten-fold, and prices have declined from one hundred to one hundred and fifty per cent. It has induced active competition with foreign importation without reducing its volume. The average annual consumption of foreign rice in the past eleven years has been about 50,000,000 pounds, but in 1880-'81 the consumption largely exceeded this amount, having been about 58,000,000 pounds.

It seems, then, evident that the average profits on American rice are at present dependent on the maintenance of the import duty, and that if the latter is removed or materially reduced, the cultivation of the former must be abandoned, as a staple product, and the lands returned to nature. There are now cultivated in rice more than 155,000 acres, affording livelihood to more than 160,000 persons. The tidal rice fields of the Carolinas and Georgia—wherever else indeed in this peculiar hus-

bandry a high condition of drainage and irrigation is observed—are probably as perfectly prepared for cultivation as any lands in the world strictly agricultural. Rescued from marshes and swamps, often impenetrable, they have been thoroughly embanked and drained, until, in general, they readily take the weight of the horse and of the heaviest agricultural machinery. It is safe to state, as illustrative of these facts, that a rice plantation of 500 acres would contain more than 60 miles of ditching and exterior banking, without taking into account the main canals and other contingent, but extensive excavation and embankment, essential to a successful system of drainage and irrigation. It would be supposed, however, that lands thus prepared, evidently at great cost, could be readily diverted to the culture of other products than rice. But, unhappily, this is not the fact, and is one of the unexplained enigmas of agriculture. Once planted in rice, these fields become incapacitated for other profitable crops, until, after the lapse of years, the character of the soil, rendered adverse to dry by the system of wet culture, has been thoroughly reconstructed. To await this reconstruction, occupying several years in its process, or to attempt the conversion of these lands to immediate use by experiment, would amount to their practical abandonment. No planter could afford delay or experiment, at best uncertain, to undertake another kind of culture, of which he has neither knowledge nor experience. He would be forced to abandon his property, and more than 150,000 persons, reared like himself in this special industry, and dependent on it for a livelihood, would be disemployed and impoverished.

If such great developments, as the evidences show, have been achieved in the American rice industry in the short space of sixteen years, to the advantage of all parties at interest—the home producer, the home consumer, and the government—it can scarcely be denied that this industry is entitled to continued encouragement, until home competition is still further increased by enlarged production at minimum cost. It has been already shown that the price of good American rice was reduced in 1880–81 to the average price in several years anterior to the war, when the rice industry was in the zenith of its prosperity. This reduction grew mainly out of an increase in one year of more than 100 per cent. in the crop of Louisiana alone.

With such rapid development as this in the past, it does not appear chimerical, but certain, that without discouragement the domestic production will, probably by the expiration of the present decade, be equal to its amount in 1850, and be larger than will be demanded by the domestic consumption. This result will be practically accomplished, as soon as the great labor-saving machines of the recent system of grain culture become modified, so as to be applied to the peculiar necessities of rice husbandry.

In conclusion, the facts relating to the American rice industry for the past sixteen years go to prove that it is an example, where taxation of a foreign product is sound policy, if not the duty of the government:

First, for the prevention of monopoly in either the domestic or the foreign product, to the advantage of the domestic consumer, as well as of the domestic producer.

Second, for the encouragement and permanent establishment at home of an industry necessary to afford food and hospital supplies in time of war, and so to promote national independence.

Third, because protective taxation has been clearly educational to the domestic product, practically developing it from its infancy, until it has

reached the promise of such successful permanence as in reasonable time to become independent of protection.

JOHN SCREVEN,
 GEORGE S. OWENS,
 WM. H. GIBBONS,
 WM. NEYLE HABERSHAM,
 H. F. GRANT,

WILLIAM D. WAPLES,
 J. A. HUGER,
 HENRY TAYLOR,
 P. J. HASKELL,
Committee.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. Why is it that foreign rice is brought to Savannah when there is a market for it in Northern ports?—Answer. The probability in regard to rice brought here is, that there was no market for it in the North. The markets there must have been filled, and they brought it South in consequence of the absence of rice in our market. Last year the great storm to which I have alluded occurred. It broke down the crop in this immediate section, and the merchants took advantage of the opportunity to bring in rice in order to supply the wants of this city as well as of the country.

Q. It is brought here because Savannah is the distributing point for rice?—A. Yes, sir; it is the leading market on the Atlantic coast.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. And your people here are large consumers of rice?—A. Yes, sir; very large consumers. Prime Rangoon rice can be brought here and laid down in our ports at \$2 a hundred or less, if brought by sailing vessels direct from Rangoon, and such rice commands here from 5 to 5½ cents a pound. Prime Patna, which is considered the choicest of all the rice produced in the world, and which always brings an extraordinary price, will bring 2½ cents, laid down by steam from England, and ¼ cent less if laid down by sailing vessel, and less still if sent from Calcutta direct. These prices leave a milling profit in England, and commissions for buying and selling.

So you perceive, Mr. President and gentlemen, from this statement, that the present duty on foreign rice will not protect the American producer.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. That is, the duty of 2½ cents will not protect you?—A. No, sir, it will not; because if they can lay down their rice at less than 2 cents they can afford to sell that rice at a profit of 100 per cent., and yet be below the price we are compelled to pay to produce it.

To show you the effect of the present duty, I would like to read an extract from a letter addressed by me last March to a member of the House of Representatives, in reply to remarks of a member from South Carolina in relation to the import duty on foreign rice. The member referred to had spoken as follows in the debate on the agricultural appropriation bill:

In my mind it is apparent that no protection should be given any article beyond that which would place the producer upon an equal footing with the foreign producer in the home market. For instance, 100 pounds of East India rice can be delivered in our custom-houses for \$2.90. It costs our home producer \$4.43 to place a like quantity in our home market. The difference is \$1.43. To this extent I would protect the rice planter and no more. The present tariff on rice is \$2.50 per 100 pounds. This is \$1.07 more than the difference in the cost of production here and production abroad, and just that much more than it ought to be, because it is taking by law from the consumer of 100 pounds of rice \$1.07, for which no earthly equivalent is given.

I say in my letter: I must express my intense surprise that the honorable member should thus go apparently quite out of his way to

attack the second most important interest in his own State. More unfortunately, the effects of his utterances extend beyond the limits of South Carolina, and would be felt in our own State and throughout the South. Fortunately, his utterances can be proven to be both incoherent and unjust.

He expresses himself as opposed to "seeing our custom-house doors thrown open to foreigners, to the detriment, if not destruction, of our home manufactures," and almost immediately follows this up with a proposition for such a reduction of the duty on foreign rice as would destroy the rice industry of the South.

Now, if East India rice is delivered into the American custom-houses at a valuation of \$2.90 per 100 pounds, and the present import duty be reduced so as to place this rice in the home market on an equality with domestic rice, that is to say, at \$4.43 per 100 pounds, evidently the consumer will still pay the difference, or \$1.53, for which, according to the gentleman's reasoning, "no earthly equivalent is given in return." As long as any difference in value is enforced by law as between the two commodities, just so long is the gentleman's proposition incoherent in the moral it attempts to teach. He cannot run with the hare and follow with the hounds!

But practically his proposition leads to a worse conclusion, namely, the cessation of the production of rice as a staple article not only in South Carolina, but in the South at large. Had he examined the subject more carefully, he may have discovered that the present duty, which he condemns as excessive, is not so protective as to insure any profit to the home producer. In 1880-'81 the average price of good domestic rice did not exceed \$5.50 per 100 pounds. It was, in fact, somewhat less, while the price of Asiatic rice would be \$5.40, showing a difference in favor of the former of 10 cents per 100 pounds, or of one-tenth of a cent per pound. This seems to be all the advantage that the present duty gives the average domestic producer. But the maximum price of good domestic rice in the Savannah market in 1880-'81 was \$6.50 per 100 pounds, showing an advantage over Asiatic rice of \$1.10. The minimum price, prevailing for several months of the year, was as low as \$4.25, showing an advantage to Asiatic rice of 18 cents, as against the cost of home production (\$4.43), and that the home producer was actually selling below that cost. Indeed, the average of these maximum and minimum prices is \$5.17 per 100 pounds, and this might be properly assumed, instead of \$5.50, as the point beyond which the average price in a Southern market did not reach in the period named.

There is no enormity revealed here in economic morals, no drastic premium legislated to South Carolina rice-growers, when we find that the average value of Asiatic is greater than that of American rice. If, indeed, we transfer the latter from Savannah to the New York market, and add 75 cents per 100 pounds transit charges, it will reach \$5.92, leaving a margin of 52 cents in favor of the former. Here the two commodities are brought into direct contact. I will here add that Patna rice always commands about one cent per pound more than American rice.

The result is that the present duty fails to accomplish what the honorable member seeks in his proposition, namely, an equalization of price in the two commodities. If his ideal of a just import duty is to be put into effect the present duty should be raised, so as to make the custom-house value of Asiatic or foreign rice, not \$5.40, but, say, \$5.90 per 100 pounds, or to raise the duty from \$2.50 to \$3 per hundred pounds.

But the gentleman means to be just, and means well also to the rice-

growers of South Carolina. To demonstrate this, the duty on foreign rice must be reduced. As it costs \$1.43 per 100 pounds to produce domestic rice, therefore the duty must be reduced to \$1.53 per 100 pounds to equalize values. If now it be assumed that importation of foreign and the production of domestic rice remain the same as in 1880-'81, all other conditions also unchanged, it is evident that the duty so reduced ceases wholly to be protective, while the foreign product will cost the consumer its import value added to its import duty. No profit can remain to the domestic producer if he is compelled to sell at cost prices, and it has been already stated that good American rice was sold in 1880-'81, at fair market rates, at \$4.25 per 100 pounds. This is the necessary result of the proposed equalization of prices, and to legalize this in the name of protection is not merely absurd, but is the condemnation of a great industry, first to decay, and at last to destruction. There can be no better evidence of the struggle between domestic production and foreign importation than the single fact that the average annual consumption of foreign rice for eleven years, including 1880-'81, has been, say, 50,000,000 pounds, while the consumption for 1880-'81 was nearly 58,000,000 pounds.

By the PRESIDENT :

Question. You spoke of the fact of rice being held in bond. What is the effect of the warehousing system upon your industry?—Answer. The effect of the warehousing system is to hold that much rice in terror over us. I mean that it keeps a surplus in bond, which the importers can throw upon the market at any time they please. I can see no other effect than that.

Q. And you regard the system as disastrous to your interests?—A. I think it is disastrous to the extent of that much rice to be carried into the market at the pleasure of the importer.

There is one other thing which I have omitted to speak of, which has just occurred to me. As the members of the Commission are doubtless aware, there is a tax of 10 per cent. on imports brought in foreign bottoms, and I am informed (I do not know whether authoritatively or not) that that tax will be shortly abolished; I think it terminates in January next. That, of course, will add to our difficulties. At present we have the advantage of that tax on rice brought in foreign bottoms; and it is generally brought in that way. The gentleman who gave me that information stated also that there could be no doubt that foreign rice could be brought into this country as cheaply as salt or any other article which comes in vessels as ballast. These are additional reasons showing that our tariff is really too low.

Q. You have made no reference to the rice product of Louisiana. What is its comparative production?—A. Louisiana produces as much rice as the Carolinas and Georgia put together; about one-half of the crop, you might say.

Q. What are the opportunities for extending its cultivation there?—A. I think the opportunities of extending rice culture in Louisiana are very great, and also in this section of the country there is much room for the extension of the industry. All the rice fields in cultivation before the war have not yet been reclaimed.

Q. Is it possible for you to supply sufficient rice for our domestic consumption?—A. Yes, sir. The cultivation of rice is becoming very much expanded in the interior on the higher lands, which are susceptible of producing the grain in the same manner that it is produced in the mountains of the Hawaiian Islands. There is a large amount of rice produced in elevated countries, and much of it is admirable grain.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. You have spoken of the comparative cost of slave and free labor, and, I think, stated that the average cost under the slave system was 20 cents a day, whereas now it is from 75 cents to \$1.25 for males and 50 to 75 cents for females.—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What is the comparative productive value of that labor; that is, for \$1.25 a day do you get as much labor or more than under the old system?—A. The highest rates named are usually paid to expert laborers and under extraordinary circumstances. For instance, after the gale of last year it was necessary to pay higher wages on account of the difficult labor to be performed. Men had to work in the mud and wet replacing trunks which were blown out, and I paid as high as \$1.25 a day for labor.

Q. I inferred from your subsequent remarks about prices of labor that you do not get as much labor in a day now as under the old system, notwithstanding the increase in wages.—A. No, sir; we get nothing like it. The negroes are peculiar in that respect. They live on very little, and, even though paid a high price, do a very light day's work.

I have been requested by one of my associates to call your particular attention (although I alluded to it in my statement) to the great difference in the cost of harvesting rice and crops grown on high lands. I have stated that it is impossible for us to use the mower or horse labor in our fields. We are obliged to cut our rice by hand. I suppose the cost of harvesting crops where machines can be used is comparatively small per acre compared with the cost of harvesting rice. I am not prepared to state what the difference in cost is, as I have had no experience, but I can easily form an estimate that it would cost perhaps not to exceed 25 to 50 cents an acre to harvest a crop by the aid of machinery, whereas to harvest the rice crop with us costs about \$3 an acre.

Commissioner GARLAND. In Illinois it is customary for farmers to contract with parties owning reapers to reap and bind wheat at the rate of 75 cents an acre.

The WITNESS. I was not fully informed in regard to the price, but 75 cents is a low figure compared with \$3, which we have to pay.

Q. Is there any insect which preys on the rice crop?—A. Yes, sir; they are quite numerous. Insects attack rice in all its stages of growth, even in the germ.

After full consultation with my associates, I am authorized to submit the following as the rate of duties we ask upon rice products:

Present tariff designation or commercial name of article.	Present rate of duty.	Proposed rate of duty.
Cleaned rice	2½ cents per pound..	3 cents per pound.
Uncleaned rice	2 cents per pound..	2½ cents per pound.
Paddy, or rice in the rough	1½ cents per pound..	2 cents per pound.
Rice flour.....	20 per cent.....	*3 cents per pound.
Ricina	*3 cents per pound.

* The reason for recommending this is that rice flour and ricina are cleaned rice reduced to flour or meal.

I would like permission to submit, as a part of my remarks, an extract from a speech delivered in the House of Representatives May 2, 1882, by the Hon. C. B. Darrall, of Louisiana, which contains some valuable information in relation to the rice interest. Mr. Darrall said:

The reclaiming of the rich alluvial lands of our Southern coasts, the best rice-producing lands in the world, can only be done at large expense, and in order to be

successfully carried on must have the products of those labors and that expense protected, if it be protected at all, on some permanent basis. I feel safe in saying to this committee that a revision of the tariff on a basis of this kind, with an assurance that it would be permanent for at least twenty years, would, in less than ten years' time, so accelerate the production of sugar that at least 50 per cent. of our consumption of that article would be produced at home, and instead of importing, as we now do, one-third of the rice we consume, we would in the same length of time from now—that is, ten years—not only be producing all the rice we consume, but be exporting it, as we did before the war. And more than this, the prices to our people of both articles would be less than they now are. The statistics of the production and consumption of rice in our country before and since the war are very interesting. Rice, as an article of food, especially in the Southern half of our country, cannot be overestimated. It is highly nutritious and wholesome, in warm climates especially, and much more should be used as an article of food both in warm and colder climates. It is especially adapted to the use of the laboring classes, and its production and consumption by them should be encouraged. The following tables show the condition of the exportation, production, and consumption of rice before the war:

Years.	Tierces.	Pounds.
1791.....	90,980	58,368,000
1800.....	112,050	67,233,600
1810.....	131,341	78,804,600
1820.....	71,663	42,997,800
1830.....	130,697	78,418,200

Beginning with 1840, the statistics, until then wanting in positive data as to production, become more instructive as they become more complete. The following table exhibits the production, export, and home consumption in the decades stated:

Years.	Production.	Export.	Home consumption.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
1840.....	80,841,422	60,996,000	19,845,422
1850.....	215,313,097	68,000,000	147,313,097
1860.....	187,107,032	75,373,000	111,734,032

During the war the whole system of home production, till then so successful, was almost totally destroyed, and the States not in rebellion were compelled to depend entirely on the foreign production. Since the war the production has steadily increased, as has also the consumption. The following table fully illustrates this, and shows that we may reasonably expect, inside of ten years, and perhaps inside of five, to produce all the rice we consume:

Table showing domestic production, exportation, and consumption of rice.

Years.	Domestic production.	Domestic rice exported.	Domestic rice consumed.	Total consumption.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
1865-'69.....	11,592,600	639,080	10,953,520	63,362,280
1866-'67.....	12,206,729	2,212,961	9,993,819	76,851,823
1867-'68.....	14,602,609	1,394,007	13,208,603	63,314,734
1868-'69.....	26,790,260	3,074,043	23,716,157	70,947,011
1869-'70.....	53,937,600	2,232,833	51,704,167	93,900,697
1870-'71.....	47,348,000	2,133,014	45,214,986	73,120,692
1871-'72.....	30,625,000	445,842	30,180,148	93,623,048
1872-'73.....	52,654,400	403,835	52,250,605	114,621,237
1873-'74.....	62,900,380	270,637	62,629,743	120,176,194
1874-'75.....	68,241,400	558,022	67,683,478	113,009,317
1875-'76.....	72,360,800	277,357	72,083,443	119,145,857
1876-'77.....	31,391,800	439,091	80,951,809	133,003,047
1877-'78.....	77,240,400	1,300,982	75,939,418	125,462,837
1878-'79.....	84,739,200	631,165	84,108,095	121,941,380
1879-'80.....	86,096,800	178,534	86,818,266	135,389,719
1880-'81.....	117,766,000	150,451	117,615,549	175,535,691

Retain the present duty on rice, and give the producers assurance that they can depend on that protection for at least ten years, and I venture to assert before the expiration of those ten years we will be producing all the rice we will need, and at a price at least 25 per cent. cheaper than at the present time. Before the war very little rice was produced in Louisiana, but of late years the production in that State has increased to a wonderful extent, being for each of the last three years over 40 per cent. of the total amount produced. And there are in that State enough suitable rice lands, easily reclaimed, and of inexhaustible fertility, to produce at least as much as is now produced in all the Southern States. The rice lands of the one district in that State which I have the honor to represent, including as it does nearly the whole Gulf coast line of Louisiana, from the mouth of the Sabine to the mouth of the Mississippi, are sufficient in extent, if all were reclaimed and worked, to produce at least 100,000,000 pounds of rice. The finest natural rice lands in the world are those bordering on the Calcasieu, Atchafalaya, and Mermentau Rivers, and the Vermillion, Terre Bonne, La Fourche, and other small bayous of that section of the State.

It is the part of wisdom then, Mr. Chairman, to foster and protect these two great agricultural industries, the production of sugar and rice, to the end that the millions of dollars now sent abroad to purchase these articles may be kept at home, that these rich and fertile lands may be improved, and, instead of remaining wild and uncultivated, as they now are, may be teeming with happy and contented people, and that here, right at the door of the great food-producing States of the Upper Mississippi, may be found a market for much of their surplus products; that the barges and boats plying backward and forward on that mighty river may come to us of the South laden with the flour and meal, the grain and meats, the live stock and implements of husbandry produced on the farms of the West and in their factories, and shall go back to them in return laden down with our sugar, rice, and molasses, with our tropical fruits and vegetables.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. The tendency all over the country appears to be against increasing duties materially, and a disposition is shown to cut down the present rates of duty rather than to raise them. In your judgment, if the present duties were maintained, could you make as good progress during the next five years as you have during the past in increasing your production of rice?—A. No, sir; I think not. I think that the present area of rice would remain within these limits; I do not think it would exceed them, and probably it would be diminished. A single disaster, such as the one that occurred last year, would nearly bring about the abandonment of some of the plantations; the risk is too great. That is one of the considerations which should enter into this matter also.

Q. You think that the consumption of foreign rice in this country has increased?—A. Yes, sir. The average importation would be more than 50,000,000 pounds. We have supplied the demand as far as our crops would go, but we have not been the only parties supplying the market. I believe our product is about 117,000,000 pounds, and the importation is 55,000,000 pounds; so we are only about supplying two-thirds of the rice consumed in the country.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. There is one important element which should be taken into the calculation in all these matters, and that is the comparative rate of money in this country and abroad. Will you please state to the Commission the system under which money is supplied for carrying on this business and the rates that are paid for the use of it?—A. As a general thing the money used for running the rice plantations is supplied by factors who usually require about 10 per cent. interest for their money. In addition to that they get a commission usually of 2½ per cent., which makes the actual cost of selling the rice 12½ per cent. That is really a very serious burden.

Q. And that is inseparable from the condition of your industry here?—A. Yes, sir; on account of the very uncertain character of our industry the factor cannot rely with confidence upon getting his money

returned at the end of the season. I believe the fact is that the majority of planters last year had to get their factors to carry over their debts to this year.

Q. Is not a permanent tariff a very important element in connection with this matter?—A. Yes, sir; it is. I know personally that some of the rice-planters are seriously meditating the abandoning of rice culture and are endeavoring to get into something else, because of the suggestions made that the tariff on rice would be reduced. They are very much alarmed about it.

Q. If the rice production, owing to the circumstances which you have stated, should cease, and the planters be obliged to suspend operations, they would lose the value of the whole plant and capital invested, the same as would be the case with an iron or cotton manufacturer?—A. Yes, sir; it would be practically useless.

Q. It would literally wipe out the property?—A. Yes, sir; it would.

By Commissioner BOTTLER:

Q. And the laborers would be thrown out of employment?—A. Yes, sir. Hutcheson's Island, across the river here, is an illustration of that. The island was embanked at the public expense in the best manner, and the parties who leased it, having run it for three years and lost \$30,000 on it, have given the city the \$5,000 bonus to allow them to give up the contract. That property lies within 600 feet of the city of Savannah, and it is a good illustration of what I mean.

I should like to call the attention of the Commission to the position of the South on the tariff before and since the war. Anterior to the war there was a very large free-trade element in the South, but I think that the Democratic party and the then Whig party of the country united on the proposition, very generally, that there should be a tariff for revenue with incidental protection. Whatever industry required protection I think, as a rule, our people were disposed to allow; that was the doctrine laid down by Mr. Polk, the candidate of the Democratic party. Since the war the latest declaration we have had comes from Mr. Stephens, the present Democratic candidate for governor of the State. He has come out distinctly declaring his advocacy of a tariff for protection, but with an equalization of the impositions of the tariff. Mr. Stephens is not explicit or clear in his statement, but he shows very clearly he is in favor of protection. When a citizen as distinguished as he is goes before the country and makes such a statement, it may be supposed that he would not do so unless he was sure he was going with the popular current, and I think it should be considered as an illustration of what the views of our people really are.

J. H. JOHNSTON ET AL.

SAVANNAH, GA., *Sept. 25, 1882.*

Mr. J. H. JOHNSTON, chairman of the committee from the Savannah Cotton Exchange, addressed the Commission as follows:

We have been appointed by the Savannah Cotton Exchange to present to you the views of that body in relation to two of our most important productions, the tariff on rice and the tariff on cotton-ties. I will present the views of the Cotton Exchange in relation to the tariff on rice, and Mr. Warren will present the views of the Exchange on the subject of cotton-ties.

The undersigned, merchants of the city of Savannah and members of the Savannah Cotton Exchange, were appointed to lay before your body a statement of facts relative to the rice interest, an interest of considerable magnitude in this vicinity.

Rice is planted principally upon lands that can be irrigated or drained by incoming and outgoing spring tides on our fresh-water rivers.

There are on the various water-courses tributary to this city over 40,000 acres of alluvial land, tilled by over 8,000 freedmen, the only portion of our population who can live on these low lands, subject to the worst forms of malarial fevers, and to whom is paid annually, by weekly payments, over a million and a half of dollars, supporting over 25,000 souls—laborers and their families. The amount of land devoted to the cultivation of rice in the Carolinas is about the same as in this vicinity, while the amount of land in rice culture in Louisiana is about equal to that of Georgia and the Carolinas combined.

Necessarily the price of labor on these unhealthy low lands is higher than in other sections of this southern country. The growth of weeds and grass on these rich lands is very great, and requires constant and careful working, and the keeping up of expensive levees and the cleaning out of canals and ditches (made foul by alluvial deposits), causes annually heavy outlays of money.

To do away with the tariff on rice, or allow it to be introduced free of duty through the Sandwich Islands, brings into this country (in competition with an article produced by the most extravagant labor) an article produced by the cheapest known labor, because of all slave-labor the most degraded and of all people the most revolting are those cultivating rice in foreign countries.

It is the experience of a portion of this committee (as factors furnishing the money to planters to pay the laborers) that the rice planters have not been making money for some years back, for, independent of extraordinary expenses, they have, besides other vicissitudes, been visited by storms and cyclones that broke their levees and inundated or swept off their rice, thus not only taking away their profits, but often have been brought in debt to their factor. To do away with or reduce the present tariff on rice would stop the production in this southern country, and turn these rich lands back to an uncultivated waste. It is a demonstrated fact that these lands now devoted to rice culture can be worked profitably only with rice.

In giving up rice culture a large body of laborers, skilled in the cultivation of this grain, and illy adapted to any other skilled work, would be thrown out of employment. Many would become paupers, and the balance would obtain work only at very reduced wages. It was fully shown during the interregnum of rice culture, viz, between the years

1862 and 1866 that the rice-field hands made very poor laborers when placed in the corn and cotton-fields, and as soon as they were able to do so returned to the low country and again sought the old rice-fields. With rice at the present price only a reasonable profit is realized by the producer; take the tariff off, and foreign rice can be imported and sold at a price that would effectually stop the production of rice in this country. It is very evident that the high priced free labor of this country cannot compete with the cheap and degraded slave labor of China in the production of rice. The most inferior laborer in a rice-field can earn \$200, a skilled hand over \$300 a year; the same skilled laborer in China to be had from \$15 to \$18 per annum.

The committee beg leave to submit figures to prove certain facts, viz, that the present price of rice affords to the producer only a fair profit on his capital. Take the value of a rice plantation of say 300 acres (an average one):

The land would be worth say.....	\$15,000
Necessary buildings, mill, thresher, &c.....	5,000
Necessary outfit, mules, implements, tools, &c.....	5,000

Total capital invested.....	\$25,000
7 per cent. on \$25,000.....	\$1,750

Three hundred acres of good rice lands, under good cultivation, should produce, say, 35 bushels per acre, 10,500 bushels. Of this—

8,000 bushels first quality rice, worth \$1.40 per bushel.....	\$11,200
2,500 bushels second quality rice, worth \$1.25 per bushel.....	3,125

Total 10,500 bushels, worth.....	\$14,325
From this must be deducted the cost of getting to market, freight, insurance, commissions, and charges, about.....	1,300

Net amount.....	\$13,025
From this amount now must be deducted cost of production, about.....	11,000

Profit, net.....	\$2,025
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One dollar and forty cents per bushel in the rough is equal to 6 cents per pound in the clean state.

Let us see now what are the fixed charges that make up this \$11,000, which is called cost of production.

Take again a first-class plantation of 300 acres:

	Total cost.	Cost per acre.
Cleaning up field preparatory to planting.....	\$300	\$1 00
Plowing and harrowing.....	600	2 00
Seed for 300 acres; 750 bushels, at \$1.75 per bushel.....	1,300	4 25
Sowing, planting, and covering.....	200	75
Hoeing with horse-hoes.....	150	50
Hoeing with hand-hoes (three times).....	1,200	4 00
Banking (repairing banks, topping, and strengthening wash places and cleaning ditches).....	1,000	3 25
Trunks (repairing) and making one new one each year.....	750	2 50
Harvesting, cutting, tying, and stacking.....	750	2 50
Hauling and floating rice from fields to mill to be thrashed.....	450	1 25
Thrashing (mill work).....	800	2 50
Feed for mules (seven head).....	850	3 00
Overseer, \$1,000; foreman, \$300; watchman, \$240; trunk-minder, \$240.....	1,840	6 00
Incidentals, replacing implements worn out, replacing mules that have died, annual repairs to mill and thrasher, extra work.....	1,000	3 25
	\$11,190	\$36 75

A rice plantation in this section cannot be cultivated for less than \$35 to \$40 per acre. As factors we can say we have furnished oftener \$40 per acre than \$35 on first-class rice lands; on light black lands, \$25 to \$30 per acre; but the production of these lands is less to the acre than the first-class clay lands, 30 bushels per acre being a good yield on such lands. To take off the tariff to make the price of rice 25 to 50 per cent. cheaper, through the introduction of foreign, would in the end work disastrously to those desiring the article at a cheaper figure. Competition the first year, through an overimportation of rice duty free, would of course bring the price down that year, and in so doing the production of domestic would be stopped. The foreign rice having no competition, prices would be run up by speculators to figures higher than when the tariff was on. This was shown to be the case during 1862 to 1866, when foreign rice had no competition from domestic, and it was shown again this last season caused by a short crop of domestic through an injury to the rice on the Atlantic by the cyclone in August, 1881.

The price of foreign rice during this last spring and summer has been too extravagantly high, and prices only began to recede when the new domestic appeared in the market.

To keep an even price and a fair price to the consumer such a duty should be placed (as at present) upon foreign rice as not to prevent its introduction; for with the introduction of foreign under the present tariff a healthful competition is kept up between the foreign and the domestic; but let the domestic be run off by the introduction of foreign duty free, the consumer will have to pay to the speculator in a very short time a higher figure than now current and for an inferior article.

In relation to allowing the importation of rice free of duty from one favored spot, the committee will not take up the valuable time of the Commissioners to point out to them self-evident truths, viz, either the injustice to other nations less favored or to show how rice from other rice-producing countries can be and is first imported into these favored islands and then exported as the product of these islands, and though denied, we all know that the ingenuity and enterprise of man can and does overcome all obstacles where the venture is to result in certain gain.

J. H. JOHNSTON.
C. N. HAMILTON.
H. FRASER GRANT.
J. L. WARREN.
H. M. COMER.

I have been asked to further explain a point made in this paper. I have put the price of first quality rice at \$1.40; whereas in my list of expenditures necessary to make a crop I have put seed rice at \$1.75. It is very evident that the best part of a crop is kept for seed rice. There are some people who only cultivate rice for seed. The grain must be better; it must be worked and cut more carefully, and allowed to remain in the fields a little longer, so as to ripen more thoroughly. In that way the cost of seed rice will be a little more than the other rice.

Commissioner BOTELER. That is the case with all seed.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. What recommendation do you make with reference to the tariff?—Answer. I am hardly able at this moment to say. Under the present tariff a great deal of rice is sold below the cost of production.

If we could keep rice at from 6 to 6½ cents a pound a reasonable profit could be made; but there is an overimportation, and we have to sell rice at 5½ cents in order to compete with rice which is sold at that figure, and that cannot be done profitably. I have made no calculation in regard to the rate, but I have no doubt the gentleman who preceded me (Colonel Screven), on consultation with his friends, will fix upon a rate.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. If the duty were raised to 3 cents a pound the stimulus would be greater, of course, for parties to go into rice culture. Would or would not the result of that be a reduction in price to the consumer?—

A. Of course the more rice we can produce in this country the cheaper the price will be. I think one reason why so many people are deterred from planting rice is on account of the extraordinary expense that is necessary. In rice culture every planter must settle with his hands weekly; whereas in cotton culture at the end of the year they pay off their hands either in kind or in money, say \$150 to a hand. But in the cultivation of rice you not only have to pay weekly, which of course adds interest on these weekly payments, and which counts up very considerably, but at the end of the year you have paid to your rice-field hands about double what would be paid to cotton-planting hands.

Q. What would be the effect on the increase of production in this country if it was understood that the duty was to be a permanent one?—A. The effect of an increased duty would be to enhance the production. The rice planters desire to be satisfied that there will be a duty which will protect them. This uncertainty about the rate of duty has been hanging over their heads like a drawn sword. If you put the tariff on a permanent basis it will encourage the men who are now engaged in the cultivation of rice, and also encourage other parties to engage in the same business, and of course that will result in a greater increase of production and a lower price of the article. The consumer would be benefited by such a tariff as will enhance the production. I have never visited Louisiana myself, but I have been told by parties who are familiar with the cultivation of rice there that the land which can be devoted to its culture is almost unlimited.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. Might not the assurance of a moderate duty—the duty which exists at present, for instance—be more effective and give more encouragement to the rice grower than a higher duty which had not that element of permanency?—A. Yes, sir. I think the rice planters would rather have the present duty assured to them; but there is no doubt that a little higher duty would increase the production so much more as to bring about the results desired by those who advocate the introduction of rice into this country free of duty.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. You represent, I understand, the Cotton Exchange of this city?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. That is the leading commercial body of Savannah?—A. Yes, sir; it is the only commercial body which we have here. Its membership comprises 250 persons, embracing all classes of merchants on 'change.

Q. You are chairman of the committee from that exchange?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Of course, then, you come in contact with business men in this section of the country. In that view I will ask you if, in your judgment,

there is any demand from the business men or people of this section for a radical change in the present tariff laws on all articles, including rice?—A. I do not think there is. The South before the war was anti-tariff, and desired a tariff only for the purposes of revenue. I think the change in our mode of doing business and in our labor system has brought about a different opinion in that respect. I believe the people of the South are now more in favor of a tariff than they were before the war. Next to some of the New England States, Georgia is the greatest producer of cotton goods and yarns in the country, and is developing a large coal and iron industry.

Q. Do you think the sentiment of your people is this: That where there are wrongs in the present tariff they should be righted, but they would be satisfied with the duties about as they are, excepting only in the specific matters which you recommend; but above all they desire permanency in the tariff rates?—A. Yes, sir; that is what we want—permanency more than anything else.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. And simplification of the tariff?—A. Yes, sir. We do not come in contact here with dutiable articles, except in the way of consumption, and we do not feel the duty. We have not looked into the subject perhaps as closely as the people of the North, who consume so much more and are brought more in contact with the tariff laws.

Mr. J. L. WARREN, one of the committee, said:

Having been appointed a committee by the Cotton Exchange of Savannah for the purpose of laying before you our and their views in regard to matters especially affecting the interests of this section, we respectfully submit for your consideration the following suggestions in regard to the duty on cotton-ties.

We think the present ad valorem duty of 35 per cent. is quite as high as the consumers can stand, and is decidedly preferable to the proposed specific duty of 1½ cents per pound on them. The present duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem makes them cost at the ports to consumers \$1.50 to \$1.60 per bundle of 55 pounds. The proposed specific tax of 1½ cents per pound would increase the cost to \$1.75 to \$1.85 per bundle. The prime object of a tariff is the raising of revenue—is in this form to tax the people, for the purpose of defraying the proper expenses of the government. Protection and fostering of American industries is a necessary natural consequence of this form of taxation, and must be in proportion to the extent of the taxation—the amount of the duty levied. When the duty imposed raises more revenue than is necessary for the legitimate wants of the government it becomes spoliation, improper oppression of the people. When the duty becomes so heavy that it is not merely protective but prohibitory, it ceases to produce revenue, which is the prime purpose of a tariff, is of no benefit to the government, and becomes legalized robbery of the great mass of the people who are consumers, for the sole purpose of enriching monopolies, which are composed of a favored few. To increase the duty on cotton-ties to any considerable extent would prohibit their importation, increase the burden of their consumers, and result in making the duty on them bring no revenue to the government, but put the entire amount of their increased cost into the coffers of the manufacturers of them.

The duty on hoop iron, 1½ cents per pound, is practically prohibitory, and drives away from our custom-houses and our markets its manu-

factures of other countries. The government derives no revenue from it; all the burdens are borne by the consumers, and all the benefits are enjoyed by the manufacturers. The consumers simply pay a tax, not to the government, but to a favored few of their countrymen, who receive the revenue derived from class legislation. Should the duty on cotton-ties be changed from the 35 per cent. ad valorem to the 1½ cents per pound specific, our consumers, who embrace every cotton planter and every laborer on a cotton farm in the United States, will pay about one million dollars more of taxation per annum for their ties, which, with the revenue now derived from this source, will all be diverted from the pockets of the masses and the treasury of the government to the manufacturers. The idea that the cotton planters get back their money from the purchasers of our raw cotton which they expend for bagging and ties is we, as cotton merchants and cotton planters, know to be untrue. The purchasers take our cotton bales at about 5 per cent. The farmers get no return for the amount they pay in duty, but bear all the burdens imposed by it. We are entirely willing to pay our proportion of the expenses of the government, prefer to do it entirely by the tariff system, to the abolition, as soon as practicable, of the internal-revenue system, but think there should be such an adjustment and reform of the tariff as will equalize the burdens of this, the best form of American taxation, and make it, while raising the necessary revenue, bear alike on all, and at the same time incidentally protect, fairly and equally, all American industries. A tariff based upon these principles, which will raise sufficient revenue, would afford all the protection to all American industries needed by them.

J. H. JOHNSON.

M. HAMILTON.

H. M. COMER.

J. L. WARREN.

H. FRASER GRANT.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. You agree to the statements presented in the paper submitted by the chairman of your committee in regard to maintaining the present duties on rice?—Answer. I do.

Q. There are manufacturers of cotton-ties in Ohio and New York who ask for a proportionate rate of duty on ties as compared with other manufactured articles of iron. Cotton-ties now, at an ad valorem duty, are dutied at the lowest rate of any article of iron coming into the country, except pig or scrap-iron; that is to say, the duty is only about \$12 a ton. They ask, as they have to pay wages proportionate to other manufacturers, to be allowed a proportionate protective duty. Now you are asking that a duty on a product peculiar to this section be maintained, which would on the average of prices ruling for the last twelve or fifteen years be equivalent to 50 per cent., and from your argument I am convinced that you should have a duty of at least 60 per cent. to bring the rice culture of the country up to what it should be. In that view do you not think these other people should be entitled to a proportionate duty on cotton-ties?—A. No, sir; I do not think so, and you may perhaps want my reason. The custom-house returns for the year 1878 and 1879 show that in those years there were very few importations of cotton-ties; that almost the entire amount used on the six or six and a half million bales of cotton which the South produced were manufactured at Youngstown, Ohio, and Pittsburgh, Pa. The duty upon other articles of manufactured iron being higher, they have turned

their attention to the manufacturing of them and neglected this. If you raise the duty upon iron ties to that on hoop iron you will virtually have a prohibitory tariff, which will exclude the foreign article, and which will put the whole amount of this revenue which now goes to the government, and a million more into the pockets of the manufacturers without a particle of benefit to the cotton interests.

Q. In 1878-79, you say that cotton-ties were supplied almost wholly by American manufacturers?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Were they not the cheapest ties that the southern people have had for the last ten or fifteen years?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Therefore, while the American manufacturers were supplying the southern market, the southern people got their ties cheaper than they got them from England before or since; is not that the fact?—A. I think not. My associate here, Mr. Comer, (who is a large importer of iron ties), has these figures before him, and I would prefer that he should answer that question.

Commissioner OLIVER. Certainly, I only want information upon the point.

Mr. H. M. COMER said:

I have here a statement which it was intended should be appended to Mr. Warren's remarks; but it was not prepared in time. In 1877 we began to receive ties from Pittsburgh, via Baltimore. I find that in 1877, the average price of ties to the wholesale dealer was \$2.50 per bundle, less 10 per cent. In 1878, they were \$2 per bundle. In 1879, they were \$2.50 per bundle, less 5 per cent. We are now selling imported ties at \$1.50 per bundle, and sold them at that price last year. This statement which I have referred to has been prepared from the invoices of about 25,000 bundles of ties which came in this year. Mr. Johnston, the collector of the port, kindly allowed me to look them over and make memoranda of each invoice, and I have brought this statement here to corroborate these facts.

IRON COTTON-TIES.

[Average weight per bundle, 53.0134 pounds.]

Invoice cost of 25,277 bundles ties (imported in June, 1882)..... £4,800 16s. 10d.

Amounts to, in United States currency, at \$4.84.....	\$23,236 07
Duty, 35 per cent.....	8,177 20
Freight, at 7s. 6d. per ton.....	1,092 86
Marine insurance (estimated).....	340 00

Total cost laid down..... \$32,846 13

Average cost per bundle.....	1.2994
Average cost per pound.....	.024528

ESTIMATE.

Same original cost.....	\$23,236 07
Specific duty, 1½ cents per pound.....	20,094 00
Freight, at 7s. 6d. per ton.....	1,092 86
Marine insurance (estimated).....	340 00

Total cost laid down..... \$44,762 93

Average cost per bundle.....	1.778
Average cost per pound.....	.033566

Total additional tax on estimated crop of 6,500,000 bales cotton, \$622,700, to which add additional expenses in way of fire insurance, interest on investment, &c., and we approximate \$1,000,000, or about 15½ cents per bale additional tax on the cotton crop.

Mr. COMER. You asked Mr. Warren the question whether or not the ties in 1877 and 1878 were not the cheapest ties that the planter ever had. I answer no.

Commissioner OLIVER. But they were the cheapest ties the planter had had up to that period?

Mr. COMER. I would not like to answer so important a question as that without referring to our books.

Commissioner OLIVER. I think any one in the country who used them would know that they gradually came down in price up to 1868.

Mr. COMER. We did not get all our supplies in 1877 from this country; some of the ties were imported. In 1878 all were made in this country, and in 1879 nearly all were made in this country—I expect quite all, because I notice we had two large shipments from Baltimore in 1877; according to this statement the total additional tax would amount to \$622,700. That is what the additional duty would amount to

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Question. Would not the manufacturer who supplied all the ties in 1878 come in the same way, and argue that where your ties cost you for a while 6 cents (about 1872) that the duty reduced it about one-half and had saved you that much?—Answer. I do not think it would apply in this instance.

Commissioner OLIVER. That is because you will not let it apply.

The WITNESS. I mean because the article was a patented article.

Commissioner OLIVER. It was in the hands of a monopoly, and they charged you what they pleased.

The WITNESS. But that is not the case now. The cost of the ties here is about \$1.29 landed, and we are selling them at \$1.50 wholesale.

Q. All that are now used practically come from England?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Everybody will concede that it is of the greatest importance that a crop like the cotton crop should be handled properly, and it cannot be handled properly unless these ties are used. Do you think it a good business plan to depend entirely upon a foreign country for an article so indispensable as a cotton-tie?—A. I do not think it would be right for us to depend upon them entirely; but I do not think we do, as things now are.

Q. Practically, every tie that is consumed is made in England. In case of a war or an embargo there would be of course a difficulty in getting them from England. Do you not think it would be right to give the manufacturers of this country protection enough so that they would be able to supply a part of this trade, so that they could keep their machinery running and be able to supply a part of this most important requisite?—A. I will answer that question by saying that in 1877, 1878, and 1879 cotton-ties were made in this country under a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem, and the reason they do not make them now is that they are manufacturing other things on which there is more profit. It requires very little additional skill to manufacture the ties. It is merely hoop iron with a fastening at one end.

Q. We have had witnesses before us this morning who very nearly convinced me that protection had reduced the cost of rice to the people of the country; that rice would have been at a very high figure if it had not been for the protection given to its culture here. They showed that a certain amount of protection cheapened the production. Do you think that protection is a very good thing for rice but not a good thing

for cotton-ties?—A. No, sir. But, in the first place, we have a large laboring element here who can do hardly anything but cultivate rice. To give them employment increases the crops, and therefore reduces the price of rice. Whereas in the iron interest it is different. There are only eight or ten hoop-iron manufacturers in the United States. By taxing cotton-ties you would only increase their business and put a very large profit into their hands; and the very laborers that you want to protect would be the losers by it. So that when you analyze the matter it does not appear to be as inconsistent as it seems to be at first.

Q. This is only argument; now we will come to the practical point. What is your judgment in regard to imposing a specific duty per pound upon cotton-ties instead of an ad valorem duty; would it not make the duty more uniform at every port?—A. Yes, sir; I think that would be preferable.

Mr. T. F. JOHNSTON, collector of the port of Savannah, who was present, was interrogated as follows:

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. We have received very valuable information from heads of departments in the New York custom-house, and we would like to know if there are any suggestions you can make in regard to the workings of the tariff law here in Savannah?—Answer. I do not think that we are suffering from any of the requirements imposed under the customs laws, except, perhaps, in the matter of surveys held upon foreign invoices of goods. Where the point is raised as to the market value of the goods we generally have a survey. Two government appraisers are appointed, and I select an outside merchant, and those three parties consider the matter. If they fail to agree the matter comes back to me for decision. Of course the merchant in that way is in the minority, but I do not know that he is at any disadvantage from that cause, because I pick up at haphazard any merchant I may meet, and I suppose the decision arrived at is as impartial as can be obtained in any other way.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. Can you suggest any remedy for that defect?—A. Perhaps it would be well if the importer were allowed to select one of the appraisers and the government one, and these two, failing to agree, could select another person, as is done in all cases of arbitration. I have listened very attentively to the remarks of Colonel Scriven. I am not prepared to say that the protective tariff on rice should be increased. I think the present duty should remain as it is.

Q. Are you ever called upon to exercise your authority in the matter of raising the invoice price of goods imported here?—A. No, sir; that is a very rare occurrence. It is very rare that the duty has to be increased. I had a case where the question was raised in regard to the market value of cotton-ties in Liverpool. Mr. McComb, being a large importer, it was held by Mr. Packard, the consul at Liverpool, that he had a monopoly of the business, controlling a large quantity of these ties, having large means, and that he could buy them up when the season was dull and there was very little demand for them, and hold them until there was a demand, thus creating a monopoly.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. All that would be obviated if there was a specific duty ?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You say it has been the custom to accept foreign invoices, and you generally find them correct ?—A. Yes, sir ; we generally find them correct.

Q. The consular invoice is generally accepted here ?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Are dry goods imported here ?—A. No, sir ; they usually come from New York. We have no bonded line from New York here, and therefore they are handled in New York City and sent out here as appraised.

G. M. POLLITZER.

CHARLESTON, S. C., *September 26, 1882.*

Mr. G. M. POLLITZER, commission merchant, of Charleston, S. C., addressed the Commission as follows :

The subject I wish to speak upon is not one of local interest, but affects the entire country, and, while it may not seem to be of special magnitude, viewing it on a broad scale, yet at the same time, as you are visiting all sections of the country and considering all these questions, I desire to call your attention to the excessive duty on salt.

This article is no sectional commodity, but is alike distributed throughout the land, for man and beast, and yet subjected to an import duty of nearly one million dollars.

The following table shows the imports and duty paid, as compiled by our government, for the year 1881 :

	Quantity.	Value.	Duty.	Per 100 pounds.
	<i>Pounds.</i>			<i>Costs.</i>
Imported in sacks, barrels, and packages	412, 442, 201	\$1, 242, 542 55	\$494, 930 73	12
Imported in bulk	529, 301, 042	658, 067 64	423, 488 77	8
Total	941, 803, 333	1, 900, 610 19	918, 419 50

Salt costs, on an average, f. o. b., in sacks, 15s. sterling in Liverpool, in bulk, 9s. 9d. sterling in Liverpool, or in currency (sack), \$3.64 per ton of 2240 pounds, (bulk), \$2.37 per ton of 2240 pounds.

The duty per ton (2240 pounds) on salt in sacks is \$2.69; percentage on cost, 74 per cent.; in bulk, \$1.79; percentage on cost, 75½ per cent.

Calculating from the compiled table above the duty on the "value," the percentage, as shown by me, will not appear, for in aggregate "value," the duty charged is already included.

It will no doubt be claimed that the American salt mining interest demands protection. This I cheerfully indorse (only at lower tariff rate), but it appears to me that the transportation to our shores from England, in itself gives the producer in this country a large percentage in favor of his production.

Freights during the past year to American ports ruled to New York 2s. 6d. to 12s. 6d.; Boston, 4s. to 15s.; Baltimore, 6s. 3d. to 10s.; New Orleans, 5s. 6d. to 7s.; Charleston, 5s.; Savannah, 5s., &c. The currency value of these freight rates, is already a large difference to make good the higher cost of labor in this country, and the less need of so heavy a tariff.

In my humble judgment so important a commodity to an entire people should not be taxed at nearly twice its cost, and I leave the wisdom of this to your superior knowledge to name in your report a tariff rate, just to American producers and yet more lenient to the people of this country.

This appeal is not called forth for individual advantage, but only to assist with my limited judgment, one measure under my immediate knowledge deserving your attention.

My own belief is in a protective tariff, the necessity of which is patent, but one measured by justice and reason alike to producer and consumer.

By Commissioner BOTELEK :

Question. Do you think a reduction of the tariff on salt would have any effect upon the price of the domestic product?—Answer. I should not suppose it would, for the reason that the freight is already an important item, and tends to counterbalance the increased cost of labor in this country. I would not recommend the removing of the tariff on salt entirely by any means. I only desire to call attention to the fact that the duty is extremely excessive on an article that is of such universal use.

Commissioner BOTELEK. The salt manufacturers of my own State, West Virginia, say that they cannot exist if there is any reduction in the duty.

The WITNESS. No doubt manufacturers at all times would like to have a protective tariff, and the greater it is, the greater their profit on the cost of manufacture. But I think the interests of the consumers should be as well considered as the interests of the producers.

Commissioner BOTELEK. It was looking to the interests of the consumers as well as the interest of the producers, that I asked the question, because, if they are correct in what they say of the effect of the tariff on their own business, and are obliged to abandon it on account of a reduction in the tariff, then what effect would that have upon the price of salt to the consumer, in your opinion?—A. I do not think it would affect the price materially. We depend entirely on foreign salt here in Charleston. I know of but one case where there has been any importation of Syracuse salt here. All of the Gulf ports depend upon foreign salt, except, I believe, New Orleans, and there they use some of the other salt. It is the excessive rate of duty to which I call attention; not that I would have the duty removed altogether, for I believe in the necessity of a protective tariff in this country. I only recommend that the tariff be put on a more moderate scale.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. What is the wholesale price of salt here?—A. It varies. This is a peculiar market, easily depressed or elated. A cargo brought here to-day would probably bring 80 cents per sack.

Q. A sack weighing how much?—A. About 200 pounds as delivered here.

Q. Is that in bond or duty paid?—A. Duty paid. The actual prime cost of salt in sacks is 37 cents, to which the duty is added of 24 cents a sack.

Q. The Saginaw, Mich., salt manufacturers told us that their wholesale price for a barrel of salt containing 280 pounds was 70 cents a barrel; what have you to say in regard to that?—A. If they can sell salt at that price they are in a good position to meet the foreign market, because it costs in sacks 37 cents abroad, and the duty is 24 cents, making 61 cents actual cost, to say nothing of freight, insurance, and commission charges. Then there is 11 cents to be added for freight, making 72 cents, independent of the insurance and other charges.

Q. They are selling salt, then, at less than it can be imported for?—A. Yes, sir; that is what I say.

W. L. TRENHOLM.

CHARLESTON, S. C., *September 26, 1882.*

Mr. W. L. TRENHOLM, of the firm of George A. Trenholm & Son, commission merchants, of Charleston, S. C., addressed the Commission as follows :

GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMISSION: I desire to say a few words upon the subject of the duty on rice, and give some reasons why I think it is proper to give it the benefit of protection. As long as the country adheres to any form of protective policy, it seems to me that rice must be recognized as fulfilling all the conditions of an article to be protected. Without protection its production will cease. I think the Commission can satisfy itself as to that point by interrogating any one of the gentlemen here who are familiar with the subject.

Under protection, a large amount of capital, a vast area of land, and numerous laborers have become committed to this industry, and if that protection is withdrawn the capital will be lost, the land will be abandoned, and the laborers will suffer.

If any one were given a piece of waste or swamp land suitable for the purposes of rice culture, and desired to convert it into a rice plantation, it would cost him at least \$50 an acre outlay, in cash, for preparation, before he could sow his seed, and then it would take him several years of continuous cultivation and tillage before the annual crop would more than pay (if it would quite pay) the expenses of cultivation. In other words, to create a rice plantation a very large investment of capital is required. It is not like ordinary farming land or prairie land, where you can plow the land and put in the seed, and the crop will grow. Rice land has first to be selected, and engineering skill is necessary in its location. It must be prepared with canals, ditches, river-dams, sluices, trunks the condition of the tide-water has to be considered, the pitch of the land, and the soil, and if mistakes are made in any of these respects, the whole amount invested is lost. So that rice culture is more like the manufacturing industries than any other agriculture that exists in the world.

Rice is indispensable in time of war. During the Confederate war the States adhering to the government were dependent upon foreign rice, and although the Confederate States had no effectual naval force, the price of imported rice in New York of an assimilated grade to the domestic variety (viz, Para) ranged from 8 cents per pound in 1862 to 14½ cents in 1865. Should the domestic production cease and the whole country become dependent upon foreign supplies, a war with any power of naval resources would result in great and irremediable embarrassment. As rice is a perishable commodity, the supply must be continuous. No exigency can cause an ekeing out of stock from one season to another. The tabulated statements which I shall present show the sources and distribution of imported rice. From these it appears that our largest supplies come from the southern countries of Asia and are consumed in the Pacific States of the Union. Of the imports into Atlantic and Gulf ports, England furnishes 72½ per cent.; this is mostly East India rice cleaned in London. These imports into the Atlantic and Gulf ports are to a large extent held in bond and re-exported; the duty

they pay to the government is inconsiderable, and the whole quantity consumed in 1880-'81 was only 736,682 pounds. Now there is no doubt that the Chinese in the Pacific States consume nearly all the rice imported on that side of the continent. Through the medium of the duty they are made to contribute to the maintenance of the government, and probably this is the only contribution they make.

To reduce the duty or to take it off would be to relieve the Chinese of that contribution, but it would not materially benefit any other residents of the Pacific States; on the contrary, if the duty on rice were removed and the price in California reduced, the Chinese would probably consume more rice, and consequently fewer even than they do now of the products of the country around them, and to that extent the change would be injurious to the farming interest there. The effect upon the rest of the Union of removing the duty would probably be to gradually extinguish the rice production of the South and to substitute foreign for domestic rice. It may be thought that such a change will benefit the commercial interests of Boston and New York, by increasing their trade with the East Indies, but besides the fact that, at present, nearly the whole direct importation of rice from the East Indies is by way of the Pacific, and that now all that New York and Boston get is at second-hand from England (which course of trade is hardly likely to be changed by removing the duty), it is to be considered that should the duty be removed, whatever rice may be imported from sources of production in the East Indies directly to United States ports on the Gulf of Mexico or the Atlantic seaboard will probably come in the rough; that the largest consumption east of the Rocky Mountains is in the country supplied from New Orleans, Savannah, and Charleston; that at these places there already exist skilled labor, machinery, capital, and the appliances of a distributive trade, especially adapted to milling and marketing this article, and that the voyage from the East Indies to all these ports is shorter than to New York and Boston. These things being considered, it seems only reasonable to suppose that while the process of extinction is working itself out in the rice-producing industry of the South, the foreign importations will become gradually attracted to what are now the chief distributing centers in the trade in clean rice, and that consequently the Northern ports will be in danger of losing whatever of that trade they now have.

It seems to me that so far from reducing or removing the duty on rice, good policy would suggest its being increased, and no doubt the representatives from the Pacific States will support this view. At any rate it is of supreme importance to have the future status of the duty as nearly settled as anything of the sort can be, and it seems to me that this can be approximated if not secured by taking the strong and decided ground that the facts of the case supply.

The rice interest of this State is the oldest special industry in the United States. It dates from a time anterior to the beginning of the eighteenth century; it was of incalculable value and importance during the Revolutionary war; and now, in connection with the similar interests of Georgia and Louisiana, it has as good a right to national recognition and protection as any other interest, wherever it may be situated.

I have prepared some statistics on the subject of rice culture in the State of South Carolina in order to present the matter properly to your Commission. The figures in the tables which I present have been taken from the annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury and from the report of the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics for the year ended June

30, 1881, which are the latest data I have been able to obtain. They are as follows:

STATISTICS OF TRADE IN FOREIGN RICE.

[Condensed from the Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury on the Commerce and Navigation of the United States, fiscal year 1880-'81. Report of Chief of Statistics for year ending June 30, 1881.]

TABLE 3.—Imports of foreign rice.

Whence imported.	Quantity.	Value.
DUTIABLE.		
	<i>Pounds.</i>	
China.....	21,133,504	\$523,154
France.....	34,085	930
Germany.....	113,002	3,128
England.....	6,480,922	105,261
Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island.....	574	26
Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, the Northwest territory.....	478	25
British Columbia.....	750	30
British West Indies.....	132	7
British Honduras.....	200	5
British East Indies.....	2,217,408	46,499
Hong-Kong.....	2,605,527	60,047
Italy.....	62,027	2,502
Mexico.....	908	50
Netherlands.....	258	23
Cuba.....	1,734	70
Porto Rico.....	122	6
All other islands and ports.....	28,004,382	386,321
	61,765,003	1,413,543
FREE.		
Hawaiian Islands.....	6,984,406	389,017
Total import.....	68,739,409	1,802,560

TABLE 4.—Imports of foreign rice.

Imported at—	Atlantic ports.		Interior ports.		Gulf ports.		Pacific ports.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
DUTIABLE.								
	<i>Pounds.</i>		<i>Pounds.</i>		<i>Pounds.</i>		<i>Pounds.</i>	
Alaska.....							750	\$39
Aroostook, Me.....	126	\$7						
Baltimore, Md.....	600	21						
Boston and Charlestown, Mass.....	1,008,000	25,435						
Brazos De Santiago, Tex.....					60,939	\$1,593		
Buffalo Creek, N. Y.....			40	\$6				
Koy West, Fla.....					1,734	70		
New Orleans, La.....					200	5		
New York, N. Y.....	7,883,205	190,696						
Oswegatchie, N. Y.....			20	1				
Passamaquoddy, Me.....	448	19						
Port Amboy, N. J.....	122	6						
Philadelphia, Pa.....	24,335	610						
San Francisco, Cal.....							50,127,886	1,134,016
Téche.....					953	45		
Vermont, Vt.....			418	18				
Willamette, Oreg.....							2,695,527	60,947
	8,866,536	216,794	478	25	63,826	1,722	52,824,163	1,194,992
FREE OF DUTY.								
San Francisco, Cal.....							6,934,406	386,321
Willamette, Oreg.....							50,000	2,006
Total.....							6,984,406	389,017
Aggregate.....	8,866,536	216,794	478	25	63,826	1,722	59,808,569	1,584,009

DUTIABLE AND FREE.

	Quantity imported.	Quantity exported.	Surplus.	Deficiency.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
Atlantic ports	8,800,630	7,770,803	1,430,302	
Interior ports	478		478	
Gulf ports	63,826	423,205		350,430
Pacific ports	50,808,560	2,024,817	57,183,752	
Total	68,730,400	10,818,075	58,020,532	350,430

RECAPITULATION.

	Imported.	Exported.	Consumption.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
Atlantic ports	8,930,840	8,104,168	730,082
Interior ports			
Gulf ports			
Pacific ports	50,808,560	2,024,817	57,183,752
Total	68,730,400	10,818,075	57,920,434

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Question. You speak of an increase of the duty on rice. To what extent would you recommend an increase?—Answer. I am not prepared to recommend an increase of the duty at all. I prefer, and I think nearly all who are interested in the culture of rice in this State prefer, that the duty, whatever it may be, should be a fixed one. They would rather have it fixed and lasting than to have it increased for a time. If a higher rate is put upon rice, there is greater danger of change in the future. I think the best interests of the rice-producing class in our country would be subserved if the duty at present established could be maintained for a term of years.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. Then you ask for the present duty on protective grounds?—A. I ask for it on the ground previously stated; which is, that as long as the policy of the country is a protective one, we should derive our just share of that protection. I myself am in favor of free trade.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. Except on rice?—A. No, sir; I am willing to give up the duty on rice for free trade. But as long as the policy of the country is protective, I think we can show that rice should be protected. The principal ground on which the policy of protection is based, as I understand, is because of the increased wages paid for labor in this country. That is not only claimed by the protectionists everywhere, but it is conceded by the anti-protectionists, while they claim again that the increase of wages is on account of the increased cost of living to the laborer. But all parties, I think, will admit that a protective policy does raise the scale of wages. There is hardly any article produced, certainly none in this part of the country, where the wages of labor paid out in the course of production form so large a percentage of the total cost of production as is the case in rice culture. Nearly the whole cost of production is in labor. Some gentlemen who have had a great deal of experience in this matter, after investigating it very thoroughly, have

come to the conclusion that it costs 90 cents per bushel, for the item of wages alone, in the production of rice, and at the present prices the average value of it is about \$1.25 a bushel. So that you have very nearly three-fourths, or 75 per cent., of the cost of rice in labor. If a protective policy does really, as is claimed, raise the price of labor all over the country, then the only opportunity for the rice people to get back their contribution to labor in that form is by the protection which they get from this present duty.

Q. It was stated to us yesterday at Savannah that the rice you are compelled to compete with is produced by laborers receiving only 8 to 12 cents a day wages; that statement has been made to the Commission. If we recommend that the duty be taken off rice and other articles, and we have free trade, do you think it is possible in your life-time, or in this generation, to reduce the price of labor to a point so that you can successfully compete with this Asiatic labor?—A. But, in addition to the cost of Asiatic labor, you have the cost of importation, the risk of a long voyage, and charges of freight and insurance to pay, which in itself is some protection.

Q. But you have just stated to us that 75 per cent. of the cost of cultivating rice is in labor. I want to know whether it would be possible to reduce the price of labor here to anything like the price of the labor which produces this foreign rice?—A. No, sir; I do not think we shall ever see labor in this country as poorly paid as it is in the East Indies, under any circumstances.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. You state that a reduction of the duty would compel the abandonment of the rice fields?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. On what ground—that the foreign rice would take its place?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then, if the duty was wholly taken off, it would certainly cause the entire abandonment of this industry in our country?—A. Yes, sir; as things are at present.

Q. And we should be entirely dependent on the foreign market for that product?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is there any assurance that if that were the case the price would not be enhanced?—A. It would very likely be enhanced, because during the Confederate war, when there was no American rice in the market, the price of rice was very much higher than it is now.

Q. So that the consumer would be obliged to pay a higher price for that essential article of food?—A. Very probably. I have a letter here from a large rice planter, which covers the very point to which you refer, which I will read.

ANNANDALE PLANTATION, *September 21, 1882.*

[Extract.]

The future of rice planting depends entirely upon the protection given to us by the government. Once it is settled that we are to be protected and the Hawaiian Islands are not to be made ports of entry for India rice, and from thence enter this country upon conditions that make it a formidable competitor with our grain, you will see the rice industry take a new lease of life; and although an increase of acreage (and hence a greater amount of grain placed on the market) will depress prices, it will not effect us, because it will be grown at the same cost that we

have to grow it, and the expense of cultivation will be regulated accordingly. What we can't contend with is the cultivation of rice in this country at high wages, as compared to the cheap labor in foreign countries. South Carolina planters will always grow rice as cheaply as the planters of Georgia, North Carolina, or Louisiana. If we cannot, then we will be driven out of the market in a fair and legitimate manner, because we are growing our grain with similar paid labor. But we insist that we cannot, under our expensive system of embankments, and drainage, and irrigation, cope with foreign rice. I am satisfied, unless protection is given to us, that our rice industry will not survive five years after the duty is taken off; and the past proves what will take place when the government drives us out of the market. When we were out and foreign rice had full control, rice ranged at about 13 cents per pound; since we have been in, we have kept it at from 5 cents to 8 cents per pound.

WM. M. HAZZARD.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. You have stated that rice is a necessity in time of war. Will you please state your views upon that subject more fully.—A. Rice always has been one of the established rations of all armies, as far as I have been able to ascertain. I remember hearing years ago that the English Government always had a large stock of rice stored at Gibraltar, which they kept up to a certain quantity. Whenever it became old they would sell it and lay in a new stock; and in that way they always kept a very large stock of rice on hand in good condition, because it was considered as an essential part of the rations of soldiers and sailors in time of war. Rice contains more nutriment in proportion to its weight than anything a soldier can carry, and on long marches, it is believed, a soldier can transport his provisions better, and for a longer time, in the form of rice than in any other form.

Q. Is it not also very essential for hospital uses?—A. Yes, sir; it is exceedingly useful. In times when cholera is raging it is universally consumed as a specific, and is everywhere conceded to be very healthful as food for troops in camp.

J. B. BISSELL.

CHARLESTON, S. C., *September 26, 1882.*

Mr. J. B. BISSELL, of Charleston, S. C., addressed the Commission as follows:

I have no detailed statement to make upon the subject of rice, but I will say one thing, and that is, that if the present duty should be taken off rice it would ruin that industry entirely, in my opinion. Two years ago I purchased a rice plantation for which I paid \$24,000, and if I thought the duty on rice was to be removed I would be very glad to sell it for \$5,000. I do not care to make any statement upon the subject, as it has been already so fully presented by Mr. Trenholm, Mr. Jervy, and others; but if any members of the Commission desire to address me, I shall be happy to respond.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question: What suggestions have you to make in regard to the present rate of duty? Do you regard it as a sufficient protection?—Answer. In my opinion it would be best that the present duty should remain as it is. If we could be assured that the duty would remain unchanged for some time to come, it would encourage us in the cultivation of that product very much. Every once in a while we hear it said that the duty on rice is going to be taken off, and we are always apprehensive that something will be done by Congress in that direction. I do not know what use could be made of our lands if the duty was taken off rice and its cultivation stopped. In Louisiana, where the land is virgin land and has not been subject to cultivation, they "broadcast" their rice and are able to raise it cheaper than we can. We have to be at work all the time raising our banks and fixing our trunks so as to be prepared in case of a gale or freshet, and we are at much more expense, and it costs much more to raise rice here than it does in Louisiana. Besides, they can use machinery to some extent, while we are compelled to work lands where machinery cannot be used at all.

Q. It requires more hand-labor in South Carolina than it does there?—A. Yes, sir, it does; and we raise much less rice in proportion to the acre. I suppose the Louisiana rice-growers' average product, however, will decrease after the land has been cultivated for a few years. After the war we commenced planting, and the negroes worked for me at that time for about 40 cents a day, and it was very seldom the case among the hundreds of hands whom I employed that they took anything but corn in payment for their labor. But that has all changed. Now they demand \$1 a day for wages, and generally finish their day's work about 12 o'clock noon. Most of them have cows and horses, and are getting along nicely. They buy land adjoining the rice plantations and have their little homes, and come in and work for us and go back to their houses, and are in a better condition than they were before the war. But if you take off the duty on rice we should not be able to employ them at all, and I think our plantations, with the exception of a very few, would be abandoned.

Q. Could not the land be applied to other uses?—A. I think not. I have tried this year to raise oats and grasses, and I have not made it a success. The land is too soggy, and does not produce the right kind

of grasses. It does not seem to produce anything to advantage except rice. I tried a little of it in sugar cane, but could not cultivate that successfully. Last week I was working upwards of 800 hands, and I suppose each hand has four or five people dependent on his labor; so that would make 4,000 or 5,000 people dependent on this labor that is necessary for the cultivation of rice on my own plantation.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. It has been suggested that if the duties on all articles were decreased 25 to 33 per cent., everything would be cheaper in this country. In that view, could rice stand a proportionate decrease on the tariff list with all other articles? Do you think it could stand a reduction of one-half a cent a pound?—A. I do not think so; I would rather see it increased to 3 cents, although I think it would be best for it to remain at 2½ cents. It is a struggle now to make a living in the cultivation of rice. After the war, rice sold as high as 13 cents a pound; but now we are getting only a little over 5 cents, between 5 and 6 cents a pound. The price is gradually decreasing. We are not making so much as we were directly after the war. To reclaim these rice plantations that were abandoned during the war costs about \$40 to \$50 an acre; but, as we have reclaimed so much since the war, of course the cost in the future will not be as great, unless we take in new lands.

Q. We were told at Savannah that in the cultivation of rice no agricultural machinery could be used.—A. That is true. The only machine that can be used is in the sowing of rice; nothing in harvesting at all.

Q. Then your rice is almost entirely the product of labor alone?—A. Yes, sir; almost wholly the product of labor. I do not think the cost of cultivation can be less than 90 cents a bushel. We cannot use machinery in connection with it, as can be done in the cultivation of oats, for instance.

SAMUEL Y. TUPPER.

CHARLESTON, S. C., *September 26, 1882.*

Mr. SAMUEL Y. TUPPER, president of the Chamber of Commerce of Charleston, S. C., addressed the Commission as follows:

I presume, Mr. President and gentlemen, that the purpose of your Commission is to ascertain how far the burdens and benefits of our tariff affect the industrial interests of our State, and what changes in the contemplated revision of the tariff will best advance the present growing industries of South Carolina. We are all aware that the country must have a tariff for revenue—some method for raising money to pay the expenses of the public service. There is no such thing in a great commercial country like this as free trade. I regard the doctrine of free trade as an absurdity; as a misnomer. Yet we know that leading men throughout our country have proclaimed themselves to be free-traders *per se*. Now, if I might venture to express the sentiments of this chamber, and of our commercial community, on this subject, I would say that, while we are in favor of a tariff for revenue, we desire that the industries of our country shall be protected to the extent of that revenue. For myself I can speak more freely. I would not advocate a tariff for revenue only, nor for protection only; but I would favor a tariff that would give the requisite amount of revenue to the country for all its wants and requirements, and to the extent of that revenue, and incidentally, protect American manufacturers and agriculturists. I believe that is the true doctrine for this country. I would go further. I am enough of an American to say that I think the shipping interests of this country should be protected, even to the amount of reasonable subsidies to ship-builders. I take it that what we want in South Carolina is a reasonable and incidental protection to our manufactories, which are now growing in the State, and to our agricultural interests.

The rice culture of South Carolina is a vital and important interest to us. All along our seaboard the most of our farmers and planters derive their subsistence from the culture of that article. Not long ago the cultivation of rice was second in importance only to the cultivation of cotton in its value, and now I believe it gives support to 50,000 laborers at least. We have also cotton factories growing up all over the State, and we manufacture bagging to a large extent. We are producing phosphate fertilizers, and manufacturing them, so that it is becoming a growing interest to us. I have no doubt that gentlemen who are present will represent that interest to you, and indicate what degree of encouragement they require. Others may, perhaps, desire some articles placed upon the free list, which they find essential to their manufacture. They will also represent their interests. My remarks are intended only as introductory.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. Have you any specific recommendation to make in regard to the duty on rice?—Answer. No, sir, I have not; but there are gentlemen here who represent that interest, and the Commission will doubtless hear from them.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. What would you recommend in regard to the present duty on rice ?—A. I am decidedly in favor of keeping the duty at $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound; but it is so important an interest to us that I would be glad to see it increased to 3 cents a pound.

Q. You would be willing to join in the recommendation of the Savannah Board of Trade that it should be put at 3 cents a pound?—A. If the gentlemen who represent that interest are willing to recommend 3 cents a pound duty on rice, I would cheerfully advocate it.

E. WILLIS.

CHARLESTON, S. C., *September 26, 1882.*

Mr. E. WILLIS, of Charleston, S. C., addressed the Commission as follows:

The developing of the phosphate deposits of this State is a large and growing industry. There are about \$10,000,000 invested in mining it. The phosphate land proper is in a belt extending about 60 miles in length, and about 28 in width. It is found in almost all the rivers in the vicinity of Charleston, and from 12 to 13 miles north and east of the city. There are manufactured in this city about 50,000 tons annually of the crude phosphate rock. We make about 100,000,000 tons of fertilizer annually, and the entire product of the State is about 350,000 tons. It is one of the growing, prosperous industries of the State, and gives employment to a great many people. The river deposits belong to the State, and it exacts from the miners \$1 a ton royalty, receiving from that source alone about 25 per cent. of the entire revenues of the State. It is shipped all over the globe to distant countries.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Question. The largest portion of it is exported?—Answer. Yes, sir. Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Boston are very large consumers of the crude rock fertilizers, and large quantities also are shipped to England.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. On chemical analysis how does your crude rock compare with that of other countries?—A. Its analysis is about an average. It analyzes from 55 to 62 or 63. It compares very favorably and it has a great many advantages that the other phosphates have not. It dries readily when treated with acids.

Q. You can maintain yourselves, then, against foreign competition?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Your geographical location affords sufficient protection?—A. Yes, sir; by its use cotton culture in this section of the country has been carried to the foot of the mountains, and to-day, I suppose, in North Carolina, Georgia, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Alabama, cotton is made at the foot of the mountains by the use of fertilizers, where it has an advantage of from three weeks to a month over other parts of the country, which enables them to produce cotton and pick it before the frost comes. The best cotton we get here and in Savannah comes from those sections where they use the fertilizer.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. How do these fertilizers compare with the Peruvian guano in their effect upon the soils?—A. They are much better, because the results are more permanent. Guano will burn the lands up and in time make them useless; it heats them too much. This is a cooler fertilizer, and its beneficial effects can be seen for years; while the effect of Peruvian guano is exhausted in a single season.

Q. Is the natural supply of these phosphates inexhaustible?—A. I should suppose it was if you take all the phosphates in the State, but if you take only the accessible phosphates it is not—that is, those phosphates which it will pay to mine; they are not inexhaustible. It will not pay at the present price of phosphate rock to mine more than 6 feet

in depth. In rivers it does not make any difference. We manage with machinery to raise the phosphates with the old mud-digging dredges, and obtain it in paying quantities.

Q. These phosphates, I understand, are treated with sulphuric acid?

—A. Yes, sir; they are ground and treated with sulphuric acid.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. You have no recommendation to make; you are satisfied with the duties as they are?—A. Yes, sir; I do not think we require any protection at all.

In conclusion I submit tables showing the business done here and in adjacent ports in connection with the shipment of these fertilizers:

MANUFACTURED FERTILIZERS.

	1871.	1872.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
South Carolina Railroad:						
January	3,016	7,224	8,832	7,330	4,830	8,084
February	4,800	8,304	10,205	7,001	0,780	11,156
March	5,703	9,025	13,711	8,214	11,150	8,401
April	2,853	2,815	5,410	2,040	4,313	2,605
May	80	112	175	318	164	77
Northeastern Railroad:						
January	182	620	1,012	1,271	2,872	2,064
February	500	1,955	2,008	2,084	3,813	3,894
March	603	1,284	3,011	2,804	3,195	2,927
April	293	580	1,000	1,001	1,379	1,100
May			70	41	100	58
Savannah and Charleston Railroad:						
January	4	103	95	116	282	206
February	87	587	350	285	497	551
March	300	240	520	253	424	401
April	54	130	120	180	90	108
May	2	1	1	1	1	1
January to June: Georgetown, Peo Dee, Santee, and Edisto steamers	1,236	2,713	2,038	1,079	1,000	855
Total five months	20,481	30,710	50,172	37,000	44,808	42,547
For remainder of year	2,108	1,010	6,120	9,382	6,029	3,896
Grand total	22,589	37,750	56,292	46,382	50,837	46,443
	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
South Carolina Railroad:						
January	5,480	6,780	6,550	17,440	14,030	18,801
February	12,410	12,602	14,445	17,308	18,523	19,837
March	10,710	15,010	12,014	10,814	18,721	12,107
April	2,183	1,795	2,513	2,701	3,500	1,711
May	70	44	53	707	180	548
Northeastern Railroad:						
January	385	870	285	1,381	2,180	2,424
February	1,981	1,817	3,231	3,366	3,250	5,362
March	3,385	3,371	2,731	3,382	4,030	7,285
April	888	1,670	634	677	3,044	955
May	57	141	48	201	28	108
Savannah and Charleston Railroad:						
January	322	670	1,010	1,102	951	600
February	791	584	1,701	1,240	1,155	1,272
March	250	470	1,444	476	2,375	594
April	20	95	675	203	620	100
May	31	2	5	9	50	14
January to June: Georgetown, Peo Dee, Santee, and Edisto steamers	1,081	1,263	1,864	2,500	2,050	2,002
Total five months	40,065	47,152	48,838	64,005	77,525	73,490
For remainder of year	5,001	4,848	11,102	15,005	25,000	18,000
Grand total	45,750	52,000	60,000	80,000	102,525	91,490

CRUDE PHOSPHATES.

	Shipped from—			Total.
	Beaufort.	Charleston.	Other points than Beaufort and Charles- ton.	
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
From June 1, 1874, to May 31, 1875:				
Foreign ports.....	44, 017	25, 020	70, 540
Domestic ports.....	7, 000	25, 500	32, 500
Consumed.....	10, 084	10, 084
Total.....	51, 017	71, 173	122, 700
From June 1, 1875, to May 31, 1876:				
Foreign ports.....	50, 384	25, 431	75, 815
Domestic ports.....	0, 400	28, 831	39, 231
Consumed.....	18, 850	18, 850
Total.....	50, 784	72, 842	132, 020
From June 1, 1876, to May 31, 1877:				
Foreign ports.....	73, 023	28, 844	102, 707
Domestic ports.....	0, 285	40, 708	47, 053
Consumed.....	13, 400	13, 400
Total.....	80, 208	83, 012	163, 220
From June 1, 1877, to May 31, 1878:				
Foreign ports.....	100, 010	21, 123	121, 742
Domestic ports.....	8, 217	60, 729	68, 946
Consumed.....	17, 035	17, 035
Total.....	108, 836	101, 487	210, 323
From June 1, 1878, to May 31, 1879:				
Foreign ports.....	97, 709	21, 707	119, 500
Domestic ports.....	8, 018	52, 281	60, 809
Consumed.....	18, 000	18, 000
Total.....	105, 727	72, 008	177, 735
From June 1, 1879, to May 31, 1880:				
Foreign ports.....	47, 157	14, 218	61, 375
Domestic ports.....	13, 347	94, 002	107, 348
Consumed.....	22, 040	22, 040
Total.....	60, 504	108, 260	168, 764
From June 1, 1880, to May 31, 1881:				
Foreign ports.....	62, 200	8, 508	70, 708
Domestic ports.....	65, 805	91, 020	156, 824
Consumed.....	38, 132	38, 132
Total.....	128, 005	100, 628	228, 633
From June 1, 1881, to May 31, 1882:				
Foreign ports.....	80, 581	22, 005	102, 586
Domestic ports.....	57, 465	111, 314	7, 875	176, 654
Consumed.....	42, 037	42, 037
Total.....	147, 046	175, 356	7, 875	330, 277

T. D. JERVEY.

CHARLESTON, S. C., *September 26, 1882.*

Mr. THEODORE D. JERVEY, of the firm of W. C. Bee & Co., commission merchants, of Charleston, S. C., made the following statement:

Those who are interested in the cultivation of rice respectfully submit, in favor of the retention of the duty on foreign rice, the following remarks:

The lands which are adapted to the cultivation of rice were originally reclaimed from the rivers by a very costly system of embankments and flood gates, &c. At the termination of the late war these lands, having been abandoned for four years, were in a ruinous state—banks washed away, with large crevasses, the flood gates destroyed, and canals filled up. In many instances the thrashing mills, barns, &c., had been destroyed by fire, and these formerly valuable lands were nearly reduced to their normal condition.

At the average value of the product of these lands prior to the war, no effort could have been successfully made to bring them into cultivation, and they must have become valueless.

The duty which had been imposed by Congress upon foreign, enhanced, as a matter of course, the value of domestic, rice, and warranted the effort of bringing these lands again into cultivation.

Upon the mortgage of their property at enormous rates of interest, say 18 to 30 per cent. per annum, the owners commenced the work of restoring these lands.

From a crop of 12,500 tierces, as the product of Georgia and South Carolina in 1865-'66, these States sent to market in 1880-'81 near 100,000 tierces rice, and but for the exceptional bad season and heavy gale of last year a still larger crop would have been marketed.

Stimulated by the remunerating prices current, the planters of Louisiana and North Carolina also entered more largely into the cultivation of rice, and the entire crop is now about 200,000 tierces in all, representing a fixed and floating capital in these States of upwards of \$10,000,000, and giving support to about 200,000 people.

The relative cost of cultivation now and before the war is very great. At the latter period, if a planter had the misfortune to have his banks broken his neighbors immediately came to his assistance with all their laborers, animals, and utensils, and speedily repaired the damage at no expense to the sufferer, and with but little injury to the crop; now, under the same circumstances, much time is wasted, and the crop is sure to be badly injured by the delay, and the planter has to pay out cash for everything, in addition to labor at enhanced rates; the relative scarcity of labor also makes the cost of planting much heavier than formerly, short time and bad work making the yield much less than before the war, and making it almost impossible to contend against imported rice from the Hawaiian Islands and other countries where labor is so much cheaper than with us. Should the duty be repealed, or even reduced, the work of the past sixteen years would be thrown away and millions of property would be sacrificed, and over two hundred thousand of our population, white and black, would have to look to other sources for support, as, on account of the peculiar character of these lands, they

are adapted to the cultivation of no other paying crop. As a proof that the present duty is not excessive, though it has enabled many to restore their lands to some degree of value, there are still about two-thirds of the lands in this State which were planted before the war lying uncultivated and neglected.

The removal of the duty having the effect of destroying the interest here, would leave the consumer entirely at the mercy of the foreign producer who would have a monopoly of the article, and for which he would probably secure prices even above those ruling at present.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Question. I understand that you recommend a retention of the present duty on rice?—Answer. Yes, sir; it is absolutely necessary to the successful carrying on of the cultivation of that article in Georgia and this State.

Q. Have you noticed the representations made to the Commission yesterday by the rice-growing interest of Savannah?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. They recommend that the duty on rice should be advanced to 3 cents a pound.—A. I should be glad to have that advance made; but what we chiefly want is a certainty. We want to know whether we can depend upon the present duty for any length of time.

Q. What I want to ascertain is whether you consider an advance necessary, or only desirable?—A. I think it is desirable, but not necessary.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. If the people of this section were assured of a fixed rate of duty on rice for ten years, what would be the result?—A. I think there would be a larger area of land planted in rice.

Q. Have you any idea what the probable increase would be in the product?—A. I think if the duty was a fixed one for a series of years it would be of very great advantage; but I could not estimate what the probable increase would be. If the duty were taken off, all these lands would have to be abandoned. After the war the price of rice rose to 10 or 12 cents a pound, and now it is down to 5 or 6 cents a pound.

Q. But is it not about the same price relatively compared with that period when gold was \$1.50 or \$2 premium?—A. I think not. I do not think the premium on gold just after the war was over 50 per cent.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. What would be the effect on the producer if the suggestions made to us yesterday to increase the duty from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 cents should be adopted; would it stimulate the production?—A. Yes, sir; I think it would make the article cheaper, because a good many of these lands—upwards of two-thirds of the lands in South Carolina formerly planted in rice—are lying waste now; but if the prices were to increase, the larger portion of those lands would be put under cultivation.

Q. A larger area would be brought into cultivation, a greater product would result, and the consequence would be, you think, a reduction of the price to the consumer?—A. Yes, sir; I think we should be able to supply the whole of the demand. There would be no necessity for importing the foreign article, and the rice producer would do as well as he is doing at present. Every year they are enabled to decrease the cost of production by getting their lands in better order.

Q. But you desire stability chiefly?—A. Yes, sir; to know what we can look forward to for a series of years.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. Have there been any cargoes of foreign rice imported into Charleston?—A. No, sir. It all goes to New York or San Francisco.

Q. We were told that Rangoon rice comes into Savannah.—A. Yes, sir; they receive it from New York. None comes there direct, to my knowledge.

Q. Do they bring that Rangoon rice for the purpose of mixing it with the native product?—A. Yes; that is done by the retailers; but it is not done by those who handle rice in the first instance. When Carolina rice is relatively higher than the other they are apt to mix it.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. The interests of the consumers have to be looked after as well as the interests of the producers in this matter. In that view, let me inquire whether the people of this State are large consumers of rice?—A. Oh, yes, sir; you will find a dish of rice on almost every table in the State.

Q. Is it consumed largely by the colored people?—A. Yes, sir; they are very fond of it, and prefer it to hominy or grits made from corn.

Q. Would a reduction of the present duty be acceptable to the consumers?—A. If you were to take off the duty a large number who are planting rice would be compelled to abandon its culture; they could not borrow the money to carry on its cultivation, and in that case foreign rice would be introduced in large quantities, and, according to my experience as a merchant, the price would rise. The culture would be abandoned here for a time, and the land would get into the same condition it was in after the war, requiring a large expenditure before it could be put back into its present condition.

Q. As a merchant, then, you do not think that the consumers would be benefited by a reduction of the duty on rice?—A. No, sir; I do not think they would.

D. L. RUSSELL ET AL.

WILMINGTON, N. C., *September 27, 1882.*

Mr. D. L. RUSSELL, representing the rice-growing interest, addressed the Commission as follows:

A committee of three gentlemen (of whom I am one) has been appointed to prepare a written statement containing some statistics and facts with reference to these two interests. Outside of the particular interests whose existence is at stake in this section, there is a growing sentiment here in favor of the protection policy. So far as I am concerned I have no hesitation in saying that I have always been and am for protection first and for revenue afterwards. I do not think, however, that any duty should be so high as to be prohibitory, unless as to some particular interest that ought to be developed—and I do not know of any such. We have in this section of North Carolina but two interests (or rather three) that are important—the lowland rice, the upland rice, and the peanut. The lowland rice, about which you have heard so much in the South, is cultivated, to a great extent, in the valley of this (Cape Fear) river. Previous to the war the production on this river and in the region tributary to this town was from 200,000 to 250,000 bushels. These lands are being reclaimed and cultivated with some profit. The prices of labor are high—laborers in these rice-fields receiving about a dollar a day.

The cultivation of upland rice is a matter of great importance in this section of the State. Indeed, it pays better than any other cereal that can be planted.

The peanut is another important interest. It is a product that is adapted to a certain character of soil that abounds in this region, and that is unfit for other purposes.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. Is there any difference in quality between upland rice and lowland rice?—Answer. There is a difference in price of from 30 to 40 cents a bushel. The upland rice is that much cheaper.

Q. And that is the reason why it is not produced more largely?—A. Formerly it was unknown in the market. No upland rice was sold until within the last ten or twelve years. Now there is a rice-mill at Goldsboro and one or two at other points, mainly for milling upland rice. All through this country every small farmer has got a patch of upland rice, which he ploughs like any other crop, and which may be cultivated almost entirely with machinery, as it eventually will be. He consumes a little of it, but he sells the bulk of it. My impression is that the cultivation of it is increasing, and that it has come here to stay. Last year it was a failure, on account of a dry August, but that is about the only failure I have observed in it in ten or twelve years. I have seen this year some fields of 15 and 20 acres, producing 30, 40, or 50 bushels to the acre.

By Commissioner BOTTLER:

Q. How does it compare in quality with the lowland rice?—A. It is inferior. There is a difference in price of 30 or 40 cents to the bushel. It does not mill so high. Rice cannot be made to perfection without

water. It requires water culture. The Georgia rice-planters send here for their seed.

Q. How does it compare with the Sandwich Islands rice?—A. It is decidedly better than that. I do not think that the upland rice culture is temporary. I think it is permanent. There are millions of acres of land in this country that are better adapted to the cultivation of upland rice than of any other crop. It never can compete in quality or price with the river rice. But neither of these interests can flourish without protection for the present.

The history of the prices of rice, as connected with the tariff, proves what (protectionists contend) has been established in regard to other industries; and that is, that while protection may make the article dearer for a time, it ultimately cheapens it; so that it is a benefit both to producer and consumer. The statistics in the case of rice show that when foreigners got possession of the market (and even before the duty of 2½ cents a pound was put on) they put the price up to 12 and 15 cents a pound. The removal of the duty now would operate to give the foreigner the monopoly of the rice market.

Mr. DONALD MACRAE addressed the Commission as follows:

The cultivation of rice, which was almost entirely abandoned during and just after the war, has been slow in recovering in consequence of the very heavy cost of reclaiming the long-neglected fields and repairing the worn dikes and water trunks; and planters cannot compete successfully against the cheaper labor of India and China without reasonable protection, without which large areas of our most fertile lands would be abandoned and lie idle, being too low and wet for other crops, and large numbers, especially of our colored laborers, would be deprived of employment and homes. Even under the existing tariff our local crop is only about 50 per cent. of what it was before the war, and foreign rice is sold largely in our midst, and should its cultivation be abandoned by the South for lack of protection the prices of the foreign article would surely be advanced beyond the present cost of the superior quality produced by us, as was the case just after the war.

The 10 per cent. ad valorem duty at present imposed will cease after the 1st of January next, instead of which we consider it essential that it should be continued, if not increased. And a reasonable duty should also be imposed upon "ground and granulated rice," which is now imported largely and admitted free of duty to the serious injury of our home agricultural interests.

In our opinion, any reduction of the existing duty would be fatal to the rice production of the entire South, as it is subject to many risks from storms and freshets, and the cost of labor is much higher than on upland crops.

Only about half of our rice lands here are in cultivation. Not an acre of new lands for rice has been cleared since the war. The general estimate of the cost of clearing rice lands is \$100 per acre. These lands are heavily timbered, and it is very heavy work to clear them and drain them and ditch them. When they have been left standing for any length of time it costs from \$12 to \$20 an acre to reclaim them.

We think that our claim for protection against the cheap labor of China and India is as valid as the claim of California against Chinamen being introduced into this country.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Question. How far north of Wilmington is the limit of land for the profitable production of rice?—Answer. There is very little cultivated north of this along the river. Probably 10 or 15 miles above here is as far north as any lowland rice is cultivated.

Mr. D. L. RUSSELL. The cultivation of upland rice is coextensive with the cotton belt.

The WITNESS. I am inclined to differ with Mr. Russell as to upland rice. I think that the reign of the cultivation of upland rice will be brief, because (from all that the planters say) it is one of the most exhausting crops that can be planted, and it will not be very long before the lands will be exhausted and farmers will be compelled either to wait for their recuperation or to plant them with some other crops. I know that for a year or two years any good upland will produce good upland rice, but after that they must get fresh land; and before long they will find that they are "paying too dear for their whistle."

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Cannot the lands be kept in good heart by the application of mineral manures?—A. I do not think that the farmers have yet succeeded in that. Rice takes up elements from the soil that it is very difficult to supply with mineral manures. For lowland rice we have experimented very considerably with mineral manures, but we cannot say that anything is so good as the application of good phosphates with the sedimentary deposits from the uplands and the mountains. The effect of artificial fertilizers, or even of Peruvian guano, is scarcely perceptible, because it is so easily "leached out" by the flooding of the fields.

Q. You think that the reduction of the duty on rice would be disastrous to the rice planter?—A. That is our idea.

Q. Have you any recommendation to make in reference to the duty?—A. I do not know that we have. I think that the planters here generally would be satisfied to have the duty remain as it is. I do not think that they desire any increase of duty; but they want to know that there is going to be some steadiness about it. It would not pay them to go to the expense of reclaiming their lands if free trade in rice is to be reached; so far, it has never been demonstrated that there is any other use to which the rice lands can be put, and yet they are the most fertile lands that we have in our country.

Q. You think that the rice planters would be satisfied with the present duties?—A. I think so.

Q. And that if there was an assurance of permanency in these rates, the cultivation of rice would be extended?—A. Yes.

Q. And that the consumers would be benefited by the competition?—A. I think so.

Mr. D. L. RUSSELL. I do not think that the argument in favor of lowland rice is weakened by the fact that the upland rice culture is permanent. The greater the interests the greater the necessity for their protection. There are a larger number of persons engaged in the culture of upland rice in this State than of lowland rice. I have no doubt that there are ten times as many.

The WITNESS. In the cultivation of lowland rice we have to pay a dollar a day for labor, and sometimes, in the harvesting season, more than that. In the cultivation of upland rice labor can be obtained at from \$8 to \$10 a month; and if it is demonstrated that we can raise all the rice needed on the uplands at much less cost than it can be raised on the lowlands, then we are independent of China and Japan.

Mr. RUSSELL. But we cannot do that.

The WITNESS. And the success in the cultivation of upland rice is only temporary in my judgment. I may be wrong; I am only speaking of what I have heard from the upland rice planters.

Mr. RUSSELL. Still the duty on both kinds should be the same.

The WITNESS. It would be agreeable to us to have it the same, but the necessity of it is not apparent to me.

Mr. S. L. FREMONT said:

I concur with what has been said on the subject of rice. I commenced its cultivation three years ago. I do not think that the revival of the rice culture here would have been undertaken if it had not been for the duty. It had been recommenced directly after the war, but as a general thing it failed. The labor system then was not so good as it is now. That was not the reason, perhaps; but the thing was abandoned, and it was some time before it was realized that rice was bringing a sufficiently high price to justify its cultivation. A great many persons thought it a wild project. If any agricultural interest in the world is entitled to protection it is rice culture. The rice planter pays 33 per cent. more for labor than any other farmer does; and at the same time his crop is brought in competition with the rice produced with the cheapest labor in the world. For these two reasons, the American rice planter is entitled to protection, and because the home supply has not yet reached the home demand.

I learn from recent correspondence that the American seed-rice is being carried to China for the purpose of producing a better quality of rice, which will soon be in competition with our rice. That of the Sandwich Islands is so already.

For this reason the protection on rice is important if we are to maintain our position as rice planters. I speak now of the tide-water rice in the Carolinas, Georgia, and Louisiana. As to the upland rice, I have no information about it; but my impression has been, from what I have seen and heard, that the upland rice is not to be a permanent crop, for the reason which Mr. MacRae has stated, that it exhausts the land, and the farmers find it more profitable to cultivate something else. On lands that are habitually wet, rice may be cultivated with success; but I do not think it can be on uplands. I believe that the time will come when, by the introduction of machinery, rice can be cultivated much cheaper than at present; and if, in the future, Congress chooses to reduce the duty on rice, the American rice planters may be able to bear it; but at present it would be ruinous. And a benign government should not throw out of employment a quarter million of manumitted slaves who are only well fitted to cultivate rice lands. If the rice lands be abandoned that will be the result. They are specially adapted to that culture. That is a question of morals which should be considered by the government. The rice planters pay 75 cents to a dollar a day for labor, while the farmer on the high lands pays 50 cents. When you compare those wages with the 7 or 8 cents a day paid in Asia, you will see how hard it is for the American rice planter to compete with the Asiatic. The introduction of American seed-rice into China, the risks incurred from storms, the high price of labor here, and the cheap and abundant labor of Asia, all seem to be sufficient reasons to justify the protection of American rice.

Should we not have a home protection for our rice, so as to make us independent of foreign rice in case of war, when rice is almost an indispensable article of food for armies and of hospital supplies? That is one reason for protection. Another reason is, that if we increase our home product we will prevent a monopoly of the foreign market, while the foreign rice will prevent a monopoly of ours. In other words, monopoly on either side is prevented by the maintenance of the present duty. If we can only maintain the present supply we are doing a good deal. If the import duty be removed and our production fails, of course the foreign rice will come in and have a monopoly of the market. That is one reason why it is the interest of the American people at large to maintain their own rice-fields. Our weak point before Congress is that, as the rice culture is confined to four States, Georgia, Louisiana, and the Carolinas, we have but little influence in favor of a protective duty, except that general idea of protection, which we hope that all feel justified in giving us. We should prevent a monopoly and make ourselves independent of other nations by producing rice ourselves.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Question. Are you a planter?—Answer. Yes; I am planting rice.

Q. Outside of the matter of rice, what is the feeling among the people in regard to reducing the tariff materially, or to making great changes in the duties on imports?—A. It is here about as it is in other parts of the country. The commercial interests are, to a certain extent, in favor of protection; and the farming interests, I suppose, are generally opposed to protection. Very few people understand the subject sufficiently well to discuss it intelligently; but so far as I know I do not think there is any great desire for any material change in the tariff. There are some articles, perhaps, that require a reduction of duty. Iron seems to be one of them. But I do not think the people at large care much about it. I do not think that the subject interests the people very much.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. Are there any complaints about the tariff coming up from the farming community?—A. We do not hear anything about it from that source. The most that we hear about it is from Congress and from speakers on the stump. If you hear gentlemen discussing the question you will find that one is for free trade, another for protective duties, and another, perhaps, for a tariff for revenue with incidental protection. The latter, I think, is the popular side of the question (outside of special interests). We come here to advocate the maintenance of the duty on rice, and we cannot say that we want the duty taken off everything else but rice. Therefore we have to sustain the protectionist policy generally. That is the ground which I, at all events, take; and I believe it is the general ground. When the manufacturer of any article wants that article protected he is willing that the duty shall be taken off everything else, but he will not ask that that be done. We do not believe that we could stand alone. If the duty be taken off other agricultural products it would strike rice too, and we are only afraid that it may strike rice first.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. Are you an old army officer?—A. Yes; I served twelve or fifteen years in the army after leaving West Point.

Q. And what you state as to rice being necessary in army supplies is a well-known fact?—A. Yes; rice is indispensable to an army to keep the troops healthy. It contains more nutriment in proportion to weight

than almost any other article of food. No other grain is equal to it. It is a part of the regular army rations, and is frequently issued as an extra ration.

An attempt is being made in North Carolina to raise silk. Cocoons are now imported free of duty, and it is thought if a tax were laid upon them the industry of raising them here would be increased very considerably. Around Raleigh they are planting mulberry trees and raising silk worms. I have a letter here in which the writer says that the industry would be encouraged very materially by a tax on cocoons, and that after a time we would be able to make our own silk. There is a great deal of light land in North Carolina that is adapted to the growth of the mulberry tree, and the climate is suitable to the hatching of the eggs and the growth of the worms.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. Do you know what rate of duty is asked?—A. No, sir; I do not.

A statement was received from Mr. PEMBROKE JONES, of Wilmington, N. C., suggesting a duty of 20 per cent. ad valorem on rice flour, and saying:

About \$50,000 worth of rice flour is imported to this country under a duty of only 20 per cent. ad valorem, or one-fifth the duty now on clean rice. Rice flour is only clean rice pulverized, and it clearly seems to me that the duty should be the same as on the clean article. If this duty be imposed it will build up mills for the manufacture of flour, and thereby call for the employment of much capital and labor.

GEORGE Z. FRENCH.

WILMINGTON, N. C., *September 27, 1882.*

Mr. GEORGE Z. FRENCH, of Rocky Point, N. C., farmer, submitted the following statement in regard to peanuts:

I have been selected to represent the peanut growers of this section, and I respectfully submit the following facts:

The average annual production of peanuts in this section (those called "Wilmington" peanuts) is about 120,000 bushels. Up to 1861 the crop of this section, about the same in quantity as now, constituted seven-eighths of the entire crop of the United States; but under the fostering protection of the duty (one cent per pound), improved in 1865. This industry has increased so that now there are from 300,000 to 600,000 bushels raised annually in Tennessee, and from 700,000 to 1,000,000 bushels in Virginia. The price fluctuates, as large or small quantities of "African" peanuts are imported. For example, peanuts that sold in the Wilmington market in July last at \$1.70 per bushel, or 6 cents per pound, are at this date, owing to recent heavy importations, selling at \$1.40 per bushel, or 5 cents per pound. The peanut is raised principally by the smaller and poorer class of farmers, upon such soil as no other remunerative crop can be raised.

The discontinuance of the duty would undoubtedly put an end to their production in this section, and thereby impoverish many small farmers, whose lands would become entirely worthless.

It must be understood that the peanut is a luxury, being consumed altogether as a fruit, so that there can be no hardship to any class of people by the imposition of duties. We recommend that the duty on peanuts be increased to at least 2 cents per pound.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. Is it not a fact that the culture of peanuts has been increasing lately?—Answer. Not in this section, but very much in the country generally. Since the duty was imposed on peanuts, their production has increased from 600 to 800 per cent.

Q. And it is your opinion that if the rate were increased the production would be still further increased?—A. I think so. The average price last year was only about 40 per cent. of what it was the year before. That falling off in price may be charged to importation. There are very many acres of land in this vicinity that cannot produce cotton or corn, but will produce peanuts.

Q. What is the average production per acre?—A. Not over 25 bushels to the acre. I have known from 50 to 60 bushels to the acre. On 200 acres I have made about 25 bushels to the acre, which I consider a good average production.

I will now speak on the subject of chalk, a specimen of which, found in the State, I submit for inspection.

Chalk is now on the free list. We have in Eastern North Carolina probably over a million of acres in which there are deposits of chalk, or of something as near to English chalk as anything on this side of the Atlantic. Whiting is made from chalk. Chalk is imported at about the cost of the freight. It is sold in New York at 1½ cents a pound, much less than we could freight it there from here.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Question. How much chalk is imported?—Answer. I have no idea; but all that is used for whiting is imported. There is little hope that anything will be done about it; but I thought it best perhaps to bring the matter to your attention. This chalk analyzes the same as English chalk—at from 90 to 92 per cent. carbonate of lime. The only use that it can be put to, outside of fertilizers, is the manufacture of whiting—a very large interest in Philadelphia and New York.

H. C. McQUEEN.

WILMINGTON, N. C., *September 27, 1882.*

Messrs. H. C. McQUEEN and ROBERT E. CALDER, representing the Board of Trade, submitted the following statistics as to the trade and commerce of Wilmington:

Stocks afloat and ashore, April 1, 1882.

Stock.	Ashore.	Afloat.	Total.	April 1, 1881.	April 1, 1880.	April 1, 1879.	April 1, 1878.
Cotton . . . bales..	5,205	676	5,881	3,676	5,253	2,585	2,723
Spirits turpen- tine bbls..	546	1,195	1,741	4,192	13,405	8,697	7,320
Rosin do..	116,807	8,011	124,818	95,824	90,382	90,088	78,781
Tar do..	9,592	2,973	12,565	10,025	3,032	14,358	0,483
Crude do..	537	10	547	3,058	2,441	,870	794

	Cotton.	Spirits.	Rosin.	Tar.	Crude.
	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>		<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>
Received and manufactured:					
March, 1882	0,158	3,834	54,294	13,750	4,264
Last year	4,970	4,082	41,848	11,180	0,188
*Crop 1881 and 1882	131,060	85,007	454,917	08,653	87,486
Crop 1880 and 1881	113,650	57,107	444,532	50,460	92,101
Crop 1879 and 1880	75,668	103,671	568,188	45,623	132,375
Crop 1878 and 1879	105,841	109,374	581,739	78,116	154,985
Crop 1877 and 1878	117,417	100,707	538,250	01,674	142,300

* 3,008 from Charleston and Savannah.

Total exports for the month of March, 1882, 8,048 bales of cotton, 5,092 barrels of spirits, 52,866 barrels of rosin, 6,746 barrels of tar, 198 barrels of crude tar.

Two hundred and thirty-two foreign vessels, 79,099 tons, 311 American vessels, 127,870 tons, cleared during the year ended March 31, 1882.

Table of exports from March, 1881, to 1878, inclusive.

	Cotton.	Spirits.	Rosin.	Tar.	Crude.
	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>
Total exports, March, 1881:					
Domestic	3,382	4,358	1,724	5,250	201
Foreign	2,761	4,697	85,775	3,580
	0,143	0,035	87,400	8,830	291
*Total exports crop year 1881 and 1882:					
Domestic	62,420	29,752	45,045	43,350	2,221
Foreign	63,833	58,015	380,278	12,757	102
	126,202	88,367	425,023	50,113	2,323
Total exports crop year 1880 and 1881:					
Domestic	40,707	33,121	52,793	38,517	2,832
Foreign	60,810	63,199	392,317	11,850
	110,577	96,320	445,110	50,367	2,832

Table of exports from March, 1881, to 1878, inclusive—Continued.

	Cotton.	Spirits.	Rosin.	Tar.	Crudo.
	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>
Total exports crop year 1879 and 1880:					
Domestic.....	36,258	26,302	30,814	44,140	3,540
Foreign.....	34,214	72,599	531,683	11,900
	70,472	98,901	571,494	56,040	3,540
Total exports crop year 1878 and 1879:					
Domestic.....	38,850	12,860	70,405	35,180	2,797
Foreign.....	64,431	95,397	490,337	35,055	274
	103,287	108,257	560,832	70,241	3,071
Total exports crop year 1877 and 1878:					
Domestic.....	60,207	19,573	77,486	31,733	4,772
Foreign.....	54,823	87,075	435,821	30,802	1,238
	115,030	107,248	513,307	62,535	6,010

* Cotton from September 1; spirits, &c., April 1.

JOHN P. BRANCH.

RICHMOND, VA., *September 28, 1882.*

Mr. JOHN P. BRANCH, of Richmond, banker, addressed the Commission as follows:

Mr. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN: I have no personal interest in the tariff. I have no ax to grind. And so, what I have to say will be very short and general. I have my own peculiar views as to the tariff question. I am in favor of a tariff for revenue. While our present revenue is far more than ample to meet all the requirements of the government, perhaps it would not be if the internal-revenue tax were abolished, which I am entirely in favor of. I think it is wicked in its inception; and the sooner we get rid of it the better. It was first started in order to tax the cotton of the South—the raw material. Except in the case of the taxing of raw and manufactured tobacco in Italy and France, I know of no instance where the raw material of a country is taxed by its own government.

I am satisfied that the tariff needs revision in many particulars. Take, for instance, the manufacture of locomotives. The demand for them is so great that it cannot be supplied. Orders have to be taken a year ahead. Their manufacturers in this country make immense profits. They have orders for them from other countries, because no other country makes them so good. So also as to the article of steel rails. Very large profits are made on them. At one time steel rails sold as high as \$125 a ton; and now they sell as low as \$47.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. When steel rails were being sold at \$125, what was the duty?—Answer. \$28.

Q. What is it now?—A. I think the duty is the same now—\$28.

Commissioner OLIVER. American rails never sold so high as \$125. They were English rails. As soon as we commenced making them here the price went down rapidly.

The WITNESS. Precisely. That is what I was going to say. At that time the impression was that steel rails could not be made in this country. I refer to the year 1871-'72. Of course the manufacture of steel rails in this country has reduced the price. It is said that steel rails can be made as cheaply as iron rails, and I see no reason why a duty on steel rails should be any higher than on iron rails.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. I see that the Baldwin Locomotive Works are sending locomotives to Australia. Why do not the Australians get the English locomotives?—A. I believe it is because the best locomotives are made in the United States.

Q. Then the duty does not have much influence?—A. We would like to have the opportunity of allowing people to buy locomotives wherever they choose. If they want to bring English locomotives here, let them do so.

Q. If they bring inferior locomotives here and undersell the American manufacturers of good materials and break down that manufacture, where would the benefit be?—A. I do not think that the American man-

ufacture of locomotives would be broken down. Everybody knows that locomotives can be manufactured at much less prices than the present rates.

Q. You know that more railroads have been built here this year than ever before?—A. Yes; and we would have built more if steel rails and locomotives had been cheaper. Railroads are built first, and population goes there afterward, as in the case of the Northern Pacific Railroad. But I will not quarrel with the tariff, for I think that, with very few exceptions, it is about as nearly right as it can be got. I should like to see our sumac business protected, although I cannot say that I am a protectionist. But what I want this Commission to do is to recommend the abolition of the internal-revenue system, and then the tariff can be arranged as the Commission thinks best. I think it wrong that we should be paying off our debt at the rate of \$150,000,000 a year. In the last two years we imported \$200,000,000 of specie. We had been exporting specie for certainly seventy-five years. But for the two and a half years preceding last February we had imported over \$200,000,000 of specie. The people of Europe cannot send us gold all the time. We are sending them three-fourths of our cotton crop every year, half of our petroleum, and half of our grain. What is to become of our producers if the people of Europe cease to take our cotton, petroleum, and grain? They would not be able to buy our own home-manufactured goods. The first thing you know, the people of Europe will be putting a tax on our cotton.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Do you think that we ought to buy their goods?—A. I do.

Q. Sumac, for instance?—A. I am not a protectionist; but, as a local thing, I would like to see these sumac gentlemen get all the protection that they want.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. What duty would you recommend to be imposed on locomotives?—A. I would like to see the present duty reduced one-half. I do not think that our duties should be so high as to keep out English manufactured goods.

Q. Do you think that English locomotives would come in here at any price?—A. I think that some would.

WILLIAM N. JONES.

RICHMOND, VA., *September 28, 1882.*

MR. WILLIAM N. JONES, of Petersburg, Va., secretary of the Sumac Manufacturing Association of Virginia, made an argument in favor of an increase of the duty on sumac from 10 per cent. ad valorem to \$20 per ton of all grades. He said:

The duty on sumac was imposed during the late war, when Sicily sumac was worth \$200 per ton; now it is only worth \$65 to \$70 per ton. The importation of large quantities is now destroying the manufacture of domestic sumac, and will throw out of employment in the gathering season at least 100,000 people for three months, consisting of women, children, old men, and laborevs unemployed otherwise. A large number of men are employed steadily in manufacturing sumac. The low price of foreign sumac has so reduced the price of manufactured that one-half of the firms engaged in manufacturing have either failed or gone out of the business during the past twelve months. Unless some protection is given the business will be killed out. The business at its best has produced a revenue to this country of \$500,000, and would produce, if protected, \$1,500,000.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. What was the price of sumac when the duty of 10 per cent. was put on?—Answer. Up to the war there was no domestic sumac manufactured. The price of the foreign article was \$140 or \$150 per ton.

Q. Then the duty of 10 per cent. would be \$15 a ton?—A. Yes.

Q. What is the price of sumac now?—A. \$65 per ton for the best foreign sumac. It has been invoiced as low as \$25.

Q. Then the existing duty of 10 per cent. is only \$2.50 a ton?—A. Yes.

Q. And you ask for eight times as much?—A. We want a specific duty of \$20 a ton.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Please give us an idea of the number of persons employed in the collection of sumac.—A. During the season there are employed, perhaps, in collecting and manufacturing sumac some 250,000 or 300,000 persons in this State for two or three months.

Q. And mainly those who have little or no other means of support?—A. Yes. The work comes at a time when the crops are laid by. The gathering of the leaves is a very simple operation, and is done by women and children and old men. They gather the sumac and take it to the country store, and from there it is shipped to market. The supply has been greater than the demand; and consequently the price was reduced, until half the sumac mills have gone out of the business.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Please describe the process of manufacturing.—A. The sumac comes to us sometimes in car-load lots. We take the leaves, pack them in warehouses, turn them frequently, and get them in order for grinding. Then we store them back in warehouses for three months or more. Then the leaves are taken to the mills and ground. Then the flour is passed through a sieve, and all dirt and foreign matter taken out. Then

it is passed over a fan, and then it goes under what we call "chasers"—very heavy rollers. Then it is turned off into a fine bolt, and when it is bolted it is as fine as flour. There is a loss of about 33 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. in cleansing sumac of its stems and roots, and a loss of 10 per cent. or more in the drying of the leaves; so that you perceive that when we sell sumac in Boston at \$42.50 per ton of 2,240 pounds, and at four months' credit, we have very little profit.

Q. How many sumac factories are there in this State?—A. There have been as many as twenty-five, but there are now only thirteen or fourteen. The rest have gone out of business; and the consequence is that not more than half of the stock will be gathered this year.

Q. You ask that the duty be increased to \$20 a ton?—A. Yes.

Q. If the present duty were removed, you think that the industry would be destroyed?—A. Yes.

Q. And the people who depend very largely on the gathering of sumac would be sufferers?—A. Yes.

Q. Do you believe that the sumac can be cultivated, and can be improved by cultivation?—A. There is no question about that.

Q. It now grows wild?—A. Yes.

Q. And your proposition is to plant it in improved varieties?—A. Yes.

Q. And to have it as a regular agricultural crop?—A. Yes. It now brings to the State \$1,300,000 a year; and there is no reason in the world why North Carolina and other contiguous States should not cultivate it. There is something in our soil and climate which gives us the advantage over other places.

Q. Have experiments been made in the cultivation of sumac?—A. In a small way. A gentleman living in Petersburg tried it, and found the quality very greatly improved. But he could not pay the cost of labor here and make money out of it, and so of course he abandoned it.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. How long has this industry been pursued here?—A. It commenced immediately after the war.

Q. The duty then was 10 per cent.?—A. Yes.

Q. And the industry grew up under that duty?—A. Yes. At that time the price of sumac was \$165 a ton—about three times its present price. We have reduced the price by making the article here.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. At the time the duty was imposed it amounted to \$15 a ton?—A. Yes.

Q. And now you propose to make it \$20?—A. Yes.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. You say that you have reduced the price of sumac?—A. We have reduced the price of foreign sumac by the domestic article competing with it.

Q. Is it not a fact that the farmers reduced the price on you?—A. Yes; that is the fact.

Mr. JONES also presented the following paper:

We most respectfully beg to present a few reasons for asking an increased tariff on foreign sumac and East India tanned goat and sheep skins, which we hope may commend themselves favorably to you.

The infant industry of sumac growing and manufacturing in this country has thus far struggled along, with the progress that we shall

hereinafter state, without any protection from the government. While the governmental policy has been to protect in some degree infant industries, ours has been left to take care of itself. There was a tariff of 10 per cent. ad valorem (for revenue) imposed on Sicily sumac during the late war, when there was no domestic sumac manufactured, and this tariff has remained without alteration since. In the face of all this, we have demonstrated to the consumers of sumac—especially the morocco tanners—that we can produce an article equally as good as the best Sicily; many of the morocco tanners who tan black stock say they would prefer to use the domestic were the cost the same as that of the higher-priced Sicilian. Virginia sumac, gaining so much favor for its excellence, induced many to go into its manufacture, developing the industry all over the State; and whereas it commenced with a consumption of 100 tons per annum in 1865 sixteen years later (in 1881) it had grown to a consumption of 10,000 tons per annum. The price of foreign sumac has been steadily reduced as the domestic has come in favor. And just here we will say that frequently foreign sumac is brought to this country as ballast for vessels bringing fruits, &c., at as low a rate of freight as we can ship from Virginia to the markets; the *cheap labor* of Sicily enabling manufacturers there to bestow so much more labor in the cultivation and handling of stock than we can by reason of our higher priced labor, which is the sole reason, in our judgment, of the superiority of their goods over ours for light-colored stock. We pay our labor here in the sumac industry over 1,000 per cent. more than do the Sicilians, and, as we will hereinafter show the largest portion of the cost of the preparation of the article in this country is in the labor, you can readily see at what a disadvantage we are placed; this, with the competition among ourselves, has reduced the price of domestic, until now it only sells for about one-half of what it did seven or eight years ago. In fact, the business is just now threatened with total annihilation. The low prices have, in many instances, netted the manufacturers such heavy losses as to break them up entirely, while others have suffered serious embarrassment; so much so, that the manufacturers who had the temerity to continue in the business this year were forced, in order to protect themselves, to buy sumac leaves at a reduction that would probably leave some margin of profit; and, as a consequence, the price being reduced, the laborers who gather it from the wild bushes could not make it remunerative, so that many of them failed to gather as usual, but found more profitable work. This, with the utter indifference on the part of many manufacturers to further engage in a business which has proven so unprofitable of late, not more than one-half the mills being now in operation that were one year ago, has destroyed in one season one-half of this infant industry.

This season, which is just now closing, there will not be one-half of the quantity of sumac leaves gathered as were for each of the past several seasons; and whereas the 10,000 tons of last year sold for about \$450,000, and saved this amount to our country, the production this year at the same price of last year will not bring over \$200,000, thus the country loses in one single season \$225,000 on this one article; and when we remember that five-sixths of this amount is paid to labor for gathering the leaves and manufacturing the same, all being confined to Virginia, the loss to labor in this limited section, not to say anything of the loss to the manufacturers, is very considerable; and this falls almost entirely upon a poor class of negro laborers, who at this season of the year when leaves are gathered have no other occupation. There is annually imported into this country about 7,000 tons Sicily sumac, at a cost to the

country of \$500,000, on which the government receives a supposed revenue of 10 percent. ad valorem; but in consequence of incorrect invoices rendered, it gives comparatively no revenue to the government, and has stifled the industry of sumac growing and manufacturing in our own country. If a specific duty of not less than \$20 per ton is placed upon the imported article, we think the consumption of domestic sumac will run up to at least 13,000 tons per annum; and we are sure in a short time we will be enabled to supply the whole demand of our country, even to those who are now most wedded to Sicily sumac, for with demand and increase of value will come cultivation of the domestic, and, as a consequence, more care in gathering and curing; and every advantage which is now claimed for Sicily sumac will thus be overcome (on this point see Report No. 26, Department Agriculture, page 17), saving to this country \$600,000 to \$700,000 per annum.

We wish, also, to especially second the movement inaugurated by the National Morocco Manufacturers' Exchange, asking an increased duty on East India tanned goat and sheep skins. This question has been ably argued by the morocco manufacturers before your honorable body, and we only wish to add to what they have so well said, that if a protective tariff should be placed on said tanned skins, that it would give a consumption of 3,000 tons more annually to Virginia sumac, saving to the country the value of this article, say, \$150,000 per annum, besides the immense saving to labor in this country in tanning the same skins here.

Mr. Chairman and gentlemen of the Tariff Commission, we most respectfully ask that you make a favorable report on this our petition.

(Signed.)

WM. T. KING, *Richmond, Va.*

J. G. HARCAMP, *Fredericksburg, Va.*

GERMAN SMITH, *Winchester, Va.*

A. D. SHOTWELL & Co., *Manchester, Va.*

WARNER MOORE, *Richmond, Va.*

MARTIN BROS. & BAKER, *Manchester, Va.*

W. N. JONES & Co., *Petersburg, Va.*

J. M. WILLIAMS, *Petersburg, Va.*

LYNCHBURG MFG 'Co., *Lynchburg, Va.*

WILLIAM G. CRENSHAW.

RICHMOND, VA., *September 28, 1882.*

Mr. WILLIAM G. CRENSHAW, president of the Atlantic and Virginia Fertilizing Company, and vice-president of the Sulphur Mines Company of Virginia, said:

I do not think that Congress ought to, or would, entertain any idea of putting a duty on fertilizers, although last year there were importations of fertilizers here to the extent of hundreds of thousands of tons, and some of my friends in the trade suggested that we ought to go before Congress and ask for the imposition of a duty upon them. My own opinion is that no duty is needed on them while we make fertilizers cheaper in this country. I say that, first, in my capacity of manufacturer of fertilizers.

But the point which I wished to bring to the attention of the Commission was in reference to a communication made to the Commission some time ago by Mr. Joseph Campbell, proposing to admit Spanish pyrites free of duty. It pays a duty now, but nothing like the duty which the law requires. The Treasury Department, however, has the matter in charge, and will have it looked into. I submit a paper which I wrote to the editor of the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter a short time ago, in reply to Mr. Campbell's communication. It is as follows:

SULPHUR PYRITES.

Editor Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter:

In your valued journal of the 9th of August you publish the report of an argument made by Mr. Joseph Campbell before the Tariff Commission on the subject of placing pyrites, or, as he calls it, sulphur ore, on the free list, because, as he said, it would only be used in making sulphuric acid for manufacturing fertilizers, and because the pyrites found in this country were too impure to be used, and that consequently the imported pyrites would enter into competition only with imported Sicilian brimstone.

We quite admit the correctness of Mr. Campbell's statements as to the amount of fertilizers used in this country and the great difference in the cost of sulphuric acid when made from pyrites instead of brimstone; but we must object very decidedly to his other statements, and trust that before acting on Mr. Campbell's recommendations the Tariff Commission will be placed in possession of the true facts. In order to correct his misstatements we promptly wrote to the chairman of the Commission, then at Boston, on the day we first saw Mr. Campbell's statements, asking the privilege of going before them; but, owing to their having gone West, we have as yet had no reply, and therefore now beg to call your attention to this matter.

As Mr. Campbell says the English manufacturer of sulphuric acid buys his pyrites at \$6 per ton, but he omits to state that this price is only for the sulphur contained in them, the residue being returned to the seller, who then extracts from it the copper and iron which constitute the principal value of the pyrites.

As will be seen from the returns of the Board of Trade of Great Britain, the invoice cost of pyrites imported into England has ranged, in a series of years, from \$11½ to \$12½ per ton. When freight and other charges are added to this, it will be apparent that the importer could not deliver in England pyrites at \$6 per ton.

The Spanish pyrites contain from 3½ to 4½ per cent. copper and about 40 per cent. iron, and these metals constitute its principal value.

If Mr. Campbell's views are adopted the government would lose about \$3 per ton, being the duty now due on pyrites; that is to say, duty on 78 pounds (3½ per cent. in a ton) of copper at 3 cents per pound, \$2.34, and the 20 per cent. duty on the iron in it.

We estimate 3½ per cent. as being an average of the copper in imported pyrites. As a rule, Spanish pyrites have more, say 3½ to 4½ per cent., but some ores are imported from Canada which contain only about 3½ per cent.

Again, his statement that American pyrites are too impure to be used in making sulphuric acid is not in accordance with the facts. The Spanish pyrites are impure and

cannot be used in making sulphuric acid that must be pure for chemical purposes; but we are now mining in Virginia perfectly pure pyrites that are absolutely free of copper and arsenic, as shown on analysis by twenty different chemists, including Dr. A. Voleker, of London; and we understand that the Milan mines of New Hampshire are also pure. So, if pyrites are allowed in free of duty, instead of their entering into competition only with imported Sicilian brimstone, they would come into direct competition with the pyrites of this country, which, as I have stated, are absolutely pure for chemical purposes, besides allowing by such free importation the bringing in of a large quantity of copper and iron ore free of duty. This, we are certain, Congress has no idea of allowing.

WM. G. CRENSHAW.

I have also published a circular which I have addressed to all the manufacturers of sulphuric acid in this country. (The paper is appended to this statement.)

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. What do you recommend?—Answer. That everything stand as it is. It would be very hard, just as we have opened this bed of pyrites, to have Spanish ore admitted free of duty. We made the purchase of our property on the basis of existing facts. They put Spanish pyrites among the unenumerated articles, on which 20 per cent. ad valorem is paid. This brings the duty down to 60 cents per ton. They value it here at \$3 per ton, while in England it is worth \$12 a ton. Of course, these are not questions for the Commission to take up, but for the Secretary of the Treasury, and we have called his attention to them. We only ask that there shall be no change made in the existing rates of duty. We can make sulphuric acid as cheap here by burning the pyrites as it can be made in England.

The PRESIDENT. But if there be any doubt as to the action of the Secretary of the Treasury, you should be more specific in your statement.

The WITNESS. I do not think there is any doubt of it. The coppermen will take care of that.

Commissioner OLIVER. Nearly every gentleman who has been before the Commission has agreed in recommending specific duties instead of ad valorem. The present duty is 20 per cent. ad valorem. If a specific duty be recommended it would be so much per ton of material. You should state what that specific duty ought to be on the ore—on the material without analysis.

The WITNESS. The ore that comes from Spain contains copper and iron. But the point is, that it is not introduced as copper ore but as Spanish pyrites, and is invoiced at \$3 a ton, although it is worth \$12 in London. We only wish that the present law shall be complied with, and that the duty shall remain as it is on pyrites. The law is very explicit that all ore shall pay 3 cents a pound on the copper that it will analyze. If a ton of pyrites analyzes 3 per cent. of copper that would be 67 pounds, and 3 cents a pound on that would make the duty on the ton of Spanish pyrites about \$2. I think it would be a great outrage to take the duty off pyrites.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. You say that you can sustain yourselves in the production of fertilizers at the present duty, and that the prices will not be increased to the consumer.—A. We say that the 20 per cent. ad valorem should be calculated, not at \$3 a ton, but at \$11 or \$12 a ton, as it is in England. That is a matter for the department. Our position is that the Spanish pyrites should not be among the unenumerated articles, because it is copper ore.

Commissioner OLIVER. We want you to suggest a specific duty on Spanish pyrites—so much per ton—and then this trouble will be avoided.

The WITNESS. Then I would recommend a tax of \$3 a ton on pyrites, which about covers the present duty on the analysis of copper and iron in it.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Are you familiar with the pyrites operations of Georgia, near Atlanta?—A. I know that they are carrying on a manufactory there on a small scale.

Q. And they are saving all the copper and all the iron?—A. They were preparing to do so when I was there in July. Our ore has no copper in it—nothing but iron pyrites. The Georgia pyrites have copper in them.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. It was stated before the Commission that there was no suitable pyrites in this country.—A. That is the statement made by Mr. Campbell, to which I was replying. In Virginia there is an unlimited quantity of pyrites. It is only a question of cheap mining and of cheap transportation to market. We naturally think that our pyrites is the best and purest and most accessible. It would be very unkind in Congress if, just as we are beginning to develop this industry, which is likely to lead to very great results in the United States, it were to remove or reduce the duty. Sal soda and the other chemicals needed can be made cheaper in the Kanawha Valley than in any part of Great Britain.

Commissioner BOTELER. Then it is an infant industry, and is of interest to the farmers of the country?

Mr. CRENSHAW. Yes.

The following is the circular referred to:

[Agency of the Sulphur Mines Company of Virginia, 48 Wall street. Address, P. O. Box 108.]

NEW YORK, September 1, 1882.

To the manufacturers of sulphuric acid in the United States:

GENTLEMEN: Professor Lunge, in his admirable work on sulphuric acid, issued a few years since, called attention to the fact that while in Europe all sulphuric acid was made from pyrites, except a few tons which needed to be pure for chemical purposes, yet in the United States brimstone still continued to be exclusively used; but he added, "It is only a question of time when the United States must change and use pyrites instead."

When Lunge wrote as above he was of course aware that large beds of pyrites existed in this country, but he evidently did not know that any of it was entirely free from arsenic, and therefore suitable for manufacturing sulphuric acid absolutely pure for chemical purposes.

This fact has only been proven in the last few months.

The rapid increase in the production of sulphuric acid in the United States, as shown in the importation of 105,000 tons brimstone in 1881 against 18,000 in 1868, had not equaled the demand, and hence prices continued very high up to a few months ago—high enough to leave the profits of the business sufficiently large to justify manufacturers in ignoring the cost of sulphur.

This seems now to have changed, the price of sulphuric acid having become so low that it is doubtful whether there is now any inducement to build a chamber to manufacture sulphuric acid made from brimstone, if it has to be sold at present prices.

In Great Britain the importations of pyrites, mostly from Spain, have increased from 230,000 tons in 1868 to 605,000 tons in 1881, say, nearly three-fold in thirteen years, while the importation of brimstone decreased from 63,000 tons in 1868 to 41,000 tons in 1881, notwithstanding the largely-increased demand for brimstone for making powder and for other purposes.

The low cost of sulphuric acid in Great Britain made from the pyrites has enabled her to furnish this country almost exclusively with soda-ash and other chemicals; but it is only within the last twelve months that she has seen it to her interest to carry our phosphates from South Carolina, dissolve them in sulphuric acid, and return them to us as fertilizers cheaper than we can make them here. This has been done in the last year to the extent of over 100,000 tons.

The manufacturers of sulphuric acid in this country can no longer ignore the cost of sulphur, and Lunge's prophecy that "pyrites must be extensively used in the United States" will soon be realized, provided pyrites can be furnished to the chemical works in this country equal to, if not better, in quality and uniformity, than any that are used in Great Britain, and at about the same cost.

Can this be done?

We answer unhesitatingly, Yes!

From our mines in Virginia we are now prepared to furnish pyrites, and contract for its delivery for a term of years, containing from 45 to 50 per cent. of sulphur, chemically pure, as evidenced by the several analyses shown below, including that by Dr. A. Volcker, of London, than whom no chemist stands higher; the burning quality of which has been tested at the leading chemical works near Glasgow, and also at the large chemical works of Mr. Peter Spence, of Manchester, England, a copy of whose reports we hand below.

The purity of the pyrites is referred to more than once in the annexed letters, and has been proven by every analysis we have had made.

The freedom with which it burns, and the entire absence of fused pieces and clinkers, is also referred to in the annexed letters, and has been proven in our burning in this country.

The cinder, after being burned, analyzed 87 per cent. of sesquioxide of iron, and can be ground into an iron paint of the very best quality. It contains about 65 per cent. of actual iron metal, and will doubtless find a market in the manufacture of pig iron.

Each manufacturer is entirely competent to make his own calculations of the comparative cost of burning pyrites and brimstone. For our own satisfaction and for your criticism we have made an estimate, based on our knowledge of the subject, which we hand you below. You will see that we provide in our estimate for the fact that chambers of a given capacity will condense more fumes from brimstone than from pyrites, and will therefore make more acid, but yet the profit on the smaller quantity from pyrites is so much greater than from brimstone that this difference is not worth consideration.

It is also said that the lead of a chamber will have to be renewed two or three years sooner when burning pyrites than brimstone, but the difference in profits is so much greater that, even if we have to put new lead on the chambers every year, it ceases to be a matter of any importance.

We think the facts herein set forth will convince you that this subject is worth examination; and as we believe that we have the largest quantity of pure and uniform pyrites in this country, and that we can put it into the market at the least possible cost, we shall be glad to confer further with you on the subject.

We beg leave also to advise you that we have secured the control of the patent in this country of Mr. Peter Spence's automatic furnace, in which our pyrites was burned at Manchester last year, and by which there is actually less labor incurred in burning our pyrites than in burning brimstone. We are prepared to arrange for the building of this furnace when it is wanted.

WILLIAM G. CRENSHAW,
Vice-President of the Sulphur Mines Company of Virginia.

REPORTS OF ANALYSES.

[By Dr. A. Volcker, of London, June 30, 1881.]

Sulphur	48.02
Iron	42.01
Ferrie oxide	1.93
Sulphuric acid44
Silica	7.60
Copper	none.
Arsenic	none.
	<hr/>
	100.00

[By Dr. W. H. Taylor, State chemist of Virginia.]

Sulphur	46.40
No arsenic.	

[By C. Hope, of Charles Tennant & Co.'s St. Rollox Chemical Works, Glasgow, June 3, 1881.

Sulphur.....	50 per cent. dry, say 93.8 per cent. bisulphide of iron.	
Copper.....	none.	6.2 per cent. silicious matter,
Arsenic	none.	100

This pyrites can be burnt instead of sulphur for giving vitriol free from arsenic.

Report on pyrites burnt at Spence's works.

Began on one side of a double furnace, charging through the automatic hopper 10½ pounds every five minutes, at 12 m., July 12, 1881. Burnt 4,500 pounds dust pyrites received from Tennant & Co., Glasgow, till 10 p. m., July 13, say 34 hours.

When charged, Spence's analysis showed 4 per cent. moisture, 48.57 sulphur.

Analysis of cinders from furnace showed—

	Sulphur.
At 9 a. m., July 13, or say 21 hours burning	3.22
At 1 p. m., July 13, or say 25 hours burning	1.08
At 2 p. m., July 13, or say 26 hours burning	1.22
At 6 p. m., July 13, or say 30 hours burning	1.22

Report from an eminent chemist and manager of one of the largest alkali works in Great Britain, dated October 31, 1881, in regard to burning our pyrites.

Charged it into one of the beds of No. 6 furnace. Wrought it entirely by itself. Furnace was in good working order at the time of trial, and was working ordinary Tharsis ore dust.

The new ore wrought very free and open, much freer than Tharsis, and gave absolutely no fused pieces. Amount of heat given off was good—a bright-red heat all over the first four beds. The burnt ore was cold or burnt out before it reached the last bed. Twenty-five per cent. more work could be done in the furnace as compared with Tharsis ore; that is to say, could be burnt out in a given time.

"On the whole it is the best ore that I have seen for burning in the shape of dust, as there is no trouble in working it or in keeping the furnaces clean and in order."

He further says:

"As to the working of the ore, in this there is no difficulty whatever. It works much better than Tharsis pyrites; it contains no arsenic, and is therefore quite suitable for making pure acid for sale, and would replace for this purpose brimstone or sicilian sulphur. The lot we burnt averaged 3 per cent. of sulphur unburnt in the refuse, or showing that 95.3 per cent. of the original sulphur had been utilized. Without difficulty this can be improved to the extent of perhaps 2 per cent. more.

"Our furnace can do 25 per cent. more work with this ore than with the Tharsis ore, and I should be glad indeed if we could obtain materials of this class for our purposes here."

He writes again on 11th January, 1882, saying: "This ore is splendid stuff for making acid, being so pure."

Parties burnt our ore in Great Britain, and allowed us 23s. 3¼d. per ton as its value there.

ESTIMATED.—Comparative cost of manufacturing sulphuric acid from brimstone and from pyrites, based on one year's working of a set chambers with 110,000 cubic feet condensing capacity.

FROM BRIMSTONE.		FROM PYRITES.	
Cost of plant	\$30,000	Cost of plant	\$32,000
1,100 tons 2nds, \$31.50	34,650	2,100 tons at \$6*	12,600
88 tons nitrate, \$55	4,840	80 tons nitrate, \$55	4,400
Labor	1,200	Labor	1,200
Coal	1,200	Coal	1,600
	41,890		19,800
Interest, repairs, wear and tear, and superintendence, 20 per cent	6,000	Interest, repairs, wear and tear, and superintendence, 20 per cent	6,400
	47,890		26,200

* Of course the price of pyrites delivered at the chemical works must depend upon the location and distance from the mines.

FROM BRIMSTONE.		FROM PYRITES.	
Yield, 4,950 tons chamber acid, if sold at \$11 per ton	\$54,450	Yield, 4,050 tons chamber acid, if sold at \$11 per ton	\$44,550
Profit (say 13.69 per cent. on annual expenditure)	6,560	Profit (say 70 per cent. on expenditure)	18,350
If sold at \$10 per ton	49,500	If sold at \$10	40,500
Profit (or 3½ per cent. on expenditure)	1,610	Profit (or 54 per cent. on expenditure)	14,300
If sold at \$9 per ton	44,550	If sold at \$9 per ton	36,450
Loss	3,340	Profit (or 39 per cent. on expenditure)	10,250
Cost of chamber acid, \$9.71 per ton of 2,000 pounds.		Cost of chamber acid, \$6.47 per ton of 2,000 pounds.	

R. E. BLANKENSHIP.

RICHMOND, VA., *September 28, 1882.*

Mr. R. E. BLANKENSHIP, president of the Chamber of Commerce, an iron manufacturer, of the Old Dominion Iron and Nail Works, addressed the Commission.

He said that Virginia was largely engaged in the manufacture of iron, and that that interest was rapidly increasing there. He did not propose to express any opinion as to the tariff on iron and iron products further than to say that the matter had been fully discussed at the recent Iron and Steel Makers' Convention at Cresson, Pa., and that the results fully met the wishes and needs of the iron producers of Virginia. The iron interest of Virginia has been built up entirely under the present tariff, and therefore those engaged in it believed that any reduction of the present duties on iron would be very much against their interest and to their loss. The action of the Cresson convention was the action of the iron-masters of Virginia. They were all interested in the production of ores; in fact, iron ore might be said to be an agricultural product in Virginia, for every farmer in the James River Valley firmly believed that he had an iron mine on his land. They wanted a specific duty on iron ore because an ad valorem rate of 20 per cent. meant on the iron ore dug in Africa 20 cents a ton. There were now in the State of Virginia two very large furnaces, and another was being built that would rival the largest. It would not be in blast until next January or February. There was one just beyond it, that had been making 130 tons a day, and would soon be making 150. There were also several small furnaces in the State, and all of them were doing well under the present state of things. They therefore wanted to be let alone, although they did not object to having the duty on iron ore slightly raised.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. I understand that this ore belt is known as the James River ore belt. Are those ores well adapted to the Bessemer process of making steel?—Answer. It has been stated over and over again that such ores do exist there; but I cannot say of my own knowledge whether they do or not.

Q. They are not developed yet?—A. No, sir.

Q. Do you know anything of their probable quantity? Do they seem to be well-defined veins, or mere pockets, or what?—A. It is claimed by the Iron and Steel Association of Virginia (the Victoria Company), which is now building a large furnace near Goshen, that, in the bank, that it owns now, it has ore enough to supply this large furnace and make 175 or 200 tons a day; and that, as soon as it puts this furnace in blast, it will break ground for a second furnace, and that all the ore demanded can be obtained.

Q. Are they hematites?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You say that the introduction of iron ore free of duty would be very disastrous to Virginia?—A. It would, indeed.

Q. It has been very strongly urged on the Commission to recommend that iron ore be put on the free list.—A. I read with a good deal of curiosity Mr. Abram S. Hewitt's statement before the Commission at Saint Paul, and I turned the paper upside down and crosswise, and I have not been able to understand it yet. I cannot make anything out of it.

Q. Is there not an awakening feeling in Virginia to develop her resources?—A. We are in Virginia essentially a working people. There is no people on the face of the earth that works harder than the people in this State. In 1865 this whole city was in ruins. Some 1,540 houses in the principal business portion were destroyed. We did not collect a dollar of insurance. Our currency was absolutely worthless, and all our property (including that in slaves) destroyed. We started with nothing but our hands and our ability to work. You see to-day the city which we have built up and what has been done in the State. In spite of some of the worst legislation ever known in the history of the world, with reference to the State debt, our people have gradually built themselves up. They are comparatively out of debt. I expect that the State is richer to-day than it ever was before. That is my own opinion as a merchant and a manufacturer.

Q. Your idea is, that with the material resources which Virginia possesses, and now that her young men have learned the important fact that not to work is not to be respected, and that they have taken off their coats for the development of her resources, the future of Virginia is, perhaps, brighter than it could have been, or had been, under the old system?—A. I think so. In all my acquaintance in this city I do not know the young man who does not work, with those occasional exceptions that are found in all communities. The outlook for the State is very bright, barring bad legislation.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. What is the feeling of the people of Virginia with regard to the reduction of the present tariff?—A. So far as my information goes, I should say that the mass of the people of this section of the State are protectionists. They may not be protectionists in the same broad sense that I am one. They believe in what is sometimes called a tariff for revenue, with incidental protection. That seems to be the favorite form of expression. In Richmond the people are overwhelmingly protectionists. An evidence of that fact is, that in the last Congressional election there were three candidates in the field—regular Republican, Readjuster, and Democrat—and they all three were striving hard to show that each was the best protectionist. Nobody could be elected in this district unless he was a protectionist. Of course, among the gentlemen who meet in this room there is a diversity of opinion. I am stating now my own individual opinion, not speaking for the Chamber of Commerce. We have merchants and importers in this body, and I think that free-trade sentiments are always to be found among the importers.

The PRESIDENT. And among college professors.

Mr. BLANKENSHIP. College professors and doctrinnaires. Having been born and raised in the midst of the iron business it is not, of course, strange to hear me express ultra views on the tariff question. Down here, you understand, we are all Democrats.

The PRESIDENT. Gentlemen, we do not desire views on one side only. We wish it distinctly understood that the fullest and freest expression of opinion is invited.

Mr. BLANKENSHIP also spoke in favor of the maintenance of the duty on peanuts. He said :

It is a matter of very serious importance to the people of the counties below Petersburg that the duty on peanuts be retained at about 1 cent per pound, or be increased. Those people raise the finest peanuts that are grown in this country. They are not only using them as an article of food, but are manufacturing out of them a fine quality of salad oil. In five counties of this State the people received last year, for that product alone, over a million dollars. It is one of the staple crops of Virginia.

The PRESIDENT. Is the oil sold as peanut oil ?

Mr. BLANKENSHIP. No ; it is sold as the very best olive oil from Smyrna or Florence. It is put up in the most beautiful Florence flasks ; and I reckon it is about as good as the imported oil.

EDWARD T. STEEL.

RICHMOND, VA., *September 28, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. EDWARD T. STEEL, of Philadelphia, in regard to iron ore, was read, and ordered to be printed:

Being informed of the purpose of your Commission to give a hearing in Richmond, Va., on the 28th instant, to the mining interests of that State, I take this means of communicating the facts in regard to the important iron interest which is now being developed by this company in Giles County, Southwest Virginia.

Pending the completion of the New River Railroad, which is just now reaching a point which we make available for shipments of iron ore, we have not fully developed the mines of which this company is the owner, but we have gone so far as to ascertain that at three points where we have a force at work there is a very promising outlook for a large supply of Bessemer iron ore, some of which is of the very best quality, and we expect to be in the market with these ores within a very few weeks.

We have made preparations at our principal mine, which lies directly on the line of the New River Railroad, for a very large output. The analysis of this ore, as reported to us by Professor McCreath, of Harrisburg, on samples personally taken by him at the mines, is as follows:

Metallie iron.....	63.550
Sulphur.....	.002
Phosphorus.....	.051
Siliceous matter.....	5.210
Phosphorus in 100 parts iron.....	.080

If our reasonable expectations should be satisfied at this mine, it will be apparent to your honorable Commission that a large field will at once be opened for the introduction of iron industries to Virginia, based on Bessemer ore.

We are investing a great deal of money at these mines in full faith of their success, and while we do not doubt that the question of protection to such an enterprise and its resulting industries will be earnestly and ably advocated before your honorable Commission, we take this opportunity to indicate our support of such a tariff as will amply protect us in a field where, from its geographical location, difficulties of labor, &c., it is subject to drawbacks not met with in more favored localities.

We feel that we speak for the whole State of Virginia, which is in so much need of some more sure reliance than agriculture, when we bring this question to your earnest consideration.

It is a fact which is, of course, familiar to your Commission that in the industry which we are prosecuting in Virginia we have most to dread the competition of foreign ores, which, in some conditions of the foreign market and periods of stagnation in ocean freights bound this way, without considering the duty, are laid down here at prices practically the same which obtain in the poorly-paid labor fields where they are produced abroad.

Under such circumstances as we have described, the foreign ore is not only sold at a very low price, but is sometimes brought here as ballast, absolutely free of charge.

N. V. RANDOLPH.

RICHMOND, VA., *September 28, 1882.*

Mr. N. V. RANDOLPH, of Richmond, paper-box manufacturer, made a statement in favor of the maintenance of the existing duty of 35 per cent. on paper boxes.

The wages of labor in that business, he said, was two-thirds less in Europe than here. The manufacturers of paper boxes were getting along very well, and the price to consumers was not exorbitant. The girls employed in his manufactory received a dollar a day, against 20 cents a day in France, 16 $\frac{3}{4}$ cents in Germany, and 13 cents in Sweden. And yet a great many paper boxes were brought here from Sweden. It was a large industry, employing a great many hundred thousand people. In Richmond alone there were about six hundred persons employed in that business. He thought that Philadelphia might be safely put down as employing ten thousand persons in it. A duty of 35 per cent. had enabled him to keep his factory running. He did not ask for any increase of duty, but that the duty should remain as it is. He had started his factory five years ago in this city with five employés; he now employed two hundred and seventy persons. His principal markets were New York, Boston, Chicago, Saint Louis, and Cincinnati. He had some little export business to Canada, Mexico, Australia, and South America—not because the duty enabled him to export goods, but because he made a different style of goods from those made in Germany and England.

J. S. PEMBERTON.

RICHMOND, VA., *September 28, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. J. S. PEMBERTON, of Atlanta, Ga., in regard to the duty on quinine and the tax on alcohol, was read and ordered to be printed:

GENTLEMEN: I desire to present to you the views of a large majority of the Southern wholesale druggists and manufacturing pharmacists in regard to the tax on alcohol and the tariff on quinine. Those who have given the subject the most careful consideration entertain the following views:

1st. That the tax on alcohol should be abolished. It needs no argument to show or prove the wonderful increase it makes in the cost of medicines that are in constant use; yet it may not be amiss to compare a few items relative to this tax.

In 1860 the cost of a barrel of alcohol was about \$10; to day it costs about \$85. The tax is five times the cost of the article. Every item into which alcohol enters is enhanced in value to the proportionate value of the alcohol which enters into the product. What a monstrous and unjust burden is thus placed upon the poor and sick. These very people are taxed to an extent which is a burden hard to be borne.

This tax on alcohol was a war tax, which was cheerfully borne during the necessity for its existence, and should now be abolished and wiped out. The magnificent export trade once carried on with foreign countries, in products in which alcohol is necessarily used, is almost entirely abandoned, or is carried on under such restrictions that the majority of manufacturers cannot engage in it; and all this trade has been diverted to competing nations. Those chemical and pharmaceutical products in which this country excels are shut out by this odious tax. The sooner this tax is abolished the better it will be for the nation.

2d. I believe that Congress should either levy a tax of 10 per cent. upon quinine and all its salts, or remove the duty now imposed upon the cinchona barks. This will not only protect our manufactures, but also the trade and the public in a more uniform and lower price, as well as the purity of the article.

I believe it manifestly unjust to admit quinine duty free and impose a tax upon the raw material from which the article is manufactured. It is certainly not the policy and design of the government to discriminate against one branch of our industry and protect another; such inconsistency is contrary to all the well-established principles of justice and equity.

To foster and protect all our manufacturing industries requires the removal of the tax upon alcohol, and to either place a duty of 10 per cent. upon quinine and its salts, or remove the duty from the material from which it is manufactured.

CHARLES B. BALL.

RICHMOND, VA., *September 28, 1882.*

Mr. CHARLES B. BALL, of Richmond, secretary of the Tanner & Delaney Engine Company, addressed the Commission. He said:

I speak as a citizen of Virginia, and desire only to utter my earnest and decided conviction in behalf of the wisdom and policy of protection. My views on that subject were formed in my early manhood, when I was a follower of the illustrious man who established the American protective policy of that day. I think that the subsequent history of this country tended to strengthen and confirm my views on that subject. Especially at this moment in this Southern country and in Virginia, abounding in mineral and other resources that are absolutely illimitable, I think that a wise and judicious system of discrimination in the tariff in favor of domestic enterprise and manufactures is called for by the very highest interests of this country. I have no special familiarity with manufacturing enterprises or industries that are now booming all over the country, except with one with which I have been connected for the last few years. But I desire again merely to express, as a citizen of Virginia, my earnest conviction that the true policy of this country is to be found now in the revision of the tariff. It is a war tariff, and is too high in a great many particulars. It ought now to be so revised as to furnish a full and ample revenue for all the wants of the government, and at the same time to discriminate in favor of the protection of the great industries of the country.

PHILIP SINSZ.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 29, 1882.*

Mr. PHILIP SINSZ, importer of glaziers' diamonds, made the following statement:

My business is manufacturing glaziers' diamonds, and by a construction placed upon the words "Diamonds, rough or uncut, including glaziers' diamonds," in section 2505, designated the free list, of Title XXXIII, duties upon imports, of the Revised Statutes of the United States, the manufactured tool known as the glaziers' diamond is annually imported free of duty in a quantity the minimum valuation of which, I believe upon information, to be \$25,000.

I am one of four persons who are engaged in this country in the manufacture of glaziers' diamonds, and should I or they desire to import any of the separate wood, steel, or brass parts used in our manufacture of the article designated the glaziers' diamond, without the diamond itself, we would be obliged to pay the duty levied on manufactures of brass, wood, or steel, being 35 or 45 per cent. ad valorem, respectively.

The foregoing is the result either of an inadvertency in the wording of the law, an improper construction of its language, or else an unjust discrimination against the class of manufacturers to which I belong. It certainly looks very anomalous and inconsistent that an article manufactured completely in a foreign country, and competing with domestic manufacturers, should be admitted free of duty, when the component parts are liable to a duty according to material, although intended to be perfected by the skilled labor and the capital of American citizens.

The business and capital of myself and others similarly engaged is seriously endangered by the foreign competition allowed as stated above, and I would therefore most respectfully, on behalf of myself and others engaged in the manufacture of glaziers' diamonds, suggest that the implements or tool "the glaziers' diamond," manufactured in a foreign country, may be excluded from the free list by inserting the word "unset" after the clause as it appears in the law, or as your honorable body sees best fit.

S. E. CHAMBERLIN.

BALTIMORE, *September 29, 1882.*

Mr. S. E. CHAMBERLIN, special agent of the Treasury Department, appeared before the Commission and made the following statement:

A careful examination of the history of legislation with regard to the importation of raw sugars and the exportation of refined sugars for the benefit of drawback, develops the fact that serious difficulties have surrounded this matter, and much study and experimental investigations have been deemed necessary by the principal enlightened nations of the world to obtain facts to base fair and equitable laws upon to govern the sugar trade of such countries. It would seem that such conclusions as have been reached and decided upon by these nations, so far as they are applicable to the present condition of our own country, should be carefully considered, and their results utilized.

Great Britain, France, Belgium, and Holland, in an international convention held November 8, 1864, agreed that classes of raw sugars should be determined upon by experiments, and as their results, certain standards were approved in order to establish uniformity in providing rates of drawback. With this view, therefore, the color of the sugar was adopted as the criterion to determine their saccharine richness, and, for the further purpose of providing for the assessment of duties, sugars were divided into a number of classes, based upon those conclusions, and now known as the Dutch system of standards, viz:

From No. 14, Dutch standard, to No. 18, are called the 1st class.

From No. 10, Dutch standard, to No. 14, are called the 2d class.

From No. 7, Dutch standard, to No. 9, are called the 3d class.

All sugars below No. 7, Dutch standard, are called the 4th class.

All sugars above No. 18, Dutch standard, are called refined sugar.

At the time of enactment of our present tariff regulating the duties on sugars imported into the United States commercial raw sugars were valued in both mercantile and government transactions by the above-mentioned system of Dutch standards. Raw sugars were bought and sold by these color standards in every sugar market in the world. They are based upon the principle that the element of color in all sugars is intimately connected with that of saccharine strength, and that "cane sugar is composed of pure sugar and molasses, and as pure sugar is white and molasses black, the mixture of the one with the other gives varying shades of color, according to the proportion of the admixture;" and upon this color the value of the crystallizable and non-crystallizable sugar was determined. This close correspondence between the grades of color and the degrees of saccharine richness rendered these terms, in effect convertible ones, and guaranteed to the merchant security in his transactions, and orders were given for sugars by numbers of the Dutch standard, each number determining the intrinsic value of such sugars.

As long as the manufacturers of raw sugars confined themselves to making natural-colored products, this condition of affairs maintained itself as being the most equitable arrangement for all parties concerned. Later, however, a new element entered into the composition of these values. Sugars were artificially colored, and a counterfeit hue given them. This standard then failed to measure their value.

In France, in July, 1875, there was a law passed providing that where the color of the sugars does not appear to correspond with their effective richness a legal *expertise* should be taken, and the *commissaires experts* should have recourse to saccharimetry for the definite classification of sugars.

The present tariff, by virtue of the law of December 30, 1875, is as follows:

Classification by Dutch standard.	Richness of sugar comprised in each class.
Below No. 7, Dutch standard.....	Less than 76°.
From No. 7, inclusive, to No. 9, inclusive.....	From 76°, inclusive, to 85°, inclusive.
From No. 10, inclusive, to No. 14, inclusive.....	From 85°, inclusive, to 92°, inclusive.
From No. 15 inclusive, to No. 18, inclusive.....	From 92°, inclusive, to 98°, inclusive.
Above No. 18.....	98° or more.
White crystals.....	

Table of analysis of sugar made under the direction of the French Government. (The mean results obtained in the laboratories of the government during the year 1878.)

CANE SUGAR.

Classification by Dutch standard.	Number of analysis.	Degrees of polarization.	Per cent., glucose.	Per cent., ash.	Per cent., water.	Per cent., unknown.	Effective re- diment, re- fined sugar.	Legal re- diment, loaf sugar.
Not above No. 7, Dutch standard..	768	85.01	4.70	1.20	4.26	3.75	69.88	67
Above No. 7 and not above No. 9, Dutch standard.....	1,312	91.25	2.86	0.83	2.51	2.55	81.38	80
No. 10 to No. 14.....	2,578	94.55	1.57	0.52	1.45	1.91	88.81	88
No. 15 to No. 18.....	2,695	97.36	0.58	0.20	0.62	1.24	95.29	94
Above No. 18.....	155	98.06	0.18	0.06	0.32	0.48	98.30	97
White crystals.....								

In France, as has been seen, raw sugars are divided into classes by the Dutch standard, nearly similar to the grades established by the United States tariff. The two lower grades are identical, and a certain yield of refined sugar is assigned to each class. This, which is called the legal yield, is the average between a minimum and a maximum of saccharine richness. For instance, the class of sugars below No. 7, Dutch standard, comprises all sugars polarizing below 76 degrees of saccharine richness, and the legal yield of this class is 67 pounds refined loaf sugar to 100 pounds raw sugar. The next grade, from No. 7 to No. 9, Dutch standard, inclusive, comprises all the sugars from 76 degrees to 85 degrees, and the legal yield of this class is 80 pounds refined loaf sugar to 100 pounds of raw. Both of the above classes are absolutely the same as grades "below 7" and "7 to 10," Dutch standard, United States tariff, and comprise identically the same raw sugars, from the same sugar-producing countries.

Under date of September 25, 1880, the following edict was issued by the Government of Holland:

ARTICLE 1. The richness of sugar which is recognizably colored, or whose quality permits the supposition of a higher degree of richness than that of the highest number of the class to which it should according to the color standard belong, is determined in the following manner:

(a.) Every sample of sugar to be examined is, for the purpose of the investigation, to be made uniform by grinding fine and mixing, and especially in such manner that

no alteration in the composition may take place from loss or absorption of water, or in any other way.

(b.) Of the sample a portion is weighed off of such weight as may be necessary, in order that if it consists of perfectly pure and dry sugar it will, by means of the following manipulations, yield a return of 100 per cent. on the polariscope. If the sugar is wet or soft the portion taken for the assay is to be dried.

(c.) The assay is then successively drenched (*doortrokken*) with—

1. Alcohol of at least 99.5 per cent.
2. Alcohol of 96 per cent. perfectly saturated with sugar.
3. Alcohol of 92 per cent. also saturated with sugar.

It is furthermore washed out with a mixture consisting of one volume of acetic acid (of 390 to 430 grams of anhydrous acetic acid to the liter) and nineteen volumes of alcohol of 85 per cent., which mixture is also saturated with sugar.

After washing out those ingredients that are soluble in the washing liquid, this is removed by means of a second successive drenching of the assay with the liquids named under 1, 2, and 3, but this time in inverse order; also, first with No. 3, then with No. 2, and then with No. 1; finally, this last liquid is also removed from the assay.

(d.) The assay thus treated is then dissolved in water, under employment of the necessary clarifying and decolorizing agents, and the percentage polarization of the decolorized liquid is then ascertained.

(e.) The result obtained by the careful execution of the before-named operations expresses the percentage contents of the sample.

ART. 2. The classification of the sugar results from the comparison of its contents with that which in the following table is given as the highest limit for each class:

Classes for the purpose of appraisement.	Highest limit of each class in classification by contents.	
	Numbers.	Contents.
14-10	15	<i>Per cent.</i> 97.8
9-7	10	94.4
Below 7	7	87.4

That sugar which has a higher contents than 97.8 per cent. falls in the first class.

The foregoing regulations are more fully explained in the circular of the Ministry of Finance of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, relating to the introduction of the new regulations in the appraisement of imports, from which the following is taken:

The law of May 25, 1880, has by no means for its object the general substitution of saccharometric methods for the color standard in the classification of raw sugars. The changes which it is intended to introduce in the existing conditions relate solely to sugars that have been purposely colored, or whose general characteristics lead to the presumption of a higher degree of richness than that of the highest number of the class to which it would according to the color standard belong. In these two special cases the contents in sugar shall be determined by the method of polarizing after washing out, as described in the royal edict of September 25, and these sugars shall be classified according to the relation that the contents in sugar so found bears to the scale based on the investigation conducted in a similar manner of Java sugars of the numbers 15, 10, and 7 (that is to say, of a number above the highest of each class).

In this class may be named the well-known vacuum-pan centrifugal sugars, which are made expressly for the United States market, and adapted to suit the deficiencies of the present tariff. In these sugars we find a large amount of saccharine strength, without a corresponding quality of color, and a close examination shows them to be a semi-refined sugar, carrying on the surface a small amount of intensified color, such as to impart to them an artificial dark appearance, different from what naturally belongs to sugars of their saccharine strength. In fact, the molasses that gives the dark color to natural-made sugars has been removed, and some artificial dark color substituted. For sugars of this class the system of Dutch standard ceases to be available, and some

means should be devised to ascertain the true, natural color, for which the apparent one has been substituted, in order to make an equitable assessment of duty, and a just return in drawback on refined sugars exported.

In entering upon the consideration of the amount of drawback to be allowed upon sugars refined for exportation, there are two points to be considered: First, what is the duty to be refunded as drawback, under our law (sec. 3019, Revised Statutes), which provides that "there shall be allowed on all articles wholly manufactured of materials imported, on which duties have been paid when exported, a *drawback equal in amount to the duty paid on such materials, and no more*; secondly, what means shall be adopted or devised to ascertain the just proportion of refined sugar upon which the import duty should be repaid in drawback.

Our sugar tariff was framed for the purpose of allowing unrefined sugars to be admitted under a graduated scale of duties, increasing directly in proportion to the superiority of the sugar in regard to its saccharine value, or, in other words, according to the quantities it was presumed to contain of pure sugar and molasses. By this system the duties bear an equitable relation, and low sugars are free to come in and compete on a fair footing with those of a higher quality. Upon this construction of our tariff laws the regulations with regard to the practical application of drawback governing the exportation of refined sugars have heretofore always been made. Thus we find the rates established December 17, 1875, specifying 3.60 per hundred on each hundred pounds of refined, loaf, cut-loaf, crushed, granulated, and powdered sugars exported, to be based upon a maximum output of 60 per cent. of hard sugar, from sugars paying the lowest rate of duty, 2.18 $\frac{3}{4}$ cents per pound. Later on, however, October 1, 1877, we find the output to have been materially increased from nominally the same sugars, and drawback of 3.18 per hundred on each hundred pounds, and the duty on sugar remaining the same. This change indicated a yield of this class of sugars below No. 7, Dutch standard, paying 2.18 $\frac{3}{4}$ cents, of 68.79 per cent., or nearly 9 per cent. increased product, from the same class of sugars that formerly produced only 60 per cent.

If, however, as the fact really is, this sugar, so refined, not only produces an out-turn of 68 pounds of pure loaf sugar, but 22 pounds additional of the same sugar, making a total of 90 pounds out-turn, it will at once be seen that this refiner, when he has exported 68 pounds, and received his drawback of 3.18 cents per pound thereupon, which is equal to the amount of duty paid on the raw material, has still on hand 22 pounds, which have in reality paid no duty, because the whole amount of duty on the original raw sugar imported has been returned to him in the drawback received upon the hard sugar exported.

For the fiscal year of 1879 there were 116,862,583 pounds of refined sugar exported for benefit of drawback, and almost the entire amount received the highest rate of 3.18 cents per pound drawback; and vacuum-pan sugars were introduced below No. 7, Dutch standard, paying a duty of 2.18 $\frac{3}{4}$ cents per pound, that proved by analysis to be within one-half of 1 per cent. as pure in saccharine strength as the purest loaf-sugar refined and exported, and 3.18 cents per pound received as drawback.

Test by polarization of all sugars imported into the port of Philadelphia for the month of March, 1878.

Analysis of refined sugar that was exported from New York for benefit of drawback, made December, 1878.

Below No. 7, Dutch standard.		Above No. 7, and not above No. 10, Dutch standard.		Water.	Ash.	Organic substances.	Cane sugar.	Grape sugar.
No. of samples.	Test.	No. of samples.	Test.					
2	80 to 81	1	80 to 83	0.85	0.47	0.11	95.80	2.77
2	81 to 82	1	85 to 86	0.54	0.55	0.26	95.30	3.55
3	82 to 83	1	86 to 87	1.02	0.29	0.15	94.60	3.98
7	83 to 84	2	87 to 88	2.05	1.40	1.71	87.00	6.94
8	84 to 85	11	88 to 89	1.98	1.40	2.70	87.00	6.86
5	85 to 86	25	89 to 90	1.71	1.28	4.12	85.00	7.01
13	86 to 87	14	90 to 91	1.70	1.27	3.05	84.80	8.19
20	87 to 88	7	91 to 92	2.34	1.71	3.30	84.30	8.35
13	88 to 89	2	92 to 93	2.08	1.49	3.52	83.30	9.61
10	89 to 90	2	93 to 94	2.40	1.49	1.80	83.20	10.00
8	90 to 91	1	94 to 95	2.40	1.02	2.67	83.00	10.25
3	91 to 92	1	97 to 98	2.12	1.40	3.78	82.70	10.00
1	92 to 93	3	98 to 99	2.31	1.40	6.81	82.00	7.42
2	94 to 95	2.26	1.61	6.23	81.70	8.20
2	96 to 97	2.57	1.54	5.99	80.30	9.60
1	97 to 98	0.25	0.15	0.10	99.50	Trace.
1	98 to 99

It will be observed, by a comparison of these tables, that refined sugars are exported for benefit of drawback, showing as low saccharine strength as the lowest tests of raw sugars; and refined sugars of the highest test, receiving the highest drawback, 3.18 per pound, show but one-half of 1 per cent. more saccharine strength than raw sugar paying the lowest rate of duty, 2.18 per pound.

The establishment of a fixed ratio for the product of refined loaf sugar to the classes by color of raw sugars seems to have been satisfactorily agreed upon by other countries, after the most careful consideration. As these determinations were made upon classes arranged almost identical with those of our own schedule of sugars, and the experiments upon which they were based were made upon sugars from the same sugar-producing countries that supply our market, it would seem to apply to our own condition equally as well as to theirs.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Question. What recommendation do you make in regard to the use of the polariscope?—Answer. I would use the Dutch standard in connection with the polariscope.

Q. Where would you make the dividing line?—A. Sugars below No. 7, Dutch standard, I would compare with sugar which should not exceed a certain polarization, but if found to be higher, I would say let it go into the next class above. Every merchant buys and sells sugar by polariscopic test. No matter what duty has been paid to the government, that does not determine the price to the consumer. The price the consumer pays is determined by its saccharine strength, and that is obtained by the use of the polariscope.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. If, for commercial purposes, the polariscope is a sufficient test, what is the use of retaining the Dutch standard?—A. That is a question for your Commission to decide primarily.

Q. I understand the commercial world has settled down to the use of

the polariscope.—A. Yes, but they use the Dutch standard in connection with it.

Q. Do the merchants of this country use the Dutch standard?—A. No; but in other countries they do.

Q. Do I understand you to say that the sugar refining business has been almost entirely destroyed by this fact of the exporters having the advantage of this surplus left for sale, as mentioned by you?—A. Yes, largely.

Q. And you think that by the use of the polariscope there would be no margin left for sale?—A. I think that would be the effect.

Q. Suppose 95 per cent. is shown by the polariscope, will it not yield 95 per cent in refining?—A. Very nearly. In that connection I submit the following tables:

Table giving tests by polariscope of the saccharine strength of samples of Muscovado sugars, from different sugar-producing countries, imported into the United States, principally at the port of New York, in 1881.

[These samples were those upon which duties were assessed by color of the Dutch standard, some represented as high as 500 hogsheads.]

Countries.	Color by Dutch standard	Class below No. 7.			Color by Dutch standard.	Class 7—10. Above No. 7 and not over No. 10.			Color by Dutch standard.	Class 10—13. Above No. 10 and not above No. 13.		
		Wet test.	Water.	Dry test.		Wet test.	Water.	Dry test.		Wet test.	Water.	Dry test.
Bahia	7	77.20	3.10	70.66	8	85.20	3.17	87.98	
Manilla	7	79.40	3.32	82.15	8	86.20	3.42	89.25	
Demarara	7	74.24	5.40	78.44	8	80.20	4.26	83.70	11	88.20	4.28	92.14
Porto Rico	7	84.00	5.16	84.00	9	90.30	4.10	94.21	12	93.50	2.70	96.15
Barbadoes	7	81.10	5.04	85.18	9	86.10	5.50	91.11	13	89.70	5.00	94.42
Batavia	8	88.50	1.84	90.15	12	91.30	2.06	93.22
Martinique	9	86.80	6.16	92.39	12	90.90	4.30	94.98
Pernambuco	7	82.20	5.34	86.83	
China	7	83.70	3.54	86.77	8	86.00	3.00	88.05	
Guadaloupe	8	86.20	5.00	91.50	
Brazil	7	82.00	4.70	86.90	8	85.00	4.20	89.35	
Hollo	7	79.50	4.34	83.10	10	88.80	2.70	91.32	12	92.60	1.80	94.29
Tobago	10	91.50	1.58	92.96	13	92.80	1.50	94.21
United States Colombo	10	88.70	3.40	91.82	
Averages	80.54	4.44	83.74	86.02	3.70	90.35	91.25	3.10	94.20

Average saccharine strength of raw sugars—
 Below No. 7, Dutch standard..... 83.74
 From No. 7 to No. 10..... 90.24
 From No. 10 to No. 13..... 94.20

Table giving synopsis of the laws regulating the duties on the importation of raw sugars and the exportation of refined sugars, for the benefit of bounty or drawback of different countries.

UNITED STATES.

Classification by the Dutch standard.	Number of class.	Classification by the polariscope. Degrees of saccharine strength.	Rate of duty per 100 pounds, reduced to United States currency.	Effective remeasurement of loaf sugar for 100 pounds.	Drawback or bounty allowed on sugars exported.	Rate per 100 pounds, United States currency.	Remarks.
All sugars not above No. 7	1	\$2 18	On loaf, cut-loaf, crushed, granulated, and powdered sugars.	\$3 18	Sugar produced in the United States is not subject to duty. Polariscopes were used to determine duty on certain class of sugar. Treasury Regulations, July and September, 1879; discontinued March 14, 1882.
Above No. 7 and not above No. 10.	2	2 59	On white coffee sugar, undried, and above No. 20, Dutch standard.	2 58	
Above No. 10 and not above No. 13	3	2 81			
Above No. 13 and not above No. 16.	4	2 43	On all grades of coffee sugar, No. 20 and below in color, Dutch standard.	2 08	
Above No. 16 and not above No. 20.	5	4 06			
Above No. 20	6	5 00			

FRANCE.

Below No. 13, Dutch standard	Less than 90° polarization	\$5 73	Under the law of December 30, 1875, drawbacks are allowed under a graduated scale of yields from less than 76° to 98° and above, polariscopic test. When the refiner exports the amount designated as the yield of each class, he receives back the duty he paid, 100 pounds of raw sugar of that class.	Sugars imported from countries out of Europe in foreign ships are subject to additional duty; also from European countries and "entrepots," whatever be the mode of transport, of 3 francs 12 centimes per 100 kilograms. Sugars for temporary admission are for refining in bond.	
Above No. 13 and not above No. 20.	91°, inclusive, to 98°, exclusive.	6 00			
Above No. 20	98° polarization or more	6 13			
Temporary admission:							
Raw sugars below No. 7	4	Less than 76° polarization	67½			
From No. 7, inclusive, to No. 9, inclusive.	3	From 76°, inclusive, to 86°, exclusive.	80			
From No. 10, inclusive, to No. 14, inclusive.	2	From 85°, inclusive, to 92°, exclusive.	88			
From No. 15, inclusive, to No. 18, inclusive.	1	From 92°, inclusive, to 98°, exclusive.	94			
All above No. 18	98° or more	97			

Table giving synopsis of the laws regulating the duties on the importation of raw sugars and the exportation of refined sugars, &c.—Continued.

HOLLAND AND BELGIUM.

Classification by the Dutch standard.	Number of class.	Classification by the polariscope. Degrees of saccharine strength.	Rate of duty per 100 pounds, reduced to United States currency.	Effective remolument of leaf sugar for 100 pounds.	Drawback of bounty allowed on sugars exported.	Rate per 100 pounds, United States currency.	Remarks.
Raw sugar below No. 7, Dutch standard.	4	\$3 00	67	On dry, hard, and translucent candies.	\$4 80	The quantity of sugar liable to duty, in both Holland and Belgium, is estimated on the density of the beet-juice.
No. 7 and not above No. 9.....	3	3 60	80	Well clarified, hard, and dry leaves, and rectangular pieces.	4 50	
No. 10 and not above No. 14.....	2	3 94	88	On native raw sugar, No. 11 and above.	3 94	
No. 15 and not above No. 18.....	1	4 20	94	On native raw sugar, from No. 8 to No. 11.	3 60	

GERMANY.

On all sugars above No. 19, Dutch standard.	\$3 25	On all raw sugar below 80°.....	\$2 07	Produces all the sugar wanted for consumption from beet-root. Duty levied on estimated weight of beet-roots.
On raw sugars below No. 19, Dutch standard.	2 60	On refined, hard, full leaves, &c.	2 50	
					On refined, not less than 98° saccharine matter, or more than 1 per cent. moisture.	2 33	

AUSTRIA.

On refined sugar and sugar candy.....			\$6 00	On refined sugar above 99°.....	\$2 45	Produces all the sugar wanted for consumption. Duty estimated on capacity of apparatus for refining certain amount of roots in twenty-four hours.
On white crystallized.....			4 16	On raw sugar above 90°.....	2 00	
On raw sugar.....			2 80	On raw sugar below 90°.....	Nothing.	

Statement showing the quantity, rate, and amount of duty collected thereon on all sugars imported into the United States from 1867 to 1880. Also, the amount of refined sugar exported for benefit of drawback from 1870 to 1881. This statement does not include sugar from the Hawaiian Islands from 1876 to 1880.

[Prepared from estimates of Bureau of Statistics, United States Treasury Department.]

Fiscal years.	Pounds.	Foreign market value.	Average value per pound.	Amount of duty paid.	Average duty per pound.	Average duty per pound received from 1876 to 1881, including 25 per cent. additional duty.	Rate per cent. on an ad valorem estimate.	Comparison made with the years 1867, 1868, 1869, and 1870, which shows an average of 3.04.		Gain to the revenue by sugars being less colored.	Refined sugar exported for benefit of drawback.
								Estimated duty. Annual average 3.04 per pound.	Loss estimated by diminution of average per pound.		
		Dollars.	Cents.	Dollars.	Cents.			Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Pounds.
1867	936,786,240	38,390,330	4.09	28,497,998	3.04		76.77				
1868	977,298,331	43,307,769	4.34	30,359,400	3.04		70.04				
1869	1,067,625,757	47,861,696	4.75	30,645,235	3.04		64.00				
1870	1,183,080,146	59,021,588	4.98	35,986,347	3.04		61.04				4,415,100
1871	1,166,394,287	58,382,938	5.00	29,600,522	2.54		50.80	35,458,386	5,767,564		3,797,278
1872	1,346,942,550	73,318,299	5.44	27,876,769	2.07		38.05	40,947,654	13,070,285		4,461,427
1873	1,378,498,832	74,993,074	5.44	25,276,309	2.05		37.68	41,966,364	13,680,055		9,870,736
1874	1,511,456,916	76,079,703	5.03	30,492,526	2.02		40.15	47,772,321	17,279,795		9,969,821
1875	1,575,893,948	69,292,010	4.39	33,380,643	2.12		48.29	47,907,276	14,526,633		45,873,139
25 per cent. additional duty, act March 3, 1875.											
1876	1,561,880,545	63,860,713	4.09	37,625,064	1.93	2.41	58.90	59,351,460	21,726,397		72,713,922
1877	1,453,387,854	71,849,090	4.94	34,337,350	1.89	2.36	47.77	55,304,738	20,697,388		64,729,899
1878	1,532,875,112	78,986,071	5.08	36,387,461	1.87	2.34	46.06	59,209,254	22,821,793		74,058,920
1879	1,598,461,986	65,918,932	4.12	37,294,197	1.86	2.33	56.55	60,741,555	23,447,338		116,862,583
1880	1,592,261,958	67,015,832	4.21	39,107,256	1.97	2.46	58.43	60,503,954	Gain for 1880 over year of 1879.	2,067,940	29,065,376 24,012,595

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
Bureau of Statistics, November 8, 1881.

I hereby certify that the figures in columns 2, 3, and 5 of this statement have been examined in this office and found to be correct.

JOSEPH NIMMO, JR., Chief of Bureau.

REMARKS.

Rate of duty from 1862 to 1870.

	Per pound.
On raw sugar not above No. 12, Dutch standard	\$0 03
On raw sugar above No. 12, and not above No. 15, Dutch standard	03½
On raw sugar above No. 15	04
On refined sugar	05

New tariff took effect January 1, 1870.

	Per pound.
On tank-bottom sirup of sugar-cane juice.....	\$0 01½
Melada, concentrated melada, and concentrated molasses	01¾
Sugars, all not above No. 7, Dutch standard in color	02
Sugars, all above No. 7, and not above No. 10	02½
Sugars, all above No. 10 and not above No. 13	02¾
Sugars, all above No. 13 and not above No. 16	03
Sugars, all above No. 16 and not above No. 20	03½
Sugars, all above No. 20	04

Twenty-five per cent. added to the above schedule after July 1, 1875, by act of Congress, March 3, 1875. Sugars seized by special Treasury agent in Baltimore as artificially colored November 21, 1877. Decided so by jury after seven weeks' trial in the United States district court, Baltimore, November 21, 1878.

Classification of certain kind of vacuum-pan sugars by the polariscope, directed by the Secretary of the Treasury, September 2, 1870.

Neither duty assessed nor classified by polarizing included in this table.

Respectfully submitted.

S. E. CHAMBERLIN,
Special Agent U. S. Treasury Department.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. What is the extent of adulteration by the use of glucose, &c., in the refining processes?—A. I think, perhaps, 8 or 10 per cent. has been determined by chemists as being artificial glucose; that is, glucose from substances other than cane.

Q. Would that apply to sugar generally?—A. Coffee sugars, and that class.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. Are they able to adulterate granulated sugar?—A. Yes; it is a mere matter of admixture.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. If the polariscope was adopted and the duty laid according to the strength of the sugar, would that entirely relieve all this difficulty about adulteration?—A. Yes, since the polariscope at once determines the saccharine strength.

Q. After the duty was laid upon it, the adulteration in this country would make no difference to the government in revenue?—A. Not at all, except upon sugars for export.

Q. If it was to be exported would not the polariscope still show what the true crystallization was?—A. Yes.

Q. Would not the law upon that subject be based upon the use of the polariscope?—A. Yes.

Q. Have you seen any sugar made from sorghum?—A. Yes.

Q. Is that equal to the sugar made from sugar cane?—A. Yes, for sugars of that low character; I mean of that color. They have not yet reached that degree of perfection in its manufacture that they have in the sugar from sugar cane. I think I have seen here some of the best samples of sorghum sugar that have been made in the United States.

HENRY McSHANE.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 29, 1882.*

Mr. HENRY McSHANE, of the firm of Henry McShane & Co., of Baltimore, New York, and Brooklyn, iron, brass, and bell founders, made the following statement:

GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: Accepting your invitation extended to manufacturers of Baltimore to express their views on the tariff laws of the United States in their bearing and effects on diversified interests in this country, I do myself the honor to address you on the subject.

I regret that the shortness of the time, and the pressure of my other duties have prevented me from collecting and tabulating statistics applicable to the subject (which, however, are available to you), so I shall confine myself to defining my opinion, formed by close observation and the experience of nearly thirty years in manufacturing.

I am engaged in this city making church bells and also brass and iron goods used in plumbing and steam fitting. The chief metals which I use in making my goods are copper and iron, both of which are protected under present revenue laws, both having a specific duty, the former of 5 cents a pound, and the latter \$7 a ton. In the manufacture of goods in which I use these metals I employ over 500 hands, all males, and disburse in wages yearly nearly \$200,000. I melt annually, say 5,000 tons pig iron (both foreign and American) and nearly 1,000,000 pounds of copper (all American).

In developing and managing this industry I have traveled throughout this country, Great Britain, and the West Indies, and have enjoyed the acquaintance of gentlemen managing the largest manufacturing concerns in those countries. All the conversations and discussions into which I have been drawn on the tariff question have tended to establish a conviction in my mind that our present growth in wealth and population is mainly attributable to the protection given to our capital and labor in the work of developing and utilizing within ourselves the natural resources of the country; and I believe that the same protection must be continued for our iron industries until competition amongst American producers of iron goods, and other internal causes, bring about a parity of prices in England and America.

If social conditions and the value of capital and labor were the same in this country during its early history as prevail in Europe generally, and in Great Britain in particular, the fundamental law of commerce would induce a free interchange of commodities between the old and new worlds with mutual benefit, for the same reason that free commercial intercourse exists between the different States in the Union, which are on a common basis and have common interests as against the rest of the world.

Nature favored us in adopting a course of self-advancement which is exceptional, and the policy known as the American tariff system which we formed was one of the grandest conceptions in its results which could be devised. Nearly sixty years ago the tariff measure first became a law; statesmen foresaw its magnificent effects and designated it as America's second declaration of independence of England—the first being political and the second commercial.

A new country like this, with inexhaustible natural resources to be developed, but with limited capital and population, could never thrive unless a barrier was erected against outside competition having ample and cheap capital and a semi-pauper population at command. Were it not for protective customs duties the United States would not have made such gigantic strides in progress as have excited the wonder of the world, but would have yet the same condition as other new countries which are mere colonies tributary to Great Britain, supplying her with cheap materials and food and taking in return her manufactures. The crude products of the earth add little to the prosperity of a country in comparison with its manufacturing interests. I regard the American system of protection the most valuable plan which could have been devised to promote manufacturing and for the advancement of our country from a colonial position to the first rank amongst nations in a little more than half a century.

The tariff bill placing duties on foreign articles formed a premium to induce people in this country to engage in manufacturing, has increased wages and home comforts and thereby attracted immigration thither, and as we possessed all the requisites of food and material within our midst we have retained the annual accretion to our capital.

Under protection we not only have developed our mineral and other natural resources, but the cost of preparing the same for consumption is spent in our midst, thus affording employment for large urban populations forming a basis for taxation and aiding the advancement of civilization.

The new world, where so much had to be done and having its energy expanded and encouraged by protection, naturally became a great field for labor, causing workmen to be in demand and well paid, thus producing ample remuneration to cover not only the necessaries but the comforts of life, and affording opportunities to the masses for mental improvement. From protection to our manufactures naturally arose that spirit of ingenuity which led to the adoption of our patent laws, protecting the inventor among ourselves and placing us foremost among nations as mechanical constructors.

To arrive at an equitable scale of rates of duties is a perplexing problem, because of the conflict of interests which exists in a large country like this, containing, as it does, a great diversity of industries. The only rule which I could suggest is to maintain prohibitory rates on such foreign products as have a value in their home market below that of our similar domestic productions, especially when the market prices of said articles in this country are created and regulated by healthy competition between American producers. The difference between foreign and domestic prices is principally caused by the discrepancy between European and American rates of wages, and although the purchasing power of the skilled or unskilled workman's compensation is greater abroad than with us, yet it does not afford him the same comforts enjoyed by his fellow workman in this country.

Iron, in all its forms, is the basis and indispensable auxiliary of all manufactures, and its modern applications have made possible modern civilization; hence much of the comforts of life enjoyed in this country is attributable to the protection of iron industries which employ directly and indirectly a very large share of our population. If my theory be correct, protection will eventually cease to have a mission to accomplish when competition between our home producers reduces cost to a parity with Europe. But with our immense territory yet to people and develop,

I think it well to hold to our tariff laws until overproduction in our midst renders them unnecessary or inoperative.

Pig iron, and everything into which it enters, must yet be protected, for notwithstanding the gigantic growth attained by our iron industries, the improvements made in its manufacture with us, and the sharp and bitter competition existing between its producers during the recent period of depression, yet it has not declined to the normal prices of iron in England, mined and worked by an over-crowded population. During the panic, when firms were breaking and workmen were only getting 90 cents and \$1 per day, I never paid less than \$18 and \$19 for No. 1 American pig after inviting competition; and in England now, where there is unusual demand and consumption existing, similar grades of iron are sold for \$14 and \$15 a ton against \$25 to \$27 now ruling here. If our lowest point in disastrous times was only \$18, how could our producers now face such competition, when English and Scotch iron can be laid down in our ports at that price were the duty removed?

I regard the present duty of \$7 a ton on pig iron not sufficient, for despite of it, foreign pig obtains a market here and draws from the wealth of this country annually. It is fresh in our minds that in 1879, when a sudden and unprecedented demand arose with us and found us short of stock, foreign iron poured into the country from every quarter of the globe and flooded it, sweeping over our productive duty and carrying away from us millions of dollars. This incident may not be repeated, but taken with the fact that foreign iron steadily obtains sale in the United States, it is evident that the present duty is not prohibitory. Again, it may be advanced in favor of a duty that it offers encouragement to further development of our mineral resources, and any policy of decreasing it would produce distrust and destroy confidence amongst manufacturers of iron goods.

I believe if we continue to protect our iron and coal mines a short time longer we will be able to produce iron goods as cheaply as England, and yet keep the workman in an independent condition, because of our abundant and well-located supplies of these minerals. At present, however, I rather favor an increase in duties on iron so as to prohibit the importation of Scotch and English metal, for as long as we have plenty of business amongst our own countrymen I favor keeping off outside competition and paying our workmen far better wages than is earned abroad, because the more money which passes through the workman's hands (the greatest consuming class) the greater is our general prosperity, and this can only be done by keeping out of the market the products of cheaper labor which take capital out of the country.

The character of my productions in iron is such that I am, as a manufacturer, removed above the effects of the results of the abolition or reduction in the tariff on pig. The only injury I would sustain in common with others in my line using iron being, as far as I can see, the decreased consumption of plumbing material in and about the houses of mechanics dependent on living prices for iron goods; these having to work at prices ruling in Great Britain would have to live as inexpensively, which means living unaccustomed to improved sanitary and hydraulic improvements, which are enjoyed in this country by the humblest house-keeper. As far as concerns foreign competition in making my goods, at present, at least, I could successfully meet English makers after paying the higher cost of labor and metal, simply because we offset these advantages by labor-saving machinery unused in England, which they find difficult to get their workmen to adopt.

The drawback to exportation of our products used in plumbing is the

poverty of the masses outside of North America, who must be content with comparatively rude and inconvenient sanitary arrangements. Skill in manufacturing iron goods, especially machinery, has contributed more to the advancement of civilization than any other material factor, and the leading position attained by the United States as the most comfortable and the favorite home for the masses is attributable to the protection given to iron manufacturing.

Pig iron is the chief factor in this country's prosperity; to maintain or increase its duty offers encouragement to development, and any policy favoring a decline would cause serious business depression effecting all; hence I beg of you to at least continue the present rate on iron, and when we reach a production which will be more than our consumption, we will then have to resort to exportation for our supplies in face of English competition. Continue ample and prohibitory protection for iron until the law of supply and demand renders it useless.

The other metal in which I am interested is copper, which I believe has been protected long enough, as it is now an article of export with us. The mining companies resort to exportation annually in order to maintain high prices at home. By so doing they simply make consumers of brass goods pay into their pockets the difference between London and New York prices. If this difference was spent in wages amongst the miners it would be no loss to the public, but the difference of several millions dollars takes the shape of profits for a few wealthy families. It is a conceded fact that copper can be mined in this country and laid down in New York at 11 cents a pound with profit to the mining companies, yet these companies, at a time when they were commanding 19 cents in New York, delivered a large quantity free in Havre at 16 cents. I submit the following statistics:

Ingot in London is selling to consumers at from 15 $\frac{3}{4}$ to 16 cents.

Ingot in New York is selling to consumers at from 18 to 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents.

Imports of copper, ingots and pig, into port of New York, for years 1874 to August 1, 1882.

	Pounds.
1874.....	684,249
1875.....	138,634
1876.....	128,897
1877.....	87,418
1878.....	73,718
1879.....	646,295
1880.....	491,854
1881.....	425,886
1882.....	257,505

Exports of ingots and pig copper from port of New York, for years of 1874 to August 1, 1882.

	Pounds.
1874.....	8,309,596
1875.....	7,437,382
1876.....	16,192,529
1877.....	11,488,145
1878.....	13,337,623
1879.....	13,613,519
1880.....	2,318,761
1881.....	7,029,554
1882.....	1,909,361

This is the *modus operandi* of the famous lake companies for many years, making a bonus equal to the duty of 5 cents a pound out of the American consumer. All American copper production above domestic

demand finds a European market despite of English competition, and at lower prices than England can touch on copper imported from her tributaries. The brass manufacturers of this country can successfully compete against European rivals, and it is to be regretted that so large an industry is restricted in its export business by being handicapped with a duty on its chief metal, which duty only benefits a dozen or two of people. If I had copper as cheaply as England I could find sale for many thousands of dollars worth of bells and other brass goods in foreign countries annually, giving employment to an increased proportion of workmen in this country. I would be glad to see copper placed on the free list, as it is an article on which very little labor is expended, and it enters into brass compositions for mechanical purposes which absorb a vast amount of labor in their application. I am sure cheaper copper would create more wages to the workmen of New England and add to the volume of our exports. Should you not deem it advisable to report favorably on free copper, I can console myself with the belief that the day is near when our copper resources will be so fully developed that home competition between the Lake Superior and various Western miners will bring copper in New York below parity of London and will be exported extensively. In the case of copper I believe the expedient of protection has accomplished its object and now aids monopoly, but this evil in its turn will produce good by stimulating production, until finally the inevitable law of supply and demand will govern our copper market, and America, by reason of her greater mineral and food resources, will have cheaper, instead of dearer, copper than Europe.

I have endeavored to define my views on protection as a sound measure for our country. I believe that time will ultimately remove its practical operation by causes from within ourselves. There is another question which should have the careful and immediate attention of our government, as we will never be in an independent commercial position until it is properly settled. I allude to American shipping. We should build and man the vessels leaving our ports. Were we equal with England in all other respects, she would far outstrip us commercially, because she does the carrying trade and banking business between us and our customers. I favor the passage of laws, not to encourage the purchase of foreign ships or their transfer to our flag, but to induce us to build them *ourselves* of American material, and, after launching them, to exempt them from onerous taxation, grant them liberal mail contracts, and treat them as liberally as the railroads, which have received large premiums in the form of land grants; in fine, using every means of encouragement for our shippers (removed from danger of fraud) which we can devise. A competent and adequate corps of consuls to aid individual enterprise in foreign markets is also necessary, and if we get ready in this manner to do a foreign trade it will then be time to remove our protective duties, because as we are we would not be able to meet England in the markets of the world. She has the commercial machinery under her control, and our first step to secure an equal footing is to build a merchant marine, which I believe indispensable to us alike in times of war as in the time of peace; and indeed our great sea-coast should cause us be the greatest maritime power in the world. I also suggest encouraging the manufacture with us of silks, wines, and other luxuries, for which we draw so heavily on Europe, and thus further aid our home industries and cause the retention of capital in our midst.

The cost of tank iron, ship iron, &c., when the country was running

on a low tariff, from 1850 to 1860, was 25 per cent. greater than it is to-day, as can be substantiated by papers published in those days. People have a very erroneous opinion about this tariff question. Why was it greater? The answer is simple. We had very few mills existing in our country during those ten years, and England had an enormous trade with us. When she found that she had this tremendous trade with us, her manufacturers put up the prices of iron 25 per cent. greater than they are to-day.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Question. Will that remark apply to all classes of iron?—Answer. Yes; to all classes of iron. Twelve or thirteen years ago we produced annually a few thousand tons of steel rails. The cost of them then, laid down at an English port, was about \$87 a ton. We kept on increasing our production annually, until now I suppose the annual production of steel rails will exceed one million tons; and whereas the price of them some twelve or thirteen years ago was \$90 or \$95 a ton, to-day they are \$45 a ton. The cause of that reduction in price is the competition among our own manufacturers. When we had no rail mills in this country the English manufacturers put up the price in England.

By Commissioner MCMAHON :

Q. Do you recommend any change in the tariff on iron ore?—A. Yes, decidedly.

Q. Do you recommend that iron be put on the free list?—A. No, sir.

Q. What change would you recommend?—A. I would recommend about \$1.50 to \$2 a ton on iron ore. There is a stock coming here that is well calculated to throw out of employment hundreds of thousands of people.

Q. And you think the copper-ore business is so well established that there is no danger to be apprehended from putting that on the free list?—A. No, sir; I am credibly informed that the mines of Arizona are far richer than the mines of Chili, and it is only a question of a few years when those mines will be largely developed, and then our people will export copper extensively to Europe and contend with the Chilians for the markets of Europe. That is certain to come to pass within the next few years.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. Is the amount you give for 1882 for the entire year?—A. Up to August only.

Q. I would like you to explain the great fluctuation in the exports from thirteen millions to two millions.—A. That was due to the great consumption in this country, which required that amount to take it off the market.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. That is to say, they only exported the surplus?—A. The surplus production.

Q. What years were those when the exports ran up so high?—A. Those were the years of great depression; we unloaded on Europe. Our copper ore always has a market there, because it is superior to anything they produce in Europe. It is the native copper found in the Lake Superior mines.

Q. While the Chilian copper is sulphuret?—A. Yes; and so is the Arizona and Montana copper.

EMIL E. CARL.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 29, 1882.*

Mr. EMIL E. CARL, of Baltimore, importer of vinegar, made the following statement :

An importer of vinegar at this port for the past twelve years, and having called the attention of Congress last year (see inclosure) to the defects existing in the laws governing the manufacture and importation of vinegar, permit me to state as follows :

The law passed March, 1879, sanctioning the use of alcoholic vapor for the manufacture of vinegar has enabled unscrupulous vinegar manufacturers to make a product which is driving the really pure imported vinegar, as well as the good cider vinegar of domestic manufacture, out of the market, leaving the doors open to fraud by enabling parties to make the alcoholic vapor obtained sufficiently strong to be sold as whisky, on each and every gallon of which the government loses 90 cents internal tax.

Theoretically, 1 per cent. of acetic acid (vinegar) requires about nine-tenths of one per cent. absolute alcohol by weight, or $1\frac{1}{8}$ per cent. of alcohol by volume.

This favorable result is, however, never obtained, owing to the loss of alcohol by evaporation. It is safe to say that $1\frac{1}{8}$ per cent. of absolute alcohol by volume does not furnish more than 1 per cent. of acetic acid.

A vinegar neutralizing 35 grains of bicarbonate of potassa requires at least 5 per cent. of absolute alcohol, and vinegar made of a fluid containing but 2 per cent. alcohol would only neutralize about 13 grains of bicarbonate of potassa. Consequently if in the vaporizing process the vapor used to manufacture vinegar is not allowed to contain more than 2 per cent. of alcohol (law of 1879), the domestic vinegar manufacturer cannot and does not make a vinegar saturating more than 13 grains bicarbonate of potassa. It follows, necessarily, that such manufacturers must and do use a vapor containing at least 5 per cent. alcohol to produce a 35 grain, and 16 per cent. or more to make 68 to 70 grain vinegar, from which the government does not receive any tax in any shape or form, directly or indirectly. In fact, such manufacturer is even exempt from taking out a license in the respective States local government.

The importer pays both license and the heavy duties, according to existing tariff laws, that is to say, 1 cent on every $3\frac{1}{2}$ grains, *i. e.*, for 35 grain, 10 cents; for 70 grain, 20 cents, and more in same ratio. The domestic manufacturer can produce and sell an article of 35 grain at 5 cents, 60 grain or more at 12 cents per gallon, including cost of barrels, and with a good paying profit.

The argument for protection made by domestic vinegar manufacturers, that it is meritorious to give to the people a cheap vinegar, becomes void, because the consumer pays about the same price now for vinegar made according to the vaporizing process, paying nothing to the government, as when the manufacturers had to use tax-paid alcohol; and often furnishing an unwholesome article, injurious to the health, because mixed with sulphuric acid to increase strength.

Vinegar can be made from spoiled wine, corn, malt, molasses, or beer mash, beets, and potato mash, by allowing the fermentation to continue

after the sugar contained therein has all been changed to alcohol, free from government tax and restrictions; and as the law now stands, even every farmer is suffering under its effects, being deprived of the chance to utilize the cider made from his fruit crop for vinegar, as has been demonstrated before the Committee on Ways and Means, in January, 1881, by a petition from all sections of the country.

Maintaining that the vinegar imported by me is of a superior quality and strength, and pays an enormous and prohibitory rate of duty, amounting to twice as much as the cost of production, its importation has brought to the government at this port alone, in the past years, the sum of twelve thousand eight hundred dollars annually, besides offering the people an article of unsurpassed purity and fineness.

Now, if either the duty on same would be reduced to 6 cents, as formerly paid, no matter what strength, or the present graduated duty so modified that instead of 35 grain as now paying 10 cents, 70 grains would be allowed to pay that duty, then the domestic manufacturers would be fully enabled to compete at a handsome profit with the imported vinegar of the same strength at a price of 8 cents per gallon.

R. W. S. RAISIN ET AL.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 29, 1882.*

Mr. R. W. S. RAISIN, manufacturer of chemicals, Baltimore, Md., made the following statement :

On the part of chemical manufacturers of Baltimore City, I appear before you, asking for a protective tariff. The interest I represent is one of the largest in this State, and in the Southern and Western States. I respectfully submit the following communications, which I will read :

The large amounts of money that have been expended in the erection of costly leaden chambers for the purpose of the manufacture of sulphuric and other acids during the past decade throughout the United States, and especially in the more southerly sections, are proving to be very unprofitable investments, from the fact that our home manufacturers have no protection against foreign manufacturers of acids, and more especially acids that are obtained as biproducts of such materials as are not manufactured in this country; these waste acids are recovered by the foreign manufacturers, and are used in many artificial chemical compounds which are shipped to our American markets free of duty, and thus are put in competition with our home skilled labor and manufactures, and at such prices that brings about, as a result, the stoppage of the American manufactories. The construction of chemical works is expensive, and after they are constructed there is no other use to which they can be adapted than the one sole purpose of the manufacture of acids. Then, if these chambers are allowed to stand idle the wear and decay is greater on the works than if they were in full operation. The acids that are used to prepare the chemicals that are being imported free of duty really cost the foreign manufacturer nothing, being, as we stated before, a biproduct; and it does not stand to reason that the American manufacturers, with their expensive plant, large capital, and costly skilled labor, can compete with the foreign article that costs the compounder of artificial chemicals nothing. In presenting our petition to this honorable Commission, we do so without any reference whatever to any political bearing that in the past may have surrounded the great question of tariff or free trade. We believe that the great majority of our citizens, of the present day, honestly believe that the American manufacturer is entitled to protection upon the industries of our country; it must be acknowledged that owing to the high price of skilled labor in this country American manufacturers are entitled to protection against the cheap labor of Europe.

We beg to ask the attention of your honorable Commission to a fact not generally understood by many of the good people of this country, that is, the low sea freights obtained by our foreign competitors on the commodities shipped from Europe to this country. During the last decade we have found it a common thing for heavy goods to be imported from England and Germany at very nominal freights, in many instances one or two shillings per ton, and in cases we have known of a whole cargo being brought as ballast, whilst if a manufacturer in Norfolk wishes to ship a cargo of similar goods from Norfolk to Savannah, Ga., he cannot do it at a less cost than from \$2.50 to \$3 per ton, and yet the English manufacturer can load a cargo in Liverpool for Savannah at a sea freight of from 50 cents to \$1 per ton, and pay no duty on the materials shipped to our markets. We therefore beg that your honorable Commission will give to the American manufacturer of sulphuric and muriatic acids such protection as in your judgment you think the American trade is entitled to.

JOSHUA HORNER, JR., & Co.

The manufacture of sulphuric acid has grown to be a business of great magnitude. In the city of Baltimore alone more than forty chambers have been erected, at a cost in construction of millions of dollars, and similar investments have been made throughout the United States. Equally large works for this business exist in Charleston, S. C.; Wilmington, N. C.; Atlanta, Ga.; New Orleans, La.; Port Royal, S. C.; Richmond, Va.; Augusta, Ga.; Saint Louis, Mo.; Wilmington, Del.; Chicago, Ill.; Buffalo, N. Y.; Camden, N. J.; Seaford, Del.; Cleveland, Ohio; New York, N. Y.; Newark, N. J.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Booth Bay, Me.; Ridgefield, N. J.; Wood's Holl, Mass.; Brighton, Mass.; Weymouth, Mass.; Roxbury, Mass.; Boston, Mass.

These extensive bee-hives of industry have for years gladdened our ears with the

musio of their machinery, and supported many thousands of employés and their families, and would still continue to prosper but for the fact of Europe pouring in, free of duty, upon the United States compounds containing these acids. These imported articles are obtained as a side product, and are not made as in this country, as a separate business requiring immense outlay for plant, upon which we pay taxes imposed to maintain our government. In Baltimore alone fully one-third of these investments are now idle, whilst the imports of the European articles have increased in five years from a few hundred tons to 75,000 tons in 1881, and the price of sulphuric acid has consequently fallen from \$1.25 per 100 pounds (a fair living profit) to 55 cents per 100 pounds (a ruinous loss); and the importation of the European compounds continues to increase year by year—paying no duty—and leaving our extensive works to decay and our laborers, who are skilled in this business, to remain idle or seek common labor, at half the amount of wages their experience in this business would demand with proper tariff protection.

We would therefore pray that you give to this industry a protection which is a necessity, and have Europe pay as contribution to our income a reasonable sum for sending her refuse materials free of duty and under assumed names to this country.

WINFIELD S. DUNAN,
Treasurer.

MICH'L T. DORSEY.

R. W. S. RASIN

SLINGLUFF & CO.

P. S. CHAPPELL & SON

P. ZELL & SONS.

GEO. W. GRAFFLIN.

WM. H. GRAFFLIN,

Treasurer.

AUG. C. PRACHT,

Treasurer.

ROBERT OBER,

President.

By the PRESIDENT:

Question. What amount of duty do you ask?—Answer. Thirty per cent. ad valorem.

The abolition of slave labor at the South has rendered necessary increased facilities for agricultural purposes, and among these has grown up a demand for first-class fertilizers to enable the farmers to make larger crops on less land and cause them to mature in a shorter period, and a most important element in the composition of fertilizers manufactured to meet this want, so vital to the best interest of the country, is sulphuric acid. Chambers for the manufacture of this acid requiring, as it does, skilled labor and chemical exactness, have been constructed at Augusta and Savannah, Ga.; Charleston and Port Royal, S. C.; Wilmington, N. C., as well as at many points north of these localities. Many millions of capital are invested and many thousands of hands employed in the production of this acid and the manufacture of articles into which it largely enters. These acid chambers, by reason of their peculiar construction, are useless for any other purpose than that for which they were erected.

This industry has been seriously injured and the profits rendered almost nominal by reason of the competition which has lately sprung up through the introduction of European goods into which this acid and its component parts enter. These foreign articles are now imported free of duty, and coming as they do in large quantities as *ballast*, they are thrown upon our markets in large quantities, and whilst they would not supply the demand for first-class fertilizers called for by the agricultural interest of the country, should the manufacture of sulphuric acid be discontinued in the United States at present prices, nevertheless the spasmodic and irregular introduction of these inferior goods seriously imperils this great and important home industry, employing so much capital and sustaining so much labor.

We therefore ask your honorable body to afford this great industry some degree of protection by fixing such reasonable duty upon these foreign importations as will at least prevent their sale at a price less than cost of manufacture in the United States. Otherwise this immense capital will be practically lost and many thousands of laborers now earning living and remunerative wages will be thrown upon the country to seek such employment as other more fortunate, but overeroded, industries may furnish.

Respectfully submitted.

M. A. STOVALL,
Georgia Chemical Works, Augusta, Ga.

Large investments having been made in Maryland, Virginia, Georgia, North and South Carolina, and other more northern States in "chambers" for the special manufacture of sulphuric acid as a component of fertilizers, they could not compete with

the cheaper products of England made from *waste acid of inferior quality*, and would be compelled to succumb, and thus destroy a large and useful industry, throwing a large number of our laborers, both white and colored, out of employment, and leaving our farmers ultimately at the mercy of English manufacturers, both as to prices and quality.

NAVASSA GUANO COMPANY,
DONALD MACRAE,
C. L. GRAFFLIN,
F. W. KERCHNER,
Of Wilmington, N. C.

BOSTON, *September 27, 1882.*

DEAR SIR: I can offer you acid phosphate per sailing vessel, in bulk, September-October shipment, 1,000 tons, 26 per cent. sol. phosphate, at 55s. per ton 2,240 pounds, and 1,000 tons monthly, October to January, f. o. b. in London. Analysis by Dr. Voelcker.

Payment cash, by banker's credit in London. Freight would not probably exceed 8s. to any northern port, and 10s. to 12s. to a cotton port.

Shall be pleased to have an order from you by early mail, and will cable it.

Yours, truly,

THOS. AUBIN.

Messrs. R. W. S. RAISIN & Co.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Have you investigated the difference between the prices of labor in this country and in Europe, so as to be able to state about what the difference is?—A. Mr. William N. Allen, who is present, can speak from actual knowledge of the facts, as he is English born. A skilled laborer in this line of business in England would be able to get probably \$4 a week if he is an excellent laborer.

Q. What do you pay here?—A. \$15 a week.

Q. Are there large quantities of raw material (pyrites) for the manufacture of sulphuric acid in this country?—A. No establishment that I know of has been able to make sulphuric acid from pyrites of our own production. There is a large manufactory at Camden, N. J., and during the war pyrites were laid down there at \$8 to \$10 a ton.

Q. From Spain?—A. No; from America. Spanish pyrites can be used to some extent.

Q. Do you know that at Atlanta, Ga., they are using Georgia pyrites?—A. That has not yet proved successful.

Q. I think, if my memory does not fail me, that some gentleman informed me that they were using them very successfully now.—A. That is only an experiment, and the experiment has only been made for a few months.

Q. After you get the sulphur out, what is left is very good iron ore, is it not?—A. That depends upon the character of the pyrites used. There is not sufficient iron in the pyrites down here to make them valuable.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. There is the Waldrup bed of pyrites, about 35 miles from Atlanta, in Paulding County, Georgia, to which I call your attention.

The WITNESS. I am not acquainted with that. I will state, however, that that would be entirely out of the reach of any of your petitioners.

Q. You propose to allow the raw material to come in free and tax the product?—A. I am not particular about that. There is no objection to a tax upon all.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 29, 1882.*

WILLIAM N. ALLEN, of the firm of S. S. Allen's sons, manufacturers of phosphates, Philadelphia, submitted the following: -

The undersigned manufacturers of Philadelphia and vicinity embrace ninety chambers for the manufacture of sulphuric acid, capable of producing 130,000 tons of acid annually, costing at present low prices over a million and a half dollars. These chambers, which have cost a million dollars to build, are entirely useless for any other purpose, and the manufacture of the acid is a chemical process of great nicety and exactness, requiring skilled workmen accustomed to the operation. Similar works exist at many points throughout the United States, notably at New York, Boston, Buffalo, Cleveland, Detroit, Chicago, Saint Louis, Richmond, Charleston, Atlanta, &c.

The business of manufacturing the sulphuric acid and also a number of allied chemical compounds of which the acid is a necessary factor, embodying in all the investment of many times the amount of capital stated above and the employment of thousands of laborers, has been prosperous and would continue to flourish and increase, but is now suffering from the importation of cheap European compounds, into the manufacture of which sulphuric acid enters. These European products enter at present free of duty, and their importation has increased enormously in the past few years, until in 1881 it reached 80,000 tons, bringing the price of sulphuric acid here in many instances as low as 60 cents per 100 pounds, or less, which is below the cost of production, and involves loss on manufacturers here, rendering idle in the United States thousands of laborers and millions of invested capital. We therefore pray that you afford protection to our manufacturers by fixing a reasonable duty on the European products.

A committee of our people will be pleased to appear before the Tariff Commission at your session in Baltimore.

PENNSYLVANIA SATR. MANUFACTURING COMPANY,
ALBERT F. DAWSON, *President.*

HARRISON BROS. & CO.

J. J. ALLEN'S SONS.

M. L. SHOEMAKER & C. LERING.

WALTON, WHANN & CO.

SHARPLESS & CARPENTER.

POWERS & WEIGHTMAN.

MORO PHILLIPS, per J. W. CARSON.

CHARLES LENNIGS, *Chemist.*

SARALL & STOVELL.

HENRY BOWEN.

BAUGH & SONS.

NEW JERSEY CHEMICAL COMPANY,

By THOS. B. WATSON, *Treasurer.*

WM. J. JORDAN,

President United States Chemical Company.

COE & RICHMOND.

These signatures comprise every manufacturer of sulphuric acid in Philadelphia and immediate vicinity, and their combined capital is more than \$25,000,000. They are very much interested in the subject. This petition was started at 30 per cent. ad valorem, in order to harmonize with the rest of our Baltimore friends. At the same time, if it is desired, for the sake of harmonizing, to make it \$3 for 2,000 pounds, I give my assurance that every signer of this petition will be satisfied with that amount. I have visited them all and know that they will be perfectly satisfied. That rate is what will be requested by the association of manufacturing chemists, I have understood.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. Why do the manufacturers recommend an ad valorem duty?
—Answer. We do not recommend it specially; we would be fully as well satisfied with \$3 for a ton of 2,000 pounds. Only we have had no experience in tariff matters, and there is no organization among the manufacturers of phosphate of lime, and consequently it is very difficult to get them together to talk the matter over. They want protection, but they

have no fixed idea of what precise amount they do want, and they would be satisfied with \$3 on 2,000 pounds; in fact many would prefer it.

Commissioner OLIVER. I would suggest that you recommend a duty of so much per ton, and make no recommendation whatever as to the number of pounds in a ton, as 2,000 pounds is exceptional; the ton under the tariff is now generally recognized at 2,240 pounds.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. You use the phrase in your petition, "acidulated phosphate of lime, ammoniated or otherwise"; is that a general commercial term?—
A. Acidulated phosphate of lime is a commercial term.

Q. Does it touch ammonia crude?—A. Not at all. No crude materials are affected by these petitions. We do not ask for any duty on sulphuric acid, but on chemical compounds. Peruvian guano will not be affected by any of these petitions. What we ask for is protection as manufacturers.

Commissioner BOTELER. One great want of the present tariff is simplification; general terms should be avoided in any new tariff, so that no mistake can be made.

The WITNESS. We have endeavored to use such terms in our petition as would admit of no misunderstanding whatever. We ask a duty of 30 per cent. ad valorem on acidulated phosphate of lime, ammoniated or otherwise.

Commissioner McMAHON. "Otherwise" is quite a general term.

The WITNESS. Any acidulated phosphate of lime then would cover it. That is the object sought to be covered, whether ammoniated or not.

I might add that 80,000 tons of those cheap European compounds were brought here in 1881, and we have since learned that there were actual shipments of over 90,000 tons last year, and some points we had no information from. So that there were undoubtedly 100,000 tons altogether brought in last year.

Another point that is not touched upon in any of these petitions is, that we consider at present that there is really a duty against us; for instance, in regard to leaden chambers. There is a duty on lead that enters into them, and the discriminations of the tariff are really against manufacturers of the American product.

Mr. S. L. LOOMIS. We wish to state that the names we have handed in to-day represent a capital of from \$90,000,000 to \$100,000,000.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 27, 1882.*

Mr. H. C. JACKSON, of New York City, manufacturer of chemicals, read and submitted the following petitions:

The undersigned, manufacturers of New York and vicinity, state that the business of manufacturing sulphuric acid, and chemical compounds of which the acid is an important part, is being undermined by the importation of European compounds containing sulphuric acid at a lower price than they can be produced for in the United States.

It is respectfully recommended by your petitioners—manufacturers of sulphuric acid and compounds of which it forms an important ingredient—therefore, that acidulated phosphate of lime, ammoniated or otherwise, or any artificial chemical compound containing free phosphoric acid, be subjected to the payment of the duty applying thereto and designated in existing United States tariff as chargeable upon "chemical compounds not otherwise designated."

It is considered that a duty of \$3 per 2,000 pounds would meet the requirements of the case, and be in accordance with the views of the signers to this petition.

MARTIN KALBFLEISCH'S SONS.

DUNDEE CHEMICAL WORKS.

LODI CHEMICAL WORKS.

ABM. GUTTERMAN (Fairfield Chemical Works), for the Staten Chemical Works, limited.

LISTER BROTHERS, by JOHN KEBER.

E. FRANK COE.

READ & Co.

HENRY A. BARLING, Pres't C. C. G. Co.

W. H. BOWKER, Pres't B. F. Co.

THE PHENIX CHEMICAL WORKS, by JAMES GIRDLEY, Treas.

H. C. JACKSON.

JAS. L. MORGAN & Co.

H. J. BAKER & BRO.

WILLIAMS, CLARK & Co.

A PETITION THAT SULPHUR ORE OR PYRITES (CONTAINING OVER 45 PER CENT. OF SULPHUR) SHOULD BE ADMITTED FREE OF DUTY INTO THE UNITED STATES.

To the United States Tariff Commission, 1882:

1. Whereas all raw materials for the manufacture of chemicals and fertilizers should be imported free of duty not only to promote the employment of labor, but to encourage the production of manufactured products belonging to the chemical and fertilizer trades at the lowest cost.

2. And whereas the fertilizer and chemical trades of this country have hitherto been at a disadvantage as compared with European countries, owing chiefly to the high price and cost of making sulphuric acid from brimstone, which raw material has virtually been discarded in Europe in favor of pyrites or sulphur ore containing over 45 per cent. sulphur, for the purposes of acid manufacture.

3. And whereas sulphuric acid can be made more cheaply from pyrites or sulphur ore containing over 45 per cent. sulphur than from brimstone, provided such sulphur ore is sold at reasonable prices.

4. And whereas Spanish sulphur ore—to the free importation of which the success of the chemical and fertilizer trades in Europe is principally owing—is, so far as this country is concerned, burdened by a considerable duty, 20 per cent. ad valorem.

5. And whereas brimstone is allowed to be imported free of duty.

6. And whereas the free importation of Spanish sulphur ore containing over 45 per cent. of sulphur will, to the extent of the present amount of duty, reduce the price of such raw material in this country.

7. And whereas the removal of such duty on such Spanish sulphur ore containing over 45 per cent. sulphur will not interfere with the development of similar pyrites or sulphur ore deposits in this country, such deposits of similar ore not having been worked to any great extent.

8. And whereas the copper contents of such sulphur ores containing over 45 per cent. sulphur range very low, from half of one per cent. to three per cent. only; and whereas such copper contents cannot be realized until after much labor and expense have been brought to bear thereon.

9. And whereas the removal of such duty would, both directly and indirectly, benefit the fertilizer, chemical, and oil industries, as well as the labor and agricultural classes of this country.

10. Now, therefore, the undersigned manufacturers petition that pyrites or sulphur ore, containing over 45 per cent. sulphur, should, like brimstone, be admitted free of duty.

Signed by—

Staten Chemical Company, limited, Elizabethport, N. J., sulphuric acid and chemicals. Capital represented, \$250,000.

Clark's Cove Guano Company, Dartmouth, Mass., sulphuric acid. Capital represented, \$250,000.

Read & Co., New York, fertilizer manufacturers. Capital represented, \$150,000.

Bowker Fertilizing Company, R. C. Davidge, general agent, New York, fertilizer manufacturers. Capital represented, \$600,000.

Total amount of capital invested by the preceding four firms, \$1,250,000.

Seal, Lawson, Kessler & Co.

NOTE.—Owing to this petition having only been prepared on September 28 with a view to being presented at Baltimore on September 29, 1882, there has not been time to obtain other signatures, but a further petition is being prepared and signed in favor of this important matter.

New York, September 28, 1882.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Question. Can you present any statistics in regard to wages paid?—
Answer. No, sir; I have no statistics, but, roughly speaking, I suppose

there is a difference of about 50 per cent. on unskilled labor between the wages paid in this country and those paid in England. As to skilled labor, it is exceedingly difficult to say. It ranges in this country sometimes to the extent of 300 or 400 per cent. greater than that of England, dependent of course upon the supply and demand.

Q. That is merely your general impression?—A. Those are the results of my knowledge of labor in the respective countries.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Have you personal knowledge of the value of labor abroad?—A. Yes.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. What proportion does labor bear to the product?—A. In connection with the manufacture of sulphuric acid from pyrites, labor forms a very considerable item. The proportion of labor is about 18 to 20 per cent. of the total cost of the manufacture. The cost of the sulphur is about 60 per cent.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. We were told in Richmond yesterday that there were large and inexhaustible quantities of pyrites in Virginia and in West Virginia, easy of access.—A. I am very glad to hear it. I can only trust that they will be developed, and it is a great pity that they have not been developed before. Anything by which the acid manufacturers of this country can get their raw material cheaper than they can get it to-day is certainly a very important matter.

Q. Do you think that there is any probability of it being developed if Congress would accede to your request and place the articles on the free list?—A. That all depends upon whether the quantity is so large, the quality so good, and the access to it so easy as has been represented. There are deposits in New England, at Milan, N. H., and at Charlemont, Mass.; there are deposits also near Atlanta, Ga., and some in Virginia.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. In connection with the information we had yesterday at Richmond about deposits of pyrites in Virginia and West Virginia, we were told by gentlemen conversant with the facts, that if the tariff was reduced it would be disastrous to their interests and prevent that which you seem to think is desirable. In that view, do you think it well that the manufacture should be made to depend entirely upon the foreign article?—A. No, sir; though it appears to me that it would be a very good thing for the manufacturers. It is a question which is the more important, the manufacturing interest or the interest of the owners of these pyrites deposits? If pyrites are admitted free there is no doubt the manufacturers would get the benefit, and, if they are not admitted free, the price is so much higher to the manufacturer, so far as I can see. If the cost of mining is too great it would certainly be against their interest.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. I understood you to say that if they are admitted free the manufacturers would be benefited. What effect would it have upon the consumers?—A. The ultimate effect upon them would be that the manufactured products would be so much the cheaper.

Commissioner OLIVER. I put the question to you because the statement of the manufacturers was that there were no deposits of any

moment developed in this country, and that they had to depend upon foreign supplies.

The WITNESS. The development so far is very small. The consumption of pyrites in other countries is very large, and there is every indication that they will ultimately take the place of brimstone in this country. So that the consumption of pyrites will be enormous, but enormous because it is a low-priced material.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. Can you approximate the amount of the present annual consumption of pyrites in this country?—A. I should say about 40,000 tons; a very large proportion of it is Canadian pyrites.

Commissioner PORTER read the following letter, which was ordered to be printed in connection with the foregoing petitions :

BOSTON, *September 27, 1882.*

DEAR SIR: The main objections to, or, in other words, the unfairness of allowing fertilizers to come from England free of duty are these: If we purchase sulphate of ammonia from England to put into our fertilizers we are obliged to pay a duty of 20 per cent.; we are obliged to pay 2 cents per pound on each and every pound of lead which we use in building our acid-chambers; the same is true to a certain extent so far as iron is concerned; in a word, an acid-chamber costs 70 per cent. more in this country than in England. When this is considered, and then the fact that all ammoniates coming to this country in manures come free, but whenever they are imported separately we have to pay duties, it is readily seen that we cannot compete with the English market; hence, if England is allowed to import goods free of duty we at least should have the privilege of importing lead and sulphate of ammonia and other ammonia materials free of duty. If this cannot be done we must discontinue the business in this country unless a duty is imposed on imported fertilizers. We wish you would attend the meeting and indorse for us any measure that is brought up to promote the interest manufacturers of fertilizers in this country.

Very truly, yours,

WM. L. BRADLEY,
President.

LOUIS F. DETRICK, Esq., *Baltimore, Md.*

SILAS M. LOOMIS.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 29, 1882.*

Mr. SILAS M. LOOMIS, manufacturer of palmetto fiber, Fernandina, Fla., made the following statement :

I represent an entirely new interest. For many years every attempt to produce fiber from the palmetto, which grows so abundantly in Florida on the borders of the Gulf, was unsuccessful. It never succeeded until within two years. It is now found that palmetto has a very fine fiber which can be made available for many purposes, even for spinning and weaving. It is found that it will work into woollen cloths to the extent of about 50 per cent., and experts are not able to determine whether it is all wool or part palmetto fiber.

At the very commencement of this industry, however, we found that bamboo, ratan, and cocoa fiber were sent in here free of duty at a less price even than we could get the palmetto cut with our cheap labor. What we wish, therefore, is that those raw materials should be taken from the free list and have a duty placed upon them. The duty should be from 1 to 4 cents a pound, 1 cent for that which is partly worked up into a kind of rope, and upon the fiber it should be put at 4 cents a pound. The manufacture has just commenced; it is not extensive, although there is quite a considerable capital engaged in it. Experiments have proceeded so far and productions have been made sufficient to prove that it is valuable material.

The palmetto fiber will make common matting superior to the cocoa matting. It makes all kinds of brushes. It will work into tapestry carpet, both back and front, at about 10 to 12 cents a pound, and make 50 per cent. of that material. It competes with jute, hemp, tampico, and almost all these foreign fibers that belong to the palmetto family. In this country we have ignored the whole palmetto crop in the South, because we could not get the fiber out. And now when we can get it out, it comes in competition with all these foreign fibers that are produced by cheap labor in different parts of the world.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Question. Do you get it out by machinery?—Answer. Yes; we have now a single machine that will produce one ton per day. That one machine takes the palmetto and puts it through the first essential process to produce the coarse material. It then goes through other machines, and is worked down to an exceedingly fine fiber. The colored people, and also white people, to some extent, bring the material to the factory, and the price we have to pay them for that is so much that we cannot compete with the foreign articles.

So the tariff we propose is absolutely and solely for the benefit of the laborer. We have only been two years producing this, and during these two years the effort has been to see whether the machinery was a practical thing or not. Now, that is fully settled, and the machinery will produce a ton a day.

In Newark, N. J., they import bamboo (the fiber of which is almost identical with palmetto fiber) in little strips about 14 to 15 inches long,

and treat it chemically to bring it out into a kind of wool. You will see in the New York City Directory "Wool fiber," and under that you will see "Bamboo fiber"; that is for establishments of that kind. They have taken that bamboo wool, as they call it, to the mills in Massachusetts, and put it into beaver cloth, and put that beaver cloth out with other cloth, and directed attention to it; and the cloth which had the bamboo in it was not detected.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. What effect would dampness have upon it?—A. I do not know. I have seen 45 per cent. of this bamboo fiber in what are called fur hats, and an expert thought it was all fur. I do not propose to ask the Commission to have this duty put on in order to bring this commodity in for fine work; that is not the point. What we wish to do is to produce the fiber in a coarse condition, say something like hair for mattresses, throw that to the trade, and let the trade work it up as they please.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. Are there any other factories in the South besides yours?—A. No, sir; not now; but companies are organizing and proposing to go forward.

By Commissioner BOTELEER :

Q. Is it more durable than ramie?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. How does it compare in durability with jute?—A. I cannot say certainly in regard to that.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. How does it compare with wool as to durability?—A. I don't suppose that it has been tested long enough to say positively whether it is as durable or not. We wish to put it in mattresses for bedding. That will take all that 50 factories can produce right along, taking the place of hair and husks, and all that sort of material. We do not wish to reduce it down any further. Cocoa fiber for matting is sold in New York for about 5 to 8 cents, according to quality.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. What will your article cost?—A. Just about the same.

Q. What is your treatment of the material; is it chemical or mechanical?—A. It is mechanical entirely.

Q. The machine is one of recent inventions?—A. Yes. I think there have been about 200 attempts at machines for producing this fiber, but none of them, except the one I speak of, has succeeded in bringing it out practically.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Q. Is the material abundant and inexhaustible?—A. Yes; there are millions of tons of it; and in working it at Fernandina, I found that land which is considered worthless and which is burned over every year, being covered by this palmetto, would produce about \$80 to the acre for the raw material.

Q. Is it the small palmetto?—A. Both kinds.

Q. Could you not make cotton bagging out of it?—A. I think so; I have never made any; I have confined myself to reducing that leaf to a condition where other people can take it and go on still further. I only want to produce it in bales like the raw cotton, and let other people work it up.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. Is it from the leaf you make it?—A. From the leaf and the stem of the leaf. The stem of the leaf is all sizes, from the size of your little finger to a foot long, and from the size of your wrist to 14 inches long. The average weight of the stems we are now using is about half a pound, and the average length of the fiber, as we get it out, is about 6 feet. That is put up in bales and sent to market. Bamboo for fish-poles is specified in the tariff act. I have no objection to its coming in free; but I object to bamboo, ratan, and coacoa coming in to be worked up as fiber. Bamboo is mostly imported from Jamaica, and coacoa from the East Indies, where labor is almost nominal.

WILLIAM PECK ET AL.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 30, 1882.*

The following communication was read and ordered to be printed :

To the honorable Tariff Commission :

GENTLEMEN: The petition of your subscribers respectfully represents :

That we are glass-blowers, and workers in glass; that from the fruits of our labor we support our families. We are citizens of Baltimore, and as such are entitled to protection from the government. We therefore beg leave to call the attention of your honorable body to the following statements of facts, and ask, at your hands, such legislation as may secure to us justice, and such protection as was intended by the passage of the laws heretofore framed for the protection of the glass-manufacturing interests of this country.

The tariff laws of this country were evidently framed for the protection of the manufacturing interest, and the import duties imposed upon manufactured demijohns were wisely laid; yet the spirit of the law in this respect is constantly violated, and its essence nullified, by the practice indulged in by certain importers of manufactured glass, who cause to be shipped to this country demijohns of various dimensions, filled with vinegar or other fluids, either *low-dutiable* or *non-dutiable*, which on their arrival here, are emptied of their contents, and are then thrown upon the markets here, to the great disadvantage of our interests, and to the great detriment of the glass-manufacturing business of this country. Wine, beer, and all bottles, as also mineral-water bottles, are exempt from duty *as bottles*, and after being emptied of their contents are sold in the market here, to the detriment of our trade. And also, we are credibly informed that certain bottles, such as quart beers and wines, are brought here from Europe as ballast, and because of the duties upon manufactured articles (as ballast, being so low), are sold in our markets here at prices with which our home labor find it impossible to compete.

For these reasons, therefore, we trust your honorable body will recommend a redress of the grievances complained of, and your petitioners will ever pray, &c.

WM. PECK,
JOHN LONG,
JOHN WILLIAMS,
WM. EBERT,
JOHN SMITH,
Committee.

B. S. BENSON.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 30, 1882.*

Mr. B. S. BENSON, of Baltimore, of the firm of B. S. Benson & Co., manufacturers of steam plows, addressed the Commission as follows:

I was in Fargo a few days ago, and learned that there was a petition being gotten up to take off the duty on steam plows. Being a manufacturer, and having invented a steam plow myself, I thought it well to oppose the motion to take off the duty. Now, after five years of hard labor, I have succeeded in making a plow that will plow 100 acres in 24 hours with 30-horse power. It has an attachment for burning straw and cutting off the stubble.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. What is the price?—Answer. \$3,500.

Q. What is the price of the imported plow?—A. I could not tell; I have heard different prices stated.

Q. Is there any other factory besides yours in the United States for the manufacture of such plows?—A. No, sir.

Q. How many such plows are in existence?—A. One. I have made five different ones in improving it, and have spent \$20,000 to \$25,000. We propose to run this engine night and day.

Q. The steam plow that is imported from England is not moved by traction engines?—A. Yes, sir; when the machine moves across the headlands it is moved by a traction engine. I have succeeded in running my machine over the softest ground, where a horse could not go. Where a horse will mire, I will go over. The man who has the English machine in charge jumped off the cars at Fargo the other day and told me they were going to get the duty taken off.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. To what extent are steam plows used now in the United States?—A. There are only two that I know of—one at Fargo, and mine here in Maryland. Mine will plow twice as much as that. I timed it and it plowed 17 acres and a fraction in ten hours.

Q. Where has yours been in operation?—A. Here on the Orange farm, close to Baltimore, and out to Relay. I had one there for two years.

Q. To what extent have you used it?—A. On 5 or 6 acres of land. It was only completed in August. We tested it and found that we could turn the corners of streets. I would not let it go to the public until we could do that. It is what is called an endless-chain traction engine. When I first went in the field we could turn on 1,000 feet; then we reduced it to 350, and now we can turn round in about 50 feet. It will run over the ground with about 15 pounds of steam.

Q. You plow with a traction engine?—A. Yes, sir; we plow a rod wide and 8 inches deep.

Q. When did you get it ready for final use?—A. About the first of August this year. As soon as I found it perfected I went to the Red River of the North to see the chances for using it there.

Q. The only trial has been here?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You say that your plow will cost about \$3,500?—A. That is to be the retail price.

Q. Does that include the traction engine to draw it?—A. All complete; two sets of plows, breakers, &c.

Q. You have some idea of the cost of foreign plows?—A. I have seen notices showing that their cost was from \$5,000 to \$6,000.

Q. Did you see the English plow work?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner BOTELEER:

Q. How does yours compare with English steam plows that are drawn from side to side of the field by stationary engines?—A. About \$3,500 for mine; and we can plow as much again as they can. Some grounds are much harder to plow than others, and unless we had the two plows at work in the same ground it would hardly be a fair test. I saw the English machine plow prairie stubble, and mine was on sandy soil in Maryland. I think that prairie soil was lighter than the soil here.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. That is to say, yours would do more work there than here?—A. Yes, sir; but here they plow 8 inches deep; and out there they only plow 5 inches deep. That soil is kind of poison; if they turn up too much of it at first they lose their crops. There is a great desire on Red River to get steam plows—a perfect mania for them.

HORACE L. BROOK.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 30, 1882.*

Mr. HORACE L. BROOK, iron manufacturer, of Baltimore, addressed the Commission as follows:

I do not think the duty is sufficient on pig iron. The average cost in this country, I suppose, is about \$19 to \$20 a ton—to be sure they can make it cheaper—while the raw material is not worth more than \$2; the rest of it is made up by labor, directly and indirectly, which would be about \$18 a ton. We all know that labor, especially skilled labor, in the iron and mining department is not more than half in England what it is here. The Pittsburgh puddlers struck for \$6 a ton, while in England the highest price for puddling is 7s. 6d., just about \$1.83, making a difference of nearly \$4 a ton in one department alone. There is not a single rolling-mill proprietor in this country who would not willingly contract for its total product for ten years to come at a profit of \$3 a ton.

A great many people say that all this talk of the manufacturers is for their own selfish purposes, and that it is not for the poor workingmen. I say it is for the workingmen, because the iron manufacturers of this country do not receive a large percentage on their investments; it has not been the history of the trade. The steel interest, to be sure, has made a great deal of money. The special duty passed by Congress upon steel rails brought about a very lively competition, and a production over and above the requirements of the country, which put the prices down from \$120 to \$40 a ton. If it had not been for these American works, the English would have control of the market, and instead of the prices coming down to \$40 a ton they would be held at \$80. At least, I think that is a fair surmise. I know of one concern that thought that \$2,000,000 was gone when steel rails went down to \$40, and they had to issue bonds to the extent of a million dollars, and sold these bonds at 80, to keep them from breaking. After that the boom came, and in this country every business was lively, particularly railroad building, which put up the prices of steel rails and enabled them to get through; but they have never made more than 8 per cent. on their capital.

Now, while I am uncompromisingly a protectionist, yet I do not want to be protected in any way which will injure any other American in his production or in his business. But in this section of the country there is a large amount of ore that cannot be worked alone. Within 70 miles of here, upon the Potomac on the Virginia shore, right across from the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, there is a mine that ought to be furnishing labor to 200 men every day. But, on account of the large percentage of phosphorus contained in those ores, they cannot be used alone. They could be used, however, in connection with Spanish ores, in which there is almost a total absence of phosphorus. Our ores, especially the ores on the Atlantic coast, are largely impregnated with phosphorus. If you make iron of those ores alone, it could not be manufactured to advantage and would not sell. Take one-half of this ore and mix it with one-half Spanish ore, and the aggregate would be iron containing hundredths of phosphorus, which is considered a desirable Bessemer pig.

We contend that the introduction of these ores will benefit the ore interest of the country rather than injure it. There is very little labor in producing a ton of ore, which is really the raw material. If I were a Western man I do not think I should object to a low duty upon foreign ores; but, being of this section of the country, I should certainly recommend either a reduction of the duty or no advance.

The whole question of the different prices of the manufactured articles of this country and of Europe comes down to a very simple thing—the price of labor. There is not an article manufactured in the world that we cannot duplicate here, and make it cheaper than it can be made in Europe. But we do not think it desirable to put our labor upon that basis; we do not want to come in contact with labor so poorly paid. And then, again, I question whether we could make our mechanics work for such small wages, because we have too much land; and if they were not paid enough they would go to farming, and would raise not only what they now purchase from the farmer, but would actually come into competition with the farmer with products to sell. I am not yet an old man, but I have seen wheat overproduced, and I have seen it sell at 60 cents a bushel. Farm products can be overproduced just as well as manufactured articles, and I do not see, and never could see, why the interests of the farmer and manufacturer need not go hand in hand. If we want manufactures in this country, we must have a protective duty nearly equal to the difference between the price of labor in this country and that on the other side.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Question. In the great variety of iron ores we have in this country, are there none that can be substituted for this Spanish ore, so free from phosphorus?—Answer. There are a few. There is one mine, the great Cornwall mine in Pennsylvania, and there are a very few in Alabama; I do not think there are any in Maryland; but there are some in Virginia, on the James River. The amount of such ore, however, is quite limited.

Q. If I am well informed on the subject, in regard to this Cornwall mine, it is the most remarkable in the country, if not in the world.—A. It is the greatest mine in the world.

Q. Would not that supply the demand in this State?—A. No; the ore from the Cornwall can be used in mixture only. It has too much sulphur, which makes the steel red-short; that is, brittle and easy to break to pieces. This ore that has the phosphorus in it you can work very readily when hot. If you start on a turnpike with a horse shod with shoes made of that kind of iron, you won't drive ten miles until you break every shoe, because the iron is rotten when cold. So that even with the Cornwall ore the foreign ores are necessary for mixing. The Spanish ores are unusually free from phosphorus, and contain no sulphur at all scarcely. The last cargo we received at a freight of 14s. per ton; that is about \$3.50. We have paid \$3.50 a ton from the Mediterranean, while pig iron was coming in here from England at 3s. a ton, simply because England takes our grain, while the people living upon the shores of the Mediterranean, in Spain and Africa, do not want our grain, and their vessels do not come here in ballast; consequently freight from there is higher. That will always be a protection to American ore.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. Was not \$3.50 exceptionally high?—A. No, sir; 10s. is considered a fair freight; that is about \$2.50. I never knew any to be brought for less than 10s., and 14s. is the highest.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Have you ever investigated the ores found in the neighborhood of Tellico Plains, in East Tennessee, near the North Carolina line?—A. No, sir.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. There were iron works there thirty years ago, on a little stream called Tellico River. The ore is entirely free from both phosphorus and sulphur. A railroad is now penetrating that country from Marietta, Ga., and it might be of advantage to manufacturers to investigate them. The post-office is Tellico Plains, Monroe County, Tennessee.

The WITNESS. There is a great deal of ore in North Carolina that is of fine quality; it is free from both sulphur and phosphorus, and, in the old style of making iron directly from the ore, they made a very good quality of iron from it.

Q. Are you acquainted with the ores that are taken out at Anniston, Ala.?—A. Yes, sir; the pig iron contains about fifteen hundredths of phosphorus, and it would not do for Bessemer. It makes an excellent carbon iron. For ordinary purposes pig iron may contain one-half of one per cent. of phosphorus and make a very good iron, but it will not do for Bessemer.

Q. How are the Lake Superior ores?—A. They are very fine, indeed.

Q. Is there not enough ore in that locality to supply the American demand?—A. I do not know. The price has been very high. We have tried to get it here, but found it an utter impossibility. They have been able by combinations to get good prices at the mines, and that, together with the heavy railroad freights, prevents us from getting them.

Q. From the description I have had of the Lake Superior mines it would seem that there is enough there to supply any demand whatever; and then there are the lakes and the Erie Canal for transportation to New York and the ocean.—A. It has to be taken to the lake first by railroad, and then loaded in vessels, and then put on the railroad again and taken to Pittsburgh, or wherever the furnaces are.

Q. Suppose it was to go through the lakes to Buffalo, there take the Erie Canal to New York, and thence by water transportation by way of the Atlantic Ocean to Baltimore?—A. I am afraid the freight would be too great. We have to pay for freight on pig iron between here and New York \$2 a ton, although I have sometimes got it as low as \$1.50; and that is not a very great distance.

Q. Do not those high rates of freight result from the low state to which American shipping has fallen on account of the navigation laws and tonnage duties?—A. That is a point I am glad you have spoken of. Although I am not a shipper, and have never looked into the matter very elaborately, yet at the same time I think there is a very wrong impression about the injury done to the shipping interests by a protective tariff.

Q. I was not intending to intimate that opinion; but the navigation laws and tonnage duties, it is said, prevent the building of ships in this country.—A. Last spring one of our men, who had been a stevedore, told me that he had been unloading ore from an Italian vessel, and one of the sailors said to him: "What do you get here?" He replied: "Twenty cents an hour." The Italian sailor said: "Twenty cents an hour! That is all we get a day. We get our board, to be sure; but we only get \$6 a month." It is not the difference in the cost of vessels, it is the difference in the price of labor. If labor can be had for \$6 a month on

the one, and \$25 to \$30 a month must be paid on the other, the vessel that cost \$100,000 with cheap labor can beat the other vessel with the higher labor. So I contend that it is not the difference in the cost of vessels. I believe Mr. Roach can duplicate any of their vessels. But after you have got the vessel the charges are so great, and, above all things else, they get their labor so much cheaper.

Q. Over thirty years ago I read an article in De Bow's Review upon ship-building and sailors. The writer's opinion was that we could never have good sailors unless we had ships built at our own ports, for the reason that the ship-yards trained the sailors; and when a ship was built and took on board sailors, trained at that port, they came back from their voyages, like chickens to roost, to the port whence they sailed, to see their wives and children. Now, if we had American ship-building properly encouraged, a merchant marine and ship-yards, would not these coasting freights and all freights be immensely reduced?—A. I have no doubt of it; I think so. I think this government ought to take special interest in the ship-building of the country and ought to promote it. I would even go for a subsidy. Other countries give subsidies, and we cannot expect to compete with other countries unless we do as they do, to a certain extent.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. You request a free admission of Spanish and African ores. It is your desire, as I understand, to obtain for the manufacturers on the seaboard some of the advantages for obtaining ores which those in the interior have?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You speak of magnetic ore in Pennsylvania containing sulphur. Could not that sulphur be removed by roasting?—A. It is very hard to get rid of. They have put up mills and can remove a certain portion, but still that red-short character of the Cornwall iron has never been eradicated by any process they could put the ore through—that is, any practically commercial process.

Q. I have seen very highly sulphurous ores converted into admirable ores by roasting?—A. Yes; you can make them; but still it retains its red-short character too much to make a steel rail by itself.

Q. You spoke about the advantages of making rails in this country. Do you remember any expression of opinion from railroad men themselves in relation to the advantages of protection?—A. Yes; I have had frequent conversations with them on that subject.

Q. Do you remember any general statements of that kind signed by large bodies of railroad men?—A. Oh, yes, sir. In 1878, I think it was, when Fernando Wood wanted to reduce the tariff, I think there was a petition gotten up and signed by almost every prominent railroad man in this country requesting Congress not to reduce the duty on steel rails. The Pennsylvania Railroad Company signed it, the Philadelphia, Wilmington and Baltimore Railroad Company, and nearly all the prominent railroads. Mr. Garrett, of the Baltimore and Ohio, did not sign.

Q. The consumers of railroad iron themselves were in favor of protection upon the ground that their supplies of railroad iron were more secure?—A. Yes, sir. The iron works here are great feeders of railroads. Last year the Cambria Company paid the Pennsylvania Railroad over a million and a quarter dollars for freight. That is quite an item. We have got the money and labor here, and somebody gets it. If the railroads have to pay a little more for their iron, they get reimbursed in the freights they receive from those works, which otherwise would have to stop.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. Your judgment is that putting these foreign ores upon the free list would not interfere with the ore interests in this country?—A. I think it would benefit them. If I thought for one moment that it would injure the ore interests of this country, I should advocate an increase of duty.

Q. Not being interested in ore, why do you assume that position?—A. Upon the broad principle of protection to American industry, and that alone. I believe that it would benefit me as well as others; but, even if it indirectly injured me, I would be in favor of it for the general good.

Q. That is to say, you regard it as being for the general good?—A. Yes, sir. If these ores could be brought from England in such quantities as they are brought from Spain, then I should say put on an increased duty, because the freight would be so cheap from England that it would be a great injury to our home mining. But, as I stated, the present condition will probably exist for years to come; that is, the Mediterranean people will never want any of our grain, or heavy products, which would take vessels over there, and, consequently, vessels could not bring ore here in ballast, as they do from England.

Q. Has there been any considerable importation of iron ores from England here directly?—A. No; there has not, because England is scarce of that very kind of ores herself, and takes them very largely from Spain.

Q. As I understand, the necessity for Mediterranean ores has reference to the making of Bessemer steel?—A. Yes, sir. I would also have it distinctly understood that it is not for that reason alone (because American people think that interest has been too greatly protected already), but on account of the Mediterranean ores being free from phosphorus, and it being necessary to mix them with our ores in order to make them marketable.

Q. Those Spanish ores are generally useful as neutralizing ores?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is it your experience here that there is \$18 worth of labor in a ton of pig iron?—A. We do not pay that. I have not gone into the question of railroad freights, indirect labor, and all that, very closely.

Q. In the first place you pay for the labor in producing the ore?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And then there is the additional labor of manufacturing?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is it your impression that the labor would run up to \$18 on the average?—A. Yes, sir; I think so.

Q. Do I understand that you have made it the subject of study and comparison so that you are able to say that that is a well-considered opinion?—A. Yes, sir; I think that would be true on the average. Pig iron can be made as low as \$14 a ton in certain localities, showing that the labor there would only be about \$12, but those are exceptional cases.

Q. Where are those exceptional cases?—A. I know of some places in Alabama, but the amount of production in those sections, in comparison with the consumption, would be so small that it would hardly pay.

Q. What have been the average English prices for pig iron, say for two or three years, or for such time as you are able to make a comparison?—A. You can buy some there for \$16, and some for \$11. We get some cold-short iron here at \$18, and make about the same as by selling good iron at \$23 or \$24; but the question is, can you always sell

that iron? It is sometimes hard to get a customer for that quality of iron, because it is not a desirable article.

Q. And it is also an iron little likely to be imported largely?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Simply because it is an unsalable article?—A. And it can be made so cheaply in England, too.

Q. Do I understand you, then, that English prices of pig range from \$11 to \$16?—A. You will have to take the different kinds of pig.

Q. But when you undertake to make a tariff that characterizes pig, I want your general idea as to prices.—A. I suppose \$13.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Do you include Scotch pig in that?—A. No; I do not think you could get good Scotch pig; but you can get the other pig cheaper.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. What can you get good Scotch pig for?—A. I suppose it would be about \$14.

Q. What would be the ocean freight on it?—A. That depends so much upon circumstances. A year ago I knew pig iron to be brought here for one shilling a ton.

Q. That is to say, returning vessels brought it in ballast, when it only costs the handling?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. But the general range of prices would be what?—A. I suppose it would be 6s. or 7s.; that is, about \$1.50 or \$1.75.

Q. Counting \$20 as the average cost of pig here, what do you regard as a fair profit for making it?—A. With anthracite furnaces we can make it at \$2 a ton; not a big profit at all.

Q. What is your judgment as to whether the present rate of duty on steel rails (\$28 a ton) is a fair rate?—A. I think that is a high rate; and I think it was put there specially to encourage the building of our steel establishments. You can buy steel rails in England for about \$25 a ton, but I do not think that will continue long, for some of them are losing money at that. I am giving the very lowest prices. You might say \$28. The bringing of the rails over here would be \$3 or \$4, and you might count insurance, handling, and all that—very nearly \$5. Against that our steel works are in the interior, and a great many of those have to send to market at a cost almost half as great as this; so I do not think it is fair to add more than \$3 to the freight to equalize the difference between freight in this country and the ocean freight. Now, especially when rails go South, they can be shipped from England to Southern ports as cheap as they can from our own steel works, if not cheaper. What the South wants is such a tariff as will encourage them to put up steel works there and make their own rails, and not bring them from England, or from the North either.

Q. They must find the material to make the rails from.—A. They have got it down there. There is no reason, if they want a mixture of foreign ores, why they should not be able to get them on the sea-coast down there, as well as to take them from Pittsburgh.

Q. I believe it is pretty generally conceded that the rate on steel is more than it should be, is it not?—A. Oh, yes, sir; I do not think any sensible man would come before you and say the present rate is necessary at all.

Q. What, in your judgment, would be a fair and reasonable rate?—A. \$18 a ton.

Q. In your computation you have taken the very lowest price that you have known steel rails to be sold at in England, and I think you

said that that would not continue?—A. I think it would not; but I always want to calculate on the safe side for American manufacturers. I want just enough tariff to protect the labor of this country against the low-priced labor of Europe, but not enough to give the manufacturer power to impose upon the consumer. That always ought to be considered.

Q. We had a statement from Hon. Abram S. Hewitt, at Saint Paul, and his opinion was that from \$14 to \$16 would afford adequate protection. Would that meet your views?—A. I name \$18.

Q. You think the rates he has suggested are too low?—A. Rather low, I think. I believe our present steel works could live; but I do not believe there would be any building under a duty as low as \$14.

Q. What, in your judgment, is the cause of the reduction in prices of steel rails in the last ten years?—A. The American people have gone far ahead of the Europeans in cheapening the labor connected with manufactures.

Q. That is, reducing the quantity of labor.—A. Of course; not in the prices, but by reducing the quantity of labor in consequence of the introduction of machinery. Then another thing, it can be made so rapidly that these works throw so much into the market that the competition now brings down the prices. Of course, the price of labor will in the end govern the price of an article; but that is not always the case, because sometimes the supply is in excess of the demand.

Q. In that case the market would soon break and the supply decrease?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. We understood when we were at Chicago that they were selling steel rails there as low as \$45 a ton. Is it your idea that that would be less than the cost of production, or are you acquainted with the conditions at Chicago?—A. Yes, sir; I am pretty nearly as well acquainted with the business there as here. I suppose they can make them at that price without losing any money on them.

Q. But you do not think there would be any profit in it?—A. I do not think there would be any profit.

Q. I understand your idea is that there has been a real, substantial benefit to the people and to the railroads of this country by reason of even this excessive tariff on steel rails?—A. Yes, sir; I believe firmly if it had not been for that, that instead of steel rails selling at \$45 they would be \$90 to-day. The English manufacturer does not sell cheap always because he can make cheap. He never sells cheap when he can command the market and get high prices.

Q. How do you account for the reduction in the price of rails so much below the rate for which the foreign rails can be placed here?—A. It is on account of home competition.

Q. Entirely that?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. The present demand is good, I believe?—A. Yes, sir; but the works are a little slack of orders.

Q. That would seem to indicate that we had arrived at the point where there is an excessive production?—A. Yes, sir; we have got up to the point where our mills can produce a million and a half of tons of steel rails annually; and that will make a great many miles of railroad. What gave such a boom to the business is that all these great railroads had iron rails, but they found it necessary in their traffic to put down steel rails; and, as the iron rails would give out soon anyhow, a great many were taken up before they were worn out. They commenced doing that when steel was low. That created a very great demand for all these

main stems which I do not believe will ever occur again. I think now all the steel men are going to have a hard time and are going to work upon a low margin for years to come.

Q. Will it be profitable to make steel rails at \$45?—A. I think you will find the Pennsylvania steel works, at Johnstown, and the Edgar Thompson steel works quite up to the Chicago works, which have been more recently built. The old establishments have been throwing out their old apparatus and putting in new.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Do we make as good rails in this country as the English?—A. Just as good, if not better. The Pennsylvania Railroad Company has a chemical formula by which it has steel rails made, and those rails have all got to come up to that by analysis, or very near it, otherwise they are condemned. I think their preference is for American rails.

Q. From your knowledge of the mineral resources of the South, and other advantages there, how will it compare with other parts of our country?—A. I think the Southern country will eventually be the great iron producing region of this country. I think in Tennessee, Alabama, and Virginia, and perhaps in some parts of North Carolina and Georgia, they have large iron deposits. Their ores are very fine there, but, while I mention them, there are not a great many that are really Bessemer ores. A great many of them are low in phosphorus—so low that they are valuable for many other purposes; and if it was necessary for them to have Bessemer ores, they could take Spanish ores just as well as our sea-ports in the North take them. They have very fine coal, and very cheap labor in the South in juxtaposition to the ore.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. The great cost of making the iron is getting the materials together?—A. Yes, sir; the freight is one very important item.

S. L. TAYLOR.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 30, 1882.*

The following communication was read and ordered to be printed :

To the Tariff Commission :

Absence from the city when the Commission was here prevented my appearing before it to call attention to the duties exacted on wild animals. These duties do not protect any American industry, nor do they yield any considerable revenue, yet are very burdensome to the various zoological societies established throughout the country. These societies have gardens in which beasts, birds, and reptiles are kept in their natural condition as near as safety to visitors will permit. These gardens are permanent public educators, and have already done much in diffusing zoological knowledge. They have been established by zoological enthusiasts for the public benefit, and not with a view to profit. Some of them are prohibited from declaring dividends. None of them have ever earned dividends. They are not self-sustaining, and it is safe to say that if their incomes were doubled every cent of surplus over running expenses would be expended in the purchase of rare and interesting animals. The customs duties yearly paid by these zoological societies handicap them heavily, and prevent their extension. No American interest will be injured by the removal of the customs duties now levied on specimens of natural history. On the contrary the zoological knowledge of our people would be largely increased by the removal of the customs duties, as this cheapening of that which we do not and cannot produce would enable the zoological societies to keep their gardens filled with the finest and most interesting specimens of natural history.

Trusting that your Commission will recognize the propriety of admitting free of duty the beasts and reptiles of other lands, as birds are now admitted,

I remain, very respectfully,

S. LESTER TAYLOR,

President Zoological Society of Cincinnati.

CINCINNATI, OHIO, *September 21, 1882.*

CHAS. L. OUDESLUYS.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 30, 1882.*

The following communication was read and ordered to be printed:

To the Tariff Commission:

GENTLEMEN: We notice a statement in the American of to-day regarding the use of "pyrites," in the manufacture of sulphuric acid. It is a well known fact that the largest part of this acid made in England is from pyrites, and that the mineral is considered far cheaper than sulphur—600,000 tons of Spanish and other pyrites having been imported into England in the last year. It averages 48 per cent. sulphur, and is quoted in the English market at 6*d.* per unit of sulphur, or about \$5.76 per ton of 2,240 pounds. If pyrites were wanted in this country there would be no need of sending abroad for them, as they could not be afforded at the prices at which they can be had at home, costing, say, \$8 per ton laid down without duty, while American pyrites in enormous quantities, giving nearly fifty per cent., can be supplied from Virginia alone for \$6 to \$7 per ton at tide-water. It is therefore a matter of no moment whether the duty on foreign pyrites is removed or not.

If the American fertilizer manufacturers want acid as cheaply as it is made in England, all they have to do is to erect furnaces for burning the sulphur after those long in use in England, which they will have to do sooner or later. Foreign sulphur costs \$30 to \$35 per ton, while 2 tons of iron pyrites costing, say, \$13 to \$14, will contain as much sulphur at less than half the cost of the Sicily article.

Yours, very respectfully,

CHAS. L. OUDESLUYS & SON,
No. 71 Exchange Place.

BALTIMORE, MD., *September 30, 1882.*

J. S. MOORE.

NEW YORK, *October 2, 1882.*

Mr. J. S. MOORE, of New York City, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMISSION: The first tariff act on the statute books was approved July 4, 1789. The ostensible object of this measure was, of course, to raise revenue. Yet, at that early stage of tariff history, a lurking desire for protection is already noticeable. Pennsylvania, through her representative in the House, had the honor to sound the first key-note for protection. In the first debate on a custom tariff (in 1789) Mr. Hartley, of Pennsylvania, said:

I think it both politic and just that the fostering hand of the general government should extend to all those manufactures which will tend to national utility.

It must be confessed that this terse sentence was indeed the music of the future, and the subsequent arguments and the thousands of volumes that have been spoken and printed in defense of protection during nearly a hundred years are after all summed up in the above twenty-seven words. The tariff act of 1789, as may have been expected, was crude and unsystematic. But even thus early the bias to favoritism can be detected, for we find that, while iron in general only paid $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. ad valorem duty, yet iron chains and cables were subjected to a duty of 75 cents per hundred weight. The cable and chain makers evidently had a friend at court. A year later (August, 1790) Mr. Alexander Hamilton, as Secretary of the Treasury, advocated a higher rate of duties, chiefly on luxuries, such as wines, tea, jewelry, watches; also on sugar and cordage.

But the first unmistakable policy of a tariff for protection came from the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Hamilton, in his report of December 5, 1791. He frankly urged that home manufactures should be encouraged by protection. He felt sure that increased emigration would follow protection. In short, Mr. Hamilton is claimed as the first apostle of the protective system in America; yet I cannot, for the life of me, see why he is better entitled to that honor than the modest Mr. Hartley, of Pennsylvania, who, in 1789, had in reality in a few words condensed the whole protection policy.

Tariff changes were also made, both in 1793 and in 1794, but they were generally unimportant, and referred chiefly to articles of luxury. But there was always an increase, and the tariff system was progressing favorably toward that great triumph of protection which is chiefly found in complications.

Although measured by our present standard of tariff duties, the duties of 1789, 1790, 1791, 1792, 1793, 1794, were by no means excessive, yet the tendency to bewilder commerce is already shown in the continued multiplication of different rates. Thus, for instance, in the first three tariff acts we only find seven different rates of ad valorem duties besides, of course, the specific duties on numerous articles; yet in 1794 these ad valorem rates had already increased from seven to nineteen different rates, besides those of specific rates.

The subsequent tariff acts, up to July 1, 1812, were seven in number. But they seem all to have followed in the road of complication and higher rates. The duty on iron, for instance, had slowly but surely

crept up from 7½ per cent. in 1789, to 17½ per cent. in 1812, and other articles in proportion. But a time was now at hand when protection was really going to have a meaning.

War is the parent of bloodshed, oppression, and taxes. And the war of 1812 is the direct and great ancestor of our present tariff system. After all, prone as mankind in general is to gain advantages, it is above all necessary to have a plausible pretext for them. Now, what more plausible reason to tax a people can there be than an expensive and bloody war? Not many questions were asked on the passage of the very important bill of July 1, 1812, which doubled the then existing duties, when war with Great Britain had already been declared a month before. The duty on iron and cotton goods jumped up from 17½ per cent. to 35 per cent., yet the duty on perfumery, an article of luxury which had previously been 17½ per cent. rose in the same ratio only, and was also taxed 35 per cent. I simply point this out to show how unjust are the tariffs made during the confusion of war and strife. This tariff act, with a very few unimportant changes, was maintained up to 1816.

In the tariff act of April 27, 1816, a reduction was made in the duty on cotton goods from 35 per cent. to 25 and 20 per cent.; iron was also reduced from 35 per cent. to 30 per cent. But the general reduction was not very important. The worst feature, perhaps, was the changing of ad valorem rates in many cases to specific rates, which generally conceal a higher rate of duty under a convenient tariff trick. Altogether the war duties of 1812 were substantially sustained.

The next very important change in the tariff was made May 22, 1824. This change was still more in the interest of protection. Mr. Tod, from the Ways and Means Committee, proposed a change of the tariff, pure and simple, in the interest of protection. It was this tariff act that aroused the ire of Mr. Webster, and he spoke against the proposed increase of duties as follows:

Look to the history of our laws. Look to the present state of our laws. Consider that our whole revenue, with a trifling exception, is collected at the custom-house and always has been; and then say what propriety there is in calling on the government for protection, as if no protection had heretofore been afforded. The real question before us, in regard to all important clauses of the bill, is not whether we will lay duties, but whether we will augment duties. The demand is for something more than exists, and yet it is pressed as if nothing existed. It is wholly forgotten that iron and hemp, for example, already pay a heavy and burdensome duty; and in fact one would infer that hitherto we had rather taxed our own manufactures than fostered them by taxes on those of other countries. We hear of the fatal policy of the tariff of 1816; and yet the law of 1816 was passed avowedly for the benefit of manufactures, and with very few exceptions imposed on imported articles a very great addition of tax; in some important instances, indeed, amounting to a prohibition.

On the general question, sir, allow me to ask if the doctrine of prohibition, as a general doctrine, be not preposterous? Suppose all nations to act on it; they would be prosperous then, according to the argument, precisely in the proportion in which they abolished intercourse with one another. Protection and encouragement may be and are, doubtless, sometimes wise and beneficial if kept within proper limits; but when carried to an extravagant height or to the point of prohibition, the absurd character of the system manifests itself.

To read these few extracts from Mr. Webster's speech one could hardly believe they were spoken sixty years ago, so pertinent do they seem at the present juncture. Nevertheless the tariff revision passed, and protection further gained important results.

Then came the tariff of 1828, which still further increased duties over that of 1824, and was altogether the highest tariff that the United States had yet adopted. It will thus be seen, that step by step from 1789 to 1828, the tariff history of the country was in the direction of higher duties and home protection. The consumers, however, began at last to

feel the burden, and there was great discontent after the tariff act of 1828 had passed. It was in November, 1832, that South Carolina passed the famous nullification act, which modestly annulled all Federal tariff laws, and even prohibited the payment of duties in the State of South Carolina, so far did excitement and anger outrun sound reason. But there was a man at the helm of the government at the time to whom the word nullification was as strange as it was obnoxious, and he gave such strong indications of punishing nullifiers as rebels, that the discontented, who instinctively felt that General Jackson was a man to keep his word, prudently withdrew their nullification ordinance, although it is generally agreed that the Clay compromise bill was the chief peacemaker. And here it may be remarked, that the tariff system being pure and simple an economic question, needs no violence for adjustment. Reason and facts alone are the all-powerful weapons with which to fight tariff wrongs and tariff usurpations.

The act of 1832-'33 is known as the Clay compromise tariff act, which enacted :

That in all cases where duties are imposed on foreign goods exceeding 20 per cent. one-tenth part of such excess shall be deducted from and after the 31st day of December, 1835, 1837, and 1839, respectively. On the 31st December, 1841, one-half of the remainder of such excess shall be made, and on the 31st of December, 1842, the residue of such excess shall be deducted.

The Clay compromise bill is further celebrated for the additional number of articles that were put on the free list. This tariff compromise seems to have put the tariff question to rest for nearly ten years ; and the next general tariff change was made in 1842.

During the ten years that intervened between Mr. Clay's compromise bill and the act of 1842, the violent panic of 1837 raged all over the land, and no doubt in the bitterness of their distress the people laid the fault rather to the homeopathic reduction of duties, and the abrogation of the bank charter than their own insane speculative mania. History relates that the Presidential campaign of 1840 was fought on two distinct issues, namely, on the restoration of a United States bank and on the policy of protection. These two issues were extremely successful and Harrison and Tyler were triumphantly elected. Mr. Harrison died four weeks after his inauguration, and Mr. Tyler, now President, vetoed the fiscal agent bank bill, and approved the so-called Whig tariff of 1842. This tariff restored substantially the rates of 1824, and in some instances even those of 1828. In other words it reversed the Clay compromise act. The bill was approved August 30, 1842. Of course, the old complications, the usual inequalities, the blind specific duties that had characterized all former tariffs were upheld. The Whig tariff lasted four years. In 1844, Mr. Polk was elected President, and we now approach a remarkable period in the history of tariff reform in this country.

The administration of Mr. Polk is celebrated: First, for carrying on a three years' foreign war upon the Democratic principle, which did not enrich anybody in particular, and only increased the debt of the country forty-eight million dollars, out of which sum California was paid for. Second, the fairest portion of the continent on the Pacific coast was acquired ; and third, it gave the country a fair and equitable tariff.

In the unpretending Cabinet of Mr. Polk was a great man, and like all great men he did not trade on the fact that he was a genius, for such he undoubtedly was. It has been the rule to accept Mr. Alexander Hamilton as the greatest financial genius this country ever had. But when the future historian, unbiased by the influence of parties now still in

existence (which sooner or later must die), writes the history of the United States during the first century of her national life, he will, no doubt, do justice to the financial, and above all economical, genius of Mr. Robert J. Walker, Secretary of the Treasury under President Polk. To this great man the honor is chiefly due of only leaving an increase of a paltry forty-eight million dollars national debt after a three years' foreign war, and paying for California besides. Of course such an achievement finds little applause now. The country has outgrown these extreme Democratic economics; but neither this country, nor the civilized world can or will outgrow economic truths, and for this Mr. Walker's fame will surely rise again with renewed splendor, to be appreciated by his countrymen. Mr. Walker conceived the idea of reforming the tariff and tariff laws of his country upon an equitable, honest system. Like all great achievements, the Walker tariff system is simple in its grandeur and grand in its simplicity. Nowhere in the tariff histories of the world (and I have made them nearly all my study) can a tariff system be found that rests or has rested upon rules so simple, just, and equitable as the tariff act of 1846. In his first report, dated December 3, 1845, Mr. Walker laid down six distinct principles upon which his great economical act (that is, the tariff) was to rest. And these I will explain as I give them :

1st. That no more money should be collected than is necessary for the wants of the government, economically administered.

This economic principle is the greatest safeguard against excessive taxation, and is the very essence of the much-abused sentence "a tariff for revenue only." Mr. Walker disdained to insult the intelligence of his countrymen by pointing out that to whatever extent a foreign article is taxed a similar product made at home is incidentally protected. Such a fact is perfectly self-evident, and when modern tariff trimmers pretend to have found in this very fact a contradiction to the principle of a tariff for revenue only, they only ventilate their own tricks by insulting the intelligence of the people.

2d. That no duty be imposed on any article above the lowest rate which will yield the largest amount of revenue.

This second principle again points to the economic policy of getting revenue. When for instance more revenue can be got out of iron, sugar, or woollens at 30 per cent. duty than at 50 per cent. duty (which is very often the case), the lower duty should then be imposed.

3d. That below such a rate discrimination may be made, descending in the scale of duties, or for imperative reasons the article may be placed on the list of those free from all duties.

In other words, you can reduce duties, or make articles entirely free, when they no longer yield adequate revenue. Or for such imperative reasons as benefiting manufacturing industries, or consumers, articles should be made free, if you can spare the revenue.

4th. That the maximum revenue duty should be imposed on luxuries.

This principle needs no explanation.

5th. That all minimum and all specific duties should be abolished, and ad valorem duties substituted in their place, care being taken to guard against fraudulent invoices and undervaluation, and to assess the duty upon the actual market value.

It is an economic truth, admitted alike by protectionists and tariff reformers, that the ad valorem system is the only equitable rule for assessing duties on foreign articles. Being satisfied that such a system is the very keystone of fair taxation, Mr. Walker was entirely confident of

being able to collect the revenue and guard against fraud. With the whole power of a great government to back him, he saw no reason why the laws of the country could not be enforced. The outcry of undervaluation is simply a trick to blind the people, as it would be literally impossible to enact a law which would dare to ask for such enormous duties as 80, 90, 100, and even 200 per cent. in its plain, unvarnished form of ad valorem duties. These enormities, of which the present tariff is full, exist simply because they are hidden under the convenient deception of specific duties, and in many instances of compound duties.

6th. That the duty should be so imposed as to operate as equally as possible throughout the Union, discriminating neither for nor against any class or section.

To explain this last principle by the light of modern tariff history it simply means: That Mr. Walker did not recognize plate glass in Indiana, pottery-ware in New Jersey, spool-thread in Pawtucket, sugar in Louisiana, or steel rails in Pennsylvania.

Being an old-fashioned democrat, his aim was equal justice and equal rights to the whole people; he knew neither class nor section.

Mr. Walker divided his tariff classification into nine schedules. These schedules differed, however, from all former classifications, inasmuch as the different rates became the schedules, whereas at present, for instance, a single schedule in our tariff system contains many different rates.

The tariff classifications of the 1846 tariff were briefly as follows: 100 per cent., 40 per cent., 30 per cent., 25 per cent., 20 per cent., 15 per cent., 10 per cent., 5 per cent., and a free list.

Under a 100 per cent. duty, distilled spirits and brandy were classed.

The 40 per cent. duty was charged on spices, preserved fruits, cigars, snuff, manufactured tobacco, and wines.

The 30 per cent. duty was laid on a variety of manufactured articles, chiefly woolens, iron, china, and stone ware, manufactures of copper and brass jewelry, manufactures of glass, leather, marble, and wood, wool, raw wool, sugar, and sirup, leaf tobacco, and a few other articles.

Under the 25 per cent. rate came manufactured cotton goods, manufactures of goat hair, silk, and worsted.

The 20 per cent. duty was charged on all drugs and chemicals, copper bolts, nails, and spikes, copper bottoms, and copper in sheets or plates, fish, fruit, tanned leather, lead in pigs, bars, sheets, leaden pipe, and shot, linens of all kinds, tanned leather, window glass, and some other articles.

Under the 15 per cent. duty came articles like Peruvian bark, tow of hemp or flax, raw silk, steel in bars, cast-steel, and German steel, tin plates, zinc and spelter, &c.

The 10 per cent. rate comprised books, periodicals, building and burr stones, diamonds and other precious stones, India-rubber unmanufactured, watches and watch materials.

The 5 per cent. rate had reference to all classes of articles in the first stages of manufacture which are so much needed to this day, which enter into manufactured articles, and become therefore a great boon to our varied industries.

The free list was very meager, and the chief articles were tea and coffee.

Such is the outline of this celebrated tariff. The object seems to have been to charge a lesser duty on partially manufactured goods in their various stages, and a higher rate of duty as they ascended to a state of perfection.

I shall only read a few extracts from Mr. Walker's report, in which he finds a justification for ignoring protection :

The constitutional power of Congress "to lay and collect taxes, duties, imports, and excises" does not authorize the laying of a prohibitory duty, or a duty in which revenue is sacrificed to the object of protecting the manufacture of the commodity taxed.

Taxation, whether direct or indirect, should be as nearly as practicable in proportion to property. If the whole revenue were raised by a tax upon property the poor would pay a very small portion of such tax, whereas, by the consumption of imports or of domestic commodities, enhanced in price under the tariff, the poor are made to pay a much larger share of the taxes than if they were collected by an assessment in proportion to property. To counteract, as far as possible, this effect of the tariff, and make it approximate to a system of taxes in proportion to property, the duties upon luxuries should be fixed at the highest revenue standard. This would not be discriminating in favor of the poor, but would mitigate that discrimination. * * * A protective tariff is a question regarding the enhancement of the profits of capital and not the augmentation of the wages of labor. It is a question of percentage, and is to decide whether money vested in our manufactures shall, by special legislation, yield a profit of 10, 20, or 30 per cent., or whether it shall remain satisfied with a dividend equal to that accruing from the same capital invested in agriculture, commerce, or navigation. * * * It seems strange that while the profit of agriculture varies from 1 to 8 per cent., that of manufactures is more than double. The reason is that while the high duties secure nearly a monopoly of the home market to the manufacturer, farmer and planter are deprived, to a great extent, of the foreign market by these duties. The farmer and planter are, to a great extent, forbidden to buy in the foreign market, and confined to the domestic articles, enhanced in price by the duties. The tariff is thus a double benefit to the manufacturer, and a double loss to the farmer and planter. * * * The true question is, whether the farmer and planter shall, to a great extent, supply our people with cheap manufactures purchased abroad with their agricultural products, or whether this exchange shall be forbidden by high duties on such manufactures, and their supply thrown as a monopoly, at large prices by high tariffs, into the hands of our own manufacturers.

If our so-called free traders, or tariff reformers, would circulate Mr. Walker's report on the tariff *in extenso*, there would be no need for free-trade writers. An immortal truth, although written thirty-six years ago, comes home quite as strong now as in the days when it was written or spoken.

The Walker tariff passed the House by a large majority, but came very near being lost in the Senate. In that august body it was passed by the casting vote of the Vice-President of the United States—the President of the Senate—who singularly enough was the gifted son of the great and powerful State of Pennsylvania, that State to whom a protective tariff seems to be equal to a first cause. Mr. Dallas, in giving his casting vote in the Senate in favor of the great tariff measure, made use of the following remarkable language. He said :

The struggle to exert without abatement the constitutional power of taxation in such a manner as to protect, by high duties on imports, many of the productions of our own soil and labor from the competition of other countries, has endured for more than thirty years. During that period a system of high taxation has prevailed, with fluctuations of success and failure. It ought to be remembered that this exercise of the taxing power was originally intended to be temporary. The design was to foster feeble "*infant*" manufactures, especially such as were essential to the defense of the country in time of war. In this design the people have persevered until these saplings have taken root; have become vigorous, expanded, and powerful, and are prepared to enter with confidence the field of fair, free, and universal competition. The arrival of this period of time has been anxiously looked for by a large portion of our fellow citizens, who deemed themselves peculiar and almost exclusive sufferers by the policy of protection. They have sometimes, perhaps imprudently, endeavored to anticipate it. Their numbers, at first entitled in influence only from their patriotism and intelligence, have gone on gradually increasing as the system ripened to its fruit, and they now constitute a decided majority of the people of the Union.

The Walker tariff system lasted fourteen years, although a reduction of 20 per cent. in rates was made in 1857, and articles that paid 30 per cent. were reduced to 24 per cent. ad valorem, and so on throughout

the list, except spirits, that previously paid 100 per cent., were reduced to 40 per cent. ad valorem. But the real system of the tariff was in no ways changed. During these fourteen years of the Walker tariff the country prospered. The foundation for manufacturing on the largest scale was laid on a solid basis. And when the panic of 1857 came its duration was the shortest on record. This economic system would certainly not have been overthrown had there not been by far a greater issue at stake. The time was now fast approaching when the curse of slavery was to be abolished forever from this free land by a fearful civil war, and the opportunity was too tempting for sectional interests not to profit by it.

It was Mr. Walker's melancholy lot to see his great system ruthlessly torn down. His feelings could, perhaps, be expressed by the famous speech of "Bailey," who, when sentenced to be guillotined, said to his judges, "I lose my head because the people have lost theirs. You will lose yours when the people find theirs again."

Yes, the time is approaching, and very fast, too, when the principal political issue will be protection, pure and simple, not against free trade, but against the Walker tariff system of 1846. And if it has no other results, it will at least prevent tariff tricksters playing fast and loose with the greatest economic question of the age.

The first tariff shriek, like an ill omen of the bloody strife that was hovering over this devoted land, was made as early as March, 1860, preceding the eventful election of Mr. Lincoln. This was the famous tariff bill of Mr. Morrill. But the measure held over to the second session of Congress of 1860 and 1861. It is a historical fact that the Morrill tariff bill was discussed and passed during the short session of 1860 and 1861, while the eleven States were passing the ordinances of secession. Thus, it will be seen that, as the high tariff of 1812 was the offspring of war, so again the still higher protective system had its very inception while a fearful civil war was preparing. The bill was approved March 2, 1861. There is little left of this so-called Morrill tariff at present. And it must not be supposed that it raised duties very materially. The great object seems to have been to restore as near as possible not only the rates of 1842 (the so-called Whig tariff), but also, above all, to break down the equitable ad valorem system.

Specific duties were once more resorted to. And for the first time compound duties were introduced, and there was no disguise in asking for these changes in the interest of home protection.

In the mean time the war began, and the Morrill tariff act was speedily augmented by a rise in rates in August of the same year, as well as in December, 1861. It were useless to go into the several tariff acts during the war separately. Tariff acts followed tariff acts, and all had the same tenor—higher rates, specific rates, and compound rates. A perfect tariff saturnalia was the order of the day. But in justice to many men then in Congress, who were adverse to these tariff exactions, it must be said that they acquiesced in them simply because there was the one great object to gain, namely, peace and unity.

Still, tariff exactions became so deeply rooted during the war that as soon as the war was over the first thing that was asked was a little more protection, and a good deal more tariff complication. No less than twelve tariff acts passed between 1866 and 1870. They were nearly all in the interest of protection and complication. The most important of these changes was the tariff on raw wool, and woolen fabrics, passed March 2, 1867.

It is useless, and by no means edifying, to relate how the copper bill

was passed over the President's veto in March, 1868, or how hair-pins were raised from 35 per cent. to 50 per cent.; or how emery ore was taken out of the free list and taxed \$6 a ton, because an emery ore mine was discovered in Massachusetts. The present tariff law is before the commission, and that it has become oppressive and a scandal, the very fact of the appointment of this commission to revise it is the best proof.

TARIFF REVISION.

In revising and simplifying the present tariff, the great question is, should it be done in the interest of protection? The protective system claims a high tariff, and in many instances prohibition disguised under specific or compound rates, for three reasons:

1st. The industries of this country are still in their infancy.

2d. The home industries cannot compete with the pauper labor of Europe.

3d. Home protection gives employment to labor and prosperity to the country.

Let me briefly examine these three assertions.

First, "infant industries." There seems to be something so ridiculous, so very shamefully ridiculous, in this claim of infancy, for a home industry that produces between five and six thousand million dollars of manufactured products annually, that it makes one feel astonished at the daring of the assertion. Is the woolen industry an infant, when it produced in 1880 \$265,684,796 worth of manufactured products?

Is the iron and steel industry an infant, when its manufactured product amounted to \$296,557,685 in 1880? Is the cotton industry an infant, that in 1880 used 1,586,000 bales of raw cotton, and now uses nearly 2,000,000 bales? Is the chemical industry an infant, that vaunts a production of some hundred million annually?

I hope I shall be pardoned a passing levity, but I submit respectfully that Tug Wilson would by far have more reason to call himself an infant than the giant industries of the United States. With the single exception of England there is no country in the world that produces manufactured goods so largely as the United States. Besides, how can this country, with its 52,000,000 of souls, unquestionably the most enlightened people in the world, with a mechanical genius superior to any nation on earth, with machinery surpassing any used in Europe, how can such a people make a plea of infancy for its industry without a blush? Whatever other reason there may be for upholding protection, it surely cannot be made on account of infancy. Remember the words of Mr. Dallas thirty-six years ago. He even then assured his countrymen that the time of infancy had passed; that the industries had become strong and able to stand up against foreign competition. Yet thirty-six years later, with a production that the past generation could hardly have dreamt of, we are called upon to believe that we have passed into a second state of infancy. The claim of infancy for our industries is as ridiculous as indeed it is preposterous.

Far different, however, is the second plea for protection, which pretends to be unable to compete with the pauper wages of Europe. This requires a more serious consideration.

Now, as a rule, I admit of course that our wages are higher than in Europe, and were the competition between the United States industries and those of Europe purely and simply a question of hand labor only this country would indeed find it hard to compete. But, what are the real facts? Modern inventions of labor-saving machinery have neutral-

ized this great bugbear of pauper labor; intelligence, means, and the best machinery may well laugh at the pauper wages abroad. And now let me show you how the most aristocratic labor of the United States competes with the most abject pauper wages of the world three thousand—nay, I may say, five thousand—miles from home.

During the fiscal year just ended June 30, 1882, we exported \$182,015,000 of breadstuffs, and nearly \$200,000,000 of raw cotton. These products met as competitors in England, France, and Germany the pauper labor of India, of Russia, of Egypt, and the slave labor of the Brazils, and yet American high-priced labor triumphed over this pauper competition. The Illinois, Minnesota, and Iowa wheat met the wheat of Southern Russia on the neutral field of Mark lane. What are the conditions of those two localities?

In South Russia the soil is unsurpassed in productiveness by any in the world. This land is far cheaper in South Russia than in Illinois or Iowa. The cost of labor is, perhaps, 25 cents or less per day. Inland transportation to the Black Sea is chiefly done by water, on the great rivers and their tributaries, and freight from Odessa to London is not more, if as much, as from New York to London. This is the condition of grain production in South Russia.

Now, let us turn our eyes to the great States of Illinois, Minnesota, and Iowa. These States have a good soil, but by no means better than that of South Russia. Land has attained a fair price, and is, indeed, higher than in Russia. Labor costs, say, on an average, only \$1 a day (during the harvest time \$2 is paid). The cost of inland transportation to the sea-coast is undoubtedly three times as much as in South Russia, and the freight from the sea-coast to London is quite as much as from Odessa to London. With all these disadvantages our farmers, paying the aristocratic wages of America, compete, and compete advantageously, too, with this miserable pauper labor of Russia. But the solution is easy enough. It is not a competition between the highest price of labor against pauper wages. The competition is between a state of intelligence and abject ignorance; between the employment of skill and science against a semi-state of barbarism; between a class whom labor elevates and makes the peer of the proudest of the land, against a class whom labor degrades. By the aid of science the land in our Western States is made to yield its fullness. By the aid of skill and employment of labor-saving machinery, an outlay of money on a threshing machine, two men in Illinois will do the work of perhaps one hundred men during twenty-four hours, who still employ the traditional flail of four thousand years ago. Is it, therefore, a wonder that our farmers can compete in grain in London with South Russia? The eventful and doubtful competition that our farmers may dread is not that of the pauper wages of Russia, Turkey, and Egypt, but of the still higher wages paid in Australia than in America. From that portion of the world, whose inhabitants are of the same race as our own, who have the means of employing science and skill, a more dreaded competition will spring up, and the only advantage we have is a nearer market.

Another example of the fallacy that pauper wages can beat or even compete with aristocratic wages can be found in the industry of England. The price of wages paid in England is nearly, if not wholly, double that paid on the Continent. England has free trade, except in such articles as she does not produce; and England does not only exist, but, compared with the Continent, she flourishes. Her people are socially better off, they are better fed and better housed than those on the Continent.

Her industries increase, and her commerce is spread over the entire world.

Perhaps a still greater demonstration that the plea of foreign pauper labor is sham was made before this honorable commission. A manufacturer of watches in Boston, who asked for free watch jewels and a little increase of duty on the pauper-made watches of Switzerland, substantially admitted that his establishment alone sold \$50,000 worth of American watches in London, where they had to compete with the Swiss pauper-labor watches. But, said this ingenious supplicant for a little more protection, it is our machine-made watches that can compete with the pauper Swiss hand-made watches in London. The astute watch manufacturer, in a moment of enthusiasm, seems to have been oblivious how impertinent his supplication for a higher duty on Swiss watches was, on the plea of aristocratic wages in the United States against pauper wages in Switzerland, when he admitted it was the American machine, and not the wages, that beat the Swiss pauper. Nor is this an isolated case. If the American manufacturer had free raw material, free dye-stuffs, free machinery; in other words, if put upon an equal footing with English manufacturers, the higher wages of the United States would not be a formidable drawback.

Look at the census of 1880. We find that the total value of finished woolen fabrics was in round numbers \$265,684,000. The total wages paid to produce this vast amount of goods in round numbers was \$47,725,000, which means that every \$100 worth of finished product represented \$22 of cost of labor. Now, the pauper labor of Europe must cost something; say that ours is double, and it would follow that in order to be perfectly equal in the cost of production our labor should be protected about 11 per cent. in the manufacturing of woolen goods. Of course the price for labor in woolen goods is not anything like double in this country as compared with the wages paid in England, but as an argument it shows how insignificant the protection needed purely and simply for higher wages here really would be if based upon the actual facts of the case. Unfortunately, like sin that begets sin, so does protection beget protection; the cloth is protected because the wool is protected; again it is protected because dye-stuffs are protected; once more it is protected because oil and chemicals are protected; then there is a cry that machinery is protected; in short, all and everything used to manufacture woolen goods is protected. The cry of high labor is the convenient pretext, but it is not the real reason why American manufacturers cannot compete with foreign products.

It is astonishing with what impunity a fallacy can be persisted in which the commercial history of the country during the last decade so decidedly contradicts. In September, 1873, a panic burst suddenly upon the country. It was at first supposed that it would merely affect the stock speculations in Wall street. Unfortunately its ramifications were of a nature that plunged the whole country into industrial and commercial distress, which lasted nearly six years. It is not my purpose here to go into a lengthy demonstration to show that by dint of extreme protection values became inflated, and that this very inflation was the chief fuel that caused industrial distress during several years. What I will point out is the fact that high protection, which had in September, 1873, reached its thirteenth year and was kept up during the panic, was unable to arrest the continuous distress of the country. How was it, I solemnly asked the upholders of high protection, that protection lost its potency from September, 1873, to the summer of 1879? In 1876, when the Morrison tariff bill proposed a very mild re-

duction of duties, Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, received the following telegram from the Iron and Steel Association, which was read in the Committee of Ways and Means :

With failure upon failure of our most experienced and respected iron masters announced in public print from day to day ; with wages of iron workers necessarily reduced so low that they and their families can scarcely escape destitution and starvation, the American Iron and Steel Association is astounded to learn that a reduction of duties on foreign iron is seriously contemplated by the Ways and Means Committee, and it respectfully, through you, protests against such action.

I will not insult the integrity of a great association to even doubt that what they stated was perfectly true. But where was the Baal of protection all this time ? Why did he not come to the relief of this distress, which then had already lasted some three years ? Alas ! he was as lame, as impotent, and as false as the Baal in the Bible. The one was unable to strike a lucifer match on the plains of Judea three thousand years ago, and the other could not light a blast furnace in Pennsylvania. Yet iron and steel were protected then still more than they are even now, owing to the specific duty charged on cheaper goods. Is it not a patent fact within our personal knowledge that the country was overrun with tramps ; that sturdy working men went begging from door to door ? Is it not further an historical fact that several vessels cleared our ports for Australia with emigrants, not, as formerly, to seek gold, but to work for a living ?

Is it true or false that American workmen went to Scotland, glad to be employed on the Clyde and receive the much-desired pauper wages ? It would take volumes to relate the dire distress of these unfortunate times, and all in the face of the highest home protection the world has ever known. With what grace, with what truth, can protection be cited as giving steady employment to labor, when these facts of only yesterday are still in our minds ?

I have stated that during the fourteen years of the Walker tariff we had a panic in 1857, but its duration was only a question of months and not years. I do not here positively claim that comparative free trade prevented the panic of 1857 from lasting several years, but what I do claim is that high protection was unable to stem industrial distress during six years, and claiming this, I am justified in pronouncing the assertion that protection is a preventive of industrial distress a fallacy and a sham.

I intend for several prudent reasons to touch only lightly on the strikes that during the present year, in the face of prosperity and high tariff, disturbed and still disturb the great industries of the country. I shall only quote one more extract from Mr. R. J. Walker's report, written thirty-six years ago on this subject, and leave its importance to the wisdom of this honorable commission to heed or reject it. Mr. Walker said :

When the number of manufactories is not great, the power of the system to regulate the wages of labor is inconsiderable ; but as the profit of capital invested in manufactures is augmented by the protective tariff, there is a corresponding increase of power, until the control of such capital over the wages of labor becomes irresistible. As this power is exercised from time to time, we find it resisted by combinations among the working classes ; by turning out for higher wages or for shorter time ; by trades-unions, and, in some countries, unfortunately, by violence and bloodshed. But the government, by protective duties, arrays itself on the side of the manufacturing system, and, by thus augmenting its wealth and power, soon terminates in its favor the struggle between man and money.

And now I shall comment on the boasting fallacy that our present prosperity is the result of the protective system. I might perhaps con-

tent myself, in refuting this monstrous assertion, with pointing out that if the Baal of protection was unable to light a blast furnace during six years of distress he surely could not be the cause of our present prosperity; but I will in the shortest possible manner give the cause of the revival of trade.

The panic of 1873 was the natural cause of inflation, overtrading, and overbuilding of railroads that were not warranted by the demands of the country. During the continuance of this fearful panic a general and gradual liquidation took place. The thousands of factories, corporations, and general securities, passed from the hands of the mushroom owners at prices that would not amount to 30 cents on the dollar in average. The failures during five years were on an average about \$200,000,000 per annum. In short, a new set of men sprung up who overtook the salvage of the great national industrial wreck, figuratively speaking, for a mere song. The shrinkage of values had in 1878-'79 reached the very bottom prices. During the five or six years of this panic the whole country very naturally economized its expenditures. Now, while the liquidation of former inflation was going on and the economy of the people was the most marked in the history of the country, a still greater factor appeared to lay a solid foundation for a return of great prosperity, namely, Europe, but especially Great Britain, was visited ever since 1873 with bad harvests; year after year this dire calamity reappeared, while this country was on the other hand blessed with the most bountiful yield of breadstuffs and cotton ever known. Thus, not only a ready market but a high priced market was open to our surplus of cereals and other food, and the balance of trade during the six years of 1876-'81 inclusive amounted to no less than \$1,180,000,000 in our favor. This was brought about by the farmer, and not by the manufacturing industries. Well, then, how could prosperity fail to set in under such a state of things—a five years' liquidation, followed by the greatest national economy, and supplemented by the immense balance of trade in our favor? Yet protection does not blush to arrogate to its policy the credit for the prosperity of the country.

To sum up this question, I am firmly of the opinion that protection had no more to do with bringing back prosperity than has the tide waiter with the rise of the tide, and the notion that we ought to uphold the present fearful high taxation, or to augment it, because our home industry is still in a state of infancy, and cannot compete with foreign pauper labor, and that protection is a sure means of giving employment and assuring prosperity, is a perfect delusion and not borne out by historical and contemporaneous facts.

The practical question now arises, what do tariff reformers really want to see accomplished? I may safely answer for that vast number of sincere tariff reformers whose voices and intelligence cannot very well be ignored, that two things are indispensable to tariff reform: first, a reduction of tariff taxes, and second, tariff simplification.

I suppose no one will deny that we paid over \$200,000,000 of tariff taxes into the treasury during the last year. Nor can honest intelligence deny that this tariff tax enhanced the price of the thousands of million dollars of home product that the people consumed during the year. Now, either a tariff tax enhances the price of home manufactures, or it does not; if it does, we demand a reduction of some of these monstrous duties that disgrace our economic system. If the tariff, on the other hand, does not enhance the price of home-made goods, then I can see no reason for retaining these excesses on the statute-book.

But it would be perfect folly to deny that the consumer is heavily

taxed on the articles made at home through the means of our tariff system. The really great excuse for the present high tariff was, that the monstrous expenses of a great war made it imperative for a patriotic people to bear what was justly termed "war taxes." But is it not an undue assumption of arbitrary power to continue these war taxes after a lapse of seventeen years of peace and tranquillity? Nay, is it not an oppression when we find two of the most important necessities of life, sugar and woolen clothing, paying a still higher tax than they paid during the war? What possible justification can there be for paying 25 per cent. more than a war tax on sugar? It has been argued often enough that after all these taxes are paid by the American people to the American people, and the country has grown rich by it. But who in this case is the country?

Frederick the Great taxed his people very heavily, and took good care that nothing, if possible, should leave his treasury if he could help it. Now the king's treasury was rich, but the people were poor and oppressed. Is it the less a tax to the Iowa or Minnesota farmer if he uses woolen goods, cotton goods, iron, or medicines to know that the tax he pays goes to enrich the eastern or northern localities of his own country? Pray, look upon it in a true economic light. If the multitude of the western consumers were less taxed, directly and indirectly, by this tariff system, they would most assuredly have a larger surplus of money in the aggregate in their own communities than they now have. In the diverting of this surplus from these young States, where capital is the very life of their hard-struggling prosperity, they suffer a grievous wrong. The riches of the great millionaires a thousand miles away are to them what Frederick's barrels of money were to his people. It is the multitude of the small sums saved by less taxes that aggregates so immensely in a community.

An indirect tax is a wrong endured, because it is a cunning device of oppression in an ingenious way. Still, it is said in answer, were it not for the grain consumers of the manufacturing States, the western farmer would have a much less market for his products. But what are the real facts? In 1880, Pennsylvania, with a population of 4,282,786, actually raised 19,462,000 bushels of wheat, which was ample for her needs. Ohio, which is so anxious for protection, had a surplus of some 30,000,000 bushels of wheat in 1880. In short, with the exception of the New England States, the western farmer has only one market for his surplus products, and that is a foreign country.

Oppressive taxes are upheld by either bayonets or ignorance, or both. Now, happily, there is no bayonet element in our tariff oppression, but it is upheld by the ignorance of the taxpayer. Let me show you an example in the present controversy of the duty on cotton-ties. Of course I will not here enter into the merits of the case, to show why cotton-ties, made of hoop iron, should only pay 35 per cent. duty, and the material they are made of 70 or 80 per cent. But what are cotton-ties, and who pays for them? It has been stated before this commission that the planter who pays, say, for argument's sake, five cents a pound for cotton-ties, gets 10 or 11 cents for the weight in return when he sells a bale of cotton, and, therefore, he ought not to grumble when he is called upon to pay 70 or 80 per cent. tax to uphold the industries of his country. The facts are simply these: First, the price of cotton is made in the Liverpool market. Second, every bale of cotton sold in Liverpool is subject to six per cent. tare. In other words, if a bale of cotton weighs 450 pounds in New York, when sent to Liverpool and sold there, the owner is paid for 423 pounds only. Thus it is as clear

as the sun at noonday that the planter *pays for and loses* the covering of the cotton. Does anybody in his senses suppose that the New York shipper will pay for 450 pounds of cotton and lose 27 pounds of it when he sells it in Liverpool? If the multitude of the planters would fully understand this fact, they would see that the covering of cotton is just as much an expense to them as is the payment of picking or ginning cottons. Now, the loss of six per cent. on the total production of cotton in tere is unavoidable, and it amounts on a 6,000,000 bale crop to no less than the value of 360,000 bales of cotton. Yet is it possible that the cotton producers, whose sole means of prosperity is the production of cotton, should be taxed first, 40 per cent. on the cotton bagging, and second, 35 per cent. at present (or 70 per cent. in prospect) on the cotton-ties, which to them is a total loss? In short, the cotton planter is taxed not on his profits, but on his losses. Such is the working of a tariff tax upheld not by bayonets, but by ignorance.

But while demanding a reduction of duties, the practical mind must admit that it were unwise to step from one extreme to the other.

The tariff revision I have the honor to lay before you simply proves that tariff reform should be moderate. It may, perhaps, be pointed out as inconsistent with this that I have recommended raw wool, now paying some 50 per cent. duty, to be put on the free list, which, seemingly, is going from one extreme to the other. But I have been assured, on very good authority, of which such a practical man as the late Elisha Harris was the most eminent, that free raw wool would not depreciate the price of home-grown wool, but on the contrary would be apt to increase the demand. Besides, I know too well that such a step, namely free wool, is the very keystone to the modification of the present monstrous duty on manufactured woolen goods.

I leave to the wisdom of your honorable commission to decide whether the time has not arrived when the reductions herein recommended can with perfect safety be adopted.

But what is by far more important than large or small reductions of the present duties is simplification. A deception cannot be just, and what rests on justice has no deception in it. Now, is it, or is it not, a deception when a duty of a hundred per cent. is hid either in a specific form or by a compound duty?

It has been suggested that specific duties should be based upon the average value of goods abroad for the past three years. I admit that in many instances such a duty could be satisfactorily (although by no means perfectly justly) based. In fact, if such a plan is adopted it will be the best exposé of the enormous duties hidden under the blind specific and compound duty forms. But in Schedule L, wool and woolens, there is only one exception, and that on shoddy, where a single specific rate is charged. Hence I cannot see why the whole schedule could not be made pure and simple *ad valorem*. And this may also be said of Schedule A, cotton goods. What justice or policy is there, for instance, in hiding under a compound duty some 76 per cent. tax on spool thread?

It is admitted that the revenue is not needed on this article of prime necessity, and it is very questionable whether fifty-two millions of people are ready to pay this enormous tax of 76 per cent on spool thread in order that the infant spool-thread industry should have a little longer protection. But it is just such a monstrous tax as that on spool thread that shows the glaring complications our tariff is subject to.

In revising the present tariff in the direction of simplification I must most emphatically protest against the retention of any compound du-

ties. There is no excuse for them. If it is absolutely necessary to tax an article 80 or 90 per cent., let it be stated openly and clearly, and not through hidden devices. If specific duties are really so essential to uphold the prejudices of ignorance, or, perhaps, more strictly speaking, to allay the fears of importers, let such articles be taxed in a specific form at least upon the basis of a three, four, or five years' average value in foreign markets.

In my own judgment the real triumph for tariff reform is simplification. And this policy I have aimed at more in the tariff revision I lay before you than extreme average reductions in duties.

Proposed revision of the tariff, based on the consumption of 1881.

Commodities.	Consumption, 1881.	Present duty, calculated ad valorem.	Revenue collected, 1881.	Proposed average duty.	Estimated revenue.
CLASS I.—TEXTILES.					
		<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>	
Cotton manufactures.....	\$28,084,117	38.55	\$10,825,115	25	\$7,021,020
Woolen manufactures.....	33,103,323	67.80	22,424,809	45	14,896,405
Manufactures of silk.....	32,377,226	58.80	18,650,398	45	14,069,751
Manufactures of flax.....	10,591,270	35.10	6,870,290	25	4,807,817
Manufactures of hemp and jute.....	3,897,823	27.10	1,070,155	25	274,456
Total revenue from textiles in 1881.....			50,784,773		41,850,548
CLASS II.—METALS.					
Pig iron..... tons..	\$530,310	\$7 per ton.....	\$3,712,176	\$5 per ton.....	\$2,021,550
Scrap iron, cast..... do..	17,600	0 per ton.....	105,000	5 per ton.....	88,000
Wrought scrap iron..... do..	300,000	8 per ton.....	2,400,000	6 per ton.....	1,800,000
Steel rails..... do..	160,240	28 per ton.....	4,054,920	15 per ton.....	2,403,600
All other iron and steel, and the manufactures thereof, value.....	20,606,739	40½ per cent.....	10,642,005	35 per cent.....	9,312,358
All other metals and the manufactures thereof, except pig and bar lead and ingot copper, value.....	5,700,000	30 per cent. average..	1,710,000	25 per cent.....	1,425,000
Tin plates..... pounds..	377,072,728	1.1 ct. per pound..	4,147,700	¾ cts. per pound..	2,838,045
Total metals.....			27,873,184		20,508,043
CLASS III.—SUGAR AND MOLASSES.					
Concentrated sirup and raw sugar, value, up to No. 13 in color.....	83,372,185	55.30 per cent.....	46,273,081	40 per cent.....	33,348,874
All sugar above No. 13.....	73,422	70 per cent.....	51,394	50 per cent.....	30,711
Molasses..... gallons..	26,545,025	5 cts. plus 25 per ct.	1,659,004	5 cts. per gallon..	1,327,251
Total sugar and molasses.....			47,983,539		34,712,836
CLASS IV.—SPIRITS, WINE, AND BEER.					
Brandy and spirits, gallons.	1,469,227	\$2 per gallon pf...	2,938,454	\$2 per gallon.....	2,938,454
All other spirits, value.....	50,800	50 per cent.....	25,433	50 per cent.....	25,433
Bay rum, &c..... } Perfumery, &c..... }	106,424	\$3 p. gal. and 50 p.c.	120,710	\$3 p. gal. and 50%.	120,710
Wines, sparkling, dozen quarts.....	228,172	\$6 per dozen.....	1,369,032	\$8 per doz. qts. ...	1,825,376
Still wines..... gallons.	4,178,820	40 cents per gal...	1,671,530	40 cts. per gallon..	1,671,530
All other wines in bottles, &c.....	1,027,681	\$1.00 per dozen...	330,730	\$1.00 per dozen...	330,730
Beer, ale, and porter, gallons.....	1,164,504	35 and 20 cents....	341,185	35 and 20 cents...	341,185
Total.....			6,802,092		7,268,436

Proposed revision of the tariff, based on the consumption of 1881.

Commodities.	Consumption, 1881.	Present duty.	Revenue collected, 1881.	Proposed average duty.	Estimated revenue.
CLASS V.—TOBACCO.					
Leaf tobacco..... pounds.	\$7, 631, 071	\$35 cts. per pound.	\$2, 070, 875	35 cts. per pound.	\$2, 070, 875
Cigars and cigarettes, pounds.....	542, 033	\$2.50 lb. and 25 p.c.	1, 807, 780	\$3.50 per pound..	1, 000, 265
Snuff..... pounds.	21, 001	50 cts. per pound..	10, 800	50 cts. per pound.	10, 800
Stommed and manufactured, not otherwise provided..... pounds.	152, 142	50 cts. per pound..	76, 071	50 cts. per pound.	76, 071
			4, 055, 526		4, 685, 011
CLASS VI.—GLASS, STONE, AND EARTHEN WARE.					
Earthen, stone, and China ware.....	6, 383, 874	42.72 per cent.....	2, 727, 476	35 per cent.....	2, 234, 355
Window glass.....	1, 441, 020	70 per cent.....	1, 003, 425	40 per cent.....	570, 708
Plate glass above 24 by 60 {	1, 032, 221	50 cts. per sq. ft. }	651, 110	{ 30 cents..... }	390, 063
592, 245		100.04 per cent.. }	513, 305	{ 05 per cent..... }	513, 305
All other plate glass.....	1, 303, 063	30.40 per cent....	513, 305	30-40 per cent...	513, 305
Glassware of every description.....	2, 525, 041	40.50 per cent....	1, 174, 008	40.50 per cent....	1, 174, 008
Total.....			6, 069, 324		4, 889, 099
CLASS VII.					
Spices of all sorts.....	2, 203, 078	40.71 per cent.....	1, 095, 130	40.71 per cent....	1, 095, 139
CLASS VIII.					
Chemicals and dyestuffs, except opium.....	11, 127, 144	30 per cent.....	4, 176, 584	20 per cent.....	1, 412, 714
CLASS IX.—SUNDRIES.					
Copper in ingots, bars or pigs..... pounds.	218, 802	5 cents.....	11, 127	3 cents.....	6, 564
Old copper..... do.	541, 074	4 cents.....	21, 042	2 cents.....	10, 821
Lead in pigs..... do.	4, 322, 068	2 cents.....	86, 441	1 cent.....	43, 220
Fancy goods.....	18, 898, 009	25.37 per cent....	4, 795, 164	25 per cent.....	4, 724, 502
Green fruit.....	4, 717, 007	18.50 per cent....	874, 552	10 per cent.....	471, 708
All other dried fruits, including nuts.....	7, 794, 730	31.70 per cent....	2, 467, 296	20 per cent.....	1, 558, 947
Leather and manufactures.....	10, 522, 601	31.71 per cent....	3, 337, 034	20 per cent.....	2, 104, 520
OILS.					
Flax and linseed oil... gallons.	9, 081	30 cents.....	2, 004	20 cents.....	1, 936
Hemp and rapeseed oil do.	10, 014	23 cents.....	2, 441	15 cents.....	1, 502
Olive oil..... do.	172, 030	25 cents.....	43, 007	15 cents.....	25, 804
Salad in bottles..... do.	210, 788	\$1.....	210, 788	70 cents.....	151, 751
All other vegetable oil, essential, fixed, or expressed, not otherwise specified.....	165, 885	20 per cent.....	33, 177	20 per cent.....	33, 177
Paints and colors.....	085, 604	34.78, average....	342, 782	25 per cent.....	246, 401
Perfumeries..... gallons.	27, 234	\$1.....	27, 234	\$1.....	27, 234
All other perfumeries.....	224, 304	50 per cent.....	112, 152	50 per cent.....	112, 152
Provisions of all kinds.....	1, 127, 874	21.04.....	244, 089	15 per cent.....	169, 181
Printing paper, sized and glued.....	5, 282	25 per cent.....	1, 320	20 per cent.....	1, 056
Printing paper, unsized.....	59, 399	20 per cent.....	11, 870	15 per cent.....	8, 899
Sheathing paper.....	7, 267	10 per cent.....	726	10 per cent.....	726
Writing paper.....	27, 074	35 per cent.....	9, 686	25 per cent.....	6, 018
Books, periodicals, and printed matter, engravings, &c.....	2, 530, 588	25 and 20 per cent.	635, 229	20 per cent.....	512, 11
All other manufactures of paper, except playing cards.....	1, 001, 353	35 per cent.....	591, 973	25 per cent.....	422, 838
All other articles not enumerated.....	30, 000, 000	26 and 27 per cent.	10, 704, 000	25 per cent.....	7, 500, 000
Total class IX.....					18, 142, 082

FREE LIST.

	Revenue, 1881.
Animals, living.....	\$784,388 00
Asphaltum.....	24,958 00
Birds-skin.....	95 00
Breadstuffs.....	2,762,123 00
Bricks, tiles of all descriptions.....	33,256 00
Bristles.....	133,781 00
Broom corn, for manufacture of brooms.....	1,293 00
Cement.....	88,308 00
Gums, asafetida.....	3,208 00
Resins.....	25 00
Burnt starch.....	4,998 00
Copperas.....	757 00
Soda ash.....	738,316 00
Argols, other than crude.....	12,238 00
Terra Alba, crude.....	6,037 00
Chicccory.....	35,767 00
Fullers' earth.....	802 00
Kaolin.....	34,436 00
Unwrought clay of all kinds.....	62,232 00
Coal and coke.....	516,006 00
Cocoa, unprepared.....	171 00
Coffee, substitutes.....	1,022 00
Copper ore.....	32,316 00
Regulus of copper.....	16,105 00
Felt for roofing.....	1,646 00
Fish skins.....	15 00
Flax, tow or hackled.....	105,077 00
Grease.....	17,588 00
Grindstones, rough.....	7,567 00
Gypsum plas.....	4,982 00
Hair in the rough, except human.....	24,210 00
Hay.....	393,697 00
Jute and sun hemp.....	223,922 00
Jute butts.....	265,727 00
Manilla hemp.....	680,081 00
Russian hemp.....	15,758 00
Sisal grass and other vegetable substances.....	223,666 00
Vegetable and fibrous substances.....	1,760 00
Goat skins and sheep skins.....	1,072 00
Honey.....	10,231 00
Hops.....	38,034 00
Insects, ants' eggs.....	24 00
Iron ore.....	348,942 00
Ore and dross.....	93 00
Lead ashes.....	7 00
Magnetic iron or sand ore.....	25 00
Mineral and bituminous substances, in the crude state.....	11,585 00
Ore of all descriptions, not otherwise provided.....	2 00
Oils, crude coal oil.....	3,539 00
Petroleum, crude.....	9,066 00
Cod-liver oil, crude.....	14 00
Seal oil.....	4 583 00
Whale and fish oil.....	10
Mustard oil.....	1,463 00
Castor-oil.....	6 00
Cotton-seed oil.....	192 00
Fusil oil.....	7,591 00
Baryta.....	3,017 00
Paper pulp.....	43 00
Parchment, old, fit only for manufacture.....	13 00
Patent size.....	927 00
Rosin.....	920,057 00
Salt.....	277,977 00
Seeds of all kinds.....	555 00
Tallow.....	1,553 00
Tar and pitch.....	282 00
Wax (bees).....	4,860,815 00
Raw wool, "washed and scoured," including shoddy and mungo.....	13,773,133 10

Total free list.....

RECAPITULATION.

Revenue from—	
Class 1. Textiles.....	\$41, 859, 548
Class 2. Metals.....	20, 568, 613
Class 3. Sugar and molasses	34, 712, 836
Class 4. Spirits and wine.....	7, 268, 436
Class 5. Tobacco and cigars	5, 432, 947
Class 6. Glass and earthen ware	4, 889, 099
Class 7. Spices.....	1, 095, 139
Class 8. Chemicals and dyestuffs.....	1, 412, 714
Class 9. Sundries.....	18, 142, 062
	135, 861, 932

Domestic alcohol, only used in the manufacture of chemicals, shall be free of internal-revenue tax, under such rules and regulations as prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

The above tariff should, in instances where it can be done, be made specific, but based upon the ad valorem basis herein specified.

Commissioner OLIVER. You recommend the schedule which you have appended to your argument?

The WITNESS. Yes, sir; and I shall be glad to explain anything or to answer any questions in reference to the statement which I have made.

Commissioner GARLAND. It seems to me that you have made yourself so perfectly clear that nothing remains to be added.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Question. I observe that in your classification of duties on iron you propose specific duties; for instance, \$15 a ton on steel rails. What rate would that be ad valorem?—Answer. About 55 or 60 per cent. You will find that I do not propose to reduce any duty below one-half of the present rate unless I put it on the free list entirely.

Q. Still I believe it is pretty generally conceded that the duty on steel rails is one of the most exorbitant duties that we have?—A. Certainly, I agree with you that it is so; but I thought I would make my proposition practicable. I want to see something accomplished. The lower the duty on steel rails is made the better.

Q. Mr. Hewitt told us at Saint Paul that \$14 a ton would be sufficient duty on steel rails.—A. Yes. The price varies in England between £4 10s. and £6 10s. At present it is £5 10s.

Q. Is it your idea that steel rails would have been produced in this country to the same extent as they are now produced if it had not been for the high rate of duty put upon them a few years ago?—A. I am not ready to deny that the tariff on steel rails has given a great impulse to the manufacture of steel rails in this country. At the same time, I am decidedly of the opinion that as soon as the Bessemer patents ceased to exist the making of steel rails in this country would have taken a great head, and that we would have produced by this time as much as we are now producing. It is my opinion that the making of steel rails would have been greatly protected without any duty whatever. All that was necessary was to get rid of the patent; it expired in 1870. After that it was only a question of building rolling-mills and of making the rails. While the Bessemer patent existed steel rails were sold at from £18 to £20 in England. Then they fell to £12 10s., and that was the price for a long time. Of course, at that price they could have been made here.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. What is the price of steel rails here now?—A. Forty-three dollars per ton. That only proves that this tariff system is not of such great

advantage to the manufacturer as we suppose. For instance, if there is a very great demand for steel rails we cannot make enough in this country, and we are obliged to make importations from England. During the last two years we have imported six or eight million dollars' worth of steel rails; but the moment the demand becomes slack, not only does the price go down, but we cease to import. It works in both ways, and so you cannot make prosperity with the tariff.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. That is, when the demand is not so great but that it can be supplied by home manufacture, under a high tariff?—A. Of course, the home manufacturers take full advantage of the tariff when there is prosperity.

Q. They do not seem to be taking advantage of it now.—A. They do not.

Q. I want to get your opinion as to whether we would have produced steel rails to any great extent up to this time but for the high rate of duty levied on them?—A. It gave them all the advantage possible. But my opinion is that they would have produced just as much without the high duty. At the same time I will not insist upon it. I should be very glad to concede that the high rate of duty for twelve years has given all advantages to them. At the same time I know that they are a close corporation. There are eleven of them associated, and I know that four years ago the Vulcan Works of Saint Louis were paid by the association for not producing steel rails. That is to say, the workmen were thrown out of employment, and the owners were paid so much from the association for not producing steel rails. That is a historical fact.

Q. I want to know whether there was not, to some extent, a compensation for the high duty?—A. By all means. I say that the present duty has stimulated the increase of steel-rail production very largely. But what I claim is this, that it has lasted so long that by this time we ought to be ready to "crown the edifice," as the French say, so as to get some advantage from it. I do not want, by any means, to deny that the tariff has given a great impetus.

Q. And to the extent that it has given that impetus the tendency of protection has been to compensate for the evil of a high rate of duty?—A. Yes. In other words, what I claim is this, that we have paid very largely for protection during the last twenty years, and I think that the time has come now when a reduction should be made.

Q. Your idea is that, whatever may have been its advantages, the time has passed for its being of advantage?—A. Yes.

Q. And that the steel-rail manufacturers of this country are able to bear a reduction of the duty?—A. Certainly; and above all, simplification. The moment you simplify the tariff reductions will follow.

Q. You suggested that there were some things which you hoped you would be inquired of. You said something in that connection as to diamonds.—A. What I mean is that, from time immemorial, diamonds have been a great luxury, and that the reason why Mr. Walker's tariff fixed the duty on them so low was because they are so easily smuggled. I merely wanted to point out that there was no contradiction or inconsistency in that.

Q. Is there anything else that you desire to state?—A. I did not mention quinine. The Commission might like to hear something about it.

Commissioner AMBLER. We should be very glad to have any information that you may possess on that subject.

The WITNESS. Quinine is subject to a very low profit. A profit of 5 per cent. is considered very large. It is a staple article. Every drug man must have it. Now, let us see how the thing would work at a 10 per cent. duty. The American quinine makers could actually have the monopoly just the same as they had before the duty was taken off. Suppose that quinine cost in England 8s. an ounce—that is \$2; add 10 per cent. duty and the price is \$2.20. If the American quinine manufacturers put the price up to \$2.50 (which would give them a large profit), the druggists and speculators would immediately telegraph to England for, say, 5,000 ounces. This would be laid down here at \$2.20 an ounce. As soon as it becomes known that foreign quinine has been brought here the American producers drop the price by 25 or 30 cents, so that the importer cannot dispose of his quinine except at a loss. The importer ceases to import quinine, and, immediately, up goes the price to \$2.40. That game is played half a dozen times or more, until the importation of quinine is entirely broken up.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. In case of quinine being admitted free, what is to prevent the American manufacturers doing the same thing and dropping the price below that at which the quinine has been imported?—A. They might do that, but the consumers would have the advantage of it. At the same time experience shows that they do not do so. They have not done so for the last three years.

Q. Then the existence of the duty did not make them do so, nor its non-existence prevent them?—A. I claim that quinine can be made as cheap here as in Europe, but the tariff would make it artificially dearer.

Q. But cannot the American quinine manufacturers shut out importations and have monopoly even if quinine is duty free?—A. That would cost them too much money.

Commissioner AMBLER. Your idea is that the ordinary reasonable profit being only 5 per cent. a duty of 10 per cent. is exorbitant?

The WITNESS. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. Then you assume that the manufacturer here is never going to charge for his quinine beyond 5 per cent. more than it costs him?—A. I presume so, and sometimes less. I give them all that they ought to have.

Q. You mean to say that they have got to make a profit of 5 per cent. ?—A. They will make that. Besides, it must not be denied (and probably it is on account of the tariff) that the quinine made by Powers and Weightman and by Rosengarten & Sons not only compare favorably with the foreign quinine but is superior to it; that is to say, the quinine made in this country is a favorite brand.

Commissioner AMBLER. It is said that the foreign quinine business is entirely or substantially a monopoly; do you understand how that is?

The WITNESS. I believe that a man named Meyer, in Milan, undertook to make a "corner" in the bark; but these "corners" do not last. They could not make the bark rise quickly enough, and so they bought up the quinine; and we should have been in a queer position here if we had not had a large stock of quinine on hand. We have now from 400,000 to 500,000 ounces always on hand.

Commissioner AMBLER. It is claimed by the quinine makers here that they absolutely cannot, without some protection, compete with the foreign monopoly. They claim that the man Meyer has, substantially,

made a combination between the six or seven quinine manufacturers in Europe, and that they cannot compete with that combination. If that be so, and if the effect of maintaining quinine on the free list should be to stop the production of it in this country, it is then evident that, instead of two monopolies that have to compete with each other, there would be but one monopoly.

The WITNESS. Please tell me how in the world you can stop this monopoly by putting a duty on quinine.

Commissioner AMBLER. I am not saying that you can. I am suggesting to you a hypothetical case which has been suggested to us. I beg you to understand that I know nothing about quinine and its manufacture, except as it has been detailed before the commission from time to time. I do not know whether the quinine manufacturers here speak correctly when they say that they cannot produce quinine in competition with the foreign manufacturers. They claim that the production of quinine in Europe is a monopoly, and that there are but few concerns in this country making quinine, and that they are making it in competition with each other; and that if we should extinguish the branch of the monopoly on this side by legislation it would give the branch on the other side a better chance. What is your judgment in that respect?

The WITNESS. My judgment is that if you put back the duty of 10 per cent. on quinine enterprising young men will come over here from Europe and will make a combination. The moment a tax is put on the danger of combination becomes greater.

Commissioner AMBLER. If they make quinine here as cheap as there, and if it is in the hands of some eight or ten persons (taking the world over), I cannot see why a combination cannot be made between the American and foreign manufacturers, even if quinine be on the free list.

The WITNESS. I do not think that a combination is likely to take place. I believe that this man Meyer has bought up the Pelleriers, but there are some of the European manufacturers whom he cannot buy up. I believe he cannot buy up Howard & Sons. I do not think that a duty on quinine can prevent any such contingency. In fact no legislation can prevent combinations or "corners."

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. You believe that, with the duty off, there is no possibility of combinations or "corners"?—A. I do. With the duty off there will always be people to consign quinine here. Mr. Rosengarten, a gentleman 82 years old, wrote a very remarkably temperate letter to the Evening Post on the subject of quinine, in which he stated that the importation of bark here from South America has ceased. The facts are that in the three years from 1876 to 1879, when there was a duty of 20 per cent. on quinine, and when bark was free, the importation of bark was 13,218,948 pounds; while for the last three years, from 1879 to 1882, with quinine free, the importation of bark was 15,386,305 pounds.

Commissioner MCMAHON. It was suggested to the commission that a large part of that imported bark was for prospective use.

Commissioner AMBLER. Yes; it has been said that that was not the ordinary importation; that it was an abnormal condition of things resulting from large speculations.

The WITNESS. We may as well be perfectly clear about quinine. Let us see how much we imported and consumed, and how much we really made. The consumption has been stated to the commission at

1,400,000 ounces. There was imported for consumption in 1881 408,000 ounces; so that it would seem the American quinine manufacturers still made 1,200,000 ounces of quinine, which would be perfectly in accordance with the importation of bark. Of course we use more than 1,400,000 ounces of quinine annually. We use 1,600,000 ounces. But suppose we use only 1,400,000, then one-third is imported and two-thirds is made here.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. There is something about your list of duties which I do not understand. Take class 7 for instance. The present rates now range from 49 to 71. Is it your idea to let the present rates continue?—A. Yes; there are some articles in that class which I thought ought not to pay any duties at all.

Q. Take class 1, "textile fabrics." What provision have you made for a composition of materials?—A. I must say to you very frankly that I leave this cotton section to enumeration; that is, the rate should be as it is now—on the component part of chief value.

Q. You know, as a matter of fact, that the great difficulty (equally annoying to the importer and to the government officer) is the question of the dividing line—as to which is the component part of chief value. Have you anything to suggest on that point?—A. No; I have not made any suggestion. That comes under the rule of simplification.

Q. And you have stated that as the most important of all?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then you mean to say that you propose cotton textiles to pay 25 per cent. absolutely ad valorem?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And woolens 45 per cent.?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And silks 45 per cent.?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And manufactures of iron and steel 35 per cent.?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then if we have a fabric containing cotton, silk, wool, flax, and metal all combined, what suggestion do you make for such an article?—A. I would suggest a new schedule for these mixed goods. I think that that would not be a bad idea.

Q. You make out a very good case (it appears to me) regarding the hardship on the cotton grower in the matter of cotton-ties. Would not that be entirely obviated by allowing him a drawback on the ties and baling?—A. Who would get the drawback?

Q. If he has it reimbursed to him, would it not do away with the objection?—A. The great objection to the drawback system is that it leads to all sorts of frauds.

Q. Explain what you mean.—A. I think that advantage would be taken of it. I know that it has been found very difficult to arrange as to the drawback on sugar. But I fail to see, in this cotton-tie business, who should get the drawback. In the case of cotton-ties and jute bagging who would have the advantage?

Commissioner McMAHON. The planter would have the benefit. There is no doubt about that. Does he not pay the duty now, in effect?

The WITNESS. Certainly.

Commissioner McMAHON. If you take it out of the Treasury and give it back to him when he exports his cotton, would not that be reimbursing him?

The WITNESS. But suppose he uses a home-made cotton-tie?

Commissioner AMBLER. He need not, unless he gets it as cheap.

The WITNESS. He would buy it just the same and get the drawback. There is another complication. How is the planter to know that the

man who "gins" his twenty bales of cotton uses foreign or home-made cotton-ties? If he is to have a drawback, let him have it on all cotton-ties, whether made abroad or in Pennsylvania or Ohio.

Commissioner AMBLER. Then, do you recommend that cotton-ties shall be imported free?

The WITNESS. I do not. It will not do any harm to let them pay 35 per cent. We cannot do everything at once. We must not take a step from one extreme to the other.

By Commissioner MCMANON:

Q. In class 4 you speak of brandy and spirits, all as spirits, at \$2 a gallon. What is meant by the term "spirits," in the first line, as contradistinguished from other items?—A. It includes absinthe and similar liquors—cordials, liquors, arrack, &c.

Q. You have made no provision for playing cards?—A. They would come in under the 25 per cent. clause.

Q. In class 4 you leave the duty as it is on still wines, and you raise it on champagne only?—A. Yes. The reason why I propose to raise it on champagne is simply because it pays less duty now.

Q. I see that you propose an ad valorem duty on sugar, and that you retain the Dutch standard alone.—A. I do; for the simple reason that sugar of No. 13, Dutch standard, is easily defined.

Q. We have been told that the polariscope test is the test universally adopted in the markets of the world to determine the value of sugar?—A. Yes.

Q. And that the quotations that are published daily from the various markets of the world are based on the polariscope?—A. Yes.

Q. Then, do you think it advisable to recommend Congress to enact a law fixing a duty on sugar on the ad valorem basis, and on the Dutch standard, when the commercial basis is the polariscope test?—A. I do not care so much for lower duties as for simplification. This suggestion is subject to consideration. If you can add to the simplification, do so by all means. But I have aimed at only two rates in the taxation of sugar, because it is claimed that a manufactured article above No. 13, Dutch standard, should have a higher protection than raw sugar.

Q. Then your recommendation would be a combination of the two systems?—A. Most decidedly. But the objection to having the polariscope test, pure and simple—the Boston plan—is that it is too complicated. In this instance, if you make it an ad valorem duty, it is not complicated, because if the sugar below No. 13, Dutch standard, costs in India 3 cents a pound, it would naturally come in at 40 per cent., while the sugar that costs 6 cents a pound would come in at 50 per cent. So long as you have got it ad valorem you have got it right. But I have no objection to the polariscope test.

Q. Have you taken into consideration, in recommending a purely ad valorem system on silk, the years of controversy that have passed as to the valuation of silk fabrics?—A. I have given the matter my study for fifteen years. I had the whole establishment of the late A. T. Stewart at my disposal, to give me all the aid I wished, and I came to the conclusion that some silk would come in under a specific duty, at 25 per cent. ad valorem, while other silks would pay 80 or 90 or 100 per cent.; so that the better qualities would pay the least duties.

Q. Is not the same thing the fact as to cigars, where you do recommend specific duties? Would not the rich man, who bought the best cigars, pay the least rate of duty?—A. Yes; but I think that a specific duty is the best duty for cigars.

Q. We have had specific duties recommended for silk. Would not the natural effect be to cause a discontinuance of the "loading" of silks? Would not all consumers, in effect, get better silk, and would not the richer classes, which can now afford to buy the heavier and better silks, get them without being "loaded"?—A. There is to be said about silk, the manufacturers are obliged to "load" the cheap silks, otherwise they would look like a rag. The article must have a good appearance. It must be "loaded" so as to give it a gloss. The poorest silks could not come in unless they were loaded.

Q. Is not the "loading" more to give the silk the appearance of weight and substance than of finish?—A. Most decidedly. For a 4-franc silk there cannot be a sufficient amount of silk put in, and so it has to be "loaded" in order to give it an appearance.

Q. Then the effect would be to have ramie fiber or cotton put into the silk fabric?—A. The practical effect would be simply this: that this country would have a monopoly of the lower classes of manufactures of silk.

Q. Have you considered the question of the undervaluation of silks in making a recommendation that a pure ad valorem duty be put upon it?—A. Yes. And I have come to the conclusion that there is no reason why the Government, with all the powers at its disposal, should not be able to get experts who are as good judges of articles as importers are able to get. For sixteen years I have been, not exactly in the custom-house, but I have known people who are employed there, and I can say that, as a whole, these custom-house officers are more sinned against than sinning. Now and again there may be some collusions with them, but I believe that the Government can get reliable experts, who will carry out the laws honestly. As to undervaluations there may be, now and then, cases of that kind; but it is not worth while to disarrange a whole system for the sake of some solitary cases.

Q. Then your experience and study lead you to the opinion that there is more cry than wool in this matter of undervaluation?—A. Most decidedly. There always has been. I happened to have a room next to the one where the late Mr. Jayne used to arrest people, fourteen years ago, and I found that nearly all these custom-house offenses were as to articles that came in under specific duties. There is where the collusion came in. An honest appraiser, if he has any doubt as to the value of the piece of silk for instance that he has got in his hands, keeps it for two or three days, and inquires of some of the first-class importers, and institutes comparisons with other silks, of which the value is ascertained. This outcry of undervaluation is nonsense.

Commissioner McMAHON. It has been stated to us that almost all the silks that come into this market are sent here on consignment, and that under that system government officers have no means of judging of the value of the silks except by comparison with the domestic silks and with a few job lots that are purchased here and there; that they cannot ascertain the market value at the place of shipment; that the manufacturers make a market value to suit themselves; that that market value is possibly below the cost of manufacture; and that thereby the American silks of the same quality are excluded from the market.

The WITNESS. Of course that state of things would require on the part of the appraiser a knowledge of the importation business. I should not be at all surprised if a good deal of the silks imported are consigned and sold in the way that you mentioned. At the same time I still persist in the opinion that the general knowledge of a good ap-

praiser, having the means of judgment at his disposal, cannot be deceived to the extent that is generally supposed, and that, after all, the ad valorem system is the best. By the system of specific duties some difficulties might be avoided, but it would produce other hardships. It would exclude a certain amount of foreign silk, and the domestic silk manufacturers would probably give over making the higher qualities of silk, because the lower qualities would give them higher profits.

Commissioner McMAHON. I refer you again to the matter of cigars. What is the price of the cheapest Havana cigars?

The WITNESS. The average price of cigars in Havana is about \$60 a thousand. They weigh about 10 pounds, and pay 50 per cent. duty. Suppose you make the ad valorem rate 70 or 80 per cent.; the idea is simply to do away with compound duties.

Commissioner McMAHON. Admitting that silks are to a certain extent luxuries, and that cigars are also luxuries, then I think that, under your suggestion, the price of the poor man's cigars would be increased.

The WITNESS. Then he can smoke a pipe.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. You stated something in your address about diverting surplus capital from the young Western States to the manufacturing States. Is it not a fact that during the decade from 1870 to 1880 the manufactures of the Western States (including the two States which you have mentioned, Iowa and Minnesota) have increased by a greater percentage as to the number of establishments, the number of hands employed, the amount of material consumed, the wages paid, the capital invested, and the production, than those of any other States; and that, taking the Western States as a whole, the increase of manufactures has been more than double that in the manufacturing States, including the New England and the Middle States?—A. I can very well understand that a State like Minnesota, which had 100 manufactories ten years ago, may have 200 manufactories now (an increase of 100 per cent.), while Rhode Island, starting with 2,000 manufactories, could not show such a percentage of increase.

Q. Allowing for that state of facts, I ask you whether, all through the Western States, manufacturing has not, during the last decade, kept pace with agriculture?—A. Still money is naturally diverted by these abuses from these young communities.

Q. And yet they have increased their manufacturing interest more than the Eastern States?—A. They have made a higher percentage of increase, because they had little to start from.

Commissioner PORTER. That agricultural section of country is really becoming a largely manufacturing section, particularly as to such States as Illinois and Ohio?

The WITNESS. I do not deny the prosperity of the country. I have not said in my address that the country is suffering.

Commissioner PORTER. But the point I make is as to the diversion of the savings from those States. You must admit that manufacturing has increased in the Western States at double the ratio that it has increased in any other section of the country during the last twenty years. There must, therefore, be some of the surplus savings retained in those Western States. It cannot all have gone into the hands of the millionaires of the East.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. I have listened with interest to your address. You are in favor of simplifying the tariff so that not only ex-

perts and government officers, but everybody else may understand what is taxed and at what rates.

The WITNESS. Yes. If you can accomplish that no man will rejoice more than I at such an achievement. The simplification of the tariff is of more importance than its reduction. There is now a great deal of suspicion thrown on government officials which has no foundation. If you simplify the tariff that suspicion will pass away, and the civil service of the government will be elated by it. The simplification of the tariff is of the first necessity.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. I see that, after putting all other manufactures of iron and steel at 35 per cent., you put steel rails at 60 per cent. What is your reason for that distinction?—A. The reason is that all these other articles are now paying from 30 to 50 per cent., while steel rails are paying a much higher rate. I did not want to make the reduction too disproportionate.

Q. I find that you put all the metals and manufactures thereof (except on pig copper) at 25 per cent. Now there are very many manufactures of iron that ought to have as high a rate of duty as steel rails.—A. The term "other metals" means articles such as brass, &c.—except pig and pure lead and ingot copper. I put them down 5 per cent. I put copper on the free list. It has been taxed too long. There is no country in the world so rich in copper as this. Nature, in placing it here, did not do so for the benefit of two or three corporations, but for the benefit of the whole country. The idea that copper, which costs 11 cents a pound, should be made artificially dear is an outrage.

Commissioner AMBLER. One of the things complained of about this commission is that it is said that we take sides. Now, I am not taking sides, but I really desire to know why you make that discrimination. It would seem to me that the manufactures of brass, &c., should pay as high rates of duty as the general manufactures of iron.

The WITNESS. If you give them free copper, I do not know but they ought.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. I come now to class 6, "earthen and stone and China ware." You say that it has had an average rate of 45 per cent., and you propose to reduce it to 35 per cent.; that is to say, you reduce it below the rate of a number of items above there. I want to know the reason.—A. The reason is simply that these goods are protected by a rate of from 18 to 20 per cent., and by 50 per cent. in freight. The common goods are really protected 100 per cent. in freight.

Q. Are the rates of freight on earthen and China ware so greatly different from the rates of freight on iron manufactures?—A. Iron is not so bulky as China ware. A crate of plates will cost in England £2. The crate itself will cost 10 or 15 shillings, and I have not the least doubt that the freight would be 15 shillings, because the measurement of that crate would be at least a ton or a ton and a quarter. The crate is a very great item of cost in crockery.

Q. You are quite correct as to the lower grades of crockery, but on the higher grades of crockery and China, I presume that the freight is as low as it is on general manufactures.—A. Oh, no. The freight on crockery will always amount to at least 10 per cent., and 35 per cent. is a very great protection on the manufactures of China and crockery.

Q. This, I believe, is one of the youngest industries in the United

States, is it not?—A. I do not know. The practical question is not whether the industry is young or old, but what rate of duty will protect it.

Q. The schedule which you recommend evidently does recognize the principle of protection, does it not?—A. There is a reason for it. As to the article we are now on, I say that it is protected by freight—by geographical protection. It therefore does not need so much tariff protection. On the other hand, the freight on silk is not so much as 1 per cent.

Q. "Glassware of every description" is in the same schedule?—A. I leave that as it is.

Q. What is the relative geographical protection on glassware and on China?—A. I do not think that on glassware the geographical protection is more than 5 or 6 per cent.

Q. Take the current run of glassware, and does it not require as much in the way of protection as the general items in your list?—A. I do not think it does, because we only import the better class of glass goods, and very little of them.

Q. And on that better class of goods (of which we import very little) your schedule proposes a protection of 46½ per cent.?—A. I leave the duty just as it is.

Q. If there is any reason why that duty should not be included in the general reduction I should like to know what it is?—A. The reason is, probably, that we import a better class of goods. The duty on bottles is now 35 per cent., and bottles and jars filled 30 per cent. I do not propose any change in them. Where the classification is really good, it should be maintained.

Commissioner AMBLER. That is what I thought, but I am rather inclined to think that your disposition to lower rates of duties has prevented your being consistent all the time. You suggested that you did not want copper protected, but I see that in class 9 you retain the duty of 3 cents per pound.

The WITNESS. That is a mistake, and I am sorry for it. I will take it out now. I suppose that the reason why I did not put copper ingots on the free list is that I wanted to carry something.

Commissioner AMBLER. Of course the value to us of your schedule depends upon the consideration which you have given to it, and upon the reasons that have influenced your judgment.

By Commissioner McMAHON :

Q. Do I understand that this free list of yours is in addition to the existing free list?—A. Yes; I wish to explain how this schedule came to be in existence at all. Mr. Hewitt suggested in his speech in the House, that raw materials should be on the free list, and that there should be a general reduction of the tariff. Then a certain meeting took place, which resolved that Mr. David A. Wells and myself should draw up such a document. I drew it up and Mr. Wells was to write a preface to it, but he did not do so. The thing went on from day to day, and when I resolved to go before the commission, I struck out something from the schedule which I had drawn up, so that there might be a probability of its being adopted. It is the same schedule that I had at Long Branch. At the same time it is in the right direction. If any modifications are suggested in it I do not know why they should not be accepted.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. Was this schedule the result of a consultation?—A. It was the

result of a consultation with David A. Wells. He was to write a preface to it, which we were to print and lay before the people.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. If I understand your schedule, it proposes rates of duties lower than the present ones?—A. Yes; with very few exceptions.

Q. Then do you not thereby admit the equity of the present system, except that you think the duties are too high?—A. I find fault with the present tariff more for its complications than anything else. My proposition is to simplify the tariff.

By Commissioner MCMANON:

Q. What do you mean by the term "fancy goods" in class 9?—A. Fancy articles, such as spar and alabaster ornaments, dolls, fans, flowers, meerschaums, &c.

Q. Would it not be necessary to specify them?—A. If I had to specify every article in the schedule which I submitted it would be as big as the tariff itself.

Q. Do you think that you would simplify the tariff by leaving questions open to dispute between importers and custom-house officers, as to what fancy goods are?—A. That can be defined. There is no trouble in defining them. I do not see any reason why they should not be left among the "sundries."

Q. Do you call beads fancy articles?—A. Yes.

Q. Then they ought to pay 25 per cent. All beads now pay 50 per cent. Is that right?—A. That is right.

Q. You also say "glassware of every description?"—A. I leave that as it is.

Q. What would a glass bead be?—A. "Bead" is a separate name for it.

Q. I understand you to propose that "glassware" shall remain as at present. A glass bead is "glassware," but you propose to take it from under the general head in the existing tariff and to make a special provision of 50 per cent. duty under the head of "beads of all descriptions." Now you say that your term "fancy articles" will include beads?—A. Certainly.

Q. Then "beads" will pay 25 per cent.?—A. But it will not be designated or named. When I say "glassware," I mean all the articles that come under schedule D, and "beads" come under schedule M.

Q. You have not provided for glass beads?—A. Yes, I have; under "fancy goods," at 25 per cent.

Q. But you have not specified them by name?—A. That is not necessary.

Q. Do you mean to re-enact the present tariff and to use the present schedule, when you say that in the term "fancy articles" are included all the articles named in schedule M in the old tariff?—A. Certainly. I do not wish to disturb the present schedule at all, except to put an additional section to it.

Q. Do I understand that the tariff recommended by you would be a repetition of the present schedule, word for word, with the exception that, instead of giving compound rates of duty, you would put on one ad valorem rate of 25 per cent.?—A. Yes; that is generally the idea.

Q. Then, in order to make that term "fancy goods" clear, you would have to enumerate the articles by name?—A. Of course you would have to enumerate them, except chemicals. If you take out the chemicals from that schedule M, you will have few things left except fancy goods; and

they are proposed at 25 per cent. They are all in one class, whether they are heads or anything else.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You have been an officer in the custom-house?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And you have always paid a good deal of attention to economical questions appertaining to the tariff?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then you have had the advantage both of a practical and theoretical knowledge of the question.—A. You are paying me a compliment.

Q. Do you not think that, in your admiration of Robt. J. Walker's tariff and policy, you have become wedded too strongly to the ad valorem principle?—A. No, sir; I do not think so.

Q. Do you know that all importers, with scarcely an exception, who have appeared before the Commission, including the members or representatives of some of the largest firms in the country—notably, Mr. Field, of Chicago—unite in recommending specific instead of ad valorem duties?—A. The reason for that is, so far as the importers are concerned, that, so long as they have got the ad valorem system under the present law, there is no finality to it. There seems to be no end to it. A man who has imported goods under the ad valorem system, and has put them in his store, does not know but that in three or six months somebody will come and rip up the whole affair.

Q. Do you not know that the great trouble with merchants has arisen in respect to goods imported under the ad valorem system?—A. Yes; as to the disputes. But, as to actual frauds, the large frauds that have been committed have been committed under the ad valorem system—whether in sugar, spices, or any thing else.

Q. Mr. Field stated to the Commission, in Chicago, that although he had what he considered as perfect a system as could be devised for purchasing goods abroad, it was impossible for him to purchase any quantity of certain styles of goods from the manufacturer abroad, but had to buy them from the manufacturer's agent in New York. If the duties were lowered under the specific principle instead of the ad valorem, do you think that that trouble would exist?—A. Of course it would not exist. But what I maintain is, simply, that the reason why the ad valorem tariff should be adopted is that a fair assessment of the value of the goods can be nearly arrived at. The question is what "market value" means.

Commissioner OLIVER. The point which I wish to present to you is this: You are recommending to the Commission to recommend to Congress, not only in reference to silk and woolen goods (where there are no difficulties as to levying duty by weight or measurement), but to many other articles where specific duties are practicable, that the ad valorem system shall be adopted. You are therefore recommending a change which would increase the annoyances and troubles which the commercial community is now laboring under.

The WITNESS. I suggest that the tariff shall be made specific where it can be done, and shall be based on the ad valorem principle. I do not object to specific duties, provided you can base them on the ad valorem plan.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. At the time that the Robert J. Walker tariff was passed there were few custom-houses in the country. There is a very great difference between that period and the present. I see that the total revenue estimated from your schedule is \$135,000,000. That would leave \$200,000,000

to be raised from other sources. How would you suggest that it should be raised?—A. I assume that the internal revenue, so far as spirits and tobacco and beer are concerned, will not be given up. In that case there is no doubt that from \$100,000,000 to \$110,000,000 can be received from those articles. Besides, if Congress were to adopt the basis of this schedule, I am perfectly satisfied that instead of \$135,000,000 it would produce \$175,000,000. If we cannot measure our importations under these reduced rates of duty, then I do not know what our protectionists would have to complain of. There would be no trouble about the revenue, always provided the internal taxes be kept up on these three articles.

Q. Then you do not recommend a reduction of the tariff to such a point as to make the continuance of the internal revenue system a necessity?—A. Certainly. If the government needs more money than \$150,000,000 or \$160,000,000, I must certainly say that there are no other means of obtaining it than from the internal-revenue system. It would be very difficult under any circumstances to devise a tariff that would produce enough revenue to carry on the government without the internal revenue. You could raise \$250,000,000 or \$300,000,000 from the tariff; but the moment you increase the present duties you stop importation. You can increase the revenue from the tariff by raising the duty on sugar and putting a duty on tea and coffee. But if you increase the tariff on cotton goods or silks you will find that the increase of revenue from that source is very small, and you could not raise enough revenue from the tariff to maintain the government.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. You propose to place articles on the free list that are now paying revenue, thus making it necessary to continue the internal-revenue system?—A. The whole free list would only amount to \$13,000,000.

Q. Why throw it away?—A. Because you give prosperity to the manufacturers by giving them a free list.

Q. I thought you were opposed to protection?—A. I do not call it protection; I call it prosperity.

Q. Have you thought of this question: That by increasing the free list and by reducing the duties to a point that will reduce the revenue to \$135,000,000, you would necessarily augment the amount of imports into this country, and create a danger that the balance of trade would be against us? Do you think that that would be desirable?—A. The reduction of duties will not necessarily augment the importation of goods. It will only give us cheaper goods. I am sorry to see that the balance of trade is growing against us very fast at the present moment, with the highest rates of duties that the country has ever seen. I have seen publications showing that our imports are larger than our exports.

Q. Is that a desirable state of things?—A. Your high tariff does not prevent it.

Q. I do not say that it does, but the question which I asked was: Is it a desirable state of things so to arrange the tariff as to make the balance of trade against us?—A. I do not know that it would be against us, but even should it be, I think that the more you are able to import the more you will be able to export by the opening of new markets.

Q. What will we export?—A. Everything that we make.

Q. We cannot find a market now for our surplus wheat.—A. I wish that we shall export manufactured goods. Australia sends wool to this country. Is there any reason why we should not have trade with Australia? But we pay in cash for her wool, and that is the reason why

the balance of trade is against us. We do not send goods to Australia to pay for her wool.

Q. But suppose we protect our wool interest to such an extent as that we raise all the wool ourselves?—A. I think you will not raise the classes of wool that we receive from Australia. There are certain classes of goods that cannot be done by protection or anything else.

Q. These articles that are brought in under the free list, do they not have to be paid for?—A. Certainly.

Q. These are imports which we are paying for and getting no revenue from?—A. Certainly.

Q. What I understand of trade reformers is that they want a revenue tariff. Does not that endanger the creating of the balance of trade against this country?—A. Not at all. All that it does is to give manufacturers more scope by making their manufactures cheaper. We maintain, as revenue reformers, that \$150,000,000 of revenue from imports is needed for the expenses of the government. We propose that "no more money shall be collected than is necessary for the maintenance of the government, economically administered."

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. That is simply "a glittering generality."

The WITNESS. If there be no money in the Treasury, Congress cannot expend it. Congress cannot go and throw away the money.

Commissioner AMBLER. That has been done sometimes.

The WITNESS. Then the men who do it will be left at home. The time has come when a reduction of these war-taxes can be safely made. Above all; a simplification of the tariff should be made; and of that I shall be very glad. I am not a merchant or importer, but I have written a good deal about the tariff. I have studied it, and my whole aim has simply been to give to this country a simple tariff. Far from desiring to injure the industries of this country, my sole aim has been to see higher rates of wages paid in this country, and the articles used by the poorer classes made cheaper; so that the working men would have the benefit in both ways. If I can aid the Commission in any way, publicly or privately, I am ready to do so. I am ready to work at it night and day, with the greatest pleasure. I am not entirely wedded to the list which I have presented.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. What would an article pay, under your schedule, about which there was some dispute some time ago—the article of ozier cases—I mean cases containing perfumery bottles. These cases were made of wood, and contained also rattan, straw, cotton, silk, iron, steel, brass, glass, and paper. You propose the rate of 25 per cent. on cotton, 45 per cent. on silk, 35 per cent. on iron and steel, 40 per cent. on glass, and 15 or 20 per cent. on paper. Tell me what rate that box would pay.—A. I should do just as Alexander did 4,000 years ago; I should cut the gordian knot, and say, let it pay 25 per cent. The great misfortune of our tariff system has been this: that we have been too punctilious; that we have looked at the matter too seriously. A stand should have been taken. Common sense should have decided the thing.

Q. The common sense of the importer might suggest one thing, and that of the custom-house officers another thing. Which common sense should we take?—A. I suppose that if you were Secretary of the Treasury, you would put it under the head of "goods not enumerated or otherwise provided for."

JOSEPH LYMAN.

NEW YORK, *October 3, 1882.*

Mr. JOSEPH LYMAN, representing the firm of A. A. Low & Bros., importers of teas, raw silk, hemp, jute, sugar, and China sundries, submitted the following statement:

Whatever matter of facts or of argument I have to present to the consideration of the honorable members of the Tariff Commission have been prepared in the belief, 1st, that it is the common sense of the people of the country that our tariff should be simplified and all unnecessary taxation relieved, and that for such purposes the present Tariff Commission was organized; and, 2d, that it must be the wish of such a Commission to hear the case of special articles upon which the present revenue is collected, as well as to listen to the specialist in tariff.

In such a belief, and because I take it for granted that the amount of revenue collected is now largely in excess of the country's requirements, and is the primary cause of the people's discontent with the present tariff, I beg to present the facts relating to several articles of commerce, with which I have had a special experience, and from which, as it seems to me, the burden of taxation may be properly removed. The articles I especially refer to are manila and sisal hemp and jute and jute butts; but I must ask permission, also, to make mention of certain anomalies or difficulties of revenue collection known to me in the case of other articles.

Jute and jute butts.—Jute grows as a stalk of 10 feet or more in height. Its bark is stripped and macerated and the dark outer bark removed. The soft inner fiber has the butt end cut off, and is then baled and shipped as jute, for the most part to England. The butts or cuttings come chiefly to our own country.

Jute is manufactured into cordage and twines, and into the yarns of which are woven the so-called hemp carpets, the jute curtains and cloths, and various sorts of grain and coffee bags, and gunnies.

Jute butts have two principal uses in manufacture, viz, 1st, the so-called manila paper, and, 2d, cotton bagging or domestic gunny-cloth. Jute pays duty of \$15 per ton, or, say, $\frac{3}{8}$ cent per pound. Butts pay duty of \$6 per ton, or, say, $\frac{1}{4}$ cent per pound.

The present import of jute into this country (1881, 61,843 bales) is insignificant in comparison with the import of the article into England (1881, about 1,400,000 bales), whose market fixes the value practically in India. The average import to the United States in past ten years has been about 46,000 bales; but, assuming the average at 60,000 bales per annum, the duty collected (at 2.50 per bale) would be \$150,000 per annum.

The United States are, however, the largest consumers of the cheaper commodity, viz, jute butts or cuttings, which have, in some degree, a reflexive influence upon the values of the rest of the stalk and *vice versa*.

Our import of butts in late years has run very nearly up to 275,000 or 300,000 bales. We will accept the largest figure, for convenience, and the duty paid thereon (at, say, \$1.08 per bale) will be \$326,000. The

actual duties, even with an increase lately in the weight of some of the bales, will not differ materially from the above figure.

The import of the two articles together—jute and jute butts—thus produces in the revenue somewhat less than \$500,000. This is approximately correct, and is much less than has been represented by most newspaper correspondents and by special schemers.

This amount is fairly a portion of your surplus revenue; and the expense of its collection is excessive, being largely disproportionate to the amount collected. It is revenue which taxes the consumer of all jute twines, ropes, and yarns, all hemp carpets—which are of the cheaper sorts, and go especially into the homes of the working people—all manila papers, grain bags, and cotton cloth.

There are, as I believe, no vested interests which can properly demand a tax on those two sorts of raw fiber. The flax growers of the West secured the replacement of the duty upon jute butts in 1875 (act of February 8), because, as I am informed, Senator Sherman was persuaded that the flax crop of his friends was in peril. One-third to one-half of the butts import (representing less than \$100,000 of revenue at that time) passed into the manufacture of the rough cloth used to cover cotton, and it was thought that flax could be used, in whole or in part, for that purpose. The attempt has been made, and it is perhaps needless for me to say with what result. Nearly all the cotton exchanges of the country—in all parts—have expressed, by rule or resolution, a strong disapproval of the use of flax in any percentage whatever.

But the cry comes from the Louisiana newspapers that the jute crop can be made valuable to that part of the country, as its very own! I have heard that cry personally for about ten years; but it may have been as “music in the air” to others for a much longer term of years. I can say, however, that I have yet to see a bale of jute or of jute cuttings of our own native production, and I have read or heard of only 4,000 pounds—or the equivalent of 10 bales—which appear to have been raised as an experiment, and were reported by the Commissioner of Agriculture in his work on the products of Louisiana.

The selling price of jute in New York to-day varies, in respect of its quality, from $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents to 5 cents per pound. This value includes everything—first cost, baling, foreign commissions, freight, banking, and home commission, and duty.

The selling price of jute butts (and rejections) in New York to-day is, in respect of quality, from $2\frac{3}{4}$ cents to $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, and my hearers will agree with me that neither value offers vast encouragement for competition so long, at any rate, as hand labor rules as the necessity in the preparation of the fiber.

Of these values $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents to 2 cents, perhaps, go into the hands of the jute grower of India. The rest is absorbed by the vested interests of packing, commission, and banking houses, by the freight to the vessels which carry the bales, and by the tariff of the United States.

If that tariff remain the same, interests which are now vested in the use of the article will doubtless continue to accommodate themselves to the circumstances, and somehow secure from the consumer a living from their manufacture.

If the tariff be increased there seems but little doubt that the process of manufacture must be checked, and the interests which now import jute and jute butts to this country, in whatever branch of the business, materially suffer.

If the tax be removed it should help, with the removal of the numberless and unnecessary other taxes—which now serve only to bleed

the consumer and enhance materially the cost of labor—to stimulate and energize vastly our manufacturing interests and assist materially the competition with England and Scotland. There should be, in that event, a much larger use of jute itself, and America might then manufacture more than 5 per cent. of the jute export and 25 per cent. of the whole crop—jute and jute butts.

The "Calcutta man," or British iron ship, which carries the produce of India, is as distinctive a type of vessel as the three-masted schooner which trades along our coast. Every 5,000 to 6,000 bales of jute or jute butts means a vessel to bring them to our ports. Already our import requires 60 to 100 craft for its transportation, and of that quantity the larger proportion by far is now British, where once it was American. Give our manufacturer untaxed raw fibers to work with, and give our ship-builder and ship-owner an equal chance with those of foreign lands, and you take the proper steps toward the building up of an American commerce.

The question of labor and the high cost of it must be left to a proper adjustment when the consumer has been relieved of all unnecessary taxation, over and above what is actually required for the revenue of the country, and for a proper protection of young and feeble industries. And I speak of labor and its cost because I deem it unfair to pass it by as if it had no part in the development of our manufacturing interests or in the decline of American shipping.

At the same time, it were equally unjust to disregard the effect of the removal of the discriminating duty of 10 per cent. in its effect upon that same shipping. This act should certainly direct trade via England—which naturally becomes the warehouse in such articles as jute—instead of promoting direct transportation from the country of production to the United States. With the advantage in favor of the English merchant there should then be a tendency toward concentration of control in his hands. The consumer must be the last under any such circumstances to reap a benefit from it.

The only interest which I can imagine as desirous of retaining the tax on jute butts is that of wood pulp, a fiber or preparation of fiber which is now in somewhat extensive use in the cheapening and adulteration of our various sorts of wrapping-paper.

The verdict of all manufacturers whose opinions I have heard expressed is undoubted that the best manila paper is made, as it is termed, "all jute." But even supposing it were not so, there appears to be no good reason why a check, in the form of a tax, should be put to the shipping interests of the country, or why the Calcutta and Indian trade and those interested therein should be handicapped for the benefit of and to favor the destroyers of our native forests.

It may be mentioned as one of the anomalies of our present tariff that rejected jute or jute rejections are allowed to enter our customs within the class of jute butts. When such rejections are no better than to serve the uses of butts, it seems unreasonable to find fault with the fact. But it happens at times that the quality is sufficiently good to perplex the appraiser and leave him at a loss to determine the proper duty. The amount at risk to the revenue is very small; but the fact points a moral in respect of a complex tariff.

A difference of $\frac{1}{4}$ cent per pound, which is about the duty, makes a decided difference in the consumption of so low-priced an article as jute butts. The same difference of price in the raw material more than doubles in the cost of manufacture of one yard of $1\frac{1}{4}$ -pound bagging used to cover our bales of cotton.

Hemp (fiber manila).—The foregoing argument in respect of jute fibers and so far as it refers to the development of our shipping and manufacturing interests through the relief of the present taxation on the raw material applies even more strongly to the article called hemp. I say "called hemp" because the manila fiber, which is so termed, is the cleaned fiber of a palm tree, and is a totally different natural product from the real *hemp* of Russian and American growth. The uses even of the real hemp and the manila hemp are quite different. Manila hemp does not take kindly to tar, while the fiber of the Russian and American growth does; and the result is in cordage that all tarred rigging must be of real hemp, while the hawsers and running rigging are made of the manila article.

There is no need of protection to American hemp by means of the tariff, for the simple reason that their character and qualities and uses are so divergent, and that the increase of duty on manila hemp or the removal of it altogether cannot, for some years at least, materially decrease or increase the quantity of manila hemp imported into the United States.

There seems to be a use for all manila hemp which can now be reasonably secured for our country, and our present consumption exceeds that of Great Britain and all the rest of the receivers put together. And one may add that the world's consumption during the last year (1881) and this (1882) would seem to exceed the total production of the Philippine Islands. The result is an enhanced value, so that the price now ruling is 100 per cent. above the price of four years ago, and as high as at any time in twenty years (excepting 1870 and 1872). This condition of the business has eventuated despite the tariff and despite its injustice in admitting sisal hemp at \$10 per ton less duty.

Sisal hemp or grass (so called) is the fiber of agave or aloe of Mexico and Central America, and can be so manufactured as an adulterant with manila fiber as to deceive even the most experienced. Its fiber is somewhat shorter than manila, and rather harder and harsher, but it is sufficiently strong for use in domestic cordage where there is but little exposure to weather.

Manila hemp consumption:

1862-'66, five years	bales..	131,000
1867-'71, five years.....	do...	140,000
1872-'76, five years.....	do...	140,000
1876-'81, five years.....	do...	165,000
1877	do...	146,715
1878	do...	127,394
1879	do...	153,173
1880	do...	176,600
1881	do...	220,685

Sisal hemp consumption:

1872-'74, three years.....	bales..	25,000
1875-'77, three years.....	do...	41,000
1878-'80, three years.....	do...	63,000 and increasing weight.
1881, one year	do...	104,633 and increasing weight.

From the above tables it will appear that the import of manila hemp (with its tax of \$25 per ton), although demanded for many uses, has not even doubled in twenty years, while the import of sisal hemp (favored by a lesser duty, \$15 per ton) has more than quadrupled in one-half of the time.

These two articles serve practically the same purpose. In fact it has often become a matter of doubt to the dealer in rope whether, when selling manila rope, he is really selling manila fiber, or sisal, or both. And

so, if it seems necessary to tax these raw fibers it is not an unnatural question to ask why both should not be placed upon the same basis, or, perhaps, rather, why the manila fiber should not be relieved of the extra \$10 per ton of duty.

But why a tax on either article will seem a question of more significant pertinence when the new use is shown which especially calls for the present large increase in the import of both fibers.

Whereas in 1879 the importation of manila hemp was 153,173 bales, the import of 1881 was 220,685 bales; and while the selling price in the former year averaged about 7 cents, in the latter year the average was nearly 11 cents. This important increase of import and value is due, I think, almost wholly to the new and large demand for binder's twine, with which it is now the custom to bind up the sheaves of grain throughout the West. Manila hemp by itself serves the purpose perfectly; but the article is costly. Sisal hemp by itself cannot, by reason of its harshness and hardness and shorter fiber, be accommodated to the machinery now in use. As an adulterant, however, or mixer with the manila fiber, the sisal has been successfully introduced into binder's twine to the extent certainly of 50 per cent.

But the duty on manila hemp, say on the average of five years past, or 165,000 bales at \$3 per bale, 270 pounds per bale, is \$500,000, and the duty on sisal hemp, say on the average of 1881, or 100,000 bales, at \$3 per bale of 400 pounds, is about \$300,000, making a total of relief to the consumer of rope, cordage, and binder's twine of \$800,000, when our tariff reformers see fit to remove the burden of its taxation. Like the duty on the cheaper fiber of jute and jute butts, the expense of collection of the hemp duty is large in proportion to the amount collected. It falls ultimately and with more or less burden upon the consumer, and helps again to enhance the cost of labor. It represents an extra outlay of capital, to be rendered account for by custom-house and Treasury, on the part of importer and manufacturing interest, and its relief must serve to advantage the consumer and labor, which is dependent upon the development and prosperity of our manufactures, and cannot, so far as I am aware, disadvantage any vested interest.

The importance of free hemp to our shipping interest cannot be easily estimated. The cost of rigging and cordage is a noteworthy part in the cost of a ship's equipment, and that cost can be reduced by a marked percentage by the removal of the present duty on the raw fiber. No matter if one dare or dare not prophesy the continuance or betterment of our Navy, or the revival of the American merchant marine, the thought must come that Congress can afford relief and assistance in the ship's hempen equipment more easily, perhaps, than in any other part of the structure.

JOHN H. TINGUE.

NEW YORK, *October 3, 1882.*

Mr. JOHN H. TINGUE, of the Tingue Manufacturing Company, made an argument in the interest of the manufacturers of mohair goods, and for encouragement of the raising of Angora goats. He said:

In relation to our industry, we are, at the present time, obliged to import the raw material. We ask for a strong tariff on mohair pile fabric, and that the duty on mohair shall remain as it is.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. You want the present duty maintained on the raw material?—Answer. I think it wise to do so. We are paying wool duty on mohair, and if the duty be taken off wool it should be taken off mohair. But if you do, see how the Western farmers, who raise wool, will go down. I believe in a protective tariff on everything.

Q. You speak in general terms of a high rate on mohair fabrics. What are mohair fabrics?—A. The mohair comes from the Angora goat. We are paying 12 cents a pound and 10 per cent. ad valorem on the material, which we are importing from Bradford, England. I should say, let it remain as it is, not for my own interest, but for the interest of the country at large, and in order to encourage the raising of the Angora goat in this country.

Q. You have some recommendation to make as to the manufactured article?—A. I should say, leave it as it is.

Q. What are the rates now?—A. I cannot answer positively; but I should say they can be landed at about 100 per cent.

Q. How extensively is mohair manufactured in this country?—A. It is used in this country for making alpacas and brilliantines; but the disuse of these fabrics has caused the decline of mohair manufactures in this country. In Bradford, England, in 1872, mohair was commanding a large price on account of the making of alpacas and brilliantines. This pile fabric for furniture covering was never made in this country till we made it.

Q. You are the pioneers of the manufacture of this class of goods in this country?—A. Yes.

Q. How long have you been in the business?—A. We made the first yard in October, 1881. We had been working at it two years before we made the first yard.

Q. What has been the production since that time?—A. We are increasing our product. We are making 500 yards a day of mohair plush, for the covering of seats, &c., of railroad cars, and we are increasing our production.

Q. You think you can make a commercial success with the present tariff?—A. Yes.

Q. You say that about 100 per cent. is the rate?—A. If it costs 2s. a yard in England, then, with duty and insurance, &c., it costs 4s. to land it here.

Q. Do you not think you could get along with a less rate than that?—A. Yes, if we could have labor at 20 cents a day.

Q. The question is whether, with the present conditions, you cannot maintain your manufacture at less than the present rate of duty, which

you say amounts to about 100 per cent.—A. Not with the mohair, which we are obliged to import. We are depending on the foreign wool, which comes from Asia Minor and South Africa, by way of Liverpool.

Q. Taking the present condition of things—what you have now to pay for mohair and for wages—and assuming that this condition of things is to continue, can you not get along at a less rate of duty?—A. Possibly we could, if we could get the mohair at the present price.

Q. What are you paying for it now?—A. We are importing it at about 66 cents per pound. That is the average rate. But the market on the other side is advancing. We received yesterday a letter from London mentioning an advance there. What I should ask is to encourage the growth of Angora-wool in this country.

Q. Are there any flocks of Angora goats in this country?—A. Yes; there is one flock in Connecticut, owned by the president of the agricultural society. Mr. Peters, at Atlanta, Ga., has another flock. Then there are flocks in Texas, Wyoming, and California. They have about 30,000 Angora goats. Mr. C. T. Bailey, of San José, Cal., has a herd of 5,000 near the line of the Central Pacific Railroad. H. W. Hawk, of San Antonio, Tex., has a flock; and Dr. McIlhenny, surgeon in the United States Army, has a flock in Wyoming. The first Angora goat imported to this country was imported by a man named Scott, of South Carolina, who was minister to Turkey in 1848.

Q. Do you know the extent of the production of Angora wool in this country?—A. I do not. Mr. Robert Scott, of Frankfort, Ky., has also imported some thoroughbreds. It is an industry which is just as staple as the wool industry. The question is about the tariff on mohair goods. If you take the duty off we must stop.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. Do you know the number of Angora goats in this country?—A. I do not. The president of this Commission has made a study of the subject, and has recently written a book about it.

Q. How much hair of the Angora goat are you consuming?—A. About 5,000 pounds a week.

Q. What proportion of that is raised in this country?—A. Not one-tenth.

Q. Do you require the fleeces of thoroughbred animals?—A. Yes; we use the long fiber of thoroughbreds. We are not using the short fiber, but we sell it to other parties.

Q. Is it not a fact that the animals who are graded up to three-fourths or seven-eighths have long fiber?—A. Yes.

Q. Can you not use that?—A. Yes; we use anything over 4 inches long.

Q. What proportion of thoroughbred blood is required to give the fleece the length of 4 inches?—A. People who have made a study of the common goat think that about four crosses produce a very nice Angora goat.

Q. Where do you buy your fleeces?—A. We are importing through Bradford, England.

Q. What is the average price at Bradford?—A. It is costing us now about 66 cents a pound after paying the duty. The price at Bradford is 22½d. It pays 12 cents a pound and 10 per cent. ad valorem.

Q. You ask no change in the duty on the fleece?—A. I should say not. It is paying the same duty as wool. It is claimed that it is wool. When I was in the importing business in New York and we were importing alpacas and brilliantines, we made a claim that it was hair. We

paid all the duties under protest, but the government decided against us, holding that it was wool, and we are paying wool duty to-day on mohair.

Q. What is your recommendation in regard to mohair goods? Do you recommend a change in the present duty?—A. I should say not.

Q. Does your observation lead you to believe that, with a continuance of the present duty, you could depend on this country eventually for your supply of wool?—A. It does.

Q. What has been the increase of fleece within the last ten years?—A. The decline in alpacas and brilliantines made a decline in the amount of mohair material consumed. People who had herds of Angora goats were discouraged; but now, in making this mohair pile fabric, we are encouraging the growth of the Angora goat mostly in the West—Wyoming, Oregon, Colorado, Texas, and California. It seems to me that, in order to encourage that industry, the duty should be kept where it is.

Q. Do you know of any movement to reduce the duty?—A. I do not.

Q. What is the average shearing of these goats?—A. From 5 to 7 pounds.

Q. What shrinkage is there in the wool?—A. It depends upon the sheep. We had some from Mr. Peters, of Atlanta, Ga., which did not shrink 15 per cent. in the washing. We have had fleeces sent to us from Texas and the Southern States, unwashed with some burrs in them. I cannot give you the exact thing, but I should say that where the wool was properly washed there is about 25 per cent. of "moils" in that of thoroughbreds.

Q. What do you do with that?—A. We are not using it, we sell it. It goes into the manufacture of rugs and robes.

Q. Then it is not a loss?—A. Not at all; but we have got to sell it at one-fourth the price of the fleece.

Q. What do you pay for the fleece of the Angora?—A. On the average 50 cents a pound.

Q. How does it compare in quality with the foreign fleece?—A. The foreign fleece is sorted on the other side. It costs us 66 cents.

Q. You pay 50 cents for the American fleece and 66 cents for the foreign, and you account for the difference by the fact that it is sorted on the other side, and that you have not so much waste to pay for?—A. Yes. We paid Mr. Peters 70 cents for some of his. We would rather get our mohair in this country if possible. It is a standard article like wool; while some fabrics may be made of itself alone, it is generally used in connection with some other material. Take the lining of my coat; the filling of it is mohair. I do not know where it is made, whether abroad or here. The mohair in the binding comes from the Angora goat. I believe that the Angora goat should be protected, and the duty left as it is.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. Have you stated the foreign price per pound of the long staple?—A. The last that we got was 22½ pence; but we cannot get any more at less than 2s.

Q. Then it is about 50 cents a pound on the other side?—A. Yes.

Q. And the duty of 12 cents a pound and 10 per cent. ad valorem is equal to 17 cents a pound, or about 34 per cent. Does that include commissions and charges?—A. No. We pay 2½d. commission on the other side.

Q. The duty on the manufactured article, you say, is about 100 per cent?—A. Yes.

Q. Do you think that a fair relative proportion? What proportion of the cost of the finished product is in the actual manual labor?—A. I should say about one-third.

Q. What is the difference in the rates of wages here and abroad in your business?—A. We are paying to-day about three times as much as they are paying in Germany or Saxony.

Q. Then your proposition is that, while the wool of the Angora goat is protected by 34 per cent., and while the difference between wages here and abroad is about 22 per cent., you recommend a protection of 100 per cent. on the finished product?—A. We cannot much more than compete with the foreign product under the present tariff, and make a fair profit. The people on the other side have had years of experience and have got things down very fine. If the duty were reduced we had better close.

Q. Does your machinery cost you more here than it costs abroad?—A. We are obliged to get foreign machinery and to pay the duty on it. It is mostly made in Bradford, Yorkshire.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. The duty at present is compound. Is there any particular reason why a compound duty should be retained instead of a specific duty?—A. It seems to be that, with a specific duty, there would be less complication about it.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You say that yours is the only mohair manufacturing concern in this country?—A. Yes.

Q. What does your product go into?—A. The seats of railroad cars, sofas, &c.

Q. What is the amount of your annual production?—A. About 500 yards a day.

Q. What is the average price?—A. About \$1.50 a yard.

WILLIAM P. COPELAND.

NEW YORK, *October 3, 1882.*

Mr. WILLIAM P. COPELAND, of Washington, D. C., attorney for M. Cohn, of New York, corset manufacturer, made an argument in favor of taxing horn strips for corsets. He presented bundles of the article, and said that common sense showed that it was an imitation of whalebone. He said:

This article is used in the making of corsets. It is made from the ibex horn. It is imported now as "horn strips." Horn strips are generally supposed to be made into glæ, or to be "glue stock" generally. These, you can see, are manufactured articles of horn, and should pay 35 per cent. ad valorem. Instead of being known in the trade as manufactures of horn, or as horn strips, they are known as horn whalebone.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. What is your point?—Answer. That this article is now (under a decision of the Treasury) on the free list, instead of paying 35 per cent. ad valorem as a manufacture of horn.

Q. What do you recommend?—A. I leave that to the judgment of the Commission. I represent the largest manufacturer of corsets in the United States. He has spent \$50,000 in trying to get American machinery for the purpose of making these horn strips, which are now only made in France. He had to give it up, however, and to close his place when the Treasury made its decision allowing horn strips to come in free.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. Then the trouble is an arbitrary decision of the Treasury Department?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Your judgment is that the custom-house officers decided right in requiring these horn strips to pay a duty of 35 per cent. as a manufacture of horn, and that the Treasury was wrong in putting them on the free list?—A. Yes, sir. I think also that a specific duty should be fixed on them.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. What are horn strips?—A. We say that they are manufactures of horn. They are known commercially as "horn whalebone," and are used in the manufacture of corsets.

Q. Do you understand that this is a manufacture of this country?—A. Yes.

Q. Where do you get the material?—A. Entirely from India. Sometimes, on account of the 10 per cent. discriminating duty, we have got it through the West Indies.

Q. Is there any duty on the raw material?—A. No; but we claim that this article is dutiable at 35 per cent.

Q. The Treasury Department overruled you?—A. Yes; but not wisely. I think that the judgment of the New York custom-house officers was against the decision of the Treasury Department. All that we ask is that the words "horn strips" be struck out of the tariff law.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. All horns are admitted free by law?—A. Yes.

Q. And I understand your claim to be that, when the horn pith is extracted and the shell of the horn is split, these pieces of split horn shell are what is commercially known as horn strips?—A. No, sir. Every one of these pieces has to be made from a horn that is soaked two or three months in water. Not over 40 per cent of the horn is valuable.

Q. The raw horn is first soaked, and the pith extracted; then it is split, and the split pieces are what is held by the custom-house to be what is known in commerce as "horn splits." Then the Treasury Department decided (and it is that which you object to) on the 18th of September, 1872, that horn strips used in the manufacture of corsets are the "horn strips" of commerce, and are exempt from duty. Your argument is that these are not the "horn strips" of commerce?—A. Yes. This sample [exhibiting it] is marked "Bombay horn strips"; that is to evade the law. This other sample [exhibiting] is French made.

Q. Would not your object be accomplished by a definition in the law of what is "horn strips"?—A. Yes; by the definition that it is "glue stock." Every one knows that this [showing sample] is a manufacture of horn.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. What you understand by "horn strips" is the shell from the horn?—A. The waste of the horn. The machine for cutting or slitting could not be made for less than \$5,000.

Q. What do you consider as "horn strips"?—A. Anything but manufactures of horn. Any strip from the horn.

GEORGE W. DEAN.

NEW YORK, *October 3, 1882.*

MR. GEORGE W. DEAN, of New York, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: I am not here to represent any particular American interest, but to give my views on the defects of the present tariff system, and the remedy therefor, by a new amendment or section added to our tariff laws for self-adjusting duties, to prevent a continued yearly adverse balance of trade with other nations, and its disastrous effects upon our country, as in former times.

Having given from my youth a great deal of time and thought to the very important subject of our tariff laws, being the laws having a direct bearing upon our whole country's prosperity, and being a subject of paramount importance to every American business, farmer, trade, or industry, and to wages of workingmen, which interests so many for good or evil; and as the country looks to your Commission for judicious recommendations in relation to the defects in our present tariff, I take the liberty to recommend to your Commission a new amendment or section to be added to our tariff laws, to remedy what I have deemed for many years a vital defect in said laws, and it would be, in my opinion, greatly to our country's advantage to adopt the same; which new section, in my judgment, would be a perfect preventive against a continued yearly adverse balance of trade to our country (as in former times), and of great panics, affecting all business, such as occurred in years 1837, 1857, 1873, with the succeeding years of depression to employments and wages, and the suspension of specie payments. Statistics of our trade imports and exports (if referred to) will prove foreign competition and overimportation to be the true and only cause of all our former panics, being disastrously large and in excess of our exports, with a loss to our country in both gold and labor, employments amounting to many hundred millions of dollars for imports in competition with our own kind of products, for the years just preceding each and every panic, which our exports of merchandise could not liquidate and balance, as would have been done if our imports had been in value curtailed to that of our exports by defensive duties in amount to equal the real difference of foreign and American wages, which would have increased American productions and made our country the creditor in place of the debtor nation, being made thus by excess of imports alone.

In other words, by the tariff our liabilities for merchandise imports were allowed to largely exceed our assets for merchandise exports, which is sufficient evidence that our country was unnecessarily and disastrously running in debt by buying more from other nations than they bought of us, or was good for our labor employments or financial interests. For ours is not an old-established and wealthy country like that of England, living partly upon its money investments abroad, and on other nations by its vast ocean shipping interests and carrying trade.

One nation doing business with other nations is, by its follies and extravagance, subject to the same law of panic and failure from adverse trade as are separate individuals in trade; and our nation, to have its own States and people thrive, must be encouraged by its own revenue tariff laws to patronize its own country's productions in preference to

all others, that we may in turn be employed, prosperous, and self-sustaining, to that extent at least of preventing ours from becoming the debtor people and nation by an unfavorable adverse balance of trade with other nations, as in the years just preceding our panic times; and by so doing would save and economize to our country in the total foreign cost for imports of a kind we produce to sell, adding by this means to our total wealth in productions and to our people's prosperity, in which, be it remembered, we directly or indirectly share more or less, in whatever business, vocation, or part of the country we may live, as we all do share more or less in the suffering from adverse business times.

A judicious tariff, in my opinion, should be a self-adjusting one, and contain an element within itself to immediately check at the end of any fiscal year an adverse balance of trade without waiting, as we did under the old tariff system, for a panic, suspension of specie payments, and depression of business and wages to come upon us, and then, for the want of a remedy at hand, take years to cure by a starvation and bankrupt process.

The remedy I offer (or one to the same effect) is in the following section, and should be embodied in our tariff laws, viz:

SECTION —. *And be it further enacted,* That at the termination of any fiscal year that the total imports of merchandise shall for the year amount in value to over five-sixths of the total value of our country's merchandise exports for the same year (not counting or including money or gold and silver bullion as an export or import), then the Secretary of the United States Treasury is empowered and duly authorized and directed by Congress to immediately increase the duties one-sixth in amount upon all present dutiable imports, Congress retaining the right to reduce or increase all or any of the duties so increased by said Secretary at any time.

NOTE.—The difference of one-sixth allowed in merchandise in our favor is not equivalent to our losses to foreign nations for our ocean-carrying trade; American interest-bearing obligations held in Europe, and the loss to our country by expenses of American tourists abroad, being together estimated at over \$200,000,000 in gold per annum.

Then the question of the rate of duties upon imports will be decided alone, and fairly, by the total relative value of imports and exports, and by the balance of trade with nations; and, better yet, be removed from the prejudices of partisans and politics, placing, as it would, our country's prosperity upon a permanent, self-sustaining basis, by a continued favorable balance of trade, which should be paramount to all other single interests, either American or foreign.

The following are the official statistics of imports and exports and losses for the year and preceding years to each panic which occurred in years 1837, 1857, 1873, showing each year's loss to our industries and wealth by adverse balance of trade, and being the only true and sufficient cause for our country's former impoverishment and panics:

Year.	Bought, merchandise imports.	Sold, merchandise exports.	Adverse bal- ance of trade.
1831	\$82, 808, 110	\$59, 218, 583	\$23, 589, 527
1832	75, 327, 688	61, 720, 529	13, 607, 159
1833	83, 470, 067	69, 950, 859	13, 519, 201
1834	80, 973, 147	80, 623, 662	6, 349, 485
1835	122, 007, 974	100, 450, 481	21, 548, 493
1836	158, 811, 302	100, 570, 942	52, 240, 450
1837	113, 310, 571	94, 280, 895	19, 027, 676
Panic of 1837, caused by seven years of adverse balance of trade, total loss			149, 676, 991

Year.	Bought, merchandize imports.	Sold, merchandize exports.	Adverse balance of trade.
1850	\$104, 034, 033	\$134, 000, 233	\$20, 133, 800
1851	200, 476, 308	178, 020, 138	21, 856, 170
1852	195, 987, 314	154, 931, 147	40, 456, 107
1853	250, 157, 145	189, 800, 102	60, 287, 983
1854	275, 001, 770	215, 328, 200	60, 003, 570
1855	231, 650, 340	102, 751, 135	38, 899, 205
1856	295, 650, 038	200, 438, 051	29, 212, 887
1857	333, 511, 205	278, 906, 713	54, 604, 582
Panic of 1857, caused by eight years of adverse balance of trade, total loss			335, 013, 573
1864	301, 113, 322	143, 504, 027	157, 609, 295
1865	209, 050, 525	136, 040, 248	72, 716, 277
1866	423, 470, 046	337, 518, 102	85, 952, 544
1867	381, 043, 768	279, 780, 809	101, 250, 959
1868	344, 873, 441	269, 350, 900	75, 483, 541
1869	406, 555, 370	275, 160, 693	131, 388, 682
1870	410, 803, 113	376, 010, 473	43, 186, 040
1871	505, 802, 414	428, 308, 008	77, 403, 506
1872	610, 904, 022	428, 487, 131	182, 417, 401
1873	624, 680, 727	505, 033, 430	119, 656, 288
Panic of 1873, caused by ten years of adverse balance of trade, total loss			1, 047, 070, 223

I further recommend, believing it wise and judicious, a change in the valuations of imports from foreign to home valuation upon all imports of a kind which we produce to sell. In our country's earlier days, we then not being a manufacturing country, foreign valuations were necessary, but this necessity no longer exists and should be changed, being now more convenient to ascertain the true value at home than the true one abroad for merchandise in competition with home productions, it will tend greatly to correct the growing evil of foreign undervaluations, which undervaluations are directly acts of smuggling of part of the imports, and practically annulling our tariff laws by defrauding our government of its just revenues.

As to the fruits of protection, and of a revenue free-trade tariff, the former makes our country a prosperous business nation and a creditor one, the latter a failing and debtor one. Protection increases the total wealth and value of our country's production. Revenue free-trade tariff reduces it. Protection is at the expense of foreign industries, by their loss of the American market. Revenue free-trade tariff is at the expense of American industries, they being wrongfully deprived of their own market. Protection will establish industries South and West to their advantage. Revenue free-trade tariff will prevent them. Protection destroys foreign monopoly of our market. Revenue free-trade tariff protects it. Protection builds silk, woolen, cotton, and other factories. Revenue free-trade tariff, like an incendiary, destroys them. Protection economizes imports and saves in the cost for them, which is equivalent to an increase of our exports. Revenue free-trade tariff increases imports and the foreign cost, which is equivalent to a reduction of our exports. Protection opens new mines and in new localities, builds foundries, rolling-mills, machine shops, and gives employment and good wages to thousands. Revenue free-trade tariff discharges them; puts out the fires in the furnaces, silences the anvils and trip hammers, stops the busy whirling wheels, the spindles, and drives hundreds of thousands of honest, industrious employes to idleness and want, and some to suicide and crime. Protection creates a demand for labor, and enhances wages. Revenue free-trade tariff destroys both.

Protection compels gold to flow into our country, to our advantage. Revenue free-trade tariff to flow out, to our ruin.

This country can always have a large business balance of trade in its favor if Congress chooses to give to our own industries their own home market, being a question of labor only, which our tariff wholly controls by duties on imports.

I hold that no tariff is a protective one that does not protect the whole country's business from an adverse balance of trade. The so-called protective tariffs may protect one special interest, or more, but does it protect the whole country's interests from becoming the debtor nation? If not, then it is not a protective tariff, but one that leads our country to panics and bankruptcy, as in former times. Prosperity to the whole country's business should be paramount to either the importers' or foreign manufacturers' business, or any other single unproductive interest of our country.

R. H. WOLFE.

NEW YORK, *October 3, 1882.*

Mr. R. H. WOLFE, of New York, representing wire and spring manufacturers, made an argument against any advance in the duty on wire rods. He said:

I appear here in the interest of twenty-five manufacturers of fence wire—a majority of the business. They are opposed to an increase of the duty on steel-wire rods, which is at present 30 per cent. They desire, if possible, to have the duty reduced, so that the farmers throughout the country may derive the benefit of the cheapness of the wire. I suppose that the fence-wire manufacturers consume more Bessemer steel to-day (outside of the steel-rail business) than any other steel industry in the United States. They also desire to have the duty on Bessemer steel in the crude state reduced. Also to have the specific duty abolished and ad valorem duties substituted, especially on Bessemer steel in the crude state.

Mr. Wolfe then read the following communication:

CHICAGO, *August 30, 1882.*

To R. H. WOLFE, Esq.:

We, the undersigned, barbed-wire manufacturers, do hereby request you to appear before the Tariff Commission and give your views on our behalf and in our interest, in relation to the tariff on iron, steel, &c., which views are opposed to any advance in the tariff on wire rods.

STILES & CALKINS, Chicago, Ill.
 SUPERIOR BARBED WIRE COMPANY, De Kalb, Ill.
 INDIANA WIRE FENCE COMPANY, Crawfordsville, Ind.
 IOWA BARB STEEL WIRE COMPANY, by R. E. Sears, president, Marshalltown, Iowa.
 LAMBERT, BISHOP COMPANY, Joliet.
 STONE CITY FENCE COMPANY, Joliet.
 LOCK-STITCH FENCE COMPANY, Joliet.
 A. N. KLEINFELTER & Co.
 W. W. B. WINN COMPANY, by W. M. Dillon, Sterling, Ill.
 W. J. ADAM, Joliet, Ill.
 AYRES & DECKER MANUFACTURING COMPANY, Bushnell, Ill.
 SAINT LOUIS WIRE FENCE COMPANY, Saint Louis, Mo.
 FRENTERS BARB WIRE FENCE COMPANY, East Dubuque.
 MISSOURI WIRE FENCE COMPANY, Saint Louis, Mo.
 SHUMAN & MARSH, Chicago.
 CLEVELAND BARB FENCE COMPANY, by M. Converse, president, Cleveland, Ohio.
 FISK & CARMELL, Joliet, Ill.
 OMAHA BARB WIRE COMPANY, Omaha, Nebr.
 SCHNABEL & Co., Chicago, Ill.
 NOVELTY MANUFACTURING COMPANY, Sterling, Ill., A. A. Terrell, secretary.
 CINCINNATI BARB WIRE FENCE COMPANY, James Lannon, president, Cincinnati, Ohio.
 THE THORN WIRE HEDGE COMPANY, Chicago, by A. S. White, president.
 H. B. SCUTT & Co., Joliet, Ill.
 H. B. SCUTT & Co., Buffalo, N. Y.
 THE HAZARD MANUFACTURING COMPANY, New York and Wilkes-Barre, Pa.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. Do you manufacture barbed wire?—Answer. No. We manufacture plain wire and springs. But I represent twenty-five firms that do make barbed wire.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. I understand you to advocate the admission free of duty of raw material?—A. Yes.

Q. What is your definition of raw material?—A. I confine it (in my line particularly) to ore, and perhaps coal. I want to have a moderate duty on pig iron, Bessemer steel in ingots, blooms, &c.

Q. You would have a progressive duty according to the assumed proportion of labor. Is that the idea?—A. Yes.

Q. Is not ore almost entirely the product of labor?—A. I suppose that most of the cost of the ore is in labor.

By Mr. OLIVER:

Q. What is the price of steel rails to-day at the mills in England or Germany?—A. I suppose that they can be bought to-day at the mills, free on board, at about \$25.

Q. What is the price to-day at the steel works in this country of what is known as Bessemer pig iron—good No. 1 Bessemer pig iron?—A. From \$23 to \$25.

Q. Then the price of Bessemer pig iron in this country is about \$25, and the price abroad is about \$25?—A. Yes.

Q. Then it is very difficult to make rails at a profit in this country?—A. But they use only a very small proportion of the best iron. They use a majority of pig iron, which probably does not cost more than \$14 or \$15. It would be hard to prove what the manufacture of steel rails costs, because most of the steel works own their own mines and make their own pig iron.

WILLIAM D. MARVEL.

NEW YORK, *October 3, 1882.*

Mr. WILLIAM D. MARVEL, of New York, importer, addressed the Commission as follows:

Mr. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMISSION: The points upon which I wish to speak are the *unconstitutionality of the system of protection*, and the inconsistencies and incongruities of our present tariff, giving practical illustrations of the evils growing out of the powers of Treasury officials to make what are called "decisions," and the avenues opened for dishonest practices in entries and reappraisements. I wish also to suggest means for simplifying the tariff, by introducing all fundamental raw material free of duty, enacting a fair competitive revenue tariff on manufactures, and adding to our system of taxation *direct taxes* as required by the Constitution, and the proportions which each tax might contribute to our requirements.

Nowhere in the Constitution is it allowed to lay protective duties or prohibitive duties upon any article in commerce, or of the wants of man; and nowhere in the Constitution is it allowed to make any privilege or class legislation. That would be directly contrary to the very spirit under which the Constitution was framed.

And yet what do we experience to-day? We experience one of the most supremely privileged class-legislated countries on the face of the earth.

When England was suffering under corn laws, wool laws, excises, and all the privileged class legislation of former times, mark the result! Riots and bloodshed from one end of that country to the other. We read of people compelled to bury their dead in woolen shrouds; and if any person dared export any sheep, lamb, or ram, for the first offense to forfeit all his goods forever; suffer a year's imprisonment, then have his left hand cut off, in a market town upon a market day, to be there nailed up; and for the second offense to be adjudged a felon, and suffer death accordingly.

This was protection to the woolen trade. The dead must be buried in woolen shrouds, and if any person committed the second offense, as described, he must die as a felon, and thus furnish one early customer for the protected woolen trade.

The object of such laws, and later laws, not so severe, however, as those just cited, was to give the woolen manufacturers "a monopoly of the woolen trade of the world." Even Fuller's earth or clay (upon which we assess a duty of \$3 per ton), necessary for the use of the woolen manufacturers, was forbidden to be exported, under nearly the same penalties. This is one kind of protection, as was given to the woolen manufacturers of England in former times. It differs somewhat in the manner of doing it, from our system of protection, but in the result there is not much difference.

The land owners and farmers—they too wanted protection, and they got it largely under the corn laws. And, ostensibly with the object of protecting the land owner and farmer, by giving them the full prices for consumption, it was enacted that whoever should buy any corn or grain with intent to sell again, should suffer two months' imprisonment and forfeit the value of the corn; for the second offense, six months'

imprisonment and forfeit double the value; and for the third offense, sent to the pillory, suffer imprisonment during the king's pleasure, and forfeit all his goods and chattels.

In these old laws, with all their apparent severity, there is one thing which presents itself to our admiration, *i. e.*, the protection that was meted out alike to the manufacturer and to the farmer; and, unlike our system, where we protect the manufacturer and leave the farmer not only unprotected, but, by the injustice in our method of protecting the manufacturer, we actually tax the farmer by the additional price he must pay for such goods as he must consume for his family. In other words, we make the farmer compete with the world, and then legislate the reduction of the purchasing power of his earnings by 50 to 60 per cent.

Is this system, I ask, anywhere in accord with the spirit of our Constitution? I answer, no!

While we do not forbid the exportation of wool, or sheep, or lambs, or rams, nor forbid the exportation of corn, nor its being bought to sell again, we do forbid the importation of woolen goods except upon payment of exorbitant duties, thereby permitting the manufacturer to obtain a so much higher price for his goods from the farmer. These duties run from 40 to 102 $\frac{9}{10}$ per cent., as may be seen by reference to the "Commerce and Navigation Reports for 1881." So far as the needs of the people go into such goods the purchasing power of their money is thereby reduced in this direction by an average of 60 to 70 per cent.

Bring this down to your own personal expenditures. You may have incomes of \$5,000 or \$100,000 per annum. Consider by what means you may augment the purchasing power of the same and save to yourselves 60 or 70 per cent. of it. Upon your personal experience base your sense of duty to your countrymen, and adjust the tariff upon that common-sense basis, and nobody will have any cause to complain, unless they are of the privileged class under the system of protection. And such a class have no rights under our Constitution and our laws, except that their misdirected capital may not be sacrificed as a productive power in the national wealth.

As I have spoken of the woolen manufacturer in the light of one of a privileged class, I may pause here to mention that he, too, has injustices to complain of—as a manufacturer—notwithstanding he has been made an example for the foregoing illustration.

Wool is one of the great staples of commerce. It is as varying in quality as the climes in which the sheep are grown and as are the grades of sheep. The manufacturer requires to be able to select his grades of wool from whatever country it may be found best suited to his particular goods. But here he is prevented by enormous tariff duties. He must pay from 25 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to 76.4 per cent. duty on his raw wool.

These duties on wool are not to be measured by the exact rate named in the tariff law, but you must account his expenses in going to London to select his wools—the additional freight and public-store expenses in getting it to this country, and interest of money to cover the time of all this delay.

Trade throughout the world, with rare exceptions, runs in triangles. Except between the larger commercial cities, direct trade, employing ships to and from, is the exception. Vessels in the course of the great trades of the world—on one of the sides of the triangle—come to our American ports, and most of such vessels come in ballast. Many of them come from the Cape of Good Hope, Australia, New Zealand, South America and other wool-growing countries; and but for our tariff on

wool, and the necessity of putting it in bonded warehouses, and incurring all the concomitant expenses, in case the wool is not for immediate consumption, such ships would bring wool to our markets.

You may see that our importations of wool for last year amounted to 66,000,000 pounds, of a total value, at the place of exportation, of \$12,000,000, upon which \$4,800,000 duty was collected here, which is just 40 per cent. What chance has an American woolen manufacturer got to compete in the markets of the world when he starts with a handicap of over 40 per cent. increased cost in his raw material?

You may also see that 29 American vessels of a total tonnage of 15,803 tons, and 28 foreign vessels of a total tonnage of 25,260 tons, arrived in our ports during the last year, 1881, and entered "in ballast" from the wool ports of Australasia and South America. Thus there was 42,063 tons of unutilized shipping which might have brought wool as an article of commerce to our markets.

Our imports of wool, in tons, was 29,018. Thus we have driven away a commerce from our ports, including freight, of over \$18,000,000 in this one item alone (besides taxing our own people nearly \$5,000,000, on raw wool), which is 13,045 tons more than our entire imports of raw wool. This system of figuring the follies of our tariff law, if carried into the multitude of other materials, would present an appalling array of figures. Nor has this system been of any benefit to our home products of wool. A single instance of the condition of the wool-growing interest in Iowa shows, viz: In 1867 the State of Iowa had over 1,300,000 head of sheep; in 1881 she only had a little over 400,000, showing a decrease of over 900,000 in 14 years. In 1867 Iowa had 89 or 90 woolen manufactures, and in 1881 she only had 40 or 41.

I could furnish figures of facts in other States quite as appalling as these, but this instance is quite sufficient to illustrate the results of our tariff system on the wool trade.

I believe had wool been duty free during the past ten years, that to-day we should have seen New York the wool market of the world, and American woolen manufacturers able to compete in any market of the world with their woolen goods. The same illustration may be made in regard to jute and other fibers, which, if admitted free of duty, would afford the basis for an enormous industry in manufacturing sacks for our cotton trade alone, besides all the various other uses to which the manufactures from jute, &c., are put in this country. This, then, illustrates the claim that is made upon your attention for enacting that all raw material entering into our manufactures of any kind shall be duty free. The claims upon which this enactment are asked are founded upon the most simple principles of mercantile success and upon common sense.

The raw material, to the manufacturer, is the foundation upon which his fabric is constructed. If you raise his cost of foundation, you increase the cost of his fabric in a pretty well defined ratio, and thereby not only place his goods out of the purchasing power of the greatest possible number of our countrymen, but place him absolutely out of any possible chance of selling his goods at all in any other country. Our present tariff laws, to the woolen manufacturer, are a delusion and a snare, as the history of the woolen trade in this country for the last twenty years will prove.

Raw material, however, in general, means the first article used in any line of manufacture, and as each stage of manufacture is producing something that may be used as raw material in the next succeeding stage of manufacture, each may be claiming its own particular "raw material" to be made *duty free*.

Here complications may arise to your perplexion, as in the ramifications of the iron trade you will have the iron smelters asking for ores duty free; you will have the foundrymen asking for pig iron duty free; and the foundryman will be joined by the hardware manufacturer, the puddler, and rail-maker to have pig iron duty free.

But you will also find the smelter, while asking for ores duty free, will ask for a good protective duty on pig iron. The foundryman, the hardware manufacturer, the puddler, and the rail-maker will impress upon your mind the propriety of making pig iron duty free, and giving them a large protective duty on castings, hardware, bars, and rails, respectively.

You may find one class of Western claimants who are largely interested in iron-ore mines and furnaces and Bessemer steel works combined, who have a most apparent sinister motive in coming before you to ask for a high duty to be placed on iron ore. Such motives are apparent to those who are familiar with the trade. For instance, certain Western manufacturers have some limited facilities for obtaining ores for their own use. In those ore mines they have in some cases invested money unwisely, both as regards the mines and as regards the amount paid for them. In other cases they have enormous profits from really good mines, which are capitalized at large sums of money, and the stocks of which, at a par value of \$25 per share, are selling at from \$200 to \$300 per share, or quoted at per centum from 800 to 1,200 per cent.

What is the cause of this? Simply this, that good ores are so very scarce that they are able to command such an enormous price from the furnaces that the profits on the ores are very large. One company of only \$500,000 capital pays dividends approximating 200 per cent. per annum. This industry evidently needs more "protection."

I have taken the following from the New York Evening Post of September 21, 1882:

[Special dispatch to the Evening Post.]

CHICAGO, September 21.

Business in the upper peninsular iron region was never so active as at present. The total lake shipments from the opening of lake navigation to September 19 were 2,155,637 tons against 1,609,373 tons for the same time in 1881. The mines are reported to be earning large dividends. One hundred thousand dollars was refused here for a one-sixteenth interest in the Quinnesec Mine that cost the owner \$15,000 six months ago.

These ore miners seek now to impose a duty upon ores which will be a heavy discrimination against the Eastern manufacturers, who must naturally look to foreign ores for a portion of their supply. If you impose a duty upon foreign ores you will handicap all Eastern manufacturers in competition with the Western. If you admit iron ore duty free, as you should all raw material, you will then leave the Eastern manufacturers only to the natural disadvantages of their location.

In this Bessemer steel process, to make pig iron suitable for conversion into Bessemer steel, as it is called, it is necessary to have ores of peculiar characteristics. With the enormous growth of this Bessemer industry, not only in this country but in Europe, the question of ores suitable for the purpose has become one of most vital importance, in view of the comparatively few ores that are found in the world which meet the requirements for this process.

In France, Germany, Belgium, and England, the large works have been acquiring large properties, and small ones, too, in Spain and Africa; and the importation of foreign ores into England alone last

year (1881) was nearly 3,000,000 tons. The other countries mentioned are importing proportionately. In this country last year such importations reached over 700,000 tons, and it is comparatively a new branch of business in this country.

I believe I am the pioneer in this business, and the first to introduce, for regular use, foreign ores in this country, some eight or nine years ago, since which time I have made regular importations. I think that I speak truthfully when I say that I am the only person in the United States who owns or controls any foreign iron ores, and if anybody that has a right to speak upon affairs in this country is entitled to have his opinions heeded, I claim that right and title upon this subject. I believe that the duty on iron ore should be free, and yet I will frankly say that, if the dishonest importers could be in any manner circumvented or compelled to make honest entries of their invoices, I would hold up both hands for a duty of 10 per cent. ad volorem.

In New Jersey, some time ago, a petition was circulated under the auspices of certain political aspirants who desired to curry favor in the iron-mining regions of New Jersey, making many wild and untruthful statements in relation to the importation of iron ores.

A copy of this petition was addressed to the Hon. Abram S. Hewitt, and Mr. Hewitt replied to this petition as follows:

NEW YORK, *December 30, 1881.*

DEAR SIR: I have received copies of the petition which the citizens of Morris County are requested to sign in favor of an increase of duty on iron ore.

The petition is based upon a total misconception of the facts of the case. If the miners regard their own interests they will petition for an entire abolition of the duty on iron ore, because every ton of foreign ore that is brought here enables a ton of our ore to be used which would otherwise find no market. The reason of this is that all the ore in Morris County contains a little more phosphorus than is possible to be used in the manufacture of steel. The foreign ores imported are practically free from phosphorus. By mixing the two in equal proportions a pig iron can be produced which is fit for the Bessemer converter.

Hence, the more foreign ores we can get the more American ore will be used, and the better price we shall be able to get for it, and the higher wages we shall be able to pay the miners.

I shall therefore do all in my power, although my firm is the largest miner of iron ore in New Jersey, to secure the total abolition of the duty, and not its increase.

You are at liberty to communicate my views to your neighbors and to the public in any way that you see fit.

Truly, yours,

ABRAM S. HEWITT.

Here you have the published testimony of one of the best known men in the country, whose firm, Cooper, Hewitt & Co., are, I believe, the largest owners of iron-ore property in New Jersey, telling his own preferences. The statements that Mr. Hewitt makes are practically correct, and the results to be obtained by foreign ores duty free are all that Mr. Hewitt says they will be, and all that Mr. Hewitt says of iron ore is equally applicable to all the raw materials of commerce in the results to be obtained in the other lines of manufactures.

The tariff law nowhere specifically provides for iron ore, although lead ore and copper ore and gold ore and silver ore are specifically provided for. The present tariff law is one mass of inconsistencies and incongruities. It lacks any consistency whatever with the spirit of our Constitution, or with the spirit of the age in which we live. It lacks any congruity whatever with regard to its classification of the various articles of commerce with which it is supposed or was intended to treat. Among "wool and woollen goods" you will find hemp and jute carpeting and oil-silk cloth. Among "earths and earthenwares" you will find

slate pencils and roofing slates. Among "metals" you will nowhere find iron ores mentioned at all, although you will find lead ore and copper ore; *but you may look in vain for tin*, and many of the manufactures of iron you may find scattered about under various classifications.

Thus under Schedule E, "Metals," you may find needles for knitting or sewing machines," and if you wish to find *needles for sewing*, you may find in schedule M (Sundries), "needles, sewing, darning, knitting, and all other descriptions not otherwise provided for." Ores of gold and silver you will find on the free list as free of duty. Thus, ores of lead, and ores of copper, and ores of gold, and ores of silver, are respectively provided for, but ores of iron are not provided for. These are all raw unmanufactured articles of commerce.

At the time the tariff law was framed the importation of iron ore was not thought of. But, when it happened to become an article of importation, there was no classification that covered it, except the section 2516, R. S., which provides for "all raw or unmanufactured articles, &c., 10 per cent. ad valorem." Importations were met with an uncertainty on the part of government officials. I was told the duty would be 10 per cent.; that was during the administration of President Arthur, then Gen. C. A. Arthur, collector of the port of New York; but, when I entered my cargo, I was told the duty would be 20 per cent. It had, meantime, been discovered that some few tons of ore had a few years before been introduced at Plattsburgh, New York State, for the purpose of a test, to see what sort of iron it would make, and solely for the purpose of determining its worth upon which to base calculations for erecting works in Canada for utilizing this ore near its natural location. Thus, the classification, for duty, of iron ore seems to have come up for the first time, as just related. This occurred in 1867, and it appears by the Treasury Department records that the collector of the port of Plattsburgh asked information from the Treasury Department as to what rate of duty should be charged upon iron ore, and received a recommendatory letter from the department as follows:

WASHINGTON, *September 25, 1867.*

SIR: Your letters of the 28th ult. and 13th inst. are received in relation to the rate of duty to be assessed on iron ore.

As at present advised, the department is of opinion that you had better assess duty thereon at 20 per cent. ad valorem under section 20 of the act of March 2, 1861, and should the party be dissatisfied with the rate of duty thereon imposed, he can pay the duty under protest and appeal to the department, when the question will be further considered and a decision rendered according to law and the facts as then presented.

HUGH McCULLOCH,
Secretary.

From this recommendatory letter (not a decision of the department) there seems to have been no appeal, probably owing to the fact that the importation was so small, and only for the purpose of an experiment, that it would not pay for the annoyance and waste of time. Iron ore has been thus assessed for duty to this time.

The act of March 2, 1861, section 20, as referred to by the Hon. Secretary McCulloch, says, "Mineral and bituminous substances in a crude state not otherwise provided for." To this clause (see Heyl's Digest, sec. 94) there is a reference to section 472 (Heyl's Digest), by reference to which it may be seen that the spirit and intent of that law was and is to apply to only such substances as are "mineral and bituminous," *per se*, and there may be found such "substances" as are "mineral and bituminous" specifically named, such as the "coal oils,"

“asphaltum,” “shale,” “petroleum,” “rock oil,” and other such “substances” as are “mineral and bituminous.” This law, therefore, only applies to such “substances” as are “mineral and bituminous substances,” that is, of mineral origin and of bituminous character, and in a crude state, and which does not in any manner apply to iron ore.

Iron ore is a metallic or metalliferous substance, nor is it exactly in its crude state, but it is a metalliferous substance, a raw material and an unmanufactured article, used for manufacturing iron. Iron ore is found in nature in metalliferous veins and masses, in various mineralogical eras. Le Conte says that “metalliferous veins are composed of two general kinds, viz, veinstuffs and ores.” Dr. Ure says that “the study of mineral substances called gangue or veinstones, which usually accompany the different ores, is indispensable in the investigation and working of mines.”

Dr. Ure also says, “Gangue is a word derived from the German gang—a vein or channel. It signifies the mineral substance which either incloses or usually accompanies any metallic ore.”

Davies, a well known English authority, says ore is the substance specially containing metal.

When mining for iron ore is carried on, it is necessary at times to break down more or less of the veinstones, gangue, or mineral substance forming the walls of the metalliferous veins, or mineral veins running through the metalliferous substance; but in such cases all the mineral substance is carefully sorted out and thrown away and only the metallic or metalliferous substance, the iron ore, is used. This is the fact, and iron ore is in fact a metalliferous substance, and known only as iron ore in the market, and is the “raw, unmanufactured article” of commerce used by the blast furnaces for making pig iron as its chief use.

The value of iron ore depends upon its purity in metallic or metalliferous substance or contents and its freedom from all mineral substance. Iron ore which possesses any considerable amount of mineral substance or any bituminous substance would be worthless.

A “substance,” says Worcester, “in its logical and metaphysical sense, is that nature of a thing which may be conceived to remain when every other nature is removed or abstracted from it.

Now what can be conceived to be the nature of the substance of iron ore? Simply metallic or metalliferous. There appears to be no ground for the classification of iron ore as a “mineral and bituminous substance in a crude state.” The substance of iron ore is metallic or metalliferous; it is always as free from mineral substance as it is possible to be, to attain its highest possible yield of metallic substance, upon which its value depends. It has no bituminous substance whatever, and therefore is not a “mineral and bituminous substance,” and it is never in a crude state, for the word “crude,” as applied to ores, means undressed, that is, unassorted. Iron ores are always carefully assorted at the mines, that they may not contain any mineral substance, either in separate pieces or in fragmentary pieces of the mineral substances which sometimes adhere to the ore as it is blasted out.

Thus this classification as a “mineral and bituminous substance in a crude state,” it would seem, is disposed of without a single thing to justify it. My own opinion is that iron ore should be classified under section 2516 as a raw or unmanufactured article and pay 10 per cent. ad valorem duty, although I have obtained the opinion of that distinguished authority, Professor Doremus, of New York, who says “that iron ore is oxide of iron, and should be admitted duty free under sec-

tion 2505, where colcothar, dry, or oxide of iron are classified duty free." Thus you have my opinion as founded upon what I think is the proper classification for iron ore, and you have the opinion of one of the most distinguished professors and experts in this country.

Regnault, one of the most eminent writers on chemistry, wrote that "the study of crystalline forms plays an eminent part in the classification of substances and in our modern chemical theories." Mark here, the subject of all this is substances.

There was a time when earth, air, fire, and water were supposed to be all the elements. Then earth was divided into the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms. These have again been subdivided. Perhaps in the District of Columbia, in the Treasury Department, they have not abandoned the "Three Kingdom" theory. Yet the proceedings of Congress show that the Smithsonian Institution faculty have progressed so far beyond the "Three Kingdom" theory that when they ask Congress to make an appropriation for them they ask, as you may see by reference to the Forty-fourth Congress, Session II, Chapter 105, A. D. 1877, for an appropriation "to duplicate ores, minerals, and objects of natural history," which was granted by Congress accordingly. The Treasury Department classifies iron ore as a "mineral and bituminous substance in a crude state." Notice that here is a careful consideration, for the appropriation was to be for the specified purposes, and shows that ores are not considered minerals; and that it was necessary to specify ores and minerals separately and distinctly, which was perfectly right and proper to do. Also notice in the report of the United States Geologist, Professor Featherstonehaugh, as far back as 1835, in his geological report of an examination made in 1834 of the elevated country between the Missouri and Red Rivers, he refers to "incipient encouragement now (then) given to geology by some of the State governments," and cites the importance that the few individuals in the country possessing the requisite experience should not be overlooked, and that their labors are worthy of being transferred to geological maps upon which should be accurately laid down all the important mineral and metallic deposits. There is not an authority among modern writers who does not carefully distinguish between these substances—mineral and metallic.

Metallic substances are those having a metallic base, and ores of commerce are such metallic substances as may be used in commercial economy for smelting and producing their respective metals. Thus iron ore is that metallic substance, carefully assorted and freed from all mineral substances, and with no bituminous properties whatever, commercially known as iron ore, and used in commercial economy for smelting and producing the metal known as iron.

Mineral substances are divided in various ways according to their nature, viz, bituminous substances, calcareous substances, argillaceous substances, siliceous substances, saline substances, and precious stones, but not one single metallic substance is classed among these mineral substances, as you will notice. To show what, under this classification, are "mineral and bituminous substances," I give them just as they are recorded by Chambers in "Mining and Minerals," viz, coal, jet, amber, naphtha, petroleum, and asphalt. These constitute the "mineral and bituminous substances."

Now, let us see what is a mineral. Worcester says "it is a natural body destitute of organization or life," and that "a mineral, in its strictest sense, is a natural inorganic body with a definite composition and a regular determinate form or a series of forms." Iron ore, therefore, is not a mineral. J. P. Lesley, in his great work on "Iron," which is ex-

haustive of everything pertaining to iron regions in this country, and profuse in comparison with iron regions of other countries, says: "Once there was a time when the egg, the worm, the pupa, and the butterfly were not known to be the same creature in successive stages of development. Now the whole law of change is made out, and so is the analogous law of the crystalline formation of carbonate iron to hydrous hematite, then to amorphous anhydrous hematite, then to specular ore, and finally to magnetic ore."

Professor LeConte says, in his most admirable work, "metalliferous substances grow; we see them forming under our very eyes;" and that "iron ore accumulations are the sign of the existence of organic matter, and the quantity of the ore accumulated is a measure of the amount of organic matter consumed in doing the work."

This being the fact, I wonder that the "wisdom" of the Treasury Department did not classify iron ore under the head of "vegetables not otherwise provided for." (See Heyl's, sec. 1091.) Such a classification might be supported, perhaps. Let us see.

The first successful iron forge in this country was started by a maternal ancestor of mine (who came from Pontypool, in Monmouthshire), by the name of James Leonard, who, with his brother Henry, built, in 1652, the forge, which, with the ordinary additions and repairs required by time, is still standing in Raynham, Mass., and which, though now (1882) idle, was until within a few years worked as an anchor forge.

Dr. Fobes, in 1793, writing about these Leonards (Henry having gone to New Jersey the same year, 1652, that the forge was built, where he started the iron business), and the forge at Raynham, says: "There is a remarkable circumstance relating to this (Raynham) pond, viz, its property for generating iron ore. The beds are generally found near pine swamps and red soils where the pine or cedar grows. The Raynham forge has been run for eighty years on a plenty of bog ore, though, like other things in the state of youth, it is weak and incapable of being wrought into the best quality. The subject promises a reward to investigation. The time may come when it will be as easy to raise a bed of bog ore as a bed of carrots." I wonder that the Treasury Department did not put iron ore down for duty as a vegetable.

One thing, however, is worthy of notice, that Dr. Fobes, in 1793, had discovered the difference between the egg, the worm, the pupa, and the butterfly. He refers to its "state of youth." The hydrous hematite, or bog ore, being analogous to the worm, which must follow through the succeeding changes to attain its perfection.

Now let us see some more hair-splitting injustices which the "decisions" of the Treasury Department are given to.

"Arsenic" you will find "free of duty." It is used in metallurgy, medicines, and the arts. "Cobalt ores" you will also find "free of duty." The "cobalt ores," which are chiefly used for producing cobalt, are the iron and arsenical pyrites or "cobalt crystals."

In December, 1875, a Mr. Zeller imported some quantity of what the department decided to be "cobaltum crystals" (which was no more nor less than cobalt ore), and they also decided that the "said article not being mentioned in the tariff act is dutiable at the rate of 20 per cent. ad valorem under the provisions in Schedule M for mineral substances in a crude form." (See Treasury Department letter, 24th August, 1876, to the collector of the port of New York, and signed "H. F. French, Assistant Secretary.") On January 16, 1877, it appears that Bruecker & Koenigsheim imported some so-called "arsenic," which they claimed "free of duty as cobalt ore." The department, it seems, caused a special

report to be made by the appraisers upon this importation, upon which it decided that "it is neither the 'ore of cobalt nor arsenic,' both of which are on the free list, but it is the article commercially known as 'cobalt crystals,' which, by department decision August 24, 1876 (2945), was held to be dutiable at the rate of 20 per cent., &c.," as before quoted. This you may also see in the department letter to the collector of the port of New York, under date of March 26, 1877, and signed by "H. F. French, Assistant Secretary."

Now what is "cobalt crystals?" It is simply "cobalt ore" and nothing else. Its substance is made up of cobalt, nickel, iron, and arsenic, which combines in a crystalline form, giving it the name of "cobalt crystals." The amount of nickel and iron is always trifling—mere traces—so that the substance is cobalt and arsenic chiefly;—generally by far the larger portion is arsenic.

Another instance of the ability with which Treasury Department decisions are made, and the consequent annoyance to merchants, presents itself in the matter of "crude agate or onyx." A Mr. Becker imported, in December, 1880, and again in March, 1881, some crude agate or onyx, upon which duty was assessed 10 per cent. ad valorem, and against which he protested. The decision upon this matter says, "the merchandise is not the unmanufactured agate, which is exempt from duty, but consists of the quartz formation known as onyx and jasper, which, although comprised within the same mineralogical character (*i. e.*, quartz formation), as agate, are nevertheless different articles of commerce." The department, therefore, decided that the merchandise, not being otherwise enumerated, and being in a crude state, was properly assessed with duty at the rate of 10 per cent. ad valorem, under section 2516, Revised Statutes. (See letter of the Treasury Department of April 29, 1881, to the collector of the port of New York, and signed by "H. F. French, Assistant Secretary.")

Now, what may be deduced from these Treasury Department decisions on iron ore, cobalt ore, and agate or "crude" onyx, and steel blooms, to which I shall refer later on? Simply that by carelessness or ignorance of what they were doing they have got things all mixed up.

You see iron ore—a metallic substance; the raw, unmanufactured article of commerce used for making iron—assessed 20 per cent. ad valorem duty as a "mineral and bituminous substance in a crude state." You see cobalt ore, which the law says, free of duty, assessed 20 per cent. because it was "cobalt crystal," and which is nothing but cobalt ore. You see agate or "crude" onyx assessed under section 2516 as a raw or unmanufactured article at 10 per cent. duty, when the law says "agate, unmanufactured, is free of duty." And further, please note that agate is a siliceous ornamental stone, and is a variety of chalcedony, and onyx is a chalcedonic variety of quartz, and jasper is a siliceous mineral of the same character, and they are all of the same mineral, *i. e.*, quartz formation, and are minerals under the class of precious stones. Yet the Treasury Department has put these things dutiable under section 2516, Revised Statutes, at 10 per cent. ad valorem, when the law says they shall be duty free; and has put iron ore, a metallic substance, a raw, unmanufactured article of commerce, under "mineral and bituminous substances in a crude state" at 20 per cent. ad valorem, which ought to be only 10 per cent. under section 2516, Revised Statutes.

Chambers says that "agate, chalcedony, jasper, and kindred substances may be regarded as varieties of the same mineral."

Contrast the explanations which I have given of these different things with the rambling, shuffling method of getting at a decision, as evinced

by the department decisions, and imagine the troubles which merchants may be subjected to by a tariff law that leaves the way open for such decisions to be within the power of officials to make at all. Let the tariff law specifically name the articles to be assessed with duty on the plan of all raw materials free of duty, and all manufactured goods to be rated in accordance with the regular process of manufacture, in their respective lines; and everything else thus not provided for let it be free of duty, and leave no such power for the display of official wisdom (or ignorance), as I have quoted for your information. I could give you no end of other instances of the same sort of decisions as those which I have mentioned.

Having now disposed of the subject of classification, I think sufficiently clear—although I could present no end of authorities in addition—I will proceed, before taking up the matter of steel blooms, to consider some of the peculiar results of this ad valorem duty upon iron ores. As in most cases, where duties are ad valorem, there is a temptation offered for unprincipled persons to undervalue their importations for the sake of saving to themselves a portion of the just duty due to the government.

There is, perhaps, no single article on the tariff list which produces so small a revenue to the government, which proportionately has caused government officials more trouble than this by the undervaluation of iron ores, and in view of the trouble and expense connected with such importations, and the very small revenue to be derived from them, it would be wise to make iron ore duty free, if for no other reason than to avoid such trouble and expense to the government, and thus no longer foster a system by which rogues may circumvent the honest importer. Such competition is always detrimental to the honest importer, who will not condescend to enter into such competition.

The records of the custom-houses of New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore are blotted over with cases of re-appraisements on undervalued iron ore. The entries of iron ore at New York which have not been raised in value by the appraisers in the past two years, are the exception and not the rule.

Last year an account was made up by the Bureau of Statistics, upon the importation of iron ore into all ports up to a certain time, giving the number of tons and the amount of duty received. I took these figures, and from them I deducted my own importations and duties I had paid to the government, and I found that I had paid to the government an average of 30 cents per ton more duty than the average of all other importers put together, or, in other words, the duty being 20 per cent. assessed, I had entered my ores at an average value higher by \$1.50 per ton than all other importers. Gentlemen, here was an average advantage of 30 cents per ton that somebody was getting over me.

It must always be borne in mind that the value upon which duty is paid is the market value free on board of the ship at the place of exportation. Thus, if I enter my good at the actual market value of, say, \$4 per ton, I pay 80 cents per ton duty to the government. If a dishonest importer enters his goods, of the same comparative value, at \$2.50 per ton, he only pays 50 cents per ton duty to the government, thus getting 30 cents per ton advantage of me.

In the port of New York, out of fifty-nine reappraisements of iron ore in 1881, there appears but nine of those cases which were not advanced over the entry valuation—the advances sustained ranging from 1 $\frac{8}{10}$ per cent. (in a single instance) up to 108 per cent.; the large majority of the advances sustained ranging from 20 to 99 per cent. advance.

The roguery of such importers may be traced by an examination of entries at different custom-houses on the same, or nearly the same, day, upon invoices for the same kind of ore, and shipped from the same port at the same time, and there compare the facility with which they will swear an invoice through one custom-house at one valuation, and through another custom-house at another valuation. Surely, this sort of thing, happening so systematically, cannot be an error excusable. For instance, one importer swears an invoice, dated February 17, 1881, through the Philadelphia custom-house, at say $15\frac{1}{2}$ francs, and another, dated March 3, 1881, at the same valuation, and at Baltimore the same importer may be found to have sworn an invoice of the same through that custom-house, the invoice being dated February 19, 1881, at say 13 francs per ton. So now you have the complete illustration: February 17, Philadelphia at $15\frac{1}{2}$ francs; February 19, Baltimore at 13 francs; March 3, Philadelphia at $15\frac{1}{2}$ francs.

These are only a few instances out of many more that might be cited of these irregularities, but added to the irregularity in the values comparatively as entered they were all undervalued, as they should have all been entered at 17 or 18 francs.

During one month, January, 1880, the records show that one kind of ore was sworn in upon entries by different importers at the following prices: \$2.55, \$2.67, \$2.75, \$3.58, \$3.89, and \$4.86 per ton. Thus it may be seen that the duties paid per ton were 51 cents, $53\frac{2}{5}$ cents, 55 cents, $71\frac{2}{5}$ cents, $77\frac{4}{5}$ cents, and $97\frac{1}{5}$ cents. Here is an extreme difference of $46\frac{1}{5}$ cents per ton, which the hardest swearer got the advantage of over the man who made his entry honestly and paid the duty accordingly. I could give you no end of these instances, all in accord with the general complaint which you will find made by honest importers in other lines of trade, who are subjected to the same annoyances from such dishonest competition.

My observation goes to show that rogues have their pet custom-houses where they swear their entries through at the lowest rates. For instance, I find one importer swearing an invoice through the New York custom-house at a value of \$3.28 per ton, and at the same time, for the same goods, shipped at the same time, he has the audacity to swear an invoice through another custom-house at a valuation of \$2.23. It is plain to see that at New York he had to pay $65\frac{2}{5}$ cents per ton duty, while at the "other" custom-house he only paid $44\frac{2}{5}$ cents per ton duty; and it may be needless to anticipate your presumption, that the "other custom-house" got a wonderful amount of such importations. I have not mentioned any names of persons, but I refer to facts capable of proof, and I happen to have those proofs in my possession.

You have been very naïvely told that "the endless trouble and confusion that has been caused by this question of 'free on board value' on the date of a vessel's sailing from the other side has so thoroughly wearied the government employes and all importers, that 'the speaker can confidently say, that they one and all will join in requesting that the duty (on iron ore) be made specific.'" And yet twice on the same page that same person asks for iron ore to be duty free.

The question of free on board value is the simplest question possible for the importer, and the honest importer will so enter his goods that there need be no "endless trouble or confusion" to government officials or to other importers. But so long as iron ore stands subject to an ad valorem duty, just so long you will find foreign adventurers (and perhaps some citizens), without any other interest than to make money by avoiding the proper duties; and just so long honest importers will be

subjected to annoyance and loss, and government officials to endless trouble. And here I desire to say, that from a somewhat extended experience with government officials, it becomes my pleasure to testify that they are, as a class, a very honorable set of men, conscientious in the discharge of their duties. The abuse that is sometimes showered upon government officials is without a just cause, and without any just appreciation of the labors which some of them have to perform, or the variety of things upon which they have to act, which, to do intelligently and well, requires a man to be a combined cyclopædia of revised statutes, mechanical, chemical, and physical sciences, versed in mercantile and commercial usages, customs, and values, and to have at his tongue's end all the special decisions of the Treasury Department (which by the way are as contradictory as possible, and which a "porpoise could not follow," as an old captain once told a wheelsman who was steering his ship's course in all directions but the right one).

My sympathies are with the government officials, many of them men who have seen better days, plodding out the last remnant of their lives, serving at a beggarly salary, giving an amount of labor, intelligence, and faithful performance of duty, which in mercantile affairs is comparatively rewarded by double their salary. It is their faithful performance of duty that brings upon them the displeasure of dishonest importers, and it is the dishonesty of importers which causes them annoyance and an increased burden of labor. The government officials who come in for this abuse, and who I stand to defend, are the appraisers and their faithful assistants, who have the integrity in their positions to advance the invoices of dishonest importers. Those officials who do not do their duty will find no sympathy from me, and there are some who, if their cause ever comes before me for my consideration, will have to face some very blunt facts.

I now desire to call your attention to faults in the system of entries. Entries are made by anybody. The irresponsible adventurer, or the transient foreigner, may make an entry, or a number of entries in succession, and give a bond, in a mere matter of form way, which is not worth a straw—literally a "straw bond"—upon which they get possession of their goods. The sample is, meantime, taking its due course through the appraiser's department. If it is reported upon as "advanced," the adventurer or foreigner may ask a reappraisal in the form prescribed. The reappraisal takes place, the "advance" is established, and the papers returned to the collector, who proceeds to collect the additional duty and fine or penalty which the bond is supposed to cover. The collector finds the importer either decamped or refuses to pay the bond, a mere "straw bond," and the goods delivered and out of reach. After some delay and failure to collect the amount due, the collector sends the case to the district attorney for suit, which takes its due course on the calendar. If a judgment is obtained it may be worthless.

By this procedure you may see that our tariff is an open bid for dishonest importers to cheat the government, and by the amount of duty thus saved undersell the honest importer. How many cases has the government got now pending against iron-ore importations alone in New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore? You will probably find a large number, involving a large sum of money.

Another point to be considered is the system of reappraisements. For instance, an importer has invoices of goods coming through bankers who have advanced part of the purchase-money upon them. The goods may be coming to some outport where the bankers have an agent, to

whom they send the invoice and bill of lading—documents as they are called. This agent delivers the documents to the importer upon a trust receipt when the importer is not of known responsibility. (In my own business I have never yet given one of those trust receipts.) The importer then enters his goods, say, at a valuation of \$2.25, gets his permit, lands his goods and gets them away. Meantime the appraiser reports an "advance." The importer asks a reappraisal, and then the matter goes before the general appraiser. A "merchant appraiser" is appointed, who may be the banker's agent. The banker's agent knows the irresponsibility of the importer to meet additional duty, fines, or penalties of thousands of dollars, and pay him the amount required and due on the trust receipts given for account of his banker's principals. The "banker's agent" and "merchant appraiser," both being the same person, acts, not upon his oath as a "merchant appraiser," but upon his interests as banker's agent, to secure the amount due to his principals. He simply goes through the form of doing the reappraisal, by confirming the entry of the importer, entirely regardless of overwhelming evidence to the contrary. Hundreds upon hundreds of thousands of dollars may be filched from the government in this manner.

You may some of you remember the triangular arrangement put up by cotton-tie importers in a large southern port, where three importers controlling that trade at that port, secretly in partnership, though apparently open competitors, conspired to evade the proper duties on the cotton-ties. No. 1 would enter an invoice at a low price; No. 2 would be appointed merchant appraiser and sustain the entry of No. 1. The next time No. 2 would make the entry, and No. 3 would be the merchant appraiser and sustain the entry of No. 2. The next time No. 3 would make the entry, and No. 1 would be the merchant appraiser and sustain the entry of No. 3. And so they went on round and round, until finally the Treasury Department authorized the collector of the port to appoint any respectable merchant as merchant appraiser; and by this means the fraud on the government was finally circumvented. Though the trio might protest against the appointment of a merchant, not being a cotton-tie importer himself, upon the ground that he was not an expert, and thus not a proper person to act as merchant appraiser.

All of this sort of trouble may be avoided by prescribing a form which shall require all importers and their bondsmen to be American citizens of known responsibility and respectability, and the moment an advance is made to make a deposit of the amount which such advance would require, if sustained, to be paid in the form of additional duty, fines, or penalties, plus 10 per cent., with the collector of the port, or to return the goods to government stores to await the adjustment of the entry. And no importer or bondsman, under any deficiency to the government, should be allowed to make an entry or make a bond at any custom-house in the country during such deficiency. Such a form as this would have saved the government large sums of money in the past few years, and prevented dishonest importers from making a dishonest competition and consequent loss to honest merchants.

An illustration of the incongruity of the present tariff law in its classifications is also afforded in the matter of "steel blooms," so called, and through which incongruity there has opened a means of evading the law. The present law says distinctly that "metal converted, cast, or made by the Bessemer or pneumatic process, of whatever form or description, shall be classed as steel," and further provides that "steel in ingots, bars, coils, sheets, and steel wire, not less than one-fourth of one

inch in diameter, valued at 7 cents per pound or less, shall pay a duty of $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound."

In the Bessemer practice, the original ingot was cast of the size suitable to make one rail. As the practice grew in importance, it grew in its methods, and larger weights of molten metal were handled by using larger converters; then came the practice of casting larger ingots of size to make two or three rails. These ingots of increased size were cut to make two or three rails, as the case might be, and such parts became known technically as "blooms," as a distinction from the large ingots. It was easier to apply such name to them than it was to call them "half ingots," or "third ingots," or to call the large ingot by the name of "double ingot," or "treble ingot."

What has within a few years come to be known as a "bloom," is in fact, and for the purposes for which it is used, practically what the original Bessemer steel ingot was. The present "bloom" is not a "bloom" at all, strictly speaking. A "bloom" is made from ore direct, by smelting ore in a charcoal fire, or by sinking, as it is called, scrap iron in a "sinking fire."

This new term of "bloom," as applied to the Bessemer steel ingot, opened the way for the cupidity of importers (of which there are always some ready to resort to any turn to evade the law, and trust to the carelessness or ignorance of officials to decide in their favor) to import these so-called "blooms" and enter them for duty at 30 per cent. ad valorem as "steel, in any form not provided for."

But the officials, where this entry was made, with a remarkable degree of discretion (?) and a more remarkable desire to show their official integrity, raised the duty on the so-called "blooms" to 45 per cent. ad valorem, under that portion of the tariff law which says, "All manufactures of steel, or of which steel shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for, 45 per cent. ad valorem." There happened to be a convenient period at this point, and the official evidently read no further; and surely the importer did not wish him to read further—just so far suited his case—for there it distinctly says, immediately following that convenient period, "But all articles of steel partially manufactured, or of which steel shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for, shall pay the same rate of duty as if wholly manufactured."

However, upon this advance of duty, the importer went through the formality of an appeal to the Treasury Department, where the rate of 45 per cent. was confirmed by H. F. French, Assistant Secretary, a son-in-law of a late Secretary of State, being employed by the interested importers to make a forcible argument before the Treasury Department, which resulted in the final decision referred to.

I was personally present in the Treasury Department at the time and heard the whole thing. It reminded me of a story about a young clergyman, who was called to preach a sample sermon with a view to giving him a permanent call. After the sermon the parish committee asked the opinion of a highly educated old gentleman in regard to the sample sermon. The old gentleman replied: "If that young man's text had had the small-pox his sermon would never have caught it."

Comments upon the action of the Treasury Department are useless, in view of the law before recited, but it may be fair to presume that such action was quite agreeable to the would-be regular importers of "blooms," and quite unsatisfactory to the Bessemer steel rail manufacturers.

Here was a decision which was an act of absolute injustice. The ingot must pay $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound duty, but just cut it in two or three

pieces and it would come in for about half a cent per pound. The finished steel rail would have to pay 1½ cents per pound. So here were the Bessemer steel rail makers with all their immense works for making their rails, through the whole process from smelting the ore to rolling the finished rail, cut short at the very last operation but one in their work by this act of official carelessness or ignorance. This is but another of the many things that could be cited to show the dangers which such official action may submit merchants and manufacturers to under any such tariff law as the existing one. If the theory under which this action would seem to have been taken were to hold, you can easily see that the material, in the course of manufacture, was reduced in dutiable charges as it progressed toward the finished rail. For the ingot must be subject to 2½ cents per pound, but just cut the ingot into two or three pieces and then it might be introduced at about half a cent per pound. This decision is so preposterous that it only needs to be called to your attention to be appreciated.

You will doubtless be impressed with the ardor with which many persons desire the government to grant them some special protection for their own personal advantage by which they may get two dollars for one.

You will no doubt wish yourselves able to solve the problem by which you can recommend the government to grant such favors to all, and thus bring upon yourselves the gratitude of all.

But with my appreciation of your task, I predict that such problem will remain unsolved by you, and that your labors, which you have so arduously performed without remission through the past summer, will be as unthankful as they have been arduous.

Now, you may be wondering what I want the Tariff Commission to do for me.

As I have told you that I am the pioneer importer of iron ores into this country—the first to introduce them for regular use in this country—and that I am the only person in this country who owns any foreign mines, or controls any foreign ores, you may imagine that I want the government to pay me a bounty upon my ore brought to this country. I am obliged to disappoint you. The only protection or bounty that I ask for is that the government will no longer maintain an ad valorem duty on iron ore, and thereby offer a premium for foreign rogues to come here and enjoy the privileges of our country, and cheat the government out of 20 cents to 50 cents per ton, by which they make a dishonest competition to my detriment and loss. This is just exactly what the present tariff on iron ore amounts to. Yet, if the government is going to protect everybody else, I don't see any reason why my capital invested in foreign mines, the product of which is, and will be for years to come (secondarily to my own personal benefit to be derived from them), an important source of supply for American works.

Any action by our government which would prevent or decrease the ability of American works to avail of such supplies would be hailed with delight among English, French, German, and Belgian works, for, to whatever extent our tariff laws may prevent, by so much increased cost, the consumption of foreign ores, it also so much lessens the gap, affording such foreign works less disadvantage in competition in the American markets.

The government would do a wiser thing to allow and pay to me a bounty, than to impose a tariff on iron ore under all the circumstances which surround this question.

But I claim that the government has no right whatever to pay me a

“protective bounty” any more than it has to make for anybody else a “protective duty.” But I do claim that if the government imposes a duty upon iron ores at all, that iron ores which come from mines owned in fee or lease by American citizens, and if the same are operated at the expense and risk of American citizens, such product shall be duty free. Such property or wealth is as much a part of our national wealth as the property or wealth of any other citizen, and in view of the value to our manufacturing interests, as a source of supply, is as much entitled to the protection of the government as anything else.

I ask that you will either make iron ore duty-free, upon the principles which I have already cited for raw materials, or that you will practically prohibit its importation by such a high specific duty that will forbid its importation at all. Either horn of this dilemma which you may accept as the “horn of plenty” for the American iron trade, will be acceptable to me in preference to the present tariff.

A meeting has of late been held at Cresson, Pa., for the purpose of organizing into an offensive and defensive protective society. What was that meeting composed of? Many very respectable Western people, but scarcely an Eastern man of any prominence or leading position in the iron trade. I notice the name of one very prominent wire manufacturer of Massachusetts, one representative of an ore mine on Lake Champlain, one or two bar iron makers, and one Bessemer steel maker. But the absence of any representatives, at that meeting, of all the Massachusetts and other New England rolling mills, or the great Bessemer steel works at Scranton, Bethlehem, and Harrisburg, or the largest iron companies of the Lehigh Valley, is a very significant thing.

The report of that meeting is indicative of the supremely selfish interests that sought to control it, and the manner in which they wrangled over the different degrees of protection which each interest claimed as its right in precedence of others, is clearly indicative that the representations for a tariff on iron and steel from that meeting should be of little weight with you in making up your report.

Among those recorded at that meeting as “iron-ore producers,” there are a number who never produced a ton of iron ore in their lives, some were foreigners who have no business whatever in discussing our tariff matters in such a meeting, and one nondescript, which later developments may give me an opportunity to characterize before a different tribunal than the present one.

Mr. Andrew Carnegie, who is, I think, the largest individual owner in Bessemer steel works in this country, and whose works and furnaces are at Pittsburgh, Pa., and who has had the good sense to appreciate that the interests of the country are identical with his own, introduced a resolution at that meeting, viz:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this (Cresson) convention, that any proposed change of duties should be in the direction of a reduction, except where by false rulings, or misconstruction, the spirit of the law has been violated, especially in those cases in which manufactures of a more advanced stage have been admitted at lower rates of duty than are imposed upon crude forms of the same material.

One report says Mr. Carnegie was declared “out of order.” However, Mr. Carnegie’s good sense was not adopted as the sense of the convention; and when the committees were made up Mr. Carnegie, “the noblest Roman of them all,” had no place on the committees. After the schedule was made up for the rates of duties to be presented to the Tariff Commission, Mr. Carnegie is reported to have made a short speech, in which he said, that he “wondered if he hadn’t lost all his judgment and good

sense." That convention evidently acted contrary to Mr. Carnegie's judgment and good sense, and totally ignored his resolution.

One man wanted \$1,000 per ton duty on pig iron, which received great applause. Another wanted \$20 per ton (quite a difference in their wants), but he had the good sense to say that it was nonsense to talk about what could not be had.

Finally, this "Western convention" traded interests among themselves until they agreed (though some threatened, up to the last moment, to bolt for the Tariff Commission on their own account) upon a schedule of protection to their mutual (?) satisfaction. It embodies 85 cents per ton duty on iron ore, and \$8 per ton duty on pig iron. Other things were in proportion, except steel rails, which were reduced. And here comes in the illustration of the matter which I referred to when speaking about ores particularly. The Western manufacturers evidently have sinisterly managed this scheme, as they thought, to elude discovery. They will ask you to handicap their Eastern competitors by 85 cents per ton duty on ores, which means \$2 per ton (including waste and expenses) on rails. Then they reduce the duty by \$5.60 per ton on the rails, presenting their Eastern competitors to a both front and rear attack. The Western mills are so far inland that Eastern and imported rails are handicapped against them, by \$5 to \$7 per ton transportation, for competition in the West. Upon the coast, and places adjacent to the coast, where the Eastern mills would feel the competition of imported rails the most, they are reduced in their protection by \$5.60 per ton. Thus, with the advance on the cost of the raw material and the reduction on the duty, it makes \$7.60 per ton. By this time you may begin to see why none of the large Eastern interests were represented in that convention.

The tariff as drawn up by that convention, based upon the present and prospective consumption of iron in this country for the next ten years, means a tax upon the purchasing power of this country of about \$206,170,000 per annum.

In the matter of steel rails, in the great growth which the West promises, and the consequent extension of railways and the consumption of steel rails which must follow as a natural sequence, these Western people will ask you, by the tariff proposed, to handicap their Eastern competitors as against themselves by \$2 per ton increased cost of the raw material, and thus, by the average cost of freight upon Eastern rails to the West, the Western mills will practically have the same protective duty which the Eastern mills now have on the coast from the present tariff, plus \$2 per ton.

This \$2 per ton in a period of extreme depression might be the means of bankrupting many millions of capital represented in these works.

It becomes your duty, therefore, not to allow that tariff on iron ore to be enacted at all, if your report to the contrary shall have any influence upon the enactment of a new tariff law, as I believe it will. I suggest that with a fair and unprejudiced view of all the interests of the country the "iron tariff" might be adjusted as follows:

The raw material, iron ore, duty free. The next in course of manufacture is pig iron; make that \$7 per ton of 2,240 pounds as at present. The next in course is muck bars, and castings of all kinds; make those \$7 per ton and 25 per cent. ad valorem.

Now we have branched into the two processes, wrought and cast iron. I will only proceed with the wrought iron for my illustration. The next in course includes the manufacture of forgings, bars (flat, round and square), sheets, plates, hoops, straps, &c.; make those \$7 per ton and 25 per cent. ad valorem, plus 10 per cent. Then all machinery 35 per

cent. ad valorem as now. This is the only equitable way that I can see for you to treat the different interests; for the moment you begin to protect one by any tariff you must see that the direct course of manufacture is properly followed up.

In the Bessemer or pneumatic steel process, I would suggest it as proper to provide that all steel made, cast or converted by the Bessemer, pneumatic, or any other advanced process, for producing the same class of steel, should be subject to the following rule, viz: ingots, blooms, or any other form which may now be known, or by any other name which such forms, or parts of forms, may become to be known, less finished than a steel rail, regardless of size, shape or condition, shall pay the same rate of duty as a steel rail, which shall be fixed at \$22.40 per ton of 2,240 pounds.

Then all manufactures of such material, other than steel rails, such as wire billets, rods, bars, and wire, should pay \$22.40 per ton, plus 25 per cent. ad valorem.

In other lines of other manufactures you must follow the same comparative sequence, or some link in the chain will be the breaking place, by which another "steel bloom" iniquity may be enacted.

These sequences in iron are sufficient to illustrate my idea as to the only way in which a tariff can be made, and be equitable and just. It also forcibly illustrates by what compounding strides the cost of things augments when we first begin to enact a duty upon anything, and it should be of such effect upon your minds as to lead you to simplify our tariff down to as few dutiable lines as it is possible to be done.

This compounding ratio, if carried into all the different lines of merchandise as a protective element, would soon absorb the whole purchasing power of the nation for consumption, and leave every manufacturer to use or wear his own goods, which was very much their condition during the period from 1874 to 1879.

Let us not forget the experience of the past, nor presume that such times may not return; but let us prepare for such times by being always as near as possible on the lowest possible plane of first cost in all lines of manufactures.

Now a few words for our Eastern manufacturers. Fuel is one very important factor in the cost of manufactures. Anthracite coal is free of duty, but bituminous coal is subject to a duty of 75 cents per ton.

To many of the Eastern cotton, woolen, iron, and other manufacturers this is an important item, 75 cents per ton meaning a tax upon many of them of from \$10,000 to \$15,000 per annum. In the light of economy that means the interest upon a large sum of money per annum.

Bituminous coal should be free of duty, as a means of reducing the cost of manufactures in the Eastern States, where by far the largest amount of capital is invested in manufactures, as compared with any other section of the country.

I believe in free trade, in theory, but "practical free trade" and "absolute free trade" are different things, and yet practical free trade is the only free-trade theory that we can hope to ever adopt. We must, however, adopt a system of freer trade, and by doing so we shall increase our commerce, enlarge our manufactures, and benefit the entire population.

We have large amounts of capital invested in manufactories which has been induced therein by the delusive profits which some suppose "protection" assures. You must not let the specious arguments of protectionists lead you to recommend the continuation of such a system.

This capital it is your duty, however, to preserve, not on any personal

ground in favor to any particular owner or society of owners, but on the broader ground that it is a part of our national wealth which our national folly has imperiled by misdirection.

A too sudden change from the radical protective policy to the radical free-trade policy will surely sacrifice a large part of that national wealth just referred to.

The themes of free trade are poetical and luring, clothed in all the sentiment and attraction of that which speaks to our hearts and convinces our minds. You, however, must not be captivated by these any more than by the sophistries of the protectionists. You have practical difficulties to overcome requiring a stoic nerve. This capital which I have referred to must be preserved productive and remunerative, that it may continue a source of national wealth.

I would call your attention to the requirement of your action according to the Constitution of our country.

Article I, section 3, of the Constitution says:

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union according to their respective numbers, &c.

The word "shall" is fully as imperative in relation to "direct taxes" as it is in relation to representatives. We have the representatives, but the other requirement we have not.

Yet, the framers of that Constitution, in their wisdom, foresaw the necessity of representatives and direct taxes being apportioned under the same rule. I apprehend that they saw that this system would be a check upon improper representation and upon improper expenditures, as the people of each State would thus be brought to the realization of the cost to themselves of representation in the national government by the taxes paid for its support, and they would also hold their representatives to a more rigid accountability for the expenses of the government.

I need instance only one thing. Suppose the recent infamy of passing what has become to be known as the "harbor and river steal bill" over the veto of Chester A. Arthur could be fully realized by the people, and they had to pay direct taxes accordingly to the requirements of the Constitution in proportion to their representation. Do you suppose that the people's representatives would dare to face their constituencies after such a reckless misappropriation of their money? I do not believe that one out of twenty of those men under a constitutional system of taxation would have dared to have voted over that veto, even if they had the will to have voted for the bill before it was vetoed. And I doubt very much if any representative would have dared to have introduced such a bill into existence at all.

I suggest that all those expenditures of the government necessary to maintain the civil, judiciary and diplomatic, interior, civil and military and naval establishments should be met by direct taxes upon the respective States. This would require assessments upon each State of \$2 per annum capita tax, to be paid by the State treasurer to the Treasurer of the United States.

By this the tariff revenue, which now amounts to \$4 per annum capita tax on each person in the country, could be reduced one-half, and thus afford the opportunity to simplify our tariff law, which seems to me so necessary to do.

I suggest that the process by which this simplification should be accomplished is to adopt certain principles, which the condition of the various interests of our country make tenable from an unprejudiced view.

First, make all fundamental raw materials—*i. e.*, such as enter into the first process in the staple manufactures of the country—duty free.

England, for instance, affords her manufacturers all raw materials free of duty, and the records show that 91 per cent. of all the imports of England are raw materials and food free of duty. That is the foundation upon which she builds her system of manufactures, and upon that foundation has she built the grandest commercial and manufacturing system in the world or that the world has ever known.

This would place our manufacturing industries upon the bed-rock foundation as near as possible, in point of competitive first cost, to those of other great manufacturing countries.

Second, in consideration of the condition in which many of our manufacturers are at a disadvantage, from extra cost of labor, extra cost of interest on capital, &c. [One very important consideration in our extra cost of interest money is the amount of money required to carry on our manufacturing operations. The increased rate is in almost exact proportion to our system of making everything cost more than it legitimately should. Those countries whose system tends to the reduction of first costs require less money to carry the operations through, and pay correspondingly a less rate of interest.] Make only a fair compensative duty upon such manufactures, if imported from another country, as shall give our manufacturers a fair margin, and at the same time make a healthy competition and give a reasonable revenue through the customs. Make in no case a prohibitory protective tariff. Such is contrary to the principles of our Constitution, contrary to our boasted freedom, and contrary to any principles upon which the administration of equity and justice to all classes of citizens can be made.

A prohibitory protection is contrary also to the enlargement of commerce and to the perfection and excellence of manufactures.

Cowper wrote:

* * * * * and Art thrives most
 Where commerce has enriched the busy coast;
 He catches all improvements in his flight,
 Spreads foreign wonders in his country's sight,
 Imports what others have invented well,
 And stirs his own to match them or excel.
 'Tis thus, reciprocating each with each,
 Alternately the nations learn and teach,
 While Providence enjoins to every soul
 A union with the vast terraqueous whole.
 Heaven speed the canvass gallantly unfurled
 To furnish and accommodate a world,
 To give the pole the produce of the sun
 And knit the unsocial climates into one.

A prohibitory protection has driven our commerce from the seas. Where is our "canvass once so gallantly unfurled to furnish and accommodate a world"? Gone to the possession and ownership of other nations.

From one of those beautiful stanzas of Joseph Rodman Drake on "The American Flag" we must strike out the first two lines, viz:

Flag of the seas! on ocean wave
 Thy stars shall glitter o'er the brave.

"Flag of the seas!" What a jest. "Flag of the seas!" The flags of England, of Germany, of Norway, of Italy, of Spain, but not the "Star Spangled Banner."

Out of a foreign commerce last year of nearly \$2,000,000,000, only 16 per cent. was carried in American vessels, under American canvass, under our boasted "flag of the seas," while 66½ per cent. of that commerce was carried under the British flag. Twenty-five years ago the American flag waved over 75 per cent. of our foreign commerce.

It becomes your duty, by every means, to simplify our tariff, to expunge from its list every petty item of dutiable merchandise, of which there are many, which do not yield revenue enough to pay for the trouble and cost of collecting.

We have over 2,000 articles on our list, of which but a few are of importance to keep on, outside of those which come under the head of manufactured goods. Some of the necessities of life, like salt and rice, are taxed nearly 100 per cent. duty, and salt should be admitted duty free, as it is of the utmost importance to so many of our great industries, particularly the provision and chemical trades; and, too, if rock and run-of-mine salt could be imported duty free, it would also become of vast benefit to our agricultural classes by affording them a cheap mixture for their composts. Salt under our present tariff is subjected to a duty of \$1.80 to \$2.70 per ton, and only yields a little over \$900,000 per year.

It becomes your duty to take cognizance of things not on the tariff list which are available for revenue according to one of the greatest principles of taxation, *i. e.*, to lay taxes in such manner as to be least felt by the tax-payers.

An eminent French statesman and economist once said that "the science of taxation was plucking the feathers from the goose in a manner that the goose would not feel it." If anybody has ever seen the process of picking "live-goose feathers" they will appreciate this simile.

For instance, take tea and coffee. I know the sentimental argument about the poor man's cup of coffee, the poor woman's cup of tea, and the political demagogue's use of such twaddle for political favors; but it is nevertheless your duty to consider that they are two of the most available articles of commerce for revenue, and the revenue once established on these two articles will scarcely be felt, and if you do your duty in regard to manufactures and some of the other necessities of life which enter into the consumption of the poor man and the poor woman, by reducing the cost of such, you will pay many times over for the extra tax on the tea and coffee.

There is yet a resolution "lying on the table" in Congress for placing tea and coffee on the tariff list again, which was introduced by the Hon. Mr. Dawes, of Massachusetts, I think in 1874, and still awaiting action. This resolution was offered immediately following some correspondence I had with Mr. Dawes, in which I suggested such action.

By the statistics of 1881 you will see that our consumption of coffee was a little over 434,000,000 pounds, or about 8½ pounds per capita of our population. A tax or tariff on coffee of only three cents per pound would give us a revenue of over \$13,000,000. Our consumption of tea for the same time was over 79,000,000 pounds, or about 1½ pounds per capita. A tax or tariff of only ten cents per pound on tea would give us nearly \$8,000,000 revenue. Here is over \$20,000,000 revenue available which would be paid in such small sums that nobody would feel it. England collects a tariff on tea and coffee a trifle higher than the rates which I have suggested.

Simplifying our tariff in the manner I have suggested will decrease the cost of production of manufactured goods, thereby bringing such within the purchasing power of the greatest possible number of our own people, and also thereby, from the demand thus made by increased consumption, enlarge and extend our manufactures, employing more hands at labor to again become, at the same time, consumers of the various products of labor.

No legislation should be enacted which unnecessarily increases the

cost of any article, and which thus decreases the purchasing power of the people to consume.

The follies of the past must be corrected if ever we expect to take a competitive rank among nations in our manufactures and commerce and restore our flag as the "flag of the seas."

In making any change in the tariff these great economic questions cannot be too carefully considered, that in a new tariff the evils of the old shall not be in any form continued.

Gentlemen, in recommending to Congress your bill for a new tariff, you have a sacred duty to perform.

Finally, I commend to your favorable report that of enacting all raw material free of duty, and only a fair compensative and competitive revenue duty on manufactured goods, aiming at the equivalent of 25 per cent. ad valorem, and if any interests are, as there are some, in such condition that their capital would become a fruitless factor in the national wealth by one reduction to that standard of duty, let it be enacted that a yearly reduction shall follow after three or five years until it is reached.

Any industry which will not survive such a course ought not to survive at all, in a country like ours, where the maintenance of labor may be made so easily. Let any line of manufactured goods, which, after the next five years, shall not produce to the revenue an average of \$100,000 per annum, for the succeeding five years, be enacted to take its place upon the free list as free of duty.

I also commend enacting direct taxes, and maintenance of the internal-revenue taxes. By these enactments, aiming at a revenue from tariffs of about \$100,000,000, and from direct tax \$100,000,000, and from internal revenue \$150,000,000, and from miscellaneous sources \$50,000,000, a total of say \$400,000,000, I apprehend that this course will afford the revenue at less inconvenience to the people than any other, and provide for all the net ordinary expenses of the government which an honest administration have any business to incur (including \$65,000,000 for interest on the public debt and \$50,000,000 for the sinking fund), say \$290,000,000, which is about \$6 per capita of our present population. This would leave us \$110,000,000 per annum for application to payment of the principal of the public debt, and, or for, any exigency which might arise.

APPENDIX.

Entries of iron ore at all ports.

JANUARY 1 TO DECEMBER 31, 1879.

Port.	Tons.	Value.	Duty.	Value per ton.	Duty per ton.
Now York	109,230	\$282,060	\$56,412	\$2 58	\$0 52
Perth Amboy	9,634	20,010	5,802	3 02	60
Philadelphia	126,659	281,941	56,388	2 22	44½
Baltimore	27,090	60,869	12,174	2 24	44.8
Boston	701	2,438	487	3 47	69½
Buffalo Creek	5,969	14,251	2,850	2 38	47.6
Cuyahoga	550	1,128	225	2 00	40
Detroit	1,287	3,508	701	2 72	55
Genesee	2,155	4,101	820	1 93	38.0
Oswego	884	2,130	420	2 41	48.2
Champlain	12	31	6	2 50	50
Totals	284,141	681,407	136,291	2 39	47.8

Average value per ton for the year \$2 39
 Average duty per ton 47.8

Entries of iron ore at all ports—Continued.

JANUARY 1 TO DECEMBER 31, 1880.

Port.	Tons.	Value.	Duty.	Value per ton.	Duty per ton.
New York.....	148,087	\$432,678	\$86,535	\$2 00	\$0 58
Perth Amboy.....	5,444	15,968	3,194	2 93	58.6
Philadelphia.....	120,619	335,110	67,024	2 77	55½
Baltimore.....	170,398	506,500	101,312	2 32	46½
Boston.....	2,175	13,350	2,672	6 15	1 23
Buffalo Creek.....	13,554	30,426	7,285	2 68	53.6
Cuyahoga.....	13,858	48,463	9,642	3 50	70
Detroit.....	456	1,169	234	2 50	51.2
Genesee.....	5,390	16,274	3,255	3 00	60
Huron.....	72	258	51	3 00	72
Oswegatchie.....	7,553	21,052	4,210	2 78	55.6
Oswego.....	4,185	7,800	1,572	1 63	33
Puget Sound.....	400	412	82	1 03	20.6
Capo Vincent.....	158	413	82	2 61	52
Nowark, N. J.....	269	798	159	3 00	60
Totals.....	493,428	1,436,800	287,302	2 91	58

Average value per ton for the year..... \$2 91
 Average duty per ton..... 58X

JANUARY 1 TO DECEMBER 31, 1881.

New York.....	106,410	\$641,344	\$128,260	\$3 26	\$0 05
Perth Amboy.....	13,671	48,323	9,665	3 53	70.0
Philadelphia.....	155,564	394,952	78,990	2 53	50.6
Baltimore.....	375,798	1,005,496	201,099	2 07	53.4
Boston.....	716	2,807	573	4 00	80
Buffalo Creek.....	2,492	7,320	1,464	2 93	58.6
Cuyahoga.....	10,500	37,675	7,535	3 59	72
Detroit.....	617	1,646	329	2 67	53
Genesee.....	8,716	25,961	5,192	2 97	60
Huron.....	264	770	154	2 91	59
Oswegatchie.....	3,418	10,650	2,130	3 12	62
Oswego.....	13,612	44,026	8,905	3 23	65
Puget Sound.....	1,100	1,022	324	1 47	30
Totals.....	782,887	2,222,652	444,530	2 83	50.6

Average value per ton for the year..... \$2 83
 Average duty per ton..... 50.6

E. D. GOODWIN.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

Mr. E. D. GOODWIN, of Falls Village, Conn., a farmer, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: In appearing before your honorable body and advocating a modification of our present tariff rates by a reduction of 10 per cent. thereof, to take effect June 1 next, and 10 per cent. more at the expiration of two years, thus gradually reducing its average from 45 to 36 per cent., I have no special interests to subserve, as many who have appeared before you.

Wool and mutton, grain, beef, and butter are my chief products, and whatever fancied sacrifice such reduction may bring to me, I cheerfully accept in subordination to the interests of all. My position is such that I am compelled to combat its adverse influence upon me and upon the nation, upon the general principles of equity and fairness as applicable to the high trust of constitutional administration. I protest against it as both unjust and impolitic—at variance with correct principles of economic production, adverse to us in the long run—and unbecoming our position, wealth, and development among the more prominent nations of the world—distinguished alike in science and in art—each struggling for its ascendancy in industrial resources and in commerce, with a spirit in keeping with their intense activities, their high civilization.

As a farmer I am located in New England; for fifty successive seasons on its sterile soil have I struggled with its extremes of heat and cold for a competence; of my various products I can raise but one crop a year, and that at the hazard of storm, blight, and drought, while my manufacturing neighbor—but give him a market—can multiply his wheels ad infinitum, and there is no limit to his products and his profits.

Long before our civil war they had laid the foundations of their liberal fortunes; through it and since, under your extreme protective system, they have become the millionaires of the land, dominating in politics and monopolies alike; and to me, born and bred as it were to the soil, it cannot but be humiliating to witness your Commission, the conception, the inspiration of these interests, traveling over the land listening to their plaintive tones for bounty still, with scarcely a single farmer in the whole land to assert his rights and his manhood. Have I no interest in the matter, and no standing in court? Am I not on a footing of equality as to rights and interests, and have I no grievances at the hand of government?

What are my products worth but what our agricultural surplus brings in the European markets, and that dependent there upon the ability of labor to consume at their rate of wages, while in those markets I have to compete with the cheap labor and lands of all Europe and the Indies, with the Atlantic between us, with its freights and commissions.

My neighbors, these clamorous, bounty-loving manufacturers, are feeding their labor at a cost less than their foreign competitors by ocean freightage, insurance, and commissions, while this same ocean bearer intervenes to protect their fabrics, besides a 45 per cent. average tariff, and perhaps a long line of inland transportation.

There seems no limit to human audacity. When the tariff of 1862

was enacted, it was justified only by the exigencies of civil war, and so great was the injustice and favoritism of the measure, that an internal or drawback tax was levied on manufactured products, ostensibly to come out of the pockets of the manufacturer himself, but in fact charged to cost of product and paid by the consumer. Why this favoritism, this domination of one interest to the prejudice of all others, and this a minor interest?

About three-fifths of our people are engaged in agriculture, one-fifth in trade and commerce, and one-fifth in manufacturing, and there must be "something rotten in Denmark" with its government inspired and controlled by one-fifth of its people.

It is an undisputable fact, demonstrated by its fruits, that this class have aggregated to themselves more than their share of the national wealth; they are in the ascendant in government, a privileged class, fortified in their position by dominant political fallacies, and appeals to the laboring classes.

This tariff was a war measure modified by the tax on products, supposed to be a part of the profits rendered back into the Treasury as a compensation for the favoritism; but soon after the close of the war, and in the flush times succeeding it, this drawback tax was abolished, and the tariff left substantially as it was as to rates, and it has come down to us unchanged, save the reduction of 10 per cent. in 1872.

In our system of government, State and national, individuals and interests as to rights, obligations, and opportunities are supposed to be on a footing of equality before the law. The States are sovereign over all local matters, the general government is guardian of interests common to all and is sovereign in the exercise of all powers granted to it in the organic law. The trust of government is to be exercised equitably and impartially, and the general welfare, a welfare common to all, should not be lost sight of; and all interests are alike sensitive to this principle in the exercise of your revenue powers.

These interests may be classed as agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial—agriculture being the base or foundation interest upon whose prosperity the others largely depend. Here are fifty millions of people, with their varied and conflicting interests to be affected by the exercise of your revenue powers; and the great and vital question is how shall these functions of government be so administered, according to the letter and spirit of the organic law, and so in harmony with the conflicting interests at stake, as to best promote the public good, the general welfare. Bear in mind all interests, every individual, is on a footing of equality before the law, and equity commands fairness and impartiality, with laws so adjusted as, approximately at least, to make tributary to the general burdens all, according to their ability to respond.

Your organic law empowers a tariff for revenue purposes, and, to meet the necessary expenses of government, with judicious administration, a 30 per cent. levy would be ample, and all that sound policy would dictate from this source. This is an incidental protection, the necessity and justice of which no one can dispute, giving to the home fabricant this advantage over his foreign competitor, aside from the cost of transportation, risks, and commissions.

Even this tax falls not equitably upon the people according to their ability to pay, but in a ratio to the consumption of the individual; falling on the laboring man of large family altogether in disproportion to his means. Time was when this discrepancy of burdens was modified by a general income tax, but this just, equitable resource had to yield to the fiat of our bounty-loving manufacturing friends.

If these objections are pertinent and well grounded, on the score of equity and fairness, as against a revenue tariff, how much more so when pitted against your present highly protective system? The burdens of government should be borne equitably among our citizens according to their means, that all may become so interested as to insist on purity and economy of administration.

The same law holds to the nation as to the individual; flush resources leads to liberal expenditures, and extravagance and demoralization follow in their train. It is not wise in nations or in individuals to antagonize natural forces, set at naught the laws of trade and of an enlightened political economy for a mere temporary prosperity; your policy to be fixed and permanent must be based upon the organic law, conceived in equity and fairness, alike in the interests of all and of coming generations.

The advocates of the present highly protective system make great pretensions of sympathy for the laboring classes; it is enough to show their duplicity in this respect to recapitulate what I have already said, that while they have relieved themselves of the internal taxes on manufactured products, of the income tax also, the burdens of government are left to fall largely upon the people according to their consumption of dutiable merchandise, with capital left largely intact from all contribution whatever.

Labor keeps up the world over, while capital shrinks in its nominal income; it is to shield their capital and avoid this law of depreciation that they insist upon keeping up this extreme system. The tendency of the times is to lower values, the fruition alike of cheap capital and the inventive skill of man; labor is a living resource the world over; the few accumulate while the many merely gain a livelihood, and employment to our town and city population is as essential to insure law and order as to their health and subsistence.

To the laborer this is indeed a land of promise; our lands, to be had almost for the asking, are opened up to him by unequaled inland rail and water communications, making the field for labor almost boundless for generations yet to come, and labor will take care of itself.

So long as three-fifths of our population are engaged in agriculture, the value of their labor must largely gauge that of the other two-fifths, and this law of equalization must have its force. There is a nominal and a real value to labor; the latter being its purchasable power over the necessities, comforts, and luxuries of life. Reduce both in the same ratio, and their fruits of labor remain the same. We have cheap and abundant capital, and unsurpassed mechanical skill; what you want is cheap raw material and living, and labor in a measure to correspond; and but give the New England manufacturer these conditions, and her valleys and plains will preserve continuously her present, if not an accumulative, activity, with a command of the markets of the world for her products. As a nation and a people we are not in the infancy of our development and growth; we have the accumulative wealth, the manufacturing skill of the old world, and exceed them all in mechanical devices; what we want is not the paternal care of government, but a fixed policy more in keeping with the laws of political economy, tending to a reduced cost of manufactured products, that they may flow outward from us, and be consumed by other nations than our own. It is a question of employment and subsistence to over fifty millions, especially so to our city population; we must make the less advanced nations tributary to us by manufacturing more for them, as England, Germany, and France do, while the latter consume our surplus farming products.

As a rule, your city population is fixed and less migratory than our more rural people, and our limitless territories attract comparatively few from these classes, and the question of employment to these millions, in the near future, is far more vital than the rate of wages.

This policy of extreme protection, so at variance with all principles of equitable administration and of sound economy, not only affects the farmer disastrously but the commercial interests of the country also, and is a standing injustice to the masses of Europe who consume so largely our surplus products. Its injustice is not its only obnoxious feature or fruit; it is largely the source and foundation of the general demoralization in politics. Your successful millionaire manufacturers have entered political life largely by force of their money, and when in Congress, to perpetuate this system, every device to spend the public money is encouraged, either directly or tacitly, from the "arrears of pensions bill" to the "river and harbor appropriation."

In seeking redress for the evils of life I would not be rash and radical; take this tariff as it stands to-day and its extreme features should be gradually ameliorated. Its general average is about 45 per cent.; it is in fact what its friends have made it.

Now reduce it by 10 per cent., to take effect June 1 next, and at the expiration of two years 10 per cent. more—the reduction to be permanent until a general revision could be reached—thus leaving its average over 35 per cent. This seems the only practical way of adjustment at present; it is summary, but public sentiment demands it, and your protective features are only modified and not abolished. This reduction would not only tend to lower values more in keeping with the price of labor and of capital, but might favor a more healthy competition to the detriment of shoddy fabrics. It would pave the way to that scale of values in all merchandise favorable alike to the consumer at home and abroad, and lead to increased commercial intercourse with the outside world, thus augmenting the balance of trade in our favor. I am not so easily flattered with a tariff levying duties on Canadian grain and live animals which results in shutting them off from our lines of transportation and driving them down the Saint Lawrence to their ultimate markets as a part of the great agricultural surplus of the continent. Neither have I become enamored of your duties on wool, the chief fruit of which crops out in an enormous production of shoddy fabrics, enshrouding the whole American people in their deceptive embraces, as cold as the hearts that made them, leaving my wool on the market a beggar at the lowest rates of the last forty years.

Many of our American manufacturers are honorable producers of their varied fabrics, creditably emulous to excel in the quality of their productions, gaining thereby a reputation equivalent to and becoming a part of their capital. On the other hand too many have gone into shoddy productions; not content to make a genuine article so amply provided for by your liberal tariff margins, they have flooded our markets with their deceptive fabrics and adulterated products, so that most of us know not what we eat, drink, or wear. To remedy this, reduce your tariff; scale down this barrier to freedom of trade, giving us a more healthy competition—throwing this class of producers more upon their merits and their reputations.

As a farmer while the price of my products might be somewhat lower in keeping with our immense agricultural resources, I should in return for my productions buy at less rates my family and farming supplies.

There is no natural antagonism between capital and labor; not only are they mutually dependent, but mutually beneficent each to the other.

Labor gives to capital an enhanced value, and capital in its turn not only adds to the efficiency of labor, but increases its reward also. There is an equalizing tendency to values the world over, and in the long run natural forces must be felt.

Let us eliminate ourselves from the hodge-podge of political fallacies enveloping us, and let in the clear light of truth. And why not make capital contribute more directly to your treasury resources by a general income tax, predicated upon the cumulative surplus resources of the individual. Its possessor is largely indebted to labor for it, either directly or indirectly; he may have caught it on the wing as it were, by his manipulations and sharp practices, Jay Gould like—or otherwise it has come largely by the appreciation of values incident to all new countries, the resultant fruition of the care, the toil, and travail of all for the last hundred years. Relax the burdens of government taxation upon labor and place them more upon capital, assert the principle that a man's necessary living resources should in a measure be exempt from taxation, and the burdens of government be placed more upon the surplus means of the individual, and you at once open up the way for a more healthy prosperity national-wise and place labor with its products more in keeping with the value of capital here, and the general price of commodities in other countries.

The English merchantman goes out to all the ports of the world loaded down with every species of human product, and returns with the selected productions of other climes, for consumption at home, either as food or raw material, or again to be re-exported to other lands having less commercial facilities than her own. Hence her successful commerce, her vast mercantile marine.

We are shut out from these markets by our higher-priced fabrics, and our vessels go out half-loaded with our more crude products, and your own commerce languishes with your merchant marine almost banished from the ocean. And why should the policy of government be inspired by this one interest at the expense of all others.

During our civil war the East was largely devoted to manufacturing, while the West was almost exclusively agricultural, and it was largely due to the brave adventurous spirit of our more Western soldiers that success finally crowned our arms. Later still, years after the war, while struggling along in doubt and despair with our depreciated currency, it was our immense agricultural surplus, wrenched from the soil by these same hard-handed, self-sacrificing yeomanry of the West, that turned the balance of foreign trade in our favor, enabling us to resume specie payments, while these same aristocratic bounty-loving manufacturers scarcely furnished a bagatelle of their products for export.

This condition of things is inimical to the spirit of our institutions, as well as adverse to the laboring masses. The resources of government coming largely from your levy on importations, not only increases their cost to the consumer, but also the cost of all similar home productions without further compensation than a mere nominal increase of wages. You not only favor capital engaged in these interests, but leave all capital intact and largely exempt from all contributions to the general burdens, thus favoring the accumulation of large estates, leaving labor in the future at the mercy of monopolists, with little chance to rise. You shut out the raw materials of other nations to the prejudice of our ocean marine, leaving us for our exportation largely only our more crude productions, reversing in this respect the policy of our more enlightened European competitors. Your cotton and tobacco, your grain and other food products, exhaust our soils of vital principles, the cream

of their fertility that cannot be returned to them when consumed abroad, and the débris, the excrement from their consumption, goes to enrich the lands of Europe under their more careful system of husbandry. It is only seventy-five years since the center of wheat production was upon the banks of the Hudson; it has already reached the basin of the Upper Mississippi, leaving behind the old States, largely exhausted of their wheat-growing capacity; and so of cotton also.

Aside from this, I have shown an advanced condition of things to the general farmer, inimical to the keeping up and improvement of the soil. We are comparatively a new country; but already the old States have lost their virgin fertility, and nearly one-half of these lands are scarcely worth the owning.

I have always looked upon our vast Western areas as largely the living resources of future generations, rather than of our own, and that the policy of opening them up so rapidly to our exhaustive system of husbandry was all wrong. We must have something besides these crude products to meet our balance of trade with Europe: we must fabricate for others than ourselves. The crisis is already upon us, the balance for the year ending September 1st, when compared with that of '81, being adverse to us by \$150,000,000 nearly, leaving out of the count the precious metals. As a New Englander, I wish to see the basis of her prosperity established on a more enduring basis; in capital, skill, and resources she is prepared for the emergency that is upon us, but give her the opportunity and she will furnish her share in exportable resources to turn this overwhelming tide against us.

You would naturally expect that interests so long petted would be able to stand alone; undoubtedly most of them are, and all should be; but this system of favoritism is adverse to economical production; extreme profits leads to extravagance of management; joint-stock corporations with their watered stock and innumerable official positions for the whole family circle. Instead of reserving their extreme profits to tide them through adverse times, they have either been distributed in lavish dividends or perhaps been diverted to other plants, or else absorbed by a consolidation with kindred interests of doubtful value, the minor stock interest being at the mercy of the major one.

There seems a community of interest and ways among our railroad and manufacturing magnates, and all their devices are largely, either for the concealment of their profits, or for the perpetuation of their monopoly at the expense of the people at large.

Now, would the manufacturer suffer especially, would your more inland Western one suffer from this reduction with a long inland line of transportation in their favor, with all their accumulated resources to sustain them? All other capital commands reduced rates, and why not this; money yielding only about half its former return. Why not place a barrier on foreign capital as well as on foreign products, or so adjust matters that people of reduced incomes shall command their necessities at reduced rates also.

If you are going to regulate and protect one interest at the expense of all others, why not equalize the damage? Better, far better, confine yourselves to your legitimate constitutional duties; let all quackery go by the board, and leave labor, capital, and interests to adjust themselves as the laws of trade demand. In the long run individual and national prosperity lie in this direction. The motto is as pertinent to the government as to individuals: "Mind your own business and leave others to care for theirs."

OTTO GERDAU.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

Mr. OTTO GERDAU, of New York, importer of ivory, submitted the following statement:

GENTLEMEN: I beg leave to call your attention to the excessive duty levied under the existing tariff upon piano and organ ivory and chair cane.

In 1872 a very old established Hamburg ivory firm sent your present petitioner to America with a stock of piano and organ ivory. I found the ivory a strict monopoly of three Connecticut firms, these in turn depending upon Messrs. Arnold, Hines & Co., raw ivory importers. The piano and organ manufacturers of this country were very glad at my advent as a relief from a severe oppression, and in less than two weeks I had sold at an enormous profit a stock which I had thought would have lasted at least five months. As I then continued to import, the combination of three was broken up and began quarreling among themselves, and at last Messrs. Arnold, Hines & Co. were instrumental in closing up one factory, leaving two in the field. Prior to this Messrs. Arnold, Hines & Co. endeavored to stop my importations through statements in the custom-house that my goods were undervalued, but as these allegations were proven to be false in every instance, I suffered from them no further injury than a good deal of annoyance and worry.

At the present time, then, there are in the whole of America only two factories cutting piano and organ ivory, and these two are controlled more or less by Arnold, Hines & Co., shareholders in one and suppliers of raw ivory to both. These two factories, simply by abstaining from charging the former outrageous profit, have again succeeded in creating of the trade a strict monopoly, because at 35 per cent. duty a fair competition is indeed impossible. As a proof of this I need but mention that, as far as I know, not one other piano and organ ivory manufacturer of the whole world exports now one pound to America, and the one Hamburg house has taken into consideration the withdrawal of their agency. A member of one of the Connecticut factories in a casual conversation informed me that a set of ivory costing on the average \$7 cost here to cut and bleach ready for sale not more than 50 cents for labor, and at a glance, then, the excessiveness of 35 per cent. duty will be apparent to you.

In order that all the American consumers shall not be at the mercy of two combined concerns, in order to allow a fair competition, I petition that the duty on piano and organ ivory be reduced to 10 or 15 per cent. At that grade billiard balls, which are now assessed at 50 per cent., will still be absolutely excluded, they in fact not being able to stand 5 per cent., as an investigation on your part will prove; but this article is at least not one of monopoly, and, being turned here about as cheap as in Europe, nobody thinks of importing them.

CHAIR CANE.—This article is manufactured here under fully as strict a monopoly. Four or five concerns, sure that no effectual competition can be made with them, have combined, and about dictate to the chair manufacturers their terms, and will; and, if a petition for a change, signed by every chair-maker of the Union, is desirous, I think I would not be given a refusal from any. The duty on it now is 25 per cent., and

that not more than a fair competition will be created by taking it off entirely is evident from the fact that one manufacturer exports to Europe about as much, or more, than Europe sends to America.

Your honorable Commission has entered into such a thorough investigation looking to a reform of the existing tariff, that I believe the attention given to articles of far greater importance will not prevent justice being done to piano and organ ivory and chair cane. I advocate the levying of a duty of 10 to 15 per cent. on the former and free entrance to the latter.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. You have to pay a duty of 35 per cent. on piano-forte ivory, and you advocate a reduction of duty to 10 or 15 per cent.?—Answer. Yes.

Q. Are you a manufacturer as well as an importer?—A. I am an importer only; we only manufacture on the other side.

Q. The ivory from which this is made is imported free of duty?—A. Yes.

Q. And you think that 35 per cent. is too much of a difference between the raw material and the manufactured article?—A. Yes; it is too much protection to the American manufacturer.

Q. Would that be true of a more finished article of ivory?—A. No. I think that there are some fancy goods of ivory which would stand a duty of 35 per cent.

Q. Are you also an importer of chair cane?—A. Yes.

Q. And you make the same point, that the difference between the raw cane, which is admitted free of duty, and the strip or chair cane, is too great; that there is too much protection to the American manufacturer?—A. Yes.

HENRY T. COATES ET ALS.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. HENRY T. COATES and others, of Philadelphia, in regard to the duty on books, was ordered to be printed :

To the honorable the Tariff Commission :

In response to the request of the Commission for information regarding the various branches of industry affected by the tariff, the undersigned committee, appointed by the Book Trade Association of Philadelphia, would call your attention to the absolute necessity not only of the protection already afforded but of measures to prevent a system of undervaluation that has for many years operated against the business of the manufacture of books in all its branches in this country.

Already it is a question with some of the largest publishing houses whether it would not be to their interest to manufacture American books by American authors in England or on the Continent, and unless a remedy can be found for the undervaluation of which we complain our paper-mills, printing-offices, and book-binderies will be comparatively idle, while almost every other branch of industry in our country exhibits activity and increase. To bring about a more healthy condition, we would, therefore, call your attention to the desirability of changing the existing ad valorem duties to commensurate specific duties; a change which could work no harm to the honest importer, and would protect him from his unscrupulous competitor.

From the peculiar nature of the publishing business, books are among the most difficult articles of which to determine the market value; and hence the opportunity for undervaluation to evade ad valorem duties is very great. It is practically impossible for any official, however careful and competent, to be conversant with the prices of the thousands of books that in a single year are put on the market, let alone the productions of previous years, or of the reductions and increase of price attending the production of successive editions of the same book. There are many elements which enter into the manufacture of a book that make it cost a great deal or very little—elements that it is impossible for any one save the manufacturer to be aware of. The edition may be small, or it may be large; it may be printed from plates, or from type. The rate of copy-money paid to the author is also variable, and often differs for home or foreign markets; and many other circumstances, too numerous to occupy your valuable time in stating at present, would seem to render the market value of books more difficult to determine than that of any other article. The undervaluation, however, is easy. For instance, a foreign publisher, who has on hand the stereotype plates necessary for the production of a particular book, after having manufactured a sufficient number for his own market, will print an additional number for the American market, and invoice them to his agent here (whose profits he possibly shares) at a merely nominal figure—the bare cost of paper and of printing. Nothing is added for type-setting, for cuts, or for editorial labor. The price in reality is only a portion of the actual cost of producing the book, although it is the rate at which it is invoiced and imported, and is considered and often accepted as the

market price. Not only is the government by this means defrauded, but the importer can well afford to pay the twenty-five per cent. ad valorem on this low rate, and then drive from our market competing American books, to the detriment of American authors and American labor, for the fostering and protection of which the import duty is imposed.

As representing the principal branches of trade connected with book manufacture in the city of Philadelphia, we trust that, in the revision of the tariff, some effective protection will be extended to these important interests. Experience has shown that a simple ad valorem duty affords so many opportunities of defrauding the revenue, especially when foreign manufacturers establish their agents in this country, that we hope you will see the wisdom of changing it for a specific rate. We annex a memorandum of what we think would prove a satisfactory adjustment, protecting the manufacturing interest without bearing heavily on scholars and scientific men who may require works in foreign languages and old books. The tariff of 1842 and the English tariff formerly levied duties on books by the pound weight, and results have shown that the plan works well.

We therefore are of the opinion that it is only by specific duties that proper protection can be afforded and the interests of the revenue guarded.

SUGGESTIONS FOR A TARIFF ON BOOKS.

On all books, periodicals, pamphlets, photograph albums, blank-books, bound or unbound, and all printed matter, engravings, bound or unbound, illustrated books and papers, and maps and charts, 20 cents per pound weight

The free list to remain as it now stands.

On all stereotyped or electrotyped plates and casts of wood-cuts a duty of 20 cents per pound weight.

Asking your attention to these suggestions, we have the honor to remain,

Very respectfully,

HENRY T. COATES.
GEORGE R. FAGAN.
JOSHUA R. JONES.
ROBERT S. MENAMIN.
CHRISTIAN C. FEBIGER.

LEWIS T. HAWLEY.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

MR. LEWIS T. HAWLEY, of Syracuse, N. Y., farmer and owner of salt stock, made an argument in favor of the maintenance of the existing duty on salt. He said:

I take it for granted that any remarks which I make are not made with any view of enlightening this intelligent body. In my opinion labor is the source of wealth. Wealth is the product of labor. This city, its streets, its buildings, its mercantile and manufacturing industries, are all the product of labor. I need not enlarge upon that idea. I think we all understand that. But I wish to say a word, for instance, about farming. There has been so much said about the suffering of the farmer under the tariff that I have sometimes felt disgusted. I take the ground, as I suppose you all do, that supply and demand regulate the prices of things, naturally, if not interfered with by panics. Naturally supply and demand must regulate prices. If we were destitute of manufacturing industries in the United States we would be still as at the time when cotton cloth cost 50 cents a yard in this country, and salt cost from \$4 to \$5 a barrel. That was before we went into the business of making cotton or salt.

As you are all aware, Syracuse is next door to the eastern seaboard, and if war should come upon us while our salt industry was crippled by low duty or free trade the country would undoubtedly suffer very seriously. Therefore I think it is well to build up and protect that interest instead of injuring it. I think that any nation that will trust to have its manufacturing done in foreign countries, thereby transfers to those foreign countries the building of its towns and cities and railroads, and the carrying trade of its raw materials. I think that every country should be independent; should manufacture its own goods, build up its own railroads, and give to its own people employment and good wages. I hold that it is very immaterial, for instance, about the prices you pay provided you are all equally protected. Equal protection is what we need. When every manufacturing industry in the United States shall have learned to stand shoulder to shoulder, and shall suffer none to be subjected to free trade, then we shall have arrived at the millenium of prosperity.

I have a short paper which I wish to lay before you, prepared by a committee on the part of the salt producers of Onondaga County, because I did not come here expecting to make a speech. It is as follows:

GENTLEMEN: In your investigations in the matters of tariff, we suppose that, based upon your report, the questions are to be settled by Congress how much tariff or imposition of duties shall be placed upon imported articles; whether the imposition shall be controlled by the simple needs of government for the financial support, or to such an extent as to protect and foster, within reasonable bounds, the industry of its own people. Your duty, as we understand, stops short of any determination of these questions, and is confined to examinations in detail of the various prominent industries of the country, such as the volume and extent of each, cost of production and transportation to market, cost of sale, and price received as contrasted with the same charges or cost of the like imported productions.

So far as our industry—the manufacture of salt in its various forms

—is in this connection concerned, we have appended hereto tables giving correct data of the average cost to us, in detail, of production, transportation, and sale, and also the reported cost of the manufacture of English salt, its transportation to and handling in our markets. We confine our tables in the main to the English salt and its transportation to our point of competition and common market, to wit, the seaboard, for, although costing more than any other imported salt, it comes more directly in competition with our industry.

Our tables in reference to English salt are the work of a large English salt manufacturer, and are wholly reliable. One item of our costs is called a *duty* imposed by the State of 1 cent per bushel of 56 pounds. The reason for this is, first, that by purchase from the Indians the fee of the land and the royalty of the water is in the State; and, second, to give equal advantage to all manufacturers, the land free of other rent is furnished, the wells sunk, the water raised and placed in reservoir and thence distributed by the State, by whose officers it is inspected as to quality and quantity, thus leaving but a meager margin yearly to the State treasury for its rent of the land and royalty of the water; the individual manufacturer, however, is called upon to pay all other expenses.

These tables tell you practically all there is of our case, but we trust that we may be indulged in expressing some views which we entertain.

First. We are in favor of *protection* to all American industries which come in contact with foreign production, whenever America is largely in possession of the raw material out of which to produce the manufactured article.

Second. Protection should be measured by the difference in the value of labor. We include in this both the original cost of the manufacture in all the bearings that labor has upon it and the charge for handling and transportation; if anything beyond this, it should be a small increase as an inducement for the establishment of home industries. We therefore think that, by an examination and comparison of the tables below, our request for an increase of the present duty on salt from 8 cents per 100 pounds loose, and 12 cents for the same amount in packages, to 12½ cents on the first and 24 on the last, would no more than carry out a policy of protection in our case.

The reason for the difference asked between salt in bulk and the same in packages is that the higher quality and greater cost of the latter, together with its package, is but simply met by this discrimination.

If revenue is an object, and that we have a right to believe is intended, permit us to state that under the tariff of 1865 the amount of salt imported in 1880-'81 would have paid a revenue to the government—

On packages of.....	\$962,329 10
On salt in bulk.....	869,539 02
Total	1,771,868 12
Under existing tariff salt in packages	481,164 55
Under existing tariff salt in bulk	359,795 12
Total	840,959 67
Loss in revenue	950,008 45

And we say without fear of contradiction that the average price of foreign salt has been very near if not quite as high for the past eight years as the eight years preceding, except that sharp competition in England has depressed the Ashton, but at the same time the price of its home competitors has at least been correspondingly enhanced.

Prior to 1874 the duties on salt in the forms above mentioned were respectively 18 and 24 cents; at that time we had more than twice the

number of salt works and operatives that we now have, and the value of plants has at least shrunk to one-third of its then value, and we can with truth attribute the larger share of decrease in both value and production to the lowering of the customs duties.

We desire to call your attention to one fact in the workings of the present system which should be remedied:

At the expense of one American industry, ostensibly for the benefit of another, all salt used in ocean fishing and imported was made and is free of duty. What has been the result? As it appears from government returns the amount of salt thus made free was in 1881 2,238,254 bushels, while the amount actually used for curing fish was 1,363,203 bushels, thus avoiding the payment of \$45,000 on the balance, 1,017,551 bushels, which was thus thrown into the general market, not only in violation of law, but in direct competition with our own product. Again, our lake and river fisheries, almost if not quite as extensive as those of the ocean, have no such privilege. Would it not be far better to abolish this discrimination, and require each home industry to live and act under equal laws?

All American industries add to the material wealth and prosperity of the country, but we have a salient fact in the history of the Onondaga salt manufacture which is of sufficient importance to be particularly mentioned. When the plan of building its canals was wisely adopted by our State, a way was sought out to relieve the State from taxation on their account. To that end, among other things, the legislature first, and the people shortly after, by organic law, raised the charge for the use of our salines to 12½ cents per bushel, and solemnly pledged the faith of the State to apply the moneys to the payment of the canal debt, and also agreed that the duties should not be altered until the last dollar of the debt was paid. When in 1834 this end was accomplished, it was found that the Onondaga Salt Springs had paid of such indebtedness about one-third of the whole, or the sum of over \$2,300,000.

While it is unnecessary to recite what the Erie Canal has accomplished, we ask you to reflect how much the great States of the West and Northwest owe to the early accomplishment of that great enterprise. It was the salt of the Onondaga Valley and not the productions of foreign countries which early opened up the rich lands of that great territory and continues to offer them as the homes of millions of men seeking from all countries, where great numbers and unremunerative labor will neither permit the education of the children nor furnish the actual necessities of life to their families, the means to support life, secure education, and give as the reward of honest labor an abundant living for the present and a reasonable hope for social and financial advancement in the future.

We again call attention to the accompanying tables, and respectfully request that with other American industries our manufacture may receive that care and protection which whenever exercised in the past has inured to the great prosperity of our country, while an occasional opposite policy, history says, has materially retarded our great advancement as a nation.

E. W. LEAVENWORTH,
R. NELSON GERE,
J. W. BARKER,
T. G. ALVORD,
GEO. F. COMSTOCK,
L. T. HAWLEY,

Committee on the part of the Salt Producers of Onondaga County.

SYRACUSE, October 4, 1882.

H. Mis. 6—95

SALT PRODUCTION AND ITS COST.

Total product from 1797 to 1881.

	Bushels.
Solar salt	55,669,377
Boiled or fine salt, including dairy salt.....	232,060,216
	<hr/>
	287,729,593

Average annual production for last decade.

	Bushels.
Solar	2,400,574
Fine and dairy.....	4,782,928
	<hr/>
	7,183,502

Capital invested in 1872.

In solar salt works	\$2,200,000
In boiling or fine works	2,000,000
In dairy salt works.....	150,000
In State property	400,000
In cash capital.....	1,250,000
	<hr/>
	\$6,000,000

Capital invested in 1880

United States Census Report	\$2,286,081
Cash capital	1,250,000
	<hr/>
	3,536,081

Shrinkage since reduction tariff 1874

2,463,919

For eight years prior to 1874 the tariff on salt was 18 cents per 100 pounds in bulk, and 24 cents per 100 pounds in packages.

Shrinkage in product since 1874.

In 1874 the tariff was reduced to less than one-half, resulting as follows:

	Bushels.
Production of fine and dairy salt for eight years prior to 1874 was	47,935,647
For eight years subsequent.....	36,011,970
	<hr/>
Decrease in eight years.....	11,923,677
Or an annual shrinkage of.....	1,490,209

COST OF SALT IN BULK AT WORKS, SYRACUSE, 1882.

Fine or boiled salt.

	Per bushel, 56 pounds.
Coal	\$0.0425
Labor	0.0300
State's royalty for brine delivered at works	0.0100
Wear and tear of works	0.0050
Taxes and insurance	0.0025
Interest on capital.....	0.0250
	<hr/>
	.11½ cents.

Solar salt.

	Per bushel, 56 pounds.
Labor of manufacturing.....	\$0.07
State's royalty for brine.....	0.01
Repairs.....	0.01
Interest on capital	0.04
	<hr/>
	.13 cents.

Factory filled table and dairy salt, made from the fine salt by a chemical purifying process.

	Per bushel, 56 pounds.
For the crude fine salt.....	\$0.115
The purifying process.....	0.07
Interest on capital invested	0.01
	<hr/>
	.19½ cents.

COST OF ENGLISH SALT IN BULK AT THE WORKS.

	Per ton, 2,240 pounds, or 40 bushels, 56 pounds.
Labor.....	\$0. 163
Brine.....	0. 040
Wear and tear.....	0. 080
Fuel.....	0. 513
Taxes.....	0. 020
	0. 816
	Per bushel.
Or.....	\$0. 0204
Cost of putting same on vessel.....	0. 0161
	0. 0365
English salt, f. o. b. vessel, Liverpool costs.....	0. 0365

Cost of English salt in our ports.

Ocean freights on salt from nothing or ballast to 12 shillings per ton of 2,240 pounds:

	Shillings per ton.
Falk's report gives, for 1880, average Liverpool to Boston.....	3
Liverpool to New York.....	7½
Liverpool to Baltimore.....	7
Liverpool to Charleston and Savannah.....	5
Liverpool to New Orleans.....	6

Cost of English salt afloat.

These freights added to cost of English salt, f. o. b. vessel, Liverpool, result in following cost prices of salt afloat at following points:

	Per bushel, 56 pounds.
In Boston.....	\$0. 0535
In New York.....	0. 0787
In Baltimore.....	0. 0765
In Charleston.....	0. 0645
In Savannah.....	0. 0645
In New Orleans.....	0. 0705

Cost of English salt, with duty added.

If, to the above prices, the present duty 0.0448 per bushel be added, the resulting prices are as follows:

	Per bushel, 56 pounds.
In Boston.....	\$0. 0983
In New York.....	0. 1271
In Baltimore.....	0. 1249
In Charleston and Savannah.....	0. 1129
In New Orleans.....	0. 1189

Cost of Onondaga salt at Atlantic ports.

Transportation from works to New York, Boston, and our North Atlantic ports averages 5 cents per bushel, which, added to cost of salt at our works, gives cost of our salt at above-named points, as follows:

	Cents per bushel.
Solar salt.....	18
Fine or boiled salt.....	16½
F. F. dairy salt.....	24½

While at Philadelphia, Baltimore, and our South Atlantic ports the cost is fully 3 cents more per bushel than in New York City.

Comparative statement.

Showing cost of English salt under the tariff which we propose, 7 cents per bushel, compared with cost of our salt in general use at points named, per bushel.

	English salt.	Onondaga salt.
At Boston.....	\$0 1235	\$0 165
At New York.....	0 1487	0 165
At Baltimore.....	0 1465	0 195
At Charleston.....	0 1345	0 195
At Savannah.....	0 1345	0 195
At New Orleans.....	0 1405	0 195

WAGES OF OUR WORKMEN.

Solar works.

	Per day.
Superintendence.....	\$3 00
Foreman.....	2 00
Ordinary laborer.....	\$1 37½
Cost of house-rent, horses, carts, and tools, per man.....	37½
	1 75

Boiling works.

	Per day.
Superintendence.....	\$3 00
Boilers.....	3 00
Packers (including nails).....	2 50
Nailers.....	1 00

Factory-filled dairy salt works.

	Per day.
Superintendence.....	\$4 00
Chemist.....	4 00
Engineers.....	2 25
Foreman.....	2 25
Ordinary laborers.....	1 37

Number of employes.

The salt interest here employs 2,500 persons.

ANALYSES.

Solar and common fine salts.

The following analyses, made by C. A. Goessman, Ph.D., Professor of Chemistry in the Massachusetts Agricultural College, show the quality of Onondaga salt, as compared with the best corresponding grades of foreign salt:

	Turk's Island salt.	Onondaga solar salt.	Liverpool coarse fine.	Onondaga fine.
Chloride of sodium.....	96.76	97.31	95.46	97.12
Sulphate of lime.....	1.56	1.05	1.46	1.33
Chloride of calcium.....	0.04	0.05	0.01	.15
Chloride of magnesium.....	0.14	0.05	0.03	0.14
Insoluble matter.....	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Moisture.....	0.90	1.54	3.04	1.27
Sulphate of magnesia.....	0.64	0.00	0.00	0.00

Onondaga F. F. salt.

The following analyses were made in 1875 by Messrs. Walz & Stillwell, under the supervision of the New York Butter and Cheese Exchange, the committee selecting the samples from salt on sale in the New York market :

	Ashton.	Higgin.	Onondaga F. F.
Water.....	0.7880	0.8200	0.6280
Insoluble matter.....	0.0504	0.0300	0.0264
Sulphate of lime.....	1.2272	1.2063	0.7217
Sulphate of magnesia.....	0.0769	0.1616
Chloride of calcium.....	0.0473
Chloride of magnesium.....	0.0501	0.0311	0.0346
Sulphate of soda.....
Chloride of sodium (pure salt).....	97.7508	97.0800	98.5242
	99.9074	99.9365	99.9822

E. D. MORGAN & CO.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. E. D. MORGAN & Co., of New York, in regard to the duty on sugar, was ordered to be printed:

We have read the statement of Danford Knowlton, esq., made to the Commission in regard to sugar, and we beg to say that we concur in the views expressed by him as to the best method for the collection of revenue on sugars, viz, by the use of the polariscope; and we would add that we have found the government tests (under Secretary Sherman's circular order) of our importations were almost identically the same as those made by our own testers.

The existing tariff works great injustice to the great mass of the sugar producers of the world, inasmuch as it discriminates against all low grades, and in favor of the higher grades; the use of the polariscope as suggested by Mr. Knowlton would place all grades of sugar on a parity, and would greatly benefit consumers and refiners, and at the same time would incidentally afford better protection to the producers of sugar in this country.

TRUSLOW & CO.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. TRUSLOW & Co., of New York, in regard to the duty on corks and cork bark, was read and ordered to be printed:

On behalf of the cork manufacturers of the United States, we beg to submit a statement in relation to the tariff on corks and corkwood.

The present tariff reads:

On "corks and cork bark, manufactured, 30 per cent."

On "cork bark or wood, unmanufactured, free."

The undersigned, manufacturers of corks and importers of cork wood, respectfully suggest to your honorable Commission a change of the existing duty on "manufactured corks" from 30 per cent. ad valorem to \$25 per 100 pounds specific, and that cork bark be permitted to remain duty free, as at present.

The change in the duty on manufactured corks we desire for the following reasons:

First. That it will give better and needed protection to our American factories, not only under existing conditions, but particularly in view of increased foreign competition expected in the near future.

Secondly. That a change from an ad valorem to a specific duty will prevent fraud in the undervaluation of invoices, which at the present time may exist, greatly to the disadvantage of the honest importer.

In further explanation, we submit the following particulars and information:

A change in the duty from 30 per cent. ad valorem to \$25 per 100 pounds specific will result in an increased rate of duty on some kinds of corks, and in a decreased rate on other kinds, governed by the relation of weight to quality.

The decreased rate will obtain on that class of foreign corks which can be used to best advantage in this country, and against which the American manufacturer may not compete, owing to circumstances beyond control.

We cite for example "champagne corks"; owing to the difficulty of obtaining cork wood suitable for making these corks, and for other sufficient reasons peculiar to the trade, their manufacture, irrespective of cost, is impracticable in this country. On these goods we believe it would be desirable to reduce the rate of duty, and this reduction would be accomplished under the tariff advocated by us.

On certain other kinds of corks, "wine corks and beer corks," for example, the American manufacturer requires increased protection in order to compete with foreign corks of this class, and such protection, to the extent of perhaps 10 per cent. to 15 per cent., would be secured by the change suggested.

Foreign corks have, until very recently, been manufactured entirely by hand labor. To Americans belongs the credit of having first invented machinery applicable to this purpose.

The increased and growing importance of the cork-manufacturing industry attained during the last few years has been reached through the means of American machinery. Our machinery has recently been introduced abroad, and at no distant date will probably be employed in

Spain. Against the combined competition of our own machinery and Spanish cheap labor, we certainly find a sufficient cause for asking protection.

The duty we propose is certainly not oppressive, nor can it operate to discourage any existing home industry. No objection, so far as we are informed, to the present or to any moderate duty on corks, has ever been formulated by the consumers of these goods. A reduction in the duty has been agitated only by a few small importers of foreign corks, who naturally desire to encourage their business relations with Spanish manufacturers.

A bottle of American champagne is worth, say, at wholesale, \$1.25; the duty on the cork would be about one-third of one cent.

A bottle of wine is worth from 50 cents to \$1.50 at wholesale; the duty on the cork would be from one-eighth to one-tenth of one cent. The best and most expensive corks are generally used for bottling champagne, wine, beer, and mineral waters, all of which may be considered luxuries and legitimately taxable. The value of the cork in relation to the value of the package is infinitesimal.

Touching the relative merits of a specific versus an ad valorem duty on corks, we would say that it is a matter of great difficulty for any one other than an expert of long experience to estimate correctly the quality and relative value of corks. The consequent difficulty of intelligently appraising invoices leads, in the opinion of the undersigned, to frequent undervaluations.

Unscrupulous Spanish or Portuguese houses may thus send their goods to this country, with or without collusion, accompanied by invoices at less than the true value for entry at the custom-house; and against this species of fraud an ad valorem duty does not offer sufficient protection.

The industry of cork cutting in this country is comparatively of recent date. We compete with the cheapest kind of foreign labor. In addition to the large Spanish and Portuguese factories, paying their operatives less per week than an American operative commands per day, we have the competition of the Spanish peasantry. These people, frequently whole families, at seasons when not engaged in agriculture or other regular pursuits, devote themselves to cutting small parcels of cork bark into corks, and in the aggregate produce very large quantities; the bark is frequently obtained by them from the forest, in small lots, at no cost. The product of this irregular labor is bought by the foreign cork merchants at nominal prices, assorted, packed, and shipped to the United States or other foreign countries.

Notwithstanding the far greater cost of labor in this country, we have succeeded with American machinery in producing a cork much better than the foreign hand-cut cork; in respect that it is uniform in size, more regular in quality, and more finished in appearance, at a price which competes generally with the foreign hand-cut cork at present rate of duty. We have succeeded in rendering this country independent of foreign hand labor for its supply of manufactured corks, for which, a few years ago, we were entirely dependent on Spain and Portugal. We have established factories for cutting corks in all parts of the United States, from Maine to Louisiana, employing a capital of some millions of dollars and giving occupation to a large number of skilled operatives, one factory alone employing upwards of 500. The importation of cork wood for the year 1881 was between fifty and sixty thousand bales; the importation of manufactured corks during the same time amounted only to between 2,000 and 2,500 bales.

Cork wood, mostly produced in Spain and Portugal, has for several

years steadily appreciated in value, the consumption being greater than the supply. Notwithstanding this fact, American manufacturers, with improved machinery, are now supplying this country with manufactured corks of better quality than the foreign hand-cut corks, and at more or less the same prices that prevailed when cork wood was about one-half its present value. This is what American factories have done for the American consumer.

On the other hand, the foreign manufacturer, finding himself deprived of this market, has sought to regain his footing here by selling his goods at very low prices, sacrificing his former enormous profits. Owing to this competition, together with the natural home competition and the increased cost of raw material, the industry here is not now in a prosperous condition, and has failed for some time past to be reasonably remunerative for the capital invested.

Our manufacturers consequently feel discouraged, and should a decline in the industry follow, as a natural result the cost of corks to our consumers is sure to be enhanced by the foreign manufacturer advancing his prices as soon as our inability to supply the home demand is demonstrated.

With a moderate increase of duty, the American manufacturer will be encouraged to establish an increased plant of the best improved machinery, with better results to himself, and with the effect of preventing in the future a large increase in cost to the consumer.

A change in any other direction, either by placing a duty on cork wood or by decreasing the duty on manufactured corks would, we firmly believe, disastrously affect the industry in this country, unjustly entail upon the manufacturers a great loss in the value of their plant of expensive machinery, and would just so surely result in increasing the cost of corks to the consumer.

E. LAURENT.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. E. LAURENT, of New York, manufacturer of crochet buttons, in regard to the duty on buttons, was ordered to be printed:

I take the liberty to write you this letter, in the hope that should any change be made in the tariff, due attention should be paid to the unjust construction of the same in regard to "silk crochet covers for crochet buttons," which are entered at the custom-house as articles paying 10 per cent. duty instead of 60 per cent.

Also to beaded buttons, which only pay 30 per cent. duty, when beads pay more, (I believe 40 per cent).

I do not doubt that your Commission has already the above facts under consideration, as these questions have been many a time before the collector for many years, but could not be redressed.

The object of my letter is not only in regard to the above, but I would like also to say a word as to the rate of duty that I consider should be the fair rate imposed on hand-made goods, of whatever materials they are composed, when the labor comes in for 50, 75, and even 90 per cent. of the value, such as silk crochet buttons, gimp passementeries, crochet trimmings, passementeries, and ornaments, bead work, hand-made laces, &c.

All the above articles are articles of luxury, and can pay duty without the least inconvenience to those who consume the goods. They are all more or less being tried to be manufactured in this country, but are at such a disadvantage on account of the disproportion of the value of labor here, compared to European labor, that they cannot successfully compete with imported goods. Thousands of females would find a lucrative employment in those goods if they were protected by 75 per cent. not to say 100 per cent. duty. I say 75 or 100 per cent., and I do not exaggerate; for if you consider that broad silks, silk ribbons, or silk fringes, &c., where there is not more than 20 per cent. labor of its value, pays 60 per cent., and those goods are turned out quickly by machinery, why should silk crochet buttons, passementeries, laces, &c., which are all made by the hand, and with only the help of the needle, not pay 75 or 100 per cent. duty. The females I employ to make my goods have hard work to earn 50 to 75 cents a day (my work is all done at their homes), and in Europe such a work is made by hands who earn 25 to 30 cents.

Does this not strike you as a case to be looked into seriously? I, for my part, am not what would be called a protective-tariff man, for I think the more there is protection the more values will be inflated; but if there is a tariff which protects other goods, and therefore inflates values of the consuming laboring females, who need 75 cents a day or more for their daily work, they should be protected in their hand-made work in the proportion of its labor value. Everything cannot be made by machinery, and unfortunately the tariff has never been framed to cover hand-made goods, where the chief value is labor.

WILLIAM DEMUTH.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

Mr. WILLIAM DEMUTH, of New York, pipe manufacturer, made the following statement:

I am a manufacturer and importer of pipes and smokers' articles. It would be for the interest and welfare of our business, as well as for that of our workmen, to have the tariff on smokers' articles left as it is. In case a change of duty should be contemplated we should like very much to appear before the Commission and prove why the change should not be made.

Commissioner AMBLER. We cannot tell you now what the Commission will do or will not do, and it will be quite impossible for us to give you a hearing at another time. If there is anything you desire to state you had better do so now; or, if you desire to put it in writing and submit it at your leisure, you may do so.

Mr. DEMUTH. Formerly there were no pipes whatever manufactured in this country; but, under the very high tariff of 75 per cent., the business was created, and it is now prosperous. There are over a thousand workmen employed in making pipes in this country. Formerly we imported all these goods, and now we import only about one-sixth part of the goods that are consumed here. The other five-sixths are made here. Strange as it may appear we can still import, under this high protective duty of 75 per cent., pipes much cheaper than we can make them. We have to pay to our workmen a dollar for every florin that is paid in Europe. A workman who gets 20 florins in Europe has to get \$20 here. They are all skilled workmen, and are very hard to get. They do not often emigrate unless they are tempted with very high wages, and it is a very hard thing to keep them here when they do come. So far as my own personal interest is concerned I could import all the goods I sell and be as well off as I was ten or fifteen years ago. I have no authority to speak for other manufacturers, but I believe that if the duty on pipes were reduced their factories would be at a standstill, and a thousand workmen would have nothing to do. The value of the pipes is in labor mostly, because the material is not of much value; and therefore the duty on pipes should be large. I admit that, in regard to meerschaum pipes, the protection is ample, because there the raw material is dear, and we make nearly every meerschaum pipe here, while the smaller meerschaum articles, like cigar-holders (where the labor is everything), it is impossible for us to make here. We therefore import every cigar-holder and mouth-piece because they can be made so much cheaper in Vienna than here. The tariff says, "on all pipes, 75 per cent. and \$1.50 a gross." Then it goes on to say, "on all clay pipes, common or white, 35 per cent." This classification has created a great deal of trouble. It is so hard to say what is common and what is white. There is no line to be drawn as to where the 35 per cent. ends and the 75 per cent. commences. Here is a pipe which pays 35 per cent. duty, but it is hardly ever imported. It is made here. This bowl [exhibiting] comes in under the clause of 75 per cent. and \$1.50 a gross. That, of course, we cannot import, and we make it here. The bowl is sold for 1 cent, and the duty is 75 per cent. and \$1.50 a gross. The Vienna manufacturers make these goods [specifying], but cannot make these other ones [specifying]. They

should pay the same tax. If it is the intention of the Commission to protect labor, it ought to recommend that both these pay 75 per cent. If not, the Commission should recommend that they both pay 35 per cent. At 35 per cent. duty they could not be made here, but at 75 per cent. they could be. This [exhibiting] is a specially imported article.

Commissioner OLIVER. If the duty was put at 50 per cent., could they be made here?

Mr. DEMUTH. No, because it is all labor. A duty of 75 per cent. would be a proper protection for the article. I have not a dollar of interest in any of these factories. I only plead for them, even without authority. It makes no difference to the poor man, because he will have to pay 1 cent for his pipe; it cannot be sold for less. But if the duty is fixed at 35 per cent. then the dealer will make more profit, and the consumer will get his pipe for 1 cent all the same.

Commissioner McMAHON. What is the price of that bowl?

Mr. DEMUTH. One cent. The pipes sell for 60 cents a hundred with stems.

Commissioner AMBLER. Are they any higher now than they were before the tariff?

Mr. DEMUTH. No; about the same. The competition cuts the price down to 60 cents a hundred with a reed stem. That is the regular selling price to the cigar stores, so that they can retail them for 1 cent.

Commissioner AMBLER. Then the actual protection on this article would be about 175 per cent.?

Mr. DEMUTH. More than that.

Commissioner GARLAND. What is the actual cost of making these pipes?

Mr. DEMUTH. About 45 cents a hundred; the manufacturer sells them to us for 50 cents, the box containing a hundred. As I said, the government has much trouble in drawing the line as to what is a common pipe; if the pipe is a little figured and painted the custom-house officers say that it is not common, but if it is figured without being painted then they say that it is common; the line cannot be drawn. I should like to suggest some changes in the custom-house system.

Commissioner McMAHON. You had better submit them in writing.

Mr. DEMUTH. I would propose that an importer be allowed to make his affidavit through a notary, instead of being compelled to go to the custom-house himself and spending almost an hour every day of his valuable time there. I believe that the oath before a notary is as good as if taken by a collector or any one else. That change would be a great convenience to our merchants who have, in the midst of their business, to go down to the custom-house personally, and are not allowed to send a substitute. As I am all alone in business I have to go to the custom-house and swear to an entry, and the next day I have to do the same thing over again, and so on. Another suggestion which I would like to make is either that the importer be compelled to add all his charges to the invoices, or that the duties on those charges be abolished entirely. My own opinion is that the charges had better be left out. If the duties are to be laid on charges, then no entry should be allowed to pass unless the charges are added in Europe. Another thing that I want to say is that the oath which the foreign exporter signs is greatly disregarded. I know that by long experience. Our form of oath is not the form which they have in Europe, and they subscribe to it without knowing anything about it, or caring anything about it. I believe that our government can make an arrangement so as to compel the merchant in Europe to make his oath before a local magistrate in the proper form,

which the laws of that country prescribe. I believe only in such an oath, and in no other. After that oath is taken let it be certified to by a United States consul. I know of many instances where invoices were sent to us at an undervaluation, the people thinking that they were doing us a favor. They certainly did not think that they were doing any wrong. There are men in Europe of high standing who do this every day, but if they are required to go before one of their own magistrates and take an oath in their own form, this thing will cease.

Commissioner AMBLER. That is, you suggest that the oath shall be taken by a European magistrate and certified to by a United States consul?

Mr. DEMUTH. Yes; the merchants in Europe, who sign these papers, do not believe that they are swearing. Another reason why the duty on charges should be taken off is that if an importer imports his goods by slow freight he has, of course, less duty to pay than if he imports them by fast freight. And this on common goods would make a considerable difference.

Commissioner OLIVER. What is the average of charges on your line of goods abroad?

Mr. DEMUTH. At least 10 per cent. on common goods, and about 5 per cent. on finer goods.

Commissioner OLIVER. What commissions do you pay?

Mr. DEMUTH. From 2½ per cent. to 5 per cent., according to locality. In Vienna we pay 5 per cent. We have to pay that even if we do business directly with the manufacturer. In Paris we pay 2½ per cent. commission. As to this slow and fast freight, I believe that the importer would import just what he wants if he imported it by fast freight, but as he has to take slow freight he often imports more than he wants. We have to pay a duty of 75 per cent. on railroad freight that costs \$20, while by slow freight it would cost only \$5. Of course, that would make no difference if there were no duties or charges.

ROBERT DUNLAP.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

Mr. ROBERT DUNLAP, of New York, manufacturer of hats, presented the following statement, being a copy of one submitted to the Committee on Ways and Means of the House of Representatives some time ago :

GENTLEMEN: In compliance with your request, we beg herewith to submit to your consideration a statement relating to hatters' black silk plush and silk-hat material, accompanying the same by samples.

Hatters' black silk plush is manufactured mostly in France, and to a small extent in Germany. Efforts have been made to produce it in England, but without success. The German article does not stand in high repute, and the greater proportion consumed throughout the world is manufactured by the three French houses, Messrs. J. B. Martin & Co., Tarare, France; Massing, Freres & Co., Puttelage, Lorraine; E. Huber & Co., Sarraguenienes, Lorraine.

In this country the manufacture of the article was started under most auspicious circumstances, such as abundant capital, experienced workmen, &c. But after a sacrifice of a large part of the money invested, the enterprise was relinquished, having failed from the same cause as in England, namely, the impossibility of producing the deep lustrous black, capable of standing, without changing, the intense heat to which the plush is subjected while being manufactured into hats. The quantity used is too limited to tempt capital to an enterprise so certain of failure, whilst other silk goods, used in almost unlimited quantities, can be produced without risk.

The import duty on hatters' plush was, prior to 1861, 18 per cent.; during the period of the war it was successively advanced to 30, 40, and 50 per cent. Under a false construction of the so-called "little tariff bill" of 1875, the duty on it of late has been 60 per cent.

Black silk plush for hatters' use is, in the full sense of the term, a raw material. In the state in which it is imported it is adapted to no other use whatever, and could be sold for no purpose but for that of being converted into silk hats. Piece silks, velvets, &c., can be used in many manufactures; hatters' plush, however, only for the one purpose for which it is originally designed. In most countries it is admitted free, or at a nominal duty.

Here, then, we have a strange anomaly of a once flourishing manufacturing interest almost crushed out by a government tax intended to foster home industry; hundreds of skilled artisans, men who have spent years in acquiring the proficiency required by their delicate trade, deprived of a livelihood, and the government itself, by the oppressiveness of the tax, deprived of the revenue that formerly accrued to it when the rate of duty was lighter—in a word, a home industry destroyed, no home industry promoted, and the government revenue cut off.

For the further information of your honorable committee, we beg to annex a statement based upon the quantity of material required for one dozen hats, showing in separate columns the foreign cost and the

duty, to illustrate how onerous the tax is upon our manufacturing interest.

Material.	Foreign cost.	Duty.	Tax.
Black silk plush	\$13 15	Per cent. 60	\$7 89
Silk band and binding, lining, &c	6 93	60	4 16

Thus showing, that at the present rate of duty, for every silk hat manufactured the government derives one dollar, and if plushes are admitted free the government would still receive 34 cents on each hat, derived from duties on materials other than silk plush.

We therefore earnestly and respectfully ask your honorable committee to bestow early, prompt, and serious attention upon this matter, and to afford us relief from the distress at present surrounding our manufacturing interest, and ask your honorable committee to place hatters' black silk plush upon the free list, or to report a bill fixing the import duty on hatters' plush at not over 10 per cent. ad valorem, firmly convinced that in affording us the relief prayed for, you will affect no other interest injuriously, but will augment the government revenue.

Very respectfully submitted to your honorable body for consideration, with hope of obtaining the needed relief.

EVAN MORRIS, Philadelphia,
ROBERT DUNLAP, New York,
MARCUS C. COOK, Boston,

Committee of the Silk Hat Manufacturers of the United States.

Mr. DUNLAP continued: We do not ask for a reduction on hat bands or bindings, or on anything else than hat silk plush. My experience justified me in saying to the Committee on Ways and Means that, if that were left open, many goods would be attempted to be imported under the head of hat plush. For that reason we are simply content to ask for a reduction on silk plush alone. I have with me all the materials that enter into the manufacture of hats, so that the Commission may see what we mean by silk plush. (Exhibiting and explaining many specimens to the Commission.)

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. Is silk plush ever made in this country?—Answer. There was an attempt to make it twenty years ago, but it was a failure.

Q. What was the difficulty?—A. They could not get it to stand the intense heat required to finish the hat. I presume that if any one wanted to take the risk, and to invest capital in it, the thing might be attempted now with better success than it was some years ago; but the quantity required is so limited that it would not tempt capital to enter into it at all.

Q. What are the components of it?—A. Principally silk and a little cotton in the back.

Q. What percentage of it is silk?—A. A large proportion of it; probably two-thirds.

Q. What other silk materials are used in the making of hats?—A. These (showing specimens) are for the lining of hats. They all pay a duty of 60 per cent.

Q. Are these other articles manufactured in this country?—A. I believe so, to a certain extent.

Q. You ask for no change on any of these articles except the plush?—A. Nothing but the plush, because I am satisfied that the change could not be made with safety to the government. This cannot be imported under any other head than that of silk plush, unless there is collusion between the importer and the examiner, because it is so distinct from any other plush. There is plenty of other plush manufactured in this country, such as mohair, &c.

Q. And this pays a duty of 60 per cent?—A. Yes.

Q. What would it be worth per yard?—A. (Exhibiting.) This piece cost \$4.90 per yard. A yard of plush would make about three hats. It is divided up—a different piece for the crown and a different piece for the brim.

Q. What would be the difference between the present retail price of hats and the price if hat plush were admitted at 10 per cent. instead of 60 per cent.?—A. It would make a difference of about 60 cents per hat if all the other materials were left as they are.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You have stated that the attempt to make silk plush in this country was a failure, and that none is now being made?—A. None for hatters' purposes.

Q. And therefore the duty on hatters' silk plush is a tax and not a duty?—A. It is nothing but a tax.

N. D. WHITE.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

The following communication, from Mr. N. D. WHITE, treasurer of the Ashland Emery Company, of Perth Amboy, N. J., in regard to the duty on emery ore, was ordered to be printed:

The Ashland Emery Company of Perth Amboy, N. J., which is engaged in the business of importing and crushing Turkish emery ore, has the honor to present the following statement for the consideration of the Commission.

The emery business of this country has been for several years in a languishing state, and as one of the means towards bettering our condition, we seek to have the act imposing a duty on crude emery stone or ore repealed, and the duty on the imported manufactured emery collected as originally intended by act of Congress.

If the real intent of the law relating to the duty on manufactured emery was carried out, some relief might be felt in our competition with the European manufacturers of free emery.

The act reads, that crude ore shall pay \$6 per ton duty, that emery grain shall pay 2 cents per pound, and that manufactured, ground, or pulverized emery shall pay 1 cent per pound duty.

In the emery trade the only terms generally used when referring to the manufactured article, are grain and flour emery, and there can be no shadow of doubt that the intent of Congress was to make grain emery, which is the more valuable part of the product, pay the greater duty, that is, 2 cents per pound, and flour emery, which is of little value, pay 1 cent per pound duty; and yet grain emery is brought here from Europe, entered as manufactured or ground emery, and pays but 1 cent per pound duty.

The burden of the tax on the ore is greater than appears at first sight, for after crushing a ton of the crude ore, upon which we have paid full duty, we obtain but 65 or 70 per cent. of grain emery or salable goods, while what remains is almost worthless; we therefore take the ground, as already stated, that the act imposing a duty on the crude ore should be repealed, and the wording of the present schedule altered, so that the duty on the manufactured emery imported into the United States shall be collected as originally intended in the tariff schedule.

In conclusion we would say that pure emery ore is not one of the products of this country, and it therefore seems the more unjust to continue a tax on the raw material which we use, especially as our business is an important, and we may say necessary adjunct to some of the largest industries of the country, among which are the manufactures of hardware, of cutlery, and agricultural-implement makers.

BRUSTLEIN, SURY & CO.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. BRUSTLEIN, SURY & Co., of New York, in regard to the duty on soluble oil, was ordered to be printed:

As manufacturers of soluble oil, we would respectfully call your attention to the disadvantages under which we labor, and also to the amount of duty the government loses, to which it is justly entitled, by reason of the importation of this article at a rate of duty much less than its constituent parts would pay.

Permit us to state that the manufacture of this important article in this country is almost entirely destroyed, and that of foreign countries stimulated, by allowing it to come in at a rate of duty so much less than that which applies to the materials of which it is composed.

Being soluble in water, it is used extensively in printing and dyeing, and is composed of castor and other oils (usually averaging 50 to 70 per cent. of the article), the remainder being oil of vitriol, aqua ammonia, and water. It is imported under various names, viz: Alizarine assistant, dye assistant, oleine, soap liquor (which is on the free list), soluble oil, Turkey red oil, paying but 20 per cent. duty ad valorem.

In 1881 there were imported into this country about 1,200,000 pounds, or some 150,000 gallons. The duty on the castor oil contained in this quantity (some 75,000 gallons), at the present tariff on castor oil (\$1 per gallon) would be \$75,000.

The duty actually paid was about \$9,600, thus depriving the government of some \$65,400 revenue, to which it was entitled, in addition to crushing the industry in this country, by thus protecting the foreign manufactures of this article at the expense of our domestic manufactures.

To remedy this evil we would respectfully advocate the adoption of the following clause in the tariff:

"That the article known as soluble oil, alizarino assistant, dye assistant, oleine, Turkey red oil, or any similar compounds, by whatever name they may be known, shall pay the following duty: 35 cents per gallon when containing 50 per cent. or less of castor oil and [or] other oils, and a pro rata increase when the percentage of oil in the compound is increased."

This percentage of oil can be very easily determined. We would call your attention specially to the sentence above "or by whatever name it shall be known," as it would be useless to provide for the above duty on the names of the article as mentioned above, as the foreign manufacturers would simply bring it into this country under some newly invented name, in order to avail themselves of the 20 per cent. ad valorem duty.

In order to prevent the future importation of this and similar articles by foreign manufacturers to the detriment and loss of the government and our domestic manufacturers, we would earnestly advocate the insertion after Schedule M of the following clause:

"Any non-enumerated articles, being composed wholly or in part of any articles embraced in Schedule M, shall pay the same rate of duty as is chargeable on that constituent part paying the highest duty."

NORMAN D. SAMPSON.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. NORMAN D. SAMPSON, of New York, in regard to the duties upon iron and steel, was ordered to be printed :

Permit me to call attention to some incongruities in the iron schedule of the act of June 22, 1874, Revised Statutes. I limit these comments to articles which are known in the mercantile world as manufactures of iron and steel, respectively, as the metal schedule includes both of these materials.

The practice at this port is to impose the highest rate of duty when doubt arises, throwing the cases into court for adjudication after the Secretary's decision is made, adverse to the importer's appeal. This is contrary to the spirit of the laws, to judicial decisions, and to department instructions. The tariff, in this and other similar schedules, treats, and is intended to treat, the named materials and specified articles, whether as bar, rod, band, hoop, scroll, sheet, angle, tee (T), plate, or other irons known by these names, in the condition in which they are prepared in the rolling mill for mercantile use.

Any subsequent adaptation of any one of these articles to a specific use in a machine shop, through the application of skilled mechanical labor, under the conditions in which that labor is applied, *i. e.*, engineer's drawings, peculiar machinery and tools, higher scale of wages, &c., constitute such manipulation a manufacture of the material treated.

It was the opinion of the late Judge Nelson (*vide* Blatchford's reports) that in cases of doubt as to construction of a statute it should be interpreted in favor of the importer (consumer), on whom the burden of taxation rests—good law, which the Attorney-General, in the elucidation of the principle of construction on an analogous subject, confirms, and which the Secretary adopted as a rule of action and so instructed collectors and approving officers. *Vide* section 2339, last two paragraphs. The orders are not observed.

Again, the department rules, in section 4455, that "it is a well-known principle of law that such a construction should, so far as is practicable, be given to a statute as will promote, rather than impair, the object for which the statute was enacted." Again, the department, on October 30, 1872, ruled that "tariff laws class articles according to their designation acquired by general use in commerce and trade." And further, "When *Congress*" (not the Secretary, collector, appraiser, or examiner,) "identifies an article by a given designation for revenue purposes, it must be treated as a distinct article, whether so known or not." I give the quotation entire for obvious reasons.

Again, in section 2485, paragraph 4, the department broadly states that "any attempt to correct alleged errors" (*i. e.*, to force a classification) "would be equivalent to the assumption of legislative powers."

And once more, the department ordered, on April 1, 1875 (and wisely), that in certain actions the appraiser is "to exercise the same freedom as would be exercised by a jury."

Here are explicit sailing directions (being on the ocean beach the metaphor is allowable) which, if followed, would save the department

an immense amount of correspondence, importers an immense deal of annoyance, loss of interest until refunds are made, &c. I regret to state that the practice is the reverse of instructions. I will exemplify the trouble to importers by citing four articles, on two of which the courts have ruled in favor of importers, yet the department refuses acquiescence, and in all the "manufacturing principle" is clear as the noonday sun.

Cotton ties.—The courts have ruled them to be dutiable as manufactures of iron at 35 per cent., and duties have been refunded from the assessed rate of 1½ cents per pound, yet the department decides that they are iron hoops, dutiable at the hoop-iron rate of 1½ cents. As there are some ninety patents (now all controlled by one man, I believe), it seems that the principle of a manufacturing process applied to the hoop iron, after it has left the rolling-mill and passed through the machine shop, could not be more clearly established. Yet the department has decided on all sides of this question, and the venerable examiner of metals at this port is almost wild at the fish and flesh position of the department on the subject.

Again, "corrugated roofing iron, galvanized," has been judicially decided to be a manufacture of iron, and *not* the sheet iron galvanized of the tariff, because the corrugation is done *after* the mercantile sheet-iron is made, followed by machine-shop work, *i. e.*, punching and fitting for instant use.

Black, corrugated roofing iron, made in precisely the same way and similarly prepared, has been ruled with the preceding as dutiable at the rate of 35 per cent., and reversed to 1½ cents per pound under the sheet-iron provision. And this in the face of judicial decisions of District Attorney Woodford's opinion specially asked for, and of department decision of October 28, 1857, on corrugated zinc, where the department sustained the opinion of the then collector, A. Schell, esq.—

That the "zinc in sheets," being subjected to an additional process of manufacture, the "corrugated zinc" of commerce thus prepared * * * is to be treated as a "manufacture of zinc," &c.

See decisions of March 10 and May 12, 1880.

Also, *channel, tank-plate, and other section irons*, after being made in mercantile form in the rolling mill, carried to the machine shop, patterned upon engineer's drawings and fitted for use, have been made dutiable as manufactures of iron, and this has been reversed to the schedule and higher rate for the rolling-mill product.

Steel blooms.—The term *bloom* is unknown to the tariff. Its original meaning or application was to the product of the *iron* bloomary forge. The *ingot* of the steel provision of the tariff is that form in which the steel under the Bessemer product is cast. The *steel bloom* is that article (in general) which has been cut from the ingot and hammered down to special dimensions for special purposes of use.

The department has vacillated between 2½ cents, the steel-bar rate of duty, 30 per cent. as an unenumerated manufacture of steel, and 45 per cent. as a manufacture of steel.

Under such a conflict of opinions, what living man knows how to conduct his business.

I cite these four articles to show the eccentricities in the applications of the tariff acts, by all officers of the government. If the experts here now in office were left untrammelled to exercise their heaven-derived common-sense, merchants would not complain. I question where you would find two more practical-minded men than the two examiners in the metal division (ninth) of the appraiser's office at this port.

From the foregoing and on all similar articles my judgment is, (and it is based on practical experience as an importer, manufacturer, and dealer in domestic productions as well,) that such a change in all the schedules as shall make the duties specific on all articles as they come from the mill, and ad valorem on all manufactures thereof, or partial processes of manufactures will simplify the collection of duties, disembarass all officers in the discharge of their duties, relieve the department of an immense amount of annoying correspondence, enable importers intelligently to conduct their business, and materially increase the revenues; and all this can be done without changing the existing ad valorem rates of duty.

When you consider that the machine-shop work adds 40 per cent. to the value of the material in its mercantile form as made at the rolling mill, you will see an eminent propriety in regarding all such processes as "manufactures," and a most decided impropriety in applying the specific duties to such articles in any case. I have no ax to grind in making these suggestions.

FINLAYSON, BONSFIELD & CO.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. FINLAYSON, BONSFIELD & Co., of Grafton, Mass., manufacturers of linen thread, in regard to the duty on flax, was ordered to be printed:

The position of linen manufacturers in America in regard to their raw material is so different from what exists in other trades, that the question of the admission of flax free of duty may be considered from a point of view peculiar to itself.

We submit the following reasons for its admission free of duty:

1. Flax is not grown in America to any extent for textile manufacturing purposes. The bulk of it is produced only for the seed, the fiber being neglected or destroyed. There is none produced of a quality high enough for fine linen thread or yarns.

2. That the manufacturing of linen does not receive any encouragement by having raw material of sufficient quality grown on the spot as is the case with cotton; it would therefore not develop, but would cease to exist unless supplied with material from abroad.

3. The development of manufacturing is the only means of encouraging the production of superior flax. The market must be created for the agriculturist, or he will not attempt the growth of a crop requiring careful and skillful management.

4. The manufacturing of linen can best be encouraged by the introduction of the raw material, whether dressed or undressed, free of duty; and with this development the agriculturist will find a profitable market open to him.

5. A handsome profit could be realized, by proper treatment, out of straw now destroyed.

6. The quality of the fiber is so dependent on favorable conditions of soil, water, and climate that it is questionable if any one country can produce the entire range of qualities necessary for the manufacture of linen thread and fine linen.

7. Even under the most favorable circumstances, it must take many years before the best results could be obtained.

8. We must have quality at any cost.

For these reasons we submit that linen manufacturing in America can be best served and most materially developed by the admission, free of duty, of the raw material necessary for its existence, whether dressed or undressed.

To explain the extent of the variations in the quality of flax, we may state that it ranges in price from \$125 to \$750 per ton.

The influence of agencies entirely local on the quality of flax is evidenced by the effect of the water of the river Lys on the flax grown in Courtrai in Belgium. The fiber steeped in its water attains a quality and beauty which increase its value more than 25 per cent. over equally good straw grown in equally fertile soil in the north of France, not far from the neighborhood of this more favored district. There is no other place in Europe where such results can be obtained, and possibly there may not be in America water with these peculiar chemical properties.

These facts, together with the fact that the flax crop is so dependent on propitious weather, show that the linen-thread manufacturer (who requires nearly the entire before-mentioned range for selection of flax suited to his large range of numbers) cannot depend entirely on the crop produced by any one country. In some unpropitious seasons it is difficult to get flax good enough for some of our purposes at any price.

It is questionable if America, favored as she is, could produce the entire range, and it is certain that even under the most favorable circumstances her agriculturists could not attain the skill necessary for the production of the very high classes of flax for many years; nor would they attempt to do so without the pressure and incentive of a demand from factories established in the country, which, however, can only be built up meantime with imported flax, admitted without any restrictions of duty and charges.

Within two years we have established a factory for the manufacture of linen threads at Grafton, Mass., and are there making threads of a very superior quality, and we do not know of any flax grown in this country of a quality good enough for our purposes. We import our supplies. We maintain the quality of our threads, whatever the cost. If American flax can be produced good enough, it would be welcomed by manufacturers, and meet a ready sale at handsome prices, and no manufacturer here would buy flax in Europe through agents in a market quite beyond his control, if he could buy it here himself of equal quality. But if American flax be not good enough and is forced on the manufacturers by means of a duty on imported flax, then the American manufacturer at once loses his position, as his goods must be of inferior quality to those produced elsewhere from better flax.

We submit that the only means for encouraging the growth of flax is to develop a market for it by stimulating manufacturing; and in our opinion the best way to encourage the latter is to admit the raw material free of duty; that raw material it is an absolute necessity to import, as no native flax will meet the requirement. We do not ask any increase of duty on the finished article. The present duty thereon is sufficient, but we do claim that the introduction of the raw material free of duty would put the manufacturers here in the position of being able to compete in point of quality with the world; and would not prevent the development of the culture of flax, but would encourage the same, as before stated.

Accompanying the foregoing communication was the following from Messrs. J. R. LEESON & Co., of Boston, Mass., in regard to the same subject:

Messrs. Finlayson, Bonsfield & Co. are large linen thread manufacturers in Scotland. They have also a fine property—water-power, mills, houses, &c.—in Grafton, Mass., where they are making linen threads and rapidly increasing the production. We sell all the threads this firm makes at Grafton, and all they send here from their mills in Scotland. We thus represent and are interested in both the home and foreign production of linen threads; and we speak not for ourselves only, but also for the firm of Finlayson, Bonsfield & Co., as manufacturers. As a brief statement is sometimes better than an exhaustive dissertation, we will merely indicate what our position is in reference to our product and the tariff.

In view of the fact that the government, as its debt wears away, will demand less and less revenue to pay its expenses, we believe that the question of an increase of duty is not to be entertained at all by your

body. While we do not at this time ask for a reduction on manufactured threads, we do most earnestly and respectfully request that you consider the question of a reduction of duties on the *raw material*, both undressed and dressed. Such reduction, we think we can show, would not be detrimental to the flax culture in this country, for the reason that the imported article does not come in direct antagonism to the flax produced here. We think a candid perusal of the considerations in the accompanying statement of Finlayson, Bonsfield & Co. will make this and other points plain and convincing. As a further indication of our views on these points, and also upon the question of the methods of collection, we beg to submit to you some observations published in an editorial article in the *Manufacturers' Gazette*, Boston, July 29, 1882, as follows:

There are certain reforms pertaining to the collection of revenue which justice to the importer demands. The best interests of the linen trade, as well as of all who have dealings with the custom-houses, would be subserved by the entire abolition of "permit fees" in making entries. These are evidently a relic of an antiquated system of conducting the business, and constitute a piece of red-tape which might well be dispensed with. We likewise are of the opinion that the bond under which importers are placed not only is of no practical benefit to the parties concerned, but that it also consumes much time, both of the importer and of the custom-house clerks, unnecessarily. Were the fees attached to the signing of bonds and the granting of permits abolished, and the importer required to pay simply the amount of duty which the statute specifies, we venture to say there would be no loss to the government, while our import trade would be greatly facilitated.

The customs now require the addition of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. commission to the value of every invoice, upon which the duty appertaining to each class of goods is also levied. Duty is likewise imposed upon transportation charges from inland points to the port of shipment. We believe that, both as regards the commissions and the shipping charges, a reform is demanded; that all such extraneous values should be abolished, and the duty levied on the net value of the goods themselves, with no addition whatever for commissions, freight charges, or fees of any kind. In this opinion we are supported not only by the great mass of importers, but also by the more intelligent heads of departments in the custom-houses who have the supervision of the collection of the revenue intrusted to them.

We regard the free admission of raw materials as of fundamental importance in framing a tariff. That no restriction should be placed on the importation of commodities which in themselves are in great measure natural products, but which enter into the manufacture of other commodities and require a considerable amount of labor in the manipulation, is a principle generally recognized by political economists. Protection should be invoked for the finished article, not for the raw material of which it is made, and which, especially in the case of flax, needs no such aid. When the question of admitting hides free of duty was under consideration, dire results to the cattle raiser were predicted if the proposed change was made. Since the repeal of the duty, however, better prices for hides have been obtained and the profits of the business have in nowise diminished.

We emphatically deny that the farmer requires protection to enable him to grow flax in sufficient quantity for the market and with substantial profit to himself. It is a well-known fact that flax, properly handled, is one of the most profitable crops, whether grown for fiber or for seed. The business of the flax raiser consists not merely in cultivating the staple, but largely in handling it after it is grown. It is a statement readily susceptible of proof that any scarcity of good flax is due to the imperfect knowledge of the correct method of treating this product. We therefore favor the total abolition of the duty on raw flax—first, because we believe that the principle is the true one to follow; and second, because we believe that such a duty is not demanded either by the requirements of consumers or by the cost of production.

Our view, then, regarding the flax and linen thread interests is this: Let the present duty on the finished thread remain undisturbed; remove all vexatious details pertaining to entries; and allow the raw material, whether dressed or undressed, to come in on the same basis as that on which hides and other raw products are admitted, without any charge whatever. This simple method will do more to encourage the growth and extension of the linen industry of America than all the tariff patching and tinkering which were made to appear so attractive at the recent convention at Saratoga.

W. C. DEPAUW.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. W. C. DEPAUW, of New Albany, Indiana, in regard to the duty upon plate-glass, was ordered to be printed :

I wish to lay before you some facts in relation to the establishment of plate-glass manufactories in France, England, Belgium, and Germany; the tariff duties that have been levied from time to time; the subsidies paid; the protection afforded for the past two hundred years to establish and maintain this now large industry, as well as the present wages paid in all these countries (except England) and in the United States; and a few facts and suggestions in relation to the establishment of like manufactories in this country.

I went to Europe in August, 1881, with my son, C. W. DePauw, and spent a portion of thirteen months in obtaining information as to tariff and wages abroad. This information has been obtained after long, patient, earnest investigation, after many refusals and denials. Yet, after having been rebuffed and refused on the right hand and on the left, by persevering, an open door was found and reliable statements obtained. Americans do not realize the jealousy that exists abroad against their manufacturing establishments (notably plate-glass). Especially is this true of England, where we are regarded as her greatest rival.

In France, the manufactories are under the control of a syndicate. A like syndicate controls the product of Belgium, and Mr. Octave Houtart is the director there. There is no syndicate in England, yet there is a common understanding, strictly adhered to, that no one shall be permitted to go through their establishments or obtain any information. So in all these countries I was flatly denied admission to any plate-glass works, although I had letters from their largest customers in America as well as the most prominent men of America, and sought and obtained the aid of some of the leading merchants in Europe. Yet it was all of no avail. Hence I had to abandon this line and seek the desired information through government officials and from government records. Here I finally succeeded fully, except as to the now wages question in England. That I could not obtain from the government records or officials; and through two of the leading houses of Europe again sought this information. One of these houses failed entirely after repeated efforts. The other, after many refusals, still felt confident of ultimate success, but to-day has made the following report: "The manufacturers do not feel at liberty to reply to our queries as they say the statistical department in America have recently been endeavoring to obtain details of their manufacture, and they believe and hope unsuccessfully, and they infer that our inquiries may be made on behalf of some firm in America, and on no consideration would they feel inclined to afford us the information asked, and at the same time express their regret at not being able to oblige us."

I regret to say that plate-glass manufacturers in Europe, whose agents called upon me and have been shown through my establishment at New Albany, refused to let me look into their establishments.

First, *tariff*. All the statements and figures in document A, Attached.

hereto, as to plate-glass in England from 1671 to 1856, were copied from the government records. An examination will show you that during all these years the tariff actually prohibited the importation of plate-glass; that from 1671 to 1714 the duty was \$1.29 per square foot. Not content with that, from 1819 to 1829, the duty was increased to \$1.60 per square foot, and then it was increased from \$1.50 to \$2.75 per square foot. This high rate of duty was maintained until 1845, then reduced, but still practically prohibitory.

You will observe that these duties are more than five times as high as the highest duty ever levied in the United States. And in addition to this enormous duty, Appleton's Cyclopædia, volume 8, page 10, says :

The production of plate glass in England was undertaken in 1670, at Lambeth, by the Duke of Buckingham, who imported Venetian workmen. The government encouraged the enterprise, by a bounty upon the glass intended for exportation; and under this protection EXTENDED TO THE DIFFERENT BRANCHES of the manufacture, by which the cost was reduced from 25 to 50 per cent. Many other glass factories sprung up in different parts of the kingdom.

In France, for many years up to November 1, 1860, the importation of window glass was absolutely prohibited.

As to plate glass, it was also prohibited under the severest penalty. For example, in the law which was annulled in 1786, the tariff on large mirrors (all of which are made from plate glass) reads thus: "Importation of mirrors prohibited under pain of confiscation and £3,000 penalty," and under the then laws a failure to pay the penalty sent the importer to prison. From this time until the conventional tariff of 1860 it (plate glass) has either been prohibited or had a tariff duty more than double as high as the highest ever levied in the United States.

In this way, first France, then Belgium (which in glass manufactories is part of France), then England built up and maintained and firmly established the largest and most successful glass manufactories in the world. In fact they have made all mankind buy glass of them. This has been brought about first and mainly by subsidy and protection (and these enormous duties were never for one moment relaxed until their works were so firmly established as to defy all competition), but largely by the very low wages paid their workmen. Schedule B annexed will show that in America we pay from two to four fold as much for labor as is paid in England, France, Belgium, and Germany.

In conclusion, permit me to call your attention to the following facts :

First. That all money put into plate-glass works in America prior to 1879 had been a total loss.

Second. That some of the shrewdest, most energetic and successful business men in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Detroit, Chicago, Saint Louis, and Louisville had in the aggregate invested millions in plate-glass enterprises and lost the whole of it.

Third. That no plate-glass had been made in America without loss to the maker prior to 1879.

Fourth. That I, instead of having made a large fortune in a few years, as represented, have actually lost more than half a million dollars over and above all small (very small) profit made since 1878.

Fifth. That after a long, earnest struggle I have succeeded in making good glazing plate-glass at a small profit.

Sixth. That Americans are paying about half as much for plate-glass to-day as they paid prior to the time plate-glass was made in the United States at my works.

Under the present tariff duties I have succeeded, in less than ten years, in making plate-glass at a small profit. If the present duties are continued, I believe that prior to 1890 America will make all the glazing plate she requires, and prior to 1900 all the mirror-glass she requires, thus accomplishing in less than thirty years that which has taken France and England hundreds of years to build up.

Allow me to urge that the only safety to American manufacturers is to continue the duty on the square foot; and, to avoid frauds, to increase the duty on all glass under 10 square feet, on some of which duty is now as low as 4 cents.

My own judgment is that if the present tariff rate on plate-glass is disturbed that there ought to be one uniform rate on all sizes of glazing and mirror glass of 50 cents per square foot, the glass to be actually measured by the government on the dock, or in the custom-house, before it is delivered to the importer. If this is not considered practicable, then I would urge by all means not to have any rate under 25 cents on glazing or mirror glass—that is, all under ten feet at 25 cents, and all over ten feet at 50 cents per square foot.

I am led to advise and urge this for the reasons following:

First. The general agent for France, Belgium and Germany, at Paris, said to the Hon. Jessie J. Brown, of this city, that “shippers understand how to evade tariffs.”

Second. One of the leading houses in Paris, in reply to my inquiry, through a friend, as to prices of plate-glass, frankly said “You cannot buy in Paris and pay duty in America. You do not understand the tariff, and can buy cheaper from the French agent in New York, duty paid.”

Mr. J. V. Escott, of J. V. Escott & Sons, one of the leading houses in Louisville, thought, when in Europe, he could buy plate-glass advantageously. On asking for prices he was frankly told to keep his money and buy in New York, as he (Escott) did not understand the New York custom-house regulations; hence could buy cheaper from the agents in New York.

These three facts, which might be multiplied by the hundred, with the additional fact that the price of plate-glass in England and France to the consumer is about 60 cents per square foot on glass of 10 feet and over, while the same glass in America costs about 90 cents per square foot, and yet the tariff duty on this glass is 50 cents per square foot.

If you add to the tariff duty of 50 cents say 10 cents per foot for ocean freights, insurance, expenses of handling, and commissions at New York, you have 60 cents per foot to be paid, leaving for the foreign manufacturer only 30 cents per square foot.

Now, either the government is being wronged in the way of duty, or the foreign maker is supplying glass to America at half the regular price to consumers in England and France.

Is this last supposition reasonable or probable?

A.—Plate-glass tariff in England.

Date of
act.

1671.	Plate glass not mentioned, but all glass not mentioned 37 cents the pound, making per pound counting $3\frac{1}{4}$ pounds to the square foot, the square foot	\$1 29
1819.	Per square foot	1 60
1829.	Under 9 feet square	per square foot.. 1 50
	Over 9 feet square and under 14 feet square.....	do. .. 2 00
	Over 14 feet square and under 36 feet square.....	do. .. 2 35
	Over 36 feet square.....	do. .. 2 75
1845.	Under 9 feet square.....	do. .. 25
	Over 9 feet square and under 14 feet square.....	do. .. 50
	Over 14 feet square and under 36 feet square.....	do. .. 62½
	Over 36 feet square.....	do. .. 75
1847.	Under 9 feet square.....	do. .. 12½
	Over 9 feet square and under 14 feet square	do. .. 25
	Over 14 feet square and under 36 feet square	do. .. 32
	Over 36 feet square.....	do. .. 37½
1848.	Under 9 feet square.....	do. .. 06
	Over 9 feet square and under 14 feet square	do. .. 12½
	Over 14 feet square and under 36 feet square	do. .. 15
	Over 36 feet square.....	do. .. 18
1856 to now.	Plate glass free.	

B.—Rates of wages.

Occupation.	American.	French.	German.	Belgian.	English.
Foreman casting-house..... per week..	\$22 50	\$18 00	\$9 37	\$9 00
Casting-house mixers..... do. ..	8 33	5 02	5 50	\$6 00
Furnace and tablemen..... do. ..	12	0 00	0 25	7 50	9 30
Grinding men..... do. ..	14 70	0 00	4 87	4 80	10 02
boys..... do. ..	4 35	1 80	1 87	2 70	3 30
Smoothing men..... do. ..	14 50	0 00	0 87	8 00	10 02
women..... do. ..	6 50	1 86	1 87	2 58	2 40
girls..... do. ..	4 85	1 50	1 50	2 04	1 20
Polishing men..... do. ..	23 x	0 00	4 87	0 12	7 02
assistants..... do. ..	17 15	3 00	3 75	5 02
Warehouse packers..... do. ..	13 15	0 00	4 50	0 25	4 32 to 0 x
Machine laborers..... do. ..	0 70	4 50	4 50	4 80	5 34

All above wages, except English, are wages current in 1882.

English wages are those paid in 1878, as per United States consul's report that year.

WILLIAM BANEMAN.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

MR. WILLIAM BANEMAN, of New York, representing the Tobacco Clay-pipe Makers' Association, addressed the Commission as follows:

The Tobacco Clay-pipe Makers' Association respectfully beg to offer the following facts for your consideration:

The present duty on imported white clay pipes is fixed at 35 per cent. ad valorem. The duty on the raw material, the unmanufactured English or German clay, is \$5 per ton, which, as the price in England averages twenty-five shillings per ton, is equivalent to ad valorem duty of 80 per cent. American pipe-makers are in consequence destined to the use of inferior native clay, the best of which, and that most generally used, is obtained at Woodbridge, N. J., where it is placed upon the market at \$3 per ton. It can readily be seen that if native clay were equal in quality or nearly equal to the imported article, the fact it is sold at one-half the cost of the foreign clay in the foreign market would be a sufficient protection, so far as it is concerned, without the additional aid of a virtually protective duty. But even the Woodbridge clay is so far inferior for working purposes to the European clays that no market worth the name can be found for pipes made of American clay. The enormous importation of foreign clay pipes shows the extent of the demand, while the excessive duty on imported clay handicaps American pipe-makers, and gives the German and English workman a monopoly of the fabrication. Considerable sums of money have already been invested in the manufacture in Brooklyn and elsewhere, but we are handicapped by a duty on the imported raw material more than double the amount of the duty on the manufactured pipes, and enterprise in this direction is thereby restricted. This discrimination is so unjust that we confidently appeal to your honorable body to recommend a measure of relief. The substitution of a specific of 25 cents per gross for the present ad valorem duty on imported clay pipes and the reduction or abolition of the duty on foreign clay for pipe-making purposes would suffice to make pipe-making one of the most flourishing and important of minor American industries. Trusting that this memorial will receive your favorable consideration, I will say a few more words in explanation of this matter. Pipe-making is not one of the great industries of the country, I know, but I think it is one which has an equal right to claim protection with others. Up to a present time it has not been, in my opinion, sufficiently protected. There is an ad valorem duty of 35 per cent. on pipes coming into the market at present, but the pipe-makers in England, and Scotland especially, make their \$8 a week, and I am sorry to say that in this country they cannot make any more. Of course every individual understands that on such wages as that it is impossible for a man in this country if he has a family to maintain them. In the old country they can live very much cheaper than we can here. It requires a larger sum to procure the necessaries of life in this country than it does abroad. Therefore we ask that there shall be a specific duty put upon foreign pipes. I suppose that there are about a thousand pipe-makers in America at the present time, and yet there are not over one hundred journeymen pipe-makers employed here; the rest have been compelled, owing to the smallness of the wages, to get out of the business and go into laboring work. It often happens that the mechanics I employ do not earn over \$6.30 to \$8 a week, while the laboring men in my employ-

ment make more. I think a pipe-maker, after serving from five to seven years learning his trade, ought to be able to make more money than an ordinary laborer. The reason he cannot is on account of competition from abroad. German pipes come into this country at so low a figure that we cannot even buy the material for the price the goods are sold for. After paying at the rate of 35 per cent. duty on pipes they can bring them into this country at less price than it costs us to get the materials. We appeal to you to represent our case in the proper quarter, so that it can be remedied.

I think a specific duty of 25 cents per gross on pipes instead of the present ad valorem duty would be all that we need, because they can swear their goods through at any valuation they see fit. If we had a specific duty of the kind I propose on pipes, I think it would tend to put a stop to that practice.

We also refer in this memorial to the fact that we cannot find a market for our pipes, and the reason is that we have not the same clays in this country to manufacture clay pipes that they have in the old countries. In England they have fine clay, requiring no manipulation whatever. The same is true in Germany and France. We are competing with the wages paid in Germany also. Here we cannot employ a boy unless he is fourteen years of age, and he will not work for less than \$3 or \$4 a week. In Europe men work for a couple of dollars a week, owing to the cheapness of food, rent, and other things. Taking all these things into consideration, I think we have a right to claim more protection than we have at the present time.

By the PRESIDENT :

Question. Is pipe-making an art that has to be learned by serving an apprenticeship?—Answer. Yes, sir; it is.

Q. Is it a difficult art to learn?—A. It requires considerable training. In England and Scotland men have to serve from five to seven years at the business as apprentices.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. Are not these pipes made largely by machinery?—A. No, sir; it has been attempted in many instances in England, Scotland, and America, but has never been successful. They are formed first by the hand, and afterwards molded in a machine. Like all other manufacturers, we are desirous of having a foreign market. Another disadvantage of our labor under is that we have to use imported clay. If we had the clay here we might do better. But to pay \$5 duty per ton on clay, and bring it in to compete with the English, makes it impossible for us to get any profit out of it.

By Commissioner BOTTLER :

Q. If you had the clay duty free, would you not have to reduce the price of labor in order to compete with the cheap labor of the Continent?—A. No, sir; we could not reduce the price of labor, but we would be put in a better condition to compete with these other markets than at present.

Q. Would the getting of your raw material free of duty enable you to compete successfully with Europe?—A. That is a question of time. I think it would add materially towards it; it would be a stepping-stone towards it.

Mr. WILLIAM MASTERS, of New York, representing the same association, stated that he indorsed all that Mr. Baneman had said, and did not desire to make any additional statement.

H. SCHWARTZ.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

Mr. H. SCHWARTZ, representing the firm of L. Toplitz & Co., of New York, importers of Scotch caps, addressed the Commission as follows:

I want to speak in regard to the tariff on worsted and knit goods. We are importers of worsted knitted caps, which are not a luxury, and which are not even made here; but they are subject to a duty of 100 per cent., in fact, in regard to some of them, the coarser grades, the rate of duty is as high as 150 per cent. They are classified as worsted and knitted goods. The wool is the least material in the goods, and there is the leather peak and lining, and batting inside, not one of those articles being subject to a duty; but, owing to the fact that there is some wool in the article, we have to pay this high rate of duty. For instance, we had a bill of a better class of goods, where the value of the goods was \$441, and the duty on them amounted to \$430.35—on an article which is not a luxury. I have a report here, which I made to Congress in regard to this matter, which I will read:

JUNE 16, 1882.

Hon. S. S. Cox,
Member of Congress, Washington:

SIR: We take the liberty of inclosing you a copy of one of the letters, which we sent to several newspapers here. As you will perceive, from the contents of this letter, it refers to the additional duty which Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, moved to have put on the woolen knitted goods. The Supreme Court has decided that the way the law reads now, in reference to knitted goods, there is *no error*, and as there has been a Commission appointed by Congress for the revision of the tariff, everything regarding the tariff should be left to that body. We are importers of woolen knitted caps, which is not an article of luxury, but a necessity; they are only worn by laboring men, and, up to the decision of the Supreme Court, we were compelled, by the collector, to pay from 90 to 120 per cent. for these goods, which we can prove you by the following:

We paid, in Europe, for some kinds of woolen caps, 10s. sterling,	
equal to \$2.43	\$2 43
Add to this a commission of 2½ per cent., on which we have	
also to pay duty, would make	\$0 06
Duty, 35 per cent.	88
Weight, 3½ pounds, at 50 cents.	1 75
	2 69

Which will plainly show you that the duty

on this article was over 100 per cent.	5 12
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We are now paying duty, according to the decision of the Supreme Court, 35 per cent., which, in addition to shipping expenses, commission, insurance, &c., which is also 15 per cent., therefore a protection for the so-much-abused home manufacturers of 50 per cent., therefore not so bad as they appear to make it. There is a certain style of cap worn by the poorest laborers in the coal mines, but we cannot import these at the rate of duty formerly imposed upon it; the price of this cap is 6s.

sterling, equal to \$1.48, and, owing to the coarseness of the wool, they weigh 6 pounds to the dozen, and the duty would, therefore, be over 150 per cent.; while fine goods of light weight, manufactured of the finest quality of wool, and which could be considered a luxury, would be only 45 per cent. You will see from the above facts that, if Congress should see fit to advance the tariff on this class of goods 50 per cent., it would be a great injustice.

We have no doubt you will use your influence in preventing as much as possible the passing of any bill for increase of duty; we think that importers have some rights, too, as they help to sustain the government, while the so-much-abused home manufacturers only sustain their own pockets.

We remain, respectfully, yours,

L. TOPLITZ & CO., New York.

The caps which are made in this country are cloth caps, and this class of cap does not interfere in any way whatsoever with them; besides, owing to the pound duty, there is hardly an entry of these goods made where the importers do not suffer great trouble and inconvenience because of their gaining in weight by being damp, and so on. If there is any change in the tariff on these goods, they ought to be put under one rate of duty of 50 or 100 per cent., or whatever rate of duty you decide upon, and have no pound duty to it. This cap is only worn by laboring men, and in that view also the duty is too heavy. The present duty is 35 per centum and 50 cents a pound; while on the fine French caps, which cost about 30 to 35 francs a dozen, and which weigh only a pound and a half, there is only about 40 to 45 per cent. duty; and on this common article the duty runs from 100 to 150 per cent.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. I understand you to say that that cap cannot be made in this country?—Answer. Yes; it can be made here, of course; but they now bring over the shell, which is this woolen part by itself, and put in the leather part here, and the lining inside and the batting inside to make the shape of the cap. That is that they are doing now, owing to the compound duty, and the wool itself does not weigh so much as the lining, and this makes the cap heavier.

Q. Is this article knitted?—A. Yes, sir; it is knitted on a frame.

Q. Is that not done in this country?—A. One party in Utica made some on a machine which came from the other side. He knitted some caps, but most of them are brought over here.

Q. Then they are made here to some extent?—A. Some of them; but so few that they are hardly worth mentioning.

Q. What does that cap cost a dozen here now?—A. About \$6 a dozen by the quantity; but they have to go through about four hands before they reach the wearer.

Q. I thought you said they cost \$2.43 a dozen?—A. The ones I was referring to do, but that is another cap altogether.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. What recommendation do you make?—A. I make the recommendation that if there is from 35 to 40 per cent., in addition to about 15 per cent. for expenses, for commissions, insurance, cartage, freight, &c., it would be a sufficient protection.

Q. You recommend 35 or 40 per cent., then, in lieu of the present duty?—A. Yes, sir; but at any rate take away the pound duty.

Q. That would be practically taking away the pound duty?—A. Well, it was 35 per cent. until recently, when Congress changed the law. We brought a law suit against the government, claiming that these articles ought not to pay more than 35 per cent., as specially provided for, and we won that suit. That is the knit-goods suit that I refer to. Now Congress has passed the law over again.

Q. And you want that changed, as I understand?—A. Yes, sir; I want it changed either one way or the other; and, at any rate, take the pound duty away; it is a continual annoyance.

Q. Who does it annoy?—A. It annoys not only the importer but also the examiner in the custom-house.

Q. Why should it?—A. I will tell you why: For instance, a case comes in which is ordered there for examination. If there should be a pound over in weight he has got to order in the whole lot and see whether the other lots are a pound less; while very often the goods get a very little damp, and they are packed in paper, and owing to that the cap is a little heavier in weight than when it left Europe. Very often that is the case.

Q. What is the general variation where there is a difference?—A. Sometimes it may be 3 pounds, and sometimes 5 pounds; sometimes it has been 15 pounds or over.

Q. Do you account for that by dampness, all of it?—A. No, sir; They weigh them in Scotland by the stone, they do not weigh them as we do here, and there may be a variation on account of that.

Q. A variation of 15 pounds?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Which would make about a stone?—A. Yes, sir; but an error of that kind might easily be made, as I say it is only a common article, and not an article of luxury; it is only intended for workmen. I would like to show you another article coming in free of duty, while the raw material pays a duty of 30 per cent.

Q. What article is it that you refer to?—A. It is called sparterie. It is an article with cotton, or muslin, in it and comes in free of duty; and the other article, without the muslin, pays a duty of 30 per cent. When there is no muslin in it they call it "willow sheet."

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. It is used for bonnets, is it not?—A. Yes, sir; it is made in Bohemia.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. What recommendation do you make with reference to that?—A. I have no recommendation at all to make with reference to it. I only wish to call your attention to it.

Q. Do you think both of these articles should pay a duty?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. I understand your proposition to be that these caps, having paid 50 cents a pound and 35 per centum ad valorem duty under the decision of the collector, were made to pay 35 per centum alone under a decision of the Supreme Court; that the last Congress passed a special act to correct an error in the law in conformity with which error the Supreme Court made its decision, and that you now ask this Commission to recommend to Congress to report that it was an error to correct the error. Is not that a statement of your case?—A. No; I ask the Commission to ask Congress to reduce the duty on these goods, that is all. I have nothing to do now with the error. The letter which I have read was a

letter which I sent to Washington, at the last session of Congress, before this error, as you call it, was rectified. I do not call it an error.

Q. The last Congress passed an act to correct an error, and now you ask the Commission to say to Congress that the correction of that error was an error?—A. So it is; it was an omission. But I have nothing to do with that.

Q. Very well, I will pass that matter. I understand you to say that there is considerable difficulty between the importer and the government as to the weight of these caps. Is that difficulty shared by other importers besides yourself?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You know that, in the appraiser's office, if the weight of the package varies from the invoice weight, the examiner is obliged, of course, to call in the remaining packages to verify the invoice?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Has it always been your usage to give the weights of each package separately?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. For some years did you not pass your invoice at the custom-house in New York with your weights given in a lump?—A. Yes, sir; but as soon as I was told I should have each case separate, I gave each case separate.

Q. You were forced to do that, were you not?—A. Yes, sir; I was told that it should be done. I was protesting at the time against the weight of the goods.

Q. There were variations discovered between the actual weights and the invoice weights on your goods?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Did you make any mistake against yourselves in those cases?—A. Yes, sir; in some of them; but at the time I had a law-suit against the government for the weight duty. I was claiming all the time that these goods did not pay any weight duty; and finally it was decided that they should not pay any.

THOMAS G. SHEARMAN.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

MR. THOMAS G. SHEARMAN, on behalf of the Brooklyn Revenue Reform Club, addressed the Commission as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN: The Brooklyn Revenue Reform Club, which Mr. A. A. Healy and myself have the honor to represent before you to-day, is an association composed of both free traders and moderate protectionists, who all agree in the necessity of tariff reform, though they may differ as to its extent or methods, and who still more decidedly agree in the desire to have the questions involved in such reform thoroughly discussed, with an honest desire to have the truth ascertained and the right verdict rendered.

If we cared more for the ultimate success of the most radical doctrines held by our members than for the present relief of the country from a part of the burdens now imposed upon it, we should not oppose, before this Commission, the monstrous and greedy demands which are reported to have been made upon it by the various "interests" which have appeared to demand an increase of taxes for their own profit, at a time when all men, not crazy with selfish schemes, admit that taxes ought to be reduced by \$120,000,000 to \$150,000,000 per annum. If the arguments of the iron-ore producers, who want to shut out foreign ores, of a kind which are not and probably never can be found in this country; of the Iowa wool-growers, who cannot keep their own sheep alive and want to kill off the sheep of other lands, better suited to wool raising; of the South Carolina rice-growers, who are willing to testify that they employ two negroes for every grain of rice that they grow; of the quinine millionaires, whose 10,000 men in buckram have sunk to 352 men, women, and children; of the peanut venders, who boldly demand a fresh bounty upon the manufacture of bogus salad oil, to be sold in imitation bottles with forged labels—if these arguments should prevail with this Commission and Congress, and, like the Hebrew king of old time, our rulers should add to our yoke and chastise us with scorpions instead of whips, the certain result would be to break down the whole system of so-called protection and to bring about a rapid change in the direction of free trade, with far less regard to vested interests than would now be conceded by general consent.

But we prefer to take such a course as may (if our views are allowed any influence) help to relieve the country from some of its present burdens, even at the risk of postponing the day of complete deliverance. We therefore submit a few points for the consideration of the Commission, in opposition to all the demands which have been made for an increase of tariff taxes. And in doing this, we shall not, for the most part, raise any issue between the policies of free trade and protection, understanding, as we do, that the Commission was framed with the deliberate intention of excluding, not only every free trader and advocate of a tariff for revenue only, but also everyone whose mind was not thoroughly made up in favor of a tariff for protection, whether it produces revenue or not. Many excellent and eminent men have held such opinions; and whatever we think of a party which purposely shuts out from representation on such a body one-half or more of the

American people, we recognize the perfect right of the Commissioners to hold such views and to carry out the understanding upon which they were appointed.

PROTECTION MUST BE LIMITED.

First. We submit that, under any sensible theory of protection, a tariff which undertakes to protect everything and everybody is simply suicidal. By enhancing the cost of everything it reduces the protection given to each class. To attempt to protect all classes equally is as absurd as to grant a bounty of 10 per cent. on the amount of his taxes to every tax-payer. Tariff taxes, levied for protection, are in substance the same as bounties. They must be distributed sparingly and with discrimination, or they do no one any good.

But most of the schemes which have been lately urged upon this Commission ignore this well settled fact. You have been implored to levy higher and still higher duties upon agricultural products and raw materials, as well as upon every conceivable form of manufacture. The free list is complained of; and every man who raises a peanut or thinks that some day he is going to find a piece of chalk or iron pyrites under his farm, insists that a new tax shall be levied for his benefit. Under the pretense of "developing the resources of our country," a heavy bounty has for years been put upon the destruction of our forests; whereas, if the government is to play the paternal part at all in such matters, it ought to pay a bounty upon the importation of foreign timber, so as to save our own trees from the devastation which is now going on. Of course we do not believe in paying bounties at all; but we do maintain that wood of every sort should, on any rational protective theory, be placed upon the free list.

The production of any other raw materials, while not so disastrous to the country as the wholesale destruction of our forests, is nevertheless often attended with permanent injury. The advantages of coal and metal ores of various kinds are of course great; but their production is attended with certain disadvantages which should make us very willing to draw large supplies from other countries, if they can be obtained at cheaper rates. Coal and ores, once taken out of the ground, can never be replaced; and we are really exhausting our resources while we talk about developing them. The vast amount of these resources makes no difference as to the principle; and indeed the amount of anthracite coal in our country is known to be very limited. Such productions are not proper subjects of encouragement under any truly protective tariff.

FREE WOOL.

Protection, to be at all effective, must be confined to manufactures, and even among these, to such branches as can reasonably be selected for special encouragement. If, for the sake of sustaining half a dozen manufacturers of dye-stuffs, heavy duties are imposed on dyes, our cloth and print makers are directly burdened to an extent which shuts them out of foreign markets. The present duties on wool have made exports of woolen goods impossible; while they have raised up in Texas, New Mexico, and California more formidable competitors than Vermont and Ohio had before. They have not benefited the class of farmers who alone procured their enactment. Iowa Congressmen actually supported the wool tariff of 1867; and the only result, so far as Iowa is concerned, has been to reduce the number of sheep in that State by over one million. It is utterly impossible to carry on any real woolen manufacture here

without a large importation of foreign wool; and if it were admitted duty free, the manufacture would increase so largely as to increase the demand for native as well as foreign wools. A sound protective theory, as well as sound common sense, irrespective of the question of protection, demands that wool should be placed on the free list.

RAW MATERIALS MUST BE FREE.

Nor will it suffice to reduce the duties upon raw materials to low rates. A duty of 10 per cent., or even 5, on the materials which a manufacturer must use, is generally sufficient to prevent him from competing in foreign markets, if not at home, with British manufacturers, who import the same goods duty free. A striking example of this was afforded by the leather trade a few years ago. There used to be a duty on hides of only 10 per cent. While that duty was exacted, the exports of American leather were insignificant. Within one year after that trifling tax was abolished, American leather began to be largely exported; and this trade has constantly and rapidly grown ever since. Our manufacturers must be absolutely relieved from every burden in the way of taxation upon their materials before they can gain any foothold in the markets of the world. This is emphatically one of those cases concerning which a great philosopher has well said that "half measures do not only produce half effects; they produce absolutely no effect whatever."

PROTECTION REQUIRES A LARGE FREE LIST.

The necessity of a large free list has been recognized by all rational protectionists. Hon. William D. Kelley, in his first address to our club, dwelt strongly upon this point, and boasted that he had been the means of placing more articles upon the free list than any other member of Congress. The demand for a reduction of this list comes from persons who do not comprehend the A B C of the protective theory, or who are bent upon securing a bounty for themselves, regardless of the fact that their success will destroy the protective system as a whole. If we sought for the early overthrow of all protection, regardless of the cost, we should second these selfish demands; for the material reduction of the free list would bring about the speedy abolition of the whole protective system.

But the removal of duties on raw materials alone is not enough to make a tariff truly protective. Any scheme which extends over a multitude of articles necessarily defeats its own ends. As already suggested, a bounty to everybody is a benefit to nobody. The present tariff attempts the impossible. It tries to protect every kind of production. The result is that it burdens all, and benefits only a few, and these more by some lucky accident or secret trick than by virtue of any avowed design. Protection, to be effective, must select certain interests, and nourish those only. The working of the present tariff is forcibly illustrated by the fact that, while it was devised more in the interest of the makers of the lower forms of iron than probably of any other one class, its result has been to increase the proportion of foreign iron used in this country to more than three times what it was under the tariff of 1857. Under that tariff, with a duty of 24 per cent., only one-twelfth of the iron used here was imported; under the present tariff, averaging 40 per cent. (but on many things 60 to 70 per cent.), one-fourth of all our iron has recently been imported.

We do not disguise from the Commission that, in our opinion, all

taxes which are levied for the purpose of so-called protection are simple robberies under the forms of law. But if we are to be robbed, we honestly prefer that the money stolen from us shall benefit some of our fellow-citizens, and that it shall not be utterly wasted by a system which, after taking the money out of our pockets, pick so many holes in the pockets of the gentlemen who have kindly relieved us of our cash, that it finally all runs into the sea. We pray you to select a few classes as the objects of our enforced charity, and not to plunder them after they have plundered us. We want to see some persons receive and keep our money, so that we may hold our hats for the few pence which they would naturally be willing to throw back to us out of our dollars. At present it is almost impossible to find any class which can be proved to have derived any great benefit from protection in the last ten years, taken together. They all plead that whatever has been conferred upon them by one section of the tariff has been taken away by another.

FREE BOOKS AND PAPERS.

Among the manufactured articles which ought to be admitted nearly or quite free of duty we mention books and other printed matter, especially newspapers. American printers are sufficiently protected against the bugbear of foreign competition by the absence of international copyright. The tax on foreign books and papers only hinders the spread of enlightenment and international acquaintance; and it is a serious burden on students and literary and scientific men, who are generally poor, while their studies enable practical men to gain wealth. At the very least, all books coming through the post-office from abroad should be allowed to pass free of duty, without the present limit as to value. A large number of books on science, philosophy, art, medicine, theology, and law, not to speak of more general literature, are constantly published in Europe, which are not reprinted here. They are often of more value to students of special subjects than any which are printed here. A tax upon them is a tax on light and knowledge, and a hinderance to the progress of civilization and the useful arts.

On what possible theory of protection should a duty be imposed upon books in German, French, or other foreign languages? It certainly is not needed for revenue; and such books, at least, should be admitted free in any quantities. Neither can the duty on newspapers be needed, either for revenue or protection. They are now admitted free through the mail; but why should not the newsboys of New York have a chance to sell the London papers as freely as the Liverpool boys now sell New York papers?

Photographs, engravings, and all other pictures on paper should be admitted free of duty. They are the only works of art which the poor can have; and the duties are not needed for any purpose of revenue or protection, while it is of great importance to encourage everything which helps to educate and refine the masses of our people. Duties might justifiably be remitted from all works of art, on account of their beneficial influence upon taste and manners; but certainly this should be done so far as the cheaper class of productions are concerned.

By a very unjust discrimination, and, as we think, contrary to law, copies of statuary are taxed much higher than originals. This, again, is one of the many unjust discriminations made in favor of the rich, for it is only the very wealthy who can afford to buy original works of art, while persons in very moderate circumstances can buy copies, if not burdened with excessive duties.

THE TARIFF TO BE SIMPLIFIED.

Second. We heartily indorse the demand for a simplification of the tariff, the abolition of all mixed specific and ad valorem duties, the abandonment of those finely drawn distinctions which have given rise to so much litigation. We add to such demands the request that, in accordance with our first proposition, the tariff be simplified by confining it to a few classes of manufactures which shall be deemed worthy of special encouragement.

The evil results of the complicated system now in force have been set before you with sufficient clearness by officers of the Treasury; but we beg leave to call special attention to some points which seldom attract public attention. The complexities of the tariff have given rise to an immense amount of litigation, all of which is in the hands of a small number of lawyers who give special attention to this branch of business, taking the cases on speculation, and making enormous profits with little effort and generally little legal ability. They form a class by themselves, having an immense pecuniary interest in keeping the law entangled and incomprehensible. Whenever a new tariff law is enacted, it somehow happens that it raises new and doubtful questions, which the Treasury officials invariably decide in such manner as will bring in the largest tax upon each article. An appeal follows the courts, which is not decided for years. Meantime the duty is collected at the highest rate, and the importer, of course, adds this duty to his price, and it is paid in full by the consumer. At the end of five or six years the courts decide that the duty collected was excessive. Sometimes the government refunds the excess, which is then divided between the importers and their lawyers, neither of whom is really out of pocket on the whole affair. The consumers, who are the real sufferers, never get back a penny. Sometimes the government officials, seeing this, openly urge Congress to refuse payment of these claims, which is a bald repudiation of a just and adjudged debt, putting our government on a level with that of Turkey or Mexico. If the latter course is to be adopted, let us openly prohibit all recourse to the courts, and announce at once that the United States government intends to take whatever sums its minor officials see fit to charge, without regard to even its own laws or judicial decisions. For what inducement can there be to importers to contest unjust Treasury decisions, if restitution is to be denied at the end of litigation, on the plea that they have made up their loss in some other way? And yet the result of the other course is to rob the people at large of great sums for no public benefit, and without the pretense or possibility of restitution.

The only complete remedy for these grievous wrongs consists in (1) making the duties simple, clear, and plain, and (2) providing that all serious doubts in the interpretation of the tariff laws shall be decided against the government, leaving Congress to rectify the law, if its intention has been misconstrued. This is the old common-law rule, and it is still older common sense. Congress frames the law; not the taxpayer; and it is the business of Congress to state clearly how much money it wants.

AD VALOREM DUTIES.

Third. We indorse the suggestion of Mr. Moore that duties should be ad valorem rather than specific. We agree with him that the danger of fraudulent invoices can be avoided by official valuations. We suggest that these valuations can be made twice or even four times a year, and

publicly announced, just as the value of foreign coins is now fixed by the Director of the Mint every year, under authority of law. Very few articles need be left for valuation to the consciences of importers; and those would be such as do not compete with domestic goods.

Specific duties inevitably bear more severely upon the poor than on the rich. All indirect taxes operate in that direction, because they are levied in proportion to what men spend in support of their families instead of their accumulations. It is peculiarly unjust and even cruel to aggravate this inequality by making the cheaper classes of goods, with which the poor must be content, pay as heavy a tax as the superior qualities which only the rich can afford. Yet this is the inevitable result of every specific duty. The attempts to remedy this injustice by adding an ad valorem duty only slightly diminish the inequality, while greatly adding to the complications and embarrassments of the tariff. Nothing but a purely ad valorem tariff can meet the difficulty. For such a tariff Henry Clay publicly expressed his preference; and we surely need no higher protectionist authority.

RELIEF FOR 700,000 IMMIGRANTS.

Fourth. It is a disgrace to our republican government that its legislation should be so largely and openly controlled by great "interests." But we recognize the fact that it is, and that the greater part of legislation consists of a scramble on behalf of various persons or classes strong enough to command a hearing, and each seeking to gain some private advantage. Of course every advantage thus conferred upon the applicants for legislation is gained at the expense of the great mass of toilers, whose interests are never represented in the lobby, except when a few of them clamor for some work on a rotten capitol or useless boulevard, in their turn plundering millions for the benefit of a few hundred. So universal is this custom that the very act of Congress under which this Commission sits has been widely understood as designed only to give a hearing to persons who have some avowedly selfish interests to subserve; and we ourselves feel some hesitation in appearing to state facts and arguments which are not designed to put money into our own pockets.

But to be a little more consistent with the apparent intention of Congress in creating this Commission, we beg leave to represent the cause of one special interest, which has never yet found a voice to speak on its behalf. We plead for the 700,000 poor immigrants who will land on our shores during the coming year, and for the millions who will follow them. Why must these poor things be tormented and plundered by custom-house officials, who hate to do the work as much as we hate to see it done? Why must a poor fellow with only two pairs of breeches in the world be forced to pay a heavy tax on one of them? Why cannot a poor Irish woman who has saved a new pair of stockings until her arrival be allowed to take them off the ship without paying 85 per cent. for the privilege? What "interest" demands that a poor creature who has brought a piece of cloth to make a single dress for herself should be robbed of it by nine custom-house officers, as happened not long since—the poor fellows feeling bitterly ashamed of their work, but urged on from behind, like Egyptian soldiers, by a small army of spies? These are real instances out of thousands of similar transactions which make law and government odious in the eyes of the poor, and doubly odious in the eyes of those who are not poor themselves, but have hearts to sympathize with the poor. And even among the richer classes, is it not

a paltry business for a government to compel its reluctant officers to pull about a lady's dresses to see whether they are dirty enough to warrant the belief that they have been "in actual use?" Our laws, as now interpreted, put a penalty on cleanliness and a bounty on filth. There is not the slightest exaggeration in this picture. The only reason why it is not seen more frequently is simply that the officials, to their credit, sicken of their duty.

We ask that every immigrant be allowed, in addition to the articles now admitted free, to bring a reasonable amount of goods of any kind for family use without hinderance. We suggest a limit of \$250 as not too much; but if this will ruin the Treasury, let some other value be prescribed. In addition to the general and obvious reasons in favor of such a rule, we should be disposed to urge the notorious fact that, in the absence of such a privilege regularly conferred by law, the great majority of cabin passengers take it without law, so that scarcely one oath in ten which is extorted from them is strictly true. But the multiplication of oaths by recent legislation, regardless of the impossibility that half of them should be true, warns us that the average legislator rather enjoys forcing people to commit perjury.

In addition to the reasons of substantial justice and good policy which, as it seems to us, call for this change, there are some minor considerations of convenience. Under the present system, everything, however small, which a passenger acknowledges to be subject to duty, must be produced for official inspection, valued by an expert, and formally taxed. The trouble of doing this is often so disproportioned to the amount collected that the officials are justly impatient at the waste of their time. One of our number was present when a gentleman was forced to hunt over his baggage to find a single pair of gloves, which he had not worn, and which were therefore pronounced subject to duty; while another person, who had less than five dollars' worth of photographs, not within the strict form of the oath, which were scattered over three trunks, was told by the officers that he must pull everything out until he found them, before he could be allowed to pay the one dollar which was to be levied upon them. He went to work amid a low rumble of genuine custom-house oaths from the disgusted officers, who could not comprehend that any man of sense would hesitate to tell one little lie rather than pay a revenue tax.

ABOLITION OF OATHS.

Fifth. We hope that the Commission will consider it within their province to consider the whole subject of custom-house oaths. They are entirely useless, because no dependence whatever is placed upon them, and the custom-house officials are always required to examine and appraise goods themselves; and it is the unanimous testimony of the advocates of protection that custom-house oaths are almost uniformly false. This assertion is continually made by the advocates of specific duties; and the belief of the universality of perjury in custom-house oaths is the only justification that can be assigned for specific duties. Certainly the total absence of reverence and solemnity in the administration of such oaths is eminently calculated to bring them into contempt, and to tempt men into perjury. It is safe to say that not one in a thousand of such oaths is administered with the slightest solemnity or dignity, and not one in a hundred is either read by or to read the person making it. We have ourselves watched the administration of such oaths in a multitude of cases, and can speak with knowledge upon this point. Some of us have witnessed scores of persons making oath to the truth of statements on

papers which they were refused permission to take into their hands, and were not allowed any opportunity to read. Some of these oaths are in a form entirely unauthorized by law and even plainly contrary to the statute. The ingenuity of the Treasury Department is constantly exercised to devise sworn statements which shall deprive importers of even such small privileges as the tariff laws allow them; and the subordinate officers, while acknowledging the justice of complaints made on this ground, dare not pass an oath with the slightest alteration.

The requirement of an oath from every passenger coming into this country is of a very recent date, and was due partly to the narrow-minded clamor of a few importers who fancied that their trade was injured by smuggling, and partly to that unwise passion for uniformity which is apt to infect revisers of statutes. It is ineffectual for any good purpose, is very demoralizing in its influence, degrading to the proper solemnity of an oath, and in every way injurious and useless.

We respectfully submit that a real service would be done to religion and morality by the total abolition of custom-house oaths and the substitution of simple declarations, so far as any such are worth having, with the same provision for the criminal prosecution of false declarations as is now provided for perjury.

A REVENUE TARIFF POSSIBLE WITHOUT PROTECTION.

Sixth. We have thus far dwelt upon points which we hope may not be without weight in the minds of the Commissioners, having purposely avoided every proposition which, in our judgment, is inconsistent with the fundamental doctrines of protection to home industry, as taught by Alexander Hamilton and Henry Clay. We now beg to trespass a little upon the time of the Commissioners in order to state clearly our own position, and to answer some of the questions which we observe have been put, in other places, by some of the Commissioners to free traders appearing before them, and which did not appear to us to be fully answered, although upon this point we may be misled by imperfect reports. In the first place, we will answer the oft-repeated question: "What kind of a tariff could free traders propose that would not be protective and yet would raise as much revenue as ought to be raised by means of a tariff?" The Commissioners will please note that we do not propose to answer the question: "How can money be raised by a non-protective tariff which shall be sufficient to meet *all* the government expenses?" Those expenses are so large that the necessary sum could hardly be raised by any tariff. We do not feel called upon to burden ourselves with the preparation of any tariff scheme which should relieve home-made whisky from taxation. We believe that the mass of the American people, whether free traders or protectionists, are heartily agreed that so long as imported sugar is taxed seventy per cent., home-made whisky and tobacco shall not go free. We therefore assume that the present internal-revenue taxes should be substantially continued, and shall only allow for a reduction in internal revenue of \$20,000,000 to \$30,000,000 at the most. The surplus revenue of the United States for the current year cannot, as we are advised, be less than \$180,000,000, and no one pretends to put it at less than \$150,000,000. We maintain, therefore, that the tariff should be cut down by at least \$130,000,000, which would leave only \$68,000,000 to be raised in this manner. This revenue could be raised by duties upon eight articles, of which only one would be in any reasonable sense a protective duty. These articles are sugar (including molasses), coffee, tea, cocoa, intoxicating liquors, tobacco, fruits, and

spices. These articles would be divided into eleven classes, and we append a table showing the amount of each imported in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1881, and the amount of revenue which would be produced by a duty somewhat lower than is now imposed upon each, except in the case of articles which are now admitted free of duty for the sole purpose of maintaining enormous protective duties on other articles. We give the figures only in round thousands of dollars.

PERMANENT TARIFF.

Articles.	Imports, 1881.	Duty.	Amount of ty.
		<i>Per cent.</i>	
Sugar.....	\$84,281,000	45	\$38,826,000
Molasses.....	7,123,000	30	2,137,000
Tea.....	21,004,000	20	4,200,000
Coffee.....	56,784,000	20	11,356,000
Spirits.....	2,070,000	100	2,070,000
Wines.....	6,071,000	40	2,428,000
Beer, &c.....	758,000	30	227,000
Fruits and nuts.....	12,805,000	25	3,201,000
Tobacco.....	6,271,000	00	3,762,000
Spices.....	1,700,000	50	850,000
Cocoa.....	1,082,000	20	216,000
Total.....			69,403,000

In the above schedule of duties there are but two articles on which the duties are in any sense protective. Those are sugar and molasses. But inasmuch as by far the larger part of the sugar and molasses used here is of foreign origin, the greatest proportion of the tax paid upon these articles goes into the Treasury of the United States; unlike the tax upon iron, cottons, and woollens, more than three-fourths of which goes into private pockets. We do not, therefore, feel called upon to devise a tariff scheme more free from all elements of protection than this. It might indeed be completely deprived of its protective features; but we do not think that perfect consistency can be expected in the preparation of so clumsy an instrument for collecting a national revenue, as the best of tariffs must always be.

Recognizing, however, that so sweeping a change as would be in the adoption of such a tariff as is here suggested would be deemed by a great majority of the community unjust to vested interests if adopted suddenly, we should not propose it for immediate enactment, even if we supposed that the Commission would listen to it with favor. But, in deference to public sentiment, we should propose for some years to come to supplement this general scheme by a duty of 25 per cent. ad valorem on all manufactured iron, steel, cotton, woolen, silk, and linen, which, upon the basis of the importations for the fiscal year 1881, would yield a revenue of nearly \$40,000,000, and which, therefore, during that period would make it unnecessary to impose any duties on tea, coffee, and cocoa, and would leave a large annual surplus applicable to the payment of the public debt. This, in our judgment, would be a fair and liberal compromise between the advocates of free trade and protection, and one which is more liberal to the protected interests than they will get at the end of a few years' agitation, when the eyes of the people are opened to the impositions which have been practiced upon them for the last twenty years.

PROVISIONAL TARIFF.

Iron and steel.....	\$46,439,000	
Cotton manufactures.....	31,219,000	
Woolen manufactures.....	31,156,000	
Silk manufactures.....	32,056,000	
Linen, &c., manufactures....	16,159,000	
Total.....	157,029,000	25 per cent. = \$39,257,000
Total of both tariffs.....		103,660,000

ALL TARIFFS OBJECTIONABLE.

Seventh. This is the only opportunity that Congress has ever afforded for a free and public statement of the wishes and beliefs of their constituents upon the question of free trade. And, therefore, without intending to weary the Commissioners by an argument to which, as we are aware, they cannot consistently yield, we beg to state a few of the reasons why we are opposed, not only to protective tariffs, but to all tariffs whatsoever.

PROTECTION IS ROBBERY.

1. As to all *protective* tariffs, we hold them to be simply robbery under the forms of law. We by no means accuse those who believe in the doctrine of protection of any intention to rob or to sympathize with robbery. Some of us have in our own time been firm believers in protection; although none of us ever knowingly benefited personally by the system. We perfectly understand that the great majority of its supporters act from patriotic motives, and that many of them maintain it from the belief that it is good for their country, while convinced that it is not good for themselves. Nevertheless, we respectfully insist that the honest mistake of a good man who unknowingly assists one man to plunder another does not change the character of the action, although it may vindicate the character of the man.

Every protective duty is designed to take money out of the pocket of one citizen in order to put it into the pocket of another who has not legitimately earned it. It is taking the property of one person for the private use of another; and this has been condemned in so many words as simple robbery by the Supreme Court of the United States, in a comparatively recent decision. Taxation is the taking of private property for *public* use, and is justifiable upon every ground of morals. But a protective duty is imposed for the very purpose of making the amount taken from us for public use as small as possible, and compelling us to pay to the protected producer, for his private use, as large an amount as possible. This scheme has been carried out with so much success that, for several years, the United States were entirely deprived of revenue from several important manufactured articles, upon which large amounts of duties would have been collected had they been fixed at moderate rates; while the home manufacturers profited to an immense amount by reason of the prohibitory duties imposed upon these goods. Of these, steel rails are a notable example. When an attempt was made to reduce these duties, about three years ago, a number of railroad presidents signed a memorial to Congress praying for the retention of the \$28 tax on high patriotic grounds; although that tax injuriously affected the railroads which they managed, and had for several years produced only a contemptible revenue to the United States of a few hundred dollars per annum. These patriotic railroad presidents were almost all, if not all, the owners of large amounts of stock in rail-making mills, and were

simply taking from the corporations over which they presided a profit of about \$20 on every ton of rails laid upon their roads. Hence their patriotic views and the self-denying air with which they appeared before the public as preferring to suffer some loss of dividends rather than see the odious foreigner allowed to dump his rails upon our sacred soil. These railroad presidents served their respective corporations at very moderate salaries, as well they might, when the profit which they derived from furnishing rails alone amounted in some cases to more than ten times the amount of their salaries. Now we have no doubt that many stockholders in these corporations admired the patriotism of their presidents, and heartily indorsed their self-denying memorial to Congress. But this does not alter the moral quality of the act; nor does the sympathy of ignorant stockholders in a corporation or citizens in a community, even if they were a majority, transform the robbery of the minority by their aid into an innocent act.

INDIRECT TAXES UNJUST TO THE POOR.

2. But there is a radical objection to all tariffs and all systems of indirect taxation. All such taxes, from their very nature, bear with tremendous hardship on the poor, who constitute the great mass of every community. They are assessed upon the expenditure of each person, instead of his realized property or even his income. Carefully compiled statistics show that nearly 95 per cent. of the American people, prosperous as they are compared with others, do not earn more than \$500 a year to each working person, and average less than \$400. It can be demonstrated by a simple calculation that the existing methods of indirect taxation consume eighty per cent. of all that this vast mass of people are able to save from their earnings; while the same system takes less than twenty per cent. of the savings of a prosperous merchant, banker, or New York lawyer, such as the delegates who now attend before the Commission, and less than two per cent. of the savings of several railroad presidents.

Probably two-thirds of this enormous discrepancy is due to the protective features of the tariff; but under any system of indirect taxation the poor will always pay three or four times their just share. Although ourselves members of the favored class, and well aware that, under direct taxation, we should bear a far larger share of the public burdens than we do now, we earnestly condemn this injustice, and hope to live long enough to see it brought to an end.

INDIRECT TAXES CORRUPT THE GOVERNMENT.

3. Another serious objection to all indirect taxation is that it continually leads governments into extravagance and corruption. It does this in two ways: by concealing from the people the real amount which they pay in taxes, and by raising up private interests which can afford to spend millions rather than to permit taxation to be reduced.

Under direct taxation every man knows just what he pays; and he is naturally interested in keeping extravagance out of the public finances. Under indirect taxation no one knows exactly what he is paying, and vast sums may be wasted without exciting any strong opposition. Of course this is an argument in favor of such taxation among those who want to plunder the Treasury, but it ought to be an almost conclusive argument against it among all honest men.

Again, direct taxation can be and is reduced, instantly upon its being

found that it is in excess of the public needs. No one is injured by such reduction, and the rate may vary every year without disturbing commerce or manufactures. But indirect taxation breeds a swarm of "private interests," which depend upon the maintenance of these taxes for their special profits, and bring influence and money to bear in support of taxes which are not needed for any public use. Thus the internal tax on matches has so changed the whole basis of their manufacture, that the persons who in the first instance pay the tax are the bitterest opponents of its repeal. And it is notorious that the tariff has for years been kept at a rate enormously in excess of the needs of government by the struggle of persons who theoretically are tax-payers, but who practically are tax-eaters. An unhealthy, unsound business grows up around each tariff tax, the managers of which are terrified by the least opposition for reduction in the taxes nominally levied for the public benefit, but actually kept up for mere private advantage.

No better illustration of this can be given than the state of the Federal Treasury to-day. With an utterly unnecessary surplus of over \$150,000,000, rice-growers, salt-makers, silk-makers, watch-makers, pipe-makers, potters, peanut peddlers, iron miners, iron-makers, wool-growers, men who have little chalk farms, and men who have none but expect to find one soon, clamor for an actual increase of taxation, willing that the people at large should be taxed millions of dollars if only these greedy, grasping creatures can gain a few more sixpences. Thank God that there are at least two classes of business men, and those the very ones most universally abused and suspected of selfish motives—lawyers and stock-brokers—not one of whom has come forward to ask for any share in this general scheme of public plunder.

UNFORESEEN EFFECTS OF INDIRECT TAXES.

4. Still another grave objection to all indirect taxes, and especially to protective ones, is that their unforeseen effects are always more or less injurious, and frequently most disastrous. The mysterious consequences of any interference with the course of nature have long been a favorite subject of study to scientific men; and during the long struggle for life of our late honored President, all the nation became familiar with a striking illustration of them. It was observed that the injury to his spine caused more pain in his feet than anywhere else. Just so the interference with natural laws, caused by indirect taxes, is sure to produce results which no human wisdom could foresee. Monopolies arise where least intended by the legislature. Industries which were meant to derive benefit are suddenly ruined. That which was meant as a bounty to one class turns out to be for the exclusive benefit of another. Whole branches of manufactures are destroyed or prevented from ever coming into existence by taxes which were never meant to have any such effect.

Let us give a very few illustrations. In Great Britain the malt tax has always been regarded by farmers as a burden falling almost entirely upon them. But when the genius of Mr. Gladstone devised a means of relief from this tax, which the duller wits of the farmers' chosen friends had never discovered, it was found that the methods employed to collect the malt tax had prevented brewers from using any substitutes for malt; whereas, when the tax was repealed, substitutes for malt were at once made available to such an extent that the farmers now complain that the remedy was as bad as the disease. The excise duties on soap hampered the manufacture to such a degree that no good common soap

was ever made in England until the tax was removed. The duties on paper prevented the application of paper to many uses now familiar. So, in our own country, the imposition of an internal-revenue tax of 5 per cent. on manufactures, although accompanied by an increase of 50 per cent. in customs duties, drove large branches of manufactures entirely out of our country, except for urgent and instant demands, because it was found that the customs duty was paid only once, while the excise duty rolled up again and again with each successive step of manufacture. The worsted manufacture in America was created by the low duties on wool imposed in 1857; it was nearly killed by one of the later tariffs intended to help the wool manufacture generally, and was revived by further legislation. Under free wool it would always have prospered without help. The taxes on sugar and tin-plates prevent us from exporting milk, although milk is cheaper here than in the countries from which we now import condensed milk. But they get the sugar, without which the condensed article cannot be made, free of duty, and our manufacturers do not. The present tariff on wool was devised for the special benefit of sheep-owners in Vermont, New York, Ohio, and Iowa, and without a dream of benefiting Texas, New Mexico, or California. But there are fewer sheep in the first four States together, than there were when the new tariff was adopted; and all the benefit of the wool tariff has gone to the Southwestern States and Territories, which never asked for it and do not now want it.

We thank you, gentlemen, for your polite attention, and hope that you may be able to adopt some part of our earlier suggestions, and that in no case will you increase any of the duties now levied, and which are conceded to be already far in excess of any needs of the public revenue.

I beg to submit, for the consideration of the Commission, the following schedule of specific suggestions:

AMENDMENTS TO THE UNITED STATES REVISED STATUTES.

I. Section 2779 to read as follows:

In order to ascertain what articles belonging to persons arriving in the United States are to be exempted from duty, due entry thereof, as of other merchandise, but separate and distinct from any other merchandise imported from a foreign country, shall be made by the owner thereof, or his agent, with the collector of the district in which the articles are intended to be landed, expressing the persons by whom or for whom such entry is made, particularizing the several packages and their contents, with their marks and numbers; and the person who shall make the entry shall subscribe the same, and may be required by the collector to take and subscribe [an oath] a solemn declaration in the following form:

"I, A. B., do solemnly, sincerely, and truly declare that the foregoing entry contains, to the best of my knowledge and belief, a just and true account of the contents of the several packages therein mentioned; that such packages contain no merchandise whatever other than wearing apparel, personal baggage, professional books, implements, instruments, and tools of trade, occupation, or employment, except other merchandise, not exceeding in value \$250; that they are all the property of [naming the person], who has arrived or is shortly expected to arrive in the United States, and that no part thereof is directly or indirectly intended for sale."

II. Section 2800 to read as follows:

Whenever the person making an entry under the last section is not the owner of the articles specified in such entry, and the duties on such articles, when imported as ordinary merchandise, would exceed \$100, he shall give a bond, with one or more sufficient sureties, to the satisfaction of the collector, in a sum equal to such duties, upon the condition that the owner of the articles shall, within one year, personally make [an oath] a declaration such as is prescribed in the last section.

III. Section 2801 to read as follows:

On compliance with the two preceding sections, and not otherwise, a permit shall be granted for landing such articles. But whenever the collector and the naval officer think proper, they may direct the baggage of any person arriving within the United States to be examined by the surveyor of the port, or by an inspector of the customs, who shall make a return of the same; and if any articles are contained therein which ought not to be exempted from duty, due entry of them shall be made and the duties thereon paid; and when baggage so examined is in the immediate custody of the owner, the collector and the naval officer may, if they think proper, dispense with the entries required by the two preceding sections.

IV. Section 2805 to read as follows:

All [oaths and] declarations to be taken under the provisions of this chapter may be administered by the collector or officer to or with whom the report of entry is made, or by any person authorized by the laws of the United States or of the particular State to administer oaths; and they shall be reduced to writing and subscribed by the person taking and by the person administering the [oath or] declaration.

V. Section 2505.—For “wearing apparel,” &c., substitute as follows:

Wearing apparel in actual use, and other personal effects (not merchandise), professional books, implements, instruments, and tools of trade, occupation, or employment, of persons arriving in the United States, and, in addition thereto, all other articles belonging to any such person not exceeding in value \$250; but this exemption shall not be construed to include machinery or other articles imported for use in any manufacturing establishment for sale.

Insert as follows:

Books in print or manuscript.
Newspapers and periodicals.
Photographs.
Pictures on paper.

If all books are not admitted free, then insert:

Books in other languages than English.
Books, single copies, not intended for sale; and all such books received by mail shall be delivered without entry.

VI. “Strike out the word “oath” wherever it occurs, and substitute “solemn declaration.”

REDFIELD PROCTOR.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

Mr. REDFIELD PROCTOR, of Sutherland Falls, Vt., addressed the Commission as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMISSION: The producers of American marble ask substantially a continuance of the present duty upon marble, with only such slight modifications as are necessary to simplify the collection of duties, prevent evasions, and carry out the real intention of the law. With this brief preliminary statement, I will read the paper I have prepared:

“The undersigned, producers of American marble, respectfully submit the following statement. It refers mainly to the duty on ‘veined and all other marble in block, rough or squared, not otherwise specified,’ as veined Italian blocks are the important item and in a great measure govern the duty to be fixed on other items:

“This duty should not be reduced on account of—

“First. The importance of the interest.

“The capital invested in the production of American marble in the States of Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Tennessee is at least \$12,000,000; two-thirds of this in quarries and one-third in mills and other improvements.

“There are also valuable deposits, which have been partially developed, and will be largely used in a short time, if the present tariff is not reduced, in the States of Virginia, Georgia, Alabama, California, Iowa, Missouri, Colorado, and no doubt in other new States.

“We estimate the number of workmen engaged to be 6,000, of which number we think one-half should be classed as skilled laborers, being engaged in operating and managing machinery.

“The amount of annual production is about 2,200,000 cubic feet, or over 20,000 car-loads, and the value \$4,500,000. This is five times the number of cubic feet and three times the total value delivered in our port, duty paid, of all marble imported per year.

“Second. The protection of labor.

“It is a great fallacy to call block marble raw material. The value of block marble represents almost entirely labor. The raw material in the mountains in Italy is of little value, but the cost of the blocks is measured by the labor required to blast them out from the mountain, prepare them for market, and move them to the seaboard.

“In this country also an undeveloped marble quarry is of little value, and it is fair to say that the present value of our quarries represents what has been expended in developing them.

“We estimate 80 per cent. of this value as labor, 15 per cent. machinery, and 5 per cent. as marble in the ledge. It cost from \$40,000 to \$75,000 to get the first salable marble from a Vermont quarry.

“The number of days’ labor required in quarrying a block of either Italian or American marble is from two to four times greater than is required in sawing the same block and preparing it for market by the (American) mill-owner.

“Third. The duty protects our skilled labor and the use of machinery against the cheap common labor of Italy.

"We are obliged to use expensive machinery, even under the present tariff, to compete with the cheap labor of Italy.

"The marble there is blasted out, tumbled down the mountain, and roughly dressed by hand, and loaded on carts to be drawn to the vessels, not even a derrick being used until it reaches the sea-port.

"Here it is cut from the quarries entirely by machinery. We estimate the value of the machinery used for quarrying marble alone in this country to be \$1,200,000. Large companies have been formed and do an extensive business in the manufacture of this machinery alone. There are different kinds of machines used in quarrying, and most of the valuable ones were invented and first introduced here at the quarries; but they are adapted to other uses, and are even now extensively used in quarrying limestone, sandstone, and other building stones, and also in mining operations in the Pacific States.

"Our quarries require skilled labor to manage this machinery. We pay for labor of all classes an average of \$1.75 per day. The Italian quarrymen pay less than one-third of this, and they have no capital in quarrying machinery. They are, however, now introducing improved machinery in marble mills and shops, and doubtless will soon do so in quarries. When they do this, our present protection will come far short of putting us on an equality with them."

In regard to this question of labor, our late consul at Carrara, Italy, Mr. Welsh (that consulship having been within the last few months attached to the Leghorn consulate), prepared an article for Scribner's Magazine, which was published in the June number. He gives the price of labor for the men who prepare the blocks of marble at from 25 to 35 cents a day, and of the workmen who do the blasting at 45 cents a day, a day's work beginning at sunrise and lasting until sunset. Our cheapest labor is \$1.35, and the average is \$1.75 a day. He also gives in his article the cost of living of the Italian workmen. He has to travel 5 or 6 miles, perhaps, to his labor, and carries with him (as I can testify from personal observation during the last few months) nothing but a piece of bread for his dinner; many of them have for breakfast only a piece of bread, and for supper some vegetables or cauliflower; wine and meat being great luxuries, and so, even, is macaroni. I have within the last month brought some of the most skillful carvers from Carrara, paid all their expenses, and agreed to give them \$2 a day during the winter, and \$2.25 or more as soon as spring opens. They were getting 70 cents a day at home. We are paying American laborers \$2.50 to \$3 a day, and they will be able to earn this amount of wages as soon as they learn our language.

"Fourth. Protection cheapens the price of the lower grades of marble, which are used by people of small means for cemetery work, and are also used for building.

"The American quarries, while producing some marble better, and commanding a higher price than the veined Italian, have much that is not adapted to the best work, but which, owing to the formation of the deposit, must be quarried in order to get the better grades.

"This cheaper marble is sold at prices which would not pay for production alone, and can only be produced where some portion of the marble commands a higher price. The Italian averages about the same as the best half of the American. (See price list.)

"A reduction in tariff checking the production of this better marble would reduce the production of the cheaper, and enhance its price and prevent its use for building and many common purposes.

"Importations are mainly controlled by three firms, and if the pro-

duction of American marble was checked, these firms could control the price, and the reduction of their duty would merely increase their profits and probably eventually enhance the price of Italian.

"To show the working of the present tariff and its effect on the price of the lower grades of marble, we give the list price for a series of years of No. 3 Sutherland Falls and Rutland marble, of which grades the largest amount is used :

Years.	No. 3 Sutherland Falls.	No. 3 Rutland.
1866.....	\$2 35 to \$3 00
1870.....	2 00 to 2 25
1872.....	1 75 to 2 25	\$1 75 to \$2 50
1873.....	1 50 to 2 00	1 75 to 2 25
1876.....	1 00 to 1 75	1 75 to 2 00
1877.....	1 00 to 1 50	1 50 to 2 00
1878 and 1879.....	1 00 to 1 50	1 50 to 2 00
1880.....	1 00 to 1 50	1 00 to 2 00
1881.....	1 00 to 1 50	1 00 to 2 00
1882.....	1 25 to 1 75	1 25 to 2 50

"This does not fully represent the actual reduction, as we give better marble for the same grade. The price of better grades has also been reduced, but not in so large a percentage.

"It is true by accurate statistics that the average price of our entire production of all grades at the present time is at least 40 per cent. lower than in the years 1867 to 1873. The classes of marble which come nearer being a necessity are made cheaper by the duty.

"Fifth. Marble is a proper subject for duty.

"Italian marble is an article of luxury. We produce marble so nearly like the veined Italian that it is used for the same purposes. The arts, manufactures, or the people at large would not suffer if Italian was not brought in at all; only those engaged in its importation and sale would be losers; and under the present tariff their business is brisk and increasing.

"Sixth. The duty does not restrain trade and is not above the proper point for revenue. The importations prove this. They have increased under the present tariff.

"Large importations were made in 1864, before the present tariff took effect, to avoid the increased duty, and to such an extent that in July, 1864, there was on the docks in New York a supply of Italian marble six months ahead of the demand.

"The revenue from this source for the year previous to the present tariff at the port of New York was \$43,390.40, but under the first year of the tariff, ending June 30, 1865, it was \$81,855.21, or nearly double, notwithstanding the excessive importations to avoid it. From July 1, 1865 to January 1, 1867, it was \$198,064.60.

"We have no complete returns previous to 1867, but from 1867 to 1874 there was a steady increase of importation of from 294,000 cubic feet in 1867 to over 450,000, or more than 50 per cent. for the seven years.

"In 1877, 1878, and 1879, importations were somewhat reduced, but not so much as was the production of American marble, by the hard times. Nor was it reduced so much as the increase had been for the seven previous years.

"Since 1879 the importations have been steadily increasing, and last year were about the same as they were before the panic of 1878. The

present year imports are increasing, as all the importers agree. The following attached slip is cut from the Marble Reporter for September, and was furnished, as we are informed, by an importer, and we presume represents the facts:

*“Great increase of Italian marble.—*In looking over a list of exports from Leghorn, we notice the following in Italian marble: Total from January 1, 1882, to July 31, 1882, 16,560 tons, against the same time last year, 8,740 tons; being nearly double for the seven months of 1882. The mills are all crowded with orders, and prospects for a good fall trade are very flattering.

“Seventh. The rise of our currency to par value has been a practical reduction of the duty. When the present tariff went into operation, gold was at a high premium, which afforded much higher protection.

“Eighth. The freight paid on Italian marble is no protection to us, for the reason that our freights average about the same to Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago as they do from Italy to those points; while to Baltimore and southern points, or to California, we pay more.

“Ninth. Reducing the duty would not help American manufacturers of Italian marble. Absolute free trade would be but little help to offset cheap Italian labor. In fact the United States are the great consumers of marble, using the whole of our production and being also probably the largest consumers of foreign marble.”

We have always heard from importers that we use more Italian marble than any other country. This article which I have referred to gives the total production of Carrara marble at 150,000 tons a year, and says that of that amount 25,000 tons, or one-sixth, is sent to the United States. But our government returns here show that from 35,000 to 40,000 tons are annually sent here.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. How many cubic feet is that?—Answer. Something over 400,000 cubic feet of this veined Italian marble.

Q. You state that the product of the American quarries is about 2,000,000 feet a year.—A. Yes, sir; about that; but not more than one-half of that is really competing with Italian marble. Some of the men engaged in the foreign trade have claimed that the duty ought to be reduced so that they could manufacture marble in this country; so that they could bring in the Italian marble and manufacture it here. I want to say to you that that is an entire fallacy; it is utterly impossible. Free trade would not help them to do that. With a large premium they could not compete with the cheap labor of Italy. We are the great consumers of marble. Even people in moderate circumstances in this country are consumers of a great deal of marble, which is not the case elsewhere in other countries.

“The West Indies and South America use very little. It is the trade of this country that is sought for by Italian producers. The effect of free trade in marble in England has been to stop mills and lessen the work there and transfer it to Italy.”

That I have directly from the London dealers. Fabricotti's mills have stopped as well as others; and the quarry-men of Italy told me that they could not even afford to saw it in London, but bring it all in there in the slab.

“Tenth. We have invested our money and gathered a large force of employes on the faith of a governmental policy which protected us to a

certain extent against almost the cheapest labor in the world. It would be manifestly unjust to deprive us of that protection.

"Our investments are several times larger than those of American capital in the importation of Italian, and our capital is local and restricted in its use, and, being mainly invested in quarrying, is of little value except for this business, while theirs would suffer little, even from a restrictive duty, as it could be used for other purposes.

"Eleventh. The results of the protection have been greatly to the advantage of the country in many ways. Besides what we have referred to, it has led to the development of many new enterprises in marble and is of greater importance to them than to those whose trade is well established.

"The business is now going on prosperously for the Italian importers as well as for the American producers, and a reduction of the duty would disturb trade, do harm in all ways and good in none.

"We ask further that so far as practicable where the duty is a compound one the ad valorem part should be changed to its equivalent specific duty. In the case of veined blocks we ask that the duty be made 75 cents per cubic foot specific, which is nearly an equivalent of the present duty, and veined blocks are so nearly of uniform value that a specific duty is just and equitable. They are almost universally imported by the cargo, each cargo representing the average production of the quarries. It cannot evade specific duty. It has in the past, by undervaluations, evaded a just ad valorem duty. This point of specific duty is admitted by the importers and requires no argument.

"The duty on manufactures of marble might, without substantial change of the amount, be made partly specific, by case measurement to guard against undervaluation, and we would suggest \$3 per cubic foot and 30 per cent. ad valorem."

"Pedestals should not be rated as part of the statue, as they now are under a ruling of the Treasury. They are very rarely works of art, and we believe frauds have been committed by importing large monuments as pedestals at 10 per cent. and selling them as monuments. See report of Special Agent Bingham to Treasury Department.

"We submit herewith schedule of present rates with amendments we would suggest.

"Want of time prevented our getting the signatures of producers in other States or of all in this State, but we speak from some knowledge of their views and necessities and have no doubt they would concur."

This is signed by a dozen or fifteen firms in Vermont. I wish to submit with that a statement of the present classification of and duty on marble, with a memorandum under each class of what we would recommend.

CHANGES RECOMMENDED IN THE CLASSIFICATION OF AND DUTY ON MARBLE.

White statuary, brocatella, Siena, and verd-antique, in blocks, rough or square.

• *Present duty.*—\$1 per cubic foot; in addition thereto 25 per cent. ad valorem.

We recommend a specific duty at least the equivalent of the present compound duty, and that the classification be enlarged to embrace "Bardiglio," "French blue," "Belgium black," "Lisbon," "Egyptian,"

“Griotte,” Vert Moulin, Siam Colin, Breccia, Bungard, &c., and all other ornamental marbles known as “colored variegated marbles.” We suggest \$2 per cubic foot as a fair equivalent of the present compound duty.

Veined marble and marble of all other descriptions not otherwise provided for, in blocks, rough or square.

Present duty.—50 cents per cubic foot, and in addition thereto 20 per cent. ad valorem.

We recommend a specific duty of 75 cents per cubic foot, this being nearly the equivalent of the present compound duty; the “importers” having heretofore expressed a desire for this duty in preference to the present one.

Sawed, dressed, or polished marble, marble slabs, and marble paving tiles.

Present duty.—25 cents per superficial square foot not exceeding 2 inches in thickness. If more than 2 inches in thickness, 10 cents per foot in addition to the above rates for each inch or fractional part thereof in excess of 2 inches in thickness, but if exceeding 6 inches in thickness such marble shall be subject to the duty imposed on marble blocks.

We recommend that the last clause limiting the classification to slabs 6 inches in thickness, or under, be stricken out, and all sawed marble be subjected to the above duty.

All manufactures of marble not otherwise provided for.

Present duty.—50 per cent. ad valorem.

We recommend a specific duty of \$3 per cubic foot, inside case measurement, and 25 per cent. ad valorem. The Wood tariff bill made this 75 per cent. ad valorem.

I make that suggestion on the strength of the government returns, which show that for recent years the duty of \$1 per cubic foot and 25 per cent. has amounted to nearly \$2 per cubic foot, and has been constantly rising; showing that the tendency is to import more and more of the higher-priced fancy marbles. These marbles do not specially compete with ours, as ours are of the staple kind. But America has a richer collection of these variegated marbles than all the rest of the world. I believe there are quarries in Maryland, and in other States, where they have verd-antique that is far ahead of anything produced in foreign countries, and I think in Missouri, near Saint Genovieve, and in Tennessee, also, if the mines could be developed, we have a marble far superior for these purposes to any foreign marble. We ask this particularly in order to obtain simplification. These other kinds or classes of marble are not included in the present law, but should be. They belong to the class of fancy variegated marbles used for highly ornamental work, and they should be included with brocatella, sienna, and verd-antique, instead of being left to come in under the clause of ordinary veined Italian, which includes all other descriptions not otherwise provided for. That general provision takes in marble which should properly go in the other class.

Veined marble is the great item which I have been referring to. The present duty is 50 cents a cubic foot, and 20 per cent. ad valorem. We recommend a specific duty of 75 cents per cubic foot, this being nearly

the equivalent of the present compound duty; we think it is a cent or two less. The importers have heretofore expressed a desire for this duty in preference to the present one; that was near the close of the session in the last Congress. The importers had been subjected to some trouble, as they claim; several cargoes were seized—two in Boston and two here—charged with being undervalued. The marble had been mostly sent on consignment, and there was some uncertainty about the valuation. I do not claim that they assented to that as a satisfactory duty to them; but they assented to it as the equivalent of the present duty, and admitted that it might be a cent or two less. But it did not vary enough, so that all parties said it was a fair equivalent of the present duty.

Sawed, dressed or polished marble pays a present duty of 25 cents per superficial square foot, not exceeding 2 inches in thickness; if more than 2 inches, 10 cents per foot additional for each inch in excess. If it exceeds 6 inches in thickness, it is subject to the duty imposed on marble blocks. We recommend that this last provision in regard to slabs in excess of 6 inches in thickness be stricken out and all sawed marble be subject to the same duty.

There is no kind of reason why slabs exceeding 6 inches in thickness should not be subject to the same duty as thinner slabs. The tendency of the trade is constantly to the use of thicker marble, and in sawed marbles all come in under the same class.

All manufactures of marble not otherwise provided for pay a duty of 50 per cent. ad valorem at present. We recommend a specific duty of \$3 per cubic foot inside case measurement, and 25 per cent. ad valorem. The Wood tariff bill made that 75 per centum ad valorem.

There are some other points mentioned, which I have not read, and one is a ruling which I believe now prevails in the Treasury Department, that pedestals shall be treated as part of a statue. They are very rarely works of art, but mere manufactures; and, as we believe, frauds have been committed on the revenue by importing what were really monuments, and what were sold as monuments, as pedestals of statuary. I would refer you to the report of Special Agent Bingham, of Boston, to the Treasury Department in regard to these violations of the law. I meant to have had an exact copy of his report made, but I was not able to get it. I believe that he proved that such violations of the law had occurred. So far as the rate of wages in Italy is concerned, the government reports corroborate what I have quoted here from our consul.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. Do any of our quarries produce statuary marble of sufficient fineness and in sufficiently large blocks for the use of the sculptor?—Answer. Yes, sir; it is considerably used and would be much more, except for the fact that artists reside in Italy on account of the skilled labor they are able to obtain there. Mr. Mead and Mr. Powers have both expressed to me the highest opinion of Vermont marble for statuary purposes, and I ask them why they did not come to America and use it. They replied that they must have men to do their work from their designs, who had been trained to the business from youth, and they could not find such men in this country. Our marble is quite as white and fine looking; but it is not quite as hard. Mr. Mead has executed some life-size statues in it.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. You spoke of exporting marble, I believe. Is there any marble exported from this country now?—A. Very little of it, I said, had been

done. We have sent some to Australia. Australia uses more marble probably than all South America, and they are supplied mostly from Europe. We have sent several shipments to London within the last two years, several cargoes, but there is no prospect of building up any business there, for the reason that America consumes as much marble as all the rest of the world together.

Q. What I wanted to ascertain was the comparative prices; how it was that you could export. Was that marble sold at the same price which you get for marble here?—A. Yes, sir; it was, because it was a little different class of marble. It came in as a white marble adapted, for instance, to nice mantel work, and was between the price and quality of Italian statuary and Italian veined marble. It was a white marble which we could sell at a little less price than the highest Italian statuary marble. What was sent to London was in slabs mostly for mantel work, tablets in walls, &c. But there has been no trade established, and there is but little chance of establishing it.

Q. Why?—A. Because they can get mantels so cheaply from Italy that it covers pretty much all the ground.

Q. That was the very thing I was endeavoring to ascertain; whether you were enabled to meet competition in those markets at prices that would pay you?—A. No, sir. The amount of trade is so much less in any foreign country than it is in this, that it is not worth competing for now.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. For what uses do they import marble, generally?—A. This great item of veined blocks is used largely for marble mantels, furniture marbles, for monuments, and for cemetery work. I think the use here for the latter purpose is rather diminishing. It has not been found to stand our climate as well as the American marble, and the same is true in regard to foreign granites.

Q. What is the product of the American quarries used for?—A. We, perhaps, furnish as much as the foreign quarries do in thin marbles for furniture and mantels. We supply more for cemetery work, and probably supply about the same amount that would grade with theirs; that is, of the same price. Besides that, we supply a great deal of this cheaper marble for ordinary cemetery work. Then, too, we supply an immense amount of building marble; probably one-half of the total production of the country goes into building marble; none of that is brought in. That is sold here at a price that would not pay for the freight from Italy. The quarries in Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut, and also those up here at Tuckahoe, Westchester County, and in Western Massachusetts and Vermont, supply an immense amount of building marble.

Q. Is all that included in your estimate of 2,000,000 cubic feet?—A. Yes, sir. The class which would compete with the Italian would be just about half our production.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. It has been stated to us that should the duty on marble be fixed at 50 cents a cubic foot, it would undoubtedly benefit the marble business of the country generally. What is your opinion in regard to that subject, as to whether it would or not be a benefit?—A. I have stated that case as fairly as I can already. I have said that I think it would merely add 25 cents a cubic foot to the profits of three or four firms engaged in importing Italian marble. That business is mainly controlled

by one firm here and one firm in Boston. A member of one of these firms, residing in Italy, was our consul at Carrara; but, some cargoes of marble having been seized here, and the question of undervaluation arising, he was either removed or resigned, and Mr. Welsh was appointed in his place. The result of Mr. Welsh's appointment seemed to be an increase in the valuation of the importations. The business of these importing houses is increasing under the present duty. The importers admit that at present their imports are large and their business flourishing.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. You have said that the American artists who are abroad do not use your marble for statuary, although it is as good as the Italian marble, on account of the fact that the skilled labor which they require cannot be procured in this country?—A. I stated that Mr. Larkin G. Mead, the artist, and Mr. Powers, of Florence, gave me that as a reason, last winter.

Q. They are Americans?—A. Yes, sir; both of them.

Q. What I want to ascertain is this: whether there is any reason why that skilled labor cannot be brought to this country, and other skilled labor trained here for the purpose of working this statuary marble into statues?—A. That, perhaps, may come about in time; but on account of the higher cost of living here, and the higher rate of wages, we cannot compete with foreign labor in this branch.

Q. Is there any other reason, except the cost of living, why laborers could not be brought here and our laborers trained, if you have marbles suitable for statuary? I have an idea that it ought to be formed and fashioned here by the artists. Now, could not the skilled labor necessary to assist in doing that be brought here and our workmen trained to do it?—A. It would be a work of many years to train our workmen. As I have stated, I have been trying to bring some of them here. I have just brought to this country half a dozen of the best workmen I could select in Carrara.

In reference to the use of American marble in statuary, I will state that Mr. Mead's heroic size statue of Ethan Allen in our Vermont State house is made of Vermont marble, and it is quite as white, and probably whiter, than if made of Italian marble, and it stands exposure to the weather better. The Italian productions have to be covered to protect them from the weather. Perhaps some of the members of the Commission may have noticed some of the Italian statuary about the Capitol at Washington. There is one figure on the east front of the Capitol, a very large one, I do not recollect the subject now; but it is nearly all in pieces. In Carrara they cover the statuary with sheds, because the sun and water (there is no frost to speak of there) has such a bad effect on it. The most of our marble is a little softer and will not stand the sharp work of the chisel on the fine lines of statues—the eyelashes and the beard, for instances—although the layers are growing harder as we go into the earth, and some of them are about as hard as the foreign marble. There is a bust by Greenough in the Boston Latin School, on Warren avenue, Boston, or in that part of the city, and I have heard the opinion expressed that the marble was superior to any Italian marble that was ever bought. I do not claim that, for all statuary purposes, it is quite equal to the Italian marble; it is not quite so hard, but, as far as looks are concerned, I think it is quite equal. All the ornamental mantels of the country, and all works of that kind that you see here, are almost exclusively made of American marble.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. I am not satisfied with the reason given by these artists for not employing American labor.

The WITNESS. Mr. Mead's words to me were these: "We have here workmen who can take our models and execute them so that we have no anxiety on our part. They are trained from the time they are able to handle a chisel, and the business is handed down from father to son."

Commissioner OLIVER. That is to say, it is a business that has descended in families for hundreds of years?

The WITNESS. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Is there any physical or intellectual defect in our people which would prevent their being trained to do this same work?—A. No, sir; but I suppose the reason is that there are other kinds of business here that will pay better.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. It is a question of wages, I suppose, rather than anything else?—A. Yes, sir; these Italians cling to their own country, and dislike to leave it; and when they come here and have accumulated about a couple of thousand dollars, they want to go back to their warm sunny climate and to their macaroni. They do not like our style of living.

W. B. HOYT.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

The following supplementary statement of changes in the existing tariff, recommended by Mr. W. B. HOYT, assistant appraiser, New York, was ordered to be printed:

Name of article.	Section of tariff.	Present rate of duty.	Proposed rate of duty.	Reasons for proposed changes.
Buttons, lastings, &c...	1357	10 per cent.	Various.....	The difficulty of determining when certain fabrics are so cut "as to be fit for buttons exclusively", affords opportunity for fraud on the one hand, or for unjust classification on the other. The interests involved are not large, and this section might be eliminated.
Bonnets, hats, &c.....	1200	40 per cent.	40 per cent.....	The distinction between the articles named and caps is so indefinite that "caps" should be inserted after "hats". Insert "similar" before "material" in the third line.
Embroidery.....	1264	35 per cent.	Various.....	Under the operation of this section the legitimate duties on the fabrics named may be avoided. I can see no satisfactory reason for its continuance in any form.
Feathers, ornamental and artificial flowers.	1271	50 per cent.	50 per cent.....	Bird skins, with the feathers remaining upon them, are largely imported. To prevent ambiguity, insert after "ornamental", in the first line, "and bird skins with plumage".
Flowers, natural.....	1577	Free.....	20 per cent.....	When evidently imported for ornamental uses they might be subject to a duty of, say, 20 per cent.
Fur.....	1283	35 per cent.	35 per cent.....	Strike out "or of which fur shall be a component material". This sentence embraces too much.
Gloves, kid, &c.....	1287	50 per cent.	Valued at not more than \$5 per dozen, \$2 per dozen; valued at more than \$5 per dozen and less than \$12 per dozen, \$4 per dozen; valued at more than \$12 per dozen, \$7 per dozen.	The ad valorem rate is doubtless the most equitable, but in view of the almost insurmountable difficulties in the way of obtaining an expert knowledge of the value of gloves at the various ports, it may be deemed desirable to adopt a specific duty. The scale proposed would, in my opinion, be about equivalent to the present rate.
Grasses, for ornament..	1816	20 per cent.	20 per cent.....	Natural flowers, grasses, and moss are imported for ornamental purposes, and, when so imported, they should be subject to the same rate of duty, say 20 per cent.
Hats, materials for.....	1300	30 per cent.	30 per cent.....	Substitute "similar" for "other" in the fourth line. The present form is too wide in its scope.
Gutta-percha.....	1204	40 per cent.	} 35 per cent.....	It is often difficult to discriminate between india rubber and gutta-percha when manufactured. To prevent ambiguity these might be embraced in one section, say "articles composed of india rubber or gutta-percha, 35 per cent."
India rubber.....	{ 1307 } { 1310 }	Various....		
Knit goods, and articles made on frames.	{ 1163 } { 1238 }	Various, 35 per cent.	}	The whole of section 1238 should be eliminated, when the articles therein named would be appropriately classified under other sections of the tariff.
Moss.....	1674	Free.....		

Name of article.	Section of tariff.	Present rate of duty.	Proposed rate of duty.	Reasons for proposed changes.
Sparterros	1750	Free	30 per cent.....	Sparterros is a willow sheet, lined with cotton cloth, and should be classified with other materials for making or ornamenting hats, in section 1200.
Woolen and worsted cloths, dress goods, &c.	{ 1162 } { 1163 } { 1166 }	Various.	Valued at not exceeding 40 cents per pound, 20 cents per pound; valued at above 40 and not exceeding 60 cents per pound, 30 cents per pound; valued at above 60 and not exceeding 80 cents per pound, 40 cents per pound; valued at above 80 cents per pound, 50 cents per pound, and in addition thereto 35 per cent.	In lieu of sections 1162, 1163, and 1166, I suggest one section for "cloth, dress goods, and all other manufactures composed wholly or of not less than 20 per cent. in value of wool, worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other animal (except horse hair), whether woven, knitted, or felted, and not otherwise provided for", with the rates of duty named.

GEORGE M. WESTON.

NEW YORK, October 5, 1882.

MR. GEORGE M. WESTON, of New York, addressed the Commission as follows :

I do not propose in the brief time necessarily given to me by the Commission to undertake to point out all the current errors in respect to foreign commerce, but to notice only a few which are most frequently encountered in the discussion upon that subject.

It is often said that what nations import is purchased and paid for by what they export, and that foreign trade is merely a direct exchange of domestic for foreign merchandise. Such a description of international commerce, if it is a correct one, would make it a purely barter trade. Indeed, the persons who so describe it do not hesitate to characterize it in express terms as being a barter trade; nor do they hesitate to say that it is accompanied by all the conditions of that species of trade, and among others by the condition that merchandise cannot be exchanged abroad except to nations from whom an amount of merchandise equal in value is received in return.* In the case of our own country, for example, the practical instruction which is properly deducible from this account of foreign trade, and which is actually deduced from it by such persons, is that we can dispose of goods only to those nations from whom we will accept goods in exchange, and that we can increase our sales to any particular nation only by increasing our purchases from it. In this instance, as in all instances, those who begin by an enormous use of words, and by confounding things wholly different and distinct, thus end with conclusions which are contrary to the common observation and knowledge of mankind.

The exchanges of trade are of two kinds. The first are direct exchanges of one commodity for another, which is barter. The second are indirect exchanges, through a medium of exchange which is called money. Of the first species of exchange, more common formerly than now, we still have some examples in barbarous regions, as in the exchange on some parts of the African coast of rum, beads, bits of mirror, and brass jewelry for palm oil and elephants' tusks. But in the great bulk of international trade, the use of money long ago superseded the practice of barter; direct exchanges of one commodity for another are unknown; and merchandise is sold for money and purchased with money. With this abandonment of barter, and it is proper to note that this abandonment is much more nearly universal in international than in

* There can be no buying without selling. * * * Every commercial transaction requires two parties, and if one party positively refuses to take what the other has to offer no exchange can take place.—*Westminster Review*, April, 1882.

The Englishman recognizes the truth * * * that all trade is barter, product being given for product, service for service; that to sell, one must buy; and in supplying Chili with cotton cloth he takes his pay for his cloth in what Chili has got to pay with. The American manufacturer, on the other hand, * * * by the act of his government is not allowed to take his pay *directly* in what Chili has got to sell, and as a consequence has not and * * * never will have any considerable trade with Chili. Thus, the commodity which Chili has mainly to sell is copper ore. * * * Congress, since 1869, has imposed rates of duty on copper and copper ore, * * * which have made the importation of either of those commodities into the United States practically impossible.—*Why we trade, &c.* (1878), by David A. Wells.

domestic trade, we escape all the injurious incidents and conditions of barter, among which none is more injurious than that of being compelled to buy of those to whom we sell as much as they buy of us. The invention of money, or the practice of using money, gives freedom to trade, and enables both sellers and buyers to seek the best markets for the transactions they desire to make. Those who have merchandise to dispose of are no longer limited to customers of whom they can advantageously purchase something. And those who wish to obtain particular commodities are no longer limited to obtaining them only from those to whom they can advantageously sell something.

It is undoubtedly true that, subject to certain well-understood exceptions, the proportional magnitude of which is not great, the aggregate merchandise exports during any considerable period of years of any nation must be accepted abroad at a valuation equal to the valuation of its aggregate merchandise imports. The exceptions grow out of the differences of the conditions of nations, as being either debtor or creditor nations, or as they may produce either less or more of the monetary metals than the supply needed for their own uses. A nation like England, using large sums as the annual proceeds of foreign investments, may and must find the balance of its foreign merchandise trade always unfavorable. The Australian colonies, with a production of gold far in excess of their monetary wants, are in the same predicament, because it can only be by a permanent adverse balance of their foreign merchandise trade that their superfluous gold can be drained away; but only in such exceptional cases, and only to the extent which is determined by the nature of those exceptions, can the foreign merchandise trade of any nation be always one way; that is to say, either constantly favorable, or constantly unfavorable.

But it no more follows that international trade is a barter trade, because, as a general rule, the aggregate merchandise imports and exports of nations must, in the long run, balance each other, than that the internal trade between individuals of the same nation is a barter trade, because as a general rule the total amount of services and property of all kinds furnished by each individual to all others must be balanced, in the long run, by the total amount of the services and property received by such individuals from all others. The rule exists with equal certainty in both cases, and the exceptions are the same in character and extent in both. But nobody ever speaks of the internal trade of countries in which exchanges are conducted through the medium of money as being a barter trade, and we know very well that in such countries there are always numerous persons who never purchase anything from those to whom they dispose of either their services or property. Men sell their services and wares for money, and buy with money wherever and of whom they suppose the best bargains can be obtained.

In short, the assertion that in modern times either international trade or trade between individuals is a barter trade is directly opposed by the common knowledge of mankind that the use of money has almost entirely put an end to the practice of barter, and rather more completely so in international transactions than in those which occur between the citizens of the same country.

I do not propose to introduce statistics for the unnecessary purpose of showing as a matter of fact that the world has long since emerged from the state of barbarism and now conducts its exchanges mainly by the use of money and very little by barter. But while the fact needs no proving in that way, it may be usefully illustrated by the condition of our own foreign commerce.

The quarterly report of the Bureau of Statistics for the three months ending December 31, 1881, contains tables showing the merchandise imports and exports (including re-exports of foreign goods) of the United States for the calendar years 1880 and 1881, to and from the various countries with which we trade. Following is a statement of the annual average of the trade with certain countries for the two years, as that may be more satisfactory than a statement for a single year.

Annual average of the trade for 1880 and 1881.

Countries.	Exports to—	Imports from—
England	\$377, 043, 530	\$172, 100, 390
Scotland	33, 145, 882	17, 592, 823
Ireland	54, 088, 110	6, 110, 352
Denmark	5, 328, 055	280, 200
Belgium	33, 115, 817	15, 150, 570
Holland	20, 480, 300	0, 503, 008
Russia	15, 058, 225	2, 607, 300
Spain	13, 012, 520	0, 035, 003
Portugal	4, 082, 737	825, 014
Sweden and Norway	2, 081, 441	1, 232, 000
Germany	65, 349, 500	55, 401, 708
France	84, 038, 514	70, 135, 500
Italy	0, 888, 840	11, 727, 014
China	4, 240, 048	22, 270, 054
Japan	1, 748, 215	13, 408, 184
British Indies	1, 093, 811	20, 430, 023
Dutch East Indies	2, 150, 597	6, 701, 534
Cuba	11, 142, 917	04, 012, 205
Porto Rico	1, 847, 147	4, 452, 405
Dutch West Indies	051, 120	2, 144, 020
Central America	1, 473, 400	3, 700, 035
Venezuela	2, 400, 245	0, 181, 007
Brazil	0, 057, 749	50, 051, 055
Uruguay	1, 437, 713	5, 719, 706
Argentine Republic	2, 128, 247	5, 061, 828

Our trade with very few countries shows an equality, or any near approach to equality, between merchandise imports and exports. The general fact is inequality in that respect, and in many cases the inequalities are enormous. The figures show at a glance how certain it is that our foreign trade is carried on by barter.

By the course of commerce as now existing the great bulk of our exports are to Europe, from which continent we import comparatively little, and we make use of the money credits thereby obtained in London (the European money center) to pay for the excess of imports over exports in our trade with the West Indies, South America, and Asia.

There is not so much as the one hundredth part of our foreign trade which is carried on by direct exchange or barter. Substantially the whole of our sales are for money, and substantially the whole of our purchases are made with money. We sell always to those who will pay the best price, and without reference to whether they buy little or much from us, and there is no foreign nation which is, or possibly can be, influenced to buy of us because we buy of them. Brazil does not take manufactures from us, because we take great quantities of its coffee, nor do China and Japan take one dollar's worth the more of our cloths or hardware because we are great customers for their teas. Europeans take our agricultural staples, cotton, wheat, corn, pork, beef, and cattle, only because they can make better bargains with us than with anybody else for those things, and they buy none the less because they sell to us comparatively little of other things.

The proverbial saying that there is no friendship in trade has fewer

exceptions in international than in internal commerce. In the latter men deal often directly with the same persons for long periods of time, and there are various motives of personal comity and local interest which induce them, other things being equal, or substantially so, to buy of those to whom they sell. But those motives do not operate at all in foreign commerce, and, furthermore, the business of importing and exporting is largely conducted by distinct classes of merchants, who are often ignorant of each other's operations, and always totally indifferent to them. The merchants who send cotton, wheat, petroleum, tobacco, and breadstuffs abroad for sale, or who fill orders from abroad for such articles, are not the merchants who import tea, coffee, silks, or hardware. The great houses in New York which buy satins, velvets, silks, and ribbons in France pay for them by bills on Paris or London. They never trouble themselves about the staves, potashes, naval stores, or tobacco shipped from the United States to Havre or Marseilles, or with inquiries about the balance of trade between France and this country. It is of no consequence to them whether France buys little or much of us. They buy with money, and wherever they can make the best bargains with money. If they get better bargains in silks and ribbons in France than anywhere else, it is there that they will make their purchases of those articles. This is true of foreign trade in all its ramifications.

The ambiguities and generalities of human language are a fruitful source of error. We speak of selling to England and buying of Chili, but neither of them as a country ever sells anything abroad, and rarely buys anything abroad, unless it is some appliances for war, like the cargoes of mules lately bought of us by British Government agents for use in Egypt. Our transactions of buying and selling are with individual Englishmen and Chilians, or with individual persons, whether of those nationalities or not, who reside and carry on production and trade in those countries, and in most cases those persons from whom we buy are not the persons from whom we sell.

The fact that Brazil sells us a vast amount of coffee certainly gives the Brazilians a good deal of money to spend, but it in no degree compels them to spend that money in purchases from us, nor does it give them any effective inducement to do so. It can only be very artless persons who can imagine that the Brazilians are so grateful to us, on account of our large purchases and large consumption of their staples, that they will go out of their way to buy manufactures, breadstuffs, or lumber from us, rather than from others. If they trouble themselves to think about it at all, they know that we buy no coffee of them which we could get elsewhere on better terms. They have no more reason for being grateful to us than we have for being grateful to the Englishmen and Frenchmen, who have bought so much cotton of us during this century, but who have been all the while trying to stimulate cotton-raising in Guiana, Egypt, Brazil, India, the Soudan, and elsewhere, in order to get what they want on better terms.

In the case of Brazil and of all the South American, African, and Asiatic countries, and of some European countries, the control of their importations is not in their own hands, but of foreign mercantile houses, who are quite free from any national predilections in matter of trade, and who never fail, in buying for the supply of their customers, to buy in the cheapest market. The business of importing at Rio Janeiro is carried on very little by Brazilians, but mainly by Englishmen, Frenchmen, Germans, and merchants of other nationalities. If Brazilians can be principally supposed to be governed in their purchases by good will

towards the United States, as the principal purchaser of their coffee, the foreign mercantile establishments at Rio Janeiro, whether they are mere agencies or are trading independently and for their own account, are influenced by no such romantic feeling. In purchasing such goods as can be profitably sold in Brazil, they go always to the countries in which such goods are obtainable to the best advantage, whether such countries buy much or little of Brazil, and without reference to any sentimental preferences which imaginative persons may suppose to be entertained by the Brazilians themselves, for particular countries, and it is true not only of Rio Janeiro, but of Buenos Ayres, of Valparaiso, of Vera Cruz, of Canton, of Smyrna, and of the trading ports of the greater part of the world, that their exterior mercantile operations are conducted mainly by strangers, who are exclusively occupied with the advancement of their own immediate personal interests.

It may be said that although foreign trade is not conducted by barter, and although there is no necessary equality, either simultaneous or on an average of years, in the sales and purchases between us and any particular country, there must nevertheless be, not within short periods, but in the long run, an equality in our commercial intercourse with the world outside of us, taken as a whole, and this fact imposes upon our exterior traffic, as effectually as actual barter would impose them, the conditions that we must buy in order to sell, and that we can only sell as much as we buy. But there are essential differences between a concurrent equality of merchandise exchanges between us and each foreign country by itself, and an equality on a long average of such exchanges between us and all foreign countries taken together. We might be persuaded in respect to some particular country that access to its markets for some special description of our merchandise was so advantageous that we could afford to pay for such access by purchasing largely of such country, or that an increased importation of some special description of its commodities was so advantageous that we could afford to stimulate it by the surrender of tariff revenue upon them. But we could never be persuaded that it is for our interest to swell the aggregate mass of our importations from the world as a whole, and especially at the direct cost of giving up tariff revenue, without reference to the character of the commodities imported, and merely because such increased importations would cause equivalent exportations at some subsequent time, with no possible means of foreseeing either to what quarters they would be made, or of what they would consist, or whether they would be profitable transactions, or be made under circumstances of sacrifice and disadvantage. In fact, the sort of exportation which is forced by a previous excess of importation is almost invariably a losing business. It is only by draining money away, and thereby reducing prices, that an excess of importation eventually causes an increased exportation, and it is thus true that exports in excess of imports following and resulting from a previous excess of imports must occur under a falling and unprofitable range of prices. Without doubt the average equilibrium is finally restored, but always on losing terms, to countries which embark upon a policy of stimulating imports as a means towards, and a basis for, subsequent exports.

EXPORTS TO PARTICULAR COUNTRIES NOT INCREASED BY REDUCING OUR TARIFF ON THEIR PRODUCTS.

It is said by many persons that we can stimulate our exports to particular countries by inviting large importations of the merchandise

they have to sell, by the method of reducing our duties on them, or, still more effectively, by the method of taking off our entire duties. In addition to the idea that foreign trade is a barter trade, and that we can only sell to any country as much as we buy of it, these persons have the further idea that we can induce countries to buy of us as a matter of good will, by a generous remission of taxes upon what they sell us. But, upon whatever their theories may be based, they find no support in the actual facts of our foreign trade. The European nations, upon whose goods we levy nearly the whole of our tariff revenue, are the principal receivers of our exports, and the balance of our commerce with them is largely and uniformly favorable, whereas the South American and Asiatic countries, a large portion of whose products are admitted into our ports duty free, buy very little of us, and the balance of our commerce with them is largely and uniformly adverse.

For the year ending June 30, 1881, our total merchandise imports were \$440,173,081 dutiable, and \$202,491,547 free, of which last \$5,373,077 came in under the reciprocity treaty with the Sandwich Islands, and \$4,957,482 were articles produced or manufactured in this country, and exported but brought back from a failure to find satisfactory markets. Of the remaining \$192,150,988 of free goods, \$139,591,196 came from Mexico, Central America, the West Indies, South America, Asia, and Australia. I have not access to the figures of the free importations from the British North American Provinces, or Africa, but it is plain that the free importation from Europe must have been absolutely very small, and still smaller relatively to the total importations from that quarter. Our free list is made up mainly of tea and coffee, and of raw materials not produced in Europe.

The larger items on the list of free imports for the year ending June 30, 1881, were the following:

Coffee	\$56,784,391
Hides and skins (except fur skins)	27,477,019
Crude India rubber and gutta-percha	11,054,949
Raw silk	10,888,204
Tea	21,004,813
Fur skins	2,826,494
Medicinal and tanning barks	2,345,667
Cocoa	1,044,813
Cutch and terra japonica	1,699,510
Gums	3,169,826
Indigo	1,535,530
Nitrate of soda	2,356,183
Unmanufactured wood	3,330,333
Dye-wood in sticks	1,676,147

For the year ending June 30, 1881, our merchandise trade with certain countries was as follows:

Countries.	Dutiable im- ports from.	Free imports from.	Total im- ports from.	Exports to.
China	\$3,900,237	\$22,317,729	\$25,218,016	\$5,447,080
Japan	754,851	13,463,249	14,217,600	3,937,511
British India	6,776,002	11,236,204	18,012,206	858,069
Dutch East Indies	2,153,467	5,096,344	7,249,811	1,728,766
Central America	169,577	2,090,209	3,159,786	1,772,240
Venezuela	38,744	6,563,043	6,611,787	2,768,604
Brazil	8,324,928	44,457,608	52,882,536	9,252,415
Uruguay	902,352	8,262,311	4,164,063	1,612,612
Argentine Republic	1,078,162	4,591,078	5,669,240	2,427,893
Dutch West Indies	93,580	2,500,796	2,594,376	940,418
Total	24,191,450	116,478,571	140,670,021	30,746,224

Of the imports from the above-named countries about five-sixths are admitted into our ports duty free, and the amount so admitted in 1880-'81 was absolutely very large, being \$116,478,571. Yet they buy very little of us, and the balance in our trade with them of that year was against us to the great amount of \$109,923,796. Certainly the free admission of so many of their products inures mainly to their benefit and is of very little advantage to our home consumers. In the Commercial Bulletin of September 30, 1880, a free-trade New York City journal, the following appears in the letter of its Rio Janeiro correspondent:

The duty on coffee in the United States was removed in 1872, and prices here went up in corresponding ratio.

The same thing, in a greater or less degree, happens in all cases of the reduction or removal of our duties,* but if any feeling of gratified good will is thereby excited among the foreign recipients of our favors there is no known instance in which they have manifested it in any form which is active and useful to us.

The products of Brazil are nearly all of them taxed upon their admission into Great Britain and France; and in the latter country heavily, but notwithstanding this the Brazilian purchases of merchandise from Great Britain and France are large. In 1880, the latest year of which the figures are accessible to me, Great Britain imported from Brazil \$25,601,051, and exported to Brazil \$32,516,620, thus buying of the Brazilians about half what we buy, but selling to them about four times as much. In the same year French imports into Brazil were \$15,766,161, while Brazilian exports to France were \$18,648,488, the French thus buying less than one-third as much as we do, but selling twice as much. In 1880, in its trade with the Argentine Republic, Great Britain bought \$4,314,775, but sold \$12,366,823; and in its trade with Venezuela it bought \$965,046, but sold \$2,083,553. But it is useless to multiply illustrations of the plain truth of either of the two following propositions:

1. The use of money has long ago, and almost everywhere outside of Africa, superseded barter in international trade, so that there is no necessary equality of purchases and sales between countries having dealings with each other.

2. That the course of international trade and the variations in the balances of it are not influenced by sentimental reciprocations of favors, but by the interests of the merchants who conduct it, and who can never have any other motive in any transaction than the realization of the greatest possible profit to themselves as individuals.

The utmost possible effect which can be produced upon our trade with any particular country, from the reduction or remission of duties upon any of its products, is to increase the exports and consequently the purchasing ability of such country. But the benefit of that increased

* In a lecture (April 18, 1878) before a New York free-trade club, Professor Freeman said:

"These articles [tea and coffee] are natural monopolies, and a tax laid upon them, especially on tea, would fall, for the most part, on the producers of them. The removal of the tax produced no appreciable decrease in their price."

It being the doctrine of his school that tariff taxes fall wholly upon consumers, he was compelled to attempt some explanation of a fact which he could not deny, that the repeal of our tea and coffee taxes inured to the benefit of the foreign producer. His explanation has not even the merit of ingenuity. Tea is raised on a great scale in three different countries, China, Japan, and India, and coffee more or less in perhaps twenty countries. If either was raised in only one country, that would not make it a monopoly or give it any of the features of a monopoly, if the production was carried on freely, as it ostensibly is, by innumerable competing individuals.

ability, instead of inuring exclusively to us, would be shared with us by other commercial nations, and probably in about the same proportions existing before between our exports and the exports of other commercial nations to such country.

An illustration may be found in the case of Chili. The annual average of our merchandise trade with that country during the two years ending June 30, 1881, was \$1,600,896 of exports and \$1,605,403 of imports. In 1880 (the latest year of which I have the figures) the merchandise exports to Chili were \$9,341,023 from Great Britain and \$3,897,815 from France. This shows quite a large importing capacity on the part of Chili, while its actual imports from the United States are very small. The American theorists who have adopted the doctrine that foreign trade is carried on by barter insist that Chili can increase its purchases from us only as it increases its sales to us, and that the true remedy is take off our duty on copper, which gives our market for that metal to our home producers to the exclusion of Chili. During the year ending June 30, 1881, of our total merchandise imports (\$1,435,970) from Chili, \$1,245,529 were duty free, nearly the whole of it, \$1,228,624, being nitrate of soda. It is certainly true that our tariff practically excludes copper importation from Chili, and it is probably true that the abrogation of our duty on copper would cause an export of Chilian copper to this country. To whatever extent it had that effect, the purchasing power of Chili would be augmented, because there would be to the same extent a new market for its copper. In the case of coffee, which we do not produce, and which would not be excluded from our markets by any duties which have ever been imposed or are ever likely to be imposed, the removal of the duty has not increased the exports and purchasing power of Brazil, while it must be admitted that the coming into our markets of copper, previously kept out by a duty, would have that effect upon Chili. But it is gratuitous and without reason to assume that this added purchasing power of Chili would be exclusively directed toward this country. Manifestly Chili could and would buy more, but, other things remaining as at present, the proportions in which it now buys of the United States, Great Britain, France, and other countries, would not be changed.

RECIPROCITY TREATIES IN GENERAL, AND WITH CANADA IN PARTICULAR.

It is because mankind know that it is not true either that foreign trade is a barter trade, or that a country has one efficient inducement to purchase where it sells, or where its products are lightly taxed or untaxed, that international trade arrangements, sometimes by means of concerted and concurrent legislation, and sometimes by reciprocity treaties, have so long formed a considerable part of the diplomatic history of nations. Whatever form such arrangements may take, the principle is always that of stipulations in advance that abrogations or reductions of duty, or the imposition of favorable preferential duties, on one side, shall be paid for by favors on the other side esteemed to be equivalent by the negotiating parties. In other words, the principle is always that of making sure, by an express bargain, of a *quid pro quo*, or of so much for so much.

Doubtless there may be bargains of that kind equal and fair to both parties, but our own experience in such negotiations, happily not extensive, has been uniformly a disastrous one, and is likely to be even more so hereafter, and especially in the case of attempted reciprocity arrange-

ments with the countries situated on the American continent or its adjacent islands. The superiority of our population in numbers, in wealth, and in consuming and purchasing power, is overwhelmingly great in comparison with the population in any of them, and the existing disparity is all the time an increasing rather than a diminishing one. The diplomatist must be astute beyond any example we have yet had in our history who can devise a reciprocity interchange of markets between us and either of those countries which shall not be a losing bargain for the United States.

The same line of argument made use of to persuade us to take off the duties on Chilean copper, and to consume it in preference to consuming our own, was employed in vain to reconcile us to the reciprocity treaty of 1854, which admitted duty free the lumber, bituminous coal, wool, hay, potatoes, barley, cattle, sheep, &c., of Canada, to the growth and production of which this country is by nature equally well adapted. But it was too plain that, even if it was true, as it really was not, that the Canadians would expend in this country the money obtained by selling those articles here, we could increase our sales to them only to the precise extent of the inevitable simultaneous diminution of our sales to the home producers of the same articles. The reciprocity treaty did not increase the quantity of lumber, hay, potatoes, &c., consumed here, but only caused our buying more of them abroad and exactly as much less at home, and caused exactly as much less to be produced at home, and with a corresponding diminution of the numbers, buying power, and actual purchases of home producers. Nor did we gain anything on the score of cheapness, because it turned out that Canadians naturally preferred and were able, instead of selling at their own home prices, to sell at our home prices.

In a monograph entitled "Why we trade," printed in 1878, David A. Wells points out how "sparsely populated" Canada actually is, although "so favored by nature," abounding in lumber, "the natural habitat on this continent of the combing-wool sheep," "growing the finest barley," "raising and grazing the finest of cattle," and fitted in other respects to attract immigration from "Europe as well as the United States." In respect to the province of Ontario in particular, he complains that it could easily support twelve millions of people, whereas it had only two, and that the annual ratio of the increase of its population, which was 4.38 per cent. "during the operation of the reciprocity treaty," fell after the repeal of that treaty to 1.61 per cent. He concludes that an interchange of commodities between the United States and Canada would "augment the present aggregate trade to the extent of many hundreds of millions per annum."

But, upon a large view, there is no good reason for believing that the aggregate population of that part of North America which is north of Mexico has been changed at all, either by the Canadian reciprocity treaty of 1854 or by its abrogation. The controlling factors of the magnitude of that aggregate population have been all along, and still are, its natural increase and the immigration from Europe, neither of which is affected by the particular condition of the commercial relations between Canada and this country. What those commercial relations may affect, and do actually affect, is the proportion in which the aggregate population of Canada and the United States is divided between them. I quite agree with Wells that, if the reciprocity treaty of 1854 had been kept in force to the present time, the population of Canada would have been much greater than it is, but the population of the United States would have been by so much the less. The tendency of free trade would have

been to stimulate emigration from the United States to Canada, whereas since the repeal of the reciprocity treaty there has been a constant and large flow of immigration the other way. Of the persons living in the United States, when the census of 1880 was taken, 717,084 were born in British North America.

We certainly can have no objection to the expansion of Canadian population, and, in fact, should receive benefit from it. But it should be left to come in the natural course of things, and not be stimulated at our expense. We have no occasion to seek Canadian markets for either cattle, sheep, wool, hay, potatoes, or grain of any kind, but shall do best to purchase all those things of our own fellow-citizens, who will be sure to buy of us in return, and whose profits add to our own national wealth and yield tax contributions to our own government.

Without doubt, we can increase importations of lumber by a reciprocity treaty with Canada covering that article and making it duty free. But we can only do it at the loss to our own revenue of whatever is now collected upon imported Canadian lumber, with no gain in cheapness, as we know by experience, and with a corresponding loss of lumber trade with our own States, and especially with our Southern States, whose forest wealth is so abounding. We can by the same method of reciprocity increase our sugar trade with Mexico, just as we now increase it with the Hawaiian Islands, and with the same results of loss of revenue and loss of trade with the domestic producers of the same article. In these cases, and in all similar cases, we add nothing to our aggregate trade, but merely change the parties with whom we trade, under the strange delusion that foreign trade must be presumed to be more advantageous than domestic trade, whereas the contrary presumption is the plain result of both reasoning and experience.

REASONS FOR PREFERRING DOMESTIC TO FOREIGN TRADE.

In a country like the United States, territorially as large as Europe, with all the climates outside of the inter-tropical, and with such a boundless variety of natural resources, the *prima facie* presumption is against the profitability of foreign trade. The cases in which it is profitable are exceptional, and they must be an extremely insignificant fraction of our total commercial transactions, internal and external. Inasmuch as we get both sides of the profits of domestic trade, and only one side in foreign trade, it is manifestly against our interest to import anything which we can produce at home as cheaply or substantially as cheaply, or anything which we can expect to be able to produce as cheaply or substantially as cheaply, after the lapse of a reasonable time for the establishment and development of the requisite industry; or anything like wool, iron, lead, or salt, for which we have natural adaptations, and the home production of which is at the same time important and necessary to national safety and independence, even if some degree, not excessive, of permanent dearness, as compared with importations, may be not improbable.

The reasons for this preference for home to foreign trade are well known, and have long commended themselves to the judgment of mankind. I will refer now to only two of them. The first is, that any superior cheapness of a foreign commodity is liable to be lost by the occurrence of wars, either those to which we might be parties, which would increase the difficulties and expenses of importations, or those to which the countries supplying us might be parties, which would impair their powers of production. The second is, that when we import for con-

sumption anything which might be produced at home we create no additional trade, but merely substitute foreign for domestic transactions, and to whatever extent we may increase sales abroad in payment of what we buy abroad, by so much do we necessarily diminish sales to our own people for what we should otherwise have bought of them. It is certainly true that if we should decide to stimulate our import for consumption of, say, two million dollars' worth of Chili copper, by remitting duties on it, we should either cause an ultimate increase of two millions in our exports to Chili, or, what is more probable, an equal ultimate increase of our exports elsewhere, to be applied through indirect channels in payment for the augmented purchases from Chili; but it is also certain that our sales would be two millions less to home producers of copper, because the home production would be reduced by that much, and with a corresponding reduction in the numbers and purchasing power of those engaged in it. In other words, we should have substituted for a trade of which the profits of both sides and of the whole transportation are now securely enjoyed by us, a nearly equal amount of trade of which there will fall to us only the profits of one side and of such small share of the freighting involved in it as we can hold against the competition of all the carrying nations of all the world. We are constantly lamenting that a large and increasing portion of our foreign trade, in and out, is carried on in foreign bottoms, but we never have occasion to make such a lamentation in respect to our domestic trade.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE FOREIGN TRADE OF THE PRESENT AND FORMER TIMES.

There are certain traditional ideas which mankind have of foreign commerce as a source of opulency, which are misleading, because they overlook the essential difference between the kind of commerce in which the United States and nearly all commercial countries are engaged in these modern days, and the kind of commerce which principally created the wealth and splendor of the trading cities of the ancient world, of the mediæval ages, and indeed of times as near to us as the epoch when the Dutch supremacy in Oriental traffic fell before the superior fortunes of the English.

The exterior commerce of the nations at the present day is the indirect exchange by each country, through the medium of money, of commodities of its own production or manufacture for commodities for its own consumption obtained from other countries. There is no commercial nation now dealing on any appreciable scale in a mercantile way with the commodities of other nations; that is to say, buying them to sell again to others, except Great Britain. Even in that case, although British importing of foreign goods for re-export is absolutely very considerable, it is overshadowed by its vast imports for home consumption. And since the opening of the Suez Canal has given to the cities on the Mediterranean and Black Seas a greater proximity to the farther East than London and Liverpool enjoy, the business of England as an *entrepôt* for the receipt of Asiatic goods for distribution over the continent of Europe tends to decline.

During all prior times, as far back as history or traditions go, the cities on the Mediterranean and its connected seas, and of Western Europe, which have been pre-eminently flourishing and opulent in commerce, became so from dealing as mercantile intermediaries, receiving the spices, rich stuffs, "barbaric pearl and gold" of farther Asia, and distributing them at enormous profits to other nations and cities. Such

was Palmyra or Tadmor, of the Syrian chant, founded according to some accounts by Solomon. Ruined temples and countless Corinthian columns yet standing over vast spaces attest its greatness at a remote antiquity. Pliny describes it as being in his time a city of merchants, trading between the Parthians and the Romans. We know from both sacred and profane history how rich ancient Tyre was, and we know from what principal source its wealth came, from the method taken by Alexander the Great to inflict upon it an irretrievable destruction. That method was to found in Egypt the city still bearing his name, to command the Asiatic trade coming by the way of the Red Sea, and thus forever prevent the building of a new Tyre upon the ruin he had made of the old one. Alexandria continued to be either an emporium or on the transit line of the Red Sea trade until the beginning of the sixteenth century, but in the mean time another part of the traffic from farther Asia reached Bagdad, by the way of the Euphrates, passing thence either to Trebizond, on the Black Sea, and thence to Constantinople, or to Asiatic ports on the Mediterranean. Later on, Italian cities, pre-eminently Venice and Genoa, became the points of distribution through Europe for the merchandise of Asia, and at what prices to ultimate consumers may be imagined from the statement of Prof. J. E. Thocold Rogers (*Agriculture and Prices in England*), that Asiatic spices in British markets were "*once worth half their weight in silver.*" Of the source of oriental merchandise, after it fell under the control of Venice and Genoa, Rogers says, in the same book:

The distribution of the produce was, it appears, generally effected by carriage over the Alpine passes to the few cities of Southern Germany and of the Rhine. In the fifteenth century, such towns as Nuremberg and Ratisbon, Mayence, and Cologne were at the height of their opulence. * * * The trade of the East enriched the burghers of the low countries till, after a long and tedious travel, the abundant spices of the East, increased in price a hundred fold by the tolls which rapacity exacted and the profits which merchants imposed, were sold in small parcels by the grocer, or apothecary, or purchased in large quantities by wealthy consumers at the great fair of Stombridge, or in the perpetual market of London. * * * The stream of commerce which passed through Egypt as far as Antwerp—slender rivulet as it was by the side of what we know now—had been marvelously fertilizing to all who lived upon its banks.

The whole course of trade was changed by two nearly simultaneous events, the passage of the Cape of Good Hope by the Portuguese navigator, Vasco di Gama in 1497, and the complete establishment, by the conquest of Egypt in 1517, of the barbarous, violent, and anti-commercial power of the Turks over all the routes by which the merchandise of the Indies had before reached Europe. From those events dates the decline of the Italian cities, and the rising of the Asiatic colonizing and commerce of the Portuguese, of which the insignificant trading port at Gove is now the solitary remaining monument. It was that commerce which was the principal source of the luxury and magnificence of Lisbon which so affected the imagination of contemporaries while they wondered, and the engulfment of which, by the earthquake of 1755, so excited the horror and compassion of mankind and served so long as one of the most striking illustrations of the instability of human fortunes.

Upon the succession of the Dutch to the Portuguese, as the masters of oriental commerce, Holland became in its turn the richest country in Europe, its wealth being created and existing in its cities, which become the *entrepôts* of the trading exchanges of the world, although having necessarily little domestic trade on account of the diminutions of the Dutch territory and population. The last transfer of ascendancy in oriental commerce was from the Dutch to the English, who still enjoy

it, but in their hands it is an acendency less exclusive than that of any of their predecessors, and it also figures as a less proportional part of their wealth-producing resources.

Until about the middle of the eighteenth century it had thus been true, as far back as history goes, that cities rather than nations had furnished the conspicuous illustrations of wealth and power derived from commerce, and that the traffic which enriched them was the traffic of *entrepôts*, receiving foreign goods to be resold to foreigners. The profits were great, and of course greatest in the distribution of the rare and rich merchandise of the remote and then little-known Indies, the cost of which customers had no means of measuring. In that way it becomes naturally one of the traditional ideas of mankind that the lead in commerce followed the control of the Oriental trade, although it by no means constituted the entire traffic of the *entrepôt* cities of past times.

It will not seem strange that it should also have become one of the traditional ideas of mankind that foreign commerce is the principal source of any great opulence, and that they should fall unreflectingly into the error of overlooking the essential differences between the only kind of foreign commerce known to them until a comparatively recent period, with that trade of modern nations which bears the same name.

In the cases of individual persons, we should never confound the operations of an agriculturist exchanging his crops, directly or through the medium of money, for the supplies of various kinds which he needs, or of a manufacturer exchanging his wares, in the same way, for raw materials and for the means of paying wages to his workmen, with the operations of a merchant, who buys to sell and who sells only what he has bought. Trading is more or less an incident, and a necessary incident, of the business of agriculturists and manufacturers, but we never think or speak of them as traders. All dealings with foreigners are described by an identical phrase as foreign commerce, but there is no more actual similarity between the foreign commerce of Brazil and the Argentine Republic, which exchange agricultural staples for manufactures for their own use, or of Belgium, which exchanges manufactures for raw materials and food for its own use, and the foreign commerce of ancient Tyre, or of the Venice of the Middle Ages, than there is between the kind of trade incident to the business of individual agriculturists and manufacturers and mercantile trade.

It is, therefore, only by a confusion of ideas, resulting from a phrase which has two diverse meanings, that all the glories and splendor and magnificent opulence of the foreigners' commerce of past times, from Palmyra, Tyre, and Alexandria to Venice, and Genoa, and later on to the cities of the Flemings and the Dutch, are held up as irresistible persuasives to the utmost enlargement of that wholly different species of trade which constitutes substantially the whole of the foreign traffic dealings of all the modern nations, except England, and much the larger part in the case of that country.

The exterior trade of the present time is the indirect exchange through the medium of money of the agricultural, mining, or industrial products of our country for the products of other countries for home consumption. It is sometimes a necessity, as in the case of England, with a density of population which compels it to seek a large part of its food abroad, but it is not at all a necessity for this country, which can obtain at home everything which is indispensable. Without doubt, exterior trade is sometimes advantageous, but it is sometimes impoverishing or otherwise injurious. Whether it is the one or the other, depends upon the circumstances of each particular case, and is not a question to be

concluded for all cases by brilliant descriptions of the opulence of the commercial cities of antiquity and of the Middle Ages. To make exchanges abroad which can be made at home, never increases commerce, and oftentimes substitutes a less profitable kind of commerce for a more profitable kind.

EXPORTATION IS NOT NECESSARILY AND ALWAYS PROFITABLE.

It is more easy to persuade mankind of the inexpediency of importations in certain cases, or in many cases, than it is to persuade them that exportation can ever be inexpedient in any case. But the rule that merchandise exportations and importations must balance each other in the aggregate and in the long run, is a two-edged sword, and while it undoubtedly imposes the condition that we must sell in order to buy, it equally imposes the condition that we are compelled to buy to the full extent of our sales. The conclusion, therefore, cannot be escaped, that when we have sold enough to enable us to buy all that it is necessary and expedient for us to purchase, the only effect of further sales will be to force us into further purchases which are neither necessary nor expedient.

There is no conclusive presumption in favor of exportation in general any more than there is in favor of importation in general. In reference to both exportation and importation, what is wise must be determined by the special circumstances of each particular case.

The export of food and raw materials to be exchanged for manufactures can rarely be profitable to countries in climates which are temperate and favorable to manufacturing industry.

The existing trade between the United States and Europe is, at least nine-tenths of it, of a kind by no means permanently desirable. Naturally, Europe produces nothing which we cannot produce as well or better, and as respects manufacturing industry, its principal advantage is the start in the order of time. Temporarily, and until something better could be done, it has been convenient for us to exchange bread and meat for the wares of its artisans, but the agricultural interest will get higher and steadier prices by exchanges of food with artisans at home, and the country as a whole will then have gained the enormous advantage of substituting a domestic trade for a foreign one. In respect to raw materials, we shall get the best returns when we manufacture them ourselves. That our true policy in respect to Europe is to diminish our imports from it, is agreed on all hands,* but it is equally certain, although less obvious, that it is our interest to diminish our exports to it, and for the double reason that we can make a better use at home of most of the exported articles, and that the magnitude of our exports to it induces, and in some senses forces, the imports from it.

The legislative policy of nations in respect to foreign trade was long controlled by the ideas that wealth consists chiefly of the monetary metals; that the true wisdom is to sell a good deal and buy but little, so as to heap up more and more of gold and silver, and that exporta-

* The import from Europe of manufactures is a trade which all parties and the representatives of all shades of economical opinion in this country wish to see steadily diminished and eventually terminated. * * * Some propose protective tariffs and high duties as the best means. Others maintain that the better way * * * is by the production in this country of superior articles at lower prices, * * * with free trade or simply a revenue tariff and cheap raw material. But by whatever way it may be reached, a diminution, tending always to an extinction of imports from Europe, is universally desired in this country.—*Report (1877) of United States Monetary Commission.*

tion is profitable under all circumstances and therefore to be pushed always to the utmost possible extent. These ideas, taken together, constituted what was known as the mercantile theory, now commonly said to be exploded as a matter of science. Undoubtedly it is a theory which is no longer taught, and is in terms universally discarded, but the views which it embodies still exert a large influence upon the opinions and practices of mankind.*

An eminent public man in this country, who has been one of our wisest legislators in respect to measures affecting commerce and industry, has recently called attention to the adverse balance, \$120,000,000 of our trade with the American countries to the south of us. He characterizes it as an exhausting drain, and insists that it is an urgent and pressing duty to close it by increasing our exports to those countries. Without doubt there are many branches of our present export trade to them which can be profitably enlarged, but the existing adverse balance in our commercial intercourse with them is of itself no reason for increasing our exportations in that direction, and there can be no other rational inducement to such increased exportations than the profits to be directly made out of them. The proper effectiveness of that inducement would be equally great if the present balance of trade, instead of being adverse, was a favorable one. It is only under the ideas of the mercantile theory, still lingering and still operating upon the minds of men without their being distinctly conscious of it, that an adverse balance of trade, in any particular quarter, could be treated as being necessarily such an evil in itself as to require an immediate remedy.

It is a sufficient, correct, rough statement of the total foreign commerce of this country to say that there are heavy adverse balances in both our South American and Asiatic trades, and that these are offset by the heavy favorable balance in our European trade. If we put an end to the adverse balance of \$120,000,000 in our trade with South America, by exporting thither \$120,000,000 more in merchandise than we now do, we must either add \$120,000,000 to the present adverse balance of our Asiatic trade, which is not desirable and hardly possible, or we must diminish the favorable balance in our trade with Europe by sending thither \$120,000,000 less of cereals, provisions, petroleum, and other staples than we now do. We have no power to change the permanent proportion between our total imports and our total exports. That is fixed by commercial laws, irrevocable by any known power, and also self-executing and not to be evaded.

It is certainly true that the tendency of things, as our population and industries shall become greater, is towards an increased proportion of manufactured articles, and a diminished proportion of raw materials and agricultural staples in our exports. This tendency is an advantageous and desirable one. Nevertheless, it is best to let it work itself out by a natural and gradual development, and not hurry it by exportations

* The theoretical economists and socialists almost universally still inculcate doctrines in respect to the nature and measure of the value of the monetary metals, which, if true, fairly sustain and justify the mercantile theory, which the same persons all nominally abandon. If gold and silver have, as they teach, an inherent and intrinsic value, determined by the cost of production, either for the time being or upon an average of all past times, the more of them nations possess the richer they are, and no nation can ever have too much of them. What makes the mercantile theory absurd and impossible, is the real fact that the value of money depends in every country, at any given time, upon its quantity, and upon nothing else. As any nation makes progress in piling up the monetary metals by buying little and selling much, those metals fall in value, as indicated by the rise of the prices of everything else, and gold and silver flow away to foreign countries in spite of all attempts of legislation to retain them.

of manufactured articles, made for the mere sake of exportation, and under forcing processes of artificial stimulation. The capacity of the world to buy of us is limited, and we cannot be at one and the same time great exporters of both agricultural staples and of manufactures. It is neither wise in itself, nor just to our farming and planting interests, to diminish the foreign market for our agricultural staples by increasing the proportion of manufactures in our exports any faster than the home market for agricultural staples is enlarged.

It is by no means so clearly desirable, as many persons assume it to be, that this country should ever become a great exporter of manufactures, which can be accomplished in no other way than by forcing our prices down to or below those of the nations which sell at the cheapest rates. There is nothing attractive in any accounts we get of the actual condition of the people of such countries as Belgium and England, which are conspicuous as exporters of manufactures. Dominating the markets of the world is, in the rhetorical aspect, a brilliant and imposing phrase. But a contest of sellers in any market is nothing but a rivalry in reducing prices. Except when the natural or artificial advantages of the contestants are unequal, it is a contest in which only those can succeed who have the capacity and willingness to accept the least profit, and even they are sometimes outstripped by others who may be ready to make positive sacrifices. A contest between domestic sellers in a home market is a contest between those who produce under the same general circumstances in respect to taxation, rents, rates of interest, the degree of comfort in which laborers are accustomed to live, and current wages, so that the competition is kept in most cases within endurable limits. But in the market of the world, the production of a fairly paid labor may confront an unendurable competition in the productions of countries where laborers are slaves, or in conditions very little better than those of actual slavery.

It is the happy fortune of this country, with its amplitude of territory and boundless diversity of natural resources, to be exempt from any actual necessity of going into the markets of the world at all, either to sell or to buy, and to have the option of going into them only where the special circumstances may be auspicious. Our material condition will have reached the point of perfection when our productions shall be so exactly balanced and proportioned to each other that all our raw material, all our food, and all our manufactures shall be sold and consumed at home, excepting only that insignificantly small quantity of them which we may choose to exchange for the few things not reasonably possible to be produced here, which we have formed the habit of indulging in. This ideal perfection is not practically attainable, but we can gradually approximate it, and at any rate we can avoid any policy which will lead us farther and farther from it.

JUNIUS GRIDLEY.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. JUNIUS GRIDLEY, secretary of the Bermuda Ocher Company, of New York City, in regard to the duty on ochers and ochery earths, was ordered to be printed:

We desire to present our views and give our reasons why the present duty of one-half cent per pound on ochers and ochery earths should be retained.

Until the year 1871 no ochers were found in the United States that could successfully compete with the ochers imported from France, in point of color and other characteristics. Common ochers, however, were abundant and largely mined, especially in Vermont and Pennsylvania, which are extensively used by oil-cloth manufacturers for a filler in the body of the cloth where the color or tint is of no account. These ochres are so cheaply produced that no imported ochers can affect them, even if the duty were fully removed.

For more than fifty years what are known to the trade as Rochelle ochers have supplied this market with the higher grades, and until our company introduced the Bermuda ocher, these had no competitors, and, until 1876, the price was never under two cents per pound, even at periods when the duty was trifling.

In 1872 we discovered a deposit of ocher on the Appomattox River, at Bermuda, Va., which proved in every respect equal to Rochelle. Recognizing the value of the discovery, we purchased the property and erected works to mine and manufacture it, and have now nearly \$60,000 invested in the enterprise, and employ a force of 40 men. When we first put our ocher on the market in 1872, the price of Rochelle was $3\frac{3}{4}$ cents per pound; we offered ours at the outset at $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents. The result of our competition has been to reduce the price of Rochelle to $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents for large lots to first hands, and our own production to an average of $1\frac{1}{8}$ cents.

We have been obliged to contend against a strong prejudice existing in the minds of consumers, that no American ocher could possibly supplement in quality the imported article. Where it has been introduced this has been dispelled, and consumers freely admit a preference for our article, still insisting that we shall sell it at a less price than the foreign.

The consumption of fine ochers in the United States will not exceed 3,000 tons annually. Of this our sales are 1,000 tons. Since we commenced, two other deposits have been found in Virginia, and are producing a moderate quantity.

Owing to the obstacles we have met with in introducing our article, working against foreign competition and the prejudice in favor of Rochelle, we have only been able from the profits, since we commenced the manufacture, to declare a single dividend of 5 per cent. on the capital stock of our company. Our sales per annum amounting to less than \$25,000 on an investment of \$60,000, would show that we certainly need the protection at present existing.

When we embarked our capital in the enterprise we did not suppose that the imported article could be placed on this market, even if admitted free, at less than about 2 cents per pound. Had such proved to have been the case we could have had a prosperous business.

It may seem strange to your Commission that we cannot produce our article as cheaply as the imported in the face of a large duty. In explanation we would say that, unfortunately, the crude ocher of our deposit contains about 10 per cent. of sand or grit, which we are obliged to remove in order to make it salable. It has all to be dissolved or washed, the grit precipitated out, and carefully dried before it is ground and bolted; this is a long, tedious process, attended with much labor, covering a period of, say, three months, and involving an additional expense fully equal to the duty imposed on the French; while the Rochelle ochers, on the other hand, are, owing to the absence of grit to an extent which would interfere with the sale, simply mined and ground without washing. The Rochelle ochers are shipped as ballast freight, at about one-half the cost that we are obliged to pay from City Point, Va., to New York by steamer.

In conclusion would say that it appears to us that a change in the duty on this article would not be for the benefit of any one. The consumers have reaped the benefit of a lower price than before known, through our competition, and are getting their supplies now at a ridiculously low price. If the importers can sell at the present price at a profit, by placing the article on the free list, as we see you have been advised by an importer should be done, they could then sell it at the same profit at 3 cent per pound, which would shut up our works and wreck the capital we have invested in the business.

We feel that we "deserve well of our country" in developing a home product for which we were before dependent upon Europe to supply.

PETER COOPER.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

Mr. PETER COOPER, of New York, appeared before the Commission and submitted the following statement:

GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: The most profound anxiety for the welfare of this great and glorious country impels me to offer some thoughts on what I regard as one of the most important subjects that can be presented to the American people. My experience has compelled me to see and know that all trade with foreign nations is a kind of commercial war; it is a war of interests, as the men of all countries are trying to buy as cheap and sell as dear as they can; this they do by the use of all the arts, both fair and foul, that human ingenuity can invent. There is nothing comparable with the evils that have resulted and may result from a war of commerce. Invasion of armies is attended by waste of property, destruction of life, and suspension of all fair exchanges of the products of labor; but with the return of peace, all is as it was before. Such, however, is not the case with the substitution of foreign trade for the home commerce of the products of our own land and our own labor.

Under the artful and alluring fascinations of the powers of foreign trade associations for mutual benefit, patriotism dies out, intellect declines, and the life-blood of a nation slowly ebbs away, rendering recovery difficult, and closing finally with the material and moral death of a nation.

The great boon provided for us by the Declaration of Independence, with its Constitution and its code of laws, was that Congress shall have power to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper; to levy taxes, duties, imposts, and excises; to pay the debts, and provide for the common defense and the general welfare of these United States.

To accomplish these objects, the Constitution binds every member of the government, under the solemnity of his oath of office, to make their every legislative act an intent to establish justice by the organization and execution of all laws which shall be necessary and proper to provide a shield of protection for the lives, liberty, and happiness of the American people. This can only be accomplished by adopting a just balance in a true system of money, weights, and measures by which justice can be most conveniently established in the operations of trade with foreign nations and among the several States.

Our Constitution was intended to use the strength and power of the nation in giving protection to all the rights and interests in all and every form in which labor can be applied to promote the highest welfare of the American people. Daniel Webster has declared what all must see and know to be true, and in words of warning, as well as to what our government is bound to do, in order to secure the rewards of honest labor to the heads and hands that earned them. He says:

The producing *cause* of all prosperity is labor! labor!! labor!!! The government was *made* to protect this industry, and to give it both encouragement and security. To this very end, with this precise object in view, power was given to Congress over the money of the country.

He predicted that conditions which permitted the rapid accumulation

of property in the hands of a few, remitting the masses to poverty, would soon destroy free institutions.

The experience of a long life made me see and know how utterly impossible it is for the American people to buy anything cheap from a foreign country that must be bought at the expense of leaving our good raw materials unused and our own laborers without employment, thus compelling the millions of the mechanics of our own country to go into competition with the farmers, instead of consuming, as they now do, some three-quarters of all the agricultural products now raised in our country.

The advocates of free trade seem to be perfectly regardless of the wants of those millions of men and women throughout our country who have nothing to sell but their labor; those millions having been in the main reduced to this condition of poverty and want by a course of financial legislation so unwise and so unjust that John Sherman, when a Senator, declared that it was without a parallel in ancient or modern times. In his speech on that occasion he said:

That every citizen of the United States had conformed his business to the legal-tender clause.

His whole speech at that time went to show that the legal money which the government had paid out in full settlement for all the forms of labor and property had been actually used and consumed in the prosecution of our late terrible war for the nation's life. Senator Sherman was right when he declared that the nation's currency could not be contracted without bringing ruin to the debtor and the laboring classes throughout our country.

This cruel and unwise contraction of the nation's currency has, in connection with repeated alterations in our tariff laws, broken up the manufacturing business of thousands throughout our country, and has shown that a tariff of duties should be based on principles that will give security and stability in the manufacture of all articles that can be made out of our own good raw materials, and can be put in forms of usefulness in our country with as small an amount of human labor in this country as in any other part of the world.

This being an incontrovertible fact, there is no good reason why those great manufacturing interests of our own country should be periodically ruined, as they have so often been, by repeated alterations of tariffs. These alterations have been most successfully engineered through our Congress by the consummate skill of foreign diplomats, co-operating as they do with the great manufacturing and mercantile interests of our own and other countries, who can well afford to spend millions to break up and keep down the rising manufactures of this great and growing country.

History shows that England gave the strongest kind of protection to her manufacturing interests until they had attained to such a degree of power and perfection of machinery that enabled the English, with the help of restraining laws, which their government had passed, to prevent their colonies from manufacturing anything for themselves. This fact is shown by the following laws that were passed for the accomplishment of their policy and purpose:

In 1710 a law was enacted in the House of Commons that defined the erecting of manufactories in the colonies which tended to increase their dependence on Great Britain.

In 1782 the exportation of hats from province to province, and the number of apprentices, were limited.

In 1750 the erection of any mill or engine for slitting or rolling iron was prohibited.

In 1765 the exportation of artisans was prohibited under a heavy penalty.

In 1781 utensils required for the manufacture of wool or silk were prohibited.

In 1782 the prohibition was extended to artificers in printing calicoes, muslins, or linens.

In 1785 the prohibition was extended to tools used in iron or steel manufacture, and to workmen employed.

In 1799 it was so extended as to even embrace colliers.

All classes should gather wisdom by reflecting on the history and the experience of the past. Free trade is beautiful in theory, and will be in practice where all things are equal and peaceful in the relations of nations, and rapid transit shall go far to annihilate space.

Our government having allowed and used paper money until the day's labor has been made to cost at least two-thirds more than a similar day's labor would cost in other countries, to bring about an equality in trade, will require a tariff based on the difference in the cost that will purchase a day's labor in our country as compared with that of foreign countries.

If the farmers desire to secure for themselves a reliable market and the highest price for their product, they must use the means best calculated to effect that object—they must encourage the manufacture of the articles they consume, and have them made as near their homes as possible.

To illustrate my views more fully, I herewith give an article published by me some years ago, entitled—

THE DANGERS OF A WAR OF COMMERCE AND THE NECESSITY OF A TARIFF AND OF AN UNFLUCTUATING CURRENCY TO NATIONAL PROSPERITY.

It is now less than seventy-five years since a company, chartered by Great Britain, commenced a mercantile war on the people of Hindostan, a country with its then 150,000,000 of inhabitants, famed for manufacturing the finest quality of goods, and for being in possession of the riches of the East. History tells us that "in no part of the world has there been seen a greater tendency to voluntary association for a voluntary exchange of labor than once existed in Hindostan. * * * Each village had its distinct organization, under which the natives had lived from the earliest times down to a recent date. * * * Revolutions might occur and dynasties might succeed each other, but so long as his own little society was undisturbed, the simple Hindoo gave himself no concern about what might happen at the capital. * * * Though often overtaxed and plundered by invading armies, the country continued both rich and prosperous," until an East India company, chartered and sustained by the power of Great Britain, commenced a war of encroachments on the trade and commerce of that country. This war of commercial interests led to a war of conquest, which, after the battle of Plassey, had established British power in India. "The country became filled with adventurers; men whose sole object was to accumulate fortunes by any means, however foul," as was shown by the indignant denunciation of Burke in the Parliament of Great Britain. Fox declared in a speech on the East India bill that "the country was laid waste with fire and sword, and the land once distinguished most above others by the cheerful face of fraternal government and protected labor, the chosen seat of cultivation and plenty, is now almost a dreary desert, covered with rushes and briars, jungles and wild beasts. * * *" The misgovernment of the English was carried to a point such as seemed hardly compatible with the existence of society. They forced the natives to buy dear and sell cheap.

Macaulay says: "The misgovernment was carried to such an extent as seemed incompatible with the existence of society. They forced the natives to buy dear and sell cheap. They insulted, with impunity, the tribunals, the police, and the fiscal authorities of the country. Enormous fortunes were thus rapidly accumulated at Calcutta, where 30,000,000 of human beings were reduced to the extremity of wretchedness. They had been accustomed to live under tyranny; but never tyranny like this. Under their old masters they had one resource—when the evil became insupportable the people pulled down the government. But the English Government was not to be shaken off. That government, oppressive as the most oppressive form of barbarian despotism, was strong with all the strength of civilization. It resembled the government of evil genii rather than the government of human tyrants. * * * Under the title of Zamindars a landed aristocracy was created and held accountable for the collection of taxes."

Fullerton, a member of the Madras Council, says: "Imagine the revenue leviable through 100,000 revenue officers, collected or remitted at their discretion, according to the occupant's means of paying, whether from produce of the land or his separate property, and in order to encourage every man to act as a spy on his neighbor and report his means of paying, that he may save himself from all extra demand; imagine all the cultivators of a village liable at all times to a separate demand, in order to make up the failure of one or more individuals of the parish. Imagine collectors to every county, acting under the orders of board, on the avowed principle of destroying all competition for labor by a general equalization of assessments, seized and sending back all runaways to each other. Lastly, imagine the collector, the sole magistrate or justice of the peace of the county, through the medium of whom alone complaint of personal grievance suffered by the subject can reach the supreme court. Imagine at the same time every subordinate officer employed in the collection of the land revenue to a police officer, vested with the power to confine, put in the stocks, and slay any inhabitant within his range, on any charge, without oath of the accuser or sworn recorded evidence in the case. * * * Under this state of things, "the works constructed for irrigation have gone to ruin and the richest lands have been abandoned."

Captain Westmeot tells his readers that in many places the longest under British rule, there is the largest amount of depravity and crime. Campbell, one of the most distinguished of British poets, characterizes the course of their policy in India prophetically when he says:

"Foes of mankind!" her guardian spirits say,
 "Revolving ages bring the bitter day,
 When Heaven's unerring aim shall fall on you,
 And blood for blood these Indian plains bedew."

"The immolations of an Indian Juggernaut," says a recent writer, "dwindle into insignificance before it, and yet to maintain this trade the towns and cities have been laid in ruins." The middleman system of Ireland and of the West Indies was transplanted to those countries of the East, to which Macaulay declares that "the English Government became as oppressive as the most oppressive form of barbarian despotism." The poor Hindoo was not allowed to make salt from the waters of the ocean. Every form of tax and exaction was forced on that people in order to drive them to send all their cotton and wool to England (the great workshop of the world), to be converted and returned. Sir Robert Peel says: "The effects in India exhibit themselves in such a ruin and distress that no parallel can be found in the annals of commerce." The great city of Decca, that only seventy years since contained 90,000 houses, and exported millions of pieces of the finest quality of goods, is now a mass of ruins. The same authority says: "For the accomplishment of this work of destruction the children of Lancashire, England, were employed fifteen to seventeen hours per day during the week, and until 12 o'clock on Sunday, cleaning and oiling machinery, for which they received 2s. 9d. per week. The object was to underwork the poor Hindoo and drive him from the markets of the world." The pound of cotton, costing in India one cent, was passed through British looms and sold to the Hindoo for from 40 to 60 cents. "Thus England was enriched, as India became impoverished. Step by step British power was extended, and everywhere was adopted the Hindoo principle that the sovereign, as proprietor of the soil, was entitled to half of the gross produce." While these exorbitant local taxes were expended among its own people, the burden could be borne; when these taxes were drawn from the people and expended on absentee landlords, the burden brought desolation and premature death to millions of the people of that country. History tells us that one-half of the labor of that people ran to waste for the want of employment.

The exactions of British power in China, made to force the sale of opium in that country, are stated to cause the death annually of 500,000 of the Chinese people, besides a tax of nearly \$20,000,000. Campbell says: "The immolations of an Indian Juggernaut dwindle into insignificance before it." The ruin of Portugal was effected by the government having been induced to adopt a British commercial policy that broke up the harmony of the agricultural and mechanical interests—interests that had for so long a time made Portugal so rich and prosperous. "It is less than two hundred years since the merchants of London petitioned their government to restrain the manufacture of cloth in Ireland."

Of all the 1,700,000 slaves imported into the British West India islands, only 660,000 were found living on the day of emancipation. This was the result of a war of commerce. The planters on those islands had been deprived by law of all right "to refine their own sugar, or to introduce a spindle or a loom, or to mine coal, or to smelt their own copper," thus depriving the people of the islands of all power of association, and exchange of labor and harmony of interests, without which ruin falls to the lot of every community. The British policy that was forced on the island of Jamaica alone cost the lives of hundreds of thousands of men, in order that a few absentee owners might live in splendor on the island of England. The policy of forcing the whole labor of a community into the single pursuit of making sugar effectually prevented

the growth of towns and schools and impoverished the people and the land. All communities require the families of the blacksmith, the carpenter, mason, and other tradesmen to consume a large part of the agricultural product of the soil, to secure them prosperity, and to enable them to leave off to enrich the land that feeds them. "On the island of Jamaica, with a population of 320,000 black laborers, and with inexhaustible supplies of timber, that island has been without a single saw-mill up to 1860." Out of the amount paid to the British Government by the people thirty years since for the products of its 320,000 black laborers, the home government took no less than \$18,000,000, or almost \$60 per head, and this merely for superintending the exchanges. The negroes imported into Jamaica were no more barbarian than those brought to Virginia and North Carolina; yet, while each of the negroes imported into the latter States is represented by seven of his descendants, the British islands present but two for every five they have received. But a century since Portugal and the West Indies were England's best customers. What are they now? All impoverished by a policy that has broken up their own home commerce, and has subjected their countries to the heaviest kind of a tax—the tax of transporting their heavy products to great distances, to be exchanged for the light products of other countries.

The war of the Revolution of our country was brought on by a war of commercial interests. It was a war that showed a determination on the part of the mother country to keep her colonies entirely dependent on England for all forms of manufactured articles. Laws were enacted to prevent the colonies from manufacturing out of their own good raw materials things indispensable for their own use, and necessary to give employment to those who have nothing to sell but their own labor. The war of the Revolution was a war of resistance to a war of commerce then being forced by the mother country on the colonies. Our conquest of a country did not deliver us from the consummate power of highly-educated British diplomats, whose business it has always been to find the weak places in surrounding governments, and to so control the legislation of those countries as to make them tributary to the wealth and power of Great Britain. These diplomats, after having secured for their own manufacturing interests more perfect protection and more perfect mechanical powers than any other nation possessed, have enabled their government to gain greater advantages by their war of commerce on our own country than they could have gained if the colonies had remained entirely under their own control.

Such has been the consummate ability that foreign diplomacy has been able to exert in a war of commerce which has brought our country in debt to foreign governments to an amount the interest on which is now equivalent to a large proportion of the agricultural export of the country. This state of things must continue or grow worse, unless our government will raise its whole revenue out of duties on imports, and relieve the country from all forms of direct taxation, and by that means encourage the application of knowledge, economy, and labor in a course of efforts to supply our own wants by our own industry, out of our own good raw materials, that can be put into useful forms with as small an expense of human labor here as in any other part of the world. Thus it will enable the country to win back its independence of foreign debt by paying it off as fast as the amount can be raised from the duties on imports.

Our government can only hold its power as a free system by avoiding in future all special, partial, or class legislation, and by the enactment of only such general laws as are necessary and indispensable to establish justice. Justice can only be established "and the general welfare promoted" by the government holding an entire control over all that is allowed or intended to measure or weigh the different forms and values of labor in its course of exchange from one person to another. Hence the absolute necessity for the establishment of a just and unyielding system of money, weights, and measures. This is indispensable to facilitate the business of the country. A paper money should have been coined for our country at the close of the late war, in amount equal to the cost of the late war. That amount saved for our country a nation's life. That amount should have been made the unfluctuating measure of all values for all coming time, and *only increased per capita with the increase of population.*

Such a currency, made receivable for all forms of taxes, duties, and debts, both public and private, would always be as uniform in its purchasing power as the yard, the pound, and the bushel measure. It would be, as it was in Venice, more valuable than gold, where it lasted five hundred years without a panic. The people of our country should never forget that one of the great causes that led to the American Revolution was the determination on the part of Great Britain to force its manufactures on the colonies, to be paid for by sending raw materials to England, thus keeping them dependent by preventing them from manufacturing for themselves. This policy of England has drawn to its little island the wealth of every country that has allowed itself to become the subject of its policy and power. It is still trying to persuade the people of this country to run their plows in competition with the mighty machines in England, where a single engine is doing the work of a thousand horses. To see the folly of yielding to a British policy, we have only to look at the effects

produced on our country during the war with England. At that time, when our foreign trade was cut off, labor was in demand and money abundant; furnaces and mills were built, and all actively employed; wages were high, and our national debt small. Four years later, our country was persuaded to yield to a British policy of free trade. At once all was changed; mills and furnaces were stopped, labor went begging, our poorhouses were filled, the price of land declined, money became scarce and interest high; the rich who held mortgages became richer, and the poor and those who were in debt were ruined. At that time the American farmer had no foreign or home market for the surplus product of the country. Complaints grew and increased until things grew so bad that in 1828 our government found it necessary to adopt what I call a true American system—a system of free trade—a trade that extended to all parts of our own country, in all articles that are the product of our own soil or of American labor. By this system duties were laid on imports that soon gave new life and energy to the trade and business of the country. The public debt was soon paid off, and prosperity became universal. By degrees, between 1834 and 1842, the tariff was again repealed by the influence of southern and pro-slavery politicians, whose whole wealth was invested in cotton and slaves. The mills were again stopped, furnaces closed, lands fallen to half-price, the sheriff at work, States repudiating their debts, the Treasury unable to borrow at home or abroad, and bankrupt laws passed by Congress. In 1842 the true American system was again tried, and in less than five years the production of iron alone rose from 200,000 tons to 800,000 tons. Prosperity was again universal, mines were opened, mills were built, and money plenty, and the public and private revenues greater than ever. Once more, in 1846, the British policy of free trade was adopted by repealing our tariff, and, notwithstanding the discovery of gold in California, money was as high as ever. British iron came in and gold went out. In 1857 the culmination was reached and a crisis came on. The Treasury was again nearly bankrupt. In three years emigration fell below the point of twenty-eight years before, and our own exports fell off to a mere nothing. Such have been the effects of yielding to a policy recommended by men and nations having interests to serve that are at war with all the best interests of our own country.

A war of commercial interests is not peculiar to England alone. It has been the habit of all trading nations since "naught said the buyer." They will all continue to buy in the cheapest market and sell in the dearest as long as men do not love their neighbors as they do themselves. There are thousands of those now engaged in foreign trade whose fortunes depend on filling the country with foreign goods. There are other thousands who are holders of mortgages, who hope to buy in the property for the face of their mortgages, or for half its present value. And that they will do as soon as they can induce our government to try another experiment in what they call free trade. The policy of these persons, who are all clamorous for free trade, would deprive millions of men of their means of living by mechanical employments, and drive them into competition with the farming and agricultural interests of the country, making the mechanics competitors of the farmers instead of consuming, as they now do, ten times as much of the agricultural product of the country as is now sold in all Europe.

It would be as unwise for our country in time of war to govern the movements of armies by the advice of our enemy as it would be for our government to allow our national policy to be controlled by the advice of the trading nations of Europe, who will always consult their own interests entirely independent of any interests of ours. It is well to remember that there is nothing that can be said to be purchased cheap of foreign countries that must be bought at the expense of leaving our own labor unemployed, and our own good raw materials unused. I advocate the cause of our manufacturing interest, because they secure to the farmer his surest and best market for the agricultural products of the country, and because experience has demonstrated the fact that the surest way to maintain our independence, and cheapen goods to the consumer, is to foster the home productions of our country and give diversified employment to our people. And I advocate an American system because I desire the political power and the financial honor of the nation to be maintained and vindicated before the world. This can be most effectually accomplished by making ourselves independent as far as our own soil and climate and good raw materials will enable us to produce the articles we need; and this they do with as small an expense of labor as it would require to produce the same articles in any other part of the world. I advocate a policy that will maintain the national government and pay the nation's debt out of duties on imports. The heaviest duties should be laid on all articles of luxury and the lightest duties on all articles that will aid in securing a diversified employment to our people.

There is nothing else our government can do that will so effectually stimulate and develop all the best energies of a free people as will the adoption of a just, uniform, and unyielding system of money, weights, and measures. It is greatly to be regretted that our government failed in its very commencement to perform the most important duty enjoined by the Constitution. They should never have allowed the individual

States to issue paper money that *was to all intent bills of credit*. It has been the inflation of irredeemable paper money that has so raised the price of all property and labor that we now tempt the world to sell us everything, and we have made everything with us too dear to sell with profit in return. Free trade with foreign nations *must*, where all things have been made unequal by the use of paper money, prove, in the future as it has in the past, a delusion and a snare. It must, in the future as it has in the past, bring panic, pressure, and ruin to untold thousands made bankrupt by the change of value in all kinds of property. This must be the result of leaving our own labor unemployed and our own good raw materials unused.

After all I have read, written, and published to the world on the all-important subject of a tariff, I come to the conclusion that it should give full and complete protection to what Daniel Webster calls the producing cause of all prosperity, which he says is "labor! labor!! labor!!!"

This can only be accomplished by an amount of duties that shall equal the difference between the cost of a day's labor in our country as compared with the cost of a similar day's labor in other countries.

The difference, when carefully examined, will be found to be on an average, in this country, of from 50 to 150 per cent. more than what is now being paid for similar labor in other countries.

It will thus be seen that justice cannot be established, and the general welfare of the American people be secure, except by the manufacture of all those articles which are absolutely necessary for our consumption as a free and independent nation. Duties on all the most necessary and essential articles of industry, which our government was made to protect, encourage, and secure, should be as nearly prohibitory as possible. An amount of duties should be collected from the smallest number of articles that will furnish an amount sufficient to pay the expenses of the General Government of our country. This would relieve our people from all internal taxation for the support of our National Government.

Mr. Bonamy Price, in his book on political economy, quotes from Hon. Ward, M. P., where he says that 99 per cent. of the communications on the tariff represent individual interests and demand protection for articles they produce. Mr. Ward, Bonamy Price, and all the advocates of unqualified free trade, base their arguments on a false foundation; they fail to see that our government has allowed local banks to issue pictures or bills of credit, called money, in open violation of the Constitution, which delegates only to Congress the power of coining money and regulating the value thereof; also of regulating commerce between the United States and foreign countries.

Our government having neglected from its commencement to make necessary and proper laws to issue a strictly national currency, based on the whole property of the country, and to establish a tariff only to raise a revenue sufficient to pay the national debt, should even now begin to assert that power and carry it out to the letter; for it is yet time to do right, correct errors, and to secure full and complete protection to the useful industries and labor now employed in all the important manufacturing interests of our country; but there seems to be little hope of establishing justice when our late Congress authorized the collection and accumulation of \$150,000,000, which they tried very hard to squander without much thought of appropriating any and all surplus toward paying our enormous debt, which would not only relieve taxpayers and producers, but the toiling masses.

History could probably not show such another accumulation of revenue in any other country, ancient or modern, monarchy or republic, and any nation or people that allows it is on the high road to corruption and ruin.

I indulge the hope that the all-important questions of a national tariff, and of a strictly national paper currency, will be settled in the interest of the mass of the American people, and not, as now, in favor of monopolies of all kinds, especially banks and railroads.

I desire also to call the attention of the Commission to a few facts and figures in relation to the exports and imports of merchandise, and of gold and silver coin and bullion, during the last twenty-three years, and the influence our foreign commerce has on the volume of currency, and the relation of that volume to the industries of the country. These facts and figures should convince every intelligent man that to disturb our present tariff, especially in the way of reductions of duties on foreign imports, will be attended with great danger to the business prosperity of our own country.

From the preliminary report of the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, published in the Bankers' Magazine for September, we obtain some important facts in relation to the value of gold and silver coin and bullion imported into, and exported from, the United States from the year 1860 to 1882, inclusive; also, of the excess of imports over exports. The total exports of coin during this period was \$932,226,125, and the total imports only \$183,608,572.

During this period the exports of coin and bullion exceeded the imports for twenty years, and the imports exceeded the exports only for three years, and the total amount of exports of gold and silver coin and bullion over the imports in twenty-three years was \$749,617,553.

During this entire period we have been under a high tariff, and a portion of the time a war tariff at that. If we have lost \$749,617,553 of gold and silver coin and bullion, which constitutes the base of our currency, under a high tariff, what would have been our loss had we been under a system of free trade, or even with any great reduction in our present rates of duties on foreign imports.

We learn, also, from this report that in the year 1881 the total exports of the country were \$902,377,346, and the imports were \$642,664,628, and the excess of exports over imports was \$259,712,718; but, in 1882, the total exports were only \$750,351,173, and the total imports were \$724,623,317, leaving the excess of exports over imports only \$25,727,856.

From these figures it will be seen that the increase in our imports during the past year has been \$91,958,689, or 12.7 per cent.; and that there has been a falling off in our exports in the year 1882, amounting to \$132,026,173, over those of 1881, an actual change in the balance of trade of \$233,684,862.

Now if such an enormous change is taking place in one year under a system of what may be called a high tariff, what, may I ask, would be the result if an effort was made to reduce the rates of duties?

The report of the Chief of Bureau of Statistics also informs us that, out of \$91,958,689 of increase in imports during the past year, \$69,809,869 were dutiable articles, and the balance on articles admitted free of duty.

From the above table, in relation to the exports and imports of gold and silver coin and bullion, it will be seen that in the fiscal year ending in 1882 the exports over imports were \$6,940,186. You will also observe from the foregoing table, that in 1881 the excess of imports over exports of coin was \$91,168,650. This shows that in 1881 we had coming into the country a balance of over \$91,000,000 of gold and silver coin and bullion, while in 1882 we have had \$6,940,186 going out of the country.

Your honorable Commission must be aware of the disastrous influence upon the business industries of our country that a reduction of the

volume of our currency always produces. To contract the currency always tends to shrink prices. If you take away the gold and silver coin and bullion, you take away the foundation upon which all other currency rests.

We have over \$700,000,000 of paper currency that is practically redeemable in coin. If any great amount of this coin is taken out of the country, will it not endanger the ability of the government and the banks to redeem this currency in coin, and be likely to precipitate a financial panic?

These facts should make your honorable Commission hesitate long before you make any alteration whatever in our present system of tariff.

THOMAS HICKSON.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. THOMAS HICKSON, secretary of the committee on the tariff of the Goldbeaters' Union of New York City, in regard to the duty on gold-leaf, was read and ordered printed:

We respectfully ask your consideration of the following facts relating to the gold-leaf trade, which have come to hand since we appeared before your honorable board:

In 1879, after the long period of dullness that followed the panic of 1873, we obtained a considerable advance in our wages, which we held until the spring of the present year, when our employers told us they could not afford to pay the advance any longer, as the imported leaf could be sold in this country for less than it cost to make here, and the importers were taking away their customers. It cost, then, \$6.73 to make a pack of gold-leaf here, which is now made for \$6.40, while the foreign leaf can be imported, all charges paid, for \$6.42 per pack; and we are informed, upon good authority, that the German manufacturers are willing to sell at even lower figures, hoping to drive the domestic manufacturers out of the market and make up in the future what they may sacrifice now.

In proof of our statements we submit the following facts taken from the report of the Bureau of Statistics for the current year.

In the year ended June 30, 1879, there were only 214 packs of gold-leaf imported into this country; the next year, when we were getting advanced wages, the amount was nearly double, viz, 416 packs, while in 1881 it jumped to 2,252 packs, and in 1882, we are informed by Collector Robertson, that there were imported into New York alone 4,592 packs! These figures are unanswerable; they point to the conclusion that the duty must be increased or the trade will pass into the hands of the importers, and the only interest thus benefited will be that of a few non-producers, at the expense of the living of hundreds of deserving mechanics. We must, of course, admit that when our employers suggested the reduction we were not aware of the precise extent of the importation, but we knew they were losing customers, and we were obliged to accept the present rate of wages, averaging, as I have stated in the blank furnished by you, about \$432 a year, hoping that we should soon be able to better our position.

In order to ascertain the opinion of the consumers in this matter, we have spoken with several large manufacturers who use gold-leaf, and they all say that it is not like an article of every-day consumption, which people would use in larger quantities if it were made cheaper, but that a slight increase of cost, such as is proposed by us, would not interfere with its sale in the least, and they do not believe that if it were made 20 per cent. cheaper its use would be increased by one pack a year.

We appeal to you, not as men desiring a better return for invested capital, but as hard-working mechanics who are seeking such protection for our labor as will enable us to live by it as other men do whose position in life is similar to ours.

BENJAMIN TATHUM.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

Mr. BENJAMIN TATHUM, of New York City, manufacturer of lead pipe, &c., addressed the Commission as follows:

I shall detain you but a very few minutes. A meeting was held yesterday by the representatives of the manufacturers in order to respond to your invitation to appear before you and present our case. Mr. Howe and myself were appointed to express, in general terms, the opinion of this meeting, that it was desirable to have free trade on raw materials and a moderate duty on manufactured articles. I appear before you in obedience to the request of these gentlemen. I have this morning endeavored to carry out their suggestions, and have committed to writing a few remarks which, with your permission, I will read.

Among the declared objects of the Constitution of the United States we find two which bear on the question of tariff. The first is "to establish justice; the other "to promote the general welfare." (See preamble.)

To this end Congress is empowered—

1st. "To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises; to pay debts, and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States"; and,

2d. "To regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States, &c."

The general welfare requires that, so far as possible, the duties on foreign goods shall be arranged with the view of their effects on the whole nation, so as to develop the resources and the national wealth, stimulate and reward the industry of the people, and secure their prosperity. These objects also concern the common defense in the means which they would contribute.

Whatever stimulates the productive industry of the whole people tends to the general welfare.

It makes no difference to the tax-payer whether he pays a given amount by direct taxation or by indirect, provided such amount goes into the public treasury, or adds proportionately to the general wealth.

The great problem to be solved is as to the raising of a sufficient revenue for all the obligations and duties of the government from the resources and industry of the people, without injustice to any class or to any section of the country.

The various conflicting interests which have been urged upon Congress in reference to the tariff clearly indicate that it must, to be permanent, be arranged and settled on some general principle which will commend itself to general approbation. The subject is so complicated and the interests involved are so vast that we cannot expect to accomplish this object without full information, great care, and sound judgment.

The absurdities and wrongs which are seen and felt in the present tariff call for immediate changes in those respects. Amongst these are the duties which are prohibitory, which raise the cost of materials to the consumer, and yet add no revenue to the public treasury. Amongst these are the existing duties upon copper, and lead, and steel.

How does the present tariff upon these conduce to the general welfare?

We do not think that the people of the United States are prepared for a tariff for revenue only, irrespective of its effects upon the national industry. If not, and if the revenue of the country is to be raised chiefly from duties upon foreign manufactures imported and consumed here, then they should be made as nearly uniform as possible.

Duties on raw material—articles which are necessary to use to meet the competition of foreign commerce—should be admitted free. There is no adequate object in levying duties on foreign ores, because the value of our own ores will depend upon the price of the metal derived from them. Home competition secures this result. The silver and gold in our ores will cause them to be mined for the sake of the gold and silver.

The present duty on foreign pig lead is 2 cents per pound—\$40 a ton! And yet no revenue is derived from it! The cost of manufactured lead to the consumer in the United States is increased, apparently to millions of dollars, without producing any revenue to the public treasury. Who then gets the benefit of this great increase?

If the duty on pig lead were fixed at 1 cent per pound, then, on principles of equity, the duty on manufactured lead should be as much more, say 2 cents per pound. But both of these may appear to some excessive, and yet many believe that they ought to be arranged at a less tariff.

Experience shows that in many cases the increase or decrease of duties do not, to that extent, increase or decrease the price of foreign goods to the consumer.

Such changes generally increase or decrease prices in foreign countries, and, to nearly the same extent, increase or decrease the price to the consumer where such changes are made. The increased demand for foreign goods increases their price abroad at the same time that a decrease of the duty reduces the cost to the consumer, so that the change is generally met half way.

If the duty were taken off pig lead the price of foreign pig lead would probably advance 1 cent per pound at the same time that the price of pig lead in this country would fall 1 cent per pound. In such case the price of lead in Europe and on the seaboard of the United States would be very nearly equal. The present price is about 5 cents per pound here, whilst in Europe it is about 3 cents per pound. If admitted free the price of pig lead here and there would probably be about 4 cents per pound.

Home manufacturers would then obtain their supplies of pig lead at about the same price as the foreign manufacturers, and the competition would lie between the cost of labor and the skill of the manufacturer in the respective countries. There would, in such case, be no revenue derived from imported lead.

From past experience it is probable that from a duty of three-fourths of a cent per pound on foreign lead, with full drawback upon an equal weight exported to foreign countries, our foreign commerce would be increased, and the general welfare of the people of the United States would be best secured, at least until the public debt shall be extinguished.

Specific duties properly adjusted encourage the purchase of the best foreign goods, whilst ad valorem duties always tempt importers to purchase articles of inferior quality to the injury of the consumer.

I have been requested to present the following paper for your consideration:

The duty on raw material should be consistent. We allude to the prohibitory duty on lead ore (virtually a duty on the import of the pre-

cious metals), while iron ore, for example, is only 20 per cent. ad valorem, which is equal to a specific rate of less than 50 cents per ton.

Custom-house valuation at \$2 per ton, equal 40 cents per ton duty, whilst lead ores, without regard to per cent. of metal, are subject to a duty of 1½ cents per pound. See the contrast.—(Marquette Mining Journal.)

On lead ore, at the best established smelters, there is an average loss of 10 per cent. of the metal in reduction, which would make the duty on a fifty per cent. ore equal to \$74.67, viz, 2,240 pounds ore of 50 per cent., metal=1,120 pounds metal; loss in smelting, 10 per cent.,=112 pounds, leaving 1,008 pounds of metal, at 1½ cents per pound, on 2,240 pounds of ore (\$33.60),=\$74.67 on a ton of metal,=3.33 per pound.

On an ore of 75 per cent. we have 1,680 pounds metal. Loss in smelting, 10 per cent., 168 pounds, leaving 1,512 pounds,=to \$49.72 on a ton of metal,=to 2.22 cents per pound on the ore.

In another light, looking at the goods manufactured from ores of iron, and from ores of lead, and we have, viz:

Iron ore.—Valuation at \$2, duty 20 per cent.=40 cents per ton.

Rolled iron, at 4 cents per pound=per ton \$89.60; duty as above of 40 cents=.45 of 1 per cent. on the market value of manufactured iron.

Lead ore.—Duty 1½ cents per pound=\$33.60 per ton.

Pig lead.—Say at 5 cents per pound=per ton \$112; duty as above is equal to 30 per cent., or nearly 70 times more duty on lead ores than iron ores, calculated on the market values of their respective products.

Being freed from this excessive and prohibitory duty, the coal producer, freighters by land and water, insurance companies, employment of capital—with the accruing profits retained at home, well-paid labor in the transmission of the crude materials into the finished product, &c., all would be benefited.

It would enable us to compete with England and the continent for sheet lead, lead pipe, leaded iron plates, solder, and the alloys of lead, for the metal trade with the East Indies, now monopolized by England, and the white-lead trade of the world outside of the United States—all of which has been sealed against our manufacturers by the reason of the prohibitory duty on the raw material working against our own people, and for the benefit of foreign labor and capital, at the same time yielding no revenue to the government.

Imported into England from Spain in 1880:

2,562 tons of ore with about	17,934 ounces of silver.
67,584 tons of lead with about	662,323 ounces of silver.
70.146 tons	680,257 ounces of silver.

Relief is asked by making the duty the same per ton as iron ore in lieu of \$33.60; or at the extreme, not to exceed one-fourth cent per pound on lead ore. When an ore contains of the precious metals gold and silver more in value than the lead, then the ore should be classed amongst the precious metals and be on the free list.

For example, say lead is worth 5 cents per pound, and the ore contains 75 per cent. of lead, then the lead in a ton of ore is of value \$84. If the ore contains gold and silver—one or both—of value less than \$84, it shall be classed as lead ore. If more in value, then it shall be classed amongst the precious metals. This is in accordance with the present ruling of the government.

A case in point.

There was imported into Philadelphia, in 1879, an article of soda, viz:

	Per cent.
Hydrate of soda	42
Carbonate.....	23
Sulphate	35

The government ruled that the duty should be as caustic soda, 1½ cents per pound, that being the most valuable ingredient.

In the importation of caustic ash, testing as high as 14 per cent. caustic soda, the rate of duty is one-fourth cent per pound, it being the duty on carbonate of soda (soda ash), and being the most valuable ingredient, viz:

14 caustic, at ¾ cents	\$0 45½
86 ash, at ¼ cents	1 29

ON THE DRAWBACK OF LEAD DUTY.

In addition to the considerations submitted in the statement relative to the existing duties upon lead ores, the provision respecting drawbacks of duty upon foreign goods exported from the United States after being manufactured, merits the attention of Congress. The drawback system was adopted to enable manufacturers to import and manufacture foreign materials for foreign commerce on as favorable terms as other nations without diminishing the revenue derived upon duties on foreign goods consumed at home. The object was to secure employment for American industry, which otherwise would be prohibited or driven away to foreign countries by our revenue system without the slightest benefit to the people of the United States. This object has been in great measure defeated by the provision which withholds 10 per cent. of the duties levied upon such articles, when the duties upon them amount to from 50 to 100 per cent.; the amount thus withheld, in addition to the custom-house charges and other expenses, is a prohibitory premium given by Congress in favor of foreign manufacturers, and against those of our own country. The effect is to injure or altogether destroy our foreign commerce in such articles, and to that extent to take the bread from the mouths of our industrious citizens.

It is difficult to understand the object of levying any duty upon articles brought to this country and then exported.

The revenue derived from them does not pay the cost of collecting. The parties concerned pay all the expenses. The business does not in any way injure or interfere with the interests of any of the people of the United States, whilst the money value derived from it would be brought into the country, and, by increasing the taxable property of our citizens, would to that extent diminish the rate of general taxation. Articles produced in this country which command higher prices than foreign goods cannot be used for foreign commerce, and therefore the policy which prohibits the use of foreign goods for that purpose and deprives our citizens of remunerative employment without benefit to any American interest, can only be described as the dog-in-the-manger policy!

The energy and ability which exist in every man form part of the undeveloped wealth of the nation. If not employed it is lost. He who gives remunerative employment to that energy and ability is a benefactor to his country and adds to its wealth and ought to be encouraged in every way and every unnecessary obstacle to his success should be promptly removed. The system of drawbacks should be carried out so as to relieve our foreign commerce as far as possible from the evils

which arise from our tariff system. Articles made of foreign goods for export should, upon exportation, have the whole amount of duty refunded; and no fees nor charges of any kind should be imposed upon them. They are equivalent to export duties which are prohibited by the Constitution. We should encourage and foster our foreign commerce by liberal provisions by which the amount levied upon foreign materials may be returned upon the export of the same quantity of such materials when manufactured irrespective of their origin. Thus a party who pays duty upon a given quantity of foreign steel, iron, copper, lead, or other materials which in its manufacture into articles for export is liable to become or is necessarily mixed with similar materials produced in the United States, should, upon export of the same quantity of such material, be entitled to the amount of duty which he shall have paid upon the imported material. Such substitution of material would work no injury to the public revenue.

PETITION OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

The following petition from AMERICAN ARTISTS resident abroad, transmitted through the Secretary of State, in regard to the duty upon works of art, was ordered to be printed :

We beg to present the following petition on behalf of American artists resident abroad, in reference to the new consular regulations relating to duties on the works of American artists when sent to America.

Our reasons for desiring a revision of the laws now in force are as follows :

I. By the old consular regulations, under the head of "tariff of fees" there were no special instructions as to the amount to be paid by American artists for certificates to enable them to have their productions entered free of duty in United States ports, but it was the custom in some of the consulates, for instance that of Munich, to charge 50 cents for each oath for such purpose. By the new consular regulations of 1881, however, section 675 reads as follows :

The statute (Revised Statutes, section 2505) provides for the entry at ports of the United States free of duty, of paintings, statuary, fountains, and other works of art, the production of American artists. The fact of such productions being the works of American artists must be verified by the certificate of a consul or minister, indorsed upon the written declaration of the artist; the charges for said certificate being \$2.50.

II. But, further, by the actual existing laws, when an American artist residing abroad wishes to send his picture to America, he must pay not only \$2.50 for the certificate, but also an additional \$2.50 for the invoice. These charges we think are excessive and exorbitant; they fall heavily upon those whose studies we think the government should foster and encourage.

III. We would, furthermore, beg to call your attention to the existing law regarding frames upon the works of American artists. Under the present law an artist is obliged to pay a duty of 35 per cent. on the value of his frame, which effectually prevents him from sending his picture to America framed. This we consider not only detrimental to his artistic interests, but injurious to the cause of art.

A frame designed or chosen by the artist is actually part of the picture. No picture is finished until framed, and that under the artist's own supervision and care. Pictures being painted in the frame, that frame belongs to and is a part of the picture, as much as the paint with which the picture is painted. In order to enable the artist to finish his picture properly, he must know that the frame in which it is painted will always remain a part thereof.

We therefore beg for such a revision of duties as will enable American artists to send their works framed to America entirely free of duty.

LUMBER DEALERS' STATEMENT.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

The following statement in regard to the duty upon lumber, signed by the principal wholesale lumber dealers of Chicago, Ill., was ordered to be printed :

The Forty-seventh Congress having authorized the appointment of a Commission for the purpose of gaining information directly from the people upon the subject of the present tariff, the gentlemen comprising the said Commission, as we understand the scope of their duties, intending to recommend to Congress amendments to the tariff law, when it shall appear to them from good evidence that the people of the United States will be benefited by such changes, we believe most earnestly that the time has come when it would be greatly to the interest and good of the people of the United States to remove the present import tax upon lumber, which may conveniently be brought to them from the Dominion of Canada. In support of this argument we would say that the wonderful growth of the United States, and especially the development of that portion lying west of the lakes, has been due to the readiness with which cheap dwellings, barns, fences, and granaries were obtainable through the plentifulness of a cheap building material, such as is found in the white-pine lumber supply. With the exhaustion of this supply the still vast unsettled prairies and fields of the West will, in a measure, cease to present inducements to the emigrant from foreign lands, the unoccupied overflow from the older States of the Union, or the inducements for development afforded by the building of railroads and other highways of commerce.

That the time is not far distant when the lumber supply of the Northwest will be practically exhausted, and that evidences of that exhaustion are even now quite apparent, will be disputed by no well-informed person.

It is but a few years since the value of standing pine of good quality averaged from as low as 50 cents to as high as \$2.50 per thousand feet; the value of the same grades of timber has risen at the present time from \$3 to as high as \$8 per thousand feet, an average value being, probably, fairly stated at from \$4 to \$5 per thousand. This value is still further advanced to the consumer in the fact that a majority of the present timber supply is remote from streams, and consequently more expensive of access.

The efforts of the United States census commissioners to ascertain the extent of the timber supply of the United States have resulted in a report, under the sanction and approval of that bureau, placing the timber supply of the three principal pine-producing States at but 81,000,000,000 feet, or an amount equal to the demands of the country for a period of eight years, based upon the present consumptive demand. Aside from the States of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, the white-pine timber resources of the country are insignificant, and while the supply of other kinds of timber in the South and elsewhere is reported as adequate for the needs of a full generation, there is no other variety of timber which can take the place of or is adapted to the same uses as white pine, unless it be the cypress of the South, unavailable for many eco-

nomie reasons, or the whitewood (or tulip), more valuable for other commercial uses than as a substitute for pine as a building material.

Aside from the supply of white pine in the three States above mentioned, in the Dominion of Canada there exists a quantity equal, according to the opinion of many experts who have considered the question, to the present remaining supply of the United States. We believe that it is in the interest of a good and wise policy to admit this timber to the United States free from the incumbrance of a tax. We assert that this timber has cost, and does cost, those who control it for utilization a larger sum per thousand than was obtained by the United States Government from those to whom the timber lands of this country were disposed; that the cost of manufacture in Canada is not below the cost to the American manufacturer; and that the average cost of transportation of a majority of that portion of the present Canadian pine which would naturally reach the United States market is considerably in excess of the cost of placing the native product in the hands of the consumer. These combined factors preclude the possibility of any injury resulting to the American manufacturer from the admission of foreign lumber.

In support of the first proposition we assert that the liberal policy of the American Government has permitted the timber lands of this country to be purchased in fee simple at from \$1.25 to \$2.50 per acre. These lands are estimated in general to yield 5,000 feet of timber per acre, while a large proportion of them have and will yield from 10,000 to 15,000 feet per acre. The standing timber, therefore, has been sold by the government at an average probably less than 25 cents per thousand feet, including the ownership of the land, which in many cases readily sells at from \$5 to \$10 per acre after being denuded of its timber, such land being found in many parts of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota to be unsurpassed in value for agricultural purposes. From the land and timber for which the government has received, at its highest established price, \$1,600 per square mile, the manufacturer of lumber has realized, and is now realizing, 3,200,000 feet of timber of an average stumpage value at the present time, as stated by the Saginaw manufacturers in an address recently presented to the Congressional Special Tariff Commission, of \$4.50 per thousand, or \$14,400 per square mile, to which may be added the market value of the land for agricultural purposes, which, if stated at \$2.50 per acre, or \$1,600, leaves the case to be stated simply that the government has presented \$14,400 in timber to each purchaser of a square mile of timber lands. This we esteem to be fully all the protection to which the manufacturer of the United States is entitled at the hands of the government.

Comparing the policy of the American Government with that of Canada, we find that it is the policy of the latter to place its timber lands in groups of townships, which are offered to the highest bidder at public sale, at a bonus for the privilege of cutting off the timber. This bonus or privilege usually costs the purchaser not far from 35 cents per thousand feet, after which, under many and usually expensive restrictions, the government claims a stumpage duty of 75 cents per thousand on all timber actually cut, in addition to local taxes of about \$100 per year per square mile, or an average of about three cents per thousand feet, a total stumpage cost of over \$1 per thousand paid to the Canadian Government, the ownership of the land remaining in the government.

While, therefore, the American timber owner, investing of necessity but \$1,600 to secure 3,200,000 feet of timber (actually securing nearly or quite double that amount as a rule), realizes from the value of his

timber and the sale of his land \$16,000, the purchaser of Canadian timber pays to the government not less than \$3,200, without any rebate, in the value of the land, for the purpose of securing the net quantity of 3,200,000 feet of timber. The Canadian lumberman, in a country less favorably situated for railroad transportation of men and supplies to the camps, is consequently at greater expense in his preparatory work, and as the contiguity of the two nations enables a ready interchange of labor, it follows that with a larger number of laborers, bred to the work of the lumber camp, the Canadian laborer seeks work on American soil whenever the rate of wages between the two countries is greatly disproportioned, thus compelling the Canadian employer to pay nearly or quite as high rates of wages as prevail in the more extended lumber regions of this country, if he would retain his laborers.

The food markets of Canada are based in values upon those of the United States, so that in the staples which enter most largely into the business of lumbering, namely, grain for teams, flour, beef, pork and beans for the men, the average expense of camp supplies is to the Canadian operator but little if at all less than to the American. In the running of logs to the saw-mill the expenses again are not far from equal, the general comparison of streams in the two countries being, if anything, in favor of the American.

The capital invested of necessity in pursuit of this industry is greater in Canada in proportion to the extent of the work performed, from the necessity to acquire the large land limits, which alone can be obtained from the Canadian Government, the American Government selling as low as 40 acres at a cost of not over \$100, while nothing less than a township is disposed of by the Canadian Government. The number of men employed is not less, per thousand feet produced, in one country than in the other, and the capital employed in saw-mills will bear the same comparison. It would be folly to assert that greater intelligence enables the Canadian laborer to perform a greater amount of work in the saw-mill than does the American, while it is a fact that by improved methods and machinery, more generally adopted in this country than in Canada, the cost of producing lumber is greater in Canada than in the United States. In the matter of transportation the Canadian again labors under the disadvantage of being, in the main, and especially in the western portion of the province, whence must come a majority of the timber, at a long distance from markets, whereas the American operator can utilize lake or railroad transportation at his pleasure, and with but short lines and a low freight rate. The disadvantages under which the Canadian operator labors we assert to be more than the equivalent of any superior advantages he may possess, so that it may with positiveness be assumed that Canadian lumber laid down upon the docks of Chicago or any other large distributing center, will have cost the Canadian as much, if not more, than the same quality of stock has cost the American manufacturer at the same point.

Having demonstrated, as we believe, that the American Government has dealt more liberally with the American timber owner than has the Canadian, pointing to the statement of the Saginaw manufacturers, before referred to, in which by their own admission the royalty on Canadian timber is \$1.75, or nearly double what we have assumed it to be, as further evidence that our estimates are wholly within bounds, we next controvert the statement of the Saginaw memorial, in which the liberality of the Canadian Government in building piers, booms, and slides is pointed out, by referring to the general policy of the American Government with regard to navigable waters, pointing to the recent river

and harbor bill, appropriating an additional \$17,500,000, no mean proportion of which was devoted exclusively to improvements in the localities where the lumber interest is benefited to a greater extent than is any other individual industry.

Analyzing the statement of the Saginaw memorialists, we have shown that while the Canadian lumberman has paid to that government from \$1 to \$2 per thousand stumpage on the timber cut by him, the American Government has virtually presented to the lumberman of this country each section of pine land, together with the timber on the same, of a value of \$14,400, for the mere nominal sum of \$1,600, or, as he can readily realize that sum for the stripped lands, has made him a gift of the timber for his labor in clearing it. The Census Bureau reports 1,649 lumber-manufacturing establishments in Michigan, 234 in Minnesota, and 704 in Wisconsin, a total of 2,587; assuming for argument's sake that the number is 10,000, and asserting, as we believe, that no timber interests except those connected with the lumber manufacturers of the States named are to be affected by an abrogation of the tax on lumber, it would seem that after giving \$14,400 with each section of pine land to 10,000 manufacturers of lumber, it was now the duty of the government to consider the interests of the consumers of lumber, represented by over 5,000,000 persons to each 1,000 manufacturers.

These have a right to claim that the timber which has been donated to the manufacturers by the government shall be provided for their use at a reasonable modicum of profit to the manufacturer. With a yearly destruction of the forests, the timber donated by the government to the manufacturer has risen in value, until it is no uncommon thing to hear of sales of standing timber at the rate of \$8 and \$10 per thousand stumpage, while the average price, as stated by the Saginaw lumbermen, is not far from \$4.50. The average price in 1870 was below \$1 per thousand. The consumer has been compelled to pay this difference, and if values advance in the same proportion during the present decade, he will be called upon to pay to the manufacturer not less than \$20 per thousand stumpage on the timber donated by the government.

When we consider that the annual manufacture of lumber in the three States mentioned exceeds 8,000,000,000 feet, and that this slaughter of the home forests means the destruction of 2,500 square miles of timber each year, and at this rate that there is but an eight years' supply to draw from, it would seem the part of prudence to begin to purchase some portion of our supply from those who have it for sale, before the time when absolute want shall force us to buy it at the sellers' asking price.

Some gentlemen claim that there are climatic considerations that have a bearing upon this subject—that the destruction of our forests will affect unfavorably the productive force of our soil; this branch of the subject we leave with those persons interested in agriculture.

The Saginaw committee claim that the settlers, by crowding in upon their pine lands to make their clearings for farming purposes, destroy by fire all their pine forests, and for relief desire to cut off the trees as rapidly as possible, so as to save them. We seriously question this statement, not believing that the average thrifty farmer seeks the pine belt in pursuit of his occupation, but from our own knowledge believe that the forest fires are in the main brought about in consequence of the accumulation of the limbs, bark, and chips that become dry and easily ignited shortly after escaping from the lumberman's ax. Hence we should say that a good way to preserve forests from fire would be to stop filling them with bonfire materials.

The Saginaw memorialists say: "When our government can furnish lands on such easy terms as does that of Canada, free trade in lumber might be nearer just." Having shown that our government has been more liberal to the lumber manufacturer than to any other class of our citizens, and vastly more so than has the Canadian Government to its manufacturers, and having demonstrated that the cost of lumber to the Canadian producer precludes any possible danger of his entering into ruinous competition with the American manufacturer, we respectfully submit that the short supply of native stock, and the growing demands of a mighty nation, the interests of 55,000,000 people in cheap homes, and manufacturing industries needing the consumption of pine lumber, imperatively demand that all restrictions should be removed from the importation of that limited quantity which the Dominion of Canada can supply to supplement our rapidly decreasing timber resources.

For the above reasons, and many others that might be given, we must earnestly pray that all duty upon pine lumber, lath, and shingles may be removed, to the end that the people of the United States and particularly of the States and Territories to the west of us, may improve the rich prairies, and at moderate expense construct their buildings and homes from the products of the forests of Canada, as similar material grown in the United States has become so nearly exhausted and cannot be reproduced.

O. B. SMITH.

NEW YORK, October 5, 1882.

The following supplementary statement submitted by Mr. O. B. SMITH, of the firm of J. Lee Smith & Co., of New York, in regard to the duty upon paints and oils, was ordered to be printed:

Present tariff designation or commercial name of article.	Present rate of duty.	Proposed rate of duty.	Estimated total amount of reduction of duty (per annum).	Estimated total amount of increase of duty (per annum).	Reasons for proposed changes, and remarks.
Barytes, sulphate of, crude	20 per cent.....	\$5 per ton.....	\$7, 000	Found in abundance in this country; would be a protection of about 80 per cent.
Barytes, sulphate of, powdered	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.....	do	5, 000	Would be a protection of about 30 per cent.
Bone-black, powdered or in pulp	25 per cent.....	10 per cent.....	Nominal.	Used mostly by wall-paper manufacturers.
Carmine, dry, in oil, or in pulp	35 per cent.....	\$1 per pound.....	Nominal.	
China clay	\$5 per ton.....	\$1.75 per ton.....	\$15, 000	See argument of August 4, 1882; the increased consumption would make about this loss of duty.
Colcothar, dry, or oxide of iron.....	If pure, free; if impure, 25 per cent.....	If commercially pure, free.....	Nominal.	The foregoing disputed interpretation of the law now in suit.
Lead, red, dry or in oil	3 cents per pound.....	1 cent per pound.....	40, 000	See argument of August 4, 1882, before the Tariff Commission, of O. B. Smith.
Lead, white, dry or in oil	do	$1\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.....	200, 000	Do.
Litharge, dry or in oil	do	1 cent per pound.....	50, 000	Do.
Ocher and ochery earth	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.....	Free	\$30, 000	Do.
Oil, linseed	30 cents per gallon.....	15 cents per gallon.....	15, 000	Do.
Paris white	1 cent per pound.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.....	1, 000	Do.
Prussian blue	30 per cent.....	5 cents per pound.....	5, 000	Used mostly for painting petroleum barrels for export.
Sienna earth	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.....	Free	5, 000	Not found in this country, except of inferior qualities.
Ultramarine blue.....	6 cents per pound.....	4 cents per pound.....	Nominal.	Used mostly by calico and paper manufacturers; increased consumption would offset rebate in duty.
Umber, dry	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.....	Free.....	\$10, 000	Not found in this country of sufficient good quality for manufacturing purposes.
Venetian red	25 per cent.....	do	10, 000	See argument of August 4, 1882, before the Tariff Commission, of O. B. Smith.
Whiting, dry	1 cent per pound.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.....	28, 000	Do.
Zinc, oxide, dry or in oil.....	$1\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.....	1 cent per pound.....	Nominal.	Foreign cost greater than home product; used by rubber manufacturers largely.
All other paints, not otherwise provided for, dry, in oil, or in pulp.	Various	25 per cent.....	Nominal.	
			70, 000	351, 000	

JAMES M'CREERY ET AL.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

Mr. JAMES M'CREERY, representing a committee of New York merchants, addressed the Commission in regard to the propriety of substituting specific for ad valorem duties, as follows:

I am one of a committee appointed to give the Commission the views of the dry goods merchants in this city in regard to the method of assessing the duties on articles imported through the custom-house. I suppose it is a matter of public notoriety that the importing of foreign manufactured goods, particularly those that pay a high ad valorem duty, has fallen out of the hands of the American merchants in a great measure. The business is done now by foreign manufacturers through their agents here, and where 60 per cent. ad valorem duty, or something approaching to it, is attempted to be collected from these foreign goods, there is a premium given for undervaluation. You will admit that the gentlemen who are at present examining goods in the custom-house are men of experience and integrity, and apply themselves diligently to the discharge of their duties. I have been engaged in the dry goods business thirty-six years; twenty-nine years on my own account, and during that time have imported large quantities of goods. Yet I find it extremely difficult at the present time to tell within 10 or 15 per cent. what is the real value of fine goods. I go to Europe frequently, and spend two or three months at a time there purchasing goods, and yet I find it difficult to come any nearer than I have stated to the value of certain goods. We will say that the foreign manufacturer sends to the United States goods amounting to 4,000,000 or 5,000,000 francs, or 4,000,000 marks, or a million dollars in foreign value. If he undervalues those goods 10 per cent., it gives him an advantage over the American merchant of about \$60,000. He has an agency to maintain here for the sale of his goods, and such an agency cannot be established and maintained at less than a cost of \$10,000 to \$20,000 a year; but even then there is a clear bonus given by high ad valorem duties of from \$40,000 to \$50,000 on undervaluations.

I know a good many manufacturers in Europe.—reputable men—men of high standing, and they desire nothing better than to be placed upon the same footing in the American market with less scrupulous manufacturers. The American merchant desires no advantage over the foreign agent. He simply wishes to be placed upon the same footing. The foreign manufacturer, because of the high ad valorem duty, tries to produce an article with the best possible appearance, and having at the same time the least possible intrinsic value, the intrinsic value being the standard adopted at the custom-house, and the appearance being the quality which will give his goods ready sale. The result is, that large quantities of goods come to our market for which our people pay their money, such as silks, velvets, satins, plushes, &c., which are composed largely of drugs, gums, glucose, and even iron pyrites. Such goods cannot give satisfaction. Our government should, if it is a possible thing, protect our people from the importation of such goods as these, and I think any legislation which will result in reducing these high ad valorem duties will have a tendency to ameliorate this evil.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. Do you attribute the evil you speak of to the effect of high ad valorem duties alone? would not high specific duties have the same effect?—Answer. This is what I mean. A duty of 10 or 15 per cent. does not leave a large enough margin for undervaluations.

Q. Then it is only a matter of degree. A man who will swear to a lie for a dollar might swear to a lie for ten cents.—A. But if the profit is so small, it will not enable him to maintain his agency. As American merchants we desire no advantage over any manufacturer's agent. All that we desire is to be placed on the same footing. If I am placed on the same footing with the foreign manufacturer and cannot maintain my position, then I deserve to lose it. I say *high* ad valorem duties, because low ad valorem duties will not pay the expense of establishing an agency here.

The mode I would propose for obviating these difficulties, and for protecting the American consumer from inferior goods as well as protecting the American merchant from unfair competition is this: that the duties upon all goods that now pay high ad valorem rates, as far as possible, should be made specific. What the rate of duty should be, whether higher or lower, I leave to the Commission and to Congress to decide; that is outside of our object in coming here to-day. Our purpose, however, is to have the rate of duty made so plain and so specific that every man—the foreign manufacturer, the American merchant, and the importers' agent—shall stand on an equal footing. I should do that by making the duty on goods known as silk in the piece, so much per pound for black silks, and so much per pound for colored silks. Or, if that seems too great a change, so much per pound for black silks with 10 or 15 per centum ad valorem added, or so much per pound for colored, with 10 or 15 per centum ad valorem added.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. Would not that operate very inequitably as regards the cheaper grades of silks?—A. The cheaper grades of goods, if they are not loaded with dye stuffs, will weigh lighter than the better class.

Q. I inquire for information. The supposition of a great many gentlemen is, that the lower grades of goods weigh proportionately more as to their value, and to put on a lower grade of goods such a duty as you suggest would be a much higher rate than on the better class. I inquire as to the effect of it?—A. The main value of a piece of silk of that tight texture consists of the actual silk of which it is composed. The lighter the silk texture is the better quality of silk it is made of.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. How would that operate in regard to woolen goods?—A. That could be applied to all woolen goods.

Q. Do you think the coarser fabrics do not weigh more than the finer?—A. The coarser fabrics weigh more than the finer according to the quality of the wool; but you have not one rate of duty for wool now; even raw wool pays different rates of duty.

Q. I understand that; but your idea is to go by the pound. Now to take the manufactures of woolen goods and charge a duty by the pound, would not the coarser fabrics pay a much higher per cent. than the finer fabrics?—A. You cannot, by any specific rate of duty, do more injustice to the wearer of common goods than is done by the present tariff.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. I might not differ with you in that opinion.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q Your remarks apply particularly to silk goods, I understand?—A. Yes, sir; to silks, satins, velvets, and plush goods composed partly of silk. And that leads me to say this: Some say that it would be impossible to put a specific rate of duty on coarse mixed articles composed of silk and wool, silk and cotton, or silk and jute. But I have seen an instrument, a square, which is put on a piece of goods, and by striking it with a mallet it cuts out a square, and the threads can be taken out of that square both ways, the cotton and the silk and the woolen threads, and put by themselves, and the exact proportion of each easily ascertained, and, by weighing the different kinds on a delicate machine, you ascertain exactly how many ounces or parts of ounces of each there are in a square yard, and by ascertaining the number of square yards you can ascertain the weight of the whole; and you can ascertain in this way the rate on the silk, on the wool, and on the cotton. There is no difficulty about it, except the matter of labor and calculation; it can easily be ascertained. I give you my word as an old merchant, and as a man enjoying, I hope, a fair reputation, that the changes which I propose to you will be warmly received not only by the merchants of America, and the consumers of foreign goods in America, but by the best class of foreign manufacturers. I have met myself in Europe during the present summer manufacturers who were in a state of continual anxiety lest other manufacturers less scrupulous, should value their productions at a lower rate of duty at our custom-house than they could conscientiously value theirs; and they desire nothing better than to be put on a footing with the less scrupulous of their fellow manufacturers.

Mr. EDWARD A. MORRISON, one of the same committee of merchants, said:

I would emphasize distinctly what Mr. McCreery has said in regard to our business. I am a merchant here in New York, and have been all my life. I have been in the habit of crossing to Europe twice a year. When I first crossed over, before men knew how I did business, the first question I would be asked there would be, "How do you want your invoices made out?" I always answered, "I want them made out according to their correct cost," and sometimes there was a little surprise manifested that an invoice should be made out exactly at the price the goods were sold for. But they soon learned how I wanted to do business, and made their invoices accordingly. The result of that custom has been, that we are not able to import many of these articles of which silk is a component material. The business seems to have passed into the hands of manufacturers on the other side, and their agents on this side, and their *modus operandi* is this: You go there and ask for their prices; you want the franc price or the sterling price, and they tell you, "We don't sell these goods in franc or sterling prices; we will sell them to you for so many dollars or cents, delivered through our agent in New York." So that the appraisers in the custom-house have no means of making an exact comparison of these goods with any goods sold to American merchants. Then again, our customs laws give them a leeway, so to speak, of 10 per cent. Unless an invoice is advanced by the government at least 10 per cent. there is no penalty. So that a manufacturer can say to himself, "I can undervalue my invoice 10 per cent., and if it is only raised 9.9 per cent. then I have no penalty whatever to pay; I am only compelled to pay the correct duty in any event, and can afford to undervalue my invoices 10 per cent. and escape all risk."

The silk business is a very large one, but, even taking a small amount, say a million dollars a year, if the foreign manufacturer succeeds in undervaluing 10 per cent., the duty being 60 per cent., he has saved \$60,000, and that is his profit. In other words, he can take our orders at what it costs us to import, and still make a profit out of the United States Government by this saving which he makes. And, gentlemen, it is almost impossible for any appraiser (I know this personally) so skillfully are these goods made, to tell the absolute value of the goods imported. As Mr. McCreery has said, they are filled with starch, and soap, so much so that in black silks you can take a 12 ounce silk and weight it up to 24 ounces, or perhaps more, a result which is very disastrous to the consumer. If any of you gentlemen go to buy a silk dress for your wife, when you take hold of it, if it feels pretty heavy, you may think it is a good article. But, take it home, and by the time the soap and starch is worn out of it, it is in slits and rags, and you wonder why it has worn so badly. So that I think our suggestions will be of benefit to the consumer, and for our protection as well. We desire to have every one stand on the same footing, and if the specific duty is to be made \$3 a pound on silk we will pay \$3 a pound. These men can enter a silk worth 8 francs for 7 francs, whereas we are obliged to enter it for 8 francs or the price we pay for it. It is consigned to them, and they simply swear that, to the best of their knowledge and belief, that is the market price of the silk; while we are obliged to swear to the exact price we pay for it. So that the whole tendency of this 60 per cent. ad valorem duty is to throw the business of this country in silks into the hands of the manufacturers on the other side and their agents here, and we claim that we should be placed on the same footing, and insist very strenuously on its being done, no matter whether the duty shall be \$2, \$3, or \$4 a pound. The government has skillful men employed as appraisers, and they can easily ascertain the correct rate of duty under the plan proposed, and the business could then be conducted on an equitable basis.

In regard to the question asked as to whether this will not tend to increase the duty on low-priced silks, I will say that perhaps it will. But I do not think that ought to be allowed to stand in the way of a fair and equitable duty towards all. I do not hesitate to say here, as I have said in the public stores to Colonel Ketchum, that this duty of 60 per cent. ad valorem cannot be collected.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Question. As a matter of course, a slight increase might not furnish a reason for not adopting the plan you suggest; but, if the increase on the lower-priced goods was extremely in disparity with the rate that the higher-priced goods were paying, it would seem to me to furnish some reason why we should be careful, at least, in the adoption of your plan?—Answer. I do not think it would be in the extreme.

Q. I agree that if it can be properly done, your plan is an excellent one. But what would be the effect in that regard; what is your idea of the result of the adoption of such a plan? If, under a specific duty of so much a pound, medium qualities of silks were paying 50 per cent., what would the lower or higher priced qualities pay?—A. I could not tell you about the exact percentage; but I think I could say this: that it would not be extreme; I think the people generally would be gainers by it, and could then buy low-priced silks, which would be good silks and wear well. But these silks which are filled with gums, which are

weighted, and changed from 12 to 24 ounce silks, never will give any satisfaction, and persons who buy them throw away their money.

Q. This loading material is destructive to the silk, I understand?—

A. Yes, sir; it is.

Commissioner AMBLER. As I understand, the cheaper silks are the lighter weight silks usually?

Mr. M'CREERY. Yes, sir; if they are not charged. Mr. Constable proposes a certain ad valorem rate to be put upon piece silks; but we do not recommend any ad valorem rate whatever; we do not presume to do that. The fact, however, of your sitting here is a proof that the American people desire tariff reform. You are here for a specific purpose.

I have a silk factory which I carry on in the State of New Jersey, and I can speak from personal knowledge when I state that the American manufacturers can supply a much better low-priced article to the American public than the foreign manufacturers have been supplying under a high ad valorem duty.

Commissioner AMBLER. If we put the rate up so that it excludes the foreign article, you may raise your prices.

Mr. M'CREERY. No, sir; I think we shall be in the same condition very soon, if the 60 per cent. duty is maintained, that the woolen manufacturers are in now. They are better off now than they were some years ago.

Mr. MORRISON (resuming). Before leaving this point, gentlemen, I desire to say that I think it is the universal opinion of the merchants that what we need is a plain simple tariff that we can all understand. Not long ago I imported some small fans, about the length of your finger, and fans are particularly specified in the tariff, I think, as paying a duty of 35 per centum. Yet the appraiser told me that he had entered those fans at 50 per centum, because he said they were toys, and that I, being in the fancy goods business, should therefore pay a duty of 50 per centum, but if I had been in some other line of business, then I would only have had to pay 35 per centum. I thought it was the most extraordinary piece of reasoning I had ever heard of in my life. But the matter was such a small one that I let it go, and didn't bother about it. Recently I have had the privilege of paying a higher duty on some cashmere embroideries on wool. Unfortunately I cut my embroideries off the wool. They then declared that they were dress trimmings, saying that I was in the dress-trimming business and they would have to pay 50 cents a pound duty, and 50 per centum ad valorem; but if I had been in the upholstering business and they had been used for upholstering work, I should only have had to pay 35 per centum ad valorem and 50 cents a pound. In other words, I paid 15 per cent. more because I am a dress-trimmings manufacturer. If I had left it on the piece, had not cut it off, then I would have only paid 35 per cent. and 50 cents a pound. It seems to me that all these inequalities should be swept away, and that we should know exactly what we are about and what we have to pay for these goods. Another unfortunate thing about that entry: the appraiser stamped it as correct, and it was stamped correct by three of them, and I never received any notice that there were any additional charges to be paid until a month afterwards, when I got a notice that I had to pay \$502.40 additional. These goods unfortunately had been sold, based on the 35 per centum and 50 cents a pound duty, and I had no redress except I might have made trouble for this appraiser, and have gotten him out of his place, but as it would bring no dollars back to my pocket, I let the matter rest. Again, if I had paid

\$502 less than I should have paid, six years thereafter the United States Government, through its district attorney, might have come down on me for that amount. Whereas they only gave me ten days in which to file a protest if I desired to appeal against the decision, and not protesting within that time, I am shut out forever. It seems to me that the importer and the government ought to stand equally before the law in this respect; not give the importer only ten days to file a protest, while the government has six years to collect its bill. I speak of civil matters, of course, and not of criminal matters.

Another suggestion I would like to make is this; that we be allowed to swear to our entries before a notary public. We are obliged now to make a journey from our places of business, a long distance away, down to the custom-house, just to nod our heads to the deputy collector, and I do not see why that should be required. It takes me fully an hour and a quarter to go from my store down there and back just simply to do that. I simply take off my hat to him, never say a word, and he nods to me and scratches his name down upon my entry, and back I go in the stage. Whereas, if we swore before a notary public, we could transact the same business in five or ten minutes' time, and I do not see that the United States would suffer any chance of being defrauded if that was done.

In regard to disputes arising between the importers and the government, it seems to me that we ought to have some kind of court to determine these questions. If, for instance, we have a grievance in which the amount involved is, say, \$250, it is not worth our while to sue the United States Government for it, and we lose a good many sums of money in that way. As the law stands at present we must file a protest within ten days. Then there is a 30 days appeal to the collector, and, after he reports, we have 90 days given to us to prove our case. So that we cannot allow four or five cases to accumulate, which would make it worth while for us to employ a lawyer to attend to, and we have to let these matters go by default, simply because we cannot pay a retaining fee of \$250 to a lawyer in order to collect \$250 from the United States. It seems to me that we ought to have a court composed of five judges appointed for life, if necessary (if that is the best way to secure proper persons to fill such positions), and let all these questions go before such a court, where we may appear by ourselves, and have a chance to get redress. As the law now stands we have no such opportunity. When we protest against certain entries, that protest is sent to the Secretary of the Treasury, and he sends it back to the appraiser, and of course the appraiser confirms his own decision, and that is the end of it; so that we are appealing really to the very man who has already established the rate. That is the practical working of it. There should be a body of men, skilled in the business, before whom we could go and present our case.

There is another point, which I have already alluded to. Under the present tariff, worsted dress-trimmings pay a certain rate of duty; but it is almost impossible for anybody to say whether an article is to be used for dress-trimmings or for upholstery work. It seems to me that all these distinctions should be swept away, and the article assessed according to the material of which it is composed.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. When an article was composed of wool and cotton, what would you do?—A. I would make a classification including wool and cotton goods. And that reminds me of another point—that there are certain duties on

goods which are ascertained in this manner. If the cotton is 25 per cent. in silk and cotton goods, then it pays 60 per cent. duty; if it is 24½ per cent. it pays 50 per cent. duty. Now, you take silk gimps, which is a cotton filling wound around with silk, and sewed into various forms, for trimming. If that part of the law is literally carried out, and I import fifty patterns of silk gimps, if the appraiser does his duty he has got to analyze every single one of those patterns, and I should have to get a special delivery, and leave him to examine these samples afterwards, or wait six weeks for my goods. It seems to me such things should be left out of any revised tariff, and whatever the chief value of the article is, it ought to be classed in such a way that it can be easily determined.

Commissioner AMBLER. That is, the rate should be on the component part of chief value.

The WITNESS. Yes, sir; whatever duty was put on silk, that should be the rate. Then we know what it will be. I got a refund on these very identical goods. They have made up their minds there is 25 per cent. of cotton in value, and they have refunded the difference between 50 and 60 per cent. duty. Heretofore, I had always paid 60 per cent. on them. I also think that the force in the public store should be increased. It would be a great convenience to the importers.

Commissioner AMBLER. That is a matter of regulation which could be easily settled.

The WITNESS. I know where men have waited sixteen and seventeen days for their goods, and I have waited 14 to 15 days for mine, and all the merchants will tell you the same story.

The last point I wish to make is in regard to the salaries of the appraisers. As business men we would pay higher salaries for men whom we consider fitted for these positions than they are now receiving from the government, and the question is whether it is to the interest of the government or the merchant that these men should be paid a less sum than the merchants would be willing to pay them for the same service. There are men in the appraiser's department upon whom a great deal of responsibility rests, and a very little want of care on their part would result in very heavy loss to the government. I think the government ought to compensate such men very liberally.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. Is it not a fact that the employés at the custom-house are, as a rule, very efficient in their work?—A. In the third division, in which I have had experience, I think that is true.

Q. I want to ask you a question in regard to this proposed means of determining cases between the importers and the government. You suggest a court of five judges. Have you any special reason for suggesting that number?—A. The only reason I have for suggesting it is, so that in case of vacancies by death, you would have enough experienced judges left, and the business of the court would not be interfered with seriously. If it was not for that contingency, I think three competent men would be a sufficient number.

Q. Do you not think a selection could be made of experienced men from the custom-house who could decide these cases as well?—A. It seems to me that gentlemen composing such a court should not only be men of a judicial turn of mind but men of considerable analytical power.

Q. It has occurred to me that if such a tribunal should be created, it should be largely composed of men who had experience in the custom-

house and had acquired an aptness for the determining of this class of questions?—A. I do not know that men in the custom-house would be any better fitted for such positions than men who had been engaged in mercantile pursuits. The court must partly be composed of course of men skilled in the law, but so far as the other members are concerned, I do not know why the experience gained in mercantile pursuits would not be equal to experience gained as an official in the custom-house. The only men in the custom-house fitted to take such a position would be men in the appraiser's department.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. These burdens and annoyances which you and the other gentlemen of the delegation have detailed to us appear, from your account, to be almost unbearable; have you not to a certain extent become accustomed to them?—A. I never have become accustomed to them, but have always kicked at them.

Q. How many importers are there in the city of New York, approximately?—A. I could not say what the number is.

Q. The only point I wish to make concerning these troubles and annoyances which you have detailed is, that, after all, notwithstanding what you say, we have not had all told, after sitting four or five weeks at Long Branch and sending all the word we could to the people, hardly any complaint; and just now, as we are closing our sessions, when every moment is occupied and we feel hurried in our work, this complaint is laid before us when we cannot as thoroughly and carefully consider it as we would like to.

The WITNESS. We are to blame, I suppose, and it looks as though we were very indifferent about these matters. But take any public matter of this kind, or any matter that comes under our local government, and it would seem as though the people would look after their interest more; but they do not.

Q. But this is a matter that you deal with every day of your life; it is part of your business. We have left our business and given ourselves to the subject of investigating this whole question of the tariff, and now within a few weeks of the time of closing our testimony you come before us and present these matters for the first time. What reasons have you for delaying until now?—A. I do not know how it is, except that perhaps we did not have confidence in the results of your work. A gentleman said to me not long ago: "This Tariff Commission don't amount to that (snapping his fingers), and you will waste your time in going up there before them." That is all the encouragement we have had from some of our fellow-citizens and business men; they said we would absolutely waste our time in coming up here. You know the public will bear most anything until it is so bad they cannot stand it any longer.

Commissioner OLIVER. But that is not the point at all. The point is that Congress heard of your troubles and the President appointed a Commission, and they have devoted themselves continuously without stopping one single day for rest, from the time they received their appointment until now, to the hearing of suggestions from the people in regard to these matters, yet you gentlemen have not taken the trouble to investigate and find out whether we were worthy of confidence or capable of investigating these matters or not, and have neglected your own business and the public business, until now you come before us and say that you have not confidence in the Commission.

The WITNESS. I have not said that; I said that was a remark made to me by a business friend.

Commissioner OLIVER. Then it really comes down to this point: that you acknowledge you have to some extent been neglecting your own interest?

The WITNESS. Yes, sir; I think it does come down to that.

Commissioner OLIVER. Don't you think it is always fair and right to judge men by their works?

The WITNESS. I do.

Commissioner OLIVER. Very well, then, that is all I have to say in regard to the matter. I think it would have been the proper thing for you to have judged the Commission by its work.

F. B. VAN VLECK.

NEW YORK, *October 5, 1882.*

The following statement, submitted by Mr. F. B. VAN VLECK, of New York, giving the reasons why the tariff on cotton yarns, imported for weaving purposes only, and limited to two-fold yarns, should be reduced, was ordered to be printed.

Manufactured cotton fabrics come in at only 35 per cent. ad valorem duty. The yarns from which these fabrics are wholly or in large part made, pay both a specific and ad valorem duty, as follows:

Upon cotton yarn in value over 60 cents per pound and not exceeding 80 cents per pound, there is a specific duty of 30 cents per pound, which is 40 per cent. on yarns valued at 75 cents per pound and an ad valorem duty of 20 per cent., making a total of 60 per cent. duty, and averaging 60 per cent. duty on the finer and more valuable yarns, and running to as high as 70 per cent. total duty.

This discrimination in favor of foreign manufacturers against our own has prevented, and is now preventing, the extensive manufacture in this country of a large line of fabrics, embracing velvets, velveteens, plushes, and goods of similar character; galloons, braids, bindings, cords, laces, gimps, fringes, ribbons, vestings, cambries, silesias, lastings, serges, alpacas, &c.

These finer yarns for weaving purposes are not made to any extent in this country, and while no interest will be hurt here, the reduction we now seek will, if effected, greatly extend the range of the manufacturing of these woven fabrics and kindred interests in this country, especially in the production of the finer classes from which this onerous and unfair duty now excludes us, and the relief therefrom is particularly desirable as to the fine numbers of such cotton yarns, ranging from number 60 upwards.

Further, the revenue derived by the government from duty on these yarns is insignificant compared with the magnitude of the interests involved, and the material wealth which would be added to the country by the manufacture of these fabrics being established here.

Manufactures of silk, or of which silk is the component of chief value, come in at 60 per cent. "Silk in the gum, tram, thrown, or organzine," and from which silk fabrics are made, comes in at 35 per cent., as also spun silks for filling, in skeins or cops.

Cotton yarns should have at least the same relative chance, and should be admitted at a rate of duty proportionately less than the fabrics made from cotton yarns.

Some time ago, when the tariff was under consideration, the foregoing "Reasons, &c.," with a petition signed by a large number of merchants and manufacturers, were presented to the House Committee on Ways and Means.

These reasons are respectfully submitted to your honorable Board.

CHARLES MCK. LEOSER.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. CHARLES MCK. LEOSER, president of the Wine and Spirit Traders' Society of New York, was ordered to be printed:

I am directed by the council of this society to lay before you the following suggestions regarding the tariff on wines and spirits:

1st. *The duty on spirits.*—The present rate of \$2 a proof gallon should be reduced to \$1.50. This would be a small but grateful concession to our importing interests, and the manufacturers of domestic spirits have agreed to approve of this reduction, while this country is on the footing of the most favored nation in respect to the duties imposed on spirits imported into France. This is now the case. It is considered by this council that the duty on rum and gin might well be reduced to \$1, as the present rate constitutes an ad valorem of from 400 to 500 per cent.

2d. *The duty on wines.*—While this society does not wish to put itself on record as advocating any changes that might be detrimental to American growers, it would be advisable, if it were considered by Congress that it would not militate against the interest of the American producer, to reduce the present specific rate of 40 cents on still wines to 25 cents. It should be borne in mind that the duty on wines and spirits should in no case be made ad valorem, owing to the great difficulty in determining their values and consequent temptation to fraud. It should also be noted that facilitating of the consumption of light wines and similar beverages is probably the only way in which legislation can be really made to conduce to the sobriety of the citizen.

The paragraph in schedule D, section 2504, of the Revised Statutes, which provides that brandy, spirits, and other spirituous beverages under first proof shall not pay a less rate of duty than 50 per centum ad valorem should be repealed. This point has been submitted to the Treasury Department and by them to the New York Custom-House, and it is the unanimous opinion of all who have investigated the matter that the present statute is the result of an error in the compilation of the Revised Statutes. Its repeal would enable us to import old brandies in their natural condition, which is now impossible except at prices which place them beyond the reach of the ordinary capitalist. The practical result of the present system is that old brandies are fortified before shipment to this country, and our tariff regulations debar us as a nation from enjoying the real old brandies of Cognac in their original perfection.

4th. *Consumption certificate.*—There should be a provision, under such regulations as might be prescribed by the Treasury Department, for substituting in the place of the landing certificate a consumption certificate by the officers of such vessels, for goods consumed during the voyage aboard ships clearing for foreign parts. This would open up to American merchants an important traffic, which by the present law is thrown into foreign markets.

5th. *Abolition of consular certificates.*—The consular certificate now required by law to be attached to all invoices should be abolished when the duty is wholly specific, as in the case of wines and spirits. Such

certificates are obviously of no value in assessing duties, and the present custom is vexatious and harassing in the extreme to the merchant, while needlessly absorbing the valuable time of the consul, which might frequently be much more usefully employed in procuring and recording valuable commercial information. In addition to this it is frequently made use of by grasping officials to extort valuable considerations from shippers, and has the effect of embarrassing trade and enhancing the prices to the American consumer, and continuing the disrepute in which the civil service of the country is now held among foreign nations.

6th. *The stamp on imported wines.*—The stamp now required to be fixed to the cask containing imported wines and spirits should be abolished. It has been found not only to be of no practical use, but really an aid to the fraudulent dealer, while to the honest merchant it is frequently the source of irritating and costly delays in handling the merchandize.

7th. *Substitution of the buyers' bond for the sellers'.*—There should be a provision for the substitution, under such restrictions as might be determined upon by the Treasury Department, of the buyers' bond for the sellers' when wines and spirits are sold in bond down to a minimum limit of the amount of duty covered by the bond of, say \$500. This would cause little or no additional work in custom-houses, and be of great benefit to the importer.

8th. *Extension of the bonding period.*—The additional ten per cent. now levied on merchandise remaining in bond more than one year should be abolished for wines and spirits, and a provision of law adopted permitting them to remain in bond without payment of duty for a period of five years from the date of landing, and when they are withdrawn for consumption the duty should be paid on amount withdrawn, subject to limitations of leakage, as provided by the present law in the case of domestic spirits. This would enable our importers to purchase young wines and spirits in the countries of production and ripen them here, so that the consumer could be furnished with a better article for his money, and we should, in the course of time, be able to accumulate here such stock of fine old brandy, etc., as those for which the London docks are now famous.

LOUIS WINDMÜLLER.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. LOUIS WINDMÜLLER, of New York, in regard to the duties upon sheet zinc and spelter, was ordered to be printed:

I beg to submit to the consideration of your honorable Commission that the present duty upon sheet zinc of $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound is equal to 53 per cent. of the present foreign value. It costs now, at the principal places of production, in Belgium and in Siberia, $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents of our currency per English pound.

Since the article is used extensively in every house in this country, for protection of floors against fire, under stoves; for covering of bathtubs, counters, &c.; for washboards; to cover floors on steamboats, I think this duty is too high, inasmuch as it enhances the price of an article of necessity more than is expedient.

It requires no skilled labor to roll zinc. The only mill in this country which, until quite recently, had the monopoly of rolling it in the United States is at La Salle, in Illinois; the product is 15,000 tons annually. The owners have amassed a fortune in a comparative short space of time, at the expense of the consumers.

The metal from which zinc is rolled (spelter) is taxed $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound. Its present value in Silesia is \$3.80 per 100 pounds. The duty is therefore nearly 40 per cent. of the present foreign value. The annual product of American spelter in the United States is about 30,000 tons. The quality of American spelter is generally superior to the foreign article. Some is exported at prices showing that it is highly appreciated abroad.

I give you on the other side a list of the imports of spelter and zinc for the last ten years; they have increased lately in spite of the high duties, because the American product was not sufficient for the increased demand.

I consider the duties upon this as well as upon all other metals entirely too high. I see no good reason why the whole people are taxed for the benefit of the few producers of these necessary raw materials.

Most metals are found in this country in a state of greater purity than in other countries. For this reason, and by superior mining machinery, metals could be produced in the United States as cheap as in any country of the world.

I advocate a reduction of the duty upon sheet zinc to $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, spelter to 1 cent per pound, and upon all other metals in the same proportion. This reduction may temporarily reduce the revenue derived from these articles. It would not, however, curtail the quantity produced here, but only the profits made by the producers. The cheapening of the price would gradually increase the consumption.

They would be used extensively and for a great many purposes for which the present values are too dear in this country, but for which they have been used for a long time in England and in other countries.

Importations at the New York custom-house of sheet zinc and spelter.

	Sheet Zinc.	Spelter.
	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>
1874.....	4, 164, 255	2, 284, 791
1875.....	5, 889, 839	998, 612
1876.....	1, 117, 053	904, 940
1877.....	1, 055, 983	1, 138, 400
1878.....	690, 013	1, 069, 235
1879.....	2, 473, 283	4, 263, 330
1880.....	3, 730, 128	4, 800, 937
1881.....	2, 354, 533	5, 399, 693
1882 (eight months).....	3, 451, 350	15, 918, 179

IRA BURSLEY ET AL.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

Mr. IRA BURSLEY, commission merchant, New York City, addressed the Commission as follows:

I do not represent any manufacturer, but I represent fifty millions of people who buy and use sugar. I have heard one manufacturer here to day [Mr. William Marshall] say that he is willing that the duties on the goods he makes shall be reduced, and I heartily agree with him in the views he expressed, that hemp may be allowed to come in free of duty.

I am an importer of sugar. The sugars imported into the United States last year paid, I think, \$40,000,000 in the way of duties. The present duty on sugar was imposed in 1861, under what is known as the Morrill tariff, and was subsequently raised 25 per cent., and stands at that increased figure now; the duty has never been decreased. The rate of duty paid on sugar, according to the f. o. b. cost, ranges all the way from 25 to 75 per cent. ad valorem. You have had all sorts of suggestions, I suppose, as to how these duties should be imposed. All we want to urge is, that there shall be a reduction, and leave it to the government to decide whether the duty shall be a specific or an ad valorem one. I am in favor of ad valorem duties, but certainly the duties ought to be reduced in some way. When the government gets \$40,000,000 in the way of duties out of one article it ought to be willing to see some reduction made in the rate. If the duty on sugar was put on the basis of about 25 per centum ad valorem, I suppose it would bring a revenue to the government of about \$20,000,000 instead of \$40,000,000 a year. It seems rather strange legislation that sugar should be made to pay \$40,000,000 of revenue, and tea and coffee come into the country free of any duty. A moderate duty on tea and coffee would, I think, be a fair thing, and if the duty on sugar was taken off so much as to reduce the revenue to the country, that loss could easily be made up by putting a duty of five cents a pound, say, on coffee, and five or ten cents a pound on tea—I mean a specific duty, which can be easily collected, with no chance for defrauding the government.

I am aware that one of the arguments always advanced in favor of keeping the duty on sugar is, that Louisiana has got to be looked after. Louisiana has made, say, 60,000 tons of sugar this year. Suppose they make one cent a pound profit on that, which is a fair net profit on 60,000 tons, that would be \$1,200,000. In order that Louisiana can make from \$750,000 to \$1,000,000 a year the consumer of sugars in this country is taxed \$40,000,000. I think it would be better to put Louisiana in the river and harbor bill and let them get their money out of that. I object, as an importer and as a consumer, to this tax. I think the government ought to take in view the matter of reducing it.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. Is there any coffee produced in the United States?—Answer. No, sir; not that I know of.

Q. Or any tea?—A. No, sir; no marketable tea. The Agricultural Bureau in Washington have attempted the cultivation of tea, but it has

not been a marketable article. The importation of coffee is about 550,000,000 pounds a year.

Q. Do you know the cost of the labor that produces the sugar of Louisiana?—A. No, sir.

Q. Do you know the cost of labor that produces sugar in the West Indies?—A. It is pretty difficult to tell what it costs for labor in a slave country; I do not know. I can tell you the cost of labor in Java.

Q. If the cost of labor in Louisiana is three times as much as in the West Indies, would it not destroy the raising of sugar in Louisiana to take the duty off it?—A. It probably would, but I propose to take up a contribution. It would destroy the industry; with free sugar, Louisiana would not raise a pound.

Q. Are you aware that a large section of country in Florida, near Lake Okechobee, is about to be opened up for the cultivation of sugar?—A. Yes, sir; I have received some consignments from there.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. In view of any possible national complication with foreign countries, thus preventing the importation of sugar, would it be altogether wise in us to destroy our domestic production?—A. I think we should get sugar from somewhere, in case we paid the price for it. We might have to pay what is called a war price, but we are usually in a state of peace with foreign countries, and have been for many years, and I think that ought to be considered rather than the possibility of a war.

By Commissioner McMAHON :

Q. Is the polariscope test alone a fair test of the value of sugar?—A. No, sir; not alone.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. What additional test do you regard as necessary to determine the true value of sugar?—A. I say the polariscope is not alone a fair test of the value of sugar, but the polariscope is a fairer test of the value of sugar than the eye alone. For instance, a sugar that is dark in color, say No. 7, Dutch standard, is a poor looking sugar to the eye, but that sugar may test 95 or 96 per cent. of pure sugar; while a light weight sugar, that will in some cases not test over 75 or 80 per cent., is much better looking sugar to the eye. It is very difficult to say how we should arrive at the true valuation of sugars. If you hear the refiners and importers of sugar talking together about the matter, you will get as much befogged about it as the Ways and Means Committee in Washington did; they did not know what to do.

There is another point I desire to speak upon in connection with the tariff. New York imported last year 575,000 tons of cane sugar. The tariff has worked this thing so into the refiners' hands that in this market, one of the largest in the world to-day, we have only nine buyers of sugar. The tariff is formed in such a way that not a single pound of sugar can be imported to go into use as sugar, but it has got to go through one of the 15 or 16 refineries in the United States. It is a very good thing for the refiners. It suits me well enough, because I import a low grade of sugars; but is it a good thing for the people who consume the sugars?

Q. That is occasioned, is it not, by the use of the Dutch standard of color as a test, and as a result it has been found more profitable to import a low grade of sugar?—A. Yes, sir; the United States tariff encourages the importation of a poor article. The process of making

sugar in Cuba has been entirely changed to suit the demands of our tariff. I suppose that is all fair enough in a business point of view.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. What average duty do you recommend should be placed upon sugars ?—A. I should recommend free sugar, if you want my own ideas; but if that is not practicable, I would recommend as great a reduction as the government would see fit to make.

Q. You suggested a duty of five cents a pound on coffee ?—A. I did not suggest any duty except in case of the diminution of the revenue by a reduction of the taxes on sugar. If the revenue from sugar is reduced largely, of course we must tax something else to take the place of it, and I think that tea and coffee are fair articles for taxation.

Q. Do you think five cents a pound on coffee would be a fair rate ?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What ad valorem duty would that be equal to ?—A. To-day the market value of East India coffees is 8 cents a pound and Rio coffees 9 to 10 cents a pound. On Rio coffee it would be 35 per cent., and on Java coffee it would be 25 to 30 per cent. on the f. o. b. cost.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. You recommend that sugar shall be admitted free of duty, with the assurance and knowledge that if we admit it free it will strike down entirely the sugar interests of Louisiana, and also the sugar interests of the northwestern part of our country, where they are making sugar from sorghum ; in other words, the whole sugar interest of the United States ?—A. Yes, sir ; I do ; and I would strike out glucose, too.

Mr. OSGOOD WELSH, of the firm of T. & W. Welsh, of New York, commission merchants, said :

I wish to indorse what Mr. Bursley has said to you in regard to the matter of the duties on sugar. You have had a statement presented to you this morning by a gentleman who said that he represented ten thousand people who were engaged in the manufacture of corsets. That gentleman appeared for himself and in the interest of the people engaged in that industry. I appear here in behalf of fifty million of people who use sugar, the same as he did for those ten thousand people whom he represented. The duty on sugar is about 50 per cent. of its value. All the foreign sugar that is consumed in this country is refined before it enters into consumption. The law practically prohibits the importation of sugars fit to go into consumption. The result is that when a consumer buys a dollar's worth of sugar, 30 cents on every dollar expended is paid as a tax, or represents the amount of the tax. As Mr. Bursley has said, the importers and refiners, after consultation among themselves, have never been able to agree on the true way of assessing the duty on sugar. It seems impossible to do it in such a way that every one will be satisfied. England could not do it, and so she gave up imposing any duty whatever upon sugar ; at least that was the main reason, the difficulty they had in collecting the revenue on sugar. If a revenue is required, as it necessarily is, to carry on the government, it can be raised partly from tea and coffee. There is no difficulty in collecting specific duties on those articles. The trouble about sugar is that there are such great varieties of sugar of such different value, that any rule applied to one cannot be properly applied to the other ; at least it does not follow that it could be.

The question was asked just now as to the use of the polariscope,

whether it in itself gave an idea of the value of sugar. It does not. It conveys no idea whatever to the merchant, that is, simply to say that sugar tests so much by the polariscope; though by using his sense of touch and sight in conjunction with the polariscope he can arrive at an approximate idea of the value of sugar. But in itself alone it is of no value whatever. I was talking with a refiner yesterday on this very subject, and he told me that if he had to depend upon the polariscope alone, or on the sight and touch alone, he would prefer the sight and touch to determine the value of the sugar; that is, if he was to buy it and take it to his house to refine.

If the duty on sugar cannot be abolished, then I should like to see it made as low as possible. I have no especial interest to subserve in this matter. Our house has been engaged for fifty years in the importation of sugar, as commission merchants, and they have managed to conduct their business under the various tariffs which have existed during all that time.

There is one other point I would like to touch upon, and that is this. The tariff as it exists to-day prevents the importation of any sugars above No. 13 Dutch standard in color. The object of that provision was to force the importation of natural sugars, that had to be refined before they could enter into consumption, and it has worked very well indeed. In Europe the crop of beet sugar is, I think, about a million and three-quarters tons. None of that sugar can be brought to this country. It all has to be refined before it enters into consumption, and we cannot bring in any of it here because it is too light in color. It has been said to me that I favored a specific rate because it would favor the Cuba sugars. That is not so at all. I would have the tariff so arranged that we can get our sugars from the cheapest places in the world, whether they are beet sugars from Europe or sugars from Cuba, South America, or the West Indies. As I have said, of the million and three-quarters tons of beet sugar annually produced in Europe, we can get hardly any of it, because it is too light colored and we would have to pay too high a duty as the tariff exists to-day.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. I will ask you one question. Are not the quotations of the prices of sugar generally throughout the world based upon the polariscopic test?—A. In conjunction with other things.

Q. I am talking of the published quotations you receive from time to time.—A. In conjunction with other things.

Q. They name other attributes as well as a polariscopic test?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What are they?—A. The country where the sugar is grown, and the kind of sugar, with the commercial designation of the sugar, which is a designation of the method in which the sugar is made—whether clayed, molasses, or centrifugal sugar. Centrifugal sugars are boiled in a vacuum pan and then purged in centrifugals.

Q. Then, there is a sub-description which identifies the article?—A. Yes, sir. You get for molasses sugar testing 90, 7 cents; for muscovado sugar testing 90, 7½ cents a pound. The polariscopic test alone conveys no idea at all to the mind of the buyer.

WILLIAM MARSHALL.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

MR. WILLIAM MARSHALL, of the firm of L. Waterbury & Co., New York, representing the manufacturers of bagging, addressed the Commission as follows:

Manila and Sisal hemp should be admitted free of duty, and a duty of not less than $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound, or about 10 per cent., put upon the manufactured goods, which will cover the indirect duties on the material and machinery incidental to the manufacture of cordage, and place us upon a footing of equality with the manufacturers of other countries, enabling us to sell our cordage in those countries which manufacture little or none. Manila and Sisal hemp cannot be grown in the United States; consequently their admission free of duty will conflict with no established industry here. The article manufactured from these fibers, viz, cordage, cannot compete successfully in foreign countries, with that made in England, for instance, because of the duty we have to pay on the raw material. It is a fact that rope made in the city of Brooklyn can be sold for less money in China to a foreign buyer than to an American ship-owner in the city of New York, for the reason that there is a drawback of \$22.50 per ton for rope exported, of which the foreigner gets the benefit, while our home trade must pay the whole duty.

The number of vessels engaged in carrying Manila hemp from the Philippine Islands to this country, which in 1881 was 51 sail, would, if this article were admitted free of duty, be largely augmented on account of the increased consumption of hemp for the export trade.

Jute butts should be admitted free of duty, for the reason that there is no fiber produced in this country which can come in competition with them, and by a simple line of reasoning it will be seen that the burden falls indirectly on the people at large. There are but two principal products manufactured from jute butts, viz, bagging for baling cotton, and paper. The manufacturer of the bagging charges the planter enough to cover the duty he has paid on his raw material; the planter charges the mill-owner in the same proportion; the merchant, who buys the cotton fabric, pays the same duty; and so on to the consumer, who, in reality, pays the duty on every pound of jute butts that comes into the country.

Present tariff designation or commercial name of article.	Present rate of duty.	Proposed rate of duty.	Estimated total amount of reduction of duty—average of five years.
Manila hemp	\$25 00	Free ..	\$650, 000
Sisal hemp	15 00	Free ..	160, 000
Jute butts	6 00	Free ..	250, 000
Bagging	03	\$0 01 $\frac{1}{2}$
Manila rope	02 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
Sisal rope	02 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$

There are many things directly and indirectly connected with our line of business on which we have to pay duties besides the raw material,

and I think it should be taken into consideration that in this country we need more commerce. I believe if you can cheapen the price of cordage you will do something towards enabling the commerce of the country to compete with foreign commerce. No doubt many of you remember very well when our commerce stood at the head of the world; there was only one English line that had more tonnage than we had. Now that has all gone, and there is but one reason for it, and that reason is too much protection; too much duties. I think that other manufacturers ought to be able to protect themselves as we have protected ourselves. To-day, if it were possible to abolish all custom-houses, I would take my chances in the world's trade with England or any other nation. I would be willing to meet the world in a fair battle for the trade of the world. Inasmuch as I know that it is impracticable to do away with custom-houses, as we must have some revenue to support the government, for one I would be in favor of keeping high duties on all luxuries, and reducing duties on all the necessaries of life. That would be the method which I would suggest.

W. J. PARSONS.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

Mr. W. J. PARSONS, of Brooklyn, N. Y., representing the Columbia Chemical Works, addressed the Commission as follows:

I desire to call the attention of the Commission to the article of carbonate of magnesia. The manufacture of this article in the United States is only about two years old, and is, therefore, in its infancy. Until recently it was wholly imported from Europe, mostly in small blocks (not powdered), and sold only by druggists for pharmaceutical purposes. Within a few years it has come into considerable use in a powdered state as an absorbing and neutralizing base for nitro-glycerine in the manufacture of high explosive compounds. One concern in Philadelphia, two in Brooklyn, N. Y. (three in all), now make the article in a powdered state for the manufacture of explosive compounds. These three concerns employ about 40 laborers, making with their families about 200 persons, depending for their living on the manufacture.

The American article is fully equal to the best foreign, and has already replaced entirely the foreign make in the manufacture of explosive compounds, at prices far below those formerly paid by the powder companies for the imported article. It seems most desirable that this important industrial use of making explosives should be independent as far as possible of foreign manufacturers. Heretofore it is thought cake magnesia for the drug trade has not been made in the United States, but it soon will be, and the home market secured for it just as it has for the powdered carbonate for explosives.

But for the 6 cents per pound duty the American manufacture could not have been started, and if the duty was lowered at all for some time to come, the foreign makers could easily afford to drive the American manufacturers out of the business, and then would be able to make the explosive makers pay their old-fashioned prices, far higher prices than they now pay.

Nearly or quite one-half the cost of the article is labor; and in the case of cake magnesia it would be about three-quarters. All the raw materials of this article are imported and dutiable. One, kiesirite, is a by-product of the Stassfurt potash mines in Germany; it cannot be produced in this country, and, though largely used as a fertilizing material, pays a duty of 20 per cent. The other article, the highest grade of soda-ash, pays an average of about 24 per cent. of duty.

The imported carbonate of magnesia of the highest reputation sells here for about 31 cents per pound. The average selling price of all grades of magnesia is not less than 20 cents per pound, and the duty of 6 cents per pound is only 30 per cent. on the average selling price, which is a lighter duty than most articles in the list of chemicals pay. In less than three years the home manufacturers have produced a better article than the foreign, and have supplied the high explosive trade at much below the old prices.

We append analyses of the test foreign make (Jennings'), and of our own; it shows the decided superiority of the American make. We have no analysis of our two competitors, but have no reason to doubt that they are equally superior to the foreign.

Comparative analyses of carbonate of magnesia, made by Jennings, of Cork, and the Columbia Chemical Works, 66 Water street, Brooklyn, made by W. M. Habirshaw, F. C. S.

Constituents.	Jennings.	Columbia Chemical Works.
Carbonate of magnesia.....	74.63	77.19
Oxide of magnesia.....	1.82	.60
Carbonate of lime.....	1.27	.07
Carbonate of soda.....	.54	.73
Iron and aluminum oxides.....	.22	.03
Water of combination.....	21.52	21.38
	100.00	100.00
Total magnesia (MgO).....	40.81	41.03
Total carbonic acid (CO ₂).....	36.32	37.09
Weight of cubic foot in pounds.....	10.73	9.81

In view of these facts, it is respectfully submitted that unless the principle of protecting, directly or indirectly, home manufactures is abandoned, the specific duty of 6 cents per pound on carbonate of magnesia is not too great, and it should not be either lowered or removed.

Dr. S. A. GOLDSCHMIDT, of Brooklyn, who was present, said that he indorsed all that Mr. Parsons had stated to the Commission in regard to the matter.

JOHN D. CUTTER.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

Mr. JOHN D. CUTTER, of New York, manufacturer and importer of silk goods, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: I would respectfully advocate a specific duty upon silk goods for the reason that under such duty all will be served alike, disputes and reappraisements will be avoided, and the great uncertainty which now attends the importation of silk goods will be dispelled. It will also tend to render the value of silk goods more stable in this market, ameliorating fluctuations in value, loading the foreign value by a constant quantity.

The objection which is urged against a specific duty in general, viz, that it tends to bear most heavily upon the cheaper sorts, and thus discriminates against the poor man, does not apply to a specific tariff on silk goods, because silk in any form is an article of luxury, and cheap silks are, as a rule, meretricious and deserve a prohibitory duty in the interest of the public.

I further advocate a specific duty by the pound and square yard jointly. The square-yard duty is the natural complement or equipoise of the pound duty, being increased as the surface, and consequently as the labor is increased, and our duty should be levied on the labor rather than on the value or weight of the raw material. The mere mention of a square-yard duty will bring a protest from all custom-house officials and importers, for they only know it as causing intolerable and interminable calculations. But this is needless; a square-yard duty can be made as simple as a pound duty, and then all objections will disappear and it may serve its beneficent purpose.

I advocate a square-yard duty of 36 cents per square yard, or some multiple of 36, or some decimal or aliquot part of 36. I will not enlarge upon this; any one of the least experience in these matters will see at once that the amount of duty per running yard is given at once by laying the yard stick upon the goods.

I further advocate that all limits of value or of weight per square yard prescribed by the tariff be fixed upon the same principle. In fixing these weights you need not be confined to the pound avoirdupois, but may use the ounce or gram. To determine whether any article was within the limit of weight provided by the tariff, it would only have to be placed in a scale, the weight divided by the length, and the result compared with the weight of the goods.

I advocate also the following:

Raw silk, cocoons, waste silk, silk-worm eggs, free.

Combed waste or sliver, 50 cents per pound.

Choppe or spun silk yarn, undyed, \$1 per pound.

Choppe or spun silk yarn, dyed, \$1.50 per pound.

Choppe or spun silk yarn, dyed and wound, \$2 per pound.

Thrown silk, tram, organzine, or sewings, in the gum, \$1.50 per pound.

Thrown silk, dyed in hank, \$2.50 per pound.

Thrown silk, dyed and wound, \$3 per pound.

Silk fabrics in the piece: Tusset pongee or wild India silk; Shantung-pongee or wild China silk, imported from Asia (see samples), \$1.50 per pound.

China white pongee, imported from Asia (see sample), \$3 per pound.

Silk fabrics, all silk or containing more than 75 per cent. by weight of silk, \$4 per pound; 18 cents per square yard.

Fabrics containing more than 25 per cent. by weight of silk, and not more than 75 per cent., \$2 per pound; 18 cents per square yard.

Fabrics containing more than 5 per cent. by weight of silk, and not more than 25 per cent., \$1 per pound; 18 cents per square yard.

It has been suggested that in levying a duty on foreign silks some distinction should be made between the black and colored. It seems to me that opinion is entirely erroneous. The black silk that comes to this country now is very heavily weighted. I have been making a pure silk in this country, and I find in competition with that a pure silk is being sent us from Lyons. If we should levy a duty of \$4 on black silk and \$6 on colored silk, the one would be as pure as the other in the course of a few months. I have here a silk which contains less than 10 per cent. of dye-stuff. It is brought here in competition with my production. Foreign silks are coming to this country in competition with these silks, and I think it would be a mistake if you make a specific duty on colored silk different from the duty on black silk, because the black and colored will both be pure when you put a specific duty on them.

By the PRESIDENT:

Question. You are a manufacturer of silk?—Answer. Yes, sir; and an importer. I import a great many China pongees.

Q. How do the rates of duty which you recommend compare, when reduced, to the existing ad valorem rates?—A. I think they would be a little less. I think the value of a pound of silk on the other side of the water is somewhere in the neighborhood of \$8. The raw material is worth about \$6, and the rest is the cost of manufacture. The present rate on that would be about \$5.50. I have suggested \$5.

Something has been said about undervaluations. I have been during the past two or three years called upon to go to the custom-house to give testimony or to act as merchant appraiser, and I believe there could not be a more conscientious and faithful set of men employed than are now employed in our appraiser's department. It is a wonder to me how they can get through with so much business satisfactorily. I know there is no dereliction of duty on their part, but yet silks often go through the custom house at a less rate than they ought to. For instance, I was called as a merchant appraiser in a case where the goods, after being advanced, were paying a duty of 44 francs per kilogram, while the raw material was worth 60 francs. I asked the appraiser if he was aware that the goods when advanced only figured up 44 francs, and he said "Yes," but it was all that he could get. I was a merchant appraiser in a case where, after investigating the matter for three months, I gave it up. I was perfectly sure of my position, but I had my business to attend to; I had not any more time to spend on the subject.

I have been brought up in this business since I was a boy 15 years of age; and from my experience I do not think it is possible to collect the full duty of 60 per cent. on these goods. The importer of New York to-day spends half his time at the appraisers' department. He knows what is going on, and can take advantage of it. This is no discredit to the appraisers, for I admit I could not do as well as they do myself. How can they discriminate between two standards? They have to rely on something to help them. You will find, practically, that a man who has to appraise these goods will at times get to relying on the count of threads, because there must be some sort of a comparison in order to get at a

correct judgment of an article. At other times you will find that he is testing them by weight, and at other times by other methods. And the merchant who is at his elbow and can see what these different criterions are can take advantage of them; and if the criterion is weight he will try and profit by it. In that way the present tariff works unfairly, not by the dishonesty or unfaithfulness of the officials, but because it is impossible to ascertain the value of silk goods by the case. Give us a specific duty, because when we once know exactly what we have to pay we shall be able to adapt ourselves to it, and shall be relieved of a vast amount of anxiety and uncertainty.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. Do you say that manufactured silk, not loaded, will average about \$8 a pound in different countries?—A. In a foreign country, in Italy, for instance, a raw silk costing about \$6 could be spun into a thread, and then woven into the cloth for \$2 or \$2.50 per pound more.

Q. And that, at the present rate of 60 per centum, would be about \$4.80?—A. Yes, sir; but with us it costs about \$3; as much as that. It would cost me here about \$6 or \$7 a pound to spin and weave a pound of silk.

Q. So that the rates you suggest would be a slight decrease on the present rate of 60 per cent.?—A. A slight one.

Q. That is, the difference between \$4 and \$4.80. I understand you to say that there would be some inequality in the fact that it would bear heavier on the cheaper quality of silks?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What would be the possible extent of that, in round numbers?—A. I suppose silks are imported at the custom-house to-day at, say, 44 francs a kilogram. Those goods would be passed through the custom-house at \$4 a pound. If you take the gum out of it, it is worth \$8.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Do you think the adoption of specific duties would lead to the abandoning of the practice of loading silks?—A. Undoubtedly, and if that were done it would be worth millions to our people who are buying silks.

Q. Is there any other adulteration except the loading?—A. No, sir; I think that is all.

Q. How long has this system of loading been practiced?—A. Since the grosgrain silk came into fashion, about the time of the breaking out of the war. We formerly had glacé silk, made of plain threads each way. When they wanted this ribbed silk with the lusterless appearance, they could not keep these little threads in place unless they weighted them and made a kind of cloth. If it was pure silk, they would slide out of place, and you could put your finger through the silk. Weighting seemed to be an essential quality for the gros grain silks, which for 10 or 20 years past have been the most fashionable silks. It is not essential, but they will not go to the expense of making them properly. They put the material on scantily, and make it stay there by putting on weighting matter.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. You make four divisions, and the first one includes silks at \$3 a pound. Is that a pure silk?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is there any adulteration in that quality of silk?—A. No, sir; none whatever.

Q. What distinction do you make between silk fabrics and those; do you exclude those from the ordinary silk fabrics?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then you go on, "or containing more than 75 per cent. by weight of silk, \$4." There is a difference of a dollar on 25 per centum—difference in weight as a basis?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then you next take "up fabrics containing more than 25 per centum weight of silk, and not more than 75 per centum," a difference of 50 per centum by weight, and make a difference of \$2 a pound. Is not that too big a jump; don't you allow too much margin between the two?—A. I meant to make the classification in this way: First, perfectly pure silk; and in order to avoid the possibility of anybody putting in a little cord on the edge as they do in ribbons, I give a margin of 25 per centum.

Q. Suppose a fabric contains 30 per centum of silk, and 70 per centum of cotton. Do you make that pay the same rate of duty as silk which contains 74 per centum; is not that too large a step compared with the other steps you take?—A. I mean to divide it in the middle; half silk and half cotton.

Q. Should there not be five classes then, in order to approximate anything like the value?—A. Yes, sir; except for simplicity.

Q. In every other case you take 25 per centum at a step; and here in this case you take in 50?—A. You are correct. I wrote this off at my office, and I think you are entirely correct in your suggestion. I would like to say one thing further: I have talked with Mr. Kent frequently about the matter, and he advocates the ad valorem duty. A man who is a perfect expert in valuing goods can estimate them accurately; but it seems to me that the weight is the most absolute test. I take one-quarter of a square inch from a fabric, a seersucker for instance, and put it in the scales, and without the least difficulty tell to within 1 per cent. the quantity of silk and cotton contained in it in a very few moments.

Q. Is the weight alone an actual and accurate test?—A. I think it would be with regard to European silks. These cheap Asiatic fabrics are made from the thread, without other preparation. All the silks made in Europe are made from trams and organzines.

Q. The weight alone you think is an absolute test of the value of fabrics of which silk forms a compound?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then why do you add the rate per square yard?—A. Because the labor in weaving it is increased by the square yard; I would not say that the weight alone was a criterion for the finished fabric at all. I believe if you will bring in that square-yard element, you will be able to make one classification which will cover even lace at a pound value.

Q. Do you include ribbons also, a square-yard rate on ribbons?—A. Yes, sir.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Would this rate of duty apply to the spun as well as the other goods?—A. Yes, sir; it seems to me that a square-yard and pound duty together could be laid upon all at once.

J. D. T. HERSEY.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

Mr. J. D. T. HERSEY, of the firm of Hodges, Hersey & Co., manufacturers of straw goods, New York City, representing the American Straw Goods Association, addressed the Commission as follows:

I desire to read a letter which I presented to the Ways and Means Committee five years ago. The matter has not changed since then:

NEW YORK, *December 28, 1877.*

Hon. F. WOOD,

Chairman Committee Ways and Means, Washington, D. C.:

DEAR SIR: The undersigned having been appointed a committee of the manufacturers of straw goods in the United States to ask your honorable committee to consider the interests of that branch of industry in connection with the tariff question, beg leave to call your attention to it.

The principal materials used in the manufacture of hats and bonnets are braids made of straw, chip, manila, hair, and cotton, and come mostly from Italy, Switzerland, and China, and all pay a duty of 30 per cent.

This duty is felt to be a great burden upon our business, as it is believed that our production could and would be much more largely exported and less of foreign manufactured goods imported if these braids could come in free of duty, as they do into England and other countries, which gives their manufacturers a great advantage over ours. There are about twenty-five thousand persons employed in the United States in this business, but not more than from six to nine months in a year, whereas if we could compete with other countries in prices, and thereby obtain a larger market at home and abroad, these persons could be employed a much larger portion of time and many more engaged in the business.

We therefore most respectfully beg your committee to provide for the free admission of these braids under your revised tariff bill. Fearing to trespass too much upon your time, we present this subject very briefly, but should you desire further information, any inquiries will have prompt attention.

Very respectfully,

J. D. T. HERSEY, *Chairman.*
E. F. KNOWLTON.
OLIVER CARPENTER.
H. S. W. VANDERHOOF.
GEORGE N. SMALLEY.
H. K. WHITE.

The signers of this document are all members of firms engaged in this business. There is a large amount of capital employed in the business, and, as you will see, it gives employment to twenty-five or thirty thousand people. We are excluded almost entirely from trading with Canada, from Central America, from the West India Islands, from South America and Mexico, because of this 30 per cent. duty which we have to pay on materials—on these braids which we use in the manufacture of the goods. We can say without any egotism that no nation in the world can excel us in the manufacture of finished goods and in styles; we take the lead. People come here from Canada and the West India Islands and look at our goods, and when they see them they prefer the styles to any they find in Europe, but they say the prices are too high. The Canadians come here every season, but we cannot sell them any goods except the carried-over goods, which we are obliged to sell at less than they cost us, unless sometimes we have something they are obliged to take which is in great demand and

which they cannot get supplied with from Europe. What we want is to have all braids used in this business brought in free of duty.

I would also say that the Committee on Ways and Means of the House of Representatives has considered this subject very carefully. We have also had members of Congress from our various districts examine the matter thoroughly, and the result was that they embodied in the tariff a provision reducing the duty to 10 per cent.

By the PRESIDENT:

Question. When was that?—Answer. In the winter of 1877-'78. That bill, however, never became a law; it was never passed. We would also like to have Manila hats and South American hats, such as Panama, Maracaibo, and Curaçoa hats, as well as Leghorn hats, brought in free of duty when they come in in the rough, but when manipulated and finished, we would have them under a duty of 25 or 30 per cent. We could do a great deal of business with the West India Islands and Central America, Canada, and other countries, and I have no doubt we could export to Europe many of our manufactured goods if we could be put on a par with Europe in the matter of duties. They have no duty on these materials in England, France, or Germany. There is a duty of 40 per cent. on manufactured straw goods, hats, &c., and, as I have said, the Committee on Ways and Means recommended a reduction of that duty to 30 per cent. That we do not object to; 25 or 30 per cent. is ample protection for the manufacturers if we can have our materials at the same price that they have them in England and France. We have the best machinery in the world for manufacturing these goods, and we think our labor is more intelligent than that employed in Europe. We think we can produce more goods with the same number of hands—we know we can—than they do in Europe. We beg you to give this matter careful consideration, and if you can recommend the introduction of these materials free of duty, we should be very happy to have you do so.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. It is the straw braids that you wish introduced free of duty?—A. Yes, sir; straw braids and cotton braids also.

Q. Are there any manufactories of those articles in this country; are they made at all here?—A. No, sir; not at present. Some years ago, when split straw was used, we braided a good deal in Massachusetts, where the most of the manufactories of straw goods are located. But of late years that is all out of fashion. These braids are made from straw which grows in Switzerland, Italy, and China, and are all very peculiar and very different from anything we can raise in this country. I do not know exactly why it is that we cannot raise it here, but it is probably owing to the climate.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Does the duty on braids and the other articles which you desire to have brought in free of duty benefit or protect any industry in this country?—A. I think not.

Q. You say there are no manufactories of braids in this country now?—A. No, sir; none at all of this kind which we use for the manufacture of hats.

Q. Would the admission of these Manila and Maracaibo hats interfere with any industry in this country?—A. No, sir; none whatever. It is entirely different from any goods which are made in this country.

JOHN R. WATERS.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

Mr. JOHN R. WATERS, of New York City, representing the importers of dry goods, addressed the Commission as follows :

I appear here as the representative of several importing houses, who have authorized me to present to you their wishes in the form of the following petition :

The undersigned respectfully represent that they are commission merchants, doing business in this city, as manufacturers' selling agents.

The manufactures we handle are domestic and foreign dry goods, and it is out of our experience in the foreign departments of our businesses (which collectively pay \$20,000,000 annually in duties) that we ask permission to suggest the following recommendations to your honorable Commission :

I. That the duties on dry goods be made wholly and absolutely specific, so that the value of merchandise shall not be a factor either in the assessment or the computation of duties.

NOTE.—By means of subclassifications scaled so as to follow the various grades of each manufactured article, a sufficient discrimination as to comparative cost or value can be preserved.

II. That consular invoices be abolished.

III. That such Treasury methods be established as will allow the payment of duties by means of certified checks, and of fees by means of adhesive or other stamps.

IV. That it be allowed to transact before a notary public, or else by attorney, those formalities of an entry which now require the personal attendance at the custom-house of the consignee.

Many years' intercourse with the custom-house, and an intimate knowledge of the workings of the tariff, warrant us in assuring your honorable Commission that each of the above changes represents a much-needed reform (especially the change to specific duties); that they can all be easily effected, and that if carefully made they will place the business of assessing and collecting duties on imports on a footing satisfactory at once to the government and to the merchants.

Yours, very respectfully,

C. A. AUFFMORDT & Co.

DREYFUS, KOHN & Co.

FLEITMANN & Co.

ISELIN, NEESER & Co.

LEWIS BROTHERS & Co.

LUCKEMEYER & SCHEFER.

MEGROZ, PORTIER, GROSE & Co.

E. OELBERMANN & Co.

PASSAVANT & Co.

A. PERSON, HARRIMAN & Co.

F. VIETOR & ACHELIS.

WILMERDING, HOGUET & Co.

The firms whose signatures I have just read are all interested in domestic as well as in foreign dry goods. Their business is to sell the product of manufacturers in Europe and America. They do not ask that duties shall be put at this or that per cent. They simply ask that they shall be made specific. As far as they are concerned you may make them one thousand per cent. It is their business as distributors of merchandise, and as dry goods commission merchants, to adapt themselves to the circumstances whatever they may be. They may have their own private individual views as citizens, as to the tariff in

its political and economic aspects, but as commission merchants they simply ask that the duties may be made specific so that they may know where they are; that they may be relieved of the trouble and annoyance which they daily suffer at the custom-house with regard to the valuation of their goods. And in respect to the other minor reforms which they ask for, the need for them is evident, as it appears to them, on their face. I have prepared a little memoranda here, which, with the permission of the Commission, I will read:

REMARKS ON THE DEFECTIVE WORKING, IN ACTUAL PRACTICE, OF THE AD VALOREM SYSTEM OF LEVYING DUTIES ON IMPORTS.

The law directs that imported merchandise shall be appraised according to the actual market value or wholesale price of the merchandise at the period of its exportation to the United States in the principal markets of the country from which the same has been imported.

Now, it is impossible in ninety-nine cases out of every hundred to say, categorically what this value is. Take, for instance, fancy dress goods. There are in France several "principal markets" for these goods. These markets publish no price lists and in private do not quote uniform prices for the same article. Then, again, the manufacturer, the jobber, and the commissionaire in the same market will ask widely different prices for identical goods, and yet these men are strictly wholesale dealers and their prices strictly "wholesale prices." Again, prices in all markets will vary from day to day, and in an active market from hour to hour. Actual operations are influenced by innumerable considerations; as, for example, the magnitude of the transaction, the reputation, facilities, and necessities of the manufacturer or the jobber, the honesty or greed of the commissionaire, the experience, talent, habits, industry, taste, and needs of the buyer, or the character, standing, and credit of the house he represents. So uncertain and variable are these, that it is no uncommon thing for one buyer to pay 25 per cent. more than another, on the same day and in the same market, for substantially the same goods. So many conditions enter into the estimate of the market value of any given article, and so many difficulties confront the seeker after evidence of actual operations, that the most experienced dealers agree in declaring that, for a majority of goods, the exact market value is an absolutely unknown quantity. This impossibility of fixing the market value encourages unscrupulous shippers to forward invoices which are deliberately undervalued, for these persons know that such a practice is comparatively safe, since that which is a mere question of opinion can hardly become a matter of criminal jurisdiction.

On the other hand, this same uncertainty as to actual value places the importer entirely at the mercy of the custom-house, the custom-house having power to advance the declared value as it may see fit. Thus the ad valorem system proves in practice to be an engine of fraud on the one hand and of oppression on the other. With duties wholly and absolutely specific, these defects would disappear, because the ascertainment of duties would have regard to fixed quantities such as the number, weight, measurement, and count, instead of the value. Thus the importer could not deceive the custom-house, the custom-house could not harass the importer, collusion between importers and examiners could be effectually prevented by the daily changing of examiners to different divisions, and competing domestic interests would have a sure basis whereon to organize their production.

With regard to consular invoices, I think every person conversant

with the subject has long ago come to the conclusion that they are of no use except perhaps for statistical purposes. But the statistics which are gathered by the consuls at their various residences could equally well be collected here upon the arrival of the merchandise.

In regard to the payment of duties by means of certified checks, I desire to say that that is a subject which has been frequently agitated and brought to the notice of the Treasury Department and Congress, and yet no action has been taken in the way of satisfying the merchants on that point. You can easily see that it is a great danger for merchants to have to carry money in large quantities to the custom-house, sometimes for long distances where their banks are up town; they run great danger of losing their money. On the other hand, to transact their dealings by means of checks would be a great safeguard for the custom-house itself. I know that the handling of large sums of money in the cashier's department of the custom-house has resulted sometimes in deficits. That could be obviated if checks were taken instead of money.

With respect to the payment of fees by means of stamps I desire to say this: It is proposed to have an adhesive stamp made for that purpose, and to affix these stamps to the document whereon fees have to be paid at present equal to the fees demanded, or to give the importer the option of having the stamp printed on his documents the same as is done with bank checks nowadays.

With regard to transacting business before a notary public or before an attorney, I will say that that is a simple matter of convenience. Merchants reside great distances from the custom-house in some instances, and it takes up one-half of their time to go to and from the custom-house and attend to the routine of importations, which might just as well be done by a substitute, or the essential part could be done before some well qualified person, such as a notary public living within an easy distance of any merchant's store.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Question. It is a fact, I believe, that goods of the same designation would necessarily differ very materially in value; is that not so?—
Answer. Certainly.

Q. How would you undertake to arrange this specific duty?—A. If I were called upon to frame a specific tariff on dry goods, I should endeavor, in the first place, to adhere as closely as possible to a rate of duty per piece or article. For instance, I should endeavor to place India shawls at so much each for duty, irrespective of their comparative value. I should endeavor to fix a duty of so much on each India shawl. Nothing can be simpler than that. Where the principle of placing a duty of so much per article or piece is not practicable, I would levy the duty at so much per pound weight. For instance, with respect to silk goods I would have silk goods in the piece pay so much per pound weight. The rate per pound, or the poundage, should be graded according to some inherent and easily ascertained attribute of the article, such, for instance, as the ounces to the square yard, or the threads to the square inch. With respect to silks, the simplest and fairest way would be to classify them by their weight per square yard, counting from one ounce to two and from two to three, and so on, and lessening the poundage as the goods became heavier to the square yard. And so I would put a poundage upon all the materials which enter into dry goods, such as silk, cotton, hemp, flax, linen, wool, hair, jute &c., and where goods are mixed in their components I would dissect them and

let each article pay proportionately according to the component materials. A satin composed of silk and cotton should pay the silk duty for the silk it contains; and the cottonade should pay the cotton duty for the cotton it contains. Each duty should be ascertained according to its classification under the head of silk or cotton.

Q. I understand there would be less difficulty in the application of that principle to silks. But take the woolens, for instance, which range from a very low to a very high price, and as to which the pound duty would seem probably to operate very inequitably. Take these cheap goods, worth about fifty cents or a dollar a yard and yet heavy, and on the other hand fine broadcloths very much higher in price and perhaps lighter or not heavier in weight. How would you get rid of the apparent inequity that would result from the pound duty in that case?—A. You cannot get rid of the principle of inequity in any tariff that you frame. It is impossible to frame a tariff that is going to be absolutely and squarely equitable and fair, and which will be satisfactory to everybody affected by it. These changes that our petition asks for are perhaps going to work greatly to our disadvantage in our business; they probably will. A change to specific duties will cause us great inconvenience and loss for two or three years perhaps, until we adapt ourselves to them. Still we are willing to undergo that loss for the sake of having the thing arranged so that it shall be satisfactory in its workings, at any rate, if not in its principles, to everybody concerned.

Q. I suppose you are quite right in saying that, there must be in any system adopted more or less inequity. But we should guard against any such effect as I mentioned a moment since. Take, for instance, the cheaper grades of clothing worth a dollar a yard. We will assume the two cloths I am about to speak of are of the same weight. The one is worth \$1 a yard and the other is worth \$5 a yard. Those would not be too great extremes, would they?—A. Well, they are rather far apart.

Q. How far would they probably range apart?—A. The ordinary imported woolens for men's wear range from \$2 to \$5 a yard.

Q. Now, suppose you impose a duty of 50 cents a pound on woolen goods (for the sake of illustration), and we will assume a yard weighs a pound, which may be the case. Cloth worth \$2 a yard would pay 25 per cent. duty while the \$5 a yard goods at the same rate would pay only 10 per cent., if I am correct in my figures.—A. If the woolens were classified into various subdivisions, according to their weight per square yard, that would tend to equalize this thing. It would not make it absolutely fair and equal, but it would make it approximately so. You never will get anything nearer than approximately under any tariff.

Q. That would possibly be liable to this objection; that the lower grades of the goods would pay the higher rate of duty, and the higher grades the lower rate of duty.—A. I do not see why it should follow. The woolens are enhanced in value according to their weight; according to the amount of material contained in them.

Q. I had not supposed so, but probably you are right. If that is the case, I can see that it is a very great aid in the direction of your suggestion.—A. The foreign wools that are imported to-day outside of the question of style, where they are fancy goods, and weighing 30 ounces to the square yard, are worth more than woolens weighing 10 ounces to the yard.

Q. Other things being equal?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. But, other things, I suppose, are not equal. One may be a low-priced goods, and the other may be goods that by reason of finish and work upon it has a very high price.—A. You cannot altogether obviate

that difficulty; but that is a very small and insignificant matter when compared with the difficulties we experience to-day under the ad valorem system. The importers could adapt themselves to the circumstances of a specific tariff, and import such goods as would give a reasonable profit under the conditions of the tariff. But to-day they do not know where they are. The custom house can put their prices anywhere they please, and the importer has no recourse. A man may buy goods at fifteen shillings, and have them put up to seventeen shillings here, and he has to submit and pay the difference. Under the specific régime he would know what the duty was in advance, and would be sure that he would not be called upon to pay more than that.

Q. It would certainly be a convenience to the importer.—A. And it would also be a great convenience to the domestic manufacturer, because he would know exactly the extent of protection which was enjoyed, which he does not know to-day. He knows that the nominal duty on silks is 60 per cent., but he does not know how much of that 60 per cent. is collected.

Q. It has been all the time assumed by everybody, I think, that goods should be graded so that there should be a higher percentage upon luxuries than upon the simpler class of goods that are needed by the common people.—A. You will admit that such is not the case with the present tariff. We pay 120 per cent. on overcoatings, and 60 per cent. on silks.

Q. I am quite satisfied it is not so now; but if the principle be a correct one, to impose duties so that the rates are higher on luxuries, we should go in that direction if we can. The suggestion I make is, that perhaps the adoption of this specific duty would, in many instances, operate still more harshly than the present duty; that it would aggravate the present inequity.—A. Of course you cannot frame a tariff off-hand, in a few minutes; it is a question that has got to be studied out. I have no doubt even a tariff on woollens could be framed that would make the subdivisions pretty nearly equitable. There are some other attributes about woollens which could govern the subdivisions other than that of weight per square yard. All those things would have to be looked into, and I have no doubt it could be done as it has been in other countries. I have no doubt a tariff framed entirely on a specific basis could be satisfactorily devised.

Q. And one that would be reasonably equitable and fair in its operations?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. That is a consummation devoutly to be wished. You mention in the paper signed by the firms which you represent here to-day, the matter of the abolition of consular invoices. It was suggested yesterday that the real objection to the present consular invoice was that it was a mere formality; if it was required to be sworn to before some notary instead of the consul it would have some actual value in determining the prices, &c. Is it your opinion that such a result might be obtained?—A. I do not see that it would. I believe that such a course is now adopted in Great Britain. I believe that the jobbers there are required to take oath before a local commissioner as well as before the consul. I do not think that such a course would help us any. The consuls in all countries certify to anything you put before them if it is on clean paper and appears to be written with neatness and regularity, and seems to come from some business house. In fact, it cannot be otherwise. There is no consul who has the time to look into these matters and see whether they are so or not. His business is entirely mechanical with regard to certifying invoices.

Q. Your judgment is that it is a mere formality, which might be dispensed with; that it is a vexation and annoyance with no advantage resulting?—A. Yes, sir; for instance, our various houses in Europe would gladly pay the consular fees to be rid of the annoyance of having the invoices certified. The delay is the chief hardship in this matter. We have to let our goods go into the warehouse for lack of the invoices.

Q. That might possibly, however, be remedied in some other way; that is, to allow them to withdraw their goods upon satisfying the collector in regard to this matter?—A. That would be difficult, because until some form of entry showing the quantities and descriptions of the goods can be shown, it would hardly be safe to let the importer have control of them. We are able to make entries to-day on invoices that are not legalized, by undertaking to present the legalized invoices subsequently. But all that creates work, trouble, and expense, and I think it is unnecessary altogether.

Q. You speak also of paying the duties on various entries, papers, &c., in a different manner from the one at present in use. Would it not be better to make one duty on the whole thing sufficient to cover the cost of it and do away with these little petty fees?—A. Of course, the better way would be to abolish fees altogether. Do you mean to add the fees to the duties?

Q. I was suggesting whether some nominal fee could not be agreed upon. Suppose, for instance, a general entry fee of 50 or 75 cents should be imposed to cover all papers and other expenses; would not that be quite as good as your proposition?—A. The reason why the present method of paying fees is accompanied by inconvenience is because the importer has to go to a desk and pay his fees, and sometimes stand in line for an hour before he can get his turn.

Q. So that, in the event even of the adoption of a uniform fee, he would still have trouble?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. It would then be better to make it a stamp-fee as a matter of convenience?—A. Yes, sir; and it would be well to let the importer cancel the stamp as well as put it on. There used to be a stamp tax on invoices paid by means of an adhesive stamp on the entry, and it was obligatory on the importer to have that stamp canceled by an officer in the custom-house, and that involved, of course, trouble.

Q. There seems to be no reason why an adhesive stamp, which could be canceled, should not be adopted now, the same as is done in the case of checks?—A. Yes, sir. I wish to draw your particular attention to the fact that the firms signing this paper which I have presented are not exclusively domestic commission merchants nor exclusively importers of foreign dry goods; they are both. No firm has signed this paper which is not doing the double business as selling agent of foreign manufacturers and selling agent of domestic manufacturers. It was thought that this petition, if confined exclusively to such houses, would carry more weight with it than if it was signed otherwise, because such houses can hardly be suspected of having any particular interest on the protective or free-trade side of the question, because their interests are on both sides. Their business is to obtain goods from manufacturers, no matter where the manufacturers are, whether in Europe, Asia, Africa, or America, and distribute them to the consumers in this country. If they cannot get silks from Lyons they will get them from Paterson; if they cannot get woollens from Huddersfield they will get them from Massachusetts. Their object is

to get them where they can get them best, and supply the wants of the consumer, the jobber, and the retailer.

It has been stated to you that if an American buyer goes to the factory in Germany or France he cannot obtain goods himself, even if he tenders the money for them. That has been held forth as proof that the manufacturer is a fraud, that he is carrying on a business calculated to defraud the government here. I should like to take this opportunity to disabuse your minds (if any of you are under that impression) of this fallacy that it is necessarily fraud on the foreign manufacturer's part. The commission house, in other words the selling agent for the manufacturers, transacts its business on certain principles. A man will solicit the agency of certain manufacturers abroad, and he makes it a condition with those manufacturers that he is to have the whole of their business in the place where he resides, or none. You will find it just as difficult, if you go to Connecticut or Massachusetts and try to buy goods directly from the manufacturers there, as in the other case. They will refer you to their agents in New York. Just so it is with regard to the foreign manufacturers. Those who have their regularly established agencies here are not allowed by the terms of their agreement with the agents to sell directly to buyers who go to them.

Q. I can readily see that the condition you suggest does exist. Still, what is your judgment as to whether there are in fact considerable efforts at undervaluation by some, at least, of the foreign manufacturers and importers?—A. I will answer that question in a broad way by saying, that everybody who has studied human nature to any extent must know that where there is a large number of employes, such as the examiners in the custom-house, and where the employes are getting, perhaps, \$2,000 a year salary, more or less, with large personal and family expenses, that there will be some of those employes to whom a \$5,000 check is going to be irresistible. That being the case, and knowing that the faults of human nature extend as well to the importers as to the examiners, we must expect and believe, even if we do not know it to be so from actual evidence, that this collusion does exist; that there are importers who are willing to pay to have their goods passed at their own valuations, and examiners willing to receive compensation for passing them. The examiner is, in point of fact, the sole arbiter in the matter. Whether an invoice shall be passed as presented, or not, depends entirely on him, and it is too great a power, in my opinion, to be safely placed in any one man's hands. A specific duty does away with all this difficulty. I suggest with regard to the defects of the ad valorem system that the specific plan does away with them, because it could be so arranged that the examiner, for instance, should examine steel rails to-day and examine woolen goods to-morrow and silk goods the next day. If there was a specific duty it would take no technical or expert knowledge to determine the matter.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Q. I would like to know more specifically with regard to woolen manufactures. What is the tariff upon coarse woolen fabrics that cost from 50 cents to \$1 a yard?—A. It runs as high as 110 per cent. It is a compound duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem and 50 cents a pound.

Q. I know what the tariff rates are, but I want to know how it works, and what per cent. of duty is actually placed upon woolen goods. The law imposing the duty is worded in such a way that it necessarily takes an experienced man to ascertain the total amount of duty. What is

the per cent. upon very fine cassimeres and broadcloth of the finest quality?—A. The duty is in the neighborhood of 70 per cent.

Q. Are there any woolen goods that run as low as 40 per cent.?—A. I do not know of any. Experience shows us that the cheaper the price of wooleus the higher the percentage of duty is.

Q. What class of people use these cheap goods?—A. Very few of them are imported at present. The importation of them is gradually being abandoned during the last five or six years, because the cheap goods made here have taken the place of them.

Q. What class of people use the finest woolen manufactures?—A. Well, such persons as yourself, and I suppose most of the gentlemen sitting here are wearing them. I suppose you have a foreign woolen suit on now.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. You say that the foreign cheaper goods under the present tariff have been crowded out of the market within the last few years. What has been the effect upon the price on that class of goods? Has the result been an increase or decrease of price?—A. Naturally the result has been a decrease of the price; otherwise the importation would have continued if the foreign manufacturer had always been able to get the price he got before.

Q. Do you mean to say that this class of woolen goods that has been excluded by the 110 per cent. duty has really become cheaper to the consumer since the exclusion?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is that remark applicable to the condition of things before the enactment of the present wool tariff?—A. No, sir; I think it results chiefly from the cheapening of the production here, consequent principally upon the greater competition of domestic manufacturers among themselves.

Q. Do you think competition among the American manufacturers has reached this point, that this apparent hardship is not really one to the purchasers of cheap goods?—A. I do not think so altogether, because the foreign cheap article was, as a rule, better in intrinsic worth and wearing qualities than the domestic article. It was a better manufactured article.

Q. So that on the whole, while there has been an apparent cheapening, you have some doubts whether the result to the consumer has been in proportion?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. Your note to your first subdivision is: "By means of subclassifications, sealed so as to follow the various grades of each manufactured article, a sufficient discrimination as to comparative cost or value can be preserved." Do you mean that that scaling shall be in any case by cost?—A. In no case by cost; always by some specific value.

Q. Always an intrinsic attribute other than cost?—A. Yes, sir; and some specific line of division.

Q. If such scaling be by counting the number of threads, or number of ounces to the square yard, one or both, in the case of mixed materials, by ascertaining the quantities of the several materials, besides entailing an immense amount of labor on the custom-house officials, and necessarily an increased force, will not that open the door for as much dispute as now in regard to the question of value?—A. I do not think so. The question is one that can never be settled by any rule. It is always a matter of opinion as to what the value of a thing is; whereas

if any dispute arises as to the weight per square yard, or threads to the square inch, or some specific attribute of the goods, such dispute can easily be settled, because it is only a question of intelligent weighing and counting.

Q. You are familiar with the importation of woolen dress goods?—
A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you not know as a matter of fact of dispute arising as to whether the goods run over four ounces per yard or not?—A. Yes, sir; but I have never known in any such case the least dissatisfaction on the part of individuals. We have had cases ourselves where upon actual weight of the goods after their arrival here they have been found to be different from the weight declared in the invoice. Sometimes particular goods acquire dampness in their transit or dry out; but a good Fair-bank scale will always settle the question.

Q. Would not a scale necessarily be a very complicated one which would attempt at all to approximate the cost?—A. I think not.

Q. Would not there necessarily be a great many gradations in that scale?—A. There might be ten or twelve gradations to each class of goods.

Q. Then, in the case of mixed materials, where an article is composed of silk, cotton, jute, or hair, there would be the number of gradations multiplied by the number of materials, would there not?—A. The gradations would be determined, I presume, by the article itself.

Q. If an article comes in composed of all these materials, would there not be that number of scales, that is the aggregate number of scales or gradations multiplied by the number of materials?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. That would necessarily complicate the matter?—A. It would be merely a question of mathematics, and not necessarily a question of greater difficulty. To-day some duties are determined by the comparative quantities of the different materials in the article.

Q. I know you are familiar with the custom-house business, and I want to get at the practicability of such a matter. With anything like the present force that the government affords for doing the work, is such a thing practicable?—A. I think it is, with about the same force as now employed. It would not take any longer to pass upon a case of goods as to its specific attributes than it does now to pass upon it as to its ad valorem duty. Take the business of the custom-house as it is transacted to-day, where the practice is to take one case out of ten, and, if it is found to be correct, to suppose the other nine are correct also. That principle might be allowed to prevail under a specific regime.

Q. I understand you to recommend the abolition of the consular invoice, alleging one reason that you are delayed in obtaining your goods on account of this requirement?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Suppose that the consular certification be not required; would you not suffer the same delay? Suppose you have no original invoice and no consular certificate as required, would you be any more able then to enter your goods than you are now? As it is now, you can make an invoice and give a bond to produce the consular invoice. Would it not be the same thing in effect if the certificate was not required?—A. I think not.

Q. Have you not known in your experience where goods have been entered upon appraisement and the production of certified invoices thereto obtained from the consular records or the custom-house has shown that there was a very large difference and the government has

been defrauded?—A. I have heard of such cases. I have never had any come under my own notice.

Q. Then it is possible that the consular invoices are of use in cases where the goods are subject to ad valorem duties?—A. I do not see what use they are. I suppose the class of people you refer to, if they had been smarter, could have done the same thing so as not to have been found out. There are so many ways of cheating that I do not think that the preservation of the consular invoice is going to deter people from cheating, if they want to cheat, and these cases are so infrequent and isolated that it is hardly worth while to compel everybody to have invoices to detect a few fraudulent persons. It is well known that a consul will certify any invoice that is put before him, if it comes from a person known to be doing business in his district. And it is well known on the other hand that the custom-house officers here take no notice whatever of the consular certificate, and place no importance or value on it at all. Under these circumstances we ask ourselves what is the use of this consular certificate; nobody regards it; the examiners take no notice of it. They laugh when you call their attention to the fact that the shipper of these goods has sworn to their value before the consul and disregard it altogether.

Q. In regard to certified checks, I would like to ask you if you can suggest any means whereby the collector would not be subject to loss on account of forgery, &c.? Does your proposition cover the idea of certified checks on a bank?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Would it subserve the purpose at which these firms aim if you could deposit the money with the sub-treasurer and transmit a certificate of deposit, and let the amount of duty be checked off against that?—A. I think it would hardly be fair towards persons of small capital who have not the means to have a special deposit like that on hand all the time.

Q. Would there be any safeguard on the part of the collector? He is responsible to the government for the collection of the revenue. Who is going to stand between him and forgeries?—A. Certification is generally considered in business circles to be a very good safeguard, and if the government designates the banks whose certification only they will accept, it seems to me there would be safety enough in that.

Q. Would it be any more difficult for these smaller firms to deposit their money with the assistant treasurer than with the bank? If they are going to present checks at all, they have to deposit the money first before they can get certified checks. Would not that practically answer your purpose?—A. Yes, sir; it would nearly answer it.

Q. And would it not at the same time be safer for the collector?—A. I suppose forgery could be practiced there as well as with a certified check.

Q. I will take up the question that was asked by Judge Ambler. Would there be any objection to a specified amount of fee for each entry, of fifty cents, a dollar, or ten dollars, if the fourth subdivision be complied with? That is, you complain that the importers must stand in line sometimes and wait to pay their fees. They can pay their fees at the same time they pay their duties. The importer does not need himself to go to the custom-house. If he can take an oath before a notary public, or if he can transact his business as chartered corporations now do by a designated agent, would not that do away with the complaint made as to the payment of fees? We have no complaint from the chartered corporations because they have agents specially designated to attend to their entire business, and the officers of the cor-

porations never visit the custom-house except to renew their bonds.—A. Well, even if the house delegates a person as its attorney at the custom-house it does not want to have that attorney delayed longer than is necessary in the business.

Q. Will he be delayed if he pays his fees at the same time he pays his duties?—A. Probably not.

Q. If he can pay his fee and duty together, and if he can do the business without the principal appearing there, giving security to the government in case of wrong doing, that would do away with the difficulty?—A. Yes, sir; that would meet the case.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. Did I understand you to say just now in reply to a question of Commissioner Ambler's that the goods of the American manufacturer of the same price are inferior in quality to those of the foreign manufacturer?—A. No; I said that the low class of foreign woolens which have gradually been shut out from this market, were, as a rule, better manufactured than the low class of domestic woolens which have taken their place; they were more solid and better wearing goods.

Q. They were of better quality, you think, than the American goods of that class?—A. Yes, sir; I think better stock was put in them, and more care given to their manufacture.

Q. Does that obtain with regard to other goods, and cottons also, in your opinion?—A. No; I did not comprehend in my remarks any statement to the effect that any low class cottons have been shut out by domestic competition. I had reference simply and entirely to woolens.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. Allow me to take a specific case. Do you think the American flannels are inferior to the British goods?—A. No, sir; I think not. I had reference in what I said to woolens for men's outside wear, and not to flannels.

Q. That is one of the largest classes of goods worn; and they are now supplied altogether by the manufacturers, are they not?—A. We do not deal in flannels; but I believe such is the case.

JAMES M. SHAW.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. JAMES M. SHAW, of New York, in regard to the duties on earthen and glass ware, was ordered to be printed :

I am in favor of a reduction of the tariff on earthenware, now 40 per cent.; on glass, now 40 per cent.; on plain china, now 45 per cent.; and on decorated china, now 50 per cent., about 10 per cent. This could be effected simply by placing the duty on the net cost of the goods, excluding all charges—package, shipping, and transportation charges, commission, &c. This would leave the tariff as now, but reckoned on the goods only. This course would simplify custom-house work and be some protection to importers and dealers in these goods, against the monopoly of the manufacturer.

There are probably one hundred manufacturers of earthenware in the country, and ten thousand workmen who get scarcely enough to support their families comfortably, and these are mostly foreigners who will stay here only while the wages are better than in England. But protection against foreign competition only benefits the few who have the means to carry on the manufacturing works.

Glassware needs little or no protection, as it is produced here better and cheaper than most of the foreign glass brought to this country.

H. B. CLAFLIN ET AL.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

The following statement from importers and dealers in flax and jute goods was ordered to be printed:

To the United States Tariff Commission:

GENTLEMEN: In response to your invitation, the undersigned, importers and dealers in flax and jute goods, would respectfully make the following statement:

That the present rate of duty on "brown and bleached linens, ducks, canvas, paddings, diapers, crash, huckabacks, handkerchiefs, lawns, and other manufactures of flax, jute, or hemp, or of which flax, jute, or hemp are the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for, valued at thirty cents or less per square yard, is thirty-five per centum ad valorem; valued at above thirty cents per square yard, forty per centum ad valorem." (Schedule C, Sec. 2504, Revised Statutes of the United States.)

That these rates of duty, as your petitioners believe and most respectfully aver, are a burden upon the commerce of the country and a needless tax upon the people, and that all concerned will be greatly advantaged both by a reduction in such rates, and by a substitution of one uniform rate of duty in place of the two existing rates, to the end that the class of merchandise above named, the same being more particularly specified in the first six lines of the seventh paragraph of Schedule C, of section 2504 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, may pay a uniform rate of duty, and that such rate of duty may not be in excess of twenty-five per centum ad valorem.

That the reasons why your petitioners entertain the belief that these rates of duty should be reduced and made uniform are as follows:

First. None of these goods are manufactured in the United States, excepting a few coarse fabrics, almost the entire consumption in this country being imported from abroad.

Second. Not only are none of these goods now manufactured in the United States, except as above stated, but your petitioners are of the belief that it is impossible for most of such goods to be manufactured here; because, first, while the raw material, of an inferior quality and suitable to the production of certain kinds of merchandise, is grown in this country, the absence of the necessary moisture in the atmosphere prevents the successful cultivation and treatment of such a quality of the raw material as is required for the manufacture of most of said linen fabrics; and, second, one of the processes in the manufacture of such goods, to wit, the process known as bleaching, cannot be successfully performed, owing to the like absence of moisture and certain other climatic elements, without which such process cannot be carried on.

Third. Large quantities of this class of goods are cut up and manufactured in the United States into various articles of domestic consumption and of export, the most important of which are linen shirts and linen collars. This is already a large industry, notwithstanding the existing excessive rates of duty, as above named, and your petitioners are convinced that if such rates of duty were lowered, so that these articles of wearing apparel could be produced at a reduced cost, this industry would immediately assume vast proportions, and would enable the linen shirt and

linen-collar factories of the United States not only to increase the present domestic consumption, but also to supply, almost entirely, the markets of the Dominion of Canada, of Mexico, and of the various States of South America.

Fourth. In the best judgment of your petitioners, no especial advantage is secured to the government, and only annoyance is secured to the importer by the present discriminating rates of duty. By far the largest portion of these goods pay the lower rate of duty, those paying the higher rate being but a very small part of the total importation of linens; all and parties, both those dealing in goods paying the higher rate, and those dealing in goods paying the lower rate, feel that all concerned will be benefited by a single and uniform rate.

And we therefore respectfully recommend that the rates of duty on said foregoing article of merchandise, the same being more particularly set forth in that portion of the Revised Statutes of the United States above referred to, may be reduced to a single and a uniform rate of duty upon all varieties of said merchandise, without reference to the value thereof, and that said single and uniform rate of duty may not be in excess of twenty-five per centum ad valorem.

And we further ask that the duty on the commission of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. be abolished, as the system of purchasing through commission houses no longer exists.

And we still further ask, that duty be no longer charged on inland transportation, which is simply a discrimination in favor of seaport manufacturing towns.

H. B. CLAFLIN & Co., New York.
ARNOLD, CONSTABLE & Co., New York.

TEFFT, WELLER & Co., New York.
BATES, REED & COOLEY, New York.

E. S. JAFFRAY & Co., New York.
WM. LOTTIMER & Co., New York.
MORRISON, HERRIMAN & Co., New York.

HALSTED, HAINES & Co., New York.

LEE, TWEEDY & Co., New York.
O. JAFFÉ & PINKUS, New York.
DALE, DUTCHER & Co., New York.

J. B. LOOKE & POTTS, New York.
LORD & TAYLOR, New York:
WILMERDING, BIDDLE & BISSET, New York.

HAZEN, TODDS & Co., New York.
JAMES MCCREERY & Co., New York.

HARBISON, SHINER & LODER, New York.

J. N. RICHARDSON, SONS & OWDEN (Limited), New York.

SWEETSER, PEMBROOK & Co., New York.

THE JOHN SHILLITO Co., Cincinnati, O.

J. W. COCHRANE & Co., New York.
ANDERSON, CHURCHILL & Co., New York.

MCGIBBON & Co., New York.
SMITH, CHURCHILL & SCRIBNER, New York.

JAMES MCCUTCHEON, New York.
SHOTWELL, CLERIHUEW & LOTHMAN, Cincinnati.

H. WALLACH'S SONS, New York.
STERN BROS., New York.

YORK ST. FLAX SPINNING Co. (Limited,) New York.

CAHN, WAMPOLD & Co., Chicago.

HENRY MATIER & Co., New York.
GOLDFRANK, FRANK & Co., San Antonio.

SCRUGGS, VANDERVOORT & BARNEY, Saint Louis.

BROOKFIELD LINEN Co. (Limited), New York.

WILLIAM THOMPSON & Co., New York.

GRAHAM, MAWHA & Co., New York.

WHITFIELD, POWERS & Co., New York.

G. & J. BALLIN, New York.

ULSTER SPINNING Co. (Limited), New York.

RICHARD H. EWART, New York
CORNELL & AMERMAN, New York.
GRAHAM & AITKEN, New York.
WM. BARR DRY GOODS CO., Saint
Louis, Mo.
JAMES F. WHITE & Co., New York.
B. LOWENSTEIN & BROS., Mem-
phis, Tenn.
R. & D. LAMB, New York.
LOUIS STIX & Co., Cincinnati, O.
GREENMOUNT SPINNING Co., New
York.
J. & O. JOHNSTON & Co., New
York.
SAM'L THOMPSON'S NEPHEW &
Co., New York.

DAVID A. LINDSAY, New York.
DOUGLASS, BERRY & Co., New
York.
BUTLER, PITKIN & Co., New York.
CHARLES E. RYCROFT, New York.
ROBERT K. DAVIES & Co., New
York.
DONALD MACLEOD, New York.
ALEXANDER RHIND, New York.
CHARLES BROWN & Co., New York.
JAMES FEE, New York.
BERKELEY MOSTYN, New York.
WILLIAM REDMOND & SON, New
York.

J. H. WOODFORD.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. J. H. WOODFORD, of Boston, Mass., in regard to the duties upon saltpeter and dates, was ordered to be printed:

I beg to present the following, in support of the removal of duties from saltpeter and dates:

Saltpeter is imported into this country from Calcutta, and the duty is 1 cent per pound. It is used almost exclusively by meat packers and powder manufacturers. Most of the exported meat is cured with saltpeter and salt, and very large quantities of saltpeter are used by the large packing-houses in this country, thereby increasing the cost of export meat 1 cent a pound on the saltpeter used in curing it.

Nitrate of soda comes in immense quantities from Chili, and is admitted free of duty. This is used instead of saltpeter in the manufacture of gunpowder to a very great extent, and in this way it amounts to a premium of 1 cent a pound in favor of a poorer article to make gunpowder of, and of a poorer quality than the powder made from saltpeter.

Saltpeter is now only brought as ballast, and at the nominal rate of about \$3 per ton; whereas if there was no duty larger quantities would be shipped, thereby giving employment to more ships and at better rates.

During the six months ending July 1, 1882, 36 ships cleared from Calcutta for this country, with about 30,000 bags, or about 80 tons, to each ship; and this is about the average for years past.

Dates are fruit in its natural state, packed as it comes from the trees, without any preparation, and pays a duty of 1 cent a pound. The fruit comes from Egypt, Arabia, and Persia; and in those countries compose the principal article of food for the inhabitants. If the duty was removed the importation would be greatly increased, thereby supplying a cheap food for all classes, and still not conflicting with anything grown in this country. This would also have tendency toward the employment of more shipping, and would also stimulate the trade with Persia, a country to which our government is about sending a consul.

DAVID CLARKSON ET AL.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

Mr. DAVID CLARKSON, of New York, importer of marble, addressed the Commission as follows:

The Commission yesterday heard a statement from Ex-Governor Proctor, of Vermont, in regard to American marble. I will now trespass upon the time of the Commission, and say a few words in the interest of the importers of marble.

The undersigned, a committee appointed at a recent meeting of importers of marble in the block, respectfully beg leave to submit, for the investigation of the Commission, the existing tariff as it applies to this commerce.

The clause to which we refer is as follows:

On veined marble and marble of all descriptions not otherwise provided for, in block, rough, or squared, 50 cents per cubic foot, and in addition thereto 20 per centum ad valorem.

Prior to the tariff of 1864, which now prevails, and which was procured by and for the interest of Rutland County, Vermont, in which county are located the only quarries in the United States which produce marble assimilating that imported, the tariff was, upon the clause under consideration, in act of 1861, 30 per centum ad valorem, act of 1862, 40 per centum ad valorem.

It will not be claimed, we think, that the exigency of the government requires a larger contribution from this raw material than was imposed under the tariff bills of 1861 and 1862, while it will be conceded that the interests of the vast body of consumers in the Northern, Eastern, Southern, and especially the Western States, call imperatively for a reduction in the present tariff.

In order that the Commission may be informed how the prevailing tariff, when reduced to an ad valorem rate, compares with the rates under acts of 1861 and 1862, we would state that under government regulations this marble is now invoiced under three classifications; that the present tariff reduced to ad valorem is equivalent to from 58½ to 77 per centum, according to classification.

The marble represented by this clause constitutes nineteen-twentieths of the entire importations of marble, and is known by all dealers as "white ordinary Italian marble," and easily distinguished from all other marble.

After excavation from the quarries of Italy it is simply squared into blocks averaging about 70 cubic feet, and transported from the quarries to the seaboard for shipment from the ports of Leghorn and Genoa, by sailing vessels or steamers, at usually higher freight than any other merchandise, and distributed from the principal ports of entry in the United States to manufacturers and dealers throughout the country, furnishing employment to many thousand laborers, mechanics, sawyers, and skilled workmen.

It is therefore evident that this marble is strictly a "raw material," and that it largely contributes to the industrial interests of the country.

If the committee has, upon the foregoing statement, convinced the Commission that the present tariff is excessive and not required for the

purpose of revenue, we persuade ourselves that the conviction will also follow that the protection to the one producing interest in this country is unprecedented.

Upon this latter consideration we, however, propose to amplify, and invite the closest investigation. We would preface by remarking that we would willingly accord to the Vermont interest any reasonable protection. More than that should not be expected.

For the statements we now submit we beg leave to refer to custom-house records for their verification.

The marble under consideration is invoiced, as we have heretofore stated, under regulations of the government, at values by it determined.

Classification No. 1, at 3.75 liras per palm, is equal to \$1.30 per foot.

Classification No. 2, at 3.25 liras per palm, is equal to \$1.13 per foot.

Classification No. 3, at 2.50 liras per palm, is equal to 87 cents per foot.

These values are based upon the gold value of the lira, 19.3 cents, the currency certificate of the consul being ignored by the government.

The standard of the palm measurement is, according to custom-house, fixed at 5,555 feet to 10,000 palms.

It therefore appears that under existing tariff the ad valorem rate is equal to from 58½ to 77 per cent., according to classification, or to 72 cents per cubic foot, if we assume that the importations are equally divided among the three classifications.

We cannot hesitate in pronouncing the tariff bill of 1864, as it applies to marble in blocks, as unprecedented in its protection to the one producing county in the United States. To this, however, are to be added other sources of protection, namely, the fact that there is a waste in the sawing of these blocks equal to about 15 per cent., upon which waste the government collects duty; and still further, that the ocean freight, at present \$6 per ton of 13½ feet, is equal to 43½ cents per cubic foot. We need only say in this connection that the cost of quarrying (at the quarries in Vermont) marble assimilating to the white ordinary Italian marble is, as we believe, but 35 cents a cubic foot, and for which the demand is steadily increasing and equivalent to the supply.

In concluding this memorial, we cannot doubt, from the facts herein presented for the consideration of the Tariff Commission, that a conclusion will be reached which will recognize the fact that if there is an article of commerce or of industry contained within the tariff bill upon which the tariff needs revision it is marble in the block.

We therefore, as invited, recommend the following amendment: To strike out in the clause under consideration the following words, "fifty cents per cubic foot and in addition thereto twenty per centum ad valorem," and insert *forty cents per cubic foot*.

In proposing this rate we believe we have adhered to the maxim contained in your circular, "upon a scale of justice to all interests." We have substituted a specific tariff, rather than one specific *and ad valorem*, in order to simplify the collection of the revenue, in which modification we think we have the concurrence of the appraisers generally.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

DAVID CLARKSON.
ROBERT C. FISHER.
AUGUSTUS TABER.

I do not wish to trespass any further upon your time, but I would like, with your permission, to make a few remarks based upon the reports in the morning papers of the interview Governor Proctor of

Vermont had with the Commission yesterday. He represents the large native production of this country, and he tried to convince you that the marble quarries in Vermont were the only ones which conflict in the slightest degree with the business of importing marble. We are informed that the cost of quarrying that marble in Vermont, owing to improvements in machinery, is about 35 cents a foot. According to the statement appearing in the paper this morning he represents that the Vermont quarries produce 2,200,000 feet annually, and that the value of the product is \$4,500,000. According to that showing they would be receiving about \$2 a foot upon a cost of 35 cents a foot for quarrying. That is one fact that I think needs consideration. Another fact that was made known to the Commission was that by the results of American industry in producing marble in Vermont they were able to reduce the value of imported marble from 1867 to 1873 about 40 per cent. That statement would apply to all imported articles as well as marble, because the reduction of prices from 1867 to 1873 was caused by the currency of the country appreciating to gold values. During the war marble was sold at from \$3.50 to \$6 a foot in currency. These prices were followed by the Vermont marblemen, although there was not any additional cost of production, except in the price of labor, by reason of the depreciated currency.

There is one other statement which the governor presented, and it is relevant. He speaks of the amount of duty that was collected from marble during 1863 and 1864. The inference would be from his statement that the tariff of 1864 had the effect of increasing the importation of marble. The tariff of 1863 was about 40 per cent., whereas in 1864 it was 58½ to 77 per cent., showing an increase in the revenues, but he fails to show that there was any increase in the importation. I have drawn off the figures showing the importation of marble at this port for the last ten years, as follows :

Blocks of marble imported.

	Blocks.
1872	3,975
1873	3,746
1874	5,090
1875	3,259
1876	2,686
1877	3,787
1878	2,015
1879	2,660
1880	4,319
1881	2,073

That would give an average for ten years (a decade) of 3,400 blocks—no perceptible increase; whereas the statement presented to you by Governor Proctor would show that the Vermont quarries were truly, as they express themselves, “prospering.”

JAMES C. MCANDREW.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. JAMES C. MCANDREW, of New York, in regard to the duty on emery ore, was ordered to be printed:

As an importer of emery ore and manufacturer of the same into grain emery, I desire to make a few observations in writing with a view to the better adjustment of the duties thereon and the alleviation of the trade, which, for some years past, has been a suffering industry and conducted at a serious loss to those engaged in it.

Emery ore as mined is imported from Asia Minor, and pays, at present, a duty of \$6 per ton of 2,240 pounds. This ore, unavoidably, has attached to it extraneous matter to an extent equivalent to a loss of 33 per cent. in its manufacture; that is to say, a ton of emery ore, when worked into grains of emery, will only produce 66 per cent. of its weight; the residue is partly flour, say to extent of 10 per cent., and of little or no value and is sold as opportunity offers, at about one-half cent per pound, which incurs a considerable loss to the manufacturer after deducting cost of making, packages, rent, insurance, and handling; the residue is dirt or total waste. Thus we have from a ton of ore as imported, 66 per cent. of grains of emery and 10 per cent. of flour.

The present existing tariff reads as follows (1265, Heyl's Digest of Statutes): "Emery grains: 2 cents per pound; emery ore, \$6 per ton; emery manufactured, ground, or pulverized, 1 cent per pound." The intention being, doubtless, that emery manufactured into grains should pay 2 cents per pound and the flour 1 cent, but, owing to the wording, emery in grain, manufactured in England and elsewhere from *free* ore, is imported at a duty of 1 cent under the description of "emery, ground or pulverized."

I respectfully submit that this is serious hardship to the trade, and request your honorable board will listen to our complaint and alleviate our trying position by placing emery ore on the free list, and providing that flour of emery and grains of emery under the title solely of "emery, manufactured," should pay a duty of 2 cents per pound.

THEODORE C. BATES ET AL.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

Mr. THEODORE C. BATES, of Worcester, Mass., representing the Corset Manufacturers' Association of the United States, addressed the Commission as follows:

There appeared before you, a few days ago, a gentleman (Mr. William P. Copeland) representing Mr. M. Cohn, of this city, asking for the levying of a duty of 35 per centum on horn strips imported into this country to be used in the manufacture of corsets, instead of whalebones, used formerly to a great extent. In behalf of the manufacturers of corsets in this country, I appear to protest against that suggestion. This article has always been considered as a raw material, and therefore should be admitted free of duty. It may be known to you that this is a comparatively small industry in this country. The manufacture of corsets here was not begun to any considerable extent until 1871. At that time there was a duty of 32 per cent. placed on corsets of the value of \$6 a dozen, and on corsets above that value a duty of 35 per cent. The manufacture of corsets has since that time developed very rapidly, until to day, I suppose, there are not less than 10,000 or 15,000 people employed in the business. I know of no industry that has grown more rapidly than this. It is the belief of my associates that were the tariff to be reduced to any considerable extent, or abolished, and a duty levied upon horn strips, as has been asked by my friend Mr. Cohn, it would result practically in shutting up the corset manufactories of this country. We have never been able to compete with the cheap labor of Germany before, and the business was never developed until a protection was afforded by the levying of a duty on corsets and the placing of horn strips on the free list.

Now, not to seem personal or to reflect at all upon the statements made by the attorney of Mr. Cohn, it may be proper, for the information of the Commission, to state that there have been two or three parties in a small way, with small capital and inexperienced help, who have attempted to manufacture horn strips in this country. But, after failing to succeed, little by little their machinery has fallen into the possession of Mr. Cohn, it is believed, from the fact that he has offered all his machinery to the Corset Manufacturers' Association at a very low figure; instead of being \$50,000, as stated, it would perhaps not exceed \$10,000 or \$15,000 in amount. The manufacture of horn strips is peculiarly a manufacture belonging to France. Almost all the horn strips manufactured for the use of corsets all over the world are manufactured in Paris. A few are made at Cologne; but principally at Paris. It is an industry which has failed to be successful anywhere else on account of the peculiarity of the labor required; and I question whether it will ever be carried on in this country to any extent.

By Commissioner BOTELEK:

Question. How much capital is invested in the manufacture of these corsets in the United States?—Answer. I should say \$4,000,000 or \$5,000,000.

Q. And how many operatives are employed?—A. Ten thousand to

15,000, I should say. I do not believe that ten years ago there were 500 people engaged in the business. It is an industry not over ten years old in this country, and is growing rapidly.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. Is there any other article than that which comes in bundles and strips for the manufacture of corsets which is commercially known as horn strips?—A. No, sir; I know of no other.

Q. It is alleged that what is known as "strips of horn" is used for glue stock.—A. I never have known of it. I have been engaged in the manufacture for several years, and know nothing of that sort being done. This same party, Mr. Cohn, a few months ago endeavored to procure, through the custom-house in New York, a decision that horn strips used in the manufacture of corsets was not the article known as horn strips to the trade; and, through his instrumentality, large invoices were stopped in the custom-house, and the matter was referred to the Secretary of the Treasury, in Washington. But, upon representations made to him by myself and others in the trade, the decision was overruled, as there was no question in the minds of the authorities as to what horn strips were, and the goods were released by order of Secretary Sherman, very much to our satisfaction.

Mr. ALEXANDER J. MAYER, of New York, said:

I desire substantially to indorse the statement which has been made to the Commission by Mr. Bates. I was formerly engaged in the manufacture of corsets. I appear before you because Mr. Cohn has undertaken, through the statements made to you by Mr. Copeland, to present a case which I believe to be injurious to the manufacturers of corsets. The same gentleman (Mr. Copeland), as attorney for Mr. Cohn, appeared before a Senate committee in Washington in 1873 and endeavored to have the duty taken off, and I furnished him with a bundle of horn strips, which were used before the committee at that time, to induce it to recommend that the duty be taken off. There is no other article known as horn strips except the one used by corset manufactures. There have been attempts made to befog people about the matter, but they have not been successful.

The corset industry of the United States has grown very largely, as stated by Mr. Bates. I went into the business in 1871 with a firm, and we did a business at that time of \$160,000 per year. In the course of five or six years we raised that amount to \$850,000. I merely mention this to show you what the growth of the business has been. Fully 10,000 operatives are directly employed in the manufacture of corsets in this country, and indirectly probably as many more. It is essentially a French industry. No other nation has ever succeeded in developing the business, although repeated attempts have been made to do so. The business has been started in Germany, Belgium, England, and Spain; but in all cases has resulted in failure. It is not a question of labor at all; labor forms the smallest item probably. It is skill and skill alone which makes it a successful business. I remember a firm in Cologne, Germany, which undertook the manufacture of horn strips in that city. They imported their skilled help from France, and went to great expense, built necessary machinery, and spent large sums of money in the business, yet after three years they failed and were sold out by the sheriff. They could not compete with France. There is something in the manufacture of horn strips that no one outside of Paris seems to succeed in. There was a factory started 40 miles from Paris, where

they attempted to make them, but they made a very inferior article. In Germany a large number of corsets are made, but the German manufacturers import the horn strips from France. In turn, a large number of merchants import cheap corsets from Germany. Horn strips are an essential feature in the manufacture of corsets. They are almost entirely a raw material. The horn is imported from Calcutta, Bombay, and Madagascar. A peculiar kind of horn only can be successfully converted into horn strips, as it requires a certain amount of elasticity to withstand the pressure. Formerly, when the United States produced whale-bone, and when it was cheaper than now, there was no occasion to use horn strips. But now that the price of whale-bone is so high it cannot be used, and these horn strips have been substituted. Three different establishments have attempted to make horn strips in this country. They undertook the business since the duty on horn strips was taken off. The protection did not serve as an inducement to those people; they knew if they could succeed in making the right article that the labor employed was the smallest part of the expense. Mr. Cohn bought up a number of bankrupt establishments here, and, now that he has succeeded, he comes before you and wishes a duty to be placed on the manufactured article, so that he may be able to sell his machinery to advantage. He has tried to get all the manufacturers of corsets to join him and buy out his machinery.

ARTHUR LIVERMORE.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. ARTHUR LIVERMORE, consul of the United States at Londonderry, Ireland, in regard to the duty upon potatoes, was ordered to be printed:

At the request of persons engaged during the last winter and spring in exporting potatoes from Londonderry to the United States, I beg to bring to your notice that such exportation was conducted to a very considerable extent from various ports in these islands; that the great weight and bulk of that commodity in comparison with its value render such traffic impracticable except under very extraordinary conditions of scarcity in the United States and abundance here, affecting the harvest of that article concurrently. That such conditions make the commerce referred to of great importance to both parties to it, but especially to our own people, to many of whom it presents itself as a measure of relief from want. That the existing duty of 15 cents on the bushel is under any known circumstances almost prohibitory, and that it does not operate as a protection to any industry in the United States, because it is only under the extraordinary coincidence of abundance and scarcity described that the commerce is ever undertaken or thought of.

Under any conditions, so far as Ireland is concerned, such commerce would amount to nothing more than an exchange of potatoes that exist in excess, for corn that the Irish farmers desire, but which they certainly can, at some loss, dispense with, in the process of fattening.

In brief, the exportation of potatoes from any foreign port beyond seas to the United States can never be undertaken except under conditions that entitle it to be regarded almost as a measure of relief to our people, and which secure to the same people a market that would not otherwise exist for their corn.

It is in consequence of the request of the parties referred to that I have taken the liberty of making these suggestions, and not because it seems probable that the Commission would otherwise omit to give the matter all due consideration.

W. G. CRENSHAW.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

Mr. W. G. CRENSHAW, Jr., secretary of the Sulphur Mines Company, Virginia, addressed the Commission as follows:

A statement was made to the Commission, during its session at Richmond, Va., in reply to Mr. Joseph Campbell's testimony respecting pyrites. We now beg to hand to you on your printed form a suggestion that you make the duty on pyrites \$3 a ton. If the present tariff law was enforced, the duty would be about \$2.70 or \$2.80; but on all the pyrites coming in this year no duty has been collected on the 2½ to 4½ per cent. of copper contained in it. It has come in under the head of unenumerated ores, and has only paid a duty of 20 per cent. on a valuation of \$3, while some of the ores shipped from Spain and England have been valued at from £2 4s. to £2 8s. So that if these Spanish ores were valued at the same valuation placed on them when they get to England, they would pay \$2.70 to \$2.80 a ton. If there was a specific duty of \$3 to \$3.50 a ton there would be less chance to evade the law.

The industry in this country is a new one. There is plenty of pyrites ore in this country, and the ore we have at Taylorsville is purer than the Spanish, and is entirely free from arsenic, while all the Spanish ore has arsenic in it. I would like to file this paper with the Commission showing the value of the importation of Spanish pyrites ore into Great Britain during the last three years:

Quantity and valuation of pyrites imported into Great Britain during August and for the eight months ending August 31, 1882, compared with same periods in 1881 and 1880. See pages 10 and 11 of the last board of trade returns (August, 1882.)

	August.			Eight months ended August 31.		
	1880.	1881.	1882.	1880.	1881.	1882.
Tons.....	52,328	55,510	51,197	480,245	382,335	440,060
Value.....	£126,450	£121,287	£113,060	£1,120,431	£848,123	£1,011,520
Value per ton.....	£2 8 0	£2 4 0	£2 4 0	£2 7 0	£2 4 0	£2 5 0
Equal to.....	\$11 77	\$10 70	\$10 70	\$11 53	\$10 70	\$10 94

I am requested to submit a paper on the same subject, by Mr. William H. Whitmore, treasurer of the Milan Mining Company, of Boston, in which he states the reasons for increasing the duty on pyrites:

Until the past year little if any duty has been collected on pyrites, as our sulphuric acid makers have been content to use brimstone, although the cost of the acid was thereby 50 per cent. higher than that made in England from pyrites. The Spanish companies now are trying to obtain control of the market, just at the time when the new demand is leading to the discovery and working of American mines.

As representing one of the most promising mines of New England, situated at Milan, N. H., I would present the following reasons for a reasonable rate of protection: We need it because all mining is hazardous and capital is not readily obtained for enterprises where a great monopoly is to be fought against. The Spanish mines produce mainly pyrites carrying copper to the extent of 3 to 7 per cent., which require to be roasted to free them from sulphur. I am informed and believe that during the past year the custom-house has not collected the full duty on the copper in Spanish or Canadian ores imported. The law is plain, requiring 3 cents per pound on the fine copper. There is no difficulty in ascertaining the amount of copper there by wet assay.

But by some error I am told that the copper has been estimated by a dry assay, which allows about 1.3 per cent. to escape duty; *i. e.*, if the pyrites contain 3 per cent. of copper, they pay duty only on 1.7 per cent., &c.

As to the incorrectness of dry assay, see Lunge, i, p. 100.

There is no excuse for this allowance, as the copper is really there, is perfectly salable by the actual percentage, and is really extracted. This error at least should be corrected.

But there is nothing to prevent the Spanish or Canadian miners, if all duty on pyrites is withdrawn, from importing ores with 5 or 7 per cent. of copper free of duty. These ores are pyrites, and except by assay are not to be distinguished from those without any copper.

I do not presume that the Commission will recommend free copper, and if not they ought to levy duty on just such ores.

The new market created for cupreous pyrites will have a vast effect upon mining in this country. Mines which would not pay to work for copper alone will pay if the sulphur can be sold. There is no doubt that explorations will be made and new mines discovered, whereby the price of sulphur and copper will be lessened from the products of our own mines. But, like every other industry here, this branch requires a moderate protection at the start. If the Spanish and Canadian miners can get their copper in free of duty, they will sell their sulphur at prices which will effectually stop all American mines.

I need not say that it costs more to mine a ton of pyrites here than abroad, and especially to open and develop a mine in competition with such an immense and well-established rival as the Rio Tinto. But the mines exist here, and only wait for a chance for development. The mine I represent produces pyrites equal to the best Spanish or Canadian ores, free from the arsenic which contaminates all ores from those sources. It is not a small matter to have even our fertilizers made from a pure sulphuric acid, free from arsenic. But if the American ores are shut out by a low duty on foreign ores, nearly all the commercial acid will contain an amount of arsenic which is dangerous. For this reason American mines should be encouraged.

There is no fear that the price of American pyrites will be too high. Competition here will be active and each section of our country has already well ascertained deposits of the ore. But these cheap ores cannot be worked if foreign ores are admitted free of duty.

I can only add that the 50 per cent. of iron in the pyrites, is, after the sulphur and copper are extracted, very valuable. It is especially adapted to the Bessemer system. It certainly ought to pay a specific duty. It is not like iron ore, for it costs nothing to treat. As it exists in the pyrites, so it will be found here after the washing and other treatment as pure iron, differing from pig-iron only as being in a finer shape. Yet pig-iron pays \$7 per ton.

It seems reasonable to ask for a duty of \$1 per ton on all iron or cupreous pyrites as such, being a duty on the iron therein, and also in the case of cupreous pyrites to exact the full duty of 3 cents per pound on the copper actually there. The whole system of dry assay is foreign to our customs system. It is an artificial plan by which the buyer and seller *pretend* that there is less copper in the ore and then make a higher price for the smaller quantity. At least we are entitled to have the duty fairly ascertained and paid.

I am prepared to lay before the Commission any required proofs of the fact that the Milan mine produces first-class pyrites, and I have no doubt that equal satisfaction can be given by other American miners.

I would like to add, that in one regard Mr. Whitmore seems to think a duty has been paid on the importation of these Spanish ores to the extent of 1.3 per cent. on the copper. But the custom-house officers in New York tell me that only 60 cents per ton has been charged on the ore imported here. Nothing has been paid on the copper; and if the duty is to be collected by the amount of percentage of the copper contained, every cargo must be analyzed, as it varies greatly in different cargoes. So that it would take very careful analyses and sampling to get at the principal components in the article.

By Commissioner BOTTLER :

Question. It has been stated to the Commission that this country could not be depended upon at all for the supply of pyrites, and that the quality brought from abroad was much superior. What do you know in regard to that matter?—Answer. Before taking any steps in regard to the mine I am connected with, I took two shipments of the ore to the best

burners in Manchester and Glasgow and had them burned, and I can state that they are perfectly willing to take the ore if we can let them have it at a fair price. They say it is the best ore they have ever burned; better than the Spanish. Nearly the whole supply of Great Britain comes from Spain. About 600,000 tons are imported annually. The freight from this country to England prohibits the shipments of it cheaply, and therefore I do not suppose we shall be able to dispose of any in England. We are burning it very satisfactorily at our works in Richmond.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Q. Do you know anything about the works established at Atlanta, Ga., where they are working pyrites from the Tallapoosa mine?— A. I was there last winter, and saw Mr. Pratt, who has charge of the works. They bring it from a rather inaccessible point ten or twelve miles from the railroad, so that they are laboring under great difficulties; but they are making acid from it without any trouble. The statement made before the Commission by Mr. Campbell that there was no pyrites in this country is not sustained by the facts. But the development of the mines will take a little time and capital.

LYELL T. ADAMS.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. LYELL T. ADAMS, consul of the United States at Geneva, Switzerland, addressed to the Secretary of State, and transmitted to the Commission through the Secretary of the Treasury, in regard to the duty upon musical boxes, was ordered to be printed:

I inclose herewith a paper signed by the principal manufacturers of musical boxes at Geneva, who are desirous of securing a reduction of the duty upon their goods imported into the United States. I respectfully request that the department will bring these documents to the notice of the Commission upon the revision of the tariff, now in session, or take whatever other measures it may think necessary to secure their consideration by the proper authorities.

The plea is founded upon the facts, first, that the present duty of 30 per cent. ad valorem practically excludes the goods from the American market, to the loss alike of manufacturer here, the purchaser in the United States, and the revenues of the government; and second, that the increased exportation expected to follow a sufficient reduction of the duty could injure no American industry as the article in question is of Swiss manufacture exclusively and for reasons given is almost sure to remain so.

I take an interest in the matter for the reason that to the best of my knowledge and I think without an exception the exporters in Geneva have shown entire loyalty in the preparation of their invoices, and that in face of the steady decline of their trade with the United States; perhaps their most important market. It would, I think, be an advantage to all concerned, and would certainly have a happy effect among the business classes of Geneva and throughout Switzerland if the prayer were granted.

I add a table showing the decrease in the exportation of these goods to the United States from the city of Geneva since the beginning of 1881. On the other hand, as appears from a second table, the total exportation from my district, to which the manufacture is confined, shows a considerable increase since 1879, when the effects of the long commercial crisis in Switzerland began to pass away. This increase is wholly in the exportation from Sainte Croix, which produces an inferior article at cheaper rates, shipped wholesale, and mostly on consignment to branch houses in the United States. It may be known to the department that this exportation has been under suspicion by the customs officers for some time, and in one case at least has led to a formal investigation and an advance in the invoice prices. The goods sent from Geneva are of the most perfect kind produced, and are almost always sold here to single purchasers at retail.

LYELL T. ADAMS,
Consul.

GENEVA, *August 29, 1882.*

The following is the paper referred to in the foregoing letter:

ASSOCIATION COMMERCIALE ET INDUSTRIELLE GÉNEVOISE.

CHAMBRE DE COMMERCE,
Genève, le 28 Août 1882.

The vast field which the United States of America offers to all commercial enterprises, is to a great extent a forbidden land to the musical-box trade, owing to the almost prohibitory duty which is levied upon this class of goods.

With 30 per cent. to add to the wholesale price of a musical box it becomes an unapproachable luxury for the class to which it would be a real boon.

Apart from this side of the question comes the vital consideration whether this high duty of 30 per cent. is necessary. Unlike a quantity of other goods, the manufacture of musical boxes has never left this country, in which it originated, and all goes to show that there is little or no probability that it will ever leave it.

So high a duty is conceivable where a national industry has to be protected and developed, but for the following reasons this consideration cannot exist in the present instance.

The mechanical portion of a musical box—the cylinder (barrel), wheels, &c., in a word, the blank is alone susceptible of being made by machinery. When we come to the truly musical and artistical portion, no machinery, however perfect, can replace the eyes and above all the ears of an expert workman or workwoman.

The marking of the music on the cylinders (piquage), the verification of the same (justifiage), both operations having to be performed from the written music, requires human intelligence to interpret the composer's ideas.

Finally the finishing (terminage), above all, needs the ears of an experienced musician to judge whether the effect produced is in accordance with that intended by the composer.

In short, three-fourths of the work must necessarily be performed by human hands. Several attempts have been made to substitute mechanical for human labor, but all alike have failed, and it is an undeniable fact that labor is far cheaper in Switzerland than in the United States.

This city being visited by vast numbers of American citizens, our retail department has given us a very good opportunity of judging how far the present tariff goes towards preventing many would-be purchasers from becoming actual buyers. The question invariably asked is, "What is the duty on your goods into the States?" On being informed of the state of the case, which makes the price of a 100-franc instrument into 130 francs, it will be readily understood that many purses remain closed, the duty destroying in their mind the real advantage of buying in the manufactory, and the consequence is, to the disadvantage of all concerned, buyer, seller, and the United States revenue, no sale is effected. All these reasons combined bear out the statement that there is but little chance of this industry ever emigrating, and that by reducing the tariff on musical boxes the United States of America, whilst conferring a favor on manufacturers and consumers, its own revenue will be benefited by an increased importation of these articles, for experience teaches that, far from being a loser by reducing import duties, all countries have on the contrary reaped large increase of this branch of revenue.

Exportation of musical boxes to the United States from Geneva and Sainte Croix (invoiced at Vevey), 1881 and 1882.

Period.	Geneva.		Vevey.	
	1881.	1882.	1881.	1882.
First quarter	\$1,038	\$780	\$4,041	\$5,576
Second quarter	3,540	1,062	0,494	10,241
Third quarter	7,385	20,305
Fourth quarter	5,084	34,385

Exportation of musical boxes from the consular district of Geneva to the United States 1873 to 1882.

Period.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.
First quarter . . .	\$12,273	\$0,728	\$4,017	\$3,200	\$4,323	\$2,525	\$0,378	\$2,758	\$5,070	\$0,350
Second quarter . . .	14,105	8,718	4,502	0,354	2,232	2,847	5,272	12,871	13,034	21,204
Third quarter . . .	26,762	16,030	16,070	8,507	3,301	7,730	8,851	23,350	27,780
Fourth quarter . . .	30,540	13,711	10,443	0,152	0,701	5,363	15,705	11,554	40,062
	83,080	48,793	35,008	27,282	10,707	18,405	36,200	50,533	85,562

D. C. ROBBINS.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

MR. D. C. ROBBINS, of the firm of McKesson & Robbins, New York, importers of drugs, &c., addressed the Commission as follows:

We take pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of your printed circular, inviting opinions in regard to changes that are desirable in the present tariff, in connection with the trade in which we are especially interested, as importers and dealers in drugs and chemicals, as well as manufacturers of chemical and medicinal preparations. The alphabetical list, which we submit, has been carefully prepared from Heyl's compilation of 1879. We beg to remark that in 1870 the drug tariff list was carefully considered by Congress, and a very extensive selection of articles was added to the free list, and hence there are, at present, but few crude drugs or natural products to be added to the free list. We find in Heyl's compend but twenty-six enumerations which belong to this order of products; and of these articles and classes of articles, the most important are the oils, all of which, whether known as fixed or expressed or essential, are classed in the French customs list as "matières," or natural products; or, if you please, raw materials, the last designation being used commonly while it is a very indefinite term.

The next most important subjects to be considered, after the crude list which we submit, as we view the situation, is the proper reduction that should be made upon protected chemicals, and a simplification of the duties upon medicinal goods, some of which, like quinine, for example, are free, while others pay 40 per centum duty. Indeed, it is very difficult, at times, to assign the correct duty upon these goods; and frequent disputes occur in regard to the proper status of commodities; for example: Cod liver oil has always paid 20 per cent. as a commodity of commerce; while when imported, as supposed, for medicinal purposes, it has been taxed at 40 per centum. Sulphate of quinine has been added to the free list because it is an important medicine, while all the other chemical products of cinchona bark, which are nearly as valuable, pay 40 per centum because they are medicinal products in place of 20 per centum, which is the duty on chemical preparations. We will add to these remarks upon the general subject of the tariff, that, in our opinion, altogether too much importance has been attached of late years to specific duties as a substitute for ad valorem rates. The worst abuses that exist in our protective list are in the specific form.

For numerous very excellent reasons, all revenue duties should be, as a rule, specific, and all protective duties should be ad valorem.

Our government statistics show that the average annual import quantity of all articles varies but little while prices vary greatly, and hence while specific duties are themselves preferable for the government and for the honest importer, the government can much more surely rely upon a stated revenue from specific than ad valorem rates. On the other hand all protective duties, as a rule, should be ad valorem, because all protective duties in the interest of commerce and in the general interest of the country should be reduced to the lowest possible sufficient limit for proper protection, and with the lowest necessary duties the manufacturer cannot afford to accept a specific basis. For example, quinine salts vary not infrequently more than 100 per centum in

price. The range of prices in the past has been during a single year from \$1.50 to \$3.50 per ounce, and as 10 per centum is considered to be the lowest limit for adequate protection, the manufacturer cannot afford to take his specific duty of 15 cents per ounce, as in case of an advance to \$3.50 per ounce his protection would be reduced from 10 to about 4 per centum. Quinine, by the bye, has frequently touched \$4 per ounce.

Furthermore, the question before the country in regard to revenue duties is always a simple one of more or less revenue, to be determined by the need of the government and the quantity of import of any particular article. While disputes about adequate protection can only be properly measured by Congress in general and by the country at large through the ad valorem system, experience has proved that ad valorem rates within a low limit of 10 or 20 per centum are not specially objectionable, while it is dangerous to apply very high ad valorem rates, because such rates tend to promote undervaluation and fraud in the entries of merchandise.

We notice, among thinking men and persons familiar with the subject of customs revenue, that ad valorem rates are growing in favor; but high ad valorem rates can never be safely imposed without additional legislation in regard to the valuation of goods; and we think that all foreign valuation should be discontinued, and home valuation, subject to the penalty of seizure by the government, as is usual among all European nations, should be substituted. The usage in Europe is to let the importer enter his merchandise at his own valuation, the merchandise to become the property of the government if the valuation is disputed; the option of the government being to receive the duties at the importer's valuation, or to receive and pay for the goods.

When Mr. David A. Wells, in his first report made to the Treasury Department after the war, alluded to the business I represent here, he said that while it embraced more than four tenths of the tariff list in its enumeration, and was most important in its relation to all other branches of business, it was in the most discordant state of any branch of the tariff laws, and he had not been able to find anybody who would give the matter consideration. This remark of his attracted the attention of the trade, and in 1867 the American Pharmaceutical Association appointed a committee to take up the subject and report upon it carefully. The making of the report fell into my hands. I made a report, and I have with me the only copy of it which I have left. In order to prepare myself for the work, I went to Europe and procured copies of the different European tariffs, and I presented in this report an analysis of the four principal tariffs of Europe as they applied to the drug trade—the English, French, German, and Russian. Mr. Wells saw this report of mine, and I had a correspondence with him in regard to it, and it led to a personal interview. In 1869, when he made his last report, he took the same basis and presented thirteen European tariffs in connection with the subject, for the information of the country. The conclusions I arrived at were these: That the only true basis of tariff reform lies in adopting the method of the French tariff. They divide all commodities into two great classes—*matières* and *fabrications*—materials and manufactures. They class as materials all substances which are not made by man, but which are formed by nature, and they class as fabrications all articles which are made or can be made by man. Many of the most important chemicals are made by nature, and yet they are classed as among manufactures. Another important fact is, that they place their chemical products at the end of the natural products and preceding all other

manufactures, as they should. They place very low duties on raw materials or natural products. The term "raw material" is very indefinite as we use it. But they place low duties on those, and on chemicals also they place low duties. Chemicals are the result of a scientific combination of raw materials. They are not really manufactures, as I view it. I believe in the absolute necessity of protecting the skillful mechanic of this country, and as a chemical manufacturer, I believe in low duties on chemicals.

Following this report of Mr. Wells in 1869, there was assigned to Mr. Wood, of New York, our member of Congress, the charge of this subject. He called upon myself and others, and we had a number of interviews to consult as to what should be our principle in the reduction of the thirty millions which was to take place in the revenue. In the first place, he gave us the privilege of reducing the duties on chemicals two and a half millions. We went through the entire list, and the great bulk of the free list of the present tariff is the result of that work. We used the two and a half millions as economically as we could, and put everything we could in the free list, for the purpose of simplification. But they threw out the essential oils. I do not think Congress had time to deal with the matter intelligently.

The same remarks which Mr. Wells applied to our business fifteen years ago are true to-day. While the range of subjects has been greatly limited by this work which was done, and which culminated in the bill of July 14, 1870, the same facts which Mr. Wells called attention to fifteen years ago exist to-day, as, for instance, in regard to the matter of quinine. Why should quinine be admitted free of duty, and the other alkaloids, nearly as valuable, pay 40 per cent. duty? They ought all to pay a small duty? I advocate a duty of 10 per cent. on quinine and 20 per cent. on the others. Why should one essential oil pay a duty of 200 per cent. and another one alongside of it be admitted free of duty—made free at the instance of the particular manufacturers who want it free? They should all be free, according to my opinion. In other words, what does remain of our business to be attended to is really the most incongruous and the most discordant, I think, of any other branch of the tariff.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Question. Have you made a list of the different articles on which you recommend a reduction of duties?—Answer. Yes, sir. I have the list here.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. Do you not think there should be a special chemical schedule in the tariff list; that it ought to be taken from under the head of "sundries," where it is at present?—A. Yes, sir; and I have pursued exactly that plan. I have put all my crude goods together, and then the chemicals follow. It is absurd to try to make a tariff on any other principle than the one the French people have followed. The beginning of all knowledge is classification, and the beginning of all tariff reform must be in the proper classification of all articles. Here you have it. I have two of these; one of them I presented to Mr. J. S. Moore. Mr. Moore made a remark here the other day that the manufacture of quinine was a monopoly. Now, gentlemen, there are five manufacturers of quinine in this country and about thirteen in Europe. These are enough. The trouble we have to contend with is in getting a sufficient quantity of the bark. The business is a monopoly just the same as Henry Ward Beecher's preaching is a monopoly; every man can preach, but no one can preach as he

does—or, at least, so his people think. Landseer's paintings are a monopoly in the same way, because he painted better than other people could. For the manufacture of quinine there is required a combination of a number of difficult things. It requires, in the first place, theoretical knowledge to begin with, because the processes are never final, and the methods of manufacture are always improving. It also requires an intimate acquaintance with the manufacturing business. There are but few persons who have such knowledge or have time to acquire it. It also requires a large capital, which is sometimes difficult to secure; also, high commercial ability. The ablest and most successful manufacturers of quinine in this country and in Europe are not so much men of education as they are men of high commercial ability. There can be no greater mistake than to say that the manufacture of quinine is necessarily profitable. It is only profitable when it is properly conducted. The great object in view is to get the price of the bark down and the price of quinine up. We refused to join the other manufacturers in the demand for a 15 per cent. duty; we ask only for a 10 per cent. duty. We believe in the lowest protective duties that will place us on a level with the foreign manufacturer. We considered ourselves rather aggrieved and insulted by the action of Congress putting our special article on the free list, while all other articles are protected. This subject has been fully presented to you by a partner and son of mine, and I do not propose to go into it in detail except to say this in regard to what Mr. Moore told you. Mr. Moore is a good friend of mine, and we are intimate personally, and while as an employé of the custom-house he did make himself familiar with very much that pertains to the customs department, yet he is supremely ignorant of the specialties of our business. After the passage, as the result of newspaper agitation, of this "free quinine" bill, he came into my office and, in a friendly, jolly way, said, "What is this cinchonidia?" I said, "Mr. Moore, you are accepted by the press of the country as a man who knows all about cinchona products; you ought to know what it is." But I found he never had heard of it. I told him it was an article largely consumed in the Western States in the place of quinine because it was cheaper. He said, "They say the duty is left on it." I said, "Yes; we think the duty ought to be 20 instead of 40 per cent.; but it will help us out a little."

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. In answer to an inquiry I addressed to Mr. Moore the other day he assigned as a reason why the 10 per cent. duty, which he admitted was a very low duty, should not be levied, that 5 per cent. was about the margin of profit at which quinine was, as a rule, put on the market, and therefore 10 per cent. was an exorbitant duty, and would allow you, for instance, at any time to crowd the foreign article out.—A. Quinine is a very close article in the trade. It is usually sold at from 2½ to 5 per cent. profit; 5 per cent. is considered a large profit on quinine. In its manufacture there are large risks which have to be taken. Money can only be made in the production of quinine by extensive arrangements for the supply of the bark. The bark is the thing that controls the whole matter, and the risk of the manufacturer is very much greater than the risk of the wholesale merchant. His arrangements must be made far ahead, away off in South America or Ceylon, and 10 per cent. is not an exorbitant duty to put upon quinine; it is a very low rate of duty. Although I do not believe in free trade myself, I would say give us free trade in everything, and we will not ask for any duty on quinine. Commercially speaking, however, no country

that has only a single market can afford to adopt a purely free-trade basis. I believe free trade is a desirable thing to be arrived at, and I believe that in a bungling way we are on the right track in this country.

People talk a great deal about foreign commerce; but in the name of common sense, what amount of foreign commerce could accomplish what we desire? Anybody will take your corn, cotton, and raw products, but what we want in foreign commerce is what England has secured. We want an ability in foreign commerce to distribute the work of our skillful operatives. In this matter of quinine and bark, the great injury done to the country is, that it has destroyed our commerce in bark. It is not the five hundred people that you throw out of employment by destroying the industry, but it is the loss of the trade, for this bark is paid for by us in all sorts of commodities. This bark is found among savage and semi-civilized people, and we want the commerce of those countries, and if we cannot manufacture the bark here, it is not coming here as a subject of commerce. Manufacturers must receive the benefit of commerce with all countries if they want to derive the full advantages growing out of manufacturing industries. Our tariff law is a terrible bungle as it is; you are at work in the right direction; but I commiserate you. The work is one of the most important that can be imagined, to restore uniformity to the tariff, and as far as possible to lay a foundation for foreign commerce as an outlet for American manufactures. Our house is considered the largest house in our trade, and I know that within a few years past the competition in the distribution of merchandise has been such that very little money has been made. Every merchant will tell you that, because we have overdone—we have imported too much. The same thing is sure to follow in other manufactures. The American people are so active and energetic that they are bound to overdo the business of manufacturing if you will only give them a chance. Then we must have an outlet abroad where a portion of our surplus products can be sent. We are fusing in this country the identical elements from which the English race have sprung—the Teuton and the Celt—and we are bound to be a commercial people; it is in our bone, blood, and descent, and we have got to have foreign commerce; and the proper work of this Commission is to look carefully after the manufactures of the country, and restore, as far as possible, an outlet for the surplus in manufactures that is sure to arise in the future.

The following is the alphabetical list referred to in Mr. Robbins's statement:

Article.	Present duty.	Proposed duty.	Reduction in revenue.	Remarks.
Asafotida	20 per cent	Free	\$3, 208	A crude substance, and produced only in the East Indies.
Asphaltum	25 per cent	do	23, 853	A crude substance, and important in manufacturing.
Beeswax	20 per cent	do	283	A crude substance, and mainly exported to Catholic states for church candles.
Berries, n. o. p. f.	10 per cent	do		A crude substance, and all the principal berries are now free.
Drugs, crude, n. o. p. f. ..	20 per cent	do	20, 000	A crude substance; all drugs are crudes, and only crudes are drugs.
Emery ore	\$8 per ton	do	17, 305	A crude substance, and used in manufacturing.
Gum, resins, and rosin, n. o. p. f.	20 per cent	do	25	A crude substance.
Oils—				
Bay leaves or bay rum, essence or oil.	50 cents per ounce	do	1, 348	A crude substance, and used in manufacturing, and produced only in the West Indies.

Article.	Present duty.	Proposed duty.	Reduction in revenue.	Remarks.				
Castor	\$1 per gallon	Free	\$1,463	A crude substance; sells freely at \$1 per gallon.				
Cotton-seed	30 cents per gallon	do	0	A crude substance, and largely exported.				
Croton	\$1 per pound	do	2,542	A crude substance; used in medicine only.				
Essential, all, n. o. p. f.	50 per cent	do	46,077	A crude substance, and a cause of much dispute.				
Expressed, all, n. o. p. f.	20 per cent	do	33,177	A crude substance; the French tariff classes all oils as crude substances.				
Flax or linseed	30 cents per gallon	Free or 10 cts. per gallon.	2,905	A crude substance; an important article in manufactures, and should be free or not over 10 cents per gallon.				
Hemp and rapeseed	23 cents per gallon	Free	2,442	A crude substance.				
Laurel or bay, fixed or expressed.	20 cents per pound	do	250	A crude substance; used only in medicine.				
Lemon and orange	50 cents per pound	do	44,210	A crude substance; used in manufacturing.				
Mustard, expressed	25 cents per gallon	do		A crude substance.				
Olive, not salad	do	do	43,007	A crude substance, and a cause of much dispute.				
Olive and salad, in flasks or bottles.	\$1 per gallon	do	216,788					
Whale, seal, fish, neats-foot, and all animal.	20 per cent	do	5,304	A crude substance, or natural product.				
Seeds—								
Hemp and rapeseed	½ cent per pound	do	9,500	A crude substance.				
Castor, or castor beans.	60 cents per bushel	do	21,924	A crude substance, and used in manufacturing.				
Flax or linseed	20 cents per bushel	do	150,582	Do.				
Sponges	20 per cent	do	45,858	A crude substance; the sponge trade is chiefly in the hands of Hebrews, and is very largely undervalued at the custom-house.				
Tar, crude	do	do	205	A crude substance, and largely exported.				
Acetate—								
Of ammonia	25 cents per pound.	20 per cent		Chemicals used in medicine.				
Of baryta								
Of iron								
Of potassa								
Of soda								
Of strontia								
Of zinc	10 cents per pound	do		Chemical; used in the arts and medicine.				
Of copper								
Of lead, brown					5 cents per pound	do		Chemical; very much used in the arts.
Of lead, white					10 cents per pound	do		Do.
Of lime	25 per cent	do		Do.				
Of magnesia	50 per cent	do		Chemical; used in medicine.				
Acid—								
Citric	10 cents per pound	do		Chemical; very largely consumed.				
Tartaric	15 cents per pound	do		Do.				
Alum, all kinds	60 cents per 100 lbs.	do		Chemical; very important in manufactures.				
Antimony—								
Crude, and regulus of	10 per cent	Free		Metal of foreign production.				
Sulphuret	do	do		Crude substance.				
Argols, refined or partly refined.	6 cents per pound	10 per cent		Chemical; much used in the arts.				
Arrowroot	30 per cent	20 per cent		A medicinal food.				
Balsams for medicinal purposes.	do	do		Should be 20 per cent. to correspond with other drugs and medicines.				
Barley, pearl or hulled	\$1 per pound	Free		A medicinal food.				
Barytes, and sulphate of.	½ cent per pound	10 per cent		A mineral and chemical; much used in the arts.				
Benzoates	30 per cent	20 per cent		A chemical product; used in medicine.				
Borax, refined	10 cents per pound	10 per cent		A chemical product, and of great importance in manufactures.				
Calomel	30 per cent	20 per cent		A chemical product; used as a medicine.				
Camphor, refined	5 cents per pound	10 per cent		An important article, and 10 per cent. is sufficient protection.				
Cream tartar	10 cents per pound	20 per cent						
Fusel oil	\$2 per gallon	Free		A waste product, and everywhere extensively used in the arts.				

Article.	Present duty.	Proposed duty.	Reduction in revenue.	Remarks
Gelatine, all kinds	35 per cent	20 per cent	Gelatines and glues are synonymous terms; both should pay the same rate of duty.
Glycerine	30 per cent	do	The duty on this article should not exceed 20 per cent.; 10 per cent. is ample protection.
Iodine, resublimed	75 cents per pound.	do	Is a chemical, and used as a medicine and in the arts.
Licorice— Paste or rolls	10 cents per pound.	5 cents per lb.	} Licorice juice, paste, and rolls should pay the same duty.
Juice	5 cents per pound.	do	
Medicinal preparations ..	40 per cent	20 per cent	Should be put on the same basis as chemical preparations and salts, say a uniform rate of 20 per cent.
Paraffine	10 cents per pound.	Free	Largely exported.
Potash— Bichromide	4 cents per pound..	20 per cent	A very important chemical.
Chromate	do	do	Do.
Chlorate	3 cents per pound..	10 per cent	A very important chemical, and is not manufactured in the United States.
Iodate and iodide	75 cents per pound.	20 per cent	Are medicinal chemicals.
Prussiate, yellow	5 cents per pound..	do	Is a very important chemical in the arts.
Prussiate, red	10 cents per pound.	do	Do.
Quinine— All salts of	Free	10 per cent	} Very important medicinal chemicals, requiring at least 10 per cent. protection.
Sulphate	do	do	
Rochelle salts	5 cents per pound.	do	Is an important medicinal chemical.
Saleratus and bicarbonate soda.	1½ cents per pound.	do	Is a very important article in general use.
Soda— Carbonate sal-soda	½ cent per pound ..	do	Do.
Caustic	1½ cents per pound.	do	Is a very important article in the arts.

PETITION OF BICYCLE RIDERS.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

The following petition in regard to the duty upon bicycles was read and ordered to be printed:

We, the undersigned, bicycle and tricycle riders of the United States, do most respectfully but earnestly petition your board to consider the expedience of materially reducing the tariff now imposed upon imported bicycles and tricycles; and for the following reasons:

1. The bicycle is demonstrated to be of practical value as a road vehicle, whether for pleasure or as a method of locomotion from point to point, and has become a fixture as an article of manufacture, commerce, and public use; while as a healthful recreation and exercise, bicycling is admitted by the medical profession to be beneficial in the highest degree.

2. The average list-price of a first-class bicycle in England is from \$75 to \$85, but by reason of imposts, transportation charges, incidental fees, and the American royalty, it costs in this country nearly half as much again.

3. American bicycles are yet in the experimental stage of construction, while English manufacturers are producing almost perfected results, and there is a great demand by experienced riders for first-class English machines at a fair price—a demand the American manufacturers cannot at present meet at any price; but the heavy tariff and freight charges, as well as the exaction of a royalty and license fee by the Pope Manufacturing Company, tends to lessen the number of importing dealers to the point of inadequacy of supply, and purchasers are put to much inconvenience, delay, and extra expense.

4. By purchase and reissue of patents, the Pope Manufacturing Company has obtained control of bicycle manufacture in this country, and exacts a royalty of \$10 upon each machine imported or manufactured by other parties. This monopoly enables the American company to put its machines on the market at a very much higher price than the same quality of machines can be purchased for in England, and prevents persons of average means purchasing as good bicycles as they would wish, and thereby keeps many from riding who would otherwise, and so checks the progress of bicycling in America.

(Signed by the users of bicycles in different sections of the country.)

L. P. OLDS.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. L. P. OLDS, in regard to the duty upon pineapples, was ordered to be printed:

Pineapples are the chief source of income to the planters of the Bahamas. Soil, climate, and hundreds of years of experience in raising, have combined to make these islands famous herein; and soil, climate, nor experience being favorable anywhere in the United States, prevents any competition or damage to us by extending this traffic. At first it was thought proper to include other fruits, as oranges, lemons, bananas, and even others; but as Florida seemed to be experimenting in such direction, it was decided to harmonize and compromise on the one sort, and ask for a reduction of the duty thereon. This duty is now 20 per cent. It is for your consideration whether, from the facts, 10 per cent. would not be effectual in promoting the interests of all concerned.

Pines are a delicate fruit, decaying readily; at times the year's crop realizes hardly anything. For instance, in 1875, only about \$43,000 were returned. It was loss of crop, shipment—all loss.

A hardship also is the law requiring the damage on cargo to be one-fourth, else no appraisement allowance, and then only for the excess over the one-fourth.

The soil of these islands exactly suiting this fruit, it is here perfected, outrivalling all other lands. But owing to the high duty it has been a study among the growers what to do, and the question of raising vegetables is now considered.*

Just here comes in the American side of the question: First, inasmuch as we grow vegetables very largely; 2d, the mackerel flesh (as termed), is preferred in this trade, and the trade falling within the months of April and August exactly prevents these shipowners and seamen from ruin. These vessels, say two hundred, if tied up to the dock during summer, would rot in a season. Keeping this trade intact, these two interests are conserved.

This trade, by nursing, with a fairer duty, can be enlarged to double.

Besides, as a reciprocal matter, quite a free list is given Americans. The compliment should be returned.

Again, the islands being so nigh, feel allied, and do not hesitate to say that they prefer trading with us, if possible, and maintain their present warm sympathy.

Besides the importers say any increase of this import benefits them, as they sell on commission, the cargo, and send back supplies raised or manufactured by us.

The amount of importations annually sum up about \$300,000 from the ten islands of the Bahamas engaged in pine growing.

Lately has been found in the caves here and there a phosphate peculiar and suited to the improvement of soil, which, if inducements are offered by decrease in present duty, would be immediately put upon the pine-apple lands, so as to enlarge the crop, which, it is at once seen, would increase the revenue here. At present, however, the British are shipping this guano to home truck fields, as a source of wealth. Ship-

* See consular returns from Nassau, N. P.

ping dirt 3,000 miles, instead of its being put to immediate use in growing fruits for our markets. Yet, who is to blame?

The Cuba trade being mainly in oranges and lemons need not be considered, only where pines are grown.

Perhaps the only question lessening the claims of these foreigners is that of discrimination. But as this fruit, though raised in other parts of the world, is raised in these islands in perfection, none will complain at the movement in their behalf.

I am sure Florida, which State is so progressive in producing as to merit, and receive the praise of all, need not and will not complain at any aid in the direction asked.

Your honorable body will therefore, as is believed, very much aid our own commerce, and comity between these warm-hearted neighbors and ourselves, by duly passing upon the merits of their complaint.

CHARLES H. ASHBURNER.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. CHARLES H. ASHBURNER, president of the Abbott Iron Company, of Baltimore, Md., in regard to iron ores, was ordered to be printed :

I have observed, with great surprise, the reported testimony of Horace L. Brooke, of this city, in relation to admission of foreign ores free of duty. Whilst he seems a protectionist on the matter of steel rails and other items which he is not connected with, he seems to ignore the matter of wages connected with the raising of ores. He says wages are very unequal on this and on the other side the water. This we admit. Ore that may cost in our money 50 cents per ton to mine there with excessively low wages, would cost here \$1.25 to \$1.50. The idea that ores cannot be raised in this country to make first-class pig iron is simply ridiculous. I know from experience there can. We are using them constantly. We are buying, all the time, first-class commercial irons, without the admixture of a pound of foreign ores, and are satisfied there are large amounts of native ores, of best quality, only awaiting development. If foreign shipments should come free of duty, and often (in vessels of foreign bottom) as ballast, our mine owners might as well close up their mines and let foreigners, whose labor would be paid for our necessities, do the whole business.

I wish to make this statement, from the fact that we are the largest iron works in this State, and that (owing to absence) we could not appear before you in Baltimore.

I think duties on foreign ores should not be less than \$1 per ton.

A. SCHWARTZ.

NEW YORK, *October 6, 1882.*

Mr. A. SCHWARTZ, of New York, manufacturer of jewelry, addressed the Commission as follows:

I have but a few words to say. I am a manufacturer of jewelry, and manufacture one particular line of goods called religious jewelry, which is imported here free of duty. I find it impossible to compete with foreign manufacturers. I have brought with me samples of my goods so that the Commission can inspect them. The only difficulty I meet with is, that on account of the high price of labor here, and other high expenses, I cannot compete with the foreign manufacturer.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. What recommendation do you make; what duty do you ask to have placed on these goods?—Answer. At least 20 or 25 per cent.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. This business of yours gives employment, I suppose, to persons of artistic taste in designing these articles, as well as to ordinary labor?—A. Yes, sir; there are possibly \$200,000 or \$300,000 worth of these goods imported here annually.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. What are these articles called?—A. They are called religious medals, and are manufactured of gold and silver. They are known as "Children of Mary medals," "Immaculate Conception," "Guardian Angel," and other medals. They are imported free of duty as religious goods.

Q. Are you manufacturing them in this country?—A. Yes, sir; the samples I have here are of my own make.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. Silver and copper medals have been free of duty since the 2d of March, 1861. There has been no change in the law since then. When did you begin to manufacture these goods?—A. About six years ago.

Q. Were these goods admitted free of duty at the time you began the manufacture of them?—A. I am not positive about that. I made no inquiries. I supposed there was a duty at the time I commenced manufacturing.

GENERAL TARIFF REVISION.

METROPOLITAN INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. E. H. Ammidown (Ammidown & Lane, Woolen Manufacturers), Chairman of the Committee on Statistics of the Metropolitan Industrial League, appeared before the Commission and made the following remarks:

MR. PRESIDENT: The Metropolitan Industrial League recognized at the outset of the work of the Tariff Commission that its greatest difficulties would not come from the opposition of its enemies, but from the want of preparation, and often reluctance of the industrial classes to appear and properly present the claims of their several pursuits.

Men actively engaged in their daily work rarely have the time, if they have the habits of thought and expression, necessary to comprehend fully the relations of their own Industry to others, and to state effectively and clearly these relations, or in what way a change of laws would either serve or injure them.

The League has endeavored to remove this difficulty by ascertaining, through personal inquiries and frequent intercourse with men in different manufactures, the requirements of the various industries in this vicinity, and the changes which might be made in the Tariff for their advantage. The League has also caused to be prepared a series of forms, showing the Tariff as it is, and arranged with blank spaces for suggestions and recommendations. These forms, with circular letters explaining them, have been widely distributed, and have resulted in the collection of much valuable information. The League has been assisted in its work by Mr. Charles S. Hill, well known to you all as one of the most accomplished Statists in our country. He has for more than two months been engaged in tabulating and arranging the statements and suggestions received by the League, so as to present them to you in condensed form. It will be seen that the purpose of the League has been to gather and interpret to you the views and desires of important classes of industries, which for reasons above mentioned have not been presented to you in a more direct way by the representatives of these industries themselves. Although Mr. Hill has accomplished much, there remains still much to be done before he will be able to complete his work. Mr. Hill will now state to you personally the facts which he has thus far prepared, and the conclusions to be derived therefrom, and at an early day hereafter will lay before you the final and complete results of our labors. We ask now for his preliminary report your favorable consideration.

METROPOLITAN INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. CHARLES S. HILL, Statistician, Department of State, Washington, appeared before the Commission in behalf of the Metropolitan Industrial League and made the following

PRELIMINARY STATEMENT.

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION:

For the first time in the history of our country an incorporated commercial and industrial association, embracing all branches of Industry, has undertaken the work of preparing and presenting for consideration a revision of our Tariff Laws and Schedules of Rates.

In behalf of the Metropolitan Industrial League I have, therefore, the honor of submitting for such consideration this work, and of stating the particulars thereof, that you may understand fully the motive and purpose that suggested the undertaking, the earnestness that has characterized the prosecution of this labor on the part of each one of its members, and that the country may learn and be assured of the sincerity that has actuated this Industrial League to come forward in a work of harmony, by first finding the equity of all interests, and then by mutual concessions accepting and presenting to your honorable body a revision of our Revenue Laws, free from individual preferences or separate interests.

This work has already produced several good results, but there could be none greater or more satisfactory than the knowledge that the labor of the League has proven that a consideration for others' interests and the prosperity of every industry is an incentive *possible* in a great business community, and stamps forever as false the assertion that the manufacturing branch of Industry is selfish and monopolizing.

It may be said that an equitable Tariff has been attempted before. It has, but by political and special interests; never before by the consolidated action of our several Industries.

And yet no other parties can frame a wise and beneficial Tariff. How could Congress be expected to make wise laws for our Industries without the united advice and co-operation thereof?

Your own experience, gentlemen, has doubtless already proven that it requires more than the opinions of individuals inexperienced or theoretical, or even than the debates in Congress, to study out and make up the frame-work of an economic law.

I do not intend to take up your time by the same fault, nor with a historical essay upon our past condition. You, as prominent publicists, are familiar with that detail, even if it were advisable to argue our present necessities upon issues that have passed forever, and are now merely historical, nor is it necessary to weigh down this statement with official statistics that are accessible to, if not possessed by you at present, for reference or corroboration.

With the understanding, after our conference of yesterday, we will send you without delay our detailed specifications of revision in law, rates, classification, &c., and reasons therefor in the form of

A DIGEST OF THE LEAGUE,*

in which you will find each "Section" and "Schedule" in the order of our present Statutes completely revised and defined; and for this work we respectfully ask your serious consideration.

The work of the League, you will recognize, has been a most delicate, if not difficult, task, and entailed as much labor, care, and time as all other interests presented to you have taken collectively.

Having begun this work in good faith and pursued it vigilantly, it is not intended to finish it carelessly or lose interest with its transfer, but to add, within a reasonable time, data of several prominent interests that have been so far omitted only from a desire to give them more careful consideration.

In regard to the law of our Tariff, its phraseology, distinctness, conciseness, and completeness, the League submits several changes, but has not been unmindful of the fact that the wording and punctuation of such a law is of the most vital importance, especially in final revision, lest the omission of a word or point mar its beneficial operation; hence the caution of the League.

Our Tariff has been much abused, but it is far from being the worst extant.

Within the last five years I have collated the Tariff of every country, and have analyzed each and compared the same with our own.

There is far more ambiguity in almost every other Tariff than in our own; even the short British Tariff is susceptible of misunderstanding, and the litigations thereupon are not infrequent. Perhaps it is not possible for fallible man to frame an infallible Tariff, but without the aid, advice, and consent of all Industries it is certainly impossible. We have advanced to the head of all the nations of the world in Wealth in the last decade under our protective policy, and although imperfect in many points of detail, which you, gentlemen, are now endeavoring to find and correct, our Tariff has nevertheless proven to be based upon a wise system that conduces to the prosperity of the Agriculturist as well as the Manufacturer, the Miner as well as the Banker, the Tradesman as well as the Shipper.

It has been asserted that the World is moving toward Free Trade. It is the reverse. England stands alone; not even will her colonies follow her. Look at the present standing of all Nations. It will be seen that the principal nations declare at present—

For Protection.—Argentine Republic, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Chili, China, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Guatemala, Japan, Mexico, Norway, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United States. Of the smaller nations, Turkey, Greece, and even the Australasian Colonies have protective Tariffs.

For so-called Free Trade.—Great Britain and the Netherlands.

The Tariff of the Netherlands ranges from 5 to 20 per cent. ad valorem; and slightly specific, but she is purely a commission Nation. The following table exhibits comparatively these conditions.

* For Digest referred to see pages 1711-1763.

Epitome of the Tariff rates of the Principal Nations upon the Chief Industries of the United States.

[From advance sheets of the "Tariffs of the World and Analyses Thereof." D. Appleton & Co.]

[By Charles S. Hill.]

Articles.	United States.	United Kingdom.	Germany.	France.	The Netherlands.	Belgium.	Italy.	Spain.	Russia.	Austria. ¹
Sugars.....	<i>Per cwt.</i> \$2 47 (average).	<i>Per cwt.</i> Free....	<i>Per cwt.</i> \$2 to \$5 75 ..	<i>Per cwt.</i> \$4 75 to \$5 50	<i>Per cwt.</i> \$3 75 to \$5...	<i>Per cwt.</i> \$4 50 to \$5 ..	<i>Per cwt.</i> \$5 to \$6	<i>Per cwt.</i> \$0 08 to \$10... (1 50 from Cuba.)	<i>Per cwt.</i> \$5 to \$8	<i>Per cwt.</i> \$3 to \$10.
Wool and woolens and yarns ²	60 per cent. (average).	Free....	\$0 25 to \$50.	\$7 50 to \$100.	5 per cent. ad valorem.	5 to 10 per cent. ad valorem.	\$8 to \$90	\$10 to \$50	\$4 50 to \$200.	\$7 50 to \$100.
Iron and steel, manufactured ³	\$3 50 (average).	Free....	\$0 12 to \$7 50	\$0 20 to \$2...	5 per cent. ad valorem.	10 per cent..	\$0 30 to \$2 50	\$0 25 to \$50..	\$0 90 to \$60 ..	\$0 50 to \$25.
Silk thread and silks ²	59 per cent. (average).	Free....	\$1 20 to \$70.	\$15 to \$150...	5 per cent. ad valorem.	5 per cent. and \$25.	\$25 to \$150 ..	\$15 to \$250 ..	\$90 to \$250 ..	\$10 to \$200.
Cottons and yarns ²	39 per cent. (average).	Free....	\$0 17 to \$30.	\$1 to \$100 ..	5 per cent. ad valorem.	\$3 to \$85 ...	\$2 50 to \$300.	\$10 to \$125 ..	\$4 50 to \$270.	\$2 50 to \$100.
Flax and hemp, linen and yarns ²	27 per cent. (average).	Free....	\$0 30 to \$70.	\$0 60 to \$100.	5 per cent. ad valorem.	5 and 10 per cent. ad valorem.	\$0 30 to \$150.	\$10 to \$125 ..	\$0 90 to \$60..	\$0 75 to \$100.
Tobacco, leaf and manufactured	\$56 (average).	\$100.....	\$10 to \$35...	\$140 to \$300 (prohibitive).	\$0 25 to \$10..	\$0 05 to \$15 ..	\$200 (prohibitive.)	Prohibited...	\$15 to \$75....	\$3 50 to \$25.

¹ Austria has just increased her tariff 50 per cent., following example of Germany and France.

² The unit of quantity in the United States tariffs upon these articles is square yards, &c., and also of duplex system, unlike any other nation; it is therefore impossible to equal their quantity to hundred-weight or to kilograms. The average ad valorem rate is given as the best comparison possible.

³ The British Iron and Steel Association, in a publication, represent the United States higher in tariff rate than other countries. Such is incorrect and unfair in general average and in general conditions, even when considered upon basis of conventional rates of "favored nations."

It will be seen that, with the exception of Great Britain and The Netherlands, non-producing countries, the ratio is as follows:

Sugars: The United States is lowest; Austria highest—protecting the Beet-Root Industry.

Woolens: Belgium is lowest; Russia highest—reviving manufacturing Industries, with vigor.

Iron and steel: France is lowest; the United States next lowest; Russia highest.

Silk: Belgium is lowest; Russia highest.

Cotton: The United States about the lowest; Italy highest.

Flax, Linens, &c.: Belgium about the lowest; Italy highest.

Tobacco: Belgium is lowest; *Great Britain is highest* (excepting the prohibitive countries).

Spain modified her rates slightly July 6 last.

The products of the Dutch Colonies, viz. Sugar and Tobacco, are protected by *specific rates* in the Netherlands.

By a freak of nature the Iron deposit leaps from Great Britain to Spain, hence the difference in the rates of intermediate countries.

REFUNDING.

The League asks the attention of the Commission particularly to several documents of the Treasury Department for past years, entitled

"CUSTOMS DUTIES REFUNDED,"

a statement of the various sums paid back to merchants as excess of duty, error in liquidation, &c.

Last year the amount, as will be seen by the accompanying document, was \$800,000, but some years it runs up as high as \$5,000,000.

This requirement of our business community to lock up more or less of their capital from complexity or ambiguity of the wording of our Tariff Law or specification under the several paragraphs of the schedules seems unnecessary, if not inexcusable.

If the blame lies entirely in the law there is all the more need for immediate remedy, and upon this point the League has prepared evidence.*

ENUMERATION.

There is a conspicuous fault in our Tariff enumeration of articles under the several Schedules, and especially in the Entry List of the published Customs returns of the Treasury Department.

Although some articles are small and apparently insignificant, their non-enumeration is the source of fraud and injustice.

The conglomerate entry of all small articles without regard to their importance enables a dishonest importer to invoice his goods in a different form and obtain their entry either by the Free List or at undervaluation. The articles provided for will be seen by the form herewith submitted of the Customs House, viz, Classification of Imports, &c., while very many others are hidden forever from investigation, unless by hunting up old Invoices—which is difficult.

To this matter, in detail, the League has also evidence to present in proper form.*

And here reference might also be made to the publication officially of the values of enumerated articles before instead of after liquidation; hence the certainty of a wrong estimate in averaging.

CLASSIFICATION.

Under this head there are probably more faults to be picked out and remedied than under any other.

It is the cause of much misunderstanding and many law-suits that classes specified may be and are susceptible of being confounded with similar articles, or the same articles or material in different form or character.

CONDITIONS AFFECTING RESULTS OF TARIFF LAWS.

The Industrial League has not simply considered the Tariff upon its superficial appearances. We have and are still searching into those most influential relations that affect a nation's Tariff, viz:

Labor,	Commission,
Interest,	Freight,
Material,	Measurement,
Supplies,	Insurance,
Value of Investment,	Taxation,

Exchange,

by a series of forms to obtain and to prove these conditions.

* See Appendix.

The completion of this study cannot, of course, cease here, but will be continued as rapidly as possible with care and accuracy, so that the information derived may be of lasting benefit to the theorist as well as the statist and thinking merchant, while helping the laborer to the consideration due him in the estimation of the world.

INACCURACY OF CUSTOMS RETURNS.

In many instances where "overcharge" is made, the published Returns are taken before Liquidation, which causes wrong averaging and misrepresentation of the true average rate of duty paid.*

LABOR.

Neither the condition nor the influence of the laborer can be understood without considering the cost of his food and clothing, and his feeling of pride and manliness in different countries. This is too extensive and important a subject to detail here,† but which I have endeavored to illustrate in diagrams to aid in calling attention to the true conditions of this important point, and have substantiated the drawing with official references.

The valuable work published by the Department of State (Labor in Europe) is the only complete work based upon authoritative data of recent date that will show these relations; and indeed this work is now rather too old for reference upon points and conditions of to-day.

The secret of British advantage in Industry is really rate of Interest; also illustrated on page 1688.

In pursuing this work the League has ascertained facts that have certainly never before been demonstrated, if generally known.

It is intended to prove that†—

1st. In almost every record of history where free importation has been permitted, the article has risen in price and never produced the expected result.

2d. In cases where a Tariff rate has been given to crude material, the latter has fallen in price, even in so small an article as china clay, &c., thereby benefiting the owner of our soil and the manufacturer of the product alike.

3d. That labor does consume all profits, at present, in many Industries, and the unreasonableness of expecting or asking a manufacturer to give up his business and desert his invested capital—in some instances amounting to half a million dollars—because the last few years of losses or burdens defer that hope yearly indulged of recovery and final success.

It is asked again of your honorable body and expected by the Industrial League, that their suggestions may receive your consideration; and they look with great hope to a most successful result of your trying labors, and trust that the future may record for you in this great work the earnest appreciation of your grateful countrymen.

* Example. Paragraph 119.

Customs Rate, 14 lbs., value \$7.00 = 50 cts. per lb.
Duty, .09 cts. and 10 ad val. = \$1.96, or 28 %.

The true value could not run over 20 cts. per lb., and should be returned:

True Rate, 14 lbs., value \$2.80 = 20 cts. per lb.
Duty, .09 cts. and 10 ad val. = \$1.54, or 55 %.

In so small an amount this discrepancy makes but little difference, but when the sum is \$10,000 the importance is greatly magnified.

So also many other paragraphs.

† See pages 1700, 1701, and Appendix.

METROPOLITAN INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.

NEW YORK, *October 20, 1882.*

Mr. CHARLES S. HILL, Statistician, Department of State, Washington, appeared before the Commission on behalf of the Metropolitan Industrial League, and made the following

GENERAL STATEMENT.

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: The Metropolitan Industrial League has now the pleasure of submitting to your honorable body their work in the revision of the Tariff Laws and Schedules of Rates of our country.

In presenting this work, now complete, and covering as it does every Section and Paragraph of that Law, after careful though hurried consideration and preparation, it is proper to accompany the Digest now presented* with an argument in behalf thereof explaining the reasons that have influenced these conclusions and expressing to you those reflections and considerations of the existing conditions affecting the working and the results of such a Law, that have been weighed thoughtfully in connection with and as influencing the several Industries of the United States.

Such a Law is unquestionably a politico-economic law, and therefore should be based upon three considerations:

1. The development of our Industries.
2. The necessity of our National Revenue.
3. The influences of our International Relations.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF OUR INDUSTRIES.

Under our Tariff Law, which comprises at present 24 Sections of the Revised Statutes, we have thirteen Schedules and a Free List, embracing 891 Paragraphs; 356, or exactly two-fifths, of which are under the said Free List, which contrasts greatly with the Tariffs of other nations, and, with the exception of Great Britain, approaches more nearly a real *free trade* policy than any other nation in the world.

The Sections are, in a great measure, the restructure of time-honored laws that emanated from the far-sighted judgment of our ancestors of a century ago, and which have been revised and revised; interpolated and abbreviated as our conditions have changed, our resources developed, and our Industries multiplied, until these laws are in some respect superfluous, in other respects insufficient, and in many instances susceptible of misapprehension and misapplication from the want of distinctness and simplicity. These Paragraphs were intended to enumerate every article that enters into our several Industries, but are as conspicuously deficient in adaptability to our conditions to-day as they are incomplete in enumeration. That many of these Paragraphs should be transposed to schedules where the articles more properly belong, is evident to all, and such readjustment, and especially correction of the enumeration of similar—in some instances the same—articles under two Schedules, should be one of the chief features of a revision, and in this respect some suggestions are respectfully submitted in the following pages.

To show the exact relation of our Tariff to our Industries and of our Industries to our Revenue, it is necessary to point out separately the amount of duty paid and the average rate of same paid at present, by

* Pages 1711-1763.

each of those Industries, proportionately to the total amount of Revenue derived therefrom.

Present condition of our Tariff considered by Schedules.

Schedule—	Industry.	Yield of Revenue.	Percentage or Total Valuation.
A	Cotton Goods	\$10,825,000	<i>Per cent.</i> 39
B	Earths and Earthenwares	5,230,000	43
C	Hemp, Jute, and Flax Goods	9,240,000	27
D	Liquors	6,812,000	71
E	Metals	27,385,000	29
F	Provisions	3,247,000	34
G	Sugars (Molasses, &c)	47,077,000	54
H	Silks, and Silk Goods	18,550,000	59
I	Spices	1,095,000	50
J	Tobacco	4,655,000	72
K	Wood	1,530,000	21
L	Wool and Woolen Goods	27,280,000	60
M	Sundries	29,705,000	35
Total of the thirteen Schedules of Industries in Duties paid		103,501,000	44

It will be seen that the two Industries contributing the highest average percentage of duties are Tobacco and Liquors.*

Here is presented a singular analogy, viz, a protective system of the United States and a free-trade system of Great Britain, both exacting from two like Industries of luxury, a higher rate of duty than from any other Industry or article of import.

All other Schedules fall so close on an average ad valorem rate of duty to 50 per cent., which, strange to say, has been declared the acceptable maximum rate of those who have thought that our Tariff was outrageously above that average rate, that there is really more abuse than necessary, and more moderation in our Tariff assessments than seems to be generally supposed.

And so unanimous has been the willingness and desire evinced by manufacturers and merchants whose interests demand an expression bearing upon our industrial prosperity, to concede all that is possible, to spare from the protective rates of our developed Industries, and to transfer that assessment of protection proportionately to those Industries more needy of assistance from foreign competition, that the accomplishment of the great work of bringing two extreme advocates together is not difficult, except where the purpose is based upon political motive.

To frame a wise law, is it not first necessary to consider the area of our land, the resources it possesses, and the development thereof, compared with like conditions of our international competitors in the great industrial battle of the World?

We have a territory of 3,600,000 square miles, every acre of which, except our isolated Alaska, is richly productive and varied in Agriculture; with possessions in mineralogical and all geological material of the earth; with a population of industrial laborers and inventive geniuses not surpassed, if equaled, in the world in intelligence and enterprise, and only outnumbered by those of remote and interior Asiatic countries, whose undisciplined minds and unrestrained impulses, politically and industrially, have disregarded economic guidance: Can we therefore with wisdom liken our own laws unto those governing a country of 120,000 square miles, of limited resources, one-half of which is owned by about 2,000 landholders, viz, Great Britain?

Is it not the duty of your honorable Commission to study first these conditions and the possibilities of their development before attempting

* Sugar contributes, however, as will be seen, the highest amount in volume.

to frame an economic law to govern our great country of unlimited resources and cosmopolite people?

Of our *unlimited resources*—the products of the earth—there is but one judgment at home and abroad.

It would be idle to give you a home picture, except one taken from a foreign standpoint, that we may see ourselves as others see us, not personal or theoretical, but official.

A Report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture has just been published, which shows very forcibly the influence of our resources upon the limited area and non-producing lands of Great Britain.

The report is made

TO HIS GRACE THE DUKE OF RICHMOND AND GORDON, PRESIDENT:

MY LORD DUKE: Since Messrs. Read and Pell reported upon the aspect of American agriculture just two years ago, there have been such changes that it will be necessary for me in this report to go over much of the same ground as they did. * * *

Men living in this country, and more especially those farming in it, have seen within the last two years a great increase in the value of land, equal at least to 20 per cent., in the Middle and Western States. In some portions of the West it has been over 100 per cent.

Three years ago, west of the Mississippi, it was impossible to sell western lands at any price. Now they are readily taken up at prices varying from three to six dollars per acre. It is almost impossible to say positively what has been the rise. * * *

During those years of depression, from 1873 to 1878, a silent revolution had been going on. In the East, where the times were exceedingly hard, and more especially in the manufacturing districts, whose prosperity was partly owing to protection [? how times could be hard while prosperity was enjoyed is not explained], there had been a gradual movement of people to the West. It went on almost unseen, this grand emigration. If it had been in Ireland or among the Scotch crofters the population would have held on with iron tenacity to their poverty, but the adaptability of the American mind solved the problem in an easier, less bloody, and more beneficial manner.

For four years the granaries of America ran over with grain produced at a cheap rate, on cheap land with cheap labor. * * * Wheat poured into Great Britain at an alarming rate, * * * and perchance if the uneducated ago of the British agriculturist had seen the full extent of the country on which the vast plethora of beef and bread was raised he would have given up the last thread that bound his hopes together.

Such is the impression of a Commission sent to consider our conditions this year, given in a voluminous and important paper.

But here, is it not pertinent to ask whether a country will be developed by Agriculture alone?

Would our West have developed more rapidly than did our South previous to the war had not the mechanic followed the farmer, or would our new South to-day be alive with Industry that enchances and diffuses her wealth but for Manufacture?

Another English umpire, Sir Edward Sullivan, says:

The Western and Southern farmers find that the protected manufacturers, instead of being their enemies, are their best customers; they are attracting them to their region by every means in their power; the more prosperous they are, the more money they have to spend, the more good they do them. Chicago, the capital of agricultural America, is rapidly becoming one of the largest manufacturing cities in the Union.

He might have added Atlanta as her competitor.

Of our *cosmopolite people* there is much always to be said, but here only one thought.

For the year ending June 30, 1882, the number of immigrants to our country was 788,992, coming from the various parts of the world, but especially from the several nationalities of Europe, viz:

Continent.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europe	400,247	246,517	646,764
Asia	30,604	125	30,729
Africa	24	8	32
America	57,202	42,801	100,003
Islands of the Atlantic, n. s.	868	522	1,488
Islands of the Pacific	747	142	889
All other countries and islands ..	64	63	127

So great has been this exodus from Germany that the Department of State was recently informed in a "Consular Report" as follows:

This unprecedented exodus is engaging the serious attention of the German economists, and especially that of Imperial Chancellor Bismarck. The former have been calculating the working value of the average emigrant, and state that the services of every laboring man leaving the country may be valued at \$1,000; there can be but little doubt that every emigrant is worth that yearly amount to the United States. Computing the wealth the United States acquire by the influx of population on this basis, and estimating the number of emigrants to the United States during the year of 1881 as having reached 600,000, the country would have gained in that period \$600,000,000.

As this loss of wealth to Germany appears so reliable, it is clear that the increase *this year* of our industrial wealth from Immigration has been about \$800,000,000.

But to estimate carefully as to the actual money brought into our country per immigrant, we must first take the average number of adults to estimate the amount of specie added by this yearly increase of population.

Another United States Consul in Germany says, in reference to this point:

The following are the figures given me by the police authorities of this port: Adults, 9,223; children under-twelve years, 2,208; infants under one year, 519; total, 11,960.

This is a very fair proportion; or take even less, say, 75 per cent. only as adults, we have this year, adults..... 590,000
at a minimum amount per capita of \$100

adding to our country a specie value of.....\$59,000,000

But taking this year's immigration as a settled part of our people at the usual average of 5 per family, and with the minimum family expenses per month \$50, and \$600 per year, we have an *annual* increased amount expended of about \$500,000,000, besides a dissemination of old and new ideas.

Immigration is, indeed, wealth; it is a concentration of capital, muscle, and brain power to our Industries, and a loss to the country from whence it flows.

Assistant Commissioner Clay adds the following appeal to the Royal Commission of England:

How are their places to be filled? By whom is the land to be cultivated? * * * I appeal to the honorable members of the Commission as a British subject, as an Anglo-American farmer, and as one deeply interested in the welfare of Great Britain, one who wishes to see her institutions reformed, not pulled down, to suggest some idea to the legislators of our country to stay this tide of emigration, to make the people contented at home, and to raise her agriculture to a pinnacle not yet reached in the history of husbandry.

It is no false feeling or jealousy of the American people, it is the welfare of thousands and thousands of British subjects that you must protect. British agriculture is wasting under some terrible disease, whose direful effects are intensified by disastrous seasons.

Providence will provide a cure for the latter, but the former must be seen to by the representatives of the farmers and our legislators, and the Commission is placed in a position to do much that is good, and to it the eyes of the British farmers are turned. Let us take a lesson from the past. France drove the Huguenots from her shores, and her loss was England's gain, a gain that has planted in her cities vast industries which have made her glorious and great.

This is what others think of us. Now, let us think for ourselves.

• OUR CONDITIONS COMPARED.

To start, then, at the beginning, we must compare our country with the other principal nations of the world in these natural conditions and resources.

THE NATURAL CONDITIONS OF THE PRINCIPAL NATIONS OF THE WORLD.

Natural conditions.	The United States.	Great Britain.	France.	Germany.	Russia.	Austria.
Area	3,604,000 square miles.	121,000 square miles.	205,000 square miles.	212,000 square miles.	8,139,000 square miles.	241,000 square miles.
Population	50,152,000.	34,505,000.	37,166,000.	45,367,000.	82,409,000.	39,175,000.
Age	100 years of Industry.	800 years.	1,100 years.	1,100 years.	350 years.	1,100 years.
Climate	Latitude, 24°-49°; long., 66°-121° W.	Latitude, 49°-58°; long., 1° E.-6° W.	Latitude, 42°-57°; long., 8° E.-4° W.	Latitude, 49°-55°; long., 6°-22° E.	Latitude, 38°-78°; long., 17°-169°.	Latitude, 42°-57°; long., 12°-2° E.
Soil	Richly productive	Poorly productive	Amplly productive	Moderately productive	Partly rich and largely sterile	Moderately productive.
	Varied and abundant	Rich in coal and iron	Scanty	Moderately distributed	Medium	Comparatively scanty.

500,000 square miles to the square. 1 10,000,000 people to the square. : 100 years of Industry to the square.

NOTES.—The Industrial Age of the United States is, of course, dated from our Declaration of Independence. Industry before that period was handicapped.

The Industrial Age of Great Britain is dated from William the Conqueror, of Normandy, when the Industry of England began, although, in fact, many of the Manufacturing Industries were introduced into Britain by the Romans. Ure, Brande and McCullough—British industrial authorities—cite with pride the Iron mills of Gloucester, Kent, and Sussexshire before the tenth century.

The Industrial Age of France, Germany, and Austria are each dated from Charlemagne, who established Industry in these three countries.

The Industrial Age of Russia is taken from Peter the Great, who created Industry during his reign out of chaotic elements.

Here will be seen the advantages and the disadvantages of each nation, compared in the outstart, to learn upon what grounds we must base the framework of a beneficial economic law.

A country of 100 years competing in this international struggle of Industry with nations of 800 and 1,100 years, and having taken the lead in this short period in productiveness, in wealth, and in general results!! (See the following Diagrams.)

Is it not, then, truly said that our Industries are in their "infancy"?

Great Britain threw over and around her industrial progenies a most pronounced protective law not only until 1844, but, as will be seen in many of her manufacturing branches, until 1859,* or for 859 years, until she had monopolized the Manufacturing Industry of the world. By imitating that successful policy of Great Britain, and by hard industry in the development of these natural resources of our country, we have rapidly overtaken and surpassed even her; but Professor Sumner—the occupant of the Politico-Economic Chair in one of our most prominent Educational Institutions—argued before you last Saturday that such policy of ours was unwise and all wrong.

Official statistics are not theoretical, but data from which our real condition and political economy can only be learned—from which true principles of political economy should be drawn. And yet, Professor Sumner has not cited a fact! He has argued against theory—but with theory. What *one* fact did he substantiate? Contrast the true logic and practical judgment of the British statesman, Sir Edward Sullivan, written last year:

Thirty years ago England had almost a monopoly of the manufacturing industries of the world; she produced every thing in excess of her consumption; other nations comparatively nothing. The world was obliged to buy from her, because it could not buy anywhere else. The discoveries of gold and steam immensely increased the demands and the purchasing power of the world, and consequently the demand for the products of England. Her wealth increased by leaps and bounds that were bewildering; she was intoxicated with success; with her immense accumulated wealth, her machinery, her coal, her iron, her insular position, she thought herself unassailable; she laughed at the possibility of foreign competition; she offered to fight the rest of the world with her right hand tied behind her back; she said to the world, "I will receive any thing you can send me without duty," adding at the same time an expression of hope that they would in turn receive her goods. But they said, "No, we gladly avail ourselves of your kind offer of admitting our goods; certainly we will send you all we possibly can. At present, unfortunately, we have nothing to send; we cannot yet supply our own wants, but when we have more capital and your machinery and workmen, we hope to have a large surplus to send you." Well, that was thirty years ago. Now, *France and America and Belgium have got our machinery and our workmen and ample capital*, and they are sending us a yearly increasing surplus that is driving our own goods out of our own markets, and every year they are more completely closing their markets to our goods.

Great Britain's statesmen had wisely recognized the threefold value of the earth's products when manufactured into shape, more useful, and contributing also threefold to the development of civilization, in employment, in convenience, and in comfort.

France, Germany, Russia, Austria, and every other country, save Great Britain, still protect their Industries in a degree, according to the nature thereof. Let him, then, who attempts to ridicule the fact, or the application of the significant and truthful term "infant Industries" of our country, be recognized as one unmindful and inconsiderate, and hence an unwise adviser in the industrial and commercial relations of our country.

Look at our developed conditions by our past economic policy.

* See Appendix.

In the value of land we see the United States now surpasses even France; but it is production and consumption that we must consider particularly, estimating the world from a commercial standpoint.

PRODUCTION.

The value of the Live Stock of the world is about.... \$5, 000, 000, 000
Of which the United States produces 1, 800, 000, 000

Or over 33 per cent. of the Live Stock of the world.

The annual value of the Grain product of all countries
is about 5, 600, 000, 000

Of which the United States produces* 2, 100, 000, 000

Or about 33 per cent. of the Grain of the World.

Of the conditions of these two great products the Agricultural Industry of this country should indeed be proud.

It stands conspicuous as the greatest in yield and in value of the World.

CONSUMPTION.

The amount of slaughtered Meat consumed annually in
the World is about..... \$3, 600, 000, 000

Of which the United States consumes 950, 000, 000

Or about 28 per cent. of the consumption of all nations.

The value of Grain consumed annually throughout the
World is \$4, 800, 000, 000

Of which the United States consumes 1, 600, 000, 000

Or 33½ per cent. of the World's consumption, and still leaving a vast supply for those nations that fall short in production.

Thus it is evident that our people are the best off in feeding themselves of all the peoples of the World.

Look further at the present condition of Labor in our country and keep strictly to facts, ignoring theory.

AMERICAN VS. EUROPEAN LABOR.

Unquestionably Professor Sumner was right in saying that there had been, in the discussions before your Commission, "a constant reiteration of false doctrines of *theoretical* political economy," and that he "therefore deemed it right for him, as a professional student of political economy, to appear before the Commission and set forth the true relation between protective taxes and wages," yet he is unable to substantiate in any way the theory he presents.

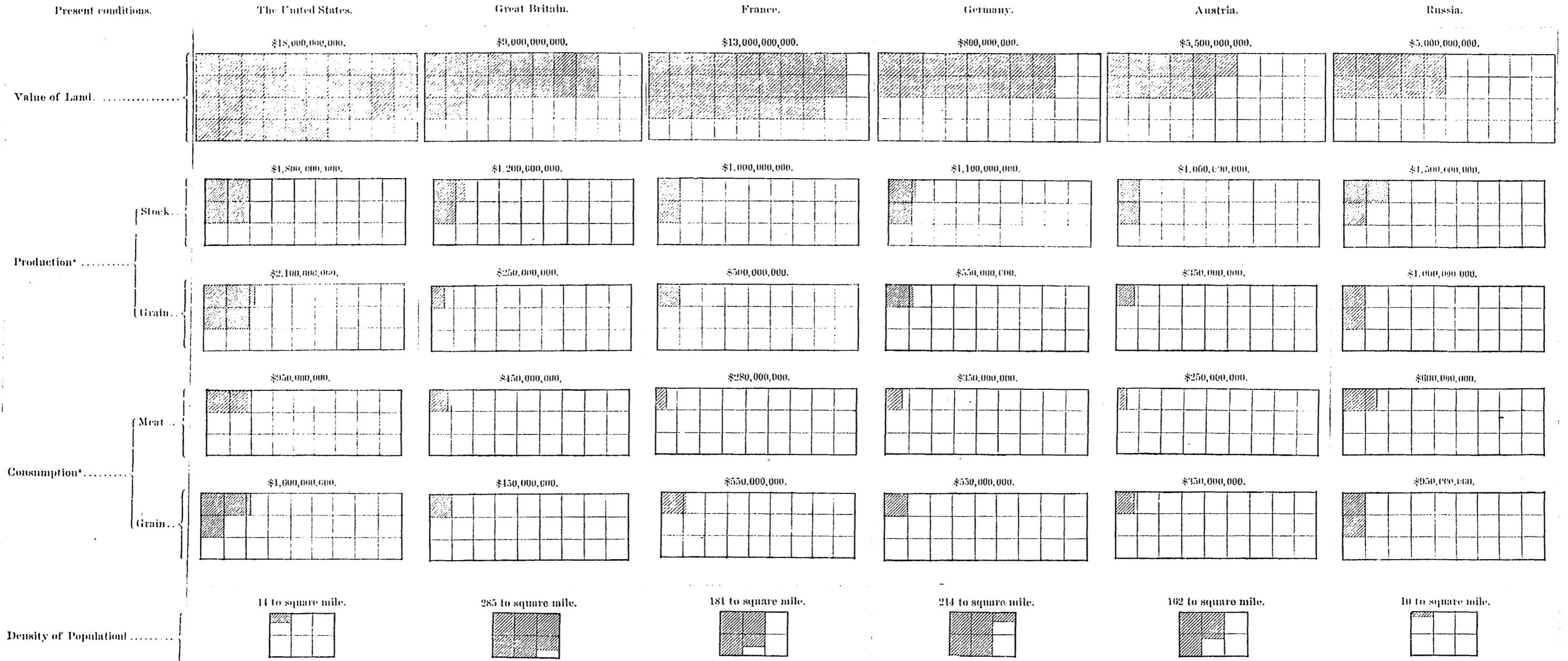
Professor Sumner, or any other responsible authority, is challenged to refute the correctness of the following diagrams, as the data upon which they are based is authentic, and the proofs have been officially published, and should be in every college library. (See p. 35, Labor Report.)

1. The rates of wages in the United States, roughly estimated, are more than twice those in Belgium; three times those in Denmark, France and Germany; once and a half those in England and Scotland; and more than three times those in Italy and Spain.

2. The prices of the necessaries of life are lower in the United States than in any of the foregoing countries; that is, the laboring people of Europe cannot purchase the necessaries of life, which are common to the American working people, as low as the same can be purchased in the United States; or, *vice versa*, if the working people of the United States lived on the same quality of food, or comparatively the same, and exercised the same frugality as the working people of Europe, they could live as cheaply as the working people of any country in Europe.

* These figures are based upon the returns of the Agricultural Department and embrace more items than given in abstract of the Treasury Department.

THE DEVELOPED CONDITIONS OF THE PRINCIPAL NATIONS OF THE WORLD UNDER THEIR SEVERAL ECONOMIC SYSTEMS.



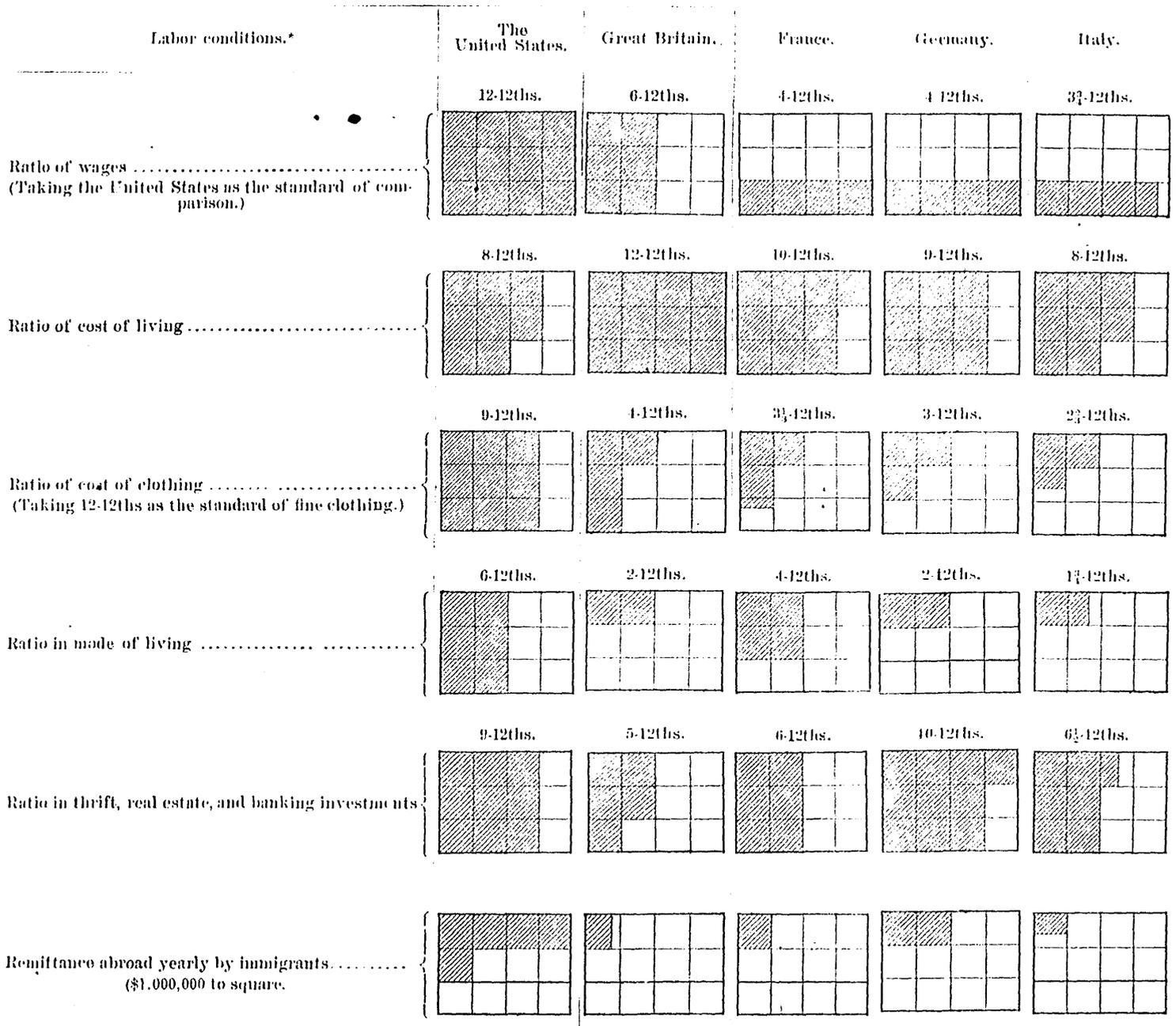
* \$500,000,000 to the square.

† 50 persons to the square.

* The meager data upon these two important economic points are so conflicting that these illustrations may evoke criticism, but the authority upon which this is based is more reliable than the statements published heretofore.

It will be seen that we consume:—double the quantity of Meat of Great Britain, and three times that of France, Germany, &c.; three times as much Grain as Great Britain, and more than double that of France; and still have a surplus for export to other nations.

CONDITIONS OF LABOR AND LIVING AFFECTING THE RESULTS OF THE TARIFF.



* These ratios represent the working population and are based, as far as possible, upon the investigations of the Metropolitan Industrial League—although not yet complete—and particularly upon Consular Reports (especially that on the "State of Labor in Europe" and "Cotton and Woolen Mills") of the Department of State.

It will be observed that, while the cost of living is proven to be cheaper in our country, the Laborer spends more because of a better mode of living; he also saves more, with exception of the Germans than the laborer of any other nation.

In confirmation of the foregoing illustrations, there could be no better authority to quote than the work of Ex-Secretary Evarts upon "Labor"—the present standard authority on this subject—from which the following is taken, page 15 thereof:

The English rates are more apparent than real, and that, while nominally the English workingman appears to receive a comparatively high rate of wages, he only works on half or two-thirds time, thus gratifying his desire to preserve a high rate of wages at the expense of time; a sentimental fiction which is neither profitable nor substantial.

Here is the explanation of the sophistry which is continually presented in argument that the English workingman is becoming better off than the American workingman by receiving higher wages.

And further in regard to wages:

It will be seen that while the wages of New York and Chicago are about twice the average wages throughout England, the prices of the necessaries of life are lower in those two cities than the average prices throughout England.

And also as to living:

In regard to the question of food-prices in England and in the United States no stronger argument can be advanced to dissipate the idea that workingmen can live cheaper in that country than in this than the fact that Great Britain imported from the United States during a recent year "necessaries of life" to the following amounts: Wheat, \$50,000,000; Indian corn, \$43,000,000; bacon and hams, \$34,500,000; cheese, \$10,300,000; flour, \$8,300,000; lard, \$6,800,000; pork, salted, \$3,000,000; butter, \$2,570,000; fresh beef, \$2,000,000; refined sugar, \$1,650,000; pease, \$1,500,000; canned and preserved meats, \$1,400,000; fruits, raw, \$1,243,000; molasses, \$653,000; coffee \$516,000; oats, \$343,000; barley, \$264,000—a total food-supply of over \$171,000,000.

Nothing can possibly more fully or more clearly exhibit the conditions of Labor under the economic system of Great Britain and under that of the United States. There is, however, another point so frequently and incorrectly set forth in argument and in essay, viz, that the English workingman is returning home, "finding by experience that he is better off there than here."

No greater harm or malice could possibly be exercised toward the laborer than to make such wild representations to a credulous mind.

It has, however, been asked before this Commission, "Is it true or false that American workmen went to Scotland, glad to be employed on the Clyde, and to receive the much-derided pauper wages?" The facts that started this idea *two years* ago were then so fully exposed that it is surprising it should still be entertained.

Mr. Evarts, in the same valuable work above quoted, disposes of this fallacy as follows (page 17):

It is well that your attention should be specially drawn to the erroneous opinions which have more or less prevailed, especially in the minds of our working people, in the United States for the past few years, that wages were higher and the cost of living less in England than in this country.

At a time of unusual depression in all trades in the United States strikes of certain trades occurred in England. Some British manufacturers, taking advantage of the occasion, induced a number of workmen from this side to go over and take the places of the English workmen on strike. This gave rise to the idea that work was more easily obtained and that wages were higher in that country than in the United States.

It may be remarked that the principal portion of those workmen were natives of Great Britain, many of them immigrants newly arrived in the United States, and all of them out of employment. The few Americans who did go were repaid for their venture by much humiliation and suffering, as the many reports from our consuls in England have testified; so that there is scarcely any need to refute the foregoing fallacy by any further consular testimony; but the Consul at Bristol puts the question in so graphic a manner, that I cannot refrain from quoting his words:

"No laborer should allow himself to be enticed, by imagining that he could better his condition by leaving the United States to return to his native country, if born in Europe. A number of such laborers and also some mechanics have, during the last two years, called upon this consulate for help to get back to the United States, curs-

ing the day when they left America for Europe, where neither milk nor honey is flowing. *Compared with Europe, the United States is a paradise for a sober and faithful workingman.*"

This point is important, as it has been presented affirmatively to the Commission several times, and it should not go unexplained but be stamped as misrepresenting the condition of labor in both countries.

The Consul at Rheims, in a very recent and important report published upon the "Cotton and Woolen Mills of Europe," writes:

I do not feel that I shall have made this dispatch complete without calling the attention of those interested, among whom are pre-eminently the mechanics and laborers of the United States, to the importance of protection to their own welfare against the productive industries of Europe, which are produced by the hands of pauperized labor. I can see no way in which such protection can be guaranteed except by a high protective tariff or duty being placed and maintained upon all imported goods coming in competition with like goods manufactured in the United States. A "tariff for revenue only" will not accomplish the object, as I view the subject; but it must be such a tariff as will preclude the possibility of the manufactured products of Europe being placed on the markets of our country at a less price than they can be produced with fair profit by our own manufacturers, who employ well-remunerated labor. If, by reason of cheap labor, articles of merchandise can be produced, it must be apparent to every unprejudiced, thinking mind, that to admit European manufactured products without paying a high duty would be to place American capital and American labor in competition with the cheap money and cheaper labor of Europe in the manufacture of articles consumed in our own homes.

You have been told that "the interests of the capitalist and laborer are antagonistic." Such assertion is simple *absurdity*. A single illustration to the contrary is given by the Consul at Manchester, who says:

The shares of the Oldham companies are, as a rule, limited to \$25 each, and this allows workmen and small capitalists to form the proprietary of these companies. They are composed, for the most part, not indeed of the wealthy portion of the community, but of that class who are or have been working people, and who, by thrift and provident habits, have, out of their own earnings, saved small sums of money, and who, at shareholders' meetings and otherwise, very often bring to bear on the management and direction of these companies sound practical knowledge and experience.

One point further in regard to Labor in Europe vs. America. Here are some figures that show a remarkable, but what seems to be an irrefutable, fact, or let him who questions it produce further evidence. The following comparison speaks louder than any other argument.

Manufacturing Industries.

Description.	United States.	Great Britain.*
Hands employed	5,250,000	5,140,200
Value of product.....	\$8,000,000,000	\$4,000,000,000

Here is the positive proof that American mechanics in the aggregate accomplish exactly double the result of the same number of British mechanics. They are therefore very justly paid double in wages.

INTEREST.

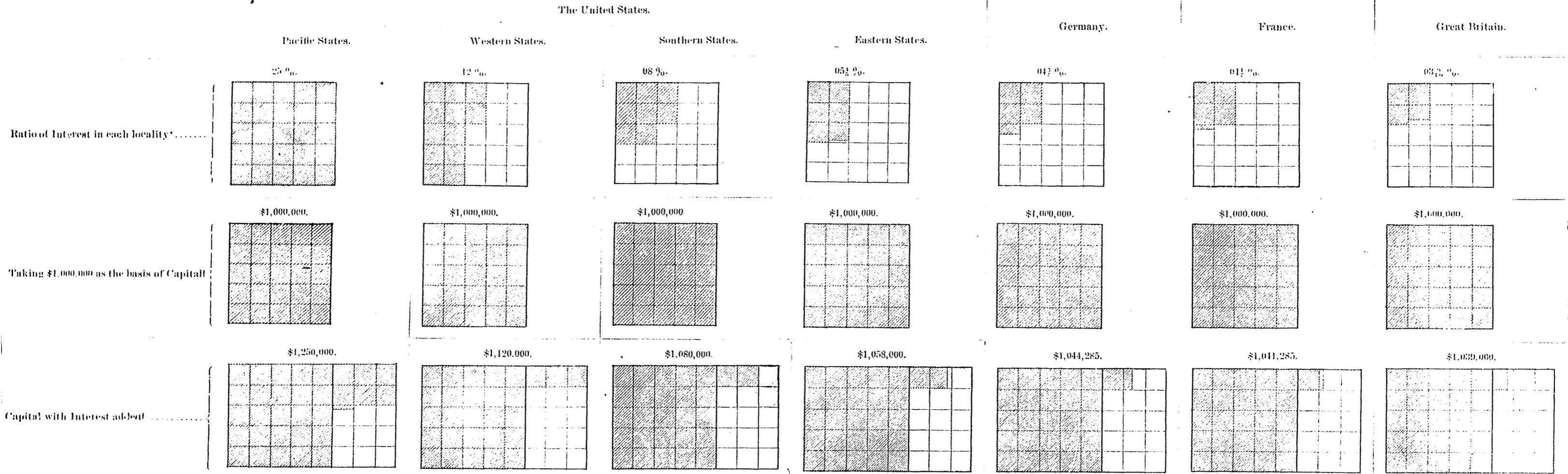
Of the disadvantage to the capitalist or manufacturer it is important to present to you some of the evidences of inequality in the economic condition of the principal countries that handicap and burden his interests. Now look at the condition of Interest upon Capital in Europe and in our own country as shown in Diagram following.

* See also page 16.

CONDITIONS OF INTEREST ON CAPITAL AFFECTING THE RESULTS OF THE TARIFF.

Average for the last 35 years.

COUNTRIES.



* 01 % to the square.

† \$10,000.

The data of this diagram is derived as follows: Of Great Britain, from rates of Bank of England; France, Bank of France; Germany, Dr Soetbeer and Seyd; the Eastern States, from data kindly supplied by Mr. W. A. Camp, Manager of the Clearing House, New York; of the Southern and Western States, from prominent bankers of Mobile, New Orleans, and Chicago; of Pacific States, from the following sliding estimate confirmed by Mr. D. O. Mills, the most eminent Banking authority of the Pacific coast, viz: 1850-'55, 05 % per month; 1856-'60, 03 % per month; 1861-'65, 02 % per month; 1866-'70, 01 % per month; 1871-'80, 06 % per year.

Here it will be seen that Eastward the rate of Interest falls, and that the further Westward, as the proportion in rate of interest increases, so also the absolute necessity for proportioning the difference of customs rates to bring the Industries of our country to an equitable basis at home and abroad, by a Tariff rate sufficient to enable all alike to struggle for success. It will be seen from the foregoing Diagram that the East is in a better condition to abolish protection than the West and South; but should such abolition be considered at the cost and ruin of newer Industries, and especially at higher rates of interest in other parts of the country?

Great Britain is in fact our great American Banker; from that source comes the capital for investment in our Insurance, our Real Estate, our Products, our Railroads, and—she has long since *bought out our shipping*, no old shipping merchant will deny the fact—and draws .08 per cent. Interest from us instead of $03\frac{9}{10}$ at home, on loans; amounting to \$2, 000, 000, 000 or two-thirds of her entire foreign investments, viz. . . . 3, 000, 000, 000 and which necessitates—

an annual remittance from us of. 160, 000, 000

This is where Great Britain's advantage lies in so-called free trade, together with the early developmant of her iron, and therewith her Industries.

It is surely the duty of a Government to make all things equal by economic laws based upon a knowledge of our economic conditions.

So wise, if not perfect, has been such provisions from the foundation of our Government that we find in the 100 years of our country's life, a record unparalleled in the history of nations in the strides of prosperity, as we have seen in Production and Consumption, and also in the value of our Industries.

INDUSTRIES INFLUENCING TARIFF RESULTS.

To illustrate the wonderful advance of our Industries, the following Diagram is submitted for your examination, as it presents comparatively their conditions with those of the principal Nations of the world, leading as we do in three branches, notwithstanding the disparity in age:

NOTE.—In presenting these illustrations, it should be noted that it is anticipated that these conclusions will, on first sight, cause incredulity, owing to the remarkably varied and inharmonious statements and even statistical data of the world.

It is, therefore, well to challenge refutation should any data be thought more reliable than the authorities here quoted, so that by friendly controversy at home or abroad the incompleteness, incorrectness, and inconsistency so reprehensible in the statistical returns of every country may be discussed and exposed.

The authorities selected in preparing these diagrams are, viz, first, Official and United States Consuls; next, British Abstracts, the Statistical Society and its Fellows, of London; Professor Bodio, of Italy; Dr. Neumann Spallart, of Austria; M. De Foville, of France, and Drs. Engel and Sootbeer, of Germany. In home data official figures are taken always.

Referring to note on page 1689, it is also necessary to review the data, illustrated in the foregoing Diagram, relating to our own country.

Our progress has been as follows:

Years.	Manufactures.		Agriculture.	
	Value product.	Increase, per cent.	Value product.	Increase, per cent.
1850	\$1, 019, 000, 000	(Not given) (See below)	} Appa- rent. 200
1860	1, 886, 000, 000	85		
1870	4, 232, 000, 000	123	\$2, 448, 000, 000	
1882	8, 000, 000, 000	90	7, 500, 000, 000	

This is a remarkable picture in two respects: first, in the wonderful development; second, in the wonderful incompleteness of our agricultural data.

Regarding Manufactures there is no question as to the correctness of the above data; *the percentage of three decennial periods*—especially of that period when the South was not included for five years—*prove the figures of 1882 to be reasonable*, if not an undervaluation; but it is also estimated carefully on other data, and although the Census returns are yet silent on this *greatest* industry, except in a small bulletin of a few cities and semi-official items to our statesmen for speeches (see Cong. Record, No. 85, No. 110, &c.), the above can be sustained.*

Regarding Agriculture, the late Superintendent of Census said, in his return of 1870, “no estimate is known that is entitled to more credit than *good intentions*;” and the Statistician of the Agricultural Department, in his return, says, “in fact, the national Census *never agrees with the State* returns—discrepancies and differences always appear.”

Thus the only thing that is not wonderful is the incongruity and inharmony of the official figures of our country.

In examining item by item, however, of our products, as given by the Agricultural Department, the sum of the yearly yield of such products amounts to about \$7,500,000,000. The eminent Commissioner of Agriculture places the total value at \$9,000,000,000. There is, therefore, ample data at hand to prove that the figures given in preceding diagram represent the actual yield last year.

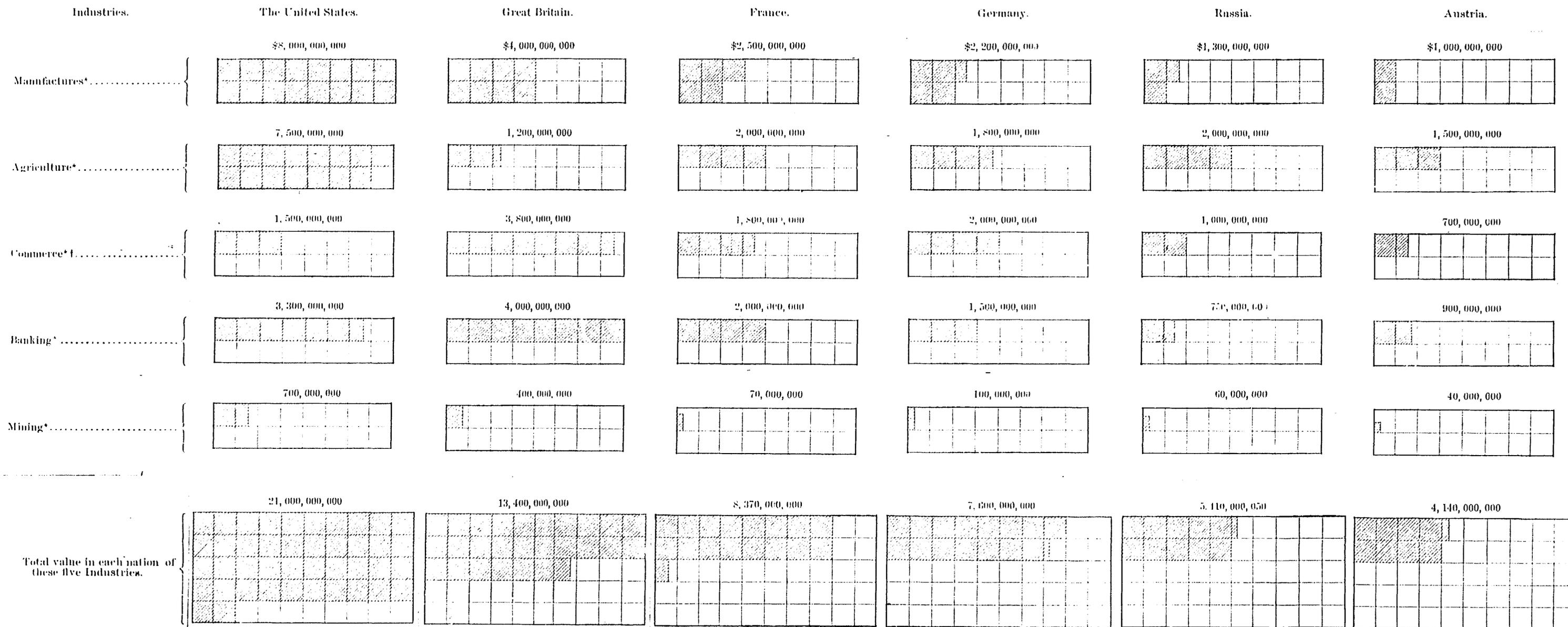
Of our enormous volume of Manufacture, viz. \$8,000,000,000, ninety-eight and one-fourth per cent. is consumed at home, and only one and three-fourth per cent. is exported, viz. \$135,000,000. This fact, with the following, tells the secret of our prosperity:

Of our Agricultural Products, \$7,500,000,000, exactly ninety-two per cent., is consumed at home, and only eight per cent. is exported, viz. \$600,000,000.

Now will Professor Sumner, or any one else, say what would become of our farmers if their manufacturing consumption—really their source of development—were destroyed and they should be left dependent upon the puny demand from abroad.

* Since the preparation and presentation of this Argument, the Census Bulletin 302, giving a general summary of our Manufactures, has appeared. After a most careful study of every figure thereof, the writer finds it most inconsistent and incomplete, and regrets the want of space herein to give further data (which will at a proper time be given to the public) in evidence of such inconsistency and incompleteness; but meanwhile reiterates emphatically the correctness of the estimate of Manufactures herewith presented.

CONDITION OF INDUSTRIES OF THE PRINCIPAL NATIONS OF THE WORLD.



*\$500,000,000 to the square.

† Only foreign commerce is herein considered as affecting the Tariff law.

These data are official as far as possible of each country, and from Consular Reports of United States and Great Britain.
For discussion of these conditions of the United States see pages 15 and 16.

THE NECESSITY OF OUR NATIONAL REVENUE.

To meet our ordinary National expenses, and, indeed, to preserve a healthy regularity in the financial affairs of the country in time of peace or under extraordinary emergencies, it is clear to every rational mind that there must be some economic system from which to derive sufficient revenue.

It is impossible to overlook our Civil and Miscellaneous items, our Army and Navy, Indians, Pensions, and our Interest on the Public Debt. How shall these be met?

This year our condition in Revenue stands thus (June 30, 1882):

Net Expenses, \$257,000,000.	Net Revenue, \$403,000,000.	Excess of Revenue, \$146,000,000.
Customs Revenue, \$220,000,000.	Miscellaneous and Public Lands, \$36,000,000.	Internal Revenue, \$146,000,000.

Here, it will be seen, is an exact offset to our surplus Revenue in our Internal Revenue, if such surplus is as much to be dreaded as some political alarmists are trying to make our people believe; but to show how unnecessary and impossible even this would be, it is only necessary to remind your honorable body that two-thirds of the above surplus will be consumed by new Pensions and other increased appropriations; hence the total abolition of Internal Revenue is out of the question unless our Customs Revenue is increased.

What folly it is, then, to talk about "danger from an overflowing Treasury." Much more so is it for any one to assert that there is no need of Customs Revenue, or that such "is an outrage."

Coming at random from unknown theorists such assertions were little noticed; but, strange to say, the papers of the last few days are crying aloud that a professor of political economy says "we must abolish all protective duties!" The Bankers very properly denounce the Internal Revenue, the poor man everywhere denounces Internal Revenue, and our people would be made Nihilists to-morrow by a Direct Tax imposition at this time of peace, and yet we hear that protective duty is wrong.

Then what is right? What unreasonableness to denounce one system without being able to suggest something better practically! "I am not a statesman at all," says Professor Sumner; "I have never taken upon me to construct a system—that is beyond my line."

There will be a unanimous agreement with Professor Sumner upon this candid admission. He is right, and more frank than others; he has no system whatever to offer, but has only a picture before his view which, in his mind, is "a glittering generality"; but which, as Mr. Medley, of the Cobden Club, so forcibly shows,* would practically be ruinous to American Industries.

TAXATION.

Our great Franklin said, "our greatest tax is from idleness, pride, and folly." He could have added no more!

For an illustration of what would be our condition by wiping out our Customs duties and imposing Internal tax, look at the following diagram of the condition of other countries.

* See pages 1697 and 1698.

It is here seen that France and Great Britain are more severe in their home taxation than any other nations per capita. In Germany the *States* make the heavy assessments of taxation.

But it is not just to rate Russia per capita, as her home tax does not reach all of her estimated 80,000,000 population, viz, of Siberia and some lower parts of Asia.

Russia, in her total home taxation, exceeds Great Britain \$70,000,000, but even estimating her regular taxable population at 50,000,000 it would not average over \$6.10 per capita; hence it is evident that the British people are more severely taxed than the serfs of Russia.

This is the "system of economy" that we are asked to adopt in lieu of present systems of deriving our Revenue from those who wish luxuries, and who can afford to pay extra for the privilege of obtaining an article not made at home and enjoying the pride thereof.

Do our people prefer the luxuries from abroad to the stability that home consumption creates?

We have seen on page 16 that we are not indebted for our prosperity to foreign tradesmen, nor to the demi-idle theoretical luxurist of our country, but to the hard Industry of our Manufacture. You have had before you a gentleman who pleaded for your favor in behalf of the "*fancy cracker*" Industry of England, and who told you pertinently that—

the taste and therefore demand for these articles of luxury has still to be created in the United States, which he believed is to be best done by those who have already an established business in England.

He added—

Our firm employs nearly 2,000 working people. There is another factory of biscuit at Reading, a few miles out of London, employing as many or more people than we do. Some of these factories, I am in a position to state, have invested large sums of money in the business, and I hope you will agree with me that it is an industry worthy of encouragement. We only desire to be put on a fair footing with other industries in this country, so as to give our business here a chance for development. That, in a word, is my case. Charging duty upon packages is a peculiarity of American trade.

Unfortunately, we cannot give up our horrid "peculiarities" or our "charity first at home," no matter how much pleasure it gives, to do other charities second—which, in fact, we do more than any other people of the world.

Two years ago the distinguished and genial gentleman, Mr. T. Bayly Potter, M. P., said to us at a banquet in New York:

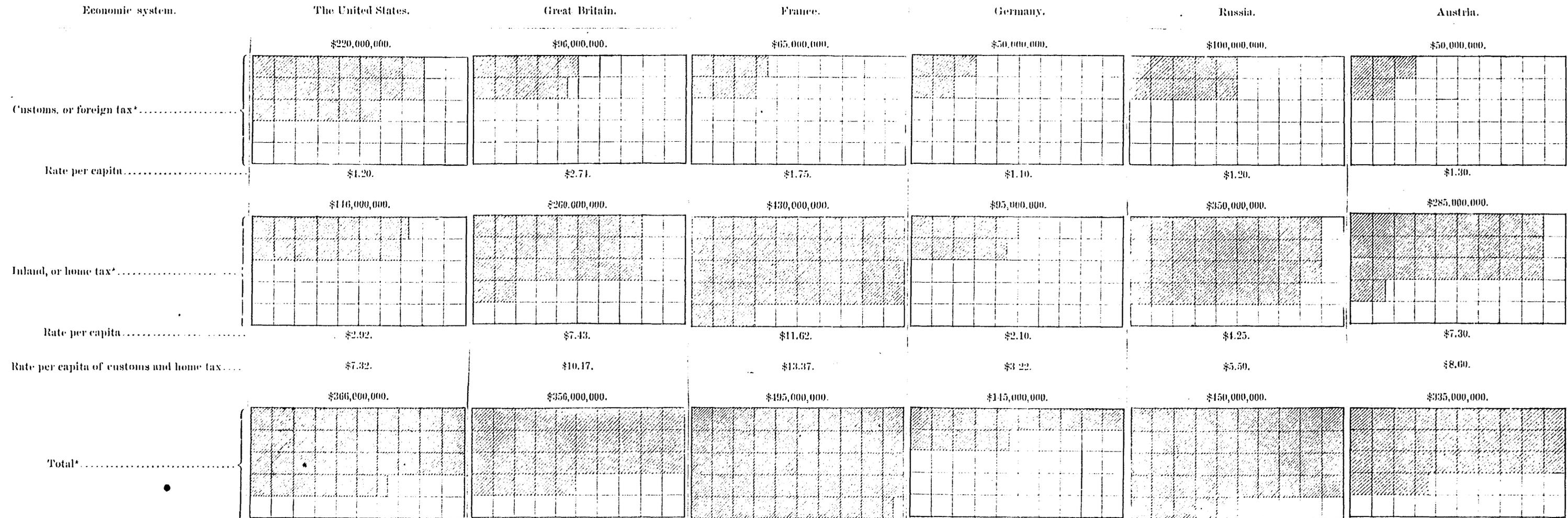
Internally you are the greatest free-trade country in the world; may we not hope that soon you will extend your principles to other lands instead of confining it to your States?

Mr. Potter had not in mind the fact that we buy nearly twice as much from his people as any other nation,* and sell them more cheaply nearly three times as much as to any other nation—or *they would not buy from us at all.*

We spend more in luxury traveling in Europe in one year (over \$100,000,000) than Englishmen do in our country in twenty years; hence we do "extend our principles" and liberality to other lands.

* Export of British products to United States, \$150,000,000; Germany, \$85,000,000; France, \$80,000,000. British Imports from United States, \$525,000,000; Germany, \$130,000,000; France, \$200,000,000.

CONDITIONS OF TAXATION OF THE PRINCIPAL NATIONS.

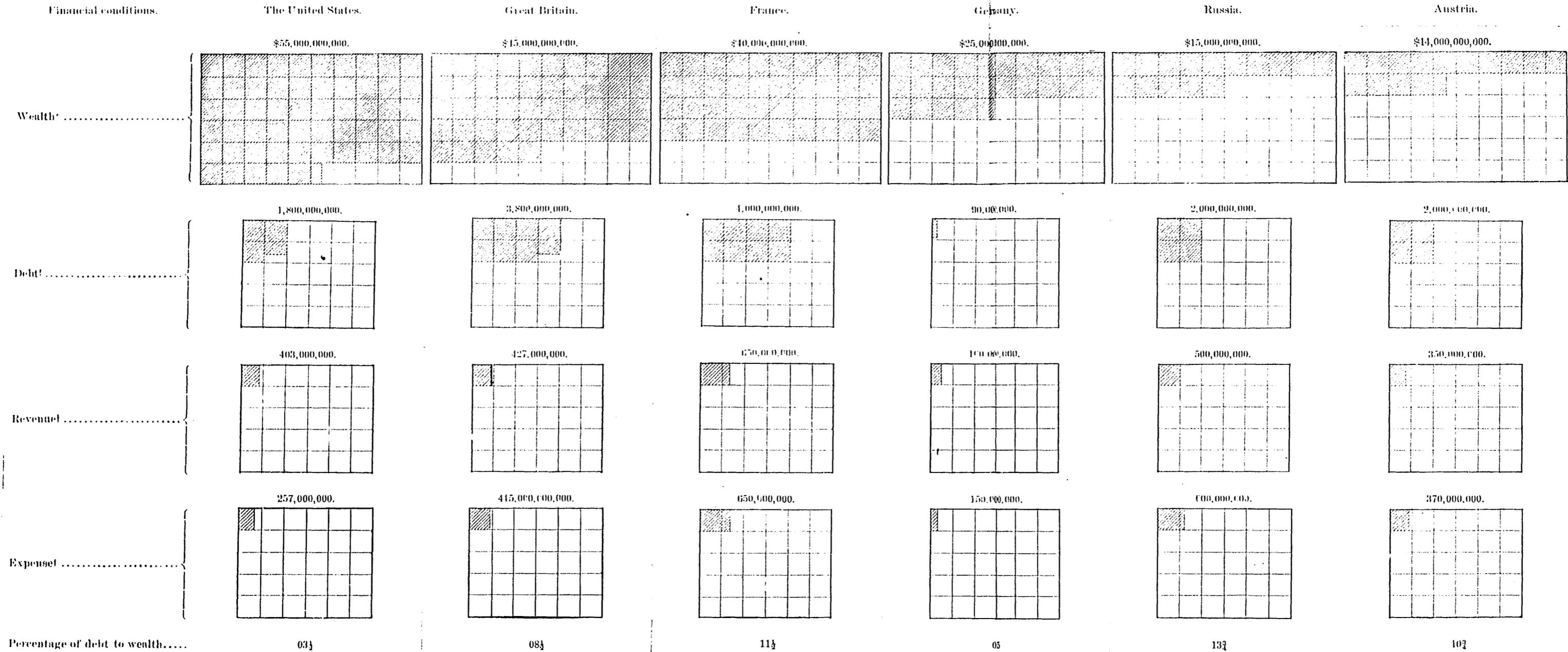


* \$10,000,000 to the square.

In this data the writer is compelled to differ with several unofficial publications which are generally accepted as authority, preferring to stand upon the figures reported as official by the United States Consuls.

It will be seen that the United States receives the largest amount of Customs—not from the highest Tariff, however, but from a larger amount of Imports and is highest in rate of foreign, but lowest in home Taxation per capita, except Germany where the Tax falls upon the people in assessment of the States, so that this data is not an equitable comparison in respect to her Taxation per capita.

THE FINANCIAL CONDITIONS OF THE PRINCIPAL NATIONS.



*\$1,000,000,000 to the square.

†\$500,000,000 to the square.

In this it will be seen that we have become, under our economic system *the richest nation in the world*, and have the smallest percentage of debt. See also Diagram of Taxation.

WEALTH, DEBT, INCOME, AND EXPENSE.

There are other important features to be considered in the conditions of National Revenues, exhibited in the following diagram, which shows Russia the most severely indebted Nation; Austria, second; France, third; Great Britain fourth, and the United States last and in the most healthy condition.

The remarkable volume of Wealth of our country seems so great that it may be regarded as incredible at first sight. Careful examination and research, however, prove that it is not even as bold as the estimate, or rather speculation, made some years since, as officially imprinted upon our country's record:

[From the Congressional Record of March 6, 1878.]

Mr. David A. Wells, the former very able and intelligent special Commissioner of the Revenue, in his report some years ago furnished the country with exceedingly interesting and instructive information on this subject. Speaking of our national debt he showed by the following table how its burden would diminish if we would just let it alone. He shows:

The estimated percentage of the national debt to property from 1860 to 1900.

Year.	National wealth.	Percentage of debt to property.
1860.....	\$10, 150, 000, 000
1870.....	32, 318, 000, 000	7. 84
1880.....	64, 630, 000, 000	3. 92
1890.....	120, 272, 000, 000	1. 96
1900.....	258, 514, 000, 000	. 98

There is no evidence to prove, more than that represented to you on the preceding page, viz, that our Wealth is to-day \$55,000,000,000, and hence it is impossible to muster the courage to magnify its volume to a greater degree in order to reach Mr. Wells; but upon the volume given in the Diagram you may rely as the minimum estimate.

What will be our Wealth in 1890 or 1900 depends entirely upon the wisdom or weakness evinced at this time by our statesmen, and upon your recommendation; whether it approximates to the enormous estimate above or deteriorates to a lower basis than enjoyed to-day.

The wealth of nations, France and Italy conspicuous examples, has before been dissipated as easily as the wealth of individuals; and here it is apropos to quote again from the Royal Agricultural Commission Report, which says:

It is safe to say that for the last two years the agriculture of America has been at the very flood tide of its prosperity. How long that tide will flow till it begins to ebb, it is not my province to speculate upon; but as certain as the sea breaks over the rock-bound shore, so surely it recedes again and leaves dry ground behind it. Thus in agriculture, as prosperity floods upon us, some have to meet an evil day.

This is from an official paper of Great Britain of only two months since:

Upon your honorable Commission then, gentlemen, rests a heavy responsibility. It may influence good or evil results by wise or unwise presentation of our condition to our statesmen, who await the evidence you have gathered and the recommendations you may have to make.

THE INFLUENCES OF OUR INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

There is no influence so great upon International Relations as a Merchant Marine, and yet in this we are impotent, while every other Nation of prominence is awakening to the importance of revival in strength and activity.

Prince Bismarck has sounded the tocsin for Germany, and says:

On the day the freight trade is given over to foreigners a mortal blow will be dealt to all the industries of the country. It would be an anomaly, from a national standpoint, to cede the transport trade to industrial rivals. In choosing those to export home products people expose themselves to all kinds of foul play, not only in competition, but also to adulteration of goods.

This is from the Chancellor of Germany; and he adds:

*It is deserving of serious consideration whether, under the circumstances as given, German shipping and German commerce can hope for further prosperous development as against the competition of other nations aided by public funds and assistance.**

France has redoubled her national support to ship-building and ship-owning:

The foundation to a further subsidized French steam line has been laid simultaneously with the promulgation of the law for granting general privileges to the merchant service. In consideration of the circumstance that the French flag is not adequately represented in Australian waters, that the share of the French trade to and from Australia does not assume dimensions corresponding to the importance of France, that new markets were to be opened there to French industry, and that the present moment was a most favorable one, as France had gained a footing in the exhibition of Sydney and Melbourne; in view of all these circumstances it was determined to open a subsidized line of steamers from France to Australia, with a communication to New Caledonia. This line would, for the present, arrange for thirteen voyages there and back per annum, and receive for this a subsidy to the amount of \$336,900, it being reserved later on to double the voyages with a corresponding increase of subsidies.

Italy has just made a large appropriation, as shown in official document No. 24 "Consular Reports," p. 507, as follows:

PROPOSED BOUNTIES TO ITALIAN SHIPBUILDERS.

I. For the construction of the hulls of iron steamships there shall be accorded the following bounties: Up to 100 tons burthen, \$6 per ton; up to 800 tons burthen, \$8 per ton; above 800 tons burthen, \$12 per ton.

For the machinery the bounty will be \$12 per horse-power, nominal, and \$1.20 for 224 pounds weight of boilers.

The privilege of exemption from duty, provided by the law of 1872, will be removed, so that if the builder shall import his materials, in whole or in part, he will pay duties the same as in other industries. For repairs, exemption of materials from duties will continue, whether the ships be national or foreign, for the reason that such work cannot be valued so as to apply the system of bounties.

II. A bounty of 10 cents per ton of net cargo for every 1,000 miles run, whether in over-sea voyages or "grand" coasting, *i. e.*, every voyage beyond either the Dardanelles, Canal of Suez, or the Straits of Gibraltar. This bounty to be extended also to all sailing vessels not over 15 years old. The bounty will be diminished yearly $\frac{1}{10}$ th for steamships and $\frac{1}{20}$ th for sailing vessels.

III. Steamships and sailing vessels not receiving bounties shall be exempt from income (*ricchezza mobile*) tax.

IV. Harbor dues (*tassa d' ancoraggio*) will be lessened for steamships and increased for sail.

V. All written instruments concerning the construction or sale of ships shall not be subjected hereafter to a proportionate tax, but to a fixed duty of 20 cents. All taxes will be removed from licenses and other instruments prescribed by the code of the mercantile marine.

VI. The tax on insurance will be reduced.

Consul Crain, of Milan, comments on the above timely action in the following forcible manner:

"It has been said that these measures are intended only as a defense

* For the full Appeal of Prince Bismarck for subsidy, as essential for German shipping, see Consular Reports, No. 9.

against the French bounty act of January, 1881; but after a careful perusal of the testimony taken by the commission, I can draw no such conclusion. Rather does it appear that a deep conviction possesses the Italian mind that a nation, to be truly great commercially and politically, must be strong in ships and steamers; that its own flag must pioneer its trade; that a strong mercantile marine is the necessary adjunct of a strong navy, and that both give weight at the council board of nations. The lessons of Tunis and Alexandria will strengthen this conviction.

"In its commercial aspects, at least, if not in its political, the judgment formed by this commission, after a patient and exhaustive investigation, should receive the careful consideration of the government and people of the United States.

"To us the subject is of great concern, for, with our resources, Congress, by proper legislation, may accomplish two objects of transcendent importance: it may revive our commercial marine, and at the same time insure the laying down of our surplus crops in the marts of Europe at a cost that will secure them there a permanent market. Thus the industry of agriculture will be protected; and, backed by the farmer, no party and no statesman need hold back."

Mexico, Austria, and Russia, have also been aroused recently to the necessity of national subvention to steamships.

We are told that the decadence of our shipping is due to our Tariff.

Then why, if a Tariff is destructive to a ship, is it not also to our iron interests? They are analogous cases, yet who will have the courage to say our Iron Industry has been injured thereby?

Did a tariff of three cents per pound destroy the development of cotton? Has a tariff on tobacco, on wool, or on silks, destroyed those Industries in our country or developed them?

The Hon. Mr. Tucker, of Virginia, claims that our tonnage advanced until 1860, but the official records show that the highest point reached in our Shipbuilding Industry was in 1855, 583,450 tons; and declined as follows, 1856, 469,393 tons; 1857, 378,804 tons; 1858, 242,286 tons; 1859, 156,601 tons; 1860, 212,892 tons. So also the highest point in tonnage owned in the United States was, in 1856, viz: 5,681,394 tons.

Our Shipping was destroyed under a low Tariff, and by those advocating a low tariff, by men who had large interests at stake in England and receiving advances therefrom on their Cotton product.

The distinguished member from Virginia also asks—

Does free trade destroy shipping? Does protection advance it? If so, why does free-trade England outstrip protective France and the United States?

The Parliamentary Papers of Great Britain abound with evidence in abundance in the records from 1836 to 1860. Neither "Free Trade nor Protection" have anything more to do with the profits of ship-owning than the system of Oxford has upon morality in our country.

English ship-owners do not make their profits from "free trade" in England, but by carrying for others (ourselves especially) who did not possess the foresight of her statesmen or fostering care of her Board of Admiralty, the bounteous aid of national subventions, the monopoly of the British Lloyds, and British Consuls as Steamship Agents, and British financial houses in every part of the world.

Iron was first used for shipbuilding, in England, in 1836. (The first registered at "Lloyd's" were the *Sirius*, 1837, and *Ironside*, 1838). In 1840 it was earnestly advocated, but not until some years after adopted "in deference to the Right Honorable First Lord of the Admiralty,

then Chancellor of the Exchequer." Iron was not perfectly utilized for some years after. The knowledge, however, was acquired, and British statesmen foresaw the advantage and *abolished their navigation laws in 1849, to invite the world thither to a ship market*, because the monopoly was already established.

It was at a period when our country was disturbed by disunion dissensions, and a crisis anticipated, that Mr. Toombs, of Georgia (principally), led others in our National Chambers to sympathize with British vs. American shipping at that period (1856), as shown above, when our Merchant Marine was struck an unnatural blow and deserted at the moment of the grandest contest between Great Britain and our country.

Industry is more powerful than warfare, and, strong in iron and backed by the British Exchequer, Great Britain drove us from the high seas five years before our civil conflict. The British historian, Mr. Lindsay, tells the reason "why England outstripped the United States" in shipping:

"Under such circumstances, unusual efforts were necessary to maintain our (British) position as the FIRST of maritime nations. We had, however, one advantage which our American competitors did not possess. We had iron in abundance, and were directing our attention to the construction of iron ships, to be propelled by the screw. * * *

"It is a grand story to tell, one far more worthy of record than the wars for maritime supremacy between Rome and Carthage, or than, perhaps, some wars of more recent times, which, without any apparently useful object, have stained land and sea with the blood alike of the victorious and the vanquished, rendering desolate many a once happy home. The war I relate was a far nobler conflict, consisting as it did in the struggle between the genius, scientific skill, and industry of the People of two great nations, commenced, too, and continued throughout without bloodshed."

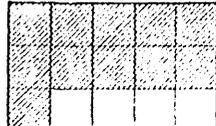
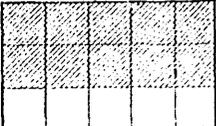
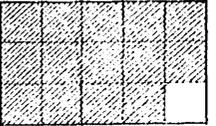
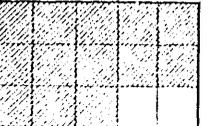
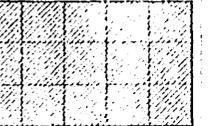
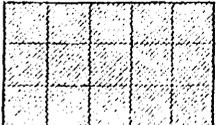
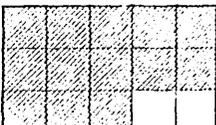
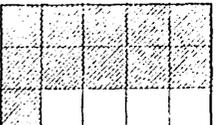
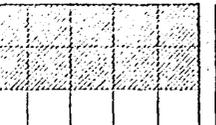
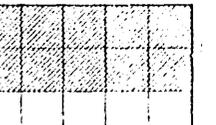
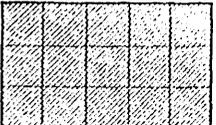
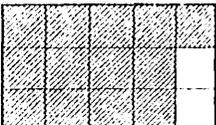
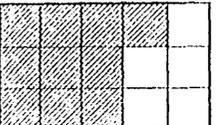
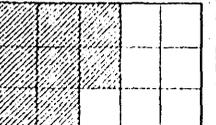
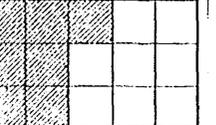
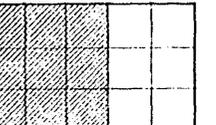
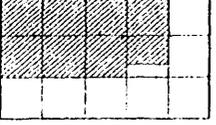
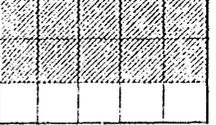
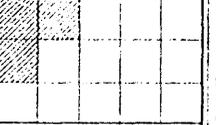
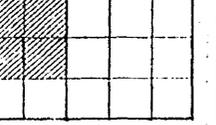
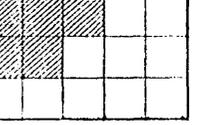
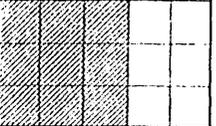
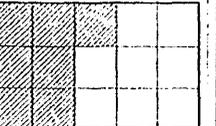
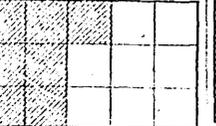
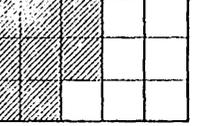
A regard for the memory of the late Mr. Lindsay, who so eloquently and truthfully inscribed the epitaph of the American ship, and the proud record of British Industry on the pages of England's history which Americans must remember and reread with the acute sting of chagrin that gnaws, from national mortification and national dependence until removed by national wisdom in re-establishing our former prestige—should hush the assertion in Parliament that the lost influence in our International Relations is due either to free trade or protection! it was due to iron—iron in the ore and iron in manufacture—floated for years by the British Exchequer.

Attempts of every character have been made in our halls of legislation and in the public press to hide the true cause of the prosperity of British Shipping and the true reasons for the decline of our own, and to try and confound the conditions of Shipping with the Tariff of Customs, but the truth is as indelibly written in history as the development of Industry that iron and national subvention are the chief cause of the former and neglect and abrogation of national faith the reasons for the latter.

England subsidizes now *three* Steamship companies alone to the amount of \$3,000,000 annually, and will unquestionably double us tomorrow, dollar for dollar, in such subventions wherever competition enters, and the only question is: What is the necessary amount? To answer that the amount would be illimitable would be as foolish as to assert that the youth had no benefit from fostering care in the long contest of life, but until our statesmen adopt this wise policy of England, we must bow our heads in humility and pay our tribute of \$150,000,000 yearly in maritime servitude to foreign countries.

Look at our Shipping conditions compared.

CONDITIONS, ADVANTAGES, AND DISADVANTAGES OF OUR MERCHANT MARINE COMPARED.

The Ship.	The United States.	Great Britain.	France.	Germany.	Russia.	Austria.
	1-10th more.	10-10ths.	4-10ths more	3-10ths more.	5-10ths more.	5-10ths more.
Ratio of cost in building (Taking Great Britain as the standard.)						
	15-15ths.	13-15ths.	11-15ths.	12-15ths.	10-15ths.	10-15ths.
Ratio of completeness in model and comfort.						
	30 years.	26 years.	20 years.	16 years.	14 years.	18 years.
Ratio of life in sea service (2 years to square.)						
Ratio of support by Government						
Ratio of Insurance advantage						
	Depreciated in foreign ports by foreign Underwriters.	Built up in "infancy" and growth by Government, and fostered additionally by British Lloyds, Consular and Banking facilities.	Fostered by Government as a national necessity.	See Prince Bismarck's Appeal, page 20.	Revival since 1880, by national subsidy.	Competing now with England, France, Italy, Russia, and Mexico in national subsidies.

These conditions are presented with proof at hand to substantiate the same.

France, Germany, Italy, Mexico, and other nations have just provided for having increased Subsidies to Mail Ships.

The United States Commercial Marine was destroyed in 1856-'57, under a low tariff, at a period when the disruption of the Union was anticipated.

Owing to subsidised competition and to partiality of the British Lloyds' Insurance agents in every foreign port in freight rates, the United States marine has never been able to recover the lost prestige: the Tariff had nothing to do with the decadence of our shipping.

The fostering care of the United States over her Merchant Marine can only be seen with a microscope; the neglect and shameful trifling therewith are indelibly written in our country's records—see appeals of Webster, Bayard, Badger, Rhett, Polk, &c., Congressional Globe, 1850-1856.

The two conspicuous features of Foreign Relations with all honorable nations are—

Self-Protection and
Good Faith in Reciprocal Treaties.

We have no Conventional Treaties binding us to a particular system with the principal nations; those existing are with smaller nations; but we have every reason to concede everything reasonable toward reciprocal international trade with all nations, especially to favor Great Britain, bound as we are by ties of consanguinity, and language, and Christianity.

There is nothing, however, more beneficial and developing to our Industries than the influences of international relations and competition.

Between Great Britain and our country there has been and will always be an industrial rivalry; and we earnestly echo the motto of the great British League, the Cobden Club, "Peace on earth"—in Industry as well as in Diplomacy—"good will among Nations."

Does this mean, however, subserviency, or does it even necessitate a resignation of our own interests, our own judgment, our own practical experience to that wisdom and foresight that have so peculiarly guided Great Britain?

Would it be consistent in us to accept such guidance merely for the gratification of foreign interests?

We are told by many Free-Trade advocates to-day that we would be blessed with greater prosperity were we to follow the advice and importuning of Mr. Bright and the Cobden Club, and is it not just to listen and consider this deep solicitation with appreciation?

Aside from preferences or dogmas of our own, let us listen to advice. Mr. Bright says, speaking of England:

In our protection days our weavers and artizans could not exchange with American flour; they exchanged with an English farmer, who gave them sometimes only half the quantity the American would have given.

Mr. Newton Crossland, a wealthy English farmer, replies:

There is a shallow plausibility in this passage (of Mr. Bright) which is calculated to deceive the unwary; it is a trap cunningly laid for the American mind, and I guess the game will be clever enough to detect the snare.

What does this mean? that our British friends are coaxing us into an economic snare?

Two years ago the Cobden Club flooded our country with an appeal "from the American Farmer's friend."

But last year, when Lord Derby and Sir Edward Sullivan, two of the few British land-owners, started a large following in favor of Protection, the Cobden Club flooded England with Mr. Medley's argument on "Reciprocity Craze," (which argued much more sensibly, frankly, and practically than "the friend of the American farmer"); urging the English people that they should reflect and weigh the facts carefully.

He says, under the seal of that club:

[SEAL:] COBDEN CLUB—FREE TRADE—PEACE—GOOD-WILL AMONG NATIONS.

Has any one ever seriously considered the possible effects, immediate and remote, which might arise? (from change in the economic policy of either country).

Among them would be—

1. A sudden and vast demand for labor at home.
2. A sudden and a great increase in wages.
3. A rapid increase in the number of our factories, workshops, mills, furnaces, &c.
4. A rampant speculation in everything connected with trade and manufactures.

5. A general rise in prices distressful to those with fixed incomes.
6. A rush of population from home and abroad to our manufacturing centers.
7. A stimulus given to marriage and population.
8. A demoralization of our laboring classes.
9. Strikes for an increase of wages.
10. The culmination of the foregoing.
11. The beginning of a reaction owing to the commencement of foreign competition.
12. The commencement of a fall in prices.
13. Labor disputes and strikes against the fall.
14. Progress of the fall in prices.
15. Failures of mill-owners and manufacturers; closing of mills and factories, and blowing out of furnaces.
16. Laborers thrown out of employment, and consequent increase of pauperism and crime.
17. Extreme depression takes place.
18. The usual healing courses have to be followed.
19. After some years of suffering things settle down pretty much as they were.

All this is based on the sudden opening of foreign ports. A gradual opening would, of course, modify the process, but the ultimate result would not be different. One of the results which would most probably happen is, that our population might be increased by two or three millions more than it otherwise would be. But then several questions arise, such as, "Would the nation then be absolutely or comparatively better off?"

Free Trade introduced into Protectionist countries *would disorganize their industries, ruin some of them, and cause a general displacement of capital and labor.* Effects the converse of those described as happening with us would take place with them. At last a basis would be found. Then would rise everywhere a real and keen competition with us.

Here, Gentlemen, are quoted three of the highest authorities of England as to what is, and what would be, the effect of Free Trade in foreign countries, especially in our own. It is far from siding with Protection or Free Trade; it is simply a duty to present to you from the highest British authority, from the Cobden Club, their insight, foresight, and correct sight of what would be the result of following the theories that were beautifully urged upon you by Professor Sumner, viz:

"Disorganization of our Industries—ruin to some."

No matter what "the reaction" after "a basis was found" should be, have you any right to disorganize all and ruin some of our industries because our English friends have induced some of our countrymen to lead for this spoliation to us and benefit to them?

Is it generous in Mr. Bright, as Mr. Crossland says, to deceive us? Is it noble in the Cobden Club, as Mr. Medley says, to induce our literary, collegiate and impracticable men to bring upon us "disorganization and ruin?"

One allusion further, as it bears with the greatest weight upon the work of the Tariff Commission, and if permitted to go unnoticed will convey in the loudest and boldest sounds a fallacy that will be prejudicial to our true economic conditions, and a false representation against all our Industries.

The Journals of this week contain the evidence that money is pouring in to break down our present laws and conditions, which are here reviewed upon official and reliable data only, and without partiality *pro or con.*

A gentleman sends to the President of a political Club \$1,000, and offers more to further his prejudices against the protection of American Industries in this country, and adds:

Free trade in England has given the workingman higher wages and yet has lowered his living expenses; but here, under protection, his living expenses have troubled, while his wages are scarcely changed. The wages of a cotton spinner are as high in England as they are here, yet the protectionist professes to be the special friend of

the factory hand. England is compelled to import largely both food for her people and raw material for her factories. Here we have both in abundance, so that with free trade we could undersell England and the world. To what greater advantages than these are manufacturers entitled?

The amount of \$1,000 is of little value compared with correct figures in an economic argument, and it is not correct that the wages of the cotton factories in England are, on an average, greater than in this country. Good spinners are in demand in England, and, as will be seen on page 1688, share in the dividend of profits, but there are fewer hands employed than in our country.

It is hardly just to make a comparison because of the different descriptions of employment in the two countries; but in addition to the authority quoted in the foregoing pages from Mr. Evarts's Report on Labor, it is well to add the following table as given in the "Cotton Report" of Ex-Secretary Blaine, which shows the true condition of wages in that industry:

*Wages and hours of labor in the cotton-mills of Massachusetts.**

	Goods manufactured.	Pay of spinners per week.		Pay of weavers per week.		Pay of piece weavers per week.*		Hours of labor.		
		Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Five days.	Saturday.	Per week.
COTTON.										
1	Cottonades	\$10 00	\$4 86			\$10 00	\$3 50	10	10	60
2	Cotton cloth	11 41	11 08	\$10 18	\$7 02	23 10		10	10	60
3do	8 50	3 50	8 50	4 20			10	10	60
4do	6 00	3 50	8 00	4 00			10	10	60
5do	9 00	3 00	10 00	4 50			10	10	60
6do	11 42		10 02	2 70			10	10	60
7	Cotton goods	11 01	0 00			9 70	3 50	10	10	60
8do	10 00	5 00	7 50	4 50			10	10	60
9do	10 00	5 00	7 00	4 00			10	10	60
10do	9 00	8 00	6 00	4 50			10	10	60
11do	9 50	7 25	10 71	5 81			10½	7½	60
12do	11 70	10 08	8 00	4 00			10½	8½	60
13do	12 00	8 00	11 00	7 50			10½	7½	60
14do							10	10	60
15do	10 00	0 00	7 20	4 50			10	10	60
16	Cotton goods and hosiery	0 00	6 00			9 00	3 60	10	10	60
17	Prints	9 60	8 40	9 00	4 50	9 00	4 50	10	10	60
18	Cotton and worsted goods	12 00	5 40	11 00	7 00			10	10	60
19	Cotton duck and yarn	4 20	3 65	10 00	4 00			10	10	60
20	Cotton flannel			9 00	3 50	0 00	3 50	10	10	60
21	Ginghams	10 00	7 50	10 00	6 00			10	10	60
22	Print cloths	13 36	10 25	10 08	5 04			10	10	60
23do	11 50	0 00			10 08	5 00	10	10	60
24do	9 00	7 00	7 00	4 00			10	10	60
25do	10 00	7 00	8 00	4 00			10	10	60
26do							10	10	60
27do	13 25	10 00			11 08	7 62	10½	7½	60
28do	10 02	9 70			9 52	6 20	10	10	60
29do	11 80	10 43	8 00	5 50			10	10	60
30	Sheetings, shirtings, &c	9 30	7 20	7 50	5 30			10	10	60
31	Sheetings, silsesias, and fancy cottons	9 00	4 50	8 25	6 00	9 50	7 00	10	10	60
32	Towels and cotton duck	6 00	3 50	7 00	4 00			10	10	60

Here it is seen that the highest wages to a spinner in this country range from \$10.08 to \$13.36, while in the table following of English rates the pay ranges from \$7.20 to \$12 with a reduction of 10%.

* Taken from official Report of Hon. C. A. Wright, Chief Bureau of Statistics; see also Appendix for comment on "Piece-Work" Labor.

WAGES OF ENGLISH FACTORY OPERATIVES.

The following average earnings per day of operatives in the Consular district of Manchester have been carefully prepared, and represent fairly the wages of this great manufacturing center.

Average earnings per day in an East Lancashire cotton-weaving mill.

[Hours of labor, 56 per week.]

Weavers, 3 looms	\$0 64 to \$0 72	} Jan'y 1, 1880.—At present subject to a reduction of 10 per cent.
Weavers, 4 looms	80 to 96	
Weavers, 6 looms	1 20 to 1 44	} January 1, 1880.—At present subject to a reduction of from 5 to 10 per cent.
Weavers, children (half-timers).....	14	
Beamers or warpers	64 to 80	} At present subject to a reduction of from 5 to 10 per cent.
Winders	40 to 72	
Tapers or sizors	1 20 to 1 68	} At present subject to a reduction of from 5 to 10 per cent.
Tacklers or overlookers	1 12 to 1 68	
Engine-drivers and firemen.....	96 to 1 68	

Average earnings per day in an Oldham cotton and spinning mill.

[Hours of working, 56 per week.]

Mule overlookers	\$1 60 to \$2 00	
Carder	1 60 to 1 80	
Strippers	} 96	} Less 10 per cent.
Jobbers		
Grinders.....	} 72 to 84	} Now working on 15 per cent. reduction on these rates.
Drawing and slubbing hands.....		
Intermediate and roving hands.....	68 to 84	
Little tenders (full-time)	36	
Little tenders (half-time).....	16	

Average earnings per day in a Blackburn cotton-spinning mill.

[Hours of working, 56 per week.]

Spinning masters and carders	\$1 20 to \$2 00
Spinners.....	1 20 to 1 40
Piecers	46 to 56
Creolers	28 to 34
Rovers	58 to 66
Slubbers.....	50 to 60
Drawers	52 to 56
Grinders.....	85
Blow-room hands	48 to 85
Engine-drivers.....	84 to 2 00
Firemen	64 to 84

The employments represented by the lower rates of wages (say from 28 to 72 cents) are filled chiefly by women or girls and boys. In Haworth's mill, one of the largest and finest in this district, where 2,500 operatives are employed, 70 per cent. of these are women; 40 per cent. of the women are under twenty years of age, and 10 per cent. of them are under fifteen. This may be taken as approximating to the general average percentage of employment so far as sex and age are concerned.

FREE IMPORTATION RAISES PRICES.

Nor is it correct that low tariff reduces the cost of an article.

In 1871 we abolished the tariff on Coffee, but instead of a fall in price, that workingmen might buy, it went up in Brazil at once, and so high that the difference equalized the rate of the Tariff before.

In 1872 we abolished the duty on Tea, and likewise the price rose to the same rate as with the duty.

In 1874 we admitted Coal from Nova Scotia free, yet immediately the price rose, to the benefit of the Nova-Scotians.

In 1879 we abolished the duty on quinine, to which more detailed reference is made on page 1707; and yet it retained the former value, or very

close thereto, and also shut out our manufactories of same from its manufacture.

PROTECTION REDUCES PRICES.

It is unnecessary to cite Iron and Bessemer Rails; you are fully informed upon these items, but the principle herein maintained has never been more clearly presented than in the following table, from a recent speech of the Hon. Mr. Carlisle, in Congress, which shows that protective duty has forced the prices down first in England and then in the United States:

Years.	Price in Eng-land, free on board.		English price.	Price of Amer-ican steel rails in gold.	Difference in price.	Rate of duty.	
	£	s.				Percent.	Per ton.
1804	17	12	\$85 65	\$148 50	\$62 85	45
1805	10	7	70 50	127 50	47 04	45
1806	14	10	70 50	117 50	46 04	45
1807	13	10	65 70	113 28	47 58	45
1808	12	12	61 32	105 00	43 88	45
1809	11	6	54 00	97 38	42 80	45
1870	10	7	50 37	91 17	40 80	45
1871	11	0	51 00	91 18	36 10	\$28 00
1872	13	18	67 04	98 43	30 70	28 00
1873	10	9	80 05	103 01	33 00	28 00
1874	13	2	08 75	85 76	17 01	28 00
1875	0	2	44 28	59 75	14 97	28 00
1876	0	12	32 12	44 97	12 75	28 00
1877	0	0	20 20	42 08	12 88	28 00
1878	5	5	25 55	42 00	16 45	28 00
1879	5	10½	26 88	48 25	21 37	28 00
1880	7	1½	31 36	67 50	33 14	28 00
1881	6	10	31 53	60 00	28 47	28 00
1882	6	7½	31 10	57 00	25 00	28 00

Chalk, Cottons, Glycerine, Licorice, and other articles, offer the same proof, as will be seen in Appendix.

LABOR CONSUMES PROFIT.

We have seen on page 1688 that labor in the United States produces double the value in the aggregate volume of Manufacturing as in Great Britain, but this fact should not cause us to lose sight of many of our youngest Industries that are struggling for existence against great odds in rates of Interest and Labor, upon which especial argument is made in Appendix.

THE TARIFF LAW.

The League recognizes the delicacy of attempting to improve a law of so important a nature, and with great hesitancy makes the following suggestions generally rather than definitely in this necessarily limited manner, regretting that time does not permit a longer consideration and more deliberate reflection, to make a revision "*verbatim et punctatim*," in a clear and complete manner, necessary to guard hereafter against the ambiguity and complexity peculiar at present.

Before coming to our Schedules and the revisions thereof, let us note in detail some points in our Tariff that have not only perplexed our officials and business men in many ways, but also the Courts of the country.

CONTRADICTORY DECISIONS OF CONTROVERTIBLE QUESTIONS.

It is frequently asked if the decisions of the Treasury Department become part of the Revised Statutes. Fortunately *not*, for such rulings are more frequently reversed and unjust than the precedents of our courts. To this important subject especial attention is asked to a review thereof in Appendix, under "Tariff Tribunals."

SIMPLIFICATION.

There are many of these points susceptible of simplification by a little modification or alteration, and others that appear remediable, but which upon careful study and experience prove to the contrary.

First of all is the determination of

VALUATION.

In mixed goods especially, the difficulty should be alleviated by determining the value *by the chief material* of the article; by this system the article will protect itself or else result in benefit to the home industry, and protection against fraud. For instance, if the superior article is mixed with inferior thread and the foreign importer objects to the highest rate of value, it will tend to stop the inferior goods from entering into competition with pure American goods; or if there is any demand for mixed goods, let our own manufactures have that privilege rather than permit the injustice of unfair competition.

The simplest proposition would be that so earnestly and for so long a time advocated by Mr. David M. Stone, of New York, viz, to make a uniform rate for all textiles; but that is impracticable, for it is evident that it would be unfair to rate cotton goods, with the immense yield of this home product, in uniformity with silk, a foreign product; nor would it be fair to our silk-manufacturers to depreciate their value to one much lower by an average of the two rates; and so, also, with woollens. By giving the mixed article the value of its *chief material*, as above suggested, it seems at least the most equitable solution.

VERIFICATION OF VALUE.

The United States Consuls make Quarterly returns of Certified Invoices of all goods shipped from their Consular Districts.

A decided improvement and great assistance can be effected by the Consuls of the United States abroad in forwarding monthly or weekly, instead of quarterly, certified invoices and prices current. It is now a quarterly system and very imperfect for the purpose intended. But provision should be made by Congress to compensate our Consuls sufficiently that they may employ clerks to do this extra work. These statements should be reduced in valuation to United States money, and equivalents in weight likewise, and supplied to every Collector and Appraiser weekly; such a system would bring continually the desired aid in the verification of the values specified in the Invoice, and save the merchant the annoyance and often advance of a large sum unnecessarily taken from him, and held by Government sometimes for months.

This would greatly relieve also the necessity of

REFUNDING,

which was referred to, with evidence, in official document entitled—

"CUSTOMS' DUTIES REFUNDED,"

in the preliminary argument before the Commission, pages 1679 and 1680.

TRANSITION.

In the matter of revision there will be found, particularly, a new Schedule. Under Sundries, Schedule M, there is, at present, a most conglomerate and ridiculous mixture of Chemicals and Animals, Drugs and Food, Muskets and Malt, Diamonds and Oil, &c.

There is no Industry that embraces more articles than that of Chemicals.

It has been a desire, long before entering upon this work, to separate these articles from such a heterogeneous mass as at present; hence the following revision is submitted for your approval:

Schedule M,
Chemicals and Drugs,
and
Schedule N,
Sundries.

Schedules E and F have also been revised, viz:

Metals and Minerals,
and Breadstuff, Provisions, and Animals,

as seeming most proper and appropriate, and many other articles have been likewise transferred.

SCHEDULES.

SCHEDULE A.

COTTON GOODS.

It is earnestly recommended in this Schedule to make a simplification of rates by the abolition of the duplex system, viz, additional ad-valorem rates.

The objections to this complicated system come from all sides and from all parts of our country.

To show the public opinion in antipathy to this double duty, the following expression, from one of the most earnest friends of Industry in Congress, is cited.

Senator Morgan, of Alabama, said:

One of the most hurtful defects in the existing tariff is that it imposes both ad-valorem and specific duties, at rates purely arbitrary, upon a great number and variety of articles.

Complaint is made from every quarter against this feature of the present system, and this fact may lead us, or force us, as I hope it will, into a general and speedy revision of the tariff.

No single interest in the country is satisfied with the tariff in all respects.

This concession, if made, will tend to disarm all honest complainants, and exhibit not only a spirit of generosity, but also contribute greatly to the simplification of our Tariff without injury to the Industry.

The Schedule covers an Industry second in perfection and prosperity of all the Industries of our country. It is beyond dependence, for its product is unexcelled in the world.*

It is a reasonable concession, as will be seen, and abolishes the duplex system.

SCHEDULE B.

EARTHS AND EARTHENWARES.

Under this Schedule there are several Industries embraced; but there has been a remarkable evidence of unanimity in the opinion that the protection of the raw material entering into each Industry has unques-

* See Appendix, same heading.

tionably decreased its price. For instance, in China Clay, or Kaolin, which enters into the manufacture of Pottery, China, Encaustic Tiles, and Ultramarines, &c., the price has decreased gradually, and benefited not only the manufacturers of these industries, but also the public generally.

In view of this fact, so forcibly illustrated in the experience and testimony of these purchasing parties, it seems the more remarkable, in the reports of testimony before the Tariff Commission, only last Saturday, at Philadelphia, an appeal in favor of abolishing the rate upon this article made by Professor Sumner, who is doubtless not aware that—

The price that Kaolin, or China clay, brought in England was	\$1 28 per foot.
And is now reduced by the home competition with the English article to	0 40 per foot.

Follow the theoretical idea of removing the duty therefrom, and in two months our manufacturers will be required to pay again, when the home supply is short, \$1.28 per foot, or perhaps more.

The contrast here presented is so astonishing, not as an argument for the system of Free Trade or Protection, but in view of the dissemination of fallacy so prejudicial to the development of our natural resources, national interests, and our Industrial savings, that it is necessary to call it to your attention to-day, in the presence of these gentlemen, who are buyers from abroad of the one crude material, China Clay, for example, and who have hundreds of thousands of dollars at stake against the chimerical doctrines of one who burns the midnight oil, not in practical Industry, but over the time-honored but now dead literature of Adam Smith, Say, Ricardo, and Bastiat.

Does it not argue a sad prospect for the economic training of our youth, whose growing thoughts are being educated to such illogical argument and denied the benefit in early life of broad-minded judgment and common-sense principles?

In this Schedule there has been reduction and increase, according to necessity; but the average will remain about the same as at present, viz, 43 per cent. There is appended hereto a communication setting forth the conditions of this Industry to which your attention is called for further consideration. (See Appendix.)

SCHEDULE C.

HEMP, JUTE, AND FLAX.

In this Industry so important to Agriculture as well as Manufacture, the rates, happily harmonized in Convention, have been made by one accord the rates of the League.

The increased rate proposed is absolutely essential to save the invested capital and continue this great Industry, which has been too long neglected.

It is submitted as an increase of about 10 per cent. on the total sum or value of imports under this Schedule.

It is shown in the Appendix that a vast quantity of flax is now carelessly destroyed in our country; and, in contrast thereto, your attention is called to the impoverishment thereof in Germany, and the necessary repeal of duty thereupon.

[Translation.]

AN ACT in relation to an amendment of the customs tariff of the German customs territory. Approved June 6, 1880.

We, William, by the grace of God German Emperor, King of Prussia, &c., do ordain in the name of the empire, by and with the consent of the Federal Council and the Diet, as follows, viz:

SOLE SECTION. The customs tariff provided for by the act in relation to the customs tariff of the German customs territory and the revenues derived from customs and taxes on tobacco, approved July 15, 1879 (Imperial Bulletin of Laws, p. 207), is hereby amended as follows:

No. 8. "Flax and other vegetable materials for spinning, with the exception of cotton, raw, dried, broken, or hackled, or as waste—free."

The clause added to No. 22 a of the customs tariff, which reads: "Jute, manila, hemp, cocoa-fiber, raw, dried, broken, or hackled—free," is hereby repealed.

In witness our own imperial hand and the imperial seal thereto affixed.

Done at Berlin the 6th day of June, 1880.

[L. S.]

WILHELM.
BISMARCK.

SCHEDULE D.

LIQUORS AND WINES.

In this Schedule the League make no change except for the protection of American Wines and Brandies and protection against foreign adulteration.

SCHEDULE E.

METALS AND MINERALS.

With the exceptional changes specified, the League have found the rates determined upon at the Oresson Springs Convention the most harmonious to their body, and most earnestly recommend the reclassification and phraseology as presented to your body by the American Iron and Steel Association.

Upon Iron Ore, however, it is earnestly submitted, with arguments in Appendix, that a duty of \$2 per ton be placed, and the special attention of your honorable body is invited hereto.

SCHEDULE F.

BREADSTUFFS, PROVISIONS, AND ANIMALS.

The addition of Animals under this Schedule, as more appropriate, is asked, and an increased duty on Rice, Barley, and English biscuit. The remainder stands intact, at the request of the Produce Exchange, New York. (See Appendix, under the same heading.)

SCHEDULE G.

SUGARS.

The importance of this Schedule is seen in the enormous returns of Revenue, yielding a national income of nearly \$50,000,000. The abolition of the duplex rates is strongly urged, and specific rates given.

That Sugar should have sufficient protection is unquestionable, especially in view of the prospect of the future and certain development of the Beet-Root Sugar Industry, which is very certain also to attract the interest of the East and West, an evidence of which will be found in the argument under Appendix.

The State Law of New Jersey now includes a section granting a bounty in encouragement of its cultivation, which is producing good results, viz:

"An act to encourage the manufacture of sugar in the State of New Jersey," which offers a bounty of \$1⁰⁰ for every ton (of 2,000 pounds) of beets, sorghum, amber, or other sugar-cane raised by any farmer in the State and manufactured into sugar in the State." The act also provides, "That the sum of one cent per pound upon all merchantable sugar made within the State, from beets, sorghum, amber, or other sugar-cane grown within the State, shall be paid by the treasurer of the State to any person or persons who shall establish a plant or sugar manufactory within the State, and shall manufacture sugar from beets, sorghum, amber, or other cane raised in the State," &c.

SCHEDULE H.

SILKS AND SILK GOODS.

In this Industry there is a disposition to a slight reduction, but also a counter-element desiring the present rates to remain *in statu quo*; hence the average given as the proposed rate in Digest is considered most likely to harmonize the extremes.

The remarkable development within the last few years of the cultivation of the Silk Worm in the South has opened a new Industry in that locality, as a companion to the new Industry of the Sugar Beet in the East and West. It is known to be the intention of Southern Senators to introduce a protective clause for the cultivation of the worm, and for reeled silk; it is therefore recommended to place upon this Schedule a rate of 10 per cent. for raw and reeled silk, and it is hoped that the Southern States will follow the example of the North, and indeed the South in early days of cotton, and enact a bounty-law, similar to that for the encouragement of the Beet-Root Sugar Industry, for the development of so important a product.

It is most opportune to give the views of the Agricultural Department, as prepared by Professor Riley, and appended, page 107.

As much as \$200,000 to \$300,000 worth of cocoons at a time are shipped across our continent from China to France, to enable the latter country to reap the profit of re-exporting here in made-up goods.

SCHEDULE I.

SPICES.

Slight changes are found to be desired, but the small quantity entering into retail business renders the change hardly perceptible.

SCHEDULE J.

TOBACCO.

Remains intact. Suggested changes recommended by the League regarding tobacco pertain to Internal Revenue. See pages 1762, 1763.

SCHEDULE K.

WOODS.

The transition of several articles from Sundries to this Schedule is recommended, especial attention is asked for the argument given in Appendix for the protection of our timber by admitting free a consumption from Canada while our young forests are growing.

SCHEDULE L.

WOOL AND WOOLENS.

To this Schedule the League has given especial care, and received that advice that can only come from practical experience and sound judgment.

The conditions of this Industry are clearly set forth in a communication to the League—see Appendix. In this paper it will be seen that we are capable of producing nearly all the wools needed for our home consumption, and the demand for those peculiar wools not produced in the United States is not sufficiently great to cause us inconvenience.

“If any special kind of clothing or combing wools cannot be raised here it is either very unimportant or a substitute for it may be found among our own wools.” The changes made in the rates of the Schedule are equitable and reasonable, and the League thinks will claim the acceptance of all disposed to a mutual adjustment and improvement of our Tariff law.

SCHEDULE M.

CHEMICALS AND DRUGS.

The present disorder and conglomerate mass of all kinds of articles under this Schedule has been permitted too long, and it is earnestly recommended to improve this condition by making this Schedule of “Chemicals and Drugs” only. Under these heads come many of our most important articles, and the revision thereof is essential.

Many enumerated articles are now obsolete, and many new ones have taken their places, which are specified in Digest, pages 62–68.

Under this Schedule there are several articles to which the League beg the careful consideration of your honorable body, which are set forth in detail and submitted with especial request for your consideration.

QUININE.

There is no article entering the Chemical Industry of greater importance or of more universal interest than quinine, and the more generally its full conditions are known the greater benefit will be derived from it by our people generally.

The misunderstanding of the influences affecting this article and the trade of the bark, as well as the manufacture and sale of the Quinine salts, is so great that it is very necessary to present to the public in the true light the injury done to themselves by the abolition of the tariff rate.

No more unbiased expression could be given concisely, than the following extract from the Monthly Reports of the Department of State, No. 6, April, 1881, page 632:

Quinine.—Whether the admission of this article free of duty is advantageous to the people of the United States is a question for careful study. Consul Randall, of Sabanailla, writes as follows:

"In the late consul's report you see what he says will be the result on the trade in quinia bark, and how the reduction would affect the movement of the article to the States. You will appreciate the accuracy of this prediction by comparing the following statement:

	Bales,
"Peruvian bark shipped to New York in 1879	33,560
"Peruvian bark shipped to New York in 1880	19,794
	<hr/>
'Decrease in bales shipped	13,766
'Decrease in value shipped	\$688,300

"This represents the raw material, which would be augmented greatly before reaching the consumer in merchantable form. The loss of this trade will be more seriously felt in the future, as new quinia fields have recently been discovered and a very large amount of capital invested to develop the business. The output next year will undoubtedly be increased to a very large amount, and will find its market in Europe, there manufactured, and consumed in the United States. This is the direct result of the free-trade success on this item of the United States tariff. Fortunately the loss in the quinia trade is more than balanced by increased production, and the introduction and corresponding increased activity caused by the competition of foreign capital."

In order also to exhibit to your honorable body the disadvantages operating against this Industry in our country, the following statement is submitted herewith:

Statement of the discrimination against American quinine, with bark averaging 10 ounces to the 100 pounds.

	Per cent.
Cost of bark	70
Cost of solvents, alkali, &c., dutiable	12
Cost of wages	12
Interest on plant, wear and tear of same	6
	<hr/>
	100
The taxes and duties upon solvents (alkali, &c.), increase the manufacturing cost more than 40 per cent., say	\$4 80
Increased cost of wages over those of Europe, probably 50 per cent., say 25 per cent	3 00
Increased cost of plant, say 30 per cent	1 80
	<hr/>
	9 60

About 10 per cent. upon the whole manufacturing cost, so that manufacturers in the United States cannot produce quinine from the bark within 10 per cent. of the cost incurred by European manufacturers.

In consideration, therefore, of these facts and conditions, the League deems it proper to respectfully urge upon your attention for favorable action a duty of 10 per cent. thereon, believing that the country will, on being advised of these facts, approve your judgment.

This is one of the absurdities of our Tariff which should be immediately corrected, wherein a tax is laid on the raw material while the manufactured article is admitted free.

CASTOR OIL.

In respect to this most important Drug and its manufacture the League would ask particular consideration.

Its conditions are these, viz:

East India is the great foreign seat of this manufacture, and the disadvantages of its manufacture in this country are great.

Labor there is from 9 to 18 cents per day;

here from \$1.75 to \$2, ordinary hand per day;

and \$5 to \$8 for head men per day,

showing a disadvantage of 1500 per cent.

Until recently this important article was made and imported from East Indies exclusively.

Its fresh condition is very necessary to the public, and the importance of home manufacture is therefore unquestionable.

The capital invested in the plant for this manufacture in this country is some \$850,000.

The League earnestly petitions that due protection be retained for this outlay and for this most valuable and new Industry in our country.

Its manufacturers are ready to concede a reduction of 40 cents of the present rate, viz, \$1 per gallon, and accept 60 cents in concession to the general desire to cut down all rates of the Tariff where possible.

It is not possible, however, for this Industry to stand with a less rate than 60 cents per gallon; the business would be entirely destroyed, and is presented in a forcible manner in a letter thereupon—see Appendix, to which your attention is asked for information in detail, and from which the following is taken.

Without the rate of protection above stated the communication says:

The business would be entirely destroyed and the factories and machinery rendered worthless by reason of the superior facilities which foreign manufacturers of Castor Oil enjoy, and which would enable them to deliver their Oil in this country at a price which would drive the American Oil from the market, and ruin the domestic industry.

Should this be the case, and the American public be made again the dependents upon a foreign article, it is hardly necessary to point out the picture of all such analogous cases; the price of the foreign article would at once advance from a monopoly in trade, and cost more than it does now. The figures and proof bearing especially upon this article are clearly and completely set forth in the paper referred to above.

SCHEDULE N.

SUNDRIES.

Under this head the League has endeavored to leave all articles that cannot properly be placed under the preceding Schedules. This will necessarily change the order of the Paragraphs, but will not affect the order alphabetically. Such changes will be recognized by the interruption of the serial number. Particular attention is also urgently requested to arguments prepared and added in Appendix to substantiate the revision made by the League in the following Digest.

CONCLUSION.

In conclusion, the League desires that it may be considered that where no change has been suggested no change has been deemed wise, unless reasons exist unknown at present. This revision is submitted with expressions of sincere interest and watchful anxiety for the result of your responsible and trying duties, believing that whatever changes you may in your conclusions present before the statesmen that control the destiny of our conditions in personal and national relations to our Industries, your recommendations will greatly contribute to the revision of our economic laws, and it is with sanguine hope that such results are anticipated.

SYNOPSIS OF REVISION.

The following is a synopsis of the League's revision:

SCHEDULES.

- A. A rational reduction and abolition of the duplex system.
- B. Increase and decrease.
- C. An increase essential, and recommended.
- D. Protection to American Wines. See also Internal Revenue.
- E. Material changes. Protection to Iron Ore.
- F. Slight modification.
- G. Simplifications. Same average rates.
- H. Protection to Silk culture and reeling.
 - I. Revised.
 - J. See Internal Revenue.
- K. Protection to—by abolishing duty on—Lumber.
- L. Simplification and consistent revision.
- M. Chemicals exclusively, thoroughly revised.
- N. New Schedule, Sundries. Transfer of articles.

FREE LIST.

Articles added:

Acid, Tannic.	Hatters' plush.
Arrowroot.	Iodine, salts of.
Asphaltum.	Lead, nitrate of.
Assafœtida.	Oil, bay or laurel.
Balsams (all).	Paraffine.
Barytes, nitrate of.	Parchment.
Beeswax.	Pitch.
Bladders, manufactures.	Resin and rosin.
Bronze Powder.	Saltpetre, crude.
Cobalt, oxide of.	Smalts.
Drugs, medicinal, crude, not otherwise provided for.	Sponges.
Fusel oil.	Turpentine, spirits of.
Hair pencils.	Watch Jewels.

INTERNAL REVENUE.

Material changes recommended; abolition of tax upon most of the items at present specified.

SHIPPING.

The revival of our Merchant Marine is earnestly recommended as necessary for the protection of American trade-marks, the purity of American products, and the preservation of American honor.

In our industries at home as well as in our credit abroad there is no source of personal employment and national pride so great as ship-building. Let Congress properly give subvention to our Mail Transports, and the demand for American built ships will immediately prove the fallacy and absurdity of the imputation that "Americans cannot build ships," and the foolish assertion that a tariff on 5 per cent. of the ship's cost—crude material—could affect the conditions of our shipping community.

A TARIFF TRIBUNAL.

An equitable court, composed of the United States Commissioner of Customs, a representative selected from merchants or manufacturers, and a third arbitrator selected by both, similar to the provision of the Tariff law of France (see Appendix), is earnestly recommended.

*DIGEST OF THE TARIFF REVISION, LAWS, SCHEDULES, AND RATES OF
THE UNITED STATES.*

PREPARED AND PROPOSED BY

THE METROPOLITAN INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.

[Revised Statutes. Title XXXIII.—Import Duties.]

LAWS.

OBSCENE ARTICLES—PROHIBITED FROM IMPORTATION.

SECTION 2491. All persons are prohibited from importing into the United States, from any foreign country, any obscene book, pamphlet, paper, writing, advertisement, circular, print, picture, drawing, or other representation, figure, or image on or of paper or other material, or any cast, instrument, or other article of an immoral nature, or any drug or medicine, or any article whatever, for the prevention of conception, or for causing unlawful abortion. No invoice or package whatever, or any part of one, in which any such articles are contained shall be admitted to entry; and all invoices and packages whereof any such articles shall compose a part are liable to be proceeded against, seized, and forfeited by due course of law. All such prohibited articles in the course of importation shall be detained by the officer of customs, and proceedings taken against the same as prescribed in the following section: *Provided*, That the drugs hereinbefore mentioned, when imported in bulk and not put up for any of the purposes hereinbefore specified, are excepted from the operation of this section. [See Section 1785.]

MODE OF PROCEDURE.

Sec. 2492. Any judge of any district or circuit court of the United States, within the proper district, before whom complaint in writing of any violation of the preceding section is made, to the satisfaction of such judge, and founded on knowledge or belief, and, if upon belief, setting forth the grounds of such belief, and supported by oath or affirmation of the complainant, may issue, conformably to the Constitution, a warrant directed to the marshal, or any deputy marshal, in the proper district, directing him to search for, seize, and take possession of any such article or thing hereinbefore mentioned, and to make due and immediate return thereof, to the end that the same may be condemned and destroyed by proceedings, which shall be conducted in the same manner as other proceedings in case of municipal seizure, and with the same right of appeal or writ of error.

NEAT CATTLE.

Sec. 2493. The importation of neat cattle and the hides of neat cattle from any foreign country into the United States is prohibited: *Provided*, That the operation of this section shall be suspended as to any foreign country or countries, or any parts of such country or countries, whenever the Secretary of the Treasury shall officially determine, and give public notice thereof, that such importation will not tend to the introduction or spread of contagious or infectious diseases among the cattle of the United States; and the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized and empowered, and it shall be his duty, to make all necessary orders and regulations to carry this law into effect, or to suspend the same as therein provided, and to send copies thereof to the proper officers in the United States, and to such officers or agents of the United States in foreign countries as he shall judge necessary.

NEAT CATTLE—WHEN PERMITTED.

Sec. 2494. The President of the United States, whenever in his judgment the importation of neat cattle and the hides of neat cattle may be made without danger of the introduction or spread of contagious or infectious disease among the cattle of the United States, may, by proclamation, declare the provisions of the preceding section to be inoperative, and the same shall be afterward inoperative and of no effect from and after thirty days from the date of said proclamation.

NEAT CATTLE—PENALTY.

SEC. 2495. Any person convicted of a willful violation of any of the provisions of the two preceding sections *shall be fined not exceeding \$500, or imprisoned not exceeding one year, or both, in the discretion of the court.*

WATCH MOVEMENTS; SIMULATED—PROHIBITION OF.

SEC. 2496. No watches, watch-cases, watch-movements, or parts of watch-movements, of foreign manufacture, which shall copy or simulate the name or trade-mark of any domestic manufacturer, shall be admitted to entry at the custom-houses of the United States, unless such domestic manufacturer is the importer of the same. And in order to aid the officers of the customs in enforcing this prohibition, any domestic manufacturer of watches who has adopted trade-marks may require his name and residence and a description of his trade-marks to be recorded in books which shall be kept for that purpose in the Department of the Treasury, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe, and may furnish to the department facsimiles of such trade-marks; and thereupon the Secretary of the Treasury shall cause one or more copies of the same to be transmitted to each collector or other proper officer of the customs.

GOODS IN FOREIGN VESSELS—AGAINST IMPORTATION.

SEC. 2497. No goods, wares, or merchandise, *unless in cases provided for by treaty,* shall be imported into the United States from any foreign port or place, except in vessels of the United States, or in such foreign vessels as truly and wholly belong to the citizens or subjects of that country of which the goods are the growth, production, or manufacture; or from which such goods, wares, or merchandise can only be, or most usually are, first shipped for transportation. All goods, wares, or merchandise imported contrary to this section, and the vessel wherein the same shall be imported, together with her cargo, tackle, apparel, and furniture, shall be forfeited to the United States; and such goods, wares, or merchandise, ship or vessel, and cargo shall be liable to be seized, prosecuted, and condemned, in like manner, and under the same regulations, restrictions, and provisions as have been heretofore established for the recovery, collection, distribution, and remission of forfeitures to the United States by the several revenue laws.

SPECIFICATION OF THE ABOVE.

SEC. 2498. The preceding section shall not apply to vessels, or goods, wares, or merchandise, imported in vessels of a foreign nation which does not maintain a similar regulation against vessels of the United States.

ARTICLES RESEMBLING THOSE ENUMERATED, AND MANUFACTURED FROM TWO OR MORE MATERIALS.

SEC. 2499. There shall be levied, collected, and paid, on each and every non-enumerated article which bears a similitude, either in material, quality, texture, or the use to which it may be applied, to any article enumerated in this title, as chargeable with duty, the same rate of duty which is levied and charged on the enumerated article which it most resembles in any of the particulars before mentioned; and if any non-enumerated article equally resembles two or more enumerated articles, on which different rates of duty are chargeable, there shall be levied, collected, and paid, on such non-enumerated article, *the same rate of duty as is chargeable on the article which it resembles paying the highest duty;* and on all articles manufactured from two or more materials, the duty shall be assessed at the highest rates at which any of its component parts may be chargeable.

GOODS REIMPORTED.

SEC. 2500. Upon the reimportation of articles once exported, of the growth, product, or manufacture of the United States, upon which no internal tax has been assessed or paid, or upon which such tax has been paid and refunded by allowance or drawback, there shall be levied, collected, and paid a *duty equal to the tax imposed by the internal-revenue laws upon such articles.*

GOODS OF COUNTRIES EAST OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, BUT IMPORTED DIRECT FROM PLACES WEST THEREOF.*

SEC. 2501. There shall be levied, collected, and paid on all goods, wares, and merchandise, of the growth or produce of the countries east of the Cape of Good Hope (except wool, raw cotton, and raw silk, as reeled from the cocoon, or not further advanced than tram, thrown, or organzino), when imported from places west of the Cape of Good Hope, a duty of 10 *per centum ad valorem* in addition to the duties imposed on any such article when imported directly from the place or places of their growth or production.

GOODS IMPORTED ON FOREIGN VESSELS.

SEC. 2502. A discriminating duty of 10 *per centum ad valorem*, in addition to the duties imposed by law, shall be levied, collected, and paid on all goods, wares, and merchandise which shall be imported on vessels not of the United States; but this discriminating duty shall not apply to goods, wares, and merchandise which shall be imported in vessels not of the United States, entitled, by treaty or any act of Congress, to be entered in the ports of the United States on payment of the same duties as shall then be paid on goods, wares, and merchandise imported in vessels of the United States.

SCHEDULES.

SPECIAL RATES OF DUTY.

SEC. 2503. There shall be levied, collected, and paid upon all articles mentioned in the schedules contained in the next section, imported from foreign countries, the rates of duty which are by the schedules respectively prescribed.

* To be restored, as necessary to the protection of American shipping in *direct* trade. Its elimination from the statutes at the last session of Congress was a great outrage to American interests.

SCHEDULE A.
COTTON GOODS.

1714

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[INT. INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.]

Present paragraph No.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valorem.	Specific.	Ad valorem.
1	Sec. 2504. On all manufactures of cotton (except jeans, denims, drillings, bed-tickings, gingham, plaids, cottonades, pantaloon stuff, and goods of like description) not bleached, colored, stained, painted, or printed, and not exceeding one hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, and exceeding in weight five ounces per square yard.	Per square yard.	\$0 05	<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>
	If bleached	do	05½	} and 10	}	35
	If colored, stained, painted, or printed	do	05½			40
2	On finer and lighter goods of like description, not exceeding two hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, unbleached.	do	05	} and 20	}	45
	If bleached	do	05½			50
	If colored, stained, painted, or printed	do	05½			
3	On goods of like description, exceeding two hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, unbleached.	do	05	} and 20	}	45
	If bleached	do	05½			50
	If colored, stained, painted, or printed	do	05½			
4	On cotton jeans, denims, drillings, bed-tickings, gingham, plaids, cottonades, pantaloon stuffs, and goods of like description, or for similar use, if unbleached, and not exceeding one hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, and exceeding five ounces to the square yard.	do	06	} and 10	}	35
	If bleached	do	06½			40
	If colored, stained, painted, or printed	do	06½			
5	On finer or lighter goods of like description, not exceeding two hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, if unbleached.	do	06	} and 15	}	40
	If bleached	do	06½			45
	If colored, stained, painted, or printed	do	06½			
6	On goods of lighter description, exceeding two hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, if unbleached.	do	07	} and 15	}	40
	If bleached	do	07½			45
	If colored, stained, painted, or printed	do	07½			
	And, in addition thereto, fifteen per centum ad valorem: <i>Provided</i> , That upon all plain woven cotton goods, not included in the foregoing schedule, unbleached, valued at over sixteen cents per square yard; bleached, valued at over twenty cents per square yard; colored, valued at over twenty-five cents per square yard, and cotton jeans, denims, and drillings, unbleached, valued at over twenty cents per square yard, and all				35	35

<p>other cotton goods of every description, the value of which shall exceed twenty-five cents per square yard, there shall be levied, collected, and paid a duty of. <i>And provided further,</i> That no cotton goods having more than two hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, shall be admitted to a less rate of duty than is provided for goods which are of that number of threads 35.</p>						
7	Cotton thread, yarn, warps, or warp-yarn, not wound upon spools, whether single or advanced beyond the condition of single by twisting two or more single yarns together, whether on beams or in bundles, skeins, or cops, or in any other form, valued at not exceeding forty cents per pound.	Per pound	10	} and 20 {	45	
	Valued at over forty cents per pound and not exceeding sixty cents per pound	do	20			50
	Valued at over sixty cents per pound and not exceeding eighty cents per pound	do	30			55
	Valued at over eighty cents per pound	do	40			50
8	Spool-thread of cotton, containing on each spool not exceeding one hundred yards of thread	Per dozen	06	} and 30 and 35 {	60	
	Exceeding one hundred yards for every additional hundred yards of thread on each spool or fractional part thereof, in excess of one hundred yards.	do	06			60
9	Cotton cords, gimps, and galloons and cotton laces, colored			35	35	
10	Cotton shirts and drawers, woven or made on frames, and on all cotton hosiery			35	35	
11	Cotton velvet			35	35	
12	Cotton braids, insertings, lace, trimming, or bobbinet, and all other manufactures of cotton, not otherwise provided for.			35	35	

SCHEDULE B.
EARTHS AND EARTHENWARES.

1716

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[MET. INDUSTRIAL TRADES.]

Present para- graph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
13	Brown earthenware and common stoneware, gas retorts, stoneware not ornamented			<i>Per cent.</i> 25		<i>Per cent.</i> 25
14	China, porcelain, and parian ware, gilded, ornamented, or decorated in any manner			50		60
15	China, porcelain, and parian ware, plain white, and not decorated in any manner. On all other earthen, stone, or crockery ware, white, glazed, edged, printed, painted, dipped, or cream-colored, composed of earthy or mineral substances, and not otherwise provided for.			45		45
				40		40
16	Stoneware above the capacity of ten gallons			20		20
	[Spurs and stilts used in the manufacture of earthen, stone, or crockery ware, free of duty.]					
17	Slates, slate-pencils, slate chimney-pieces, mantels, slabs for tables, and all other manufactures of slate			40		40
		Roofing slates		35		35
18	Unwrought clay, pipe-clay, fire-clay	Per ton	5 00		\$2 50	
19	Kaoline	do	5 00		3 50	
20	On fullers' earth	do	3 00		3 00	
21	Red and French chalk			20		20
22	Chalk of all descriptions, not otherwise provided for			25		25
23	Whiting and Paris white	Per pound	01		00½	
24	Whiting ground in oil	do	02		01½	
25	Paris white ground in oil	do	01½		01½	
26	All plain and mold and press glass not cut, engraved, or painted			35		35
27	All articles of glass, cut, engraved, painted, colored, printed, stained, silvered, or gilded, not including plate- glass silvered, or looking-glass plates.			40		40
28	All unpolished, cylinder, crown and common window-glass, not exceeding ten by fifteen inches square	do	01½		01½	
		do	02		02	

	Above that and not exceeding twenty-four by thirty inches square	do	02½	02½	
	All above that	do	03	03	
29	Cylinder and crown glass, polished, not exceeding ten by fifteen inches square	Per square foot.	02½	02½	
	Above that and not exceeding sixteen by twenty-four inches square	do	04	04	
	Above that and not exceeding twenty-four by thirty inches square	do	05	06	
	Above that and not exceeding twenty-four by thirty inches square	do	20	20	
	All above that	do	40	40	
30	Fluted, rolled, or rough plate-glass, not including crown, cylinder, or common window-glass, not exceeding ten by fifteen inches square	Per 100 sq. feet..	75	75	
	Above that and not exceeding sixteen by twenty-four inches square	Per square foot.	01	01	
	Above that and not exceeding twenty-four by thirty inches square	do	01½	01½	
	All above that	do	02	02	
	<i>And all fluted, rolled, or rough plate-glass, weighing over one hundred pounds per one hundred square feet, shall pay an additional duty on the excess at the same rates herein imposed.</i>				
31	Cast polished plate-glass, unsilvered, not exceeding ten by fifteen inches square	Per square foot.	03	03	
	Above that and not exceeding sixteen by twenty-four inches square	do	05	05	
	Above that and not exceeding twenty-four by thirty inches square	do	08	08	
	Above that and not exceeding twenty-four by sixty inches square	do	25	25	
	All above that	do	50	50	
32	Cast polished plate-glass, silvered, or looking-glass plates, not exceeding ten by fifteen inches square	do	04	04	
	Above that and not exceeding sixteen by twenty-four inches square	do	06	06	
	Above that and not exceeding twenty-four by thirty inches square	do	10	10	
	Above that and not exceeding twenty-four by sixty inches square	do	35	35	
	All above that	do	60	60	
	<i>But no looking-glass plates or plate-glass, silvered, when framed, shall pay a less rate of duty than that imposed upon similar glass of like description not framed, but shall be liable to pay in addition thereto upon such frame thirty per cent.</i>				
33	Glass bottles or jars filled with articles not otherwise provided for			30	30
34	Porcelain and Bohemian glass, glass crystals for watches, glass pebbles for spectacles, not rough; paintings on glass or glasses, and all manufactures of glass, or of which glass shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for, and all glass bottles or jars filled with sweetmeats or preserves, not otherwise provided for.			40	50
346	Encaustic tiles			35	35

SCHEDULE C.
HEMP, JUTE, AND FLAX GOODS.

Present para- graph, U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo rem.
35	Flax straw.....	Per ton.....	\$5 00	<i>Per cent.</i>	\$5 00	<i>Per cent.</i>
36	Flax not hackled or dressed.....	do.....	20 00		30 00	
37	Flax, hackled, known as "dressed line".....	do.....	40 00		50 00	
38	Hemp, manila, and other like substitutes for hemp, not otherwise provided for.....	do.....	25 00		25 00	
39	Tow of flax or hemp.....	do.....	10 00		15 00	
40	Jute, sunn, and Sisal grass, and other vegetable substances not enumerated, used for cordage.....	do.....	15 00		15 00	
	<i>(a. The duty on jute butts shall be</i> <i>Provided, That all machinery not now manufactured in the United States adapted exclusively to manufactures</i> <i>from the fiber of the ramie, jute or flax, may be admitted into the United States free of duty for two years from</i> <i>the first of July, eighteen hundred and seventy-five. And provided further, That bags other than of American</i> <i>manufacture, in which grain shall have been actually exported from the United States, may be returned empty</i> <i>to the United States free of duty, under regulations to be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury. Act of</i> <i>February 3, 1875, sec. 7.]</i>	do.....	6 00		6 00	
41	Brown and bleached linens, ducks, canvas, paddings, cot bottoms, diapers, crash, huckabacks, handkerchiefs, lawns, or other manufactures of flax, jute, or hemp, or of which flax, jute, or hemp shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for, valued at thirty cents or less per square yard.....				35	50
	Valued at above thirty cents per square yard.....				40	50
	Flax or linen yarns for carpets, not exceeding number eight Lea, and valued at twenty-four cents or less per pound.....				30	50
	Flax or linen yarns valued at above twenty-four cents per pound.....				35	50
	Flax or linen thread, twine and pack-thread, and all other manufactures of flax, or of which flax shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for.....				40	50
42	Thread lace and insertings.....				30	50
43	On all burlaps, and like manufactures of flax, jute, or hemp, or of which flax, jute, or hemp shall be the com- ponent material of chief value, excepting such as may be suitable for bagging for cotton.....				30	50
44	Oil-cloth foundations or floor-cloth canvas, made of flax, jute, or hemp, or of which flax, jute, or hemp shall be the component material of chief value.....				40	50

	Gunny-cloth, not bagging, valued at ten cents or less per square yard	Per pound	03		50
	Over ten cents per square yard	do	04		50
45	On bagging for cotton, or other manufactures, not otherwise herein provided for, suitable to the uses for which cotton bagging is applied, composed in whole or in part of hemp, jute, flax, gunny-bags, gunny-cloth, or other material, and valued at seven cents or less per square yard.	do	02		50
	Valued at over seven cents per square yard	do	03		50
46	Bags, cotton bags, and bagging, and all other like manufactures, not herein otherwise provided for (except bagging for cotton), composed wholly or in part of flax, hemp, jute, gunny-cloth, gunny-bags, or other material.	do		40	50
47	Tarred cables or cordage	do	03	03	
48	Untarred manila cordage	do	02½	02½	
49	All other untarred cordage	do	03½	03½	
50	Hemp yarn	do	05		50
51	Seines	do	06½	and 10	50
52	Sail duck or canvas for sails, in yards			30	50
53	Russia and other sheetings of flax or hemp, brown and white			35	50
54	All other manufactures of hemp, or of which hemp shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for.			30	50
55	Grass cloth			30	50
56	Jute yarns			25	50
57	All other manufactures of jute or Sisal grass, not otherwise provided for			30	50

SCHEDULE D.
WINES AND LIQUORS.

1720

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[INT. INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.]

Present para- graph R. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo-rem.	Specific.	Ad valo-rem.
58	Wines imported in casks, containing not more than twenty-two per centum of alcohol, and valued at not exceeding forty cents per gallon.	Per gallon	\$0 25	} <i>Per cent.</i> and 25	\$0 50	} <i>Per cent.</i>
	Valued at over forty cents, and not over one dollar per gallon	do	60		75	
	Valued at over one dollar per gallon	do	1 00		1 00	
	On all still wines imported in casks	do	40		50	
59	Wines of all kinds, imported in bottles, and not otherwise provided for: the same rate per gallon as wines imported in casks. <i>But all bottles containing one quart, or less than one quart and more than one pint, shall be held to contain one quart, and all bottles containing one pint or less shall be held to contain one pint, and shall pay in addition for each bottle.</i>	Per bottle	03		05	
	<i>[a. On all still wines imported in bottles, per case of one dozen bottles.</i>	Per case	1 60		1 60	
	<i>Containing each not more than one quart and more than one pint, or twenty-four bottles, containing each not more than one pint; and any excess beyond those quantities found in such bottles shall be subject to a duty of five cents per pint or fractional part thereof.</i>	Per pint	05		05	
	<i>But no separate or additional duty shall be collected on the bottles: Provided, That any wines imported containing more than twenty-four per centum of alcohol shall be forfeited to the United States: Provided also, That there shall be an allowance of five per centum and no more, on all effervescing wines, liquors, cordials, and distilled spirits in bottles, to be deducted from the invoice quantity in lieu of breakage.</i>					
60	<i>SEC. 3. That all imported wines of the character provided for in the preceding section which may remain in public store or bonded warehouse on the day this act shall take effect shall be subject to no other duty upon the withdrawal thereof or consumption than if the same were imported after that day: Provided, That any such wines remaining on shipboard within the limits of any port of entry in the United States on the day aforesaid, duties unpaid, shall, for the purposes of this section, be considered as constructively in public store or bonded warehouse. Act of February 8, 1875.]</i>					
	Champagne and all other sparkling wines, in bottles, containing each not more than one quart and more than one pint.	Per dozen	6 00		6 00	
	Containing not more than one pint each, and more than one-half pint	do	3 00		3 00	
	Containing one-half pint each, or less	do	1 50		1 50	
	And in bottles containing more than one quart each, shall pay, in addition to six dollars per dozen bottles, at the rate, on the quantity in excess of one quart per bottle of.	Per gallon	2 00		2 00	
	But any liquors containing more than twenty-two per centum of alcohol, which shall be entered under the name of wine, shall be forfeited to the United States. And wines, brandy, and other spirituous liquors imported in bottles shall be packed in packages containing not less than one dozen bottles in each package; and all such bottles shall pay an additional duty of.	Per bottle	03		05	
No allowance shall be made for breakage unless such breakage is actually ascertained by count and certified by a custom-house appraiser.	See ¶ 59					

61	Brandy and other spirits manufactured or distilled from grain or other materials, and not otherwise provided for. <i>Each and every gauge or wine-gallon of measurement shall be counted as at least one proof-gallon; and the standard for determining the proof of brandy and other spirits, and of wine or liquors of any kind imported, shall be the same as that which is defined in the laws relating to internal revenue.</i> But any brandy or other spirituous liquors imported in casks of less capacity than fourteen gallons shall be forfeited to the United States.	Per proof-gallon.	2 00	2 00
62	On all compounds or preparations of which distilled spirits is a component part of chief value, there shall be levied a duty not less than that imposed upon distilled spirits.	See above.		
63	Cordials, liqueurs, arrack, absinthe, kirschwasser, ratafia, and other similar spirituous beverages, or bitters containing spirits, and not otherwise provided for.	Per proof-gallon.	2 00	2 00
64	No lower rate or amount of duty shall be levied, collected, and paid, on brandy, spirits, and other spirituous beverages, than that fixed by law for the description of first proof, but it shall be increased in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of first proof; and no brandy, spirits, or other spirituous beverages under first proof shall pay a less rate of duty than. And all imitations of brandy, or spirits, or of wines imported by any names whatever, shall be subject to the highest rate of duty provided for the genuine articles respectively intended to be represented, and in no case less than.	Per gallon	1 00	1 50
65	Ale, porter, and beer, in bottles	do		35
	Otherwise than in bottles	do		20
66	Vermuth: the same duty as on wines of the same cost.	See ¶ 59		

SCHEDULE E.
METALS AND MINERALS.

1722

Present para- graph, S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
147	Iron ore.....	Per ton.....		<i>Per cent.</i> 20	\$2 00	<i>Per cent.</i>
67	Iron in pigs.....do.....	\$7 00		8 00	
68	Bar-iron, rolled or hammered, comprising flats not less than one inch or more than six inches wide, nor less than three-eighths of an inch or more than two inches thick; rounds not less than three-fourths of an inch nor more than two inches in diameter; and squares not less than three-fourths of an inch nor more than two inches square.	Per pound.....	01		01	
	Bar-iron, rolled or hammered, comprising flats less than three-eighths of an inch or more than two inches thick, or less than one inch or more than six inches wide; rounds less than three-fourths of an inch or more than two inches in diameter; and squares less than three-fourths of an inch or more than two inches square.do.....	01½		01½	
	But all iron in slabs, blooms, loops, or other forms, less finished than iron in bars, and more advanced than pig-iron, except castings, shall be rated as iron in bars, and pay a duty accordingly; and none of the above iron shall pay a less rate of duty than.do.....		35		35
69	Moisic iron, made from sand-ore, by one process..... [a. The duty on Moisic iron, of whatever condition, grade, or stage of manufacture, shall be the same as on all other species of iron of like condition, grade, or stage of manufacture. Act of February 8, 1875, sec. 6.]	Per ton.....	15 00		15 00	
70	Iron bars for railroads or inclined planes.....	Per 100 pounds..	70		70	
	Weighing thirty pounds or less to a yard.....	Per pound.....			01	
71	Boiler or other plate-iron not less than three-sixteenths of an inch in thickness.....do.....	01½		01½	
72	Boiler and other plate-iron, not otherwise provided for.....	Per ton.....	25 00		25 00	
73	Iron wire, bright, coppered, or tinned, drawn and finished, not more than one-fourth of an inch in diameter, not less than number sixteen wire-gauge.	Per 100 pounds..	2 00		2 50	
	Over number sixteen and not over number twenty-five wire-gauge.....do.....	3 50	and 15	4 00	
	Over or finer than number twenty-five wire-gauge.....do.....	4 00	and 15	4 50	
	But wire covered with cotton, silk, or other materials shall pay, additional to the above.....	Per pound.....	05		05	
74	Round iron in coils, three-sixteenths of an inch or less in diameter, whether coated with metal or not so coated, and all descriptions of iron wire, and wire of which iron is a component part, not otherwise specifically enumerated and provided for, shall pay the same duty as iron wire, bright, coppered, or tinned.	See iron wire.....				
75	Wire spiral furniture springs, manufactured of iron wire.....	Per pound.....	02	and 15	02½	15

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[MET. INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.]

76	Smooth or polished sheet-iron, by whatever name designated.....	.do	03	03	
77	Sheet-iron, common or black, not thinner than number twenty, wire-gauge.....	.do	01½	01½	
	Thinner than number twenty and not thinner than number twenty-five, wire-gaugedo	01½	01½	
	Thinner than number twenty-five, wire-gauge.....	.do	01½	02	
78	Band, hoop, and scroll iron from one-half to six inches in width, not thinner than one-eighth of an inch.....	.do	01½	01½	
79	Band, hoop, and scroll iron from one-half to six inches wide, under one-eighth of an inch in thickness, and not thinner than number twenty, wire-gauge.....	.do	01½	01½	
80	Band, hoop, and scroll iron thinner than number twenty, wire-gauge.....	.do	01½	01½	
81	Slit rods	do	01½	01½	
82	Other descriptions of rolled or hammered iron, not otherwise provided fordo	01½	01½	
83	Handsaws, not over twenty-four inches in length.....	Per dozen	75	} and 30 {	50
	Over twenty-four inches in length.....	.do	1 00		75
84	Backsaws, not over ten inches in length.....	.do	75	} and 30 {	50
	Over ten inches in lengthdo	1 00		75
85	Files, file-blanks, rasps, and floats of all descriptions, not exceeding ten inches in length	Per pound	10	} and 30 {	40
	Exceeding ten inches in length.....	.do	06		50
86	Penknives, jack-knives, and pocket-knives of all kinds			50	50
87	Sword-blades.....			35	35
88	Swords			45	45
89	Needles for knitting or sewing machines.....	Per thousand	1 00	and 3	65
90	Iron squares marked on one side.....	Per pound	03	} and 30 {	35
	All other squares of iron or steel.....	.do	06		40
91	All manufactures of steel, or of which steel shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for..... <i>But all articles of steel partially manufactured, or of which steel shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for, shall pay the same rate of duty as if wholly manufactured.</i>	Per ton		45	20 00
92	Steel railway-bars	Per pound	01½		01
93	Railway-bars made in part of steeldo	01		01
	And metal converted, cast, or made from iron by the Bessmer or pneumatic process, of whatever form or description, shall be classed as steel.				
94	Locomotive tires, or parts thereof.....	.do	03		03
95	Mill-irons and mill-cranks of wrought iron, and wrought iron for ships, steam-engines, and locomotives, or parts thereof, weighing each twenty-five pounds or more.....	.do	02		02

SCHEDULE E, *Metals and Minerals*—Continued.

Present para- graph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo-rem.	Specific.	Ad valo-rem.
96	Anvils	Per pound	\$0 02½	<i>Per cent.</i>	\$0 02½	<i>Per cent.</i>
	Cables, or cable-chains, or parts thereof	do	02½		02½	
	<i>Provided, That no chains made of wire or rods of a diameter less than one-half of one inch shall be considered a chain-cable.</i>					
97	Chains, trace-chains, halter-chains, and fence-chains, made of wire or rods, not less than one-fourth of one inch in diameter.	do	02½		02½	
	Less than one-fourth of one inch in diameter and not under number nine, wire-gauge	do	03		03	
	Under number nine, wire-gauge			35		35
98	Anchors, or parts thereof	Per pound	02½		02½	
99	Blacksmiths' hammers and sledges, axes, or parts thereof, and malleable iron in castings, not otherwise provided for.	do	02½		02½	
100	Wrought-iron railroad-chairs, and wrought-iron nuts and washers, ready punched	do	02		02½	
101	Bed-screws and wrought-iron hinges	do	02½		02½	
102	Wrought board-nails, spikes, rivets, and bolts	do	02½		02½	
103	Steam, gas, and water tubes and flues of wrought-iron	do	03½		03½	
104	Cut nails and spikes	do	01½		01½	
105	Horseshoe nails	do	05		05	
106	Cut tacks, brads, or sprigs, not exceeding sixteen ounces to the thousand	Per thousand	02½		02½	
	Exceeding sixteen ounces to the thousand	Per pound	03		03	
107	Screws, commonly called wood-screws, two inches or over in length	do	08		07	
	Less than two inches in length	do	11		10	
	Less than one inch in length	do			13	
108	Screws of any other metal than iron, and all other screws of iron, except wood-screws	do		35	as 9107	
109	Vessels of cast-iron, not otherwise provided for, and on andirons, sadirons, tailors' and hatters' irons, stoves and stove plates, of cast-iron.	do	01½		01½	

110	Cast-iron steam, gas, and water pipe	do	01½		01½	
111	Cast-iron butts and hinges	do	02½		02½	
112	Hollow ware, glazed or tinned	do	03½		03½	
113	Cast scrap-iron of every description	Per ton	6 00		8 00	
114	Wrought scrap-iron of every description	do	8 00		8 00	
	<i>But nothing shall be deemed scrap-iron except waste or refuse iron that has been in actual use, and is fit only to be remanufactured.</i>					
115	All other castings of iron, not otherwise provided for			30	30	
116	Taggers' iron			30	35	
117	Steel, in ingots, bars, coils, sheets, and steel wire, not less than one-fourth of one inch in diameter, valued at six cents per pound or less.	Per pound	02½	} and 10	35	
	Valued at above six cents and not above ten cents per pound	do	03		35	
	Valued at above ten cents per pound	do	03½		35	
118	Steel wire less than one-fourth of an inch in diameter and not less than number sixteen, wire-gauge.	do	02½	} and 20	35	
	Less or finer than number sixteen, wire-gauge	do	03		35	
119	Steel, commercially known as crinoline, corset, and hat steel wire	do	09	and 10	35	
120	Steel, in any form, not otherwise provided for			30	30	
	<i>On all steel bars, rods, strips, or sheets, which are cold-rolled, cold-hammered, or polished in any way in addition to the ordinary processes of hot rolling or hammering: one cent per pound in addition to the schedule of rates in the above paragraph.</i>					
121	Cross-cut saws	Per lineal foot	10		10	
122	On mill, pit, and drag saws, not over nine inches wide	do	12½		12½	
	Over nine inches wide	do	20		20	
123	Lead in sheets, pipes, or shot	Per pound	02½		02½	
124	Lead ore	do	01½		00½	
125	Lead in pigs and bars	do	02		01	
126	Old scrap-lead, fit only to be remanufactured	do	01½		00½	
127	Zinc, spelter, or tutenague, manufactured in block or pigs	do	01½		01½	
128	Zinc, spelter, tutenague in sheets	do	02½		02½	
129	On tin in plates or sheets and on terne and taggers' tin	do	01½		02½	
130	Iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal by electric batteries	do	02		02½	

SCHEDULE E, *Metals and Minerals*—Continued.

Present para- graph R. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
				<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>
131	Iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal otherwise than by electric batteries.....	Per pound.....	\$0 02½	\$0 02½
132	Copper imported in the form of ores, on each pound of fine copper contained therein.....	do.....	03	03
133	Regulus of copper, and on all black or coarse copper, on each pound of fine copper contained therein.....	do.....	04	04
134	Old copper, fit only for remanufacture.....	do.....	04	04
135	Copper in plates, bars, ingots, pigs, and in other forms, not manufactured or here enumerated.....	do.....	05	05
136	Copper in rolled plates, called braziers' copper, sheets, rods, pipes, and copper bottoms, and all manufactures of copper, or of which copper shall be a component of chief value, not otherwise provided for.	45	45
137	Sheathing or yellow metal not wholly of copper, nor wholly nor in part of iron, ungalvanized, in sheets forty-eight inches long and fourteen inches wide, and weighing from fourteen to thirty-four ounces per square foot. <i>Yellow sheathing-metal and yellow-metal bolts, of which the component part of chief value is copper, shall be deemed manufactures of copper, and shall pay the duty now provided by law for manufactures of copper, and shall be entitled to the drawback allowed by law to copper and composition-metal whenever the same shall be used in the construction or equipment or repair of vessels built in the United States for the purpose of being employed in the foreign trade, including the trade between the Atlantic and Pacific ports of the United States. Act of February 8, 1875, sec. 5.]</i>	Per pound.....	03	03
138	Nickel.....	do.....	30	30
139	Nickel oxide and alloy of nickel with copper.....	do.....	20	20
140	Gold-leaf, per package of five hundred leaves.....	Per package.....	1 50	2 00
	Silver-leaf, per package of five hundred leaves.....	do.....	75	75
141	Argentine, albata, or German silver, unmanufactured.....	35	35
142	Brass in bars or pigs, and old brass, fit only to be remanufactured.....	15	15
143	Dutch and bronze metal in leaf.....	10	10
144	Articles not otherwise provided for, made of gold, silver, German silver, or platina, or of which either of these metals shall be a component part.	40	40
145	Silver-plated metal, in sheets or other form.....	35	35

614	Manufactures, articles, vessels, and wares not otherwise provided for, of brass, iron, lead, pewter and tin, or other metal (except gold, silver, platina, copper, and steel), or of which either of these metals shall be the component material of chief value.			35		30
	<i>Cans or packages made of tin or other material containing fish of any kind admitted free of duty under any existing law or treaty, not exceeding one quart in contents, shall be subject to a duty.</i>	Per case or package.	01½		01½	
	<i>And when exceeding one quart, shall be subject to an additional duty for each additional quart, or fractional part thereof.</i>		01½		01½	
147	Metals, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for			20		20

SCHEDULE F.

BREADSTUFFS, PROVISIONS, AND ANIMALS.

Present para- graph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valc- rem.
269	<i>Animals*</i>			<i>Per cent.</i> 20		<i>Per cent.</i> 40
148	Beef	Per pound	\$0 01		\$0 01	
	Pork	do	01		01	
149	Hams and bacon	do	02		02	
150	Cheese	do	04		04	
151	Wheat	Per bushel	20		20	
152	Butter	Per pound	04		04	
	Eggs	Per dozen			01	
153	Lard	Per pound	02		02	
154	Rye	Per bushel	15		15	
	Barley	do	15		25	
277	<i>Barley, pearl or milled</i>	Per pound	01		01	
155	Indian corn or maize	Per bushel	10		10	
156	Oats	do	10		10	
157	Fish:					
	Mackerel	Per barrel	2 00		2 00	
	Herrings, pickled or salted	do	1 00		1 00	
	Pickled salmon	do	3 00		3 00	
	All other fish pickled, in barrels	do	1 50		1 50	
	All other foreign-caught fish imported otherwise than in barrels or in half-barrels, or whether fresh, smoked or dried, salted or pickled, not otherwise provided for.	Per 100 pounds..	50		50	
158	Salmon, preserved			30		30
159	Anchovies and sardines, preserved in oil or otherwise			50		50
	<i>On anchovies and sardines, packed in oil or otherwise, in tin boxes</i>	Per whole box ..	15		15	

	<i>Measuring not more than five inches long, four inches wide, and three and one-half inches deep</i>	Each half box...	07½	07½	
	<i>Measuring not more than five inches long, four inches wide, and one and five-eighths inches deep</i>	Each quarter box.	04	04	
	<i>Measuring not more than four inches and three-quarters long, three and one-half inches wide, and one and one-half inches deep; when imported in any other form. * * *</i>			60	60
160	Fish preserved in oil, except anchovies and sardines			30	30
161	Corn-meal			10	10
162	Oat-meal	Per pound	00½	00½	
163	Rye-flour			10	10
164	Rice, cleaned	Per pound	02½	03	
	Rice, uncleaned	do	02	02½	
165	Paddy	do	01½	02	
166	Capers, pickles, and sauces of all kinds, not otherwise provided for			35	35
167	Catsup			40	40
168	Preserved or condensed milk			20	20
169	Patatoes	Per bushel	15	15	
170	Vegetables, not otherwise provided for			10	10
171	Prepared vegetables, meats, fish, poultry, and game, sealed or unsealed, in cans or otherwise			35	35
172	Vinegar	Per stand. gall.	10	10	
	<i>English biscuits</i>			25	

* See Appendix under same heading.

SCHEDULE G.

SUGARS.

Present para- graph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
173	Sugar, not above number seven, Dutch standard in color.....	Per pound.....	\$0 01½	<i>Per cent.</i> and 25	\$0 02	<i>Per cent.</i>
174	Sugar, above number seven and not above number ten, Dutch standard in color.....	do.....	02	and 25	02½
175	Sugar, above number ten and not above number thirteen, Dutch standard in color.....	do.....	02½	and 25	02½
176	Sugar, above number thirteen and not above number sixteen, Dutch standard in color.....	do.....	02¾	and 25	03¼
177	Sugar, above number sixteen and not above number twenty, Dutch standard in color.....	do.....	03½	and 25	04
178	Sugar, above number twenty, Dutch standard in color, and on all refined loaf, lump, crushed, powdered, and granulated sugar. But sirup of sugar, sirup of sugar-cane juice, melado, concentrated melado, or concentrated molasses, entered under the name of molasses shall be forfeited to the United States.	do.....	04	and 25	04½
179	Sugar-candy, not colored.....	do.....	10	10
180	All other confectionery, not otherwise provided for, made wholly or in part of sugar, and on sugars after being refined, when tinctured, colored, or in any way adulterated, valued at thirty cents per pound or less.	do.....	15	15
181	Confectionery, valued above thirty cents per pound, or when sold by the box, package, or otherwise than by the pound.	50	50
182	Molasses.....	Per gallon.....	05	and 25	06
183	Tank-bottoms, sirup of sugar-cane juice, melado, concentrated melado, and concentrated molasses.....	Per pound.....	01½	and 25	02

SCHEDULE H.
SILK AND SILK GOODS.

Present paragraph R. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valorem.	Specific.	Ad valorem.
				<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>
184	Silk, raw or reeled Silk in the gum not more advanced than singles, tram, and thrown or organzine (see 192)			Free.		10
				35		35
185	Spun silk for filling in skeins or cops (see 192)			35		35
186	Floss silks (see 192)			35		35
187	Sewing-silk in the gum or purified (see 192)			40		40
188	Silk twist, twist composed of mohair and silk (see 192)			40		40
189	Dress and piece silks, ribbons, and silk velvets, or velvets of which silk is the component material of chief value (see 192).			60		60
190	Silk vestings, pongees, shawls, scarfs, mantillas, pelerines, handkerchiefs, veils, laces, shirts, drawers, bonnets, hats, caps, turbans, chemisettes, hose, mits, aprons, stockings, gloves, suspenders, watchchains, webbing, braids, fringes, galloons, tassels, cords, and trimmings, and ready-made clothing of silk, or of which silk is a component material of chief value (see 192).			60		60
191	Buttons and ornaments for dresses and outside garments made of silk, or of which silk is the component material of chief value, and containing no wool, worsted, or goats' hair (see 192).			50		50
192	Manufactures of silk, or of which silk is the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for			50		50
	[On spun silk for filling, in skeins or cops			35		35
	On silk in the gum, not more advanced than singles, tram, and thrown or organzine			35		35
	On floss-silks			35		35
	On sewing-silk, in the gum or purified			40		40
	On lastings, mohair cloth, silk twist, or other manufactures of cloth, woven or made in patterns of such size, shape, or form, or cut in such manner as to be fit for buttons exclusively.			10		10
	On all goods, wares, and merchandise not otherwise herein provided for, made of silk, or of which silk is the component material of chief value, irrespective of the classification thereof for duty by or under previous laws, or of their commercial designation.			60		60
	<i>Provided, That this act shall not apply to goods, wares, or merchandise which have, as a component material thereof, twenty-five per centum or over in value of cotton, flax, wool, or worsted.]</i>					

SCHEDULE I.

SPICES.

Present para- graph R. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
193	Pimento and black, white, and red or cayenne pepper	Per pound	\$0 05	<i>Per cent.</i>	\$0 05	<i>Per cent.</i>
194	Ground pimento and ground pepper of all kinds	do	10	15
195	Cinnamon	do	20	20
196	Mace	do	25	20
421	Mustard, ground, in bulk.....	do	10	06
	Mustard, inclosed in glass or tin.....	do	14	10
197	Nutmegs.....	do	20	15
198	Cloves	do	05	05
199	Clove-stems.....	do	03	03
200	Cassia	do	10	10
	Cassia vera	do	10	15
201	Cassia buds and ground cassia	do	20	15
202	All other spices.....	do	20	15
	All other spices, ground or prepared	do	30	30
203	Ginger, ground.....	do	03	03
204	Ginger, preserved or pickled	35	35
205	Essence of ginger.....	35	35

SCHEDULE J.

TOBACCO.

Present para- graph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo-rem.	Specific.	Ad valo-rem.
206	Cigars, cigarettes, and cheroots of all kinds..... <i>But paper cigars and cigarettes, including wrappers, shall be subject to the same duties as are herein imposed upon cigars.</i>	Per pound	\$2 50	<i>Per cent. and 25</i>	\$2 50	<i>Per cent.</i>
207	Tobacco in leaf, unmanufactured and not stemmed.....	do	35	35
208	Tobacco stems	do	15	15
209	Tobacco, manufactured, of all descriptions, and stemmed tobacco not otherwise provided for	do	50	50
210	Snuff and snuff-flour, manufactured of tobacco, ground, dry, or damp, and pickled, scented, or otherwise, of all descriptions.	do	50	50
211	Unmanufactured tobacco, not otherwise provided for	80	80

SCHEDULE K.

WOOD.

Present para- graph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
215	Lumber of any sort, planed or finished, for each side so planed or finished	Per M feet.....	\$2 50	<i>Per cent.</i>	\$2 50	<i>Per cent.</i>
	Planed on one side and tongued and grooved.....	do.....	3 00		3 00	
	Planed on two sides and tongued and grooved	do.....	3 50		3 50	
	Ship planking and handle bolts <i>free of duty.</i> Act of February 8, 1875, sec. 8.]					
216	Hubs for wheels, posts, last-blocks, wagon-blocks, oar-blocks, gun-blocks, heading-blocks, and all like blocks or sticks, rough-hewn or sawed only.....			20		20
217	Staves for pipes, hogaheads, and other casks.....			10		10
218	Staves, not otherwise provided for.....			20		20
219	Pickets and palings.....			20		20
220	Laths.....	Per M pieces	15		15	
221	Shingles.....	Per M.....	35		35	
222	Pine clapboards.....	do.....	2 00		2 00	
223	Spruce clapboards.....	do.....	1 50		1 50	
224	House or cabinet furniture, in pieces or rough, and not finished.....			30		30
225	Cabinet wares and house furniture, finished.....			35		35
226	Casks and barrels, empty, sugar-box shooks, and packing-boxes of wood, not otherwise provided for.....			30		30
227	Manufactures of cedar-wood, granadilla, ebony, mahogany, rosewood, and satin-wood.....			35		35
*	Manufactures of wood, or of which wood is the chief component part, not otherwise provided for.....			35		35

* 212, 218, 214, and 228 carried to Free List. See Appendix under same heading—explanatory.

SCHEDULE L.
WOOL AND WOOLEN GOODS.*

Present para- graph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo-rem.	Specific.	Ad valo-rem.
229	All wools, hair of the alpaca, goat, and other like animals, shall be divided for the purpose of fixing the duties to be charged thereon into the three following classes: CLASS 1.—CLOTHING WOOL.					
230	That is to say, merino, mestiza, metz or metia wools, or other wools of merino blood, immediate or remote; down clothing wools, and wools of like character with any of the preceding, including such as have been heretofore usually imported into the United States from Buenos Ayres, New Zealand, Australia, Cape of Good Hope, Russia, Great Britain, Canada, and elsewhere, and also including all wools not hereinafter described or designated in classes two and three. CLASS 2.—COMBING WOOLS.					
231	That is to say, Leicester, Cotswold, Lincolnshire, down combing wools, Canada long wools, or other like combing wools of English blood, and usually known by the terms herein used; and also all hair of the alpaca, goat, and other like animals. CLASS 3.—CARPET WOOLS AND OTHER SIMILAR WOOLS.					
232	Such as Donskoi, native South American, Cordova, Valparaiso, native Smyrna, and including all such wools of like character as have been heretofore usually imported into the United States from Turkey, Greece, Egypt, Syria, and elsewhere. The duty upon wool of the first class which shall be imported <i>washed</i> , shall be <i>twice the amount of the duty</i> to which it would be subjected if imported unwashed.					
233	And the duty upon wool of all classes which shall be imported <i>scoured</i> shall be <i>three times</i> the duty to which it would be subject if imported unwashed. And the duty upon wool of the sheep; or hair of the alpaca, goat, and other like animals, which shall be imported in any other than the ordinary condition as now and heretofore practiced, or which shall be <i>changed</i> in its character or condition, <i>for the purpose of evading the duty</i> , or which shall be reduced in value by the admixture of dirt, or any other foreign substance, shall be <i>twice the duty</i> to which it would be otherwise subject.					
234	Wools of the first class, the value whereof at the last port or place whence exported to the United States, excluding charges in such port, shall be thirty-two cents or less per pound. Wools of the same class, the value whereof at the last port or place whence exported to the United States, excluding charges in such port, shall exceed thirty-two cents per pound.	Per pound	\$0 10	and 11	40
	do	12	and 10	40

* The rates proposed herewith by the League for woollen manufactures are based upon the rates likewise proposed for wools.

SCHEDULE L—Wool and Woolen Goods—Continued.

Present para- graph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.		
			Specific.	Ad valo-rem.	Specific.	Ad valo-rem.	
235	Wools of the second class, and all hair of the alpaca, goat, and other like animals, the value whereof at the last port or place whence exported to the United States, excluding charges in such port, shall be thirty-two cents or less per pound.	Per pound	\$0 10	<i>Per cent.</i> and 11	-----	<i>Per cent.</i> 40	
236	Wools of the same class, the value whereof at the last port or place whence exported to the United States, excluding charges in such port, shall exceed thirty-two cents per pound.do	12	and 10	-----	40	
237	Wools of the third class, the value whereof at the last port or place whence exported to the United States, excluding charges in such port, shall be twelve cents or less per pound.do	03	-----	-----	30	
238	Wools of the same class, the value whereof at the last port or place whence exported to the United States, excluding charges in such port, shall exceed twelve cents per pound.do	06	-----	-----	30	
239	Wools on the skin; <i>the same rates as other wools, the quantity and value to be ascertained under such rules as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe.</i>	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	
240	Sheep-skins and Angora goat skins, raw or unmanufactured, imported with the wool on, washed or unwashed, <i>on the skins alone.</i>	-----	-----	30	-----	30	
241	Woolen rags, shoddy, mungo, waste, and flocks.....	Per pound	12	-----	12	-----	
242	Woolen cloths, woolen shawls, and all manufactures of wool of every description, made wholly or in part of wool, not herein otherwise provided for.do	50	and 35	-----	75	
243	Balmorals, and all manufactures of every description composed wholly or in part of worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other like animals, except such as are composed in part of wool, not otherwise provided for, valued at not exceeding forty cents per pound.do	20	} and 35	} -----	75	
	Valued at above forty cents and not over sixty centsdo	30			-----	75
	Valued at above sixty cents and not over eighty centsdo	40			-----	75
	And over eighty centsdo	50			-----	75
	Blankets, and all manufactures of every description composed wholly or in part of worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other like animals, except such as are composed in part of wool, not otherwise provided for, valued at not exceeding forty cents per pound.do	20			-----	75
	Valued at above forty cents and not over sixty centsdo	30			-----	75
	Valued at above sixty cents and not over eighty centsdo	40			-----	75
	And over eighty centsdo	50			-----	75
	Flannels, and all manufactures of every description composed wholly or in part of worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other like animals, except such as are composed in part of wool, not otherwise provided for, valued at not exceeding forty cents per pound.do	20			-----	75

	Valued at above forty cents and not over sixty cents	do	30		75
	Valued at above sixty cents and not over eighty cents	do	40		75
	And over eighty cents	do	50		75
	Hats of wool, and all manufactures of every description composed wholly or in part of worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other like animals, except such as are composed in part of wool, not otherwise provided for, valued at not exceeding forty cents per pound.	do	20		75
	Valued at above forty cents and not over sixty cents	do	30		75
	Valued at above sixty cents and not over eighty cents	do	40		75
	And over eighty cents	do	50		75
	Woolen and worsted yarns, and all manufactures of every description composed wholly or in part of worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other like animals, except such as are composed in part of wool, not otherwise provided for, valued at not exceeding forty cents per pound.	do	20		70
	Valued at above forty cents and not over sixty cents	do	30		75
	Valued at above sixty cents and not over eighty cents	do	40		75
	And over eighty cents	do	50		75
	Hosiery, and all manufactures of every description composed wholly or in part of worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other like animals, except such as are composed in part of wool, not otherwise provided for, valued at not exceeding forty cents per pound.	do	20	} and 35	75
	Valued at above forty cents and not over sixty cents	do	30		
	Valued at above sixty cents and not over eighty cents	do	40		75
	And over eighty cents	do	50		75
	Knit goods, and all manufactures of every description composed wholly or in part of worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other like animals, except such as are composed in part of wool, not otherwise provided for, valued at not exceeding forty cents per pound.	do	20		75
	Valued at above forty cents and not over sixty cents	do	30		75
	Valued at above sixty cents and not over eighty cents	do	40		75
	And over eighty cents	do	50		75
	Shirts, drawers, &c., and all manufactures of every description composed wholly or in part of worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other like animals, except such as are composed in part of wool, not otherwise provided for, valued at not exceeding forty cents per pound.	do	20		75
	Valued at above forty cents and not over sixty cents	do	30		75
	Valued at above sixty cents and not over eighty cents	do	40		75
	And over eighty cents	do	50		75
244	Endless belts or felts for paper or printing machines	do	20	and 35	60
245	Bunting	Per square yard.	20	and 35	70
246	Women's and children's dress-goods and real or imitation Italian cloths, composed wholly or in part of wool, worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other like animals, valued at not exceeding twenty cents per square yard.	do	06	and 35	65
	Valued at above twenty cents per square yard	do	08	and 40	75
	On all goods weighing four ounces and over per square yard	Per pound	50	and 35	65
247	Clothing ready made, and wearing apparel of every description, and balmoral skirts and skirting, and goods of similar description, or used for like purposes, composed wholly or in part of wool, worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other like animals, made up or manufactured wholly or in part by the tailor, seamstress, or manufacturer, except knit goods.	do	50	and 40	70

SCHEDULE L—Wool and Woolen Goods—Continued.

Present para- graph R. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valorem.	Specific.	Ad valorem.
248	Webbings, beltings, bindings, braids, galloons, fringes, gimps, cords, cords and tassels, dress-trimmings, head-nets, buttons, or barrel buttons, or buttons of other forms for tassels or ornaments, wrought by hand or braided by machinery, made of wool, worsted, or mohair, or of which wool, worsted, or mohair is a component material.	Per pound	\$0 50	<i>Per cent.</i> and 50	<i>Per cent.</i> 70
249	Aubusson and Axminster carpets, and carpets woven whole for rooms	50	60
250	Saxony, Wilton, and Torney velvet carpets, wrought by the Jacquard machine	Per square yard.	70	and 35	60
251	Brussels carpets wrought by the Jacquard machine	do	44	and 35	60
252	Patent velvet and tapestry velvet carpets, printed on the warp or otherwise	do	40	and 35	60
253	Tapestry Brussels carpets, printed on the warp or otherwise	do	28	and 35	60
254	Treble ingrain, three-ply, and worsted chain Venetian carpets	do	17	and 35	60
255	Yarn Venetian and two-ply ingrain carpets	do	12	and 35	60
256	Druggets and bockings, printed, colored, or otherwise	do	25	and 35	70
257	Hemp or jute carpeting	do	08	60
258	Carpets and carpetings of wool, flax, or cotton, or parts of either, or other material not otherwise herein specified. And mats, rugs, screens, covers, hassocks, bed-sides, and other portions of carpets or carpeting shall be subjected to the rate of duty herein imposed on carpets or carpeting of like character or description, and the duty on all other mats (not exclusive of vegetable material), screens, hassocks, and rugs.	40	60
				45	45
259	Oil-cloths for floors, stamped, painted, or printed, valued at fifty cents or less per square yard	35	35
	Valued at over fifty cents per square yard, and on all other oil-cloth (except silk oil-cloth) and on water-proof cloth, not otherwise provided for.	45	45
260	Oil-silk cloth	60	60

SCHEDULE M.
CHEMICALS AND DRUGS.

Present para- graph, P. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
261	Acetates—					
	Of ammonia	Per pound	\$0 25	} <i>Per cent.</i> and 25		<i>Per cent.</i>
	Baryta	do	25			
	Copper	do	10			
	Iron	do	25			
	Lead, brown	do	05			
	Lead, white	do	10			
	Lime					
	Magnesia	Per pound	50			
	Potassa	do	25			
	Soda	do	25			
	Strontia	do	25			
	Zinc	do	25			
262	Acids—					
	Acetic, acetous, and pyroligneous of specific gravity of 1.047 or less	Per pound	05			25
	Acetic, acetous, and pyroligneous of specific gravity over 1.047	do	30			50
	Benzoic			10		10
	Carbolic, liquid			10		25
	Chromic			10		25
	Citric	Per pound	10		\$0 10	
	Gallic	do	1 00		50	
	Sulphuric acid and compounds of which it forms an important ingredient	Per ton	2 00		3 00	
	Tartaric	Per pound	15		10	
And all other acids of every description used for medicinal purposes, or in the fine arts, not otherwise provided for.				10		10
263	Acorn and dandelion root, raw or prepared, and all other articles used or intended to be used as coffee or a substitute for coffee, not otherwise provided for.	Per pound	03			25
265	Albata, unmanufactured			35		35
266	Almonds	Per pound	06			25
	Almonds, shelled	do	10			35
267	Alum, patent alum, alum substitute, sulphate of alumina, and aluminous cake	Per 100 pounds	60			10

SCHEDULE M—Chemicals and Drugs—Continued.

Present para- graph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
				<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>
268	Ammonia— Ammonia, and sulphate and carbonate of ammonia			20		20
270	Antimony, crude, and regulus of			10		10
271	Argols, refined or partly refined, including lees crystals	Per pound	\$0 06		\$0 06	
272	Asbestos, manufactured			25		20
278	Barytes, and sulphate of	Per pound	00½			60
280	Bay-rum or bay-water, whether distilled or compounded, of first proof, and in proportion for any greater strength than first proof.	Per gallon	1 00		1 00	
283	Benzoates			30		20
284	Billiard chalk			50		40
285	Black of bone, or ivory drop black			25		20
288	Manufactures of bones, horn, ivory, or vegetable ivory			35		35
291	Borax, refined, or baborate of soda	Per pound	10		03	
294	Brimstone, in rolls, or refined	Per ton	10 00			20
297	Bronze liquor			10		10
301	Bulbous roots, not otherwise provided for			30		15
302	Burning fluid	Per gallon	50		50	
305	Calomel			30		20
306	Camphor, refined	Per pound	05		05	
311	Castor beans or seeds	Per bushel of fifty pounds.	60		20	

312	Chicory-root, ground or unground.....	Per pound	01			20
313	Chicory-root, burnt or prepared	do	05			30
314	Chloroform	do	1 00		*50	
324	Collodion and ethers of all kinds, not otherwise provided for, and ethereal preparations or extracts, fluid.....	do	1 00		*50	
330	Copperas, green vitriol, or sulphate of iron	do	00½		00½	
334	Court plaster.....				35	35
336	Cream tartar	Per pound	10		06	
344	Emery-grains.....	do	02			40
	Emery-ore.....	Per ton	6 00			25
345	Emery, manufactured, ground, or pulverized.....	Per pound	01			25
348	Essences, extracts, toilet-waters, cosmetics, hair-oils, pomades, hair dressings, hair restoratives, hair dyes, tooth washes, dentifrice, tooth-pastes, aromatic cachous, or other perfumeries or cosmetics, by whatsoever name or names known, used or applied as perfumes or applications to the hair, mouth, or skin. Cologne water and other perfumery, of which alcohol forms the principal ingredient Rum essence or oil, and bay-rum essence or oil				50	50
		Per gallon	3 00	and 50	2 50	
		Per pound	50 per oz.		1 00	
360	Fruit ethers, essences or oils of apples, pear, peach, apricot, strawberry, and raspberry, made of fusel oil or of fruit, or imitations thereof.	do	2 50		2 50	
365	Gelatine, and all similar preparations, not otherwise provided for				35	20
368	Glue.....				20	20
369	Glycerine, crude.....	Per pound			30	02
	manufactured	do			30	05
372	Gum substitute, or burnt starch				10	10
383	Hempseed and rapeseed, and other oil-seeds of like character other than linseed or flaxseed.....	Per pound	00½		00½	
384	Hoffman's anodyne and spirits of nitric ether	do	50		35	
393	Iodine, resublimed, and salts of	do	75		50	
402	Lemon and lime-juice				10	10
403	Licorice-paste, or licorice in rolls	Per pound	10		10	
404	Licorice-juice	do	05		05	

* Should American alcohol be relieved of the internal-revenue tax, a duty of 30 cents per pound on chloroform and collodion would be sufficient.

425	Oils, essential or essence—				
	Bay-leaves	Per pound	17 50	1 00	
	Cubebes	do	1 00	1 00	
	Lemon		50		20
426	On nitro-benzole, or oil of mirbane	do	02	10	
427	Oils, fixed or expressed—				
	Olive, not salad	Per gallon	25	20	
	Mustard, not salad	do	25	25	
428	Opium	Per pound	1 00	1 00	
	Prepared for smoking, and all other preparations of opium not otherwise provided for	do	6 00	6 00	
	But opium prepared for smoking, and other preparations of opium, deposited in bonded warehouses, shall not be removed therefrom for exportation without payment of duties, and such duties shall not be refunded.				
431	Paints and dyes—				
	Aniline dyes and colors, by whatever name known	do	50 and 25	1 00	
432	Blanc-foxé, enameled white, satin-white, lime-white, and all combinations of barytes with acids or water	do	03	03	
	Carmine lake, dry or liquid			35	35
433	French green, Paris green, mineral green, mineral blue, and Prussian blue, dry or moist			30	30
434	Indian red			25	25
435	Indigo, extract of			10	10
	Carmined			20	20
436	Iron liquor			10	10
437	Lamp-black			20	20
439	Lead, white or red, and litharge, dry or ground in oil	Per pound	03	03	
440	Logwood and other dye-woods, extracts and decoctions of			10	15
441	Ochres and ochrey earths, not otherwise provided for, when dry	Per 100 pounds	50	25	
	When ground in oil	do	1 50	1 00	
	Spanish brown			25	25
442	Sumac			10	10
443	Ultramarine	Per pound	06	06	
444	Umber	Per 100 pounds	50	50	
445	Vandyke brown			20	20
446	Water-colors			35	35

SCHEDULE M—Chemicals and Drugs—Continued.

Present para- graph, R. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
	Paints and dyes—Continued.			<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>
447	Wood lake, Venetian red, vermilion, chrome-yellow, rose-pink, Dutch pink, and paints and painter's colors (except white and red lead and oxide of zinc), dry or ground in oil, and moist water-colors used in the manufacture of paper-hangings and colored papers and cards, not otherwise provided for.	Per pound		25		25
448	Zinc, oxide of, dry or ground in oil	do	\$0 01½			20
471	Plaster of Paris, when ground or calcined			20		20
476	Polishing powders of all descriptions, Frankfort, black, and Berlin, Chinese, fig, and washblue			25		25
477	Potash—					
	Bichromate of	Per pound	04		\$0 01	
	Chlorate and chromate of	do	04		02	
	Hydriodate, iodate, iodide	do	73		50	
	Acetate	do	25			
	Prussiate, yellow	do	05			} 20
	Prussiate, red	do	10			
479	Proprietary medicines: Pills, powders, tinctures, troches or lozenges, sirups, cordials, bitters, anodynes, tonics, plasters, liniments, salves, ointments, pastes, drops, waters, essences, spirits, oils, or other medicinal preparations or compositions recommended to the public as proprietary medicines, or prepared according to some private formula or secret art, as remedies or specifics for any disease or diseases or affections whatever affecting the human or animal body.			50		40
480	Putty	Per 100 pounds..	1 50			15
482	Salts of cinchona bark—					
	Other than sulphate of quinine.....			40		20
	Quinine, sulphate of.....			Free		10
486	Red precipitate		20		20	
488	Rochelle salts.....	Per pound	05			20
489	Roman cement.....			20		20
490	Saleratus and bicarbonate of soda.....	Per pound	01½			50

491	Sulphate of soda and soda-ash	do	00½		18
493	Salt-peter— Refined and partially refined	Per pound	02	02	
494	Salts— Epsom	Per pound	01		50
	Glauber	do	00½		25
	Glauber, preparations of, not otherwise provided for			20	20
495	Santonine	Per pound	3 00	2 50	2 50
503	Soap— Fancy, perfumed, honey, transparent, and all descriptions of toilet and shaving soaps	Per pound	10	and 25	} 20
	Not otherwise provided for	do	01	and 30	
504	Soda— Caustic	Per pound	01½		} 20
	Hyposulphate of, and all carbonates of, by whatever name designated, not otherwise provided for			20	
	Silicate of, or other alkaline silicates	Per pound	00½		
512	Strychnia	Per ounce	1 00	*50	
513	Strychnine, salts of, not otherwise provided for	do	1 50	50	
514	Sulphur [<i>flour</i>] [<i>flowers</i>] of	Per ton	20 00	and 15	30
516	Tannin	Per pound	2 00	1 00	
518	Tartar-emetie	do	15		20
520	Tin oxide, muriatic, and salts of tin and tin-foil			30	30
528	Varnish	Per gallon	50	and 20	40
531	Vitriol, white, or sulphate of zinc			20	} 20
	Blue vitriol	Per pound	04		

*With American alcohol relieved from internal-revenue tax, 20 per cent. would be sufficient.

SCHEDULE N.

SUNDRIES.

Present para- graph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
264	Alabaster and spar ornaments			<i>Per cent.</i> 30		<i>Per cent.</i> 30
279	Baskets and all other articles composed of grass, osier, willow, straw, palm-leaf, whalebone, not otherwise provided for.			35		35
286	Blacking of all descriptions			30		25
288	Manufactures of bones, horn, ivory, or vegetable ivory			35		35
289	Bonnets, hats, and hoods, for men, women, and children, composed of chip, grass, palm-leaf, willow, or any other vegetable substance, hair, whalebone, or other material, not otherwise provided for.			40		40
	Composed of straw			40		40
290	Books, periodicals, pamphlets, blank-books, bound or unbound, and all printed matter, engravings, bound or unbound, illustrated books and papers, and maps and charts, and <i>fashion plates of all descriptions.</i>			25		25
292	Bouillons or cannetille, and metal threads, filé or gespinst			25		25
293	Brick, fire-brick, and roofing and paving tile, not otherwise provided for			20		20
295	Bristles	Per pound	\$0 15			10
296	Britannia ware			35		35
299	Brooms			35		35
300	Brushes of all kinds			40		40
303	Burr-stones, manufactured or bound up into millstones			20		30
304	Buttons and button-molds, not otherwise provided for			30		30
307	Candles and tapers, stearine and adamantine	Per pound	05		\$0 05	
	Spermaceti, paraffine, and wax candles and tapers, pure or mixed	do	08		08	
	All other candles and tapers	do	02½		02½	
308	Canes and sticks for walking, finished or unfinished			35		35
309	Card-cases, pocket-books, shell-boxes, souvenirs, and all similar articles of whatever material composed			35		35

310	Carriages and parts of carriages			35		35
315	Chocolate	Per pound	05			17
316	Chronometers, box or ship's, and parts thereof.....			10		10
317	Clocks, and parts of clocks			35		35
318	Clothing, ready-made, and wearing apparel of every description, of whatever material composed, <i>except wool, silk, and linen</i> , made up or manufactured wholly or in part by the tailor, seamstress, or manufacturer, not otherwise provided for, caps, gloves, leggings, mitts, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers, and all similar articles made on frames, of whatever material composed, except silk and linen, worn by men, women, or children, and not otherwise provided for, articles worn by men, women, or children, of whatever material composed, except silk and linen, made up, or made wholly or in part by hand, not otherwise provided for.			35		35
319	Coach and harness furniture of all kinds, saddlery, coach, and harness hardware, silver plated, brass, brass plated or covered, common tinned, burnished or japanned, not otherwise provided for.			35		35
320	Slack coal or culm, such as will pass through a half-inch screen, per ton of twenty-eight bushels, eighty pounds to the bushel.	Per ton	40			45
	Bituminous coal, and shale, per ton of twenty-eight bushels, eighty pounds to the bushel	do	75			25
322	Cocoa, prepared or manufactured	Per pound	02		02	
323	Coke			25		25
325	Coloring for brandy.....			50		50
326	Combs of all kinds			35		50
327	Comfits, sweetmeats, or fruits preserved in sugar, brandy, or molasses, not otherwise provided for.....			35		35
328	Compositions of glass or paste, when set.....			30		30
	Compositions of glass or paste, when not set.....			10		10
329	Composition tops for tables, or other articles of furniture.....			35		35
331	Coral, cut or manufactured			30		30
332	Corks and cork-bark, manufactured.....			30		30
333	Corsets, or manufactured cloth, woven or made in patterns of such size, shape, and form, or cut in such manner as to be fit for corsets, when valued at six dollars per dozen or less.	Per dozen	2 00		2 00	
	When valued over six dollars per dozen.....	do		35	2 00	
335	Crayons.....			30		30
337	Cutlery of all kinds			35		50
338	Currants, Zante, or other	Per pound	01		01	
339	Dates and prunes	do	01		01	

SCHEDULE N—*Sundries*—Continued.

Present para- graph, U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
340	Dolls.....			<i>Per cent.</i> 35		<i>Per cent.</i> 35
341	Dried pulp.....			20		20
343	Embroidery: Manufactures of cotton, linen, or silk, if embroidered or tamboured, in the loom or otherwise, by machinery or with the needle, or other process, not otherwise provided for. Articles embroidered with gold and silver or other metals.....			35		50
346	Encaustic tiles (see Earthenware, Schedule B).....					
347	Epaulets, galloons, laces, knots, stars, tassels, tresses, and wings of gold, silver, or other metal.....			35		35
349	Eyelets of every description.....	Per thousand.....	\$0 06			50
350	Fans and fire-screens of every description, except common palm-leaf fans, of whatever material composed.....			35		35
351	Feathers: Ostrich, vulture, cock, and other ornamental, crude or not dressed, colored, or manufactured..... When dressed, colored, or manufactured..... Artificial and ornamental feathers and flowers, or parts thereof, of whatever material composed, not other- wise provided for.....			25 50 50		25 50 50
352	Feather beds.....			20		20
353	Feldspar.....			20		20
354	Figs.....	Per pound.....	02½			15
355	Filberts and walnuts of all kinds.....	do.....	03			25
356	Finishing-powder.....			20		20
357	Fire-crackers, not exceeding eighty to each pack, and in the same proportion for any greater or less number.....	Per box of 40 packs.....	1 00		\$1 00	
358	Fire-crackers not otherwise provided for.....			30		30
359	Fish-skins.....			20		20

361	Fruits:					
	Oranges, lemons, and grapes			20		20
	Limes, bananas, pine-apples, plantains, shaddock, mangoes			10		10
	But no allowance shall be made for loss by decay on the voyage, unless the loss shall exceed twenty-five per centum of the quantity, and the allowance then made shall be only for the amount of loss in excess of twenty-five per centum of the whole quantity.					
	Green, ripe, or dried, not otherwise provided for			10		10
	Preserved in their own juice, and fruit-juice			25		25
362	Fulminates, fulminating-powders, and all articles used for like purposes, not otherwise provided for			35		35
363	Fur, articles made of: Caps, hats, muffs, and tippets of fur, and all other manufactures of fur, or of which fur shall be a component material			35		35
365	Geiatine, and all similar preparations, not otherwise provided for			35		20
366	Glass plates or disks, unwrought, for optical instruments			10		10
367	Gloves, kid or other leather, of all descriptions, for men's, women's, or children's wear			50		50
370	Grease, all not otherwise specified			10		10
371	Grindstones:					
	Rough or unfinished	Per ton	1 50			13
	Finished	do	2 00			14
373	Gunpowder, and all explosive substances used for mining, blasting, artillery, or sporting purposes, when valued at twenty cents or less per pound	Per pound	06	and 20	10	
	Valued above twenty cents per pound	do	10	and 20	15	
374	Gutta-percha, manufactured			40		40
375	Hair:					
	Bracelets, braids, chains, curls, or ringlets, composed of hair, or of which hair is a component material			35		35
	Curled hair, except hair of hogs, used for beds or mattresses			30		20
	Hair of hogs	Per pound	01			15
	Human hair, when cleaned or drawn, but not manufactured			30		10
	Human hair, when manufactured			40		35
	Hair of all kinds, cleaned, but unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for			10		10
376	Hair-cloth:					
	Known as "crinoline-cloth," and all other manufactures of hair, not otherwise provided for			30		30
	Of the description known as "hair-seating," eighteen inches wide or over	Per square yard	40			35
	Less than eighteen inches wide	do	30			30
378	Hair-pins, made of iron wire			50		50
379	Hat-bodies of cotton			35		35

SCHEDULE N—*Sundries*—Continued.

Present paragraph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valorem.	Specific.	Ad valorem.
380	Hats, etc., materials for— Braids, plaits, flats, laces, trimmings, tissues, willow sheets and squares, used for making or ornamenting hats, bonnets, and hoods, composed of straw, chip, grass, palm-leaf, willow, or any other vegetable substance, or of hair, whalebone, or other material, not otherwise provided for.			Per cent. 30		Per cent. 30
381	Hatters' furs not on the skin, and dressed furs on the skin.....			20		20
385	Honey.....	Per gallon	\$0 20			35
386	Hops.....	Per pound	08		\$0 08	
387	India rubber and silk, manufactures of, or manufactures of India rubber and silk and other materials.....			50		50
388	India rubber, articles composed of— Braces, suspenders, webbing, or other fabrics, composed wholly or in part of India rubber, not otherwise provided for.			35		35
389	Articles composed wholly of India rubber, not otherwise provided for.....			25		25
390	India rubber boots and shoes.....			30		30
391	Ink, printer's ink, and ink-powders.....			35		35
392	Insulators, for use exclusively in telegraphy, except those made of glass.....			25		25
394	Ivory or bone dice, draughts, chess-men, chess-balls, and bagatelle balls.....			50		50
395	Japanned ware of all kinds, not otherwise provided for.....			40		40
396	Jellies of all kinds.....			50		50
397	Jet, manufactures and imitations of.....			35		35
399	Leather: Bend or belting leather, and Spanish or other sole leather.....			15		15
	Calf skins, tanned, or tanned and dressed.....			25		25
	Upper leather of all kinds, and skins dressed and finished of all kinds, not otherwise provided for.....			20		20
	Skins for morocco, tanned, but unfinished.....			10		10
	Manufactures and articles of leather, or of which leather shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for.			35		35

400	Leather and skins, japanned, patent, or enameled				35		35
401	All leather and skins, tanned, not otherwise provided for				25		25
405	Lime				10		10
408	Malt	Per bushel			20	25	
409	Marble:						
	White statuary, brocatella, sienna, and verd-antique, in block, rough or squared	Per cubic foot	1 00	and 25	1 00		
	Veined marble, and marble of all other descriptions, not otherwise provided for, in block, rough or squared	do	50	and 20	75		
	Sawed, dressed, or polished marble, marble slabs, and marble paving-tiles				30		30
	Not exceeding two inches in thickness	Per superficial square foot	25		50		
	<i>If more than two inches in thickness ten cents per foot in addition to the above rate, for each inch or fractional part thereof, in excess of two inches in thickness, but if exceeding six inches in thickness, such marble shall be subject to the duty imposed upon marble blocks.</i>						
	All manufactures of marble not otherwise provided for				50		50
410	Mats of cocoa-nut				30		30
411	Matting:						
	China and other floor-matting, and mats made of flags, jute, or grass				30		30
	Cocoa or coir				25		30
414	Mineral and bituminous substances in a crude state not otherwise provided for				20		20
418	Music, printed with lines, bound or unbound				20		25
419	Musical instruments of all kinds				30		50
420	Muskets, rifles, and other fire-arms				35		35
422	Needles, sewing, darning, knitting, and all other descriptions, not otherwise provided for				25		25
423	Nuts of all kinds not otherwise provided for	Per pound	02		02		
429	Osier or willow, prepared for basket-makers' use				30		30
430	Paintings and statuary not otherwise provided for				10		50
	But the term "statuary," as used in the laws now in force imposing duties on foreign importations, shall be understood to include professional productions of a statuary or of a sculptor only.						
438	Lastings, mohair cloth, silk twist, or other manufactures of cloth woven or made in patterns of such size, shape, and form, or cut in such manner as to be fit for buttons exclusively, not combined with India rubber				10		10
449	Paper:						
	Sized or glued, suitable only for printing paper				25		25
	Printing, unsized, used for books and newspapers exclusively				20		20
	Manufactures of, or of which paper is a component material, not otherwise provided for				35		35
	Sheathing paper				10		10

SCHEDULE N—*Sundries*—Continued.

Present para- graph H. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
450	Paper boxes, and all other fancy boxes			<i>Per cent.</i> 35		<i>Per cent.</i> 35
451	Paper envelopes			35		35
452	Paper-hangings and paper for screens or fire-boards; paper, antiquarian, demy, drawing, elephant, foolscap, imperial letter, and all other paper not otherwise provided for.			35		35
453	Papier-maché, manufactures, articles, and wares of			35		35
456	Patent size			20		20
457	Paving-stones not otherwise provided for			10		10
458	Peanuts or ground beans	Per pound	\$0 01		\$0 01	
	Shelled	do	01½		01½	
459	Pencils of wood, filled with lead or other materials	Per gross	50	and 30	1 00	
460	Pencils, lead, not in wood	do	1 00			35
461	Pens, metallic	do	10	and 25		55
462	Pen-tips and pen-holders, or parts thereof			35		35
463	Percussion caps			40		40
464	Philosophical apparatus and instruments			40		40
	Philosophical apparatus and instruments imported for the use of any society incorporated for religious purposes.			15		15
465	Pins, solid head or other			35		35
466	Pipe-cases, pipe-stems, tips, mouth-pieces, and metallic mountings for pipes, and all other parts of pipes or pipe fixtures, and all smokers' articles.			75		75
467	Pipes and pipe-bowls: Meerschaum, wood, porcelain, lava, and all other tobacco-smoking pipes and pipe-bowls, not otherwise provided for.	Per gross	1 50	75	1 50	
	Clay, common or white			35	1 50	

469	Plants: Fruit, shade, lawn, and ornamental trees, shrubs, plants, and flower-seeds, not otherwise provided for, garden-seeds, and all other seeds for agricultural and horticultural purposes, not otherwise provided for.				20		20
472	Plated and gilt ware of all kinds.				35		35
473	Plates:						
	Engraved, of steel				25		25
	Engraved, of wood or other material				25		25
	Electrotype plates				25		25
	Stereotype plates				25		25
474	Playing cards:						
	Costing not over twenty-five cents per pack				25		25
	Costing over twenty-five cents per pack				35		35
475	Plums	Per pound	02½				20
478	Precious stones and jewelry:						
	Diamonds, cameos, mosaics, gems, pearls, rubies, and other precious stones, when not set				10		10
	When set in gold, silver, or other metal, or on imitations thereof, and all other jewelry				25		25
484	Raisins	Per pound	02½				35
485	Rattans and reeds, manufactured or partially manufactured				25		25
492	Salt—						
	In bags, sacks, barrels, or other packages	Per 100 pounds	12			24	
	In bulk	do	08			12½	
496	Scagliola tops, for tables or other articles of furniture				35		35
	Seeds: Beet, carrot, lettuce, onion, parsnip, and turnip	Not enumerated					20
497	Sealing-wax				35		35
498	Shaddock				10		10
499	Shells, manufactures of				35		35
500	Side-arms of every description, not otherwise provided for				35		35
501	Skates:						
	Costing twenty cents or less per pair	Per pair	08				35
	Costing over twenty cents per pair				35		35
506	Sporting-gun wads of all descriptions				35		35
507	Starch:						
	Made of potatoes or corn	Per pound	\$0 01	and	20		25
	Made of rice, or any other material	do	03	and	20		25

SCHEDULE N—Sundries—Continued.

Present para- graph U. S.	Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of duty.		Rate of duty proposed by the League.	
			Specific.	Ad valo- rem.	Specific.	Ad valo- rem.
				Per cent.		Per cent.
508	Staves: For pipes, hogsheads, or other casks			10		10
	Other staves			20		20
509	Stereotype plates (see Plates)					
510	Stones: Freestones, granite, sandstone, and all building or monumental stone, except marble	Per ton	1 50		\$1 50	
511	Strings: All strings of whip-gut or cat-gut, other than strings for musical instruments			30		30
515	Tallow	Per pound	01		01	
519	Teeth, manufactured			20		20
521	Toys, wooden and other, for children			50		50
522	Twine or pack-thread, not otherwise provided for			35		35
524	Types, new			25		25
525	Type-metal			25		25
526	Umbrella and parasol ribs and stretchers, frames, tips, runners, handles, or other parts thereof, when made in whole or chief part of iron, steel, or any other metal.			45		60
	Umbrellas, parasols and sun-shades, when covered with silk or alpaca			60		60
	All other umbrellas			45		45
527	Umbrellas, parasols, and sun-shades, frames and sticks for, finished or unfinished, not otherwise provided for			35		60
529	Vellum			30		30
530	Velvet, when printed or painted			35		35
532	Waste, all not otherwise provided for			20		20
533	Watches, watch-cases, watch-movements, parts of watches, and watch materials			25		40
534	Webbing, composed of cotton, flax, or any other materials, not otherwise provided for			35		35

FREE LIST.

SEC. 2505. The importation of the following articles shall be exempt from duty:

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535. Acids:

Arsenious, crude.
Boracic.
Nitric.
Muriantic.
Oxalic.
Picric and nitro-picric.
Succinic.

But carboys containing acids shall be subject to the same duty as if empty. And all acids of every description used for chemical and manufacturing purposes, not otherwise provided for.

536. Aconite, root, leaf, and bark.

537. Agaric.

538. Agates, unmanufactured.

539. Albumen and lactarine.

540. Alcornoque.

542. Alkanet root.

543. Alkekengi.

544. Almond shells.

545. Aloes.

546. Aluminium.

547. Amber beads.

548. Ambergris.

549. Amber gum.

550. American manufactures of casks, barrels, or carboys, and other vessels, and grain-bags [the manufacture of the United States], if exported containing American produce, and declaration be made of intent to return the same empty, under such regulations as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

[Barrels and grain-bags, the manufacture of the United States, when exported filled with American products, or exported empty and returned filled with foreign products, may be returned to the United States free of duty, under such rules and regulations as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury; and the provisions of this section shall apply to and include shooks, when returned as barrels or boxes as aforesaid.]

551. Ammonia, crude.

Sal ammoniac, muriate of ammonia.

552. Angelica root.

554. Animals brought into the United States temporarily and for a period not exceeding six months, for the purpose of exhibition or competition for prizes offered by an agricultural or racing association. But a bond shall be first given, in accordance with the regulations to be prescribed by the Secretary of the

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Treasury, with the condition that the full duty to which such animals would otherwise be liable shall be paid in case of their sale in the United States, or if not re-exported within six months.

555. Animals, alive, specially imported for breeding purposes, shall be admitted free, upon proof thereof satisfactory to the Secretary of the Treasury, and under such regulations as he may prescribe. And teams of animals, including their harness and tackle, actually owned by persons immigrating to the United States with their families from foreign countries, and in actual use for the purposes of such immigration, shall also be admitted free of duty, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe.

556. Annatto, roncou, rocou, or orleans, and all extracts of.

557. Annatto seed.

558. Antimony, ore, and crude sulphuret of.

559. Aqua-fortis.

561. Argols, crude, and the crude by-products in the distillation of grape skins known as alambique and

273. Arrowroot. [vinaccia argols and

562. Arsenic. [lees crude.

564. Articles, the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, when returned in the same condition as exported. But proof of the identity of such articles shall be made under regulations to be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury; and if such articles were subject to internal tax at the time of exportation, such tax shall be proved to have been paid before exportation and not refunded.

565. Articles imported for the use of the United States: *Provided*, That the price of the same did not include the duty.

566. Asbestos, not manufactured.

274. Asphaltum.

275. Assafetida.

567. Balm of Gilead.

568. Balsams: copaiva, fir or Canada, Peru and tolu.

276. Balsam used for medicinal purposes, not otherwise provided for.

569. Bamboo-reeds, no further manufactured than cut into suitable lengths for walking sticks or canes, or for sticks for umbrellas, parasols, or sunshades.

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570. Bamboos, unmanufactured.
571. Barrels, of American manufacture, exported filled with domestic petroleum and returned empty, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe, and without requiring the filing of a declaration at time of export of intent to return the same empty.
572. Barilla.
573. Barks: Quilla, Peruvian, Lima, calisaya, and all cinchona barks, canella alba, pomegranate, croton, cascarilla, and all other barks not otherwise provided for.
2784. *Barytes, nitrate of,*
574. Beans, vanilla, or vanilla plants.
575. Bed feathers and downs.
576. Belladonna, root and leaf.
577. Bells, broken and bell-metal, broken, and fit only to be remanufactured.
578. Bell, old, and bell metal.
579. Berries, nuts, and vegetables for dyeing, or used for composing dyes, not otherwise provided for.
282. *Beeswax.*
580. Bezoar stones.
581. Birds, stuffed.
582. Birds, stung and other, and land and water fowls.
583. Bismuth.
584. Bitter-apples, colocynth, colocynthis.
585. Black salts.
586. Black tares.
587. Bladders, crude, and all integuments of animals not otherwise provided for.
287. *Bladders, manufactures of.*
588. Bologna sausages.
589. Bolting-cloths. [Nothing contained in the act entitled "An act to amend existing customs and internal-revenue laws, and for other purposes," approved February eighth, eighteen hundred and seventy-five, shall be construed to impose any duty on bolting-cloths theretofore admitted free of duty. Act of March 3, 1875, sec. 6.]
590. Bones, crude and not manufactured; burned; calcined; ground; or steamed.
591. Bone-dust and bone-ash for manufacture of phosphates and fertilizers.
592. Books which shall have been printed and manufactured more than twenty years at the date of importation.
593. Books, maps, and charts, imported by authority for the use of the United States or for the use of the Library of Congress. But the duty shall not have been included in the contract or price paid.
594. Books, maps, and charts, specially imported, not more than two copies in any one invoice, in good faith
- Par.
- for the use of any society incorporated or established for philosophical, literary, or religious purposes, or for the encouragement of the fine arts, or for the use, or by the order of any college, academy, school, or seminary of learning in the United States.
595. Books, professional, of persons arriving in the United States.
596. Books, household effects, or libraries, or parts of libraries, in use, of persons or families from foreign countries, if used abroad by them not less than one year, and not intended for any other person or persons, nor for sale.
597. Borate of lime.
598. Borax and tincal, crude.
599. Brazil paste.
600. Brazil pebbles for spectacles, and pebbles for spectacles, rough.
601. Brazil-wood, braziletto, and all other dye-woods, in sticks.
602. Breccia, in blocks or slabs.
603. Brime.
604. Brimstone, crude.
605. Bromine.
298. *Bronze powder.*
606. Buchu-leaves.
607. Bullion, gold and silver.
608. Burgundy pitch.
609. Burr-stone in blocks, rough or unmanufactured, and not bound up into millstones.
610. Cabinets of coins, medals, and all other collections of antiquities.
611. Cadmium.
612. Calamine.
613. Camphor, crude.
614. Cantharides.
615. Carnelian, unmanufactured.
616. Castor, or castoreum.
617. Catechu, or cutch.
618. Cat-gut strings, or gut-cord, for musical instruments.
619. Cat-gut or whip-gut, unmanufactured.
620. Chalk and cliff-stone, unmanufactured.
621. Chamomile-flowers.
622. Charcoal.
623. China-root.
624. Chloride of lime.
625. Cinchona-root.
626. Citrate of lime.
627. Coal, anthracite.
628. Coal-stores of American vessels; but none shall be unloaded.
629. Cobalt, ore of.
321. *Cobalt, oxide of.*
630. *Cocculus indicus.*
631. Cochineal.
632. Cocoa, or cacao, crude, and fiber, leaves and shells of.
633. Coffee.
634. Coins, gold, silver, and copper.
635. Coir and coir-yarn.

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636. Colcothar, dry, or oxide of iron.
637. Collections of antiquity, specially imported, and not for sale.
638. Colt's foot (crude drug).
639. Columbo root.
640. *Contum cients*, or hemlock, seed and leaf.
641. *Contrayerva* root.
642. Copper, old, taken from the bottom of American vessels, compelled by marine disaster to repair in foreign ports.
643. Copper, when imported for the United States Mint.
644. Coral, marine, unmanufactured.
645. Cork-wood, or cork-bark, unmanufactured.
646. Cotton.
647. Cowage down.
648. Cow or kine-pox or vaccine virus.
649. Cubobs.
650. Cudbear.
651. Curling-stones or quoits.
652. Curry and curry-powders.
653. Cuttle-fish bone.
654. Cyanite or kyanite.
655. Diamonds, rough or uncut, including glaziers' diamonds *unset*.
656. Diamond-dust or bort.
657. Divi-divi.
658. Dragon's-blood.
659. Dried and prepared flowers.
660. Dried blood.
661. Dried bugs.
342. *Drugs, medicinal, crude, not otherwise provided for.*
662. Dying or tanning: articles in a crude state, used in dying or tanning, not otherwise provided for.
663. Eggs.
664. Elecampane root.
665. Ergot.
666. Esparto, or Spanish grass, and other grasses, and pulp of, for the manufacture of paper.
667. Fans, common palm-leaf.
668. Farina.
669. Fashion-plates engraved on steel or on wood, colored or plain.
670. Felt, adhesive, for sheathing vessels.
671. Fibrin, in all forms.
672. Fire-wood.
673. Fish, fresh, for immediate consumption.
674. Fish for bait.
675. Flint, flints, and ground flint stones.
676. Flowers, leaves, plants, roots, barks, and seeds, for medicinal purposes, in a crude state, not otherwise provided for.
677. *Folius digitalis*.
678. Fruit-plants, tropical and semi-tropical, for the purpose of propagation or cultivation.
679. Fur-skins of all kinds not dressed in any manner.
364. *Fusel oil, amylic alcohol.*
680. Galanga or galangal.
681. Garancine,
- Par.
682. Gentian-root.
683. Ginger-root.
684. Ginseng-root.
685. Glass, broken in pieces, and old glass which cannot be cut for use, and fit only to be remanufactured.
686. Goat-skins, raw.
687. Goldbeaters' molds and goldbeaters' skins.
688. Gold size.
689. Grease, for use as soap-stock only, not otherwise provided for.
690. Guano, and other animal manures.
691. Gums.—Arabic, Jeddo, Senegal, Barbary, East India, Cape, Australian, gum benzoin or benjamin, gum copal, sandarac, dammar, gamboge, cowrie, mastic, shellac, tragacanth, olebanum, guaiac, myrrh, bdallium, garbanum, and all gums not otherwise provided for.
692. Gunny-bags and gunny-cloth, old or refuse, fit only for remanufacture.
693. Gut and worm-gut, manufactured or unmanufactured, for whip and other cord.
694. Guts, salted.
695. Gutta-percha, crude.
696. Hair, all horse, cattle, cleaned or uncleaned, drawn or undrawn, but unmanufactured.
697. Hair of hogs, curled, for beds and mattresses, and not fit for bristles.
375. *Hair, human, raw, uncleaned, and not drawn.*
377. *Hair pencils.*
382. Hatters' plush, composed of silk and cotton, but of which cotton is the component material of chief value.
698. Hellebore-root.
699. Hemlock-bark.
700. Hide-cuttings, raw, with or without the hair on, for glue stock.
701. Hide-ropes.
702. Hides.—Raw or uncured, whether dry, salted, or pickled, and skins, except sheep-skins with the wool on. Angora-goat skins, raw, without the wool, unmanufactured; asses' skins, raw, unmanufactured.
703. Hones and whetstones.
704. Hoofs, horns, and horn-tips.
705. Horn-strips.
706. Hop-roots for cultivation.
707. Hyoscyamus, or benbane-leaf.
708. Ice.
709. India-rubber, crude, and milk of.
710. Indian hemp (crude drug).
711. Indigo.
712. India or Malacca joints, not further manufactured than cut into suitable lengths for the manufactures into which they are intended to be converted.
713. Iodine, crude.
714. Ipecac.
715. Iridium.
716. Iris, orris root.

- Par.**
717. Isinglass, or fish-gluce.
 718. Istle, or Tampico fiber.
 719. Ivory and vegetable ivory, unmanufactured.
 720. Jalap.
 721. Jet, unmanufactured.
 722. Joss-stick, or joss-light.
 723. Juniper and laurel berries.
 724. Junk, old.
 726. Kelp.
 727. Kryolite.
 728. Lac, dye, crude, seed, button, stick and shell.
 729. Lac spirits.
 730. Lac sulphur.
 731. Lava, unmanufactured.
 398. *Lead, nitrate of.*
 732. Leather, old scrap.
 733. Leaves, all, not otherwise provided for.
 734. Lecches.
 735. Licorice-root.
 736. Life-boats and life-saving apparatus, specially imported by societies incorporated or established to encourage the saving of human life.
 737. Lithographic stones, not engraved.
 738. Litmus and all lichens, prepared or not prepared.
 739. Loadstones.
 740. Logs, and round unmanufactured timber not otherwise provided for, and ship timber.
 741. Macaroni and vermicelli.
 [On macaroni and vermicelli and on all similar preparations, 2 cents per pound.]
 742. Madder and munjeet, or Indian madder, ground or prepared, and all extracts of.
 743. Magnets.
 744. Manganese, oxide and ore of.
 745. Mamma.
 746. Manuscripts.
 747. Marrow, crude.
 748. Marsh-mallows.
 749. Matleo-leaf.
 750. Medals, of gold, silver, or copper.
 751. Meerschauum, crude or raw.
 752. Mica and mica waste.
 753. Mineral waters, all, not artificial.
 754. Models of inventions and other improvements in the arts. But no article or articles shall be deemed a model, or improvement, which can be fitted for use.
 755. Moss, Iceland, and other mosses, crude.
 756. Moss, sea-weed, and all other vegetable substances used for beds and mattresses.
 757. Murexide (a dye).
 758. Musk and civet, crude, in natural pod.
 759. Mustard seed, brown and white.
 760. Nitrate of soda, or cubic niter.
 398. *Nitrate of lead.*
- Par.**
761. Nut-galls.
 762. Nuts, cocoa and Brazil or cream.
 763. Nux vomica.
 764. Oak bark.
 765. Onkum.
Oil, bene.
 766. Oil cake.
 767. Oil, essential, fixed or expressed, viz: Almonds; amber, crude and rectified; ambergris; anise, or anise-seed; anthos, or rosemary; bay or laurel; bergamot; cajeput; caraway; cassia; cedrat; chamomile; cinnamon; citronella, or lemon grass; civet; fennel; jasmine, or jessamine; juglandium; juniper; lavender; mace; ottar of roses; poppy; sesame, or sesamum-seed, or bene; thyme, red, or origanum; thyme, white; valerian.
 Oils, essential, all others, not elsewhere provided for.
 768. Oil, spermaceti, whale, and other fish of American fisheries; and all other articles the produce of such fisheries.
 769. Olives, green or prepared.
 770. Orange and lemon peel, not preserved, candied, or otherwise prepared.
 771. Orange buds and flowers.
 772. Orchil, or archil, in the weed or liquid.
 773. Ores of gold and silver.
 774. Orpiment.
 775. Osmium.
 776. Oxidizing paste.
 777. Palladium.
 778. Palm and cocoa-nut oil.
 779. Palm-leaf unmanufactured.
 780. Palm-nuts, palm-nut kernels, and other kernels of like nature.
 781. Paper-stock, crude, of every description, including all grasses, fibers, rags other than wool, waste, shavings, clippings, old paper, rope ends, waste rope, waste bagging, gunny bags and gunny cloth, old or refuse, to be used in making and fit only to be converted into paper, and unfit for any other manufacture, and cotton-waste, whether for paper stock or any other purposes.
 454. *Paraffine.*
 455. *Parchment.*
 782. Pearl, mother of.
 7-3. Pellitory-root.
 784. Persis, or extract of archil, and cudbear.
 785. Personal and household effects, not merchandise, of citizens of the United States dying abroad.
 786. Peruvian bark.
 787. Pewter and britannia metal, old, and fit only to be remanufactured.
 788. Phanglein.

Par.	Par.
780. Philosophical and scientific apparatus, instruments, and preparations, statuary, casts of marble, bronze, alabaster, or plaster of Paris, paintings, drawings, and etchings, specially imported in good faith for the use of any society or institution incorporated or established for philosophical, educational, scientific, or literary purposes, or encouragement of the fine arts, and not intended for sale.	823. Sarsaparilla, crude.
790. Phosphates, crude or native, for fertilizing purposes.	824. Sassafras bark and root.
468. <i>Pitch.</i>	825. Sauerkraut.
791. Plants, trees, shrubs, roots, seed-cane, and seeds imported by the Department of Agriculture or the United States Botanical Garden.	826. Sausage-skins.
792. Plaster of Paris, or sulphate of lime, unground.	827. Scammony, or resin of scammony.
793. Platina, unmanufactured.	828. Sea-weed, not otherwise provided for.
794. Platinum vases or retorts for chemical uses, parts thereof.	829. Seeds: cardamon, caraway, coriander, fenugreek, fennel, cumin, and other seed, not otherwise provided for.
795. Plumbago.	830. Seeds: anise, anise star, canary, chia, sesammum, sugar-cane, and seeds of forest trees.
796. Polishing stones.	831. Seed of the sugar-beet.
797. Polypodium.	832. Senna in leaves.
798. Potassa, muriate of.	833. Shark skins.
799. Pulu.	834. Shells of every description, not manufactured.
800. Pumice and pumice-stones.	835. Shingle-bolts and stove-bolts, and "heading-bolts" shall be held and construed to be included under the term "stave-bolts."
801. Quassia-wood.	836. Shrimps, or other shell-fish.
802. Quick-grass root.	837. Eliminated.
803. Quicksilver.	
804. Quills, prepared or unprepared.	
806. Rags of cotton, linen, jute, and hemp, and paper waste, or waste clippings of any kind fit only for the manufacture of paper, including waste rope and waste bagging.	838. Silk-worm eggs.
807. Railroad ties, of wood.	839. Skeletons, and other preparations of anatomy.
808. Rattans and reeds, unmanufactured.	840. Skins, dried, salted, or pickled.
809. Regalia and gems, and statues and specimens of sculpture, where specially imported, in good faith, for the use of any society incorporated or established for philosophical, literary or religious purposes, or for the encouragement of the fine arts, or for the use or by the order of any college, academy, school, or seminary of learning in the United States.	841. Ship planking and handle-bolts.
810. Rennets, raw or prepared.	502. <i>Smalls.</i>
487. <i>Resins gum, and rosin, not otherwise provided for.</i>	842. Snails.
811. Resins, crude, not otherwise provided for.	843. Soap-stocks.
812. Rhubarb.	844. Sparterre for making or ornamenting hats.
813. Root-flour.	845. Specimens of natural history, botany, and mineralogy, when imported for cabinets, as objects of taste or science, and not for sale.
814. Rose-leaves.	505. <i>Sponges.</i>
815. Rottenstone.	846. Spunk.
816. Saffron and safflower, and extract of.	847. Spurs and stills used in the manufacture of earthen, stone, or crockery ware.
817. Saffron-cake.	848. Squills, or sills.
818. Sago, sago crude, and sago flour.	849. Staves-acre, crude.
819. St. John's beans.	850. Storax, or styrax.
820. Salacine.	851. Straw, unmanufactured.
821. Salep, or saloup.	852. Strontia, oxide of, or protoxide of strontium.
493. <i>Salt-peter, and salts, Epsom, crude (Keo-</i>	853. Substances expressly used for manure.
822. <i>Sandal-wood.</i> [serite).	854. Sugar of milk.
	855. Sweepings of silver or gold.
	856. Talc.
	857. Tamarinds.
	858. Tapioca, cassava, or cassada.
	517. <i>Tar.</i>
	859. Tea.
	860. Tea-plants.
	861. Teasels.
	862. Teeth, unmanufactured.
	863. Terra alba, aluminious.
	864. Terra japonica.
	865. Tlca, crude.
	866. Tin, in pigs, bars, or blocks, and grain-tin.

Par.	Par.
867. Tonquin, Tonquin, or Tonka beans.	881. Woad, wald or pastel.
868. Tortoise and other shells, unmanufactured.	882. Wood ashes, and lye of, and beet-root ashes.
869. Tripoli.	883. Woods, poplar, or other woods for the manufacture of paper.
870. Turmeric.	884. Woods, namely, cedar, lignum-vitie, lance-wood, ebony, box, granadilla, mahogany, rosewood, satin-wood, and all cabinet woods, unmanufactured.
871. Turpentine, spirits of.	886. Works of art: paintings, statuary, fountains, and other works of art, imported expressly for presentation to national institutions or to any State, or to any municipal corporation.
872. Turtles.	887. Worm-seed, Leva
873. Types, old, and fit only to be remanufactured.	888. Xylonite, or Xylotile.
874. Umbrella-sticks, crude, to wit, all partridge, hair wood, pliment, orange, myrtle, and other sticks and canes in the rough, or no further manufactured than cut into lengths suitable for umbrella, parasol, or sunshade-sticks, or walking-canes.	889. Yams.
875. Uranium, oxide of.	890. Yeast cakes.
876. Venice turpentine.	891. Zaffer.
877. Verdigris, or subacetate of copper.	
878. Wafers.	
879. Wax, bay or myrtle, Brazilian and Chinese.	
880. Wearing apparel in actual use, and other personal effects (no merchandise), professional books, implements, instruments, and tools, trade, occupation, or employment of persons arriving in the United States. But this exception shall not be construed to include machinery or other articles imported for use in any manufacturing establishment or for sale.	
880. Whalebone, unmanufactured.	

FISH OIL AND FISH OF CANADA, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, AND NEWFOUNDLAND—
WHEN FREE.

SEC. 2506. Whenever the President of the United States shall receive satisfactory evidence that the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain, the Parliament of Canada, and the legislature of Prince Edward Island have passed laws on their part to give full effect to the provisions of the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, signed at the city of Washington on the eighth day of May, eighteen hundred and seventy-one, as contained in articles eighteenth to twenty-fifth, inclusive, and article thirtieth of said treaty, he is hereby authorized to issue his proclamation declaring that he has such evidence, and thereupon, from the date of such proclamation, and so long as the said articles eighteenth to twenty-fifth, inclusive, and article thirtieth of said treaty shall remain in force, according to the terms and conditions of article thirty-third of said treaty, all fish-oil and fish of all kinds (except fish of the inland lakes and of the rivers falling into them, and except fish preserved in oil), being the produce of the fisheries of the Dominion of Canada or of Prince Edward's Island, shall be admitted into the United States free of duty; and whenever the colony of Newfoundland shall give its consent to the application of the stipulations and provisions of the said articles eighteenth to twenty-fifth of said treaty, inclusive, to that colony, and the legislature thereof and the Imperial Parliament shall pass the necessary laws for that purpose, the above-enumerated articles, being the produce of the fisheries of the colony of Newfoundland, shall be admitted into the United States free of duty, from and after the date of a proclamation by the President of the United States, declaring that he has satisfactory evidence that the said colony of Newfoundland has consented, in a due and proper manner, to have the provisions of the said articles eighteenth to twenty-fifth, inclusive, of the said treaty extended to it, and to allow the United States the full benefits of all the stipulations therein contained, and shall be so admitted free of duty, so long as the said articles eighteenth to twenty-fifth, inclusive, and article thirtieth of said treaty shall remain in force, according to the terms and conditions of article thirty-third of said treaty; but the provisions of this section shall not apply to any articles of merchandise mentioned herein which were held in bond by the customs officers of the United States on the first day of July, eighteen hundred and seventy-three.

SPECIAL EXCEPTIONS AS TO MERCHANDISE SUNK OR ABANDONED.

SEC. 2507. Whenever any vessel laden with merchandise in whole or in part subject to duty has been sunk in any river, harbor, bay, or waters subject to the jurisdiction of the United States, and within its limits, for the period of two years, and is abandoned by the owner thereof, any person who may raise such vessel shall be permitted to bring any merchandise recovered therefrom into the port nearest to the place where such vessel was so raised, free from the payment of any duty thereupon, and without being obliged to enter the same at the custom-house; but *under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe.*

LUMBER FROM SAINT JOHN RIVER.

SEC. 2508. The produce of the forests of the State of Maine upon the Saint John River and its tributaries, owned by American citizens, and sawed or hewed in the Province of New Brunswick by American citizens, the same being unmanufactured in whole or in part, which is now admitted into the ports of [the] United States free of duty, shall continue to be so admitted *under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury shall, from time to time, prescribe.*

LUMBER FROM SAINT CROIX RIVER.

SEC. 2509. The produce of the forests of the State of Maine upon the Saint Croix River and its tributaries, owned by American citizens, and sawed in the Province of New Brunswick by American citizens, the same being unmanufactured in whole or in part, and having paid the same taxes as other American lumber on that river, shall be admitted into the ports of the United States free of duty, *under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury shall, from time to time, prescribe.*

MACHINERY FOR MANUFACTURE OF BEET-ROOT SUGAR.

SEC. 2510. See article on beet-root sugar, Appendix, p. 1779

MACHINERY IMPORTED FOR REPAIRS.

SEC. 2511. Machinery for repair may be imported into the United States *without payment of duty, under bond*, to be given in double the appraised value thereof, to be withdrawn and exported after said machinery shall have been repaired; and the Secretary of the Treasury is authorized and directed to prescribe such rules and regulations as may be necessary to protect the revenue against fraud, and secure the identity and character of all such importations when again withdrawn and exported, restricting and limiting the export and withdrawal to the same port of entry where imported, and also limiting all bonds to a period of time of not more than six months from the date of the importation.

SEC. 2512. *Eliminated.*

MATERIALS IMPORTED FOR CONSTRUCTION, ETC., OF VESSELS.

SEC. 2513. All lumber, timber, hemp, manila, and iron and steel rods, bars, spikes, nails and bolts, and copper and composition metal which may be necessary for the construction and equipment of vessels built in the United States for the purpose of being employed in the foreign trade, including the trade between the Atlantic and Pacific ports of the United States, and finished after the 6th day of June, eighteen hundred and seventy-two, may be imported in bond, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe; and, upon proof that such materials have been used for such purpose, no duties shall be paid thereon. But vessels receiving the benefit of this section shall not be allowed to engage in the coastwise trade of the United States more than two months in any one year, except upon the payment to the United States of the duties on which a rebate is herein allowed.

MATERIALS INTENDED FOR REPAIR OF VESSELS.

SEC. 2514. All articles of foreign production needed for the repair of American vessels engaged exclusively in foreign trade may be withdrawn from bonded warehouses free of duty, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe.

SEC. 2515. *Eliminated.*

DUTY ON ALL OTHER ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED HERE; SAVE ON MANUFACTURED.

SEC. 2516. There shall be levied, collected, and paid on the importation of all raw or unmanufactured articles, not herein enumerated or provided for, a duty of ten per centum ad valorem; and on all articles manufactured in whole or in part, not herein enumerated or provided for, a duty of twenty per centum ad valorem.

THE PRESENT CONDITIONS OF THE INTERNAL REVENUE.

Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of taxation.	Revision proposed by the League.	
Ale	Per barrel of 31 gallons.	\$1 00	\$1 00	
Banks and bankers, on average amount of deposits.	Each month...	$\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per cent.	} Abolish.	
Banks, savings, and savings institutions, having no capital stock and making no profit on deposits, are exempt from tax on so much of their deposits as is invested in United States securities, and on all sums not exceeding \$2,000 in the name of one person.do	$\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per cent.		
Banks and bankers, on capital, beyond the average amount invested in United States bonds.do	$\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per cent.		
Banks and bankers, on an average amount of circulation.do	$\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per cent.		
Banks, on average amount of circulation, beyond 90 per cent. of the capital, an additional tax.do	$\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per cent.		
Banks, persons, firms, associations, &c., on amount of notes of any person, firm, association (other than a national banking association), corporation, State bank, or State banking association, town, city, or municipal corporation, used and paid out as circulation.do	10 per cent.....		
Banks, persons, firms, associations (other than national bank associations), and every corporation, State bank, or State banking association, on the amount of their own notes used for circulation and paid out by them.do	10 per cent.....		
Beer	Per barrel of 31 gallons.	\$1 00		1 00
Brandy	Per gallon	90 00		90 00
Brewers, manufacturing 500 barrels or more annually.do	100 00		100 00
Brewers, manufacturing less than 500 barrels annually.do	50 00	50 00	
Cigars, manufacturers of, special taxdo	10 00	Abolish.	
Cigars of all descriptions, made of tobacco or any substitute.	Per 1,000.....	6 00	6 00	
Cigarettes, not weighing more than 3 pounds per 1,000.	Per 1,000.....	1 75	1 75	
Cigarettes, weight exceeding 3 pounds per 1,000.	Per 1,000.....	6 00	6 00	
Cigars or cigarettes, imported, in addition to import duty to pay same as above.do	
Liquors, fermented	Per barrel	1 00	1 00	
Liquors (spirits) distilled *	Per gallon	90	50	
Liquor dealers (wholesale), special taxdo	100 00	100 00	
Malt liquor dealers (wholesale)do	50 00	50 00	
Liquor dealers (retail), special taxdo	25 00	25 00	
Malt liquor dealers (retail)do	20 00	20 00	
Manufacturers of stillsdo	50 00	50 00	
Manufacturers of stills, for each still or worm made.do	20 00	20 00	
Rectifiers, special tax	Less than 500 barrels.	100 00	100 00	
Do	Above 500 barrels.	200 00	200 00	
Snuff, or snuff-flour, manufactured of tobacco, or any substitute.	Per pound	16	16 00	
Spirits distilled (see Liquors)*	Per proof gallon.	90	50	
Stamps, for distilled spirits for exports, wholesale liquor dealers, special bonded warehouse, distillery warehouse, and rectified spirits.	Each.....	10	
Tobacco, all kinds	Per pound	10	} Abolish.	
Tobacco, dealers indo	5 00		
Tobacco, manufacturers ofdo	10 00		
Tobacco, dealers in leaf (wholesale)do	25 00		
Tobacco, dealers in leaf (retail)do	500 00		
Tobacco, dealers in leaf for sales in excess of \$1,000.	Per dollar of excess.	50		
Tobacco peddlers, traveling with more than two horses, mules, &c.do	50 00		
Tobacco peddlers, traveling with two horses, mules, or other animals.do	25 00		
Tobacco peddlers, traveling with one horse, mule, or other animal.do	15 00		
Tobacco peddlers, traveling on foot or by public conveyance.do	10 00		
Tobacco, snuff, and cigars, for export, stamps for.	Each	10		

* Rebate, 50 cents per proof gallon for manufacturing purposes.

The present conditions of the Internal Revenue—Continued.

Specification.	Unit of quantity.	Present rate of taxation.	Revision proposed by the League.
Wines and champagne (imitation) not made from grapes grown in the United States, and liquors not made from grapes, currants, rhubarb, or berries, grown in the United States, but rectified or mixed with distilled spirits, or by infusion of any matter in spirits, to be sold as wine or substitute for it, per dozen bottles of more than a pint and not more than a quart.	Per dozen bottles.	\$2 40	\$2 40
Imitation wines, containing not more than one pint.do	1 20	1 20

STAMP TAXES.

Bank check, draft, or order for the payment of any sum of money whatsoever, drawn upon any bank, banker, or trust company.	\$0 02	} Abolish.
Playing-cards	Each pack	05	
MEDICINES, PREPARATIONS, COSMETICS, ETC.			
Every packet, box, bottle, pot, vial, or other inclosure, containing any pills, powders, tinctures, troches, or lozenges, syrups, cordials, bitters, anodynes, tonics, plasters, liniments, salves, ointments, pastes, drops, waters, essences, spirits, oils, or other preparations or compositions whatsoever, made and sold, or removed for consumption and sale, by any person or persons whatever, wherein the person making or preparing the same has, or claims to have any private formula or occult secret or art for the making or preparing the same, or has, or claims to have, any exclusive right or title to the making or preparing the same, or which are prepared, uttered, vended, or exposed for sale under any letters patent, or held out or recommended to the public by the makers, venders, or proprietors thereof as proprietary medicines, or as remedies or specifics, and for every packet, box, bottle, pot, vial, or other inclosure, containing any essence, extract, toilet water, cosmetic, hair oil, pomado, hair dressing, hair restorative, hair dye, tooth wash, dentifrice, tooth paste, aromatic cachous, or any similar articles, by whatsoever name the same have been, now are, or may hereafter be called, known or distinguished, used, or applied, or to be used or applied as perfumes or applications to the hair, mouth, or skin, made, prepared, and sold or removed for consumption and sale in the United States, as follows: where such packet, bottle, box, vial, or other inclosure with its contents, shall not exceed at the retail price or value, the sum of 25 cents.	01	
Exceeding 25, and not exceeding 50 cents	02	
Exceeding 50, and not exceeding 75 cents	03	
Exceeding 75 cents, and not exceeding \$1	04	
Exceeding \$1, for every additional 50 cents or fractional part thereof, an additional.	02	
MATCHES, WAX TAPERS, AND CIGAR LIGHTS.			
Friction matches, or lucifer matches, or other articles made in part of wood, and used for like purposes, in parcels or packages containing 100 matches or less.	Per parcel or package.	01	
Packages containing more than 100, and not more than 200 matches.	Per package..	02	
And for every additional 100 matches, or fractional part thereof.do	01	
Wax tapers, double the rates upon friction or lucifer matches.			
Cigar lights, made in part of wood, wax, glass, paper, or other materials, in parcels or packages containing 25 lights, or less, in each parcel or package.	Per parcel or package.	01	
Parcels or packages containing more than 25, and not more than 50 lights.do	02	
For every additional 25 lights or fractional part of that number.	Additional....	01	

APPENDIX.

SPECIAL ARGUMENTS

PREPARED BY

MR. HILL;

ALSO,

COMMUNICATIONS FROM REPRESENTATIVES OF THE PRINCIPAL
INDUSTRIES SELECTED AS IMPORTANT IN SUSTAINING THE
REVISIONS MADE IN THE PRECEDING SCHEDULES.

APPENDIX TO STATEMENTS OF METROPOLITAN LEAGUE.

COTTON AND COTTONS.

In the revisions made in Schedule A, the League has been governed by the following reflections:

The conditions of this Industry are as follows:

The product of the world, in raw cotton, 1881, was as follows:

	Pounds.
The United States.....	3,200,000,000
The East Indies.....	400,000,000
Egypt.....	250,000,000
Brazil.....	50,000,000
West Indies.....	15,000,000
Total.....	3,915,000,000

or about *four thousand million* pounds.

The United States contributes, therefore, over *three-fourths* of the world's product.

The amount of manufactured cotton made by the nations of the world is, viz:

	Yards.
Great Britain.....	5,500,000,000
The United States.....	2,250,000,000
The rest of the world.....	3,000,000,000
Total number of yards manufactured by machinery.....	10,750,000,000

Thus it will be seen that while Great Britain manufactures *one-half* of the cotton goods of the world the United States now manufacture about *one-fourth*, or *one-half* the quantity of Great Britain.

The rapid advance made, however, even in the last two years (since the last census), especially by the wonderful development of cotton manufacture in the South, has produced two great facts that must be considered, viz:

1st. The entire independence, in this Industry, of that portion of our country which formerly looked to Great Britain for cottons in return for cotton, or, in plainer words, the manufactured articles which were formerly bought with the sterling bills of exchange that paid for the raw product; hence the change in the economic system from "free trade to protection."

2d. The strong competition with British cotton manufacture in every part of the world that has but just begun, and that in the next decade will astonish those dubious and discouraging agents of foreign interests who declare that "the South is beginning manufacturing to her very great loss." Such words fall upon the ears of Southern and Western industrious and practical men as *jeu d'esprit* upon their progress or as wonderful shortsightedness. To look at our cotton conditions from other than a home standpoint, no better view could be given than the following official report by United States Consul Du Bois of Aix la Chapelle, from the cotton report of the Department of State.

THE COTTON INDUSTRY OF GERMANY, ENGLAND, THE UNITED STATES, AND INDIA.

Great interest is being manifested at present in the commercial circles throughout the German Empire respecting the vigorous efforts that are being made to revive the drooping cotton industry by the adoption of the protective system. Many interesting speeches have been made in the various chambers of commerce, and not a few able articles have appeared in the different periodicals, urging upon the imperial government the adoption of the protective system as the only salvation for the manufacturing interests of Germany.

That a nation is rich in proportion to its various industries is a fact which is being constantly demonstrated to the world; still a nation may abound in industrial pursuits and yet be miserably poor, unless those industries are prosperous; and a nation must also constantly become poorer the more it draws upon foreign markets for that which it can produce at home.

Upon this subject, Mr. Gelly, a director of one of the largest weaving and spinning associations in Germany, recently gave to the public an interesting comparative statement relating to the productive proportion of England, Germany, America, and India in the cotton industry. The comparisons made in this statement show startling facts concerning the backward strides of England and Germany, and the onward march of America and India* in the manufacture of cotton stuffs.

In drawing a parallel between the industrial interests of England and Germany, the following figures were produced: In Germany, 44 per cent. of the population are engaged in agricultural pursuits, and 37 per cent. depend upon the manufacturing industries for employment and support. In England, 21 per cent. are engaged in the former and 51 per cent. in the latter pursuits. Germany, excluding her immediate territories, possesses 4,700,000 cotton spindles, each one of which produces 24.9 kilos per year. Great Britain possesses 39,500,000 spindles, from each of which are worked only 15 kilos per annum. In the whole of Europe, excluding England, there are only 19,603,000 spindles employed, while in America there are about 10,000,000 in operation; so that England has more spindles working than both Europe and America combined. In Germany most of the cotton used is of the coarsest and cheapest sort, while in England generally the most valuable and finest is consumed.

There are 45,000,000 inhabitants in Germany, and to every one hundred of these there are 10.93 spindles in operation. England has 35,000,000 inhabitants, and to every one hundred of these there are 119.70 spindles.

It is generally acknowledged that eighteen spindles can consume cotton enough to supply one hundred persons. This being the case, Germany still requires 3,000,000 more spindles in order to furnish her home consumption. In England about 5,000,000 are enough for the home consumption, so that the cotton industry of that nation has 34,000,000 spindles with which to supply the wants of other countries.

Between 1845 and 1875 the number of spindles in England augmented 20,000,000. In the month of January, 1870, England spun and wove cotton to the amount of \$27,500,000; linen to the amount of \$3,050,000; cloth and woolen goods generally to the amount of \$9,000,000; jute, \$670,000; silk stuffs, \$1,112,000; making a total of \$41,332,000. In the month of January, 1878, there was a small shrinkage in the exports of England in the above-mentioned manufactures, so that the production amounted to \$39,282,000. From this source England secures a considerable portion of her revenue, which in the years 1873-'74 amounted to \$113,189,200, while in Germany during the same period the tax from the same source amounted to only \$26,125,100.

For the international commerce, England can command 28,773 steam and sailing vessels, with a carrying power of 5,753,973 tons.

In drawing a comparison between the United States and England and Germany the following interesting figures were adduced: The number of cotton spindles in the United States increased from 5,235,667 in 1867 to 10,054,364 in 1875. Ten years ago it could scarcely be said that the United States was an exporter of fabricated cotton. Six years ago American exporters sent \$2,304,000 worth of fabricated cotton to the European markets, and this amount was increased last year to the round sum of \$10,000,000. These figures show conclusively that the cotton industry in the United States is far more progressive and prosperous than it is on the continent of Europe. The Americans have driven the English not only from the American markets, but from the European markets, and even in the English markets they have commenced a most successful competition.

A glance at the manufacturing industry of British India shows another field of competition which gravely threatens the manufacturing interests of England and continental Europe. Mr. Gelly says in his report that within the last fifteen years the number of cotton spindles in India has increased from 338,000 to 1,231,000, and that the export of fabricated cotton has increased in the three years from 1874 to 1876 nearly 100 per cent. The marvelous increase of the cotton industry in America and India is causing intense anxiety among the spinners and weavers of England, and, in truth, throughout the manufacturing districts of Europe.

After a careful examination of the condition of the cotton industry in Germany, Mr. Gelly comes to the following conclusion: That the crisis which has raged for several years in the cotton industry of Germany has arisen in a great measure from the over-production of England and the increase in the number of spindles in America and

*Great Britain has become so alarmed at this competition from India that Her Majesty's Government there has ordered a suppression thereof by the total abolition of cotton and general import duties.

India. *That the protective system is in no manner a hinderance to the commercial development of a country, but, on the contrary, is a source of prosperity and wealth, and that Germany having undervalued this great truth, now finds her great industries in a state of stagnation which does not exist in any of the other manufacturing countries of Europe."*

The very rapid development of conditions in our country even in last two years causes the figures above (given in 1879) to be rather an underestimate for to-day; still it is a generous presentation and comparison of facts, which well illustrates the prosperity of our cotton manufacture and our ability to lessen proportionately our tariff rates thereon judiciously and equitably, but not in one destructive blow and for the pleasure of our friendly competitors, as in India.

EARTHENWARE.

Regarding this Industry one of the most important in usefulness, as well as contributing to the art talent of our country, the League asks especial consideration of the Commission thereto.

[Paper of Mr. Thomas C. Smith, President Union Pottery Works.]

In the manufacture of hard porcelain table ware (that species of ware commonly known as French china) the same materials are used and the same detail of process is employed as in making French porcelain.

First. The present duty of 45 per cent. on white china should not be altered, as it is preferable to have a low and permanent rate of duty than a temporary high rate of duty, with the certain prospect of a lowering of that high rate in a few years, and again agitating this question. This present rate, with the full intent of the law properly executed as regards classification of goods and goods honestly invoiced, is sufficient to enable the manufacturer in this country to compete with imported goods by the further application of machinery and a constant effort to lessen cost of production.

Second. The duty on all decorated ware should be 60 per cent., for the reason that in old countries, where labor is abundant, great numbers seek employment in this line and are content with low wages at light work, whereas in this country in the absence of free art schools, which should be supported by our States and principal cities, the few young people who learn to paint a shrub or flower consider themselves artists and demand wages equal to their pretensions. Consequently that branch of our business pertaining to the decoration of ware is dependent principally upon foreign workmen at high wages who have learned their trade in the schools or factories of Europe.

Third. The present duty of \$5 per ton on clay should be reduced to \$3, or at most \$3.50 per ton, for the reason that the duty on clay should not be higher than the duty on articles manufactured from it. At the present time the duty is from 70 to 120 per cent. At \$3 per ton the duty would average from 40 to 60 per cent.

FLAX, JUTE, AND HEMP.

The League indorse the following petition of the Flax and Hemp Spinners and Producers of the United States as a harmonious basis of Tariff rates, mutually conceded to be just and equitable for the desired development of that Industry, and has specified the same in the proposed rates given in Schedule C, page 1718, accordingly.

PETITION.

Several millions of dollars have been expended by more than fifty flax-spinning mills in an effort to manufacture linen goods in the United States, but, although capital was not lacking, The American Linen Company, Fall River, Mass., The Willimantic Linen Company, The United States Linen Company, The Sprague Linen Company, and many others, had to abandon the business because the great disparity in cost of labor between European and American necessitated a protection larger than the tariff afforded, so that the present manufacturing establishments number about one dozen, and this industry, which England fostered by imposing a duty on foreign linens, paying a bounty on all linen cloth produced, and an additional bounty on all that was exported, may be designated as in its infancy, needing a protection such as was and is accorded to cotton, worsted, and silks.

With a uniform duty of 50 per cent. ad valorem on flax, hemp, and jute manufactures, an immense impetus would be given to this industry, so that all the coarser fabrics, as well as yarns and twines, would be made in this country, spinning the flax, which the farmer now burns to the extent of 500,000 tons annually, or allows to rot as valueless in the field.

We recommend that the present duties on the raw and dressed flax and hemp be increased a little, as a protection to the agriculturist and flax dresser, viz, tow, \$15 per ton; flax, \$30 per ton; hackled, \$50 per ton. That Schedule C, paragraph 41, be

so amended that where the words "linen yarns" occur, flax-tow yarns be substituted and that in place of 35 and 40 per cent. ad valorem, there be a duty of 50 per cent. on all yarns, threads, twines, and woven fabrics made from flax or flax tow, hemp, or jute, and that paragraphs 42 and 43 of Schedule C be also included in the 50 per cent. ad valorem duty. We also ask that Schedule L, class 3, paragraph 257, be so changed that it shall read hemp or jute carpeting, eight cents per square yard, and on all colored or partly colored, manufactured of jute, hemp or flax, or of which these compose the chief part, 8 cents per square yard, except that carpeting, by whatever name known, when made substantially in the same manner as Brussels carpeting, wrought by the Jacquard machine, or printed on the warp or otherwise, after the manner of tapestry carpeting, or tapestry velvet carpetings, or any other kinds of carpeting, shall, in each case pay the same duty as the carpetings they are made to imitate; that it shall not be lawful to allow any drawback of duty upon bags made of jute, flax, or hemp, or of which these compose the chief component part, except when exported in the original package.

About \$30,000,000 spun and woven fabrics, the manufactures of flax, jute, and hemp, are annually imported, and we confidently assert that a large proportion of the above staple goods could be made in this country, giving profitable employment to the skilled labor and also to the farmer, if the reasonable protection we ask for is given to the development of these important manufacturing industries which we represent.

Jute, the raw material, is taxed an average duty of 29 per cent., and the manufactured goods a duty of 25 to 30 per cent., so that jute goods are comparatively without protection.

HIRAM SISSON, *Flax Grower, Eagle Bridge, N. Y.*,
 BARBOUR FLAX SPINNING COMPANY, Paterson, N. J.,
 THOMAS BARBOUR, *Vice-President and Treasurer*,
 THE A. H. HART COMPANY OF NEW YORK,
 JOHN HINDE, *President*,
 E. A. HARTSHORN,
President Cable Flax Mills, Flax and Hemp Spinners, Troy, N. Y.,
 DAVID KIRK, *Flax Merchant, Troy, N. Y.*,
 Per E. A. H.,
 DOLPHIN MANUFACTURING COMPANY OF PATERSON, N. J.,
 JOHN SLOANE,
Committee of Flax, Hemp Growers, and Manufacturers.

	Per cent.
Hemp and its products pay an average of about	25
Flax and its products pay an average of about	30
Silk and its products pay an average of about	60
Cotton and its products pay an average of about	65
Wool and its products pay an average of about	85

IRON ORE.

In sustaining its recommendation for the rate of \$2.00 per ton upon Iron Ore in Schedule E the League offers the following argument:

The wealth under our soil is vastly greater than its superficial value which has, until recently, contented the owners of millions of acres in grain and textile cultivation while ignorant of or indifferent to the millions of dollars within the radius of these acres, the labor that might have been employed, the homes that might have been built, and the increased demand that would have been general for agricultural products to the farmers' profit.

And even yet there seems strong opposition to the developing of this under-surface wealth by proper encouragement in protection to our mining industry.

Such opposition may be animated and severe, but it cannot be successful.

This treasure is no longer hidden, and its development is demanded by the South and West.

Ore of iron, copper, lead, &c., must have a proper protective rate for home facilities in time of emergency, and for the reduction of price by home competition with foreign countries.

Senator Vance, of North Carolina, said in Congress last season:

"I want all American labor to have a fair and even chance. I want my own poor workingmen at home protected, not only against foreign paupers, but also against domestic brigandage. Almost every item of foreign raw material used by our factories is the product of foreign 'pauper labor,' and is admitted duty free. By the report of the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics for the three months ending September 30, 1880, there is seen a statement of the imports of iron ore which shows a total of

425,000 tons, worth \$1,192,000, brought from every quarter of the world, all dug by pauper labor, and much of it even by convict labor, as I am informed, notably 113,000 tons from the French possessions in Africa. This, in preference to the ore dug by free American labor in Alabama, Georgia, Tennessee, North Carolina, and other States. It comes in as ballast in foreign bottoms, to the detriment of American ship-owners."

Here is a foreshadowing of the demand that will be made for a proper rate of protection upon Iron Ore of the "Old North" State, viz, at least \$2.00 per ton.

Alabama abounds with iron, and has suddenly appeared seventh in rank as an iron State.

The total production in the United States, as given by the census returns of 1880, was—

States.		Total product.	States.		Total product.
		Tons.			Tons.
1	Pennsylvania*	2,185,675	14	West Virginia.....	61,216
2	Michigan*	1,834,712	15	Wisconsin.....	41,440
3	New York.....	1,202,127	16	Connecticut.....	35,018
4	New Jersey.....	757,372	17	Oregon.....	6,972
5	Ohio.....	547,303	18	Maine.....	6,000
6	Missouri.....	386,197	19	Texas.....	3,000
7	Alabama.....	191,676	20	North Carolina.....	3,318
8	Virginia.....	182,326	21	Delaware.....	2,726
9	Maryland.....	139,628	22	Vermont.....	500
10	Tennessee.....	104,405	23	Indiana.....	513
11	Georgia.....	91,416			
12	Kentucky.....	64,809		The United States.....	7,971,706
13	Massachusetts.....	62,637			

* Notwithstanding the excess in production of Pennsylvania over Michigan of 300,000 tons, the value corresponding was \$5,517,000 to \$6,035,000, an excess in value in favor of Michigan of \$500,000, showing superior quality of iron in the latter State.

This production has determined two of the most important questions of our country's prosperity, viz:

1. Independence at all times in great manufacture and armament.

2. Reduction of price, as will be seen by the fall in percentage of cost in the following proportion since the census of 1870, viz:

Michigan, a fall of 15 per cent.; New Jersey, a fall of 30 per cent.; Missouri, a rise of 56 per cent.; New York, a fall of 29 per cent.; Pennsylvania, a fall of 35 per cent.

This shows the great demand westward for iron by the increase of price in Missouri and the necessity for its development in the Western States, which will be retarded until due encouragement is given. With a view to establish beyond doubt or discussion, and also as contributing to harmony of opinion regarding the true conditions of iron ore production, the Secretary of the New York State Iron Ore Producers' Association recently sent out a circular making the following inquiries:

"First. The alleged necessity of the importation of foreign ores from lack of American ores for the Bessemer process.

"Second. The claim that American ore producers have an enlarged market by reason of such importation of foreign ores, each ton of foreign ore so used causing the consumption of an additional ton of American which would not otherwise be used.

"Third. That the importation of foreign ores is an adjunct to the steel business only, and has not the effect of competing with native ores for manufacturing of ordinary foundry and mill irons."

To which inquiries response has been very generally made, and from which the following extracts are taken, and submitted to the Metropolitan Industrial League for consideration:

Mr. James A. Burden, president of the Burden Iron Company, of Troy, N. Y., a company consuming in its own furnaces ten times the quantity of ore that it mines and three times the quantity of pig metal it produces, writes:

"The Chateaugay Company have already opened two parallel veins of this Bessemer steel ore upon their property; one of these veins averages 18 feet thick, and the other 36 feet thick. One of these veins has been opened continuously, and is now being worked on its outcrop (which has only a few inches of cover) for a distance of about 1½ miles, and this vein has been traced continuously on the company's property for a distance of about 5 miles. The distance between the two important workings at the present time on this vein is about 3½ miles; and the company have other veins which have not been traced or examined.

"This property alone, from the veins already explored, is capable (in the opinion of a competent authority who has had the experience and the opportunity to judge of its resources) of producing 6,000,000 tons of Bessemer steel ore per annum."

Witherbees, Sherman & Co., of Port Henry, New York, producers of over 200,000 tons of iron ore per annum, write as follows: "We have in Northern New York more Bessemer ores than is required to supply the demand, but have not been able to run our now bed Bessemer mine for the last eighteen months, on account of the importation of foreign ores."

The mine referred to has a capacity of 60,000 to 80,000 tons per annum, and produces an excellent quality of Bessemer ores.

A. Tower, esq., treasurer of the Port Henry Iron Ore Company, producers of over 200,000 tons of ore per annum, writes as follows: "In my opinion there is no necessity for such importation of ores, if encouragement is given. All that is wanted can be furnished from mines in this country."

The Port Henry Iron Ore Company is operating the Fisher Hill Bessemer ore mine, having a capacity of 75,000 to 100,000 tons per annum. The production at present is 15,000 tons.

Mr. Henry M. Brame, secretary of the Forest of Dean Iron Ore Company, producing at present about 30,000 tons of ore per annum, writes as follows: "There would be no lack of American Bessemer ores if the development of the mines had not been checked by foreign importation."

Mr. A. W. Humphreys, president of the Sterling Iron and Railway Company, producers of about 80,000 tons of ore per annum, writes: "I believe that there is no necessity for any importation of ores."

George Williams, esq., president and treasurer of the Weed Iron Mining Company, writes as follows:

Hon. SMITH M. WEED:

MY DEAR SIR: I this day wired to your secretary an estimate of the actual capacity of the hematite mines of the Harlem Valley, and remit an estimate of their actual output in 1882, showing that the demand, through foreign competition, was so lessened as to reduce the volume of business from 177,000 tons to 76,000 tons.

Perhaps the most instructive letters are the two following, from two producers of Bessemer iron ores who can find no market for their ores:

Mr. J. F. Rand, treasurer of the Manhattan Mining Company, writes as follows: "Our mine is virtually closed at the present time. Having worked out our contracts with our customers and not obtaining any new ones, we have stopped working, except the pumps, which we are obliged to keep at work. As you will see by the inclosed analysis, it is steel ore, and was used extensively in making Bessemer pig by one of our largest customers until the foreign ore took its place. We have employed 75 to 100 men at wages varying from \$1.25 to \$1.50 per day for ordinary laborers."

Mr. J. B. Brinsmade, president of the Mahopac Iron Ore Company, writes as follows: It may be well to note here that the ore he refers to is the richest and purest Bessemer ore to-day mined east of the Alleghenies, yielding from 55 to 58 per cent. in the furnaces, and containing practically no sulphur and only .018 of 1 per cent. phosphorus.

Regarding the second question, viz: "That American ore producers have an enlarged market by reason of such importation of foreign ores, each ton of foreign ore so used causing the consumption of a ton of native ore, which would not otherwise be used," the answers to this question can be summed up in the answer of Mr. J. B. Brinsmade, president of the Mahopac Iron Ore Company. The answer is short and to the point: "It is sheer nonsense."

Mr. Henry M. Brame writes: "This is an extraordinary proposition, and too absurd to answer."

Mr. Peter P. Parrott, president of the Parrott Iron Company, a large consumer of iron ores, writes as follows: "When we are using foreign iron ore, we are using just so much less native ore. I think the consumption would have to be enormous to warrant such a conclusion as above claimed."

A. W. Humphreys, president of the Sterling Iron Railway Company writes: "The claim seems to me to be entirely unfounded."

A. Tower, treasurer of the Port Henry Iron Ore Company, writes: "I consider the above claim entirely false, and that every ton of ore imported takes the place of ore that can be furnished from mines here. All we need is capital to develop our mines."

Witherbees, Sherman, & Co., of Port Henry, write as follows: "Before foreign ores were imported we had a surplus of lump ore for puddling, but for the last three years we have had a surplus of fine ore used in furnaces. It is increasing every year since the importation of foreign ores."

Regarding the third question, viz: "That the importation of foreign ore is an adjunct to the steel business only, and has no effect in competing with native ores for ordinary foundry and mill iron," John H. Cheever, president of the Croton Magnetic Iron Mine, writes as follows: "It has and does compete with our ores; we know of orders we have lost to a large amount."

A. W. Humphreys, president of the Sterling Iron Company, writes: "This claim, I am sure, is without foundation."

Peter P. Parrott, president of the Parrott Iron Company, writes: "We have used the foreign Bessemer ore for two years, but don't produce iron for steel purposes."

Henry M. Brame, writes: "Foreign ores compete with native ores for furnace and mill purposes more and more every year."

J. B. Brinsmade writes: "In the beginning foreign ores competed only with native Bessemer ores, but for the last two years they have competed just as decidedly for foundry and mill purposes; and that this competition has not yet reached an alarming extent is due to the fact that the mines which produce ores for foundry and mill irons are older than Bessemer mines and more developed, and are consequently better able to meet competition."

In view of the great importance of this subject, and the necessity of its being understood at this time, when a strong effort is being made to wipe out the duty thereon, and thus retard its development, the League earnestly urge that a duty of \$2 per ton be placed upon all iron ore.

TIN PLATE.

The League also offers the following paper under the same Schedule:

[Paper of the Iron and Tin Plate Manufacturers.]

The Metropolitan Industrial League, New York:

GENTLEMEN: We have to suggest a change in the existing tariff relating to the articles commercially known as tin plates, terne plates, and tagger's tin.

We refer you to §§ 129, 130, and 131 in the "indexed tariff," which read as follows:

"129. Tin in plates or sheets, terne and tagger's tin: fifteen per centum ad valorem.

"a. On tin in plates or sheets, and on terne and tagger's tin: one and one-tenth cents per pound. Act of February 8, 1875, sec. 4.

"130. Iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal by electric batteries: two cents per pound.

"131. Iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal otherwise than by electric batteries: two and one-half cents per pound."

We felt convinced that these sections of the law are not carried out in accordance with the intentions of the framers of the same, and finding that we were seriously injured by misconstruction of the law, we submitted our case to the Treasury Department during the year 1878. The Hon. John Sherman, then Secretary of the department, in a letter dated June 3, 1878, replied as follows:

W. C. CRONMEYER, ESQ.,

Secretary of the United States Iron and Tin Plate Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.:

SIR: I have received and considered your letter of the 22d ultimo, relative to duties now collected at the various ports of the United States on the article known to commerce as tin plate.

The article is not pure tin rolled out into plates, but is iron coated with tin. The duty collected thereon is 1.1 cents per pound under the provision in section 4 of the act of February 8, 1875, for tin in plates or sheets and terne or tagger's tin.

The claim, made by you on behalf of the company you represent, and other domestic tin-plate manufacturers, is that this article should pay a duty of 2½ cents per pound under the provisions of Schedule E of the revised tariff, for iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal other than by electric batteries.

In regard thereto I have to state that while the terms used in section 4 of the act of February 8, 1875, under which this article is admitted at a duty of 1.1 cents per pound, viz, tin in plates or sheets, are not aptly descriptive of the merchandise, it is found that the same terms were used in the act of 1864, and have been used in subsequent tariffs, and that under each of the tariffs mentioned the article commercially known as tin plate has been considered as embraced within such terms.

The subject was brought to my attention some time since, and, upon examination, it was found that the Secretary of the Treasury, under date of July 22, 1864, stated, in a letter addressed to the collector of customs at New York, that the clause in the act of 1864, which enhanced the duty on tin plates, and iron galvanized or coated by any metal by electric batteries or otherwise, was not intended to increase the duties upon the article commercially known as tin plate.

It was then held that the tin plates as well as the iron must, after they arrive at that condition, be subsequently galvanized or coated in order to bring them within the increased duty. I inclose a copy of the letter referred to.

I have therefore to state that the construction thus given to the law by this department having remained in force from 1864 to the present time, I do not feel at liberty to place any other construction upon the law, especially in view of the fact

that the changes in the tariff subsequent to 1864, as to this article, have undoubtedly been made with a full knowledge, by Congress, of the action taken by this department in the premises.

The remedy you seek must therefore be found at the hands of Congress rather than of this department.

Very respectfully,

JOHN SHERMAN, *Secretary.*

It being thus admitted that the terms used are not aptly descriptive of the merchandise which is brought in under the said clause, and as your honorable body contemplates the removal of existing incongruities, and as we have been engaged in the manufacture of tin and terne plates for a number of years, and are for that reason, perhaps, capable of describing the article more aptly, would now take the liberty to suggest that §129 be amended by striking out all, and inserting therefor the following, viz:

"All plates and sheets of iron or steel, or taggers iron, coated with tin or lead, or with a mixture of which these metals are a component part, by the dipping or any other process, and now known as tin plates, terne plates, and taggers tin, and by whatever name hereafter called, two cents and three-fourths per pound."

We believe that it was the intention of the framers of the law, which was enacted in 1864, that the article commercially known as tin plates should come in under a duty of 2½ cents per pound, for that law contained a clause which read: "On tin plates, and iron galvanized, or coated with any metal by electric batteries, or otherwise, two cents and a half per pound." To anybody acquainted with the process of making tin plates the wording as above will appear very plain and clear, but the Hon. W. P. Fessenden, who was Secretary of the Treasury Department in 1864, evidently did not know that tin plates were iron coated with tin, but, like many other people, was rather under the impression that they were made from pure tin, or from an alloy; for in no other way could he have arrived at the following decision, which is contained in a letter dated July 22, 1864, addressed to Hiram Barney, collector of customs, New York, viz: "It would appear that an error of punctuation has been made by some one; most probably by the clerk who engrossed that part of the act. If the comma, which is inserted after the word 'plates' be omitted, and a comma placed after the word 'iron,' the true sense will be had, which unquestionably is that the tin plates as well as the iron must be galvanized or coated with any metal by electric batteries, or otherwise, in order to bring them within the provision."

It is our opinion that Mr. Fessenden, instead of arriving at the true sense, was seriously mistaken, for tin plates are coated with the most costly metal that is used for these kind of plates, and it would hardly add to their commercial value if they were coated again with an inferior metal. In this case the engrossing clerk was certainly better posted than Mr. Fessenden himself.

The clause which provided for "tin in sheets or plates," and under which clause Mr. Fessenden directed "ordinary tin plates" to be brought, was undoubtedly intended for sheets or plates of pure tin. Block, or pig tin, being a raw material, not found in this country, was put on the free list.

The labor and expense involved in reducing pig tin into sheets or plates is very small, and therefore a duty of 15 per cent. ad valorem was deemed sufficient protection for the manufacture of that article.

At present sheets of pure tin are hardly an article of commerce, the few purposes for which it was used at one time having been supplied by other more suitable articles.

The United States are consuming more tin plates—that is, tinned iron plates—than any other country in the world, yet for the production of that article they have to depend entirely on foreign countries.

The total production of this commodity in England has grown from about 1,000,000 boxes in 1860, to nearly 6,000,000 boxes in 1881, and of the latter about 1,250,000 boxes or cwts. were used for home consumption, 4,000,000 boxes exported to the United States, and 750,000 boxes exported to other countries.

In 1860 there were in operation in England about 100 trains of rolls making sheet iron for tin-plate purposes; in 1881 there were in operation nearly 400 trains of rolls, and about 30,000 persons found direct employment in this industry.

Had it not been for Mr. Fessenden's misconception of facts, the most of the 4,000,000 boxes, or 200,000 tons, that were consumed in this country during the last year, as well as most of all consumed during previous years, would have been manufactured in this country.

To prove the feasibility of making tin and terne plates of good quality, we will give a few of the many acknowledgments we have received from our customers.

SAINT LOUIS, July 13, 1877.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE CO., Pittsburgh, Pa.:

GENTS: The terne plates, branded "U. S.," which we have bought of you, have

proved, in nearly all cases, to be equal in quality and finish to most of the good brands of terne plates of English make which we have sold.

Very respectfully,

R. SELLEW & CO.

CINCINNATI, July 16, 1877.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE CO., *Pittsburgh, Pa. :*

GENTS: The terne plates purchased from you gave good satisfaction, several parties preferring your make to the imported.

Yours, truly,

SELLEW & COMP.

CINCINNATI, July 13, 1877.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE CO., *Pittsburgh, Pa. :*

DEAR SIR: We have sold several lots of your U. S. terne plates, and find that they have given general satisfaction, the finish and quality being fully equal to foreign plates of the same grade.

Yours, &c.,

T. H. LAWSON & CO.

BUFFALO, N. Y., July 12, 1877.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE CO., *Pittsburgh, Pa. :*

GENTS: It gives us pleasure to say we have used large lots of your terne plates. We have always found them good and run heavier than the imported plates.

Respectfully,

JOHN C. JEWETT & SONS.

CHICAGO, ILL., July 13, 1877.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE CO., *Pittsburgh, Pa. :*

GENTS: We have sold several lots of your roofing tin plates; we found them to be of good quality, and they gave entire satisfaction.

Truly, yours,

MILLER BROS. & KEEP.

CHICAGO, ILL., July 13, 1877.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE CO., *Pittsburgh, Pa. :*

GENTS: So far as our experience in selling your manufacture of tin plates extends, we cheerfully testify to its being in every way satisfactory.

Yours, respectfully,

SEEBERGER & BREakey.

CLEVELAND, OHIO, July 16, 1877.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE CO., *Pittsburgh, Pa. :*

GENTS: As we have sold some of your terne plates, we feel justified in saying that they have proved perfectly satisfactory, both in covering and in quality; the metal possesses the requisite toughness for all purposes it is used.

Yours,

GEO. WORTHINGTON & CO.

MILWAUKEE, Wis., July 17, 1877.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE CO., *Pittsburgh, Pa. :*

GENTLEMEN: The terne plates we have received from you have given all of our customers general satisfaction, their uniformity and toughness making it superior to a large number of imported brands. We have no doubt of increased sales as your brand becomes better known, and, with correspondent cost with the imported, preference will be given your make.

Very truly, yours,

JOHN NAZRO & CO.

BALTIMORE, MD., July 16, 1877.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE CO., *Pittsburgh, Pa. :*

GENTLEMEN: The tin plates we have purchased of you have been entirely satisfactory in every respect. It is as well covered and the metal as malleable as any imported we have used.

Yours, truly,

MATTHAI, INGRAM & CO.

PITTSBURGH, September 20, 1878.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE CO., City :

GENTLEMEN: We have been selling your United States roofing plates for the past two years to the extent of several thousand boxes, and have always found it to give entire satisfaction, many of our customers telling us that it is superior to English plates, and we believe it to be fully equal to the best known brands of imported plates.

Yours, truly,

FLEMING, AGNEW & CO.

PITTSBURGH, November 20, 1877.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE CO., City :

GENTLEMEN: We can testify best to the merits of the United States terne tin by repeating the remarks of several practical tinnors who have been buying from us for several years, and who say that they find your plates in every way equal, and in one respect far superior, viz, it is much less liable to rust when exposed to the atmosphere, having purposely tested it side by side on the same roof with English plates.

We are, respectfully, yours,

DEMMLER BROS.

To produce 4,000,000 boxes, 200,000 tons, of tin plates, which we consumed during the last fiscal year, in a central location of the iron industry in this country, we would have to expend about the following amounts for material and labor, about 80 per cent. of which we can produce in superior quality at home, block tin and palm oil being the only articles we cannot produce:

260,000 tons of pig metal, at \$23.....	\$5, 980, 000
1,000,000 tons of coal, at \$1.40.....	1, 400, 000
4,000,000 bushels charcoal, at 9 cents.....	360, 000
Repairs and maintenance of machinery and furnaces.....	800, 000
Lubricators, &c., for rolling-mill machinery.....	100, 000
30,000,000 pounds of sulphuric acid, at 2 cents.....	600, 000
10,000,000 pounds of palm oil or tallow, at 6 cents.....	600, 000
3,500,000 pounds of lead, at 5 cents.....	175, 000
22,000,000 pounds of tin, at 20 cents.....	4, 400, 000
20,000,000 feet of lumber, made up in boxes for packing, \$25 per M.....	500, 000
Wages to about 15,000 tin-mill employes, \$2.90 per box, or \$58 per ton ...	11, 600, 000
Incidental expenses, insurances, taxes &c.....	1, 000, 000
Total cost of producing 200,000 tons in United States (\$140 per ton).....	27, 515, 000
The appraised value of the imported plates without duty is given as.....	16, 599, 000

Showing a difference in the cost of production of this commodity in the two countries of..... 10, 916, 000

Had the rate of 2½ cents per pound been enforced during last year, the total duty would have amounted to \$10,826,329.75, and the difference would have almost been equalized.

And had the same duty of 2½ cents been enforced during all these eighteen years, the total amount of duty would have been \$92,472,778, instead of \$38,415,208, showing that the country has lost \$55,057,570 by the misconstruction of the law.

The difference in the cost of production in these two countries has its reason almost exclusively in the difference of the wages that are paid in the production of the different materials which are used for making tin plates. A large amount of the labor, for which we here employ men and grown-up boys, is in England performed by women and small children. Itemized, the differences would be about as follows:

The amount of wages paid in the United States exceeds	
those paid in England on a ton of pig metal.....	\$7 00
On five tons coal necessary to convert one ton.....	3 00
	————— \$10 00
35 per cent. of lost labor by wasting of material and material	
returned to scrap pile.....	3 50
	—————
	\$13 50
On one ton of sheet iron.....	30 00
On maintenance and repairs of machinery.....	1 60
On sulphuric acid.....	
On palm oil and tallow.....	

On 80 pounds of lead	\$1 60
On packing boxes	80
On lubricants	47 50
15 per cent. of lost labor by wasting material and defective sheets.	7 12
<hr/>	
Total difference per finished ton	54 62
Or, on the 200,000 tons	10, 924, 000 00

What we ask now is that the law be so constructed that the difference thus shown be equalized by a tariff duty, in the same manner as has been done on other commodities which either enter into the manufacture of tin plates, or which are similar in substance, and come into competition with tin plates in our markets.

N. B.—The figures are computed from actual results and experiments made at the United States Iron and Tin Plate Works during several years. The above wages and number of hands employed are exclusive of labor necessary to produce the aforementioned materials.

We beg to call your attention to the following comparative table :

Commodity.	Average market price.	Rate of duty.	Price, less duty.	Ad valorem rate.
				<i>Per cent.</i>
Pig metal	\$23 00	\$7 00	\$16 00	43½
Bar iron	02½	01	01½	57
Sheet iron, 20 to 25, wire gaugo.....	04. 3	01½	02. 8	53½
20 gaugo and lighter	04. 75	01½	03	58
Galvanized sheet iron	07	02½	04½	55
Pig lead	05	02	03	66
Russia polished iron	11	03	08	37½
Pickled and cold rolled sheets.....	05½	01½	04	37½
Tin plates and terne plates	05. 7	01. 1	04. 6	24

This table alone, we think, will convince you that the tin-plating business cannot be successfully carried on in this country under present circumstances. The duty we now propose would be 2½ cents per pound, or 60 per cent. ad valorem.

During the last ten years the jobbing price of IC tin plates has varied from \$12.50 to \$5.50, and a computation shows that the average price of a box of IC (the standard size, or 112 pounds) was, during the same period, \$8.50, or \$170 per gross ton. As we have shown that with the present facilities and the present market prices of material we can make a ton here at \$140, and as there is every likelihood that we shall improve these facilities when a larger number of manufacturers enter into this business, there is very little danger that even with the increased duty the average price to the consumer would be higher during the next ten years.

With a mill situated in a central location of the United States we could reach the jobber and actual consumer more directly, and to them we would save the expenses of the handling and rehandling, commission, and broker's charges, &c., and thus make up for nearly the amount of the extra duty.

But admitting, for the sake of argument, that the cost of the articles made from tinned plates would be enhanced, would our fruit and oyster canners suffer seriously by paying about four cents more per dozen quart cans ? and would not our dairymen

and farmers be fully recompensed by the additional demand for their products, coming from people occupied by means of such new industry.

Tinned ware is so universally used that if the increased duty were a tax, hardly any other tax could be more evenly distributed.

We are, most respectfully, yours,

LAUFMAN & CO., *Apollo Iron Works.*
 UNITED STATES IRON & TIN PLATE COMPANY.
 KIRKPATRICK & CO.,
Leechburgh Iron and Tin-Plate Works.
 SHOENBERGER & CO.,
Juniata Iron and Steel Works.
 EVERSON, MACRUM & CO.,
Pennsylvania Iron Works.

And others.

BREADSTUFFS AND PROVISIONS.

Conforming to the views expressed in the following letter, the League has deferred further revision of Schedule F, than made on page 1728, viz: on Animals, Eggs, and English Biscuit, which have been added to this Schedule for the reasons given herewith, following the letter from the Produce Exchange.

NEW YORK PRODUCE EXCHANGE,
New York, October 12, 1882.

CHARLES S. HILL, Esq.,
Metropolitan Industrial League, 319 Broadway, New York:

DEAR SIR: The President desires me to say to you that the examination which he has been able to give the papers relating to the proposed revision of the tariff which were addressed to the Exchange by the Industrial League only serves to confirm his conviction that it would be impracticable for this Exchange to give a suitable expression to its views on this very important subject at the present time.

Respectfully yours,

S. H. GRANT, *Superintendent.*

The necessity of a protective tariff has been so frankly and concisely presented to the Commission by the gentlemen representing English Biscuit or "fancy crackers," page 17, that an increased rate is asked thereon.

The United States Consul at Prescott, Canada, reports that

"Eggs enter largely into the exports of this consulate. During the year ending June 30, 1881, the declared export of eggs from this consulate amounted to \$280,000. Taking in the amount exported in lots of less than \$100 in value, would bring the amount for the year over \$300,000. A duty of *one cent per dozen* on eggs imported into the customs districts of Oswegatchie and Champlain, N. Y., and the district of Vermont, would pay the entire expenses of those collection districts, and this without increasing the value or price of eggs to the consumer in the United States."

The above rate is therefore recommended. Attention is also asked to the following comment from the Consul at Port Sarnia, Canada. Paragraph 555, it will be seen, page 81, provides only for importation *beyond the sea*, to which attention is also called.

"Some years ago Congress deemed it wise to remove the duty on animals of superior breed imported into the United States especially for breeding purposes. At the time, this action of Congress met the hearty approval of farmers and breeders everywhere, and I have no doubt but this legislation had a tendency to stimulate to some extent the desire on the part of the American farmer to improve the breed of his domestic animals. Large numbers of horses, cattle, and sheep, and swine were purchased in Canada by American buyers for this purpose, and the sale of breeding animals still continues to a very large extent. The Canadian stock-raiser was not slow in finding out that animals especially adapted for breeding purposes were in growing demand, whilst the prices of working horses, store cattle, and sheep, only merchantable when consigned to the slaughter-house, the livery stable, or the plow, had not advanced very materially in price. The animal which had been raised to the dignity of a breeder at once became much more valuable to the Canadian stock-raiser, and as a consequence the price to the American buyer was correspondingly advanced, in most cases fully 50 per cent."

Here we have another lesson from observation, and it teaches this: The only farmer who has been benefited by the abolition of the duty on breeding animals is the Canadian farmer; the mare which for ordinary purposes he had sold for \$100 he now finds to be more valuable to the American buyer, as in consequence of her admission to free entry the purchaser for the American market can afford to pay at least an advance of 20 per cent., the sum which under former tariff regulations he was called upon to pay as duty to the United States Government. But the Canadian stock-raiser does not stop at a mere advance of 20 per cent., but in most cases the value of breeding animals are advanced 50 per cent. and even more, and the transaction may be analyzed thus: The Canadian farmer gets \$50 more than he would have received but for the abolition of duty on the wares he sells; the American buyer pays \$50 more than he would have paid had the duty been allowed to remain, and the United States Government derives not a cent of customs revenue from the importation.

This refers to the free importation of breeding animals, as in this case it seemed to be the desire of Congress to remove, as much as possible, what seemed to be a burden to the American stock-raiser, and to inspire him with a desire to improve the breed of his animals. In some degree, as before intimated, he may have been encouraged to purchase superior animals for breeding purposes, but the cost of these animals has not been lessened to the American buyer by legislative enactment. As in all other like acts of legislation, it has only enriched the foreign producer at the expense of the American purchaser.

SUGAR.

BEET-ROOT.

Under Schedule G the League offers the following suggestions as evidence that the North and West are as much interested in the rates proposed as the present Sugar-cane producing states.

The wonderful progress and profit realized by this new Industry in Germany draws the attention of American agriculturists to the production thereof with great interest and importance. By proper attention to the cultivation of the beet and necessary encouragement of the industry while in its infancy a successful development in the United States is inevitable, and the following information from United States Consul Potter, "Consular Reports," is valuable:

"For the benefit of the farmer proposing to engage in the culture of the sugar-beet, I will suggest that deep, rich, moist, bottom land is dangerous ground upon which to experiment with a view of obtaining successful results. From such lands he may obtain enormous crops in bulk and weight (20 to 25 or more tons per acre), but his product will be merely water, with very little sugar, and the more tons he raises the more complete will be his failure. He will furnish the manufactory with a large amount of bulky material, while the product in sugar will be very discouraging. It is well known that many of the French farmers, who cultivate a kind of beets which grow very large and partly above ground, often produce 30 tons to the acre, and yet utterly fail in the business, while the prudent and thinking German succeeds admirably with smaller beets, producing 11 or 12 tons to the acre. In one case a great weight of water is produced, containing a small amount of saccharine matter, while in the other a beet is produced rich in sugar properties, and yielding more pounds of sugar to the acre with less than half the labor and cost of production.

"Rolling, and even hilly land, where there is not an excess of moisture, is best for the sugar-beet. It should be strong and well enriched. One of the very best fertilizers is wood-ashes and material containing alkaline properties. The elements that produce sugar in the maple tree will develop sugar in the beet. In this connection it may be mentioned that ashes from the wood of the sugar-maple tree are regarded as among the most valuable of all ashes in the production of potash.

"These hints will be quite enough for the intelligent farmers of the United States, and if those who propose to engage in the culture of sugar-beets will carefully study the subject they wish to master, and remember that they should seek to produce the largest quantity of sugar in the smallest amount of raw material, and that it is concentrated substance and not bulk or magnitude of material that is wanted, success in sugar-beet culture will be assured.

"The manufacture of beet sugar by hydrostatic pressure is now obsolete in Germany, the diffusion process being adopted instead, because the percentage of sugar obtained from the beets has been largely increased by the latter method. By the old process 20 to 30 pounds of beets were required to produce 1 pound of sugar. By the new method 10 to 12 pounds only of beets, of good average quality, produce 1 pound of sugar, besides a considerable percentage of molasses.

"The following table shows in detail the average cost of extracting, by improved German machinery, the raw sugar produced by 1 cwt. of beet-roots of good average quality:

Table showing average cost of working up 1 centner beet-roots, the product of which is about 10 per cent. raw sugar and 3½ per cent. molasses = 11 pounds sugar and 3.65 pounds molasses.

Elements of cost.	German marks.	United States cents.
1 centner beet-roots, washed and ready for cutting	1.034	24.61
Coal	0.153	} 3.90
Coke	0.011	
Muriatic acid	0.004	} 1.00
Bone charcoal	0.010	
Materials	0.023	} 2.23
Press-cloths	0.008	
Sacks	0.017	} 4.78
Limestone	0.006	
Repairs	0.005	} 6.61
Wages	0.158	
Salaries	0.043	} 0.61
Interest	0.101	
Miscellaneous expenses	0.022	} 0.17
Commissions	0.015	
Insurance	0.017	} 0.123
Wear and tear, depreciations, &c	0.123	
	1.817	43.23

"This table is made up from the carefully tested average results of three years' operations of a well-organized and successful manufactory in the northern part of Germany, and may be confidently relied on as accurate. The German Government collects a revenue tax on the value of the beet-roots after they are washed and ready for cutting. The official collecting this tax has a room in every manufactory, and superintends the weighing of the beets. As the American manufacturer will not have to bear a similar burden, this important item of cost has been omitted in the table referred to."

The yearly profit of this Industry in Germany has been 40 per cent., but last year, it is officially reported, *amounted on an average* to 100 per cent.

The League considers, however, that machinery is the pride of American ingenuity, and therefore urges the elimination of Section 2510 of the law. (See p. 1761.)

SILK.

The hopeful development of the Silk-worm cultivation and Silk reeling in the South as a new industry is set forth in the following extracts from the official works of the Department of State and Department of Agriculture, which the League begs to call to the attention of the Tariff Commission in their consideration of Schedule H.

[Extract from Consular Report No. 3, page 146.]

A suggestion or two may be made as to the extension in the United States of the culture of the silk-worm, which is so widely extended through Northern Italy. In our Middle or Southern States wherever the mulberry (*Morus multicaulis*) could be grown under favorable conditions, silk culture would be found to be profitable. It is especially fitted for adoption as an occupation to supplement income for families of small means. Here it is carried on largely by *women* and *even children*, and requires very little outlay.

[Extract from Consular Report No. 3, page 97.]

Two questions present themselves at this juncture; the first is, can we raise silk? the second, can we reel it when we have raised it? The first has already been solved; we can raise the silk-worm because we can grow the mulberry-leaf, which is its essential food. This question has been conclusively determined. Silk-worms have been successfully raised in the United States for more than thirty years. The second remains to be solved. The impossibility hitherto of competing with the cheap labor of Europe, where the silk reeler receives but 30 cents a day, and of China and Japan, where but from 6 to 10 cents is paid, has been the principal, in fact the only, cause why we have not and could not reel the silk from the cocoon. Every silk manufacturer will admit the desirability, nay, for permanent success, the absolute necessity, of having his raw material at hand, even as the cotton manufacturer has his.

To be absolved from the necessity of importing from Europe and Asia the raw material would be, next to constituting the silk industry with us, one of the great sources of our national wealth. *It would give employment to hundreds of thousands of hands, women and children, now idle or non-producing.* It would at the same time afford the masses an elegant and durable material at one-third less than the present cost; and it would give to capital a new and lucrative source of investment, shared at present but by a few individuals, and restricted to exceedingly limited proportions.

But how can we overcome the competition of Europe and Asia with regard to labor?

In the month of June last, recommended by the Department of State, which under the present administration has done so much to encourage our home manufactures and develop our foreign trade, and provided with letters by the Commissioner of Agriculture, there came to Europe a young American engineer, who, before leaving home, had already given much time and study to the subject, and who since has devoted several months to visiting and carefully inspecting the principal filatures of France and Italy. This gentleman, Mr. Edward W. Serrell, jr., of New York, believed it possible to invent machinery which, by the use and application of *electricity*, would not only overcome existing difficulties, produce a superior quality of thread, but solve at the same time the all-important labor question, and render silk-reeling in the United States as possible and profitable as anywhere else in the world.

Mr. Serrell has at length been successful, and very shortly this fact will be abundantly and incontestably proven, both for the now unhappy and rapidly declining silk-reeling industry of Europe, as well as for, from an American point of view, still more important and valuable interest, the successful planting of silk industry in the United States in all its varied stages and branches, from the mulberry tree, the *magnanerie* or hatching-house, the *reeling mill*, to a still higher perfection than what we have already attained in the fabrication of tissues. What the cotton gin has done for cotton, which with us ninety years ago hardly had a commercial value, the Serrell invention may yet do for silk, and the United States become as pre-eminent for the latter and costlier product as for the former and cheaper culture.

The capital point to be derived from these exhibits is the decline of French filatures, and to note that this decline has proceeded from (1) inferior crops, (2) decreased cou-

sumption of pure silk goods, (3) superiority of Italian filatures, (4) competition of Chinese and Japanese labor, and to add that this deplorable state could easily be revived and resuscitated by the introduction of improved and economical machinery.

And Consul Peixotto writes, of date October —, this year: "It is with pleasure that I announce the success of our young countryman, Mr. Edward W. Serrell, jr., in the discovery and successful application of automatic machinery to the reeling of Silk. This invention, patented now in all countries, will speedily enable the American people to engage in sericulture with the assurance of remuneration, and that in a few years they will be able to produce the raw material and *reel* Silk as well and as profitably as they now spin and weave it.

It is most opportune to give the views of the Agricultural Department, as prepared by Professor Riley. See also pp. 1706 and 1731.

[Extract from report of Prof. C. V. Riley, Department of Agriculture.]

That there exists just now a very general and widespread interest in the subject of silk culture in the United States is manifest from the recent large increase in the correspondence of the Entomological Division in relation thereto, and from the demand made for this Manual. To avoid the disappointment that is sure to follow exaggerated and visionary notions on the subject, it may be well here to emphasize the facts that the elements of successful silk culture on a large scale are at the present time entirely wanting in this country; that the profits of silk culture are always so small that extensive operations by organized bodies must prove unprofitable where capital finds so many more lucrative fields for employment; that extensive silk-raising is fraught with dangers that do not beset less ambitious operations; that silk culture, in short, as shown in this Manual, is to be recommended only as a light and pleasant employment for those members of the farmer's household who either cannot do or are not engaged in otherwise remunerative work.

The want of experience is a serious obstacle to silk culture in this country; for while, as is shown in the following pages, the mere feeding of a certain number of worms and the preparation of the cocoons for market are simple enough operations, requiring neither physical strength nor special mental qualities, yet skill and experience count for much, and the best results cannot be attained without them. In Europe and Asia this experience is traditional and inherited, varying in different sections both as to methods and races of worm employed. With the great variety of soil, climate, and conditions prevailing in this country, experience in the same lines will also vary, but the general principles indicated in this Manual should govern.

The greater value of labor here as compared with labor in the older silk-growing countries has been in the past a most serious obstacle to silk culture in the United States, but conditions exist to-day that render this obstacle by no means insuperable. In the first place comparative prices, as so often quoted, are misleading. The girl who makes only twenty or thirty cents a day, in France or Italy, does as well, because of the relatively lower prices of all other commodities there, as she who earns three or four fold as much here. Again, the conditions of life are such in those countries that every woman among the agricultural classes, not absolutely necessary in the household, finds a profitable avenue for her labor in field or factory, so that the time given to silk-raising must be deducted from other profitable work in which she may be employed. With us, on the contrary, there are thousands—aye, hundreds of thousands—of women who, from our very conditions of life, are unable to labor in the field or factory, and have, in short, no means, outside of household duties, of converting labor into capital. The time that such might give to silk culture would, therefore, be pure gain, and in this sense the cheap-labor argument loses nearly all its force. This holds more particularly true in the larger portion of the South and West that are least adapted to the production of merchantable dairy products or where bee-keeping and poultry-raising are usually confined to the immediate wants of the household.

The want of a ready market for the cocoons is now, as it always has been, the most serious obstacle to be overcome, and the one to which all interested in establishing silk culture should first direct their attention. Ignore this, and efforts to establish the industry are bound to fail, as they have failed in the past. A permanent market once established, and the other obstacles indicated will slowly, but surely, vanish as snow before the coming spring. Owing to the prevalence of disease in Europe, there grew up a considerable demand for silkworm eggs in this country, so that several persons found the production of these eggs quite profitable. Large quantities are yet shipped across the continent from Japan each winter; but this demand is, in its nature, transient and limited, and with the improved Pasteur method of selection, and prevention of disease, silk-raisers are again producing their own eggs in Europe. Silk culture must depend for its growth, therefore, on the production of cocoons, and these will find no remunerative sale except where the silk can be reeled. I find no

reason to change the views expressed relative to the part this Department might take in succoring silk culture through Congressional aid; for, however just and desirable direct protection to the industry may be by the imposition of an import duty on reeled silk, no such protection has yet been given by Congress, and silk filatures cannot be fully and profitably established without some fostering at the start. Under a heavy protective tariff our silk manufactures have rapidly grown in importance and wealth, until, during the year 1881 (according to the reports of W. C. Wyckoff, secretary of the Silk Association of America), raw silk to the value of \$11,936,865, and waste silk and cocoons to the value of \$769,186 were imported at the ports of New York and San Francisco, while our manufactured goods reached in value between \$35,000,000 and \$40,000,000. Now, the so-called raw silk thus imported, to the value of nearly \$12,000,000, is just as much a manufactured article as the woven goods, and its importation free of duty is as much an encouragement to foreign manufacturers and an impediment to home industry as the removal of the duty would be on the woven goods. The aid that Congress, through this Department, should, in my judgment, give to silk-reeling, and thereby to silk-production, may be supplied by private and benevolent means; and I am pleased to record, in this connection, the recent efforts of the Women's Silk Culture Association of California and the similar association in Philadelphia. This last organization has in operation a good hand-reel, worked by a skilled Italian, and the secretary, Mrs. John Lucas, offers to purchase cocoons at prices ranging from \$1 to \$1.50 per pound, according to quality. Messrs. Crozier & Co., of Corinth, Miss., and Messrs. McKittrick & Co., of Memphis, Tenn., also advertise that they will purchase cocoons at Lyons prices. These are beginnings in the right direction, but so far the efforts are warranted only in the former case through benevolent support, and in the latter as an aid to a general business of supplying eggs and mulberry trees.

The obstacles which I have set forth are none of them permanent or insuperable, while we have some advantages not possessed by other countries. One of infinite importance is the inexhaustible supply of Osage orange (*Maclura aurantiaca*) which our thousands of miles of hedges furnish; another is the greater average intelligence and ingenuity of our people, who will not be content to tread merely in the ways of the Old World, but will be quick to improve on their methods; still another may be found in the more spacious and commodious of the farmers' barns and outhouses. Every year's experience with the *Maclura* confirms all that I have said of its value as silkworm food. Silk which I have had reeled from a race of worms fed on it now for eleven consecutive years, is of the very best quality, while the tests made at the recent silk fair at Philadelphia showed that in some instances a less weight of cocoons spun by *Maclura*-fed worms was required for a pound of reeled silk than of cocoons from mulberry-fed worms.

WOOD.

The principle and policy of the League is "*true protection and justice to all American Industries,*" based upon our true conditions and possibility of future development.

In regard, therefore, to timber (Schedule K), the Commission has had two views presented; the one by Mr. Dean and others, of Chicago, who said: "The committee that were before you yesterday have already suggested that it might be well, if we are so rapidly getting out of stock, to draw our supplies from our neighbors for a while, and to impoverish them rather than ourselves"; and the other by Mr. Whittier, of Saginaw, who claims that "it is desirable to hold back the too great influx from Canada, that their great forests may be our timber preserves for use when ours are gone."

It appears so unnatural that we should consume ourselves first, and then depend upon the chance generosity of others that the free admission of timber is recommended. Canada will doubtless protect herself.

WOOL.

Regarding Schedule L the League submit the following argument in behalf of this industry, with earnest indorsement:

[A paper prepared for the Metropolitan Industrial League by Mr. E. H. Ammidown.]

The general principles which should govern and limit the rates of duty in a protective tariff are:

1. That no duties should be levied upon articles which the country is not adapted to produce with advantage.

2. That duties adequate to cover cost of production and stimulate increase of product should be levied on all articles which the country is capable of producing with reasonable advantage, and of which it does not produce enough to supply the home demand.

3. That whenever the home production of any article is equal to the consumptive demand the duties on that article should never be insufficient to protect the cost of it, but may without detriment be very much higher than is sufficient to protect cost, inasmuch as competition among producers is in such cases enough to prevent the article from advancing far above cost, no matter what the rate of duty may be, and may often reduce the price below cost.

If these principles be applied to the wool-growing industry, we should conclude that upon such classes of wool as cannot be produced in this country with reasonable advantage there should be no duty. Very few kinds of wool would be found to come under this head—possibly some of the long and coarse carpet wools from Southern Russia, the borders of the Black Sea, and Central Asia, Northern Africa, and South America. These wools, under the existing tariff, would generally come under the 3 cents per pound duty, though some of them costing over 12 cents per pound would come under the 6 cents per pound duty. A critical examination might show that some of these wools could be produced advantageously here, and on such wools, which would be of the better class, the 6-cent duty should be retained.

In respect to all other wools it is safe to say that they may, with rare if any exceptions, be produced here advantageously. If any special kind of clothing or combing wool cannot be raised here, it is either very unimportant or a substitute for it may be found among our own wools. The capacity of this country to produce nearly all the wools we require except certain classes of carpet wools is shown by the statistics of our wool importations. In 1881, for instance, there were withdrawn for consumption from the custom-houses of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia about 58,000,000 pounds of foreign wool. Of this 45,000,000 were carpet wools, and of the remainder about 11,000,000 were clothing wools and about 2,000,000 combing. About 80 per cent. were carpet wools. If we assume that the consumption of wool in the United States is represented on an average by the quantity produced added to the quantity entered from abroad for consumption, during any one year (which assumption is justified by the statistics of the wool trade for many years past), we find that in 1881 the country required for its wants: Foreign carpet wools, 45,000,000 pounds; foreign combing wools, 2,000,000 pounds; foreign clothing wools, 11,000,000 pounds; domestic wools, 290,000,000 pounds. Excluding the carpet and combing wools, it appears from these figures that the country required of foreign wool for clothing purposes a quantity less than 4 per cent. of the total domestic clip. In other words, an increase of 4 per cent. of our domestic wool product, if of the quality of these 11,000,000 pounds imported, would have fully supplied the demands of our home manufactures. The clip of 1882 is estimated at 320,000,000 pounds, or an increase of 10 per cent. on the clip of 1881; so that unless the home demand has largely increased since last year we are already producing more than enough to supply it.

If the importation of 11,000,000 pounds of foreign clothing wools used indicates that we are deficient in the production of these special kinds of wool, it is evident that the second principle laid down at the beginning of this review should be applied in determining the duty on them, provided it appears that this country can produce such wools advantageously. It will be found that these 11,000,000 pounds entered for consumption in 1881, and the importations generally of clothing wools are chiefly Cape, Australian, Montevideo, and corresponding qualities of fine wool. Can we produce them with such a degree of advantage as to justify protecting the growers? Undoubtedly we can, and we are producing such wools both North and South. Formerly Western Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Ohio monopolized the product of these finest wools. But within a few years Texas and the Southwestern Territories have begun to send them to market, and are now producing them in such considerable quantities that there can be no doubt whatever that if we are not now producing enough of these qualities to supply the demand, the encouragement afforded by protection will very soon lead to an adequate supply, and develop a production which, by competition, will regulate prices so as to insure as low a price as the cost of production will admit.

On this class of wools, therefore, a duty should be levied high enough to protect cost of growing and encourage an increase of production, so as ultimately to supply the demand and bring about competition among the growers for the sale of their product. What the rate of duty should be may be determined by observing the current prices of such wools here as compared with prices of corresponding wools in the London market; and taking into view also any peculiar conditions temporarily affecting either the home or the foreign price. The price of foreign fine wools does not seem to be influenced at this time by any unusual conditions. The supply and the demand are both large and steady, increasing regularly with the growth of population and wealth. American fine wools have, on the other hand, been seriously affected, as to value, by the universal demand in this country for rough and medium fabrics for men's clothing, and the absence of any general demand for fine wool fabrics either for men or women. Recently there has been perhaps a growing inquiry for the finer kinds of woollens for women's use, and this may increase to such an extent as to bring the finest wools into greater demand. But for some time past the finest wools have been

cheaper in proportion than medium grades, for the reason just stated; and it would not be quite just to assume that growers of fine wools have been satisfied with the prices they have been getting. Yet, as the product becomes more largely Southern, it may be assumed that the cost of growing will be less; it is now on an average quite a percentage less than it was a few years ago. It would not therefore be far out of the way now, and surely, a few years hence, not at all out of the way, to assume the current prices as reasonable ones for the fine wools of this country, and that if protected on that basis the growers would increase their production, so as to supply the demand of our home manufacturers to any required degree, within a very few years at the farthest.

Upon comparing the current rates of such wools with the prices of similar foreign wools in London, it will be found that the American wools are selling here at 8 to 10 cents per scoured pound lower than similar foreign wools can be landed with duty and charges paid. This 8 to 10 cents per scoured pound of Australian, Cape, and similar wools is equal to about 3 to 4 cents on the wool in the grease, as it usually comes to market; this difference is about 10 per cent. on the foreign cost of such wools, so that the duty might be reduced 10 per cent. on such wools without injury to the American grower, and still leave him the protection needed to encourage and develop his business. On such wools, therefore, I would advise that the 10 per cent. ad valorem duty now levied be abandoned.

Medium wools have for many years constituted by far the largest part of the wool used in this country.

Very few of the active men of our day have ever worn broadcloth or fine-faced fabrics, except on ceremonious occasions, at weddings and funerals, balls and dinner parties. For such uses one suit of clothes will serve for many years, and our manufacturers have, with few exceptions, ceased making goods for which there is such a small demand. Other fabrics, in which extra fine wools are used, are also in limited demand. Hence the general inquiry has been for medium wools, and wool-growers responding to it have given their attention chiefly to the growth of this class of wools, and have realized for them larger profits than they would have got from fine wools. But the demand has hitherto kept pace with the increasing supply, so that to-day, with an enormous enlargement of the product, the price still remains higher in proportion to cost than the price of finer wools. How long this peculiar state of things will continue cannot with certainty be predicted; but there are indications that the supply is now equal to the demand, and may soon exceed it. It is certain that the larger profits of medium wools will at last cause excessive production and depress their value to a fair point relatively to fine wools. Hence, in estimating the rate of duty which these wools require for their protection, we may safely place the cost of producing considerably lower than the market prices of these wools, taking into view the quantity produced, would lead us to suppose it to be; from the prevailing high prices of medium wools it is also evident that the supply has not yet so far overreached the demand as to induce effective competition among the growers, and that the influence of competition with foreign wools is still useful to prevent excessive prices.

Assuming, therefore, that the present rates for medium wools are unnaturally high, and that the difference between the scoured cost of these wools and foreign wools landed here should not vary far from the difference in cost of our fine wools and foreign fine wools landed here, and assuming also that the actual variation of these differences due to excessive demand for medium wools will before long be overcome by an augmented supply of medium wools, it is safe to say that the ad valorem duty of 11 per cent. on medium wools may be abandoned without serious injury to the American grower at the present time, and with considerable advantage to him in the long run. This operation of this advantage will be hastened by the same influences which tend to lower the prices of American fine wools, viz, the rapidly increasing product of both fine and medium wools in the southern parts of the United States, where the climate allows the sheep to pasture the year round, with little or no expense either for shelter or food. In view of this circumstance, the Northern wool-grower should see it for his interest not to stimulate the growth of wools in our warmer latitudes by excessive duties on foreign wools. The inevitable result of competition between the Northern and Southern wool-growers will ultimately diminish the Northern product and increase the Southern, where it is most profitable, and it is for the interest of the Northern wool-growers not to hasten this conclusion by unnecessary protection.

The same general principles may be applied to determine the duty required on combing wools.

In view of the foregoing considerations, and of the importance of simplifying the tariff whenever practicable, the following amendments to the schedule of duties on wool are suggested:

1. Abolish the 3 cent duty and admit free all carpet or other similar wools not grown, or which cannot be advantageously grown, in this country.
2. On all carpet or other similar wools, washed and unwashed, which may with

reasonable advantage be grown in this country, levy a duty of 6 cents per pound, or, when scoured, 15 cents per pound.

3. On all kinds of unwashed clothing and combing wools levy a duty of 11 cents per pound, and 22 cents per pound on this class of wools when washed; and on scoured wools of this class, 33 cents per pound.

NEW YORK, October 5, 1882.

CHEMICALS.

CASTOR OIL.

Sustaining the recommendation made on page 1708, and in further explanation thereof, the following particulars are herewith submitted by the League asking the careful attention of the Commission thereto, and also to the revised rate, pages 1740-1742.

[Paper of Messrs. H. J. Baker & Brother.]

NEW YORK, September 8, 1882.

Mr. CHARLES S. HILL,
Metropolitan Industrial League:

DEAR SIR: We are interested in the manufacture of castor oil, having erected works some years ago, at an outlay of over \$100,000, with the expectation that a fair protection would be accorded us as against the very cheap labor of East India, the great foreign seat of castor oil manufacture, and would state that this industry, while comparatively speaking not a large one, has grown under the favorable conditions of the present tariff, until now the entire consumption of the United States is supplied by castor oil made in this country, from machinery made here.

The capital invested in the plant for the manufacture of the oil, &c., is some \$850,000, and unless a liberal protection is granted the manufacturer of castor oil in this country, the business would be entirely destroyed, and the factories and machinery rendered worthless by reason of the superior facilities which foreign manufacturers of castor oil enjoy, and which would enable them to deliver their oil in this country at a price which would drive the American oil from the market, and ruin the domestic industry, after which accomplishment the foreign manufacturers would doubtless advance their prices so that castor oil would cost our home consumers much more than it does now, this being a very common proceeding with foreigners when they have once obtained control of our markets.

The disadvantages under which American manufacturers of castor oil labor, as compared with foreign manufacturers, are many. In the first place labor in East India, where the oil is made, is from 3 to 6 annas per day (9 to 18 cents), while we pay \$1.75 to \$2 for ordinary hands, and from \$5 to \$8 for foreman, &c., or some 1,500 per cent. more than the foreigner pays.

Again, in freighting the crude material (castor seed) from East India, the principal place whence it is imported, we are compelled to pay freight on the castor seed, while they freight the oil itself. As the oil is only about one-third of the substance of the seed, it will be seen at once that we have to pay freight on three times the quantity of material (seed) which the foreign manufacturer has to pay on, in laying down the same quantity of oil in this country.

Further, we pay a considerable duty on the tin from which we make the cans to hold the oil, while the cans which contain imported oil pay no duty whatever.

The mere fact of there being a duty on castor oil sufficient to keep foreigners from crushing this domestic industry does not compel the consumers in this country to pay a high price for their oil, home competition preventing anything but a very moderate percentage being realized from the business. As proof of this statement, we would state that although the duty is and has been \$1 per gallon, the average price at which domestic castor oil has been sold in this country for the past six years is \$1.02½ per gallon. The average price for each year being as follows:

	Per gallon.
1876	\$1 02½
1877	1 11
1878	99½
1879	1 18
1880	89½
1881	96

So that it is at once manifest that, while the duty has kept foreign castor oil out of our market, the consumers have not had anything to complain of. And yet, although the taking off of the entire duty on castor oil would cause our American mills to close their doors and throw their workmen out of employment, we could still manufacture at a moderate margin of profit if the duty were reduced to 60 cents per gallon, provided castor seed is admitted free, or at a duty not exceeding 20 cents per bushel, and we

would therefore urge the propriety of reducing the duty on castor oil to 60 cents per gallon, and castor seed or beans to 20 cents per bushel of 50 pounds.

The foregoing will give you the principal points on which we base our views, and we trust they are in such shape that you may be able without any difficulty to embody the main points in your manuscript.

Very truly, yours,

H. J. BAKER & BRO.

SOLUBLE OIL.

Referring to pages 1679 and 1680, where complaint is made as to the faults in Enumeration, the League offers the following evidence as one instance of the troubles arising therefrom:

To the Metropolitan Industrial League, New York:

GENTLEMEN: As manufacturers of soluble oil, we would respectfully call your attention to the disadvantages under which we labor, and also to the amount of duty the government loses, to which it is justly entitled, by reason of the importation of this article at a rate of duty much less than its constituent parts would pay.

Permit us to state that the manufacture of this important article in this country is almost entirely destroyed, and that of foreign countries stimulated, by allowing it to come in at a rate of duty so much less than that which applies to the materials of which it is composed. Being soluble in water, it is used extensively in printing and dyeing, and is composed of castor and other oils (usually averaging 50 to 70 per cent. of the article), the remainder being oil of vitriol, aqua ammonia, and water. It is imported under various names, viz: alizarine assistant, dye assistant, oleine, soap liquor (which is on the free list), soluble oil, turkey red oil, paying but 20 per cent. duty ad valorem.

In 1881 there were imported into this country about 1,200,000 pounds, or some 150,000 gallons.

The duty on the castor oil contained in the quantity (some 75,000 gallons), at the present tariff on castor oil (\$1 per gallon), would be \$75,000. The duty actually paid was about \$9,600, thus depriving the government of some \$65,000 revenue, to which it was entitled, in addition to crushing the industry in this country by thus protecting the foreign manufacturers of this article at the expense of our domestic manufacturers.

To remedy this evil we would respectfully advocate the adoption of the following clause in the tariff: "That the article known as soluble oil, alizarine assistant, dye assistant, oleine, turkey red oil, or any similar compounds, by whatever name they may be known, shall pay the following duty: 35 cents per gallon when containing 50 per cent. or less of castor oil and other oils, and a pro rata increase when the percentage of oil in the compound is increased."

This percentage of oil can be very easily determined. We would call your attention specially to the sentence above, "or by whatever name it shall be known," as it would be useless to provide for the above duty on the names of the article as mentioned above, as the foreign manufacturers would simply bring it into this country under some newly invented name, in order to avail themselves of the 20 per cent. ad valorem duty.

In order to prevent the future importation of this and similar articles by foreign manufacturers to the detriment and loss to the government and our domestic manufacturers, we would earnestly advocate the insertion after Schedule M of the following clause: "Any non-enumerated article, being composed wholly or in part of any article embraced in Schedule M, shall pay the same rate of duty as is chargeable on that constituent part paying the highest duty."

BRUSTLEIN, SURY & CO., *New York and Jersey City.*
 JOHNSON & SHAW, *40 India Wharf, Boston.*
 BLOEDE & RATHBONE, *Parkersburg, W. Va.*
 F. D. EATON, *Swansea, Mass.*

GLYCERINE.

Under the same schedule, the League asks consideration of the following:

[Paper of Messrs. Marx & Rawolle.]

Respecting proposed changes and revisions in the existing tariff, we respectfully desire to call your attention to the article of *glycerine*, in which we are largely interested as refiners and distillers and importers of the crude material from Europe.

Crude glycerine is mostly obtained at present as a secondary or by-product in the manufacture of stearine candles. A small quantity (since January 1, 1881) has also been made from soap lye waters; and various other (hitherto mostly unsuccessful) attempts have been made to extract the crude glycerine from fats and oils, before the latter have been converted into soap and other articles. Crude glycerine as thus made is

of various shades of brown or dark yellow color; whereas, manufactured glycerine is either white or light yellow color, although if badly or imperfectly refined and distilled it may even be of a brown color; or manufactured glycerine may be artificially colored, like sugars. Hence, neither color, nor specific gravity, nor both, are sufficient criterions to distinguish crude from manufactured glycerine.

Our business consists in refining and distilling the impure crude glycerine, and producing the pure white and yellow glycerines for drugs and manufacturing purposes. The crude material we buy from the stearine candle manufacturers, partly in this country and partly in Europe, more than 80 per cent. of all the crude glycerine that we have worked at our factory.

The domestic stearine manufacturers produce only about one-third of the total consumption of glycerine in this country. On the other hand, the domestic glycerine refiners have more than ample capacity and machinery to produce all the manufactured glycerine from the crude required in the United States. For the above reasons we are unable to buy all our requirements of crude glycerine in this country at any price.

The present duty is 30 per cent. ad valorem, being the same on both crude and manufactured glycerine. This is unfair and unjust, because it gives no protection to us refiners.

In changing the present ad valorem duty we think that the total duty to be collected by the government will remain about the same, without any material increase or reduction, because the amount of duty at the proposed specific rates will and can be collected more efficiently and correctly.

We propose a specific duty of 2 cents per pound on crude glycerine, and 5 cents per pound on manufactured glycerine.

Crude glycerine is defined to be of a brown or yellow color, of 1.2500 specific gravity or less (at the standard temperature of 60° Fahr.) as directly extracted from fats and oils by the stearine-candle, soap, and other manufacturers, without having been subsequently purified by the process of refining, distilling, or both.

Manufactured glycerine is defined to be white glycerine of any gravity, and brown and yellow glycerine of more than 1.2500 specific gravity, and any glycerine of any gravity which has been wholly or partly refined or distilled.

We desire to change the present ad valorem into a specific duty, because:

1st. The difficulty and almost impossibility of determining the foreign market value of glycerine.

2d. The injustice of the present law, which compels us (when we have been so fortunate as to buy at low prices) to add value in order to make market value, and to pay duty thereon; but, on the other hand, when we are unfortunate to buy at high prices, and market value becomes lower than our contract prices, we are compelled to pay duty on our contract prices and not on market value. This is a poor law, which does not act both ways, and from which we have been suffering for some time past, and thus doubly increasing our misfortune, when losing money on depreciation of our goods. To this matter of market value we would specially and urgently call your attention.

3d. To protect ourselves and the government against frauds by undervaluation.

4th. The present inadequate and almost entire want of protection in the duty on manufactured glycerine, because, as before stated, the present ad valorem rate of 30 per cent. is the same on both crude and manufactured glycerine.

We propose a specific duty of 2 cents per pound on crude glycerine, so as to give fair protection to the stearine-candle manufacturers, who at present are the only ones producing crude glycerine in this country.

As a matter of course, a duty on crude glycerine makes necessary a duty on manufactured glycerine, and this latter should be at least 5 cents per pound, or, say, at least 3 cents per pound *more* than the former, because—

1st. The extra cost and labor to make the manufactured glycerine, our rents, wages to laborers, salaries to clerks, interest, many and expensive repairs to machinery, and general expense for conducting business, are fully double what they are on the continent of Europe, from whence about 99 per cent. of the manufactured glycerine is imported.

2d. There is a wastage of about 25 per cent. in producing the manufactured from the crude glycerine, and on which wastage we have to pay duty. This is an important item and must not be overlooked.

3d. The freight, insurance, and banking commission which we have to pay on this 25 per cent. wastage.

4th. The greater cost in this country than in Europe of the packages in which manufactured glycerine is imported, such as glass bottles, tins, and cases.

5th. The great advantage which the foreign refiner has over the domestic one; the former, being on the spot in Europe, is naturally able and does buy his crude material cheaper than we American refiners can buy it there.

During the past eleven years, from 1871 to 1881, inclusive, the average price, free on

board, European port, was, for crude glycerine, 75 francs per 100 kilograms, and for manufactured glycerine 160 francs per 100 kilograms.

The duty on said crude was 75 francs \times 19.3 cents (220 pounds \times 30 per cent.) = 1.974 cents per pound.

The duty on said manufactured was 160 francs \times 19.3 cents (220 pounds \times 30 per cent.) = 4.211 cents per pound.

However, during the year 1881 the average paid was, for crude glycerine, 155 francs per 100 kilograms, and for manufactured glycerine 215 francs per 100 kilograms, yielding a duty on said crude of 155 francs \times 19.3 cents (220 pounds \times 30 per cent.) = 4.079 cents per pound, and a duty on said manufactured of 215 francs \times 19.3 cents (220 pounds \times 30 per cent.) = 5.658 cents per pound.

During the eleven years 1871 to 1881, inclusive, the difference in the duty between manufactured and crude glycerine was 2.237 cents per pound, whereas in 1881 this difference was only 1.579 cents per pound and there is every reason to believe that in future this difference will become still smaller, and consequently the present ad valorem duty will even be less adequate as a protection on manufactured.

To prove how the tariff affected us in 1881, we give the following detailed calculation:

	Per pound.
25 per cent. wastage on duty of 4.079 cents per pound on crude.....	\$1 02
25 per cent. wastage on freight, 10 cents; insurance, 2 cents; and banking, 3 cents	15
Difference of labor and expenses.....	2 28
Total	3 42
Difference in duty between manufactured and crude glycerine in 1881 was.....	1. 579
Loss to American refiners.....	1. 841

As before stated, if the specific duty on crude glycerine be 2 cents per pound, then there should be at least 3 cents per pound more, or 5 cents per pound total duty on manufactured glycerine, which difference of 3 cents per pound we calculate as follows:

	Per pound.
25 per cent. wastage on duty of 2 cents per pound on crude.....	\$0 50
25 per cent. wastage on freight, insurance, and banking.....	15
Difference of labor and expenses.....	2 25
Margin for the American refiner.....	10
Total	3 00

Not including difference in cost of packages, and not including the great advantage the foreign refiner has over the domestic one in being able to buy his crude glycerine cheaper in Europe, as before explained.

We also wish to call your attention to the present law of duty on *packages*. A part of the crude glycerine which we import is in old petroleum barrels, for which no charge is made, and on which we consequently pay no duty, but the larger part of our importations is made in iron drums (made at Paris, France), so as to avoid leakage, and on which drums we pay duty. Now, as we receive many more of these iron drums than we can sell here, and so as to utilize them, we have for some time past shipped back these drums, when empty, to Europe, there had them refilled with glycerine, and then again reshipped such filled drums to New York, and each time we have been obliged to pay duty over and over again, which we do not think is just. Hence, we propose that foreign packages on which duty has been once paid shall have the privilege of being sent back to Europe, and thence reshipped to this country time and again, without being obliged to pay duty a second time, by keeping a proper account and registry at the port of entry.

If our above proposed change of the present ad valorem duty into a specific one be not accepted by you, then we desire that the present ad valorem duty of 30 per cent. on both crude and manufactured glycerine be changed to 15 per cent. ad valorem on crude glycerine, and 35 per cent. on manufactured glycerine, so as to give us refiners in the United States the necessary and required protection on our manufactured glycerine. And further, that said new proposed ad valorem rates be levied on the market value in Europe, at the place where such goods are produced (and not at the port of shipment), no matter if the purchase or contract price actually paid be above or below such market value.

Lastly, by the present law we are obliged to pay duty also on 3 per cent. commission added, and whereas we buy our goods at net prices, all charges and commissions included, we think that it is unjust to compel us to pay duty on commissions which we do not actually and really pay. We therefore suggest that this law be changed, and that in future duty shall only be levied on commissions when they are actually paid by the importer on his purchases, and that no duty shall be levied where such purchases are made at net prices, in which all charges and commissions are included.

To recapitulate, we propose—

- 1st. Specific duty of 2 cents per pound on crude glycerine.
- 2d. Specific duty of 5 cents per pound on manufactured glycerine.
- 3d. Foreign packages on which duty has been once paid, when shipped back to Europe, and thence reshipped to this country, shall be free, and shall not pay duty a second time.

4th. Ad valorem duty shall be levied on market value in Europe, no matter if the purchase price paid be above or below such market value.

5th. No duty shall be levied on commissions, no matter whether such commissions be actually paid by the importer on his purchases or not.

We think that the above proposed changes in the present tariff are fair, just, and equitable, and will meet with the full and cordial approval of all interests concerned.

We remain, very respectfully, your obedient servants,

MARX & RAWOLLE.

NEW YORK CITY, *October* , 1882.

LEAD PENCILS.

In justice to a new and remarkably developed Industry, the League recommends the following revision under Schedule of Sundries :

[Letter of the Eagle Pencil Company.]

NEW YORK, *October 24*, 1882.

C. S. HILL, Esq.,

Statistician for the Metropolitan Industrial League :

SIR: At our late interview you informed me that it was proposed to change the present duty on lead pencils, viz, 50 cents per gross and 30 per cent. ad valorem, to 50 per cent. ad valorem, in accordance with the intention to simplify and reduce the present tariff, where practicable, from specific and ad valorem to either a specific or ad valorem duty.

I had at that time the pleasure of submitting to you that the present duty on lead pencils is an equitable one, and as low as German hand labor will permit the existence of this industry in the United States. Also, that an ad valorem duty of 50 per cent., while sufficient protection for high-priced goods, would not be for low-priced goods to compete with those of German manufacture.

After due consideration, I am of the opinion that a specific duty should be substituted, and of \$1 per gross, amounting, in fact, to about 50 per cent. ad valorem (as per statement below), as proposed by you, and, while protecting the cheaper grades, will be less excessive to the higher grades than an ad valorem rate of 50 per cent.

STATEMENT.

	Per cent.
50 cents per gross + 30 per cent. ad valorem	56
50 cents per gross	26
\$1 per gross specific	52

SALT.

Considering the great importance of this Industry in the manufacture of pure Salt in our country, to relieve our dependence upon a foreign article and for our protection against an impure article, the League indorses the following :

[Paper of the Salt Association.]

SYRACUSE, N. Y., *September 30*, 1882.

To Mr. E. H. AMMIDOWN,

Chairman Tariff Committee Metropolitan Industrial League :

DEAR SIR: Pursuant to request of the Metropolitan Industrial League, we submit the following concerning salt.

In 1872, just prior to the last reduction of the tariff on salt, there were in Syracuse and vicinity 316 boiling salt blocks, whose market value on an average was \$10,000 each, which were doing no more than a fairly remunerative business.

Three-fifths of this number were owned by persons of moderate means. The effect of the reduction of the tariff was to extinguish three-fifths of the fires of the boiling blocks or works, and to render them valueless except for old material, on which their owners realized not more than from 5 to 10 per cent. of their original value, which brought all manufacturers of small means to poverty, and threw out of employment thousands of skilled laborers in the various branches of the business.

The large capitalists, consisting of nearly two-fifths of the whole number, have kept

their works in running order but without remunerative results, in hopes that the former tariff would be reinstated in time to save the utter destruction of their property invested, the market value of the money invested in salt works in 1872 being \$6,000,000, and the present value, according to United States Census, 1880, \$2,286,081, showing a depreciation of \$3,713,919.

During the eight years just prior to the tariff which went into effect in 1874, *i. e.*, 1866 to 1873, inclusive, the amount of boiled salt made was, in bushels of 56 pounds each, 47,935,647 bushels, and in the eight following years, 1874 to 1881, 36,011,970 bushels, a decrease of 11,923,677 bushels.

Wages, solar salt works.—Superintendent, \$3 per day; foreman, \$2. per day; other men, \$1.63 per day, with house rent.

Boiling works.—Superintendent, \$3 per day; other men, \$3 per day.

It should always be remembered that our season does not exceed six months per year.

The cost of our salt at New York and New England ports is 14½ cents per bushel; cost of foreign salt is 7.02 cents per bushel, showing that we should have a duty of not less than 7 cents per bushel of 56 pounds, or 12½ cents per 100 pounds in bulk, and 11.2 cents per bushel, or 20 cents per 100 pounds in packages.

A comparison of the report of the United States Bureau of Statistics for 1881, printed in 1882 with the official report of the Bureau of Fisheries, shows as follows:

The amount of foreign salt withdrawn from the custom-houses free of duty, ostensibly for curing fish, in 1881, was 133,395,065 pounds, or 2,382,054 bushels of 56 pounds, while the amount actually used for curing fish in 1881 was 76,513,920 pounds, or 1,363,203 bushels, leaving yet unaccounted for 1,018,851 bushels, on which no duty was paid and which was not used for fish curing—robbing the government of \$45,504.91, and demoralizing the markets for our salt.

It is not clear to us that salt should be admitted for curing ocean fish free of duty, both on account of this fraud and of the interests of our lake fisheries.

We urge a reimposition of duties on salt used for curing fish. We can fully and abundantly show that our salt much more perfectly preserves fish than any foreign salt used for that purpose.

The total salt used in the United States is 49,025,226 bushels; of this, 60.78 per cent. is made in the United States, and the other 39.22 per cent. is imported.

The Michigan salt manufacturers not only pay nothing for fuel used in making their salt, but are actually benefited by having the *debris* of their saw-mills thus burned out of their way, which otherwise would be removed at a very considerable expense.

In the case of war, New England and the eastern seaboard would be dependent on Onondaga salt works for their supply of salt, which, on this account, should be especially favored and extended, and kept working to their full capacity.

As to quality of our salt, we fear no competition. It is unsurpassed in purity and adaptation to various purposes for which salt is used.

ONONDAGA COUNTY SALT ASSOCIATION,
AMERICAN DAIRY SALT COMPANY,
NEW YORK SALT COMPANY, SYRACUSE, N. Y.

We respectfully request that with other American industries our manufacture may receive that care and protection which, whenever exercised in the past, has ensured to the great prosperity of our country, while an occasional opposite policy, history says, has materially retarded our great advancement as a nation.

E. W. LEAVENWORTH,
R. NELSON GERE,
J. W. BARKER,
T. G. ALVORD,
GEO. F. COMSTOCK,
L. T. HAWLEY,

Committee on the part of the Salt Producers of Onondaga County.

SYRACUSE, October 4, 1882.

NEW YORK STATE DAIRYMEN'S ASSOCIATION.

At the last convention of the New York State Dairymen's Association, held at Whitney's Point, December 20, 21, and 22, 1881, the Committee on Salt, composed of fifteen, unanimously reported as follows, and the report was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That we consider the Onondaga F. F. Salt, manufactured by the American Dairy Salt Company, L., Syracuse, N. Y., at least equal to any dairy salt of foreign manufacture; and as it is cheaper, is warranted equal in purity to any, and is not

exposed to the filth and odors of the English and American docks, besides being a home product, we commend its use to all dairymen.

ARBA CAMPBELL,
S. E. LEWIS,
F. BLANCHARD,
J. V. H. SCOVIL,
J. S. SHATTUCK,
G. W. BURBANK,
O. C. BLODGETT,
H. W. GILBERT.

IRA E. SHERMAN,
T. D. CURTIN,
JESSE OWEN,
S. HOXIE,
E. C. CRAFTS,
W. S. JENKS,
G. P. SQUIRE,

At Delhi, December 22, 1880, the following preamble and resolution were unanimously adopted by this association:

Whereas, It has been asserted that foreign salt is absolutely necessary to the manufacture of fine butter and cheese in America and for packing purposes, and on this assumption the agents of the foreign salt interest demand that foreign salt shall be put on the free list; and

Whereas, Both science and practice demonstrate that American salt, for the specific purposes for which it is manufactured, is equal if not superior to the corresponding brands of foreign salt to be found in our markets; and

Whereas, Any reduction of the present tariff on salt would strike a ruinous blow to a large State interest and to one of our most important American industries; and

Whereas, The government must have revenue, and the salt interest and all its tributary branches of industry are entitled to equal protection with all other branches of American industry; and

Whereas, To put salt on the *free list* would not only be disastrous to a great American industry, but would place the dairymen and consumers of salt generally at the mercy of a foreign monopoly, while such healthy competition as would be secured by a tariff on salt that would produce the most revenue would be beneficial to all classes of consumers; and

Whereas, The American salt interest will be satisfied with a tariff on salt which will produce the *largest revenue*; therefore,

Resolved, That we, the members of the New York State Dairymen's Association, respectfully recommend and petition Congress to place such a tariff on foreign salt as shall produce the maximum of revenue to the government.

Similar resolutions were also passed by the American Dairymen's Association, the Saint Lawrence County Dairymen's Association, the Pennsylvania State Dairymen's Association, the Otsego County Dairymen's Association, and the Delaware County Dairymen's Association.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS.

1842-1882.

So much misapprehension or misrepresentation exists relative to our past Tariff conditions and influence thereof, that it is well here to present a comparison of such for the last *four decades* to enable the Commission to recognize facts from mere assertion, and to see upon what policy, in the several periods of our history, our Industries have been built.

N. B. This comparison appears with the additional column of our present Tariff rates (1882) in "Tariffs of the World and Analyses Thereof," D. Appleton & Co., but is omitted here for want of space, and as the same appears in the full with proposed revised rates of the League on pages 1711-1763.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Absynthe	60 cents per gallon	<i>Per cent.</i> 100	<i>Per cent.</i> 30	50 cents per gallon.
Absynthe, oil of, or wormwood	30	24	20 per cent.
Accordions	30 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Acetate of lead, or white lead	4 cents per pound	20	15	\$1.50 per 100 pounds.
Acetate of potasse	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Acetate of quicksilver	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Acetic acid	do	20	4	10 per cent.
Acids:				
Benzoic	20 per cent.	20	4	10 per cent.
Boracic	5 per cent.	20	4	Do.
Citric, white or yellow	20 per cent.	20	4	Do.
Muriotic	do	20	4	Free.
Nitric, or nitric fort	do	20	15	10 per cent.
Oxalic	do	20	4	Do.
Tartaric, in crystals or powder	do	20	4	Do.
Sulphuric, or oil of vitriol	1 cent per pound	20	4	Free.
Acids:				
All kinds of, used for chemical and manufacturing purposes	20 per cent.	20	15	Free.
Medicinal purposes, or in the fine arts, not otherwise provided for	do	20	4	10 per cent.
Acorns	do	20	15	Do.
Adhesive felt, for ship's bottoms	Free	Free	Free	Do.
Adhesive plaster, salve	30 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Adzes	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Agates	7 per cent.	10	4	5 per cent.
Agates, bookbinders'	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Alabaster or spar ornaments	30 per cent.	40	30	30 per cent.
Albata, in sheets or otherwise	do	30	24	Do.
Alconorque	Free	5	4	Free.
Ale, in bottles	20 cents per gallon	30	24	25 cents per gallon.
Ale, otherwise than in bottles	15 cents per gallon	30	24	15 cents per gallon.
Alkanet root	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Alkermes	do	20	15	Do.

H. Mis. 6-113

All books, maps, charts, mathematical, nautical instruments, philosophical apparatus, statues, statuary, busts and casts of marble, bronze, alabaster or plaster of Paris, paintings and drawings, etchings, specimens of sculpture, cabinets of coins, medals, regalia, gems, and all collections of antiquities, specially imported, in good faith, for the use of any society for philosophical, literary, or religious purposes, or the fine arts, or for any college, academy, school, or seminary of learning in the United States.	Free	Free	Free	Free
Allspice, oil of	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Almonds	3 cents per pound	40	30	2 cents per pound.
Almonds, shelled	do	40	30	4 cents per pound.
Alces	Free	20	4	10 per cent.
Alum	1½ cents per pound	20	15	½ cent per pound.
Amber	20 per cent.	20	4	10 per cent.
Beads	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Oil of	20 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Ambergris	do	20	4	Free.
Amethyst	7 per cent.	10	4	5 per cent.
Ammonia	20 per cent.	10	8	10 per cent.
Sal.	do	10	8	Do.
Salts	do	10	8	Do.
Carb.	do	10	8	Do.
Ammoniac:				
Crude	20 per cent.	10	8	20 per cent.
Refined	do	20	15	30 per cent.
Bole	do	20	15	Do.
Ammunition:				
Except gunpowder and musket balls	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Gunpowder	8 cents per pound	20	15	20 per cent.
Musket balls	4 cents per pound	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Anchovies:				
In oil	20 per cent.	40	30	30 per cent.
In salt	do	20	15	½ cent per pound.
Angora gloves and mitts	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Animals for breed	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Animal oil, not otherwise enumerated	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Animal carbon	Free	20	Free	Free.
Anise seed	20 per cent.	20	4	10 per cent.
Annatto	do	10	4	Free.
Annatto extract	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Antimony, crude	Free	20	8	Free.
Antique oil	20 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Antiquities	Free	20	Free	Free.
Any goods, wares, or merchandise of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, or of its fisheries, upon which no drawback, bounty, or allowance has been paid.	do	Free	Free	Do.
Apparel, wearing, and other personal baggage in actual use.	do	Free	Free	Do.
Aqua ammonia, or hartshorn	— per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Aquafortis	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Aqua mellis or honey water	do	20	24	10 cents per gallon.
Archelia, archil, or orchelia	do	20	15	20 cents per gallon.
Archelia, if a vegetable dye	do	5	Free	Free.
Argentine	30 per cent.	30	24	30 cents per gallon.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Argel.....	Free.....	<i>Per cent.</i> 5	<i>Per cent.</i> Free	Free.
Armenian:				
Bole.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Stone.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Arms, fire.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Arms, side.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Arrack.....	60 cents per gallon.....	100	30	50 cents per gallon.
Arowroot.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Arsenic, all.....	do.....	15	4	Free.
Articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, or its Territories, brought back in the same condition as when exported, and on which no drawback was allowed.	Free.....	Free	Free	Do.
Articles, all, composed wholly or chiefly in quantity of gold, silver, pearl, and precious stones, not otherwise specified.	20 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Articles not in a crude state, used in dyeing or tanning, not otherwise provided for.	do.....	20	4	20 per cent.
Articles, all, not free, and not subject to any other rate of duty, raw.	do.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Same, manufactured.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Articles manufactured from copper, or of which copper is the material of chief value, not otherwise specified.	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Articles worn by men, women, or children, of whatever materials composed, made up in whole or in part by hand, not otherwise provided for.	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Artificial feathers.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Asphaltum.....	20 per cent.....	20	4	Free.
Assafetida.....	Free.....	20	4	10 per cent.
Asses' skin, or parchment.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Asses' skin, imitation of, or parchment.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Augers.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Auripigmentum, or orpiment.....	10 per cent.....	10	8	Free.
Ava root.....	Free.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Awl hafts.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Awls.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Axes.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Axletrees, iron.....	do.....	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Ayr-stones.....	— per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Bacon.....	3 cents per pound.....	20	15	2 cents per pound.
Baggage, personal, in actual use.....	Free.....	Free	Free	Free.
Bags:				
Bead, made in part by hand.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Grass.....	do.....	30	24	10 cents or less, 1½ cents per pound; over 10 cents, 2 cents per pound.
Gunny.....	5 cents per square yard.....	20	15	Do.
Woolen.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Worsted.....	do.....	25	19	Do.

Flax and hemp	25 per cent.....	20	15	10 cents or less, 1½ cents per pound ; over 10 cents, 2 cents per pound.
Carpet, woolen.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Silk	do	25	19	Do.
Baizes	14 cents per square yard	25	19	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Balls :				
Billiard	20 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Wash	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Balm of Gilead	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Balsam :				
Copaiva	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Of tolu	do	30	24	Do.
Medicinal	do	30	24	Do.
All kinds of cosmetic	do	30	24	Do.
Bamboos, unmanufactured	Free.....	10	Free	10 per cent.
Barege :				
Wool, colored.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Wool, gray.....	— per cent.....	30	24	25 per cent.
Worsted, or silk and cotton	30 per cent.....	25	19	30 per cent.
Barilla	Free.....	10	4	Free.
Bark :				
Of cork trees, unmanufactured	Free.....	15	4	10 per cent.
Peruvian	do	15	Free	10 per cent. or free.
All not specially mentioned	do	20	8	10 per cent.
Barley	20 cents per bushel.....	20	15	15 cents per bushel.
Barley, pearl or hulled.....	2 cents per pound.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Barytes, sulphate of	½ cent per pound.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Bar wood (a dye wood)	Free.....	5	Free	Free.
Baskets :				
Wood	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Osier	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Palm leaf.....	do	30	24	Do.
Straw	do	30	24	Do.
Grass or whalebone	do	30	24	Do.
Bass (inner bark)	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Bastard files.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Bast ropes	4½ cents per pound.....	25	19	2½ cents per pound.
Battledores	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Bay water, or Bay rum.....	do	30	24	25 cents per gallon.
Bay wax, or myrtle wax.....	15 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Bellium :				
If crude	15 per cent.....	20	8	10 per cent.
Refined.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Beam knives	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Beam scales	do	30	24	Do.
Beans :				
Tonkay	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Vanilla	do	20	15	Do.
All other not specially mentioned	do	20	15	Do.
Bed :				
Feathers.....	25 per cent.....	25	19	20 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Bed—Continued.		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Ticking, linen.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	30 cents or less per square yard, 25 per cent.; over 30 cents per square yard, 30 per cent.
Ticking, cotton.....	30 per cent.....	25	24	30 per cent.
Caps.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Screws.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Sides, as carpeting.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Spreads, or covers, of the scraps of printed calicoes, sewed.....	do.....	25	24	Do.
Beef.....	2 cents per pound.....	20	15	1 cent per pound.
Beer:				
In bottles.....	20 cents per gallon.....	30	24	25 cents per gallon.
Otherwise than in bottles.....	15 cents per gallon.....	30	24	15 cents per gallon.
Bees' wax.....	15 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Bell cranks.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Bell levers.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Bell pulls.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Bell metal, manufactured.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Bellows.....	35 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Bellows' pipes.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Bells:				
Of bell metal, fit only to be remanufactured.....	Free.....	5	Free	Free.
Gold.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Silver.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Belts:				
Sword leather.....	35 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Endless, for pipes.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	25 per cent.
Benzoates.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Berries, used for dyeing, all exclusively, in a crude state.....	Free.....	5	Free	Free.
Berries, not otherwise provided for.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Bezoar stones.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Bichromate of potash.....	do.....	20	15	3 cents per pound.
Bick irons.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Binding:				
Carpet, if worsted.....	30 per cent.....	25	19	30 per cent.
Cotton.....	do.....	25	24	Do.
Woolen.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Worsted.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Silk.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Leather.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Linen.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Quality.....	39 per cent.....	25	19	Do.
Bird's eye stuff, linen.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	30 cents or less, 25 per cent.; over 30 cents, 30 per cent.
Bird's eye worsted stuff.....	30 per cent.....	25	19	31 per cent.

Birds	20 per cent.	20	Free	Free.
Bismuth	do	20	Free	Do.
Bismuth, oxide of	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Bitter apple	do	20	Free	Free.
Bits, carpenters'	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Bitumen	15 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Blacking	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Black, lamp	do	20	15	Do.
Black-lead pots	do	30	24	10 per cent.
Black-lead powder	do	20	15	Do.
Blacksmiths' hammers	— per cent.	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Blacksmiths' sledges	— per cent.	30	24	Do.
Bladders	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Blankets, all	75 cents, 15 per cent. ; over 75 cents, 25 per cent.	20	15	Value, 23 cents per pound, 6 cents per pound and 10 per cent. ; 28 to 40 cents, 6 cents per pound and 25 per cent. ; over 40 cents, 12 cents per pound and 20 per cent.
Blankets of mohair or goats' hair	20 per cent.	20	15	25 per cent.
Bleaching powders	1 cent per pound	10	4	15 cents per 100 pounds.
Blooms, iron in	\$17 per ton	30	24	\$15 per ton.
Boards:				
Planed	30 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Rough	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Bobbin	30 per cent.	25	24	30 per cent.
Bobbin wire, covered with cotton	8 cents per pound	30	24	2 cents per pound and 15 per cent.
Bocking	14 cents per square yard	25	19	20 cents per square yard.
Bookins, all	20 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Boiler plates	30 per cent.	30	24	\$20 per ton.
Bologna sausages	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Bolting cloths	20 per cent.	25	Free	Free.
Bolts, composition	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Bone:				
Black	20 per cent.	20	Free	Free.
Alphabets	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Chessmen	do	30	24	Do.
Whale, rosettes	do	30	24	Do.
Tip and bones	5 and 20 per cent.	5	4	10 per cent.
Whale, other manufactures of	20 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Whale, not of the American fisheries	12½ per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Manufactures of	20 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Bonnets:				
Leghorn	35 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
All	do	30	24	Do.
Bonnet wire:				
Covered with silk	12 cents per pound	25	19	2 cents per pound and 15 per cent.
Covered with cotton	8 cents per pound	30	24	Do.
Bookbinders' agates, ferruled	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Books:				
Blank	20 cents per pound	20	15	20 per cent.
Periodicals and other works in the course of printing and republication in the United States.	20 and 30 cents per pound	20	15	15 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842	1846.	1857.	1861.
Books, printed magazines, pamphlets, periodicals, and illustrated newspapers, bound or unbound, not otherwise provided for.	8 per cent.	10	8	15 per cent.
Books of engravings, bound or unbound.	20 per cent.	10	8	Do.
Books and instruments, professional, of persons arriving in the United States	Free.	Free	Free.	Free.
Books specially imported for the use of schools, &c	do	Free	Free	Do.
Boots	\$1.25 per pair	30	24	30 per cent.
Laced, silk or satin, for children	25 cents per pair	30	24	Do.
And booties, of leather	\$1.25 per pair	30	24	Do.
Rubber	30 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Bootees, for women or men, silk	75 cents per pair	30	24	30 per cent.
Boot web, linen	25 cents per pair	30	15	Do.
Borate of lime	do	12	12	10 per cent.
Borax or tincal	do	4	4	Free.
Borax, refined	do	25	3	3 cents per pound.
Botany, specimens in	Free.	Free	Free	Free.
Bottles, apothecaries'	\$1.75 to \$2.25 per gross	30	24	30 per cent.
Bottles, black glass	do	30	24	Do.
Bottles, perfumery and fancy	\$2.50 per gross	30	24	Do.
Bottles containing wine or other articles	\$3.00 per gross	40	30	Do.
Boucho leaves	Free.	30	4	Free.
Bongies	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Box boards, paper	3 cents per pound	30	24	Do.
Boxes:				
Gold or silver	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Musical	do	30	15	Do.
Japanned dressing	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Cedar, granadilla, ebony, rose, and satin	30 per cent.	40	30	Do.
All other wood	do	30	24	Do.
Sand, of tin	do	20	24	Do.
Shell, not otherwise enumerated	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
If paper only, not japanned	do	30	24	Do.
Snuff, paper	do	30	24	Do.
Fancy, not otherwise specified	do	30	24	Do.
Brace bits	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Bracelets:				
Gold or set	20 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Gilt	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Hair	do	30	24	Do.
Braces, carpenters', without bits	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Braces and bits, carpenters'	do	30	24	Do.
Braces or suspenders, all	35 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Brackets	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Brads	5 cents per pound	30	24	Do.

Braids:			
Cotton	30 per cent.	25	24 30 per cent.
In ornaments for head-dresses	do	30	24 Do.
Hair, not made up for head-dresses	do	30	24 Do.
Hair, made up for head-dresses	25 per cent.	30	24 Do.
Straw, for making bonnets or hats	30 per cent.	30	24 Do.
Brandy	\$1 per gallon.	100	30 First proof, \$1 per gallon.
Brass:			
Manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated	30 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.
In plates or sheets	do	30	24 10 per cent.
In bars	Free	5	Free Do.
In pigs	do	5	Free Do.
Old, only fit to be remanufactured	do	5	Free Do.
Wire	25 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.
Rolled	30 per cent.	30	24 Do.
Battery	12½ cents per pound.	30	24 Do.
Studs	30 per cent.	30	24 Do.
Screws	30 cents per pound.	30	24 Do.
Braziers' rods, of 3-16 to 10-16 of an inch diameter	24 cents per pound.	30	24 25 per cent.
Brazil paste, or pasta de Brazil	7½ per cent.	15	12 10 per cent.
Brazil pebble	\$2 per gross.	10	8 Do.
Brazil pebbles prepared for spectacles	do	30	24 30 per cent.
Breccia	20 per cent.	20	15 Free.
Bricks	25 per cent.	20	15 25 per cent.
Bridles	35 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.
Bristone:			
Crude	20 per cent.	15	4 Free.
Rolled	25 per cent.	20	15 20 per cent.
Bristles	1 cent per pound.	5	4 4 cents per pound.
Bristol stones	20 per cent.	20	15 10 per cent.
Bristol boards	12½ cents per pound.	30	24 30 per cent.
Bristol boards, perforated	do	30	24 Do.
Britannia ware	30 per cent.	30	24 Do.
Brodequins:			
Woolen	50 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.
Leather	40 per cent.	30	24 Do.
Bronze:			
Casts	30 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.
All manufactures of	do	30	24 Do.
Metal in leaf	do	20	15 Do.
Powder	20 per cent.	20	15 15 per cent.
Pale, yellow, white, and red	30 per cent.	20	15 30 per cent.
Liquid, gold or bronze color	20 per cent.	20	15 10 per cent.
Brooms, all kinds	30 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.
Brown, rolls, linen	25 per cent.	20	15 30 cents or less, 25 per cent.; over 30 cents, 30 per cent.
Brown smalts	20 per cent.	30	15 Free.
Brucine	do	20	15 20 per cent.
Brushes of all kinds	30 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.
Buckram	25 per cent.	20	15 25 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

1800

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[INT. INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE]

Articles.	1842	1846.	1857.	1861.
Bugles:		Per cent.	Per cent.	
Glass, if cut	25 per cent.	40	30	30 per cent.
Glass, if not cut	do	30	24	25 per cent.
Building stones	10 per cent.	10	8	10 per cent.
Bulbs, or bulbous roots	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Bullets	4 cents per pound.	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Bullrushes	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Bullion	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Bunting	30 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Burgundy pitch	20 per cent.	25	19	20 per cent.
Burlaps	25 per cent.	20	15	30 cents or less, 25 per cent.; over 30 cents, 30 per cent.
Bar stones:				
Unbound	Free	10	Free	Free.
Bound up	20 per cent.	10	Free	20 per cent.
Belts, lead	4 cents per pound.	30	24	1½ cents per pound.
Butchers' knives	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Butter	5 cents per pound.	20	15	4 cents per pound.
Butt hinges, cast-iron	2½ cents per pound.	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Button molds, of whatever material	25 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Buttons:				
Metal, all kinds of	30 per cent.	25	15	30 per cent.
All other	25 per cent.	25	19	Do.
With links	do	25	19	Do.
Cabinet wares	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Cables:				
Tarred	5 cents per pound.	25	19	2½ cents per pound.
Manila, untarred	4½ cents per pound.	25	19	2 cents per pound.
Iron or chain, or parts of	2½ cents per pound.	30	24	1½ cents per pound.
Caddie balls	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Cadmium	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Cajepnt, oil of	do	30	24	Do.
Calamine	do	20	15	Do.
Calcined magnesia	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Caliminaria lapis	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Calomel and all other mercurial preparations	25 per cent.	25	19	Do.
Calx	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Camblets, of mohair or goats	do	25	19	Do.
Camels' hair	10 per cent.	10	8	10 per cent.
Camels' hair pencils:				
In quill	20 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Other	do	30	24	Do.
Cameos	7 per cent.	10	4	5 per cent.
Cameos set	do	30	24	25 per cent.
Camomile flowers	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.

Camphor:				
Refined.....	20 per cent.....	40	30	20 per cent.
Crude.....	5 cents per pound.....	25	8	Free.
Canary seed.....	20 per cent.....	Free.	Free.	10 per cent.
Cancerorum oculi, or crab's eye.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Candles:				
Tallow.....	4 cents per pound.....	20	15	2 cents per pound.
Wax or sperm.....	8 cents per pound.....	20	15	8 cents per pound.
Other.....	4 cents per pound.....	20	15	4 cents per pound.
Candlesticks:				
Alabaster.....	Various.....	40	30	30 per cent.
Glass-cut.....	45 cents per pound.....	40	30	Do.
Spa.....	Various.....	40	30	Do.
All other.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Candy, sugar.....	6 cents per pound.....	30	24	4 cents per pound.
Cannella, alba.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Canes, walking, finished or not.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Cannetille, a wire ribbon.....	12 cents per pound.....	30	24	2 cents per pound and 15 per cent.
Cannon, brass or iron.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Cantharides.....	Free.....	20	8	Free.
Canton crapes.....	2½ cents per pound.....	25	20	Over \$100, 30 per cent.; \$100 or less, 25 per cent.
Canvas, for floor-cloth or wearing apparel, linen.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	30 cents or less, 25 per cent.; over 30 cents, 30 per cent.
Caoutchouc gums.....	Free.....	20	8	Free.
Capers.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Cap wire:				
Covered with silk.....	12 cents per pound.....	25	19	2 cents per pound and 15 per cent.
Covered with cotton thread.....	8 cents per pound.....	30	24	Do.
Caps of chip, lace, leather, cotton, silk, linen, &c.....	30 to 50 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Caps, gloves, leggins, mitts, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers, and all similar articles made in frames, and worn by men, women, or children, and not otherwise provided for.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Cap pieces for stills.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Caps, lace, sewed or not.....	20 to 40 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Capsules.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Carbines or carabines.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Carbonate:				
Of magnesia.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Sal. or brinal of soda.....	do.....	20	8	20 per cent.
Of ammonia.....	do.....	10	8	10 per cent.
Of iron.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Carboys.....	30 cents each.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Carbuncles.....	10 per cent.....	10	4	10 per cent.
Cardamon seed.....	20 per cent.....	Free.	Free.	20 per cent.
Card-cases, of whatever material composed.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Cards, playing, viating, &c.....	25 cents per pack.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Carmine:				
Water color.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
A liquid dye.....	do.....	30	15	Do.
Caroline plaids, cotton and wool.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

1802

Articles.	1842	1846.	1857.	1861.
Carpets:		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Aubusson, Wilton, Saxony, Axminster, Tournay or tapestry velvet, Brussels Jacquard, and medallion.	65 cents per square yard	30	24	\$1.25 or less per yard, 40 cents per square yard; over \$1.25 per yard, 50 cents per square yard.
Brussels and Brussels tapestry	55 cents per yard	30	24	30 cents per square yard.
Treble ingrain, Venetian	30 cents per square yard	30	24	25 cents per square yard.
Hemp or jute	30 per cent.	20	15	4 cents per square yard.
Druggets, bockings, and felt	do	30	24	20 cents per square yard.
All other	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Matting	25 per cent.	25	19	Do.
Binding	30 per cent.	25	19	Do.
Carriages of all descriptions, and parts thereof	do	30	24	Do.
Carriage springs	do	30	24	Do.
Carvers	do	30	24	Do.
Cascarilla	20 per cent.	20	8	10 per cent.
Casement rods, iron for	2 cents per pound	30	24	30 per cent.
Cases, fish-skin	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Cashmere:				
Borders of wool	40 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Of Thibet	20 per cent.	25	19	Do.
Cloth	40 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Gown patterns, wool being a component material	do	30	24	Do.
Gowns, made	do	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Shawls, Thibet	do	30	24	Do.
Shawls, wool being a component part	do	30	24	Do.
Casks, empty	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Cassada, or meal of	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Cassia, Chinese, Calcutta, and Sumatra	5 cents per pound	40	4	4 cents per pound.
Cassia:				
Buds	20 per cent.	20	15	8 cents per pound.
Fistula	do	20	15	Do.
Cassimere:				
Woolen	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Cotton, wool being a component part, chief value	do	30	24	Do.
Castanas, or castinal	1 cent per pound	30	24	1 cent per pound.
Castings of plaster or iron, even if with wrought-iron rings, hoops, handles, &c.	do	30	24	25 per cent.
Castor beans	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Castor oil	40 cents per gallon	20	15	20 per cent.
Castors:				
Brass, iron, or wood	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Or cruets, silver	do	30	24	Do.
Or cruets, plated	do	30	24	Do.
Or cruets, wood	do	30	24	Do.
Castor glasses, not in the frames, or cruets, cut	\$2.50 per gross	40	30	Do.
Castor glasses, not in the frames, or cruets, not cut	\$4 per gross	30	24	25 per cent.

TARIFF COMMISSION.

(MET. INDUSTRIAL BUREAU.)

Castorine lize, woolen cloth	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Castorum	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Cast shoe bills	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Cast-iron vessels, not otherwise specified	1½ cents per pound	30	24	25 per cent.
Catches, brass, copper, or iron	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Carobu	10 per cent.	10	Free	10 per cent.
Catgut	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Catsup	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Caulking mallets	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Caustic	20 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Celtz water	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Cement, Roman	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Cerise, eau de, kirschwasser, or cherry water	60 cents per gallon	100	30	50 cents per gallon.
Ceruse, dry or in oil	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Chafing dishes	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Chains, all	4 cents per pound	30	24	Over ¼ inch diameter, 1½ cents per pound; ¼ to ½ inch diameter, 2 cents per pound; No. 9 to ¼ inch diameter, 2½ cents per pound; under No. 9 diameter, 25 per cent.
Chairs, sitting	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Chalk:				
Red	20 per cent.	20	4	Free.
Red, pencils	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
French	20 per cent.	20	4	Free.
White	Free	5	4	Do.
Chambray gauze:				
Cotton, as cotton	30 per cent.	25	24	4 cents per square yard.
If wool is a component part	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Of silk only	\$1.50 per pound	25	19	30 per cent.
Chandeliers:				
Brass	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Glass, cut	45 cents per pound	40	30	Do.
Chapapote	20 per cent.	20	4	10 per cent.
Charts	Free	10	Free	Free.
Chart books	20 per cent.	10	8	15 per cent.
Checks:				
Cotton (<i>see</i> Cotton)	40 per cent.	25	24	
Princess, wool	do	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Princess, worsted	do	25	19	Do.
Linen	25 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.
Cheese	9 cents per pound	30	24	4 cents per pound.
Chemical preparations not otherwise enumerated	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Chenille, cords or trimming of, cotton	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Cheroots (India segars) (<i>see</i> Segars)	40 cents per pound	40	30	
Cherry rum, a cordial	60 cents per gallon	100	30	50 cents per gallon.
Cheesmen, bone, ivory, rice, or wood	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Chest handles	do	30	24	Do.
Chicory root	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Chicory root, ground	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Children's shoes and slippers	15 cents per pair	30	24	30 per cent.
Chili peppers	10 cents per pound	30	4	10 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Cinchona, Peruvian.....	10 per cent.	15	Free	Free.
China ware.....	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
China root.....	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Chinchilla skins:				
Undressed.....	10 per cent.	10	8	5 per cent.
Dressed.....	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Chip hats or bonnets.....	35 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Chisels, all.....	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Chloride of lime.....	1 cent per pound.	10	4	10 per cent.
Chlorometers, glass.....	20 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Chocolate.....	4 cents per pound.	20	15	20 per cent.
Choppa romals and bandanna handkerchiefs, silk.....	\$2.50 per pound.	25	19	30 per cent.
Chowdagary, cottons (<i>see</i> Cottons).....	30 cents per pound.	25	24	
Chromate of potash.....	20 cents per pound.	20	15	3 cents per pound.
Chromate of lead.....	4 cents per pound.	20	15	20 cents per pound.
Chromic:				
Yellow.....	20 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Acid.....	do	20	15	15 per cent.
Chronometers and parts.....	do	10	8	10 per cent.
Chrysolites.....	do	20	15	Do.
Ciar, or coiar, rope.....	4½ cents per pound.	25	19	3 cents per pound.
Cicuta.....	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Cigars (<i>see</i> Segars).....	40 cents per pound.	40	30	
Cigars, paper (<i>see</i> Segars).....	do	40	30	
Cinchonine.....	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Cinnabar.....	do	25	19	20 per cent.
Cinnamon.....	25 cents per pound.	30	4	Do.
Circassians, worsted.....	30 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Circingle webb, woolen.....	40 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Citrate of lime.....	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Citron:				
In its natural state.....	Free.	20	8	Do.
Preserved.....	25 per cent.	40	30	10 per cent.
Civet, oil of.....	30 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Clasps, all.....	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Clay:				
Ground or prepared.....	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Unwrought.....	Free.	5	4	\$3 per ton.
Clayed sugar, white.....	2½ cents per pound.	30	24	½ cent per pound.
Cloaks, of wool.....	50 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Cloak-pins.....	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Clocks.....	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Cloth:				
India rubber.....	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.

Woolen	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Oil, 50 cents or less	35 cents per yard	30	24	25 per cent.
Oil, over 50 cents	do	20	24	30 per cent.
Hemp	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Clothing:				
Ready-made	50 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Of wool	do	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Cloves	8 cents per pound	40	4	4 cents per pound.
Coaches, or parts thereof	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Coach furniture of all descriptions	do	30	24	Do.
Coal:				
Bituminous	\$1.75 per ton	30	24	\$1 per ton.
Other	do	30	24	50 cents per ton.
Coal-hods	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Coatings, mohair or goats' hair	20 per cent.	25	19	Do.
Cobalt	do	20	15	Free.
Cochineal	Free	10	4	Do.
Coculus indicus	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Cocks	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Cocoa	1 cent per pound	10	4	Free.
Cocoa-shells	20 per cent.	10	4	Do.
Cocoa-nuts, West Indies	Free	20	4	Do.
Codilla, or tow of hemp	\$20 per ton	15	12	\$10 per ton.
Codilla, or tow of flax	do	15	12	\$5 per ton.
Codfish, dry	\$1 per cwt	20	15	50 cents per 100 pounds.
Coffee, when imported in American vessels from the place of its growth	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Coffee, the growth or production of the possessions of the Netherlands	do	Free	Free	Do.
Coffee, all other	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Coffee-mills	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Coins, cabinets of	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Coir	\$25 per ton	25	19	\$10 per ton.
Coke	5 cents per bushel	35	24	25 per cent.
Colcother, dry (oxide of iron)	20 cents per bushel	20	15	20 per cent.
Cold cream	25 cents per bushel	30	24	30 per cent.
Colocynth	20 cents per bushel	20	Free	10 per cent.
Cologne-water	do	30	24	20 per cent.
Colombo root	do	20	15	Do.
Coloquintida	do	100	24	Do.
Coloring for brandy	30 cents per bushel	30	24	10 per cent.
Colors, water	25 cents per bushel	30	24	30 per cent.
Cola, sanglier, cravat stiffeners	30 cents per bushel	30	24	Do.
Colt's-foot	20 cents per bushel	20	15	20 per cent.
Combs	25 cents per bushel	30	24	30 per cent.
Comforters, made of wool	40 cents per bushel	30	24	12 cents and 25 per cent.
Comfit, preserved in sugar, brandy, or molasses	25 cents per bushel	40	30	30 per cent.
Commode handles	do	30	24	Do.
Commode knobs	do	30	24	Do.
Compasses	30 cents per bushel	30	24	Do.
Composition of glass or paste:				
Set	20 cents per bushel	30	24	Do.
Not set	10 cents per bushel	10	8	10 per cent.
Concans, India	20 cents per bushel	25	19	30 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Coney wool (see Wool)	10 cents per bushel	10	8	
Confectionary, all not otherwise provided for.	25 cents per bushel	20	24	30 per cent.
Contragema root	20 cents per bushel	20	15	20 per cent.
Copperas	2 cents per pound	20	15	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.
Copper bottoms	30 per cent.	20	15	25 per cent.
Copper, braziers' and sheet, not otherwise provided for.	do	20	15	Do.
Copper:				
For the use of the mint	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
In pigs, bars	do	5	Free.	2 cents per pound.
Old, fit only to be remanufactured	do	5	Free.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound.
Manufactures of, not otherwise specified	39 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Ore	Free	Free.	Free.	5 per cent.
Rods, bolts, spikes, and nails	4 cents per pound	20	15	25 per cent.
Copper sheathing for ships, when 14 inches wide and 48 inchal ong, and weigh- ing from 14 to 34 ounces per square foot.	Free	Free.	Free.	2 cents per pound.
Copper, sulphate of	4 cents per pound	20	15	20 per cent.
Coral	20 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.
Coral, cut or manufactured	do	30	24	Do.
Cordage:				
Tarred	5 cents per pound	25	19	$2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound.
Untarred	$4\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound	25	19	3 cents per pound.
Manila	do	25	19	2 cents per pound.
Cordials, all kinds	60 cents per gallon	100	30	50 cents per gallon.
Coriander seed	20 per cent.	Free.	Free.	10 per cent.
Cork, manufactures of	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Corks	30 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Cork-tree, bark of, unmanufactured	Free	15	4	Free.
Cornelian stone	7 per cent.	10	4	5 per cent.
Cornelian rings	do	20	15	25 per cent.
Corn fans	30 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Corn:				
Indian, or maize	10 cents per bushel	20	15	10 cents per bushel.
Meal	20	20	15	10 per cent.
Corrosive sublimate (mercurial)	25 per cent.	25	19	20 per cent.
Corsets	50 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Cosmetics	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Cotton	3 cents per pound	Free.	Free.	Free.
Cotton, unbleached:				
100 threads per square inch or less, and over 5 ounces per yard	30 per cent.	25	24	1 cent per square yard.
100 to 140 threads, not 5 ounces	do	25	24	2 cents per square yard.
140 to 200 threads, not 5 ounces	do	25	24	3 cents per square yard.
Over 200 threads, not 5 ounces	do	24	24	4 cents per square yard.
Cotton, bleached:				
100 threads per square inch or less, and over 5 ounces	do	25	24	$1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per square yard.

100 to 140 threads, not 5 ounces	do	25	24	2½ cents per square yard.
140 to 200 threads, not 5 ounces	do	25	24	3½ cents per square yard.
Over 200 threads, not 5 ounces	do	25	24	4½ cents per square yard.
Cotton, colored:				
100 threads per square inch or less, and over 5 ounces	do	25	24	1½ cents per square yard and 10 per cent.
100 to 140 threads, not 5 ounces	do	25	24	2½ cents per square yard and 10 per cent.
140 to 200 threads, not 5 ounces	do	25	24	3½ cents per square yard and 10 per cent.
Over 200 threads, not 5 ounces	do	25	24	4½ cents per square yard and 10 per cent.
Cotton:				
Other plain woven, costing over 16 cents per square yard	do	25	24	25 per cent.
All manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated	do	25	19	Do.
Bagging, 10 cents per pound or less	4 cents per square yard	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Bagging, over 10 cents per pound	do	20	15	2 cents per pound.
Braces, or suspenders	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Caps, gloves, leggings, mitts, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers	do	20	15	Do.
Cord, gimps, and galloons	do	30	24	Do.
Embroidery, or floss	25 per cent.	25	24	20 per cent.
Hosiery, unbleached	30 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.
Lace, including bobinet	20 per cent.	25	19	Do.
Laces, insertings, trimmings, and braids	30 per cent.	25	24	20 per cent.
Spool and other thread	do	25	24	30 per cent.
Thread, twist, and yarn, all unbleached and uncolored	25 per cent.	25	24	Do.
Thread, twist, and yarn, all bleached or colored	do	25	24	Do.
Twist, yarn, and thread, all other, on spools or otherwise	30 per cent.	25	24	Do.
Counters	20 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Counting-house boxes	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Court-plaster	do	30	24	Do.
Cowage, or cowitch	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Cowries (shells)	do	5	4	10 per cent.
Crab-claws	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Crank, mill, of wrought iron	4 cents per pound	30	24	30 per cent.
Crapes, silk (see Silk)	\$2.50 per pound	25	19	
Crash:				
30 cents or less	25 per cent.	20	15	25 per cent.
Over 30 cents	do	20	15	30 per cent.
Cravats	50 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Cravat stiffeners	do	30	24	Do.
Crayons	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Crayon pencils	do	30	24	Do.
Cream of tartar	Free	20	4	Free.
Creas:				
Cotton, as cottons	30 per cent.	25	24	30 per cent.
Linen	25 per cent.	20	15	25 per cent.
Crockery	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Crocus powder	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Crowns, Leghorn hat	35 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Crucibles, all	30 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Crystals, glass	\$2 per gross	30	24	30 per cent.
Cubebs	20 cents per gross	20	15	20 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842	1846.	1857.	1861.
Cudbear	10 cents per gross	<i>Per cent.</i> 10	<i>Per cent.</i> 4	Free.
Cummin seed	20 cents per gross	Free.	Free.	10 per cent.
Cupboard-turns	30 cents per gross	30	24	30 per cent.
Curls, hair	25 cents per gross	30	24	Do.
Curriers' knives	30 cents per gross	30	24	Do.
Currants	3 cents per pound	40	8	2 cents per pound.
Curtain-rings	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Custas, as manufactures of cottons	do	25	24	Do.
Cutch	10 per cent.	10	Free.	Free.
Cutlasses	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Cutlery, all kinds	do	30	24	Do.
Cyanine of:				
Iodine	20 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Potassium	do	30	24	Do.
Zinc	do	30	24	Do.
Daggers and dirks	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Dates	1 cent per pound	40	8	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.
Decanters:				
Cut	40	30	30 per cent.
Plain	30	24	Do.
Delaines:				
Gray	40 per cent.	30	24	25 per cent.
Colored	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Delph	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Delphine	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Demijohns	30 cents each	30	24	30 per cent.
Denmark satin or sateena, entirely stuff	20 per cent.	25	19	Do.
Dentifrice	do	30	24	20 per cent.
Devonshire kerseys	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Diamonds:				
Set	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.	10	4	5 per cent.
Glaziers'	do	30	24	25 per cent.
Diaper, linen	25 per cent.	15	12	10 per cent.
Diapara, cotton	do	20	15	30 cents or less, 25 per cent.; over 30 cents, 30 per cent.
Diapara, cotton	30 per cent.	25	24	25 per cent.
Dice, ivory or bone	20 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Dimities and dimity muslin (<i>see</i> Cotton)	30 per cent.	25	24	
Distilled vinegar, medicinal	8 cents per gallon	30	24	30 per cent.
Diuretic, sal	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Divi divi	do	20	Free.	Free.
Dolls, of every description	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Domets, a flannel (<i>see</i> Flannel)	25	19	
Dom'noes, bone or ivory, if any metal	20 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Dowlas	25 per cent.	25	15	Do.

Doylers:				
Cotton	30 per cent.	25	24	30 per cent.
Woolen	40 per cent.	25	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Linen	25 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.
Down, all kinds	do	25	19	20 per cent.
Dragons' blood	10 per cent.	15	Free.	Free.
Drawer knobs:				
Of any material	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Entirely of cut glass	25 cents per pound	40	30	Do.
Entirely of plain glass	20 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Drawers:				
Guernsey, wool or worsted	30 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Knit, without needlework	do	30	24	Do.
Silk, wove	40 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Cotton, wove	30 per cent.	20	24	25 per cent.
Drawing knives	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Drawing pencils	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Drawings	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Dried pulp	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Drillings:				
Linen	25 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.
If cotton be a component material, subject to the regulations respecting cotton cloths (see Cotton).	30 per cent.	25		
Drugs:				
Dyeing, not otherwise enumerated	20 per cent.	20		20 per cent.
Dyeing or tanning in a crude state	Free	20	Free.	Free.
Medicinal, not otherwise enumerated, in a crude state	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Duck, Holland, English, Russia, half-duck, and all other sail ducks	7 cents per square yard	20	15	30 cents or less per square yard, 25 per cent.; over 30 cents per square yard, 30 per cent.
Dutch metal, in leaf	25 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Durants, worsted stuff	30 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Dust pans	do	30	24	20 per cent.
Dyeing articles, crude	20 per cent.	20	Free.	Free.
Dyeing drugs, and materials for composing dyes, crude, not otherwise enumerated	do	20	Free.	Do.
Earth:				
In oil				
Brown, red, blue, yellow, dry, as ocher	1½ cents per pound	30	24	\$1.25 per 100 pounds.
	1 cent per pound	30	15	35 cents per 100 pounds.
Earthenware	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Ebony, manufactures of, or of which it is the material of chief value	do	40	30	Do.
Elastic garters	do	30	24	Do.
Elephants' teeth	5 per cent.	5	Free.	Free.
Elecampane	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Embroideries, all in gold or silver, fine, or half fine, or other metal	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Embroidery, if done by hand	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Emeralds	7½ per cent.	10	4	5 per cent.
Emery	Free	20	6	Free.
Emery-cloth, cotton	30 per cent.	25	24	30 per cent.
Emetic, tartar, medicinal	20 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Enameled, white	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Engravers' copper, prepared or polished	do	30	24	Do.
Engravers' scrapers and burnishers	do	30	24	Do.

H. Mis. 6
114

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Engravings, books of, bound or not.....	20 per cent.	10	8	10 per cent.
Epanettes, all.....	25 and 30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Epsom salts.....	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Equalizing files.....	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Ergot.....	20 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.
Escutcheons:				
Silver.....	30 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Brass, iron, steel, gilt, or plated.....	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Escutcheon pins.....	do	30	24	Do.
Essence, all.....	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Estoppilas, linen.....	do	20	15	Do.
Etchings or engravings.....	Free	10	8	10 per cent.
Ether.....	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Ether, sulphuric.....	do	20	15	Do.
Etoile, or stars for ornaments.....	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Extract of:				
Belladonna.....	25 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Campeachy wood.....	20 per cent.	20	4	Free.
Cicuta.....	25 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Colocynth.....	do	30	24	Do.
Elaterium.....	do	30	24	Do.
Gentian.....	do	30	24	Do.
Hyosciamus.....	50 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Indigo.....	20 per cent.	20	4	Free.
Logwood.....	do	20	4	Do.
Madder.....	do	20	4	Do.
Nux vomica.....	25 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Opium.....	do	30	24	Do.
Rhatania.....	do	30	24	Do.
Rhubarb.....	do	30	24	Do.
Stramonium.....	do	30	24	Do.
Extracts and decoctions of dye-woods not otherwise provided for.....	20 per cent.	20	4	Do.
Extracts, all other.....	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Eyes and rods for stairs.....	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Eyes, bulls', a bean.....	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
False collars.....	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Fancy or perfumed soaps.....	do	30	24	Do.
Fancy vials and bottles, uncut.....	\$2.50 gross	30	24	Do.
Fans, all.....	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Fastenings, shutter or other, of copper, iron, steel, brass, gilt, plated, or japanned.....	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Fearnought cloth.....	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Feathers:				
Ornamental.....	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
For beds.....	do	25	19	20 per cent.

Vultures', for dusters	do	20	15	Do.
Feldspar	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Felting, hatters'	25 per cent.	30	20	20 per cent.
Felts, or hat bodies made in whole or in part of wool	18 cents each	20	15	Do.
Fennel, essence of	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Ferrets, cotton	30 per cent.	25	24	Do.
Ferri, rubigo	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Fiddles	30 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Fids	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Fifes, bone, ivory, or wood	30 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Fig blue	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Figs	2 cents per pound	40	8	3 cents per pound.
Figures:				
Abalaster	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Other	do	30	24	Do.
Filberts	1 cent per pound	30	24	1 cent per pound.
File cuts	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Files	do	30	24	Do.
Filtering stones	20 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Filtering stones, unmanufactured	do	20	15	10 per cent.
Fire crackers	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Fire irons or screens	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Fish:				
Pickled, other than in barrels or half barrels, not specified	20 per cent.	20	15	½ cent per pound.
In oil	do	40	30	30 per cent.
Mackerel		20	15	\$2 per barrel
Mackerel, pickled	\$1.50 per barrel	20	15	\$1 per barrel.
Salmon, pickled		20	15	\$3 per barrel.
Other, pickled, in barrels	\$1 per barrel	20	15	\$1.50 per barrel.
Glue, called isinglass	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Hooks	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Sauce	do	30	24	20 per cent.
Skins, raw	do	20	15	Do.
Skin cases	20 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.
Fisheries of the United States and their Territories, all products of	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Fishing nets	7 cents per pound	30	24	6 cents per pound.
Fishing lines, silk	6 cents per pound	25	19	30 per cent.
Flags:				
Floor matting, made of	25 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Carpets and carpeting, and floor cloths, made of	do	25	19	Do.
Flageolets, wood, bone, or ivory	30 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Flannels, all	40 per cent.	25	19	30 cents or less and 25 per cent.
Do	do	25	19	Over 30 cents and 30 per cent.
Flap hinges	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Flasks, or bottles, that come in gin cases	\$2.50 per gross	30	24	Do.
Flasks, powder, brass, copper, japanned, or horn	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Flat irons	2½ cents per pound	30	24	1 cent per pound.
Flats, for making hats or bonnets	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Flax:				
Unmanufactured	\$20 per ton	15	Free	\$15 per ton.
All manufactures of, or of which flax is a component part, not otherwise specified	25 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Flax seed.....	5 per cent.....	10	15	16 cents per bushel.
Fleams.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Fleshers.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Flies, Spanish, or cantharides.....	Free.....	20	8	10 per cent.
Flints.....	do.....	5	4	Free.
Flint stone.....	do.....	15	4	Do.
Flints, ground.....	do.....	20	4	Do.
Floot files.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Floor cloth, all stamped, printed, or painted.....	35 cents per square yard.....	30	24	Do.
Floor cloth:				
Dish or table, mats of.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Lined with woolen or wool.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Flor benzoin.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Florentine buttons, covered with bombazette over a metal form.....	do.....	25	19	30 per cent.
Floss cotton (<i>see</i> Cotton Thread).....	do.....	25	24	Do.
Floss silk, and other similar silks purified from the gum.....	25 per cent.....	25	19	20 per cent.
Flour of wheat.....	70 cents per 112 pounds.....	20	15	Do.
Flour, other grain.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Flour, sulphur.....	Free.....	20	15	Do.
Flower water, orange.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Flowers, artificial.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Flowers, all, not otherwise provided for.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Flutes of wood, ivory, or bone.....	30 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Foils, fencing.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Foil:				
Copper.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Silver.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Tin.....	24 per cent.....	15	12	10 per cent.
Fol digitalis.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Forbidden fruit.....	20 per cent.....	20	8	Do.
Forge hammers.....	24 cents per pound.....	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Forks, all.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Fossils.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Fox glove.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Frames, or sticks for umbrellas or parasols.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Frames:				
Plated cruet.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Quadrant.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Silver cruet.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Frankincense, a gum.....	25 per cent.....	20	8	Free.
Fringes:				
Cotton or wool.....	30 per cent.....	25	24	30 per cent.
Merino.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Frizettes, hair or silk.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.

Frocks, Guernsey.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 cents or less, 25 per cent.
Do.....	do.....	30	24	Over 30 cents, 30 per cent.
Frosts, glass.....	do.....	20	15	30 per cent.
Fruits:				
Preserved in brandy or sugar.....	25 per cent.....	40	30	20 per cent.
Preserved in their own juice.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Pickled.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Green, ripe, or dried.....	Free.....	40, 30, 20	8	10 per cent.
Frying pans.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Fullers' boards.....	12½ per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Fullers' earth.....	Free.....	10	8	Free.
Fulminates, or fulminating powders.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Furniture:				
Coach and harness.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Brass, copper, iron, or steel, not coach or harness.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Calico or chintz.....	do.....	25	24	Do.
Household, not otherwise specified.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Fur:				
Dressed, all on the skin.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Hats or caps of.....	35 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Hat bodies or felts.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Muffs or tippets, or other manufactures not specified.....	35 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Furs:				
Hatters', dressed or undressed, not on the skin.....	25 per cent.....	10	8	10 per cent.
Undressed, all kinds of, on the skin.....	5 per cent.....	10	8	Do.
Galanga.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Gallengal, or gallengal root.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Galloons, gold and silver, fine or half fine.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Galls, nut.....	1 cent per pound.....	5	4	
Gambia (terra japonica).....	10 per cent.....	10	Free.	Free.
Gamboge, crude or refined.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Game bags, leather or twine.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Garance, or madder, manufactures of.....	do.....	20	Free.	20 per cent.
Garden seeds, not otherwise specified.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Garnets.....	7 per cent.....	10	4	5 per cent.
Garnets, hardware.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Garters, India rubber, with clasps and of wire.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Gauze, cotton.....	do.....	25	24	Over 16 cents, 25 per cent.
Gelatine.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Gems.....	7 per cent.....	10	4	5 per cent.
Gems, set.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	25 per cent.
Gentian root.....	20 per cent.....	20	Free.	Free.
German silver, manufactured or not.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Gig hames, springs, or handles.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Gilt fancy wares, jewelry, wire, &c.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Gimlets.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Gimps:				
Cotton.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Silk.....	\$2.50 per pound.....	25	19	Do.
Thread, linen.....	30 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Wire being a component part, of chief value.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Gin.....	60 to 90 cents per gallon.....	100	30	1st proof, 40 cents per gallon.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Gin cases with bottles in them, the cases pay	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
And the bottles	do	30	24	Do.
Ginger, green, ripe, dried, preserved, or pickled	2 cents per pound.	24 and 30	15	10 per cent.
Ginghams, as cottons (<i>see Cotton</i>)	30 per cent.	25	24	
Ginseng	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Girandoles	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Glass:				
All articles not specified	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Crown, plate, polished, or other window—				
Not over 10 by 15		30	24	1½ cents per square foot.
Not over 16 by 24		30	24	2½ cents per square foot.
Not over 24 by 30		30	24	4 cents per square foot.
Over 1½ pounds per square foot on excess		30	24	Do.
Apothecaries' vials, 16-ounce	\$2.25 per gross	30	24	30 per cent.
Bottles, black	Various.	30	24	Do.
Broken		20	Free.	Free.
Old, unbroken		20	Free.	Do.
Buttons, cut, entirely of	35 cents per pound.	25	19	30 per cent.
Colored	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Cut, engraved, colored, &c		40	30	Do.
Disks, optical		30	24	10 per cent.
Green, pocket bottles	Various.	30	24	30 per cent.
Looking, plates, silvered	do	30	24	Do.
Manufactures of, all vessels or wares, of cut glass	25 cents per pound.	40	30	Do.
Manufactures of, all others not specially mentioned	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Of antimony	30 per cent.	30	15	20 per cent.
Paintings on	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Pressed, plain, or mold, not cut, colored, or engraved		30	24	25 per cent.
Rough plate, cylinder—				
Not over 10 by 15		20	15	1 cent per square foot.
Not over 16 by 24		20	15	1½ cents per square foot.
Not over 24 by 30		20	15	2 cents per square foot.
Not over 24 by 30, and not over 1 pound per square foot		20	15	3 cents per square foot.
Over 1 pound per square foot pays an additional duty on the excess on the same rates.				
Glasses, hour	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Glauber salts	30 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Glaziers' diamonds	25 per cent.	15	12	10 per cent.
Globes	30 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Gloves	\$1.50 per dozen.	30	24	Do.
Gloves, hair	25 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Glue, all	5 cents per pound.	20	15	20 per cent.
Goats' hair	1 cent per pound.	20	Free.	18 cents or less per pound, 5 per cent.

Do.....	do	20	Free.	18 to 24 cents per pound, 3 cents per pound.
Do.....	do	20	Free.	Over 24 cents per pound, 9 cents per pound.
Goat-skins:				
Raw	5 per cent.....	5	4	5 per cent.
Tanned	\$1 per dozen	20	15	20 per cent.
Gold:				
All articles composed of	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
And silver leaf	20 per cent.....	15	12	20 per cent.
Beaters' brine	do	20	15	Do.
Beaters' molds	10 per cent.....	10	8	Do.
Beaters' skins	do	10	8	10 per cent.
Dust.....	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Embroideries.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Muriate of	25 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Oxide of	do	30	24	Do.
Paper, in sheets, strips, or other forms	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Shell, for painting	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Size	do	20	15	Do.
Studs	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Gold shoes or clogs	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Gorges	do	30	24	Do.
Gown patterns, wool being a component part	40 per cent.....	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Grains, towed	35 per cent.....	20	15	30 per cent.
Grain tin	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Granulated tin.....	do	20	15	Do.
Grapes, not dried	do	30	8	20 per cent.
Grass:				
And cotton cloth, as cottons (see Cotton)	25 per cent.....	25	24	
Bags	5 cents per square yard	30	24	10 cents or less per yard, 1½ cents per pound,
Bags	do	30	24	Over 10 cents per yard, 2 cents per pound.
Flats, braids, or plaits.....	35 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Hats or bonnets.....	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Henguin	25 per cent.....	25	19	20 per cent.
Sisal, mats, of flags and rope	\$25 per ton	25	19	Do.
Grasshopper springs.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Grease	10 per cent.....	10	8	10 per cent.
Green turtle	20 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Gridiron	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Grindstones.....	Free	5	4	10 per cent.
Grindstones, unfinished	do	5	4	Free.
Guava jelly or paste	30 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Guernsey frocks	do	30	24	25 and 30 per cent.
Gunny-bags	5 cents per square yard	20	15	1½ to 2 cents per pound.
Guano	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Guano, imitation of	do	20	Free.	Do.
Guimauve or camomile.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Guinea grains	do	20	Free.	10 per cent.
Guitars	30 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Guitar strings, gut.....	30 per cent.....	<i>Per cent.</i> 20	<i>Per cent.</i> 15	20 per cent.
Gum:				
Benzoin, or Benjamin.....	15 per cent.....	30	8	Free.
Copal.....	do.....	10	8	10 per cent.
Elastic articles.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Senegal, Arabic and Tragacanth, Barbary, East India and Jedda, and all other resinous substances not specified, in a crude state.....	15 per cent.....	10	8	Free.
Purdu, as opium.....	do.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Substitute, burnt flour and starch.....	do.....	10	8	Do.
Gums, medicinal, in a crude state.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Gun locks.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Gunny cloth.....	5 cents per square yard.....	20	15	1½ to 2 cents per pound.
Gunpowder.....	8 cents per pound.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Guns (except muskets and rifles).....	30 cents per pound.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Gun wadding of paper.....	25 cents per pound.....	30	24	Do.
Guts, sheeps', salted.....	20 cents per pound.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Gutta percha, unmanufactured.....	do.....	20	4	Free.
Gypsum, or plaster of Paris.....	Free.....	Free	Free	Do.
Same, ground.....	do.....	Free	Free	10 per cent.
Hackels, all.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Hair:				
Angora goats', raw, 18 cents or less.....	1 cent per pound.....	20	Free	5 per cent.
Same, over 18 cents.....	do.....	20	15	3 cents per pound.
All other manufactures of goats', or mohair.....	25 per cent.....	25	19	30 per cent.
Belts and brooms.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	25 per cent.
Bracelets, chains, ringlets, and curls.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Braids, for the head.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Cloth.....	do.....	25	19	25 per cent.
Curled, for beds.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
For head-dresses.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Gloves.....	do.....	25	19	20 per cent.
Nets.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Pencils.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Pins.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Prepared and cleaned for use.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Powder, not perfumed.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Powder, perfumed, all others not specified.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Seating.....	25 per cent.....	25	19	25 per cent.
Unmanufactured.....	10 per cent.....	10	8	10 per cent.
Unmanufactured, uncleaned.....	do.....	10	8	Free.
Hames, wood.....	35 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Hammers, not blacksmiths'.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Hams, bacon.....	3 cents per pound.....	20	15	2 cents per pound.

Handkerchiefs:			
Linen (<i>see</i> Linen)	25 cents per pound	20	15
Silk (<i>see</i> Silk)	\$2.50 per pound	25	19
Cotton (<i>see</i> Cotton)	30 per cent	25	24
Handles for chests	do	30	24
Hangers	do	30	24
Hangings, paper	35 per cent	20	15
Hares' hair, or fur	25 per cent	10	8
Hare skins:			
Undressed	5 per cent	10	8
Dressed	20 per cent	20	15
Harlaem oil	do	30	24
Harness	35 per cent	30	24
Harness furniture	30 per cent	30	Various
Harp strings:			
Gut	15 per cent	20	15
Wire	do	30	24
Harps and harpsichords	30 per cent	20	15
Hartshorn	20 per cent	30	24
Hatchets	30 per cent	30	24
Hat felts, or bodies, of wool, not put in form or trimmed	18 cents each	20	15
Hat bodies, cotton	30 per cent	30	24
Hats:			
Leghorn	35 per cent	30	24
Of chip, straw, or grass	do	30	24
Of wool	18 cents each	20	15
All other	30 per cent	30	24
Hatters' irons	do	30	24
Hautboys	do	20	15
Haversacks, of leather	35 per cent	30	24
Hayknives	30 per cent	30	24
Head-dresses, ornaments for	do	30	24
Head pieces for stulls	do	30	24
Hearth rugs, all	40 per cent	30	24
Hellebore root	20 per cent	20	15
Hemlock	do	5	4
Hemp:			
All manufactures of, not otherwise specified	do	20	15
A component part	do	20	15
Manila	\$25 per ton	25	19
Seed	20 per cent	10	8
Unmanufactured	\$40 per ton	30	24
Henbane	\$20 per ton	20	15
Herrings	\$1.50 per barrel	20	15
Hessians	25 per cent	20	15
Hides:			
Raw and salted	5 per cent	5	4
Tanned	20 per cent	20	15
Hobby horses	30 per cent	30	24
Hods	do	80	24
			25 to 30 per pound.
			20 to 30 per pound.
			30 per cent.
			Do.
			Do.
			10 per cent.
			Do.
			20 per cent.
			Do.
			Do.
			30 per cent.
			Do.
			20 per cent.
			Do.
			30 per cent.
			Do.
			20 per cent.
			30 per cent.
			Do.
			20 per cent.
			Do.
			30 cents per yard or less, 25 per cent.; over 30 cents per yard, 30 per cent.
			20 per cent.
			\$15 per ton.
			10 cents per bushel.
			\$35 per ton.
			20 per cent.
			\$1 per barrel.
			30 per cent.
			5 per cent.
			20 per cent.
			30 per cent.
			Do.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Hoes.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Hollands, brown (<i>see</i> Linen).....	25 per cent.....	20	15	25 to 30 per cent.
Hollow ware, tinned.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	2½ cents per pound.
Hones.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Honey and honey water.....	do.....	30	24	10 cents per gallon.
Hooks, ail.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Hooks and eyes.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Hops.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Horn:				
Combs.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Plates for lanterns.....	20 per cent.....	5	4	20 per cent.
Tips.....	5 per cent.....	5	4	10 per cent.
Horns.....	5 per cent.....	5	4	Do.
Household furniture.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Same, of cedar, granadilla, ebony, mahogany, rose, and satin wood.....	do.....	40	30	Do.
Hungary water.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Hyacinth roots.....	Free.....	Free	Free	Free.
Hydriodate of potash.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	15 per cent.
Hydrometers, of glass.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Ice.....	Free.....	20	Free	Free.
Imitation of precious stones.....	7 per cent.....	10	8	25 per cent.
Implements of trade of persons arriving in the United States.....	Free.....	Free	Free	Free.
India grass.....	\$25 per ton.....	25	19	\$15 per ton.
India rubber:				
Unmanufactured.....	Free.....	10	4	Free.
Boots and shoes.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Other manufactures of India rubber.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Milk of.....	do.....	20	4	Free.
Suspensers.....	do.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Webbing.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Indian meal.....	20 cents per 112 pounds.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Indian corn.....	10 cents per bushel.....	20	15	10 cents per bushel.
Indigo.....	5 cents per pound.....	10	4	Free.
Indispensables, or bags:				
Leather.....	35 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Merino stuff.....	30 per cent.....	25	19	Do.
Silk.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Bead.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Ink.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Ink powder.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Ink-stands:				
Glass, cut.....	Various.....	40	30	Do.
All other.....	do.....	30	24	25 pe. cent.
Instruments, philosophical.....	do.....	30	24	20 per cent.

Same, specially imported	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Instruments, musical	30 per cent	20	15	20 per cent.
Invention, model of	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Iodine	20 per cent	20	15	10 per cent.
Iodine, salts of	do	20	15	15 per cent.
Ipecac, or ipecacuanha	do	20	15	10 per cent.
Iris root	do	20	15	Free.
Iridium	do	20	15	Do.
Iron:				
Anchors	3 cents per pound	30	24	1½ cents per pound.
Anvils	2½ cents per pound	30	24	1½ cents per pound.
Axes, and malleable iron in castings	4 cents per pound	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Band, hoop, and slit rods, all other	2½ cents per pound	30	24	\$20 per ton.
Bars, flat, 1 to 7 inches wide, and ¼ to 2 inches thick (not less than 20 per cent)	\$25 per ton	30	24	\$15 per ton.
Bars, round, ¼ to 4 inches diameter (not less than 20 per cent)	do	30	24	Do.
Bars, square, ¼ to 4 inches square (not less than 20 per cent)	do	30	24	Do.
Bed screws and wrought hinges	30 per cent	30	24	1½ cents per pound.
Blacksmith hammers and sledges	2½ cents per pound	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Boiler plates	do	30	24	\$20 per ton.
Cables, chains, and parts	4 cents per pound	30	24	1½ cents per pound.
Cast-iron vessels, sads, tailors' and hatters' stoves and stove plates	1½ cents per pound	30	24	1 cent per pound.
Cast-iron pipe, steam, gas, and water	do	30	24	½ cent per pound.
Cast-iron butts and hinges	2½ cents per pound	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Castings, all other	1 cent per pound	30	24	25 per cent.
Chains, trace, halter, and fence, of rod, over ¼ inch	4 cents per pound	30	24	1½ cents per pound.
Same, ¼ to ½ inch	do	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Same, No. 9½ inch	do	30	24	2½ cents per pound.
Same, less than No. 9	do	30	24	25 per cent.
Cut tacks, brads, and sprigs, not over 16 ounces per M	5 cents per M	30	24	2 cents per M.
Same, over 16 ounces per M	do	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Galvanized or zinc-coated	30 per cent	30	24	Do.
Hollow ware, glazed or tinned	2½ cents per pound	30	24	2½ cents per pound.
Liquor	30 per cent	30	24	10 per cent.
Nails and spikes, cut	4 cents per pound	30	24	1 cent per pound.
Nails, spikes, rivets, and bolts, wrought	3 to 4 cents per pound	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Nails, horsehoe	4 cents per pound	30	24	3½ cents per pound.
Other, rolled and hammered	\$25 per ton	30	24	\$20 per ton.
Pig and old scraps (not less than 20 per cent)	\$9 per ton	30	24	\$6 per ton.
Railroad, not over 6 inches high (not less than 20 per cent)	\$25 per ton	30	24	\$12 per ton.
Sheet, smooth or polished	2½ cents per pound	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Iron:				
Sheet, all other not thinner than No. 20 wire	2½ cents per pound	30	24	\$20 per ton.
Sheet, No. 20 to 25	do	30	24	\$25 per ton.
Sheet, thinner than No. 25	do	30	24	\$30 per ton.
Slabs, blooms, loops, and more wrought than pig and less than bars	\$17 per ton	30	24	\$15 per ton.
Taggers' irons	30 per cent	30	24	10 per cent.
Wood screws, 2 inches or less	12 cents per pound	30	24	8 cents per pound.
Same, over 2 inches	do	30	24	5 cents per pound.
Same, washed or plat	30 per cent	30	24	30 per cent.
Wrought for mill, mill-cranks, ships, locomotives, steam-engines, or parts, not less than 25 pounds	4 cents per pound	30	24	1½ cents per pound.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

1820

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[MET. INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.]

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Iron—Continued.		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Wrought railroad chains, nuts, and punched washers		30	24	\$25 per ton.
Wrought tubes, steam, gas, and water	5 cents per pound.....	30	24	2 cents per pound.
All other manufactures	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Iainglass	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Issue peas	do	30	24	Do.
Issue plaster	do	30	24	Do.
Ivory	Free	5	Free.	Free.
Black	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.....	20	Free.	10 per cent.
Manufactures of	20 cents per pound.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Nuts	Free	5	4	Free.
Vegetable, manufactures of	20 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Jack chains and screws	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Jacks for piano-fortes	do	20	24	Do.
Jacks, clothiers'	do	30	24	Do.
Jalap	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Japanned wares of all kinds	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Jellies, and all similar preparations	do	30	24	Do.
Jerk beef	2 cents per pound.....	20	15	1 cent per pound.
Jet, real or composition	20 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Jewelry	do	30	24	25 per cent.
Jewelry, false, so called	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Joints, India	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Jostic, or jos light	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Juice of oranges	20 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Juniper berries	do	20	15	10 per cent.
Juniper plants	do	Free.	Free.	Free.
Junk, old	Free	Free.	Free.	Do.
Jute	\$25 per ton.....	25	19	\$10 per ton.
Carpeting	30 per cent.....	30	15	4 cents per square yard.
Bagging, 10 cents per yard or less	do	20	15	$\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound.
Bagging, over 10 cents per yard	do	20	15	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.
Bits	25 per cent.....	20	15	\$5 per ton.
Kaleidoscopes	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Kalydor	do	30	24	Do.
Kelp	Free	10	8	Free.
Kentledge	1 cent per pound.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Kermes	Free	5	4	10 per cent.
Kermes (mineral)	20 per cent.....	15	12	Do.
Kersey ratteen	40 per cent.....	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Kerseys	do	30	24	Do.
Kerseymere	do	30	24	Do.
Kerstes	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Kettles:				
Brass, in nests	12 cents per pound.....	30	24	30 per cent.

Cast-iron or copper	1½ cents per pound.....	30	24	Do.
Keys:				
Watch, of gold or silver	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
All other, of iron, brass, copper, gold, or silver.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Kimarnock caps	40 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Kirschenwasser	60 cents per gallon.....	100	30	50 cents per gallon.
Knitting-needles	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Knives, all, of iron, steel, copper, brass, pewter, lead, or tin.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Knobs:				
Brass, gilt, plated, or washed, iron, steel, copper, or brass.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Cut glass	do.....	40	30	Do.
Glass, not cut	do.....	30	24	25 per cent.
Glass, with brass, iron, steel, or composition shanks.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Knockers	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Kreosote.....	do.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Labels:				
Decanter or other, gilt or plated	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Decanter or other, gold or silver	do.....	30	24	Do.
Printed	do.....	20	24	20 per cent.
Lac:				
Dye	Free.....	5	4	Free.
Marine	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Spirits.....	Free.....	20	4	Free.
Sulphur.....	do.....	20	4	Do.
Lace:				
All kinds of, made into wearing apparel	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Bobbinet	20 per cent.....	25	24	Do.
Bobbinet veils, cotton.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Coach, worsted or silk.....	35 per cent.....	25	19	Do.
Shawls, if sewed	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Caps, pelerines, chemisettes, handkerchiefs, collars and capes, veils, cotton.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Laced boots or bootees.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Laces:				
All thread	15 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Gold and silver	do.....	30	24	Do.
Lacets, or lacings, silk or cotton.....	30 per cent.....	25	19	Do.
Lacquered ware	do.....	30	24	Do.
Ladle-heads	do.....	30	24	Do.
Ladles, iron, tin, Britannia, brass, copper, or gilt.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Lake:				
Water colors.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Drop colors	do.....	30	24	Do.
Paints	do.....	30	24	Do.
Lampblack	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Lamp hooks or pulleys, brass, copper, iron, or wood.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Lamps:				
Brass, copper, tin, or plain glass.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Cut-glass	45 cents per pound.....	40	30	Do.
With glass chimneys	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Lancet cases	35 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Lancets	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Lantern leaves, or horn plates.....	20 per cent.....	5	4	20 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Lanterns, japanned, tin, gilt, plated, brass, pewter, or copper	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Lapis calaminaris	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Lapis infernalis	do	20	15	Do.
Lapis tutia	do	20	15	Do.
Lard	3 cents per pound.	20	15	2 cents per pound.
Larding pins	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Lasting, in strips, for buttons, shoes, or bootees	5 per cent.	5	4	Free.
Latches, iron, brass, steel, gilt, plated, washed, or copper	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Lath	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Lattin, brass	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Laudanum	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Lavender:				
Dry, flower of	25 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Flower	do	20	15	Do.
Water	do	30	24	Do.
Lawn:				
Cotton (<i>See Cotton</i>)	30 per cent.	25	14	
Linen	25 per cent.	20	15	30 cents or less, 25 per cent.; over 30 cents, 30 per cent.
Or long lawn, linen	25 per cent.	20	15	25 and 30 per cent.
Lead:				
All manufactures of, not otherwise specified	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Black	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Busts	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Combs	4 cents per pound.	30	24	Do.
In any other form not specified	do	30	24	Do.
In bars	3 cents per pound.	20	15	1 cent per pound.
In pigs	do	20	15	Do.
In sheets	4 cents per pound.	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Nitrate of	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Old	1 cent per pound.	20	15	1 cent per pound.
Ore	4 cents per pound.	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Pencils	20 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Pipes	4 cents per pound.	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Pots, black	20 per cent.	30	24	10 per cent.
Powder of black	do	20	15	Do.
Scrap	1 cent per pound.	20	15	1 cent per pound.
Shot	4 cents per pound.	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Sngar of	do	20	15	3 cents per pound.
Toys	do	30	24	30 cents per pound.
White	do	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Leaders:				
Lesther	35 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Worsted	40 per cent.	25	19	Do.

Leather:				
All manufactures where leather is chief value.....	35 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Bracelets, elastic.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Garters, elastic.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Calf, tanned.....	8 cents per pound.....	30	24	25 per cent.
Patent.....	do.....	20	19	30 per cent.
Sole.....	6 cents per pound.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Upper.....	8 cents per pound.....	20	15	Do.
Leaves:				
For dyeing, in a crude state.....	Free.....	20	Free.	Free.
Boucho.....	20 per cent.....	20	4	Do.
Medicinal, in a crude state.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Other, not otherwise provided for.....	do.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Leeches.....	Free.....	20	Free.	Free.
Lees, wine, liquid.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	40 per cent.
Loghorn, and all hats or bonnets of straw, chip, or grass.....	35 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Leghorn flats, braids, crowns, or plaits.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Lemons:				
In bulk or in boxes, barrels, or casks.....	20 per cent.....	20	8	10 per cent.
Juice.....	do.....	10	8	Do.
Peel.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Leno, linen.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	25 and 30 per cent.
Leno, muslin.....	25 per cent.....	25	24	25 and 30 per cent.
Leopard skins:				
Raw.....	5 per cent.....	5	4	5 per cent.
Dressed.....	\$1 per dozen.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Leopard spot cloth (see Woolens).....	40 per cent.....	30	24	
Lime.....	20 per cent.....	10	8	10 per cent.
Acetate of.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Juice.....	do.....	10	8	10 per cent.
Limes.....	do.....	20	8	Do.
Linen:				
Bags.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Canvas, black.....	do.....	5	4	30 per cent.
Mitts.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Tape.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Linens:				
Bleached or unbleached.....	do.....	20	15	25 per cent. (30 cents or less).
Do.....	do.....	20	15	30 per cent. (over 30 cents).
All manufactures of, not otherwise specified.....	do.....	20	15	30 per cent.
Lines:				
Fishing.....	6 cents per pound.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Worsted.....	30 per cent.....	25	19	30 per cent.
Links, coat.....	25 per cent.....	25	19	Do.
Linseed.....	5 per cent.....	10	Free.	16 cents per bushel.
Linseed cakes or meal.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Linsey-woolsey.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Lint.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	30 per cent.
Liqueurs or cordials, all.....	60 cents per gallon.....	100	30	50 cents per gallon.
Liquor:				
Iron.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Purple.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Liquor—Continued.		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Red.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Tin.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Cases.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Licorice:				
Paste or juice.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	3 cents per pound.
Root.....	do.....	20	15	Free.
Litharge.....	4 cents per pound.....	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Lithographic stones.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Lithontriptons.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Litmus.....	20 per cent.....	20	4	10 per cent.
Leadstones.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Lotions, all cosmetic.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Lozenges, all medicinal.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Locks, all.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Long cloths, linen.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	25 and 30 per cent.
Looking-glasses, plates or frames.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Lunar caustic.....	do.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Lustrea:				
Glass, cut.....	45 cents per pound.....	40	30	30 per cent.
Brass and glass.....	30 cents per pound.....	30	24	Do.
Lutes.....	30 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Lye, soda.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Maccaroni.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Mace.....	50 cents per pound.....	40	4	15 cents per pound.
Machinery, models of, and other inventions.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Machinery for the manufacture of flax and linen goods.....	30 per cent.....	30	8	Do.
Mauder.....	Free.....	5	Free.	Do.
Mauder root.....	do.....	5	Free.	Do.
Madras handkerchiefs, cotton.....	30 per cent.....	25	24	30 per cent.
Magic lanterns.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Magnesia.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Carbonate of.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Sulphate of.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Mahogany:				
Unmanufactured.....	15 per cent.....	20	8	Free.
Manufactured.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Mallets, wood.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Malt.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Manganese.....	do.....	20	45	10 per cent.
Mangoes.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Mangroves, or shells of.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Manila grass.....	\$25 per ton.....	25	19	\$15 per ton.
Manna.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Mantillas, silk.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.

Mantles.....	do	30	24	Do.
Manufactured tobacco.....	10 cents per pound.....	40	30	20 per cent.
Maps.....	Free.....	10	Free.	Free.
Marble:				
Busts, as statuary.....	do.....	30	Free.	10 per cent.
Manufactures of.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Table tops.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Unmanufactured.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Marbles, toy, baked or stones.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Marine coral.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	Free.
Marmalade, a sweetmeat.....	30 per cent.....	40	30	30 per cent.
Marrow.....	10 per cent.....	10	8	10 per cent.
Marsh mallows.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Mastic:				
Crude.....	15 per cent.....	20	8	10 per cent.
Refined.....	20 per cent.....	20	8	20 per cent.
Mathematical instruments for colleges and schools.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Mathematical instruments.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Matches for pocket lights.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Mats:				
Cocoanut.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
If wool be a component part.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Oil or floor cloth, dish or table.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Sheepskins.....	do.....	30	24	50 per cent.
Mats, table, tow, straw, or flag.....	25 per cent.....	25	19	20 per cent.
Table, wood.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Matting:				
Cocoa-nut.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
All floor, of flags jute, or grass.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Mattresses, hair or moss, linen tick.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	30 per cent.
Meal.....	do.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Meats, prepared.....	30 per cent.....	40	30	30 per cent.
Medals and other antiquities.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Medicinal preparations, not otherwise specified.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Medicinal drugs, roots, and leaves, in a crude state, not otherwise specified.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Metal, plated.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Metallic pens.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Metallic slates, paper or tin.....	30 per cent.....	25	19	Do.
Metals, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for.....	do.....	30	15	20 per cent.
Melting or glue pots, if earthen.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Mercury or quicksilver.....	5 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Mercury, all preparations of.....	25 per cent.....	25	19	20 per cent.
Merino:				
Cloth, entirely of combed wool.....	40 per cent.....	25	19	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Cloth, wool.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Fringe, worsted.....	30 per cent.....	25	19	30 per cent.
Shawls, of wool.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Shawls, body worsted or combed wool.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Shawls, border woolen fringe, sewed on.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Trimmings, worsted.....	30 per cent.....	25	19	30 per cent.
Manila hemp.....	\$25 per ton.....	25	19	\$15 per ton.
Mica.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Milk of roses	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Millinery of all kinds.....	40 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Millepedes.....	25 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Mill saws	\$1 each.	30	24	9 inches wide or less, 12½ cents per foot; over 9 inches wide, 20 cents per foot.
Mills, coffee.....	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Miniature cases, ivory	do	30	24	Do.
Miniature sheets, ivory	do	30	24	Do.
Miniatures.....	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Mineral and bituminous substances, in a crude state, not otherwise provided for.....	30 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Mineral:				
Blue	20 per cent.	15	8	Free.
Salt, crude	do	20	15	10 per cent.
Water	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Mock pearls	20 per cent.	10	8	5 per cent.
Modeling:				
Specially imported.....	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Not specially imported.....	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Models of invention, not for use	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Molasses.....	4½ cents per pound.	30	24	2 cents per gallon.
Molasses, concentrated.....	do	30	24	3 cent per pound.
Moon knives	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Mops	do	30	24	Do.
Morcbad-swans, cotton.....	do	25	24	Do.
Morocco skins	\$2.50 per dozen	20	15	20 per cent.
Morphine, acetate, sulphate, or crystals of.....	25 per cent.	30	24	\$1 per ounce.
Mortars, brass, marble, or composition	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Moss:				
Iceland	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
For beds	10 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Mosaics, real:				
Not set	7 per cent.	10	4	5 per cent.
Set	30 per cent.	30	24	25 per cent.
Mother of pearl:				
Buttons, with metal eyes or shanks	30 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Manufactured	do	30	24	Do.
Shells.....	Free	5	4	Free.
Studs	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Molds, button.....	25 per cent.	25	19	Do.
Mouse traps, wood or wire.....	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Muffs, of fur	35 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Munjeot (Indian madder)	Free	5	Free.	Free.
Muriate of barytes, tin, or strontian.....	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.

Muriate of gold.....	do.....	20	24	Do.
Music, in sheets or bound.....	do.....	10	4	10 per cent.
Musical instruments.....	30 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Musical-instrument strings:				
Of gut.....	15 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Part of metal.....	do.....	20	24	30 per cent.
Mushrooms.....	30 per cent.....	40	30	10 per cent.
Mushroom sauce.....	do.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Musk.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Musket:				
Barrels.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Bayonets.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Bullets.....	4 cents per pound.....	20	15	Do.
Rods or stocks.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Muskets.....	\$1.50 per stand.....	30	24	Do.
Mustard:				
Manufactured.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Seed.....	5 per cent.....	Free.	Free.	
Myrrh:				
Gum, crude.....	15 per cent.....	20	15	Free.
Refined.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Myrobalan, a nut for dyes.....	Free.....	20	Free.	Free.
Nails:				
Cut.....	3 cents per pound.....	30	24	1 cent per pound.
Wrought iron.....	4 cents per pound.....	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Rods.....	2½ cents per pound.....	30	24	\$20 per ton.
Nankeens, as cottons (see Cotton).....	30 per cent.....	25	24	
Nankeen shoes or slippers.....	do.....	30	24	50 per cent.
Napkins, cotton.....	do.....	25	24	Do.
Napt, a manufacture of wool.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Narcotine.....	20 per cent.....	20	24	30 per cent.
Natron.....	10 per cent.....	10	8	Free.
Needles:				
All kinds.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Crochet.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Nests, birds.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Nets, fishing.....	7 cents per pound.....	30	24	6 cents per pound.
Nickel.....	Free.....	5	4	Free.
Nippers.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Nitrate of—				
Barytes.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Iron.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Lead.....	do.....	20	15	3 cents per pound.
Silver or lunar caustic.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Strontium.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Tin.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Nitre mur, tin.....	do.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Nitrous acid.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Norfolk latches.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Noyeau.....	60 cents per gallon.....	100	30	50 cents per gallon.
Nut-galls.....	Free.....	5	4	Free.
Nutmegs.....	30 cents per pound.....	40	4	15 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Nutria skins, undressed	5 per cent.....	Per cent. 10	Per cent. 8	5 per cent.
Nuts:				
For dyeing, crude.....	Free.....	5	Free.	Free.
All not specially mentioned.....	1 cent per pound.....	30	24	1 cent per pound.
Nux vomica.....	Free.....	10	8	Free.
Oakum and junk.....	do.....	Free.	Free.	Do.
Oatmeal.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Oats.....	10 cents per bushel.....	20	15	10 cents per bushel.
Ocher:				
Dry.....	1 cent per pound.....	30	15	35 cents per 100 pounds.
In oil.....	1½ cents per pound.....	30	24	\$1.35 per 100 pounds.
Ochers, all, or ochery earths, when dry.....	1 cent per pound.....	30	24	35 cents per 100 pounds.
Ochers, all, or ochery earths, in oil.....	5 cents per pound.....	30	24	\$1.35 per 100 pounds.
Odors or perfumes.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Oil:				
All, used in painting.....	25 cents per gallon.....	20	15	20 cents per gallon.
Animali.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Cakes.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Castor.....	40 cents per gallon.....	20	15	Do.
Cloth.....	35 cents per yard.....	30	24	50 cents or less, 20 per cent.; over 50 cents, 30 per cent.
Fish, and all production of American fisheries.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Harlem.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Hempseed.....	25 cents per gallon.....	20	15	20 cents per gallon.
Kerosene and other coal.....	20 per cent.....	20	24	10 cents per gallon.
Linseed.....	25 cents per gallon.....	20	15	20 cents per gallon.
Olive, in casks.....	do.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Rapeseed.....	do.....	20	15	20 cents per gallon.
Spermaceti, of foreign fishing.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Whale and other foreign fishing.....	15 cents per gallon.....	20	15	Do.
Of coconuts.....	20 per cent.....	10	4	10 per cent.
Of neats' foot.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Of palm.....	Free.....	10	4	10 per cent.
Of palm bean.....	do.....	10	4	Do.
Oils:				
Volatile, essential, or expressed.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Ricini, or Palma Christi.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Old silver, fit only to be remanufactured.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Olives, in oil.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Onions.....	do.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Opium.....	75 cents per pound.....	20	15	\$1 per pound.
Opium, extract of.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	\$1 per ounce.
Orange:				
Bitters.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.

Crystals	do	20	15	Do.
Flowers	do	20	15	Do.
Flower water	do	30	24	Do.
Issue peas	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Peel	do	20	15	10 per cent.
Oranges	do	20	8	Do.
Ore, specimens of	Free	20	15	Do.
Organs	30 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Ornaments, gilt wood, gold paper, or for ladies' head-dresses, silk	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Ornaments, not for head dresses, of metal	do	30	24	Do.
Orpiment	15 per cent.	10	8	Free.
Orris root	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Osiers for baskets	do	10	8	20 per cent.
Osnaburghs	25 per cent.	20	15	25 and 30 per cent.
Ostrich plumes and feathers	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Oxymuriate of lime	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Oxymuriate or chlorate of potasse, or potash	do	20	15	Do.
Oysters	do	20	15	10 per cent.
Pack thread	6 cents per pound.	30	24	30 per cent.
Padding, wool	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Paddy	20 per cent.	20	15	½ cent per pound.
Pad screws	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Paintings:				
On canvas	30 per cent.	20	Free.	10 per cent.
On glass	do	30	24	30 per cent.
On porcelain	do	20	15	Do.
Paints:				
Carmines	Free	30	24	Do.
Dry or ground in oil, not otherwise provided for	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Spanish brown, dry	1 cent per pound.	20	15	35 cents per 100 pounds.
Spanish brown, in oil	1½ cents per pound.	30	24	\$1.35 per 100 pounds.
Terra umbra	20 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.
Water colors	do	30	24	Do.
White lead	4 cents per pound.	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Painters' colors	20 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.
Palm-leaf hats or baskets	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Palm leaves, unmanufactured	Free	10	Free.	Free.
Panel saws	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Pit saws	\$1 each	30	24	9 inches wide or less, 12½ cents per foot; over 9 inches wide, 20 cents.
Panilla grass	\$25 ton	25	19	\$15 per ton.
Paper:				
For screens or fireboards	35 cents per pound.	20	15	30 per cent.
Hangings	35 per cent.	20	15	Do.
All other, and all manufactures of	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Sheathing	do	30	24	10 per cent.
Wadding	3 cents per pound.	30	24	30 per cent.
Parasols, silk	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Parasol sticks or frames	do	30	24	Do.
Parchment	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Paris white:		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Dry.....	1 cent per pound.....	20	15	35 cents per 100 pounds.
Ground.....	do.....	20	15	\$1.35 per 100 pounds.
Parts of stills, of copper.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Pasteboard.....	12½ cents per pound.....	30	24	Do.
Paste:				
Almond.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Giggers.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Imitation of precious stones.....	7½ per cent.....	10	8	10 per cent.
Perfumed.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Work that is set.....	7½ per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Pastel or woad.....	1 cent per pound.....	10	4	Free.
Patent mordant.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Patent yellow.....	do.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Paving stones.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Paving tiles.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Paving tiles, marble.....	do.....	20	15	30 per cent.
Pearl, mother of.....	Free.....	5	4	Free.
Pearls:				
All.....	7 per cent.....	10	4	5 per cent.
Composition.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	10 per cent.
Mock.....	7 per cent.....	10	8	5 per cent.
Set.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	25 per cent.
Peanuts.....	1 cent per pound.....	20	15	1 cent per pound.
Peas.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Pellitory root.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Pelts, salted.....	5 per cent.....	5	4	5 per cent.
Pencils:				
Black lead, camels' hair, or red chalk.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Slate.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Pencil cases, gold, silver, gilt, or plated.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Penknives.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Pens:				
Metallic.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Quill.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Pepper:				
Black or white.....	5 cents per pound.....	20	15	2 cents per pound.
Cayenne, Chili, or African.....	10 cents per pound.....	30	4	Ground, 4 cents per pound; un-ground, 3 cents per pound.
Red pod.....	do.....	20	4	20 cents per pound.
Percussion caps.....	30 per cent.....	30	15	20 per cent.
Perfumed soap for shaving.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Perfumery vials and bottles.....	Various.....	30	24	Do.
Perfumes.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Perry.....	60 cents per gallon.....	100	30	40 cents per gallon.

Personal and household effects, not merchandise, of citizens of the United States dying abroad.	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Peruvian bark	do	15	Free.	10 per cent., or free.
Petershams, woolen cloth	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Petticoats, ready made, cotton	50 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Pewter:				
Manufactures of, not enumerated	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Old, fit only to be remanufactured	Free	5	4	1 cent per pound.
Phosphate:				
Of lime	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Of soda	do	20	15	Do.
Phosphorus	do	20	15	Do.
Phosphorus lights, in glass bottles with paper cases	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Phosphuret of lime	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Piano-fortes	30 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Piano-forte ferrules	do	20	24	Do.
Pickles	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Picrotoxine, an extract	do	30	24	Do.
Pimento	5 cents per pound.	40	30	2 cents per pound.
Pincers	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Pincushions:				
Cotton	30 per cent.	25	24	30 per cent.
Silk	do	25	19	Do.
Wool	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Pineapples	Free	20	8	Free.
Pin or needle cases, all	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Pink saucers	do	30	24	Do.
Pins	20 cents per pound.	30	24	Do.
Pins, silver, iron, or pound	do	30	24	Do.
Piperine, extract	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Pipes:				
Clay, smoking	30 per cent.	30	24	35 cents per 100 pounds.
Watch, carriage, or cannon	do	30	24	\$3 per ton.
Wood	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Pistols	do	30	24	Do.
Pitch	25 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Pitch, Burgundy	20 per cent.	25	19	Do.
Plaids, cotton (see Cotton)	30 per cent.	25	24	
Plains	40 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Plaster:				
Busts, casts, statues	Free	30	Free.	Free.
Court, on silk or on cambric	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Of Paris, unground	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Same, ground	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Same, calcined	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Ornaments	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Plane irons	do	30	24	Do.
Planes	do	30	24	Do.
Planks, wrought or rough	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Plants	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Plata pina	do	Free.	Free.	Do.
Plated wares of all kinds	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Plate, silver	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Platillas, linen (<i>see</i> Linen)	35 per cent.	20	15	
Platina:				
Unmanufactured	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Manufactures of	20 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Retorts	do	30	24	Free.
Playing cards	25 cents per pack	30	24	30 per cent.
Pliers	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Plows	do	30	24	Do.
Plows, plane	1 cent per pound.	30	24	25 per cent.
Plumbago	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Plumes, ornamental	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Plums	do	30	8	1 cent per pound.
Plush:				
Cotton	30 per cent.	25	24	20 per cent.
Hair	20 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Hatters', of silk and cotton, cotton chief value	30 per cent.	25	19	20 per cent.
Mohair, or goats' hair	20 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Orghag, worsted	30 per cent.	25	19	Do.
Wool	do	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Pocket books:				
Leather	35 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Paper	20 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Pocket bottles, green glass		30	24	Do.
Poil de chevre, wool and cotton	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Points, merino	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Pole:				
Caps	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Carriage hooks	do	30	24	Do.
Ferrules	do	30	24	Do.
Polishing stones	Free	10	8	Free.
Polished or scraped brass	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Polypodium	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Pomatum	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Pomegranates	20 per cent.	20	8	10 per cent.
Pomegranate peel	30 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Poplins, stuff	20 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Poppy:				
Heads	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Oil	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Seed	do	Free.	Free.	Free.
Porcelain	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Glass	do	30	24	Do.
Slates	do	25	19	Do.

1832

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[MER. INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.]

Pork.....	2 cents per pound.....	20	15	1 cent per pound.
Porphyry.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Portable desks.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Porter:				
In bottles.....	20 cents per gallon.....	30	24	25 cents per gallon.
Otherwise.....	15 cents per gallon.....	30	24	15 cents per gallon.
Potasse, prussiate of.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	15 per cent.
Potassium.....	do.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Potash, preparations of.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Potatoes.....	10 cents per bushel.....	30	24	10 cents per bushel.
Pots:				
Black lead.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Blue.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Cast iron.....	1 cent per pound.....	30	24	1 cent per pound.
Melting, earthen.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Poultry, or game, prepared.....	25 per cent.....	40	30	30 per cent.
Pounce.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Pound ribbon.....	25 per cent.....	25	19	30 per cent.
Powder:				
Black lead.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Blue.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Of brass.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Puffs.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Subtil, for the skin.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Powders and all pastes.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Precious stones:				
Glass, imitation of, set.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	25 per cent.
Of all kinds, not set.....	7 per cent.....	10	4	5 per cent.
Other imitations of.....	do.....	10	8	25 per cent.
Set.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Prepared clay.....	30 per cent.....	20	15	30 per cent.
Prepared vegetables, meats, poultry, and game.....	25 per cent.....	40	30	Do.
Preserves in molasses and all others.....	do.....	40	30	Do.
Pressing boards.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Princess stuff, woolen.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Prints or engravings.....	20 per cent.....	10	3	10 per cent.
Prisms, cut glass.....	45 cents per pound.....	40	30	30 per cent.
Professional books of persons arriving in the United States.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Protractors, ivory mounted.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Prunella.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Prunella for shoes, bootees, and buttons.....	5 per cent.....	5	4	10 per cent.
Prunes.....	3 cents per pound.....	40	8	2 cents per pound.
Prussian blue.....	20 per cent.....	20	4	10 per cent.
Pucheri.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Pullies, iron, brass, copper, or wood.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Pumice.....	Free.....	10	8	Free.
Pumpkins.....	Free.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Pumps, stomach.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Punches, shoe.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Punjums, Madras cottons.....	30 per cent.....	25	24	Do.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Purple:		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Brown.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Tin liquor.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Putty.....	1½ cents per pound.....	20	15	1 cent per pound.
Quadrants and sextants.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Quadrant frames.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Quality binding, worsted.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Quassia wood.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	Free.
Quilla bark.....	Free.....	15	12	Do.
Quill baskets.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	30 per cent.
Quills.....	15 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Quiltings, or bed quilts, cotton.....	30 per cent.....	25	24	30 per cent.
Quicksilver.....	5 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Quinine.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	30 per cent.
Quinine, sulphate of.....	40 cents per ounce.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Radix, or angelica root.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Rag stones.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Rags, of any kind, except wool.....	½ cent per pound.....	5	Free.	Free.
Raisins:				
Boxes or jars.....	3 cents per pound.....	40	8	2 cents per pound.
Other.....	2 cents per pound.....	40	8	1 cent per pound.
Rakes, iron, steel, or wood.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Rancon.....	Free.....	10	4	10 per cent.
Rape of grapes.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Rape seed.....	do.....	10	8	10 cents per bushel.
Rappers, brass or iron.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Rasps.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Rass, cornu cervi.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Ratfa.....	60 cents per gallon.....	100	30	50 cents per gallon.
Rattans:				
Unmanufactured.....	Free.....	10	Free.	Free.
Manufactured.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Rattles, wood, ivory, coral, or with bells.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Ravens duck, hemp, or flax.....	7 cents per square yard.....	20	15	30 cents or less 25 per cent.; over 30 cents 30 per cent.
Razors.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Razor:				
Cases.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Strops, wood.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Ready-made clothing:				
Wool.....	50 per cent.....	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Other.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Reaping-hooks, iron or steel.....	30 per cent.....	20	24	Do.
Red chromate of potash.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	3 cents per pound.
Red lead, ground in oil.....	4 cents per pound.....	20	15	1½ cents per pound.

Red precipitate.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Red Venetian:				
Dry.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	35 cents per 100 pounds.
Ground in oil.....	do.....	20	15	\$1.35 per 100 pounds.
Red wood and red sanders' wood.....	Free.....	5	Free.	10 per cent.
Red wool, or fur for hatters.....	do.....	10	8	Do.
Reeds:				
Unmanufactured.....	Free.....	10	Free.	Free.
Manufactured.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Weavers'.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Reeves' colors.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Regulus of antimony.....	20 per cent.....	20	8	10 per cent.
Reindeer skins:				
Dressed.....	Various.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Undressed.....	do.....	5	4	5 per cent.
Tanned.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Reindeer tongues.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Reps:				
Natural silk and cotton.....	30 per cent.....	25	19	30 per cent.
Silk.....	\$2.50 per pound.....	25	19	Do.
Resin.....	15 per cent.....	20	8	20 per cent.
Of jalap.....	do.....	20	8	30 per cent.
Nux vomica.....	do.....	20	8	Free.
Rest-pins.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Rhodium.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Rhubarb.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Ribbon wire, or canetille, if covered with cotton thread.....	8 cents per pound.....	30	24	2 cents per pound and 15 per cent.
Ribbon wire, covered with silk.....	12 cents per pound.....	30	24	Do.
Rice.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	1 cent per pound.
Rifles.....	\$2.50 each.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Rigotine, a kind of woolen cloth.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Rings all metal.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Rivets, brass, iron, and steel.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Rochelle salts.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Rock moss.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Rods and eyes, for stairs.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Rods, wood, composition, casement, slit or rolled steel.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Roller buckles, as saddlery.....	20 per cent.....			
Rolls, brown or white linen.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	30 cents or less, 25 per cent.; over 30 cents, 30 per cent.
Romals, cotton goods (<i>see</i> Cottons).....	30 per cent.....	25	24	
Roman cement.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Roman vitriol.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Rope:				
Cair or coiar.....	4½ cents per pound.....	25	19	2 cents per pound.
Made of grass or bark.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Made of hides cut in strips.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Or cordage of cocoanut shells.....	4½ cents per pound.....	25	19	3 cents per pound.
Roots:				
All, not otherwise enumerated.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Arrow.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Madder.....	Free.....	5	Free.	Free.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Roots—Continued.		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Medicinal, other, crude.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Rose leaves.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Rose water.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Rosin.....	15 per cent.....	20	8	Do.
Rosolio, cordial.....	60 cents per gallon.....	100	30	50 cents per gallon.
Rotten stone.....	Free.....	10	8	Free.
Rouens, linen (<i>see</i> Linen).....	25 per cent.....	20	15	
Rouge.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Rubies.....	7 per cent.....	10	4	5 per cent.
Set.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	25 per cent.
Rubrum, bark acer.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Rugs:				
For bed coverings, cotton.....	30 per cent.....	25	24	30 per cent.
All other.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Rules all.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Rum.....	60 to 90 cents per gallon.....	100	30	40 cents per gallon.
Bay, or bay water.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	25 cents per gallon.
Cherry.....	60 cents per gallon.....	100	30	50 cents per gallon.
Russia crash, hemp.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	
Russia duck, diaper, linen, sheetings, and other, of flax.....	do.....	20	15	30 cents or less, 25 per cent.; over 30 cents, 30 per cent.
Rust of iron.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Rye.....	15 cents per bushel.....	20	15	15 cents per bushel.
Rye flour.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 cents per bushel.
Sabers.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Saccharum saturni, S. of L.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Sacking, linen.....	do.....	20	15	30 per cent.
Saddle hooks.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Saddle trees.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Saddlery:				
All, not otherwise specified.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Silver-plated, brass, or steel.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Tinned, japanned, or common.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Saddles.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Safflower.....	Free.....	5	Free.	Free.
Saffron.....	do.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Saffron cake.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Sago.....	do.....	20	15	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound.
Sail duck.....	7 cents per square yard.....	20	15	25 per cent.
Salacine, med. prep.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Sal ammoniac.....	20 per cent.....	10	8	10 per cent.
Sal diuretic.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Sal succinic.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Salempores, cottons (<i>see</i> Cotton).....	30 per cent.....	25	24	

Salep	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Salmon:				
Preserved	\$2 per barrel	30	24	30 per cent.
Pickled	20 per cent.	40	30	\$3 per barrel.
Salt:				
Bulk	8 cents per bushel	20	15	4 cents per bushel.
Otherwise	do	20	15	6 cents per bushel.
Salted skivers, roans, or pelts	5 per cent.	5	4	5 per cent.
Salt-peter:				
Partially refined	1 cent per pound	10	8	10 per cent.
Refined	2 cents per pound	10	8	Do.
Or nitrate of potash, crude	Free	5	4	Free.
Salts, chemical, all	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Sandarach, refined	25 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Sandstones	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Sannas, cotton (<i>see</i> Cotton)	do	25	24	
Sarcocolla, crude	do	20	8	10 per cent.
Sardines, in salt	do	20	15	1/2 cent per pound.
Sardines, and all fish in oil	do	20	30	30 per cent.
Sarsaparilla	Free	20	15	10 per cent.
Sarsnets:				
Cotton (<i>see</i> Cotton)	30 per cent.	25	24	
Silk	\$2.50 per pound	25	19	30 per cent.
Sashes, silk	do	30	24	Do.
Sash fasteners	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Sassafras	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Satin:				
Denmark, worsted	20 per cent.	25	19	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Gauze	do	25	19	30 per cent.
Silk	\$2.50 per pound	25	19	Do.
Saucepans, metal	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Sauces, all kinds	20 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Sausages (if not Bologna)	25 per cent.	40	30	20 per cent.
Sawns, cottons (<i>see</i> Cotton)	30 per cent.	25	24	
Saws:				
Cross-cut	30 per cent.	30	24	8 cents per foot.
Saws:				
Mill-pit and drag	30 per cent.	30	24	9 inches wide or less, 12 1/2 cents per foot.
Do	do	30	24	Over 9 inches wide, 20 cents per foot.
Saw sets	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Scarfiola tables or slabs	do	40	30	Do.
Scale beams	do	30	24	Do.
Scales	do	30	24	Do.
Scammoniate, medicated gum	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Scantling	do	20	15	Do.
Scantling and sawed timber, or unwrought	do	20	15	Do.
Scarfs:				
Silk or cotton	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Wool	40 per cent.	20	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Seilla, or squills	20 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.
Scissors	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Scoop nets	7 cents per pound.	30	24	6 cents per pound.
Scotch braces	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Scrapers	do	30	24	Do.
Sea weed, and all other vegetable substances used for beds or mattresses.	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Seed lac	10 per cent.	5	4	Free.
Seeds:				
Garden	Free	Free.	Free.	Do.
All others not specified	Free	Free.	Free.	10 per cent.
Seines	7 cents per pound	30	24	6 cents per pound.
Sogars	40 cents per pound.	40	30	\$5 or less per thousand, 20 cents per pound.
Do	do	40	30	\$5 to \$10 per thousand, 40 cents per pound.
Do	do	40	30	Over \$10 per thousand, 60 cents and 10 per cent.
Segar paper	15 cents per pound.	40	30	30 per cent.
Seltzer water	20 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Seneca, or radix root	do	20	15	Free.
Senna	do	20	15	10 per cent.
Sepia	do	20	15	Do.
Serge, woolen	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Sextants	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Shades, lace, sewed	\$2.50 per pound	30	24	Do.
Shadlocks	Free	20	8	10 per cent.
Shaving soap	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Shawls:				
Wool	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Other	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Shears	do	30	24	Do.
Sheathing metal, patent, composed in part of copper	Free	Free.	Free.	2 per cent.
Sheathing paper	15 cents per pound.	20	15	10 per cent.
Sheets, willow	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Sheetings, linen, hemp or Russia, brown or white	20 per cent.	20	15	25 per cent.
Shellac	Free	5	4	Free.
Shell:				
Baskets	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Boxes, not otherwise enumerated	do	30	34	Do.
Gold, for painting	20 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Silver, for painting	do	30	24	Do.
Turtle or tortoise	5 per cent.	5	4	Free.
Shells, all other	20 per cent.	5	4	Do.
Shingle and stave bolts	Free	Free.	Free.	Do.
Shingles	20 per cent.	20	24	30 per cent.

Shirtings:				
Cotton, bleached.....	30 per cent.....	25	24	(See Cotton).
Unbleached.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Linen.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	25 per cent.
Shirts:				
Silk.....	\$2.50 per pound.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Woolen or worsted.....	40 per cent.....	25	19	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
All other similar manufactures made on frame.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Shoe binding:				
Silk.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Woolen.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Shoe thread.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Shoes or slippers:				
For children.....	15 cents per pair.....	30	24	Do.
For grown persons, of silk.....	30 cents per pair.....	30	24	Do.
Of leather, for men.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Of prunella, stuff, or other materials, except silk, for women.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Shoes, i. e., double-soled pumps and welts, women's leather.....	25 cents per pair.....	30	24	Do.
Shot bags and belts.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Shovels.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Shrubs.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Shute, imperial.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Shuttlecocks and battledores.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Sickles, iron, steel.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Side arms.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Sieves, lawn, cypress, wire, or hair.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Silk and cotton vesting.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Silk and worsted valencias, toilenets or crape de Lyons.....	\$2.50 per pound.....	25	19	Do.
Silk and worsted:				
Shawls, hemmed.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Manufactures of.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Silk:				
Aprons, collars, cuffs, chemisettes, turbans, mantillas, and pellerines.....	\$2.50 per pound.....	30	24	Do.
Bobbin or braids.....	30 per cent.....	25	19	Do.
Caps, if entirely of silk.....	\$2.50 per pound.....	30	24	Do.
Cords.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Curls.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Floss and other similar, purified from the gum.....	25 per cent.....	25	19	20 per cent.
Frizettes.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Garters, with wire and clasps.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Gloves.....	\$2.50 per pound.....	30	24	Do.
Handkerchiefs, not sewed.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Hat bands.....	do.....	25	19	Do.
Hats or bonnets for women.....	\$1 each.....	30	24	Do.
Hose.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Hose, sewed.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Lace.....	\$2.50 per pound.....	25	19	Do.
Manufactures with gold or silver or other metal.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Mitts.....	\$2.50 per pound.....	30	24	Do.
Mitts, sewed.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Not more advanced in manufacture than singles or tram.....	30 cents per pound.....	15	12	15 per cent.
Ornaments, oil-cloth, suspenders, stocks, stockings, twist.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Silk—Continued.		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Pongees, white	\$2.50 per pound	25	19	30 per cent.
Raw	50 cents per pound	15	24	Free.
Sewing, all	\$2 per pound	30	24	30 per cent.
Sewing, raw	50 cents per pound	15	Free.	Do.
Tassels	\$2.50 per pound	25	19	Do.
Watch chains or ribbons	do	25	19	Do.
Webbing	30 per cent.	25	19	Do.
Velvets, \$3 per yard or less	\$2.50 per pound	25	19	25 per cent.
Velvets, over \$3 per yard	do	25	19	30 per cent.
All other articles	30 cents per pound	30	24	Do.
Silks:				
At \$1 per yard or less	\$2.50 per pound	25	19	20 per cent.
Over \$1 per yard	do	25	19	30 per cent.
Silver:				
All manufactures of, not otherwise specified	30 cents per pound	30	24	30 per cent.
Bullion and coin	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
German, in sheets	30 cents per pound	30	24	30 per cent.
German, manufactures of	do	30	24	Do.
Plated metal, in sheets or other form	do	30	24	Do.
Silvered wire	do	30	24	Do.
Sirup of sugar-cane	2½ cents per pound	30	24	¾ cent per pound.
Sisal grass	\$25 per ton	25	19	\$10 per ton.
Sithes	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Skates	do	30	24	20 cents or less, 6 cents per pair.
Do	do	30	24	Over 20 cents, 30 per cent.
Skeletons	do	20	15	30 per cent.
Skins:				
Calf and seal, tanned and dressed	\$5 per dozen	20	15	20 per cent.
Fish, for saddlers, &c	20 cents per dozen	20	15	Do.
Glazed, as patent leather	35 cents per dozen	20	19	30 per cent.
Goat and sheep, tanned and not dressed	\$1 per dozen	20	15	20 per cent.
Goat or morocco, tanned and dressed	\$2.50 per dozen	20	15	Do.
Kid and lamb, tanned and not dressed	75 cents per dozen	20	15	Do.
Kid, tanned and dressed	\$1 per dozen	20	15	Do.
Of all kinds in the hair, dried, raw, or unmanufactured	5 per cent.	5	4	5 per cent.
Pickled, in casks	20 per cent.	5	4	Do.
Sheep, tanned or dressed	\$1 per dozen	20	15	20 per cent.
Sheep, with wool	do	20	15	15 per cent.
Tanned and dressed, otherwise than in colors, viz: fawn, kid, and lamb, known as chamois	do	20	15	20 per cent.
White, for druggists	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
With wool upon them	do	20	15	15 per cent.
Skivers:				
Pickled	20 per cent.	5	4	5 per cent.

Tanned	\$2 per dozen	20	15	20 per cent.
Slates of all kinds	25 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Sledges	2½ cents per pound	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Slick stones	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Smalts	do	20	15	Free.
Snails	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Snake-root	do	20	15	Free.
Snaps, a clasp or ketch	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Snuff	12 cents per pound	40	30	10 cents per pound.
Snuffers	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Snuffer trays	do	30	24	Do.
Soap:				
All	4 cents per pound	30	24	30 per cent.
Stocks and stuffs	10 per cent.	10	8	10 per cent.
Soda:				
Ash	5 per cent.	10	4	Free.
Preparations or manufactures of	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Soie blanche, Chenille	do	25	19	30 per cent.
Solanine, med. prep	do	20	24	Do.
Soles, felt or cork	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Sooty romals, cotton	do	25	24	Do.
Souvenirs	do	30	24	Do.
Soy	do	30	24	20 per cent.
Spars	do	20	15	Do.
Spartaria	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Spa, or spaware	do	40	30	Do.
Spartatcen, or coral	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Spatulas	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Specimens; anatomical preparations	do	30	24	Do.
Spectacle:				
Cases, all	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Glasses, not set	\$2 per gross	30	24	Do.
Glasses, pebble, not set	do	30	24	Do.
Spectacles, all	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Spelter, in pigs, bars, or plates	20 per cent.	10	4	1 cent per pound.
Spelter:				
In sheets	20 per cent.	15	12	1½ cents per pound.
Manufactures of	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Spermaceti oil, of foreign fisheries	25 cents per gallon	20	15	20 per cent.
Spider net, considered as cotton cloth	30 per cent.	28	24	30 per cent.
Spirits:				
Brandy	60 cents per gallon	100	30	\$1.00 per gallon, first proof.
Grain	do	100	30	40 cents per gallon, first proof.
Other materials	do	100	30	Do.
Yellow	do	20	15	30 per cent.
Spokes	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Spokeshaves	do	30	24	Do.
Sponges	20 per cent.	20	8	10 per cent.
Spoons, all	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Spunk	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Spurs, all	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Springs, for wigs	do	30	24	Do.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Spy-glasses.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Squares, all.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Starch.....	2 cents per pound.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Stars of gold, fine and half fine.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Saint Ignatius' beans.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Statues and specimens of statuary.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	10 per cent.
Staves, all.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent. and free.
Stavesacre.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Steel:				
In ingots, bars, sheets, or wire, over ¼-inch diameter, valued at 7 cents or less.....	\$2.50 per cwt.....	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Same, valued at 7 and 11 cents.....	do.....	20	15	2 cents per pound.
Any form not provided for.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Wire, No. 16, and ¼ inch in diameter.....	30 per cent.....	20	15	15 per cent. and 2 cents per pound.
Wire, less than No. 16.....	do.....	20	15	15 per cent. and 2½ cents per pound.
All manufactures of.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Stereotype plates.....	25 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Stiffeners, for cravats.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Still worms.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Still bottoms.....	do.....	30	24	20 per cent.
Stockinets.....	40 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Stomach-pumps.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Stone, Armenian.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Stoneware.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Stoneware, whether gilt, painted, printed, or glazed.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	25 per cent.
Stones:				
Bristol.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Caustic.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Mill, fit for use.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Not merchantable, ballast.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Oil.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Storax, balsam.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Straw:				
Baskets.....	35 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Carpets and carpeting.....	25 per cent.....	25	24	Do.
For hats, in natural state.....	30 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Stretchers, for umbrellas and parasols.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Strings:				
Bow, if gut.....	15 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Hatters', if gut.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Of musical instruments, if gut.....	do.....	20	15	Do.
Strontian.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Strychnine.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Studs, all.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.

Staff:			
Princettas	30 per cent.	25	19 30 per cent.
Goods, all kinds of worsted	do	25	19 Do.
Succory, ground	20 per cent.	20	15 20 per cent.
Sugar:			
Raw	2½ cents per pound.	30	24 ½ cent per pound.
Refined, loaf, lump, crushed, pulverized	6 cents per pound.	30	24 2 cents per pound.
Refined, tintured or colored	do	30	24 4 cents per pound.
Sirup, concentrated molasses and melado	2½ cents per pound.	30	24 ½ cent per pound.
White or clayed	do	30	24 Do.
Of lead	4 cents per pound	20	15 20 per cent.
Molds, hooped or not	30 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.
Sulphate of ammonia	do	20	15 10 per cent.
Sulphate of quinine, of rhubarb, of zinc, of magnesia, or of iron	40 cents per oz.	20	15 ½ cent per pound.
Sulph. mur. tin	20 per cent.	20	15 10 per cent.
Sulphur, flor	Free	20	15 20 per cent.
Sulphuric ether	20 per cent.	20	15 Do.
Sumac	Free	5	4 Free.
Surgeons' instruments, all	30 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.
Surplice pins	do	30	24 Do.
Suspender ends	35 per cent.	30	24 Do.
Suspenders, all	do	30	24 Do.
Swans, down of	25 per cent.	25	19 20 per cent.
Swansdown, woolen	40 per cent.	30	24 25 per cent. and 12 cents per pound.
Sweatmeats or comfits, all	25 per cent.	40	30 30 per cent.
Sword knots:			
Gold and silver, fine and half fine	30 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.
Lace	do	30	24 Do.
Silk or worsted	do	25	19 Do.
Table tops, scagliola	do	40	30 Do.
Tailors' chalk	20 per cent.	20	15 Free.
Talc, mineral	do	20	10 10 per cent.
Tallow	1 cent per pound.	10	8 1 cent per pound.
Tallow candles	4 cents per pound.	15	20 2 cents per pound.
Tamarinds	25 per cent.	20	8 10 per cent.
Tamarinds, preserved	do	40	30 30 per cent.
Tamboreens	do	20	15 20 per cent.
Tannin, medicinal	30 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.
Tapers:			
Paper, with cotton wick	35 per cent.	30	24 Do.
Stearine	30 per cent.	20	15 4 cents per pound.
Spermaceti	do	20	15 8 cents per pound.
Tapioca	25 per cent.	20	15 10 per cent.
Tar:			
Barbadoes, crude	15 per cent.	20	15 20 per cent.
Coal	do	20	15 Do.
Tares	25 per cent.	20	15 Do.
Tarpaulins	20 per cent.	20	15 30 per cent.
Tartrate of antimony, or tartar emetic	do	20	15 20 per cent.
Tasters, cheese	30 per cent.	30	24 30 per cent.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Teas:		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
All kinds, from beyond cape of Good Hope	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Other	20 per cent.	20	15	4 cents per pound and 10 per cent.
Teazles	do	20	15	10 per cent.
Teeth, all other	Free	5	4	Do.
Telescopes	20 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Terraglia, a kind of coral	do	20	15	Do.
Terra japonica	15 per cent.	10	Free.	Free.
Terra japonica de sienna, in oil	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Terra umbra and sienna, dry	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Tentenegue:				
In sheets	Free.	15	12	1½ cents per pound.
Boxes	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Unmanufactured	do	5	4	1 cent per pound.
Theriaque	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Thibet:				
Cashmere of	do	25	19	30 per cent.
Shawls, real or goats' hair	40 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Shawls of wool	do	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Shawls, body cotton	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Thimbles, all	do	30	24	Do.
Thor, marine	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Thread:				
Escutcheons	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Pack	6 cents per pound	30	24	Do.
Thridace	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Ticklenbergs	25 per cent.	20	15	30 per cent.
Ticks, cotton	30 per cent.	25	24	Do.
Tiles:				
Marble	do	30	24	Do.
Paving and roofing	25 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Encaustic	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Timber, hevn or sawed	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Time-pieces	25 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Tin:				
All manufactures of	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Banca	1 cent per pound	5	Free.	Free.
Block	do	5	Free.	Do.
Boxes	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Crystals of	do	20	15	Do.
Foil	2½ cents per pound	15	12	10 per cent.
Granulated	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Grain	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
In bars	1 cent per pound	5	Free.	Free.
In pigs	do	5	Free.	Do.

1844

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[MET. INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE]

In plates	2½ cents per pound	15	8	10 per cent.
In plates, galvanized	do	15	8	Do.
In sheets	do	15	8	Do.
Liquor	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Muriate of	do	20	15	10 per cent.
Oxide of	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Tagger	2½ cents per pound	15	8	10 per cent.
Tinctures:				
Bark, and other medicinal	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Odoriferous	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Tippets, if classed as millinery	30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Tips and runners for parasols and umbrellas, metal	do	30	24	Do.
Tobacco:				
Manufactured	10 cents per pound	40	30	Do.
Leaves, or unmanufactured	20 per cent.	30	24	25 per cent.
Toiletets	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Toilet glasses	do	30	24	Do.
Tolu, balsam of	20 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Tongues:				
Neats', smoked	do	20	15	Do.
Reindeer	do	20	15	Do.
Sounds	do	20	15	Do.
Tonqua beans	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Tools and implements of trade in use by persons arriving in the United States	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Tooth brushes or powders	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Toothpicks, all	do	30	24	Do.
Topaz, real	7 per cent.	10	4	5 per cent.
Touch-stones	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Tow:				
Flax	do	20	15	\$5 per ton.
Hemp	do	20	15	\$10 per ton.
Toys, of every description	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Trays and waiters, all	do	30	24	Do.
Treacle, molasses	4½ mills per pound	30	24	2 cents per gallon.
Tresses, lace	\$2.50 per pound	30	24	30 per cent.
Trees	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Truffles	30 per cent.	40	30	30 per cent.
Trusses	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Tubes:				
Cast	do	30	24	½ cent per pound.
Wrought	do	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Tug buckles, as saddlery	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Turmeric	Free	5	4	Free.
Turpentine, spirits of	10 cents per gallon	20	15	10 cents per gallon or 20 per cent.
Turquois	7 per cent.	10	4	5 per cent.
Turtle, green	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Tweezers, all	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Twine	6 cents per pound	30	24	Do.
Types:				
Metal	25 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
New	do	20	15	Do.
Old	do	20	15	Free.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
		<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Umbler.....		20	15	½ cent per pound.
Umbrellas.....	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Umbrella furniture.....	do	30	24	Do.
Valencias:				
Wool.....	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Worsted.....	30 per cent.	25	19	30 per cent.
Valonia nut.....	Free	5	Free.	Free.
Vanilla:				
Beans.....	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Plants of.....	Free	Free.	Free.	Free.
Varnishes of all kinds.....	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Vases, porcelain.....	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Vegetables:				
Prepared.....	20 per cent.	40	30	Do.
Used in dyeing, crude.....	Free	5	Free.	Free.
Not otherwise provided for.....	20 per cent.	20	15	10 per cent.
Veils, lace, cotton, or silk.....	50 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Vellum.....	25 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Velvet:				
Binding, cotton.....	30 per cent.	25	24	Do.
Binding, silk.....	\$2 50 per pound.	25	19	Do.
Cotton.....	30 cents per pound.	20	24	Do.
Silk.....	\$2 50 per pound.	25	19	\$3 per yard, or less 25 per cent.
Terry, or figured in strips for buttons.....	20 per cent.	5	4	20 per cent.
Velveteens, cotton.....	30 per cent.	25	24	30 per cent.
Veneering rods.....	do	30	24	Do.
Venetian red, in oil.....	do	30	24	20 per cent.
Venison hams.....	3 cents per pound.	20	15	2 cents per pound.
Veratrin, med. prep.....	20 per cent.	20	24	30 per cent.
Verdigre.....	do	20	15	10 per cent.
Verdigris.....	do	20	15	20 per cent.
Vermicelli.....	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Vermillion.....	20 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Vessels:				
Cast iron, not otherwise specified.....	1½ cents per pound.	30	24	1 cent per pound.
Copper.....	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Vestings, cotton.....	do	25	24	Do.
Vests.....	50 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Vinegar.....	8 cents per gallon.	30	24	6 cents per gallon.
Violins.....	30 per cent.	20	15	20 per cent.
Violin strings, gut or wire.....	15 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Vitriol:				
Blue.....	4 cents per pound.	20	15	Do.
Green.....	2 cents per pound.	20	15	½ cent per pound.

Oil of.....	1 cent per pound.....	10	4	10 per cent.
White.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Wadding paper.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Wafers.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Wagon boxes.....	1 cent per pound.....	30	24	2 cents per pound.
Waiters, all.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	24 per cent.
Walking sticks or canes.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Ware:				
Chemical, earthen pottery.....	30 per cent.....	30	15	20 per cent.
Painted.....	do.....	20	15	25 per cent.
Wash balls.....	do.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Washes.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Waste, or shoddy.....	10 per cent.....	5	4	10 per cent.
Watch crystals, when not set.....	\$2 per gross.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Watches.....	7½ per cent.....	10	8	15 per cent.
Watch materials and parts of watches.....	do.....	10	4	15 per cent.
Watch pipe keys.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Water wheels of iron.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Water colors.....	20 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Wax:				
Beads.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Bees', bleached or unbleached.....	15 per cent.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Sealing.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Shoemakers'.....	15 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Wearing apparel, new:				
Wool.....	50 per cent.....	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Other.....	50 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Webbing, India rubber.....	30 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Wedgewood ware.....	do.....	30	24	Do.
Weld.....	Free.....	5	4	Free.
Wet blue.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Whalebone:				
Of foreign fishing.....	12½ per cent.....	20	15	Do.
Of American fishing.....	Free.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Wheat.....	25 cents per bushel.....	20	15	20 cents per bushel.
Wheat flour.....	70 cents per 112 pounds.....	20	15	10 per cent.
Whetstones.....	20 per cent.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Whips.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
Whisky, all.....	60 cents per gallon.....	100	30	40 cents per gallon.
Whiting.....	1 cent per pound.....	20	15	½ cent per pound.
Wick cottons or wick yarns, as cotton yarn.....	30 per cent.....	25	24	30 per cent.
Wigs.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	Do.
Willows.....	do.....	20	15	20 per cent.
Wines, all.....	6 to 60 cents per gallon.....	40	30	40 per cent.
Wire:				
Bonnet or cap, covered with silk.....	12 cents per pound.....	25	19	2 cents per pound and 15 per cent.
Brass.....	25 per cent.....	30	24	30 per cent.
All other.....	8 cents per pound.....	30	24	2 cents per pound and 15 per cent.
Wood:				
Bar.....	Free.....	5	Free.	Free.
Brazil.....	do.....	5	Free.	Do.
Brazilletto.....	do.....	5	Free.	Do.

OUR PAST TARIFF CONDITIONS—Continued.

Articles.	1842.	1846.	1857.	1861.
Wood—Continued.		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
Camwood	Free	5	Free.	Free.
Carmagney	do	5	Free.	Do.
Chessmen	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Dye, all in sticks	Free	5	Free.	Free.
Ebony and granadilla	20 per cent.	20	8	Do.
Fire	do	30	24	20 per cent.
Fustic	Free	5	Free.	Free.
Goncallo, aloes	30 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
Jacks	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Lignum vite	do	30	8	Free.
Log	Free	5	Free.	Do.
Nicaragua	do	5	Free.	Do.
Pernambuco	do	5	Free.	Do.
Quassia, crude	20 per cent.	20	15	Do.
Queen's	Free	5	Free.	Do.
Red	do	5	Free.	Do.
Red sanders	do	5	Free.	Do.
Rose, satin, cedar, mahogany, and all cabinet	20 per cent.	20	8	Do.
Rio de la Hache	Free	5	Free.	Do.
Sandals, in sticks, dust or powder	do	5	Free.	Do.
Santa Martha, and other dye-woods	do	3	Free.	Do.
Unmanufactured, of any kind not enumerated	20 per cent.	30	24	20 per cent.
All manufactures of, not otherwise specified	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Wool, all manufactures of	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Wool and hair of alpaca, goat, other like animals, unmanufactured, value less than 18 cents	5 per cent. (7 cents or less)	Free.	Free.	5 per cent.
At 18 cents	3 cents per pound and 30 per cent.	Free.	Free.	10 per cent.
18 to 24 cents	do	30	24	3 cents per pound.
Over 24 cents	do	30	24	9 cents per pound.
Wool:				
Belts for paper	25 per cent.	30	24	25 cents per pound.
Blankets for printers	do	30	24	Do.
Bunting and all colored	40 per cent.	30	24	30 cents per pound.
Carpets, value \$1.25 per yard or less	65 cents per yard	30	24	40 cents per yard.
Carpets, value over \$1.25 per yard	do	30	24	50 cents per yard.
Carpets, Brussels and tapestry	55 cents per yard	30	24	30 cents per yard.
Carpets, treble ingrain and Venetian	30 cents per yard	30	24	Do.
Clothing, ready made, all kinds	50 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Cloths, shawls, and all manufactures	40 per cent.	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Delainea, cashmeres, barege, gray	do	30	24	25 per cent.
Druggets, bookings, felts, and carpetings	14 cents per yard	30	24	20 cents per yard.
Embroideries, webbing	40 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Hats	18 cents each	20	15	20 per cent.
Hat bodies, listing	do	20	15	Do.

On the skin	3 cents per pound and 30 per cent.	20	15	15 per cent.
Waste or shoddy	Free	5	4	10 per cent.
All other unmanufactured	3 cents per pound and 30 per cent.	30	24	Do.
Woolen:				
Bags	40 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
Cassimere	do	30	24	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Stockings, bindings, mitts, gloves, floor cloth or hosiery	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Woolen and worsted yarn:				
Finer than No. 14	30 per cent.	30	19	Do.
Value 50 cents or less, and not finer than No. 14	do	30	19	25 per cent.
Value 50 cents and not over \$1	do	30	19	12 cents per pound and 15 per cent.
Value over \$1	do	30	19	12 cents per pound and 25 per cent.
Worms for stills	do	30	24	30 per cent.
Wormwood, oil of	do	30	24	Do.
Worsted stuff, all piece goods	do	25	19	Do.
Worsted and silk shawls	do	30	24	Do.
Same, hemmed	do	30	24	Do.
Worsted and manufactures of	do	25	19	Do.
Worsted, all manufactures of	do	25	19	Do.
Yarns		20	15	10 per cent.
Yarns:				
Coir		20	15	1 cent per pound.
Hemp		20	15	4 cents per pound.
Zinc:				
Nails	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.
In pigs, or unwrought	20 per cent.	5	4	1 cent per pound.
In sheets	10 per cent.	15	12	1½ cents per pound.
Oxide of	20 per cent.	20	15	1½ cents per pound.
Manufactures of	30 per cent.	30	24	30 per cent.

GREAT BRITAIN'S POLICY AND TARIFF CONDITIONS.

From the date of the first Tariff of the United States (1789) to 1859, Great Britain was more severely protective in an economic policy to her Industries—of eight hundred years than the United States in our policy to our new born and limited Industries. The abolition of the “Corn Laws,” in 1846, was positively a necessity for subsistence, and hence not a question of Revenue nor of Industrial development. It was a necessity from the barrenness of the soil, therefore *absolutely protective at home*. The Diagram pages preceding illustrate the extreme converse conditions of our country and necessity for converse economic laws. With such consideration, political influences have no association whatever, but interrupt the true interests of a people. The consideration is one purely of conditions—not the application of “universal principles.”

For fifteen years after the abolition of the Tariff on breadstuff, or “corn laws,” Great Britain continued a heavy Tariff in protection over her Industries, and it was only when the wonderful development of her power from manufacturing Industries and her iron resources that she saw her independence of the world, and her ability to open her ports freely to articles in which she had no competition, and with fear of injuring her Industries of eight hundred years' development.

In proportion to the development of an Industry is the wisdom of removing protection.

In evidence therefore of the fore-sighted policy of Great Britain and of her gradual and guarded action, the following comparison of her past Tariffs are submitted to the Commission:

British Tariff Conditions.

Articles.	Rates of duty.		
	1787.	1819.	1859.
Agates or cornelians, set. for every £100 value	£ s. d. 27 10 0	£ s. d. 60 0 0	£ s. d. 10 0 0
Ale and beer, of all sorts	per barrel. 0 5 8	0 13 0	1 0 0
Almonds, not Jordan, nor bitter	per cwt. 1 3 2	2 7 6	0 10 0
Jordan	do. 2 6 3	4 15 0	0 10 0
Paste of	per pound. 27 10 0	60 0 0 per £100 value.	0 0 2
Amber, manufactures of, not enumerated (except beads)	27 10 0	60 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Ammunition, shot, large and small, of lead	per cwt. do.		0 2 0 0 2 6
Of iron	do.		10 0 0
Rockets and other combustibles, for purposes of war, not enumerated, every £100 value		0 1 0 per pound.	Free.
Anchovies	0 0 1½	0 4 0	0 0 3
Apples, raw	per bushel. do.	0 7 0	0 1 0
Dried	0 3 0	0 14 3 per cwt.	Free.
Aquafortis	0 4 8		
Arms:			
Swords, cutlasses, matchetts, bayonets, gun-barrels, gun-locks, cannon, and mortars of iron, not mounted nor accompanied with carriages	per cwt.		0 2 6
Cannon and mortars of brass, not mounted nor accompanied with carriages	do.		0 10 0
Cannon and mortars, mounted or accompanied with carriages, and other fire-arms, viz. muskets, rifles, carbines, fowling pieces, or guns of any other sort not enumerated, and pistols, for every £100 value			10 0 0
Arrowroot	per cwt. 27 10 0 per cent.	0 0 2 per pound.	0 0 4½
Bandstring twist	0 2 3 per 38½ yards.	0 5 0 per 38½ yards.	Free.
Barley, pearled	per cwt. 0 8 10	0 17 6	0 0 4½
Baskets	per cubic foot 27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 0 4
Bast ropes, twines, and strands	0 1 10 per cwt.	0 10 0 per cwt.	Free.
Beads:			
Arango	per pound. 31 13 4	31 5 0 per £100 value.	0 0 2
Coral	do. 0 4 5	0 15 10 per pound.	0 1 6
Crystal	do.		0 0 2
Jet	do. 0 1 5	0 3 2 per pound.	0 0 2
Not otherwise enumerated or described	27 10 0 per cent.	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 0 2
Beer or mum	per barrel. do.	1 1 2	1 0 0
Spruce	do.		1 10 0
Other sorts	do. 0 11 0	1 6 0	1 0 0
Biscuits and bread	per cwt. do.		0 0 4½
Blacking	0 17 8	3 12 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Books:			
Being of editions printed prior to the year 1801, bound or unbound	0 19 3 bound.	6 10 0 bound, per cwt.	Free.
Being of editions printed in or since the year 1801, bound or unbound	per cwt. 0 8 10 unbound.	5 0 0 unbound.	1 10 0
Admitted under treaties of international copyright	do.		0 15 0

British Tariff Conditions—Continued.

1852

Articles.	Rates of duty:		
	1787.	1819.	1850.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Boxes:			
Brass..... per cwt.			1 10 0
Not otherwise charged, for every £100 value.....	27 10 0	50 0 0	10 0 0
Brass, manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated..... per cwt.	Prohibited.	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 10 0
Powder of.....	0 2 8 per pound.	0 5 6 per pound.	Free.
Bricks or clinkers (Dutch).....	0 7 2	1 2 6 per 1,000.	Free.
Other sorts.....			Free.
Brocade of gold or silver..... per pound.	Prohibited.	Prohibited.	0 5 0
Bronze, all works of art.....	27 10 0 per cent.	50 0 0 per cent.	Free.
Manufactures of, or of metal bronzed or lacquered..... per cwt.			0 10 0
Powder.....	27 10 0 per cent.	50 0 0 per cent.	Free.
Butter..... per cwt.	£ 2 6	1 0 0	0 5 0
Buttons (metal).....	Prohibited.	Prohibited.	Free.
Cables (not being iron cables), tarred or untarred, old and new.....	0 8 6	1 1 6 per cwt.	Free.
Cameos, not set.....			Free.
Camphor, refined.....	3 14 8 per cwt.	14 0 0 per cwt.	Free.
Candles:			
Spermaceti..... per cwt.	0 1 4 per pound.	0 2 6 per pound.	0 2 4
Stearine, per cwt. until April 5, 1858, unless the duty upon tallow shall be repealed at an earlier time, in which case, or after April 5, 1858, this duty shall be reduced to the same rate as tallow candles.....			0 3 6
Tallow..... per cwt.	1 12 8	3 3 4	0 2 4
Wax..... do.....	0 1 8	0 2 6 per pound.	0 2 4
Canes:			
Walking-canes or sticks mounted, painted, or otherwise ornamented..... per 100.	1 18 6 per 1,000.	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 6 0
Umbrella or parasol sticks..... do.....			0 3 0
Canes or sticks, unenumerated.....	1 18 6	4 0 0 per 1,000.	Free.
Cantharides.....	0 1 0	0 3 6 per pound.	Free.
Caoutchouc			Free.
Manufactures of..... per pound.			0 0 2
Capers, including the pickle..... do.....	0 0 2	0 1 0	0 0 1½
Cards, playing..... per dozen packs	Prohibited.	4 0 0	0 15 0
Carmine.....	27 10 0 per cent.	0 4 0 per ounce.	Free.
Carriages of all sorts.....	27 10 0 per cent.	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Casks (empty).....	0 8 3 per ton.	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Cassava powder..... per cwt.			0 0 4½
Cassia lignea..... per pound.	0 0 4	0 2 4 per pound.	0 0 1
Catlings.....	0 2 6	0 6 4	Free.
Chalk, prepared or manufactured, and not otherwise enumerated.....	27 10 0	40 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Cheese (the duty to be charged on the landing weight)..... per cwt.	0 1 6	0 10 6	0 2 6

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[MET. INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.]

Cherries:			
Raw.....	per bushel.	0 4 5	0 18 8 per cwt.
Dried, until March 31, 1860.....		0 4 5	0 0 8
Chicory, or any other vegetable matter applicable to the uses of chicory or coffee:			
Raw or kiln dried.....	per cwt.		Free.
Roasted or ground.....	per pound.	27 10 0 per cent.	0 0 4
China or porcelain ware, plain, painted, gilt ornamented.....	per cwt.	47 10 0	0 10 0
Chloroform.....	per pound.		0 3 0
Cider.....		7 7 10 ³	14 5 0 per tun.
Cinnamon.....	per pound.	0 4 5	0 3 6 per pound.
Citron, preserved with salt.....		27 10 0	20 0 0 per £100 value.
Clocks:			
Not exceeding the value of 5s. each.....	per dozen.		0 4 0
Exceeding 5s. and not exceeding 12s. 6d. each.....	do.		0 8 0
Exceeding 12s. 6d. and not exceeding £3 each.....		27 10 0	0 2 0
Exceeding £3 and not exceeding £10 each.....			0 4 0
Exceeding £10 and not exceeding — each.....			0 10 0
Cloves.....	per pound.	0 2 8	0 0 2
Cocoa.....	do.	0 0 6	Excise.
Husks and shells.....	per cwt.		0 0 1
Paste, or chocolate.....	per pound.		0 2 0
Coculus Indicus.....	per cwt.	0 0 5	0 0 2
Coffee.....	per pound.	0 0 4	0 2 6
Kiln-dried, roasted, or ground.....	do.		0 2 6 excise.
A drawback allowed on all roasted coffee exported as ship's stores or removed to the Isle of Man for consumption there, equal to the import duty on raw coffee.			0 0 4
Coir rope, twine and strands.....		0 6 8	1 1 6 per cwt.
Comfits, dry, until March 31, 1860.....	per pound.	0 0 6	0 2 6
Confectionery, until March 31, 1860.....	do.		Free.
Copper:			0 0 2
Ore of.....			
Regulus of.....		0 0 9 per cwt.	1 1 0 per cwt.
Old, fit only to be manufactured.....		27 10 0 per cent.	1 9 2 per ton.
Unwrought, viz. in bricks or pigs, rose copper, and all cast copper.....		0 10 6	2 14 2
In part wrought, viz. bars, rods, or ingots, hammered or raised.....		2 2 0	3 15 6
In plates and copper coin.....		0 16 0	3 0 0
Manufactures of copper, not otherwise enumerated or described, and copper plates engraved, per cwt.....		Prohibited.	50 0 0 per £100 value.
Copper wire.....		2 12 3	5 14 0 per cwt.
Coral:			Free.
Whole or in fragments, polished or unpolished (except beads).....			Free.
Negligees.....	per pound		0 1 0
Cordage, tarred or untarred.....		0 8 6	1 1 6 per cwt.
Cork.....			Free.
Corks:			
Ready made.....	per pound.	0 0 6 per gross.	0 0 6
Squared for rounding.....	per cwt.		0 8 0
Fishermen's.....			Free.
Corn:			
Upon all wheat, barley, bear or bigg, oats, rye, pease, beans, buckwheat, and maize, and so in proportion for a less quantity.....			0 1 0 per quarter.

British Tariff Conditions—Continued.

1854

Articles.	Rates of duty.		
	1787.	1819.	1859.
Corn—Continued.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Upon all wheat meal and flour, barley meal, oatmeal, rye meal and flour, pea meal, bean meal, buckwheat meal, and maize or Indian corn meal			0 0 4½ per cwt.
N. B.—The duties on corn meal and flour must be paid on their being imported; and no abatement is to be made from them on account of any waste to which the articles may be liable in warehouse. (16 and 17 Vict., c. 107, §§ 41, 76.)			
Cotton manufactures:			
Yarn and East India piece goods, dyed or colored, viz., calicoes and muslins, nankeens and handkerchiefs			Free.
Fringe			0 0 2
Manufactures of, not being articles wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty	44 0 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Gloves of cotton or thread			0 0 3
Stockings of cotton or thread			0 0 6
Socks or half hose of cotton or thread			0 0 3
Articles or manufactures of cotton, wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value	44 0 0	50 0 0	5 0 0
Crayons	27 10 0	40 0 0	Free.
Crystal:			
Rough			Free.
Cut or manufactured (except beads)	27 10 0	60 0 0	Free.
Cucumbers, preserved in salt	27 10 0	20 0 0	Free.
Currants	1 3 4	2 4 4	*0 15 0 with 5 per cent. thereon.
Daguerreotype plates			0 0 3
Dates	2 6 3	4 10 3	0 10 0
Dice	Prohibited.	1 6 2	1 1 0
Earthenware, not otherwise enumerated or described	41 16 0	75 0 0 per £100 value.	0 10 0
Eggs, per cubic foot of package, internal measurement	0 0 5 per 120.	0 0 10 per 120.	0 0 8
Embroidery and needlework:			
On silk or silk mixed with other materials, not being silk net			15 0 0
Silk net, figured with the needle, being imitation lace, and articles thereof			0 10 0
Cotton net, figured with the needle, being imitation lace, and articles thereof			0 8 0
Curtains, commonly called Swiss, embroidered on muslin or net			0 1 0
All other embroidery not enumerated, for every £100 value			10 0 0
Essence of spruce, for every £100 value	27 10 0	20 0 0	10 0 0
Essences not otherwise described:			
Extract of cardamoms, coculus Indicus, Guinea grains of Paradise, licorice, nux vomica, opium, Guinea pepper, quassia, and vitriol, for every £100 value	27 10 0	75 0 0	20 0 0
Peruvian or Jesuits' bark, and radix rhatanice, for every £100 value	27 10 0 per cent.	0 5 0 per pound.	20 0 0

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[MET. INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.]

Extract or preparation of any article, not being particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value	27 10 0	50 0 0	20 0 0
Or at the option of the importer	per pound	Option not existing.	0 5 0
Feathers, ostrich, dressed	do.	2 15 6	0 3 0
Not otherwise enumerated or described:			
Dressed	per pound.	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 3 0
Undressed	do.	20 0 0 per cent.	Free.
Paddy birds, dressed	do.		0 3 0
Paddy birds, undressed	do.		Free.
Figs	per cwt.	1 1 6	0 15 0
Fig-cake	per cwt.		with 5 per cent. thereon.
Fish:			0 15 0
Eels	4 13 6	13 1 3 per ship-load.	Free.
Turbots	Free.	Free.	Free.
Of foreign taking, imported from foreign places in other than fishing vessels:			
Oysters	0 0 6	0 1 6 per bushel.	Free.
Salmon		Prohibited.	Free.
Soles			Free.
Turtle			Free.
Fresh, not otherwise enumerated		Prohibited.	Free.
Cured, not otherwise enumerated			Free.
Of British taking, fresh or cured			Free.
Flowers, artificial, whether of silk or other materials, per cubic foot as packed; no allowance for vacant spaces	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 12 0
Frames for pictures, prints, or drawings	27 10 0	50 0 0	Free.
Fruit, viz. raw, and not otherwise enumerated	per bushel.	20 0 0 per £100 value.	0 0 2
Gauze of thread	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Ginger	per cwt.	2 13 0 per cwt.	0 5 0
Preserved, until the 31st March, 1860	per pound.	0 3 2 per pound.	0 0 2
Glass:			
Any kind of window glass, white or stained of one color only (except plate or rolled glass), and shades and cylinders	per cwt.	60 0 0 per cent.	4 18 0
Articles of green or common glass			Free.
Painted			Free.
Plate glass, cast or rolled, of whatever thickness, whether silvered, polished, or rough			Free.
White flint glass bottles, not cut, engraved, or otherwise ornamented, and beads and bugles of glass			Free.
Wine glasses, tumblers, and all other white flint glass goods, not cut, engraved, or otherwise ornamented			Free.
Flint cut glass, flint colored glass, and fancy ornamental glass, of whatever kind	per cwt.		0 10 0
Bottles of glass covered with wicker (not being cut glass), or of green or common glass			Free.
Manufactures not otherwise enumerated or described, and old broken glass, fit only to be re-manufactured			Free.
Gold leaves	0 1 2	0 3 0 per 100.	Free.
Or of			Free.
Gongs	per cwt.		1 0 0
Grains, Guinea and Paradise	do.	0 2 9 per pound.	0 15 0
Grapes	per bushel.	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 0 2
Gunpowder	1 15 3	3 0 0 per cwt.	Free.

British Tariff Conditions—Continued.

1856

Articles.	Rates of duty.		
	1787.	1819.	1853.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Gutta percha.....			Free.
Manufactures of, not molded, such as bands, sheets, soles, tubing..... per cwt.			0 5 0
Articles molded..... per pound.			0 0 2
Hair, manufactures of, or goats' wool, or of hair or goats' wool and any other material, wholly or in part made up, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value.....	27 10 0	50 0 0	5 0 0
Hams of all kinds.....	2 7 0	2 16 0 per cwt.	Free.
Harp strings or lute strings, silvered.....	0 2 6 per gross.	0 6 4 per gross.	Free.
Hats or bonnets:			
Of chip..... per pound.			0 2 6
Of bast, cane, or horsehair..... do.	0 3 6	£1 to £2 per dozen.	0 2 6
Of straw..... do.			0 2 6
Of felt, hair, wool, or beaver..... each.	Prohibited.	0 10 6	0 1 0
Made of silk, silk shag laid upon felt, linen, or other material..... do.			0 1 0
Honey.....	0 8 10 per barrel.	0 15 0 per cwt.	Free.
Hops..... per cwt.	5 18 10	8 11 0	2 5 0
Iron ore, pig, bars, unwrought, wire, rough casting, bloom, chromate of, slit or hammered into rods, cast, hoops, old broken, and old cast iron.....			Free.
Iron and steel, wrought or manufactured:			
Machinery, wrought castings, tools, cutlery, and other manufactures not enumerated, per cwt.....	Prohibited.	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 2 6
Fancy ornamental articles, of iron or steel..... per cwt.			0 15 0
Manufactures of, coated with brass or copper by any galvanic process..... do.			0 3 6
Isinglass.....	0 0 5½	2 7 6 per cwt.	Free.
Japaned or lacquered ware..... per cwt.	49 10 0 per £100 value.	62 10 0 per £100 value.	1 0 0
Jewels, emeralds, and all other precious stones, set, for every £100 value.....	Free.	50 0 0	16 0 0
Lace:			
Mohair or worsted..... per pound.			0 1 0
Thread or cotton pillow lace (not being Brussels point or Saxon bone lace), not exceeding 1 inch in width..... per pound.	} 0 17 6 per 12 yards.	40 0 0 per £100 value.	{ 1 0 0 2 0 0
Exceeding 1 inch in width..... do.			
Silk pillow lace (not being Saxon wire ground lace), and application..... do.			1 10 0
Silk Saxon wire ground lace, and all lace known as Maltese..... do.			0 8 0
Brussels point, and other lace made by the hand, not otherwise charged with duty, per £100 value.....			10 0 0
Latten.....			Free.
Lead, pig and sheet.....	27 10 0	20 0 0 per cent.	Free.
Ore, black, red and white lead, and chromate of.....			Free.
Manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated..... per cwt.			0 2 0

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[MET. INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.]

Leather manufactures:

Boots, shoes, and calashes:					
Women's boots and calashes.....	per dozen pairs.	} Prohibited.	{ Leather, 75 0 0 per cent. Of silk prohibited.	0 6 0	
If lined or trimmed with fur or other trimmings.....	do.			0 7 6	
Shoes with cork or double soles, quilted shoes and clogs.....	do.			0 5 0	
If trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming.....	do.			0 6 0	
Women's shoes of silk, satin, jean, or other stuffs, kid, morocco, or other leather.....	do.			0 4 6	
If trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming.....	do.			0 5 0	
Girls' boots, shoes, and calashes, not exceeding 7 inches in length, to be charged with two-thirds of the above duties.					
Men's boots and shoes, if the quarter do not exceed 2½ inches, or the vamp 4 inches in height from the sole inside, per dozen pairs.....					0 7 0
Same, if either the quarter or vamp exceed the above dimensions, but do not exceed 6 inches in height from the sole inside, per dozen pairs.....					0 10 6
Same, if either the quarter or vamp do exceed 6 inches in height from the sole inside, per dozen pairs.....					0 14 0
Boys' boots, not exceeding 7 inches in length.....	per dozen pairs.		0 9 4		
Boys' shoes, not exceeding 7 inches in length.....	do.		0 4 8		
Boot backs.....	do.		0 1 6		
Cut into shapes.....	per cwt.		0 10 0		
Boot fronts, not exceeding 9 inches in height.....	per dozen pairs		0 1 9		
Same, exceeding 9 inches in height.....	do.		0 2 9		
Same, cut into shapes.....			0 10 0		
Gloves of leather:					
Habit mitts.....	per dozen pairs	} and 5 per cent. thereon.	} Prohibited.	0 2 4	
Habit gloves.....	do.			0 3 6	
Men's gloves.....	do.			0 3 6	
Women's gloves or mitts.....	do.				
Any articles made of leather, or any manufacture whereof leather is the most valuable part, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every £100 value.....		Prohibited.	75 0 0	10 0 0	
Linen, or linen and cotton:					
Cambrics and lawns, commonly called French lawns, plain.....		0 5 0	0 11 6 per piece.	Free.	
Bordered handkerchiefs.....				Free.	
Lawns of any sort, not French.....				Free.	
Damasks.....				Free.	
Damask diaper.....				Free.	
Sails of all sorts.....				Free.	
Stays.....	per dozen pairs.			0 2 0	
Cambrio handkerchiefs, hemmed or hemstitched, not trimmed.....	per dozen.			0 2 6	
Articles, manufactures of linen, or of linen mixed with wool or with cotton, wholly or in part made up, not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value.....				5 0 0	
Liquorice:					
Root.....	per cwt.	1 8 10	3 3 4	Free.	
Paste.....	do.	1 8 0	3 15 0	1 0 0	
Juice.....	do.	1 8 0	3 15 0	1 0 0	
Powder.....		2 12 1	5 10 0	1 0 0	
Lucifers of wood, the cubic foot of external package, measured internally					
Vesta of wax, per 1,000 matches.....				0 0 4	
Macaroni and vermicelli.....	per cwt.	0 0 2	0 0 8 per pound.	0 0 0½	
Mace.....	per pound.	0 4 6	0 4 6	0 1 0	
Mandioca flour.....	per cwt.			0 1 0	
				0 0 4½	

British Tariff Conditions—Continued.

1858

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[NET INDUSTRIAL LEADUM.]

Articles.	Rates of duty.		
	1787.	1819.	1859.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Manna crop per cwt.			0 0 4½
Marmalade, until March 31, 1860 per pound	0 0 3	1 3 0	0 0 2
Mats and matting	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Mead	0 0 2	0 0 7 per gallon.	Free.
Medlars per bushel.	0 2 4	0 5 0	0 0 2
Mercury, prepared	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Metal:			
Bell	1 11 1	1 0 0 per cwt.	Free.
Leaf, not gold	0 0 2	0 0 8 per 250 leaves.	Free.
Mill boards per pound.	1 10 0	3 8 2 per cwt.	0 0 2½
Morphia and its salts do.			0 10 0
Musical instruments:			
Musical boxes, small, not exceeding 4 inches in length per air.			0 0 5
Large do.			0 0 8
Overtures, or extra accompaniments do.			0 2 6
Pianofortes, horizontal grand each.			3 0 0
Upright or square	27 10 0	50 0 0 per cent.	2 0 0
Harmoniums or seraphines			0 12 0
Accordeons, commonly called Chinese the 100 notes.			0 1 0
Other sorts, including flutinas and common German concertinas do.			0 5 0
Brass instruments, all sorts per pound.			0 0 9
Not otherwise enumerated or described per £100 value.			10 0 0
Mustard flour per cwt.			0 1 6
Mixed or manufactured (except flour) do.			0 5 0
Nutmegs per pound	0 2 0	0 3 6	0 1 0
Wild, in the shell do.			0 0 3
Wild, not in the shell do.			0 0 5
Or other spices or admixtures thereof, ground do.			0 1 0
Nuts:			
Small nuts per bushel.	0 0 9	0 4 0	0 1 0
Walnuts do.	0 0 9	0 4 0	0 1 0
Nuts and kernels unenumerated	27 10 0	20 0 0 per cent.	Free.
Nux vomica per cwt.	0 0 1½	0 2 6 per pound.	0 2 0
Oil:			
Of almonds per pound.	0 0 3	0 0 10	0 0 1
Bays do.	0 8 9	0 0 3	0 0 1
Chemical, essential, or perfumed do.			0 1 0
Of cloves do.	0 0 7½	1 12 0	0 1 0
Train oil or blubber			Free.
Spermaceti or head matter			Free.

Walnut.....	27 10 0 per cent.	0 0 6 per pound.	Free.
Or spirits of turpentine..... per cwt.	0 0 1½ per pound.	0 0 8 per pound.	Free.
Not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty.....	27 10 0	50 0 0 per cent.	Free.
Oil-cloth for table covers..... per square yard.			0 0 1½
Olives.....	0 0 8	0 3 0 per gallon.	Free.
Onions..... per bushel.	0 0 5	0 3 0	0 0 1
Opera glasses:			
Single..... each			0 1 0
Double, and all marine and race glasses, not being telescopes..... do.			0 2 6
Opium..... per pound.	0 1 6	0 9 0	0 1 0
Orange-flower water.....	0 1 2½ per gallon.	0 5 9 per gallon.	Free.
Oranges and lemons..... per bushel.	0 4 5 per 1,000 oranges and lemons.	1 5 0 per 1,000 oranges and lemons.	0 0 8
Peel of.....	27 10 0 per cent.	0 0 6 per pound.	Free.
Orsedew..... per cwt.	0 0 6 per pound.	0 1 3 per pound.	Free.
Painters' colors unenumerated, viz:			
Unmanufactured or manufactured.....	0 0 2 per pound.	50 0 0 per cent.	Free.
Paper:			
Brown, made of old rope or cordage only, without separating or extracting the pitch or tar therefrom, and without any mixture of other materials therewith..... per pound.	0 2 11 per bundle.	0 0 10	0 0 2½
Printed, painted, or stained paper hangings, or flock paper..... per square yard.	75 0 0 per cent.	0 1 7	0 0 3
Waste, or paper of any other sort not particularly enumerated or described, not otherwise charged with duty..... per pound		0 1 7	0 0 2½
Gilt, stained, colored, embossed, and all fancy kinds, not being paper hangings..... do.			0 0 2½
Pasteboard..... do.	0 10 0	3 8 2 per cwt.	0 0 2½
Pears, raw..... per bushel.	0 1 5	0 7 6	0 0 3
Dried..... do.	0 0 9	0 10 0	0 1 0
Pencils of slate and other sorts.....	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Pepper of all sorts (5 per cent. thereon)..... per pound.	0 0 3		0 0 6
Percussion caps..... per 1,000.			0 0 1
Perfumery, not otherwise enumerated..... per pound.	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 0 2
Perry.....	10 1 7	20 9 2 per tun.	Free.
Pewter, manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated..... per cwt.	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 2 0
Phosphorus.....			Free.
Pickles, preserved in vinegar..... per gallon.	0 0 10½	0 6 0	0 0 1
And vegetables preserved in salt.....			Free.
Pictures.....	3 11 5	11 4 0 each when above 200 square feet.	Free.
Pimento..... per cwt.	0 0 6 per pound.	0 1 3 per pound.	0 5 0
Plate:			
Of gold..... per ounce, Troy.	Prohibited.	3 16 9 per ounce.	1 1 0
Silver, gilt and ungold..... do.	Prohibited.	0 6 4 per ounce.	0 1 8
Battered.....	Free.	Free.	Free.
Wire, gilt or plated.....	Prohibited.	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Plating:			
Of chip, not being of greater value than 6d. per piece of 60 yards..... per pound.			0 0 6
Or other manufactures of straw, chip, or other materials to be used in, or proper for making or ornamenting hats or bonnets, not otherwise enumerated or charged with duty..... per pound.	0 1 10	0 6 0	0 2 0
Cordonet, single and twist, of straw or of other materials..... do.	0 1 10	0 17 0	0 0 6
Willow squares..... per cwt.			0 10 0

British Tariff Conditions—Continued.

Articles.	Rates of duty.		
	1787.	1819.	1859.
Plums:			
Dried or preserved (except in sugar), not otherwise described..... per cwt.	£ s. d. 1 8 0	£ s. d. 7 0 0	£ s. d. 0 7 0
Commonly called French plums and prunelloes..... do.	1 8 0	7 0 0	0 7 0
Preserved in sugar, until March 31, 1860..... do.			0 0 2
Pomatum per pound.	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 0 2
Pomegranates	0 8 10	1 10 0 per 1,000.	Free.
Peel of.....	0 4 8	0 15 0 per cwt.	Free.
Potato flour per cwt.			0 0 4½
Pots:			
Melting, for goldsmiths.....			Free.
Of stone.....	0 0 7 per cwt.	0 3 2 per cwt.	Free.
Poultry, game, and rabbits, alive or dead	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Powder:			
Hair..... per pound.	5 5 8	9 15 0 per cwt.	0 0 2
Perfumed..... do.	5 5 8	13 13 6 per cwt.	0 0 2
Not otherwise enumerated or described, that will serve for the same use as starch... per cwt.	27 10 0 per £100 value.	0 9 10	0 0 4½
Prints and drawings, plain or colored per pound.	0 0 6 each.		0 0 3
Admitted under treaties of international copyright..... do.			0 0 1½
Or and at the option of the importer, single..... each.			0 0 0½
Bound..... per dozen.			0 0 1½
Prunes per cwt.	0 12 5	1 7 6	0 7 0
Puddings and sausages	0 0 3½	0 1 3 per pound.	Free.
Quassia per cwt.	27 10 0 per cent.	8 17 6	0 1 0
Quinces per bushel.	0 18 4	2 0 0 per 1,000.	0 0 3
Quinine, sulphate of per ounce.	27 10 0 per cent.	50 0 0 per cent.	0 0 6
Raisins per cwt.			0 10 0
Rice:			
Not rough nor in the husk..... per cwt.		0 15 0	0 0 4½
Rough and in the husk..... per quarter.	} 0 7 4 per cwt.	} 0 10 0 per cwt.	0 0 9
Dust for feeding cattle.....			Free.
Upon exportation from the United Kingdom of any foreign rice or paddy cleaned therein, which shall have paid the duties payable on the importation thereof, and having been deposited in some bonded warehouse within one calendar month from the date of such payment, shall have there remained secured until the time of exportation, the exporter making declaration that such rice was cleaned from rough rice or paddy upon which the duties had been paid, there shall be allowed and paid for every hundredweight thereof a drawback equal in amount to the duty paid on every 4 bushels of the rough rice or paddy from which the same shall have been cleaned.			
Saccharum saturni	0 0 3 per pound.	0 0 10 per pound.	Free.
Sago per cwt.	1 8 0	3 14 8	0 0 4½
Salicine per ounce.			0 0 3
Sauces, not otherwise enumerated per pound.			0 0 1

Sausages or puddings	0 0 3½	0 1 3 per pound.	Free.
Scaleboards	0 11 0	3 8 2	0 1 0
Seeds—			
Canary	0 16 6	3 0 0 per cwt.	Free.
Caraway	0 5 0	1 0 0	0 5 0
Carrot	0 0 1½	0 0 9 per pound.	Free.
Clover	0 2 9	1 0 0 per cwt.	Free.
Grass, of all sorts	27 10 0	50 0 0 per cent.	Free.
Leek	0 0 1½	0 1 0 per pound.	Free.
Lucerne	0 2 9	0 12 6 per cwt.	Free.
Mustard	0 2 3	0 9 4 per cwt.	Free.
Onion	0 0 1½ per pound.	0 0 5½ per pound.	Free.
Trefoil	27 10 0 per cent.	50 0 0 per cent.	Free.
All seeds unenumerated, commonly used for expressing oil therefrom	27 10 0 per cent.	0 0 4½ per quart.	Free.
All other seeds not particularly enumerated, or described, nor otherwise charged with duty	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Semolina			0 0 4½
Ships broken up or to be broken up, with their tackle, apparel, and furniture (except sails):			
Foreign ships or vessels, for every £100 value	5 10 0	50 0 0	5 0 0
British ships, or vessels entitled to be registered as such, not having been built in the United Kingdom	Free.	Free.	Free.
Silk:			
Corahs, choppas, bandannas, tassore clothes, romals, and taffaties:			
In pieces not exceeding 6½ yards in length	the piece.		0 0 6
Exceeding 6½ and not exceeding 7½ yards in length	do.		0 0 8
Exceeding 7½ and not exceeding 12 yards in length	do.		0 0 10
And for every additional yard in length	the yard		0 0 1½
China crape shawls, scarfs, handkerchiefs, and pieces:			
Plain and damask	the pound.		0 3 0
Embroidery	do.		0 5 0
Damask	the running yard.		0 0 8
Pongees:			
In pieces not exceeding 15 yards in length	the piece.		0 2 0
Exceeding 15 yards and not exceeding 21 yards in length	do.		0 3 0
Exceeding 21 yards and not exceeding 31 yards in length	do.		0 5 0
Handkerchiefs, plain and figured, in pieces not exceeding 9 yards in length	do.		0 1 6
Exceeding 9 yards and not exceeding 18 yards in length	do.		0 3 0
Articles, manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other material, not being articles wholly or in part made up, not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value		Prohibited.	15 0 0
Manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other material, not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value		Prohibited.	15 0 0
Manufactures of silk, or of silk mixed with metal or any other material the produce of Europe:			
Silk or satin, plain, striped, figured, or brocaded:			
Broad stuffs	per pound.		0 5 0
Articles thereof not otherwise enumerated	do.		0 6 0
Or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every £100 value			15 0 0
Silk gauze or crape, plain, striped, figured, or brocaded:			
Broad stuffs	per pound.		0 9 0
Articles thereof not otherwise enumerated	do.		0 10 0
Or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every £100 value			5 0 0

British Tariff Conditions—Continued.

1862

TARIFF COMMISSION.

[MET. INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE.]

Articles.	Rates of duty.		
	1787.	1819.	1859.
	£ s. d.	& s. d.	£ s. d.
Silk—Continued.			
Gauze, mixed with silk, satin, or other materials, the gauze being in less proportion than one-half of the fabric:			
Broad stuffs..... per pound			0 9 0
Articles thereof not otherwise enumerated..... do			0 10 0
Or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every £100 value.....			15 0 0
Velvet, plain or figured:			
Broad stuffs..... per pound			0 9 0
Articles thereof not otherwise enumerated..... do			0 10 0
Or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every £100 value.....			15 0 0
Broad stuffs, the foundation of which is wholly composed of cotton, or other materials than silk..... per pound			0 3 0
Ribbons, plain silk, of one color only..... do			0 6 0
Plain satin, of one color only..... do			0 8 0
Silk or satin, striped, figured, or brocaded, or plain ribbons of more than one color..... do			0 10 0
Gauze or crape, plain, striped, figured, or brocaded..... do			0 14 0
Gauze mixed with silk, satin, or other materials of less proportion than one-half part of the fabric..... per pound	Prohibited.	Prohibited.	0 12 0
Velvet or plush, wholly of silk, or of silk mixed with cotton, not exceeding 9 inches in width:			
Plaid, or embossed by depression, without satin or fancy edge..... per pound			0 5 0
Figured, brocaded, or striped or spotted, or with fancy or satin edge, and silk ribbons, in any way mixed or ornamented with velvet or plush..... per pound			0 10 0
Manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other material called plush, not being ribbons, per pound.....			0 3 0
Articles thereof, not otherwise enumerated..... per pound			0 3 6
Black plush, commonly used for making hats..... do			0 1 0
Fancy silk net or tricot..... do			0 8 0
Plain silk lace or net called tulle..... do			0 8 0
Parasols and umbrellas..... each			0 1 0
Damask of silk and wool, or of silk and other materials for furniture..... per pound			0 0 10
Millinery of silk, or of which the greater part of the materials is of silk:			
Turbans or caps..... each			0 3 6
Hats or bonnets..... do			0 7 0
Dresses..... do			1 10 0
Manufactures of silk, or of silk mixed with any other material, not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value.....			15 0 0
Silkworm gut.....	27 10 0	20 0 0 per 100 £ value.	Free.
Skins, articles manufactured of, or furs.....	77 0 0	55 0 0	Free.
Smalts.....	0 0 4	0 0 9½ per pound.	Free.
Soap, hard..... per ewt	2 4 0	4 10 0	0 0 8
Soft..... do	1 17 5	3 11 3	0 0 8

Naples	do.			0 0 8
Scented or fancy soap	do.			0 0 2
Soy	per gallon.			0 0 6
Spa ware	per cubic foot.	27 10 0	per 100£ value.	0 0 0
Spelter, manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated	per cwt.			0 0 6
Spelter or zinc, crude, rolled, but not otherwise manufactured, and rods for bolts				0 2 0
Spermaceti				Free.
Spirits, or strong waters of all sorts:				Free.
Not being sweetened or mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be ascertained by Sykes's hydrometer	per proof gallon.	0 0 10½		0 2 2½
Of and from a British possession in America or the island of Mauritius, and rum of and from any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, in regard to which the conditions of the act 4 Vict., c. 8, have or shall have been fulfilled		0 0 6		0 1 6
Rum shrub, cordials, and liqueurs of and from a British possession in America or the island of Mauritius, or a British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, qualified as aforesaid		0 0 6		0 1 6
Other spirits, being sweetened or mixed, so that the degree of strength cannot be ascertained	per gallon.			1 0 0
Spirits or strong waters imported into the United Kingdom mixed with any ingredient, and although thereby coming under some other denomination, except varnish, shall nevertheless be deemed to be spirits or strong waters, and be subject to duty as such.				
Starch	per cwt.			0 0 4½
Starch, gum of, torrifed or calcined	do.			0 0 4½
Stays or corsets of linen or cotton, or of linen and cotton mixed	per dozen pairs.			0 2 0
Stearine				Free.
Steel, manufactures of. (See Iron and Steel.)				
Stones:				
In lumps, not in any manner hewn, including stones to be used for lithography				Free.
In blocks, shaped or rough scalped				Free.
Stone and slate, hewn				Free.
Marble, sawn in slabs, or otherwise manufactured				Free.
Succades, including all fruits and vegetables preserved in sugar, not otherwise enumerated, till 31st March, 1860	per pound.			0 0 2

Duties on sugar imposed by the act 20 and 21 Vict., c. 61.

[Till 31st March, 1860.]

		£	s.	d.
Sugar, viz:				
Candy, brown or white refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality thereto	cwt.	0	13	4
White clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined, or equal in quality to refined	do.	0	16	0
Yellow muscovado and brown clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to yellow muscovado or brown clayed, and not equal to white clayed	cwt.	0	13	10
Brown muscovado or any other sugar, not being equal in quality to yellow muscovado or brown clayed sugar	do.	0	12	8
Cane juice	do.	0	10	4
Molasses	do.	0	5	0

Drawbacks allowed by the act 20 and 21 Vict., c. 61, on refined sugar, when exported to foreign parts or removed to the Isle of Man for consumption therein.

[Till 31st March, 1860.]

	£	s.	d.
Sugar: refined sugar in loaf, complete or whole or lumps duly refined, having been perfectly clarified and thoroughly dried in the stove, and being of an uniform whiteness throughout, or sugar candy, or sugar refined by the centrifugal machine, or by any other process, and not in any way inferior to the export standard No. 3, approved of by the Lords of the Treasury	0	17	2
Such refined sugar already described, if pounded, crushed, or broken in a warehouse approved by the commissioners of customs, such sugar having been there first inspected by the officers of customs in lumps or loaves, as if for immediate shipment, and then packed for exportation in the presence of such officers, and at the expense of the exporter	0	17	2
Refined sugar unstoved, pounded, crushed or broken, and not in any way inferior to the export standard sample No. 1, approved by the Lords of the Treasury, and which shall not contain more than 5 per cent. moisture, over and above what the same would contain if thoroughly dried in the stove	0	16	4
Bastard or refined sugar, unstoved, broken in pieces, or being ground, powdered, or crushed, not in any way inferior to the export standard sample No. 2, approved by the Lords of the Treasury	0	15	1
Bastard or refined sugar being inferior in quality to the said export standard sample No. 2	0	12	8

British rates of duty—Continued.

Articles.	Rates of duty.		
	1787.	1819.	1859.
Tallow	Free.	0 3 2	0 1 6
Vegetable	Free.	Free.	Free.
Tamarinds	0 0 2	0 0 8	Free.
Tapioca	0 18 8	2 16 0	0 0 4½
Tea, till March 31, 1860, without any allowance for draft	Excise.	Excise.	0 1 5
Tiles		50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Tin:			
Ore and regulus of	27 10 0	20 0 0 per cent.	Free.
In blocks, ingots, bars, or slabs			Free.
Manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 10 0
Foil	27 10 0 per cent.	50 0 0 per cent.	0 10 0
Tobacco, the following duties, with 5 per cent. thereon:			
Unmanufactured, stemmed or stripped		Excise.	0 3 0
Unstemmed	0 3 6	Excise.	0 3 0
Snuff		Excise.	0 6 0
Manufactured, or cigars	0 3 6	0 6 0	0 9 0
Stalks and flour of			Prohibited.
Manufactured in the United Kingdom, made into cut, shag, roll, or carrot tobacco, or cigars, such cigars, when exported as merchandise, being packed in cases containing not less than 100 pounds net weight, a drawback shall be allowed on exportation or shipment as stores of 2s. 7½d. per pound.			
Tobacco pipes of clay	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.

Tongues	0 1 0 per dozen.	6 3 0 per dozen.	Free.
Toys:			
Marbles	per cwt. 33 0 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 1 0
All other toys	per cubic foot.		6 0 4
Truffles	0 2 3	0 5 6 per pound.	Free.
Turnery, not otherwise described	per cubic foot. 27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 0 4
Turpentine	0 2 3	0 0 4 per cwt.	Free.
Of Venice, Scio, or Cyprus	0 0 4	0 0 10 per cwt.	Free.
Twine	0 10 0	1 11 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Vandloes	0 8 3	0 16 8 per pound.	Free.
Varnish containing any quantity of alcohol or spirit	per gallon.		0 12 0
Varnish, not otherwise described	0 8 9 per cwt.	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Vegetables:			
All vegetables not enumerated or described			Free.
Preserved in salt			Free.
Veneers	per cwt.		0 1 0
Verdigris	0 0 3 per pound.	0 3 4 per pound.	Free.
Verjuice	27 10 0	73 12 9 per tun.	Free.
Vermicelli and macaroni	per cwt.		0 1 0
Vinegar	per gallon. 39 10 7	73 12 9 per tun.	0 0 3
Wafers	0 0 6	0 1 3 per pound.	Free.
Washing balls	per pound. 27 10 0 per cent.	0 1 8	0 0 2
Watches of gold, silver, or other metal, exceeding the value of £10 each			1 0 0
Other watches:			
Gold, open faces, each			0 5 0
Hunters', each			0 7 6
Repeaters, each	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	0 15 0
Silver and other metal, not gold:			
Open faces, each			0 2 6
Hunters', each			0 3 6
Repeaters, each			0 8 0
Water:			
Cologne, the flask (thirty containing not more than one gallon)	0 3 4½ per gallon.	0 6 7½ per gallon.	0 0 8
When not in flasks (as perfumed spirit)	per gallon.		1 0 0
Mineral	do.		Free.
Wax, sealing	27 10 0	50 0 0 per £100 value.	Free.
Whale fins	2 15 0	2 7 6 per ton.	Free.
Whipcord	0 0 2	0 1 0 per pound.	Free.
Wine:			
Red, per gallon (with 5 per cent.)	35 5 7 per tun.	79 7 7 per tun.	0 5 6
White, per gallon (with 5 per cent.)	40 6 5 per tun.	79 7 7 per tun.	0 5 6
(The full duties on wine are drawn back upon re-exportation or shipment as stores.)			
Lees of wine subject to the same duty as wine, but no drawback is allowed on lees exported.			

British Tariff Conditions—Continued.

WOOD.

Articles.	Foreign countries.		
	£.	s.	d.
Timber and wood:			
Staves, if exceeding 72 inches in length, 7 inches in breadth, or 3½ inches in thickness, the load of 50 cubic feet	0	9	0
Firewood, per fathom of 216 cubic feet	0	6	0
Handspikes, not exceeding 7 feet in length, the 120	0	6	0
Exceeding 7 feet in length, the 120	0	12	0
Knees, under 5 inches square, the 120	0	3	0
Five inches square and under 8 inches square, the 120	0	12	0
Lathwood, the fathom of 216 cubic feet	0	12	0
Oars, the 120	2	3	0
Spars or poles, under 22 feet in length and under 4 inches in diameter, the 120	0	6	0
Twenty-two feet in length and upwards and under 4 inches in diameter, the 120	0	12	0
Of all lengths, 4 inches and under 6 inches in diameter, the 120	1	4	0
Spokes for wheels, not exceeding 2 feet in length, per 1,000	1	4	0
Exceeding 2 feet in length, per 1,000	2	8	0
Wood planed or otherwise dressed or prepared for use, and not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with duty	0	0	2
	per foot of cubic content, with further for every £100 value, £10.		

British Tariff Conditions—Continued.

Articles.	Rates of duty.		
	1787.	1819.	1859.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Woolens:			
Articles or manufactures of wool (not being goats' wool), or of wool mixed with cotton, viz:			
Carpets and rugs per square yard			0 0 6
Shawls, scarfs, and handkerchiefs, plain per pound			0 0 4
Printed do.			0 0 8
Gloves per dozen pairs			0 0 3
Wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value	Prohibited.	50 0 0	5 0 0
Yarn:			
Cable.....	0 8 6	1 1 6 per cwt.	Free.
Woolen or worsted, scoured, bleached, or colored..... per pound	0 0 10	0 1 7	0 0 6
Not scoured, bleached or colored..... do.			0 0 3
Goods being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, and not prohibited to be imported into or used in Great Britain or Ireland, for every £100 value	27 10 0	50 0 0	10 0 0
Goods not enumerated or described, not being either in part or wholly manufactured, not otherwise charged with duty and not prohibited.....	27 10 0 per cent.	20 0 0 per cent.	Free.

PRESENT BRITISH TARIFF.

From the foregoing high protective rates the British tariff has been gradually reduced to the following rates only remain which restrict particularly two great products of the

Articles.	Rates of duty.
ORDINARY IMPORT DUTIES.	
Cocoa	£ s. d.
..... pound..	0 0 1
Husks and shells	0 2 0
Cocoa or chocolate, ground, prepared, or in any way manufactured	0 0 2
..... pound..	
Coffee, raw	0 14 0
..... cwt..	
Kiln-dried, roasted, or ground	0 0 2
..... pound..	
Chickory and other substitutes for coffee:	
Raw or kiln-dried	0 13 3
..... cwt..	
Roasted or ground	0 0 2
..... pound..	
Fruit, dried:	
Currants, figs, fig-cake, plums not preserved in sugar, prunes, and raisins ..	0 7 0
..... cwt..	
Tea	0 0 6
..... pound..	
Tobacco:	
Unmanufactured, stemmed or unstemmed, containing in every 100 pounds' weight thereof 10 pounds or more of moisture	0 3 6
..... pound..	
Unmanufactured, stemmed or unstemmed, containing in every 100 pounds' weight thereof less than 10 pounds of moisture	0 3 10
..... pound..	
Tobacco, manufactured:	
Cigars	0 5 6
..... pound..	
Cavendish or negrohead	0 4 10
..... do...	
Snuff containing in every 100 pounds' weight thereof more than 13 pounds of moisture	0 4 1
..... pound..	
Snuff, containing in every 100 pounds' weight thereof not more than 13 pounds of moisture	0 4 10
..... pound..	
Other manufactured tobacco and cavendish or negrohead manufactured in bond from unmanufactured tobacco	0 4 4
..... pound..	
Wine:	
Containing less than 20 degrees of proof spirits	0 1 0
..... gallon..	
Containing 20 and less than 42 degrees of proof spirits, with an additional duty of 3d. per gallon for every degree of strength beyond the highest above specified	0 2 6
..... gallon..	

NOTE AS TO ARTICLES CHARGED WITH IMPORT DUTIES.—In this return subdivisions of articles The total number of articles and subdivisions of articles in the English Tariff of Import

PRESENT BRITISH TARIFF.

duced according to her economic conditions, as shown on pages 11 and 176, until the United States, spirits and tobacco.

Articles.	Rates of duty.
IMPORT DUTIES TO COUNTERVAIL EXCISE DUTY UPON BRITISH BEER.	
Beer and ale, the worts of which were, before fermentation, of a specific gravity :	
Not exceeding 1,065 degreesbarrel of 36 gallons..	£ s. d. 0 8 0
Exceeding 1,065 but not exceeding 1,099 degrees.....do.....	0 11 0
Exceeding 1,099 degrees.....do.....	0 18 0
Beer, mumdo.....	1 1 0
Beer, spruce, the worts of which were, before fermentation, of a specific gravity :	
Not exceeding 1,190 degreesbarrel of 36 gallons..	1 1 0
Exceeding 1,190 degrees.....do.....	1 4 0
Essence of sprucedo.....	10 per cent. ad valorem.
IMPORT DUTIES TO COUNTERVAIL EXCISE DUTY UPON BRITISH SPIRITS.	
Spirits, not sweetened or mixed :	
Brandy, Geneva, and unenumerated spiritsproof gallon..	0 10 5
Rum and tafia, of and from any foreign country, being the country of its production ..proof gallon..	0 10 2
Rum and tafia, from any country not being the country of its productiondo.....	0 10 5
Rum and spirits, of and from any British possessiondo.....	0 10 2
Spirits, sweetened or mixed :	
Rum shrub, liqueurs, and cordials, of and from any British possession ...gallon..	0 10 2
Perfumed spirits and Cologno waterdo.....	0 16 6
Unenumerateddo.....	0 14 0
Chloroformpound..	0 3 0
Chloral hydratedo.....	0 1 3
Collodion.....gallon..	1 4 0
Ether, sulphuricdo.....	1 5 0
Ethyl, iodide ofdo.....	0 13 0
Naphtha, or methylic alcohol, purified... ..proof gallon..	0 10 5
Soap, transparent, in the manufacture of which spirit has been used.....pound..	0 0 3
Varnish, containing alcoholgallon..	0 12 0
IMPORT DUTIES TO COUNTERVAIL STAMP DUTIES ON BRITISH-MADE ARTICLES.	
Plate, gold.....ounces troy..	0 17 0
Plate, silver.....do.....	0 1 6
Playing-cardsdozen packs..	0 3 9

of a similar nature, and subject to the same rate of duty, are classed under one head. Duties was 53 in May, 1875, as compared with 397 in 1859 and 1,046 in 1840. (British abstract, 1882.)

INTERNAL REVENUE.

The great importance of wise action in this branch of Taxation, and especially as to Spirits for manufacturing purposes, calls for a recommendation by the League; with a desire, therefore, to submit this subject clearly, the following opinions are presented:

[Letter of Mr. W. A. Gellatly, of the firm of Messrs. Schieffelen & Co.]

WHY ALCOHOL USED FOR CHEMICAL AND PHARMACEUTICAL PURPOSES SHOULD NOT BE TAXED.

1. Because English and German chemical manufacturers are able to buy alcohol duty free, *i. e.*, at actual cost.

2. In the preparation of many fine chemicals the use of alcohol is necessary in order to insure a pure product. (Instance many of the expensive alkaloid's, as atropia; many salts, as iodide of ammonia; many preparations, as iodoform, chloroform, ether, &c.)

3. In the performance of the necessary manipulations much alcohol is lost through evaporation. In many cases this loss of alcohol is a greater item of expense than is the cost of all other materials, apparatus, and labor.

4. In many tinctures and fluid extracts the alcohol, necessarily used simply as a solvent, adds more expense than the total value of drug and labor. What should usually be considered a less important ingredient, a mere solvent, becomes actually the most expensive substance in the compound.

5. From what has been stated above it appears:

(a) That the excessive tax on alcohol entirely prohibits the manufacture in this country of many of the finer chemicals and gives the whole trade to German and English manufacturers.

(b) The cost of American-made chemicals in whose preparation alcohol must be used is artificially enhanced by the exorbitant tax on alcohol. Often the cause for the high cost of these articles is not apparent to the purchaser, because the alcohol used does not appear in the finished product, but has been lost through evaporation during the preparation of the substance.

6. Alcohol is necessary in the preparation of most medicines; there is no known solvent which can replace it. As a rule its office is that of a solvent for the extraction and preservation of valuable medicinal ingredients of drugs.

These medicines are used and must be paid for by the sick, *i. e.*, by those least able to pay exorbitant prices. The excessive tax on alcohol does, however, make the cost of many medicines very heavy, far more heavy than is just and right. The tax on alcohol used for these purposes is accordingly a very heavy and unjust tax imposed upon a legitimate industry (manufacturing chemistry and pharmacy), and it is also a heavy tax on individual users of medicines.

Medicines should not be excessively taxed like luxuries; they are necessities.

The entire removal of the tax on alcohol used for these purposes is desirable and proper, but the immediate removal of the tax would result in financial disaster in thousands of cases, for the reason that all over the country various dealers have in stock considerable amounts of goods manufactured with alcohol which has paid this excessive tax. These goods have cost, consequently, much higher prices than they could be replaced for if free alcohol were used.

If a law be enacted which names a date, six months or a year in advance, when the tax shall be reduced say 10 or 20 per cent., and which makes provision for future annual or semi-annual reductions until alcohol is tax-free, there need be no fear of serious commercial disturbance. Such a revision of the law would result in stimulating and greatly expanding our chemical manufactures.

At present the value of a barrel, of forty gallons, of alcohol is approximately—

Cost of forty gallons of alcohol	\$21 92
Tax	67 68
Total	89 60

One hundred and eighty-eight degrees overproof alcohol is worth to-day about \$2.24 per gallon, \$89.60.

As appears above, fully three-fourths the cost of every barrel of alcohol is due to the internal revenue tax.

Were coal thus taxed the value of iron and steel would be so enormously enhanced as to prevent their use in any but the smaller and finer tools, while iron rails and iron steamships, to say nothing of steel would be impossible.

Manufacturing chemistry and pharmacy are just as heavily hampered, just as truly restricted and dwarfed by the excessive duty on alcohol as would be the iron industry were the tax on coal to be placed at three times its actual cost.

And in further evidence, the League cannot present the matter better than by indorsing the words of Mr. Goldsborough Robinson, of Kentucky, whose knowledge and judgment in this matter is pre-eminent:

"Alcohol is nature's great solvent, and is required in nearly all industrial pursuits. In this use it is as absolute a necessity as machinery or a paint-brush, and in taxing it we tax a product of our own industry, and through it lay a burden upon our own manufacturers.

"The tax is so excessive as to be almost prohibitory, and our people are placed at a great disadvantage in competition with those of foreign countries who have free alcohol.

"No government, wisely conducted, will levy excessive taxation on its own industries.

"This principle is so well established that machinery is in many cities exempt from local taxation.

"The only justification of the extreme tax on spirits (it is six times their value) is the popular belief that they are harmful luxuries, and should therefore bear the burden, but this justification fails utterly where spirits are used in manufactures, in the preparation of drugs, as a burning fluid, and in all the common wants of the people. This tax being almost prohibitory every shift has been adopted to escape its burden; benzine (dangerous always) is substituted as a burning fluid, and fusel oil (a poison) as a solvent.

"All inventions leading in the direction of the use of alcohol are barred. It has great bleaching powers, and might be employed with advantage on textile fabrics; but its cost prevents any experiment in this direction. For nearly twenty long years—the most progressive years in the world's history—the American people have been practically deprived of the use of this great solvent. Its absolute necessity in scientific pursuits has been admitted, and colleges have been granted, by special enactment, its use without tax; but no provision has been made for that army of humble laborers in the scientific fields, to whose efforts all our great inventions are due and who have no access to college laboratories.

"The constantly increasing surplus in the Treasury, the impossibility of applying that surplus to our debt except by buying bonds at an extravagant premium, forces the conviction on all minds that taxation must be reduced.

"What is more reasonable than that this reduction should take place in that direction which will encourage industries and remove from the burden which the people carry those points of friction which gall and irritate more than the weight of the burden itself? The people have made no complaint of the tax on matches, and who will thank the representatives of the people for its removal? But for many years petition after petition has been made for relief from this alcohol *tax on industry.*"

Mr. Robinson also said before the Committee of Ways and Means at the last session of Congress:

"In the United States Dispensatory (p. 1700) I find the following:

"The British Parliament, wishing to encourage the use of alcohol in the arts, but not as a beverage, passed an act, in 1855, allowing it to be used duty free, provided it be mixed with at least one-ninth of its bulk of pyroxylic spirit, which renders it unfit for drinking, but does not spoil it for use in the arts. This mixture is called *methylated spirits*, and is now employed extensively in Great Britain by hatters, brass-founders, and cabinet-makers for dissolving shellac and other resinous substances, and by manufacturing chemists for making ether, chloroform, and sweet spirits of niter. From the purification of pyroxylic spirit already referred to, so as to deprive it of offensive taste, it has been supposed that the intended operation of the British revenue laws might be evaded; but in opposition to this idea it is asserted that the purifying process is too expensive, on the large scale, to render it available for the purpose."

"The process here referred to is very troublesome, and, as previously given in the Dispensatory, involves the use of lime, chloride of calcium, &c., and not by any process of distillation.

"That law has been in operation in England, as Mr. Butterworth stated, for twenty-five or thirty years, and the British people have seen no reason to repeal it. It has been of very great benefit to their arts and manufactures. It is impossible by any process of distillation—contrary to what the Commissioner seems to believe—to separate these spirits. They are both alcohols, and the distillation that passes over one will pass over the other. You can no more separate them by distillation than you can separate a gallon of Chicago alcohol from a gallon of Cincinnati alcohol after they have been once mixed together. Now, this whole methyl question has been disposed of by the Commissioner upon the assumption that they might be separated, but the fact is that they have not been and cannot be practically separated.

"Still further, I do not think any supposition that the American people are less law-abiding, less easily controlled, or less willing to obey laws passed by their own legislature than the English people will pass current here. So that this methyl question cannot be disposed of upon the ground of the probability of fraud. The Commissioner

further says that some 28,000 people may avail themselves of this law. I say more than that; I say that some 40,000,000 of people may avail themselves of this law, because it provides that any firm, individual, or corporation can come forward and ask for this alcohol free of tax. But does this committee suppose for a moment that 40,000,000 of American people are coming forward to ask for an opportunity to defraud the revenue? No! Each man must state in his application, subject to the approval of the Commissioner or the collector, the exact uses to which he desires to put the alcohol, and the Commissioner can impose such stringent regulations that no person can use it for fraudulent purposes without ultimate detection.

"Some six or eight tenths of the whole use under this law would be methylated spirits, and no argument can hold against that use, which has been tried successfully in England for thirty years. The use of pure alcohol would be limited to a few lines of manufacturing establishments, with large investments and large plant, and do you suppose any of the large manufacturers will take the chance of going to the penitentiary by attempting to violate this law? The whole matter is placed right in the grasp of our own officers by the provisions of the law. It is no excuse to give the people for its non-passage that a law proposed for their benefit opens the gate to fraud. All revenue laws open the gate to fraud. The tariff law opens a gate to fraud by agriculturist, because if you can increase the use of alcohol in the arts and manufactures, say, 20,000,000 gallons, that means a market for 5,000,000 bushels of grain, and I will be very glad if a line of legislation could be entered upon that would result in that way. But it seems to me that you should take hold of it in a proper way at the start, and not allow this alcohol to be scattered all over the United States in the hands of a great many people without any supervision. You should confine it to places where there are storekeepers, and in that way the law could be carried into effect without any dilletnly at all."

Mr. Robinson also adds the following figures from the latest British Revenue Returns, to show the satisfaction which this legislation gives after a trial of nearly thirty years:

Quantities methylated (British spirits).

Years.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>
1880.....	1, 113, 529	472, 868	15, 480	1, 601, 877
1881.....	1, 225, 439	517, 182	20, 038	1, 762, 659
1882.....	1, 296, 776	675, 197	21, 792	1, 991, 765
Increase over 1880 of.....	111, 010	44, 314	4, 558	160, 780
And over 1881 of.....	71, 337	150, 015	1, 754	229, 106

The question, however, whether this system of methylating spirits, or of adopting a system of rebate upon the same for manufacturing purposes, would prove the more judicious is respectfully submitted, with the further urgent recommendation of the abolition of other Internal-Revenue Rates, as set forth in Digest preceding.

PIECE-WORK LABOR.

Referring to the peculiar success of this system of Labor in Europe, the League desires to call attention to the adaptability of this system to our Industries generally as beneficial alike to the capitalist and laborer, as shown in the experience of many of our Manufacturers, and to which the League intends to give attention hereafter. The necessity for brevity in this statement, already too lengthy, prevents such discussion at present.

A TARIFF TRIBUNAL.

Referring to pages 1702 and 1710, in reference to the contradictory rulings of the United States Treasury Department in arbitration of disputed points in the liquidation of customs charges, the League asks particular attention to the present injustice to the business community of the country, in the one-sided and arbitrary decisions to which it is necessary to submit, and herewith refer to the laws of other nations on this important point. The English law reads as follows:

33. In case any merchant or other person who shall feel himself aggrieved by the determination of the commissioners of customs, or have any complaint against any officer of customs as to anything done or omitted by him in or about the execution of his duty, the party so aggrieved or complaining shall be desirous of stating his case personally to one of the commissioners of customs, he may do so on application to the board during the official hours of attendance at the custom-house, or, if he prefer it, may, on application in writing to the commissioner of customs, stating therein his grievance or complaint, have the same inquired into by one of the said commissioners, who shall hear the matter in the presence of the parties, and of any persons interested or desirous of attending; and such commissioner shall take any evidence on oath which may be tendered on such inquiry, reducing the same into writing in a narrative form, and shall lay the same, with his opinion thereon, before the commissioners of customs for their consideration; and such commissioner shall have the same power and authority for enforcing order during such inquiry as is vested in justices of the peace in petty sessions.

Similar to the English and our own law is that of Mexico, as follows:

THE ADJUSTMENT AND PAYMENT OF DUTIES.

ART. 74. I. The adjustment and liquidation of the duties of importation shall be done precisely in the term of twenty-five days, counting from the day on which the vessel that brought the merchandise concluded her discharge. During this time merchants can store their goods in the warehouses of the custom-house, or take them out after they are dispatched, subjecting themselves to the fixed regulations, as in the preceding chapter.

II. The liquidation being terminated, the payment of the duties must be made at once, and in effective money.

ART. 75. Once the goods are dispatched from the custom-house, the duties cannot be returned under any motive, except in case of error in account. For this restitution, or to verify whatever other, must be proceeded with in respective order to the secretary of the treasury, leaving the collectors obliged to remit officially to said secretary the corresponding information, the steps he has taken, and for what cause he presents such information.

ART. 76. If the appraiser in revising the merchandise finds the result less in length, weight, measurement, or number than what is expressed in the permit of dispatch, the duties will be covered on what is expressed in such permits.

In contrast to the above, the League recommends the much wiser, more equitable, and clearer provision of France, which affords the merchant a voice in the decision and a chance for justice:

ART. 4. Article 19 of the law of July 27, 1822, is hereby amended and completed as follows:

The two merchants or manufacturers acting with the expert commissioners in custom-house business shall henceforth be appointed, one by the custom-house and the other by the party declaring, and shall be chosen from a list prepared every year for this purpose by the Chamber of Commerce of Paris. In case one of these parties refuse to designate his arbitrator, such designation shall be made, from the same list, on the demand of the other party, by the justice of peace of the canton wherein the bureau of imports is located. Should both experts agree, their decision shall be final and shall be registered by the legal committee of experts. But should a difference arise, the committee of experts shall act as arbitrator, and render final decision in conformity with the regulations provided in article 19 of the law of July 28, 1822.

This same procedure shall be followed for the expert appraisements on merchandise subject to ad valorem duty. When the values stated by the expert appraisers are in excess of those declared, the penalties provided in article 21, Chapter II, of the law of August 22, 1791, for the prevention of false declarations as to qualities, shall be applied.

ART. 5. The forms for declarations to be presented at the custom-house shall be decided by decrees.

This present law, being duly debated and adopted by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, shall go into effect as law of the state.

Done at Paris this 7th day of May, 1831.

JULES GREVY,
President of the Republic.

P. TIRARD,
Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.

Such a provision in the Statutes of the United States would unquestionably meet the happy approval of our whole business community; at present the merchant and manufacturer have no consideration whatever, but are compelled to submit to the capricious ruling of one official and one mind. Such ruling is clearly incompetent as well as unjust; and a decided change is necessary.

It has been suggested that the Court of Claims be designated as the tribunal for deciding controvertible cases. Such designation would handicap our merchants even more than the present unjust system. The Court of Claims is not a commercial authority nor even conversant with commercial conditions, and the calendar of that court is sufficiently encumbered already; the delay of a hearing would incapacitate such a court for this duty, without consideration of further objections.

The League therefore respectfully urge that an equitable system for the rendition of decisions upon "Controvertible Questions" be provided for by the creation of a *Tribunal* in which the Industries of our country may have a voice.

W. H. THOMAS.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. W. H. THOMAS, of New York city, addressed the Commission as follows:

As a representative of the importers of Havana cigars, I desire respectfully to represent that in their opinion the present rate of duty on cigars, \$2.50 per pound and 25 per cent. ad valorem, is excessive, and may be judiciously reduced to \$1 per pound and 25 per cent. ad valorem. We believe this reduction will bring a greater revenue to the government, and cannot appreciably affect unfavorably the domestic manufacturers.

From our recollection (being without official information), there were imported into the port of New York from Havana, from 1852 to 1856, about 70,000,000 cigars per annum, under a tariff of 40 per cent. ad valorem.

Under subsequent rates of duty, averaging about 150 per cent., from 1864 to 1868, these imports were from 12,000,000 to 16,000,000 per annum. Under the present rate (\$2.50 per pound and 25 per cent. ad valorem), from 1868 to 1882, these imports have averaged about 37,000,000 per annum, those for 1881 being 35,000,000. This is but a trifle more than half the amount imported in 1852-'56, with an increased population of more than 50 per cent.

The present rate ranges from 60 to 200 per cent., and averages about 87 per cent. on a general business.

Under the rate suggested by us above we think the imports would soon reach 60,000,000 to 70,000,000 per annum, about 2½ per cent. of the quantity manufactured in this country (which we learn is some 2,500,000,000 to 3,000,000,000 per annum), a proportion too trifling to affect unfavorably the manufacturing interest. It is reasonably certain that for some time to come these imports could not exceed 100,000,000 per annum from Havana, for the reason that during the past ten years the total exports of cigars from Cuba to all nations have averaged 168,000,000 per annum, and it is not to be expected that more than one-half should be allotted to this country, leaving only the same supply for the remainder of the world at large.

We remonstrate strongly against a specific rate alone on cigars, for the reason that a cigar weighing 12 pounds per thousand costs in Havana any sum from \$20 to \$125, and of course the duty would be the same on the most inferior as on the best.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. Your suggestion is to put a sliding scale of duty on cigars, is it not?—Answer. No, sir.

Q. We had suggested to us the other day, by Mr. Moore, the advisability of imposing a duty of \$3.50 per pound (I think that was the amount) on all cigars. What would be the effect of such a duty?—A. The effect would be, practically, to prevent the importation of anything but the very best and highest priced cigars.

Q. About where could you draw the line; what would the cigars cost in Cuba which would come in under such a rate of duty?—A. Under

such a provision a poor cigar would pay the same rate of duty as a high-priced cigar; the duty would be the same on cigars costing \$20 a thousand as it would on cigars costing \$150 a thousand.

Q. You say the effect would be that only the highest priced cigars would be imported. Would it exclude the importation of average quality cigars?—A. Yes, sir; I think it would.

Q. Would the result then be to increase correspondingly the price of domestic cigars?—A. I should not think it would.

Q. They would remain about the same in price, you think?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Although the domestic cigar would have no competitor?—A. I think the competition of the manufacturers here would keep the price down.

Q. What was your recommendation?—A. I would suggest a duty of \$1 a pound and 25 per cent. ad valorem. I think if such a rate of duty were adopted more revenue would be obtained by the government.

Q. Have you in mind any specific rate alone which would not exclude the cheaper grades of cigars? Supposing the ad valorem duty of 25 per cent. was taken off and the duty of \$2.50 allowed to remain, what would be the effect?—A. The effect would be, approximately, the same as in the first case. We are now importing about every grade of cigar that is made, cigars selling from \$75 to \$200 a thousand; the average is about \$100 a thousand.

FRANK PURCELL ET AL.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. FRANK PURCELL, of New York City, representing the Independent Labor party, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: At a regular meeting of our organization, held on Thursday evening last, it was resolved that the following address be presented to your body, expressive of the wants and wishes of the working classes, upon the question of protection to American labor:

1st. We would call the attention of your honorable body to the facts that over 450,000 men, women, and children are employed in the various manufacturing industries of this city, and dependent for the means of life upon the welfare and protection of those industries; that the yearly market value of this labor and these products is over \$1,000,000,000, nearly double the value of the whole exports of the United States.

2d. That owing to two causes—an influx of cheap goods and cheap labor—the employés are underpaid and overworked. The average hours of labor are 10 per day, and the rate of wages \$3 to \$5 per week for females and \$5 to \$9 per week for males, an amount insufficient to provide decent homes, food, and clothing, and productive of want and ignorance—the source of all evil and the parent of all crime. The men, overworked, seek relief and pleasure in the rum shop; the women, underpaid, are driven to prostitution to keep up a decent appearance, or gratify the tastes created by our system of equality and education; and our children are neglected and underfed, roam the streets, a terror and a disgrace to our community.

Therefore we ask of your body a report advocating an increase of the tariff to the amount required to allow our manufacturers to compete with the manufacturers of Europe and to pay to these employés a fair and just rate of wages, which would be, in our opinion, an increase of 100 per cent. over our present rate.

We also ask your honorable body to recommend measures to prevent the false and fraudulent importation of cheap labor to this country by railroad, land, and mine agents, to the injury of our working classes and the peril of our institutions, and the exportation of our meats, butter, cheese, wheat, corn, &c., to Europe, doubling the cost of the necessaries of life on one hand, and lowering our wages by competition with cheap and degraded labor on the other, making it impossible for us to obtain sufficient wages and employment to pay rent, buy good or sufficient food, dress decently, or properly care for and educate our children.

We ask you to adopt this policy, not as a question of revenue or taxation, but on the ground of principle and duty. As statesmen and lovers of your country and its people, lay down the principle that it is the first duty of governments to protect its own people, and that the basis of all prosperity is productive and diversified industry, and trust to the intelligence and honesty of our people for indorsement for your belief.

We ask you, what care we for a government or its revenues, or what benefit it would be to our class, if by a free-trade policy our industries were destroyed and we were idle tramps upon the streets? No; pay us

for our labor and employ our own people at fair and living wages, and we will cheerfully pay our share of the taxes needed to support our government. If so employed we will consume. The farmers' product now forced to seek a foreign market through our inability to buy food and clothing for our families, and with home markets, home production, exchange, and consumption we will be a happy, free, and prosperous people.

With many thanks for your patience under abuse, insult, and misrepresentation from the enemies of American labor, both employés and employer, and gratitude for your uniform justice and fairness to all classes (even the undeserving),

We remain yours to command,

ROBERT A. FERRIER,
FRANK PURCELL,
WALTER H. BAMETT,
JOHN J. KEHOE,
GEO. D. LEMON,

FRANK WATERS,
GEORGE BANZER,
ED. T. PATTERSON,
JAMES A. EARLEY,
WM. A. A. CARSEY,

*Committee on Tariff Legislation,
Independent Labor Party.*

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. What is the strength of the organization you represent?—
Answer. The exact number I could not positively state. We have, however, an organization in every assembly district in New York.

Q. Is your organization confined to mechanics of any special line?—
A. No, sir; not any special line. Our membership includes mechanics, laborers, and business men of all kinds, and everybody interested in labor movements.

Q. Have the members discussed this matter in their organization?—
A. Yes, sir; they have.

Q. And you represent the predominant sentiments of the membership?—
A. Yes, sir; that is the sentiment of the Independent Labor party of New York.

Mr. W. A. A. CARSEY said:

One of the Commission asked Mr. Purcell a question about our organization. I will state that we have an enrolled membership of some 1,500 persons; in some districts 250 to 300 names, and in some 100 names; I mean the members who attend the meetings and belong to the organization. We have a roll which every member must sign, which provides that he will abide by the action of the majority, and support and vote for the nominees of the party. Every man who joins the organization does so intelligently, knowing what our principles are.

In pursuance of the instructions we have received I come here this evening to bring to your notice the other branch of our platform—the revival of the shipping interests.

Our cardinal doctrines are two: the protection of American labor and the revival of American shipping. Permit me, on behalf of the Labor party, to say a few words upon the question of shipping.

We all admit and lament the fact that our carrying trade is in the hands of foreign shippers, and we pay one hundred millions per year to foreigners to do our ocean carrying.

We also, for want of a direct line of steamers, lose one hundred millions of trade with South America, that could be obtained by a line of steamships to the ports of that country.

We also admit our defenseless condition in case of war with the most puny of European nations.

We suggest a simple remedy: extend our postal system to the ocean, and contract the carrying of our mails to the lowest bidder who will furnish American-built ships with American crews and owners.

Repeal or reduce to a minimum all taxes, dues, and charges upon American ships owned and manned by American citizens.

This is an immediate and practical remedy; in the future we hope to see the two steel cruisers, now ordered built, employed in the carrying of the mails and merchandise to Liverpool or Brazil, and twenty more built to be employed in the same useful labor, and in time a fleet of vessels of this character take the place of our present useless Navy.

If we must have a Navy, make it useful and self-supporting. If we must have foreign trade, let it be carried on in our own ships, and the profits and employment benefit our own people.

You may be aware that all the carrying trade of this city is at present in the hands of the German, French, and English companies. It is also a fact that they do not buy a pound of nails or a quart of oil or any other article in the city of New York. They bring everything they use from the other side, it being cheaper for them to buy there. They sometimes go back to Europe in almost a disabled condition rather than buy from our people. And yet we pay these people \$100,000,000 a year to carry our goods to the other side, and all that is a profit given to them. That is not right, and I hope the attention of Congress will be drawn to the fact. The remedy we offer for this is the extension of our mail service to the ocean carrying trade. That is a simple remedy, and a just one, I think. There are post-office contracts to be given for carrying the mails, and we can afford to build vessels to carry them, and in ten years from now we shall place the shipping of this country where it should be. I think a subsidy should be paid for such service to the parties who will enter into it. This remedy is a novel one, and one that may be laughed at for a year or two; but I will ask you, should not our sailors and officers be useful for the benefit of the country in the carrying of ocean mails and merchandise in the place of idling their time away in the ports of Europe and America? The condition of our sailors is not a fit or proper one for American sailors to be in. Our naval system is a slavish, degrading system, and we hope to see the day when our naval officers and sailors will be usefully employed. We could save the \$20,000,000 or \$25,000,000 now paid for the support of the Navy. I think that the vessels of the United States could be so constructed and used as to bring to the United States a revenue which would more than pay their way, instead of being a burden and expense on the revenues of the country.

By Commissioner BOTELEK:

Question. Does this organization of yours extend to other States?—
Answer. We have a State organization here, and we have labor organizations all over the United States, but we have no *bona fide* national organization. We had some, but most of them drifted into the Green-back party.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Does your organization recognize the element of strikes?—A. By bitter experience we have found the folly of entering into strikes. We know that strikes never succeed, or, if they do, it is only a temporary success and results in greater injury to us afterwards. We have never gained anything by them. Only 3 per cent. of strikes succeed; 97 per cent. are failures. Even when we succeed in a strike the result is

that the market is flooded with labor brought from other States and cities, and then, in a year or two, that brings the wages down lower than before. I was connected with a bricklayers' strike in New York. We were working 8 hours and getting paid \$5 a day. There was plenty of work, and everybody was employed and making money. We were not satisfied and went on a strike for another dollar. The result was that we spent \$18,000 in maintaining that strike, and were six months idle. We gained the strike and got an increase of wages, but in six months or a year afterwards bricklayers from all over the country, and from Europe, flocked in here, and the bosses discharged those who had taken part in the strike, one by one, and employed men who had just come from other places; they got rid of all the strikers, and to-day the bricklayers are very glad to work ten hours and get \$4 for it. At one time wages went down to \$2.50 and \$3 a day. The bricklayers' organization, after spending \$18,000, went to pieces.

Q. Then your movement is a reaction against the old labor organizations, or the socialistic movement?—A. Our movement is against the trades union system of strikes. The trades unions in this city and country gather men together from separate trades—shoemakers with shoemakers, tailors with tailors, and so on; every organization fights not only the employers but every other trade. Each wants an organization for itself. Their constitution forbids political action, and if a grievance comes up there is a strike, and it will end in the ruin of American industry.

The American laborer is degenerating; there is no sympathy between the employer and the employé. They work against each other, and it benefits neither the one nor the other. We propose to go back to the old system and bring harmony between the employer and the workmen by creating a mutuality of interest; by settling these questions at the ballot-box in contradistinction to those who want to make classes which antagonize other classes. We want to teach working people that the government is their best friend, and that the interest of the employer and the workman is identical.

Mr. P. O'REILLY said:

My business is that of a contractor and builder. I have but few words to say on this subject. In my experience, covering a period of twenty-five years, I have noticed a great change in the city of New York in regard to the condition of the workingman. When I was a boy in a workshop we had to depend solely on foreign goods. If we wanted a first-class saw, chisel, or a hammer, it was always of English make. That was in the days of what they termed a "low tariff." But things have changed materially since then, and now there are no tools in the market worth having that are not of American make. The tariff has increased manufactures and given manufacturers encouragement, so that now we produce the best tools in the world. That shows the necessity of continuing this great system that has developed such wonderful resources, and has increased our business and our prosperity. Owing to the protective tariff New York has become a wealthy city, and wealthy men, instead of living in houses costing a few thousand dollars, have built elegant mansions costing many hundred thousand dollars, and all this has given employment to the workman, and we have been benefited by it. I claim that the tariff has created an immense amount of wealth in this country, and that it has enabled us to keep the money we have made in this country instead of having to send it abroad to buy articles of general consumption. If we did not have this

tariff system our money would have to be sent abroad to purchase these articles, and the result would be that we should remain "hewers of wood and drawers of water."

I do not think any one will deny the fact that the American mechanic is the best paid, the best fed, the best clothed, and the best educated workman in the world. I defy the world to show his equal. We have, through our system of high tariff, been able to pay good wages to the laborer, which means better clothing, better education for his children, good living, and everything that makes society happy and comfortable. So that, I think, if there is anything in the world that the American workman or mechanic should advocate, it is a high tariff, or a protective tariff at least. Of course there are some abuses connected with the tariff; I admit that fact. It is wrong that some corporations should be able to declare dividends of 60 per cent. on their capital for one year's earnings. I am informed that the Bessemer Steel Company of Pennsylvania declared such a dividend. Of course such a thing is not right; but you, gentlemen, are possessed of the wisdom and information which will doubtless enable you to recommend such an adjustment of the existing tariff laws that such immense profit, may not be realized. In this country people invest their capital and expect to make a fortune and get rich in the course of a few years, while abroad the business descends from father to son, and the people there do not expect to make the profits that our American manufacturers make. The result is, that they can undersell us on account of their cheap labor system in every way.

To sum up the whole matter, the prosperity of this country depends solely upon educating our people in the arts and sciences, and in mechanics. In that way we shall become a great nation, and be able not only to supply ourselves with all the necessaries of life, but also be able to supply a large portion of the rest of the world.

By Commissioner BOTELER [to Mr. Carsey]:

Q. Has your organization ever taken into consideration the subject of arbitration between employers and employés?—A. The intelligent workingmen all over the world seem to agree in regard to two remedies for their labor troubles—the one is arbitration and the other co-operation. How to bring these results about is the question. In the city of New York Mr. Thurber, one of our merchants, and Mr. Brewster, the carriage manufacturer, have adopted a system by which, after paying their men their wages for the year, they allow them a certain percentage of the profits made in the business. This plan seems to work very satisfactorily, and consequently there are no strikes as far as the employés of these two houses are concerned. The labor organization called the Knights of Labor have a membership of two or three hundred thousand, including every trade and calling, and one of the great objects of the organization is to teach the workingman the use of the ballot as a means of redressing his wrongs.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Do you know of any case of a successful system of co-operation instituted by workmen alone in this city?—A. No, sir. There has never been any successful system of co-operation on a large scale. We expected to have Mr. Kehoe here with us this evening. He would have represented the co-operative shoemakers, which organization has been successful on a small scale. As a rule, though, these enterprises have not been successful. Workingmen do not seem to be able to carry out

these great enterprises successfully. There have been nearly one hundred co-operative movements in this city. But the workmen fight among themselves and are jealous of each other, and the organization does not last long. Such organizations have often been successful pecuniarily, but they have never held together for any length of time.

Mr. ROBERT O. FERRIER said:

The statement which has been presented to the Commission this evening embodies my views pretty fully, but there are one or two other points which I should like to call attention to. There has been considerable protection given to the manufacturers of goods and so on, but there has never been any protection in this country for labor directly. We have had protection upon certain kinds of goods, but at the same time we have allowed labor to come into the country free, without putting any tax upon it. The result has been, as I look at it, that we have filled this country with a great deal of free labor. A great many of these people come here and do not take the responsibility of citizenship upon their shoulders. The result is that so much foreign labor has crowded out men who have the responsibilities of citizenship placed upon them. As a consequence, many Americans have been compelled to go traveling through the country without being able to get employment at all. To illustrate this point I will confine myself to the condition of things in the city of New York. I would like to ask how many citizens of the United States are employed by the city government to do the work of the city? I dare say that at least two-fifths of the men employed in the city of New York by the city authorities are not citizens of the United States. Yet we all know, at the same time, this city is full of people who have the responsibility of citizenship upon their shoulders who cannot get employment. This condition of affairs has been brought about by allowing free emigration of the laborer to this country; and my idea would be to put a tax upon every emigrant who comes to these shores the same as a tax is put on goods which are brought into the country.

Mr. JOHN T. WINN said:

As a member of the committee, I indorse what Mr. Ferrier has stated. I do not desire to make any further statement.

J. SCHOENHOF.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. J. SCHOENHOF, of New York, addressed the Commission as follows:

I desire to give my views, as a manufacturer, on the effect of the tariff upon woolen goods.

The effect of our system of taxation upon our manufacturing industries is of so dangerous a character that manufacturers have to combine against a continuation of taxes on raw materials, if they wish to continue in a prosperous state and save themselves from a recurrence of the gloomy experience they have gone through with during the dark years 1873-'79. The same influences that brought about the catastrophe of 1873 and made its consequences continue in ever-increasing proportions till 1879 are still at work. The high prices obtained by protected industries attract large competition in the same fields, and this high rate of competition in the special industries, brought about by high-priced materials, finally worked down profits and prices to such a low condition that most of our manufacturers were ruined and the workmen deprived of employment, brought to the brink of starvation, and useful citizens turned into tramps. It is quite evident to any mind that is not misled by sophistical doctrines that in order to produce cheaply you must have cheap materials; that in order to work profitably you must be able to have an open market for your products. High-priced materials, however, will inevitably limit your market to the few outlets which you possess in this country. As soon as your own marts are supplied then your outlet is filled up; whereas with cheap raw material you would be able to compete in foreign markets with any other commercial nation. With high material you either have to stop production until reviving demand sets your works in motion, or continue with a sure outlook into bankruptcy.

It can be proven by comparing statistics that all we need to compete successfully in the race for commercial supremacy throughout the world is to obtain our raw material at as favorable terms as Great Britain, France, and Germany obtain them now under other tariff systems. The perfection of our machinery, the intelligence of our working people, the better mode of subsistence of our operatives, all combine to make our fabrics comparatively cheaper under a higher rate of wages than they are in Europe under a comparatively low rate of wages. In all manufactures where raw materials are not protected, such as cotton goods, we are able to export and compete successfully with Germany and Great Britain in their own ports and markets. In machinery, tools, firearms, our ingenuity, our inventive faculties, are sufficiently powerful to overcome the higher price of raw materials and labor to enable us to export them to foreign countries, to England, Germany, and the commercial dependencies of these countries. The argument of difference of wages is wrongfully called into play to work upon people's minds. It induces our law-makers to perpetuate our present system of taxation, whilst it can be shown that the same rate of wages can be maintained, more perpetual employment guaranteed, and a greater purchasing power given to the earnings of our working people if taxes be stricken from all raw materials and their free importation guaranteed.

Woolen goods protected by 100 per cent. hardly enable their manufacturers to make sufficient profit to save them from bankruptcy. I know from my own experience that goods manufactured in Berlin undersell American-made goods that are protected by 100 per cent. and more duty. These goods are made of cloth which costs in Berlin 75 to 85 cents, while the American article is sold for \$1.75. The cloth is made of wool which costs here 30 cents a pound raw, while the Berlin manufacturers can use Australian wool which costs one-half that price in the grease. This sufficiently explains why we cannot compete against Berlin-made goods. If, instead of raising the tariff on manufactured goods, we were to abolish the tariff on wool, we should be amply protected by a tariff of 20 to 25 per cent. As the matter stands now we do not find any protection at all in a tariff of 100 per cent. The consequence of this pernicious system is doubly destructive of our industries.

Our manufacturers in the woolen line are compelled, by the exclusion of a sufficiently cheap supply of foreign wools, to run nearly all one line of goods, from cheap to middling. Had we cheap foreign wools we could manufacture a variety of cloths and woolen goods, and all would find useful occupation. All being compelled to use the same class or to make the same class of goods, competition becomes well-nigh destructive of that special industry. We are importing now all finer woolen goods, to the extent of many tens of millions of dollars, which we could not manufacture here, even if we endeavored, because the fine imported goods can be sold at less price on account of the cheap wool at the command of foreign manufacturers. For certain purposes in the manufacture of woolen goods our wools are not adapted. You cannot, by an act of Congress, change the fiber of wool, its softness or harshness; certain natural inherent qualities cannot be subjugated by legislative enactment. The adulteration of fabrics, the introduction of shoddy and cotton into woolen goods in order to cheapen the article, supplies our working people with clothing of bad wearing qualities that gives little warmth, at much higher price than the English workingman pays for much more durable clothing.

In the production of these goods a great deal of cheap labor is employed. Most of the work is done by machinery, highly efficient, and run frequently by children of from twelve to seventeen years of age, who earn from \$2 to \$3 a week with incessant labor of ten to eleven hours a day, and in spite of all these indisputable facts the workingman is made to believe that this high tariff is necessary to insure him the scanty wages which he gets in most of these high-protected industries.

The iron and steel interest makes it a special pleading to the farmer that protection of raw wool is essential to the farmers' prosperity. That same iron and steel interest is constantly threatening the wool interest in Congress to turn against a continuation of the tariff on wool if the tariff on iron and steel were changed by the vote of the wool-growing districts. An examination into the real benefits derived by the farmer from this protective system must convince him that he is the loser by it. We raised in the census year 35,000,000 sheep, distributed among four millions of farmers. This gives to each farmer about nine sheep. Many States raise very few sheep; all States whose land becomes valuable in proportion to the increase of population decrease their number of sheep. Large sheep culture is mostly practiced where the lands are abundant and cost absolutely nothing to the sheep-raiser.

I have here special tables from the Census Reports of 1860, 1870, and 1880 to show you how sheep culture has left the denser settlements and gone West. It is most apparent in comparing the census of 1870 with

that of 1880. Furthermore, I wish to say that the increase in the raising of sheep has been about equal in proportion to the increase in population. Here are the sheep statistics as shown by the census: In 1860, 22,000,000; in 1870, 28,000,000; and in 1880, 35,000,000; from which it can be proven that the increase of sheep raising is not due to the protection of wool, because in 1860 we had a free tariff on wool and still the sheep culture was not specially increased by it.

For sheep farming the climate is by no means more inclement than the climate of Great Britain and Germany, yet Great Britain raises 35,000,000 sheep and Germany 24,000,000, and still no protection is claimed in those countries for their wool. They are willing to let in the sheep wool of Australia, of the Cape, and of South America, and use it with their much higher priced staples with great advantage to their manufacturing industries. Considering that this large sheep-raising interest is mostly concentrated in America in comparatively few localities, this wholesale taxing of wool is another instance of taxing the many to enrich the few. The few wool growers use the millions of farmers who produce little wool as cat's-paws to get their chestnuts out of the fire. The burdens which every farmer has to carry, as a consumer of woolen goods, are at least three times as high as the amount he would get more for his wool if all sheep raised in the United States were equally divided between each and every farmer. Nine sheep per farmer raise about 65 pounds of raw wool, which, at a protection of 12 cents, gives him \$7.80 protection if he were to share the full benefit of protection. His clothing and woolen wear for himself and family cost him fully, on the average, \$50, which \$50 are fully twice as high as they would be under free wool; consequently in woolen goods alone he has to pay a tax of \$25 from his earnings, while his imaginary earnings from sheep raising only average \$7.80. I don't add to this calculation the high price of his tools, of his machinery, his agricultural implements and household utensils, which are equally enhanced in price by this obnoxious system of tariff legislation.

After all, a clear demonstration of facts and figures simplifies the whole tariff question very materially; it takes away all the vagueness and haziness which our high-tariff men are in the habit of surrounding it with. In every instance it can be demonstrated that the producer, the farmer, the workingman has to pay from every dollar of his earnings at least 10 cents as the result of inflation caused by taxing raw materials. Manufacturers of finished goods are not protected! They are worse than not protected. Our tariff, called a tariff for protection, is simply a tariff for the protection of raw materials, raw wool, coal, iron, and steel in its cruder forms, and a sacrifice of all other industries to producers of these articles.

Why should we not be able, with our cheap lands, to invite free wool as well as England under her tenant system? Why not have free coal, free ores, and other raw materials? Why not start production on the level plain, instead of starting on a raised platform of high-priced materials? Equal protection means protection to no one. You cannot protect the raw-material man and the maker of finished goods at the same time. High-priced raw materials means ruin to the manufacturer. The producers of the first are few in number compared to the latter. Millions of workingmen depend on manufacture. Stagnation in trade means untold misery, cold, and starvation to all these multitudes, whose average incomes during the census year of 1870—a year of high prices—did not exceed the sum of \$338 of inflated money. It is better that these millions of men should find remunerative and steady employment than that a

whole nation be kept dependent and hemmed in by the greed of a few wealthy monopolists and great operators, whose millions of dollars stand in ghastly relief against the wretchedness of their miners and laborers. What we gain by the tariff on manufactured goods is usually balanced by the higher tariff on raw materials. We would not be relieved by any addition to the tariff on manufactured goods if the tariff on raw materials remain as it stands.

The effect of our tariff, the proof of the correctness of this statement can be seen in the constantly increasing importation of foreign manufactured goods. The great exports of the United States consist principally of the products of the soil. The bad agricultural system of Great Britain, its feudal laws of primogeniture and entail, cause England to look for one-half its food supply from abroad. Should this great demand by England for our food produce here change or cease from any cause whatsoever, our exportation would diminish to an extent that stagnation and financial ruin would follow. The rapid extension of our farming interests, the parallel extension of our manufacturing interests will become a source of danger and collapse unless we diversify our exports, unless we enable our manufacturers to find their customers amongst the five hundred millions of European nations and their colonies, instead of walling them down into a narrow circle of fifty millions.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. As a great many thousand of our people are engaged in mining iron ore, and cutting timber, and other work of that kind connected with raw material which manufacturers use, what would be the effect upon that class of our people if free trade in raw material should obtain?—Answer. I believe they would be employed just as well.

Q. In what?—A. In the same kind of industry. For instance, it has been proven, and experience teaches us, that wherever we have taken off duties on any kind of raw material or article of consumption the price has in consequence reduced very materially.

Q. Do you think the coal miners would be able to get the same rate of wages?—A. I believe they would. The rate of wages for laborers in our coal mines, although not quite as low as in England, is not very materially different. In fact, a close study of this question has convinced me that in all work in England, especially that connected with large industrial pursuits which employ plant, large machinery, &c., and where the combination of labor is facilitated by working together, prices range within 20 per cent., and in some of the industries even less than that, of ours.

Q. What is the difference between the wages paid to the English and to the American colliers?—A. That depends entirely upon the means of production they have. I have not in my mind the exact wages paid to colliers, but, taking the reports from English statisticians, I do not think there is 25 per cent. difference in wages over our own miners, who do not get much over \$300 a year.

Q. Are you personally acquainted with the style of living of the European laborer?—A. Yes, sir; that is to say, nothing more than my recollection of European life some years ago. When I speak of European laborers as compared with American laborers I speak of English laborers because they are the highest paid, and the only formidable competitors we have to encounter.

Q. Do you think there is any comparison between the condition of the English laboring man and the condition of the American laboring

man in the matter of living; in his food, clothing, and ability to educate his children and bring them up respectably?—A. Yes, sir; I do.

Q. Where does the advantage lie, with the Americans or with the English?—A. The advantage is not to be found anywhere, to any large extent, because we have, during the last ten years or so, made very rapid progress in the improvement of our laboring population. In many industries, however, I do not believe they get any more than the English laborers get; and we have supplanted American laborers to a large extent by laborers from Europe, and that has had a tendency to cheapen labor, so that a process of equalization has been going on to a great extent.

Q. If the condition of the English laborer is equal, or nearly equal, to that of the American laborer, why is it that Englishmen come here to this country to better their condition, and that the tide of emigration has no reflux, but has been tending in this direction ever since the formation, of our government? They come here to better their condition, it is to be supposed, do they not?—A. In reply to that I have to say that if you offer a poor man who never owned an acre of land, and is debarred from ever owning any by the obnoxious laws in England and Ireland—if you invite him here and give him 160 acres of the best land he can find, I suppose that is inducement enough for him to come.

Q. But the homestead bill has only been in operation a short time, and many of the emigrants do not go into the country at all when they get here. How do you account for their coming under those circumstances?—A. The English people are not coming to this country in such large numbers as they used to, because their condition has been materially improved. The laborers who do come over are mostly Irish and Germans, or natives of countries where their condition is very poor. I believe that if we continue the system of squandering our public domain for the next twenty-five years as we have done in the last twenty-five years, the influx of foreign laborers will be very materially lessened.

Q. You do not think they get any better wages here than they do abroad?—A. If you take the purchasing power of wages into consideration, I maintain that the English laborer gets perhaps within 10 per cent. of the wages of the American laborer.

Q. But he is not surrounded by the same comforts in living as he is here.—A. That I cannot say. But I know, according to the consumption of all goods that go into the hands of the laboring classes, the English consume much more than any other class of the European nations, and nearly as much as the Americans.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. Do you advocate the free introduction of wool?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What effect, in your opinion, would that have upon the wool production in this country?—A. I think it would at first depress prices somewhat, but not be any great injury to the wool interest in the long run. I do not believe it would alter the condition of the sheep farmer one bit.

Q. What effect does the present tariff have upon the price of wool in this country, in your opinion?—A. It causes it to fluctuate constantly. One year the price is so low that it is not profitable to raise wool, and they kill the sheep, and then an artificially high price is created by the scarcity.

Q. You think that is caused by the tariff laws?—A. Most inevitably, because it excludes the leveling influence of foreign supplies.

Q. Are fluctuations in the prices of wool peculiar to this country?—A. Yes, sir; more so than anywhere else. Of course the tendency in

the price of wool for the last twenty or twenty-five years has been a downward one, on account of the increase in sheep culture in large territories which have been given up to that industry.

Q. I understood you to say that the increase of sheep had not been rapid, that it was limited.—A. It is now, I believe, 35,000,000, and I remember some years ago it was 40,000,000.

Q. Where do you get your figures?—A. From the latest census reports on stock raising.

Q. Is that the number of sheep in the States?—A. Yes, sir; and in the Territories.

Q. In looking through those statistics did you pay attention to the amount of wool raised in proportion to the number of sheep? Please give that.—A. In 1870 the number of sheep was put down as 28,000,000, and the wool raised is given as 100,000,000 pounds, which would give something over 3 pounds to a sheep. In 1880 there were 35,000,000 sheep, and the wool raised was over 200,000,000 pounds, which is 7 pounds to the sheep.

Q. Would not that give a more substantial improvement than the figures you mentioned?—A. Certainly.

Q. In other words, we are getting two pounds of wool where we got one pound ten years ago?—A. Yes, sir; and that would be another argument in favor of taking the tariff off wool.

Q. I understood you to say that if the tariff was taken off wool it would depress that industry.—A. But it does not follow that the wool that grows on the sheep's back would be decreased.

Q. What do you mean, then, by depressing the industry?—A. Perhaps the farmers who have been in the habit of getting 25 or 30 cents a pound would in the start think it a hardship if they could only get 20 cents a pound, but they would get used to that, just the same as the poor manufacturers have to get used to all the depressing influences of prices.

Q. You are a wool manufacturer, are you?—A. Yes, sir, I am; and I know how hard it has been to manufacture woolen goods with prices so high that you cannot do anything with your surplus.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. But you say you have 100 per cent. protection on the wool manufactured?—A. Yes, sir; and on some articles more, and that is a point that I wish to speak about.

Q. If you, as a manufacturer, have 100 per cent. protection and that is not sufficient, in your opinion, don't you think it is rather ungracious to ask that those who raise wool and make their living in that way should have no protection at all?—A. No, sir; I think it is only just. I do not claim for my part any protection. I believe I could get along, if I had everything as cheap as anybody else, with hardly any tariff on. The real trouble lies in the high price on which we started. I used to export goods to Europe six or eight years ago. I manufacture an article in which felts are largely used. We have such excellent machinery for manufacturing them that we undersold the English in England, the Germans in Germany, and the Canadians in Canada, but we cannot do so any more because they have copied our modes of production and our machinery, and by the introduction of their cheap wools they are beating us out of the field. I could cite more instances where we do not need protection on account of labor and machinery, but only on account of materials.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. Have you any comparative statement of the wages paid in this

country and in England?—A. I have only a statement of wages paid in the United States according to the census report for 1880; I refer to the report of Professor Pumpelly.

Q. You have the English wages also?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. I believe you stated that emigration from England to this country had decreased. Do you know as a matter of fact whether it has absolutely increased or decreased during the last few years?—A. Yes, sir; it has decreased from England particularly; not from Ireland.

Q. Are you prepared to say that it has absolutely decreased during the last two years?—A. No, sir; not during the last two years, but it is not as great as it was formerly.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. I understand you to recommend that raw wool be admitted free of duty?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you make that recommendation as a specific recommendation on behalf of the manufacturers of wool?—A. I cannot answer that question yes or no; I shall have to explain myself. I believe that owing to our improved machinery in this country the woolen manufacturers with raw materials admitted free would not need any protection for a few years. It would be absurd, under the spirit of the American manufacturers in regard to protection, to recommend anything like absolute free trade. But I think with a duty of 25 or 35 per cent. at the outside, it would be better than to have the present duty continued of 50 cents a pound and 35 per cent. ad valorem.

[The witness produced samples of cloakings of English and American make, which he said were of similar quality, and gave the price of the American goods as being \$2.10 a yard net, and the price of the English goods 95 cents a yard net.]

Q. Do you assume that the difference in the cost of these goods, which is very great, is attributable mainly to the protective duty on wool, or to other conditions?—A. I attribute it to the protective duty on wool and to the protective duty on woolems.

Q. Can you recommend any rate of duty which, in your judgment, would be more equitable than the present one?—A. I find that the greatest injustice lies in a specific duty. The cheap goods pay the highest duty, and the finest goods the lowest. Take, for instance, the article of cloakings. I have here some heavy ones that weigh a pound and a half to the yard and cost about 75 cents. The duty is 100 per cent., weight duty, and 35 per cent. ad valorem, making a duty of 135 per cent. on a piece of cloakings made half of cotton and shoddy and the outside of wool. Take a fine piece of cloth, such as coatings, that cost \$3 a yard on the other side, and the ad valorem duty is very light, compared with their value.

Q. I understand, then, that you object to a specific duty as being an unfair one?—A. Yes, sir, I do.

Q. Do you recommend a purely ad valorem duty?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you regard an ad valorem duty as being a secure method of collecting the duty?—A. No, sir; not wholly.

Q. Then what do you suggest?—A. We cannot prevent cheating and undervaluation. But I think an ad valorem duty, upon the whole, is the fairest method of collecting the duty.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. What class of goods do you manufacture?—A. I manufacture felt skirts and cloaks sometimes.

Q. Do you make the felt yourself?—A. No, sir; I buy the felt.

Q. Then you are not a woolen manufacturer?—A. I have a certain interest in it.

Q. You stated that you were a woolen manufacturer, and it seems you are a maker of skirts. Then you are just as much of a woolen manufacturer as a tailor is a woolen manufacturer?—A. Yes, sir; I have to get my material from the mills which make it.

Q. Then you are not familiar with the woolen manufacture?—A. Certainly I am, because I have been interested in it and in the manufacture of felt too.

Q. Please tell me, then, the price of Mestizo wool at Buenos Ayres to-day.—A. I am not buying any wool at present.

Q. But you say you are familiar with wool, and you ought to know the price of it.—A. As I am not buying now I cannot tell you.

Q. Have you ever known the price of Mestizo wool? When did you last know the price of Mestizo wool, or can you tell me the price of Mestizo wool at any time within your recollection, at Buenos Ayres?—A. I do not remember the figures now, because I never have bought foreign wools.

Q. How, in your judgment, does the price of Mestizo wools compare with the price of American wools to-day?—A. They are considerably lower.

Q. How much lower?—A. Perhaps 50 per cent. lower.

Q. Are they not 75 per cent. lower?—A. No, sir; I think about 50 per cent.

Q. They are the cheapest wools grown, are they not?—A. Australian wools are the cheapest.

Q. Do you think the Australian wools are as cheap as the Mestizo wools?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you think the free introduction of wool from Buenos Ayres would not have an injurious effect upon the wool-growers of this country?—A. Well, of course, at the first start it would depress the business.

Q. Would it not have the effect of causing him to abandon the business of wool-growing?—A. I do not see why it should.

Q. You have had no experience, then, as a woolen manufacturer?—A. No, sir; I only know what the goods cost to make. But in going to the mill-owners for the prices I certainly have a good way of judging why they have to pay such prices.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. You stated to me that you were a woolen manufacturer.—A. I am not a manufacturer of woolen goods.

Q. You do not manufacture wool into woolen goods? You do not think it necessary to qualify your answer?—A. No, sir; I do not think it necessary. I can form an opinion in regard to those matters because I have to buy my goods and pay a high price for them on account of protective duties.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. Do you or not think that you have just as good an opportunity of knowing the value of woolen goods which you deal in, from the fact that you make skirts, as if you were in the manufacture of goods from raw materials?—A. I think so.

HENRY A. CRAM.

NEW YORK, Oct. 7, 1882.

Mr. HENRY A. CRAM, of New York City, addressed the Commission as follows :

I want to say a word in regard to the propriety of putting books upon the free list. I have no personal interest in the matter excepting that I read ; as to the price of books, my interest is very trifling. I want to call the attention of the Commission to the fact that there is no country in the world which puts a tax upon learning as our country does. Many people think, and I believe justly, that it is unwise and not to the credit of the country to do so ; that it is putting impediments and obstacles in the way of culture and in the way of education. The present duty is 25 per cent., and in considering the subject, it is worth while to look at it as it applies to English books and to foreign books. With respect to foreign books it is almost a prohibition. If you want an Italian book you cannot get it. There is no place in New York, in this large city, where you can buy an Italian book, so far as I know. You can go into a side street or by-way, and perhaps find a poor, stale collection of Italian novels. I believe Mr. Christern was induced by somebody to import a few Italian books. You can buy the Italian classics, of course. But every new production of Italian literature is precluded by the duty. Then, too, as regards the new publications of Germany. With few exceptions none of them reach here except on private orders. The same is true in regard to French literature. We have a great abundance of the light literature of France. That comes in, and that taste is gratified. There is a great abundance of material. But in regard to all the better productions of French literature, very little comes in, and certainly this duty of 25 per centum has something to do with it.

Now, who buys these books ? I do not think the assertion will be disputed that the men who read in this country are not, as a rule, rich ; they are poor. The tax is paid by the poor ; by the poor citizen and the college professor ; by the experts of the country ; the men connected with industrial pursuits who want to bring themselves up with the science pertaining to their business. The books they want are mostly in foreign literature. Take Germany and France. Those two countries produce scientific books in enormous quantities, and they are necessary for the use of scientific men in this country. Students and professors are usually poor. They pay this tax. For whose benefit do they pay it ? In the case of foreign books it would be very difficult to say. They do not pay it for anybody's benefit, because there are scarcely any foreign books printed in this country. There are some German books printed in New York, because New York is in some respects a foreign city. But nobody is protected by this duty on foreign books. So that there is no necessity in keeping the duty upon them. In regard to English books there is one class benefited by the duty—the booksellers, and they object to its repeal. The importers of foreign books, I understand, do not.

By Commissioner BOTTLER :

Question. You mean the publishers ?—Answer. No, sir ; I mean the importers. There are very few importers of foreign books. I mean the importers and dealers in books published in foreign languages. This is a subject in which hardly any one has a personal interest on the one

side, while there is a great personal interest on the other side, on the part of the booksellers.

Now, take the case of an English book, and see how this law operates. A book is published in London, say, for five dollars, called the publishing price. Any one who has been in London knows that you can buy that book at retail from almost any bookseller in London for about 20 to 25 per cent. less than the publishing price. So that a book published in London at five dollars, I, or you, may buy for four dollars. What the publisher buys it for I do not know, but he buys it at a less price than the dealer or than I could. I could go to Leicester Square, to a large book-shop there, and buy a five-dollar book for four dollars. The duty on it is certainly less than a dollar, because the importer pays less than four dollars. But if I go to a store in New York to get it, what I buy for four dollars in London I am supposed to pay eight dollars for here, and generally ten dollars. You will find in the store of the thriving importer of English books that that is not an exceptional price; and when I grumble, or when my poor bother, the college professor, or the student grumbles about it, "Oh," they say, "it is the duty," although the duty has nothing to do with it.

So that I say it is a thing not creditable to the country, and not known to the same extent in any other country. I have not investigated the subject, but I do not think I would be making an erroneous assertion, if I said that in no country in the world is such a tax laid upon learning as in our country, a country that owes so much to, and hopes for so much from, the education of the people. We stand as this single and odious exception of putting a tax upon learning; a tax levied upon the poor man for the benefit of the rich class. There is no tax upon books in England. I do not think even Bismarck, who is now a great protectionist, would propose such a thing. I am quite certain that he has not proposed it. Such a tax does not exist in Germany, in England, or even in autocratic Russia, and if it exists in France it is a mere nominal sum, where you have to pay a little fee, and not such a tax as it is here.

These are the only suggestions I desire to make to this honorable body. I hope you may be able to concur in some of my views, and that the considerations I have presented will induce you to recommend the repeal of this duty.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. You are aware, I suppose, that books published twenty years ago and more are admitted free?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And that all the great works of English literature published previous to that time are admitted free?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. It is only upon modern publications that the tax is imposed?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You are aware, also, that books intended for scientific purposes—for our academies and scientific institutions—are admitted free of duty?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And books belonging to persons who come to this country, the libraries of professional men who come from abroad, are admitted free?—A. Not quite as broadly as you state it in your last proposition.

Q. But legislation has been in the direction of removing the tax on literature. I agree with you entirely in what you have said, and I think the tax ought to be removed as far as possible. But there has been some liberal legislation in that respect?—A. Very little; nothing reaching the individual. A feeling of shame has come over the country in regard to the administration of the laws, and people who take the pains

to learn it (I do not think many know it) can get foreign books without paying the duty; not by cheating the government, or by any other underhand process, but the government is ashamed to enforce the law, and they will allow you to receive books through the post. I imported some books from Germany, France, and England through the post. I found myself in this position: I wanted these books, and I wanted to know how much I should have to pay for them. I found that if I bought them of the importer I should have to pay two to one for them, whereas if I could receive them through the mail I should not have to pay nearly so much. So I went and asked how I was to pay the duty. I was told by the authorities at the post-office that I need not trouble myself about that, because they should not collect it, and would not, excepting it became a question of a large quantity. I suppose, of course, they would arrest instantly a dealer who would attempt to get them through without paying the duty, but I found there was a kindly and judicious exercise of discretion towards me. The reason they gave was, that it would not pay them to collect it; that I had a right to receive a book through the post, and that they could not afford to collect it; that they were unwilling to do it unless it was in large quantities.

Q. Do you think the high price of foreign publications can be justly attributed to the duty?—A. That is a matter between the book importers and the purchasers. I do not think the high price is referable to the duty. But all these things are obstacles to the importation of books. When the customer comes to the dealer and complains of the high price, the dealer says, "Oh, it is the odious duty!" and the customer goes away under that impression. Take a German book, for instance, which is exceedingly dear owing to one or two reasons: In the first place, the Germans are not a rich people, and there are very few of them who can afford to buy books; in the next place, they have not the demand the English publisher has of the circulating libraries which buy his books. (I am speaking now of light literature.) So that the German book is exceedingly dear, whether it be of light literature, poetry, romance, or science; and when it comes here the price is doubled. We have an immense German population in this country. They will read; everybody will. It is the solace as well as the culture of the people; it is a comfort. When you exclude what is good they will take what is bad, cheap, nasty, and filthy. You will see this horrible literature upon the news-stands at the corners of the streets, and hawked all over the country. I know very little about it, except from looking at the titles. When I come in at a railway station and see it there I cannot help thinking it is very bad for our youth to read such miserable trash. Every obstacle that prevents the importation of good literature is a premium on the production of the bad, and ought to be removed.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. You do not propose to make any discrimination as to what kind of literature shall be introduced free?—A. No; that does not belong to free governments.

Q. Do they not publish in London and Paris a good deal of this light literature of which you complain, and which you think is demoralizing to the community?—A. I speak of the "Dime Novels," as they are called.

Q. Is that peculiar to our country? Is there nothing of that kind in Europe?—A. Well, if it is proposed that bad literature may come in here from Europe, God forbid that I should stand here and say anything against it. I am perfectly willing; in advocating the case, to admit that everything that is infamous is published in Europe; but I

have yet to learn that it ever can be the wise policy of the government to encourage it. No man has a greater abhorrence of the light literature of France from the time of the second empire to the present day than I have. I do not read it and know very little about it, but its odor is so fetid that even those who do not read it know how repulsive it is. But I do not see in that any reason whatever why we should exclude the good, nor, because the bad may come in, to undertake in this country to have any license laws or censorship, or to say what shall come in or what shall not. The remedy is in legislation. The remedy is in admitting the good, which shall educate the people, and they will turn to them in disgust from the bad. But if you want to have bad literature successful, and have it read, then surround the people with barriers to keep out light and intelligence from them, and they will prefer that kind. The literature of France, especially the light literature, from the time of the second empire down to to-day is as bad as bad can be; so that everybody who has any respect for himself would refrain from reading a French novel, in my judgment. I do not read many novels, and I read no French novels.

Q. Fairly stated, then, your proposition is this: To admit all books, good or bad together, free of duty?—A. I did not say anything about that.

Q. But that is a simple question.—A. You may paraphrase it that way, but I deny it. You may put it in my mouth that I am here to advocate the admission of bad books, but I do not admit it.

Q. I do not want to put anything in your mouth at all. I ask you a plain question, and do it respectfully, for the purpose of ascertaining your position, and you can answer it or not. Is it your proposition to admit all the literature of Europe, the good and the bad, free of duty?—A. I will not answer that, because that is arguing. Will you permit me to say what I think on these questions? I am a free trader. It is an abomination to tax me to enrich somebody else.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. You can answer the question in any way you please; you are perfectly at liberty to answer the question or not.—A. I am here to advocate the importation of books free of duty; that is my answer.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. At present books are admitted through the mail by treaty. You spoke of there being no legislation on that subject. It is only within a few years that we have had a treaty, and our postal laws exclude, as you will perhaps remember, obscene literature, &c.—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Would you not recommend that a similar provision be put in the customs laws?—A. Now, when you put it in that way I must say that I was a little inflamed by the paraphrase, but I will say—

Q. Would you favor that or not?—A. From my political principles I would not favor it. I am not in favor of overgovernment. I consider these are the proceedings of despotic forms of government, under which they have oppressed liberty and personal rights and repressed intelligence. Those are my reasons for objecting to it. I am sure there is not a man living who would do more to exclude corrupt literature than I would, or who would be more glad to see measures resorted to that would do it. But I understand the wisdom of these measures; I think they belong to other governments, and we are not wise to imitate them. My theory has always been that these things are better remedied by moral influence than by governmental restraint.

F. R. RAWOLLE.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. F. R. RAWOLLE, of the firm of Marx & Rawolle, of New York, manufacturers of glycerine, addressed the Commission as follows:

Respecting proposed changes and revision in the existing tariff, we respectfully desire to call your attention to the article of glycerine, in which we are largely interested as refiners and distillers, and importers of the crude material from Europe.

Crude glycerine is mostly obtained at present as a secondary or by-product in the manufacture of stearine candles. A small quantity (since January 1, 1881) has also been made from soap-lye waters; and various other (hitherto mostly unsuccessful) attempts have been made to extract the crude glycerine from fats and oils, before the latter have been converted into soap and other articles. Crude glycerine, as thus made, is of various shades of brown or dark yellow color, whereas manufactured glycerine is either white or light yellow color, although, if badly or imperfectly refined and distilled, it may even be of a brown color; or manufactured glycerine may be artificially colored like sugars. Hence, neither color nor specific gravity, nor both, are sufficient criteria to distinguish crude from manufactured glycerines.

Our business consists in refining and distilling the impure crude glycerine, and producing therefrom the pure white and yellow glycerines for drug and manufacturing purposes. The crude material we buy from the stearine-candle manufacturers, partly in this country and partly in Europe, more than 80 per cent. of all the crude glycerine that we have worked at our factory.

The domestic stearine-candle manufacturers produce only about one-third of the total consumption of glycerine in this country. On the other hand, the domestic glycerine refiners have more than ample capacity and machinery to produce all the manufactured glycerine from the crude required in the United States. For the above reason we are unable to buy all our requirements of crude glycerine in this country at any price.

The present duty is 30 per cent. ad valorem, being the same on both crude and manufactured glycerine. This is unfair and unjust, because it gives no protection to us refiners.

In changing the present ad valorem duty we think that the total duty to be collected by the government will remain about the same, without any material increase or reduction, because the amount of duty at the proposed specific rates will and can be collected more efficiently and correctly.

We propose a specific duty of 2 cents per pound on crude glycerine, and 5 cents per pound on manufactured glycerine.

Crude glycerine is defined to be of a brown or yellow color, of 1.2500 specific gravity or less (at the standard temperature of 60° F.) as directly extracted from fats and oils by the stearine candle, soap, and other manufacturers, without having been subsequently purified by the processes of refining, distilling, or both.

Manufactured glycerine is defined to be white glycerine of any gravity, and brown and yellow glycerines of more than 1.2500 specific gravity,

and any glycerine of any gravity which has been wholly or partly refined or distilled.

We desire to change the present ad valorem into a specific duty, because:

1st. The difficulty and almost impossibility of determining the foreign market value of glycerine.

2d. The injustice of the present law, which compels us (when we have been so fortunate as to buy at low prices) to add value in order to make market value, and to pay duty thereon; but, on the other hand (when we are unfortunate to buy at high prices), and market value becomes lower than our contract prices, we are compelled to pay duty on our contract prices, and not on market value. This is a poor law which does not act both ways, and from which we have been suffering for some time past, and thus doubly increasing our misfortune, when losing money on depreciation of our goods. To this matter of market value we would specially and urgently call your attention.

3d. To protect ourselves and the government against frauds by undervaluation.

4th. The present inadequate and almost entire want of protection in the duty on manufactured glycerine, because, as before stated, the present ad valorem rate of 30 per cent. is the same on both crude and manufactured glycerine.

We propose a specific duty of 2 cents per pound on crude glycerine, so as to give fair protection to the stearine-candle manufacturers, who at present are the only ones producing crude glycerine in this country.

As a matter of course, a duty on crude glycerine makes necessary a duty on manufactured glycerine, and this latter should be at least 5 cents per pound, or say at least 3 cents per pound more than the former, because:

1st. The extra labor and cost to make the manufactured glycerine, our rents, wages to laborers, salaries to clerks, interest, many and expensive repairs to machinery, and general expenses for conducting business, are fully double what they are on the Continent of Europe, from whence about 99 per cent. of the manufactured glycerine is imported.

2d. There is a wastage of about 25 per cent. in producing the manufactured from the crude glycerine, and on which wastage we have to pay duty. This is an important item, and must not be overlooked.

3d. The freight, insurance, and banking commission which we have to pay on this 25 per cent. wastage.

4th. The greater cost in this country than in Europe of the packages in which manufactured glycerine is imported, such as glass bottles, tins, and cases.

5th. The great advantage which the foreign refiner has over the domestic one. The former being on the spot in Europe, is naturally able and does buy his crude material cheaper than we American refiners can buy it there.

During the past eleven years, from 1871 to 1881, inclusive, the average price, free on board European port, was for crude glycerine 75 francs per 100 kilograms, and for manufactured glycerine 160 francs per 100 kilograms.

The duty on said crude was 75 francs \times 19.3 cents (220 pounds \times 30 per cent.) = 1.974 cents per pound.

The duty on said manufactured was 160 francs \times 19.3 cents (220 pounds \times 30 per cent.) = 4.211 cents per pound.

However, during the year 1881 the average price was for crude glycerine 155 francs per 100 kilograms; and for manufactured glycerine 215

francs per 100 kilograms, yielding a duty on said crude of 155 francs × 19.3 cents (220 pounds × 30 per cent.) = 4.079 cents per pound, and a duty on said manufactured of 215 francs × 1.93 cents (220 pounds × 30 per cent.) = 5.658 cents per pound.

During the eleven years of 1871 to 1881, inclusive, the difference in the duty between manufactured and crude glycerine was 2.237 cents per pound, whereas in 1881 this difference was only 1.579 cents per pound; and there is every reason to believe that in the future this difference will become still smaller, and consequently the present ad valorem duty will even be less adequate as a protection on manufactured glycerine.

To prove how the tariff affected us in 1881, we give the following detailed calculation :

	Cents per pound.
25 per cent. wastage on duty of 4.079 cents per pound on crude.....	1.020
25 per cent. wastage on freight (10 cents), insurance (2 cents), and banking (3 cents)150
Difference of labor and expenses	2.250
	3.420
Difference in duty between manufactured and crude glycerine in 1881 was....	1.579
	1.841
Loss to American refiners.....	1.841

As before stated, if the specific duty on crude glycerine be 2 cents per pound, then there should be at least 3 cents per pound more, or 5 cents per pound total duty on manufactured glycerine, which difference of 3 cents per pound we calculate as follows:

	Cents per pound.
25 per cent. wastage on duty of 2 cents per pound on crude.....	0.50
25 per cent. wastage on freight, insurance, and banking15
Difference of labor and expenses	2.25
Margin for the American refiner.....	.10
	3.00
Total	3.00

Not including difference in cost of packages, and not including the great advantage the foreign refiner has over the domestic one in being able to buy his crude glycerine cheaper in Europe, as before explained.

We also wish to call your attention to the present law of duty on packages. A part of the crude glycerine which we import is in old petroleum barrels, for which no charge is made, and on which we consequently pay no duty, but the larger part of our importations is made in iron drums (made at Paris, France), so as to avoid leakage, and on which drums we pay duty. Now, as we receive many more of these iron drums than we can sell here, and so as to utilize them, we have for some time past shipped back these drums, when empty, to Europe, there had them refilled with glycerine, and then again reshipped such filled drums to New York, and each time we have been obliged to pay duty over and over again, which we do not think is just. Hence, we propose that foreign packages on which duty has been once paid shall have the privilege of being sent back to Europe, and thence reshipped to this country time and again without being obliged to pay duty a second time, by keeping a proper account and registry at the port of entry.

If our above proposed change of the present ad valorem duty in a specific one be not accepted by you, then we desire that the present ad valorem duty of 30 per cent. on both crude and manufactured glycerine be changed to 15 per cent. ad valorem on crude glycerine, and 35 per cent. ad valorem on manufactured glycerine, so as to give us re-

finers in the United States the necessary and required protection on our manufactured glycerine. And further, that said new proposed ad valorem rates be levied on the market value in Europe at the place where such goods are produced (and not at the port of shipment), no matter if the contract or purchase price actually paid be above or below such market value.

Lastly, by the present law we are obliged to pay duty also on 3 per cent. commission added whereas we buy our goods at net prices, all charges and commissions included. We think that it is unjust to compel us to pay duty on commissions which we do not actually and really pay. We therefore suggest that this law be changed, and that in future duty shall only be levied on commissions when they are actually paid by the importer on his purchases, and that no duty shall be levied where such purchases are made at net prices in which all charges and commissions are included.

To recapitulate, we propose—

1st. Specific duty of 2 cents per pound on crude glycerine.

2d. Specific duty of 5 cents per pound on manufactured glycerine.

3d. Foreign packages on which duty has been once paid, when shipped back to Europe and thence reshipped to this country, shall be free, and shall not pay duty a second time.

4th. Ad valorem duty shall be levied on market value in Europe, no matter if the purchase price paid be above or below such market value.

5th. No duty shall be levied on commissions, no matter whether such commissions be actually paid by the importer on his purchases or not.

We think that the above proposed changes in the present tariff are fair, just, and equitable, and will meet with the full and cordial approval of all interests concerned.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. Is it ever a matter of question or dispute where glycerine ceases to be crude and becomes refined?—Answer. It would be, because you can color it artificially, and to the unpracticed eye it cannot be detected; but if you will examine the chemical quality you can always tell whether it is a manufactured goods or not. If the goods are adulterated so as to make them appear like crude goods it spoils them, and they cannot be used.

Q. That is to say, they cannot adulterate or manipulate the refined glycerine in any way to enable them to bring in refined as crude glycerine and make anything by it?—A. No, sir.

Q. Then you would recommend that your definition be embodied in the law?—A. Yes, sir; I do. I have spent a great deal of time making that distinction accurately so that the government and the manufacturers would not be swindled. It is our interest to do so.

A. H. ANGELL.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. A. H. ANGELL, of New York, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: The undersigned were, at a meeting of the whiting and Paris white manufacturers, held in New York City, 17th August, 1882, appointed a committee to present to your honorable body facts and statistics relative to these manufactures, and the views of the manufacturers regarding the duty to be imposed on these articles when imported.

The committee beg leave to state that there are twenty-three manufacturers of whiting and Paris white in the United States, twelve of whom are located in and around New York, the remainder being at Boston, Philadelphia, Providence, and Hallowell, Me.

Whiting being among the lowest grade of goods in value, the capital employed is large in proportion to such value, while the process of manufacture is such that in case the business should be destroyed by reason of a change of tariff or otherwise, the plant would be valueless for other purposes, and the capital invested become extinguished and lost, or nearly so.

The entire cost of whiting beyond that for the raw material (chalk), and the cost of capital, depreciation of property, and wear and tear of machinery (when the latter is used) incident to all enterprises, is represented by labor, and the wages paid vary from \$1.50 to \$2.50 per man per day, with nothing in the process injurious to health. While the labor employed cannot be classed as "skilled labor," there is required in the workmen a liberal intelligence, which, combined with experience, elevates the grade of labor, position of laborer, and value of services largely above the plane of the ordinary "day laborer." With the exception of Paris white, the value of the labor represented in whiting is, without doubt, greater in proportion to the value of the product than that of any other articles produced in this country. In most of the factories the men have been employed for years, and being unskilled in other avocations or duties requiring their measure of intelligence, and affording corresponding wages, they would, in case of suspension of these industries, be reduced to a position commensurate with the shovel, wheelbarrow, and hod.

Various statements concerning whiting and Paris white have been made by writers and speakers upon the subjects of free trade and tariff, and also by importers, who have appeared before your honorable body. With none of these do we charge or believe that the statements made were knowingly incorrect, but from lack of practical knowledge of the subject, and in some instances a partial statement of the facts by these advocates, not only yourselves, but the public, are liable to be grossly misled. We will cite one instance where it is stated "one cent per pound duty on whiting was equal to 476 per cent. ad valorem, and the same duty on Paris white was equal to 256 per cent." Even were the prices quoted and percentages computed correct, without some further explanation the totally false and unjust inference would be that the consumer is paying this large percentage as a profit to the manufacturer.

Let us state the facts as they exist. For the last five years the average price of whiting has been from 50 to 60 cents per 100 pounds, or about five-tenths to six-tenths of a cent per pound—*about one-half of the present duty*—and within this period the price has at times fallen so low that manufacturers have found it necessary to protect themselves from loss by agreeing upon a minimum price at which to sell their goods. At such times the quite universal sentiment expressed by dealers and consumers was, that the prices proposed were reasonable and satisfactory to them; that what was desired was stability and uniformity of price, and the avoidance of fluctuations liable to prevail from temporarily overstocked markets, followed by scarcity and comparatively high prices caused by suspension of operations by manufacturers. “The money value is comparatively so small that we do not regard this so much as to know what we can depend upon,” briefly paraphrases this sentiment.

Prices in England have already been quoted to you by importers as, whiting, 20s. per ton, or 21 cents per 100 pounds; Paris white, 36s. per ton, or 30 cents per 100 pounds. Freights to New York are 12s. to 13s. 6d. per ton, or \$3 to \$3.35.

Previous to the establishment of the present duty on these articles, the fluctuations in price were wide and violent. From \$1.25 per 100 pounds the price of whiting would fall to about 30 cents, and naturally rising again to high figures, would fluctuate continually between the extremes. The price was subject to the vicissitudes of short or over supply, and these were again largely regulated by the ruling rates of ocean freights. “Corners” were liable at all times, and of frequent occurrence, and the very conditions which dealers and consumers so much seek to avoid were always present, creating an element of uncertainty which is now wholly obviated. That the mass of consumers are satisfied with the present condition of these branches of manufacture is evident from the almost entire absence of argument before you for a change in tariff by this directly interested class, numbered by the thousand, while the most elaborate figures are arrayed by importers (who can nearly all be enumerated in a single breath) to exhibit to you the iniquities (?) of the present tariff, without allusion to its salutary effects, as shown in the foregoing.

Chalk is brought from England duty free, and varies in price according to the demand for ballast by vessels coming to this side for freights. Whiting and Paris white are not classed as ballast. They are in packages and subject to the fluctuations of freights much more than articles regarded as strictly ballast. This fact aids manufacturers of whiting in this country to maintain the desired uniformity of price, and to contract for yearly supplies with large consumers at prices satisfactory to all.

It is apparently anomalous to find a manufactured article selling for about half of the tariff duty; but it is nevertheless true that the price of whiting has so averaged in the market since the adjustment of prices under the present tariff. From the large increase in manufacturing facilities, and capital invested during the past ten years, it is practically impossible for a different condition of things to prevail.

The present consumption of whiting in this country is about 250,000 barrels, or, say, 87,500,000 pounds.

The foregoing regarding whiting applies equally to Paris white, except that the cost of the latter is much increased by the greater outlay for machinery, additional and higher-priced labor, and about double the cost for raw material. We append to, and submit as a part of, this

paper a letter from Mr. H. F. Taintor, a large manufacturer of Paris white in this country, giving more fully the details of this branch of manufacture.

We would here state that a specific duty of one-half a cent per pound might afford proper protection to the whiting industry but for the fact that Paris white is so nearly identical in every way with whiting, although the latter is not a substitute for the former with consumers. As this would be inadequate to the protection of Paris white, we respectfully but urgently request that in case your Commission should find it advisable to recommend a change of duty on these articles, a specific duty of three-fourths of a cent per pound be named on each, otherwise (the duty being one-half a cent on whiting and three-fourths cent on Paris white), the latter would be imported as whiting, thereby causing unlimited trouble in classification, and the confusion regarding the tariff (now so universally complained of, and to relieve which was a prominent reason for the appointment of your honorable body) would be "worse confounded" so far as regards these two commodities; and if passed as whiting would work serious injury and injustice to the Paris white manufacturers and honest importers. Chalk and cliffstone, the respective bases of whiting and Paris white, are chemically the same—to wit, carbonate of lime—hence no chemical tests by customs officials will avail. The finer grades of whiting so nearly resemble Paris white in appearance that the most skillful are liable to be deceived. The only reliable tests are by the practical workers in these materials, which tests naturally come too late to aid the government officer in his efforts at discrimination, or save the Paris white manufacturer and conscientious importer from the disaster which would certainly be wrought by such frauds in entry, and which it would be impossible to detect or prevent.

The principal question involved is that of protection to labor. The English workman in such factories receives equivalent to 50 cents per day. Shall our workmen be sacrificed in their honestly earned independence, and be reduced to this standard to satisfy the demands of a few desirous to extend their lines of commerce? We have, as we believe, shown to your honorable body that the strong existing competition among American manufacturers has in the past and may in the future be absolutely relied on to restrict the profits of the manufacturers, and regulate the cost of their products to the consumer, and that consumers are content with the situation as it is and has been since the introduction of the present tariff. This duty was placed by Congress with a full knowledge of existing facts, to wit, that liberal protection was necessary. Men, some of them devoid of means, but basing their faith on the protection and guarantees thus afforded by the government, have spent years in building up a small industry by their own toil in their factories alongside of their paid laborer, and have been content and without ambitions beyond such as are met by the legitimate fruits of frugality and industry as yielded by this meager pursuit. The question seriously arises with the committee whether, when showing, as they claim to have shown, that no interests have suffered, but that all have been conserved to a higher degree than when under no protection, strictly good faith on the part of the government either towards producer or consumer warrants the destruction or impairment of these industries by a reduction of the duty to a point that will admit foreign products to our markets on equal terms. When the sentiment of the country, expressed by a majority, shall rule in favor of free trade, we will gracefully accept of the verdict; but until such time shall come we cannot too

strongly ask your Commission for such recommendations for our protection as we have herein suggested, being convinced that in such requests we are not transcending the limits of our apparently reasonable and just claims.

The market value of the 250,000 barrels, the estimated yearly production, averages, say, \$2 per barrel, or \$500,000 total.

We will call your attention to but one other point, and that briefly. The present tariff on "prepared" chalk is 25 per cent. ad valorem, and it is intended to cover very fine preparations of chalk used for special purposes, of which very small quantities are imported or required. The entire consumption of the country is from 30 to 50 tons yearly. As the term "prepared chalk" has led parties to assume that whiting was nothing but prepared chalk, and the duty on whiting sought to be evaded in this manner, we would further suggest that the duty fixed upon whiting should cover all preparations of chalk, or, if necessary to make a distinction, that the tariff should read "twenty-five per cent. ad valorem upon prepared chalk, the invoice value of which shall not be less than three-fourths of a cent per pound."

Respectfully,

JAS. L. TRUSLOW, New York,
L. RICHARDSON, New York,
JOHN J. BUDD, New York,
A. H. ANGELL, New York,
JAS. W. STICKNEY, Boston,
E. F. DUNCAN, Philadelphia,
Committee.

The following is the letter from Mr. H. F. Taintor referred to in the foregoing statement:

GENTLEMEN: Permit me to present to you briefly a few facts regarding the manufacture of Paris white, in which you are aware I am largely interested, for the purpose of laying before the Tariff Commission such information as will enable them to reach an intelligent and just judgment in their considerations of this industry.

The present cost of a plant, equal to that in my Paris white factory, would be \$50,000 independent of ground or buildings. It is not adapted to any other manufacture, and from its character would be of insignificant value for other purposes.

The cliff-stone, from which Paris white is made, is brought from Hull, England, duty free, and varies in price from \$2.50 to \$5 per ton delivered in New York. It serves as ballast from a port where very little freight is to be had. The chief element of cost in its production is labor. The process used to *complete* whiting is but the *preliminary* one in manufacturing Paris white. Up to this point both processes are identical, to wit, the crushing in water by machinery and floating off into vats. Paris white then requires a very careful and slow grinding by mill-stones—the skill and care required in this grinding being equal to that called for in the preparation of wheat flour. The men receive from \$1.50 to \$3 per day—many of these having been thus employed from five to twenty-five years.

This commodity is of such similarity in character and uses to whiting that they are universally classed together in trade, and when considered from an economic point of view. The same holds true in manufacture. Out of the six establishments producing Paris white in this country, each one has combined with it the manufacture of whiting. As

the duty of presenting to the Tariff Commission the general facts concerning these industries devolves upon you, and having entire confidence that you will honestly and intelligently present such facts, and relieve the Commission from the erroneous and unjust conclusions which they cannot but reach from the partial statements of those interested, and impracticable ideas of those who preach theory while ignorant of the simplest facts, I shall but state that the same proportions which the average price of whiting bears to the rate of duty holds equally true with Paris white, taking into consideration the greater cost of capital, machinery, raw material, and labor, the latter being by far the most important element.

The price for some years has ranged from 90 cents to \$1.30 per 100 pounds, according to skill, care, and labor used in its manufacture. This is but a small average advance over the duty, and gives evidence that the consumer is not paying to the manufacturer that tribute which those pecuniarily or theoretically interested in the destruction of these industries would have the Commission believe.

Respectfully yours,

H. F. TAINTOR.

NEW YORK, *October*, 1882.

By the PRESIDENT:

Question. What is the difference between Paris white and whiting?—
Answer. One is made from chalk and the other from cliff-stone. Cliff-stone is evidently another formation of the chalk, being more like limestone or granite. They both analyze about the same, being carbonate of lime. After the process of manufacture they are chemically about the same, but for the uses to which they are applied in the different industries, Paris white can be substituted in a great many cases for whiting, but whiting cannot be substituted except in a few cases for Paris white. Picture frame manufacturers and gilders, for instance, cannot use Paris white in their manufactures, but do use whiting. The wall-paper manufacturers and manufacturers of fine gossamer rubber clothing cannot use whiting, but must have the best Paris white. The oil-cloth men also require Paris white, although they use portions of whiting in their manufacture. It is only in actual use that the difference can be ascertained. We had a case before the custom-house two or three months since where a party imported an article from Sweden which he attempted to introduce as prepared chalk, and there were several manufacturers called as witnesses and samples were produced, and in connection with it we had samples of Paris white and different grades of whiting, and there were scarcely two of the manufacturers who could agree upon what the sample was, some thinking it was Paris white and some whiting. You can tell the grade by the color, whether it is a high grade or not, but to tell whether it is a preparation of chalk or cliff-stone is almost impossible except in actual use. That is one reason why we refer to the matter of the tariff duty being made at $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents on whiting and Paris white, although the manufacturers would be satisfied to have the present duty reduced one-half; that is, made $\frac{1}{2}$ a cent a pound instead of 1 cent a pound. But you can understand what confusion would arise in the importation of these articles, because Paris white could be imported as whiting, and it would be almost impossible to detect it, and it would create confusion and annoyance and complaint from the Paris white manufacturers and the custom-house officials.

Three-quarters of a cent a pound would protect the Paris white manufacturers, and at the same time would not add anything to the cost of

the whiting to the consumer, because the price has ruled from 50 to 60 cents for years, which is about one-half of the present duty. The present price of whiting for the lower grades is about 40 to 42½ cents a hundred, and for the higher grades 65 cents. In the average production there is about one-third of the better grades made and two-thirds of the lower grades, which brings an average not to exceed 50 cents a hundred, which is only one-half of the present tariff.

Another point I would like to speak upon is this: If the duty should be so fixed as to barely cover the cost to the manufacturer here, so that the imported article could be brought in at just about the same price it costs the manufacturer here, with a trifling profit we will say, then there will be a great deal of trouble arising from the fact that the manufacturers on the other side always accumulate large stocks, and it is their wish, and always was during the time whiting was imported here without duty, to rush into this market large quantities of their surplus stocks and sell it at the best price they can get, because being a low-priced article it does not bear the additional expense of storage and cartage like the higher priced goods. It would demoralize the whole trade. The manufacturers here at one time might be able to get a fair profit on their goods, and at other times goods would be rushed in from abroad and the market be completely demoralized. When whiting was brought in free, at times it sold at \$1.25. A few people controlled the business and they put up the price so as to make a large profit.

Q. That was before the extensive manufacture began here?—A. Yes, sir; the manufacture has increased in this country so that now it would be impossible to control the price in that way. Within the last few years there has been an actual loss of 5 to 10 cents a hundred pounds to parties who chose to sell it on account of competition and dull trade.

Q. In other words, before the manufacture was established here foreigners controlled the market, and since then they have been unable to do so.—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. How many establishments are there in this country engaged in this manufacture?—A. Twenty-three.

Q. What is the amount of capital employed?—A. In the manufacture of both whiting and Paris white about \$450,000 to \$500,000; say \$20,000 on the average to each manufacturer.

Q. How many hands are employed?—A. We have seventy-two men employed in the manufacture of whiting and Paris white.

Q. I mean how many are employed by all the manufacturers?—A. I should think possibly 1,000 men altogether. Paris white and whiting are articles of limited demand, and the production compared with the amount of capital employed is very small.

JOHN ROACH.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. JOHN ROACH, of Chester, Pa., addressed the Commission as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: I come before you to state some facts that have fallen under my observation in the fifty years of my practical connection with our industrial interests. I have been identified with the iron interest in all its branches, from the digging of the ore in the mine to putting it into the varied forms and shapes of manufacture and machinery. To-day I employ 1,000 workmen in the city of New York, and 2,000 more men and boys, skilled and unskilled labor, in the ship-yard and iron-works at Chester, or 3,000 altogether. These, with their families, represent at least 12,000 people dependent on my employment for their support. My pay-roll is \$12,000 a week in New York and \$21,000 in Chester, or \$33,000 a week total. These men represent all nations, and are engaged in forty branches of mechanism. I am familiar with their condition now and with what it was before they came to this country, and the wonderful change that has taken place in that condition speaks volumes for the results of our policy of protection, which has made our land seem as a heaven on earth for the immigrants of the world; and I am familiar, too, with all the branches in which they are engaged. I am here, gentlemen, not to speak for any special branches of industry, but for all our industries. I have no special plea to make for ship-building. In what I shall say, drawn from practical experience, I represent myself alone, but myself as engaged in four of the principal interests affected by the tariff; namely, farming, manufacturing of iron, ship-building, and ship-owning. I believe in protection, not for a single industry, but for one and all, because I believe in the principle of protection.

What was the occasion for the creation of our present tariff laws? They were created to meet the emergencies of our civil war, to develop our country, and to elevate labor. How have they answered the purposes of their creation? To answer this question intelligently, we must see what was our condition in the early years of their operation, and what progress we have made under them. I ask your careful attention to the following striking facts.

What was our condition in 1865, at the close of the war? Our country was crippled, half of it largely devastated, a large part of the population of the conquered sections without employment, and a disbanded army of men in much the same unemployed state in the North. Our credit was largely impaired, our currency being worth only 70 cents on the dollar. We had before us, like a vast mountain, a national debt of \$2,680,000,000 to pay off. Starting with such disheartening conditions, what have we done under our tariff laws?

On that debt in the seventeen years since 1865 we have paid in inter-

est \$2,047,500,000, besides a premium on gold of \$409,500,000. Putting these figures in the form of a table we have this remarkable showing:

National debt, June 30, 1865.....	\$2,680,000,000
Interest paid on debt from June 30, 1865, to June 30, 1882.....	2,047,500,000
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A total amount of.....	4,727,500,000
Deduct total national debt, June 1, 1882.....	1,639,000,000
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And we have actually paid in the seventeen years.....	3,088,500,000
Add now to this the premium paid on gold in those years up to 1879, and we have.....	409,500,000
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Or a grand total payment of.....	3,498,000,000

Think of it; nearly 3,500,000,000 of indebtedness paid off since 1865, starting from an almost bankrupt condition as a nation. Then consider our State, county, and municipal debts that we have paid. If I were in a similar condition, I should like to have somebody take my property and bring it out for me in such shape as this; wouldn't you? No wonder the nations of the world that knew of our condition when the war was over have marveled at what we have done since then. For our achievements in nearly all directions have been equally great with our debt-paying. Our progress has been great almost beyond belief. Our manufactures have increased till in 1880 they reached the enormous sum of 8,000,000,000, while besides this we have every year imported manufactured goods—last year to the extent of \$300,000,000. And this does not take into account the equally marvelous development of our agricultural interests, the opening up of new territory, the vast extension of railroads, and such a general onward march of national enlargement and prosperity as the world never saw before. All this has been done under our wise tariff laws, under the true principles of protection for home industries. I ask the free-trader, the tariff-for-revenue man, and the croakers altogether, in view of the facts, if these tariff laws have not worked well for the country's interests. I ask them to say wherein they would have had them work better. I challenge them to show how we could have made such a record under free trade or a tariff for revenue.

To show with what apprehension English economists and manufacturers looked upon our progress under our tariff, read this testimony from British sources:

A. J. Wilson on "Resources of foreign countries."

There is no use in denying the plain fact that the States have succeeded by their high tariff policy in diverting a considerable part of the industrial energies of the community from the pursuits natural to, and most profitable in, a new country, to the highly artificial and, for America, mostly very expensive industries of long settled and civilized nations. Were the sheltering tariff swept away, it is very questionable if any, save a few special manufactures of certain kinds of tools, machinery, railway cars, and fancy goods, and a few of the cruder manufactures, could main their ground.

Annual Liverpool cotton circular.

Then this country has suffered very severely of late years from the increasing stringency of foreign tariffs. There has been a growing tendency evinced in most countries to protect their own industries, and in every such case we are the chief sufferers, for we live, as already said, by exchanging our manufactures for the necessaries of life. The United States was at one time a large customer for our ironware and textile fabrics, but the hostile tariff she has enforced since the civil war, has nearly driven us out of her markets, and has built up a vast system of manufactures which completely supplies her own wants, and leaves something to spare for competition with us in foreign markets. The free-traders of this country console themselves by thinking that she is the chief sufferer, but whether this be so or not (which is very doubtful)

the fact remains that her markets are almost lost to us, and we, on the other hand, are constantly more dependent upon her for food and raw material. For this we have no means of paying except by money or bonds, or indirectly by our credits with China, Brazil, and other countries, from which America imports tea, sugar, &c. Our colonies all follow in the wake of the United States, and do their best to stimulate their own manufactures by closing their markets against ours.

London cablegram to New York Tribune.

The announcement of the introduction of bills in the House of Representatives at Washington proposing the reduction of iron duties rouses the liveliest hopes among British manufacturers. Leading journals in the iron districts hail the prospect of once more arresting the present development in American iron and steel manufacture. The Newcastle Chronicle declares it has reason to entertain great hopes of the success of these measures. It considers the free admission of iron ore as intended to secure a Canadian supply, but it would result in increasing the ore imports from England and Spain. If free ore were secured free coal would necessarily follow, with a general increase in English exports. The Chronicle declares these measures to be the most important news cabled for a long time. The Economist says the effects upon the English iron trade would be enormous. It fears lest the proposals may be too favorable to English trade to have any chance of adoption.

Here, in these extracts, you have the honest views of men working in the interest of English capital and labor. Honest, because every step in this country towards withdrawing protection from American interests "rouses the liveliest hopes among British manufacturers." Why is that the case, may I ask you? Is it not, should a reduction of the tariff laws be effected to such an extent that Englishmen would "hail the prospect of once more arresting the present development" in American industries, that American capital would be supplanted with British, and the payment of remunerative wages to laborers with the starvation pittance of Great Britain? You have listened to long and able arguments on the part of free-traders, but wherein do their pleas differ from the foregoing expressions of Englishmen? Are they honest friends of American labor, or are they allies of foreign capital and labor?

I do not doubt, gentlemen, that with the change of our condition, modifications and changes in our tariff laws have become wise and necessary. To suggest those modifications is the duty laid upon you. I do not know of any commission of nine men that ever had imposed on them a duty more trying or a responsibility more grave. Upon what is done with our tariff laws depend the prosperity and advancement of our fifty millions of people. The just and right execution of your delicate and difficult task will entitle you to a nation's gratitude.

The system which you will perfect will put an end to all occasion or excuse for the continuance of the internal-revenue war taxation, which is not only a heavy burden upon the industries directly concerned in its operation, but paralyzes some of our most interesting and useful manufactures and diminishes by many millions our annual exportation to South American and other countries whose trade is naturally ours.

To call your attention now to the first of the four industries which I named, I want to speak briefly of my interest in the tariff as a farmer. I have for thirty years farmed 400 acres of land, and now farm 1,100 acres. It was studying the wonderful advantages the farmer derived from having the manufacturing industries developed at home that made me what I am to-day, a protectionist, believing in the protection of every great industry till it is developed to a point where it has an equal chance in competition in the world's markets, and believing that protection should not be limited to a tariff for revenue only, or anything short of what will elevate and protect American labor. As a farmer I had confidence in these forcible words of the great philosopher, Dr. Benjamin

Franklin, who, after his close observations in England in 1791, wrote from London to Hon. Humphrey Marshall, sr., as follows :

Every manufacture encouraged in our country makes a market for produce within ourselves, and saves us much money to the country that must otherwise be exported to pay for the manufacture supplied.

Here in England it is well known and understood that wherever a manufacture is established which employs a number of hands it raises the value of land in the neighboring country all around it, partly by the greater demand near at hand for the produce of the land, and partly from the plenty of money drawn by the manufacturer to that part of the country.

It seems, therefore, the interests of our farmers and owners of land to encourage our manufactures in preference to foreign ones imported among us from distant countries.

Here is a list of the working teams, cattle, and tools I use on a farm of 1,100 acres, 500 acres of it under cultivation—wheat, rye, oats, corn, and grass :

8 horses.....	\$1,600 00
3 yoke of cattle.....	480 00
3 ox carts.....	165 00
4 horse carts.....	200 00
4 farm wagons.....	300 00
1 market wagon.....	100 00
8 sets harness.....	320 00
4 sets cart harness.....	100 00
1 mowing machine.....	90 00
1 reaper.....	110 00
12 forks.....	10 00
12 shovels.....	9 50
6 spades.....	6 00
Lot of sundries.....	100 00
1 roller.....	40 00
Plows and harrows.....	125 00
1 thrashing machine.....	450 00
	4,205 00

If the tariff were entirely abolished the farmer would not think of importing his horses, oxen, mowing machines, reapers, thrashing machines, or farm wagons. Out of the above articles he would not import over \$1,300 worth.

Suppose these \$1,300 worth cost 40 per cent. more caused by our tariff; that would amount to \$520. All those articles are good for ten years, so that his entire burden on an 1,100-acre farm would be \$52 a year. Compare this with the advantage to him of having a home market. His neighbor, who makes these articles for him, pays him more for his product, his children and family are better fed, educated, and clothed than any people in the world engaged in the making of farm implements. The farmer, when he understands the benefit of protection, will be no longer deceived by the men who are preaching free trade to him.

And I believe, too, with Andrew Jackson, the hero of the Hermitage, when he says, "Build your factories and workshops close to your plantations and your farms, and you will confer inestimable and innumerable blessings on the whole of the American people by that policy." Do these words mean that we shall take the product raised in Tennessee to Great Britain, 3,500 miles from the plantation, to reach the factories? Or that we shall buy iron from the mines 3,000 to 4,000 miles away and leave the ore undeveloped in our own inexhaustible mountains? No, they mean that Jackson knew that by doing both the raising and developing and manufacturing at home we should confer inestimable bless-

ings on our people. He recognized God's plan in making men fit for a diversity of employments, and that if this nation were to become great it must furnish employment within itself for all these diversified gifts. This idea is the very bottom principle of protection. What has not this principle done for us? It has started all sorts of industries, to suit all kinds of genius found among our people.

When the charge is made, as it so often is, that protection is for the benefit of the few at the expense of the many, and that it makes the farmer pay more for the tools he uses and the clothes he wears in order to put profits into the full pockets of wealthy manufacturers and monopolists, I recall the wise words of Franklin and Jackson which I have quoted, and think there is another side of the question for the farmer to consider. I ask you, gentlemen, and I ask the farmers, to compare the different sections of our country, and see what was the result in those States that followed the idea of these statesmen, and then see the difference in those States that did not heed it.

Look at this farming question a moment. It is charged that the farmer suffers great extortion from the enormous prices he has to pay under the tariff for carrying on his farm.

I have calculated the implements and outfit necessary to carry on an 1,100-acre farm, and find the list to be as I have shown you.

This, then, is the burden I suffer under our tariff laws; and the average endurance of these implements is ten years.

But I have learned that to have a town within eight or ten miles of my farm, with factories employing any number of hands, increases largely the value of the land around the whole circle, as Franklin says. One of my farms is five miles south of Poughkeepsie, and six miles north of Wappinger's Falls. In each of these towns are some iron works, shoe factories, and cloth factories. Hence, no matter what the price of grain is in the foreign market, I can live, for I have a market at home. The perishable produce that could not be sent to a foreign market is sold at home for five times what it costs me to bear the tariff burden on my tools and clothing. How many farms all over the land are in the same condition. The farmer is largely dependent for his profits on the home market that is furnished by the industries which protection has enabled us to establish; and no man is more interested in the work of your Commission, and in the maintenance of a just and equitable tariff, than is the farmer. By the building of manufacturing towns all over our land, who can estimate the value that has been added to the farms of the nation?

A few facts now on the befogged question of monopoly. Where lies the monopoly? Consider these figures:

Our last year's imports were valued at	\$642,000,000
Of this amount the articles admitted free valued at	202,000,000
And those dutiable at	440,000,000

Now of the principal free articles, let us see what industries were mostly benefited.

Coffee.....	\$56,900,000
Hides.....	27,700,000
Chemicals.....	23,500,000
Ten.....	21,000,000
Rubber.....	11,000,000
Silk—raw, &c.....	12,000,000

Here is over 75 per cent. of our free imports, viz..... 152,100,000

And the manufacturers' small proportion of interest can be clearly seen. The only complaint would probably come from the silk-growers.

Our principal dutiable articles imported are:

Sugar.....	\$90,000,000
Wool.....	45,000,000
Iron and steel.....	51,000,000
Silk.....	32,000,000
Cotton.....	28,000,000
Flax.....	21,000,000
Tobacco.....	6,000,000
	<hr/>
	273,000,000

Here is over 60 per cent. of our dutiable imports, and of this protection who has the monopoly?

Directly, at least 50 per cent. is for the benefit of the agriculturist, and of the manufacturers' share, viz, 50 per cent. indirectly by increased demand and consumption near at hand, employment of labor, development of home interests, wealth and money circulation, we find 95 per cent. benefiting *all* other industries and fully 75 per cent. of which is a clear saving at home to our farmer for his wheat, corn, potatoes, vegetables, chickens, eggs, butter, milk, beef, fruits, &c., without loss of freight, uncertainty and delay by long transportation. Every cent turned over in business to your neighbor leaves a profit to you and conveys the same profit to him.

The farmer should reflect, too, on what would have been his condition had the whole burden of the national debt been thrown on him, as it must have been had not our manufacturing industries been developed under a protective tariff, and thus created a vast property to take its share of the debt burden, besides furnishing the farmer his home market

THE IRON INTEREST.

The iron interest is national, not sectional. To the three great wants of man, bread, clothing, and fuel, must be added a fourth—iron. Look at the condition of man before he had developed iron, and consider now the high degree to which this great industry has elevated him in supplying the other wants—bread, clothing, and fuel. What have the engine, the railroad, and machinery in its many thousand applications done towards the civilization of man? For centuries now iron has been an essential to civilization. The nation that makes no use of iron is a barbarous nation. The nation that cannot produce iron must forever be a weak and dependent nation, without the means of self-defense.

England early recognized the innumerable uses and advantages of iron, and earliest developed her iron interest. She is as far ahead of the other nations in her iron and coal interests as we are in breadstuffs and cotton. Her resources in iron and coal, and the wise use she has made of them, are what have made England the richest nation and the greatest manufacturing nation of the world.

This fact must not be lost sight of, that iron, being one of the necessities to man and nations, like bread and cotton, is something for which no nation can afford to be dependent upon another nation. The nation that produces the iron will inevitably be the greater, and able to control the other. Let us see how iron is distributed and developed among the important nations and the power it confers. From the Annual Report of the Iron, Steel, and Allied Trades of Great Britain to the British Iron Trade Association in 1880 these statistics are taken:

Production of pig iron in principal countries in 1880.

	Tons.
Great Britain.....	7,721,833
United States.....	4,295,414
Prussia.....	1,950,000
France.....	1,733,102
Belgium.....	610,000
Total.....	16,310,349

Thus it will be seen that England alone produced nearly one-half of the total of these five countries, while England and the United States together produced 12,017,247 tons, or three-fourths of the whole. Could we afford to let England's production increase and ours decrease till we, with the rest, should be so almost wholly dependent upon her?

I firmly believe that were it not for iron, and the use we have made of it, you could not hold this immense territory known as the United States under one central government. Then our brethren beyond the Rocky Mountains would have to sail round Cape Horn, 15,000 miles, to come to make laws for the nation, or down the Pacific Ocean, crossing the Isthmus of Panama, again reshipping at Aspinwall to New York. All of our patriotism, love of country, even the influences of the Christian religion, could not control this vast territory under one central government. Our brethren would say we cannot suffer this great inconvenience. We must have a government of our own. With all the great natural advantages of this country, if this resource of iron had been withheld, would we not be apt to cry that the Great Father of the Universe made a mistake in not giving iron to develop the other resources? And when we have the iron, shall we now leave it in the mine undeveloped, and depend on foreigners to supply a material of so vast importance to us, and with no other reason to give, only that we refuse to degrade and crush labor?

There can be but one answer. We must continue to give iron the protection needed to develop the vast resources as yet untouched in the mine. Why, this interest in this country to-day gives employment to one-sixth of our actual working population.

Much is said about "monopoly" in connection with this interest. Indeed, it is called the "father of monopolies." I have been engaged in this interest more extensively, perhaps, than in any other, and I want to find out—for I never could yet—where the monopoly is. In 1880 we imported \$80,483,365 worth of iron and steel, showing that we required that much more than we could produce. Yet capital was perfectly free to go into the production of iron. Why was not the capital found to supply from our own mines and furnaces that \$80,000,000 worth? Moreover, in the ten years from 1870 to 1880 we imported \$430,223,753 worth. Why did we not find capital to produce that supply at home? As a practical iron manufacturer I will show you why. There were three difficulties in the way:

1. *Transportation.*—I have obtained maps of England, Scotland, and Wales, showing the principal iron, coal, and limestone deposits; the iron centers, Ayrshire, Lanarkshire, Cleveland, Cumberland, Staffordshire, and South Wales, and their location and distance to market. These maps show that Great Britain has the ore, coal, and limestone, of which iron is made, in greater abundance within a smaller space than any other nation. Hence she possesses an advantage of location which renders it impossible for other nations to compete with her in the iron industry without protection.

To illustrate what an advantage this alone gives: As these maps show,

the average distance in England, Scotland, and Wales from the place where the coal, ore, and limestone are found to the place where the furnaces are located is from 5 to 10 miles in the Scotch and 8 to 10 miles in the English and Welsh districts. The average distance from the furnaces where the ore is made into pig iron to the home market for consumption, or to the seaboard, is 10 miles. It takes $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons of ore, $1\frac{1}{2}$ tons of coal, and 1 ton of limestone, or 5 tons of raw material, to make 1 ton of pig iron. The average cost in England, Scotland, and Wales of getting this raw material to the furnaces is only 2 shillings a ton of their money, or 50 cents of ours. The cost of transporting the ton of pig iron to the home market or seaboard for shipment is only 50 cents more, or a total transportation cost of \$3, while the cost of shipment to this country is 30 per cent. less from Glasgow to New York than it is from Pittsburgh to New York, the one being by water, the other by rail, and the iron very often being taken by the ship as ballast.

How is it in the United States? The average cost of getting the coal, ore, and limestone—all of which we have in abundance—from where they are found to the furnace is \$2 a ton, or \$10 for first transportation alone, besides the higher cost of labor for mining the ore. To get the ton of pig to the market costs \$1.50 more, or a total transportation cost of \$11.50 against Great Britain's \$3—a difference against us of \$8.50 a ton. It will be seen that this difference in the haul alone in the two countries is more than the \$7 per ton duty now given as protection to pig iron. These facts, deduced from official statistics, cannot be questioned.

I appeal to you, gentlemen, as though I were talking to nine capitalists who were discussing whether they should invest capital in the iron business. If these statements are correct, would you be prepared to put your capital into the iron interest under these conditions?

It is true there are sections of our country where to some extent we have coal and iron ore almost as conveniently located as they are in England, but as yet those sections are undeveloped, are without railroads to make them available to market, and therefore are at present out of the consideration. Thus I have given you difficulty number one, explaining why we imported \$80,000,000 worth of iron in 1880 under the tariff laws, and \$430,000,000 in the 10 years, 95 per cent. of all this being paid to foreign labor.

2. *Labor*.—I am now going to tell you some stubborn facts which I have experienced the last year. In company with some friends I have just completed the construction of a modern blast-furnace at a cost of over \$250,000. Everything that could be done in the compression and reduction of labor was done, and probably there is not a blast-furnace in the world to-day that can produce pig iron with fewer hours and labor per ton. But what is this furnace composed of? Iron, stone, and brick. Take the iron, and what shape was it in when I began the enterprise? Ore in the mine. Where lay the stone? A coarse rock in the quarry. What were the bricks? Clay. You know, gentlemen, the value of clay when you begin to make brick out of it. This ore, rock, and clay, before labor was put into it, was not over 5 per cent. of the furnace's cost. The balance that made up the cost was labor. In England, France, and Germany the cost of this labor is 60 per cent. less than in this country. Hence the furnace built in those countries would cost 60 per cent. less, making the cost of a furnace there \$150,000, while mine cost \$250,000. I shall not go further into the details of the labor question here, but this is the greatest difficulty of all, and this it is that demands protection.

3. *Interest.*—In the sections of the United States that have yet to be developed in their iron interest—as Virginia, Alabama, North Carolina, Tennessee—and in the partially developed States of Pennsylvania and Ohio, the cost of capital would average 8 per cent., or \$20,000 a year on the \$250,000; while in England, France, and Germany it would be only 3½ per cent., or \$5,250 on the \$150,000—a difference in favor of the foreign iron manufacturer of \$14,750 every year against the American enterprise so long as it existed. This is difficulty number three, explaining why we imported \$80,000,000 worth of pig iron in 1880 under our tariff laws, and \$430,000,000 worth in the ten years named. The same difficulties would exist in the case of the woolen mill and all other factories as to cost and labor, high interest and high taxation.

I have thus briefly alluded to three difficulties. These are by no means all we have to contend with. There was another great difficulty that lay in the way of our iron industry's development. It consisted of the great workshops and the vast, long-established iron industry of another people, the English. And yet beyond this, to trouble and frighten away capital, was the constant hue and cry kept up—chiefly by a class having no interest in American development, nor in anything but selling the goods of foreign nations over the counter—in regard to tariff legislation. This kept capital in an unsettled condition, signally disastrous to investment. Yet in spite of all this, American enterprise could not be crushed, and to show you what we succeeded in accomplishing under so unfavorable conditions of competition, I call your attention now to a few figures of iron production:

	Tons.
In 1870 we took from the mines—	
Of ore	3,655,215
To smelt this into pig iron required—	
Of limestone	1,500,000
Of coal	4,500,000
Of coke	1,000,000
	<hr/>
Thus making of transportation more than	10,655,215

In the next ten years to 1880 these figures had doubled.

	Tons.
Thus, in 1880 we took from the mines—	
Of ore	7,709,708
To smelt this into pig iron required—	
Of limestone	3,169,149
Of coal	8,981,553
Of coke	2,277,555

An increase of 98 per cent., making of transportation a total of above 22,000,000 tons furnished merely to change the ore into pig. Have the men engaged in transportation no interest in this?

Shall we leave these 22,000,000 tons of ore, coal, and limestone buried in our own soil, and encourage their development in a foreign land, simply because labor is cheaper, and consequently productions of all kinds cheaper? Will any one say what the effect would be to this nation of drawing each year from our financial resources and sending it abroad to purchase our annual iron supply? Would not this increase the cost of iron in the country we purchase it from?

Shall this transportation, shown to be so immense, be done in this country or in a foreign one? And what would be the loss to our inland carrying trade if this vast freightage from the mine to the furnace were shut off?

Besides, this is only the first freightage; made into pig and into

various forms and shapes, it is then distributed into all parts of the land, to be worked up into all forms for use. So it furnishes transportation again and again until it reaches the merchant's counter. Remember this transportation is labor as well as the rest.

These 7,709,708 tons of material, which were worth but thirty cents a ton in the mine, were increased in value to \$100,557,685 when it had merely been made into iron and steel billets and muck bars.

The value it would attain when worked up into all the conceivable forms for use, from the plow to the knife-blade, from the ax to the surgeon's lancet, and from the ship-plate to the watch-spring, cannot be estimated. But what has been applied to create this value? Labor; nothing but labor.

Now, will the free-trader compute for us the value of this in dollars when worked into all the shapes we use it in; the number of men in all the mechanical trades who draw their support in this country from working up this pig into its various forms and values? Then let him consider the families dependent upon these mechanics and laborers, and tell us what is to become of them if iron and its products are purchased abroad. The principle is the same with many of the other industries. Nothing but labor has increased the value of the iron, from the ore up, and this labor is cheaper in foreign countries; so that, if ore can be converted into iron at less cost, so can all other things that are to be made of that iron. So it all comes back to the bottom question: Will you degrade American labor or will you protect it?

The application of labor to our natural resources is the source of our wealth and prosperity. By the development of these resources, and the providing of our people at home with the manufactured goods they need, how many thousands of towns and cities have been built up from the swamp where the scrub-oak grew to what they are to-day. To the extent we apply this labor we get rich; when we cease to apply it we get poor. Our real wealth lies in the savings, or profits, of this labor.

To dispose of the charge that the protective tariff raises and keeps up prices, and to show that in fact the competition made possible by the tariff reduces the cost, I will give some figures relating to ship iron and steel rails.

COST OF IRON, 1850 TO 1881.

Figures taken from New York prices show that the average price per pound of ship or tank iron from 1850 to 1860, years when we had a low tariff, was:

For ship or tank plate, 4 cents; for flange iron, 5 cents; for angle iron, 3½ cents; for rivets, 5 cents: average of the four classes of iron, 4½ cents.

From 1870 to 1880, years of a high tariff, the iron products of this country increased about 100 per cent. In those years it would be supposed that the increased demand would create an increased price; yet, though wages were higher by 20 per cent. between 1870 and 1880 than between 1850 and 1860, the price of iron was reduced under our high tariff by 25 per cent. This is a positive proof that to have cheap iron we must depend not upon a foreign market, but upon the competition, energy, and enterprise of our own people.

As proof of what I have just said, allow me again to refer to figures taken from official records, which show that from 1870 to 1881 average prices were as follows: Ship or tank plates, 2½ cents; flange iron, 4 cents; angle iron, 2½ cents; rivets, 4½ cents: average of the four classes of iron, 3½ cents, or 25 per cent. less than in 1850 and 1860.

THE GREAT STEEL-RAIL MONOPOLY.

The following shows the price, in sterling and in dollars, free on board, in British ports, of steel rails, from 1863 to 1875, per ton of 2,240 pounds, compiled by Mr. H. V. Poor, of New York:

Year.	£.	s.	Equals.
1863	18	9	\$89 79
1864	17	12	85 65
1865	16	7	79 56
1866	14	10	70 56
1867	13	10	65 70
1868	12	12	61 32
1869	11	6	54 99
1870	10	7	50 37
1871	11	6	54 99
1872	13	18	67 54
1873	16	9	80 05
1874	13	2	68 75
1875	9	2	44 28

Add to the above premium on gold.

Net tons of Bessemer-steel rails produced in the United States from 1867 to 1880, inclusive: 1867, 2,550; 1868, 7,225; 1869, 9,650; 1870, 34,000; 1871, 38,250; 1872, 94,070; 1873, 129,015; 1874, 144,944; 1875, 290,863; 1876, 412,461; 1877, 432,169; 1878, 550,398; 1879, 683,964; 1880, 954,460.

At a valuation of \$65 per ton, this would amount to \$245,961,235. Ninety per cent. of this enormous sum was paid to American labor.

And here comes in the significant fact that before steel rails were made in America those purchased in England for American use were costing \$80 per ton gold, or 30 per cent. more than they are sold for now in America. Who, then, had the monopoly? No one then heard about this great monopoly. When we were sending the gold out of the country, giving employment to foreign labor and allowing our own labor to go idle, was this policy in the interest of this country or of England? We never hear of monopoly in this country until we begin to supply our own wants and cease buying in England. That is what a policy of protection has done for us in regard to steel rails. //

THE LOCOMOTIVE.

Now I want to call your attention briefly to what we have done in building the locomotive. That will show the development of another American industry. Fifty years ago we imported a locomotive engine from England as a sample. I made an examination some time since as to the number of locomotives now in the United States, the cost of their construction, and how it compares with the cost of construction in other countries. The number of locomotives in use in this country January 1, 1879, was estimated at 16,445, valued at \$164,450,000. The number of cars in use, not including palace-cars, was estimated low at 498,000, which would cost at least \$600,000,000, making the value of locomotives and cars together \$764,450,000. Besides, as much as one-tenth of the total now running must have been rebuilt, say five times since 1830, at a cost of \$382,225,000, making a grand total of \$1,146,675,000, which is more than England has invested in ships. But besides this, we have built locomotives for export to all parts of the world, owing to the recognized superiority of the American locomotive.

The Baldwin Locomotive Works alone sent out of the country from 1870 to 1880 over 520 locomotives, 152 of them to English colonies; and

of all the locomotives used in the English colonies from 95 to 98 per cent. were built in the United States.

Estimating what other shops have done, we have exported since 1870 \$20,000,000 worth of locomotives and double that amount of cars.

We have, then, succeeded in building locomotives of such quality and such prices that we have taken England's locomotive business away from her in her own colonies. Is there any reason why, when our ship-building shall be equally encouraged and developed by extending our trade and making a demand for it, we should not build ships for those countries which have not the resources to build them for themselves?

But then we are told that while we can build the locomotive and the car we cannot build the ship, though that is built out of the same material and from the same forest and mine, and though the labor required to convert 100 tons of pig-iron into locomotives is much greater than it is in the finished ship, and just as high-priced. But we had a policy for building the locomotive, by finding a use for it, and you see the result.

THE SHIPPING QUESTION.

III. As for ship-building and ship owning, though they properly come under consideration in connection with the tariff, I will not ask your time now for them, but will submit in separate form, should the Commission desire, what I wish to say on those vitally important subjects, interwoven as they are with nearly all branches of industry.

To show you how intimate and extensive is this connection, I call your notice to the following list of articles required to carry out the contracts I had on hand between January 1, 1880, and January 1, 1882. The list may be a revelation to some of you in regard to what is required in the outfit of a steamship, which is in reality a floating hotel. It will also show what a blow is aimed at our varied industries by the "free-ship" bill so regularly introduced into Congress. Free ships, gentlemen, would do absolutely nothing to revive American ship-owning, but they would be a serious blow to the protective principle. Following is the list:

Pig-iron, 3,450 tons.....	\$86,250 00	
Manufactured iron, plates, angles, bars, rivets, forgings, &c., 47,824,000 pounds.....	1,673,840 00	
Copper, 805,000 pounds.....	193,200 00	
Lead, 127,500 pounds.....	8,925 00	
Lumber, 6,750,000 feet.....	305,000 00	
Coal, 18,000 tons.....	90,000 00	
		\$2,357 215 00
Anchors.....	9,780 96	
Chains.....	22,968 42	
Boats.....	16,650 00	
Life-rafts.....	6,660 00	
Steam-windlasses.....	30,200 00	
Capstans, steam and hand.....	8,200 00	
Life-preservers.....	8,670 00	
Hose.....	4,265 00	
Fire-buckets.....	1,977 00	
Axes.....	300 00	
Deck-lines.....	14,736 80	
Lamps and lanterns.....	16,800 00	
Nautical instruments.....	6,425 00	
Flags.....	4,200 00	
Rigging-wire, manila, and blocks.....	23,900 00	
Sails and awnings.....	21,600 00	
Canvas for decks.....	12,850 00	
Plumbing and brassing.....	43,500 00	
Steam-pumps.....	27,800 00	
Steam-gauges.....	3,300 00	
Upholstery, bedding, linen, &c.....	91,592 64	

Carpets.....	\$31,516 60	
Silverware.....	24,707 40	
Stoves and kitchen and cooking utensils.....	17,809 60	
Crockery and glassware.....	11,606 41	
Gas and steam pipe and fittings.....	28,000 00	
Hoisting-engines.....	35,600 00	
Spars for masts.....	12,500 00	
Paints and oils.....	65,000 00	
Joiners' hardware, locks, screws, &c.....	16,700 00	
Covering for boilers, pipes, &c.....	18,000 00	
Engineers' tools and instruments.....	9,000 00	
Drawing-paper, tracing-cloth, &c.....	3,500 00	
Cabin and state-room furniture, chairs, tables, brushes, pails, baskets, cuspidors, &c.....	15,675 00	
Glass for side-lights and windows.....	5,860 00	
Porcelain and glass name-plates.....	2,500 00	
		\$674,350 83
Total amount.....		3,031,565 83

THE RAW-MATERIAL FALLACY.

IV. But before I close I must say a few words about the matter of raw material. Many a man, looking only at his own little interest, demands raw material free, wholly regardless of the equal right to protection of the labor and capital engaged in producing that raw material. The narrow-minded and one-sided policy of the men who cry out for raw material duty free was well illustrated in the last Congress by a few ship-builders who urged the Committee on Ways and Means to report a bill to allow them to import the iron for ships duty free. The average cost of the iron used in the construction of an iron ship (as the forged keel, the stern stem, port rudder, angles and plates) would be $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound in America. This was worth in the coal and ore in the mine not over 5 per cent. of the $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents. The cost of the iron hull to the ship-builder would be 6 cents per pound, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound for his labor to complete the ship. Thus the labor, from the miner to the man who made the plates, rivets, and bars, was more by 1 cent a pound than the labor expended by the ship-builder, and the ship was more than half built, in the way of preparation of the material, before the ship-builder touched her. "Yet give me free trade," cries the ship-builder, "on all this material brought up to the point where it suits my use, and let all the other branches of industry, that have capital and labor engaged in building more of the ship than I do, fight out the battle of free trade with men who have cheaper capital and labor." And then, in addition to all this, the ship-builder demands protection for himself on the finished ship. Is this just?

It is not even sensible. For the ship-builder should see that he cannot pay the freight, the commission, and insurance on this material to bring it 3,800 miles, besides paying the advance of 40 per cent. for his labor on the part of the work he performs, and compete with the man who builds the ship in England, having his ship-yard alongside the mines.

Then, if by such a policy he closes up our iron works, as he certainly must, what guarantee has he that the English manufacturer will not put up the price on him? It is certain that such would be the result, for the figures show that the amount of iron produced by this country and required in this market has regulated its price in England as closely as the thermometer mercury follows the changes in the temperature. And it is proof enough of the fact that the raw material that enters into the iron ship is cheaper in this country to-day than it was in England two years ago. We should not lose sight of the important fact

that England and America are the two great iron-producing countries, and that if we stop producing we become dependent upon England, and throw a monopoly into her hands that may and will be turned against ourselves. We are the greatest consumers of iron, and as a nation in that condition, with unlimited resources for its home production, we should be indeed lunatics to become dependent upon any other nation for this or any other essential product. We must protect one and all justly and equitably, reducing the tariff where it is too high, maintaining it where required, favoring no special industry or class, and so fitting protection to the needs of all our industries and manufactures that it shall equally protect all.

Gentlemen of the Commission, there is another point that I wish to call your attention to: that is, the theory that a tariff for revenue only would be ample protection for American capital and labor.

The value of manufactured goods made in this country last year was.....	\$8,000,000,000
The amount imported was	600,000,000
	<hr/>
	8,600,000,000
We exported (about).....	50,000,000
	<hr/>
Total of home consumption.....	8,550,000,000

The best English and American authorities think that with the high rates of interest on capital and our high-priced labor only a few of our industries could be kept in operation. For the sake of argument I will say that these few industries thus kept in existence would manufacture one-sixth of our total consumption, which would be \$1,425,000,000, leaving to be purchased abroad \$1,425,000,000.

Now, the advocate of a "tariff for revenue only" claims that only \$350,000,000 are needed for the expenses of this government, including interest on the national debt. This would give our manufacturers a protection of less than 4 per cent., while the labor on manufactured goods is 70 per cent. of the cost. The interest on his plant is 3½ per cent. more than in Europe. With such a revenue law (one for revenue only), how long would American factories remain in operation unless the rate of labor and interest on capital is reduced to the European standard.

One more fact, gentlemen, I want to call your attention to: that in the years from 1870 to 1880, inclusive, there were imported into the United States, as per official figures, iron, steel, and tin plates, \$430,223,763, or an average of, say, \$43,000,000 a year. This amount of iron and steel was needed for consumption here, and you will remember that from the mine to the form in which it is received here 90 per cent. of its value is labor. We have, then, been giving during that period to the development of foreign countries and the payment of foreign labor the enormous amount of over \$386,000,000.

What is saved from the cost of producing after man is sustained is what builds up towns and cities. How many churches, school-houses, and private dwellings more than we now have should we own if all this \$430,000,000 worth of iron were made at home? Was there anything to prevent those men who are continually crying "monopoly!" from becoming iron-makers?

But there is no end to the many devices resorted to to break up and destroy the effects of the wonderful strides we have made in developing the resources of our country and supplying our own wants.

The schemes of these tariff-for-revenue men are not fully understood. Many of our best citizens are deceived by the plausible way in which they are put.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October* 16, 1882.

Mr. ROACH, again addressed the Commission as follows :

I have closely observed the account of the proceedings of the Commission as it has been through different sections of the country where it has held its meetings; but I have nowhere noticed that ship-building, or the ship-owning interest, has been presented to you. Before you conclude the taking of testimony, which you are about to do, I have thought it proper to appear before you and say a few words in regard to these interests. When I was in New York before you in regard to another subject, I was asked to answer the following questions: "First. It is often urged, and indeed several speakers in the House of Commons last spring urged in the debate on the Ritchie resolution for the appointment of a tariff commission to investigate the effect of tariff legislation of other countries upon Great Britain; that the decline of American shipping was almost wholly due to the American theory of protection. Will you kindly explain the several reasons for this decline?" The second question was, "What effect has the passage of sections 2513 and 2514, admitting certain classes of raw materials for the purpose of enabling our ship-builders to build ships to more advantage for engaging in foreign trade, had on the building up of the merchant marine?"

In answer to your first question, gentlemen, I will endeavor to show you, that the decline of American shipping was neither almost wholly nor in any part whatever due to the American theory of protection; that, so far from that being true, the decline was largely due to the absence, in the case of the ship engaged in the foreign carrying trade, of that protection which we gave to our factories and other industries on the land.

To show this I must give you the true reasons for the decline. To find these reasons we must search our history as a ship-building and ship-owning nation.

In doing this, briefly as may be, we must clearly recognize the fact that from the first we have had to compete with a nation whose ambition for two hundred years and more has been to be mistress of the sea; that has jealously watched every step of our marine progress with an interest far keener than that displayed by our own people, and that has sought by war and diplomacy to prevent us from successfully rivaling her on the ocean. This subject cannot be intelligently considered without taking into the account England's shipping interest and policy.

In considering the causes of decline, let us take three periods, namely: 1. The period before our civil war; 2. The period of civil war; and 3. The period since the war.

The first of these was the period of our greatest growth; and also of the beginning of our decline, owing to two causes—the adoption of a policy of subsidy by England; and the revolution from sail to steam, from wood to iron.

It is charged that the decline of American shipping was due to protection. To offset this, the first fact we meet with in our marine history is this: American shipping had its birth in protection. This nation began as a ship-building and ship-owning nation, because it began by protecting ship-building and ship-owning. The result of the protective shipping laws was wonderful from the very start. From 1789 to 1812 our tonnage increased from 280,000 to 1,100,000, or 400 per cent., while England's increased only from 1,500,000 to 2,000,000, or 25 per cent. The danger of our rivalry was immediately recognized. To check our

progress England tried every means. The record will show you how she captured 1,660 of our ships in time of peace, and impressed 6,000 of our seamen under a pretence, in order to cripple our marine; and how it ended by forcing us into war—for the war of 1812 was nothing less than war waged by her upon our growing shipping. But we won it, established our rights on the seas, and continued our growth. There is not an instance where any nation has ever made such progress as we made between 1814 and 1840 under our protective laws. In 1827, thirteen years after the war, our tonnage in the foreign trade increased over 300 per cent., while England, in the same time, increased only about 50 per cent.; and no better illustration of England's alarm can be given than to quote the following editorial from the London Times of May, 1827:

It is not our habit to sound the tocsin on light occasions, but we conceive it to be impossible to view the existing state of things in this country without more than apprehension and alarm. Twelve years of peace, and what is the situation of Great Britain? The shipping interest, the cradle of our navy, is half ruined. Our commercial monopoly exists no longer, and thousands of our manufacturers are starving or seeking redemption in distant lands. We have closed the Western Indies against America from feelings of commercial rivalry. Its active seamen have already engrossed an important branch of our carrying trade to the East Indies. Her starred flag is now conspicuous on every sea, and will soon defy our thunder.

Things went from bad to worse in England. While ship-building was carried on by us with ceaseless activity, it decreased in England from 1,719 ships of 205,000 tons in 1826 to 1,039 of 103,031 tons in 1831. Our traders were now in every sea and fast monopolizing the carrying trade. From 1827 to 1840 we kept on rapidly gaining. Up to this time we certainly had not declined under protection. We were possessed by a spirit of self-reliance that we need to-day, and could not trust our rival.

By 1837 England became convinced that she could not successfully compete with our fast clipper ships. Something must be done to secure her control of the foreign markets and maintain her maritime supremacy. She had tried war and we met her there. Now came a new instrument and a new policy. The first was the iron steamship. The superiority of iron over wood, of steam over sail, was speedily recognized. After all her costly efforts, after spending millions in war, England found that her hold on the carrying trade was only to be maintained by building her own ships swifter and safer than any other ships, and placing them on the ocean. As her iron and coal were more developed than those of any other nation, iron and coal were cheaper with her, and within easy transportation to her ship-yards. Her statesmen saw that with a powerful fleet of swift iron steamers England could run away from the wooden sailing ships, secure the world's mails, passengers, and first-class freights, and far more than regain what she had lost on the ocean. Such a fleet must be built, and at once.

But how? To construct an iron fleet required rolling-mills, engine-works, extensive yards. To bring these into existence there must be an outlay of millions of capital. The wooden-ship builders could not meet these new and expensive requirements, nor were private capitalists willing to invest the vast sums of money requisite. The statesmen recognized this difficulty, but they were not disposed to be penny-wise, pound-foolish, in a matter of great national concern. The British Government, therefore, gave contracts to private ship-yards to build iron steam-vessels for her navy. By this means the private builders were enabled to establish the great ship-yards which have realized for England all that was hoped from them. And in addition to furnishing so liberal direct encouragement at the outset of her iron-ship building,

England has continued to encourage the builder by having 75 per cent. of her naval ships and engines constructed in the private yards. What would our statesmen say to a proposition that our government follow such an example of encouragement as this? Yet, what was the result? By holding to her policy England made nearly all the other nations dependent upon her private workshops for their ships, naval and marine, thus draining them of their gold, giving employment to thousands of her own workmen, and getting back many hundred fold in trade and freight money the sums expended to maintain and extend her control on the ocean.

This was only one part of England's new policy. The second was subsidy. Her statesmen knew that to build up a fleet of iron steamships such as they wanted, it was not only necessary to have the resources and facilities, but also to find profitable employment for the ships when built. Their policy worked to their own interest in two ways. By establishing swift mail steamship lines they opened up new markets to their merchants; and the opening of these markets increased the demand for steamships. Hence in 1837 she made a mail contract, and began a policy of straight-out subsidy, though you will find men in this country to-day who claim that England never did anything in the way of subsidy. Samuel Cunard offered, in 1840, to build a line of mail steamships for the North Atlantic, and his offer was at once accepted. In 1840 he had four 1,200-ton wooden side-wheel steamers, 228 feet long over all, 34 feet beam, 28-foot deep paddle-wheels, and beam engines. The names of the four ships were Columbia, Britannia, Acadia, and Caledonia. Their speed was nine knots in favorable circumstances. It would not cost to build them more \$200,000 each, making a total cost of \$800,000 on these vessels; yet Mr. Cunard got his contract of \$413,000 (\$16,000 per round trip) the first year, and this was increased to \$550,000 the next year, or 70 per cent. per annum on the whole cost of the ships.

This was a subsidy, pure and simple, given to Mr. Cunard to enable him to establish and maintain his line, and increased that he might run his line not only without loss but at a profit. Without it, does any one believe the line would have ever been started? This liberal subsidy was increased to \$705,666 in 1846, when two more ships were put on, and still remaining at 70 per cent. on the whole capital invested. This gave the company a liberal margin to use as a "fighting fund" to cut rates against the American clippers; even this was much cheaper than England's war experiment of 1812.

In 1840, also, the Oriental Steamship Company to the East Indies, China, and Japan was established, under a postal contract for a monthly service, and received the first year \$1,121,500, which sum was increased in 1841 to \$2,243,000 for a semi-monthly service.

In 1850 the Royal Mail Steamship Company established a postal service to the West Indies and Brazil under contract with the government, and received therefor \$1,350,000 per annum for ten years. The same year the Pacific Steam Navigation Company established a line to the west coast of South America, under a contract with the government, receiving for a monthly service \$225,000 per annum. Now, add to this the \$705,666 paid to the Cunard Company, and you find a sum total of \$4,523,666 per annum paid for postal service on four lines to foreign countries.

This policy has been continued steadily to the present time, and we find this significant fact, that England, with cheap capital, cheap labor, and less taxation than any other country in the world, and with iron

ship-building more advanced than any other nation, paid from 1837 to 1880 two hundred and twenty-two millions of dollars for mail service on the ocean to encourage English capital and aid them to drive the ships of other nations out of the trade. This was cheaper and more effectual than her war policy.

These were two causes of our decline that began to operate before our civil war. We made a spasmodic effort to meet the policy of government mail compensation, but gave it up after trial under unfavorable conditions and against the protest of American statesmen, as witness the following:

Mr. Polk, in debate in Congress upon a grant of fair compensation to the Collins line, said:

It is strange, sir, that men who are presumed to embody the wisdom of the land should have to be reminded that they are pandering to British power—that they are forgetting American interest, and losing sight of that greatness and grandeur which attaches to this American government. I stand upon the floor of the American Congress and find men who are willing to measure our greatness by the circumference of a dollar—a dollar, sir—measure American prosperity, American greatness by a round dollar, and thus pander to British interests, to bow the pliant knee and say to the power that assailed us at Lexington, that flashed the first guns from Bunker Hill, that fought us upon sea and land in 1812, that has been jealous of our prosperity and greatness ever since—"Good mother, won't you carry our mails for us?" Why, sir, I scorn, I despise this anti-American feeling and sentiment. The men who stand battling upon these principles are behind the age. They are behind the progress of their country, they know nothing of its power or its influence, and are contributing to a combination of foreign policy designed to overslaugh us.

Never were there truer words, or fuller of foresight, and just such men as then fought for British interests find their allies and representatives to-day in our country, crying out for free trade and free ships:

Mr. Bayard, the father of the present Senator, said in 1852, while advocating justice to the Collins line:

I am willing to trust American skill and industry in competition with any people on the globe, when they stand nation to nation, without government interference. But if the treasury of a foreign nation is poured into the lap of individuals for the purpose of destroying the interests of my country, or for building up a commercial marine at the expense of the commerce and prosperity of the United States, I, for one, will count no cost in countervailing such governmental action on the part of Great Britain or any foreign power.

It has been objected that these grants create a monopoly. * * * If the argument be true, I ask you if it does not apply to the transportation of your mails by land. * * * Then the whole government action is a series of monopolies as regards the "post-office service."

He then argued that it was not monopoly, but American competition against British monopoly.

Will you adopt a policy which will place the entire transportation of your mails under their (British) control; which will put into their hands the transportation of passengers; which will lay a tax on American citizens for the advancement of British commerce, their freights, &c.? Such may be the judgment of the honorable Senator, but it is not mine, and I trust it will not be that of the American Senate.

The mail service in this and in all countries *on land* is a government duty, and with all great maritime nations which have the power to control that service on the ocean it is as much a government duty, where their extensive commerce is concerned, as is on land the proper transportation of correspondence. The mail service with foreign countries, on any principle that I can appreciate, is as much a governmental duty, and demands as much the expenditure and the attention of the government, as transportation of correspondence in the interior of the country.

Just this thing of placing our mails under British and foreign control has come to pass, and these views were as prophetic as they are sound. They commend themselves to all citizens, in and out of Congress, who love their own country first and best.

Lewis Cass said in the Senate, on the same subject:

Well, sir, it is a question of protection—of high and important and holy protection—in the best sense of the term; the protection of our country, of our expatriated seamen, of our commerce, of our interests, of our honor, of our soil, of all that gives dignity and character to nations; protection against defeat, disgrace, and dishonor on the sea. This kind of protection to our commerce is as effectual as the protection afforded by expensive naval armaments.

I commend these views of our earlier statesmen to your consideration. They are applicable to-day with even more force than originally, in view of our growth in commerce, our decline in carrying, and the demands of our future.

It requires millions of capital to start large steamship lines on the ocean. Capitalists of all nations, before investing in the business, are looking to the competition they are likely to meet. In 1867 England notified the capitalists of the world of the competition they might expect in any effort for the ocean carrying trade. The experiment was tried by French capital, backed by the French Government, but failed through England's policy.

The Oriental Steamship Company (English) owned 37 ships and had a subsidy for mail service amounting to \$2,250,000 a year, or 12 per cent. on their whole capital, but this was not sufficient to meet the French opposition. The company decided to withdraw their fleet and surrender the trade to France. The English Government at once ordered a commission to investigate the affairs of the company. This commission reported that to make the company's business pay a guarantee must be given to pay them 8 per cent. during the French opposition. The great line was saved and the company's ships kept in commission. This was a notice to the capitalists of the world that the English treasury was at the back of her ocean carrying. What had American protection to do with this blow struck at us?

England's new policy did not at once strikingly affect our shipping progress. But it did do a most important thing: it laid the foundation which enabled England to seize the opportunity that came not many years afterward, through our war. But for that opportunity we, with the great capital involved, would never have allowed England to run us out on the ocean.

The growth of our tonnage continued. In 1850 we had a tonnage of 3,335,454, an increase of over 200 per cent. since 1815. Our coasting trade, from which foreign ships were excluded, employed 1,900,000 tons of shipping, an increase of nearly 400 per cent. in the same period. Our tonnage increased to 5,350,000 in 1860, and of our total foreign trade \$437,190,000 was carried in American bottoms, against \$160,057,000 in foreign ships. It must be borne in mind, however, that our growth was almost wholly in the wooden sailing ship, while England's was in the improved iron steamship. But up to this time, in face of a persistent policy to break us down, had not protection served us well?

In 1860, through her policy of encouraging the building of an iron steam fleet, and of paying remunerative wages for ocean service, England had 156 ocean steamers, of 210,000 tons, engaged in the carrying trade. The United States, through our failure to meet England in this wise and peaceful policy as we had met her in every other, had only 5 steamers in the foreign trade, or 1 to her 30. The rest of Europe outside of England had 130 steamers, of 150,000 tons, principally built by England. England was paying \$5,000,000 annually for the carrying of her ocean mails; France was paying \$4,000,000 for ocean service (large portions of it to lines running to New York), she recognizing the necessity

of meeting England on her own ground. Our government was doing nothing to enable our ship-owners to compete with their rivals. Their ships having greater speed than ours, they commenced taking the best part of the business, and every attempt to prevent the total loss of our carrying trade was overwhelmed by that fateful howl of "Subsidy." We had been beaten by England in diplomacy, and surrendered to strategy what never could have been wrested from us by force. And as I have shown, we had 1 steamer to her 30 in the ocean trade. What had our tariff laws to do with this?

It has been said repeatedly, in discussing our shipping decline, that it is a false reason to say that the civil war destroyed our merchant marine. I do not say, gentlemen, that the war alone destroyed it; but I do say that, in conjunction with the two causes already named that were in operation before the war, the war was a third cause that led to the almost utter extinction of our merchant marine on the North Atlantic. The facts are plain:

The war found us totally unprepared. We had no Navy to protect the government, much less to protect our merchant marine. The government took for its use in emergency over 1,000,000 tons of our shipping. The figures of loss are as follows:

	Tons.
Navy Department took of our best shipping, principally steam.....	565,978
War Department took, for transports.....	787,611
Ships sought refuge under foreign flag, since we had no navy to protect them.....	801,311
	<hr/>
Or a total loss during the war of.....	1,854,900
Between 1865 and 1875 Americans sold to foreigners, because the former could not run them in the foreign trade in competition with cheap capital, cheap labor, and low taxation.....	457,000
	<hr/>
Making a total decline in tonnage of.....	2,311,900

WHAT HAD PROTECTION TO DO WITH CAUSING THIS?

This loss represented \$115,595,000 that was represented in our shipping business. This capital was put into other business where it was protected. It might be said, from this showing, that our foreign carrying trade was pretty well broken up by the war. But again I ask, What had protection to do with it? It was just because we did not protect shipping in the foreign trade that we could not revive or sustain it. Had we treated our factories during the war as we did our ships, we should have been without factories as we were without ships when the war was over.

But the free ship advocate may say that we did protect the ship by the navigation laws. The navigation laws, it is true, protected the building of the ship, but what was wanted was protection for *running* the ship. That was where we failed, and that is the failure government is now called upon to remedy.

But the principal fact to be noted in this connection is, that when the carrying trade of the North Atlantic was thus thrown open England was prepared, and at once seized upon it and firmly established herself in it. The result was simply this, that between 1860 and 1870 England's shipping increased about 400 per cent., and when the war was ended she was in full possession of the North Atlantic carrying trade, and we were about wholly out.

Suppose we had met England's policy in 1840, as we met her at all other times before that, and had in our turn encouraged the building of

iron steamers to equal extent, by equally liberal pay for fast mail service, and by other encouraging legislation. Suppose we had, as a result, not only developed our iron and coal and stimulated all branches of industry, but also built up a similar fleet of 150 iron steamships ready to be summoned to government service and defense when the war broke out. Why, with 75 of these fast steamers we could have both protected our coast and blockaded every Southern port, leaving the other 55 ships to carry on our business and take care of outside invaders. In that case we might have forced England to pursue a different kind of neutrality, and the Alabama and Shenandoah would have had no existence. Our war might have been ended within a year, and thousands of lives and millions of dollars saved to our country. What a tremendous sacrifice did we make then for want of a wise policy twenty years before in regard to our shipping interests! Had we appropriated twice as many millions a year as England did to encourage building such a fleet, would not this expenditure have been saved to us many times over when our emergency came?

Now we come to the third period, with its additional causes of decline. These are found to be: 1. Taxation and other burdens; 2. Dear capital; 3. Dear labor; 4. Pre-occupation of the North Atlantic by other nations; 5. Non-American agitation; 6. Lack of legislation and a firm governmental policy.

What was the condition of affairs when peace was restored? The war had stimulated internal development. The millions of capital withdrawn from shipping by American merchants had been put into railroads, telegraph lines, and factories. There was no chance to profitably invest capital in competition with England on the ocean when there was no protection for it, and naturally this capital sought investment where it was protected.

When the attention of the people began to be drawn to the carrying trade, what we had left of it, it was found that of our remaining tonnage a small proportion was composed of wooden side-wheel steamers, almost worn out and of little use; the balance of wooden sailing ships, many of them also old and comparatively worthless. Although during our war the revolution on the ocean—steam for sails, iron for wood, the screw for side-wheels, the compound engine for the ordinary—had been completed, yet at its close there was not an iron-screw steamer, nor one with a compound engine, under our flag. Nothing was left us but wooden sailing ships to compete with England's fleet of modern iron screw steamers? We had no yards established for the building of iron ships. Our rolling mills were not in condition to make the shapes of iron necessary, nor had we much skilled labor in that direction. Our currency was at a discount of forty per cent., and we had a tax on the ownership of vessels ten times greater than Great Britain's. Added to this, England had the powerful advantage of possession. As business men you well know the difficulty of organizing capital to buy ships or anything else in a market for the purpose of competing with capital already organized and invested, and especially when the surrounding circumstances are all against the new organization.

Take the three causes of taxation, wages, and interest. It has been the cry on the part of certain men ever since the war closed that "free ships" was the only thing needed to rebuild our lost merchant marine and re-establish ourselves in the carrying trade. Let me show you the real facts in the case.

What was our condition in 1865, when this cry was first raised in Congress? No ships but a few worn-out sailing ships and side-wheel

steamers. No chance to compete with England's iron ships by building wooden ones; no facilities in the country to build iron ones; the carrying trade already in possession of foreigners, with their cheap capital, cheap labor, and low taxation. Truly a poor condition!

"Give us free ships!" said the advocates of an English interest to an American Congress. Well, I will show you that if Congress had bought and given ships absolutely free to these very advocates, they could not then have run them under the American flag. - And for these reasons:

Suppose five 4,000-ton steamers had been given to a company of free-ship men for nothing in 1865, the value of the ships being \$5,000,000. The account at the end of a year would stand thus between them and their English competitor:

Taxation of American line on its \$5,000,000 of property at 2½ per cent.....	\$125,000
Wages, 600 men for the five ships, at \$2 per day.....	438,000
Total taxation and running expenses American line	563,000
Interest on \$5,000,000 capital English line at 4 per cent.....	200,000
Taxation, 1 per cent. on net earnings, say earnings 6 per cent.....	3,000
Wages, 600 men, at \$1.25 per day	273,750
Total running expenses English line	476,750
Difference in favor of English line	86,250

Here is an advantage of \$86,250 a year when the Americans were given their ships for nothing, and no account is taken of interest on capital; neither does this take into account tonnage dues nor the special war tax. And since the Americans who wanted free ships—or said they did—could not expect to get them for nothing, how would they have stood in the competition when they had turned \$7,000,000 of greenbacks into gold (as they must have done if they had used the privilege of going into a foreign market for their ships), to buy what the Englishman or Frenchman or German could buy for \$5,000,000; and when, besides this, they had paid from 7 to 8 per cent. for their capital? Just look at it:

Running expenses and taxation American line	\$563,000
Interest on \$5,000,000 capital at 7 per cent	350,000
Total cost of American line	913,000
Total cost of English line.....	576,750
Difference in favor of English line	436,250

Now an American company of capitalists would have been very likely to invest in English cheap ships in 1865 and subsequently, on those terms of competition, wouldn't they?

And yet the free-ship man unblushingly persists in saying, in the face of these figures, "Only give us free ships and we'll be all right." Will we?

Compare the ship on the sea to the factory on the land. Both require capital for the plant and men to operate them. Now, what business man does not know of instances where two men engaged in the same line of manufacture, and where one of them paid from fifteen to twenty per cent. more for his plant than the other? But has any business man ever heard of a man's closing up his factory and ceasing competition merely because his plant cost him more, all the other things being equal? No, it is not the first cost that drives a man out of the business. But suppose the one man's taxes were twenty times more, the wages of his

hands twenty-five to forty per cent. higher than those of the other—why, he would fail though you gave him his plant for nothing. What man could buy a cheap English factory and run it on the American principle of high taxes, high capital, and high labor? So in ships; it is not what it costs to get the ship afloat but what it costs to keep her there, under American rates of taxation, interest, and labor, that prevents us from owning ships in competition with foreign owners, who employ capital under no such disadvantages.

It is a noteworthy fact that this free-ship outcry never came from our American merchants who want to own ships. They laughed at it as folly, while its advocates were mostly would-be merchants who were brokers and commission men, and wanted to run English ships on commission.

Let our government simply place us on equal conditions with other peoples, so that our capital can be put into competition with foreign capital, with a fair prospect of return, and I guarantee that there will be no trouble about first cost. There is no trouble in raising capital to be put into large American-built ocean steamers for the coasting trade, where it will be subject to the same laws, rates, and taxation as the other capital employed in that trade. But when we undertake to put capital into the foreign trade, we bring it into competition with the capital of other peoples who have more favorable conditions of interest, taxation, and labor, and there we find the hunt for capital a vain one.

To show that capital can be obtained when there is a fair chance in the competition, let me call your careful attention to what we have done in the development of our coast carrying trade. This has exceeded, under protection, even our unparalleled progress in manufacturing industries. The history of the world does not show so vast a development as that of our coasting trade in the last ten years.

Look at the figures. Counting in the contracts already in hand that cannot be completed until 1882, in the ten years from 1872 we have built 140 iron screw steamships, of a total tonnage of 260,000 tons. We have also built 25 wooden screw steamers, of 27,563 tons. This makes a total steam tonnage built for our coasting and foreign trade of nearly 290,000, 260,000 tons of it iron steamships; while in 1870 there did not exist in this country the rolling-mills and ship-yards required to construct an iron ship such as we have to day.

Referring for comparison to the ocean-going steam tonnage of the world in 1860, we find that it consisted of 338 steamers, with tonnage of 431,000, divided as follows:

Nation.	No.	Tonnage.
Great Britain	158	250,000
United States	52	71,000
All other nations	130	150,000
Total	338	431,000
Ocean-going steam tonnage built in United States since 1872.....	145	257,563

What a grand showing this is! We have built in ten years more steam ocean-going tonnage than England possessed in 1860, though she began to build the iron ship in 1840, and had liberally encouraged the establishment of ship-yards, paying millions yearly in postal contracts to induce the investment of capital in the foreign carrying trade.

More than that: in these ten years we have built four times as much steam tonnage as we owned in 1860, while that was made up of old side-wheelers not fit for ocean carrying; and have built considerably more than one half as much steam tonnage as was owned by the world in 1860. The ships are first-class, and their carrying capacity is equal to 1,300,000 tons of sail—the most approved estimates based on experience making one ton of steam equal in carrying capacity to five tons of sail.

France and Germany made no increase of steam tonnage to compare with ours, though they had all the advantages of buying free ships of England (an advantage which the free-ship man claims would have done so much to gain for us a foreign carrying trade), while we labored under all the disadvantages of starting a new business, when the financial condition of the country was unsettled, when gold was at a premium, and when for a part of the time there was a great business depression and distress. This is the sort of “decline” in our ship-building that is due to our protective theory. We can have just such a “decline” in our foreign shipping trade if the government will protect us as it has our coast business, or as the Government of England encouraged her ship-owners.

What has been the result, and what is the advanced condition of the iron-shipbuilding interest worth to us to-day? Had we possessed these 120 steamships in 1861, we could have thoroughly blockaded our coast, and have brought the rebellion to a close within a year. Through our present facilities we should be able to construct a similar fleet in much less time.

Our coasting fleet is superior to the steam fleet of any country except England. How is this, do you ask? Why, we protected the coasting trade, the same as we did our manufactures, and so saved it; and the result is that the country has a better fleet, to meet an emergency with than it ever had before. What a benefit this reduction has been to our own people, and yet it has been produced by competition among ourselves!

What we have done with the iron ship since 1872, in the face of financial discouragement, is sufficient proof of what we can do to regain our place as ocean carriers if a permanent policy and a wise one be adopted by the nation. It is no small thing to be able to say that this country is to-day the second iron-shipbuilding country of the world—second only to England—and that, without reducing the cost of American labor, we have reduced the original cost of the iron ship to within 12 per cent. of what it is in England, and can build a ship having no superior anywhere. I am satisfied that our ten years' record in iron ship-building is such a record as ought to stop the mouths of the men who declare that Americans cannot build iron ships, and must depend upon England for them. What we want is a wise policy to enable the merchant to run the ship after it is built, and then we shall succeed.

Then, too, what a vast benefit has this coast trade been in the reduction of freight, and especially to the South!

Why, the freight rate on cotton, that was \$6.75 per bale in 1860 from Galveston to New York was, in 1882, only \$2.25; and the same is true of cotton shipped from New Orleans, Mobile, Savannah, &c. Here is a freight saving to the Southern people in the matter of cotton alone of some \$4,000,000 a year; while on the way back it would save a corresponding amount. Besides, those very vessels are a powerful naval force in case of emergency, give employment to thousands of people, and keep their earnings to be spent in this country. This is what protection has done for us.

The freight in 1860 and in 1882 is thus shown :

Ports.	1860.		1882.	
	Rate.	Charge.	Rate.	Charge.
	<i>Per pound.</i>		<i>Per pound.</i>	
Galveston	\$0.01½	\$0 75	\$0.00½	\$2 25
New Orleans.....	.01½	5 02½	.00½	2 25
Mobile.....	.01½	5 02½	.00½	2 25
Key West.....	.01½	5 02½	.00½	2 25

But let us look at some other grievances of which the American ship-owner has to complain. Take the report of the Postmaster-General of the United States for the year ending June 30, 1881, and turn to page 46. It is there officially announced that the department received from postages collected on United States mail matter sent to foreign countries the sum of \$1,560,679.90, and on page 40 in the same report the Postmaster-General says that the entire cost for transporting the mails to foreign countries was \$239,141.21, thus leaving a profit to the department of \$1,321,548.69. The law requires the American ship, sailing to foreign countries, to carry the mails for sea postage, or two cents per letter, which means every time a loss to the ship.

Again, last year, so the official report of the department says, the consuls of the United States in foreign ports collected from the few ships which we have in the service, in the way of fees, tonnage dues, certification, &c., the enormous sum of \$830,000. The United States appropriated the sum of \$750,000 for the support of the consular service abroad, yet these consuls turn into the Treasury of the United States \$830,000, or \$80,000 more than the appropriation for their support, and the Secretary of State announces that "the consular service abroad is self-sustaining." He does not state, however, that it is sustained at the expense of the limited commerce which we have with foreign countries.

Now, I ask you to contrast the practice of the English Government. Last year the English Government appropriated the sum of \$1,300,000 for her consular service, while the entire sum in fees, &c., collected from English ships was only \$200,000. The English foreign trade is four times greater than our own, yet they only collect one-quarter the sum from her shipping that we did. What does this show? It shows, gentlemen, that the charges upon our foreign shipping are 1,200 per cent. higher than the same charges upon English shipping.

Amount tonnage dues collected:

1875	\$1,014,045 05
1876	1,135,232 58
1877	1,227,299 82
1878	1,336,627 68
1879	1,462,267 97
1880	1,610,383 84
1881	1,528,823 87
Total	9,374,680 81
Expense of collecting same.....	70,000 00
Actual profit in seven years.....	9,304,680 81

According to our present laws for the measurement of steam vessels, we measure the whole vessel, including officers' quarters, engine and boiler space, and coal bunkers, and charge tonnage fees on all; while

all other nations measure only the net carrying capacity of the ship. This makes an extra charge against American ships in all parts of the world of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. tonnage dues more than the ships of any other nation.

It affects the American ship during her time in service in the following manner:

While loading at her wharf, $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. more wharfage.

When in dry-dock for repairs, $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. more for dockage.

When going through the Suez Canal, $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. more for tonnage.

While laying up at wharf and not in service, $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. more expenses.

It seems that the American ship in foreign trade has been loaded down with all kinds of unnecessary burdens. Strange to say, the men who for fifteen years have been advocating free ships as the only remedy have never seen any of these difficulties; or, if they have, never suggested their removal. It is time for a change.

But it is asked, How can we ever hope to enter into the competition? What shall we do? I answer, the American mechanic, manufacturer, and merchant, the American sailor, ask no protection for brains, push, or ingenuity. All they ask is an equal chance in the competition. I have shown that dear capital, well-paid labor, and high taxes cannot compete in manufacturing or ship-owning with low taxes, cheap labor, and cheap capital.

Look at what England did. With her iron interest well developed, able to build the iron ship cheaper than any other nation, with all the advantages of cheap labor, cheap capital, and low taxation, she yet, to encourage and induce her ship-owners to build fast mail vessels to open up new markets, from 1840 to 1880 paid them \$222,000,000 in subsidy. France has aided her ship-owners for years, and only this year, finding it impossible to own a great merchant marine and buy it of England, passed a law offering a bounty for every iron steamship built in France—this encouragement being equal to \$7,000,000 a year, including the sums paid to those running French-built ships under the French flag. What is Germany talking of doing? Prince Bismarek, in a recent speech, recognized the wisdom of the new French policy, said it would "create for France a powerful navy, which may prove of effective service in time of war," and declared that the "merchant service is the handmaid of all other industries, of agriculture and commerce. On the day when the freight trade is given over to foreigners," he therefore concluded, "a mortal blow will be dealt to all the industries of the country. These enterprises cannot dispense with government aid, and this has always been afforded in a productive manner, as soon as it was a question of paving the way for our traffic in distant markets. England has given the example of using mail steamers as the pioneers for the creation or expansion of commercial relations." These are the words of one of the keenest statesmen of Europe, and they are true words. We need ships to pave the way to traffic in new and distant markets, and, as Prince Bismarek says, these enterprises cannot dispense with a government policy of protection and encouragement.

The key to unlock the world's commerce is the fast mail ship. I have showed how England used it. How did the United States turn this key? The story is a pitiful one. Our government has actually discriminated against ships engaged in the foreign trade as against the coasting. For instance, the ship in the coasting trade, if needed to carry the mails, is treated the same as railways, stage-coaches, or inland steamboats, and paid for the service performed; but if that ship be en-

gaged in the foreign trade, and the government desires to send a mail to a foreign country, the owner is obliged to take the mails, and carry them to destination with little or no compensation therefor.

I will read to you the statute law upon this subject:

The master of any vessel of the United States, bound from any port therein to any foreign port, or from any foreign port to any port in the United States, shall, before clearance, receive on board and securely convey all such mails as the Post-Office Department or any diplomatic or consular agent abroad shall offer; and he shall promptly deliver the same, at the port of destination, to the proper officer, for which he shall receive *two cents* for every letter so delivered; and upon the entry of every such vessel returning from any foreign port, the master thereof shall make oath that he has promptly delivered all the mail placed on board said vessel before clearance from the United States; and if he fail to make such oath, the vessel shall not be entitled to the privileges of a vessel of the United States.—(*U. S. Rev. Stat., sec. 3970.*)

To ask relief from this unjust law is the means of raising a cry against the ship-owner of "subsidy beggar."

The following table will show you how this law operates against the American ship engaged in the foreign trade:

Lines.	No. of ships.	Miles traveled.	Mail pay.
New York to San Francisco, China, Japan, Australia, and return....	18	681, 877	\$24, 410
Brazil Line, New York to St. Thomas, Para, Pernambuco, Bahia, and Rio	3	140, 000	1, 875
Havana Line, New York to Havana	3	128, 000	*2, 444
South Side Line, New York to Santiago de Cuba.....	3	43, 472	*70
Mexican Line, New York to Vera Cruz	5	187, 000	2, 600
Total.....	32	1, 181, 309	31, 405

* The Havana Line had to pay \$600 for bringing mail from quarantine by special boat, and \$520 cost of delivery and collection, leaving a net mail earning of \$1,324. The South Side Line paid for mail expessage, in its sixteen trips, \$160, leaving a net loss for carrying the mails of \$83.06.

Contrast with this showing the following, which gives the amount paid annually to five lines which carry the mails in the coasting trade:

Lines.	Miles traveled.	Mail pay.
Galveston to Brashear, Tex.....	58, 600	\$50, 000
Cedar Keys to Key West, Fla.....	48, 880	18, 000
San Francisco to Portland, Oreg	69, 680	25, 000
Portland to Sitka	16, 020	34, 800
Portland to Astoria	54, 880	14, 906
Total	247, 960	142, 706

Thus the account stands:

Lines in foreign trade carry mails 1,181,309 miles for \$31, 405
 Lines in coasting trade carry mails 247,960 miles for..... 142, 706
 Lines in foreign trade carry more miles by 933,349 for less pay by..... 111, 301

Or, counting by miles, the pay for carrying foreign mails is 2½ cents per mile, while for domestic mails it is 57½ cents per mile.

That is the discrimination we make against capital the moment it is put into the foreign trade. The Mexican Government alone pays \$134,000 a year for mail service to this country, or nearly as much as we pay for all our foreign mail service.

What had protection to do with this ?

Look, now, to France and see how she is turning this key. Having cheap capital, labor, and taxation, she tried for years the policy urged

by the "free-ship" men for us, namely, buying her ships from England. But she proved by experience that no nation can be a great shipping nation that cannot build its own ships. And so wise France is building up a powerful merchant marine (a new steamship line was formed within a fortnight) under this law granting bounties to ships:

There will be paid for all steam and sailing vessels launched after passage of this bill, excepting fishing vessels, yachts, and steamers now receiving a subsidy, as follows:

Thirty cents per ton for every mile run, to be reduced each year as follows:

1½ cents per ton for wooden vessels.

1½ cents per ton for composite vessels.

1 cent per ton for iron vessels.

The vessels to be used by the government in case of war; and the above premium to be increased 15 per cent. where designs are submitted to and approved by the Navy Department.

Where materials are imported for the construction of vessels, there will be allowed to ship-builders, in place of the duties paid upon materials—

For every registered ton of iron or steel.....	\$12 00
For wooden vessels of over 200 tons.....	4 00
For composite vessels.....	8 00
For wooden vessels under 200 tons.....	2 00

For all the pumps, machinery, &c., required, \$2.40 for every 220 pounds. All vessels transformed to increased tonnage after the passage of this bill will be allowed the same premium as for new vessels on the increased tonnage.

To give you a practical illustration of this new French bounty law, I will apply it to a 3,000-ton iron ship. The bounty would be—

On building:

Weight of iron in hull, 1,800 tons, at \$12.....	\$21,600
Weight of machinery, 500 tons, at \$24.43.....	12,615

34,215

Then there is allowed 30 cents per ton for every 1,000 miles run, after being put in service, for first year, diminishing 1 cent per mile each year thereafter.

Presuming the above 3,000-ton steamer makes ten trips from Havre to New York per annum, or 60,000 miles, this gives for first year's service as follows:

3,000 tons, at 30 cents, = \$900 × 60 =	\$54,000
And second year's service	52,000

This will expire entirely at the end of thirty years.

Adding the bounty and allowance per mile, the law would grant the 3,000-ton ship the first year \$89,015. The French Government for this requires in return the carrying of its mails and the right to use the ships in case of war, taking them at a fair valuation. Though this law seems an expensive one, yet it furnishes France with a cheap navy and the best it ever had.

This law met with the severest criticism from the English press while it was under discussion in France, and it is said that the English ambassador in France wrote home to know if it did not conflict with the treaty between France and England. And now, since the law could not be defeated, English capital is going over to France to build ships there. Under this law France, in seven years, will be able to hold the same control over the carrying trade of South America and the Pacific that England does on the North Atlantic. This France will be doing while we are wasting our time discussing "free ships" and subsidy, and paying nothing for carrying the mails; and the result, if we allow that to be done, will be that we will be left with our coasting trade and with nothing else. If we allow the present chance to put American ships into

the South American carrying trade to slip away from us, it will not be left open to us long.

Suppose that this law brought into use under the French flag 100 3,000-ton ships. To keep those ships in use for 30 years, the French Government would pay, on an average, for 30 years, about \$2,500,000 per year. Those ships would employ under the law 10,000 officers, sailors, and engineers, and those ships would make a navy, as far as ships are concerned, superior to our present navy.

France understands that this law is a law of great economy in the matter of building up her navy, and besides these ships carry the French mails to all parts of the world. The price of mail service deducted from the amount paid for these ships reduces the sum to a very low figure. Besides this, the ships constructed in France make an expenditure of \$50,000,000, of which 90 per cent. is paid out for labor to the French workingman in developing the industries of France. Also, it gives employment to 10,000 sailors during the life of the ship, and the ship's gross earning each year, 40 per cent. of the original cost, mostly to be spent in France. Sum this all up, and you will find that it is sowing seed which will produce a rich harvest.

The drain consequent upon buying ships abroad proves too great to be borne. Could England ever have owned and maintained her \$574,000,000 worth of ships if she had had to buy them from another country? To keep this fleet up, not counting the annual cost of repairs, to build the new ships required to replace those lost and worn out, and to meet the demands of increased trade, costs not less than 10 per cent. of the whole value, or \$57,000,000 yearly. Could any nation expect to maintain such a mighty interest as this if, instead of being able to build its ships and tools, it was dependent upon another nation for them, and must annually send millions upon millions abroad to support the working people of that other nation? Could we afford to own such a fleet if we had bought it abroad? Could we pay out annually the millions necessary to keep it renewed? What effect would the taking of that great amount of labor out of our market have upon that market, and what effect, in comparison, upon the market which we favored with it? These questions are of deep importance in seeking a solution of our shipping problem. It should be our ambition to occupy the place that properly belongs to us on the ocean. To do that would require an outlay of \$200,000,000 of capital within the next ten years, and the constant increase of our surplus products for export would render necessary an increased outlay year by year, with the sums needed for renewal added. Could we send that vast amount out of this country, and could we forever keep sending it out? No; that capital is labor, and no country that cannot build ships can afford to own them.

You ask me, gentlemen, what would be the effect upon our shipping of allowing raw material for the ship to come in free of duty, as under sections 2513 and 2514?

No effect at all. I have made it clear that we do not build ships for the foreign trade simply because our merchants cannot run them there. In the first place I can say this, that though I have built vessels for the foreign trade to the extent of \$10,000,000 since this law was enacted, I have never once made use of it. And I believe I should not be so foolish as not to do so if it were to any advantage. The whole thing is a sham.

It is a favorite argument with some who seem to think a ship's cost is 95 per cent. for material and 5 for labor, instead of the exact reverse. The labor, which makes up 95 per cent. of the cost, is free. As for free material, I have studied every way practicable to see how near we could

come to compete with Great Britain in the product of the ship. In 1872, when I undertook to build some large ships, the rolling mills did not exist in this country that could make the angles, plates, and beams required. I then had to pay £12 10s. in gold for plates, £11 10s. for angles, £1 per ton freight by steam, and 5 per cent. commission. This satisfied me of the folly of a man's trying to bring a distance of 3,500 miles the heavy material required for a ship, paying freight and commissions, and putting that material into a ship, at our high rates of labor, in competition with a man whose ship-yard is close by where the material is produced, and who has cheaper labor, no freight or commissions to pay, and lower rates of taxation.

From the Clyde to the Delaware or Hudson is over 3,000 miles. The impractical man tells the American ship-builder that the thing he needs to enable him to build ships is to bring the material from the Clyde and put it into ships in competition with the ship-builder over there. Now who would think of taking the iron from the Delaware to the Kennebec—a vastly shorter distance—and asking the builder there to put it into iron ships in competition with the iron-ship builder on the Delaware, who had no freight to pay? Or who would think of bringing wood from Maine to Delaware to build wooden ships in competition with the Maine builders? The idea is so preposterous that no practical man would entertain it. It is plain that the freight and commission paid by the American builder in bringing material from the Clyde would be a large profit for the English builder. Why, even the short distance from the Clyde to the Thames was so much of a disadvantage that it broke up the ship-yards on the Thames, and the builders there had to move up to the Clyde in order to join in the competition. If builders with all other conditions equal could not stand a few miles freightage, how could we hope to compete when obliged to bring material over 3,000 miles? Why did not England succeed when she imported the wood from us free with cheaper capital and labor?

Again, I would like to ask the theorist how far advanced this material would be when it arrived in this country towards a finished ship? It must go through several processes, from the ore to the pig, from the pig to the puddled blooms, thence into rolled muck-bars, thence into plates, angles, bars, and beams. These last shapes are the most advanced until it is put into the ships, yet from this advanced stage there is yet 60 per cent. of the 95 per cent. labor to be expended before it is wrought into the finished ship. How does the advocate of raw material propose to aid the American builder to meet his competitor on the Clyde, who pays for this 60 per cent. of labor 50 per cent. less than the American builder; while, in addition, the American builder has to pay freight and commission where the Clyde builder has the material at home?

Our surplus product sent by ship to foreign markets amounted in 1870 to about 2,500,000 tons; in 1880 to over 15,000,000 tons, valued at \$1,589,472,093; and in 1890, at anything like a proportionate increase, will be upwards of 50,000,000 tons. We have for many years been paying from \$70,000,000 to \$100,000,000 a year in freight money to foreign carriers, are now paying \$140,000,000, and this amount must increase proportionately with our exports. Our products are carried almost entirely in foreign bottoms, and are therefore liable at any time to be endangered by foreign complications. Suppose the three nations which are doing the principal part of our carrying—England, France, and Germany—should become involved in war. The first thing would be to attack each other's ships, and in destroying those ships destroy our

products. We might then have the unpleasant experience of seeing the fleets of hostile nations lying in wait off Sandy Hook, to prey upon any ship that ventured to put out to sea loaded with our cargoes. What means have we to guard this great interest? What redress could national law give us in such a case? What could we do to secure the carrying of our products, having no ships of our own, nor the skilled labor to produce them, and being unable to buy them of England in such emergency? What danger should we then be in, through pursuing a policy of dependence upon foreign carriers and ship-builders? Would we for a moment allow our railroad system of transportation to be subject to such risks and chances? Yet is not the steamship line simply the continuation of the trunk-line road to market? We cannot be safe unless the whole road is equally under our control at all times. Has the United States to-day this control or the power to procure it in case of sudden requirement? In this I have only pointed out what would be our condition if we were not directly involved in the war. I need not comment on what our condition would be if we were a party to it.

We have, it is true, a comparatively small amount of tonnage left in the foreign trade. But what protection has government even for the little that is left? The mention of our navy only excites a smile. We have practically no means of protection whatever for any of these national interests. We could not to-day properly repulse an attack made by the weakest naval power of Europe. To face the fact squarely is the surest way to a remedy.

JACOB BUNN.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. JACOB BUNN, president of the Illinois Watch Company, of Springfield, Ill., in regard to the duty upon watch-enamel, was ordered to be printed:

Allow me to call the attention of your board to the article of enamel, of glass and oxide of tin, used chiefly, if not entirely, in this country for making dials for watches, on which is a duty of 40 per cent. ad valorem, whereas watch-dials made of the same material, painted and finished complete, are classed as watch material, and the duty is only 25 per cent. I have made efforts to get parties in this country to make enamel, but without success. As the article is not one of our own products it needs no protection, and as the cost in England is about \$1 per pound, the importation of it is not likely to interfere with any of our home industries, even if it should be put on the free list.

CARTER, HAWLEY & CO.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. CARTER, HAWLEY & CO., of New York, importers of teas, was read and ordered to be printed:

We beg to submit to your honorable body a few reasons why it appears just and proper to us that in the new tariff regulations some provision should be made for the imposition of a duty on teas imported into the United States.

1st. It could be easily collected, and at slight expense to the government as far as the employment of extra force in the customs is concerned.

2d. It could not be easily evaded.

3d. The government would be the gainer to the full extent of the tax imposed on the consumer. On certain articles on the list the tariff is inconsiderable, but the importation of the articles being in a few hands, the consumer is obliged to pay an enormous advance, which, instead of enriching the Treasury, goes to the benefit of the monopolists.

4th. By increasing the revenue in a just and equitable manner it would permit the abolishment of other taxes onerous to the people and which afford inadequate returns compared to this.

5th. Exports from China and Japan are directed almost wholly to Russia, England and her colonies, and the United States. The demands of other continental countries are largely supplied by reshipments from England and Russia, but all imports into the United States are for home consumption, the only re-exports being for Canada, and a few thousand pounds to Central and South America.

6th. All tea-importing countries, except the United States and Canada, impose duties; Russia, 50 cents per pound for fancy and 35 cents per pound for ordinary teas; France, 17 cents per pound on all grades; Germany, 10 cents per pound; England 12½ cents, and Australia 6, 12, and 8 cents in her different colonies.

7th. The fact that we impose no duty is the cause of our receiving large quantities of cheap teas which, although harmless in the original state, are rough in leaf, unattractive and unsalable; to overcome which some process of coloring is resorted to by means of certain chemicals, so that when shipped they are a rank, unhealthy manufacture—dangerous to health and wholly unfit for consumption. A reasonable duty of, say, 10 cents or 15 cents per pound would divert these objectionable imports or check their shipment altogether.

8th. Consumers of sugar, who now contribute so largely to the support of the government (under the existing tariff about 33¼ per cent. of the cost of the article here), for the sole purpose of protecting the interests of Louisiana, would be greatly benefited if the burden were equalized by a duty on tea, although this is what might be considered a free-trade argument.

By such a division of the tax, however, the interests of the government would be in no degree injured, and two existing evils would be obviated, viz, the false imitations and mixture of glucose consequent on the high price of sugars, and the importation of worthless low-grade

teas before referred to, both of which are detrimental to the public health.

9th. Both China and Japan impose an export duty on teas, the former of 3 cents per pound and the latter 1 cent per pound about.

For your information we beg to append the import of teas to the United States for the past ten years, embracing all descriptions:

	Pounds.		Pounds.
1872-'73	59,678,577	1877-'78	60,361,976
1873-'74	52,149,724	1878-'79	58,819,741
1874-'75	59,072,469	1879-'80	68,755,855
1875-'76	56,399,274	1880-'81	81,746,301
1876-'77	54,359,125	1881-'82	79,983,519

HERMANN BOKER & CO.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. HERMANN BOKER & Co., of New York, dealers in cutlery, &c., was read and ordered to be printed:

We respectfully submit to you, for your consideration, the inclosed statements, and ask permission to suggest the following recommendations to your honorable Commission:

- 1st. That the duty on pocket cutlery be reduced to 35 per cent. ad valorem.
- 2d. That the duty on commissions be abolished.
- 3d. That the duties on inland freights and charges be abolished.
- 4th. That consular invoices be abolished.
- 5th. That part of section No. 1012 be amended as per inclosed statement.
- 6th. That part of section No. 1041 be repealed, as per inclosed statement.
- 7th. That the duty on anvils be fixed at 30 per cent. ad valorem.
- 8th. That the duty on wood-screws be fixed at 35 per cent.

POCKET CUTLERY.

STATEMENT No. 1.—This statement shows what the duty would be in percentage if Congress should pass a law taxing pocket knives 50 cents for each dozen blades, and in addition 30 per cent. ad valorem, as suggested by the president of the American Pocket Cutlery Association.

Description.	Price.			Proposed duty.		
	Marks.		30 per cent.	Specific.	Total.	Per cent.
One blade:						
Lowest	0 93	\$0 22	6 6	\$0 50	\$0 56 6	257
Average	1 25	30	9	50	59	197
Two blades:						
Lowest	1 75	43½	13	1 00	1 13	258
Average	4 25	06½	32	1 00	1 32	124
Three blades:						
Lowest	4 50	1 12½	34	1 50	1 84	164
Average	6 50	1 62½	40	1 50	1 99	122
Four blades:						
Lowest	4 75	1 19	36	2 00	2 36	198
Average	7 00	1 75	53	2 00	2 53	145

The above average prices are for goods which we have imported from Germany. So called "jack-knives" used to be imported in very large quantities, but on account of the improved machinery now in use in the American factories but few are now imported, and if the duty should be raised from 50 per cent. to 125 per cent. the importation would be entirely stopped. So called "Barlow knives" have been imported in former years in very large quantities, but now very few foreign Barlow knives are sold in the United States since American manufacturers have commenced to manufacture them.

The present duty is 50 per cent., and at 50 cents per dozen blades and 30 per cent. ad valorem the duty would be raised to about 250 per cent.

Mr. William F. Rockwell states that the average wages paid to Amer-

ican workmen is \$2 per day, and that the average wages paid in Germany is less than one-quarter; that is to say, less than 50 cents per day for the same class of workmen.

We beg to differ with Mr. Rockwell, as we know that good workmen earn in Solingen (the principal place where cutlery is manufactured in Germany) 4 to 5 marks per day, or \$1 to \$1.25, and that the average wages will be at least 4 marks, or \$1 per day.

It is very likely that foreign manufacturers adopt American patterns just as the American manufacturers adopt foreign patterns.

STATEMENT No. 2. *Duty on commissions.*—Under the present law there is to be added the customary commission on all goods paying an ad valorem duty, and the respective duty has to be paid on such commission. No matter if such commission has been paid by the importer or not.

We cannot see the justice of this act, as a great many goods are bought direct from the manufacturers without any commission.

—STATEMENT No. 3. *Inland freight.*—Under the present law all charges for inland freights, carriages, &c., to the seaport, have to be added to the invoice, and if the goods pay an ad valorem duty the respective duty has to be paid on such charges. This law discriminates in favor of those manufacturers who live near the seaport, and in a good many cases, where the goods are of low value but bulky and heavy, to such an extent as to prohibit them entirely, as the duty on these charges is more than the profit that can be made on the goods.

STATEMENT No. 4. *Consuls' certificates.*—The present law compelling importers to have all invoices certified by a consul in triplicate is a very hard one, and does not prevent any frauds upon the revenue.

It happens very often that the goods arrive in New York before the invoices are in the hands of the importer, as it takes always a certain time to have the invoice certified by a consul, and if the goods arrive before the certified invoice, the importer has to give a bond for which a certain fee is charged to produce the certification of the consul if he wants his goods immediately. If he does not give the required bond, with the surety attached, his goods are stored at a heavy expense until the certified invoice arrives.

STATEMENT No. 5. *Duty on steel and iron goods.*—Section No. 1012 says:

But all articles of steel manufactured, or of which steel shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for, shall pay the same rate of duty as if wholly manufactured.

We respectfully suggest that this section be amended so as to read, "or of which steel shall be a component part of chief value," because under the present law goods manufactured of iron which may have only 1 per cent. of steel in the same pay 45 per cent. instead of 35 per cent.

STATEMENT No. 6. *Regarding rebate on manufactures of iron and steel arriving in a rusty condition.*—Section No. 1041 provides as follows:

That no allowance or reduction of duties for partial losses or damage shall be hereafter made in consequence of rust of iron or steel or upon the manufacturers of iron or steel, except on polished Russia sheet iron.

We think that this is a manifest injustice to the importers of goods manufactured of iron and steel. If these goods arrive in a damaged condition there should be an allowance on the duty as in all other cases where the goods are made of other material than iron and steel. All the government can ask is the duty on the real value. The importers have to pay the duty before they see their goods, and it may happen

that the goods if damaged may not even sell for the value of the duties paid upon the same. All we ask is to have this section repealed.

STATEMENT No. 7. *Anvils*.—The present duty is $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, which is equal to about $37\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. ad valorem. We respectfully suggest an ad valorem of 30 per cent. We think that an ad valorem duty is fairer than a specific duty on account of the fluctuations in the market value of goods.

STATEMENT No. 8. *Wood-screws*.—Under the present law wood-screws pay a duty of 11 cents per pound on all sizes below 2 inches, and 8 cents per pound on all sizes 2 inches and over in length, or equal to the following ad valorem duty on the principal sizes:

Number.	Cost in Europe.	Duty.	Per cent.
	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>	
$\frac{1}{4}$ by 6	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{9}{10}$	87
by 7	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{5}$	94
by 8	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{5}$	102
by 9	$6\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$	111
1 by 7	$5\frac{5}{8}$	$5\frac{7}{10}$	97
1 by 8	$6\frac{1}{10}$	$7\frac{1}{5}$	117
1 by 9	7	$9\frac{3}{10}$	133
1 by 10	$7\frac{5}{8}$	$10\frac{1}{5}$	134
1 by 11	$8\frac{1}{2}$	$12\frac{9}{10}$	148
$1\frac{1}{4}$ by 7	$6\frac{1}{2}$	8	119
$1\frac{1}{4}$ by 8	$7\frac{1}{10}$	$9\frac{1}{10}$	130
$1\frac{1}{4}$ by 9	$7\frac{1}{2}$	11	140
$1\frac{1}{4}$ by 10	$8\frac{1}{10}$	13	155
$1\frac{1}{4}$ by 11	$9\frac{1}{2}$	$15\frac{6}{10}$	162
$1\frac{1}{4}$ by 12	$10\frac{1}{10}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	178
$1\frac{1}{2}$ by 8	9	$11\frac{1}{2}$	128
$1\frac{1}{2}$ by 9	$9\frac{1}{2}$	13	135
$1\frac{1}{2}$ by 10	$10\frac{1}{2}$	$15\frac{1}{10}$	144
$1\frac{1}{2}$ by 11	$11\frac{1}{10}$	$17\frac{9}{10}$	159
$1\frac{1}{2}$ by 12	$12\frac{1}{10}$	20	159

We think that a uniform duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem will be sufficient protection for American manufactures, and would respectfully suggest this change.

BERKELEY MOSTYN.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. BERKELEY MOSTYN, of New York, in regard to charges and commissions, was ordered to be printed:

There is a point, which I have noticed in the reports of the sessions held before you, is touched very lightly upon, to which I would most respectfully call your attention. I refer to the charges for shipping and packing, also to commissions.

I have been an importer of linen threads for upwards of ten years, and my goods come out in cases, costing on an average 10s., say \$2.43; on this \$2.43 I pay duty at 40 per cent., the tariff on linen thread, bringing the total cost of the case to \$3.40. These cases, being as a rule too large for general use, I am obliged to sell, and in the open market I can only get 35 cents for each case, being 62 cents less than the actual duty paid, without any consideration of the original cost of the case.

When goods are sold close, as is the case with linen threads, this item of packing charges and duties thereon is of very grave consideration, coupled as it is with shipping charges on each case.

With regard to commissions, I am a purchaser of threads, direct from the manufacturers, Messrs. Finlayson Bonsfield, & Co., of Johnstone, Scotland, and pay no purchasing commission or commission of any kind. My goods are sent out invoiced at prices paid, and yet I am compelled to add 2½ per cent., a commission which does not exist, to each invoice, and pay duty thereon at 40 per cent.

I would therefore most respectfully suggest to your consideration the abolition of duties charged at present on shipping and packing charges in all cases, and on commissions of all kinds.

WALTER E. BARNETT.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. WALTER E. BARNETT, president of the Cigar Makers' Protective Union, said:

I do not come here to-night to make any extended argument. The industry which I represent may be divided into three sections. There is a class of cigars manufactured entirely from the very poorest grade of material; the tobacco is grown in Wisconsin and Ohio and the Western States generally. That is a very poor grade of tobacco, and brings in the market only about nine or ten cents a pound. The goods manufactured from that tobacco are made to a very large extent in the tenement houses in this city. The highest price that these goods bring in the market is \$30 a thousand, and they run from \$12 to \$30 a thousand.

There is another branch of the trade where the value of the goods manufactured commences where this grade leaves off, and runs from \$30 to \$60 a thousand. These goods are made in part of the finest class of American-grown tobacco for wrappers—of tobacco grown in Connecticut and Pennsylvania—the fillers being the best of Havana tobacco. In that branch of the industry the workmen are somewhat better paid.

Then there is another branch; and that is the branch to which I desire especially to call your attention. I refer to the manufacture of clear Havana cigars by Spanish workmen, and American workmen who have learned their trade from Spaniards who have come here within the last twelve or fifteen years. Up to about the year 1865 or 1866 there were very few fine cigars manufactured in this country, and none that could in quality compare with those manufactured in Havana. But the war brought on taxation, and of course tobacco was one of the first articles (and rightfully so) to be taxed. The tax to a certain extent became a protective tax, and under its operation some of the manufacturers in Havana were induced to come here and establish factories. They brought with them a large amount of capital and workmen. The colony when it started was very small, but now, after twelve or fifteen years of effort, notwithstanding the industry has been handicapped very largely by injudicious legislation, it is an established fact, and we are making a grade of goods here that competes favorably with those manufactured abroad, and there are now probably over six thousand men employed—Cubans and Spaniards—who have come here during the last few years, and who have located in New York City, at Key West, and Jacksonville, and the balance scattered throughout the country. In 1878, when the Wood tariff bill was before the House, I was selected by the trade to go to Washington and offer some objections to the bill.

But it is not so much the taxation that we oppose as the very unjust method of discrimination by the government against our goods. I have here with me two empty cigar-boxes for illustration. I will show you what I mean. In the first place, section 3397 of the Revised Statutes compels manufacturers of cigars to brand the number of their factory, the number of cigars, and the number of the revenue district of the State on each box. And there is another section, No. 3393, which

compels every manufacturer, under a penalty of \$50 for every box, to put that caution notice on. Then it is provided that all cigars passing the custom-house, no matter whether they come from Havana or China, must bear a designation by the government like that [indicating], which is a gratuitous endorsement by the government of foreign manufactured goods. I have no doubt all you gentlemen understand there is a certain class of the American people who think nothing can be manufactured in America which is quite as good as the foreign article. I was talking, about six months ago, with a gentleman engaged in the manufacture of silk, and was discussing this very question, and he said to me:

Mr. Barnett, if the government had used such a method of discrimination in favor of foreign silks a few years ago as they use in regard to cigars, Paterson would never have become a silk-manufacturing center. We manufactured good silks there, but the prejudice was in favor of the silks of Lyons, in France, and of the Italian silks. We were making better silks here, and we were enabled to put them on the market on their merits. If the imported silks that passed the custom-house bore such a designation as do imported cigars, people would have demanded silks with that designation on them, whether they were better or not, and we never would have been able to have pressed into favor the silks of American manufacture.

I think it may be said also that the wines of California would never have had the chance they have had of coming to the front if the government had stamped every bottle of imported claret that is sold in the United States as having passed the custom-house, or compelled the manufacturers of wines in California to place a stamp upon every bottle that they offered in the market.

Now, gentlemen, I have to say to you that cigars, and cigars only, bear such a discrimination as that. There is nothing imported into the country which the government stamps in the same way. Wines, and even quack medicines, and everything but cigars, as soon as the duties are paid on them and they have passed the custom-house, are unpacked, and no one can tell, by reason of anything that the government has caused to be done to them, that they are not goods manufactured here. We hold that this is a very unjust discrimination against our goods. Many cigars, on account of this requirement, are sold falsely for imported goods, the dealers themselves knowing we are making better articles here than the imported goods, and they try to sell them as imported, and we get no credit for the goods we manufacture, on account of that stamp. A man may be smoking these cigars we manufacture for two or three months, and suddenly he is going to have a little party at his house (he has never seen them in the box, as he has bought them in small quantities as he wanted them), and he will ask for a box of cigars, and the minute you hand him down the box he sees the stamp and knows at once they are of domestic manufacture and he objects to them. Then we tell him they are manufactured of the same class of Havana tobacco and are the same cigars that he has been smoking all the time. He says that may be so, but I want an imported cigar, so that my friends will not think that I am mean enough to hand around the table a box of domestic cigars. If it was not for that infernal stamp there would not be a million cigars a year imported into the city of New York, and American labor would receive the benefit of it.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. You want a man to be a judge of the article himself, and not depend on the stamp of the government?—Answer. Yes, sir. And I want the government to legislate so that it will not be against American labor and in favor of the slave labor of Cuba. We know very

well where this idea of a stamp came from originally. There was a gentleman here in New York in the custom-house who is the brother of a large importer, and when the laws were being altered and changed in this way they saw an opportunity to discriminate in favor of imported cigars, and they pushed that provision through Congress. We simply ask that that stamp shall be removed. We submit that the stamp is not, as some would argue, a protection to the government. If any one desires to refill that box, he will do so in spite of the caution notice. This stamp actually causes a petty fraud to be committed by a large number of dealers every day. The retail dealers know that better goods are being made here, but they know that people want imported cigars, and when they buy foreign cigars of low grades the people refuse to take them, and the American goods are sold in preference; but they have to be sold out of imported boxes.

I will state here as a fact that two-thirds of the dealers who sell imported cigars, so called, will buy a few boxes of imported cigars and then sell, may be, ten thousand domestic cigars out of those same boxes. That is done every day. It is something that the law provides a penalty for, but many retailers in the business do it, and are compelled to do it, on account of this discrimination. We have never quarreled about the amount of the tax as levied upon our business, and I believe I speak the sentiment of the entire trade when I say that we acknowledge the fact that it is better to tax tobacco than to tax bread. Governments are instituted for the well-being of society, and they need money to run them, and I recognize the fact that tobacco should pay a large per centage of the expenses of the government. If we were to ask for any reduction of taxation I would say that the tax on the raw material of 35 cents a pound is not necessary to protect the farming industry, because it does not come in competition with it.

Q. Could it not very well be increased or doubled on Havana tobacco? How many cigars does a pound of Havana tobacco make?—
A. Every thousand cigars that are made here of clear Havana tobacco pay a tax of \$8.75 at the custom-house, and the revenue laws allow the manufacturer 25 pounds on the average of tobacco from which to manufacture a thousand cigars. I may make a little cigar taking 10 pounds to the thousand, or a larger one taking 30 pounds to the thousand; but the revenue authorities have ascertained the fact that 25 pounds will make a thousand cigars, and will give the manufacturer no room to have any tobacco to waste or to sell without putting internal-revenue stamps on. Therefore, you may conclude that every 25 pounds of tobacco that passes the custom-house makes a thousand cigars. The tax on that at 35 cents is \$8.75, and the internal-revenue tax is \$6. That is paid the same by the importers as by the manufacturers.

All we ask is this: We say that the government has no right to discriminate against our business as the only business it discriminates against at the custom-house by this system of stamps. That stamp is not sold. It is a gratuitous indorsement by the government. It represents neither \$1, 1 cent, or \$10. It does not represent as this does (referring to the internal-revenue stamp), a specific value or sum. I could give you the names of collectors of internal revenue, whose reputation is beyond question, who would say that this stamp was no protection to the government at all; and I claim that it is not, because a box can be taken into a back room and filled just as easily as if there was no stamp on it.

Commissioner BOTELER. You are aware, I suppose, that this Commission has nothing to do with internal-revenue taxes?

The WITNESS. I know that, but I mention this matter in connection with the other branch of the subject.

By Commissioner McMAHON :

Q. I understand your proposition to be this: That if a man thinks himself a judge of cigars, and goes into a cigar shop, and a box of cigars is produced which bears a customs stamp, it is to be supposed from that fact that it contains imported cigars; that, if in the same shop, he gets a better cigar out of a box that does not bear such a stamp, you want the government to discriminate for him?—A. No, sir. I simply say that where there is an industry in the United States manufacturing goods and paying a revenue, we should have a fair field and no favors. I ask the government to not unjustly discriminate against our goods, because this prejudice in favor of imported goods we have not yet been able to overcome.

Q. Is it not true that every smoker knows this difference between a good cigar and a bad one?—A. Not every one; no, sir. There are a great number who do.

Q. Does it make any difference to him whether it be an imported cigar or domestic cigar, so long as it is a good one?—A. Most decidedly it does, if he has this prejudice in favor of imported cigars.

Q. You do not want the government to indicate by the stamp whether the cigar is an imported one or not?—A. No, sir; we think that is unjust.

Q. Liquors in casks are branded in this way, are they not?—A. But they are not compelled to open the cask and stamp every bottle in it. If you will take a case of cigars coming through the custom-house and brand the case instead of each box, we shall not object to that.

It may be claimed that this designating stamp is necessary in order to prevent the smuggling of cigars from Cuba. To this we reply that it serves no such purpose, and we would respectfully point you to the records of the seizure-room of the custom-house in proof of this assertion; and, further, we are certain that you will find proof in those records that nearly if not quite all the cigars seized as contraband are seized on shipboard, and not after they have been safely landed and stowed away.

The manufacturers and workmen engaged in the making of fine grades of cigars in this city are just as much interested in preventing the smuggling of imported Havana cigars into our ports as is the government, for the reason that if the cheaper grades of Cuban cigars are brought into our markets without payment of duty, the manufacturers who pay an import duty on all the raw material they use, as well as higher prices for the labor they employ, would find themselves placed at a disadvantage, so that if this stamp of which we complain were any protection against smuggling, and there was really any danger of smuggled cigars being placed upon the market, we should, as a protection to ourselves, be among the first in the support of its use, but it serves no such purpose; moreover, every intelligent cigar maker and manufacturer is of necessity an argus-eyed government detective to prevent infractions of the customs laws, for in this he is prompted by a most potent factor—self-interest.

We charge, further, that the use of this stamp not only does not prevent smuggling, but really aids it. Whatever cigars are smuggled into this market, and we believe them to be few, if intended for sale are first transferred into stamped boxes from which the cigars they previously contained have been sold. Among a certain class of men in

this city a regular business has been established in the sale of empty cigar-boxes bearing import stamps. These are not wanted so much for the purpose of repacking imported contraband cigars, but for the transfer of Havana cigars made in this city. This business is not carried on by manufacturers, but by men who purchase cigars from the manufacturers and empty boxes from the retail dealers, and while there are many eminent exceptions among the retailers of cigars who would not in any case sell or give away an empty cigar-box without first destroying the stamps upon it, there are nevertheless a large number who are not likely to and do not destroy a box when they can readily get 50 cents or a dollar for it. This petty fraud is regularly carried on, and as it can be done secretly, and it pays, and as Havana cigars made here cannot even by experts be distinguished from the imported article after being so transferred, it will always be carried on so long as the government offers a premium upon the doing of it, as it does by using the distinguishing stamp of which we complain. It may be asked: Is not such use of old boxes prohibited by law? We answer, yes! But this prohibition does not hurt the men engaged in their use any more than the "Pope's bull" hurts the comet.

In conclusion, we respectfully submit that as this stamp performs no useful office to the government, but really injures a large body of industrious citizens, we leave the matter in the hands of your honorable body with the certainty that our complaint will receive your consideration, and that you will do us the justice we think our position deserves.

H. H. STEVENS.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. H. H. STEVENS, of Lexington, Ky., in regard to the duty on machinery for preparing and spinning flax, hemp, jute, &c., was ordered to be printed:

Kentucky has for many years been a hemp-producing country, and much effort has been made to have the plant water-rotted so as to produce a better quality of fiber, but the expense has been so great and the corresponding price so low, that all efforts of any magnitude in that direction have been abandoned. The fiber is fine and when water-rotted is equal to the best Italian. Specimens of water-rotted hemp show this to be a fact. The present system of dew-rotting, subject to all the fluctuations of the weather, is very uncertain, and produces an inferior and often weak fiber and of a poor color. In ancient times a bounty was paid in many of the Eastern States to induce the growing of flax and hemp. In these later days, if any legislation can induce a strong effort to water-rot hemp and flax, it will add much to the wealth of the country. The growing of fibrous plants is as simple as the growing of wheat or corn. It is when the manipulation of the plant, to secure the fiber and make it valuable, begins, that the trouble and expense comes in. It is the handling of the stalk that makes or mars the fiber. An Englishman, some thirty years ago, said of American flax: "They handle it like hay." It is the same to-day. All machinery for preparing and spinning flax, hemp, jute, &c., should be put on the free list. There is no legitimate linen machinery made in this country. It is all bastard.

Cotton need not fear either flax, hemp, or jute. Each have their legitimate uses. Some thirty years ago a little bill, which your chairman may recall, was before the Senate. Senator Borland, of Arkansas, voted against it. Senator John Davis, of Massachusetts, asked him why. He replied, "Because I fear the competition of linen with cotton." The thirty years intervening have not produced one linen mill in the whole country. There are many spinning mills, but the linen mill then established, and taking the flax from the bale and making it into finished woven fabrics, exclusively, has not been duplicated.

The rate of duty should be ad valorem on fibers as well as manufactured goods.

THOMAS C. SMITH.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. THOMAS C. SMITH, of Greenpoint, N. Y., manufacturer of porcelain, addressed the Commission as follows :

I represent almost the only manufactory of porcelain in the United States. While the Commission has heard considerable upon the subject of pottery, the special branch of it which I represent has not been properly laid before you. Therefore, I will state to you a few facts connected with the business :

I appear before you to represent the manufacture of hard porcelain table ware (that species of ware commonly known as French china), using the same materials and made by the same detail of process that is employed in making French porcelain.

The present duty of 45 per cent. on white china should not be altered, as it is preferable to have a low and permanent rate of duty than a temporary high rate of duty, with the certain prospect of a lowering of that high rate in a few years and again agitating this question. This present rate, with the full intent of the law properly executed as regards classification of goods, and goods honestly invoiced, is sufficient to enable the manufacturer in this country to compete with imported goods, by the further application of machinery and a constant effort to lessen cost of production.

The duty on all decorated ware should be 60 per cent., for the reason that in old countries, where labor is abundant, great numbers seek employment in this line, and are content with low wages at light work; whereas in this country, in the absence of free art schools, which should be supported by our States and principal cities, the few young people who learn to paint a shrub or flower consider themselves artists and demand wages equal to their pretensions. Consequently, that branch of our business pertaining to the decoration of ware is dependent principally upon foreign workmen, at high wages, who have learned their trade in the schools or factories of Europe.

The present duty of \$5 per ton on clay should be reduced to \$2.50, or, at most, \$3 per ton, for the reason that the duty on clay should not be higher than the duty on articles manufactured from it. At the present time the duty is from 80 to 130 per cent. At \$2.50 per ton the duty would average from 40 to 60 per cent.

By the PRESIDENT :

Question. You are a manufacturer of porcelain?—Answer. I am the only manufacturer in the United States who makes a line of table ware porcelain.

Q. Does it correspond in character to the Sèvres porcelain?—A. Yes, sir; the analysis is the same as the Sèvres.

Q. What is the prospect for an extension of your industry in this country?—A. I see no reason why it should not be extended if the present duty is adhered to. The duty of course is a low one, but as it has been the rate for some time we have got used to it, and I would rather have it remain as it is than take the chances of any change in the tariff. I can get along with the tariff as it is. I have introduced a large amount of machinery, which I employ in the manufacture of those

goods, and I have been spending large sums of money in that way during the present year.

Q. Where do you get your raw material?—A. Some from this country, but it largely comes from Europe. The clay in this country is not equal to the clay of Europe, and will not make as fine porcelain as the clay of Europe will, for the reason that all the clays that have been discovered as yet, so far as I am able to judge, although I do not pretend to be a geologist, are sedimentary deposits. You can make use of our clay for porous bodies, but for making vitreous bodies you require clay coming from the primitive formation. You cannot make them from a sedimentary deposit, and all the clays found in America—all we can get hold off at all events—are of that character.

Q. The kaolins of Europe are from the decomposition of feldspar in place?—A. Yes, sir; the decomposition of granite rock in place. You cannot make first-class porcelain without a primitive rock.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. We have the feldspar, I believe, in this country?—A. Yes, sir; we have the finest feldspar in the world; there is nothing like it elsewhere. The best feldspar in Europe comes from Sweden. I visited last summer all the principal clay mines of France and England in order to get information on this subject.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Q. Have you seen any of the clays from Floyd County, in the State of Georgia?—A. Yes, sir; I think that is all a sedimentary deposit. I have never seen the place. I have tried to make porcelain from the South Carolina clays, but there is not coal enough in this country to make a vitrification. It is excellent for many purposes, however. All the fluxing properties of the potash is washed out of the sedimentary deposit, but it is retained in the primitive deposit. You cannot get fire enough to bring vitrification out of a sedimentary deposit.

Q. This place in Georgia is on a side-hill. It is a vein of rock, and the clay that has been dug out seems to have been a decomposition of that rock.—A. Well, I have not had any such deposit as that sent to my factory.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. What is the freight protection on clay?—A. The freight protection is all the other way. I have a cargo of English clay of 500 tons afloat now that cost me 10 shillings a ton, or \$2.50 freight. I am taking in a cargo of 100 tons from Pennsylvania that cost me \$3.50 freight from the interior of Pennsylvania, at a place about 12 miles from Wilmington. That makes a difference of \$1 against our clays here.

Q. What would be the result of free kaolin or free clay?—A. I do not think it should be thought of for a moment. It would kill everything dead. We need the development of our own clays, and an incentive to get people to seek to develop our own clay mines, and we should give clay a good fair protection. It should have from 50 to 60 per cent. protection.

Q. You would recommend that amount of duty, although foreign clay is the better of the two?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you think that development would ever give us as good clay?—A. I have no sort of question that we shall strike a primitive deposit in this country; it cannot be otherwise.

Q. It has not been found yet?—A. It has not been developed as yet. Some clay has been found in Connecticut which I have urged the owner

to develop; but whenever a man discovers a clay bank on his property in this country he immediately wants to form a stock company and swindle the community, instead of going in and developing it. There is no more question about there being primitive deposits in this country than there is that we have a country. It has got to be found and will be found. I have visited all the prominent clay mines of this country and of Europe, and, although I do not pretend to be a geologist, I can see nothing in this country but what I consider a sedimentary deposit.

Q. Is it a fact that the grade of clay in the older countries has been improving; that is, the quality of the clay?—A. No, sir; it is simply the fact that in Cornwall, England, in the upheaval of the rock there, from some cause or other, the hot water has extracted the potash from the rock and it has tumbled down. You will see in those quarries large masses of rock in a semi-decomposed state. They have to go around and take the clay on the other side of the rock and leave it isolated, where more comes off of it during another year in decomposition. That is taken by many of the English potters, ground up as it is and used. That is called Cornwall stone.

P. F. TURNER.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. P. F. TURNER, of New York, in regard to the duty on gut strings for musical instruments, was ordered to be printed:

I respectfully beg to invite your attention to the following facts in relation to the manufacture of an article in which I am largely interested.

In the year 1867, I started to manufacture gut strings for musical instruments of all kinds, and invested a large capital, and also imported skilled labor in order to insure success. After many months in preparing machinery and material, we produced an article equal in all respects to the best foreign goods. This so intimidated the importers of gut strings that they formed a syndicate and proceeded to Washington and had the duty removed on gut strings. Since then I have struggled hard in order to compete with the foreign manufacturers, who have so great an advantage in cheap labor. The raw material here is plentiful and as good in quality as the foreign, and only wants a small protection to make the business a large industry in this country. There now exists a duty on silk strings for musical instruments, of 60 per cent., and as it takes an expert to know the difference between a gut string and a silk string, I am in a position to know that the duty is not all collected on silk strings. I ask you to give this matter your consideration, and ask that there be a small duty put on this article so as to give a slight protection to overcome the advantage that foreign manufacturers have in cheap labor.

E. T. COX.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Prof. E. T. COX, of San Francisco, Cal., addressed the Commission as follows:

I believe in a tariff for the protection of home industries; but desire to call your attention to the tariff on copper ore, which acts directly against home manufacturers and commerce.

The tariff of 3 cents per pound on copper in ores prohibits their importation from Mexico and South America into the United States, and causes said ores to be shipped to England, France, and Germany. Indeed, Mexico and Chili are the chief sources of copper supply to the enormous smelting works of Swansea. Remove this duty and the copper ores of Mexico and Chili will naturally come to the copper smelters of the United States, and instead of being importers of copper metal, we will become large exporters.

I am credibly informed that no less than three copper-smelting establishments had to shut down when the tariff on ores went into effect. So that now we have but two copper-smelting works on the Atlantic coast.

Nearly all of the copper ores in the eastern part of the United States are sulphurets, while those of Chili and Mexico are mostly oxidized ores, which, by mixing with the sulphides, greatly facilitate and cheapen the process of reduction. It is the wonderful facility with which Swansea receives all grades of ore from every part of the world that at present gives them such supremacy in the smelting business. To illustrate:

A friend has a valuable copper mine on the Pacific coast, in Lower California, and would prefer to ship his ores to the United States, but is prevented from so doing by the tariff. Last winter when he had a vessel load ready for delivery I telegraphed to the Orford Nickel and Copper Company of this city to know what they would pay for 30 per cent. ore. The duty being \$18 a ton on such ore made the English market preferable, and the industries of the United States were thereby crippled.

This is only a single example that came under my own observation. But I am likewise aware of the fact that Mexican copper ores, that would naturally come to the United States by rail and sea in large quantities, are, on account of the tariff, sent to Europe. The same may be said of Chili ores.

The extensive railroad system now connecting this country with Mexico, and our shipping interest, will both be greatly benefited by the abolition of the tariff on copper ores; and it cannot be doubted for a moment that such a consummation will give a great impetus to the business of smelting copper in the United States. California, now without a single copper-smelting establishment, will at once be enabled to go into the business, from the fact of being able to secure oxidized ores from Mexico and Chili to mix with her more refractory sulphide ores.

The marvelous uses to which electricity is now being applied requires for its extension the replacing of iron by copper wire, and in many other departments of manufacture copper will be introduced to advantage by an increase of its production in the United States.

By the PRESIDENT:

Question. How would the introduction of these copper ores affect the extensive mining interests in the Lake Superior region?—Answer. I do not see that it would affect them at all in any way. It would be a benefit to all our smelting interests even in Arizona, where we have smelting works, and we shall probably have some in New Mexico and Nevada. All these various smelting establishments are contiguous to the borders of Mexico, and will receive a class of ores that will be an advantage to their works.

Q. Don't you think it will conflict with the interest of the owners of copper ore in the United States?—A. No, sir; it will not. We do not produce enough metal now to supply the demand, and we shall have the ores that would naturally come here, and that go to England and France. At Swansea one establishment smelts over 1,000 tons a day, whereas in this country the capacity at Bergen Point is only 150 tons a day. That could be easily increased if we could get the ores. The sulphate ores here have to be roasted and go through several processes before being subjected to the smelting process, making them much more costly to handle.

Q. Do you think it would facilitate the mining interests of California?—A. I do indeed. I think it would be the means of establishing smelting establishments in California, whereas there are none there at present, and I think it would increase the works in this country.

Q. You have been interested in geological surveys?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What State have you been geologist of?—A. I assisted in the survey of Kentucky, Arkansas, and Illinois, and I have been State geologist of Indiana.

Q. The statement was made here the other day that there were no clays in the United States suitable for making pipes. Do you know any facts in relation to that?—A. I am pretty well acquainted with the clays in Indiana and Illinois. We have in Indiana probably the finest clay in the world. I was one of the judges on natural products at the Centennial, and examined every clay on exhibition. The white clays which are termed Indianate are unsurpassed in whiteness and purity by any porcelain clays known. The ordinary pipe-clay is an inferior clay. In North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Virginia there are vast quantities of clays that are admirably adapted to the manufacture of long-stem pipes, and we have many of our pure clays well adapted for that purpose. There is no country which produces a finer terra cotta clay than Indiana and Illinois; and there is also some of this white clay in the southern part of Illinois.

The PRESIDENT. The Commission had before it at Indianapolis some testimony in relation to the making of encaustic tiles. Can you tell me the resources of this country for making these tiles and the future prospects for that business?

The WITNESS. Yes, sir; I was the means of starting those works at Indianapolis. I was acquainted with Mr. Doulton, who had a large exhibit at Philadelphia, and induced him to go to Indianapolis. I had these clays there and he examined them, and said we had every facility for manufacturing tiles; and the only reason he did not come out and start an establishment here was that he had been too long established in London; the industry had descended from father to son for generations, and he did not like to split up the family. But finally I succeeded in inducing capital to go there and put up those works. I produced clays from the surrounding country, and satisfied them we had every-

thing necessary for the industry, and they now have established works of large proportions, and are manufacturing as fine encaustic tiles as can be made in the world, and have every facility for doing it.

I desire to state that I have received a communication from a friend in regard to the effect of the tariff laws upon the copper-manufacturing business, which I desire to submit at this time.

The PRESIDENT. Do you wish to incorporate it in your statement?

The WITNESS. Yes, sir; I would like to incorporate the whole of it.

The letter referred to is as follows:

NEW YORK, *October 3, 1882.*

E. T. Cox, esq.:

MY DEAR SIR: I have read your remarks upon the effect of the tariff upon the copper-manufacturing business, and, as a large manufacturer or smelter, I am glad to say that what you have said I believe to be strictly the case.

Previous to the present tariff there were a number of smelters in the East, who depended largely upon supplies of oxidized ores from Cuba and South America to enable them to work up the sulphuret ores which this country could alone produce.

The Point Shirley Works, in Boston Harbor, and Mr. Crocker's works, in Taunton, both relied largely on South American carbonates, while the present Baltimore works were built to smelt Cuban ores.

Mr. Davis, the proprietor of Point Shirley, told me that the day the duty was put on ores he shut his works down, and they have never run since. The same story is about true of Crocker's, in Taunton; for, though he did not shut up, still he has not done much since. And the story is about the same for all the works; and it is only since the influx of Western copper bullion and mattes has come that works have been able to live here at all.

It is easy to see how shutting up works here has shut up mines. Formerly San Francisco was a large exporter of ores of copper; now scarcely any are sent out, while practically all their mines are abandoned. Cargo after cargo of ores used to come round the Horn. I am told on the best authority the copper is still there, only there are no buyers.

Let me point my tale still further: Small lots of carbonate ores, chiefly from Battle Mountain in Nevada, are still offered in San Francisco, and we buy them when we can get them. Now, the curious fact is that England, or rather Swansea, is our competitor, and gets more of the ore than we do, in spite of the fact that copper is generally 3 cents per pound higher here than in England. One of the chief things which enable them to do this is the fact that they can get mixtures of ores from all over the world; and where we have to spend time, money, and patience in roasting or calcining, they mix their ores so as to avoid this most expensive part of copper-making. I wish I could append to this letter a short table showing the size of the copper-smelting business of England, almost entirely carried on in foreign ores. The business is colossal; while we here, having ore enough to supply the world, do not export any smelted copper at all.

Hoping I have not tired you with these details, I am, &c.,

W. E. C. E.

THOMAS W. LUDLOW.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. THOMAS W. LUDLOW, of Yonkers, N. Y., in regard to the duty upon foreign books, was ordered to be printed:

Without touching upon the question of protection or non-protection, which is not of my competence, I beg to call attention to a feature of the tariff upon the importation of foreign books which seems objectionable to every scholar with whose opinion I am acquainted.

I refer to the duty levied upon such works of study or reference as have not been republished in this country. An advanced student must have the benefit of the latest books upon his particular subject, or fall behind his fellows elsewhere. Our public libraries, as a rule, are very slow to import the books to which I refer. In my own subject of antiquities (and it is the same in other subjects), I could mention a large number of standard books which, although published, many of them, fifteen or twenty years ago, are not to be found yet, for instance, on the shelves of the Astor Library in New York.

Nine out of ten foreign books of learning are never reprinted in America. The American student is therefore compelled to import many foreign publications; and the duty of 25 per cent. added to the heavy original cost of many works on science or on art, falls as a great hardship upon a class of our citizens who are seldom provided with large incomes. On the other hand, the profit to the government from this duty, which, in so far as it relates to books of study, seems like a premium on ignorance, is not large—while the bulk of the importation of foreign books consists of works of fiction, which may properly be considered luxuries, and as such subjected with some reason to an entrance duty.

I venture, therefore, to suggest, if the matter commends itself to the Commission, that you should take action toward the repeal of the duty upon the importation of foreign books, or of such of them as are not reprinted in America, with the exception of works of fiction.

S. J. BACH ET AL.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. S. J. BACH, of New York, importer of window glass, addressed the Commission as follows:

We appear before your honorable body as a committee of the importers of window glass, with the intention of showing the unfairness of the present tariff in levying a duty of 100 per cent. on an article like common window glass, as necessary to human life and comfort as even food or clothing.

Look where we may, we see its indispensable necessity, whether it be palace or hovel, barn or stable. By reference to official statistics, we find that for the fiscal year ending June 30 the value of importations on window glass amounted to—

Years.	Value of im- portations.	Duty paid.	Equal to—
1870.....	\$652, 842	\$487, 325	<i>Per cent.</i> 75
1880.....	1, 405, 977	973, 030	69
1881.....	1, 441, 920	1, 003, 425	70

Taking, however, the actual importations of one of our importing houses, during the year 1881, shows that an average duty of 95½ per cent. was paid, while another importing house shows that the amount of the duties paid by them equaled 92 per cent.

The question will naturally arise, Why should so necessary an article be forced to pay so excessive a taxation as to more than double its original cost when it becomes actually used? High price for window glass means high rents for the people, whose very light and sunshine is thus taxed to excess.

It can certainly not be for the purpose of protecting an industry in its infancy; nay, window glass has been manufactured in this country for a century past, or almost so, and the census of 1880 shows us that there are employed in its manufacture in this country some 3,800 people, every one of whom will continue to be thus employed should their rate of duty be reduced; it can, therefore, certainly not be for the protection of these employés.

What, then, can be the object of continuing the present excessive rate of duty? Certainly not to make the people of the United States pay a subsidy to a few domestic manufacturers who have for a number of years been deriving the benefit of so enormous a protection.

At the present time the duty is regulated by measurement and levied by weight, which weight is ascertained by the weighing of a few boxes only of an entire shipment generally consisting of thousands of boxes. The weight of these few boxes is accepted as the average weight of entire shipments, and duty assessed accordingly; this mode was adopted as the only practicable one, as it would be almost an impossibility to unpack each and every box imported for the purpose of ascertaining the exact weight of its contents, which could not be done without the employment of an extraordinarily large force of officials, besides immense

storage and working rooms, to say nothing of the considerable damage such handling would entail.

To obviate this excessive taxation, and at the same time to arrive at a simple and economical mode of levying duty, we beg to suggest that the specific duty be abolished and a rate ad valorem be established of 35 per cent.

Under the present protective tariff glass—plain, pressed, or molded—pays 35 per cent., and all articles of glass cut, engraved, painted, colored, and stained 40 per cent.; hence a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem on an article of common necessity should be all-sufficient and be at the same time a source of considerable revenue to the government, while affording ample protection to the manufacturers, who would be further protected by the packing and carrying charges, which on so bulky an article are very costly and expensive; this would be equitable to the people who after all pay the taxes levied, no matter in what form they may be made.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. How does the price of window glass compare in our markets with former prices?—A. I cannot give you the figures. The price may have become lower, as everything else has become lower. The mode of manufacture has enabled manufacturers to sell everything at a lower rate than formerly.

Q. What proportion of the glass used in this country is manufactured?—A. We manufacture 2,500,000 boxes of 50 square feet to the box and import 600,000 to 800,000; that is to say, two-thirds of the glass is manufactured in this country and one-third imported.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. Is the price of window glass so uniform that there is no likelihood of questions arising as to market value?—A. Such questions will of course arise, as in regard to any other article, because the price varies according to the condition of the business. But a mode could be adopted by requiring statements to be given every month of the price, which every importer would be willing to submit.

Q. You mean to fix an arbitrary price for every month?—A. No, sir. Glass is manufactured in Belgium, and in England, in a few districts, and the price is well known there.

Q. Can you suggest any simpler form of specific duties than the present one?—A. I could; to make a uniform rate of duty on each and every foot of glass (not upon the pound) imported into this country. At present we pay by the pound. Window glass is bought in boxes commercially known as 50-foot boxes. It is impossible to have exactly 50 feet in each box, although each box has a number of lights or panes according to a custom established years ago. Take glass 24 by 36 inches and there are nine lights in a box, making 54 feet, but we buy and sell it for 50 feet, although we have to pay at the rate of 54 feet, as represented by its weight. We get no more and pay no more for it. You could fix a certain amount of duty for each and every foot. By the specific duty you have the expensive and the cheaper article paying the same rate. We import four classes of glass at present, and they all pay the same rate of duty.

Mr. J. A. WALLER, of New York, representing the importers of polished plate glass, said:

I represent the importers of polished plate glass, and respectfully request that the duty on the same be made 40 per cent. ad valorem. The

present duty is excessive and unnecessary, as it restricts the importations. It averages over 100 per cent., and the revenue would be increased by the reduction asked for, while, if protection for the American manufacturers is desired, the rate of 40 per cent. ad valorem with the ocean freight, &c., makes the protection over 50 per cent., which will give ample protection to all.

The importations of one house for the year 1881 show as follows:

Amount imported	square feet	562, 627
Cost		\$182, 291
Duty paid		\$218, 117

Making an average duty of 119.65 per cent.

By Commissioner BOTELEER :

Question. Do you represent the manufacturers of plate glass?—Answer. Yes, sir; I represent the Manchester Plate Glass Company, of England.

A. KLIPSTEIN.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. A. KLIPSTEIN, of New York, in regard to the duties on dyestuffs and chemicals, was ordered to be printed:

I would recommend putting upon the free list every dyestuff and chemical used in dyeing, calico printing, &c., and every chemical used in making paper, soap, and glass, in bleaching and other industries. These articles may be fairly classed as raw materials for the use of these industries. If these various industries could get their dyestuffs and chemicals free, the saving to them would be so considerable that they would be upon a much better footing for competing with the foreign manufacturers, and it would lead to a large increase of the export trade in their products.

In the second place, I would recommend the abolition of the clause in the present tariff imposing 20 per cent. ad valorem duty upon all articles not otherwise provided for. Every article imported into this country can now be classed under a proper heading, and this clause is not necessary any more. It works a hardship very often, as it imposes a duty on articles where none was intended to be imposed. Below are some few instances of this.

For the same reasons I would recommend the abolition of the "similitude clause" in the present tariff.

No portion of the tariff is more complicated and in a greater muddle than that relating to dyestuffs and chemicals, these articles being comparatively little known and the study of their relation to each other difficult. Besides, many persons have an interest to keep it mixed up and confused.

I would recommend taking the testimony of the appraiser and his assistants, who are well conversant with the difficulties in classifying this kind of merchandise.

I cannot go now over the whole list, but I proceed to the consideration of a few articles.

Aniline dyes and colors should be made free. They pay now the enormous duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem and 50 cents per pound. At the time the tariff was framed these colors were comparatively little known, and their importance not recognized. Their price was at that time very high, and the 50 cents per pound specific duty was not felt so much. Since then great progress has been made in the manufacture of these dyes, the prices have been very considerably reduced, and large quantities are used.

The difference in duty which our print works, woolen mills, dyers, &c., have to pay is in many instances very considerable, many mills using large quantities, and the saving would amount to each of them to many thousand dollars per year.

The duty on the lower-priced colors, in consequence of the 50 cents per pound specific duty, amounts to 130 per cent. Notwithstanding this enormous duty, there is only a very small quantity (comparatively) of aniline colors made in this country, and the industry has made no progress here in twenty years. This is owing to many circumstances.

What is made at Albany, N. Y., and at some other small factories

in the United States, is only the first stage, viz, fuchsine (red). The higher class of colors are not produced, and it is not likely that they will be made of good enough quality.

It is not just that large industries (like the cotton, woolen, silk, calico printing, &c.) should be taxed heavily to support these small factories.

Other dyestuffs and chemicals used in dyeing, calico printing, &c.—some of these are already on the free list, whilst others are taxed for no apparent reason. It does not appear, for instance, reasonable that such articles as archil and extract of archil, cudbear or extract of cudbear should be free of duty whilst the following articles are taxed; for if a high enough duty was imposed on the above, no doubt they could also be made here.

I would recommend putting the following articles on the free list: Extracts of dyewood, every kind, and including such articles as extract sumac, extract nut-galls, extract of chestnut, extract of indigo, and all the different carmines and lakes of the same materials, the above being taxed now variously at 10 per cent. and 20 per cent.; also, on the free list: sumac, 10 per cent.; for there is no reason in taxing this when catechu and gambier come in free of duty, and annatto and all extracts of, also. Also I recommend to be put on the free list: barwood, ground, 20 per cent.; myrobalans, ground, 20 per cent.; bleu d'orient, 25 per cent.; turkey red, 25 per cent.; cudbear substitute (aniline residuum), 20 per cent.; indigo auxiliary (as zinc dust), 20 per cent.; nut-galls, ground, 20 per cent.; tin crystals, 30 per cent. All of these articles being used in dyeing, &c., should come in free.

The following articles pay duty: tannic acid, \$1 per pound; ultramarine, 6 cents per pound; prussiate of potash, red, 10 cents per pound; prussiate of potash, yellow, 5 cents per pound; bichromate of potash, 4 cents per pound; tartar emetic, 15 cents per pound; and many other articles to be found in Heyl's United States Import Duties, which should be on the free list just as much as verdigris, oxalic acid, and picric acid, which are now free. If a high enough duty were put on the latter articles, they could be made here to advantage, too, no doubt. Egg-yolk (used for preparing kid leather for gloves and uppers) pays now 20 per cent. as a "manufactured article not otherwise provided for". This shows the working of the clause in the tariff (section 2516 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, No. 1816 in Heyl's book) taxing manufactured articles not otherwise provided for 20 per cent., for albumen (being the white of eggs dried and preserved) is on the free list, and, being specially enumerated, comes in free, but the yolks of eggs, having been accidentally omitted in the enumeration, pay 20 per cent.; aniline oil and arseniate of aniline are free, but on the other hand aniline salts (hydrochlorate of aniline) pay 20 per cent. as a manufactured article not otherwise provided for.

Through these tariff restrictions our manufacturers of textiles, &c., are prevented from using to advantage many articles like carmines, lakes, and other special preparations for calico printing, &c., which their competitors in Europe can employ.

Madder lake is taxed 25 per cent., but on the other hand extract of madder is free; naphthaline yellow and naphthaline brown pay 35 per cent. and 50 cents per pound, as aniline colors, under the similitude clause, although they are not aniline colors, not any more than other products now assimilated to aniline colors and paying the same duty.

If every article used in dyeing and calico printing were put on the free list, this would do away at once with the many vexatious difficulties

resulting in appeals to the Secretary and in lawsuits, which are caused by the present complicated state of the tariff.

One clause in the tariff says "articles in a crude state used in dyeing and tanning, free"; and another one "articles not in a crude state, used in dyeing and tanning, not otherwise provided for, 20 per cent. Glue, common, 20 per cent., I would recommend putting on the free list, as it serves for so many industries.

Ammonia, sulphate of, used as a fertilizing material, pays 20 per cent. But this country exports this article instead of importing any. It should be put on the free list.

Soda being used largely in many industries, should be put on the free list.

I would call the special attention of the Commission to the position of potash in the tariff. This article is used largely in making glass, soap, and other articles. The tariff says "Black salts of crude potash, free"; "crude potash, 20 per cent."; but the carbonate of potash and salts of tartar (both used in the above industries) are taxed $1\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound as "hydrate of potash."

I would advise putting potash on the free list on account of its importance in industry and also to preserve the forests, as its production here leads to a reckless destruction of wood. Abroad it is made from the residue of the manufacture of sugar from beet-roots and other residues.

MARTIN PRESCOTT.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

Mr. MARTIN PRESCOTT, of New York, addressed the Commission as follows:

I desire to address the Commission in regard to having the tax removed from matches.

The PRESIDENT. The Commission has nothing to do with internal-revenue taxes.

The WITNESS. But you have in regard to the duty on matches, and I desire to address you in regard to that subject, and also in regard to manufactures of glass or glassware. The manufacturers combine against the interests of the people. The poor people seem to have no interest whatever which they are bound to respect. I am here without pay, favor, or anything else in expectation. I simply appeal in behalf of the citizens of this country. The Standard Oil Company first swung into line, and they have monopolized all the oil territory, all our railroads, and all our steamboats. We cannot get a gallon of oil except through their company. Since they have met with so much success, all the other manufacturers in the country have swung into the same line. I understand you gentlemen are sitting here representing the interests of the people, and that is the reason I come before you. I want to see if we cannot get some one in Congress who will represent the interests of the poor as well as the rich. I want to see if the time will ever come when we will have men who will represent our people instead of monopolies of various kinds. I would not come before you under any other circumstances. I have appealed to the match manufacturers in all other ways, and to the burner men. They charge us \$1.65 a dozen for burners that we could have bought for 65 cents before their combination. These things do not benefit the workingman; they do not benefit the poor man in any shape, form, or manner. Where three or four persons a few years ago could live on \$1 a day, it now takes \$3 or \$4 a day to support one. We cannot keep on in this way unless we are determined soon to become a nation of nothing but millionaires and tramps.

The PRESIDENT. I have to suggest that you will confine your remarks entirely to the discussion of questions bearing directly upon the tariff.

The WITNESS. I am trying to get into that line as far as I can. I wish to get the duties taken off of all manufactured goods so long as the manufacturers of this country combine against the interests of the people. I cannot explain in any other way what I wish except to show you how they act in these isolated cases. In the match business there is an income of \$4,000,000. The Diamond Match Company take \$4,000,000 from us also, which makes \$8,000,000—a great deal to the poor, but not so much to the rich. By removing the duty it allows outside manufacturers to come in and sell us goods at prices we can afford to pay for them. What I wish to get at is, that your Commission will recommend some law to Congress by which they will admit all manufactured goods duty free into this country so long as the manufacturers combine against our interests.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. You wish your recommendation to apply to all manufactures?—Answer. Yes, sir; all kinds of manufactures where the manufacturers combine against the interests of the people, and to remain in force so long as that combination exists, and then to be removed.

INTERNATIONAL PAVEMENT COMPANY.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following communication from the INTERNATIONAL PAVEMENT COMPANY of New York, in regard to the duty upon asphaltum, was ordered to be printed:

The International Pavement Company, a corporation organized under the laws of the State of Connecticut, with its principal office located at No. 71 Broadway, in the city of New York, and doing business in the States of Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Illinois, and Louisiana, respectfully represent that they are extensively engaged in the manufacture of blocks for street pavements, as well as tiles for sidewalk and other purposes; that these tiles and pavement blocks are composed of crushed limestone and asphaltum, with a certain small proportion of a residuum oil to give the asphaltum a proper consistency.

The ingredients are mixed together while hot, and then subjected to a great pressure in molds.

That they are now using large quantities of asphaltum in their various works, all of which comes from countries other than the United States.

That, with the exception of the Pacific coast, there are no known natural deposits of asphaltum in the United States that afford the article in a sufficient quantity, of a proper quality, to answer the purposes and requirements of the said company in the manufacture of their products.

And while the said company make these representations more especially in their own behalf, they would state that asphaltum enters largely into the composition of classes of pavement other than that made by them, as also for roofing purposes. It is also extensively used in making water-tight cellars and foundations for buildings. It is used extensively in the manufacture of varnishes.

By reference to official tables it will be seen that the total importations of asphaltum into the United States for the year ending June 30, 1881, was 9,919 tons, with a total valuation of \$80,805, upon which 25 per cent. ad valorem duties were paid—\$20,201.25.

It is further represented by your memorialists, and stated as a fact, that the crude asphaltum, as imported, contains a very large proportion of impurities that are absolutely worthless and useless. And as will be seen by reference to the following analyses, these impurities, although substantially the same in kind, differ materially in quantity as taken from different localities.

At the present time the principal source of supply is from the island of Trinidad.

Analyses of average samples taken from a cargo of asphaltum received by the company from Trinidad about July 25, 1882, gave the following determinations:

Certificate 125.

	Per cent.
Moisture.....	25.640
Inorganic matter.....	30.471

	56.111
Volatile bituminous matter.....	35.640
Fixed carbon.....	8.249

	43.889

	100.000

The moisture is water.

The inorganic matter is composed of silica and silicates principally (86 per cent.) as per the following analysis:

The volatile bituminous matter and the fixed carbon combined compose the asphaltum proper.

Analysis of the inorganic matter contained in the foregoing:

Certificate 126.

	Per cent.
Silica and silicates.....	86. 10
Alumina and protoxide iron.....	12. 60
Lime.....	1. 30
	<hr/> 100. 00

Thus it will be seen that only 44 per cent. of the foregoing is asphaltum proper.

Results of analyses of asphaltum taken from the natural deposits near Mariel, Cuba, show as follows:

Certificate 119.

Moisture.....	3. 958	
Inorganic matter.....	36. 463	
	<hr/>	40. 421
Volatile bituminous matter.....	36. 416	
Fixed carbon.....	23. 187	
	<hr/>	59. 603
		<hr/> 100. 000

The inorganic matter in above is composed of—

	Per cent.
Silica and silicates.....	68. 925
Alumina.....	6. 8975
Sulphide iron.....	2. 675
Lime.....	12. 026
Carbon dioxide.....	9. 4489
	<hr/> 99. 9724

Thus 60 per cent. of the Mariel (Cuban) crude asphaltum is asphaltum proper.

By reference to the certificates of analyses, it will be seen that the proportion of asphaltum proper contained in the crude material from different localities is:

Certificates Nos. 125, 95, 94, 119.

	Per cent.
From the Trinidad.....	44
From the Venezuelan.....	51
From the Bauer, Cuba.....	61
From the Mariel, Cuba.....	60

Your memorialists would further represent, that the present mode of ascertaining the import duties on asphaltum to be paid to the United States, under any system of tariff, whether ad valorem or specific, is unjustly discriminating, and that whatever duties may be recommended by you should be based upon the volatile bituminous matter and the fixed carbon contained in the article as imported.

And they further represent that an ad valorem duty based upon the cost of the article at the port of shipment is and would be unjustly discriminating, inasmuch as the cost of transportation of the article from the place of its natural deposit to the point of shipment might be more than double in one instance what it would be in another.

In the one instance it might be on mule-back, over a mountain trail, for a distance of many miles. Here the cost of inland transportation would greatly exceed the cost of extracting the material from its place of natural deposit.

In another instance the mode of transportation might be by wagon, over a good road, a mile or less in length, to a shipping point. In another it might be transported by a railroad built specially for the purpose, or partly by rail and partly by river.

In either case the actual value at the point of shipment being substantially the same in the proportion of the asphaltum proper contained in the crude article, but the cost of extracting and delivering it on board of ship greatly differing.

The cost of extracting the material would also greatly vary as between different localities or natural deposits.

In the one instance it might be taken directly from the surface.

In another, deep shafts with expensive pumping and hoisting machinery would have to be used.

Then, the cost of delivering the article from its place of natural deposit to the point of shipment would greatly vary as between any two localities. And as there is no local demand at the places where the article is found, or in the countries where it is found, there can be no standard of value in those places other than the cost of extraction and transportation to a shipping point.

Then, to establish an import duty based upon the cost of extracting this natural product and its transportation to ship, militates severely and unjustly as against the consumers.

The owners of natural deposits of asphaltum wherever situated, the most favorably located in point of proximity to tide water, in connection with other superior natural advantages, can have no objection to the tariff as it now exists. In ordinary practice such owners should enjoy all that the features, the quality of the material, the position, and the natural advantages of their deposits, entitle them to.

The owners of deposits possessing less favorable features and advantages must necessarily submit to the natural disadvantages under which they labor, and be contented under fair competition with less profits than accrue to the former.

But if these natural disadvantages are arbitrarily increased, in proportion to their magnitude, then such arbitrary increase becomes a measure of injustice and undue discrimination as between the two and always in favor of the former.

It operates to prevent a healthful and legitimate competition in the production and supply of an important article of consumption.

Your memorialists would further represent, that the imposition of a specific duty of — cents per ton, based upon the production of volatile bituminous matter and fixed carbon contained in the asphaltum as it is imported, cannot possibly injure or affect any productive asphaltum industry in the United States.

It would subserve the evident policy of the government in judiciously reducing the tariff upon imports of articles that are not produced in the United States, and intended for manufacturing processes. It would encourage and conduce to an increased importation and consumption of the article.

A specific duty would reconcile conflicting interests as between the respective owners of deposits of asphaltum in foreign countries and consumers in the United States, generated by the evidently unjust *ad valorem* import duty now imposed.

H. KOELKENBECK.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following supplementary statement, submitted by Mr. H. KOELKENBECK, of Chicago, Ill., in regard to the cultivation of flax, was ordered to be printed :

Area devoted in 1880 to the cultivation of flax in the following countries, with the quantity of flax fiber produced in each country, the approximate total value of same, and the approximate yield per acre.

Countries.	Acreage.	Quantity of flax fiber produced.	Value of same.	Yield per acre, fiber alone.
	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>		
Russia	2,000,000	250,000	\$50,000,000	About \$25 00
Germany	320,302	57,432	11,600,000	About 35 00
Austria and Hungary	245,000	50,463	10,000,000	About 44 00
Italy	200,350	22,953	4,000,000	About 23 00
France	162,000	36,900	11,000,000	About 68 00
Ireland	157,534	24,508	7,500,000	About 48 00
Belgium	140,001	20,580	3,000,000	About 64 00
Holland	44,114	7,386	2,200,000	About 50 00
Sweden	33,630	4,205	850,000	About 25 00
Egypt	15,000	1,875	375,000	About 25 00
Great Britain	8,985	1,308	300,000	About 33 00
Denmark	6,292	787	158,000	About 25 00
Greece	957	119	25,000	About 26 00
Western States of America	3,344,320 1,127,300	487,675 (*)*	108,408,000 18,000,000	Average 32 00 7 10

* Fiber burned and otherwise destroyed.

† Value of seed saved.

Area under flax in 1881 in the following States :

	Acres.
Iowa	287,400
Indiana	193,400
Kansas	160,900
Illinois	160,300
Minnesota	95,200
Ohio	80,600
Missouri	55,000
Nebraska	50,000
Wisconsin	44,500
Total	1,127,300

No merchantable flax fiber produced.

Total quantity of flaxseed saved on this area about 8,000,000 bushels, valued at \$8,000,000.

Imports into the United States.

RAW FLAX.

From 1871 to 1880....	39,480 tons, valued at.....	\$10,986,459
In 1881	5,446 tons, valued at.....	1,462,286
Total.....	44,926 tons, valued at.....	12,448,745

FLAX MANUFACTURES.

From 1871 to 1880.....	\$177,748,371
In 1881	21,020,571
Total	198,768,942

HEMP, JUTE, AND OTHER FIBERS AND PRODUCTS THEREOF.

From 1871 to 1880.....	\$80,611,758
In 1881.....	10,558,126
Total.....	<u>91,169,884</u>

Total value of our imports from 1871 to 1881.

Raw flax.....	\$12,448,745
Flax manufactures.....	198,768,942
Hemp, jute, &c.....	<u>91,169,884</u>
Total.....	302,387,571

RESUME.

On the above immense area of 1,127,300 acres, second only to that devoted to flax in Russia, we annually raise only flaxseed to the value of \$8,000,000 (or about \$7.10 per acre), while four-fifths of the flax straw produced being, through careless and improper cultivation, of too inferior a quality, is either burned or left to rot in the field, and a very small quantity is turned into coarse tow for upholsterers or used for cotton bagging or twine, or given as feed to cattle.

The value of the production of flax fiber and seed in Russia on an area of 2,000,000 acres is above sixty million dollars (\$60,000,000), or more than \$30 per acre. Further, the above figures show that Belgium, on an area devoted to flax of 140,901 acres, or exactly one-eighth of the area under flax in the Western States, annually produces \$1,000,000 more than we; that France, on an area of 162,099 acres, or exactly one-seventh of the area under flax in the United States, produces \$3,000,000 more than we; and that the flax-fiber production of Sweden, on an area of 33,639 acres, or one thirty-fourth of our flax area, would nearly cover the present demand of our home industry, which we have to import from Russia, Canada, and elsewhere; and, finally, our imports of raw flax, linen manufactures, hemp, jute, and other fibers and manufactures thereof, during a period of 11 years, namely, from 1871 to 1881 inclusively, have drained the land of the enormous sum of \$302,387,571.

It should be the aim and ambition of every farmer to contribute to the gradual diminution and final extinction of our imports of all raw material and manufactured goods which our soils and climate and mechanical skill might produce in abundance, and to this class essentially belong flax, hemp, jute, and other vegetable fibers.

JOHN MICHELS.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. JOHN MICHELS, of New York, in regard to the duty upon scientific instruments, was ordered to be printed:

I respectfully submit the following facts and draw the attention of this Commission to the high duty at present levied on scientific instruments and apparatus, and to the "free" discrimination in favor of certain incorporated institutions.

The following is a summary of the provisions of the official tariff:

Philosophical instruments and apparatus, 40 per cent.

The same, imported for the use of any incorporated society for religious purposes, 15 per cent.

The same, imported for the use of the United States, free.

The same, specially imported in good faith for the use of any society or institution incorporated or established for philosophical education, scientific or literary purposes, and not intended for sale, free.

I submit that such tariff regulations should be changed, for the following reasons:

1. The free privilege is conferred on a class of incorporated bodies who, as a rule, are well able to pay the cost of instruments, whatever it may be.

2. That such free privilege is injurious to the native manufacturers of philosophical instruments, as it in fact offers a premium to the numerous incorporated educational institutions to purchase their instruments at a foreign market.

3. That the free privilege raises the market value and cost of native instruments, because, as the colleges, &c., the largest buyers, are driven to a foreign market, the number of native instruments manufactured is decreased. It is a well-known rule of trade that a large number of any pattern can be constructed of any article at a less cost than a smaller number, and I am told by American makers of scientific instruments that that rule has special application to the manufacture of such goods.

4. Mechanics and artisans engaged in industrial pursuits complain that the high price of scientific instruments in the United States is a bar to their making experiments to improve the manufactures in which they are engaged.

5. Makers of philosophical instruments in the United States complain of the present tariff with its discriminating free entry for certain classes; and, as I am informed by one of the largest jobbers representing most of the leading American makers, that while native manufactures do not ask for the total abolition of duty, they would desire to see the free privilege withdrawn, and the duty of 40 per cent. lowered to a duty of 10 per cent. without any distinctions.

6. Whatever may be the decision of the Commission I would earnestly plead that the duty on microscopes, their objectives and accessory apparatus, should be withdrawn and such instruments admitted free.

7. Because it is an instrument essential for the use of every medical student and practitioner, and that at the present time the majority of physicians are without such aid to their professional duties and plead

as an excuse that the high price of serviceable microscopes is not within their means.

8. I admit that the price of microscopes of native manufacture has been considerably reduced during the last ten years; still the benefit to be derived from the free importation of microscopes would be very great, and there would be no excuse in that case for a medical man to be without such an instrument.

9. The importance of a medical man having a microscope may be understood from the fact that with many diseases no reliable diagnosis can be made without its aid. As one instance, I may mention the various complications due to Bright's and other diseases of the kidney. Here casts of tubes and minute crystal, which are invisible to the naked eye, must be examined by the aid of a microscope, if the condition of the patient is to be discovered. I could give hundreds of cases in which the use of the microscope in medicine is shown to be absolutely essential, but the instance I have given is one showing the necessity for *its use in every day practice*, without reference to new discoveries or original research.

10. In the interest of public health, and with a desire to promote the highest standard of knowledge among medical practitioners, I respectfully submit that I have shown good cause for your Commission to advise that, in future, microscopes, microscope objectives and apparatus, be admitted to the United States free of duty.

While making a special appeal for the free entry of microscopes for the reasons given, I also ask that all philosophical and scientific apparatus and instruments be admitted free of duty. Such instruments are in greater demand in Europe, and can there be manufactured cheaper, due to the larger number made. The United States tariff gives the benefit of such opportunities to the rich corporations, and I now ask that the thousands of poor students and intelligent artisans, working under many difficulties, may at least have the same advantages, and that scientific instruments so necessary to their advancement may be placed within their reach.

A. CAMPBELL.

NEW YORK, *October 7, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. A. CAMPBELL, of New York, in regard to the duties upon chemicals, was ordered to be printed:

I beg leave to point out some of the anomalies of the present United States tariff as applied to chemicals, and more particularly those known as the alkaline products.

These may be classed as follows:

1. Soda ash and alkali.
2. Caustic soda.
3. Soda crystals.
4. Bicarbonate of soda.
5. Bleaching powder (or chloride of lime).
6. Chlorate of potash.

SODA ASH.

About 10,000 British tons enter the United States monthly, and the percentage of alkali ranges from 48 per cent. to 58 per cent., according to what is known as the Liverpool test. The duty levied is uniform, viz, one-fourth cent per pound, irrespective of strength. Now this import bears most unequally, as will be seen from a comparison of the values at present at Liverpool:

	Percentage of duty.
48 per cent. ash, present value £5 10s. per ton, duty £1 3s. 4d.....	21
58 per cent. ash, present value £6 13s. 4d. per ton, duty £1 3s. 4d.....	17½

Now, the consumer who finds 48 per cent. most suitable for his purpose has to pay 3½ per cent. more duty than the one who uses the 58 per cent.

CAUSTIC SODAS.

Nearly 3,000 tons of these products enter the United States monthly; and, as in the case of soda ash, the duty is uniform irrespective of alkaline strength, but the unequal incidence is very much more glaring than in the case of soda ash. The duty at present is 1½ cents per pound or six times that of soda ash. The strengths as at present made are generally 60 to 62 per cent., 70 to 72 per cent., and 76 per cent. alkali.

The effect of this uniform duty, when compared with the Liverpool values, is as follows:

Percentage alkali.	Cost at Liverpool.	Duty levied.	Per cent. on value at Liverpool.
	<i>Per ton.</i>		
60 to 62	£8 0 0	£7 0 0	87½
70 to 72	9 5 0	7 0 0	73½
76	13 10 0	7 0 0	51½

Now, if the value levied was proportional to the value at Liverpool,

	Per ton.
60 to 62 would carry a duty of	£7 0 0
70 to 72 would carry a duty of	8 1 9
76 would carry a duty of.....	11 16 3

All the other soda compounds are subject to a uniform ad valorem duty of 20 per cent., with the exception of bicarbonate of soda, which is taxed about 82½ on the Liverpool value.

BLEACHING POWDER AND CHLORATE OF POTASH.

The manufacturing operations involved in the production of these two articles are similar up to a certain point, the great difference being that 7 tons of the former can be produced for 1 ton of the latter. Bleaching powder enters the United States duty free, but chlorate of potash bears a duty of £14 per ton or 3 cents per pound. The effect of such a duty would be to preclude the manufacture of bleaching powder in the States, so long as such a state of things exists. For instance, suppose two manufacturers, one making 70 tons of bleach, the other making 10 tons of chlorate, the latter would have a duty in his favor equal to £140 per week.

In the circumstances above set forth, I think it will be at once apparent that if the alkali trade as a whole is to take root in the United States, a *uniform* ad valorem duty of 20 to 25 per cent. at least should be levied, and the excessive duties now imposed upon caustic sodas have evidently been imposed to bolster up such impracticable modes of manufacture as that carried on at Natrona in Pennsylvania.

MORRIS FRANK.

New York, October 7, 1882.

Mr. MORRIS FRANK, of the firm of Frank & Weis, of New York, manufacturers of wooden smoking pipes, addressed the Commission as follows:

I am a manufacturer of wooden smoking pipes. I came here because I saw a statement in the paper that one of our competitors had appeared before you and stated that our goods should pay a duty of 75 per cent. Whether he had reference to high or low priced goods, I do not know. At any rate, I should like to make an explanation about the lower priced goods which we principally manufacture (wooden pipes), where the average price is from \$18 to \$24 per gross—cheap pipes. We find although the present duty looks large, as no doubt Congress looked upon it as an article of luxury, yet the article is one where the greatest part is hand labor, and machinery has done very little in our line.

I have been over twelve years in this business, and my partner has been twenty years in it, and we have been unable to devise much in the way of machinery which could be employed in the manufacture. Consequently we are obliged to compete with European hand labor, and to this day there are some goods, such as cheap brier-wood pipes, which are imported which we cannot begin to manufacture in this market on account of the lowness of the price. Therefore I would recommend, as one of the judges in our line of business, that the low-priced goods should have a specific duty, not only \$1.50 a gross, but at least \$3 per gross and 75 cents ad valorem.

JOHN F. BENNETT.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 9, 1882.*

Mr. JOHN F. BENNETT, of Pittsburgh, addressed the Commission as follows:

I recommend to the Commission to make the tariff on foreign manganese and manganese ores the same, proportionately to value, as on iron ores; and on foreign spiegeleisen and ferromanganese the same, proportionately to value, as on pig iron.

I have no preferences whether the duty be assessed by ad valorem or specific tax.

There are at this time three blast furnaces in the United States making spiegeleisen: one in Georgia, from native ores; and two in Pennsylvania, from native and foreign ores.

There are discoveries of manganese ores made yearly—usually small deposits and soon exhausted; from such ores spiegeleisen is made. There are found in many parts of the United States very considerable deposits of manganese ore proper (pyrolusite), containing a small percentage of iron, suitable for making ferro-manganese, carbide of manganese, and pure metallic manganese.

Manufacturers of steel rails would prefer ferromanganese to spiegeleisen, at the same relative price.

Within the last two years there has been made in Germany an alloy of copper and manganese called "manganese bronze," which is as elastic as steel and of nearly the same great tensile strength. Free from liability to brittleness, which occasionally is unexpectedly found in the most carefully manufactured steel, and not subject to corrosion, it is now used exclusively for making the propellers of British war steamships and the largest ocean merchant steamships. This alloy has a great future.

With metallic copper produced in the United States in excess of consumption, and manganese ores in abundance suitable for making metallic manganese, the manufacture of manganese bronze will become an industry if not discriminated against.

[Mr. Bennett exhibited to the members of the Commission a sample of manganese bronze.]

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. What is the relative value of manganese ore compared with other ores?—Answer. I think about 60 per cent. more than iron ore.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Are there any other uses to which manganese ores can be put except for making spiegeleisen?—A. There has lately been produced, in Germany, an alloy of copper and manganese called manganese bronze, as I have stated.

H. R. HILL ET AL.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 9, 1882.*

Mr. H. R. HILL, of East Liverpool, Ohio, representing the manufacturers of earthenware, addressed the Commission as follows:

It is not my purpose to endeavor to make any new argument to show the benefits resulting to the American people from the liberal protection of their industries and labor. I apprehend that everything that could be said bearing upon that question has already been said to you again and again. But having read the statements presented to you by Mr. William R. Wright and others at your Buffalo session, I merely desire, very briefly, to review what appears to me to be an unwarranted and unfair presentation of the tariff laws as applied to the manufacture of pottery.

We are told that American manufacturers have what is called "geographical protection," which is said to mean "the increased cost consequent upon the distance of the goods and the manner of getting them here," which is placed at 35 per cent. of the cost of the goods. It is well known that trade flows to the retail dealers of the country, who supply the consumers from the great commercial centers, such as Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, New Orleans, Galveston, and San Francisco, to any of which points, it must be apparent to any one, the products of the Staffordshire potteries can be transported as cheaply as they can from potteries of East Liverpool, which I represent. It is so well known that it needs no figures to show that ocean freights are cheaper than any other existing methods of transportation. There is, therefore, no foundation, not the slightest, for saying that the potteries of East Liverpool are in any manner benefited by this so-called "geographical protection," when it costs them as much or more to put their goods into the commercial centers of the country as it does the foreign manufacturers.

It is further urged that the assessing of duties, as at present, on packages, inland freight, and shipping charges, is onerous and unjust, &c. The value of goods at any given point, no difference what may be the kind or grade of the goods, is the cost of the goods delivered at that point. The packing, packages, freight, &c., are as truly elements entering into and determining the value of any goods in any market as are the material of which they are made or the labor expended in making them. Hence it is reasonable and just that the duty should be assessed upon the entire actual cost or value of the goods at the place of making such assessments. The reference to "the poor man's goods," and the "unjust discrimination against the laboring classes of the people," made in this connection, in reference to common white iron-stone china, which appears to a greater or less extent upon every table throughout the land, savors of demagogry and not of argument. When the gentleman speaks of the "poorer classes of the people who have to use tin plates and tin cups," I think he is dealing in "glittering generalities," and not in facts, as it would cost his poor friends more money to buy their tin plates and tin cups than it would to buy good C C cups and saucers and plates of American manufacture, as the cups and saucers sell at only 25 cents per dozen pieces in the retail market.

Much stress is placed upon the protection that it is alleged the American manufacturers enjoy by reason of many small matters that enter into the cost of procuring foreign goods, to every item of which, however, American manufacturers are alike subject, at a greater or less cost—for instance, it is alleged that the oat-straw used in packing the Staffordshire wares “is nearly all brought from the continent, and the charge is something enormous.” I am assured by our friend, Mr. Ernest Mayer (now here present), who has been a manager at a Staffordshire manufactory, as was his father before him, that he never knew or heard of a single straw ever having been brought to Staffordshire from the continent for the purpose of packing crockery, but that nearly all the straw used for that purpose is brought from the neighboring county of Cheshire, almost, if not quite, as cheaply as it is purchased at the American potteries. This is but a sample of the unwarranted statements made by the gentleman in order to give an exaggerated impression of what they are pleased to term “geographical protection.”

Again, it is said, in referring to the wood out of which packages are made, “wood is one of the dearest things they have in England;” but their goods are largely packed in crates made from the withes of rapidly growing willows, which are abundant and not expensive to procure. Even if the material out of which their packages are made might cost a little more there than here, the price paid for the labor of making them would be correspondingly less, so that the cost of packages there and here would not differ materially. As to the statement that the “manufacturer here can buy sugar hogsheads or different kinds of packages at a nominal price,” it is enough to ask why cannot the manufacturer there do the same thing? As a matter of fact, the amount of goods shipped in packages of that kind from East Liverpool, to my own knowledge, is too inconsiderable to be entitled to any mention. Scarcely any empty packages are ever returned to the manufacturer. The freights on the bulky empty packages would generally exceed their value. The amount of ware shipped in any other than in the usual packages, made for the purpose, is very inconsiderable. So that the claim that “foreign packages are fairly entitled to be considered a geographical protection” is totally without foundation. We might add that these packages are not lost to the importers, as they are used again by them in shipping their goods to their customers, saving the necessity of buying other packages that would cost them almost, if not quite, as much.

The gentleman next lays down the remarkable proposition that “highly protected rates of duty on pottery benefit manufacturers only, and are a detriment to workmen employed in the business.” It would seem to me that the statement of such a proposition would imply a reflection upon the common intelligence of those to whom it would be addressed. The gentleman himself was impressed with the evident absurdity of the statement and sought, to hedge it in by adding: “This question applies, so far as I know, only to crockeryware. It is not intended to be a general statement.” And then refers, in support of his position, to a petition sent to Congress, March 28, 1878, by certain of the pottery operatives of Trenton, asking that the duty on crockery be reduced to a revenue basis; that all tariff in the way of protection be removed. That such a petition was sent to the Ways and Means Committee might warrant the gentleman in stating his proposition did he not know that it was signed only by men who were out on a “strike,” and sent to the committee by men who were at the time influenced by the same kind of bad blood that has, at different times and at different

places, led strikers to destroy the only manufactories in which they had any hopes for future employment; the spirit that leads men to be willing to kill themselves in order to cripple others, to use a homely expression, "to bite off their noses to spite their faces." It is not infrequent that such a disposition is manifested during the hot blood and bad feeling engendered by a strike. Knowing this fact, and the further fact that these same men, after their local troubles were over, petitioned the same committee for protection, in addition to that which now exists, one can scarcely refrain from expressing surprise that the gentleman should have referred to the circumstance as being entitled to any consideration in arriving at the facts sought by your Commission. The attempt, however, under this head, to answer the argument adduced by the pottery manufacturers in favor of an increase in the rate of duty, based on the greatly increased rate of wages paid here over what is being paid in England, merits our most careful consideration. The gentleman tritely says, "This is simply saying that they are doing business in the United States, where a higher rate of tariff renders higher wages necessary." A slight transposition would render this statement as true as it is trite: "This is simply saying that they are doing business in the United States, where a higher rate of wages renders a higher tariff necessary." After apparently recognizing this almost self-evident truth, the gentleman alleges that "this higher cost of labor is more than compensated by the tariff and the way in which it is assessed." Is this statement true?

The gentleman disposes of this important inquiry by the rather inconsistent allegation, "Tabulated statements would be of but little value, and it would be out of place to occupy your time with such intricate information as bearing on this question of labor." We are not willing that this important inquiry, lying as it does at the foundation of the whole matter, should be passed over in this way. True, he adds, "With the most sincere wish to get at the facts we have found it difficult to get the desired information." It is our pleasure to furnish this information fully and accurately. (See tabulated statement hereto annexed, marked Exhibit A.) To this we invite your careful attention, as it fully answers the questions why American manufacturers and workmen should have increased protection, particularly in view of the fact that protection has reduced and will continue to reduce the cost of their products to the consumers. This exhibit shows how remarkably inexact and unreliable were the statements made by our friends who represented the Association of the Importers of Pottery at your session at Buffalo, where they fixed the relative rate of wages paid to pottery operatives in England and here. Mr. Wright fixed this, in answer to an interrogatory, "The Staffordshire price, as we can get at it, and the American price, as we can get at it, is $33\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in favor of the Staffordshire manufacturer." It is important, in considering this exhibit, that the fact be not overlooked that the staple articles on the list, such as plates, of which the largest quantity are made, are the ones where the widest difference exists in the rate paid for their manufacture, and the articles of smallest consumption are generally the ones where the least difference exists. The tables given by Mr. Brewer, in his argument before you at your Long Branch session, giving a comparison of the average wages at fifteen potteries at Trenton, extending over a period of three months, would give a strictly reliable average, based on the quantity of each article made and the number working at each branch of the business, and the comparison made with the tables of Mr. Edwin Powell, of Staffordshire, based as they both are on the scale of

wages here given, would seem to establish the fact beyond dispute that pottery labor costs the American manufacturer at least 113 per cent. more than it does the Staffordshire manufacturer. That personal labor is the chief element entering into the cost of crockery (about 90 per cent. of the whole) has been sufficiently shown by the statement of manufacturers already submitted to you. To the allegation of Mr. Wright that "the fact is that 45 per cent. is the average paid by pottery manufacturers in labor," in reply to the claim that 90 per cent. of the cost of producing pottery is paid for labor, it is sufficient to reply, as he gives no data or information as to the sources of his knowledge, that he is probably "guessing," as must certainly have been the case when he undertook to fix the relative rate paid for wages at only 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., instead of over 113 per cent., in favor of the Staffordshire manufacturer.

The statement of Mr. Wright that "the manufacturers lose no opportunity to reduce the wages of operatives" is gratuitous and unwarranted by the facts. The manufacturers have no wish to reduce the wages of their workmen. A better state of feeling always exists between the manufacturer and his workmen when the latter are well paid. No effort to reduce wages has been made or will be made so long as it is possible to conduct the business with any degree of profit without having to resort to that. American workmen make better citizens, they raise better families, by reason of their being better paid. Why should manufacturers, why should Congress, do anything that would compel a reduction of the reward paid for human labor?

Says Mr. Wright, "High protectionists as the manufacturers are, they do not object to the introduction of foreign labor on free-trade principles." Exactly what he means us to understand by that, I do not know. In East Liverpool some of our most honored citizens are men who came from Staffordshire, where they had been able to save scarcely enough to bring them here, and who are now acquiring comfortable homes and rearing intelligent and industrious families. Why American manufacturers, many of whom have themselves worked from the presser's bench to their present position, should not welcome skilled laborers and good citizens to their factories and firesides Mr. Wright does not sufficiently explain.

The claim made by some of the gentlemen that the business of manufacturing crockery is very profitable is unwarranted by the experience of East Liverpool manufacturers. The manufacture of pottery has been conducted in East Liverpool longer than at any other place in the country. Before the war only Rockingham and yellow ware could profitably be made. The manufacture of white ware was commenced and a good article turned out, but under the tariff as it then existed it was found impossible to compete with the imported article, and the pottery, in which a considerable amount of capital was invested, was sold out by the sheriff. The business has never been so profitable here as to attract any outside capital, and not a single manufacturer has ever grown rich. The business under the accidental protection afforded by the gold premium was reasonably profitable, but since the return to specie payments our potteries have only been able to live by selling directly to the retail trade.

I now desire to call attention to the fact, for it is a fact, that protection has reduced the price to the consumers of crockery. In the case of Rockingham and yellow ware it is conceded that the American manufacturers have so progressed as to now have entire control of the market, no more goods of that kind being imported; and yet, instead of a combination being formed and prices advanced, as is intimated would

be the case with white ware if the tariff be advanced, Mr. Jerome Jones says, in reference to Rockingham and yellow ware, "I think it is a little higher in England now than it was then, and a little lower in this country, perhaps 5 per cent." I think no one will contradict the statement that the cheapest and the best Rockingham and yellow ware in the world is now being made in the United States; and yet Mr. Jones informs us that the tariff on that class of goods was placed so high as to be prohibitory. Why would not the same condition of affairs produce the same result in the higher classes of goods? In view of the figures that the gentlemen themselves present, I cannot see how they can deny that the advance of tariff and the large protection afforded by the gold premium has resulted in reducing the price of white queensware in the American market. In answer to the question, "What was the rate of discount from the scale of 1859?" Mr. William R. Wright correctly replied, "It was 37½ per cent. on one kind of goods and 40 per cent. on the other, the latter being common white granite ware, the discount upon which is now 57½—5—5." See statement of Norcross, Mellon & Co., "of a small invoice of white granite ware recently imported and passed through the custom-house by our firm," submitted to you at Buffalo.

According to Mr. Wright's statement, the English price list has advanced 10 per cent. and the discount diminished since 1859, making the net cost, as he claims, at the Staffordshire potteries from 15 to 20 per cent. higher now than then. If that be true, and we will not call his statement in question, would not the price of the same goods in this country have advanced at least to the same extent even if the tariff were as low now as then? How, then, is it, with this advance in the net cost of English ware, with the increase of duty from 24 to 40 per cent., with the "onerous and burthensome" method of assessing this latter duty, running it up to the so much higher percentage that he complains of, that it is now cheaper (as we claim it to be), or "about the same" (as Mr. Jones claims it to be), or even a little higher (as Mr. Wright claims it to be), in the American market? There can be but one answer. It is by reason of the growth of the business in this country. Increase the tariff and the business will increase, domestic competition arise, and prices consequently fall. Reduce the tariff, and, as Mr. Glenny so candidly admits, many of the potteries that are now struggling to make a living (and yet at the same time steadily advancing the quality of their goods) would have to succumb and close their doors. With as good material as can be had on earth now being found in so many States of the Union, why not give the chance to develop it? Nearly every foreign country has specially favored the ceramic art. The business of manufacturing china in this country never was intentionally protected by a tariff. When the present tariff was passed there was no business of the kind to protect. It was passed for revenue only, not for protection. "A temporary war measure," as our free-trade friends are pleased to term it. All the protection and encouragement it has ever had has been accidental.

Comparison of wages paid in the potteries in England and America.

EXHIBIT A.

[The English prices given are those paid November, 1880, and in force after that time with a deduction of 8 per cent. from these prices. The American prices are from the established printed work list. All the American work is paid for "good from hand" when made, the loss in it going through the kilns falling on the manufacturer. The English is paid for "goods from kilns," the workmen suffering the losses sustained while going through the kilns. All other lines, as C. C. ware and china compare in same proportions as white granite.]

FOR 20 DOZEN.

Articles.	Sizes.	English price.		American price.		Percent of American over English.
		s.	d.	s.	d.	
Plates, flat.....	8	3	7	9	0½	150
Do.....	7	3	0	8	2½	174
Do.....	6	2	0	7	5	198
Do.....	5	2	4	4	1½	77
Do.....	3	2	0	3	3½	60
Plates, deep.....	8	3	7	9	10½	174
Do.....	7	3	0	9	0½	201
Do.....	6	3	0	8	1½	228
Do.....	5	2	4	7	5	218
Do.....	3	2	0	3	1½	106

FOR 20 POTTER'S DOZEN OF 36 TO DOZEN.

Ice creams.....	3	4	0	10	1	112
Do.....	3½	4	0	10	1	112
Do.....	4	4	0	10	1	112
Do.....	5	4	0	12	7	105
Cups.....	teas.	6	0	10	7½	64
Do.....	coffee.	6	0	13	0	90
Saucers.....	teas.	6	0	11	10	85
Do.....	coffee.	7	3	14	0	84
Mugs, 36 to dozen.....	30's	6	6	15	0	107
30 ".....	30's	7	3	16	8	130
24 ".....	24's	7	3	17	6	140
Bowls, 36 ".....	30's	6	6	15	2	133
30 ".....	30's	6	6	16	10	158
24 ".....	24's	6	6	17	8	172

PER DOZEN (12 PIECES).

Scalloped nappies.....	3 in.	3	5½	8
Do.....	4 in.	3	0	100
Do.....	5 in.	4	6½	02
Do.....	6 in.	5	7	40
Do.....	7 in.	5	8	60
Do.....	8 in.	7	9	28

PER DOZEN (12 PIECES).

Scalloped nappies.....	9 in.	0	8	0	10	25
Do.....	10 in.	0	8	1	0	50
Bakers.....	3 in.	0	4	0	5	25
Do.....	4 in.	0	4	0	5½	37
Do.....	5 in.	0	0	0	00	-----
Do.....	6 in.	0	6	0	0½	8
Do.....	7 in.	0	6	0	7	16
Do.....	8 in.	0	6	0	8	33½
Do.....	9 in.	0	7	0	9	28

Comparison of wages paid in the potteries in England and America—Continued.

PER DOZEN (12 PIECES)—Continued.

Articles.	Sizes.	English price.		American price.		Percent of American over English.
		s.	d.	s.	d.	
Bakers.....	10 in.	0	7	0	10	42
Do.....	11 in.	0	7	0	11	57
Do.....	12 in.	0	7	1	0	71
Dishes.....	3 in.	0	4	0	5	25
Do.....	4 in.	0	4	0	5½	37
Do.....	5 in.	0	6	0	6	8
Do.....	6 in.	0	6	0	6½	16
Do.....	7 in.	0	6	0	7½	33
Do.....	8 in.	0	6	0	8	28
Do.....	9 in.	0	7	0	9	42
Do.....	10 in.	0	7	0	10	57
Do.....	11 in.	0	7	0	11	71
Do.....	12 in.	0	7	1	0	60
Do.....	14 in.	0	10	1	4	25
Do.....	16 in.	1	4	1	8	275
Cake plates.....	0	8	2	6	40
Sauce tureens.....	3	0	4	2	50
Soup tureens, each.....	9 in.	0	8	1	0	50
Do.....	10 in.	0	9	1	1½	50
Creams.....	30's	1	2	1	0	50
Do.....	24's	1	3	1	10½	47
Sugars.....	30's	1	10	2	8½	37
Do.....	24's	2	0	2	11	39
Tea-pots.....	24's	3	0	4	2	50
Do.....	18's	3	3	5	1	38
Sauce boats.....	1	3	1	9	50
Stands.....	1	0	1	6	25
Pickies.....	1	0	1	3	36
Ewers.....	9's	2	9	3	9	38
Do.....	6's	3	0	4	2	54
Basins.....	9's	1	1	1	8	40
Do.....	6's	1	4	1	10½	76
Covered chambers.....	9's	2	3	3	11½	94
Do.....	6's	2	3	4	4½	27
Covered soaps.....	2	0	2	6½	39
Brush vases.....	1	6	2	1	39
Jugs.....	30's	1	1	1	6	50
Do.....	30's	1	2	1	9	40
Do.....	24's	1	4	1	10½	37
Do.....	12's	1	8	2	3½	34
Do.....	6's	2	2	2	11	40
Do.....	4's	2	5	3	7	51
Cover dishes.....	6 in.	2	9	4	2	53
Do.....	7 in.	3	0	4	7	54
Do.....	8 in.	3	3	5	1	50
Do.....	9 in.	3	0	5	3	64
Do.....	10 in.	3	0	6	4	87
Cover dishes, round.....	7 in.	2	4	4	4½	87
Do.....	8 in.	2	7	4	10	94
Do.....	9 in.	2	10	5	5	82
Do.....	10 in.	3	3	6	0	

HANDLING (PER SCORE DOZEN).

Count 20 dozen of 36, 30, and 24.

		s.	d.	
Mugs.....	} 36's, 30's, } 24's	5	12	6
Cups.....		36's,	3	10

TURNING COUNT AS ABOVE.

		s.	d.	
Eowls.....	30's	7	6	6
Do.....	30's	7	0	5½
Do.....	24's	7	6	0
Cups.....	36's	6	0	0

Comparison of wages paid in the potteries in England and America—Continued.

OTHER PRINCIPAL WORK.

Articles.	Sizes.	English price.		American price.		Percent of American over English.
		s.	d.	s.	d.	
Mold making per week		40	0	80	0	100
Kiln men, biscuit, per bung		0	7½	0	18½	147
Kiln men, gloss, per week		30	0	50	0	66
Dippers do		42	0	62	0	40
Fireman, good do		40	0	69	0	72
Fireman, extra do		50	0	83	4	66
Old men, per week		18	0	50	0	177
Warehouse women, per week		10	0	25	0	150
Warehouse girls do		7	0	18	0	167
Pickers do		30	0	62	6	108
Gilders and painters, do		34	0	83	4	145

Comparative cost of prepared potters' materials as they are purchased by the manufacturers in England and America, both estimated at place of production; the value of the material in the mines being merely nominal, say 50 cents per ton, the difference being the labor in mining and preparing ready for use.

Materials.	English.		American.	Cost of American over English.
	Gross ton.	Net ton.	Net ton.	Per cent.
Watts, B. B., & Co.:				
China clay	\$5 04	\$4 54		
West of England China Clay Company:				
Extra china clay	6 48	5 83		
Common china clay	3 84	3 40		
Standard china clay	4 86	4 38		
American china clay			\$14 00	
Golding china clay			15 00	
National china clay			20 00	
Diamond china clay			15 00	
Lacy china clay			15 00	
Flint at potteries	6 70	6 00	13 00	
Cornish stone	7 20	6 58	16 50	
Feldspar	13 20	11 88	16 50	
Coal—hard coal, Trenton	2 28		4 50	
Average prices:				
China clay		4 53	15 80	249
Flint		6 00	13 00	112
Stone		6 58	16 50	151
Feldspar		11 88	16 50	31
Coal		2 28	4 50	97

The cost of American over English materials, comparing a body-best white earthenware, is 184 per cent.

We estimate the cost of coal as it is East; it is somewhat less in the West, but the difference in freight on the other materials to the West makes the comparison at both places about even.

INVOICES.

E. & C. Challinor's unselected W. G., 21 packages per S. S. France, at 55 per cent. 5 s 5; crates, 18s. 6d., 5 s 5.

Amount as per foot of invoice, £138 8s. 9d., at \$4.85	\$671 42	Per cent. 63.4
Canal freight and Liverpool charges, £9 9s. 0d	45 83	4.3
Sea freight (at 5s. and 10 per cent.), £7 7s. 7d	35 79	3.4
Duties, \$295.20, and custom-house fees, \$4.50	299 70	28.3
Marine insurance	6 66	.6
	1,059 40	100.00

57.7 per cent. so-called "protection."

E. & C. Challinor's unstamped C. C., 48 packages per S. S. Adriatic, at 25 per cent. 5 ¢ 5; crates, 17s. 6d., 5 ¢ 5.

	\$	Per cent.
Amount as per foot of invoice, £296 16s. 6d., at \$4.85	\$1,439 60	63.4
Canal freight and Liverpool charges, £21 10s. 11d.	104 50	4.7
Sea freight, at 5s. and 10 per cent., £16 5s. 10d.	79 02	3.6
Duties, \$635.20, and custom-house fees, \$4.50	639 70	27.8
Marine insurance	11 13	.5
	2,273 95	100.0

57.9 per cent. so-called "protection."

In regard to the table submitted I will say that it is strictly reliable; that it was prepared by the potters of East Liverpool, and a copy of it was handed to me, and Mr. Riley, who is now present, took it to England and verified the figures in regard to the foreign rates of wages, as he will tell you. This table takes up every item which enters into the manufacture of crockery, and gives a full comparison between prices paid in this country and in England. This statement gives the English price and the American price and then the percentage of the American over the English price.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Question. That is to say, it is the advance?—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. So that the figures 174 there in the column mean an advance of 174 per cent.?—A. Yes, sir.

I have also had handed to me within a few moments a comparison of the cost of the raw material in England and in this country, which I have appended.

In the statements made to you in Buffalo, there was given what was said to be average actual invoices—I do not know that they were introduced, but they were referred to—and it was claimed that the protection the American manufacturers enjoyed was from 80 to 90 per cent. That would imply that the American manufacturers could get their goods to the retail dealers without being put to any expense for packing, packages, transportation, or anything of that kind. The amount was estimated in their statements at \$10, and something over, a crate or package. The protection that it was claimed that an average lot of invoices showed the American manufacturers were entitled to was, I think, over 100 per cent. Mr. Mayer's attention was called to this, and he has attached here a statement of a couple of invoices that were recently received, giving the names of the vessels upon which they had come, and the date, and he is here to tell you that they are strictly correct, showing that on what they call geographical protection, which they give at over 100 per cent., even taking their own basis, the difference would only be 57.7 per cent.

Q. Does that include the duty?—A. Yes, sir; it includes it.

Q. Do you think there is any geographical protection whatever; if so, how much is it?—A. I believe there is no geographical protection, except it might be to a few retail dealers within a short distance of the factories. The jobbers are in the large cities, the commercial centers of the country, and these commercial centers are reached by the foreign manufacturers cheaper than they are by the East Liverpool manufacturers.

Q. So that, in your opinion, that geographical protection only applies to the neighborhood of East Liverpool and Trenton?—A. Yes, sir. I was in the business shortly after the war on my return from the army, when it was profitable by the reason of the accidental protection that

the premium on gold afforded. But I went out of the business some time ago, after it had got down to a specie basis, because I found there was not a reasonable profit in it, and I could do better in something else.

Q. Have you any interest in the business now?—A. No, sir; not one cent. I have made this statement at the request of my friends. I was in East Liverpool when the first pottery was established, and have known the condition of the business from that time until now. We can make as good articles here as in any country in the world. We have ample material, and if we had the protection to enable us to get a good start there would be no doubt about the final result.

Q. What is your experience as to the quality of goods made here and those made in Europe?—A. I know our goods are equal to them. For instance, in regard to iron-stone china, or white granite ware, the average is as good as the average of that imported.

Q. Something has been said to the Commission about American wares crazing; do you know anything about that?—A. That difficulty has been almost entirely gotten rid of. That occurred when the potteries were first started, because our clays are different from foreign clays, and the proportions of the ingredients were not properly adjusted at first. But all that has been remedied by the experience gained in the business.

Q. So that at the commencement of your manufacture it was, to some extent, an experiment?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And the result of that experiment has been as good an article, taking it on the average, as is produced in England?—A. Yes, sir; the English manufacturers themselves admit that fact beyond question. There was a statement, which I think has been presented to the Commission, containing the testimony taken in 1877 before the arbitration committee in England, and the manufacturers there all agreed that we could make as good a class of articles as they could, and they also admitted that our materials are better.

Q. What is your opinion about it apart from their admissions?—A. I know it to be so. Some of the pottery made in this country may not be quite up to the standard yet, because the experience of certain men has not yet been sufficient, but on the average I regard the earthenware produced at our potteries as being fully equal to any that is imported.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. And that especially applies to all kinds which enter into general consumption?—A. Yes, sir; this white ware as it is called.

Q. So that the consumers are benefited?—A. Yes, sir. At Buffalo I noticed that the question was asked of importers who had been in business for forty years, what was the comparative price at which goods were sold the retail dealers then and now, but none of them could give you the figures, although it is surprising that men who have been in business that length of time should not be able to do so; because there is where the difference becomes apparent, showing that the rate at which the people buy from the retailer is much cheaper now than it was then. They confined the difference to the price in the Staffordshire manufactories. They overlooked the fact, which is apparent, that the large profits then made by importers has dwindled down now until it is very small, and that is where the difference comes in. When you come to the country store, where these goods are sold to the people, you find prices vastly lower than they were then.

Q. Do you state that of your own knowledge?—A. Yes, sir. I will

qualify that by stating that my information is based on what I have been told by merchants; I do not recollect myself what the price was at that time.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. In your quotations from the testimony of Mr. Wright and others, given before the Commission at Buffalo, do you take the quotations from the official report of the Commission?—A. No, sir; I do not; I take them from the report of our own stenographer.

Commissioner PORTER. The official report has not yet been published, and I want it to go on record that the quotations which the witness has made were not taken from the official report.

Q. It has been frequently stated before the Commission that we have not in this country as good clay as they have in Great Britain; that statement was given to us in New York last Saturday. As you are familiar with that particular phase of the question I wish you would state what the fact is.—A. There is good evidence regarding that fact in the printed testimony taken in England when they had no idea that our manufacturers would ever see it, in which they admit that we have better material than they have there, and unless the American tariff was reduced they were bound to lose the American trade.

Q. Can you present us with a copy of that statement?—A. I will try to obtain it.

Mr. ERNEST MAYER, of Beaver Falls, Pa., said:

I have been engaged in the pottery business all my life. My father was a manufacturing potter and I was familiar with the business of manufacturing pottery in Staffordshire, England, for eleven years.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Question. Have you ever examined this "Comparison of wages paid in the potteries in England and America" so as to know whether it is an accurate statement?—Answer. I know it is perfectly accurate. I got the English figures from a reliable source, and there is no question in regard to the American figures; they are on our regular printed list in use by all the potters of the country.

Q. What difference, if any, exists in the price paid at the time you were a manager, and the prices given in this list?—A. There was a slight reduction in 1879 of eightpence in the pound, I think it was, though I could not swear to it.

Q. What do you know in regard to this exhibit of what is claimed to be the invoices of goods recently received?—A. I can state that when I came from England in 1879 I was in my brother's office (who is an importer), and for my own satisfaction I made calculations at that time to see what the difference was between the value of the goods in England and the value when laid on the dock in New York. I took actual invoices, and I arrived at my calculation by taking the net amount of the English invoice and adding all charges to it. That is to say, the canal freight to Liverpool, the sea freight, duties, marine insurance, and all other costs to put it on the dock at New York, and then I found the percentage of advance that there was on the original cost, and those are the figures I have put here. Those were actual invoices received.

Q. Is that percentage of 57.7 included in the duty?—A. Yes, sir; it includes every cost, put on the dock in New York.

Q. In making your estimate did you include the expense to the American manufacturer that he has for freights?—A. No, sir. That was

pointed out to me afterwards; I made an error there; I have included all the packages, while the manufacturer gets his money back for them.

Q. He sells his packages?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do the manufacturer and the importer charge for packages as well?—A. Yes, sir; they both do.

Q. So that this would be liable to be corrected, then, by the amount the importer receives for his packages?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And for the purpose of determining the actual amount, aggregated by the amount received from packages, there should be deducted the expense the American potter has for freights and packages?—A. Yes, sir.

Mr. HILL (to the witness). The English prices as shown by this exhibit are "good from the kiln." The American prices are "good from the hand" of the workman, and there is a large percentage of loss in England, which loss is sustained by the workman, making an advance of 8 per cent. in value. Is that the method of counting the goods in England and in this country?

The WITNESS. Yes, sir; that is correct; that is the custom. In England it is "good from the kiln," and in this country "good from the hand." There are exceptions in Staffordshire, where they pay them for goods from the hand, but they take 10 per cent. off the price of goods from the oven.

Mr. HILL. What proportion of the labor in England is the labor of apprentices?

The WITNESS. That is a very large percentage indeed. In the potteries I have been connected with, two in England, I should say there were from one-third to one-half apprentices.

Mr. HILL. How much less do the apprentices receive than the journeymen, and for what period of time does their apprenticeship last?

The WITNESS. The indentures are, some for six years, but the majority for seven years. They are generally paid so much a week, and when paid so much a week they have to do so much work, reckoned at the journeyman's price.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. It has been repeatedly stated to the Commission that the clay in this country is not as good as in England. What is your opinion about that?—A. The quality of clay in this country is as good as any clay we can get in England. The Staffordshire manufacturers in some cases admit that the ware is better than they themselves are making. The quality of the clay, so far as the work is concerned, I know from practical experience in the two countries is every bit as good.

Mr. ENOCH RILEY, of East Liverpool, Ohio, was interrogated as follows:

By Mr. HILL:

Question. You are a potter residing at East Liverpool?—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. I will ask you if you have examined this statement of wages paid potters in England and America, and if so, whether it is correct?—A. I have examined it, and took it to England several weeks ago to ascertain whether it was correct.

Q. Was that your whole object in going there?—A. Oh, no, sir; I went there on a pleasure trip, but while there I looked into this matter and found everything stated there correct except in regard to covered

dishes. They were paying 3*l.* per dozen more for fancy scalloped covered dishes.

Q. Do you know with reference to the proportion of labor employed in the English potteries, how much of it is apprentice labor?—A. There are not so many apprentices employed as formerly. When I was at work there nearly one-half of them were apprentices. I am speaking now of the clay part of the manufacture, not in regard to the painters or printers.

Q. What is the proportionate rate paid apprentices to the prices here given?—A. The rate is rather better than formerly, I think. I worked nearly four years at half price. I served seven years' apprenticeship there, and the last three years I allowed one-third; that is to say, I was paid two-thirds of the journeyman's price, but for the last year I made journeyman's wages and allowed one-third of it. That was the rule there. I served my time with Mr. Mayer's father.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. It has been difficult for us to obtain accurate statements of the wages paid in this country and abroad; and now that we have something that seems to approach accuracy, I would like to have you state how that was obtained, and how these statements were verified by you.—A. I determined the accuracy of these figures by handing them to my former workmates, the workmen themselves at Tunstall; not from the bosses themselves, but from the operatives.

Commissioner PORTER (to Mr. Mayer). Were your figures obtained from the operatives or from the proprietors?

Mr. MAYER. In one case the figures were in my own possession as manager of the works in England, and in the other case they were handed to me by a brother of one of the English manufacturers in this country.

Commissioner PORTER. You came to this country in 1879?

Mr. MAYER. Yes, sir.

Mr. HILL. You furnished the particular figures from which this table was made?—A. I did.

Mr. HILL. Mr. Mayer is now the manager of the pottery at Beaver Falls.

Mr. HILL (to the witness). What do you know of the quality of the ware made in England?

The WITNESS. I took some samples and presented them to English bosses, and they pronounced the white granite samples I took as fully equal to the average made there.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. Were they the average samples produced here?—A. I presume so, so far as my judgment went, and I have been in the pottery business all my life.

HAY WALKER.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 10, 1882.*

Mr. HAY WALKER, Jr., of the firm of W. & H. Walker, Pittsburgh, manufacturers of soap, made the following statement:

GENTLEMEN: We are engaged in the manufacture of soap in this city, and would call your attention to the duty on chemicals which enter into the manufacture of soap.

The duty on soda ash and bicarbonate of soda is one-quarter of a cent per pound. These two articles, so far as we know, are not manufactured in this country, and to place them on the free list would injure no industry.

The duty on caustic soda is $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound; and, at the present selling price, this duty is over 100 per cent. ad valorem.

This article is manufactured in this country only by the Pennsylvania Salt Manufacturing Company; and at present, even with a protective duty of over 100 per cent., they are unable to compete with the imported article. Now, this duty of $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound on caustic soda adds one-fourth of a cent to the cost of every pound of soap manufactured from it.

By considering the vast quantity of soap used in the whole country, the Commission can form an idea of the heavy tax thus imposed upon consumers for the single industry of but one firm; and that firm constantly admits that the caustic soda they make is made at a loss to them. The duty on these chemicals makes the price of soap just that much higher to the consumer, and therefore amounts to a direct tax on the cleanliness of the people.

We therefore ask you to recommend to Congress that soda ash, bicarbonate of soda, and caustic soda be placed on the free list.

JOHN M. STOCKDALE ET AL.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 9, 1882.*

Mr. JOHN M. STOCKDALE, of Washington, Pa., addressed the Commission as follows :

On the 9th of September a meeting was held of the wool-growers of Washington County, to take into consideration the interests of the wool-growers of Western Pennsylvania, and the result of their deliberations was the appointment of a committee to appear before you. That committee consists of myself, Col. Asa Manchester—a practical wool-grower and farmer, who is present—and Mr. John McDowell, who is also a practical wool-grower and farmer, and president of the agricultural society of Washington County, who also expected to be present at this meeting.

We have looked, with a great deal of interest, upon the work and labors of this Commission, as its recommendations will, to a very great extent, affect the interests of our people. In regard to the business of wool-growing I do not desire or intend to enter in upon a general discussion as to its present condition or future prospects, but simply to make a few statements in relation to the matter. I have been a practical wool-grower for many years. Washington County produces more wool to-day, upon the same amount of territory, than any other county in the United States. It was the pioneer in the production of wool, particularly of the first grades of wool. Whenever you go where there are large quantities of wool produced you will find that the name of Washington County is almost as familiar as it is amongst the wool-growers at home. Our people have become so accustomed to the production of wool for the last half century, and it is so interwoven with their existence and their financial welfare, that to destroy it would be almost equal to a public calamity so far as they are concerned. Our people allege that, taking into consideration the circumstances by which they are surrounded, the increase of the price of the land, the increase of the labor expended upon the production of wool, the increase of the price of food which they have to give to these sheep to make their business successful, that the prices they are able to command at the present are insufficient to justify continuance in the business. The production of wool has so enormously increased in Australia and contiguous colonies—from thirteen million sheep in 1860 to seventy or seventy-five millions in 1880—that competition is so great that it threatens destruction to the wool-producing industry in Washington County, and other counties similarly situated. As you know, farmers, as a rule, are very slow to change their business, and to get into a new business is also a very expensive thing, such as changing from the culture of sheep to cattle, from cattle to horses, or from one kind of stock to another, and it is a thing they do not like to undertake. I have been told that within the last year the ordinary pursuits of agriculture in Washington County, properly followed, have been more profitable than the production of wool; and many of the largest wool-producers in our county are considering the propriety of changing their business to that of ordinary agriculturists. I should regard a general change of this character as a public calamity.

You will find, as a rule, through the country where agriculture alone is pursued, that the land is less fertile and valuable than it was; while

in Washington County and other counties devoted to the raising of sheep it has increased at least 50 per cent. in fertility and productive power, and will produce more to the acre, all of which is attributable to the fact that they have been constantly engaged in this business of the production of wool. For that reason I should dislike to see the business so depressed that the farmers would go out of it into other branches of agriculture.

The amount of wool produced in Washington County is about three million pounds a year. The average rate received this year has been 35 to 38 cents a pound. I have with me the proceedings of the wool-growers' convention of Washington County, referred to, which I desire to read as follows :

"The meeting of wool-growers of Washington County assembled at the court-house on Saturday last, according to previous announcement. The attendance was, considering the short notice and busy season, quite good. But at the same time there were not nearly so many farmers and others present as there should have been.

"Those who attended from many of the townships were expected by their neighbors to act in a certain sense as delegates or representatives of the neighborhoods. Those present, however, appeared to be wide awake to their interest and situation of the wool-growers and the causes of the present depression in the business.

"The meeting was organized promptly at 11 o'clock by the election of Col. Asa Manchester, of Independence, as president, and John C. McNary and Alex. M. Gow, secretaries.

"On motion, a committee of three, consisting of John M. Stockdale, Thos. McClelland, of Peters, and John C. McNary, of Chartiers, was appointed to arrange and present to the convention a statement of the objects of the meeting and the order of business. After a short preliminary discussion the convention adjourned to meet in the court-room at 2 o'clock p. m.

"Precisely at the time named the bell was rung and the convention met, and the chairman called on the committee on the objects of the meeting and the order of business to report.

"The committee, by its chairman, stated that the time had been rather short to carefully formulate a full statement, but asked leave to report as follows:

"The wool-growers of Washington County, in convention assembled, declare that the important business in which they are engaged has been to a large extent revolutionized in the last twenty years. While the number of sheep in the United States has reached the aggregate of 42,000,000 head, the number in Australia, New Zealand, and other portions of the colonies of the South Pacific has reached the enormous aggregate of over 70,000,000 head. That these colonies are in a mild and healthy climate, where sheep can be kept in good condition the whole year without the expense and labor of dry feed or shelter, and upon lands that are far cheaper than any that can be found in the older States of the Union which are adapted to wool-growing. That wool has been carried from Melbourne to Boston, a distance of 10,000 miles, at a cost of 2 cents per pound, thus practically annihilating the supposed advantage of Washington County's proximity to market. That the wool produced in the localities named is of such a quality and value as to fairly compete with that produced in Washington County. That the cheaper and coarser wool produced in South America and some of the Asiatic countries competes in our markets with wool produced in the United States and used in

many goods of extensive manufacture. That it has been demonstrated that wool can be laid down on the wharf at Melbourne (with a profit to the producer) at from 18 to 19 cents per pound, and that the coarser wool from other localities referred to is frequently sold in the markets of the places here produced as low as 10 cents per pound.

"These facts clearly demonstrate the futility of any effort of producers in this locality, of dear lands and labor, of six months of dry feeding and housing, to compete with foreign production.

"And we further state, that the present duties levied on the importation of wool of 3 cents per pound on the cheaper qualities, and 12 cents per pound and 11 cents per pound ad valorem on the highest grades, is wholly inadequate and insufficient to afford the protection absolutely necessary to successful production here. That wool is the only article of any considerable value, produced by agriculturists in this and the surrounding country, that is or can be protected by tariff duties; while, upon the other hand, nearly every article of merchandise which the farmer is compelled to purchase pays a tariff duty of from two to three times the amount of the protection to wool.

"That while the duty on wool, as already stated, is from a specific duty of 3 cents a pound and no ad valorem to 10 cents per pound and 11 per cent. ad valorem, the duty on woollen goods which the farmer buys pays a duty of from 20 cents per pound to 50 cents per pound, and on all an ad valorem duty in addition of 35 per cent.; and the same general facts hold good in reference to knit goods, hats, table wear, many products of iron, and all merchandise that is purchased by agriculturists.

"It should also be stated that the capital invested in the production of wool in this county alone is more than \$3,000,000, and in the United States approximates \$300,000,000, and that the business gives employment to hundreds of thousands of people. For these and many reasons not here named, it is the opinion of this meeting that on wool that now pays a duty of 3 cents per pound there should be levied a duty of 9 cents per pound, and on all other wool a duty of 15 cents per pound and 20 per cent. ad valorem. Equitable and impartial legislation would seem to demand that if the farmer is called upon to support and pay high protective duties on the large number of articles which he is compelled to buy, that he is entitled to a protective duty on the single article of wool which he sells.

"At the present price of wool in Washington County the labor of the farmer and that of his family must be liberally applied to make the production remunerative.

"We regard the business of wool growing in this region of country, in which we have been engaged for many years, and in which a large part of our capital is involved, as now in danger of being seriously or fatally crippled, and that therefore the interest of the country and the welfare of the people that are engaged in the business should have the immediate consideration of those who influence protective legislation.

"John C. McNary, esq., member of the same committee, reported by the direction of the committee the following:

Resolved, That the wool growers of this county should unite with the wool growers of other sections in presenting their interests before the Tariff Commission.

"This resolution was amended at the suggestion of Mr. Julius LeMoyno and others so as to include the Stock Breeders' Association and the various agricultural fairs of the county.

"It now became apparent that the resolution would be so much dilu-

ted as to render it inefficient, and it was therefore moved that the whole resolution be stricken out and the following substituted:

Resolved, That the wool growers of Washington County, now in convention, appoint a committee of three persons to present their interests before the Tariff Commission, and that the said committee be authorized to confer and act with the Stock Breeders' Association and with the different agriculture associations of this and surrounding counties. This resolution was passed by a unanimous vote.

"On motion of Mr. J. Miller Day, of Morris, it was resolved that this meeting invite the agricultural societies of Washington County and the Stock Breeders' Association to send delegates to meet the Tariff Commission. The meeting then, on nominations made by members, elected the following delegates to appear before the Tariff Commission in the interest of the wool growers of Washington County:

"John M. Stockdale, of Washington.

"Col. Asa Manchester, of Independence.

"John McDowell, esq., of Buffalo.

"The convention was very earnest and entirely unanimous in all its transactions, and all desired that something might be done to improve the present condition of the wool growers."

The following address was prepared by the committee appointed at this meeting, which I will also read:

"The undersigned committee, appointed by the wool growers of Washington County, at a public meeting held at the court-house in said county, on September 9, 1882, "to represent their interests before the Tariff Commission," beg leave to submit (with the proceedings of said meeting) the following:

"The wool growers and agriculturists of necessity live widely separated, so that it is difficult for them to meet and confer on subjects pertaining to their welfare, and are therefore neither frequent nor importunate applicants for favors in our legislative halls. On the other hand, the agriculturists are always conservative, concede and support the rights of person and property, and have at no time been tainted with communism.

"In times of public danger or threatened anarchy they have always presented a solid front in favor of the orderly administration of the laws and the suppression of mobs and violence.

"For these reasons, and others, it is hoped that their present expressed wishes will not be less likely to secure the favorable consideration of your honorable committee and of Congress.

"The business of producing wool in Washington County, and all others similarly situated, has been greatly changed within the last few years. The production of sheep in the mild climate and upon the cheap lands of Australia and contiguous colonies, where neither shelter nor dry feed are required, has increased from about 13,000,000 in 1860 to about 75,000,000 in 1880, and the wool is now seeking and finding a market in competition with that produced in Washington County. The vast improvement in the means and rates of transportation has virtually annihilated distance as a means of protection against imports of merchandise. Millions of pounds of wool are annually imported into the United States.

"In the mean time the cost of producing wool in Washington County has been greatly enhanced by the increase in the value of land, in the wages of hands, and in the food consumed. It is now stated by many extensive and experienced wool growers that the labor of the farmer and of his family must contribute largely to the production to make it pay.

The people of this county were among the first to introduce and make successful the production of fine wools in the United States.

"They have familiarized themselves with the business for more than half a century, and their employment and capital is involved in its continued success. Its destruction or permanent depression would be a public calamity.

"The wool growers therefore ask particularly for an increase of import duties on the lower grades of wool and a reasonable but positive increase of duties on all imported wool. We think the difference between the duties now imposed on the importation of wool and the duties imposed on woolen goods sufficiently broad to justify the increase of duties here asked. We do not, however, propose to enter upon the discussion of the policy of protective duties, but will state that if the margin between the duties on wool and woolen goods is not wide enough to accomplish the object it must be broadened without hindering the increased protection of wool. It might be wise for those who indorse and sustain a protective policy to embrace so favorable an opportunity to strengthen the sentiment in the rural districts.

"We submit this very brief and general statement, and also file statistics and testimony sustaining these statements so that the subject which is vital to the welfare of those we represent will claim your attention and consideration when you make up your final report.

"Hoping that our request may correspond with your views, we are, respectfully, yours,

"JOHN M. STOCKDALE.

"ASA MANCHESTER.

"JOHN MCDOWELL."

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. Under the resolution adopted at that meeting, did any of the other branches of the agricultural interest in your county act?—
Answer. I think they have. There was a little informality about our appearing here to-day. We expected to have a larger representation present.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. Is there a wool growers' association in your county?—A. No, sir; not a regular association.

Q. Is there a stock breeders' association there?—A. Yes, sir; there is an agricultural association.

Q. Do you represent that stock breeders' association?—A. No, sir; I do not. I represent exactly what this paper states, that is all.

Q. How many wool growers are there in Washington County?—A. There are 65,000 to 70,000 people in the county, very nearly all of whom are directly or indirectly connected with wool growing. They produce more wool in the same territory than any other part of the United States.

Q. What percentage of the wool growers of the county attended this convention?—A. There were probably from 65 to 100 people present.

Q. Wool growers?—A. Yes, sir; actual wool growers and farmers.

Q. How many sheep are there in Washington County?—A. I suppose not less than from 300,000 to 500,000.

Q. How many were there in 1867, when the present tariff was enacted?—A. I cannot tell you, but many less than now.

Q. Have you doubled the number of sheep since that time?—A. I cannot say.

Q. Has there been an increase of 25 per cent.?—A. Yes, sir; I should say so, or more.

Q. What has been the increase in the yield of wool in that time?—A. From 3½ pounds per fleece to 5 or 6 pounds per fleece, on the average, owing to the breeding of the sheep.

Q. What proportion of that improvement would you think attributable to the present tariff?—A. A very considerable proportion.

Q. What duty are you asking a change in regard to?—A. I ask that the duty of 3 cents a pound on carpet wools, as it is now, may be increased to 9 cents a pound.

Q. Does Washington County now raise any wool that comes under the head of 3-cent duty wool?—A. No, sir; it does not, taking it by the fleece. But that cheap wool takes the place which would be occupied by our wool.

Q. In what articles?—A. In all articles.

Q. What proportion of Washington County wools would you put in competition with the carpet wools imported at 3 cents a pound duty?—A. Not a very large proportion; I cannot tell you with any accuracy; it would be merely a guess. This Texas, Colorado, and California wool all comes into market, but it is not quite equal to Washington County wool, though it occupies a place that Washington County wool would occupy if it did not come in. In the same way the wool from South America occupies a place in the manufactures of this country that some of our wool from Texas, Florida, or California would occupy if that wool was not imported.

Q. I understand you to give, as your reason for asking this increase, that it was wool raised upon these very high-priced lands. You do not include Colorado and Texas lands in that remark, do you?—A. No, sir. These Australian and New Zealand wools are raised on cheap lands, where the sheep can graze for six or seven months in the year, and where they do not have to incur any expense for housing.

Q. What is the cost of raising wool per pound in Washington County?—A. It costs about \$2 a year to keep a sheep.

Q. And they shear how much?—A. I think about 6 pounds, on the average.

Q. And the increase from those sheep is worth how much?—A. That depends upon the character of the flock. From one-quarter of the flocks, as a general rule, there is no increase at all; I mean the young sheep and the different kinds from which there is no increase.

Q. Can you give any estimate of the proportion of imported wools that compete with your fine wools of Washington County?—A. All the wool imported from Australia, New Zealand, and contiguous countries, which amounts, as I understand, to nearly one-fourth of the whole consumption of the United States.

Q. Do you give it as your opinion that one-fourth of the fine wool used in the United States is imported?—A. No, sir; I did not say that; I say one-fourth of that which goes into consumption.

Q. Do you recollect how much wool was imported in 1881?—A. I do not.

Q. I understand that this increase that you ask for is, in your opinion, necessary in order to continue the production of wool in this county?—A. I think so. I think one-fourth of the people in Washington County, if they believed that the present prices of wool would continue, would abandon the business, and have already taken that subject into contemplation.

Q. What was the recommendation of the meeting you represent in

regard to carpet wools?—A. That the duty should be increased from 3 to 9 cents a pound. I think the admission of these cheaper wools from abroad is very disastrous to the wool-growing interest of the country, and it seems to be the general impression that wool is brought into this into this country far below its actual value.

Q. Do you know what the average price of these carpet wools is at the port of shipment?—A. I cannot tell you that; but I am cognizant of the fact that they cannot introduce them paying a specific duty of 3 cents a pound.

Q. What per cent. of the value of the wools is 3 cents a pound?—A. I cannot state that; they try to bring in wool, and almost every article, at an undervaluation.

Q. How do you ascertain that to be the fact?—A. From the records of the courts and the knowledge everybody has of these importations, and from the tendency of human nature in that direction. When you put an ad valorem duty on goods people will always try to evade it, and we have the records of our courts, from Richmond to Boston, showing continued attempts at undervaluations on all articles of merchandise brought in on ad valorem duties. The same general proposition would apply to iron and sugar as well as to wool.

By Commissioner BOTTLER:

Q. How does the character of your merino wool in Washington County compare with the West Virginia wool?—A. It is very similar to it.

Q. Is it superior to the West Virginia wool of the higher or finer grades?—A. No, sir; I think not. It may be the result of prejudice and egotism, but we think our wool is better than any wool produced anywhere in this country.

Q. Had you an exhibit of your wools at the Centennial Exhibition?—A. No, sir; but we had at the World's Fair in London, and took the premium also.

Mr. ASA MANCHESTER, representing the wool growers of Washington County (Pa.), said:

I appear before you as a representative of the interests of the wool growers of Washington County. I have been interested in wool growing all my life. I regard the wool industry of this country as one of the most important of all industries, and think we should so foster it as to be able to produce all the wool we need for our own uses, without being obliged to import any from abroad. That we are not doing this to-day is perhaps owing to the fact that we have not had and are not having sufficient protection. We claim that Washington County, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Eastern Ohio produce the best wool in the world. It is a wool that we cannot well do without. All the finest class of goods are made from the wools that are produced here, and no such goods can probably be made from wools brought from any other place. I do not think we can continue, however, to produce this wool in the face of the competition we have to contend against in the importation of wool from Australia and other countries. Land there is cheap, and the expense of keeping sheep is much less than it is here. It has been estimated, and I believe it is a correct estimate, that by our best endeavor we can get about 3 per cent. out of our investment, and that is all. You can figure that up and see for yourselves whether we receive a living profit or not for our hard labor from morning until night from one year's end to another. You may feel inclined to ask us why we continue such an unprofitable business. My answer is that we still fol-

low it because it has been our business for fifty years perhaps—I have been engaged in it myself for sixty years—and it is not easy after that length of time to change into a new business.

We come here to-day not as party men or in the interest of any party, but as practical sheep growers, to ask you to recommend to Congress that a sufficient protection shall be placed upon the wool industries of the country to enable us to continue to develop them. When we commenced in this business we raised the finest kind of wools that could be raised. For years we raised them in Washington County, until the county was celebrated all over the country on account of the fineness of its wool. Why are we not raising it to-day? Because we do not get paid for it; because we cannot make any profit out of it. A buyer will come and say to us, "You have a very fine class of wool, and I would like to buy it; but I can only give you *such* and *such* a price;" and then he will go to a neighbor who has wool not worth two-thirds as much and pay him the same price that he offered us. The consequence is that Washington County people are going into the raising of the heavy Spanish merinos, which produce a greasy, wrinkly, dirty wool; good wool, but greasy. One-fourth of the people who were in the wool-growing business in this county have already gone out of the business because they say it will not pay them; and if they are left without sufficient encouragement in the way of a protective tariff nearly all the rest of them will go into some other branch of business. We do not want to do this; we would rather raise wool than to raise other products, because we think our county is well adapted to the raising of wool. We ask, then, for an increase in the tariff rates; but if you do not think it just and fair, why do not give it to us. The reason we ask for an increase is because there are to-day large duties put upon imported goods and other things that we use, and we only want to be put upon an equality with others. We think other interests in the country are better protected than ours. We ask you to look at the matter in this light, and if you can give us any encouragement, I hope you will do so.

I desire to state, in regard to this industry I represent, that a meeting was called of the wool-growers in our county and notice was published in every paper in our town. The meeting was not as large as was expected, but at the same time the county of Washington was represented by its wool-growers. At the meeting an objection was raised that the whole county was not represented, but I suppose it was owing to the fact that the farmers were busy and could not leave their work. When I found out that the meeting was not as large as was expected, I took the pains to ask every man I happened to meet, of both political parties, about this tariff question, and I wish to assert here is to the best of my knowledge and belief, that nine-tenths of the wool-growers of Washington County are in favor of the tariff being held as it is or raised to what we ask.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. You have been a wool-grower here in this county how long?—
A. Ever since I was big enough to carry a lamb in my arms.

Q. What is the number of sheep in this county at this time?—A. I have not the figures at hand and cannot tell you.

Q. How does the price of farm labor in this county compare with the price paid in 1867?—A. It is probably a little higher now than it was then. We pay seventeen to twenty dollars per month, which I suppose is two or three dollars a month higher than it was in 1867.

Q. What, in your opinion, is the average shearing of a sheep in this

county at present?—A. Some shear from three to four pounds and others seven to eight. The general average of the county is six or six and a half pounds.

Q. What does it cost to raise a pound of wool?—A. The statement of our committee has been made that it costs about two dollars a year to keep a sheep, and that corresponds with my experience. Land is worth seventy-five and eighty dollars an acre on the average, and last winter corn cost 80 cents a bushel and oats 60 cents a bushel.

Q. What proportion of the wool imported into this country competes with your wool; yours is a fine wool, I understand?—A. It is not as fine as it was years ago, but it is still rated as double X and above.

Q. This wool that you mention as coming from Australia is also a fine quality, is it not?—A. Yes, sir; I have been sent some samples of that which is as fine a wool as we raise.

Q. What proportion of the total amount of wool imported is that fine wool which competes with yours?—A. I have not got the statistics and cannot say.

Q. I can probably give it to you, then. In 1881 there were 58,000,000 pounds of wool imported into the United States. Of that, 45,000,000 were carpet wools, paying 3 or 6 cents a pound duty, leaving but 13,000,000 pounds of fine wools imported in 1881. You have said that the wool-growers of your county want the tariff left as it is, or increased?—A. Our instructions are to ask to have it increased.

Q. What is your own view of the matter?—A. I am in favor of increasing it.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Can you stand it as it is?—A. It is pretty hard work, but I can stand it better than some other men can, although it is a hard, up-hill business.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. You ask for an increase, then?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You said that it should be left as it was, or increased?—A. Well, there are many who want it repealed altogether, and where should we be if it was?

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. As a practical farmer of fifty years' experience, I ask you if the tariff on fine wools should be reduced, what the effect would be; do you say it would be disastrous to the wool-growing industry of the country?—A. Yes, sir; I think so.

Q. Do I understand you to say that it would lead to the abandonment, to a great extent, of that industry?—A. Yes, sir; I think it would, and I think that would be a great evil to the country.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. You represent Washington County, I understand?—A. Yes, sir; in part.

Q. What is the population of Washington County?—A. About forty thousand, I think.

Q. Is there any other county in the United States that raises as many sheep as Washington County?—A. No, sir; not in proportion to its territory.

The PRESIDENT. There is one county in Texas, ten times as large a county, where they raise more.

M. B. SUYDAM & CO.

PITTSBURGH, *October 10, 1882.*

The following statement of Messrs. M. B. SUYDAM & Co., respecting the Linseed Oil Manufacturers of Pittsburgh, Pa., addressed to the Commission, was ordered to be printed :

There are about seventy firms in the United States engaged in the manufacture of linseed oil, employing a large capital difficult to estimate.

Protected by a duty of 30 cents per gallon on foreign linseed oil, the industry has grown to an enormous extent and now gives steady employment to a large number of men.

Should any part of this duty be removed the result would be disastrous and of a twofold nature, viz:

First. It would cause an immediate influx of foreign linseed oil, which the present duty keeps out, and consequently the ruination of the linseed-oil business in this country, which could not stand any reduction in prices, now already lower than ever before in the history of the trade by reason of overproduction and home competition.

Second. The indirect result would be to destroy the industry of flaxseed-growing by reason of the fact that with lower prices for linseed oil, caused by competition with foreign oil, manufacturers could not, as they can now, afford to pay the farmer a remunerative price for his flaxseed.

Flaxseed is now grown in this country wholly for the oil which is expressed from it; by reason of protection from foreign seed and protection of the linseed-oil trade, which is the market for domestic seed, it has become one of our largest and most important crops in the great West and Northwest, the yield increasing each year in a wonderful ratio; the crop for the past three years being estimated at from 7,500,000 to 10,000,000 bushels each year.

We earnestly request that no change be made in the duties on flaxseed (or linseed) and flaxseed oil.

FRANK L. BODINE.

PITTSBURG, PA., *October 10, 1882.*

Mr. FRANK L. BODINE, of Pittsburg, representing the manufacturers of window-glass, addressed the commission, as follows :

I appear in behalf of the American Association of Window-Glass Manufacturers. This I would like to distinguish from other branches of the glass business. The last census divides the glass business into four classes—plate-glass, window-glass, glassware, and green glass. The nearest allied to our business (window-glass, which is technically known as cylinder glass), is plate-glass; but, though used for the same purpose, is a different branch of manufacture. Therefore whatever may be said with reference to cylinder glass will have no applicability to plate-glass or to the manufacture of bottles, which will hereafter be presented.

The American Association of Window-Glass Manufacturers ask that the duty on “unpolished, cylinder, crown, and common window-glass,” shall not be changed from the present mode of assessment nor from the present rates of duties, except to add an explanatory clause, reading “including cylinder sheet-glass, cut or uncut.”

Window-glass under the classification of “cylinder” should not be confounded with plate-glass, either polished or rough, as they are totally different in their modes of manufacture, in the results produced in values, and in the sizes and form sold; so that while a rate per square foot may be a fair one on plate-glass, it would be a most unfair one on cylinder window-glass. The consumption of cylinder window-glass in the United States amounts to about 3,000,000 boxes per annum of both American and imported. Of this total consumption the average is about three-quarters American and one-quarter imported glass. The capacity of American factories is equal to the total consumption.

The number of window-glass factories in the United States is ninety-two furnaces with 836 pots; since 1860, under the low tariff of 15 per cent. ad valorem, having increased about 200 per cent. in number, besides large increase in size of furnaces. These window-glass furnaces are distributed through ten different States, viz :

Massachusetts.....	2	West Pennsylvania.....	30
New York	16	Ohio.....	7
New Jersey	16	Indiana	4
Maryland	6	Illinois	6
East Pennsylvania.....	2	Missouri.....	2
		Michigan	1
Total East.....	42	Total West	50
Total in ten States			92

The present rates of duty on “unpolished cylinder, crown, and common window-glass” are :

	Cents per pound.
Not above 10 by 15 inches.....	1½
Above 10 by 15 inches, not above 16 by 24 inches.....	2
Above 16 by 24 inches, not above 24 by 30 inches.....	2½
Above 24 by 30 inches.....	3

The manufacture of cylinder window-glass being a product of labor without machinery, and from crude materials, the cost of which is also

almost entirely for labor, requires a rate of duty to compete with labor in other countries as well in preparing the crude materials of sand, limestone, coal, &c. (all of which are ready to hand in large sections of our country), as for the direct labor converting these into window-glass.

This labor competition is mainly with Belgium, from whence nearly all cylinder window-glass is imported and where labor is the cheapest in Europe. Foreign manufacturers have the advantages, besides the cheap labor as above, of the growth of centuries, with its large consolidation of business and the usually resulting proportionate cheaper general expenses, and of slowly acquired careful subdivisions with its resulting economies. Centuries of consolidation have resulted in a large number of furnaces under one control, as many as seventeen furnaces being run by one establishment in Belgium, and from this establishment comes a large part of the imports of window-glass.

In the United States, the business being young compared with European countries, many concerns have but one furnace, and the average is not one-seventh as large. The general expenses of conducting the business of such large establishments, as is well known, makes an enormous difference in the cost, enough for a fair profit to the foreign manufacturer. The cost of capital in Belgium and other competing countries is but about one-half the rate of interest in the United States. The return for risk and effort must necessarily be larger in this country to induce the development and meet the greater cost of living and general standard prevailing.

The effect of the present duties on window-glass is not prejudicial to any, but is beneficial to all classes. The producer is benefited by the direct labor employed, as well as by the indirect labor in preparation of the raw materials, nearly all of which are from the earth. The sand and limestone, and coal in the ground, or the lumber in the tree, have little value until the labor is added, to prepare it for use in manufacture. The transporter is benefited by the carriage of these materials to the factories and the manufactured articles to consumers, amounting to several million tons of freight per annum. The home consumption of farm and other products is greatly increased, because of employed labor, and the building of factories and dwellings to accommodate such labor. Eastern factories are largely located in the country, building or developing small towns with their associated industries and appliances of living. Consumers are benefited by the close home competition, with the usual resulting lower prices. The whole country is benefited by the consumption of native crude materials, generally distributed throughout the country by diversified industries established; thus making us independent of other countries, and by elevating population because of skilled and other employment furnished.

The revenue is increased by the higher duty collected on the smaller amount of importations—this result being shown by tables below.

Revenue from duties on cylinder window-glass for four years, 1857 to 1860, at 15 per cent. ad valorem, compared with 1878 to 1881, with the specific duties above named.

(See Treasury Report, Commissioner of Statistics, Bureau of Commerce and Navigation, report of 1875, page 736, and 1877, page 668, and customs tariff legislation, page 68, duty under act March 3, 1857.)

Years ending June 30 :	Dollars.
1857	96,164
1858	94,011
1859	104,487
1860	113,265
Total.....	\$407,927

Years ending June 30:	Dollars.
1878	534, 611
1879	487, 323
1880	973, 630
1881	909, 005
Total.....	\$2, 904, 629

Making the revenue under the present tariff for four years, 1878 to 1881, \$646,925 per annum increase, or nearly seven times greater than under the ad valorem tariff before 1861.

No reduction of the present rates of duty on window-glass can be made without seriously crippling manufacturers. Part of the manufactories are now standing idle, resisting demands of workmen for advance in wages, because glass can be imported at a cost leaving them little profit during the active fall months, and when it declines, as is usual in winter and spring, will doubtless cause a loss. The wages of skilled labor in the East, which most directly competes with imported glass, average little higher than in other cognate trades. The somewhat higher wages paid in the West are only continued to avoid labor contest, and with the hope of improved selling prices. This expectation having been disappointed, the manufacturers are working without profit, and actual loss is inevitable as soon as the active fall months are past. A comparison of wages for skilled labor with countries from whence the foreign glass is imported has been carefully sought through official and other channels.

It has been impossible to arrive at any reliable data, some consuls reporting that foreign manufacturers say, as the tariff legislation of the United States is inimical to them, they feel under no obligation to communicate the information. Enough has been learned, however, to know that blowers' wages paid last year in the East, and still contended for, are about 33½ per cent. higher than in Belgium, but not as much above England.

Other skilled labor is paid considerably higher, and the average wages for all our skilled labor is over 50 per cent. higher than in Belgium. The effects of this cheap Belgium labor is felt even in England, which imports Belgium window-glass, although it is an old and large manufacture there. The skill required, and harder work than in most other trades, and the shorter available period of a glass-blower's life, naturally justify higher prices than for other skilled labor.

A reduction of one-quarter cent per pound would amount to an average of over 11 per cent. of the present duty, and would have to come from skilled labor only and would amount to about 25 per cent. on their earnings. For illustration:

One-quarter cent per pound on single thick window-glass amounts to about 13 cents per box of 50 feet. Skilled wages paid, average about 50 cents per box of 50 feet, would equal a reduction of over 25 per cent. on skilled labor.

Even such small reduction of duty, which could only come from the price of skilled labor, would make such a serious decline in their earnings as to drive workmen to other employment, and prostrate an established manufacture, which is well adapted to the country and consumes large quantities of its crude materials. It would also increase the demand for foreign glass, thereby advancing its price, because of decreased competition, and increasing its cost to consumers, benefiting only the foreign manufacturers. These considerations seem to prove conclusively that any reduction of duty would be a loss to all classes, whether consumers, producers, or associated industries of the whole country.

As to the method of assessing duties on window-glass: Specific duties are easily arranged, are now clearly established, and business adjusted thereto are not subject to fluctuations, and tend to exclude or diminish the influence of mercantile disturbances abroad. Specific duty by weight and sizes, as now assessed, is in exact proportion to both cost and selling prices. The material all costs in proportion to weight used; the unskilled labor is largely also in proportion to weight; the skilled labor is paid in accordance with, and the capital employed is in proportion to, weight, size, and quality. There is no practical difficulty in assessing duty by weight. Glass is usually shipped in two different weights per box, so that a basis for duty is well known. The slight variations are ascertained by promiscuous examination of a few boxes as an average.

These details are simple and inexpensive, and require only integrity and accuracy, instead of the expensive and tedious measurement and count of number of sheets to adjust a duty per square foot, or in place of the uncertain result and temptations to fraud of an ad valorem rate, or of the nice questions of quality, etc., so prolific of trouble and so expensive to ascertain in other goods.

The only other method proposed for assessing specific duties on window-glass has been a rate per square foot. This method, to any one familiar with the business, is so evidently liable to great carelessness in administration and open to fraud (so much more difficult to ascertain if any verifications of invoices is intended; and, if not intended, duties might as well be ad valorem, as they would rest on invoices only) that it can only be considered an ignorant attempt to simplify at the expense of fair rates of duty, or, as a fraudulent purpose, to make it easy to evade all duties.

An illustration will make this clear: Window-glass is commonly known as either "single thick" or "double thick," the double thick being about 50 per cent. thicker than single thick; and, as a result, 50 per cent. heavier. The cost and selling rates of double thick are always about 50 per cent. more than for single thick. Double thick is usually imported in 100 feet boxes (although there could be no guarantee that quantity would not be exceeded, and the change not be manifest except by very careful examination). The same sized boxes would hold 150 feet single. So also single thick glass, instead of being packed as usual in 50 feet boxes, could have an extra sheet or two added, and only increase the size of the box about $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch in thickness, and in no other dimensions, which, of course, could not be discovered without actual count; yet this slight change would add from 5 to 10, and frequently 25 to 33, per cent. of the number of square feet contained.

How could this difference be detected, in order to charge the duty per square foot? Would not honest importers be driven from the business by dishonest ones using such easy and undiscoverable advantages? Would not American manufacturers be without any known rate of protection?

Imported and American window-glass is always sold by card price. The present importers selling card price is as follows :

Prices current March, 1882.

FRENCH WINDOW, PICTURE, COACH, CAR, AND PHOTOGRAPH GLASS.

[Prices current per box of 50 feet.]

		Single : Prices per fifty feet.				Double : Prices per fifty feet.			
Photo sizes.	Sizes.	1st.	2d.	3d.	4th.	1st.	2d.	3d.	4th.
		25	6 x 8 to 8 x 10.....	11 00
40	6 x 8 to 10 x 16.....	10 00	9 25	9 00	8 50	13 00	12 25	11 75	11 00
50	11 x 14 to 10 x 24.....	11 50	10 75	10 25	9 50	15 75	14 75	14 00
51	18 x 22 to 20 x 30.....	14 75	13 75	12 50	11 50	20 00	18 50	17 00
60	15 x 30 to 24 x 30.....	16 50	14 75	13 00	22 00	20 00	17 75
70	20 x 28 to 24 x 30.....	17 50	10 00	14 00	24 00	22 50	19 25
80	20 x 30 to 20 x 41.....	18 75	17 25	14 50	25 00	23 50	20 00
84	20 x 40 to 30 x 50.....	20 50	19 25	16 50	27 00	25 25	22 00
90	30 x 52 to 30 x 54.....	22 75	21 00	18 00	30 00	28 00	24 00
94	30 x 50 to 34 x 50.....	24 00	22 00	19 75	31 50	29 00	26 25
100	34 x 58 to 34 x 60.....	25 25	23 75	21 50	33 00	31 50	28 50
	30 x 60 to 40 x 60.....	28 50	26 00	23 75	37 00	34 00	32 00

Sizes above, \$15 per box extra for every 5 inches. An additional 10 per cent. will be charged for all glass more than 40 inches wide. All sizes over 52 inches in length, and not making more than 81 united inches, will be charged in the 84 united inches bracket.

This card price shows the price of double thick is very much higher than for single thick. Hence a duty per square foot applicable to both would make a higher rate on the cheaper class of goods. The comparisons following illustrates this difference in value by sizes. Double thick glass is usually required over 40 inches (16 by 34), generally very much larger size, or in 1st and 2d qualities.

Price variations in weight only, in size only, and in weight and size combined.

	List price.	
Double thick, 10 by 15 inches.....	\$12 25	per box, 50 feet.
Single thick, 10 by 15 inches.....	9 25	per box, 50 feet.
Difference on account of weight only.....	3 00	or 32 per cent.
Single thick, 40 by 60 inches.....	26 00	per box, 50 feet.
Single thick, 10 by 15 inches.....	9 25	per box, 50 feet.
Difference on account of size only.....	16 75	or 181 per cent.
Double thick, 40 by 60 inches.....	34 00	per box, 50 feet.
Single thick, 10 by 15 inches.....	9 25	per box, 50 feet.
Difference on account of size and weight combined.....	24 75	or 268 per cent.

Such enormous differences indicate the impossibility of arranging a rate of duty by measure or square foot which has any reference to value.

According to the report of the Commissioner of Statistics, Bureau of Commerce and Navigation, which was made from sworn statements of importers, the amount of imports and duties from 1873 to 1881, both

inclusive, were as follows ; which is about 25 per cent. of the total consumption of window-glass in the United States :

	Quantity.	Dutiable value.	Average value per pound.	Amount of duty.	Average ad valorem rate of duty.
	<i>Pounds.</i>				<i>Per cent.</i>
June 30, 1873	47, 141, 050	\$2, 475, 507	\$. 0053	\$914, 018	.37
1874	30, 864, 770	2, 141, 130	.054	787, 014	.37
1875	34, 202, 373	1, 045, 745	.018	714, 088	.48.5
1876	28, 837, 110	1, 322, 017	.046	651, 139	.49.25
1877	24, 020, 437	1, 027, 592	.041	585, 295	.56.9
1878	29, 053, 752	891, 237	.035	534, 011	.60.72
1879	20, 080, 861	952, 840	.032	477, 323	.74.65
1880	43, 040, 851	1, 405, 070	.032	973, 030	.60.25
1881	45, 592, 697	1, 425, 300	.031	900, 603	.70.11
	308, 231, 525	12, 897, 410	.042	6, 047, 383	51.54
Average per annum.....	34, 247, 047	1, 433, 045	738, 503

(See Report Commissioners of Statistics, Bureau of Commerce and Navigation for 1875, page 730, for 1873-4-5. See report for 1877, page 562, for 1876-7. See Treasury report Bureau Statistics, document 45, pages 100, document 104, pages 100.)

Reduced to boxes of 50 feet in the estimate of 53 pounds single and 80 pounds double, or 60 pounds average per box, single and double, making an average of 570,800 boxes imported per annum. Thus showing the average ad valorem rate to be 51.54 per cent. If above table should be carried back, because of the higher prices abroad before the panic of 1873, the duties being specific, would reduce the average to a still lower rate. The lowest rate is charged on the small sizes, which are the cheapest class of goods, and the higher rates of duty on the larger sizes, which are expensive, and are mainly luxuries. The lowest rate shown in the table is 37 per cent. This was in the year 1873 and 1874, before the effect of the commercial disturbance at that time had reduced the price of glass abroad.

The last four years of the period in the above table was a time of very low prices abroad. The duty being specific and remaining unchanged makes the above average higher than during ordinary times.

The price per pound, shown above, for imported glass proves that American competition drove down the price abroad for American shipment from 5½ cents per pound in 1873 and 1874 to 3.1 cents or about 40 per cent., in 1881.

Without this competition, the demand continuing good abroad, prices would doubtless have continued high, and American consumers would not have had the benefit of the large decline. As it is, the foreign manufacturer has decreased his price 40 per cent. in order to hold the American market in competition with American manufacturers. Importers themselves claim but 5 to 10 per cent. difference in price to represent the difference in quality and the market prejudice in favor of foreign glass. Yet during a large part of the period covered by above tables developed competition kept the price of American window-glass 20 to 25 per cent. below the price of imported glass.

The consumption of window-glass in the United States is about 75 per cent. of American and about 25 per cent. of foreign. By American competition, developed by the present tariff, consumers of about 75 per cent. of all the window-glass used in the country have saved very

largely in price instead of, as is sometimes averred, being taxed by the tariff.

A careful examination of importers' books has been made, and shows that under the low ad valorem duty of 15 per cent. before 1861, and after the effects of the panic of 1857, the price of imported glass was 20 per cent. higher than now. Hence it is obvious that the present specific tariff, by developing home competition instead of advancing the cost of imported glass, has so increased competition as to reduce the actual cost to the consumer. At the same time, competition among home manufacturers, while greatly improving the quality of their product, has reduced the price for American glass in 1882 below the prices prevailing under the low tariff in 1857 to 1860 of 15 per cent. ad valorem.

We have thus shown conclusively that the present rate of duty on cylinder window-glass is necessary and reasonable; the method of assessment per pound is the only equitable method; that the present rates of duty have developed a large industry, suitable to our country; that the present tariff has not increased the cost of window-glass to the consumer, but has reduced the price of both French and American by the developed competition; has largely increased the revenue without taxing the people; and the foreign manufacturer is shown to have paid the tax by reducing prices abroad. As the only effect of change of duties on window-glass would be to derange, if not destroy, the industry, while benefiting none but foreign manufacturers, we trust your commission will recommend a continuance in amount and form of present duties, adding only the explanatory clause, "including cylinder sheet, cut or uncut."

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Question. I understand that you desire a retention of the rate of duty, and that the classification remain as it now is precisely?—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. What would be the objection to changing and giving you an ad valorem duty which would be a sufficient protection?—A. The objection to an ad valorem duty would be the common objection always urged against it, that it is subject to fluctuations of the foreign market, is a temptation to commit fraud, and the collection of it depends upon the integrity of custom-house officers. We assume that specific duties could be easily applied, that they would work fairer and safer than any ad valorem rate would.

Q. I think you have given the average rate of duty as about 50 per cent. ?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. How does that operate on the different classes?—A. That classification was made about in proportion to the values.

Q. You mean if you were to separate it into classes, the average rate would be about 50 per cent. ?—A. Yes, sir; that is about it. It would vary some. I have some tables here which would illustrate that point for you. The lowest rate of duty is on the lowest-priced goods.

Q. So that the rate is really, as you think, on this schedule, lower on the cheaper character of goods?—A. Yes, sir; the cheaper character of goods bear the lowest rate of duty.

Q. You have spoken of the difference in wages in European countries and this country. Have you a table, or are you able to make a statement, to show the relative wages in each country?—A. There is no official data to go upon. Many attempts have been made to ascertain the difference in the rate of wages abroad, but manufacturers there

have generally replied that as the American tariff was not favorable to them they did not feel inclined to furnish the data. We have some general knowledge on that subject, but no exact data.

Q. What is your general information upon that subject?—A. There is a difference in wages in the East and West in this country. In the East the wages of blowers would be, I suppose, from \$60 and \$70 up to \$100 per month, or an average say of \$80 or \$85. That is usually the highest priced labor that we employ. I do not know exactly how much the other labor varies.

Q. How much does a blower of the same glass earn in England?—A. We have not been able to get at the rate, but as near as we can estimate they receive about 33 per cent. more wages here than they do in Belgium. I received a communication from the State Department, in which they say it is impossible to get accurate information on this subject. On other classes of labor the rates would vary to a greater or less extent.

By Commissioner BOTTLER :

Q. Can you tell me the number of panes of glass of the smaller sized glass—say 10 by 12, for instance—per pound?—A. The 7 by 9 glass has 150 panes in a box. The 8 by 10, 90 panes, and so on. The larger the glass the smaller the number of panes until you get up to 3 lights to a box. The largest sized glass made in this country (which is as large as any made in the world) would be about 48 to 53 inches wide and 80 to 100 inches long. In these very large sizes they are sold by the light mainly. The division into boxes runs up above 40 by 60, but after you get into the very large sizes the price is made by the single light.

Q. I refer to these sizes which go into general consumption. Can you tell me how many panes there are to the pound?—A. In the United States the consumption of the smaller sizes would be about 25 per cent. of the production. The importers' invoices make 25 to 26 per cent. of their importations in the first bracket, but every manufacturer in the United States knows that that is not true. We know that of foreign glass there is not 25 per cent. consumed in the first bracket, though of American glass there is probably about that percentage.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. How fully does your statement represent the glass manufacturers of the United States?—A. We have a national organization of window-glass manufacturers, which comprises all but half a dozen manufacturers, or perhaps even fewer than that. All these manufacturers have appointed a committee to present this statement, and there is no diversity of sentiment among them on this point.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. About how much of the glass consumed in the United States is made here, and how much is imported?—A. Seventy-five per cent. of the total consumption is American glass, and 25 per cent. imported.

Q. What is the character of the 25 per cent. imported?—A. A large proportion is a higher grade of glass, and they claim the quality is superior, but there is not a gentleman on this commission, if he could see them side by side, who could tell which was the American and which was the foreign glass. It requires an expert to tell the difference between the best American and the imported glass.

Q. Is 25 per cent. about the average of the amount imported during the past ten years?—A. Yes, sir; I think that is the average all through.

Q. You claim that the present duty allows one-fourth of the glass consumed in this country to come from abroad?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What would be the lowest average rate according to the plan you propose?—A. Thirty-seven per cent.

Q. Would there not be some as low as 11 per cent.?—A. That would probably be true on the larger sizes. Glass advances very rapidly in cost and selling price as it increases in size, and there is no difference in the rate of duty assessed on glass of any size above 24 by 30. Formerly 24 by 30 represented as large a glass as was made, but now our quality has so improved that we are able to compete with foreign glass and sell larger sizes. The rate of duty on that would be very much less. But we concluded rather than to ask any change, to let that matter rest as it was, instead of inserting the brackets which we originally intended, and which fairness would permit. But there was a disposition on the part of the manufacturers to avoid asking anything that they could get along without.

A. You state, then, that the glass manufacturers of the United States would be unable to stand any reduction in the present rates, if there was a general reduction made on all articles now dutied?—A. I state that any reduction would destroy the business. I am unable to indicate any point where we could stand any reduction in the duties.

Q. Are the smaller sizes of glass, 8 by 10, 10 by 12, and so forth, used generally in houses throughout the country, principally made in the United States?—A. Yes, sir; there is a larger proportion used of American manufacture than foreign, in those sizes.

Q. On the average sizes for the last year or two, has there been any profit in their manufacture?—A. No, sir. Their manufacture simply results from our efforts to make the larger sizes of good quality, and these are sold as the residuum which must be cut into smaller sizes. I suppose there is more loss than profit in the first bracket of sizes.

Q. Commissioner Ambler asked you in regard to the rates of wages paid. The glass imported comes almost altogether from Belgium, and I would like to ask you whether labor ranges lower there than in any other country in Europe. You said that the difference would be about one-third in blowers' wages. Do you mean to say that a glass-blower in Belgium would get within one-third as much wages as a glass-blower in Pittsburg?—A. Yes, sir; as near as we can get at the facts. These are the prevailing prices paid blowers in the East temporarily. The West is paying a little higher price. For two years they said they could not start without a reduction of wages, but hoping things would be better, they have continued the rate of wages which we in the East have not.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. Do you know that the wages in Great Britain are about one-third more than in Belgium; consequently the wages in Great Britain, if your statement is correct, would be about the same as they are in this country?—A. I know, as a general fact, that the wages in Great Britain are larger than in Belgium. I know, however, that almost no English glass comes to the United States, while the Belgian product does go to England in large quantities.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. Will you please send us within the next few weeks a statement of the rate of wages paid in Belgium as far as you can obtain that information?—A. I will do so. The only data accessible is a very incom-

plete report from the State Department published within the last few months. I framed at their request a series of questions which were sent to our consuls in both England and Belgium, in order to obtain exactly the different items of cost in making glass abroad and in this country. The letter sent by the State Department covering our inquiries, stated that it would not reimburse the consuls for any expense incurred in collecting this information. Since then the manufacturers have requested the consuls to procure this information, and told them they would pay any necessary expenses which were incurred, as we desire to get full information, but they have been unable to obtain it up to the present time.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. You say that one-fourth of a cent a pound reduction in the tariff on glass would make probably 25 per cent. reduction in wages. Please explain that more fully.—A. One-fourth of a cent a pound would amount, in round numbers, to 12½ cents per half box, and the average blower's earnings in the East are about 50 cents per half box. This 12½ cents would be about 25 per cent. of their earnings of 50 cents.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. We have heard a great deal about the difference in wages paid in this country and in England, Belgium, and other parts of Europe. I want to inquire of you as to the purchasing power of the money received in Belgium and in England as regards the supplies that a laboring man has to live upon, including his clothes and provisions. Is not the purchasing power much greater in Belgium and in England than it is in this country?—A. I have no doubt of that.

JAMES PARK ET AL.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 10, 1882.*

Mr. JAMES PARK, Jr., president of the convention of iron and steel manufacturers held at Cresson, Pa., September 12 and 13, 1882, addressed the Commission as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMISSION: In presenting to you the proceedings of the Convention of the Manufacturers of Iron and Steel and Iron Ore Producers held at Cresson on the 12th and 13th of last month [see appendix], I do so through the appointment made by that convention of myself as chairman of its joint committees. That convention, as you are doubtless aware, was composed of representative men, controlling or representing hundreds of millions of capital and employing many hundred thousand workmen. It is not my intention to detain the Commission by any stated remarks, but merely to present the various branches of industry connected with iron and steel in the order in which they are named in the pamphlet issued by the convention.

I may, however, ask the privilege of saying something in relation to the question of protection. It is a question to which I have given a great deal of thought, and one to which I am strongly committed. There are gentlemen who have notions that free trade would be better for the country, others who propose a tariff for revenue only, and still others who favor a tariff with incidental protection. While I believe they are as honest in their convictions as I am in mine, I desire to call the attention of the Commission to some points which illustrate the advantage of building up, by a protective tariff, these leading industries of the country. I believe that the business and wages of this country have adjusted themselves to the present rates of the tariff, and any material change in them would be very disastrous to the whole country. We can compete with any portion of the globe in producing these articles if we can get our labor brought down to the same standard of wages that is paid in other countries, or if our cost for transporting materials was as low and the distances as short as in other countries. But carrying them as we have to do for so many hundreds of miles, the carriage, of course, is necessarily expensive. I want to say just one word in reply to some of the professors of colleges and other *doctrinaires*—gentlemen entertaining views differing from my own—who have addressed you. They seem to be disposed to heap upon those who choose to engage in manufacturing enterprises certain epithets, the favorite one of which is “monopolists.” One professor seemed to regard all these establishments as abominations, forgetting that the very college from which he draws his pay is protected by bequests, and in other ways, to enable it to educate the youth of the country at prices much below what they could afford to educate them for if it were not for these exceptional advantages. I know you have opened your doors very widely, and very wisely, to persons of all shades of opinion, and have given great latitude in the discussion of these questions; and I am glad you have done so.

I want to say a few words in relation to the subject of undervaluations, because it is a matter that I believe is not so well understood as it might be. I am satisfied that very great vigilance is used by our cus-

tom-house officials to prevent and detect undervaluations; yet, with all their care, they are very often deceived. I can refer to a few instances which have been brought to my own personal notice. When I was in Europe last summer, in nearly every place where I bought articles I was offered invoices with prices from 33½ per cent. or so less than I paid for the articles. In one case I bought some silk, costing 99 francs, from one of the best silk-houses in Zurich, and the invoice price was made out and handed to me at 64 francs. I told them I did not want it made at that price. They said, "That is done so that you will have to pay smaller custom-house import dues." They said they were in the habit of making them out in that way; and it was only after considerable argument that I got them to make out the invoice at 99 francs. In the case also of the purchase of a musical box which cost \$120, together with some other articles, making a total of \$145, which I wished to send to New York; the parties said they would ship it to their own consignee in New York; and they shipped the packages, and everything reached me safely except the musical box. On inquiry I found that the representative of that house in Luzerne, instead of sending to Zurich, the nearest consulate, and having the bill certified to, made out the bill for less than \$100, so that it did not require a certificate, and when the appraisers in New York opened the box they saw it was worth more than \$100 and appraised it at a higher value. I sent my representative to them with the original invoice, and that produced trouble and talk of confiscation. Finally, after getting a certificate as to my character from the collector here at Pittsburgh, they allowed me to pay the increased duty upon the musical box, and it was sent to me. That practice seems to be very general in Europe. However, I will take no more of your time in discussing these matters.

I have been asked by the iron-ore interest, which is not represented here to-day, to request permission for them to appear before you at your sessions in Philadelphia. They have been unable to get their statistics ready, and will have to defer presenting their branch of the case until your subsequent meeting there.

Before calling on the representatives of the pig-iron interest to address you, I will state that an argument was directed to be prepared by the American Iron and Steel Association to be laid before the Commission. The result was the preparation of a very elaborate paper by Mr. Swank, its secretary. It is quite lengthy and will take a long time to read; therefore I will simply present it to the Commission for their consideration at a future time.

The PRESIDENT. Do you desire to have it incorporated as a part of your statement?

Mr. PARK. Yes, sir. In our opinion it is a very important document. It is an argument in favor of adhering, as nearly as possible, to the present tariff rates on iron and steel.

The following is the document referred to:

THE TARIFF ON IRON AND STEEL JUSTIFIED BY ITS RESULTS.

In presenting suggestions to the Tariff Commission concerning a revision of existing duties on iron and steel it is proper that these suggestions should be preceded by a brief inquiry into the general effects of the protective legislation which has since 1861 been accorded to our iron and steel industries. Twenty-one years is a long time in the life of an individual or in the history of any leading industry. During this period the child grows to man's estate and becomes its own master, and it may

be frankly admitted that the industry which has received adequate protection during the same period is no longer an infant industry. With certain exceptions, our iron and steel industries have been adequately protected since the passage of the Morrill tariff in 1861. Has the protection which they have received been justified by the results?

THE EVIDENCE OF OUR SENSES.

Appealing to the evidence of our senses, we find that large quantities of iron and steel are everywhere in use in this country, and that iron and steel works, and mines to supply them with iron ore and fuel, exist and are operated in almost every State and in many of the Territories. We find further that these iron and steel works supply most of the iron and steel that we use. The country has not, therefore, been retarded in its wonderful development during the past twenty-one years by a scarcity of iron and steel—a large part of its development in these years being caused, in fact, by the opening of iron ore and coal mines and the building of iron and steel works. These enterprises and the transportation of their products have given employment to large numbers of our people, whose wages have in turn greatly contributed to the prosperity of other domestic industries, as the benefits of manufacturing and mining enterprises are never limited to those who are immediately connected with them. The results we have mentioned are plain to every man who has eyes to see. He who has ears to hear has learned, too, that the prices at which our iron and steel have been sold have rarely been out of harmony with the prices of other domestic products and with the high rates of wages paid to all classes of American labor, and that they have never been exceptionally high unless from causes similar to those which produced the late high prices for our agricultural products. No law can prevent a temporary scarcity, provide for an extraordinary demand, or curb the spirit of speculation in a people's necessities. If, therefore, the country has not been retarded in its development by a scarcity of iron and steel, or by the prices charged for them, but on the contrary has been assisted in that development by their abundance and cheapness, and by the labor necessary to create this abundance, then the mere observer of passing events must conclude that the manufacture of these products on a large scale in our country has been a blessing. He must conclude that, if their manufacture had not been encouraged, the country's importations of them would have been many times as large as they have been, and that dependence upon foreign countries for our supplies of these products would have caused us to send abroad large sums of money which have been kept in the channels of trade and enterprise at home.

THE RAPID GROWTH OF OUR IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRIES.

Appealing to the evidence furnished us by statistics, we find indisputable confirmation of the conclusions reached by the mere observer of passing events. In 1860, the last year preceding the adoption of our present tariff policy, the country's production of pig iron amounted to 821,223 gross tons, its production of rails to 183,069 tons, and its production of steel to 10,569 tons. In 1881, the last of the twenty-one years during which the present policy has been in force, our production of pig iron was 4,144,254 gross tons, our production of rails was 1,646,518 tons and our production of steel was 1,588,314 tons. During the whole twenty-one years we produced 39,566,491 gross tons of pig iron and 13,498,494

tons of rails. No accurate account of our production of steel in the whole of the same period has been preserved, but in the ten years ending with 1881 it amounted to 6,552,983 gross tons, of which 429,874 tons were crucible steel. When the Morrill tariff was adopted this country had not produced one pound of Bessemer steel, and it was not until 1867 that its manufacture in the United States as a commercial product may be said to have been established. In that year we produced 2,276 gross tons of Bessemer steel rails, and in 1881 we produced 1,187,770 tons. In the whole period of fifteen years from 1867 to 1881 we produced 4,566,358 gross tons of Bessemer steel rails, almost every ton of which was laid in the tracks of American railroads. Our whole steel industry of every form may truthfully be said to have been created by the Morrill tariff and its supplements.

THE INFLUENCE OF PROTECTION ON OUR MINING INDUSTRIES.

The influence of our present protective policy upon the development of industries which are either wholly or largely dependent upon the prosperity of our iron and steel industries is shown in the production of coal and iron ore in certain representative districts. In 1860, the last year before the enactment of the Morrill tariff, we produced 8,513,123 gross tons of anthracite coal, and in 1881 we produced 28,500,017 tons. In 1860 we produced 5,551,857 gross tons of bituminous coal, and in 1880 we produced 37,875,519 tons. The large annual production of Connellsville and other coke has been almost wholly created by its use in our blast furnaces since the passage of the Morrill tariff. In the Centennial year, 1876, there were in the Connellsville region 3,260 coke ovens, with an annual capacity of 61,126,500 bushels of coke. On November 1, 1881, five years later, the number of ovens had increased to 7,845, with an annual capacity of 147,093,750 bushels of coke. In 1860 we produced 2,873,459 gross tons of iron ore, and in 1880 we produced 7,120,272 tons. In 1860 our production of Lake Superior iron ore was 114,401 gross tons, and in 1881 it was 2,336,335 tons. In the twenty-one years from 1861 to 1881 the total production of Lake Superior iron ore was 17,339,389 tons, the estimated value of which at the ports of shipment was over \$100,000,000.

OUR VAST RAILROAD SYSTEM DEVELOPED UNDER PROTECTION.

It is well known that our railroads consume more than one-half of all the iron and steel that the country produces or buys abroad. When the Morrill tariff was passed, at the beginning of 1861, only 30,635 miles of railroad had been built in the United States, and over thirty years had been occupied in building them; at the beginning of the present year 104,813 miles had been built, or, in round numbers, 75,000 miles more than in 1861. More than twice as many miles of railroad have therefore been built since the passage of the tariff of 1861 as in the thirty and more years which preceded that enactment. This statement refers only to the mileage of single lines of railroad; if the mileage of double, treble, and quadruple tracks and the sidings be added, the growth of our railroad system since 1861 will be found to have been three times as great as during the whole antecedent period. Statistics of the rolling stock of our railroads at the beginning of the present protective era are not available, but at the beginning of the present year there were in use 20,116 locomotives, 14,548 passenger cars, 4,976 baggage, mail, and express cars, and 648,295 freight cars. A policy which

has existed unbroken during such a remarkable development of our railroad interests cannot be truthfully regarded as the enemy of those interests, but must upon the face of the facts stated be conceded to have promoted them, for surely we could not have constructed and equipped so many miles of railroad in twenty-one years if the supply of the iron and steel required in such construction and equipment had been deficient, and if the prices at which they had been sold had not been satisfactory to the railroad companies.

THE PRICES OF IRON AND STEEL REDUCED UNDER PROTECTION.

It will be asked whether or not the prices of iron and steel have been *reduced* to consumers under our present protective policy. The answer may be made that the tendency of protection, by encouraging competition, has always been to reduce the prices of manufactured articles, but that the occurrence of our civil war and the consequent creation of our greenback currency have prevented, or at least retarded, the natural cheapening effect which would otherwise have been produced. The war led to an abnormal demand for all manufactured articles, and after its close the greenback currency continued for years to inflate prices and to stimulate speculation—this speculation first operating to still further enhance prices, and afterwards, through the violent reaction of the panic of 1873, to severely depress them. In its effect upon the prices of our iron and steel products, therefore, the existing protective policy has not had a fair trial, although, if allowance be made for the premium on gold, it will be found upon examination that the average yearly prices of our leading products of iron and steel in the protective period since 1861 have been generally lower than they were during the revenue period from 1846 to 1861.

But we deny that the test of cheapness is the true test to apply to any economic policy. Everything that is bought and sold may be cheap in money price, and yet those who buy as well as those who sell may be very far from prosperous. Pig iron, for instance, never was so cheap in this country as in 1878, under the present tariff, but who that remembers the hard times of that year will say that cheap pig iron was then a boon to consumers or to the country? It has been well remarked by a recent writer that in countries where prices are lowest the people are generally poor and ignorant, and that the blessings of low prices are nowhere so likely to be found as among a people who clothe themselves in breech-clouts and grass mats and live on wild fruits and insects. Upon the other hand, the products of both agriculture and manufactures may be high in price, and yet the consumer as well as the producer may be prosperous. An economic policy must be judged by its effects upon the general prosperity of a people, and not alone by its effects on prices. If the consumption of iron and steel, for instance, has been so large under the present tariff that all previous consumption appears insignificant when compared with it, the inference is irresistible that the country was prosperous under protection or it could not have required such large quantities of iron and steel, and that it was able to pay for them regardless of price. The ability to purchase, and not the price of a commodity, governs all trade operations.

And yet protection *does* cheapen prices. It has cheapened the prices of iron and steel, and of articles made from them. Axes and saws, trace chains and horseshoes, wagon and carriage tires, spades and shovels and hoes, plows and harrows, nails and small hardware, and many other articles of iron and steel in common use by our farmers are cheaper to-

day than they were under the revenue tariffs of 1846 and 1857, although the prices of all farm products are higher now than they were then. Not only are all these manufactured articles cheaper than they were under the revenue tariffs mentioned, but they are better—so much better that we no longer import axes, shovels, spades, or hoes, or any other agricultural implements. Steel itself is very much cheaper now than in the days when our supply of steel was received from abroad. Before steel for circular-sawplates was manufactured in this country our saw-makers were compelled to pay English steelmakers from 35 to 40 cents in gold per pound for large plates, whereas plates of the same size of domestic manufacture are now sold at 26 cents. Before the present duties on steel were established best axe steel of English manufacture sold in our markets at 17 cents in gold per pound; the price of the same kind of steel of domestic manufacture is now 10½ cents. The best quality of crucible steel that is used in the manufacture of tools has also undergone the same change in price—from 17 cents to 10½ cents per pound. It has been stated before the Tariff Commission by a carriage manufacturer of New York, that in 1858 he paid 16 cents a pound for steel tires, and now pays for tires of the same quality only 7 cents a pound. Nearly all the steel that is now used in this country in the manufacture of all kinds of tools, even dental and surgical instruments, is made by domestic manufacturers.

That protection, by encouraging competition, tends to cheapen the prices of iron and steel is conspicuously shown in the history of our Bessemer steel industry. In 1864, when our first Bessemer steel works were undertaken, American railroad managers paid from \$80 to \$112 in gold per ton for English steel rails delivered at English seaports; and in 1867, when American mills were ready to receive orders for steel rails, the price of these rails in England still ranged from \$72.50 to \$77.50 in gold. Since 1867 the competition of American mills has greatly reduced the price of both English and American steel rails. In July, 1870, when the present duty on steel rails was imposed, the price of English steel rails at English seaports was \$55 a ton in gold; since 1870 over two million tons of American steel rails have been sold below \$55 a ton in currency. In 1877, ten years after the American mills were prepared to manufacture steel rails to fill orders, the price of American rails had been reduced to \$40 a ton, and to-day, notwithstanding the extraordinary demand for steel rails for both new and old railroads, the price is only \$45 a ton.

OUR STEEL-RAIL INDUSTRY A BOON TO AMERICAN RAILROADS.

It is universally conceded that the general substitution of steel rails for iron rails has been a boon of inestimable value to American railroad interests. The durability of steel rails being many times greater than that of iron rails, and the prices at which they have been supplied being no higher than those formerly charged for iron rails, the cost of maintaining our railroad tracks in thorough repair is of course greatly reduced. Then, again, steel rails, being stronger than iron rails, enable the railroads to carry a much larger tonnage than could have been possible with iron rails. In the statement above given of the reduction effected in the cost of steel rails by the establishment of their manufacture on a large scale in our country we have a powerful argument in support of the policy which made that manufacture possible. Even the opponents of that policy must concede that, if the encouragement which it afforded had been wanting, our magnificent Bessemer steel industry never could have had

an existence. It is pre-eminently the child of our protective policy. Without it our railroads could not in late years have been adequately supplied with steel rails at any price. The fact is not as well known as it should be, that the United States is the largest producer of steel rails in the world; Great Britain, our principal competitor in their manufacture, annually producing a less quantity than we do. The following table shows the production of Bessemer steel rails in the two countries in 1880 and 1881, in gross tons:

Countries.	1880.	1881.	Increase.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
United States	852, 100	1, 187, 770	335, 574
Great Britain.....	739, 910	1, 023, 740	283, 830
Excess of United States over Great Britain	112, 286	164, 030	51, 744

In the case of steel rails, as in the case of all other manufactured articles, domestic competition is needed to keep down the price of the foreign product. In 1870 Welsh steel rails sold at the works at an average of £10 10s., but in 1873, when there was a strong American demand and our Bessemer-steel industry had not been developed, the price rose to an average for the year of £15 7s. 6d. When there was a scarcity of steel rails in this country in 1880, the home mills not being able to supply the demand, the price of steel rails abroad speedily advanced. In 1879 Welsh steel rails had sold at the works at £5 to £5 5s. per ton, but in the first half of 1880, owing entirely to the American demand, the price advanced to an average of £7 10s. In the second half of 1880 the average price was £6 10s. The average for the whole year 1879 was £5 2s. 6d., and for the whole year 1880 it was exactly £7. At the mere prospect early in 1880 that our duty on steel rails would be reduced, and that our Bessemer steel-rail manufacturers would thereby be discouraged from increasing the capacity of their works, the price of English steel rails suddenly rose to £11 at the works. A year later, in the early part of 1881, the Ironmonger, a London journal devoted to the interests of the British iron trade, unconsciously justified the action of the American Congress in refusing to reduce the duty by remarking as follows: "The great increase in the manufacturing capacity both of Europe and America has alone prevented that return to high prices which the present demand would have caused; and as, on both sides of the Atlantic, factories are being still further extended, the same counteracting cause will have effect for some time to come."

That our vast railroad interests have been directly helped by the development of our iron and steel industries is again shown by the large quantities of freight which these industries have furnished to the railroads in nearly every section of the country. It was officially ascertained in 1880 that eleven Bessemer steel companies alone paid over \$8,000,000 in lake, river, and railroad freight charges in the preceding year—nearly all to the railroads. One of these companies paid in that year nearly half a million dollars to two Western railroads, one of these roads receiving from it an average of \$1,000 a day throughout the year. Another Bessemer steel company paid in one month of that year to one railroad \$84,000 for freight charges. It was further ascertained that about 40 per cent. of the price received for steel rails made in 1879 was paid for freight on raw materials and the finished product. It has recently been authoritatively stated that one blast furnace on the Chesa-

peaks and Ohio Railway furnished at one time one-fourteenth of all the tonnage of the road for a year in the transportation of its raw materials and finished products; and that another blast furnace on the same road, during the year preceding October, 1881, in the same way supplied one-tenth as much tonnage as all that this road carried in the preceding fiscal year.

THE COST OF RAILROAD TRANSPORTATION DECREASED UNDER PROTECTION.

But our iron and steel industries have not only supplied the railroads with iron and steel at satisfactory prices, and given to them a large part of their freight traffic, but they have also materially assisted them to reduce the cost of transportation. This they have done by cheapening the cost of railroad construction and renewals, through the substitution of steel rails for iron rails; by cheapening the cost of all the iron and steel that are required in the construction of cars and locomotives; and by adding largely to the income of the railroads from the transportation of both freight and passengers. Transportation has been cheapened, too, not only through the superior wearing qualities of steel rails, but through their capacity for bearing at least double the weight of iron rails. To prove that the cost of transportation has been reduced we refer to official publications of the general government. In the report on the internal commerce of the United States, by Mr. Nimmo, the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, published in 1881, will be found a table of the average annual charges for the transportation by railroad of wheat per bushel from Chicago to New York from 1868 to 1881, a period of fourteen years, which table shows that these charges were steadily reduced from 42.6 cents in 1868 to 14.5 cents in 1881, the average rate for the whole period being 27.1 cents. On page 229 of the appendix to the same report will be found another table, which shows the charges per ton per mile on all freight moved on thirteen of the leading railroads of the country in the two prosperous years, 1873 and 1880. The average rate charged by these thirteen railroads in 1873 was 1.77 cents, and in 1880 it had been reduced to 1.07 cents. The Chicago Railway Age recently published a table of the average rates per ton per mile on one of the thirteen railroads above referred to—the Chicago, Milwaukee and Saint Paul Railway—for seventeen years from 1865 to 1881, which shows a steady reduction from 4.11 cents in 1865 to 1.70 cents in 1881, the average rate for the whole period being 2.66 cents. The Railway Age asks, "What manufacturing, commercial, or producing interest can show such a record of reduction in prices?"

Protection to our iron and steel industries has therefore not only assisted directly in building up our vast railroad system, but it has also assisted in cheapening the cost of transportation to the Western farmer and to all other producers.

DIFFICULTIES IN THE WAY OF CHEAP PRODUCTION OF IRON AND STEEL.

The advocates of a policy antagonistic to that of protection may say that most of the results we have particularized would have happened if their policy and not ours had been in force during the last twenty-one years. How the country could have prospered if, as they invariably advised, we had bought our iron and steel in the cheapest market, which is the European market, they do not explain; nor do they explain

how, without protection, we could have made iron and steel during these twenty-one years in competition with European manufacturers unless we had reduced our wages to the European standard; nor how we could have contrived a method, not yet known to science or mechanics, by which the cost of transportation over the vast stretches of country which usually intervene between our iron ore mines and coal fields could be reduced to the same low rates which suffice to bring together the products of the more closely situated iron ore and coal mines of Europe. Nor do they explain how iron or steel works in this country which cost almost if not altogether twice as much as exactly similar works cost in Europe can be profitably operated if their owners must be satisfied with the same amount of profit as their European rivals.

The difficulties in the way of our producing iron and steel as cheaply as they are produced abroad are permanent and cannot be ignored. In our iron and steel works we pay much higher wages than are paid in Europe. In the North of England, for instance, the wages for puddling a ton of iron are seven shillings, or about \$1.75; in Pittsburgh the wages for precisely the same labor are \$5.50. At the Parkhead Forge, in Glasgow, Scotland, which is chiefly noted for the heavy steel forgings it makes for the Clyde ship-building yards, ordinary laborers are to-day paid two shillings and ten pence, or about 69 cents, a day; in Pittsburgh precisely the same class of labor is paid \$1.35 a day. The 140,978 persons who were directly employed in the census year 1880 in the iron and steel works of the United States were paid \$55,476,785 as wages, or an average of \$393.51 for the year for each person, whether employed the whole or a part of the time. The average daily wages of skilled labor were \$2.59; of unskilled labor, \$1.24. No iron-making country in Europe pays wages at all comparable with these.

In Europe, and particularly in Great Britain, the raw materials in the manufacture of iron and steel lie close together; in the United States they are frequently a thousand miles apart, as is the case with the indispensable iron ores of Lake Superior and the coal and coke of Pennsylvania. Mr. I. Lowthian Bell, a commissioner from Great Britain to the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876, whom we have before had occasion to quote, says in his official report to his government: "The vast extent of the territory of the United States renders that possible which in Great Britain is physically impossible; thus it may and it does happen that in the former distances of nearly 1,000 miles may intervene between the ore and the coal, whereas with ourselves it is difficult to find a situation in which the two are separated by even 100 miles."

In Europe, so cheap is labor, and so cheap are the products of labor, that it is possible to build a blast furnace, for instance, at a cost of \$100,000 which in the United States, owing to the higher value placed upon labor and materials, would cost \$200,000. If two furnaces of such varying cost but of equal capacity produce the same quantity of iron from year to year, it will be seen at a glance that the conditions of production cannot be equal if the product of the furnace of largest cost does not yield a larger profit per ton than the product of the furnace of lowest cost.

CHEAP OCEAN FREIGHTS FAVORABLE TO THE FOREIGN MANUFACTURER.

The attempt has been made to show that the cost of transporting iron and steel products from Europe to this country operates as a check to their sale in our markets. This is a very grave mistake. Railroads

form the principal means of communication between producers and consumers of iron and steel in this country, and railroad transportation is much more expensive than transportation by natural water-routes. Even after the raw materials have been brought together at our iron and steel works the cost of shipping the manufactured products to consumers is usually an important item. It costs much less to carry iron and steel from English, Welsh, and Scotch works to Atlantic ports than from most American works, which are necessarily situated at inland points where the raw materials of manufacture are obtainable. It costs more to take a ton of iron from Pittsburgh to Philadelphia, or from the blast furnaces of Virginia to Cincinnati, than from British works to New York. When we compare the cost of transportation to Southern ports or to the Pacific coast the advantage in favor of the British manufacturer is found to be greatly increased. The owners of British vessels which are engaged in the Southern cotton trade or in the Pacific grain trade are glad to get heavy outward freights at nominal rates. Cheap ocean freights operate therefore as a help and not as a hinderance to the sale in our markets of foreign iron and steel.

So well is this fact understood that our foreign rivals make no attempt to conceal it. The London Colliery Guardian, for the 14th of April of the present year, remarked upon this subject as follows: "It is probably the fact that the quarter of the world known under the general designation of the United States of America is of such enormous extent that the prohibitory duties imposed by Congress upon foreign rails entering American ports are rendered practically inoperative at certain points of Uncle Sam's wide dominions. When the products of Pennsylvania rolling mills have to be moved into the extreme Western territories of the United States the cost of transportation becomes so heavy as to render the immense import duties imposed by Congress upon foreign rails comparatively, if not wholly, inoperative. A similar result is witnessed in the ports of the extreme South and Southwest of the United States. American ironmasters may indulge in high-flown reflections about the extent of their productive resources, but they cannot altogether overcome this formidable difficulty of heavy transport rates when they have to deliver their products to extremely distant points. This is certainly a matter of encouragement to British iron-masters."

A New York trade journal, the Engineering and Mining Journal, in its issue for the 12th of August, immediately after the last attempt had been made in Congress to reduce the duty on steel rails, expressed the following opinions: "The steel rail trade has been for some time, and is still, in an unsatisfactory condition. On the one hand the tariff agitation has had some effect upon buyers, notably in the South. That market would be practically delivered over to foreign producers should a reduction of the duty take place."

German newspapers have recently complained of the unfavorable effect of cheap ocean freights on the iron industries of Germany. Owing to the low rates of freight by steamer from British ports to Hamburg, and the comparatively short distance by railroad from Hamburg to Berlin, Scotch pig iron can be laid down in Berlin in successful competition with native pig iron. An English journal states the case of the German iron-masters as follows: "The first cost of iron at the works in Germany seems to be about 25 per cent. above the value of Scotch iron f. o. b. at Glasgow. The railway carriage to Berlin costs nearly as much as the freight, duty, and railway carriage on the imported articles. Hence the supposed advantages of the protective policy are lost."

OUR IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRIES INJURED IN THE PAST BY LOW DUTIES AND UNFRIENDLY DECISIONS.

That our iron and steel industries cannot prosper under such duties as the opponents of the protective policy would establish is abundantly proved by our past experience under the tariffs of 1846 and 1857, and by our more recent experience under unfavorable decisions by the Treasury Department and the courts in the interpretation of certain provisions of the present tariff. Under the tariffs of 1846 and 1857 the duty on crucible steel, as upon other steel, was respectively 15 per cent. and 12 per cent., yet every attempt to establish its manufacture here was a failure, and large sums of money which had been invested in the business were lost. Our meagre production of all kinds of steel as late as 1860 has already been mentioned. The attempt to manufacture iron rails in this country under the tariffs of 1846 and 1857 was so nearly a failure that in 1860, when the highest annual production under these tariff systems was reached, our total production was only 183,069 gross tons. Our imports of iron rails in that year amounted to 122,175 tons, or two-thirds of our total production. In the three years, 1855, 1856, and 1857, our aggregate importations of iron rails exceeded our total production of them in the same period. In December, 1849, a distinguished American statesman who is yet living complained in a published communication that, of fifteen rail mills then existing in the country, only two were in operation, and these were not fully employed and would also stop as soon as the orders on which they were then engaged were filled. The duty on iron rails under the tariff of 1846 was 30 per cent., and under the tariff of 1857 it was 24 per cent.

In many cases Treasury rulings adverse to the spirit of our protective laws have been as fatal to our iron and steel industries as adverse legislation. Under the rulings of the Treasury Department upon a provision of the present tariff the duty on tin plates has been fixed at $1\frac{1}{10}$ cents per pound, yet the tin-plate industry does not have an existence in our country to-day. The duty on iron cotton-ties has been fixed by the courts at 35 per cent., but under this ruling their manufacture in this country during the past few years has entirely ceased. One reason why we have not been able to manufacture cotton-ties, even with a duty of 35 per cent., is found in the admission of an English newspaper on the 26th of March, 1881, that at Wolverhampton the buckles for the cotton-ties which are exported to the United States are chiefly produced with the labor of girls. It says that the business of buckle-making leaves only a small amount of profit, "notwithstanding that girl labor is mostly employed." Steel wire-rods have been held by the Treasury Department to be subject to a duty of 30 per cent., and since the promulgation of this decision almost every rod mill in the country which had been engaged in their manufacture has been closed. Here, again, the debasing European practice of employing women and girls to do the work of men helps to destroy an American industry. At Creusot, in France, an American traveler recently saw a large number of women engaged in preparing for market and in shipping the wire rods manufactured at that place, and upon inquiry he learned that the wages of each woman amounted to one franc, or about twenty cents a day.

It will be seen from these illustrations that duties enacted or decreed upon a revenue basis do not afford even incidental protection to the manufacture of iron or steel in this country.

THE PERNICIOUS EFFECTS OF AD VALOREM DUTIES.

This branch of our subject will bear further examination. During 1878, a year which embraced the darkest period of the hard times which this country has recently experienced, English pig iron was sold at 32s. or about \$8 a ton, and Scotch pig iron at 40s. or about \$10 a ton. If the duty on pig iron in those days had been 30 per cent., as it was under the tariff of 1846, the American manufacturer would have been protected against his English competitor only \$2.40 a ton, and against his Scotch competitor only \$3. As ocean freights were then extremely low, it would have been possible with a 30 per cent. duty to close nearly every American furnace. Owners of American furnaces were then compelled to sell their best pig iron at \$16 and \$17 a ton, at which prices they realized no profit whatever. Their business was saved from destruction by the present specific duty of \$7 a ton. The difference between this duty and the duty of \$2.40 or \$3 which the tariff of 1846 would have imposed accurately represents the difference between a policy of protection for the sake of protection and a policy that is said to afford incidental protection.

Another illustration of the fallacy of the doctrine of incidental protection may be mentioned. In 1877 the price of American steel rails fell to \$39 and \$40 a ton, at which prices their manufacture was unprofitable. At the same time the price of English steel rails fell to £4 10s. or about \$22.50. If the duty had been 30 per cent. the American manufacturer would have been protected against his English rival just \$6.75 a ton. Ocean freights in 1877 on steel rails averaged about 10s. or \$2.50 a ton. The whole cost to the English manufacturer of placing his steel rails in American ports would not therefore have exceeded \$33, at which price every steel rail establishment in this country would certainly have been closed.

The above illustrations afford fresh evidence of the pernicious effects of ad valorem duties, as well as of the deceptive character of the policy of incidental protection. Ad valorem duties are rarely friendly to domestic industry. When foreign prices are lowest, and foreign competition is therefore most to be dreaded, ad valorem duties afford the least protection. They give the least when the most is greatly needed. We need not wonder that the iron and steel industries of this country made no progress under the tariffs of 1846 and 1857. The low ad valorem duties which they imposed were well calculated to arrest all industrial progress.

THE FALLACY OF REDUCING SPECIFIC DUTIES TO AD VALOREM EQUIVALENTS.

We may here allude to an argument which is sometimes made against the present specific duties on iron and steel, namely, that, if reduced to ad valorem rates, they are shown upon their face to be exorbitant and therefore at war with the rights of consumers and at variance with public policy. Thus, the duty on pig iron is \$7 a ton; the price of North of England pig iron is to-day about 44s. or \$11; the ad valorem duty is therefore about 64 per cent. The duty on ordinary bar iron is \$22.40 a ton; the price of English bar iron of this quality is £7 or \$35; the ad valorem duty is therefore 64 per cent. The duty on steel rails is \$28 a ton; the price of English steel rails is about £5 or \$25; the ad valorem duty is therefore 112 per cent. The fallacy of this reasoning consists in this, that it ignores the fact that, when prices are highest

abroad, and foreign competition is consequently least to be dreaded by domestic manufacturers, the reduction of specific to ad valorem rates shows them not to be at all extortionate. When the English iron or steel manufacturer is selling his products to us at high prices, our duties, according to the above reasoning, become "just too lovely for anything." To make this clear we need only to imagine the prices of the above-mentioned articles to be doubled in England—pig iron to be \$22 a ton, bar iron to be \$70, and steel rails to be \$50. Our specific duties reduced to ad valorem rates would then be but 32, 32, and 56 per cent. respectively. Nor does the arithmetician who delights in converting specific to ad valorem rates take any account of domestic prices. The lower the prices of American pig iron, bar iron, and steel rails, the greater, according to his theory, becomes the extortion practiced upon the oppressed consumers. Thus, the duty on steel rails has been \$28 a ton since 1870, but the price of steel rails of domestic manufacture has greatly fallen since that year. When the duty went into effect the price of American steel rails was \$110 a ton; the extortion was therefore only 25 per cent. of that price. When the price dropped in 1877 to \$40 the robbery of the consumer increased to exactly 70 per cent. This is nonsense.

OUR PROTECTIVE POLICY SHOULD BE CONTINUED.

The policy of protecting our iron and steel industries from injurious foreign competition having been justified by its results, as we have shown, why should it be exchanged for one which, when fairly tried from 1846 to 1861, utterly failed to develop these industries or to render the country prosperous? If protection, by stimulating the production of iron and steel and cheapening their cost, has benefited our own people, why should we exchange it for a policy which in the past has only benefited the people of other countries? It was General Garfield who said: "We legislate for the people of the United States, not for the whole world." And he also said: "Our country cannot be independent unless its people, with their abundant natural resources, possess the requisite skill at any time to clothe, arm, and equip themselves for war, and in time of peace to produce all the necessary implements of labor. It was the manifest intention of the founders of the government to provide for the common defense, not by standing armies alone, but by raising among the people a greater army of artisans, whose intelligence and skill should powerfully contribute to the safety and glory of the nation." That the protection of our iron and steel industries in the last twenty-one years has grandly contributed to the present prosperity and greatness of our country is a conspicuous fact of such deep significance that no American statesman who would wisely legislate for the future welfare of his countrymen can afford to belittle or ignore it.

Nor can any American statesman afford to ignore the claims of American labor to higher wages and higher social conditions than prevail in Europe. It is a great fallacy to suppose that, because our leading industries have now been built up under a policy of protection, they no longer need the same measure of protection that they have received in the past. Every industry in this country which takes raw materials and converts them into finished products by the labor of men's hands will always need just as much protection as will cover the difference in wages between this country and Europe. The American statesman who should theoretically evolve a tariff system that would be based upon the assumed ability of domestic manufacturers to withstand sharper competition with foreign manufacturers than they now have would not only

unwisely and unpatriotically invite that competition, with silent American workshops certain to follow, but he would also closely imitate that peculiar English philanthropy which takes no account of the rights of labor and concerns itself only with the demands of capital. Our protective policy must be maintained in all its original scope and vigor for the benefit of American labor. He who would put aside this chief argument for its continued existence, and make the least concession to the clamor of foreign manufacturers, is himself not a protectionist, nor is he in harmony with the wishes of a large majority of the American people.

WHO DEMAND THE ABANDONMENT OF PROTECTION.

Who, then, demand an exchange of our protective policy for one which would leave our iron and steel industries and other industries of the country at the mercy of foreign competition? Not public sentiment, although it is of course possible for this generation of our people to be deceived concerning its true industrial interests, just as previous generations have been deceived. Public sentiment does not demand the abandonment of our protective policy. No petitions from farmers, or workingmen, or mechanics have been presented in Congress asking that it be abandoned. No mass meetings of the people have anywhere been held to protest against its continuance. The owners of our railroads, which consume more than one-half of all the iron and steel that we produce or import, do not ask that protection be abandoned. The ax-makers, the saw-makers, and the manufacturers of agricultural implements do not ask that it be abandoned.

Who, then, does demand the abandonment of our protective policy? A few honest leaders of public opinion, some of whom are members of the national legislature; certain importers, and a few manufacturers who care nothing about the rights of American labor. Who else? Great Britain and her American agents. These agents may be found in the lists of American college professors and among the writers for leading American newspapers. We may have respect for the views of those of our countrymen who honestly differ with us; we may tolerate the confessed selfishness of a few importers and manufacturers; but no patriotic American who remembers the history of his country can have respect for Great Britain's interference with our domestic affairs, or patience with the shameless American mercenaries who, with English money in their pockets and false English statistics in their hands, labor to make that interference effective.

GREAT BRITAIN NOT OUR INDUSTRIAL RIVAL, BUT OUR INDUSTRIAL ENEMY.

The fact may as well be plainly stated that the course which the manufacturers and ruling classes of Great Britain have pursued toward the industries of this country has uniformly been one of industrial enmity and not of industrial rivalry. The distinction is important, because international industrial rivalry upon terms of equality is not necessarily to be condemned, while industrial enmity that would destroy if it could the industries of other countries is war itself, and may be more destructive in its consequences than if carried on with armies of soldiers and fleets of iron-clad ships. Great Britain is now and always has been our industrial enemy. The proof of this charge is abundant. It is especially abundant when we inquire into the attitude of Great Britain toward our iron and steel industries. Our young men should know that

the industries of this country have not grown to their present magnificent proportions without encountering the persistent, vigorous, and merciless opposition of Great Britain. For the honor of our mother country we wish that the facts were otherwise.

BRITISH EFFORTS TO DESTROY OUR COLONIAL INDUSTRIES.

Our colonial history abounds with instances of British restraint upon our infant manufacturing industries. McCulloch, in his *Commercial Dictionary*, admits that it was "a leading principle in the system of colonial policy, adopted as well by England as by the other European nations, to discourage all attempts to manufacture such articles in the colonies as could be provided for them by the mother country." Bancroft, in his *History of the United States of America*, says that "England, in its relations with other states, sought a convenient tariff; in the colonies it prohibited industry." Our iron and steel industries felt the full weight of this policy. In 1719 the House of Commons passed a bill containing the clause, "that none in the plantations should manufacture iron-wares of any kind out of any sows, pigs, or bars whatsoever." The House of Lords added, "that no forge, going by water, or other works, should be erected in any of the said plantations, for the making, working, or converting of any sows, pigs, or cast iron into bar or rod iron." "The opposition of the northern colonies defeated the bill," says Bancroft; "England would not yet forbid the colonists to manufacture a bolt or a nail; but the purpose was never abandoned." In 1750 an act of Parliament was passed which prohibited the further erection in America after the 24th of June of that year of any mill for slitting or rolling iron, or any plating forge to work with a tilt hammer, or any furnace for making steel. The erection of any such mill, forge, or furnace was declared to be a common nuisance, which every colonial governor was ordered to abate forthwith. The proclamation of James Hamilton, the lieutenant-governor of Pennsylvania, prohibiting such erection was printed by Benjamin Franklin. This act was enforced down to the Revolution, and as a consequence the manufacture of iron in the colonies was restricted to the production of pig iron and ordinary bar iron, while the production of steel was completely checked. In 1756 Israel Acrelius, the Swedish missionary to the Swedish colony on the Delaware, wrote that in Pennsylvania "no one is allowed to make nails."

Concerning the attitude of Great Britain toward the woolen manufactures of the colonies, Adam Smith, in his *Wealth of Nations*, said, in 1776: "She prohibits the exportation from one province to another by water, and even the carriage by land, upon horseback or in a cart, of hats, of wools and woolen goods, of the produce of America; a regulation which effectually prevents the establishment of any manufacture of such commodities for distant sale, and confines the industry of her colonists in this way to such coarse and household manufactures as a private family commonly makes for its own use, or for that of some of its neighbors in the same province."

THE EXPORTATION OF MACHINERY AND THE EMIGRATION OF SKILLED WORKMEN FROM GREAT BRITAIN PROHIBITED.

By various acts of Parliament extending into the present century the exportation from Great Britain to foreign countries of machinery for the manufacture of linen, woolen, silk, and cotton goods, and iron and

steel, was prohibited, and severe penalties were also imposed upon any person or persons who should entice any skilled workman to go into any foreign country to teach his trade. The skilled workman who should go into any foreign country for this purpose, and who should refuse to return after six months' warning had been given to him, forfeited all his rights and privileges as a British subject, even being declared incapable of receiving any legacy devised to him within the kingdom. This policy of prohibiting the exportation of machinery and the emigration of skilled workmen was reaffirmed in 1785, just after our independence had been secured, and apparently for our benefit! An act passed in that year was entitled "An act to prohibit the exportation to foreign parts of tools and utensils made use of in the iron and steel manufactures of this kingdom; and to prevent the seducing of artificers or workmen, employed in those manufactures, to go into parts beyond the seas." The preamble to this act recited that it was enacted because "the exportation of the several tools and utensils made use of in preparing, working up, and finishing the iron and steel manufactures of this kingdom, or either of them, will enable foreigners to work up such manufactures, and thereby greatly diminish the exportation of the same from this kingdom." It will be remembered that the puddling furnace and the rolling mill had just been perfected at this time in England by Henry Cort. The penalties for violations of this act were very severe. In 1799 the provisions of the various acts which related to skilled workmen were extended to persons who should attempt to seduce colliers to go out of the kingdom.

It was not until the present century was very far advanced that Great Britain repealed the barbarous laws above referred to. In the London Times for October 30, 1811, will be found a circumstantial account of the arrest of Hugh Wagstaff for placing on board the American ship Mount Vernon, bound to New York, twenty-three boxes containing spindles used in the spinning of cotton. Wagstaff was committed to Lancaster Castle for trial under the act of 21 Geo. III., chapter 37, and the boxes were seized. The Federalist of 1811 who objected to our second war with Great Britain, and who had knowledge of such facts as these, was not a very patriotic American citizen. We are enabled to record circumstantially another occurrence of similar character. Samuel C. Lewis, who died at Pittsburgh only a few days ago, was the son of Thomas C. Lewis and the nephew of George Lewis, two Welshmen to whom belongs the honor of having erected for Col. Isaac Meason, at Plumsock, in Fayette County, Pennsylvania, in 1816 and 1817, the first rolling mill in the United States to puddle iron and roll iron bars. To use the exact language of the old man who has just gone to his rest, his father and uncle, who arrived in this country just prior to 1816, and who were skilled workmen, were compelled to "smuggle" their passage across the Atlantic. It was under such adverse circumstances that our first complete rolling mill was built.

THE INDUSTRIES OF GREAT BRITAIN BUILT UP BY PROTECTION.

During the long period in the history of the mother country in which she endeavored to repress the development of our manufacturing industries she vigorously protected her own industries by customs duties from foreign competition. The protection which she gave to her iron industry after Cort had perfected for her the puddling furnace and the rolling mill, and the owners of her blast furnaces had generally introduced the use of mineral fuel, is especially noticeable. Prior to this

time Great Britain had not made enough iron to supply her own wants; now she could do this. We quote as follows from the London Colliery Guardian for September 22, 1876: "From 1782 till 1795 the duty on foreign bars was £2 16s. 2d. per ton. It rose to £3 4s. 7d. in 1797; from 1798 to 1802 it was £3 15s. 5d.; in two years it had got to £4 17s. 1d.; from 1806 to 1808 it stood at £5 7s. 5½d.; in the three years between 1809 and 1812 it was £5 9s. 10d.; and in the five years ending with 1818 it had been £5 9s. 10d. At this date a distinction was made in the interest of British shipping; for whilst thenceforward, till the close of 1825, the duty on foreign bars was £6 10s. if imported in British ships, it was £7 18s. 6d. if imported in foreign. Nor was this all; iron slit, or hammered into rods, and iron drawn down, or hammered, less than three-quarters of an inch square, was made to pay a duty at the rate of £20 per ton; wrought iron, not otherwise enumerated, was taxed with a payment of £50 for every £100 worth imported; and steel, or manufactures of steel, were similarly loaded with a 50 per cent. duty." When the British iron and steel industries had been built up under protection, Great Britain, with her system of low wages for labor, was ready for free trade—Mr. Huskisson, a member of the British ministry, preparing in 1825 the way for its adoption by declaring that, "to enable capital to obtain a fair remuneration, labor must be kept down." Now Great Britain insists that this country, which does not try to keep labor down, but tries to lift it up, shall also adopt free trade for the benefit of British capitalists.

THE UNITED STATES A SLAUGHTER MARKET FOR BRITISH MANUFACTURES.

The practice of Great Britain to make this country a slaughter market for such surplus of her goods and wares as she cannot dispose of elsewhere is well known, but it may not be so generally known that she inaugurated this policy immediately after the close of our Revolutionary war, and with the avowed object of accomplishing the destruction of our manufactures, so that we might continue to be commercially if not politically her colonies. The "Address of the American Society for the Encouragement of Domestic Manufactures," published in 1817, says: "In the beginning of the year 1792, when the report of General Hamilton, then Secretary of the Treasury, made by order of the House of Representatives, was published in England, it created such alarm that meetings were called in the manufacturing towns, and Manchester alone, at a single meeting, subscribed 50,000 pounds sterling towards a fund to be vested in English goods, and shipped to this country for the purpose of glutting our market and blasting the hopes of our manufactures in the bud." The American market was accordingly flooded with British manufactured products. In the absence of duties that were really protective our manufacturing industries were greatly depressed by British competition until the occurrence of our second war with the mother country. After its close, Lord Brougham, referring in 1816 to the flooding of American markets with British goods which had again taken place after the opening of our ports, exultingly proclaimed that "it was well worth while to incur a loss upon the first exportation in order, by the glut, to stifle in the cradle those rising manufactures in the United States which the war had forced into existence, contrary to the natural course of things. Eighteen millions worth of goods, I believe, were exported to North America in one year, and for a considerable part of this no returns have been received, while still

more of it must have been selling at a very scanty profit." In 1854 a Parliamentary commission made this declaration: "The laboring classes generally, in the manufacturing districts of this country, and especially in the iron and coal districts, are very little aware of the extent to which they are often indebted for their being employed at all to the immense losses which their employers voluntarily incur in bad times in order to destroy foreign competition and to gain and keep possession of foreign markets." And this policy of throwing surplus stocks of British goods upon our markets is in force to-day. English manufacturers of crucible steel have recently taken large orders in this country for their product at prices delivered here, with all charges paid, which yield them two cents per pound less than they charge their own countrymen and their continental customers. Against a policy so piratical as this American manufacturers certainly need to be protected.

THE COBDEN CLUB.

If there existed any evidence that Great Britain had changed her policy of direct interference with the business interests of this country, and did not still regard us as her colonial dependencies, wronging us only in making this her slaughter market, the recital of the foregoing facts might be open to the criticism that we have been digging among dead men's bones. But we are amply justified by the most recent occurrences in drawing the conclusion that Great Britain has not changed her policy of offensive and unfriendly interference with our domestic affairs. In 1880 her Cobden Club sent large quantities of its false free-trade literature into this country, which it caused to be distributed among our people in the hope that thereby it might control the Congressional elections of that year in the interest of free trade. We grant most willingly that no political party in this country was privy to this attempted British control of American elections, but the fact is none the less significant and shameful that the Cobden Club made the attempt.

The Cobden Club is an association of British noblemen, manufacturers, and others, organized in 1866, the avowed object of which is interference with the protective policy of other countries, that the introduction and sale therein of British goods may be facilitated. So powerful and so influential is this organization that in 1880 there were on its list of members the names of two hundred members of the British Parliament, and of the fourteen British cabinet ministers no fewer than twelve were members of the club. In August, 1879, Mr. Thomas Bayley Potter, the secretary of the club, and a member of Parliament, came over to this country with the confessed purpose of promoting the relaxation of our protective duties for the benefit of British manufacturers. He traveled extensively throughout the States whose manufactures compete with those of his own country. Soon after his return home we heard through the London Times that the club had established agencies in the cities of New York and Chicago for the distribution of free-trade documents during the Congressional campaign of that year. Mr. Poultney Bigelow was announced as the New York agent of the club, and Mr. Alfred Bishop Mason as its Chicago agent. What other business arrangements the club made on this side as the result of Mr. Potter's visit can only be conjectured. The New York Evening Post for July 26, 1880, announced that the New York Free Trade Club was then "on a sound financial basis, with working capital assured to it for some years to come," and that it had "decided to enter the coming political campaign actively, directing its energies largely to the Congressional districts." It added

that "a strong effort will be made to compel candidates for Congress everywhere to declare themselves on one side or the other" of the tariff question. It is at least a coincidence that the New York Free Trade Club, which is principally composed of importers, should have had fresh life infused into it immediately after Mr. Potter's visit to this country.

On the 10th of July, 1880, the Cobden Club participated at Greenwich in its annual dinner. At this dinner Earl Spencer praised a free-trade essay by Augustus Mongredien, entitled *The Western Farmer in America*, and the Right Honorable William E. Baxter added that large numbers of the pamphlet were then being circulated in America. This pamphlet was mainly composed of falsehoods of the most glaring character, which were afterwards thoroughly exposed by the Hon. Thomas H. Dudley, of New Jersey, and the Hon. John L. Hayes, the president of the Tariff Commission. At the same dinner Mr. Thomas Bayley Potter said that "the Cobden Club was now about to enter a contest with a foe worthy of its steel. Their eyes were now turned westward; they were going to encounter their friends in the United States; and he believed that they would ultimately be victorious." (We quote in the third person from a condensed English report.)

A few days after the dinner of the Cobden Club, namely, on the 16th of July, 1880, the London Times said: "It is to the new world that the Cobden Club is chiefly looking as the most likely sphere for its vigorous foreign policy. It has done what it can in Europe, and it is now turning its eyes westward and bracing itself for the struggle which is to come. It cannot rest while the United States are unsubdued." And it added: "We hope Mr. Augustus Mongredien's excellent volumes and the other publications of the club will, between them, carry the United States by storm and thrust reason into all minds, whether willing or unwilling to admit it." "That free trade will come some day in the United States it is perfectly safe to assert; but how and when, and other minutiae of the kind, must be left to the Cobden Club and to its twelve cabinet ministers in their unofficial capacity to decide."

Mr. Potter insolently said to Mr. Dudley during his visit to this country in 1879 that Englishmen "don't object to your having a tariff for revenue only," and in a letter to Mr. Dudley in 1880, which we have seen, he had the effrontery to defend the distribution in this country by the Cobden Club of a lot of 50,000 copies of the Mongredien falsehoods concerning the effects of our protective policy. We have also seen a copy of the Rochdale Observer, printed at the home of Mr. Potter, and where also are located John Bright's cotton mills, in which a London correspondent defends Mr. Potter's visit to this country, and says he had been told—evidently by Mr. Potter himself—that Mr. Potter "feels it to be his duty to do what he can for the benefit of the Anglo-Saxon people and the community of nations to turn the minds of the people of America from the stupid and selfish fallacy of protection." Mr. Bright himself, as may be remembered, has been in the habit of calling American protectionists by similar pet names.

The Cobden Club was defeated in its efforts in 1880 to control our Congressional elections, but it has ever since, with the assistance of the New York Free Trade Club, continued to devote its attention to influencing public opinion in our Western States in favor of British free trade and the eventual selection of Congressmen who would vote to establish this policy in our country. It has even grown more aggressive than it then was—supplementing the distribution of its free-trade publications with the purchase of Western newspapers and the delivery of free-trade lectures by hired lecturers before free-trade clubs organized by hired organizers as adjuncts to the New York and English parent clubs. The

“working capital” which the New York Evening Post informed us had been assured to the New York Free Trade Club “for some years to come” is evidently being put to the uses for which it was intended.

CONCLUSION.

The warfare which Great Britain has always prosecuted against the industries of this country changes its form with the changes in our national circumstances, but it never changes its spirit. While we were her weak colonies it consisted in stamping out our industries by act of Parliament; after we had secured our independence it consisted in prohibiting the exportation to our shores of manufacturing machinery and the emigration of her skilled workmen; during our civil war it consisted in the equipping of the Alabama and other piratical cruisers to prey upon our commerce; to-day it consists in the efforts of the Cobden Club to control our elections in the interest of British manufacturers. No other nation interferes with our industrial development as Great Britain does. Against this warfare and the low British wages which make it possible protection will always be necessary. The measure of protection which our iron and steel industries will continue to require against Great Britain's ceaseless warfare must be determined by a consideration of many varied conditions which characterize her industries and those of our own country, but there can be no effective protection that is not fully responsive to the most fervent impulses of American patriotism.

APPENDIX TO THE FOREGOING ARGUMENT.

THE COST OF RAILROAD TRANSPORTATION IN RECENT YEARS.

In the report on the internal commerce of the United States, by Mr. Nimmo, the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, published in 1881, will be found (page 43) the following table of the average annual charges for the transportation of wheat per bushel from Chicago to New York from 1868 to 1881, in cents.

Average freight charges per bushel for the transportation of wheat from Chicago to New York during the years 1868 to 1881, inclusive.

Years.	By lake and canal.	By lake and rail.	By all rail.
1868	25.3	20.0	42.6
1869	24.1	25.0	35.1
1870	17.5	22.0	33.3
1871	21.0	25.0	31.0
1872	26.0	28.0	33.5
1873	10.2	20.0	33.2
1874	14.2	10.0	28.7
1875	11.4	14.0	24.1
1876	9.7	11.8	10.5
1877	7.5	15.8	20.3
1878	10.1	11.4	17.7
1879	13.0	13.3	17.3
1880	13.2	15.7	10.7
1881 (added by Mr. Nimmo)	8.65	10.4	14.5

This table proves conclusively that all-rail rates of transportation for Western wheat to the seaboard were reduced *two-thirds* from 1868 to 1881, and it also proves that the rates by lake and canal and by lake and rail were also in that period reduced nearly two-thirds through the competition of the railroads for this traffic. In 1881, in consequence of the sharp competition between the trunk lines, wheat was carried by all rail from Chicago to New York at the rate of $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents per bushel,

and by lake and canal between the same points at the rate of 6½ cents per bushel. The average rates for the year were the lowest on record.

On page 229 of the appendix to the same report will be found another table, which we give below, showing in cents the charges per ton per mile on all freight moved on thirteen of the leading railroads of the country in two prosperous years, 1873 and 1880.

Table showing the charge per ton per mile on thirteen leading railroads during the years 1873 and 1880.

Lines of railroad.	Rate per ton per mile.	
	1873.	1880.
Boston and Albany	1.00	1.21
New York Central and Hudson River	1.57	0.88
New York, Lake, Erie and Western	1.45	0.83
Pennsylvania	1.41	0.88
Pittsburgh, Fort Wayne and Chicago	1.41	0.91
Lake Shore and Michigan Southern	1.33	0.76
Michigan Central	1.22	0.84
Chicago and Alton	2.12	1.21
Chicago, Burlington and Quincy	1.92	1.04
Chicago, Milwaukee and Saint Paul	2.40	1.76
Chicago and Northwestern	2.35	1.49
Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific	2.29	1.21
Illinois Central	1.51	0.97
Average	1.77	1.07

This table, which was prepared for Mr. Nimmo by the great statistical railroad authority, Mr. H. V. Poor, shows a material reduction in rates by each of the railroads named, the average reduction by all the lines being from 1.77 cents per ton per mile in 1873 to 1.07 cents in 1880. These rates cover all classes of freight—grain and other agricultural products included.

THE PRODUCTION AND PRICE OF BESSEMER STEEL RAILS IN THE UNITED STATES FROM 1867 TO 1881.

In the following table we give the statistics of the annual production of steel rails in the United States since the commencement of their manufacture, together with the average annual price at which they have been sold at the works in Pennsylvania, and the rates of duty imposed on foreign rails. The yearly price has been obtained by averaging the monthly prices.

Years.	Product in gross tons.	Price in currency.	Duty.
1867	2,277	\$160 00	} 45 per cent. ad valorem.
1868	6,451	158 50	
1869	8,010	132 25	
1870	30,367	106 75	
1871	34,152	102 50	
1872 } These were the years of the railway fever and the iron {	83,901	112 00	
1873 } famine. }	116,102	120 50	
1874	129,414	94 25	
1875	259,600	68 75	
1876	308,269	59 25	
1877	385,365	45 50	} \$28 per ton to Aug. 1, 1872; \$25.20 to Mar. 3, 1875; \$28 from that date.
1878	491,427	42 25	
1879 } These were the years of a new railway fever, and of the {	610,082	48 33	
1880 } boom in the iron trade. }	852,196	07 50	
1881	1,187,770	01 13	
1882 (October)		45 00	

Mr. W. H. WALLACE, of Steubenville, Ohio, representing the manufacturers of pig iron, said:

The statistics of the iron and steel trade of the United States are to be found fully set forth in the annual reports of The American Iron and Steel Association, and we have no doubt the Commission has been furnished with copies of those reports.

It is therefore unnecessary to reproduce them except as they may be needed to illustrate the line of argument which we propose, very briefly, to follow.

It is remarkable that a business with so much invested capital, with so much machinery, and with such facilities for its prosecution, should show the exceptional and singular condition that a study of these statistics presents to us.

We take the following figures from the report for 1880:

	1876.	1870.	1880.
Number of completed furnaces	692	697	701
Number of furnaces in blast	205	388	446
Percentum of furnaces in blast	38+	55+	63+

In the same years the importations of foreign pig iron were:

	1878.	1870.	1880.
Pig iron, net tons	74,484	340,072	784,068
Old and scrap iron, net tons	0,225	248,420	694,274
Total	80,709	588,492	1,478,342

While it is no doubt true, as Mr. Swank says, in his report, "that a number of furnaces always must be out of blast while undergoing repairs or waiting for fuel, while others are undesirably situated or are old-fashioned in construction and must eventually be abandoned," yet it is also true that that is not the only reason, and does not apply to a large percentage of cases. Within our own knowledge many furnaces have been stopped by reason of the fact that the business was unprofitable; that the market would not absorb the product except at the unremunerative rates fixed by foreign competition. In fact, in the Ohio Valley region it has become a common saying that "a furnace without a mill attached to consume its product is a poor investment."

We think it is safe to say that there is no business in the country to-day, of any magnitude, that is more uncertain, and that promises less opportunity for profit than the manufacture of pig iron, and from the protection of which from foreign competition the country would derive greater benefit.

Makers of pig iron are more fearful of the foreign manufacturer of the same product than the makers of any other manufactured product in the country, and watch with greater anxiety the rates of freight and the market prices of the article in the warehouses and metal yards of Great Britain.

The average cost to-day in the United States for making a ton of good forge pig iron is from \$19 to \$23, as nearly as can be ascertained.

The price of Middlesborough forge iron, as wired to The American Manufacturer, from London, on the 27th day of September, was 43s. 6d.

Freight to New York, 11s. 6d. to 12s.; to Baltimore and Philadelphia, 13s. 6d. to 14s. Calling the shilling 25 cents in United States money, the prices would therefore be about \$18.25 to \$18.37½ on board vessel at New York, and \$18.75 to \$18.87½ on board vessel at Baltimore or Philadelphia, duties paid. From this price to, say, about \$20 per ton for good forge iron would be the price of foreign iron in New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, and at these prices there is no margin of profit for the American manufacturer, although these prices are made to cover the profit to the foreign manufacturer.

The story is an old one. While all other branches of business are prospering, and while comparatively little of the finished product of iron is imported, we see our markets constantly filled with foreign brands of pig-iron, our furnaces idle, and our pig-iron producers crushed beneath the load of foreign iron made with cheap labor, and brought over with low freights, or as ballast.

The table of imports shows that it is still coming and in increasing quantities. From the New York Daily Bulletin we take the following statement of importations in 1881: 464,430 gross tons of pig-iron and 134,917 gross tons of old and scrap iron, or a total of 599,347 gross tons.

From the Bulletin of The American Iron and Steel Association of a late date, we take the following statement of the importations from Great Britain alone, for the first eight months of this year: 341,780 gross tons of pig iron and 64,581 gross tons of old or scrap iron, a total of 406,361 gross tons. As compared with 1881 for the same time, these figures show an increase of 75,893 gross tons of pig iron and 5,120 gross tons of old iron, or a total increase of 81,013 gross tons in eight months. In the reference to statistics, we have always classed old or scrap iron with pig iron, as, whether cast or wrought scrap, it enters into direct competition with the pig-iron production of the country, and, with a low rate of duty, is poured into the United States, as some one has aptly said "From Greenland's icy mountains and Africa's burning sands," &c. In view of these conditions of our business, and as representing the great pig-iron producing interest of this country, we ask you to adopt in your report to Congress the rates "On iron in pigs of \$8 per ton; on cast scrap iron of every description, \$8 per ton; on wrought scrap iron of every description, \$8 per ton. Provided that nothing shall be deemed scrap iron, except waste or refuse iron that has been in actual use, and is fit only to be remanufactured." "On malleable iron in castings not otherwise provided for, two cents and one-half per pound." "On all other castings of iron not otherwise provided for, 40 per cent. ad valorem. Provided, that no castings of iron shall be admitted at a lower rate of duty than that which is imposed on iron in pigs," as set forth in the "Proposed schedule of tariff duties," adopted by the Cresson Convention, which we have the honor to represent. In conclusion we desire to say that we firmly believe that, with the present prices for ore in this section of the country, if the tariff on pig iron should be reduced from the present rate of \$7, it would cause a large proportion of our furnaces to be blown out, and, if it is not placed nearer the old rate prevailing in 1870, we shall go on in the unsatisfactory way that we have been doing; our furnaces leading an uncertain career of running and stopping, at times a majority out of blast, at other times a majority only, not all of them, in blast. If any other branch of industry should be in the same condition, would it be considered prosperous? If our mills, factories, railroads, and merchants should be obliged to remain idle a considerable proportion of the time, would we not think that something was radically wrong? So it is with

the pig-iron industry. Something is radically wrong, and it seems to us that it is the tariff. We protect other manufactures of iron in which the workmen receive much higher wages, but pig iron, which employs and pays the lowest rate of wages in the business, is the branch which has the least *proportionate* protection, and which is the first to suffer from any threatened change.

That the duty asked for is no hardship to the consumers of pig iron is evidenced from the action of the Cresson Convention, which, being composed of a much larger proportion of consumers than producers of pig iron, after a full discussion of the question in its relation to all the interests involved, adopted *unanimously* the schedule containing the proposed duty on pig iron.

Mr. J. J. SPEARMAN, of Sharon, Pa., representing the manufacturers of pig iron, said:

I do not know that I have anything to add to what has been stated by Mr. Wallace. I think he has made a conclusive argument in relation to the pig-iron interests of the country. The town in which I am engaged in producing pig iron (Sharon, Pa.,) had nine blast furnaces in operation in 1873, but since that time and until the present date there have only been four of them running at any one time. The greater part of the time there have been but two furnaces running, and only one for a portion of the time, owing to the depressed condition of the pig-iron business. There is no profit in the manufacture now, and the furnaces which did run were losing money, and were only carrying the business along expecting better times. In 1879, when the boom came, we succeeded in retrieving some of the losses incurred in former years. I think if the duty on pig iron had been left at \$9, as it was in 1872, a greater number of these furnaces would be in operation to-day.

In connection with this subject, of the necessity of protection to American manufactures, I desire to say that pig iron requires in its production the lowest class of laborers; that is to say, men who are paid the least wages, and when reverses in business come they have to suffer the most. So long as England can produce pig iron with the low-priced labor they have there, just so long will the American manufacturers of pig iron need protection. It is utterly impossible to continue the business here without a fair rate of protection. In my judgment, the \$7 a ton duty which now prevails is not sufficient. The amount asked for by the convention at Cresson was an increase to \$8 a ton, and it is a question in my mind whether that will be sufficient, but we are willing to continue our operations and make a living if we can. If the duty is not increased I fear a great many of the establishments will have to suspend operations. In many localities the furnaces may be continued with the present rate of duty, but the majority of establishments in our locality will be forced to close the business unless there is an advance in the duty on pig iron.

Mr. J. G. BUTLER, of Youngstown, Ohio, said:

I have noted a few of the reasons that have occurred to me why there should be an advance of the duty on pig iron, as follows:

We ask that the duty on pig iron shall be made \$8:

- 1st. For the reason that wages are higher here than in Europe—about 100 per cent. more.
- 2d. To give the home makers their own markets.
- 3d. To make duties in proportion with the duties on other articles of iron and steel.

4th. To equalize the fluctuating and uncertain element of inbound ocean freights, ranging from ballast to several dollars per ton.

The following table shows the importations of pig iron from 1870 to 1882, since the 2 per cent. was taken off:

	Tons.	Value.
1871	245,535	\$3,797,298
1872	295,967	7,269,850
1873	154,708	5,181,847
1874	61,165	1,738,438
1875	83,932	1,806,431
1876	83,072	1,795,365
1877	66,861	1,346,773
1878	74,484	1,519,999
1879	340,672	5,219,224
1880	784,968	14,998,212
1881	520,162	8,923,465
1882	341,789	8,544,725
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	3,053,315	\$62,141,618

Steel rails have been protected very largely, and it has enabled the manufacturers to increase their product until now it is not necessary to go abroad to purchase steel rails. I am satisfied that the same condition of things would exist at this time in regard to the manufacture of pig iron if the manufacturers had been properly protected. This matter of ocean freights is a very uncertain quantity, particularly as regards the matter of Bessemer pig iron. You hardly know from one week to another what the rate will be. We have lost several large contracts on account of the fluctuations in the rates of ocean freights. There are many risks connected with the business also. I have an instance in my mind now which occurred in Youngstown, Ohio, some three or four years ago. There was a blast furnace there, and an accident occurred causing an explosion which destroyed the whole machinery, the same as if a can of nitro-glycerine had been put under it. I believe they lost \$50,000 in that way. There is also the matter of repairs to machinery and many other costs which I need not now enumerate.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Question. Of the 3,000,000 tons of pig iron imported during the last eleven years, what proportion was imported during the last three years?—Answer. There were imported during the last three years 1,645,000 tons.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. What does it cost to produce a ton of pig iron?—A. That depends on the quality of it.

Q. Take the different qualities and give us the average price?—A. We manufacture in the Mahoning Valley what is called Bessemer pig iron. At the present prices of Lake Superior ores, it cannot be made at less than \$24 a ton, and in one of our furnaces the cost is \$25. We make foundry iron that costs about \$23, and there are cheaper grades that can be made, I think, for \$20 or \$21 a ton.

Q. Do you make any charcoal pig iron?—A. No, sir; we have no charcoal furnaces.

Q. Is not charcoal pig iron superior to ordinary pig iron?—A. There is a tradition that it is, but I do not think it is any better myself. I know we have sent iron made in our furnaces to compete with charcoal iron and have kept the trade.

Q. Do you know of General Willard Warner's establishment in Alabama?—A. I have heard of it.

Q. He has testified before the Commission that he is making pig iron from charcoal, and that the total cost is \$14 a ton.—A. They testified some years ago that they could make pig iron in the Mahoning Valley for \$12, but those establishments have all broken up since that time, I believe. There may be localities where the ore, coal, and limestone are all close together, where they can make pig iron cheaper than we can.

Q. Captain West, of Cedartown, Ga., has testified to the same thing; that he can manufacture pig iron for \$14 a ton.—A. But he will find by the time he gets it to market that there will not be a very large profit.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. That is the price he sells it for. He is about 300 miles from the sea, but he has railroad transportation all the way, and owns a railroad 40 miles long himself. Mr. Chamberlain, of Chattanooga, testified to the same thing; that pig iron was made there at \$14 a ton.

The WITNESS. That may be, perhaps, a very poor quality of iron. I know we are shipping pig iron to that same Mr. Chamberlain 500 miles from here.

Q. What price are you selling it at?—A. At \$25 a ton.

Q. For what purpose does he use it?—A. I suppose he needs it for mixing with other iron.

Q. Are you aware that there are large deposits of manganese ore in that part of the country?—A. Yes, sir; I am. I have heard of them.

Q. Is it not true that if the duty on pig iron is increased it will necessarily raise to that extent the other manufactures of iron and steel?—A. No, sir; I think not. I think if it is increased we shall get furnaces enough to make all the iron we need in the country, and that will reduce the price.

Q. If the duty on pig iron is increased, persons who make steel and iron will necessarily have to pay more for pig iron?—A. Not if we get more furnaces to make it, and enough iron ore to supply the demand. I think it will have a tendency to make it cheaper.

Q. You are running a furnace yourself, and I will ask you this: are you anxious that there should be more furnaces brought into existence to reduce the price at which you are selling pig iron?—A. I would not object.

Q. You would like to sell it cheaper, then?—A. Yes, sir; if we get the same profit.

Q. Why don't you do it; does anybody prevent your selling it lower?—A. We do not want to sell it below cost, but we have had to do that to keep the furnaces going.

Q. Your object is not to get more for your pig iron, but to pursue a course that would cause you to get less; is that what you mean?—A. We want to get more out of our investment.

Q. If you get less for the pig iron you make, would you get more money out of your investment in the producing of pig iron than you do now?—A. Yes, sir; if we made a larger number of tons.

Q. Is the duty necessary in order to enable you to make a larger number of tons?—A. I think it is necessary, as it has been in other cases. I have shown you a list of nearly half a million of tons of imported iron.

Q. You speak of the difference in wages between this country and Europe as being about 100 per cent. What is the difference in the purchasing power of money in European countries that compete with you in the production of pig iron; what is the purchasing power of money there in the buying of these supplies that the laborer needs?—A. I do

not think that the workmen in those foreign countries live half as well as ours do.

Q. I am not talking about their living; they do live, nevertheless.—

A. I believe a great many of them do not know what a beefsteak is.

Q. Have you ever heard of any of them dying of starvation?—A. I have read of some of them coming pretty near it.

Q. Is not clothing much cheaper there than it is here?—A. I have never been abroad and could not answer that question. Probably some of the gentlemen here can answer it.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You state that about one-sixth of the iron consumed in this country was imported during the past year. What was the character of that iron?—A. That I am not able to state.

Mr. JOHN W. CHALFANT, who was present, stated that he had no suggestions to make in addition to those already presented.

Mr. JOSEPH D. WEEKS, of Pittsburgh, was called at the request of Commissioner Porter, and interrogated as follows:

By Commissioner PORTER:

Question. Please inform the Commission the difference in the purchasing power of wages in England and in this country.—Answer. Before I give you the figures I would like to state what my opportunities have been for acquiring that information. In 1878, at the request of ex-Governor Hartranft of this State, I visited Europe for the purpose of investigating the question of the relations of labor and capital. That necessarily involved the question of the purchasing power of money here and abroad. I found that, without any consideration of the way in which the laborers lived, a dollar, or four shillings, would buy more in this country of meat or provisions, pork, bacon, wheat, and common clothing, than it would in England—considerably more. If you take the expenses of a family, without taking into consideration the way the family lives in this country and in England, you will find that it costs more to supply a family in this country because the family lives better. But if the American workman and his family would live in the same way that the English workman's family lives, use the same quality of food, without the luxuries that the American family has, they could live at a less price here than abroad. There is perhaps one exception to that rule and that is in regard to the question of rent; but it was impossible for me to arrive at that matter exactly, because in England the taxes are paid by the tenant of the property. So that the rent is more in this country. But, taking the expenses of the American family, the amount of rent is about 7 per cent., so that on 7 per cent. the purchasing power of money is a little in advance on this side of what it is in England; in other things it is below. In speaking of clothing I do not refer to the higher grades of clothing—to the broadcloths, or to the clothing, for example, that a business man would wear; but take the working man's clothing and the cost is here no more than in England. I state that after careful investigation of the subject. I will also say that in regard to wages, and the question of the cost of the necessaries of life, I have been employed in connection with the census to collect such statistics, and in giving my opinion I am speaking as an expert on the question.

Q. How many years have you made these matters a special study?—

A. For about ten years.

Q. And you have been employed as an expert on these subjects by the Census Office?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. You say that woolen clothing, such as laborers wear, is cheaper here than it is in England?—A. Yes, sir; I can go into a store in this country and buy it cheaper than I can go into a store in England and buy it. I have investigated this question at all the great iron centers, at Liverpool, Birmingham, and other places in England.

Q. What does the heavy common clothing that the laborers wear in England cost there?—A. I cannot give you the exact figures to-day, because I did not know the matter was going to be brought up. But I can furnish them hereafter.

Q. It has been testified before us in New York that goods that cost from 50 to 60 cents a yard abroad are sold in the city of New York for \$1.75 a yard. That was testified to by a gentleman who imports them.—A. I am speaking of the clothing of the workingmen. They do not usually have their clothing made up; they buy it.

Q. It has been testified to by an expert in the custom-house in New York, Mr. Carhart, that the duty on clothing is 110 per cent. Now if it costs 50 to 60 cents a yard in England and you put 110 per cent. duty on it, what would it be worth here?—A. That is a question I would have to stop and figure out before I could give an answer.

Q. You are testifying as an expert in this matter, and I am asking you about the kind of woolen goods that the laborer wears in this country and in Europe?—A. I have stated what my investigation on the subject resulted in. I took the cost of a suit of clothing in England. I went to the shops, and as I had some experience, when a young man, in connection with woolen clothing, I had some idea of prices. And in this country I have been into the stores in Pittsburgh and endeavored to ascertain what a suit of clothes of a certain price in England would bring here. That was in 1878. The exact figures I cannot give you now, though I have them, but I am giving you the general result.

Q. Clothing is made by machinery as well as by hand, is it not?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. If ready-made clothing is higher in England than in this country, would it not necessarily involve the paying of higher wages there for making these goods up?—A. No, sir.

Q. Why not?—A. Simply because in this country under our methods of using machinery, which our workingmen are allowed to use and which they are not allowed to use in England, we can make up clothing cheaper here, although we pay our men more wages by the day. Consequently there is a cheaper labor cost for the suit here than in England by the reason of our employing machinery.

Q. Can you give any reason why they do not allow machinery to be used there?—A. There is an overstock of population there and the laboring men are trying, by their organizations, as far as possible, to give labor to as many of those laborers as they can, and in order to do that they refuse to allow them to do more than a certain amount of work in a day or to employ machinery.

Q. Do you state it as a fact that they charge more in London and the European cities for ready-made clothing than they do in America?—A. I say the labor cost is greater.

Q. The question is a plain one. Do you state, and desire to be recorded as testifying, that the charge for making common clothing for laborers in the cities of Europe is as much as it is in the cities of Amer-

ica?—A. I mean to say that the labor cost to the individual (not what the individual workman gets, but the labor cost,) of a suit of clothes, in many instances, is greater in England than here.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Can you state the difference in the price of ready-made clothing in England and in this country?—A. I cannot, because I did not come here prepared to give you the exact figures to-day.

Q. Do you not know that the business is on a larger scale in this country, and that therefore methods are employed and economies resorted to which are not known abroad?—A. Precisely; that is what I intended to say in my answer about machinery.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Do you not know that in very many of the families in Germany the laborer's clothing is made by members of the family?—A. I did not say anything about Germany; I am speaking of the custom in England.

Q. Well, in regard to England, is it not true that the families of the workingmen make their clothes to a great extent?—A. Certainly they do, and so they do in this country. I have had many a suit of clothes that my mother made for me.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Can you state what was the quality and character of the 500,000 or 600,000 tons of pig-iron which was imported into this country during the last year?—A. A large part of it was for Bessemer purposes; a high grade of iron. The character of the iron imported at present, compared with that imported a few years ago, is much higher. At that time it was for foundry purposes and for bar-iron purposes, which does not require as good an iron as for Bessemer purposes.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. It has been stated that nearly 50 per cent. of the amount of pig iron imported into this country during eleven years was imported during the last three years. During the last three years we have had this great boom in steel rails. Cannot the increase of importation be largely traced to that?—A. Yes, sir; I think it can be, because with the great demand for Bessemer rails there also came a demand for pig iron, which our furnaces at that time were not prepared to supply, but which I understand they are now prepared to supply. I think this is a principle that should run through all tariffs; that in a time of low demand and great supply the tariff should be such that no iron could be introduced, but in a time of great demand and small supply then the tariff should be placed at such a figure that, if necessary, we can get a supply from abroad.

Q. It occurs to me that this great increase of importations may not last long, and when you get into the ordinary condition of affairs again the importations will not be so large, and you can get along without them?—A. Yes, sir; but they will always introduce the best character of pig from abroad. When the tariff was reduced to \$7 a ton, it was for an inferior grade of iron, and it seems to me we ought to have a higher tariff now, because they are bringing in a superior grade of iron.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. When it was reduced from \$9 to \$7 common cold short iron formed the greater part of the importation. Within the last few years Bessemer iron, worth \$25 a ton, comprises nearly the whole amount of the importation, does it not?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You think, then, that if the duty is increased this tax would come off the Bessemer steel-makers of the country who are the buyers of these 500,000 tons of pig iron which is imported?—A. Yes, sir. Whatever the increase in price might be, it would come off the Bessemer steel manufacturers.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. That necessitates another question. Would not that additional price necessarily be charged to the consumer of these rails?—A. If all the reports that our friends, the free-traders, have stated about the large amounts made in Bessemer steel operations are true, it does not necessarily follow, although it might be.

Q. You give it as your opinion that those who make the steel rails would pay the increased duty and not the consumer?—A. No, sir; I do not say that; I say it might be. You cannot tell. I have not formed any opinion on that subject; I simply say it might or might not be.

Mr. BUTLER. I think the Commission should take measures to ascertain the fact in regard to the quality of these large importations. I think Mr. Weeks's statements are entirely too general, and in order to inform yourselves about it you should make further inquiries.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Don't you think it is the duty of the pig-iron manufacturers to collect that information and present it?—A. Yes, sir; and if you desire it I will see that it is done.

Mr. WILLIAM CLARK, of the firm of Wm. Clark & hoop-iron manufacturers, said:

On behalf of the hoop-iron manufacturers of the country we respectfully ask favorable action on the two propositions that we herewith submit, relative to the duties on hoop iron. We ask—

First. Such rates of duty on hoop, band, scroll, and other similar iron as shall be fair and equitable; shall bear a proper relation to the duties on other classes of iron, and afford sufficient protection to the labor and capital employed in their manufacture.

Second. Such action as shall secure the collection of that rate of duty not only upon these irons in one of their forms but upon all forms, and shall also prevent the importation of any real or pretended manufacture of these irons at the same or a less rate of duty than that imposed upon hoop iron, using the term "hoop iron" to include all these classes of iron.

We submit for your consideration and ask the adoption of the following schedule of duties on hoop, band, scroll, and other similar iron:

On all hoop, band, scroll, or other iron, without reference to length, and by whatever name called, eight inches or less in width, and not thinner than number ten wire-gauge, one cent and one-fourth per pound; thinner than number ten wire-gauge, and not thinner than number seventeen wire-gauge, one cent and one-half per pound; thinner than number seventeen wire-gauge, one cent and three-fourths per pound.

These are virtually the present rates. The gauges and widths have been changed somewhat to suit the present conditions of manufacture, and to afford a better and more reasonable classification. Less than these rates will not afford adequate protection, and should not be considered. Few, if any, of the operations of iron-making require so much or so highly-skilled labor as the manufacture of hoop iron, and in none is the disparity between the wages paid and the labor cost in this country and abroad greater.

As showing this disparity in a few of the rates of wages paid to the labor in hoop mills in this country and in England we give the following table:

Classes of labor.	England.	Pittsburgh.
Puddling, per ton	\$1 94	\$5 50
Shingling, per ton	20	77
Rolling in puddle mill, per ton	20	68½
Rolling and heating, 1 inch x No. 18 hoop, per ton	1 80	4 80
Common labor, per day	50 to 72½	1 30 to 1 50

A comparison of these wages rates will show the necessity of the protection to labor which is afforded by the rates of duty named above if labor is to continue to receive the wages now paid. To show, however, the necessity of these rates of duty to all interested, we call your attention to the following statement of the average selling price of this iron in England, its cost laid down in this country, and a comparison of this with American-made iron:

Hoop iron.	Cost in England.	Average freight and expenses.	Duty at 35 per cent.	Cost laid down in any United States port.	Present cost at American mills.	Cost of English iron at rates of duty on hoop iron.
Not thinner than No. 10	\$28. 16	} \$2. 50	\$9. 80	\$40. 52	\$53. 70	\$58. 00
Thinner than No. 10, and not thinner than No. 17.	20. 38		10. 28	42. 16	57. 28	65. 48
Thinner than No. 17	31. 60		11. 00	45. 16	62. 72	73. 30
	to 43. 50		to 15. 25	to 61. 31	to 82. 82	to 85. 26

We also call your special attention to the fact that in the process of making hoop iron it is first made into bar iron. This bar iron is then heated and rolled into hoop iron at considerable cost for labor, materials, waste, &c. Hoop iron should, therefore, bear a rate of duty sufficiently in excess of that levied on bar iron to compensate for this extra cost, and to afford the labor thus employed adequate protection. The rates we have asked are not more than what are needed. Indeed, in view of the fact that considerable hoop iron has lately been imported at the present rates, while but little bar iron has been imported, it would appear that these rates were hardly sufficient.

Experience with the present tariff law has shown it to be of vital importance to the welfare and prosperity of this industry that the law should contain a provision that will make it certain that the rates of duty prescribed shall be collected. The ingenuity displayed in the attempts, sometimes successful and at others not (more frequently successful than not,) under the present law, to import hoop iron at lower rates of duty than those provided has been unceasing, and these attempts form a most remarkable chapter in the history of tariff decisions. A simple change of name has been deemed, by importers, sufficient to take hoop iron out of the category of hoop iron and entitle it to admission at a lower rate of duty. Cutting it to specified lengths, punching one or more holes in it, flaring or splaying it, stringing on or riveting buckles to it, painting it, adding studs or rivets—all of these, sometimes singly and sometimes with two or more in combination, have been done to hoop iron, and then a lower rate of duty has been claimed.

Certainly every piece of iron that can properly come under the classes of iron mentioned in this statement should pay the rate of duty provided. This is a proposition that admits of no discussion.

We claim that it is equally clear that all manufactures or articles made from these irons should not only pay the same but a higher rate of duty than the article from which they are made. This is the underlying principle of all tariff legislation. The nearer to crude or raw materials, the less duty; the more advanced, the more labor that has been employed, the higher duty. This, it seems to us, is so evident that we need not argue it. We therefore ask that the following proviso be attached to the rates of duty above mentioned:

Provided, That all articles, whether wholly or partially manufactured, made from the hoop, band, scroll, or other iron herein provided for, or of which such hoop, band, scroll, or other iron shall be the material of chief value, shall pay one-fourth of one cent per pound more duty than that imposed on the iron from which they are made, or which shall be such material of chief value. This proviso does not apply to "cotton ties," which shall pay the same duty as the hoop iron from which they are made.

The chief effect of this provision at the present time will be to prevent the importation of hoop iron for barrels and for baling purposes at less rates of duty than those imposed upon hoop iron.

As the original use to which hoop iron was put was for hooping barrels, tubs, buckets, &c., it certainly should require no argument to show that iron for these purposes should pay the hoop-iron duty. If it has been somewhat manipulated to fit it for the barrel, it is more definitely hoop iron, and should pay above the ordinary hoop iron an additional duty to compensate for the extra labor.

As to hoop iron for baling purposes: Strips of hoop iron, painted or not, sometimes with a buckle riveted and sometimes with it loosely attached, are used to a large extent, some 30,000 to 40,000 tons yearly, for baling wool, rags, old paper, excelsior, cotton, &c. These are sometimes called cotton-ties, baling ties, cotton-bale ties, strips for baling, &c. They were first made in quantities in this country in 1858, but did not come into general use until after the war. These "ties" were made under patents, and the trade controlled exclusively for years by one company—The American Cotton-Tie Company—which prevented, by purchase or suits at law, any one from interfering with its monopoly, and most of the cotton-ties used up to 1876 were furnished by this company and were of foreign iron; the profits, we are credibly informed, being enormous.

In 1876, at great risk, some American manufacturers determined to begin their manufacture. Suits and injunctions failing to stop them, the price of ties fell at once from 6½ cents per pound in 1875 to 5½ cents per pound in 1876. In 1877 more American ties were made, and the price fell to 4 cents; the Cotton-Tie Company purchasing a portion of its supply in this country. Here the price remained for two years, when the Cotton-Tie Company determined to drive out competition by using English-made ties, imported under Treasury decisions at 35 per cent. ad valorem, instead of at the hoop-iron duty of 1½ cents; and it accordingly purchased in England ties enough to very nearly bale the whole cotton crop of 1881, and put them on the market at 3 cents a pound—a price which drove the American ties out of the market. The importation of these ties at 35 per cent. ad valorem we claim to be a clear evasion not only of the spirit but of the letter of the law, as they are only hoop iron used for baling purposes, and are no more entitled to be admitted at less than hoop-iron duties than is hoop iron for any other purpose. It

is to make this impossible that we ask the adoption of the above proviso.

It is asserted that this duty is a hardship to the cotton planter. This we deny emphatically. The planter buys these ties at the price of iron and sells them at the price of cotton, and makes on them the difference between these two prices. It requires 11 pounds of ties to a bale of cotton. The crop for 1880 was 6,605,000 bales, which would require 72,655,000 pounds of ties. The average price of ties per pound was 3.7 cents; of cotton per pound, 11.34 cents. This is a profit of say $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound, or \$5,449,125 on the crop. It is certainly no hardship to ask, in view of this, that the duty on hoop iron be collected from these ties.

If it is answered that these ties are regarded as tare, and really reduce the price of cotton, we deny it. No tare is deducted, and the cotton is worth more with the ties than without. They reduce the size of the bale, permit a large increase of weight per bale, increase the carrying capacity of vessels, and reduce the cost of carriage. With them insurance can be effected at a very much less rate than it could be with the rope tie. In a word, baled with this hoop iron the cotton sells for more than it would if baled with any of the other devices known; and it is no hardship to ask that an article on which there is a profit of over 200 per cent. should pay the duty asked above.

While we believe all the facts above set forth as to hoop iron for baling purposes to be true, and believe that iron for this purpose should pay a rate of duty higher than ordinary hoop iron, we deem it best, in view of the decided opposition from certain sections, to consent to the exception at the close of the paragraph on hoop iron, viz., that cotton ties shall pay the same rate of duty as hoop iron. A less rate than this would be inequitable and unjust, and not susceptible of any defense.

We ask the continuance of the present rates, which are substantially the same as we propose here, on account of their adaptability to the wants of the trade. It has been proved that during the last five years they have served as a measure of protection to the manufacturer here. They prevented high prices during the heavy demand upon the mills of the country, and have served also as a fair measure of revenue to the Government. In 1877 and 1878 and a part of 1879 they amounted to almost a prohibition. They were fully protective to the manufacturers of this country, inasmuch as they admitted of no importation of hoop iron. But that was by reason of the depressed condition of the trade here at home. By reason of that depression prices had declined to such a low figure that it was impossible to import the hoop iron at those rates. Then, when the boom in 1879 came along, these rates permitted the advance of hoop iron to just the extent to which the foreigner could bring them in, and checked the further advance, and also supplied the excess of demand over the facilities for producing here at home. They also answered as a measure of revenue to the Government, inasmuch as there was a large amount of hoop iron imported during that period and has been up to the present time. We have found in this country that, in consequence of marketing our product here, we have reached a higher standard of production. The English manufacture iron for this country and send it here, and the buyer buys it at his own risk. If it does not turn out as he expects, he has no recourse and has to foot the bill. With us it is different. We have to make our iron reach a much higher standard, and if it does not come up to that standard we very soon hear of it by being informed that the iron is held subject to our order, with all the expenses charged up against us. Therefore we have found it entirely inapplicable to the wants of the trade here to pursue the Eng

lish course of manufacture, and hence we have adopted a universal practice of putting the material through one process more than it receives in England, which enhances the cost from \$10 to \$20 per ton. The only exception in these rates of duty is on the article of cotton-ties. We wish to ask you, gentlemen, to recommend that cotton-ties be put on the list with hoop iron. We ask that as a measure of justice. As hoop-iron manufacturers we think we are entitled to the same protection under the law that the bar-iron and sheet-iron manufacturers receive, and that we ourselves receive when manufacturing hoop iron for other uses. We think that it was a violation of the letter of the present law to admit cotton ties at the nominal rate of 35 per centum ad valorem. The present law says that all hoop iron shall pay a duty of 1½ cents a pound, corresponding to certain widths and thicknesses. But by the decisions of the courts and the rulings of the Department at Washington, soon after the present law went into effect, another construction was placed upon it, and since that time up to the present moment, excepting during two or three years, under Secretary Sherman's administration of the Treasury Department, that construction of the law has been in force. By reason of this, the cotton-tie business, so far as the American mills are concerned, has been practically a free-trade business. We have had nothing to do with it except during those years when the construction of the law was reversed by Secretary Sherman. We ask this also as a measure of justice to the buyers of hoop iron. There is no reason why a man who buys hoop iron to put it around a tub, bucket, or barrel should have to pay a higher rate of duty on his iron, if he imports it, than a man who bales cotton. We think they ought to be put in the same category. And for that reason we ask that you will recommend that Congress enact a law placing cotton ties upon the specific list with hoop iron, corresponding to the same width, whatever that duty may be, and we think that duty ought to be 1½ cents per pound.

This cotton-tie manufacture is peculiarly an American business. The cotton tie was an American invention, and American mills manufactured the first cotton ties that were used in this country. They had to bear all the sacrifice, trouble, annoyance, and expense incidental to introducing a new article of manufacture in the market, and superseding an old one. They prosecuted this business up to 1860, when, by reason of the war, the mills of the North were shut out from the trade, and then they had considerable loss and trouble. I know of one establishment which in 1858 manufactured 400 tons of cotton ties (a large product in those days), every tie of which was condemned as worthless and was a loss to the owners. There were many troubles incidental to the establishment of the cotton-tie trade which were borne by the manufacturers. The war came in and crowded them out. Then a certain company here, who got possession of the trade by reason of a patent monopoly upon ties, conceived the idea that a cotton tie was something else than a piece of hoop iron, and got a decision of the court admitting them under the ad valorem rate of 35 per cent. That crowded the American mills out of the business until 1874 or 1875, when, by reason of the depression before alluded to, they began to look around for other sources of trade, and they hit upon the tie trade, and, at a good deal of risk at that time, they entered the field again and reduced the price of ties from 7½ cents a pound, which had prevailed for years before, to 5½ cents the first year, and the following year to 4 and 4½ cents, and as a consequence we have the present low price of 3½ cents a pound. The American mills have not made a tie for three years, by reason of this unjust ruling of the courts and the Department. We therefore ask as a measure of justice

to the manufacturers of hoop iron, to the workmen, and to the buyer of hoop iron, that cotton ties be placed on the list with hoop iron and charged the same rate of duty.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Question. What rate of duty is it that you propose?—Answer. We propose a specific duty of $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound.

Q. The cotton-tie manufacturers in this country, you say, have had a hard time?—A. Yes, sir; they have.

Q. They have not made considerable money?—A. No, sir; not in cotton ties. They have made a fair profit in their business of manufacturing other hoop iron.

Q. It was intimated to us by some of the witnesses that they had made \$8,000,000 profits?—A. I can say conscientiously that I believe that the tie trade in the aggregate, from its inception to the present moment, has never made for the hoop-iron manufacturer of the United States one dollar.

Q. How is it at present; are you making any profit now?—A. No, sir; not on ties, because we have not made any for three years.

Q. They are made in Europe?—A. Yes, sir; exclusively.

Q. Do you know what number of pounds it requires to bind a bale of cotton?—A. About eleven or twelve pounds.

Q. At $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound duty that would be 15 or 16 cents on a bale of cotton?—A. Providing you reason that this rate of duty would necessarily increase the price of ties to that amount, it would. But I do not admit that that would be the case.

Q. That would be 33 cents at eleven pounds to the bale?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. On that eleven pounds the duty will be about 16 cents to the bale?—A. Yes, sir; but it does not necessarily follow that the price would be increased to that extent. During the years 1877 and 1878 we made ties in this country and they were sold then at about 4 cents a pound by a syndicate that got a good profit out of them.

Q. For about how many bales of cotton are they used?—A. I suppose about 6,500,000 bales or 7,000,000, perhaps, this year.

Q. In how many States is cotton raised?—A. I could not say positively.

Q. In ten or eleven; it does not amount to one-third of the States of the Union.—A. I suppose not.

Q. Do you know what amount of money the cotton crop brings annually?—A. I never have figured it up.

Q. Do you know that the cotton crop furnishes about \$300,000,000 of export annually?—A. It might; I am not familiar with the facts.

Q. If that is so, do you think that it is an industry that ought to be depressed by a high tariff?—A. I do not admit that it would be depressed by a high tariff.

Q. Do you think that such an industry as that ought to be taxed?—A. I cannot admit that it would necessarily be taxed any more than all industries are taxed.

Q. I will put my question in another shape. If the tariff is a tax, do you think that is an industry that ought to be taxed?—A. Not specially. We ask that it be placed on a par with all other industries in the United States.

Q. You have said something about your desire to do justice to the purchaser of cotton ties?—A. No, sir; I referred to the purchasers of other iron for baling and for barrels, tubs, or buckets, who now are required

to pay $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound duty. I certainly have no desire to do injustice to any section, but I think that the planters have been specially favored at the expense of the manufacturers. I think they ought to be put on a level with other purchasers of iron goods.

Q. Do you mean that they have been favored by this 35 per cent. duty?
—A. Yes, sir.

Q. That was the duty imposed under the construction of the courts?—
A. That was the construction of the court in New Orleans soon after the war, and it was accepted by the Treasury Department at Washington and was considered as the law in the case until Secretary Sherman reversed it.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You were asked by Commissioner Underwood whether or not a certain concern made \$8,000,000 profit in the manufacture of cotton ties. Was not the concern alluded to the McComb English party who made that money importing ties from England?—A. I presume that is the one alluded to.

Q. I wish to ask whether there were \$8,000,000 worth of ties made in this country during the few years you were manufacturing, all told?
—A. No, sir.

Q. Were there ever \$4,000,000 worth made here and sold?—A. No, sir; I think not. I think it would be less than that.

Q. As I understand your suggestion, it is that, as bar iron is taxed at one cent a pound, hoop iron at $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound, and steel rails at $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents a pound, cotton ties alone of all the manufactures of iron and steel should not be taxed as low as half a cent a pound?—A. Yes sir.

Q. And that by reason of the high duties the Government has imposed on these other articles you are compelled to pay proportionately high wages, and therefore you are at that disadvantage; is that your point?
—A. Yes, sir; exactly.

Q. Then you want a rate to be placed on cotton ties proportionate to the rate on hoop iron out of which they are made, or on bar iron?—A. Exactly. So far as ties alone are concerned, we would fare much better without any tariff at all, for then the supposition is that the cost of manufacturing ties would decline to a level with the general business of the country. But the general tariff rate necessarily keeps the cost of the ties up to that standard, and, by wresting them from the general tariff law and, putting them at a very low rate, it necessarily destroys the cotton-tie trade of this country.

Q. What are the other purposes for which hoop iron is used?—A. Principally for hooping oil and whisky barrels.

Q. Under the present law the consumers of hoop iron who use it for hooping oil and whisky barrels are made to pay a higher rate than the consumers of cotton ties.—A. Yes, sir; three to one.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. But do they not generally get their oil barrels back again free of duty?—A. Only to a limited extent.

Q. But they can if they want to?—A. I really do not know what the tariff on empty barrels is, or whether there is any or not. But I scarcely think they would pay the transportation back.

Q. But they are entitled to come back free of duty, are they not?—A. I am not able to answer the question. I know there are but very few barrels returned.

Q. Can the iron used in transporting cotton to Europe be brought

back free of duty?—A. It could be brought back; I do not know whether free of duty or not.

Q. Would it not be brought back as scrap iron?—A. If they returned the cotton with it, it would come back as hoop iron.

Q. But they do not return the oil back?—A. No, sir.

Q. And is not that the same with other goods?—A. I could not say.

Q. If that is so, do you think it would be right to put cotton ties on a different footing from other things?—A. I do not think it is right to put cotton ties on a different footing from other iron in any respect, and that is what we ask that it shall not be.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Did you say that the introduction of hoop iron for cotton ties was first made by the manufacturers of this country?—A. The manufacturers here first made the ties. The ties were introduced by patentees who patented devices for fastening them. But these parties, as a rule, were irresponsible people who patented devices for baling cotton, and they would go to the manufacturer and the manufacturer would take the thing up and make the ties, and take his chances for getting the money.

Q. There is another point which I think an important one. You said that the manufacturer of iron ties in this country who manufactured for the domestic market was subject to reclamations in case he did not make a good article, which the foreigner is not subject to?—A. Yes, sir; that is simply a subject of trade. It is a matter of tacit agreement that if our goods do not come up to a certain standard we take them back and foot the bill.

Q. Does not that tend to make the American article better than the foreign article, and is not that an important element of benefit to the consumer?—A. Yes, sir; in purchasing cotton ties abroad (and we have purchased a number abroad during the last three years to supply our own trade, much to my regret and sorrow, as we wish to keep in the business,) you have to send a resident agent to stand over and inspect the manufacture as it goes along. The same thing applies to barrel hoops and every description of iron. Here they simply send their specifications in and we give them an ample guarantee that the goods will answer the purpose or we will bear the expense, and consequently the hoop iron of America is incomparably superior to the hoop iron of England. They can make good iron there if they wish to, and will if you pay the price. But if you take the common article as thrown upon the market you will have to take your chances; you will have trouble with it.

Q. But the American manufacturer, you say, is subject to reclamations?—A. Yes, sir; and they are invariably made. Hoop iron is an article which is put to a very severe test. Every strip of hoop iron that goes on a barrel or into a cotton tie is subject to the highest strain, and if there is one faulty place in a ton of it it will very likely cause complaint; and if there are a few, it will condemn the entire quantity. Whereas if it was English iron they would put it to profit and loss, and say nothing about it.

Mr. P. L. MOEN, of the Washburn & Moen Manufacturing Co., Worcester, Mass., manufacturers of wire, said:

The iron and steel wire makers beg leave to submit the following:

We submit below the rates of duty upon iron and steel wire, and also upon manufactures made from iron and steel wire, which we believe to

be fair and reasonable and which we trust will meet your approval. We have made no reduction from the existing rates of duty as established by law, though we should have been glad to do so if there could be a reduction in the price of raw material. We have made some changes in the wording of the provisions which we recommend, and which, we think, are an improvement over the language now in use in the existing tariff, being more simple, and, therefore, less liable to misapprehension by all parties.

On iron wire not less than number sixteen wire-gauge, two dollars per hundred pounds, and fifteen per cent. ad valorem.

Over number sixteen and not over number twenty-five wire-gauge: three dollars and fifty cents per hundred pounds, and fifteen per cent. ad valorem.

Over or finer than number twenty-five wire-gauge, four dollars per hundred pounds, and fifteen per cent. ad valorem.

But iron wire covered with cotton, silk, or other material, shall pay five cents per pound in addition to the foregoing rates. *Provided*, That no article made from iron wire, or of which iron wire is a component part of chief value, shall pay a less rate of duty than the iron wire from which it is made either wholly or in part.

Round iron in coils, galvanized or otherwise coated, and all descriptions of iron wire, and wire of which iron is a component part of chief value, not otherwise specifically enumerated and provided for, shall pay the same duty as iron wire.

Iron wire cloths and iron wire nettings made in meshes of any form shall pay a duty equal in amount to that imposed on iron wire of the same gauge, and four cents per pound in addition thereto.

On wire spiral furniture springs, manufactured of iron or steel wire, two cents per pound, and fifteen per cent. ad valorem.

On steel wire not less than number sixteen wire-gauge, two cents and one-half per pound, and twenty per cent. ad valorem; less or finer than number sixteen wire-gauge: three cents per pound, and twenty per cent. ad valorem.

On steel wire commonly known as erioline, corset, and hat steel wire, and steel wire covered with cotton, silk, or other material, eight cents per pound. *Provided*, That no article made from steel wire or of which steel wire is a component part of chief value shall pay a less rate of duty than the steel wire from which it is made either wholly or in part.

Steel-wire cloths and steel-wire nettings made in meshes of any form shall pay a duty equal in amount to that imposed on steel wire of the same gauge and four cents per pound in addition thereto.

Wire rope, wire-strand, and chain of iron or steel wire, either bright, coppered, galvanized, or coated with other metals, shall pay the same rates of duty that are levied on the wire of which they are made.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. I wish to ask you a question or two. The raw material of which you make wire is iron and steel?—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. If there was a general reduction on those articles you would be willing to have the tariff reduced on your product?—A. Yes, sir; we should; that is what we desire.

Q. In proportion to the extent of the reduction that might be agreed upon on those articles, you would be willing to have a reduction upon your manufacture?—A. Yes, sir; certainly.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. Why do you suggest compound rates?—A. Because there are so many different qualities of iron and steel wire. The lowest grade of iron wire is the common market wire used by tinmen; for instance, a thin wire galvanized or tinned. There is also music wire made of the highest grade of steel. The only way in which we can reach these different grades is by having a mixed duty.

Q. You would prefer an ad valorem rate?—A. Yes, sir; but that is a more changeable rate of duty.

Q. Is an ad valorem duty more changeable when it is wholly ad valorem than when partly ad valorem?—A. Perhaps not; but the other makes a definite duty, as near as possible.

Q. What are the ad valorem rates represented by your compound rates?—A. They vary very much; I should think all the way from 40 and 45 per cent. to 60 per cent.

Q. None higher than 60 per cent.?—A. Yes, sir; some higher than 60, I imagine.

Q. It has been alleged by parties appearing before the Commission that it has been customary with manufacturers who have asked for compound rates to do so for the purpose of hiding their real object; that they ask for a compound rate that appears to be a moderate one, when it is actually a very high rate.—A. I do not think that can be fairly said of our case. We only advocate it because of the great diversity in the kinds of wire used, from the lowest kind of iron to the finest kind of steel.

Q. But that is not the point I make. I say that it is alleged that instead of asking 100 per cent., for instance, which sounds high, you ask so much specific duty and 20 per cent. ad valorem, which will amount to 100 per cent., to conceal your real object.—A. That is not the object we have in view; it is a necessity.

Q. Do any of your rates reach 100 per cent.?—A. No, sir; I think not. Some qualities may possibly go up to 70 per cent.

Q. Would not purely ad valorem rates be just as good as compound rates?—A. No, sir; owing to the fact that manufacturers in Europe have agents in this country, with double invoices.

Q. Are you not liable to suffer from that same attempt when you introduce any ad valorem rate whatever?—A. Yes, sir; certainly.

Q. You recommend that wherever certain wire shall be a component of chief value, it shall pay a certain duty. Do you not introduce another element of dispute in valuation there?—A. There is a possibility of that, of course.

Q. Can you not cover that same point of difference by a specific designation; by weight, for instance?—A. We might possibly, if there was not such an infinite diversity of things manufactured of these wires. We could not enumerate them all, and therefore we classify them as we do.

Q. Does your recommendation follow any general average on manufactures of steel, which is supposed to be about 45 per cent., and on manufactures of iron, which is supposed to be about 35 per cent.? I understood you to say that it does not change essentially the present rates.—A. No, sir; it does not.

Q. Then that is true of your present recommendation; it is based on those 35 and 45 per centum rates?—A. I will not say that it is that percentage, because I have not figured it in that way.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Could you reduce the rates on wire if the present rate of duty on steel rods was maintained?—A. No, sir; we could not reduce them, and we must advance them if the present rate is increased. The duty is only about \$12 a ton. We could not reduce the rate on wire if that is maintained at its present ad valorem duty.

Q. Do you manufacture barbed wire?—A. Yes, sir, largely; and we barb wire as well.

Q. Do you manufacture any barbed wire from steel rods other than those produced in Belgium and England?—A. Yes, sir; we get nearly half of our supply from American mills.

Q. The reason I ask that question is, we have had it stated that nearly all the barbed-wire fences are manufactured from steel rods imported

from Great Britain and Belgium.—A. Aside from our own concern, and possibly one other, that is true. But for a long time we have done our own rolling, and at a loss, rather than to break up our own organization.

Q. You are the largest manufacturers in the United States of this kind of goods?—A. I suppose we are.

Q. Then the statement that all the barbed-wire fences manufactured in this country and used on farms, especially in the northwestern part of the country, are manufactured from foreign steel, is not true?—A. No, sir, it is not true, so far as we are concerned. I should say that about three-quarters was a fair statement of the case.

Q. Is it a fact, or not, that the material from which you manufacture barbed-wire fences—the steel—is imported into this country at a lower rate of duty than any importation of iron and steel?—A. Certainly, that is true. The cheapest duty on iron is $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound, which is \$28 a ton. I know of nothing else in steel that begins to be imported so low, except rails, and those are paying 30 per cent. ad valorem, or only about \$12 a ton.

Q. Is it a fact or not, in relation to other manufactures, that barbed-wire fencing is furnished to consumers at a cheaper or lower price than the manufacture of any other iron or steel goods?—A. Yes, sir; there is no other kind of wire put into the hands of the people who manufacture fences so cheaply that I know of, except the very lowest and poorest kinds of iron wire.

Q. What is the cost of the wire?—A. The selling price of No. 12 wire, which is the principal wire (not the barbed wire—No. 13 is used for barbing), is $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{3}{4}$ cents a pound; I mean that is the price in the form in which it goes to the machine for barbing. This is plain wire, not galvanized. The almost universal practice is to galvanize the wire before it is made into fences. It costs about 1 cent more to galvanize it, and the cost of barbing it varies very much, according to the machinery used. I suppose it costs, say, one-half to three-fourths of a cent to barb it, or about $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents altogether.

Q. What is the present price of barbed-wire fencing to the farmer?—A. The present price of galvanized and barbed wire by the car-load, delivered at the West, is $8\frac{1}{2}$ cents, if a party buys a car-load at a time.

Q. But how much is the cost to the farmer?—A. The retail trade regulates that matter; they distribute it.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You mentioned wire rods as paying a peculiar rate of duty?—A. Yes, it is an exception to all other articles on the iron and steel list.

Q. Have you any experience in regard to the way that duty is placed?—A. It rests on a decision of the Secretary of the Treasury, made some years since, in which it was claimed that wire rods in coils were not provided for, and therefore came in at the rate of 30 per centum ad valorem.

Q. Please state your views in regard to that decision.—A. Assuming that when the word "coils" was introduced in the tariff, as it has been for years, it did not mean wire rods, then there was no other way for the Secretary of the Treasury to decide but the way in which he did decide. I suppose there can be no question in the minds of the people who framed the law, that the cast-steel makers make coiled rods such as the screw makers use. I have been informed at the Department that the word "coils" has been understood to apply to springs used on railroad freight cars. The Department was made to believe that that was

the article referred to as coils, and that is the way I understand that the decision was arrived at.

Q. Do you ever import any billets out of which these wire rods are made?—A. Never, to any extent.

Q. What would be the duty on a billet used for making barbed steel?—A. $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents I think is the lowest rate.

Q. And the approximate duty on wire rods would be, what?—A. It would be about \$12. It is fair to state that Bessemer material was unknown in this country when the tariff was fixed at $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents.

Q. But of course it is an anomaly that the billet out of which the rod is made should pay $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents, and the rod being rolled down, and the additional labor put on, the duty should be only a half cent. I understand you to say that the wire manufacturers recommend no change whatever. If it should be deemed advisable by Congress to make a general scaling of duties, and a reduction all round, could not the wire manufacturers stand an average reduction; and, if so, to what amount of the present duty?—A. We could stand the same reduction per ton, and would be glad to endure a reduction of duty if our material could be afforded us cheaper. But, as matter of fact, home competition for a long time past has been such that there has been but little wire brought into this country, because the price, by reason of home competition, is so much lower that it does not approximate the price of the finer grade of wire which could be brought into this country.

Q. Is any foreign wire imported to-day?—A. Not to any extent.

Q. Nor any telegraph wire?—A. Only to a small extent; it is limited.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. When you say that if you could get your material cheaper, what do you mean to include in that designation?—A. If scrap, pig, and bar iron were lower (those are all used in our manufacture), it would assist us in reducing the cost of our goods.

Q. I am told that $8\frac{3}{4}$ cents is the cheapest price that barbed-wire fencing is sold to the retailer. Is there not an arrangement between the retailers that barbed-wire fencing shall not be sold to the farmer cheaper than that?—A. There is no such arrangement that I know of, and I think I should know it if there was such an arrangement.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You recommend that the present wording of the law remain unchanged?—A. Yes, sir; except in some minor points.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. You would be willing to let the duty on barbed wire remain as it is, as well as the duty on steel rods?—A. No, sir; not as it is. If it should remain as it is, it would come in at 25 per centum ad valorem.

Q. What would you do with that?—A. We provide for that in the clause providing that all articles made of iron or steel wire shall bear the same rate of duty as the iron and steel from which they are manufactured. There is, of course, considerable additional cost in the manufacture; but we take no account of that.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. Do I understand you to say, in answer to Commissioner Oliver, that steel wire is not now imported?—A. Only to a small extent.

Q. Do you attribute that to the present high rate of duty?—A. No, sir; I do not.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Is not steel wire imported for the purpose of being manufactured, and then exported for the drawback?—A. Yes, sir; that is done in goods sent to South America and Australia.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Is there more than one patent on this barbed-wire fencing?—A. Yes; there are a hundred patents on it.

Q. Please explain how it is possible that there can be a hundred patents on barbed wire.—A. It has amazed me, or used to before I was familiar with it. When we began, in 1876, I would not have believed it was possible to have over a dozen. There are patents for metal barbs of every conceivable shape, and on every conceivable way of twisting the wire around the barb, and so on.

Commissioner KENNER. There are 600 different patents for cotton ties.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Are you large manufacturers of iron wire?—A. Not of iron-fence wire, although we used to be; but that has gone into disuse entirely, because it was found that the cattle would rub against it. We make our fencing from Bessemer steel, not from iron.

Q. Can you tell me the gain to the farmers of the country by the substitution of barbed-wire fencing in the place of common fencing?—A. The first cost is probably not over two-thirds as much as the slat fencing put up along the railroads. So that the first cost is very much diminished indeed; certainly not more than two-thirds as much, and the cost of maintenance is vastly less; the repairs are nothing for years. I do not know how long it will last, but as long as the posts will.

Q. Is there any charge on a farmer that is greater than that of fencing?—A. I know of none.

Q. How much do you think you have diminished the cost of fencing by the introduction of this barbed wire?—A. I do not know that I could state; but it is some hundreds of millions of dollars annually in the cost of erecting-fences. The cost of repairing fences in the United States is not less than \$40,000,000 or \$50,000,000 a year; I think I speak within bounds when I state that figure. I think an average board or slat fence will not last more than five or six years at the utmost—certainly not more than seven—and then it has continually to be repaired and replaced. Besides, this wire fencing is not valuable for kindling purposes, and tramps and other persons cannot use it for building bonfires, &c. Then there is a great saving in the matter of crops in keeping stock within bounds (although occasionally an animal is injured), which amounts to many million dollars.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. You speak of a board fence lasting not more than five to seven years. What class of fence do you allude to?—A. I mean the ordinary fence that we see in the North alongside the railroads; I mean fences with slats a little wider than my hand; that kind of a fence.

Q. What tends to destroy them within that time?—A. The decay is very large indeed; and the nails give out in the course of a short time.

Commissioner GARLAND. There is a great difference in my experience from what you have stated, and that is the reason I asked you.

The WITNESS. I never have built much fencing; but I rely upon the statistics, which I have not at present at hand. I can furnish the Commission with very reliable statistics of that kind.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. It depends very much on the kind of wood used, I suppose. Locust posts and oak rails will last a very long time, will they not?—A. Yes, sir, no doubt. Spruce and pine are what we use in the North, I believe.

Commissioner GARLAND. I am familiar with a board and plank fence built at least twenty years ago, although the posts may have been replaced once or twice. The fence I refer to has boards six inches wide and one inch thick.

Mr. A. F. KEATING, of Pittsburgh, representing the manufacturers of bar iron and nails, said:

We recommend a continuance of the tariff as it now exists, on bar iron and nails, with the exception that on bar iron we propose a duty of $1\frac{1}{3}$ cents instead of the present duty of $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound. The object is to make the rate of duty on bar iron uniform with that proposed by the hoop and band iron manufacturers. We also propose a change in the wording of the law as to iron bars for railroads or inclined planes, so that it will read:

On iron bars for railroads or inclined planes, weighing more than thirty pounds to the yard, seventy cents per hundred pounds; weighing thirty pounds or less to the yard, one cent per pound.

We also have inserted a clause in regard to wrought iron beams, &c., as follows:

On wrought-iron beams and girders, channel bars, deck and bulb beams, column segments, tee and angle bars, and on all structural iron, and on all iron rolled to a shape or section other than round, flat, and square bars, *one cent and one-half per pound.*

The present duty on nails we recommend be continued and adopted by the Commission in its report to Congress. These are all the changes asked for. There is no advance asked for, except in regard to iron bars used for railroads and inclined planes, while there is a reduction of \$5 a ton on some species of bar iron rolled or hammered.

In recommending these changes I would like to make a short statement on the points involved, to illustrate our object.

On behalf of the bar iron and nail industries of the country no increase is asked in the duties now levied. The twenty years that the present tariff law and the present rates of duty have been in force have been marked by such a degree of prosperity, notwithstanding the panic of 1873, as was unknown in the previous history of our country and has been manifested in no other country. This prosperity has not been confined to one branch of our industries, but has extended to all branches—agricultural, mechanical, mining, and manufacturing. Agriculture has spread over our Western plains, and mining industries have developed the resources of the Pacific slope and the Rocky Mountains. Our manufacturers have established new industries and enlarged old ones, and, to meet the growing demands of the other industries, mechanical industries have been compelled to enlarge and extend again and again. In addition to and better than this, under the tariff system that has been established, and under the action of these duties in establishing manufactories, our workmen in these manufactories have received better wages, and have not only consumed the products of agriculture in this country without compelling the agriculturist to seek distant markets, which are expensive to reach, but they have been able to pay for the products of agriculture better rates than they could have paid without

the advantage that has accrued to them from the tariff. In a word, in all that goes to make material prosperity in the present, and to give a pledge and promise for its continuance and increase in the future, our country has been and is rich and promising under the tariff system that was established by Congress in its wisdom twenty years ago.

We do not desire to remove or have removed what we believe to be one of the great causes of all this. We do not believe there is any reason why it should be removed. We therefore ask that the present rates of duty on the iron we represent, under which so many of these industries have been brought into existence, shall be continued. We ask this not only in behalf of the manufacturers and workingmen connected with industries already established, but in behalf of those sections of the country that desire and intend in the near future to establish these industries. We ask for these sections the same protection that has enabled other sections to attain the degree of prosperity that they have reached. We believe that no great body of the American people ask that these duties shall be lowered. We believe that any demand that may come for the reduction of these duties will come either from foreign manufacturers and workingmen or from those who are interested in such manufacturers and workingmen.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Question. Most of the nails made in the United States are made here and at Wheeling, are they not?—Answer. No, sir. One half of the nail product of the country is made east of the Allegheny Mountains, and the other half west. Eight million kegs of nails are made in the United States; 3,800,000 kegs east of the Allegheny Mountains, and 4,200,000 west of the mountains.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. A large quantity are made in Chicago, are they not?—A. Yes, sir; some are made in Chicago, also in Colorado.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. Are there any nails imported?—A. Not of the ordinary, common nails. Some wire nails are imported.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. Are any hand-made nails manufactured in this country?—No, sir.

Q. How is it in England?—A. Machinery for making nails is being introduced there. At one time all the nails made and consumed there were made by hand.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Q. Are not a great many nails made at Richmond, Va.?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And at Chattanooga, Tenn.?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Why did you leave them out?—A. I said east and west of the Allegheny Mountains. In making up our statistics we consider Chattanooga and Knoxville as belonging to the western section, and Richmond to the eastern section. I understand there is a large factory to be built at Birmingham, Ala. We want all these factories to be placed on the same footing.

Q. What is the price of common nails here?—A. The price of 6-penny nails is \$3.30, and 10-penny nails \$3.23.

Q. What is the price in New York?—A. Three dollars and sixty cents for 10-penny nails, I believe.

Q. Then Pittsburgh is the place to buy nails?—A. Not always.

By Commissioner McMAHON :

Q. I understand you to say that you suggest no reduction, with one exception? A. I did not say that. We suggest no changes except in the case of one class of bar iron which we have thought proper should bear a reduction of 25 per cent.; and then we ask for an increase on one class of railroad bars used for inclined planes.

Q. I understood you to recommend that angle iron, and other peculiar forms of structural iron, should pay $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. They pay $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents now, I believe. They pay under the general provision for all rolled and hammered iron not otherwise provided for, $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound. And now you recommend that they pay $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents; and then you say that you suggest no other changes except the ones you name, without naming that.—A. I said that was a new section which I read, and I referred to it in that way.

Q. Do you recommend that they remain as at present, at $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents?—A. I think they properly should.

Q. Then you change your recommendation so far as they are concerned?—A. Yes, sir; I do.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. What is the machinery by which you make your nails; is it the old machinery formerly used?—A. It is the old original Perkins nail machine.

Q. That came from New England?—A. Yes, sir; it did. There have been additions made to it since; but the principal parts are the same as in the original machine.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. I understand that the committee representing the bar-iron manufacturers and the nail manufacturers is distinct from that representing the makers of pig iron?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Are you interested in the manufacture of pig iron?—A. I cannot say that I am interested just now; but I shall be.

Q. You are not interested now?—A. No, sir.

Q. Would it be any advantage to the makers of nails and bar iron to have the present duty on pig iron reduced?—A. Of course, I cannot tell what may happen in the future; but if I understand anything about the principle of levying duties at all, I think it would have the opposite effect; that if you reduce the duties on any article it will advance the price to the American consumer.

Q. The makers of pig iron comprise about the only branch of iron and steel manufacturers who ask for an increase of duty. What, in your judgment, would be the sentiment of the consumers of pig iron; that is, the bar-iron men and nail makers who have no furnaces connected with their works and are not interested in furnaces; what do you think would be their opinion in regard to asking Congress to increase the duty a dollar a ton, as asked for by the pig-iron men? You represent a committee appointed by the Cresson Convention, and I want your opinion as to what the feeling is on that point.—A. Of course, I am here to represent the committee appointed on the manufacture of bar iron and nails. The question never has arisen among them, because they considered that the entire interests of the country were in the hands of the Commission, and that each section in recommending what it thought proper would take into consideration the effect on every other section. Any comment which I might make here in regard to the pro-

posed increase or reduction of the duty on pig iron would come with a very poor grace from me.

Q. But I would like to know what the makers of nails have to say on that subject?—A. I will answer that question with the distinct understanding that if any other manufacturer of bar iron disagrees with me he shall be heard. My opinion is that it would be better for the interests of the country to let the duty on pig iron remain where it is. The reason I think so is this: that any radical disturbance of the present duties would be likely to be detrimental to the manufacturers of the entire country. It is better to systematize and arrange the tariff so that there could be no false importations or false constructions of the law than to change it.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. I would like to ask if a reduction of duty would increase the price to the American consumer of Bessemer steel rails?—A. I think it would.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. Can you explain why it is that the reducing of the duty on an article increases the price to the consumer; on what theory do you base such an assertion?—A. Really, I feel a little loath about going into that subject.

Q. You should not have made the statement unless you can give a reason for the faith you have in you.—A. The reason I give is this: No man can instance an article now manufactured in America that was manufactured twenty years ago, taking the changed condition of money values, where the consumer is not getting it at a less price than he did before the duty was placed on it. Take the item of steel rails. They never would have gone down to \$38, or \$42, a ton, as they did previous to 1879, if there had not been any manufactured in this country; and there never would have been any manufactured here if it had not been for the tariff laws. I am not a student of political economy, and I only take views of things as they pass, and therefore I hesitated about standing up here before you gentlemen of the Commission and giving my views on political economy.

Mr. CYRUS ELDER, of Johnstown, Pa., representing the Cambria Iron Company, said:

I wish it to be understood that in submitting the brief paper I have here I am merely opening the case for the Bessemer steel manufacturers, and there will be a more fitting representative of them before you at your sittings in Philadelphia. I would state that this paper is a written commentary upon the steel schedule, and therefore includes crucible steel and other specialties, and that there are gentlemen here who will be prepared to enter into details regarding them, and be able to give you any other information you may desire.

In regard to the proposed rates of duty on steel and manufactures of steel, I have to say that experience has shown that the interests of consumers of all kinds of steel are best served when prices are regulated solely by home competition. No consuming interest now complains of the duty on steel, or petitions for its reduction or repeal. Consumers have in fact no grievance.

The proposed rates of duty on Bessemer steel in its various forms, so far as they differ from the rates fixed and intended to be fixed in the existing laws, are reductions of duty. These reductions have been assented to for the reason that Bessemer steel, especially in the form of

rails, has been constantly attacked in Congress. It would be just, and might be politic, to insist on maintaining the existing rates, under which the Bessemer steel industry was introduced and has been enormously extended, to the great benefit of all consumers and of the country at large. Manufacturers prefer, however, to secure immunity from disturbing assaults by making the utmost concession which will not immediately and certainly endanger their business. A larger reduction of duty than that herein suggested would at once and seriously embarrass all the Bessemer steel works, and some of them would necessarily be closed.

The price of steel rails, with a single exceptional period, has been a steadily declining one, and it is not to-day, nor is it likely to be in future, a subject of complaint. The supply has been all that could be desired in quality, and ample in quantity, except during a temporary excitement in the market for which purchasers only were to blame. The capacity of the American Bessemer steel works is now equal to the demand for all the articles they are fitted to produce. The business is not a monopoly; it is open to any one who wishes to engage in it, but, without assurance of adequate and stable protection, existing works will not be extended and new works will not be erected.

The rapid development of the railroad system of the country has kept pace with the growth of the Bessemer steel industry, each being the natural complement of the other. The American mills have enabled the railroad companies to enlarge their business and to cheapen transportation while increasing their profits. The American steel rail has greatly reduced the risk of accidents, and to it may be attributed such marked improvements as the increase in the weight of locomotives, the capacity of cars, and the speed of trains. The great trunk lines now carry Western products to the sea-board for one-third the freight charges of fourteen years ago, a service to the country of almost incalculable money value. The Western farmer can make no well-grounded complaint against the railroad or the makers of rails. These brief propositions, and many other facts which may be cited and can readily be proved by statistics easily accessible, show that the duties upon Bessemer steel have been a common benefit, and modifications of these duties as herein proposed will require but brief comment.

The definition of steel agreed upon by the Cresson convention is as follows:

It is hereby enacted, that all metal, without regard to the percentage of carbon contained therein, whether produced by cementation, or converted, cast, or made from iron or its ores by the crucible, Bessemer, pneumatic, Thomas-Gilchrist, basic, Siemens-Martin, or open-hearth process, or by the equivalent of either, or by the combination of two or more of these processes, or their equivalents, or by any fusion or other process which produces, from iron or its ores, a metal either granular or fibrous in structure which is cast and malleable, of whatever description or form, excepting what is known as malleable iron castings, shall be classed and denominated as steel.

This definition of steel is essentially that which was proposed by Dr. Siemens, and, while it is sustained by the best scientific authority, it has the practical value of grouping together the products of allied processes, and of dissimilar processes which have nearly identical results. Being made a part of the law, examiners will have comparatively little trouble in determining whether an article is properly entered as iron or as steel, and it will not be necessary to carry this question into the courts, to be decided by a jury upon the conflicting testimony of experts. The difficulty of distinguishing the products of different processes is in many cases insuperable, and the only safety lies in generally classing them together, making exceptions to this rule only where it appears to be imperatively

necessary, as in certain articles of crucible steel which are rated differently from other steel.

On steel ingots, cogged ingots, blooms, and slabs made by the Bessemer, pneumatic, Thomas-Gilchrist, basic, Siemens-Martin, open hearth, or by any other process, weighing not less than five hundred pounds each, and measuring not less than five inches square or in least diameter of cross-section of the ingots, cogged ingots, or blooms, nor less than five inches in thickness nor ten inches in width of the slabs, twenty dollars per ton. *Provided*, that when made by the crucible process the rates of duty shall be the same as those fixed upon these articles of less weight and smaller dimensions.

This clause recognizes the distinction established by decisions of the Treasury Department, made, as we allege, without any authority of law, by which large steel blooms have been rendered dutiable at 45 per cent. ad valorem, instead of the rate of 2½ cents per pound, to which smaller blooms, ingots, &c., are still subject. This is one of the unjustifiable and injurious Treasury decisions, the correcting of which Congress had in view in creating the Tariff Commission, and a complete remedy would properly involve the restoration of the lawful duty of 2½ cents per pound. It has been claimed, however, that some branches of business have partially accommodated themselves to the law as ruled by the Department, and while those branches object to a radical reform they do not object to a conversion of the existing ad valorem rate into a low specific duty. This has been conceded by fixing the rate at \$20 per ton, and ingots and slabs have been included in this rate, thus making a general reduction upon these articles, and upon blooms of a defined size, of 60 per cent. upon the duties under existing laws.

On steel ingots, cogged ingots, and blooms, measuring less than five inches square or in greatest diameter of cross-section, and weighing less than five hundred pounds each, and all steel slabs measuring less than five inches thick and ten inches wide, and weighing less than five hundred pounds each; billets and bars and tapered bars, strips, or bands of all shapes, lengths, weights, and sizes; rods or bolts of all shapes and sizes not in coils; sheets of all gauges; plates and plate slabs of all thicknesses and widths; saw plates, tank plates, railroad splice-bars or fish-plates, railroad chairs, cut spikes and nails, strips, skelp, bands, hoop, scroll; steamer, crank, and other shafts, wrist or crank-pins, connecting-rods, piston-rods; unusual, irregular, plain or corrugated, pressed, or stamped shapes of sheet and plate steel or a combination of steel and iron, punched or not punched; hammer molds or swaged steel; gun-barrel molds not in bars; clock-spring steel in strips or sheets coiled or not coiled and not hardened or tempered, but when polished and hardened or tempered it shall be classed as a manufacture of steel; pen steel in coils or sheets, ax-shaped steel, alloys used as substitutes for steel tools; all descriptions and shapes of dry sand, loam, or iron-molded steel castings, valued at six cents per pound or less, two cents and one-fourth per pound; valued above six cents and not above ten cents per pound, three cents per pound; valued at above ten cents per pound, three cents and one-half per pound, and ten per cent. ad valorem.

In this clause no change has been made in rates of duty, but the lowest class of steel paying the lowest duty is limited at six cents per pound and under in value, instead of seven cents, and the highest class of steel paying the highest duty is placed above ten cents per pound, instead of eleven cents, as in the existing law, which amendments have been made as a guard, to some extent, against undervaluations. This clause is the existing provision of the law, expanded by a careful enumeration, by their commercial designations, of the articles which it has been construed to cover, and of like articles which it should cover.

We have made earnest and repeated efforts to shorten the schedule of duties on steel by the substitution of general provisions for specific enumerations, but without success. There is no short way that does not lead to trouble, and we are convinced that simplification of the tariff can only be accomplished by using words enough to make its meaning plain. It will also be found safest to adhere to language which has re-

ceived official and judicial construction, when it will serve, rather than to experiment with new phraseology the mistakes and misunderstandings of which no one can forecast. Experience shows that language which leaves anything to construction will probably be misconstrued.

It may be objected that compound duties on steel are not entirely omitted from the schedule which is now presented. There are many articles of steel the invoice value of which exceeds 10 cents per pound, sometimes amounting to 25 and 30 cents per pound and even to a higher price. No adequate specific duty on these classes of steel would be assented to, and hence it becomes necessary to add an ad valorem rate to a specific duty of more general application. We agree that compound duties should be avoided whenever possible; in this case it is not possible to avoid them. It is necessary for both revenue and protection that these duties should be imposed.

On all steel bars, rods, strips, or sheets which are cold rolled, cold hammered, or polished in any way in addition to the ordinary processes of hot rolling or hammering, one cent per pound in addition to the schedule of rates in the above paragraph.

This section provides for articles that are not named in the present tariff and which are of sufficient importance to be separately classified.

On rolled or hammered steel beams, girders, joists, angles, channels, car-truck channels, tees, columns, and posts, or parts or sections of columns or posts, and star forms, together with all other structural shapes of steel: one cent and three-fourths per pound.

In this section there is a reduction in the rate of duty of one-half of one cent per pound.

On all kinds of wheels for railway purposes, whether wholly or partially finished, and on steel locomotive, car, and other railway tires, or parts thereof, whether wholly or partially manufactured, or ingots, cogged ingots, blooms, or blanks for the same, without regard to the degree of manufacture: three cents per pound.

This section makes no change in rates of duty, but does make material improvement in phraseology.

On steel rivet, screw, nail, fence, and wire rods in coils and loops, valued at three cents and one-half per pound or less: one cent per pound; valued above three cents and one-half per pound and not above five cents per pound: one cent and three-fourths per pound; valued above five cents per pound and not above six cents per pound: two cents and one-fourth per pound; valued above six cents per pound and not above ten cents per pound: three cents per pound; valued above ten cents per pound: three cents and one-half per pound, and ten per cent. ad valorem. But rolled steel rods in coils or loops, galvanized or otherwise coated, and all descriptions of steel wire and wire of which steel is a component part of chief value, not otherwise specifically enumerated and provided for, shall pay the same duty as steel wire.

Steel-wire rods are now dutiable at 30 per cent. ad valorem, under decisions of the Treasury Department, generally admitted to be erroneous. The duty should be $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents under the law as it stands, and the effect of the decision placing it at 30 per cent. ad valorem has been to close all the rod mills in the country, and to induce importations amounting to nearly two hundred thousand tons per annum. Of the many mistaken decisions of the Department and the courts this appears to be the most flagrantly wrong and effectively injurious; to let it stand would be inconsistent with any pretense of reform. The absurdity of allowing the importation of this advanced product, made from a billet dutiable at $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound, at a rate which pays little more than one-half a cent per pound, must be manifest. The duty upon iron-wire rods is $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound, and it might be claimed that steel rods should not pay a less rate. The proposed rates will not place this article in harmony with the general schedule; they will still be far lower than the rates upon articles less and more advanced, but they have been

agreed to in the belief that, under them, many of the rod mills of the country can go into operation, and this in the end will be a benefit to consumers. Other added language in this section is intended to cover a new article of steel, rolled down almost to wire gauge, which, as an advanced and highly valuable product, should pay a higher rate of duty.

On steel screws, commonly called wood-screws, two inches or over in length: seven cents per pound; over one inch and less than two inches in length: ten cents and one-half per pound; one inch and less in length: thirteen cents per pound.

This is an improved classification, with corresponding changes in the rate of duty.

On steel railway bars, and railway bars made in part of steel: one cent per pound.

This reduction of one-fourth of one cent per pound, or \$5.60 per ton, is consented to by the manufacturers of Bessemer-steel rails mainly because of the attacks made upon the present duty by those who believe they must attack something that is prominent in the tariff lists, and who by their persistent and determined assaults have enlisted some degree of sympathy in their behalf among members of Congress.

The fact is that no one industry which has been fostered and developed by the wisdom of the tariff laws that have been in force during the past twenty-one years has been of so much service to the country at large (by which is meant our entire railway system and all who are its patrons), as the Bessemer-steel rail industry has been. Beginning only seventeen years ago with not a steel rail made in America, and foreign steel rails selling in this market at \$220 per ton, American works can now make one and a half million tons of Bessemer-steel rails per annum, and the selling price of these rails, chiefly by reason of competition among the producers in this country, is to-day \$45 per ton. Our railway system is also in a most perfect condition, and never before in its history have our railroads carried the farmer and his produce and the manufacturer and his products with the speed, comfort, safety, or cheapness that they do to-day; and this is due largely, if not entirely, to the benefits derived from the law enacted by Congress that has created and fostered the industry for the manufacture of Bessemer-steel rails in America.

We have, however, discussed this reduction of duty elsewhere, and it may be enough to say here that it has been agreed to. It is the ultimate concession, made frankly and at once, and if it should become a law time will show whether its tendencies will be to enhance or cheapen prices, and to increase or retard the production of steel rails.

On steel railway bar crop ends, none of which shall exceed eighteen inches in length; on steel ingot, cogged ingot, bloom, slab, and billet crop ends, none of which shall exceed four inches in length; on steel filings and borings and turnings, and on scrap steel of every description: eight dollars per ton. But nothing shall be deemed scrap steel except waste or refuse steel that has been in actual use, and is fit only to be remelted or remanufactured.

This section, relating to scrap steel, has been amended in its phraseology with the view of preventing frauds. The rate proposed is the same as the existing duty on wrought scrap iron, and no more than the proposed duty on pig iron.

On steel in any form not otherwise provided for: three cents per pound. Provided, however, that any article of steel substantially of the class covered by any of the foregoing paragraphs, but not specifically named therein, shall pay the highest rate of duty fixed for the class to which it belongs.

This omnibus clause is radically different from the provisions of the existing law, which have given rise to innumerable frauds and inter-

minable litigation. Articles not otherwise provided for, by the careful enumeration elsewhere set forth, are most likely to be new and advanced products, and it is essentially imprudent and illogical to admit them at lower than the lowest rate of specific duty. The enormous labors in adjudicating controversies, complained of by the Treasury Department, result mainly from the mistaken idea of the framers of the law, that unenumerated articles must be of inferior quality and value, and should have imposed upon them but 20 or 30 per cent. rates of duty. It is this which inspires the importers' imagination to flights of fraudulent nomenclature, in which familiar things are no longer familiar, but have lost their old names, and

"have suffered a sea change
Into something new and strange."

On all manufactures of steel, or of which steel shall be the component material or part of chief value, embracing machines and parts of machines, tools, wares, utensils, and vessels, whether wholly or partially manufactured or finished, not otherwise provided for: forty-five per cent. ad valorem.

This final clause is the existing provision in relation to manufactures of steel which necessarily bear an ad valorem rate.

On all iron or steel, and on all manufactures, wares, utensils, vessels, and articles of iron or steel, or of which such metals or either of them shall be the component part of chief value, whether wholly or partially manufactured, there shall be levied, collected, and paid no less rate of duty than the highest duty or rate of duty imposed upon any part of said goods in any of the forms in which it or they existed prior to or during their passage into the form or article on which the duty is to be levied. This shall not apply to, nor in any manner affect, the articles specifically enumerated in this schedule by their commercial designation, but shall only apply to the articles designated in this schedule as manufactures of iron or steel or of which iron or steel shall be the component material or part of chief value not otherwise provided for.

The above provision, which is equally applicable to iron and steel, is best known as the McKinley bill, a measure which has received much consideration, and is generally approved. The objections made to it when offered as an amendment to the existing schedule of tariff duties do not apply to it when made a part of the revised schedule herein set forth, and under it there will be no room for such mistaken or willful misinterpretations as have reduced the existing law to a maze of contradictions and absurdities.

Concerning the above proposed schedule of duties on steel and the manufactures thereof, as a whole, we can say that we have nothing in reserve. There are no alternative propositions to suggest. We have ourselves considered every question of reduction of rates heretofore suggested or discussed in Congress or elsewhere, and have conceded a reduction wherever it is practicable, and to the extent that may be regarded as safe. We have not dealt in a huckstering spirit, or proposed one thing when we expected to accept another. In the convention which adopted the proposed schedule the ore producers and all branches of our iron and steel industries were fully represented, and its unanimous recommendations should need no further argument. We interpret the spirit of its action rightly in saying that the manufacturers of iron and steel prefer a consistent, equable, and stable schedule of fairly protective duties, under which they and their armies of workmen can live and labor in peace, to higher rates which invite perpetual assaults upon their property and livelihood. Having prayed for the creation of the Tariff Commission, they put their case before it with the confidence that it will receive friendly and wise consideration. For the first time in the history of our country the government submits its own laws, and the great interests affected by them, to a tribunal into which political par-

tisanship cannot enter, nor hostile foreign influences insinuate themselves; which will consider only the best means of promoting American industries by according to each and all an adequate and equitable protection.

Dealing thus frankly, we shall be pleased to give to the Commission such further information and aid as may be in our power, and shall be grateful to have notice of any proposed changes in rates or phraseology which the Commission may be disposed to recommend, and we solicit a further hearing should it appear to be beneficial or necessary.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. I am very much interested in that part of your statement which looks to a simplification of the tariff, and I would like to ask you if it is not a very desirable thing that in a revision of the tariff it may be so made that it can be understood not only by the courts and the custom-house officers, but by the people who are to be affected by it?—Answer. Yes, sir; that is a consummation most devoutly to be wished.

Q. In regard to this subject of compound duties, is it not the fact that to the ordinary mind not acquainted with the modes of procedure in the custom-houses or in the manufacture of any particular article it is very difficult to understand the percentage of tariff that is fixed on any article having a compound rate?—A. I think it is.

Q. Then would it not be desirable to have a specific duty which would arrive at the same result that is sought to be obtained by the compound duty, so that the matter could be easily understood?—A. Unquestionably, where that can be done. All ad valorem duties should be abolished and specific duties substituted wherever it is possible. I think the perplexities are less where there is a compound duty, however, than where there is a wholly ad valorem duty.

Q. You have stated that the effect of the tariff levied upon steel rails has been to reduce the charge for transportation to the country?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Now let us take an example: You are aware perhaps that recently the railroads formed a combination and put an additional tariff rate of 24 cents a hundred pounds upon all articles transported between Saint Louis, Montgomery, Selma, Atlanta, Ga., and other places; do you think that is in the line of a reduction?—A. The question as to what we can do towards regulating the rates of transportation, I must admit is a most difficult matter, although I have my theories on that subject.

Q. But you stated as a fact that it had reduced the rates of transportation?—A. Yes, sir; broadly on the average.

Q. Is it not a fact that the great majority of railroads have been replacing their iron rails with steel rails quite recently?—A. That has been going on for the last 14 years. The leading trunk lines have been using steel rails since that time. I know some of the iron rail mills have been idle for a considerable while. The main tracks of these railroads at least have been laid with steel rails for a number of years.

Q. Do you regard this additional charge of 24 cents a hundred pounds, that I have spoken of, as in the line of a reduction on freight?—A. No, sir; I think they need competition at those points.

Q. But you stated that the general tendency had been to reduce the cost of transportation?—A. Yes, sir; and I state it broadly in regard to all the railroads of the country. Of course, there are exceptional instances and places where the rates are put too high. But in such cases they probably need more competition.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. I only mentioned this instance; it is not confined to those places entirely.

The WITNESS. I suppose that the railroads understand their business pretty well and manage it better than I could, or any other class of people could, and in the main I believe that they will have to manage it with fairness. There will be exceptional cases, but that will all be regulated in the course of time. Of course, I agree that railroads may make temporarily such combinations, but I do not feel competent to criticise their action.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Your statement refers merely to the trunk lines?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And you know it to be a fact, do you, that the rates of transportation on those trunk lines have been reduced during the time mentioned?

—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You have stated that the change proposed will make a reduction of 60 per cent.; please explain that.—A. That reduction of duty has been limited and affects only railway blooms and that clause in the act. Ingots and slabs, of course, stand as they did. There was no use allowing such a flagrant absurdity to remain as in the present tariff where a less rate of duty is put on the bloom, which is an advanced product, than on the raw material. The calculation of 45 per cent. ad valorem is made on the present specific rate.

Q. In referring to the fact that the consumers of steel rails have not made any protest against the duty, you mean I suppose the railroad companies, and not those who travel on the railroads, because we have many complaints from them?—A. I mean the purchasers of the rails; I say that they would be sorry to see the price of rails go down too low.

Q. Why would they?—A. Because I do not think they would like to see the producer of rails embarrassed, since the production of rails in this country has been of enormous benefit to them. Last year the Cambria Iron Mills consumed ore from eleven different States, and American ore is being gathered up all over the United States. The search has been going on with great activity, and with great desire to find supplies of Bessemer ore. In the South they have made some explorations, but have not met with much success; yet I think we have the ores there.

Q. And this makes business for the railroads?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is it not a fact that some of the railroads which formerly used English steel rails now use American steel rails?—A. Yes, sir; there is no question that the prejudice in favor of English rails has almost entirely disappeared. It is recognized as a fact that American rails are as good as can be made anywhere. The result is that it has brought science into the manufacturing business, which was never the case before; as the object is to make the best possible rails, and there is not any part of the process of manufacture which is not done under the eye of a chemist, and you have his analysis of the materials all the way from the ore down to the finished rail.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Is the definition of steel, as recommended by the convention, regarded as the best scientific one that could be obtained?—A. Yes, sir; I think our definition will be indorsed by the highest scientific authority as including everything which a definition ought to include, and excluding everything which ought not to be in it; and at the same time covering the purpose of grouping under different rates of duty all these different processes.

Q. Has it been subjected to a scientific examination?—A. I understand so.

Q. And it is intended to be a permanent description, based upon the latest scientific knowledge on the subject?—A. Yes, sir; I so understand it.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. It was announced by the gentleman who preceded you that a reduction of duties tended to increase the price of the article to the consumer. Do you agree to that proposition?—A. Yes, sir; generally I think it is true, and I think there are marked instances of it. I think the reduction of duty on pig iron has increased the price to the consumers. The reduction, when it was made, of \$2 a ton led every one to believe that it would reduce the cost to the consumer. It did have that affect at the time it was taken off, but the price went up afterwards more than 100 per cent.; it went up from \$30 to \$60. I think it was solely because of the embarrassments of the American producers.

Q. Is your belief on that subject based on considerations of political economy, or on isolated facts, influenced more or less by trade and commerce?—A. My belief is this, that it is entirely unjustifiable to enforce a duty except for revenue, unless it will reduce the cost to the consumer; in other words, I do not think it is justifiable to impose a duty in excess of the requirements of the revenue, except in cases where it will cheapen the commodity and reduce the cost to the consumer.

In regard to the matter of phraseology, I will say that our efforts have been to simplify by shortening the tariff schedule. I have labored with the most intelligent men whom I know in the iron and steel business—gentlemen who have had the largest experience in questions arising under the tariff, and in questions made by the examiners, and at Washington, to try to see if we could not get rid of these long schedules which seem to be cumbersome, and which have always been unsatisfactory in results. It has been the hope of those interested in the tariff question that it might be taken out of political controversy and that Congress would take such steps as would make the tariff permanent. I do not think anybody has come before you complaining that their business is bad, or that the country in the main is not prosperous. We attribute that largely to the legislation of the government in regard to the tariff. We cannot believe anything else here in Pennsylvania, and we are not divided politically on the subject. For many years the country was convulsed with a civil war, and afterwards its attention was occupied so much with politics that it has hardly had time to have its attention turned to these industrial subjects. There have been two formidable attacks, destructive in their character, made on the tariff law—one known as the Morrison bill, and the other known as the Wood bill. Under all these circumstances, however, the tariff has achieved a great deal; but it has not had fair, impartial consideration up to the present time. Money is now at a low rate of interest, and capital will be seeking investment. It is an easy thing to destroy a manufacturing industry. The discussion of tariff matters in Congress casts a shadow all over the land, and sends a blight over the seats of industry. If we can have stability, and the assurance that there will be no radical changes, it will have a great effect towards continuing the present rapid development of all our natural resources. The South has not had any of the advantages of protection up to this time, and we believe that the people of the South should have an opportunity of entering into the industrial life of the world and displaying in the arts of peace as much

inventive genius and courage as they certainly displayed in the art of war. This, it seems to me, ought to be the wish of every true patriot. As a part of our financial system, protective duties have always been found to be the best system of revenue. Tariffs for revenue alone have always resulted in bankruptcy to the Treasury; whereas tariffs with moderate protection have always resulted in large revenue and in the rapid paying off of our national debt. If the country is to be relieved from the burden of internal taxation, which we all hope for, a system of taxation originating with the war, and which should not be maintained any longer than possible, it seems to me that we must maintain the tariff, and so far as any assault is made on the tariff system now it must be with the idea of maintaining internal-revenue duties. At the close of the war we had a revenue reform party in this country (or free traders, as they might call themselves), and they were furnished by Mr. David A. Wells with a statement that the tariff was a tax upon everything we imported, or did not import. Therefore they wished to put a tariff only upon things that we did not produce in this country at all. They submitted a revenue tariff from which they proposed to raise \$60,000,000 by duty on tea and coffee and a few other articles, and they advocated the retention of the income tax. The turning point of that struggle was the repeal of the tax on tea and coffee. After that was accomplished the whole line of protective duties was measurably safe, and that was owing in a large part to a Pennsylvania Democrat. If it had not been for Mr. Randall I think we should have had difficulty in repealing the duties on tea and coffee. It was a wise, patriotic, and statesmanlike act on his part, and I am glad to give him the credit for it. We have now a redundancy of revenue; shall we maintain the internal revenue and throw over the tariff? When it is presented as an alternative, I think we shall have but little difficulty in deciding which to do.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. An effort to simplify the tariff too much will tend to make confusion, you think?—A. Yes, sir. The effort to dispense with an enumeration or definition of articles and a substitution of general and sweeping clauses, will invariably end in confusion. Reiteration is better, even, than too general clauses.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. You have given the credit of the movement towards a permanent protective tariff to Mr. Randall; did not the Industrial League of Philadelphia come in and give him assistance?—A. The League did all the popular agitation on the subject; but Mr. Randall did the work of legislation in the House of Representatives, seconded by Senator Scott, who was in the Senate.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Owing to the fact that Mr. Swank did not include the element of transportation in his report for the census, that matter has been greatly misconstrued even in Congress. Can you, or any of your colleagues, give us these facts: what proportion of the cost of Bessemer steel rails represents transportation, what proportion represents labor, and what proportion the raw material?—A. I will try and furnish that information.

Mr. WILLIAM METCALF, of Pittsburgh, representing the manufacturers of crucible steel, said :

In bringing this subject of crucible steel to your notice, I have to speak of the most delicate, the most difficult, and the most expensive of all of the iron and steel processes known. It is a process which requires the largest outlay of capital, and produces the smallest proportionate product; which requires the greatest skill and the most persistent care on the part of the workman in every operation, and which therefore employs the most capable workmen and pays the highest prices for labor, I think, of all the manufacturers of iron and steel. Yet this crucible steel enters more largely into the needs of every individual than the ordinary forms of iron.

Twenty-two years ago there was none of this steel made in the United States. To-day we defy competition in quality with the English or foreign crucible steel. But we do require protection against foreign competition, both in the matter of cheap material and cheap labor. When the manufacture of steel was first commenced here in 1859, we were without skill among ourselves, without knowledge, scientific or practical. Some of our more courageous and energetic capitalists built steel works in 1859 and 1860 and started this manufacture. When the present tariff was formed, the crucible steel makers were protected by the tariff almost exactly the same as we suggest to you now to propose to Congress. We have proposed one or two reductions in the rate of duty, and in one instance have recommended an increase, for which I will give you a good reason presently. We ask that this tariff be maintained to-day, just as it was originally, as a mere protection to the capital and the labor employed in it—to the highly skilled labor we employ. For the first eight or ten years, during the infancy of this manufacture, we had the double duty of the high premium on gold, which gave us all the protection necessary to enable us to develop the business and make it a success. But now that we have got back to a gold basis, taking the duty on crucible steel as compared with the duties on iron and other manufactures, we think it is reasonable and moderate, and should not be reduced.

The question has been asked of nearly every gentleman who has come before you to-day, as to the effect of a high tariff upon the consumer. I would like to give you a few instances to illustrate that point, although I could go over the records and occupy your time for an hour in a similar manner.

I will give only a few cases, which will illustrate all. Take the subject of ax steel alone. Before ax steel was manufactured in this country at all, and when it was all imported, it was never known to sell in any case at a price less than 15 to 17 cents a pound. To-day it is sold at the average price of 10 to 11 cents a pound, of just as good quality; not only the American steel, but also the foreign imported steel of the same quality made before. As there is something over a thousand tons of ax steel consumed in this country every year, that causes a reduction to the consumer of between \$140,000 and \$150,000 a year; and it is safe to say that home competition has carried the reduction clear down, so that the farmer and the wood chopper get the benefit.

Another kind of steel called section steel, of which the little knives in the mowing machines are made, until a few years ago was all imported, and ranged in price from 15 to 17 cents a pound. Within the last few years our home manufacturers have learned how to make quite

as good and satisfactory an article as any imported, and, as a result, the price is now less than 10 cents a pound. That makes a reduction on that one item alone (about 1,500 tons being used annually in this country) of \$150,000 a year. And it is safe to assume, again, that the competition among the mowing and reaping machine manufacturers has enabled them to reduce the price on their machines, and the farmer gets the benefit of that reduction.

Until 1876 there was no cold-rolled steel made in this country, which is largely used in clock springs, watch springs, corset clasps, shoe shanks, sewing machines, &c. In the item of shoe shanks we consume 2,000 tons of that steel in this country annually; and for the manufacture of ladies' corsets we consume over 1,200 tons a year of it. In 1876 that was all imported, the cheapest grade being about 13½ cents a pound. The building of one mill in this country, and only one, protected by the tariff, reduced the price of that foreign steel to 8½ cents a pound—a reduction of five cents a pound—making to just four corset manufacturers in the city of New York a reduction of \$100,000 a year, and undoubtedly the ladies got the benefit of that reduction, as the farmers did in the other cases. The English manufacturers have brought the price of that steel down as low as they can make it with their cheap labor and pay the duty, and if we reduce the tariff and that one mill has to stop, the foreign manufacturers will be shrewd enough to come together, and do as the railroad men do, put on as high a price as the "traffic will bear," and we will have to pay it. And so I could go through the records and give you hundreds of such illustrations of what has been the effect of the growth of the crucible-steel industry in this country. Take the item of needles. Although the manufacture of steel for needle wire has only been going on here a year or two, it has reduced the price 30 to 40 per cent. I think these reasons are sufficient, however, to show why we believe that a good, high protective tariff does not increase the cost of articles to the consumer, and all this has been done right in the face of foreign competition.

Now we have a double competition to contend against. I have said that this steel requires the finest material made in order to produce the higher qualities. I believe that in the higher grades of this steel the chemical standard is adhered to more closely than even the government adheres to its gold and silver standard. Iron that contains two one-hundredths of one per cent. of phosphorus may be worth \$65 a ton, while that same iron, if it can be reduced to one hundredth of one per cent. of phosphorus, is worth \$100 to \$150 a ton, put into steel. That very small percentage of phosphorus has its effect on the quality of the steel. The finest irons for steel purposes made in the world are yet made in Sweden. They pay a high duty, to which we do not object. But when the English manufacturer buys, as he has bought for a hundred years, the whole product of the finest mines in the world, and tries to shut the rest of the world out, and imports that iron into Sheffield at a price less than we have to pay by at least our duty, and makes it into steel and sends it here, we have to compete against his cheap labor and his cheap iron also. We do not ask for a reduction on the iron. We have in some of our States ores quite as good as Sweden produces, and under the protection we have for our iron manufacturers I believe that within two years we shall not import one ton of that very high-priced iron to this country, although a gentleman in Sweden has lately written us that he could offer us several hundred tons of iron at \$150 a ton laid down in New York, and advised us to purchase quickly while we could get it. For some purposes we use that material yet, though we largely use Ameri-

can iron; and within two or three years we shall probably use American products exclusively.

I do not know that I have much more to say. I fear you are wearied, and it is hardly worth while to repeat over and over what has been said. But I will say one word in reply to Mr. Elder. He intimated to you that there were some rates on the low-grade Bessemer and open-hearth tariffs which might be reduced if it was not necessary to keep a high classification on crucible steel. I will simply say to Mr. Elder that if they wish to separate the crucible steel from the Bessemer and open-hearth rates, we are entirely willing. We are consumers of Bessemer steel and are willing to recommend it if they are.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. Please state how such a separation could be made; have you any suggestion to make in that direction?—Answer. It could be made by name, if necessary. Those materials ought not to pay a high crucible steel duty, and they do not under the present progressive schedule. We ask, as a new section, that "on all steel bars, rods, strips, or sheets, which are cold-rolled, cold-hammered, or polished in any way in addition to the ordinary processes of hot rolling or hammering, the duty shall be one cent per pound in addition to the above rates." The reason is this: We are manufacturing watch mainspring steel. Yesterday I had some gentlemen at our works, and gave them some samples six one-thousandths of an inch thick, but the inspector said the order called for seven one-thousandths of an inch, and that one-thousandth of an inch would be fatal to the watchmaker. They require 150 pounds of that steel a week, and it takes a large force to get it out, and if it varies so much as a thousandth part of an inch it is a loss.

In cold-hammered steel rods there has been a reduction to all the users of those fine steels of 30 to 40 per cent. They are hammered down to four hundredths of an inch in diameter, and every bar coming to the inspector must be within one-quarter of one thousandth of an inch of the size called for in his list; they are used by clock makers, &c., for fine work. They are not protected, because all this cold work is done on the steel after the ordinary manufacture has been gone through with in bar steel.

One other matter and I will close. The most important thing I believe you gentlemen have before you in connection with the iron and steel tariff is this question of classification between iron and steel. There is a general provision proposed as follows:

That all metal, without regard to the percentage of carbon contained therein, whether produced by cementation, or converted, cast, or made from iron or its ores by the crucible, Bessemer, pneumatic, Thomas-Gilchrist, basic, Siemens-Martin, or open-hearth process, or by the equivalent of either, or by the combination of two or more of these processes, or their equivalents, or by any fusion or other process which produces, from iron or its ores, a metal either granular or fibrous in structure which is cast and malleable, of whatever description or form, excepting what is known as malleable iron castings, shall be classed and denominated as steel.

This is a subject which has agitated the manufacturers, the custom-house officers, the Treasury chemists, and the scientific world for the last ten years. An international-commission was appointed at a meeting of engineers in the centennial year, composed of the ablest metallurgists in the world. But the foreign members shrewdly got up a classification which would let in, under our tariff laws, all this kind of steel as iron, and they have used that with good effect ever since; and you can get chemists and scientists of all sorts, as well as blacksmiths, to come in and say that this mild steel is iron. That is why the tariff

is in such unutterable confusion in regard to that question. Now if, on the other hand, you will take the trouble to examine the writings of I. Lowthian Bell, C. W. Siemens, Henry Bessemer, and other great metallurgists, inventors, and manufacturers of Europe, you will find that they invariably call it steel. Go into the markets among our New England manufacturers who order this material, and you will see that it is used for cloth plates for sewing machines, and can be made as smooth as a mirror. It is also used for stamping out the base of plated silverware for spoons, forks, knives, &c., where they cannot get such a surface on iron. They use it because it is so much stronger and better than the old cheap white metal. It is used all over New England for all sorts of purposes. In fact, all over the country they buy this as steel, call it steel, and pay for it as steel. All over the world this material has been known as steel. It is only your chemist and your book-reader who will say that it is not steel. A chemist of the Treasury Department who analyzed a sample and found .30 per cent. of carbon, said it was iron. Another one who examined another found .25 per cent. of it carbon, and he said it was iron; and another one who examined the sample, and found .26 per cent. carbon, said it was steel. No two agree. Yet at the same time we had Swedish bar iron lying on the desk at a trial in Boston, some containing no carbon, and others containing .75 per cent. of carbon, and nobody questioned whether it was iron or not. It was hammered Swedish bar iron. The mode of manufacture has always been a distinct mode of determining what the product was in giving it a name. This classification simply means that all the products of the Bessemer converter and all products of open-hearth furnaces shall be classed as steel, because they have always been known as that. There is no possible division between the steel and iron when you come to the mere chemical test of low carbon steel and iron.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. What do you suggest in regard to that classification, so as to simplify it?—A. I think there is a classification which is simpler and quite as complete, which was adopted by the American Institute of Mining Engineers in New York, in 1877, as the true commercial classification. I have not got it here with me to-day.

Q. Will you furnish it to us?—A. Yes, sir. It begins with iron and carries it through all its forms in a tabulated statement.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. All the manufacturers, I understand, have agreed to the classification you present?—A. Yes, sir. It is only chemists and theorists who differ on the subject.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. You ask for no reduction on the raw material; why not?—A. Because as long as there is a high rate of tariff on it, and a high price on it, it is an inducement to American manufacturers to appreciate that trade, and within two or three years we shall produce that iron in our own country, not only as good as the Swedes produce, but by better processes. These Swedes do not pay more than \$50 a ton for making the \$150 iron.

Q. About what do they pay per day for labor?—A. You take the skilled laborer there and he gets from \$1.25 to \$1.50 a day and forage for a cow or pig.

Q. What do they pay common laborers?—A. About 25 cents a day;

in other words, a dollar of Swedish money, which is equal to about 26 cents of our money. At least that was the fact when I was over there in 1872.

Q. Do you unite in the recommendation of your committee in regard to the classification?—A. Yes, sir. It covers the ground, as I say. I think the classification adopted by the mining engineers is simpler, however.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. You spoke of the difference in wages in Sweden and the United States. Have you ever looked into the purchasing power of money at home and abroad?—A. Not largely, except that I have read the consular reports published by the State Department.

Q. But you have not made any actual investigation for yourself?—A. I made some inquiries in Sweden in 1872. The laborers there do not have the food that our laborers live on. They live on oat meal almost exclusively. Their dollar of 26 cents is worth just about as much to them as our dollar is worth to our laborer, considering the way they live. But if you go to a Swedish city and live at a hotel and live as you would at home you would pay quite as much as you do here for good living. The laborers seldom eat meat; they live on oat-cake and barley. The skilled men are generally furnished with a cow or pig and a garden patch, and the purchasing power in that scale of living is about equal to the purchasing power of the wages paid here. The laborers of Sweden are an intelligent set of men, and are contented with their condition, so far as I could see, yet they come to America by hundreds and thousands, although they are as free, politically, there as here. I saw crops rotting on the ground for want of men to harvest them, and was told that emigration to America was depopulating the country. They make first-class citizens in America and are excellent workmen.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. What definition can you recommend which would enable the custom-house examiner to distinguish those different grades of steel? Would he need an assay?—A. No, sir; he simply wants to know whether it is made in an open-hearth furnace or Bessemer converter, or crucible, or not.

Q. How can he tell?—A. You can have the consul's certificate for one thing, and I say the method of manufacture is the proper mode of classification.

Q. Can an expert determine from an examination of a bar of steel, for example, whether it has been made by either one of these processes named?—A. Probably a few men in this country, who are great experts, could do so; ordinary experts could not. The chemist even cannot determine it. In chemistry the tests of the two materials are so nearly allied that it is impossible to make the distinction; and that is the reason why the classification should be made by the mode of manufacture. That wipes out all the difficulty. You never have the question raised between the steel buyer and seller. It is only when you get to the custom-house that there is any trouble.

Q. And there the question only arises when steel is entered as iron?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Of what practical use, then, are these distinctions to the examiner?—A. I understand that the government has the power in some way to compel people to state under oath the mode of manufacture. Of course they can perjure themselves if they desire. But the object is to deter-

mine these questions by the mode of manufacture, and there is a simple way of finding it out, for any consul of ordinary intelligence could soon get the necessary information in any case in question. As the tariff now stands, no man living can tell whether a certain article should be classed as iron or steel.

Q. Would that be a definition capable of being determined by chemical or mechanical means?—A. No, sir.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Is it not a fact that there is nothing so difficult to determine as iron or steel by inspection?—A. Yes, sir. When you come to the low grade of carbon it is. In high steel there is no question; the structure there is so distinct that any novice in the business almost could tell the difference. It is in regard to the low Bessemer and open-hearth steel that the difficulty arises, and also in low carbon crucible steel. You can determine by polishing it, because you cannot get the polish on iron that you can get on steel. By the term "low" here, I mean a low percentage of carbon as distinguished from a high percentage of carbon, and not low in the sense of useful qualities.

The classification asked for here is the same in meaning as that that was adopted as the correct commercial classification by the American Institute of Mining Engineers, in 1877, after a long and exhausting discussion, and it has never been questioned since. The American Institute of Mining Engineers is the largest and most influential scientific body in the country.

OCTOBER 11, 1882.

Mr. JOSEPH D. WEEKS, of Pittsburgh, said:

As secretary of the Western Iron Association and various other iron organizations, I have had considerable experience within the last three years in regard to the determination of questions before the Treasury Department involving the construction of tariff laws; and at the suggestion of a member of your Commission I propose making a statement as to what my experience has shown me to be necessary in these matters. I wish to speak especially on two points, one as to the form of the law and the other as to its interpretation.

I have found, as has already been stated to you by Judge French in his testimony and by a number of gentlemen who have appeared before you in connection with the duties on iron and steel, that after a tariff law has been framed the great difficulty has been to get that law administered according to what we believe was the intent and meaning of Congress in passing it. Now it seems to me that it makes no difference what the intention of Congress was in passing the tariff law—whether it intended it should be for revenue only, for revenue with incidental protection, or for revenue with a decided determination to give protection. There is one principle which should run through that law constantly, and which applies to all taxation where it is levied in accordance with value, and applies to all tariff laws that have ever been or can be passed. Whatever, as I say, may be the object designed, this principle should always be followed—that the more labor there is in any article the greater duty it should pay; that is the general principle, with exceptions of course. But we find that the contrary course has been pursued, not only in one case but in scores of cases. Take, for instance, the article of cotton ties. When the present tariff law was

drawn up there is not the least doubt in the world that the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives meant that the duty on cotton ties should be the same as the duty on hoop iron, and there is no doubt in the world that they thought they had covered cotton ties in the provision for hoop iron. When some of the gentlemen connected with the iron business appeared before the Ways and Means Committee and urged them to put cotton ties specially into that tariff, they said that nobody but a fool would ever dream of bringing in cotton ties made out of hoop iron at a less rate of duty than was put on hoop iron. The same in regard to wire rods. There is no doubt in the world that the provision in the tariff for steel in coils was intended by the Ways and Means Committee to cover steel wire rods. The gentleman who drew up that provision was here yesterday, and in putting it in that form he absolutely meant, without any question, and the Ways and Means Committee so understood it, that it should cover the article of steel wire rods.

In regard to hoop iron cut to the length referred to by Assistant Secretary French: A piece of hoop iron is taken and cut six or seven feet long, large enough to put it around a barrel, and has a hole punched in one end. It was claimed that it then ceased to be hoop iron. Take the case of shingles. An American invented a machine to make shingles out of sheet iron, and began to get considerable business. He erected his machines at Scottdale, a few miles up the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, and continued there for a time, but he found he could take his machinery to England, take the sheet iron there and stamp it into the form necessary for shingles, bring it in here and law it down at less than he could get the sheet iron here for to day. I could give you scores of cases, not only in connection with iron, but in connection with wool and woolen goods, with cotton goods and silk goods, and a great many articles in which, simply because more work is put upon it, it is claimed that it shall come in at a less rate of duty, thereby violating the fundamental principle of all tariff laws, as I claim.

We come to you and ask that there shall be such a provision put into this tariff law as shall expressly make that principle a part of the law of the land, or in other words that there shall be a provision in this law which shall declare that no article made out of iron, steel, or any other material shall come in at a less rate of duty than the material out of which it is made. That seems to be fair and just. We have talked with manufacturers in England on this subject, and, whatever might be their other views, they have never contended that that was not a perfectly fair and just proposition. Mr. Morrison of Illinois, a very prominent candidate for the Democratic nomination for the Presidency, but a man not known at all as a protectionist, confessed to me that the principle of what was known as the McKinley bill was the proper one, but took exceptions to it because he said he wanted to bring the whole tariff list down, and therefore was not in favor of that bill. I do not think I need enlarge on this point more than to simply ask you to see that there is some provision made so that an article on which there has been more work bestowed shall pay a higher rate of duty than on the material out of which that article is made.

There is another difficulty in regard to the administration of the present tariff law, and that is in connection with what is known as the "similitude clause" of the tariff laws. I need not refer to it any further than to say that in effect that clause enacts that all articles not enumerated, or non-enumerated articles of the tariff similar to the articles enumerated, shall pay the same rate of duty as the enumerated

articles. Now, as I understand that clause, it was the deliberate intention of Congress that no article should come in under the "not otherwise provided for" clause at a less rate of duty than was placed upon other articles of a like character. But the Treasury Department and the courts have ruled that there is no non-enumerated article in the tariff; that the word "non-enumerated" is intended to cover not only articles mentioned by their specific name, but also all articles not otherwise provided for; that they are also unenumerated articles. If that is so, that similitude clause amounts to nothing. There are no non-enumerated articles because there is a provision which covers all things. If that similitude clause is re-enacted, it seems to me there should be some phraseology adopted that would expressly indicate what the intention of the Commission is; whether it is intended that that should apply to the articles named by their commercial designation, or whether it is to apply to all articles in the tariff within the not otherwise provided for clauses.

Now as to the interpretation of the law. I have paid a great deal of attention to this subject, and it is a vexed question. The letter which Judge French presented to you, addressed by Judge Richardson of the Court of Claims to Senator Sherman, advocating the establishment of a customs court, was written originally to me by Judge Richardson, and a copy furnished by me to him which he sent to Secretary Sherman. I confess I am not fully decided as to what method I would specifically recommend to the Commission, or as to what tribunal should be established, or before whom these cases should come for decision. But there are one or two principles that it seems to me should be incorporated into any plan which may be adopted. As I understand the tariff law, there are three parties to it: first, the government, which represents the entire people; second, the importer, who proposes to bring into the country goods; and third, the manufacturer, whom the law aims to protect. The government represents the people at large; and outside of that there are two special classes interested in the proper interpretation of the tariff law: first, the importer, and, secondly, the manufacturer. Two of these classes have standing before the court under this law; one has no standing. The government can bring suit, the importer can bring suit, but the manufacturer must stand by and bite his thumbs. He has no standing in any way, manner, or shape as a right under the tariff law. I am free to confess that the Treasury Department, as a matter of courtesy, whenever a question has been before it, has always accorded to the manufacturer a hearing. But as a right we have no standing anywhere, and where we feel sure that goods are brought into this country at less rates of duty than they should be there is nobody who can hear our statements unless they choose to. The Treasury Department as a matter of courtesy may, but not as a matter of right. Now, if this tariff is a tariff for protection; if, in addition to what is necessary for the revenue, you choose to add something for the protection of the American manufacturer and his workmen, then it seems to me they should have some standing when a case comes up in court so that they can see that the provisions of the law which affect them are carried out. I was a witness in a case in Philadelphia a short time ago which involved the duty on hoop iron. A number of gentlemen interested in having a proper duty put on hoop iron went down to Philadelphia as witnesses and gave their testimony in that case on behalf of the United States government, and I found that one of the first and last questions that was asked was, "Are you not interested in this matter?" They didn't ask the importer that question, whether he

was interested or not, but they would say to us, "Are you a manufacturer?" "Yes." "Then you are interested in this case?" "Yes." They knew what effect that would have on the jury. It seems to me that the manufacturer should have a chance to go there as a matter of right, and not be subject to this discrimination.

At the present time, under the method adopted of appeal and protest from the custom-house, cases are sent to the Treasury Department, and a hearing there if thought best is given. In that case the manufacturers have some opportunity of presenting their case in a proper manner. These questions which are involved in the determination of the tariff are not alone questions of the construction of the law, but they are questions which involve the niceties of manufacture, in which men who have determined these matters for years confess themselves absolutely in doubt and unable to understand the details. We had a case before the Treasury Department in Washington in regard to the duty on iron car-truck channels. We went before the Treasury Department and had drawings made, and had men there to explain to the Secretary as well as they could what a car-truck channel was. I had taken the precaution before the hearing to telegraph to Philadelphia for a piece of car-truck channel to be sent to me, so that I could lay it before the Treasury Department. When the hearing was nearly through with, this piece of car-truck channel was brought in and laid on the table, and I found that Judge French and Secretary Windom had no idea of what a car-truck channel was, notwithstanding all this description; they had not the remotest idea of it, and were totally at fault as to what it was. Judge French came out here to Pittsburgh and saw some of the operations of our iron-rolling mills, and although he had been deciding on questions regarding the duty on steel blooms for years, yet he confessed that he had not the most remote idea of what they were until he came here. He really had the impression that Bessemer steel was simply a crude form of crucible steel—an utterly different thing in its entire method of manufacture. He thought this Bessemer steel was refined and made crucible steel. Now, whatever tribunal you shall recommend as being the proper tribunal to decide these questions, it seems to me that that tribunal should not be made up of lawyers entirely for judges, or made up of lawyers in part and importers in part, with no other representation. It seems to me that in any recommendation you shall make on the subject there shall be a provision that the manufacturers may also have part in any such tribunal as being men skilled in the various branches of manufacture; so that if it was a case involving the duties on wool, some one skilled in regard to woolen manufacture should be on that tribunal; if it was a case involving the duties on iron and steel, somebody skilled in the iron and steel industry should be a member of that tribunal; and it seems also to me that that tribunal should not always meet in New York City. The almost entire interest of New York in the tariff law is in connection with the importing interest, and the surroundings of a tribunal of that sort would have a good deal to do with its decisions. In the minds of the protectionists a New York jury does not stand very high. I have not any particular tribunal to recommend, but, as I have said, whatever tribunal you think proper to recommend, I think the manufacturers should have some standing upon the tribunal, or before it, and a right to bring cases before it in the presentation of a *prima facie* case, or some method should be taken by which the manufacturers of this country can have a legal standing before the customs law.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. Assistant Secretary French suggested the establishment of a customs court to decide questions arising between the importers and the government. What is your idea, in case such a court should be established, of having one or more members upon it who are experts in manufactures; how would it be to have such a court to decide these questions between the United States and the manufacturers?—

Answer. My idea about that would be this: If it was a permanent court with a small number of manufacturers represented in it, I do not believe there is a manufacturer in this country who could be obtained as one of its judges who would consider himself an expert on all the different schedules of the tariff, or who would be willing to be so regarded. For example, a man skilled in the manufacture of wool might be an utter child in the matter of iron; or he might be able to pass on cases involving all textile fabrics, but not upon the manufactures of iron.

Q. Then it would be impossible to have a court of that kind unless it was formed of a great many members representing all the various industries of the country. So that possibly the best solution of the difficulty would be the establishment of a department of industry.—A. Yes, sir; I would be strongly in favor of the establishment of a department of industry.

Q. And to have certain bureaus of that department have charge of the leading industries of the country?—A. Yes, sir. I would like to say a word upon that subject. The great consumers of agriculture in this country are the manufacturers. The value of manufacturing products in this country is greatly in excess of the value of agricultural products. We have also in trade and transportation a large industry in this country. There are bureaus in connection with the government to day that have partial charge of these matters. There is the Bureau of Statistics, under charge of Mr. Nimmo, and the Department of Agriculture, under charge of Mr. Loring; but whenever the government wants to get any information concerning manufactures, they have to go to work in a haphazard way and take up the statistics wherever they can find them. In other words, there is no department for the collection and arrangement of the statistics of manufactures in this country; the nearest approach to it being the Census Office. I do not believe in a department of agriculture, or a department of trade and transportation, or a department of manufactures; but I do believe in a department of industry that shall fulfill in this country something of the functions that are performed by the English Board of Trade. Congress has been and is constantly legislating in regard to the manufactures of the country; and we have not got any department or officer of this government charged with collecting the facts in regard to manufactures, to present them to Congress whenever they may want them. During the last session of Congress the Treasury Department was requested by resolution to give certain facts regarding wages paid in this country, and they were not able to find them in the department, and had to go to work and hunt them up from the best available sources.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. From your experience with the Treasury Department at Washington in trying to settle Treasury decisions, what would be your suggestion of a better way of quickly settling controverted cases?—A. As I said at the beginning of my remarks, I have given a great deal of thought to that subject; but I must confess I have not come to any

definite conclusion beyond that I have stated. I confess my ideas as to the form of the court are crude. But certain principles should be kept in mind in the formation of any such tribunal.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Does not the Treasury Department, as a rule, agree with the rulings of the New York custom-house officials?—A. I think as a rule it does, although that is not always the case. There is often a difference of opinion on these matters among the experts themselves.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. When you speak of representative manufacturers and experts, and men learned in the law, I suppose you also would recommend that the importers should have a representative upon such a tribunal?—A. Yes, sir; I think they should have. I must confess that my ideas are not fully developed in regard to the construction of such a court. But in some way, whatever process is adopted, I think the manufacturers should have a standing by right before such a tribunal, and not a standing alone by courtesy.

Q. How many times did the Treasury Department reverse or change its decision on the cotton-tie question?—A. I don't know how many, but quite a number of times. They have decided on both sides of the question, and there have been decisions of courts on both sides six or eight different times; and to-day certain classes of cotton ties come in at 1½ cents a pound and others pay a duty of 35 per centum ad valorem, the only difference being that in one case there is a buckle on one end of the 11-foot strap, and under the ruling of the Treasury Department where the buckle is firmly attached by a rivet it comes in at the 35 per centum ad valorem as a manufacture, but when it is strung loosely on the strap and not attached, it pays 1½ cents a pound duty. The court in Philadelphia decided that when they were loosely strung on they should come in at a duty of 35 per centum ad valorem, but under the law the Treasury Department took an appeal to the Supreme Court for its final decision, and until that can be decided these ties come in at the higher rate of duty, in every case an appeal and protest being filed.

There is one point in regard to the testimony I gave before the Commission yesterday which I desire to refer to. I notice that the newspapers state that in speaking of the purchasing power of money I represented to you that a dollar would go further in this country than in England. I trust that the Commission did not get that idea.

Commissioner KENNER. I got the idea that you said it would go as far.

The WITNESS. I did not mean to say so. I meant that in regard to the necessaries of life a dollar will purchase more in this country than in England. I meant to say that, taking beef for example, which is higher there, and coal and fuel which is higher in England than it is here, a dollar would purchase more in this country than it would there. A ton of bituminous coal sells in Pittsburgh for \$2 or \$2.25, whereas the same kind of coal in Staffordshire, England, sold in 1878 for about \$4 a ton at retail to the workingman.

Mr. WM. METCALF, of Pittsburgh, said:

I was asked yesterday the question whether there was any scientific authority upon which the request of the steel manufacturers was based as to the definition to be put upon the products of the Bessemer, open-hearth, and crucible steel processes. I said there was such scientific au-

thority, that I did not have it with me, but would furnish it. I have it with me to-day, and will occupy you a few moments in explaining the subject. There is a difference of opinion, not between the iron and steel men, but between the importer and the producer in this country, between mere theorists and practical men all over the country, between the courts and the foreign importers, as to what is covered by these definitions. The American Institute of Mining Engineers, the largest scientific body in this country, adopted a nomenclature of iron and steel in 1877 after the question had been discussed before them during the whole of two important meetings. I have had struck off in tabulated form that nomenclature, which I now present to the Commission. This institute is composed of over a thousand members, comprising in its membership I may say nearly all of the civil, mining, and mechanical engineers in the United States, also nearly all of the manufacturers and mill and furnace managers, as well as chemists and professors. Therefore its decisions should have great weight. During the Centennial year they appointed an international committee to see whether they could determine what was a proper distinction between iron and steel. That committee, owing to the shrewdness of the foreign importers, introduced a whole lot of new terms, such as welded iron, welded steel, ingot iron, and ingot steel, in their report. These terms were entirely unknown to the trade, to Congress, or to science. The report was bitterly opposed in the Institute at two meetings, and finally a compromise set of resolutions was adopted, to save the dignity of the committee and the courtesy of the Institute, and during that discussion this table that I present to you to-day was adopted and accepted and acknowledged by this body, without any dissent, as being the true commercial nomenclature of iron and steel. Leaving out of sight all questions of science this is the true nomenclature of iron and steel known at this day by everybody, by the purchaser and by the producer:

Iron.	Wrought	Bloom	{ Catalan. Finery.
		Puddled	{ Bars. Plates. Beams, etc.
		Steel	{ Blister. German. Shear. Puddled.
Cast.	Not malleable..	{ Pig iron. All ordinary castings.	
	Malleable.....	{ Castings annealed and decarbonized in oxides. Castings not highly carbonized. Cruelble. Bessemer, or pneumatic. Steel { Open Hearth { Or Siemens-Martin. And Siemens by pig and ore processes.	

[Transactions American Institute Mining Engineers, Vol. V. Resolutions, page 44; Nomenclature, page 532.]

I present this to you, gentlemen, because it is an authoritative statement of the greatest scientific body, and the largest one, in this country, as to what is the true commercial nomenclature of iron and steel. There is no question between the iron men and the steel men here as to this matter, and no question between the producer and consumer in this country. But there is a serious question between the importer and appraiser, and between courts and juries on this subject. A great many important and expensive suits have arisen because this question has not been here-

tofore settled, and they are still undetermined. As I said yesterday, no chemist can determine, when you come to low carbon, what is steel and what is iron; you must determine that by the mode of manufacture. The iron men join us in this request. The result of the want of such a description would simply be that the producer of the higher grades of iron in this country would have their business ruined by the importation of this low grade of steels adapted to the same purpose, made by the cheap labor process, cheap fuel, &c., of foreign countries, introduced here to their destruction and called "iron." Whereas if Congress will adopt the definition proposed in the schedule of duties laid before you, that question will be taken out of the hands of the appraisers and of the courts entirely. There will be no objection to it, and the result will be that the iron manufacturers will go on successfully and uniformly with their business.

My only apology for occupying your time again to-day is that this is the turning issue between the importer and the manufacturer on the question of the tariff. There is no question among the iron and steel men; they are all united. An iron man came to me to-day and thanked me for having presented this matter to you yesterday, because he said he began to feel the effect of the importations of these low-grade steels which are brought in under the name of iron, and it was interfering with his business. I hope I have shown that upon the very best authority this designation has been accepted as the true commercial nomenclature. I do not ask that this table shall be substituted for what the committee have given you as a classification, but merely as a justification for asking you to recommend to Congress to adopt that classification.

By Mr. KENNER:

Question. Do I understand that you indorse that definition?—Answer. I indorse the definition given in the proposed schedule of duties at the close of the general recommendations.

Q. You indorse and accept that?—A. Yes, sir. The only way to escape terrible confusion in the tariff law is to settle the question in regard to these articles by the mode of manufacture.

Q. Do you indorse this definition?—A. Yes, sir, I indorse it.

Mr. W. D. WOOD, sheet-iron manufacturer, of Pittsburgh, Pa., said:

The committee appointed by the General Convention of Iron Manufacturers, held at Cresson, September 13, beg leave to offer for your consideration the following report upon the schedule of rates and duties and classification of armor, boiler plate, and sheet iron, with a few reasons for asking the proposed changes.

Boiler and other plate iron, not less than three-sixteenths of an inch thick, under section 71 of the Indexed Tariff, is subject to a duty of 1½ cents per pound, which is an acceptable and only a just rate; whereas the lighter gauges of plate and sheet iron included between three-sixteenths of an inch thick and No. 20 wire-gauge, inclusive, are now dutiable at only 1¼ cents per pound. (See section 77, Indexed Tariff.) The latter, which is a more expensive iron to manufacture, through the increased cost of the labor employed, should be dutiable at the same rate with which the former is now charged under the present tariff, say 1½ cents per pound. Sheet iron thinner than No. 20 and not thinner than No. 25 wire-gauge (see section 77, Indexed Tariff,) is now dutiable at 1¼ cents per pound.

Considering the above statement of facts, and, further, looking to the simplification of the tariff laws, we recommend that all boiler or plate iron, skelp iron sheared or rolled in grooves, and sheet iron, common or black, thinner than 1½ inches and not thinner than No. 25 wire-gauge, be included as dutiable at the one rate, viz., 1½ cents per pound. (Skelp iron is properly plate iron, but has not heretofore been named in the tariff schedule.)

All sheet iron thinner than No. 25 is now dutiable at 1¾ cents per pound. The manufacturers ask that this rate should be continued only upon sheet iron, common or black, thinner than No. 25 wire-gauge, and not thinner than No. 29 wire-gauge, for the reason that it is not an adequate protection upon the other very thin sheet iron upon which so much labor and fuel are expended in their manufacture, and not at all proportionate with the duties upon the other grades of sheet iron. Practically most of the sheet iron thinner than No. 29 wire-gauge that is now imported is invoiced as taggers iron, and may be commercially known as such, yet it is nothing more than a highly finished very thin sheet iron, which is costly in labor to manufacture. Taggers iron (see section 116, Indexed Tariff,) which is dutiable at 30 per cent. ad valorem, was certainly classed and rated under a misapprehension of facts when the present tariff was agreed upon, and was not even specified among sheet iron. This was done evidently in the interest of importers of foreign manufactures, and it is charged that black sheets cut to pattern sizes and boxed are now being invoiced and imported and appraised as taggers iron, paying at the ad valorem rate about sixty-hundredths of a cent per pound, while common or black sheet iron of the same gauges is dutiable at 1¾ cents per pound.

We recommend that all sheet iron thinner than No. 29 wire-gauge, and all iron commercially known as black taggers iron, whether put up in boxes or bundles or not, shall be dutiable at 2½ cents per pound, which is not a higher rate than is put on other sheet iron, on an ad valorem basis, nor more than is adequate for a fair protection to the increased labor and cost in its manufacture.

The rates of duty recommended are in no sense prohibitory, and are not really sufficient to guarantee the present prices of labor and materials as against a destructive foreign competition. The importations of sheet and flue iron (common or black iron) for the fiscal years 1880 and 1881 were as follows:

	Pounds.
Year ending June 30, 1880.....	16,646,500
Year ending June 30, 1881.....	5,093,749
1882, so far reported.....	21,304,877

This does not embrace taggers iron, which is included with cast iron in the United States reports, under another misapprehension as to what taggers iron really is. The average ad valorem basis of duties upon plate and sheet iron for 1880 and 1881 was 40 per cent.

“Smooth or polished sheet iron, by whatever name designated,” is at present dutiable at 3 cents per pound. (See section 76, Indexed Tariff.) This clause was originally intended to cover several grades and kinds of smooth sheet iron at the special rate of duty named which are now appraised and pay duty only as common or black sheet iron. This is wrongfully done, yet it is done by an order of the Treasury Department, based upon the authority of the similitude section of the Revised Statutes (section 2499). We therefore ask for a more descriptive schedule of the different irons and their characteristics, with their separate and respective duties, and that “polished, planished, or glanced sheet iron

or sheet steel, by whatever name designated," be one designation, with the duty of 3 cents per pound, as in the present tariff. The only sheet iron imported and now paying duty at this rate is Russia sheet iron, and the rate of duty (3 cents) is only equal to an ad valorem rate of 39 per cent.

The importations of this foreign iron for sixteen years have been about the same for each year, say about 4,500,000 pounds, yielding a yearly revenue of about \$130,000. The foreign iron has usually been handled by an exclusive few, if not a pool, and they demanded large profits of American consumers until the competition of the American product reduced prices permanently to consumers fully 50 per cent. Improved methods and expensive plants of new and costly machinery have enabled the American manufacturers to produce an article equal in quality and acceptable to the trade of this country, but the very cheap cost of material and the very low-priced labor throughout Russia, say 20 cents per day for fair skilled labor and \$8.50 per ton for the very best charcoal pig iron, render the present duty absolutely necessary. Yet, as an example of what labor and applied mechanical inventions may accomplish, it is stated that Russia sheet iron at the present cost price in Russia, with the cheap labor of that country, is advanced ten times above the value of the pig iron, while the American article, with the labor ten times better paid than in Russia, is supplied to consumers at a price not more than five times greater than that of the American pig iron of which it is made. This statement, however, conclusively demonstrates the large amount of labor employed in the manufacture of such sheet iron.

The other grades of smooth sheet iron which demand adequate protection, and have failed to receive it, as being affected by the similitude section wrongfully applied, are commercially known as cleaned, or scaled, or cold-rolled, bright or clean taggers, stamping and other like irons, which have been pickled, cleaned, or scaled by acid and cold-rolled, or cold-rolled smooth without the pickling process. These should be protected by a duty of one-half cent per pound more than is levied upon the corresponding gauges of common or black sheet or taggers iron, which does not represent an increase of duty beyond that on the latter (on an ad valorem basis) equal to the difference in the cost of manufacture through extra labor, materials, and methods.

As to section 130, Indexed Tariff, "iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal by electric batteries," the manufacturers of iron or steel plates coated by metals urge that such manufactures be made dutiable at the same rate as other coated or galvanized irons, say 2½ cents per pound. We recommend that this section be amended to read as follows:

On iron or steel plates, or sheets, or hoops, or bars, or strips, or bands, galvanized or coated with any metal by electric batteries or by any other process, not herein otherwise provided for, two cents and one-half per pound.

As to section 131, Indexed Tariff, "iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal otherwise than by electric batteries, 2½ cents per pound," the different manufacturers whose interests under the present tariff are affected very properly insist upon a more distinctive and separate description of their several products, with their respective duties. The galvanized iron manufacturers represent themselves as satisfied with the present duty of 2½ cents per pound, which is but a fair and equitable protection to an established industry, in which are employed many millions of capital and a large number of workmen, consuming wholly American products, and neither antagonizing nor in positive

competition with iron covered with any other metal which is useful for like purposes.

The present specific duty is equal to an ad-valorem duty of about 41½ per cent., which is not more than is levied upon ordinary black sheet iron, and leaves the American product, at the present list prices, on a parity in our markets with that of the best English brands of such iron, with present duty paid. We recommend that the clause protecting their interests should read as follows:

On sheets or plates or strips or hoops or bars or bands of iron or steel galvanized or coated with zinc or spelter, or with a compound, alloy, or mixture of metals of which zinc or spelter is the principal component, 2½ cents per pound.

The provision for the protection of sheet and plate iron manufacturers, galvanizers, &c., against the importations of such irons in forms and shapes and partially manufactured forms, is rendered essentially necessary, as such goods are largely imported simply in shapes, and are appraised as manufactures of iron and made dutiable at 35 per cent. ad valorem, which is a less duty than is collected on common or black sheet iron.

As to the proviso attached to section 120, Indexed Tariff, "that no allowance or reduction of duties for partial loss or damage shall be hereafter made in consequence of rust of iron or steel, or upon the manufactures of iron or steel, except on polished Russia sheet iron," the manufacturers whose product is in active competition with Russia sheet iron represent that the rebate of duty on account of rust has been alike unjust to the Government, to the American manufacturers, and to the honest importer. Why such an allowance is limited to Russia sheet iron is unintelligible to a liberal mind, and the whole history for many years back of such allowances teems with misrepresentations and misapprehensions, and shows a loss to the Government of many thousands of dollars of revenue. The Government, by the allowance of rebate of duties, thus standing between the importer and his pretended loss, which is a voyage risk, simply grants a power to break prices and values, and thus inflicts a serious blow to all competitors, and establishes a system which is now indorsed by some of the best-known importers in New York City "as a source of corruption for both merchant and officer, and damage and wrong to the honest importer. We recommend the abrogation of the allowance for damage upon the imports of "polished Russia sheet iron," and it does not appear in any of the clauses relating to damage on iron or steel which are herewith submitted.

Mr. P. H. LAUFMAN, of the Apollo Iron Works of Apollo, Pa., said:

There was one subject that Mr. Wood called your attention to, and that is taggers iron, that I wish to bring more fully before the Commission; that is, with reference to the matter of covering cotton bales with sheet iron. I have been in correspondence for more than a year with a gentleman who wants to cover cotton bales with sheet iron. He lives in Memphis, Tenn. This plan does not do away with the cotton tie at all. We intend to use the cotton tie, do away with the buckle, and use sheet iron such as this [exhibiting] to protect the cotton of the South. Under an ad-valorem duty of 30 per cent., as Mr. Wood has shown to you, that iron cannot be manufactured in this country. I suppose it cannot be manufactured in any part of the world to-day—sheets of the size that we would require to cover the cotton bales. No person will enter into the manufacture of that article unless he is as-

sured it is going to be a permanent thing. In order that it may be successful it will be necessary to have the tariff so arranged that it will protect the capital put into the manufacture of the article. In March last I was in Saint Louis, and went to some of the cotton presses, and they said this was the thing they had been looking for for the last ten or fifteen years, and had wondered why some one had not got up a better process for baling cotton. A gentleman has written me a letter asking me how much it will cost to cover a bale of cotton with sheet iron, and I have the papers to show that it will cost about 19 cents less, taking all the expenses into consideration, to bale it with sheet iron than to use the ordinary bagging. Besides a saving in cost it is a great protection to the cotton against fire; the cotton cannot be set on fire. Another advantage is that in the transportation of these cotton bales the cotton is not filled with dirt and sand as it is at present, so that when it is put into the machinery to be manufactured into a fabric it will not destroy or injure it, as is sometimes the case now. The cotton will come to the seaboard or to Europe and be in a nice, clean condition when it arrives. Those are the principal advantages in the use of sheet iron for baling. The cotton crop has been estimated to be about 6,000,000 bales per annum, which would require 70,000 tons of this sheet iron to cover the cotton crop of the South to-day, which at \$110 per ton amounts to \$7,700,000, which will be a new industry if proper protection is given to the manufacture. If there is a saving on each bale of 19 cents, as I can show to be the case, on the whole cotton crop of 6,000,000 bales there will be a saving of \$1,140,000 to the cotton-growers of the South. This is one of the reasons why I wished particularly to call your attention to the subject of taggers iron. We recommend a duty of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound, so that it will give sufficient protection to labor and enable us to manufacture that article, which is of great importance to the Southern people. I do not know of any mill to-day that is making taggers iron. It has been brought into this country to such an extent that the mills here have quit making it. I therefore indorse what Mr. Wood has said. I am a manufacturer of sheet iron myself, and am indirectly interested in the manufacture of tin plate.

By the PRESIDENT:

Question. What are the uses to which taggers iron is put?—Answer. It is used to make the foundation for coat-buttons, and shoe-strings are tipped with it, and there are a great many uses to which it is put. It would seem, perhaps, to be a very small matter, but when you find a concern buying 25 to 50 tons of that iron at a time you will see that it amounts to a considerable trade in the aggregate.

Mr. W. C. CRONEMEYER, manufacturer of tin plate, said:

The purpose which we have in addressing you is to suggest a change in the existing tariff relating to the articles commercially known as tin plates, terne plates, and taggers tin.

We refer you to sections 129, 130, and 131 in the Indexed Tariff, which read as follows:

129. Tin in plates or sheets, terne and taggers tin: fifteen per centum ad valorem. (a. On tin in plates or sheets, and on terne and taggers tin: one and one-tenth cents per pound. Act of February 8, 1875, sec. 4.)

130. Iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal by electric batteries: two cents per pound.

131. Iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal otherwise than by electric batteries: two and one-half cents per pound.

We felt convinced that these sections of the law are not carried out in accordance with the intentions of the framers of the same, and, finding that we were seriously injured by misconstruction of the law, we submitted our case to the Treasury Department during the year 1878. The Hon. John Sherman, then Secretary of the Treasury, in a letter dated June 3, 1878, replied as follows:

W. C. CRONMEYER, Esq.,
Secretary of the United States Iron and Tin Plate Company, Pittsburgh, Penn'a :

SIR: I have received and considered your letter of the 22d ultimo, relative to duties now collected at the various ports of the United States on the article known to commerce as tin plate.

This article is not pure tin rolled out into plates, but is iron coated with tin. The duty collected thereon is $1\frac{1}{10}$ cents per pound under the provision in section 4 of the act of February 8, 1875, for tin in plates or sheets and terne or taggers tin.

The claim made by you on behalf of the company you represent, and other domestic tin-plate manufacturers, is that this article should pay a duty of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, under the provision of Schedule E of the revised tariff for iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal other than by electric batteries.

In regard thereto I have to state that while the terms used in section 4 of the act of February 8, 1875, under which this article is admitted at a duty of $1\frac{1}{10}$ cents per pound, viz., tin in plates or sheets, are not aptly descriptive of the merchandise, it is found that the same terms were used in the act of 1864, and have been used in subsequent tariffs, and that under each of the tariffs mentioned the article commercially known as tin plate has been considered as embraced within such terms.

The subject was brought to my attention some time since, and, upon examination, it was found that the Secretary of the Treasury, under date of July 22, 1864, stated in a letter addressed to the collector of customs at New York that the clause in the act of 1864 which enhanced the duty on tin plates, and iron galvanized or coated by any metal by electric batteries or otherwise, was not intended to increase the duties upon the article commercially known as tin plate.

It was then held that the tin plates as well as the iron, must, after they arrive at that condition, be subsequently galvanized or coated in order to bring them within the increased duty. I inclose a copy of the letter referred to.

I have therefore to state that the construction thus given to the law by this Department having remained in force from 1864 to the present time, I do not feel at liberty to place any other construction upon the law, especially in view of the fact that the changes in the tariff subsequent to 1864 as to this article have undoubtedly been made with a full knowledge, by Congress, of the action taken by this Department in the premises.

The remedy you seek must therefore be found at the hands of Congress rather than of this Department.

Very respectfully,

JOHN SHERMAN, *Secretary.*

It being thus admitted that the terms used are not aptly descriptive of the merchandise which is brought in under the said clause, and as your honorable body contemplates the removal of existing incongruities, and as we have been engaged in the manufacture of tin and terne plates for a number of years, and are, for that reason, perhaps capable of describing the article more aptly, we would now take the liberty to suggest that section 129 be amended by striking out all and inserting therefor the following, viz.:

On sheets or plates or strips or hoops or bars or bands of iron or steel, or taggers iron coated with tin or lead, or with a mixture of which these metals are a component part, by the dipping or any other process, two cents and three-fourths per pound.

We believe that it was the intention of the framers of the law which was enacted in 1864 that the article commercially known as tin plates should come in under a duty of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, for that law contained a clause which read: "On tin plates, and iron galvanized or coated with any metal by electric batteries or otherwise, two cents and a half per pound." To anybody acquainted with the process of making tin plates the wording as above will appear very plain and clear; but

the Hon. W. P. Fessenden, who was Secretary of the Treasury Department in 1864, evidently did not know that tin plates were iron coated with tin, but, like many other people, was rather under the impression that they were made from pure tin, or from an alloy; for in no other way could he have arrived at the following decision, which is contained in a letter dated July 22, 1864, addressed to Hiram Barney, collector of customs, New York, viz.:

It would appear that an error of punctuation has been made by some one; most probably by the clerk who engrossed that part of the act. If the comma, which is inserted after the word "plates," be omitted, and a comma placed after the word "iron," the true sense will be had, which unquestionably is that the tin plates as well as the iron must be galvanized or coated with any metal by electric batteries, or otherwise, in order to bring them within the provision.

It is our opinion that Mr. Fessenden, instead of arriving at the true sense, was seriously mistaken, for tin plates are coated with the most costly metal that is used for this kind of plates, and it would hardly add to their commercial value if they were coated again with an inferior metal. In this case the engrossing clerk was certainly better posted than Mr. Fessenden himself.

The clause which provided for "tin in sheets or plates," and under which clause Mr. Fessenden directed "ordinary tin plates" to be brought, was undoubtedly intended for sheets or plates of pure tin. Block or pig tin, being a raw material, not found in this country, was put on the free list.

The labor and expense involved in reducing pig tin into sheets or plates are very small, and therefore a duty of 15 per cent. ad valorem was deemed sufficient protection for the manufacture of that article. At present sheets of pure tin are hardly an article of commerce, the few purposes for which it was used at one time having been supplied by other more suitable articles. The United States are consuming more tin plates—that is, tinned iron plates—than any other country in the world, yet for the production of that article they have to depend entirely on foreign countries. The total production of this commodity in England has grown from about 1,000,000 boxes in 1860 to nearly 6,000,000 boxes in 1881, and of the latter about 1,250,000 boxes or cwts. were used for home consumption, 4,000,000 boxes exported to the United States, and 750,000 boxes exported to other countries.

In 1860 there were in operation in England about 100 trains of rolls making sheet iron for tin-plate purposes; in 1881 there were in operation nearly 400 trains of rolls, and about 30,000 persons found direct employment in this industry. Had it not been for Mr. Fessenden's misconception of facts the most of the 4,000,000 boxes, or 200,000 tons, that were consumed in this country during the last year, as well as most of all consumed during previous years, would have been manufactured in this country.

We would also call your attention to the many complaints lately made through the trade journals by tin-plate workers about the quality and inferior coating of many of the plates which are now imported, and of the infringement of certain brands. The fact is that the coating is done by a rolling process, and this process makes it possible to coat the plates *ad libitum* with from 3 to 10 per cent. of tin. So it happens that the coating of the plates diminishes in proportion to the decrease in price. If the consumer had the producer close by he could easily guard himself against impositions in the trade.

The following table shows the quantities, values of, and amount of

duties on imported tin and terne plates during the eighteen years succeeding Mr. Fessenden's decision, and ending June 30, 1882:

Year ending June 30—	Quantity.	Value.	Duty.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1865	54,682,768	2,823,125	423,463
1866	174,181,760	6,172,924	925,938
1867	111,243,776	6,285,826	942,873
1868	112,000,000	6,066,400	1,044,973
1869	181,639,088	8,707,381	1,284,813
1870	150,932,768	7,608,228	1,141,234
1871	177,976,224	9,598,100	1,439,715
1872	190,522,704	12,312,428	1,841,884
1873	192,485,440	14,003,650	2,249,047
1874	169,318,012	12,092,923	1,948,938
1875	172,547,147	12,956,647	2,014,011
1876	197,927,569	10,222,802	2,175,014
1877	222,307,980	9,818,069	2,445,387
1878	242,646,871	9,893,630	2,669,115
1879	278,544,822	10,248,720	3,063,992
1880	354,030,060	16,518,113	3,894,330
1881	376,907,776	14,482,254	4,145,085
1882	433,055,590	16,599,264	4,763,011
Total.....	3,738,951,135	189,260,583	38,415,223

To produce the 4,000,000 boxes (200,000 tons) of tin plates which we consumed during the last fiscal year in a central location of the iron industry in this country, we would have to expend about the following amounts for material and labor, about 80 per cent. of which we can produce of superior quality at home—block tin and palm oil being the only articles we cannot produce:

260,000 tons of pig metal, at \$23.....	\$5,980,000
1,000,000 tons of coal, at \$1.40	1,400,000
4,000,000 bushels of charcoal, at 9 cents	360,000
Repairs and maintenance of machinery and furnaces.....	800,000
Lubricators, &c., for rolling-mill machinery.....	100,000
30,000,000 pounds of sulphuric acid, at 2 cents	600,000
10,000,000 pounds of palm oil or tallow, at 6 cents	600,000
3,500,000 pounds of lead, at 5 cents.....	175,000
22,000,000 pounds of tin, at 20 cents.....	4,400,000
20,000,000 feet of lumber, made up in boxes, for packing, \$25 per M.....	500,000
Wages to about 15,000 tin-mill employes, \$2.90 per box, or \$58 per ton	11,600,000
Incidental expenses, insurance, taxes, &c.....	1,000,000
Total cost of producing 200,000 tons in United States (\$140) per ton.....	27,515,000
The appraised value of the imported plates without duty is given as	16,599,000
Showing a difference in the cost of production of this commodity in the two countries of	10,916,000

Had the rate of 2½ cents per pound been enforced during last year, the total duty would have amounted to \$10,826,329.75, and the difference would have almost been equalized.

And had the same duty of 2½ cents been enforced during all these eighteen years, the total amount of duty would have been \$93,472,778, instead of \$38,415,223, showing that the country has lost \$55,057,555 by the misconstruction of the law.

The difference in the cost of production in these two countries has its reason almost exclusively in the difference of the wages that are paid in the production of the different materials which are used for making tin plates. A large amount of the labor for which we here employ men

and grown-up boys is in England performed by women and small children. Itemized, the differences would be about as follows:

The amount of wages paid in the United States exceeds those paid in England on a ton of pig metal	\$7 00
On five tons coal necessary to convert one ton	3 00
	\$10 00
35 per cent. of lost labor by wasting of material and material returned to scrap pile	3 50
	\$13 50
On one ton of sheet iron	30 00
On maintenance and repairs of machinery	1 60
On sulphuric acid	
On palm oil and tallow	
On 80 pounds of lead	1 60
On packing-boxes	80
On lubricants	
	47 50
15 per cent. of lost labor by wasting material and defective sheets	7 12
	54 62
Total difference per finished ton	54 62
Or on the 200,000 tons	\$10,924,000 00

What we ask now is that the law be so constructed that the difference thus shown be equalized by a tariff duty, in the same manner as has been done on other commodities, which either enter into the manufacture of tin plates or which are similar in substance and come into competition with tin plates in our markets.

N. B.—The figures are computed from actual results and experiments made at the United States Iron and Tin Plate Works during several years. The above wages and number of hands employed are exclusive of labor necessary to produce the aforementioned materials.

We beg to call your attention to the following comparative table:

Commodity.	Average market price.	Rate of duty.	Price less duty.	Ad valorem rate.
Pig metal	\$23 00	\$7 00	\$16 00	<i>Per cent.</i> 43½
Bar iron	02½	01	01½	57
Sheet iron, 20 to 26 wire-gauge	04.3	01½	02.8	53½
26 gauge and lighter	04.75	01½	03	58
Galvanized sheet iron	07	02½	04½	55
Pig lead	05	02	03	60
Russia polished iron	11	03	08	37½
Pickled and cold rolled sheets	05½	01½	04	37½
Tin plates and terne plates	05.7	01.1	04.6	24

This table alone, we think, will convince you that the tin-plating business cannot be successfully carried on in this country under present circumstances. The duty we now propose would be 2½ cents per pound, or 60 per cent. ad valorem.

During the last ten years the jobbing price of I C tin plates has varied from \$12.50 to \$5.50, and a computation shows that the average price of a box of I C (the standard size of 112 pounds) was, during the same period, \$8.50, or \$170 per gross ton. As we have shown that with the present facilities and the present market prices of material we can make a ton here at \$140, and as there is every likelihood that we shall improve these facilities when a larger number of manufacturers enter into this business, there is very little danger that even with the increased duty the average price to the consumer would be higher during the next ten years.

With a mill situated in a central location of the United States we

could reach the jobber and actual consumer more directly, and to them we would save the expenses of the handling and re-handling, commission and broker's charges, &c., and thus make up for nearly the amount of the extra duty. But admitting, for the sake of argument, that the cost of the articles made from tinned plates would be enhanced, would our fruit and oyster canners suffer seriously by paying about 4 cents more per dozen quart cans; and would not our dairymen and farmers be fully recompensed by the additional demand for their products, coming from people occupied by means of such new industry? Tinned ware is so universally used that if the increased duty were a tax, hardly any other tax could be more evenly distributed.

LAUFMAN & Co.,

Apollo Iron Works.

UNITED STATES IRON AND TIN PLATE COMPANY.

KIRKPATRICK & Co.,

Leechburgh Iron and Tin Plate Works.

SHOENBERGER & Co.,

Juniata Iron and Steel Works.

EVERSON, MACRUM & Co.,

Pennsylvania Iron Works.

AND OTHERS.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. What is the size of tin plate most generally used?—Answer. Fourteen by twenty, about equal to 30 gauge.

Q. What is the duty on No. 30 sheet iron?—A. That is a hard question to answer. We do not know. It is sometimes called taggers iron.

Q. What is the duty on No. 28 sheet iron?—A. One and three-quarter cents a pound.

Q. If that iron be taken and tinned so as to make what is commonly known as tin plate, and additional labor and expense is put on it, then it pays only a duty of $1\frac{1}{10}$ cents a pound?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. That is an inconsistency in the present law, that the iron of which tin plate is made is dutiable at $1\frac{3}{4}$ cents a pound, and after the labor is put on and the expense of fixing and handling and finishing the article, the duty is only $1\frac{1}{10}$ cents a pound?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You ask to be put on the same level with the sheet-iron manufacturers?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And you say that, owing to this difference, and the fact that you have to pay high wages for labor, caused by the protection of other items in the iron industry, you are unable to manufacture tin plate in this country without protection?—A. Yes, sir; it is entirely impossible to do so.

Q. What has been your experience in trying to manufacture tin plate?—A. We went to work at it a long time ago. It was \$12 a box when we first started, and there was money in it for a year or two, and then prices dropped to \$5.50, and of course we could not compete with such low prices, and that is the reason we had to go out of the market and give up the business. We tried it again after we had been idle for three years, and the prices had gone up to \$9. We made another start, but we had hardly got our goods on the market before the price dropped down to \$7, then to \$6, and then to \$5.50; and it fluctuated all the time so that we could not continue the manufacture.

Q. You have made no money in the business?—A. No, sir; on the contrary, we have lost in years gone by a large amount of money which

we have never been able to recover. If we could get about 2½ cents protection, it would enable us to start the business on a fair basis.

Q. That would be about 50 per cent. ad valorem?—A. Yes, sir; if you take the present price, which is very low. The trade in England has been very much depressed, and several of the tin-plate manufacturers have been to this country, and the tin workers have been here to seek employment because they could not find any employment in the old country.

Q. Are not tin plates being made in this country?—A. Hardly any that I know of. There is one establishment in New York which makes a certain kind of plate that they consume mostly themselves.

Q. I mean, is there any being made for the general market to be sold?—A. No, sir; none that I know of.

Q. Then, you state that the works that have been built are idle, and there is no tin plate being produced to-day?—A. Yes, sir; all those which had a rolling-mill connected with them are idle.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. In making up the average price, how many years have you covered?—A. I have taken about ten years.

Q. On that basis, the present rate would be about 50 per cent. ad valorem?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. What was the rate of duty when you were making money at it?—A. The rate when we began was $1\frac{1}{10}$ cents a pound. When we started into the business there had never been any manufactured here before, and the English manufacturers had full control of the market, without any competition whatever. As soon as three or four works were built in this country the prices went down.

Q. You were aware of the rate of duty when you went into the business?—A. We supposed that the duty was 2½ cents a pound.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Did the foreign manufacturers reduce their prices to cut yours down?—A. I could not say whether that was the intention, but it looked a good deal as though it was.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. I understand you to say that you built your works on the idea that the duty would be under the clause stating that all iron coated with any metal would be admitted at 2½ cents a pound?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Was there ever any metal or tin plate admitted at that rate of 2½ cents?—A. Yes, sir; if the same kind of iron is cut into strips two or three inches wide, like a tin plate, it is dutiable at 2½ cents a pound.

Q. When you started in business, tin plate was being imported into this country?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. At what rate was it being imported, then?—A. It came in at 15 per cent. ad valorem, as we learned afterwards to our sorrow.

APPENDIX.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL CONVENTION OF IRON AND STEEL MANUFACTURERS AND IRON-ORE PRODUCERS, AT CRESSON, TUESDAY AND WEDNESDAY, SEPTEMBER 12 AND 13, 1882.

CALL FOR A MEETING OF THE MANAGERS OF THE AMERICAN IRON AND STEEL ASSOCIATION.

OFFICE OF THE AMERICAN IRON AND STEEL ASSOCIATION,
No. 261 South Fourth street, Philadelphia, July 14, 1882.

To the Board of Managers of The American Iron and Steel Association:

GENTLEMEN: The Tariff Commission having been organized, and having signified its willingness to receive suggestions and hear testimony from associations representing the organized industries of the country, it becomes necessary for The American Iron and Steel Association to take immediate steps to consider the duties on iron and steel, and to adopt a plan for the presentation of their action to the various branches of the iron and steel industries represented in its organization, so that, after a full interchange of opinion between representatives of these branches, the completed work may be laid before the Tariff Commission through a committee to be selected for that purpose. The first step necessary to be taken is undoubtedly to call together the members of our board of managers—a body composed of thirty leading manufacturers of iron and steel, who fairly represent every branch of our iron and steel industries and every section of the country. After carefully obtaining the views of many manufacturers, it has been decided to call a meeting of the board at the Mountain House, Cresson, Pa., at 10 o'clock a. m., on Tuesday, July 25, 1882.

The selection of the place named for the meeting it is believed will be satisfactory to all the members of the board. Cresson is as nearly central between the East and the West as any other point that could have been selected; it is on the main line of the Pennsylvania Railroad; it occupies a salubrious and cool location; and it possesses excellent hotel accommodations. A full attendance of the board is earnestly requested.

By order of the Executive Committee.

D. J. MORRELL, *President.*

JAMES M. SWANK, *Secretary.*

CALL FOR A CONVENTION OF IRON AND STEEL MANUFACTURERS AND IRON ORE PRODUCERS.

At a meeting of the board of managers of The American Iron and Steel Association, held at Cresson, Pa., July 25, 1882, the following preamble and resolutions were unanimously adopted:

WHEREAS, The Tariff Commission, recently created by act of Congress, has requested all of the organizations of the country which represent its leading industries to appear before it by committees or otherwise, to give testimony and to make suggestions concerning the proposed revision of duties on foreign products; and

WHEREAS, The American Iron and Steel Association is a national organization of long standing, which represents such leading branches of our iron and steel industries as embrace the manufacture of pig iron, the manufacture of blooms, the manufacture of all rolled iron, cut nails, and forgings, and the manufacture of all kinds of steel: Therefore be it

Resolved, That a national convention of all the iron-ore producers and the manufacturers of iron and steel in the United States, and of all who seek to establish in our country the manufacture of tin-plate, be held at the Mountain House, at Cresson, at 12 o'clock on Tuesday, September 12, 1882, to consider the whole question of duties on iron-ore, iron and steel in their various forms, and tin-plate, and to adopt a schedule of duties thereon to be submitted to the Tariff Commission for its consideration.

Resolved, That the convention, immediately after its organization, shall be divided into sections, each section to represent a distinct branch of the iron and steel industries of the country, including the production of iron ore. Each section will at once separately proceed to consider the existing duty or duties which affect the branch of manufacture or production in which its members are interested, and the conclusions which it reaches shall be submitted in writing to the general convention. When all the sections shall have submitted to the convention the result of their deliberations, the several rates of duty proposed shall be considered *separatim* by the convention and amended or approved, as the case may be, after which the whole schedule of duties agreed upon shall be ordered to be transmitted to the Tariff Commission as the voice of the united iron and steel industries of the country.

Resolved, That the complete schedule of duties agreed upon by the convention shall be laid before the Tariff Commission by a committee which shall be composed of one representative of each branch of the industries represented in the convention, each section of the convention to choose the representative of the branch with which he is identified. The committee shall also present to the Tariff Commission a report in writing or in printed form which shall embody the reasons governing the convention in the adoption of the schedule.

Resolved, That we earnestly request a full attendance at the convention of all iron and steel manufacturers and iron-ore producers, and of all who desire the establishment of the tin plate manufacture, and that we further request those who may attend to come prepared to remain long enough to conclude the important work for which the convention is called.

Resolved, That we recommend each local iron and steel or iron-ore organization to meet at as early a day as possible, and in advance of the meeting of the national convention, for the consideration of the duties in which it is specially interested, so that when the convention assembles each branch of the iron and steel industries represented may be prepared to expedite the business of the convention; and it is also recommended to the local organizations, for the further dispatch of the business of the convention, that they prepare in written or printed form arguments and statistics sustaining the positions which they may assume.

Resolved, That the president and secretary of The American Iron and Steel Association be authorized to communicate to all iron and steel manufacturers and iron-ore producers the action of this meeting, and to transmit to them also copies of existing duties on all iron and steel products and on iron ore, accompanied by appropriate references to adverse decisions by the Treasury Department and the courts affecting these duties.

D. J. MORRELL, *President*.

JAMES M. SWANK, *Secretary*.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE CRESSON CONVENTION.

In accordance with the call which had been issued by The American Iron and Steel Association, the iron and steel manufacturers and iron-ore producers of the United States held a national convention at the Mountain House, Cresson, Pa., on the 12th and 13th of September, 1882.

The convention was called to order at noon on the 12th of September by Hon. DANIEL J. MORRELL, the president of The American Iron and Steel Association.

Mr. James M. Swank, the secretary of The American Iron and Steel Association, then read the resolutions calling the convention which had

been adopted by the board of managers of the Association, after which Mr. Morrell delivered the following address:

ADDRESS OF HON. DANIEL J. MORRELL.

GENTLEMEN: The appointment by the President of the United States, in accordance with an act of Congress, of a Tariff Commission, is an invitation to the industries of the country to disclose their condition and needs, and to co-operate with the government in effecting a wise and equitable readjustment of customs duties. Through lapse of time, changes in process of manufacture, want of clearness in the language of the law, and careless or ignorant interpretations thereof, duties have become in some instances inadequate, in others inconsistent, and in others injurious, and Congress has wisely determined to follow the example of other countries by consulting the interests to be affected by a revision before attempting to make it. There is no intention of weakening the barriers which have shielded and developed our industries, and thus made the nation great. Our government is protectionist, the country is protectionist, and through the wise action of the President the government and the people are rightly represented in this respect by the Tariff Commission.

Protection to labor, sufficient to secure our home markets to our own people, has been and must continue to be the settled policy of this country. Protection is a practical policy suited to our needs, which is adopted and enforced by all progressive countries. Free trade is the scientific vagary of closet philosophers, of no more practical value than the theory of a fourth dimension in space. It is a hypocritical pretense of our English business rivals, who are noted for their purely philanthropic interference with such trade regulations of other countries as tend to narrow the market for their products. With weak nations English methods are direct and simple. Our English rivals use fraud with Japan and force with China, but more tact is required in dealing with their brethren of the United States. Here they organize free trade clubs, employ free trade lecturers, circulate free trade pamphlets, subsidize free trade newspapers, and promote the election of free trade members of Congress. English agents have presented themselves before the Ways and Means Committee of our lower house of Congress, and they will doubtless appear in some disguise before the Tariff Commission.

We would advise our English friends that this country is not a promising missionary field, and that their efforts are a waste of time and money and a needless annoyance to a friendly people. The policy of protection is not on trial here. It has vindicated itself by its works. The unexampled progress of this nation, which has astonished the world, is admitted, even by Englishmen, to be due to the effective protection of our own industries, and that protection will be continued so long as the workingman of this country insists upon a higher scale of living for himself and his family than his European brother has ever dreamed of.

Advancing to a revision of the laws in this spirit, the work of the Tariff Commission is of supreme importance and of great difficulty. The Commission asks from us ample and candid information. As it strives to do equal justice to all interests, we should ourselves strive for no inequitable advantage.

The success of every branch and department of our industry is necessary to the prosperity of the whole. By erroneous interpretations of the tariff law, which have ignored both its letter and its spirit, serious injury has been done to many branches. We have been obliged, as business men, to accommodate ourselves to the situation, while protesting against it, but we believe that protection is alike beneficial to us as producers and consumers. The only way to obtain an adequate supply, at cheap and stable prices, of iron ore, of pig iron, of cotton-ties, of steel blooms, of steel-wire rods, of tin-plate, or of any other article of iron or steel, is by the imposition and maintenance of a fairly protective duty upon the competing products of foreign manufacture. The importation of any article of this nature may afford a temporary profit to some of us, but this is of trivial consequence when compared with the lasting injury occasioned by the destruction of any American industry.

In the proposed revision of the tariff we should act in harmony to secure equal and adequate protection for the labor and capital employed in our various allied industries. No excessive duty should be claimed by any interest. The language of the law should be so clear as not to permit of misconstruction. Ad valorem rates should be replaced as far as possible by specific duties. The premium upon false and fraudulent classifications which have been a fruitful source of injury should be removed by fixing a high rate of duty in all ad valorem omnibus clauses, and by the adoption of a similitude clause which cannot be construed away by free trade officials.

Entertaining these views, and believing that conference with the Tariff Commission will be rendered most effective through a harmonious representation of all iron and steel industries, which cannot be arranged without preliminary consultation. The American Iron and Steel Association has taken the initiative in calling you together. This large attendance is an indorsement of its action and an earnest of success. This

duty of the association having been discharged, I will now request you to organize this convention and proceed to business. The nomination of a permanent president will now be in order.

ELECTION OF OFFICERS.

After the delivery of the address the convention selected, for permanent president, Mr. JAMES PARK, JR., of Pittsburgh, who was nominated for the position by Mr. John W. Chalfant, of Pittsburgh. Upon taking the chair Mr. Park returned thanks for the honor conferred upon him. The following additional officers of the convention, all of whom were present, were then selected:

Vice-presidents, A. F. Keating, of Pittsburgh; Oliver Williams, Catawauqua, Pa.; A. L. Crawford, New Castle, Pa.; John Stambaugh, Youngstown, Ohio; E. A. Hitchcock, Saint Louis, Mo.; Samuel L. Mather, Cleveland, Ohio; James McCutcheon, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Fayette Brown, Cleveland, Ohio; W. E. C. Coxe, Reading, Pa.; Andrew Carnegie, New York; W. D. Wood, Pittsburgh, Pa.; David Reeves, Phoenixville, Pa.; W. H. Wallace, Steubenville, Ohio; O. W. Potter, Chicago, Ill.; Philip L. Moen, Worcester, Mass.; F. A. Comly, Philadelphia; Hon. Archibald McAllister, Royer, Blair County, Pennsylvania.

Secretaries, James M. Swank, Philadelphia; Joseph D. Weeks, Pittsburgh; George W. Cope, Philadelphia; Henry Whiteley, Northeast, Md.

The roll of the convention was then called, and the following named gentlemen were found to be present:

MANUFACTURERS OF PIG IRON.

James Laughlin, sr., Pittsburgh, Pa.	Samuel McClure, Sharon, Pa.
A. B. Cornell, Youngstown, Ohio.	Norman Hall, Sharon, Pa.
A. McAllister, Royer, Pa.	Edwin Thomas, Catawauqua, Pa.
J. King McLanahan, Hollidaysburg, Pa.	John Stambaugh, Youngstown, Ohio.
W. J. Taylor, Chester, N. J.	S. Perkins, jr., Sharon, Pa.
Frederick Primo, jr., Philadelphia, Pa.	J. H. Moulton, Ironton, Ohio.
J. J. Spearman, Sharpsville, Pa.	W. H. Wallace, Steubenville, Ohio.
Jerome L. Boyer, Columbia, Pa.	Chas. T. Neale, Kittanning, Pa.
J. J. Pierce, Sharpsville, Pa.	John W. Chalfant, Pittsburgh, Pa.
S. R. Schmucker, Williamsburg, Pa.	Alexander Hooven, Norristown, Pa.
W. H. Lee, Saint Louis, Mo.	E. B. Bulkley, Antwerp, N. Y.
Geo. T. Barnes, Philadelphia, Pa.	J. W. Mumper, Barree Forge, Pa.

MANUFACTURERS OF STEEL.

C. C. Hussey, Pittsburgh, Pa.	W. R. Stirling, Chicago, Ill.
D. J. Morrell, Johnstown, Pa.	Thos. W. Fitch, Saint Louis, Mo.
Cyrus Elder, Johnstown, Pa.	E. A. Hitchcock, Saint Louis, Mo.
Andrew Carnegie, New York.	Wm. Hainaworth, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Thomas M. Carnegie, Pittsburgh, Pa.	Robert G. Bushnell, New York.
James Park, jr., Pittsburgh, Pa.	John E. Fry, Saint Louis, Mo.
Charles H. Read, Johnstown, Pa.	A. L. Griffin, Chicago, Ill.
Chester Griswold, New York.	P. L. Moen, Worcester, Mass.
Wm. Chisholm, Cleveland, Ohio.	P. G. Salom, Thurlow, Pa.
Benjamin Atha, Newark, N. J.	H. W. Hartman, Johnstown, Pa.
O. W. Potter, Chicago, Ill.	E. S. Wheeler, New Haven, Conn.
H. S. Smith, Joliet, Ill.	P. E. Chapin, Johnstown, Pa.

MANUFACTURERS OF BAR IRON, NAILS, ETC.

A. F. Keating, Pittsburgh, Pa.	C. M. Atkins, Pottsville, Pa.
William Lilly, Mauch Chunk, Pa.	W. E. C. Coxe, Reading, Pa.
Oliver Williams, Catawauqua, Pa.	A. H. Peacock, Lancaster, Pa.
Percival Roberts, sr., Philadelphia, Pa.	William H. Morris, Pottstown, Pa.
Percival Roberts, jr., Philadelphia, Pa.	J. Walter, Cincinnati, Ohio.
John P. Verree, Philadelphia, Pa.	A. W. Thompson, New Castle, Pa.
G. M. Laughlin, Pittsburgh, Pa.	John T. Wilson, New Castle, Pa.
John Z. Speer, Pittsburgh, Pa.	Nathan McDowell, New Castle, Pa.
Charles Stewart, Easton, Pa.	A. L. Crawford, New Castle, Pa.
David Reeves, Phoenixville, Pa.	J. H. Sternbergh, Reading, Pa.

MANUFACTURERS OF PLATES AND SHEETS.

W. Dewees Wood, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 P. H. Laufman, Apollo, Pa.
 Alfred Marshall, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Henry Whitely, Northeast, Md.
 W. J. Carmichael, Coatesville, Pa.
 George F. McCleane, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Charles L. Gilpin, Philadelphia, Pa.

F. G. Niedringhaus, Saint Louis, Mo.
 G. W. Nicolls, Pottstown, Pa.
 W. C. Cronmeyer, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Allan C. Bakewell, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Horace A. Beale, Parkesburg, Pa.
 Charles R. Dallas, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 C. E. Pennock, Coatesville, Pa.

MANUFACTURERS OF HOOP-IRON.

James H. Lindsay, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 James McCutcheon, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 William Clark, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 John L. Kennedy, Pittsburgh, Pa.

W. E. Taylor, Youngstown, Ohio.
 R. F. Wolfkill, Sharon, Pa.
 Purk Painter, Pittsburgh, Pa.

IRON-ORE PRODUCERS.

Powell Stackhouse, Wallingford, Pa.
 W. B. Whitney, Philadelphia, Pa.
 J. Wesley Pullman, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Samuel P. Burt, Milwaukee, Wis.
 John N. Glidden, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Fayette Brown, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Wm. E. Rider, New York.
 George H. Ely, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Samuel L. Mather, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Alfred Earnshaw, Philadelphia, Pa.
 M. A. Hanna, Cleveland, Ohio.
 E. Canfield, Dover, N. J.
 A. Beemer, Dover, N. J.
 John D. Evans, Chester, N. J.
 A. L. Inman, Plattsburgh, N. Y.

B. K. Stickle, Rockaway, N. J.
 M. Hoagland, jr., Rockaway, N. J.
 Arthur F. Wendt, New York.
 J. F. Quarles, New York.
 W. E. Lawrence, New York.
 Richard George, Dover, N. J.
 A. W. Humphreys, New York.
 John S. Slagle, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Joseph P. Reed, Philadelphia, Pa.
 D. W. R. Read, Philadelphia, Pa.
 D. D. Morrell, Henrietta, Pa.
 A. S. Bertolet, Crown Point, N. Y.
 E. H. Lytle, Martinsburg, Pa.
 F. A. Comly, Philadelphia, Pa.
 J. H. Isett, Yellow Springs, Pa.

IRON MERCHANTS AND OTHERS.

E. J. Etting, Philadelphia, Pa.
 James M. Swank, Philadelphia, Pa.
 George W. Cope, Philadelphia, Pa.
 F. N. Hoffstot, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 John H. Ricketson, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Joseph D. Weeks, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 J. W. Porter, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 S. P. Harbison, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 E. P. Williams, New York.
 F. Grosjean, New York.

The gentlemen above named were in nearly every case authorized to represent neighboring establishments to their own. Mr. Joseph D. Weeks represented the Cincinnati mills. Numerous letters were received from iron and steel manufacturers who were unable to attend, but who expressed their intention to support the action of the convention.

The president then announced that the various sections of the convention would meet separately in the afternoon for the purpose of deciding upon a list of duties, and that the convention would meet in the evening to hear the reports of the sections.

Remarks upon the connection of the iron-ore producers with the convention were then made by Messrs. Ely, Verree, and Morrell, after which Mr. Burt presented the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That upon the report from any section being made to the convention and discussion shall have been had upon the same, if the report shall not be adopted by the convention, the whole subject, together with all amendments which may have been offered to any such report, shall be referred back to such section for its further consideration and report to the convention.

After the passage of a resolution that no member should speak longer than five minutes at one time or more than twice on the same subject without unanimous consent, the convention adjourned at 2 o'clock to meet at 8 o'clock in the evening.

EVENING SESSION.

The various sections presented their reports to the convention at the evening session. All of them were read once without action on any. The report from the iron-ore section was then taken up for consideration. After a long discussion the report was adopted in the shape in which it was presented, fixing the duty on iron ore at \$1 per ton.

The report of the pig-iron section was next taken up, but was not disposed of at that session. The report recommended a duty of \$9 per ton. After a long discussion an adjournment took place until 9 o'clock on Wednesday morning.

WEDNESDAY MORNING'S SESSION.

On the morning of the 13th instant the consideration of the report of the pig-iron section was resumed, but such a diversity of views was expressed by the members that, after a long discussion, Mr. Ely offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That a committee to be composed of two persons from each section represented in this convention be appointed by the respective sections to consider all the reports laid before the convention and report a complete schedule of duties on all iron and steel products and on iron ore.

The several sections then announced the names of their representatives on the conference committee, which was composed as follows:

Messrs. George H. Ely and J. Wesley Pullman, iron ore; William Clark and W. E. Taylor, hoop iron; A. F. Keating and Oliver Williams, bar iron and nails; O. W. Potter and Cyrus Elder, Bessemer steel; C. C. Hussey and R. G. Bushnell, crucible and open-hearth steel; W. D. Wood and Horace A. Beale, plates and sheets; Frederick Prime, jr., and W. H. Wallace, pig iron; P. L. Moen and E. S. Wheeler, wire; W. C. Cronmeyer, tin-plate.

Mr. Andrew Carnegie introduced the following resolution, which was received and referred to the conference committee:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this convention that any proposed change of duties should be in the direction of a reduction, except where by false rulings or misconstructions the spirit of the law has been violated, especially in those cases in which manufactures of a more advanced stage have been admitted at lower rates of duty than are imposed upon cruder forms of the same material.

The convention then adjourned to meet at 3.30 p. m., to receive the report of the conference committee. The committee, however, was not prepared to report at that time, and the convention was again adjourned to meet at 6 o'clock, at which time Mr. Keating, chairman of the conference committee, reported that the committee had performed the duty assigned to it, but recommended an adjournment until 7 o'clock, when the full report of the committee would be ready for presentation. The convention accordingly adjourned until 7 o'clock.

EVENING SESSION.

At the evening session Mr. Keating read the report of the conference committee, including its action upon the various iron and steel and iron-ore duties and upon the resolution of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. The resolution was unanimously disapproved. The report was satisfactory to the convention in every respect except the rate fixed on pig iron, which was the present duty of \$7 per ton. The pig-iron manufacturers had insisted upon an increase to \$9, and the convention at length, after a

long discussion, adopted the rate of \$8 per ton, upon motion of Mr. Chalfant. The rate on cast scrap iron was then fixed at the same figure, namely, \$8 per ton. The whole report was then formally adopted by a unanimous vote.

The principal changes from the rates imposed by the present tariff are as follows: Iron ore, present duty is 20 per cent. ad valorem, proposed duty is 85 cents per ton; (the custom-house ton is 2,240 pounds;) pig iron, present duty is \$7 per ton, proposed duty is \$8 per ton; cast scrap iron, present duty is \$6 per ton, proposed duty is \$8 per ton; steel blooms, present duty is 45 per cent. ad valorem, proposed duty is \$20 per ton; steel-wire rods, present duty is 30 per cent. ad valorem, proposed duty is one cent per pound; steel rails, present duty is \$28 per ton, proposed duty is \$22.40 per ton; structural steel, present duty is 2½ cents per pound, proposed duty is 1¾ cents per pound; steel in forms "not otherwise provided for," present duty is 30 per cent. ad valorem, proposed duty is 3 cents per pound; tin-plates, present duty is 1-¹/₁₀ cents per pound, proposed duty is 2¾ cents per pound. The reductions of duty are almost entirely confined to steel. The proposed duties on plate, sheet, hoop, and bar iron are substantially the same as those imposed by the present tariff. Structural iron, however, is specifically provided for at 1½ cents per pound; under the present tariff it is imported as "rolled and hammered iron not otherwise provided for," at 1¾ cents per pound. Manufactures of iron or steel are carefully provided for, and safeguards have been inserted which it is believed will effectually prevent evasions and misconstructions hereafter. The duty on all forms of hoop iron is so adjusted that evasions of its provisions are rendered impossible.

Mr. Chalfant presented the following resolutions, which were adopted:

Resolved, That a committee to be composed of at least three representatives of each of the branches of the iron and steel industries of the country represented in this convention be appointed by the chair to lay before the Tariff Commission the schedule of proposed duties adopted by the convention.

Resolved, That the president of this convention be added to the committee hereby appointed, and that he be *ex officio* its chairman.

Resolved, That the secretaries of this convention be requested to act as secretaries of the committee.

Resolved, That the committee be requested to accompany the schedule referred to with a written report, which shall briefly set forth the reasons which have governed the convention in the preparation of the schedule.

Resolved, That we request The American Iron and Steel Association to prepare and submit to the Tariff Commission a report setting forth the benefits which the country has derived in the past from the application of the protective policy to the development of our iron and steel industries, and briefly reciting the reasons why the policy of protecting these industries should be continued in the future.

The president then appointed the following committee under the above resolutions:

Iron ore.—George H. Ely, Cleveland, Ohio; J. Wesley Pullman, Philadelphia; Smith M. Weed, Plattsburgh, N. Y.

Pig iron.—Frederick Prime, jr., Philadelphia; W. H. Wallace, Steubenville, Ohio; J. J. Spearman, Sharpsville, Pa.; John W. Chalfant, Pittsburgh.

Hoop iron.—William Clark, Pittsburgh; W. E. Taylor, Youngstown, Ohio; James McCutcheon, Pittsburgh.

Bar iron and nails.—A. F. Keating, Pittsburgh; Oliver Williams, Catawauqua, Pa.; James I. Bennett, Pittsburgh.

Bessemer steel.—O. W. Potter, Chicago; Cyrus Elder, Johnstown, Pa.; Joseph Wharton, Philadelphia.

Crucible and open-hearth steel.—C. C. Hussey, Pittsburgh; William Metcalf, Pittsburgh; R. G. Bushnell, New York.

Plates and sheets.—W. Dewees Wood, Pittsburgh; Horace A. Beale, Parkesburg, Pa.; Charles L. Bailey, Harrisburg, Pa.; C. E. Pennock, Coatesville, Pa.

Wire.—P. L. Moen, Worcester, Mass.; W. H. Cassidy, Pittsburgh; Thomas W. Fitch, Saint Louis.

Tin-plates.—W. C. Cronmeyer, Pittsburgh; P. H. Laufman, Apollo, Pa.; Alfred Marshall, Philadelphia.

The following resolution, introduced by Mr. Elder, was then adopted:

Resolved, That the committee appointed to lay the recommendations of this body before the Tariff Commission shall be authorized to make such changes in phraseology as may be needed to correct errors, omissions, and duplications, and to remove any obscurities that may appear, without making any changes in definitions, classifications, or rates or forms of duties.

The secretaries were then authorized to put in print the rates adopted by the convention, and to send proofs to the committees appointed to appear before the Tariff Commission.

After passing votes of thanks to the president, the vice-presidents, secretaries, and reporters, and the hotel proprietors, the convention adjourned.

JAMES PARK, JR.,
President of the Convention.

JAMES M. SWANK,
JOSEPH D. WEEKS,
GEORGE W. COPE,
HENRY WHITELEY,
Secretaries.

[We present in the following pages the proposed schedule of tariff duties and the present duties on iron and steel—the proposed duties on the left-hand page and the present duties on the same articles on the right-hand page.]

PROPOSED SCHEDULE OF TARIFF DUTIES

Adopted by the Convention of Iron and Steel Manufacturers and Iron Ore Producers, at Cresson, September 12 and 13, 1882.

PROPOSED RATE OF DUTY ON IRON ORE.

On all kinds of iron ore, including manganese ore, mangiferous iron ore, pyrites, and what is commercially known as "purple ore" or "blue billy," a specific duty of not less than *eighty-five cents per ton*.

PROPOSED RATES OF DUTY ON PIG IRON, AND ON CAST AND WROUGHT SCRAP IRON, AND ON IRON CASTINGS.

On iron in pigs: *eight dollars per ton*.

On cast scrap iron of every description: *eight dollars per ton*. On wrought scrap iron of every description: *eight dollars per ton*. *Provided*, that nothing shall be deemed scrap iron except waste or refuse iron that has been in actual use, and is fit only to be remanufactured.

On malleable iron in castings not otherwise provided for: *two cents and one-half per pound*.

On all other castings of iron not otherwise provided for: *forty per cent. ad valorem*. *Provided*, That no castings of iron shall be admitted at a lower rate of duty than that which is imposed on iron in pigs.

PROPOSED RATES OF DUTY ON BAR IRON, FORGINGS, NAILS, ETC.

On bar iron, rolled or hammered, comprising flats not less than one inch or more than six inches wide, nor less than three-eighths of an inch or more than two inches thick; rounds not less than three-fourths of an inch nor more than two inches in diameter; and squares not less than three-fourths of an inch nor more than two inches square: *one cent per pound*.

On bar iron, rolled or hammered, comprising flats less than one inch or more than six inches wide, or less than three-eighths of an inch or more than two inches thick; rounds less than three-fourths of an inch or more than two inches in diameter; and squares less than three-fourths of an inch or more than two inches square: *one cent and one-fourth per pound*.

But all iron in slabs, blooms, loops, or other forms, less finished than iron in bars, and more advanced than pig iron, except castings, shall be rated as iron in bars, and pay a duty accordingly; and none of the above iron shall pay a less rate of duty than *thirty-five per cent. ad valorem*.

On wrought-iron beams and girders, channel bars, deck and bulb beams, column segments, tee and angle bars, and on all structural iron, and on all iron rolled to a shape or section other than round, flat, and square bars: *one cent and one-half per pound*.

On iron bars for railroads or inclined planes, weighing more than thirty pounds to the yard: *seventy cents per hundred pounds*; weighing thirty pounds or less to the yard: *one cent per pound*.

On all iron in bars of whatever shape, and on all iron of irregular shape or section, which has been cold rolled or cold hammered, or which has been finished or polished by any process of rolling or hammering additional to the ordinary process of hot rolling or hammering: *two cents and one-half per pound*.

PRESENT DUTIES ON IRON AND STEEL.

[The figures refer to the numbered paragraphs in the indexed tariff published by the Treasury Department. The statements in brackets are mainly references to Treasury Department decisions.]

414. Mineral and bituminous substances in a crude state not otherwise provided for: *twenty per cent.*
[Includes iron ore and magnetic iron sand.]

67. Iron in pigs: *seven dollars per ton.*

[Iron kentledge, which is pig iron cast specially for ballasting ships, was formerly ruled to be dutiable under this clause, but is now held to be "castings of iron not otherwise provided for," dutiable at 30 per cent. Spiegeleisen is dutiable under the above clause; also, manganese iron and so-called "Bessomer pig iron."]

113. Cast scrap-iron of every description: *six dollars per ton.*

114. Wrought scrap-iron of every description: *eight dollars per ton.*

But nothing shall be deemed scrap-iron except waste or refuse iron that has been in actual use, and is fit only to be remanufactured.

[Now pieces, such as punchings and clippings, are held to be dutiable under paragraph 68 at 1 cent per pound.]

90. Blacksmiths' hammers and sledges, axles or parts thereof, and malleable iron in castings, not otherwise provided for: *two cents and one-half per pound.*

[Includes hammered forgings for axles, whether finished or unfinished.]

115. All other castings of iron not otherwise provided for: *thirty per cent.*

[Includes iron kentledge.]

68. Bar iron, rolled or hammered, comprising flats not less than one inch or more than six inches wide, nor less than three-eighths of an inch or more than two inches thick; rounds not less than three-fourths of an inch nor more than two inches in diameter; and squares not less than three-fourths of an inch nor more than two inches square: *one cent per pound.*

Bar iron, rolled or hammered, comprising flats less than three-eighths of an inch or more than two inches thick, or less than one inch or more than six inches wide; rounds less than three-fourths of an inch or more than two inches in diameter; and squares less than three-fourths of an inch or more than two inches square: *one cent and one-half per pound.*

But all iron in slabs, blooms, loops, or other forms, less finished than iron in bars, and more advanced than pig iron, except castings, shall be rated as iron in bars, and pay a duty accordingly; and none of the above iron shall pay a less rate of duty than *thirty-five per cent. ad valorem.*

[Includes all pieces of new bar iron, bar ends, and punchings and clippings fit to be made into wire or other articles; and when such pieces constitute any considerable proportion of so-called "scrap-iron" the whole is dutiable as bar iron. Also includes horse-shoe iron and all similar iron, "regardless of length, designation, or quality."]

69. [a. The duty on Moisie iron, of whatever condition, grade, or stage of manufacture, shall be the same as on all other species of iron of like condition, grade, or stage of manufacture. Act of February 8, 1875, sec. 6.]

82. All other descriptions of rolled or hammered iron not otherwise provided for: *one cent and one-quarter per pound.*

[Includes iron wire rods, in coils, of over 3-16 inch thick, car-truck channels, hammered forgings from scrap, iron beams and other structural iron, gas strips, octagonal-shaped iron, toe-calk iron, and nail plates.]

70. Iron bars for railroads or inclined planes: *seventy cents per one hundred pounds.*

[Not provided for.]

On slit rods of iron: *one cent and one-half per pound.*

On all descriptions of rolled iron not otherwise provided for: *one cent and one-half per pound.*

On cut nails and spikes of iron: *one cent and one-half per pound.*

On cut iron or steel tacks, brads, or sprigs, not exceeding sixteen ounces to the thousand: *two cents and one-half per thousand*; exceeding sixteen ounces to the thousand: *three cents per pound.*

On wrought-iron or steel nails not otherwise provided for, and on iron or steel spikes, rivets, bolts, nuts, washers, and wagon hardware, and horse, mule, or ox shoes: *two cents and one-half per pound.*

On horseshoe nails, hob nails, and wire nails, made of iron or steel: *five cents per pound.*

On mill-irons, shafting and mill-cranks of wrought iron, and wrought iron for ships, steam engines, and locomotives, or parts thereof, weighing each twenty-five pounds or more: *two cents per pound.*

On anvils, iron cables, or cable-chains, or parts thereof: *two cents and one-half per pound.* *Provided,* That no chains made of wire or rods of a diameter less than one-half of one inch shall be considered a chain cable.

On chains, trace-chains, halter-chains, and fence-chains, made of wire or rods not less than one-fourth of one inch in diameter: *two cents and one-half per pound*; less than one-fourth of one inch in diameter, and not under number nine wire-gauge: *three cents per pound*; under number nine wire-gauge: *thirty-five per cent. ad valorem.*

On anchors, or parts thereof: *two cents and one-fourth per pound.*

On wrought-iron railroad chairs and rail splice-bars: *two cents per pound.*

On bed-screws and wrought and cast-iron butts and hinges, and blanks for the same: *two cents and one-half per pound.*

On steam, gas, and water tubes and flues of wrought iron or steel: *three cents and one-half per pound.*

On iron locomotive, car, or other tires, wholly or partially manufactured, or parts thereof, or blanks for the same: *three cents per pound.*

On blacksmiths' hammers and sledges, track tools, wedges, and crowbars: *two cents and one-half per pound.*

On all kinds of iron or steel axles, or parts thereof, axle bars, axle blanks, or forgings for axles, without reference to the stage or state of manufacture: *two cents and one-half per pound.*

On all forgings of iron or steel, or on forged iron, of whatever shape or in whatever stage of manufacture, not otherwise provided for: *two cents and one-half per pound.*

On manufactures, articles, vessels, and wares of iron not heretofore provided for, or of which iron shall be the component material or part of chief value: *thirty-five per cent. ad valorem.*

PROPOSED RATES OF DUTY ON PLATE AND SHEET IRON, ETC.

On armor or other plate iron or steel or combination of iron and steel, finished or unfinished, not thinner than one inch and one-half: *three cents per pound.*

On boiler or other plate iron sheared or unsheared, skelp iron sheared or rolled in grooves, and sheet iron, common or black, thinner than one inch and one-half and not thinner than number twenty-five wire-gauge: *one cent and one-half per pound*; thinner than number twenty-five wire-gauge and not thinner than number twenty-nine wire-gauge: *one cent and three-fourths per pound*; thinner than number twenty-nine wire-gauge, and all iron known commercially as common or black taggers iron, whether put up in boxes or bundles or not: *two cents and one-fourth per pound.*

On polished, planished, or glanced sheet-iron or sheet-steel, by whatever name designated: *three cents per pound.*

81. Slit rods: *one cent and one-half per pound.*

[See 82 *supra.*]

104. Cut nails and spikes: *one cent and one-half per pound.*

106. Cut tacks, brads, or sprigs, not exceeding sixteen ounces to the thousand: *two cents and one-half per thousand*; exceeding sixteen ounces to the thousand: *three cents per pound.*

102. Wrought board-nails, spikes, rivets, and bolts: *two cents and one-half per pound.* [Includes *patent* wrought nails; but iron wire nails are dutiable as "manufactures of iron not otherwise provided for," at 35 per cent.]

105. Horseshoe-nails: *five cents per pound.*

95. Mill-irons and mill-cranks of wrought iron, and wrought iron for ships, steam-engines, and locomotives, or parts thereof, weighing each twenty-five pounds or more: *two cents per pound.*

96. Anvils and iron cables, or cable chains, or parts thereof: *two cents and one-half per pound.* *Provided,* That no chains made of wire or rods of a diameter less than one-half of one inch shall be considered a chain-cable.

97. Chains, trace-chains, halter-chains, and fence-chains, made of wire or rods, not less than one-fourth of one inch in diameter: *two cents and one-half per pound*; less than one-fourth of one inch in diameter, and not under number nine wire-gauge: *three cents per pound*; under number nine wire-gauge: *thirty-five per cent.*

98. Anchors, or parts thereof: *two cents and one-fourth per pound.*

100. Wrought-iron railroad chairs, and wrought-iron nuts and washers, ready punched: *two cents per pound.*

101. Bed-screws and wrought-iron hinges: *two cents and one-half per pound.*

103. Steam, gas, and water tubes and flues of wrought iron: *three cents and one-half per pound.*

[Since the passage of the Revised Statutes of 1874 no distinction is made between flues and tubes.]

94. Locomotive tire, or parts thereof: *three cents per pound.*

[Includes steel locomotive tires.]

[See 99 *supra.*]

[See 99 *supra.*]

[See 82 *supra.*]

146. Manufactures, articles, vessels, and wares not otherwise provided for, of brass, iron, lead, pewter, and tin or other metal (except gold, silver, platinum, copper, and steel), or of which either of these metals shall be the component material of chief value: *thirty-five per cent.*

[Includes cotton ties made of hoop iron or strips of iron, with buckles or other fastenings, or with permanent studs and holes or ends punched; iron wire nails; iron horse shoes; iron chains when tinned or washed; hoops fit for use; iron shovels and spades; square wire for umbrella and parasol stretchers, cut to lengths; iron telegraph cable, and sundry small iron wares.]

71. Boiler or other plate iron not less than three-sixteenths of an inch in thickness: *one cent and one-half per pound.*

[Includes so-called "sheet-iron" which is fit for some uses of plate iron, as tank and shutter plates. Also includes tank plates *not* under 3-16 inch thick, cut to all sizes and punched.]

72. Boiler and other plate iron, not otherwise provided for: *twenty-five dollars per ton.* [Includes plates cut to all sizes and punched, if under 3-16 inch thick. Slab iron for the manufacture of safes is dutiable either as plate or sheet iron according to its thickness.]

77. Sheet-iron, common or black, not thinner than number twenty wire-gauge: *one cent and one-quarter per pound*; thinner than number twenty, and not thinner than number twenty-five wire-gauge: *one cent and one-half per pound*; thinner than number twenty-five wire-gauge: *one cent and three-quarters per pound.*

[Includes sheet-iron of slightly polished appearance from being rolled in single sheets to toughen it for making spoons, etc.]

116. Tiggers iron: *thirty per cent.*

76. Smooth or polished sheet-iron, by whatever name designated: *three cents per pound.*

[Not provided for.]

Plate, or sheet, or taggers iron, by whatever name designated, other than the polished, planished, or glanced herein provided for, which has been pickled or cleaned by acid, or by any other material or process, or which is cold rolled, or single rolled, or smoothed by rolling, shall pay *one-half cent per pound* more duty than the corresponding gauges of common or black sheet or taggers iron.

On sheet, or plates, or strips, or hoops, or bars, or bands of iron or steel galvanized or coated with zinc or spelter, or with a compound, alloy, or mixture of metals, of which zinc or spelter is the principal component: *two cents and one-half per pound*.

On sheets, or plates, or strips, or hoops, or bars, or bands of iron or steel, or taggers iron, coated with tin or lead, or with a mixture of which these metals are a component part, by the dipping or any other process: *two cents and three-fourths per pound*.

On iron or steel plates, or sheets, or hoops, or bars, or strips, or bands, galvanized or coated with any metal by electric batteries, or by any other process not otherwise provided for: *two cents and one-half per pound*.

On corrugated or crimped sheets or plates of iron: *two cents per pound*.

On corrugated or crimped sheets or plates of iron or steel, if galvanized or coated with any metal: *three cents per pound*.

All shapes, or blanks, of sheet, or plate, or skelp iron, and whether common, or black, or galvanized, or coated with any metal, and if not herein otherwise provided for, shall pay *one-half cent per pound* more duty than is imposed upon the material of which such shapes or blanks are made.

All manufactures, articles, vessels, or wares made of iron, or of which iron shall be the component material or part of chief value, whether of sheet or plate, and whether common or black or galvanized or coated with any metal, and whether wholly or partially manufactured, and if not herein otherwise provided for, shall pay a duty of *forty per cent. ad valorem*.

PROPOSED RATES OF DUTY ON HOOP AND OTHER IRON.

On all hoop, band, scroll, or other iron, without reference to length, and by whatever name called, eight inches or less in width and not thinner than number ten wire-gauge: *one cent and one-fourth per pound*; thinner than number ten wire-gauge, and not thinner than number seventeen wire-gauge: *one cent and one-half per pound*; thinner than number seventeen wire-gauge: *one cent and three-fourths per pound*.

Provided, that all articles, whether wholly or partially manufactured, made from the hoop, band, scroll, or other iron herein provided for, or of which such hoop, band, scroll, or other iron shall be the material of chief value, shall pay *one-fourth of one cent per pound* more duty than that imposed on the iron from which they are made, or which shall be such material of chief value. This proviso does not apply to "cotton ties," which shall pay the same duty as the hoop iron from which they are made.

PROPOSED RATES OF DUTY ON STEEL AND MANUFACTURES OF STEEL.

On steel ingots, cogged ingots, blooms, and slabs, made by the Bessemer, pneumatic, Thomas-Gilchrist, basic, Siemens-Martin, open-hearth, or by any other process, weighing not less than five hundred pounds each, and measuring not less than five inches square or in least diameter of cross section of the ingots, cogged ingots, or blooms, nor less than five inches in thickness nor ten inches in width of the slabs: *twenty dollars per ton*. *Provided*, that when made by the crucible process the rates of duty shall be the same as those fixed upon these articles of less weight and smaller dimensions.

On steel ingots, cogged ingots, and blooms, measuring less than five inches square or in greatest diameter of cross section, and weighing less than five hundred pounds each, and all steel slabs measuring less than five inches thick and ten inches wide, and weighing less than five hundred pounds each; die blocks or blanks; billets and bars and tapered bars, strips, and bands, of all shapes, lengths, weights, and sizes; rods or bolts of all shapes and sizes not in coils; sheets of all gauges, plates and plate slabs of all thicknesses and widths; saw plates, tank plates, railroad splice-bars or fish-plates, railroad chairs, cut spikes and nails, strips, skelp, bands, hoop, scroll; steamer, crank, and other shafts, wrist or crank pins, connecting-rods, piston-rods; unusual, irregular, plain or corrugated, pressed or sheared or stamped shapes or blanks of sheet and plate steel or a combination of steel and iron, punched or not punched; hammer molds or swaged steel; gun-barrel molds not in bars; clock-spring steel in strips or sheets coiled or not coiled and not hardened or tempered, but when polished and hardened or tempered it shall be classed as a manufacture of steel; pen steel in coils or sheets, ax-shaped steel, alloys used as substitutes for steel tools; all descriptions and shapes of dry sand, loam, or iron-molded steel castings, valued at six cents

131. Iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal otherwise than by electric batteries: *two cents and one-half per pound.*

[Includes tin-coated strips for the manufacture of hoops for buckets, etc.]

129. [a. On tin in plates or sheets and on tongs and taggers tin: *one and one-tenth cents per pound.* Act of February 8, 1875, sec. 4.]

[Includes tin plates.]

130. Iron and tin plates galvanized or coated with any metal by electric batteries: *two cents per pound.*

[See 146 *supra.*]

[See 146 *supra.*]

[See 146 *supra.*]

78. All band, hoop, and scroll iron from one-half to six inches in width, not thinner than one-eighth of an inch: *one cent and one-fourth per pound.*

79. All band, hoop, and scroll iron from one-half to six inches wide, under one-eighth of an inch in thickness, and not thinner than number twenty wire-gauge: *one cent and one-half per pound.*

[Iron strips or hoop iron cut into lengths to be made into hoops, or cut and splayed for the same purpose, are dutiable as hoop iron; but when made into cotton ties, or cut into strips for cotton ties, with buckles or other fastenings, or with permanent studs and holes or ends punched, they are dutiable as manufactures of iron at 35 per cent.]

80. All band, hoop, and scroll iron thinner than number twenty wire-gauge: *one cent and three-fourths per pound.*

91. All manufactures of steel, or of which steel shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for: *forty-five per cent.* But all articles of steel partially manufactured, or of which steel shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for, shall pay the same rate of duty as if wholly manufactured.

[Includes steel railway blooms; hammer molds or swaged steel; propeller shafts; cast-steel tires; axles; shafts and other forgings in the rough, wholly or partly manufactured; fish plates; gun-barrel molds not in bars; clock-spring steel in sheets; steel horseshoes; steel shovels and spades; steel chains, and sundry small steel wares.]

117. Steel in ingots, bars, coils, sheets, and steel wire, not less than one-fourth of one inch in diameter, valued at seven cents per pound or less: *two cents and one-fourth per pound*; valued at above seven cents and not above eleven cents per pound: *three cents per pound*; valued at above eleven cents per pound: *three cents and one-half per pound, and ten per cent.*

[Includes steel wire-blooms; steel in sheets invoiced as "best cross-cuts;" sheets in circular form; steel in bars with raised borders; billets; steel in sheets of varying thicknesses; so-called "Bessemer sheet iron;" and steel in coils without regard to size.]

[Not provided for.]

[See 117 *supra.*]

[See 94 *supra.*]

per pound or less: *two cents and one-fourth per pound*; valued above six cents and not above ten cents per pound: *three cents per pound*; valued at above ten cents per pound *three cents and one-half per pound, and ten per cent. ad valorem.*

On all steel bars, rods, strips, or sheets, which are cold-rolled, cold-hammered, or polished in any way in addition to the ordinary processes of hot rolling or hammering: *one cent per pound in addition to the schedule of rates in the above paragraph.*

On rolled or hammered steel beams, girders, joists, angles, channels, car-truck channels, tees, columns, and posts, or parts or sections of columns or posts, deck and hull beams, and star forms, together with all other structural shapes of steel: *one cent and three-fourths per pound.*

On all kinds of wheels for railway purposes, whether wholly or partially finished, and on steel locomotive, car, and other railway tires, or parts thereof, wholly or partially manufactured, or ingots, cogged ingots, blooms, or blanks for the same, without regard to the degree of manufacture: *three cents per pound.*

On steel rivet, screw, nail, fence, and wire rods in coils and loops, valued at three cents and one-half per pound or less: *one cent per pound*; valued above three cents and one-half per pound and not above five cents per pound: *one cent and three-fourths per pound*; valued above five cents per pound and not above six cents per pound: *two cents and one-fourth per pound*; valued above six cents per pound and not above ten cents per pound: *three cents per pound*; valued above ten cents per pound: *three cents and one-half per pound, and ten per cent. ad valorem.* But rolled steel rods in coils or loops, galvanized or otherwise coated, and all descriptions of steel wire and wire of which steel is a component part of chief value, not otherwise specifically enumerated and provided for, shall pay the same duty as steel wire.

On steel screws, commonly called wood-screws, two inches or over in length: *seven cents per pound*; over one inch and less than two inches in length: *ten cents and one-half per pound*; one inch and less in length: *thirteen cents per pound.*

On steel railway bars, and railway bars made in part of steel: *one cent per pound.*

On steel railway bar crop ends, none of which shall exceed eighteen inches in length; on steel ingot, cogged ingot, bloom, slab, and billet crop ends, none of which shall exceed four inches in length; on steel filings and borings and turnings, and on scrap steel of every description: *eight dollars per ton.* But nothing shall be deemed scrap steel except waste or refuse steel that has been in actual use, and is fit only to be remelted or remanufactured.

On steel in any form not otherwise provided for: *three cents per pound.* Provided, however, that any article of steel substantially of a class covered by any of the foregoing paragraphs, but not specifically named therein, shall pay the highest rate of duty fixed for the class to which it belongs.

On all manufactures of steel or of which steel shall be the component material or part of chief value, embracing machines and parts of machines, tools, wares, utensils, and vessels, whether wholly or partially manufactured or finished, not otherwise provided for: *forty-five per cent. ad valorem.*

PROPOSED RATES OF DUTY ON IRON AND STEEL WIRE, ETC.

On iron wire not less than number sixteen wire-gauge: *two dollars per hundred pounds, and fifteen per cent. ad valorem.*

Over number sixteen and not over number twenty-five wire-gauge: *three dollars and fifty cents per hundred pounds, and fifteen per cent. ad valorem.*

Over or finer than number twenty-five wire-gauge: *four dollars per hundred pounds, and fifteen per cent. ad valorem.*

But iron wire covered with cotton, silk, or other material shall pay *five cents per pound* in addition to the foregoing rates. Provided, that no article made from iron wire, or of which iron wire is a component part of chief value, shall pay a less rate of duty than the iron wire from which it is made either wholly or in part.

Round iron in coils, galvanized or otherwise coated, and all descriptions of iron wire, and wire of which iron is a component part of chief value, not otherwise specifically enumerated and provided for, shall pay the same duty as iron wire.

Iron-wire cloths and iron-wire nettings made in meshes of any form shall pay a duty equal in amount to that imposed on iron wire of the same gauge, and *four cents per pound* in addition thereto.

On wire spiral furniture springs, manufactured of iron or steel wire: *two cents per pound, and fifteen per cent. ad valorem.*

120. Steel, in any form not otherwise provided for: *thirty per cent.* *Provided, that no allowance or reduction of duties for partial loss or damage shall be hereafter made in consequence of rust of iron or steel or upon the manufactures of iron or steel, except on polished Russia sheet-iron.*

[Includes steel wire-rods in coils, steel bars slightly tapered, steel rail ends, scrap steel, and axe-shaped steel.]

107. Screws, commonly called wood-screws, two inches or over in length: *eight cents per pound*; less than two inches in length: *eleven cents per pound.*

108. Screws of any other metal than iron, and all other screws of iron except wood-screws: *thirty-five per cent.*

92. Steel railway bars: *one cent and one-fourth per pound.*

93. Railway bars, made in part of steel: *one cent per pound.* And metal converted, cast, or made from iron by the Bessemer or pneumatic process, of whatever form or description, shall be classed as steel.

[See 120 *supra.*]

[See 120 *supra.*]

[See 91 *supra.*]

73. Iron wire, bright, coppered, or tinned, drawn and finished, not more than one-fourth of an inch in diameter, not less than number sixteen wire-gauge: *two dollars per hundred pounds, and fifteen per cent.*

Over number sixteen and not over number twenty-five wire-gauge: *three dollars and fifty cents per hundred pounds, and fifteen per cent.*

Over or finer than number twenty-five wire-gauge: *four dollars per hundred pounds, and fifteen per cent.*

But wire covered with cotton, silk, or other material shall pay *five cents per pound* in addition to the foregoing rates.

[Includes wire rope and wire strand or chain made of iron wire, either bright, coppered, galvanized, or coated with other metals.]

74. Round iron in coils, three-sixteenths of an inch or less in diameter, whether coated with metal or not so coated, and all descriptions of iron wire, and wire of which iron is a component part, not otherwise specifically enumerated and provided for, shall pay the same duty as iron wire, bright, coppered, or tinned.

[Not provided for.]

75. Wire spiral furniture springs, manufactured of iron wire: *two cents per pound and fifteen per cent.*

On steel wire not less than number sixteen wire-gauge: *two cents and one-half per pound, and twenty per cent. ad valorem*; less or finer than number sixteen wire-gauge: *three cents per pound, and twenty per cent. ad valorem.*

On steel wire commonly known as erinoline, corset, and hat steel wire, and steel wire covered with cotton, silk, or other material: *eight cents per pound. Provided, that no article made from steel wire or of which steel wire is a component part of chief value shall pay a less rate of duty than the steel wire from which it is made either wholly or in part.*

Steel-wire cloths and steel-wire nettings made in meshes of any form shall pay a duty equal in amount to that imposed on steel wire of the same gauge, and *four cents per pound* in addition thereto.

Wire rope, wire strand, and chain of iron or steel wire, either bright, coppered, galvanized, or coated with other metals, shall pay the same rates of duty that are levied on the wire of which they are made.

GENERAL PROVISIONS.

It is hereby enacted, that all metal, without regard to the percentage of carbon contained therein, whether produced by cementation, or converted, cast, or made from iron or its ores by the crucible, Bessemer, pneumatic, Thomas-Gilchrist, basic, Siemens-Martin, or open-hearth process, or by the equivalent of either, or by the combination of two or more of these processes, or their equivalents, or by any fusion or other process which produces, from iron or its ores, a metal either granular or fibrous in structure which is cast and malleable, of whatever description or form, excepting what is known as malleable-iron castings, shall be classed and denominated as steel.

No allowance or reduction of duties for partial loss or damage in consequence of rust or of discoloration shall be made upon any description of iron or steel, or upon any manufacture of iron or steel, or upon any partially manufactured article of iron or steel.

On all iron or steel, and on all manufactures, wares, utensils, vessels, and articles of iron or steel, or of which such metals or either of them shall be the component part of chief value, whether wholly or partially manufactured, there shall be levied, collected, and paid no less rate of duty than the highest duty or rate of duty imposed upon any part of said goods in any of the forms in which it or they existed prior to or during their passage into the form or article on which the duty is to be levied. This shall not apply to, nor in any manner affect, the articles specifically enumerated in this schedule by their commercial designation, but shall only apply to the articles designated in this schedule as manufactures of iron or steel or of which iron or steel shall be the component material or part of chief value not otherwise provided for.

If two or more rates of duty should seem to be applicable to any imported article it shall be classified for duty under the highest of such rates; and in all cases of doubt as to the classification for duty of an imported article it shall be assigned to the class bearing the highest rate of duty.

118. Steel wire less than one-fourth of an inch in diameter and not less than number sixteen wire-gauge: *two cents and one-half per pound, and twenty per cent.*; less or finer than number sixteen wire-gauge: *three cents per pound, and twenty per cent.*

[Includes wire rope and wire strand or chain made of steel wire, either bright, coppered, galvanized, or coated with other metals.]

119. Steel commercially known as crinoline, corset, and hat steel wire: *nine cents per pound, and ten per cent.*

[Not provided for.]

[See 118 *supra.*]

[See 93 *supra.*]

[See 120 *supra.*]

[Not provided for.]

HUSSEY & CO.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 10, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. HUSSEY & Co., of Pittsburgh, in regard to the duty on German clay, was ordered to be printed:

We would respectfully present for your consideration the subject of German (unwrought) clay, an ingredient in crucibles which are used for melting steel, brass, and other metals. This article is brought from the Black Mountains of Germany, and is subject to a duty of \$5 per ton; the commercial value, after duty is paid, being about \$25 per ton of 2,240 pounds.

Of the many clays found in this country, a number have been tried to take the place of the German, but thus far without success. As this, therefore, is an article not in reality competing with home products, and coming, as we think, under the class of articles which the government is least inclined to burden with a tax, namely, crude materials largely used in the manufactures, we therefore submit it as entitled to be admitted free of duty.

We would mention, in this connection, that the duty on plumbago or black lead, the other ingredient in crucibles, was removed several years ago.

W. S. SHALLENBERGER ET AL.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 11, 1882.*

Hon. W. S. SHALLENBERGER, of Rochester, Pa., representing the wool-growing interest, addressed the Commission as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMISSION: I appear before you as a member of a committee appointed by the Washington County Stock Breeders' Association. It is my intention to occupy but a few moments of your time, and then to ask the gentlemen who accompany me, who are practical breeders of sheep and growers of fine wool, to give their testimony upon this important subject of sheep husbandry.

In introducing the subject of protective duties on wool I desire, as far as possible, to separate myself from the interests of my immediate constituency, and to appear as representing an industry which is vitally important, as I think, to the country at large as well as to the county which has delegated me to represent its interests. As protectionists, we believe that the object of a protective tariff is to enable the American producer and manufacturer to compete fairly with the outside world in all industrial pursuits. We do not plead for any one industry as against any other. Agriculture is the dominant industry of this country. We produce not only all that we need in the way of cereals, but export largely. Between the years 1860 and 1880 the per capita consumption of cereals in this country was raised from 38 to 48 bushels. When I consider these points, I regard it as highly essential that we, as economists, should determine how we shall properly diversify and promote agriculture if we do not sustain every possible industry that America can wisely and judiciously foster. Whatever this country can produce we should produce. A protective tariff will encourage the production. We should have that protective tariff high enough and long enough to give us the full development of all our resources.

In regard to the subject of wool, I may say that of all industries it is the one that is purely national. We have increased the production of wool from about 60,000,000 pounds in 1860 to 290,000,000 pounds at the present time, and that should be a full demonstration of the fact that we can produce in this country all the wool that is needed, as in fact we do with the exception of about 13,000,000 to 15,000,000 pounds of fine wool—the amount imported into the country in 1881. Out of the entire importation of 55,000,000 to 60,000,000 pounds of wool—the wool which entered into competition with American—amounted, as I am reliably informed, to not exceeding 15,000,000 pounds. Hence I say we have demonstrated the fact that under the existing tariff we have reached almost that point when we produce as much as our manufacturers demand.

In the county which I am here to represent, as the gentlemen who are associated with me will tell you, the production of fine wool is rather on the decrease. Land is too high, averaging perhaps \$75 per acre. The growing of fine sheep there is not found to be as profitable as it was a few years ago, and it will become a serious question with the farmers very soon as to whether they shall not give up raising fine sheep and producing fine wool, and allow other sections of the country more favorably situated as to cheap lands and climate—I mean the Southern

and Western sections of the country—to take up the business of wool growing. Whether that shall be so or not, the country at large can produce all the medium grades of wool, and if the present tariff is maintained in its integrity we shall be able, in a year or two, in my judgment, with the steady increase that I have recited, to produce all the wool we need. When that point is reached and exceeded, then even a higher tariff will have no influence whatever upon the prices of wool, and when we can produce all or more than all the wool that the manufacturers of this country shall demand then it will become a question as to whether Washington County can compete with Kansas, whether it can compete with Colorado, Ohio, Michigan, and the Western sections of the country. Then the price of wool will be determined, not by the price of foreign wool with the duty added, but wholly and solely by the cost of producing wool in the most favored sections of this country.

There has been a vast increase in sheep growing in Australia within the last two decades, so marvelous that to-day Australia has almost double the number of sheep in all her provinces that we have in this country. She has a climate in which sheep can live all the year round without shelter, and upon pasturage which is abundant. The relations of this country to Australia have changed during that time, and the effect upon the price of foreign wool has been very apparent, so that if the tariff were reduced now the importation, say, of 99,000,000 or 100,000,000 pounds of wool in 1880 and 55,000,000 or 60,000,000 pounds in 1881 would be probably 150,000,000 or 250,000,000 pounds annually, which would absolutely destroy this industry of ours.

I am not here to plead for a prohibitory duty on wool. I believe this country will do its best when it puts itself fairly on a platform to compete with other countries. We have 42,000,000 sheep, while Australia has 72,000,000.

We have been testing for years under the stimulus of our present tariff the most favored sections of our country, and still the production is not equal to the home demand. Reduce the tariff, and production will be less, while importation must be greater. If the older States, where land is high, cannot afford to grow wool under the present tariff, still less could they afford it under a reduced tariff. If capital has not been tempted sufficiently thus far into more favored sections for the purpose of growing wool at present prices, still less will it be tempted to those sections should the tariff be reduced and foreign wool brought in competition at still lower prices. I do not think any portion of our country can or will produce wool as cheaply as other countries. Labor must be higher here because it must be intelligent. Land is higher and growing higher. Climate anywhere requires shelter and some feeding. The mere question as to the cost of woollen fabrics is comparatively insignificant. Sheep husbandry cannot be imperiled without great loss to the country. It supplies cheap, wholesome meat, which is one of the heavy items of expense in every family. All meat food is lower in price because of mutton in every market; but for sheep, fresh meat would be impossible in thousands of families. An industry so general, that feeds and clothes our people as no other nation is fed and clothed, that reclaims waste lands, and enriches all soil, is an industry that should receive full protection from tariff legislation.

I would therefore protest against the slightest reduction in the tariff duties on wool, unless possibly on the very lowest grades of wool, which do not enter into competition with that which is profitably produced in this country. I take it that our true interest is in the cultivation of the finer grades of wool. So that if there be a demand for a reduction of

the duty in the interest of the consumer, it can only be in respect to wool which this country does not and will not care to produce.

I do insist that no reduction shall be made upon clothing wool, and in doing that I ask that which is in the interest, as I believe, of the whole country and not alone in the interest of any particular section.

Washington County is supplying fine-blooded sheep to the Western and Southern sections of our country. The district which I have the honor to represent sells ten stock sheep to be taken out of the county to one it sells within. Our nearness to the great market of Pittsburgh enables our sheep breeders, from the sale of the carcasses as well, to maintain their sheep husbandry, which could not otherwise be maintained under our present tariff. The production of wool is of infinite importance to the agricultural industry, by abstracting labor and capital from the production of cereals, which have been produced so largely that, even with the increased consumption, we are not able to consume all we raise, and have to export vast amounts. We are consuming of cereals per capita 48 bushels to-day where in 1860 we consumed but 38 bushels; we are also now using in this country woolen goods to a largely increased amount. In 1860 the per capita of woolen goods used in this country was but 2.32, while in the census for 1880 we find it is 5.33, showing that our people are using largely more of woolen goods and more of cereals; and yet we find it almost impossible in this country to transfer enough labor and capital from agriculture, from the ranks of producers to the ranks of consumers, to maintain our agriculturists as they are. Hence, when we plead for wool, we plead for agriculture; when we plead for iron and steel, we plead for agriculture; when we plead for our manufacturing industries, we plead for agriculture; because with no market for our surplus agriculture droops and dies. It now maintains itself from the fact that we not only employ labor and capital in so many other industries, but maintain our whole people in this enlarged consumption of all the necessaries and luxuries of life. We have largely diminished the cost of production, and are constantly diminishing it in all branches of industry. There are gentlemen within my personal acquaintance who have traveled over Europe, who tell me that foreign clothing cannot compete in neatness and durability with staple clothing manufactured in this country. This is caused by the increasing intelligence of the laborer in this country, which leads him to be constantly devising new methods and new machinery for manufacturing purposes. If you will take up the report of the Quartermaster-General of the Army, you will find that the prices paid for the clothing of our soldiers will very favorably compare with the prices paid for the clothing used in European armies. So I say that a protective tariff does stimulate every industry in the country, and brightens and quickens intelligence, labor, inventive skill, and genius in all methods and modes of production, and the effect is to reduce the price to the consumer all the time. Then again, the price of wool to-day would not be, on the average, 20 cents a pound in the foreign markets but for the fact that we have 300,000,000 pounds of wool here to compete with it. The protective tariff has enabled us to produce this amount of wool, and hence has kept down the foreign price. So with every other industry.

I trust the Commission will carefully consider these facts, and under no circumstances recommend a reduction of the duties upon the medium grades of wool.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Question. Will you enumerate the States in which wool is grown, in

the order of quantity?—Answer. I am not sure that I remember, but think Texas is the largest wool-growing State; then California, and then Ohio.

Q. I want to develop the fact that wool-growing is not confined to any particular section of our country.—A. No, sir; it is not.

Q. Can you state to what extent the quality of wool depends upon the breed of the sheep, the grass on which it feeds, and the climate in which it exists?—A. Not being a practical producer of wool, I can only state as my opinion that the breed of sheep largely determines the quality of the wool, although much depends on food and climate.

By Commissioner BOTTLER:

Q. You have stated that in Washington County, where land averages \$75 an acre, the highest grades of sheep cannot be raised profitably much longer; is that your statement?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What is your information in regard to the situation of West Virginia in this respect; whether these sheep can be profitably raised there?—A. There are with me one or two practical sheep-breeders, who will be happy to answer such questions; I have no information which would justify me in attempting to answer the question.

Mr. JOHN McDOWELL, president of the Washington County Agricultural Association, said:

I have been a practical wool-grower since 1847, and have kept from 1,300 head down to my present number of 600.

I respectfully submit the following as the cost of keeping 100 head of sheep yearly for the past few years:

Pasture six months at \$10.....	\$60 00
Salt.....	2 00
Salting, changing, and trimming through summer season.....	8 00
Feeding through winter.....	15 00
Eight tons hay at \$8.....	64 00

(Some winters we feed 10 tons, and even more than this.)

One-half bushel corn per day, 180 days.....	45 00
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(Corn is estimated at 50 cents per bushel.)

For washing, shearing, and rolling wool, 10 cents per head.....	9 50
-----------------------------------------------------------------	------

Total.....	203 50
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The cost of one sheep \$2.04 a year.

When hay is high in price, the winters are generally severe, but the high price is more frequently from the shortness of the crop.

These figures are not to be understood as entirely estimated, for I have paid these prices.

Of the proceeds on revenue from 100 sheep, I will first deduct the mortality list from various causes 5 per cent., leaving 95. Of this number I will suppose 25 are wethers, 50 are ewes and 20 are yearlings. These will shear 5½ pounds per sheep, or say in all, 500 pounds brook-washed wool, worth 38 cents per pound, amounting to \$190; 35 lambs, the increase, at \$1.50 per head when weaned, \$52.50; total, \$242.50. Balancing the accounts, \$203.50, we have \$39 over and above the cost of keeping.

I have left out the value of the manure and let it offset the cost of the sheep buildings and their repair. Nor have I given the price of the sheep, as our growers of wool are asking protection of the industry in which they are now engaged, and of the investment they own.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. I believe the number of sheep in Washington County is put at about 600,000?—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. How does that compare with the number in 1867, when the present tariff was enacted?—A. I think there are fewer sheep now; that is my impression.

Q. What has been the enhancement in value of your lands since 1867?—A. Land is considerably higher now than it was in 1867. I suppose the average price of land in the county is about \$65 per acre at the present time.

Q. Do you attribute that advance in price in any respect to the number of sheep that you have there?—A. Yes, sir; I do. I think the sheep have increased the value of the land. I have offset the advantage that we get from the fertilizing properties of the manure by the cost of the buildings we erect for the care of the sheep, and the expense of keeping them in repair.

Q. You have estimated the lambs in your flock at \$1.50. Is it not a fact that the large proportion of the sheep sold in your county are sold at a much higher price, for breeding animals?—A. Yes, sir. The demand for them in the West has been very extensive and we have made our profit, not so much from the wool as from the sheep we have sold. We have even sent them down into Georgia and Texas.

Q. In presenting your case you have not had that feature of it so much in view?—A. No, sir; we have simply presented the interests of the wool-grower.

Q. You have heard what Mr. Shallenberger has said in regard to the wishes of the wool-growers of Washington County, respecting the present tariff?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you corroborate what he has said?—A. Yes, sir; I agree with him fully.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. What is the cost of keeping a sheep in your county for a year?—A. About \$2.04.

Q. What price do you get for your choice rams?—A. We have no demand for that class of rams any longer.

Q. What price did you ask for them formerly?—A. The ordinary price was \$10 apiece, and we would sell from 70 to 100 in a year. We never sold any/under \$10, and have often sold them as high as \$40, \$60, or \$75.

Q. Why did you give up that part of the business?—A. Because there is no demand for this class of wool.

Q. Is the cost for keeping a ram much greater than that of keeping an ordinary sheep?—A. Yes, sir; much more so. The constant care you have to take of a ram causes much more trouble than is the case with a sheep. They are apt to fight. Their horns are liable to grow too close to their heads, and the worms will get in if they are exposed to the rain.

Q. Then they are exposed to diseases that do not attach to the ordinary sheep?—A. No, sir; not to diseases, but to accidents.

Q. I am trying to find out why the demand for an animal that can produce such fine wool as this should cease.—A. I can answer that in this way: When we receive \$1.75 per fleece for that kind of wool and it costs us \$2 to grow it, there is no encouragement to continue in the business.

Q. Very true. But why does it cost you more to grow that kind of

wool than to grow common wool; what would you get for common fleeces?—A. Thirty-eight cents a pound is what I estimate it at. These fine-wool sheep are more tender; there is more mortality among the young lambs. They cannot go out in a cold spell of weather. They are much more delicate and tender. The young lambs can stand no rain whatever until they are a month or more old.

Q. I wanted to develop the fact that a climate better suited to the lambs, where they could live out of doors, would be one where they could be raised more profitably than you could raise them. Does the excellence of the wool depend most on the breed of the sheep, upon the climate, or the food that the animal eats?—A. I think the food and climate has a great deal to do with it. To grow this kind of wool requires a good deal of skill. If we get the sheep over-fat the wool will be strong and harsh. If we keep them poor, then there is a dead condition of the wool, so that when we take it from the fiber it will break. We want to have strength and elasticity, and all the good properties of wool. Feed, such as oil cake, may produce a softness of the wool which corn will not do. In growing this kind of wool we aim not to have our sheep over-fat, and by all means never to have them in poor condition, or there will be a rottenness in the wool which would cause it to break in working it up.

Q. When you speak of oil cake, do you mean cotton or linseed oil cake?—A. Linseed oil cake.

Q. Did you ever use cotton-seed oil cake?—A. No, sir; if it has been tried in our county I am not aware of it.

Q. Do you know the cost of keeping sheep in Australia per year?—A. No, sir; I am not acquainted with the culture of sheep there.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Have you any personal acquaintance with the character of the soil of West Virginia, the part of it adjoining your own State?—A. I have.

Q. What is your opinion, as a practical sheep-grower, of the adaptability of the country there to the production of fine wools and sheep?—A. I think it is well adapted to it.

Q. Better adapted than these high-priced lands?—A. Yes, sir; better than the high-priced lands near the city, I think. It is a hilly country, and they have a very fine native grass. The indigenous blue grass there is well adapted to their cultivation.

Q. Do you know anything about the wool products of that portion of the State of West Virginia adjoining you; have they not produced some of the finest wools ever produced in the country?—A. They have. But the growers of this kind of wool in our county have almost all quit it.

Q. There is more profit in the hardier wools?—A. Yes, sir; in sheep producing $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 6 pounds of wool.

Q. And more profit in the mutton in sheep producing that grade of wool?—A. I believe there is, but I cannot say. The fattening properties are better in that class of sheep than in this.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. The unprofitableness of that wool and the low price of it arises from the fact that the demand now is for a hardier sheep that shears much heavier than these animals?—A. Yes, sir; and it is for the coarser wool.

Q. Do you think it desirable to bring about a change in the quality of wool produced, or to encourage that tendency?—A. The ultimate

object to be attained in all industries is profit, and where the profit is found we naturally incline to follow the business. That is the only way I can answer the question.

Q. Is it your opinion that the growth of this superior wool can be made profitable by the legislation that you ask for?—A. I could not say, because I am not familiar enough with the workings of the tariff.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. This superior quality of wool which you have exhibited here is wool of Saxon blood, is it not?—A. Yes, sir; Saxony merino.

Q. This wool is well adapted for the production of the finest broadcloths, making what is called face goods?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You say the demand for this wool has ceased to a great extent. Are they not giving up the growing of this kind of wool all over the world?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. So that there is but little found except in Germany, and there is hardly any of it grown now in Hungary and Silesia?—A. No, sir.

Q. This corresponds with Silesian wool, does it not?—A. Yes, sir; it is the same; I think it is equal to Silesian wool.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. How does it compare with Australian wool?—A. It is considerably better than the Australian wool.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Therefore if the culture of this class of wool is ceasing here, we must necessarily, in order to make fine broadcloths, import our wools?—A. That would seem to follow.

Q. Is not the reason for the abandonment of the culture of this class of sheep owing to the fact that fine wools are not in demand now for cloth; the garments we wear now are not as fine as those formerly worn?—A. I think fashion and custom have a great deal to do with it. They make business suits now which look well, but are much cheaper.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. Can you give us an idea of the number of sheep in the United States that produce that quality of wool; I speak of the Saxony wool?—A. I will include the Saxony, the Silesian, and all. I do not think, putting all together, there has been 3,000 pounds of superfine wool produced in the United States for the last three years.

Q. How many sheep of this class does Washington County supply?—A. There are not 5,000 head of this kind of sheep here.

Mr. JULIUS LE MOYNE, of Washington, Pa., president of the Washington County Stock-Breeders' Association, said:

I have the honor to represent the Stock-Breeders' Association of our county, and although it is only a local organization, we feel that our interests are much wider than the county. Mr. McDowell has just told you about this fine grade of wools. I have brought a few samples of the average wool of Washington County with me, to which I call your attention. We ask that the present tariff on wool shall be maintained. Many of our people feel that they ought to have a little advance, but that is only a local feeling. You are making a tariff for the whole country, and not for Washington County alone. We feel that the competition we have in the East with the Western growers is about as much as we can manage. I think if there is no reduction in the tariff the supply of wool in this country will, before a great while, be fully equal to the

demand. I have no particular statement to make except to say that our wool interest here, in this immediate vicinity, is declining rapidly. I think in the last ten years it has declined 25 per cent. These facts I believe are against the figures of the census, but we do not feel responsible for them. These are facts within my own personal knowledge.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. What is the average shearing of the class of ordinary wool, known as the American merino wool, in this county?—Answer. About five to six pounds.

Q. That is the wool that Mr. McDowell referred to as being about five and one-fourth pounds?—A. Yes, sir; that is about the average yield of wool in this section, not only in Washington County but in the Panhandle of Virginia and in Eastern Ohio.

Q. Do you agree with Mr. McDowell's statement that the average price of that wool is about 38 cents?—A. Yes, sir; it has not varied far from 40 cents for a number of years.

Q. What have you to say with reference to the present duty on wools?—A. My views upon that subject are about the same as Mr. McDowell's, that a continuance of the present duty would be satisfactory to the most of the producers of wool.

Q. Do you, in that opinion, represent the views of the majority of the wool growers in your vicinity?—A. Yes, sir; a large proportion of the members of our association are identified with wool growing, and have been for thirty years, and I think that is the universal sentiment.

Q. We had a delegation from Washington County before us a day or two since, who requested, in the name of the Washington County wool growers, an increase in the present duty. They asked that the specific duty be placed at 15 cents, and an ad valorem duty of 20 per cent., and they stated that they represented a very large proportion of the wool growers of your county. Your statement conflicts with that?—A. There was a meeting of the wool growers in our county a few weeks ago, and at that time they appointed the gentlemen who are here before you to represent them. They authorized us to express for them the views which we have expressed here to-day. I do not believe any of us know very much about the details of the tariff, but we know the effects of the present tariff and we are satisfied with it. There is a dissatisfaction among part of our wool growers in regard to the price of wool, but my conviction is that that has arisen from the high price to be obtained from other farm products. Cattle and swine have been bringing a high price for two years, while wool has been comparatively low. This has created some dissatisfaction, and people have expressed excessive views perhaps. The most of our wool-growers who have remained in the business for twenty or thirty years feel that the wool production of the country has been steadily increasing, and we hope that in a few years it will reach the demands of the country, especially as the West has been opened up successfully to the cultivation of sheep. We have a struggle here now to maintain our flocks in competition with the West. I agree with what has been said in regard to the cost of keeping sheep, and am free to say that the only profit there is in it is in the selling of young stock. There is no profit in growing the wool itself in our county at the present prices.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. The delegation who came before us on Monday recommended a very heavy increase in the rates of duty on wool. Your delegation from

the same district to-day recommend that the duty be left as it is. Is it the opinion of the delegation you represent that it would be better to hold to the present rate than to have it increased with all the liability there would then be of having it cut down within a year or so?—A. Yes, sir; and we also felt that an increased duty might stimulate the production more than was actually necessary, and that if an excessive tariff was put on, such a stimulus would be given to the growth of sheep in the West that it would make it harder for us to compete with them than it is now for us to compete with imported wool.

Q. Then your people believe that a fairly protective duty such as you now enjoy is better than a higher rate?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Because a higher rate would increase the growth of sheep unduly, and eventually not lead to your benefit?—A. Yes, sir.

Mr. W. A. HERRIOTT, of Allegheny County, Pennsylvania, secretary of the Sheep-Breeders' Association, said:

I have been for the last month among the wool-growers and sheep-breeders of this class of wools which you have before you, and in talking with them I have found this to be the general impression, that we enjoy a fair protection under the present tariff, and it would be better, taking all things into consideration, to have the tariff remain as it is rather than to have it advanced.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. Do you represent the Wool-Growers' Association?—Answer. I represent the Ohio, Western Pennsylvania, and West Virginia Fine Wool Sheep-Breeders' Association.

Q. In asking that the present duties should be retained on wool, do you represent the sentiment of the sheep-breeders within the jurisdiction of your association?—A. So far as I know the general sentiment, I think it has been expressed here by the gentlemen who have addressed you to-day.

Q. Have you had a good opportunity for obtaining the opinion of the people of your section?—A. Yes, sir. I have attended quite a number of the different fairs that have been held throughout the country, and exchanged views with those I met.

Q. Is there grown within the jurisdiction of your association any of the wools of the second class, or the long, coarse combing wools?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Have you heard any expression of opinion from the breeders of this class of sheep?—A. No, sir, I have not, because I have not been brought directly in contact with them.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Do you think a reduction of the present duty on wool would be disastrous to the interests you represent?—A. To a certain extent I think it would. I think that wool-growing is now at such a point that we are almost able to produce enough wool for our own country, and if we can only hold the position we now occupy we shall soon be placed in a position to compete with the world.

Q. You do not ask, then, for any increase in the duty?—A. No, sir; I feel that we are protected sufficiently to stimulate the home production, and while I think it is good policy to encourage that, I do not think it a good point to make a prohibitory tariff.

Q. You have had some experience in the wool market. What is the average price this season of such samples of wool as you see here?—

A. Unwashed wool, such as has been shown you here, will bring about 28 cents. There is not a great deal of that wool grown. That is a staple wool used for fine goods.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Used for combing purposes?—A. Yes, sir; and that is the wool which commands the highest price this year in the market, except those fine wools shown by Mr. McDowell.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. What would such wool be worth washed?—A. Ordinary brook-washed staple wools bring 40 cents.

Mr. S. O. WORK, of Buffalo, Pa., representing the Stock-Breeders Association, said:

I have been a wool-grower and sheep-breeder since I was thirteen or fourteen years of age; I have been engaged in sheep-breeding during and since the war. This interest is one of great importance to us in this section of the country. I fully acquiesce in what has been stated to you to-day, that the present tariff as it is should be maintained. I think our flocks have diminished in number as has been stated, but we hope by careful breeding, on high-priced lands, we may be able to yet retain our flocks and maintain the number of sheep we have heretofore had in Washington County. If the present duty on wool was taken off I think it would be impossible for us to keep our flocks together for any length of time. We are large producers of mutton, and of course the supply of mutton would be reduced as a consequence. That is another element that should enter into the matter. We hope the Commission will carefully consider this subject, and may find it in their power to recommend a continuance of the present tariff, which I think will be acceptable to the majority of the wool-growers of Washington County.

Mr. W. L. ARCHER, of Burgettstown, Pa., breeder of fine-wool sheep, said:

I have been interested personally in the raising of sheep all my life, ever since I could carry a lamb across a snow-drift to keep it from perishing. I have been engaged in this industry for more than fifty years, and have been breeding one family of sheep in line for over thirty years. They were only two removals from the importation from Spain made by Colonel Humphreys in the year 1802.

The business of raising and producing wool in this country I think a very important one. There is not a domestic animal that contributes more largely to the wants of a high civilization than the sheep. Therefore we claim that in producing wool we contribute largely to what is necessary to our wants as a people. The wool that is raised in this belt of country, of which Washington County is about the center, and the Panhandle of West Virginia, is remarkably well adapted in the way of climate and soil to produce wool equal to that raised in any other part of the world for fineness, strength, and adaptability in making any fabric that is worn. It makes a cloth that has a luster equal to any produced in any part of the globe, and is superior even to the wools produced in Germany, Saxony, and Austria. But on account of the cheaper labor that they have in those countries they are able to produce a wool of this fiber at a lower rate than we can do it here in America. So that in that class of wool our people need some protection; so that they can get a little higher price for their wool than they are now getting. The wool

that is raised generally in our county brings from 36 to 38 cents a pound; that is the price of about nine-tenths of all the wool that is raised here. The sheep producing that class of wool are diminishing somewhat in numbers, because there are other branches of agriculture that seem to be a little more profitable to pursue at the present time. Taking into consideration all the elements affecting this question, our people earnestly ask that the present tariff may be maintained. I think it would be well, in a national point of view, if the breeding of this higher class of sheep could be continued, although there is danger on account of the want of profit in doing it that the culture may soon cease. It is a kind of sheep not raised very much by civilized people. I think civilized countries produce but little of what is known in the schedule as carpet-wools; I believe they are all produced in semi-civilized countries.

I hope the Commission will recommend a retention of the present duties upon the longer wools, a class of sheep I have never been interested in raising, but I hope it will be only a few years until that quality of wool will be raised for our own use. We have a territory, climate, and soil adapted to produce this wool. In Washington County we also produce and export sheep suitable for shipping to the London and Liverpool markets for mutton. They weigh usually from 100 to 125 pounds, live weight.

[The witness exhibited some of the different kinds of wool grown in Washington County, and compared them with each other.]

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. I would like to inquire whether the high quality of the wool grown in Washington and the surrounding counties is due to the peculiarity of the climate and vegetation here, or whether, although there may be a slight difference in the climate, such sheep cannot be grown all the way down this Apalachian chain; in other words, could you not go into Tennessee and grow as good wool as you can here?—Answer. I think I can. But in our belt of latitude here we can maintain what we have got. As they go further South they have more difficulty in doing that.

Q. But can it not be done by breeding—by getting blood from outside?—A. The most successful breeders I know of have not been able to do it in Texas and Louisiana. It is the opinion of Mr. Peters, of Atlanta, Ga., that he can by selections keep up the quantity and quality of the whole body of sheep. But after all his experience and the length of time that he has been at it it has not practically illustrated his theory.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. What is the greatest item of expense in housekeeping to the ordinary laboring man; is it not the animal food which he eats?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is there any animal which will so cheaply supply animal food as the sheep; in other words, does not the abundant supply of mutton reduce the expense of animal food?—A. Certainly it does.

Q. Do you or not believe that the increased price which the consumer pays on account of the duty on wool, is reimbursed to him over and over again by the cheapness of animal food, caused by the production of wool?—A. Yes, sir; I do.

Q. Would our flocks be diminished if the duty on wool was taken off?—A. I might say that they are now being diminished.

Q. What is the reason for the diminution in the number of sheep?—A. There are regions where sheep can be produced at a cheaper rate

than here, and farmers have found other branches of agriculture more profitable.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. In speaking of the diminution of the number of sheep, you have reference, of course, to this locality; in other words, while the number of sheep has diminished here, it has increased elsewhere?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You ask that the present tariff on wool be continued?—A. Yes, sir. Personally, I do not ask for any higher rates of duty. In view of all the surroundings, taking into account the tariff on wool and woolsens, it is my desire that the tariff on wool remain as it is.

Q. Is it your opinion that the wool-growers of your neighborhood would be satisfied with that, notwithstanding the intimation here the other day that a higher duty was desired?—A. In view of all the bearings of the question, I believe the majority of our intelligent wool-growers would be satisfied.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. I understood you, or the gentleman who preceded you, to say that the great danger to the wool-growers of your locality at the present time was the Western competition, which was a greater danger than the foreign competition. Which, in your opinion, would be the most dangerous to the wool interests of this country, the reduction of the duty or Western competition?—A. The foreign competition is what might be most disastrous to our business; that is what we wish to avoid, foreign competition. If I cannot raise wool in Pennsylvania profitably I will go down to Texas and raise it. A high tariff which would be almost prohibitory would be, I think, in the end injurious to our interests.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Then we understand your position is that you are opposed to the recommendations made on Monday by a delegation of wool-growers from Washington County, but you think it would be for the best interests of the wool-growers that the duties remain as they are?—A. I have stated what I have to say in regard to that. We desire that the tariff on fine wools and on the combing wools used by the millions should remain as it.

Q. During the first day of the sitting of the Commission at Pittsburgh we were asked by a delegation of wool-growers from Washington County to raise the duty on carpet wools from 3 to 9 cents a pound. Do you think any such recommendation on third-class carpet wools would be supported by your people, or do you think your people are opposed to it?—A. I think they are opposed to it, and we do not ask for that.

JOHN H. MCKELVEY.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 11, 1882.*

Mr. JOHN H. MCKELVEY, of Pittsburgh, white-lead manufacturer, addressed the Commission as follows:

I appear in opposition to any change in the tariff on white lead or oxide of lead.

The importance of the white-lead manufacture in the United States may be estimated from the following statistics of present production:

Number of corrodors.....	37
Number of tons white lead manufactured in 1882 will reach.....	80,000
Number of men employed directly.....	4,000
Number of men in contingent industry, such as keg-makers, &c.....	2,000
	6,000

Total capital directly invested being over \$13,000,000.

This industry has grown steadily under protection from a production of 20,000 tons, in 1859, until the output has now attained proportions even beyond the capacity of the country to absorb, the result being an excess of supply, with a consequent demoralized and depressed condition of price. It is apparent to any one conversant with the cost of manufacture that the white-lead business is now extremely unremunerative and in a condition which demands some measures of relief rather than any change of tariff, which would cause further demoralization.

The business of white-lead manufacture is somewhat peculiar, inasmuch as it requires an investment in plant and unfinished stock quite equal to the gross annual sales. The investment of capital being necessarily so large and the cost of establishing reputation of their brands so considerable, the manufacturers cannot afford to withdraw from the market, even though compelled, as at times, to dispose of their products below cost of manufacture.

Referring to the argument for a reduction of the duty on white lead made by Mr. O. B. Smith, who represented the importers before the Tariff Commission at New York, we note that importers of English white lead claim that they are able to obtain a higher price for it than American lead commands in the same markets. Without conceding any actual superiority in quality to the imported article, there still exists sufficient prejudice in its favor among certain consumers to enable importers to make sales, as at present, at 9 cents per pound, while it only costs \$7.42 to import, showing a snug profit of \$1.58 per 100 pounds. As the jobbers of American lead, by reason of the greater competition on it, are glad to be assured of a net profit of 25 cents per 100 pounds, it would not appear that the importers, who are so clamorous for relief, are really suffering any great hardships by reason of their small margins. If it is true, as they claim, that a reduction in price of English lead would result in a large increase of sales, they could even now try the experiment by foregoing a share of their swollen profits.

We cannot too highly appreciate the thoughtful consideration of these self-denying importers for the limited number of consumers of English white lead in this country who are so oppressed with the "burdensome duties" to which they feelingly refer, but when we reflect that the American manufacturer is working on a difference of \$1.30 per 100 between raw and manufactured lead, while the English manufacturer has

\$2.60 between cost of raw and present selling price here of English lead, less duty, or just double the opportunity for profit, besides a great additional advantage in consequence of working cheap labor of women and children in their factories, it seems manifest that Mr. Smith's allusion to the excessive profits of the American manufacturer was not in accordance with the facts. It is probable that if the importers had been contented to do business on our slender margins the importation of English white lead would not have been limited to about 1,000 tons in 1881. That they are not sincere in their expressed desire to benefit these consumers is demonstrated from the fact that the importation of white lead did not materially increase in the years when the price here was high enough to afford a good margin for it. For example, the largest importation ever made in any year was 4,500 tons, in 1869, when the price here was 12 cents, which demonstrated that the importers advance with our market, not hesitating to realize for themselves the increased profit which our advances afford them.

The benefits resulting from the reduction in wholesale price of white lead from 12 cents, in 1869, to the present ruinously low rate of 6½ cents, have been brought about wholly by the active competition resulting from overproduction of our own manufacturers. It is a significant fact that the demand for reduction of the duty on raw and manufactured lead does not come from the consuming interest, who are entirely satisfied with the quality and price of American lead. We submit that it is a reasonable conclusion that it would be very unwise to make any change which would disturb the present conditions of either the producing or manufacturing lead interest.

We therefore recommend that no change whatever be made in the present tariff on white and oxides of lead, or of pig lead or lead ore.

G. BILDERBACK.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 11, 1882.*

Mr. G. BILDERBACK of the firm of S. Ewart & Co., Pittsburgh, wholesale grocers, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: The wholesale grocers of Pittsburgh, recognizing in you the best means that have yet been devised for gathering reliable information upon the subject of the tariff, have felt it their duty to be heard before your honorable body upon some productions of other States in which they are large dealers. Before presenting our views, we beg to state that our opinions are based upon the broad ground of general protection to every industry in our country that comes into competition with cheap labor of foreign countries. We take it that all legislation upon this subject should be in the interest of Americans exclusively, and for their benefit. The general sentiment of the country, taken as a whole, is for tariff, and believing, as we do, that all classes of citizens are more prosperous when all kinds of industries are protected that require it, we feel it would be selfish on our part to take the narrow view of the case, living, as we do, in a section that has become famous for its iron and protective tariff, and that has reaped such great prosperity and profit through the wise and fostering care of our government, to ask that the duty on sugar, molasses, and rice shall be reduced, and thus impair and retard the progress of development in those States in which they are produced. For our own special interest and profit, we might argue that the duties on these articles are entirely too high, and that the consumers would be greatly benefited in the reduced cost to them; but such arguments we consider selfish and sectional in their spirit, and calculated to be hindering and obstructive to the framing and enacting of a wise and equitable tariff law that would cover and protect the industries of the whole country.

If tariff be wise and beneficial to the whole nation, and we believe that it is, then there should be no conflict of interests or of opinions on the subject in general. We are so linked and bound together that that which benefits one State directly the others will share indirectly, and that which injures one State directly the others will feel indirectly.

Sugar, molasses, and rice, the products of the great States of Louisiana, Texas, Florida, South Carolina, and Georgia, have now a duty on them that protects them, and is the safeguard thrown around those States for the further increase and development of these staples.

The stimulating effect of protection is seen on all sides, in the enlarged acreage and the constantly increasing number of citizens engaged in their production.

These States have not yet fully recovered from the effects of the war, and we believe it to be the duty of the government to throw around these States, as it has done, its mighty protecting arm.

The interests of the great West, as well as those States lying at the head or bordering on the Ohio, are identical with those Southern States, and just in proportion as they become prosperous and enlarge their productions, in the same ratio will commercial interchange increase in all branches between the two sections. Nature's great highways hold these mighty sections of our country in their embrace, and silently seem

to dictate a government policy that will be reciprocal and mutually beneficial.

As these Southern States ascend the scale of progress and constantly increase their products, the demand upon the Western States for their produce and provisions will be greater, and their orders for our manufactures much larger. The benefits and profits arising from such increase do not stop with those directly interested, but they extend to the railroads and river, thus aiding to build up other branches of industry. The Southern States named have capacity, if properly developed, to produce enough of these staples to supply the United States, and from a soil that is unfitted in a general way for any other agricultural purposes. From this it would seem wise to us to continue the protective tariff as now established, and thus build up, enlarge, and increase a vast means of wealth to the whole country, and at the same time enabling us to be independent of any foreign country for a supply of these staples; not only would we reap these benefits, but it would stop the outflow of our gold that now goes to pay for these.

Our own city owes her great prosperity to the tariff; take it away, and to-morrow the fires in the hundreds of furnaces will die out, and in less than a month we will have thousands of beggars upon our streets.

With a tariff, the workers in our mills are tax-payers and a help to government; without it, they become a burden and a tax to the community. So it would be in those Southern States in regard to these products.

The crops of sugar, molasses, and rice in the State of Louisiana alone for the year 1881 were sold for about seventeen million dollars, and to that amount was the State enriched.

Would it be wise statesmanship to strike down an industry of such value as this by reducing the tariff in it, and thus put the laboring man engaged in it on a par or level with the pauper labor of a foreign country? We think not, and our voices are for the retention of the present duty.

As we would oppose with all means possible at our command any change of the tariff by which our iron interest, or any interest in which we are directly interested, would be damaged, so with equal zeal and earnestness do we oppose any change that would be detrimental to the interest of citizens of sister States.

One of the evils of tariff legislation has been its instability and frequent changes of duties on imports and of internal revenue.

We present to your committee as the sentiment of our wholesale grocers of this city, that when any change is made in either of these it shall be fixed for a term of years.

(Signed)

G. BILDERBACK.
GEO. W. DILWORTH.
WM. K. GILLESPIE.

W. A. HOEVELER.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 11, 1882.*

Mr. W. A. HOEVELER, of the firm of W. A. Hoeveler & Co., Pittsburgh, Pa., glue manufacturers, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: In behalf of the glue manufacturing interests, we are desirous to lay before you our ideas as to the condition of the trade and the protection needed from the government.

The glue manufacturers are located in all large tanning and slaughtering districts. They being greatly scattered and not having an organization, it is difficult to make a united effort in any one direction.

We have written to the glue manufacturers in our district, and received answers, asking for an increase of the present duty, and earnestly praying that if an increase cannot be obtained the duty be allowed to remain where it is, as the trade has been compelled to conform itself to its conditions and laws, and any decrease on the present duty would cause great disaster and ruin to the manufacturing interests. The Eastern and Northern glue manufacturers will take care of themselves. We call your attention to the fact that the duty on glues is 20 per cent. on invoice value, commissions added, and believe that the spirit of the law is violated, and goods are imported at much less cost to the importer than that contemplated by the government; and would urge on you to recommend to Congress a fixed duty of, say, 6 cents per pound on all glues known to the market as wood-working glues and higher grades, and on all glues below that grade we would advocate the duty of 4 cents per pound, thinking that only a fixed duty per pound will protect the manufacturers from unscrupulous importers. The yearly importation of glue is equal to about one-fourth the number of pounds manufactured in the United States, and is produced in Germany, France, England, and Ireland. The United States produce about 12,000,000 pounds of glues per year, at from 6 to 30 cents per pound, and it all remains at home, except that used for lining and sizing petroleum and turpentine barrels, which are very largely exported. We believe we can produce all glues needed in this country if the government will only protect us sufficiently to overcome the low prices of labor abroad and make allowance for the additional cost of running general business in the United States.

To produce one pound of glue it takes 66 per cent. of its cost to pay skilled and common labor necessary to its production. Besides, the plant necessary to produce glue is costly, and requires extensive buildings, machinery, &c., which is equivalent to 5 per cent. of the business done per year, not including insurance and other necessary expenses, the 5 per cent. being alone necessary to pay interest on capital invested in plant. Next to be taken into consideration is the 66 per cent. of labor, and the gentlemen of the Commission can judge what its cost will be over that paid in Europe for the same kind of labor. We believe it will require from 10 to 15 per cent. additional duty to put us on the same level with European makers, if it is possible for the government to enact an ad valorem law simple enough and broad enough to protect its home industries against fraud. Here again we call attention to and strongly advocate a fixed duty, as before referred to, on each pound of glue im-

ported. The lowest grade of wood-working glues are valued abroad at from 10 to 12 cents per pound, and with the tariff and expenses added, they can be sold in this country at from 12 to 14½ cents, apparently giving a profit to the importer. From these figures we conclude that the spirit of the law under the present tariff laws must be violated; and we are in a position to know that the small manufacturers in this country have, one after another, been compelled to drop out of the trade, leaving to-day only those with large capacities and means as manufacturers, while the importation is largely increasing, and the only way we can account for the large sales of foreign glues is that they are able to undersell home-manufactured glues.

Nearly all of the manufacturers of this country are to-day large dealers and importers of foreign glues; and there is no other reason but that of cost for the importation, as we American manufacturers have all facilities and means necessary for the successful and cheap manufacture of glues, barring cheap labor and the aforementioned high cost of running manufactories in this country.

Crude material is as cheap to-day to the foreign manufacturer, if not more so, than we American manufacturers are compelled to pay, and if the government does not use some means to protect us, crude material will be so low that with our labor it will be impossible to gather and save it, whereby the country will be a great loser, and thousands of American workmen will lose their occupations. All crude material necessary for the manufacture of glues can be produced in this country, and is all manufactured and consumed here. From information gathered we have to-day better plants and machinery in this country than that used in Europe, and our goods are equal in all respects to imported glues. To avoid any misunderstanding we state that at the present time all hide-cuttings used for sizing are admitted free, which in no way conflicts with our case.

We pray that your Commission will recommend to Congress a fixed tariff of 6 cents per pound on all cabinet glues and higher grades, and 4 cents per pound on common glues and sizing.

[Taken from United States Bureau Statistics.]

Years.	Quantities.	Value.	Duties.	Per pound.
	<i>Pounds.</i>			<i>Cents.</i>
1877.....	1, 112, 527	\$131, 678 00	\$26, 335 00	11. 8
1878.....	1, 033, 430	125, 706 34	25, 111 27	12. 1
1879.....	1, 150, 832	122, 430 10	24, 480 02	10. 5
1880.....	3, 011, 627	280, 147 40	56, 020 48	9. 3

These statistics show that the values on which the government collect duties are exceedingly low, and we think shows on its face a strong argument in favor of a specific duty.

We have advices from our New York correspondent this morning showing that \$300,000 worth of glues have been imported during the nine months of 1882, which is still an increase on 1880, and if the next three months continues in proportion as the first nine have done, the importation for the year 1882 will be \$400,000, which you will notice is the largest importation of glue this country has received.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. Do you recommend a duty on glue stock?—Answer. No, only on manufactured glue.

THOMAS M. ARMSTRONG.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 11, 1882.*

Mr. THOMAS M. ARMSTRONG, of Pittsburgh, manufacturer of corks, addressed the Commission in regard to the duty on manufactured corks, and submitted a printed petition, which he read.

[The petition is the same as that presented by Messrs. Truslow & Co., of New York, which has already been printed.]

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Question. This matter was presented to us in New York City, I understand, by some of your associates?—Answer. Yes, sir; there was a petition of a similar kind presented there.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. I understand that all the cork manufacturers of the United States indorse this recommendation?—A. Yes, sir; every one of them. I could show you in a moment why it is that we cannot compete with machinery here in the manufacture of champagne corks. They are all cut by hand abroad; they are not round; they cut them nearly oval. [The witness illustrated the difference in the manufacture, and exhibited specimens of different kinds of corks to the Commission.]

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. Where do you get your raw material?—A. In Spain and Portugal.

Q. How many manufacturers of corks are there in the United States?—A. I think about thirty. There have been nine failures in our line of business within the last year and a half.

Q. What is the aggregate amount of capital invested?—A. I think between two and three million dollars.

Q. And the number of employés?—A. I think about 1,500. We have 500 ourselves.

Q. Where is your establishment situated?—A. At the corner of Twenty-fourth and Railroad streets, Pittsburgh.

F. A. PIKE.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 11, 1882.*

The following communication from F. A. PIKE, representing the Red Beach Plaster Company of Calais, Me., was read and ordered to be printed :

We desire to present to you the business of manufacturing calcined plaster, in which we are engaged and have been for the last twenty-five years. The plaster rock (gypsum) comes mainly from Windsor, Nova Scotia, the shipments from there amounting to 50,000 to 60,000 tons annually. In addition to this quantity some 8,000 to 10,000 tons are shipped annually to our ports from Hillsboro', New Brunswick. This plaster rock is manufactured mainly in New York. There are four mills in New York City, one at Staten Island, and one in Newark, N. J. Besides these there are but two in the country, one in this town and one at Hillsboro', New Brunswick, belonging to the owners of the Newark mills.

This business has been protected under all tariffs to the amount of 20 per cent. or 10 to 12 cents per barrel. This was the case even under the reciprocity treaty from 1854 to 1866.

The effect of this small duty has been to have the plaster rock manufactured in this country rather than in the provinces. The demand for the article is necessarily limited, and the production is only 400,000 to 450,000 annually of barrels containing from 250 to 300 pounds. A small part of this amount is shipped to Australia and California, but a very light fraction of the whole.

The business is a very close one from beginning to end. The plaster rock is blasted out of the quarries at Windsor and delivered on board vessel for 90 cents per ton. It costs on the average about \$2 a ton freight to New York, and is there manufactured and barrelled up and sold for from \$1.10 to \$1.40 a barrel. The consumer thus gets a very nice article at very cheap rates.

The competition among the mills is very hot and but small profits have been realized. In the last twenty years mills have been started in Philadelphia, in Massachusetts, and in Maine, but the business went to loss and operations stopped. The only mill ever started in the Canadian provinces is the one we have already referred to at Hillsboro', New Brunswick.

The effect of the abolition of the duty would probably be to encourage the building of mills at Windsor, Nova Scotia, or enlarging the operations at Hillsboro'. As the use of the article is mainly for the hard finish of the plastering of houses, a cheapening of the price 10 or 12 cents per barrel is of no consequence comparatively to the builders of houses, and would not increase the consumption. And, of course, the more calcined plaster is made in Nova Scotia or New Brunswick, the less will be made in the United States.

It seems to us to present a case where a moderate protection benefits our laborers and owners of mills and does not injure the consumer, as we are well persuaded if the whole business were transferred to Windsor and Hillsboro' the charge to consumers in this country on the average of years would be as large as it shall continue to be done in this country.

For these reasons thus briefly set forth, we hope the Commission will recommend a continuation of the duty.

RED BEACH PLASTER COMPANY,
By F. A. PIKE.

EDWARD BALBACH.

PITTSBURGH, PA., *October 11, 1882.*

The following communication, from Messrs. EDWARD BALBACH & SON, of Newark, N. J., respecting the duty upon pig lead, was read and ordered to be printed :

We beg to submit the following facts for the consideration of your honorable Commission, regarding the existing duties on pig lead and all lead ores carrying precious metals.

We think the present duty on lead is very essential for the development of our Western mines. At the high rates of freight from the mines to the Eastern market the cost of production of lead is from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 cents per pound, or about the same price that it would now cost to import from Europe, duty included. Any reduction of the duty would bring foreign lead to this market at a price below the cost of our home production, and would have the effect of closing most of our Western lead-producing mines.

We recommend a reduction in the duty on lead ores which are subject to a duty of $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound of ore, without regard to per cent. of metal contained.

A 50 per cent. ore would cost per ton of 2,000 pounds \$30 duty, or equal to 3 cents per pound on the lead contained therein, while the duty on pig lead is only 2 cents per pound. Besides this, there is a loss of 10 per cent. in smelting the ore, and a charge of \$15 per ton for smelting them here, thus making the cost still higher. This should be changed so that duty is charged only on the lead contained in the ore.

We think that a lead ore carrying \$20 or more per ton in gold and silver, and lead bullion carrying \$50 or more per ton in gold and silver, should be admitted free of duty, as it would have the effect of bringing foreign silver-bearing lead and lead ores to the smelters of this country and enable them to compete with European establishments, besides giving additional employment to labor here. At present all the silver and gold bearing lead ores and lead products of Mexico, and Central and South America, go to Europe for reduction, while if the relief asked was given they could be brought to this country for treatment, and the importation of such ores would not interfere with the production of the lead ores in the West.

EDWARD M. PEARSON.

WHEELING, W. VA., *October 12, 1882.*

Mr. EDWARD M. PEARSON, of Wheeling, representing the Wheeling Pottery Company, addressed the Commission as follows:

I am here representing the Wheeling Pottery Company of this city, of which firm I am a member. We have only been in existence here three years, but my connection with the pottery industry in this country dates from 1873. Previous to that time I was a manufacturer of stone china in Cobridge, Staffordshire, England, and it is to be presumed I know both sides of the question. The table annexed is the cost of labor for the entire product of our pottery for the first six months of this year on the one hand, and on the other the cost of labor for the production of the same in England at the price now paid there. This we consider the only true method of ascertaining the exact amount of difference in the price of labor in the two countries.

The total cost here is \$27,283.70, and in England \$12,037.10, as per next statement, showing an advance in the price of labor in this country over that of England of 126 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. This great advance it is impossible for us to bear with only 40 per cent. tariff, as labor is the all-important item of cost. Our labor is not paid as high as many other branches of trade in this country where similar skill is required.

As to the quality of goods produced in this country, I will not insult the intelligence of this honorable board by referring to the remarks made before you by a few Chicago jobbers. No country does or can produce a finer quality of stone china than America, and they know it. The material used for this production comes from Maine, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Delaware, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, Tennessee, Indiana, Missouri, Kansas, and Illinois. No country can boast of finer pottery materials than we possess, and we respectfully ask your most favorable consideration. It has been said that packages cost more in England than here owing to the scarcity of lumber there. Such is not the case. A crate which contains 90 dozen plates, 7-inch, made extra strong, costs in England as follows:

List price.....	8	6
Less 30 per cent.....	2	7
	5	11
Straw.....	4	..
Packing.....	1	4
Band, nails, and cord.....	..	6
	11	9

Equal \$2.82. The cost in this country for a cask to contain same quantity, is as follows:

No. 0 cask.....	\$1	75
Straw.....		50
Nails.....		5
Packing.....		60

2 90

The English charge on an average 16s. per package, which is \$3.86, making a profit of \$1.04 on every package. We charge \$2.50 for our package, losing 40 cents. Now, as to the importer who pays \$3.86 with

duty added, they would make it appear as though it was an entire loss to them; the truth is, they charge the dealer \$2.50 for same.

A word now in regard to the English standard list. The importers claim it has been advanced 10 per cent. since the war. I deny their statement and defy them to show it. The advance was on only a few articles, and on a general assortment was always considered about 6½ per cent. The greatest advance was on teas, which price has been since reduced to the original figure. This reduction does not leave the advance more than 4 per cent. at the present time higher than when the tariff was 24 per cent. In regard to discounts they say goods cost more to the purchaser in England now than previous to the war, *i. e.*, when the tariff was 24 per cent. It is not so. I went to business in my father's office in 1860, and up to that time the highest discounts on our books was 42½ per cent. and 5 per cent. In 1860 we discounted 45 per cent. and 5 per cent.; in 1865, 50 per cent. and 5 per cent.; in 1866, goods advanced very rapidly, and we sold some at 25 per cent. and 5 per cent. From that time prices have been constantly falling. In 1873, 50 per cent., 5 and 5 per cent., and now the importers admit 57½ per cent., 5 and 5, is being allowed. They may claim that formerly the goods were sold and selected as best, and that now they sell run of kiln, or unselected as some call it, which is simply a name *as they are selected*. I will here say run of kiln is as well selected as best used to be, under the tariff of 24 per cent., when goods were marked with stilt marks more than now, to wit, a plate then had two marks on edge, three on back, and one on the front. Now all goods have only three marks on back and none on edge or face. There were several potteries in England which placed them the improved way before the war, but their prices were 5 per cent. higher than ours, to wit, when we discounted 42½ per cent. and 5 per cent., they allowed only 37½ per cent. and 5 per cent.; consequently the following is a fair statement of facts. I will take the medium course. English discounts before 1860, 40 per cent. and 5 per cent.; English discounts for 1882, 57½ per cent., 5 and 5 per cent. If this is not a reduction, what is it? It is particularly strange that men engaged in the jobbing and retail business could not state, when before your honorable body, whether goods were sold to the consumer cheaper or dearer than before the war. There has been a reduction in the price of goods, and a great one, and the credit is due to the fostering care of the government and gold premium, which have enabled this young industry to grow to its present dimensions, but which is now passing a great crisis, and one in which it must succumb unless you come to our aid. We would respectfully ask that you place the duty at 60 per cent. ad valorem, collected as at present, on all plain white goods; 75 per cent. on decorated and china ware.

Comparative list of cost of labor in pottery industry.

	American.		English.	
	Per day.	Total.	Per day.	Total.
164 days, engineer	\$2 50	\$185 00	\$0 00	\$147 84
147 days, clay mixer	2 00	294 00	00	141 12
654 presses, clay	55	524 70	*00	282 24
182 days, watchman	1 50	273 00	72	131 04
308 days, unloading cars	1 50	450 00	72	220 32
152 days, millwright	2 00	304 00	1 08	104 16
270 days, odd work	1 50	405 00	72	104 40
		2,744 70		1,281 12

* 294 days, at 96 cents.

Comparative cost of articles in the pottery industry.

	American.		English.	
	Cost.	Total.	Cost.	Total.
535 dozen bird-baths	\$0 15	\$30 25	\$0 10	\$53 50
10 dozen punch-bowls, 7-inch	50	5 00	30	3 00
18 dozen punch-bowls, 8-inch	65	11 70	36	6 48
30 dozen punch-bowls, 9-inch	80	24 00	42	12 00
24 dozen punch-bowls, 10-inch	05	22 80	48	11 52
7 dozen round soup tureens, 7-inch	1 40	0 80	60	4 20
7 dozen round soup tureens, 8-inch	1 00	11 20	72	5 04
7 dozen round soup tureens, 9-inch	2 00	14 00	84	5 88
8 dozen round soup tureens, 10-inch	2 25	0 75	96	2 88
15 dozen breads	65	9 75	48	7 50
184 dozen brush vases	50	02 00	36	00 24
287 dozen covered butters	70	200 90	42	120 64
48 dozen hotel butters	60	28 80	30	14 40
100 dozen casseroles, 7-inch	1 05	105 00	56	50 00
62 dozen casseroles, 8-inch	1 15	71 30	62	38 44
52 dozen casseroles, 9-inch	1 30	07 60	08	35 30
96 dozen cake plates	60	57 60	16	15 36
124 dozen covered chas., 6s	1 05	130 20	54	60 90
886 dozen covered chas., 9s	05	841 70	54	478 44
18 dozen comports, 7-inch	50	0 00	30	5 40
38 dozen comports, 8-inch	55	20 00	30	13 68
22 dozen comports, 9-inch	00	13 20	42	9 24
202 dozen covered dishes, 7-inch	1 10	222 20	72	145 44
25 dozen covered dishes, 8-inch	1 20	30 00	78	19 50
151 dozen covered dishes, 9-inch	1 35	203 85	84	120 84
12 dozen unhand. cuspidors	1 40	18 80	80	9 60
26 dozen hand cuspidors	2 60	52 00	1 20	31 20
105 dozen creams, 30s	42	44 10	28	29 40
24 dozen creams, individual	24	5 76	16	3 84
53 dozen toy creams	24	12 72	16	8 48
52 dozen owers, 6s	1 00	52 00	72	37 44
508 dozen owers, 6s	90	457 20	60	335 28
84 dozen basins, 6s	45	37 80	32	26 88
380 dozen basins, 9s	40	154 40	26	100 30
45 dozen mouth owers	00	27 00	36	10 20
53 dozen jugs, 4s	85	45 05	58	30 74
408 dozen jugs, 6s	70	285 60	52	212 16
415 dozen jugs, 12s	55	228 25	40	160 00
230 dozen jugs, 24s	46	103 50	32	73 00
480 dozen jugs, 30s	42	201 60	28	134 40
990 dozen jugs, 30s	30	350 40	24	237 00
113 dozen jugs, 42s	30	33 90	20	22 60
208 dozen molasses cans	42	112 56	28	75 04
62 dozen pickles, 1s	33	20 46	24	14 88
170 dozen pickles, 2s	30	5 10	24	40 80
28 dozen salads, 7-inch	65	18 20	30	10 08
50 dozen salads, 8-inch	75	37 50	42	21 00
20 dozen salads, 9-inch	85	22 10	48	12 48
203 dozen sauce-boats	42	85 20	30	60 90
60 dozen sauce tureens	1 00	60 00	72	43 20
18 dozen oval soup tureens, 9-inch	3 00	54 00	1 02	34 50
18 dozen oval soup tureens, 10-inch	3 25	58 50	2 16	38 88
54 dozen slop-jars, No. 1	2 80	151 20	2 40	129 60
43 dozen slop-jars, No. 2	2 00	111 80	2 10	92 88
348 dozen covered soaps	65	220 20	48	167 04
141 dozen F. Dr. soaps	33	46 53	24	33 84
928 dozen slabs, soaps	12	111 36	10	92 80
24 dozen spittoons, 4s	60	14 40	40	9 60
27 dozen spittoons, 6s	54	14 58	32	8 64
200 dozen parlor cuspidors	75	224 25	48	143 52
170 dozen sugars, 24s	70	119 00	48	81 60
88 dozen sugars, 30s	65	57 20	44	38 72
82 dozen sugars, toys	45	36 00	30	24 60
171 dozen teapots, 24s	1 00	171 00	72	123 12
35 dozen teapots, toys	60	21 00	36	12 00
4, 950 dozen scallops	15	742 50	11	544 50
1, 692 dozen plates, 5-inch	5 1/2	93 06	2	33 84
2, 284 dozen plates, 6-inch	6 1/2	148 40	2 1/2	57 10
6, 737 dozen plates, 7-inch	7 1/2	505 27	8	202 11
1, 048 dozen plates, 8-inch	8 1/2	80 08	3 1/2	34 06
336 dozen plates, 6 inches deep	7 1/2	25 20	2 1/2	8 40
1, 046 dozen plates, 7 inches deep	8 1/2	88 91	3	31 38
284 dozen plates, 8 inches deep	9 1/2	27 00	3 1/2	0 23
12, 574 dozen ice-creams, fruits and iced	4	502 96	2	251 48
16, 403 dozen saucers	4 1/2	697 13	2	328 06
11, 330 dozen tea-cups, 4 cents turning, 2 cents making	0	670 50	2	226 60
4, 572 dozen coffee-cups, 4 cents turning, 2 cents making	0 1/2	285 75	2	91 44
933 dozen St. D. bowls, 5 1/2 cents turning, 4 cents making	9 1/2	88 64	2 1/2	28 33

Comparative cost of articles in the pottery industry—Continued.

	American.		English.	
	Cost.	Total.	Cost.	Total.
797 dozen oyster-bowls, 9 cents turning, 6 cents making.....	\$0 15	\$119 55	\$0 7	\$55 79
220 dozen double-eggs, 10 cents turning, 4 cents making.....	14	31 04	6	13 56
8,767 dozen cups, handling.....	4	850 08	1½	146 11
238 dozen mugs.....	6	14 28	2½	5 95
155 dozen moustache coffees.....	20	31 00	12	18 60
152 dozen ladles, No. 1.....	35	53 20	20	30 40
93 dozen ladles, sauce.....	24	22 32	12	11 16
1,160 dozen dishes, 3-inch.....	10	110 00	8	92 80
180 dozen dishes, 4-inch.....	11	10 80	8	14 40
317 dozen dishes, 5-inch.....	12	38 04	12	38 04
225 dozen dishes, 6-inch.....	13	20 25	12	27 00
208 dozen dishes, 7-inch.....	14	28 42	12	24 30
154 dozen dishes, 8-inch.....	16	24 64	12	18 48
302 dozen dishes, 9-inch.....	20	72 40	14	59 08
427 dozen dishes, 10-inch.....	22	93 04	14	50 78
164 dozen dishes, 11-inch.....	24	30 36	14	22 96
133 dozen dishes, 12-inch.....	26	34 58	14	18 02
75 dozen dishes, 13-inch.....	30	22 50	20	15 00
50 dozen dishes, 14-inch.....	35	17 50	20	10 00
30 dozen dishes, 15-inch.....	45	16 20	32	11 52
1,608 dozen bakera, 3-inch.....	10	150 80	8	120 64
242 dozen bakera, 4-inch.....	11	26 02	8	10 30
167 dozen bakera, 5-inch.....	13	21 71	12	20 04
192 dozen bakera, 6-inch.....	15	28 80	12	23 04
285 dozen bakera, 7-inch.....	16	45 60	12	34 20
203 dozen bakera, 8-inch.....	18	47 34	12	31 56
87 dozen bakera, 9-inch.....	20	17 40	14	12 13
28 dozen bakera, 10-inch.....	22	6 10	14	3 92
		11,676 17		6,001 08
				000 19
				6,211 70
The English prices given are good from oven, which I discount 10 per cent. to make it equivalent to our goods from hand.				
161 days foreman of shops.....	2 50	377 50	1 20	181 20
Mold making.....		810 08	* 60	506 88
Sagar making.....		904 92	* 90	507 86
185 days foreman.....	3 00	555 00	1 70	314 50
143 days dipper.....	3 33½	467 00	1 70	243 10
144 days dipper apprentice.....	1 50	210 00	84	120 96
772 days odd work.....	1 50	1,168 00	72	555 84
40 glost-kilns, at 30 days each, 1,470 days.....	2 00	2,040 00		
40 glost-kilns, at 19 days each, 930 days.....	1 20		1 20	1,110 00
38 bisquo-kilns, at 29 days each, 1,102 days.....	2 00	2,204 00		
38 bisquo-kilns, at 18 days each, 684 days.....	1 20		1 20	820 80
Warehouse women:				
289 days.....	1 00	289 00	40	115 60
210 days.....	75	164 25	32	70 08
1,225 days.....	60	735 00	24	294 00
1,302 days.....	50	690 00	16	222 72
151 days warehouse man.....	2 25	339 75	96	144 90
105 days assistant warehouse man.....	1 50	167 50		75 60
84 days 2 warehouse boys.....	75	70 50		22 56
Packer's account, 120 per cent. above.....		710 77		325 80
		12,862 83		5,038 46
Total.....		27,283 70		13,131 37
Deduct from English, as per Lord Atherton's award 1870, 8½ per cent.....				1,094 27
				12,037 10
American wages 126½ per cent. advance over English.				

* Per cent.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. You vouch for these figures of wages paid in England and America as being correct?—Answer. Yes, sir; I do. I have taken the entire product of our pottery and figured it up for the first six months of this year at the price paid in the potteries here and the price paid

in England at the present time. I could almost say that I would take my oath that this statement is correct. Of course there may be some slight inaccuracy in the details, but I know in the main it is correct. I do not think there is any necessity for making false representations in regard to our industry, because I believe we have a very strong case on a plain statement of the facts.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. I understand you were in business in England?—A. Yes, sir; right in the heart of the Staffordshire potteries.

Q. Is the business you refer to being carried on there now?—A. No, sir; my father is dead.

Q. When did you first come to this country?—A. In 1873.

Q. Have you since that time been engaged in business here altogether?—A. Yes, sir; I was in East Liverpool. I think considerable credit is due to me for the reason that I built Mr. Lofland's pottery, the Dresden pottery, and several other potteries.

Q. Your experience and knowledge of the business gained from your father's business in England added materially in the development of the business here?—A. Yes, sir; there is no doubt about that.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. These are the present prices paid here compared with the present prices paid in Great Britain?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Have you investigated the latter recently and personally?—A. Yes, sir; I have.

C. W. BROCKUNIER ET AL.

WHEELING, W. VA., *October 12, 1882.*

Mr. C. W. BROCKUNIER, of Wheeling, representing the manufacturers of glassware, addressed the Commission as follows:

The glass interest has been divided into three sections, and we will present three statements for your consideration. We propose first to consider glassware, cut, engraved, etched, decorated, or painted, in any manner; thin blown ware, and fancy glassware, such as craquelle, optical, twisted, ribbed, Venetian, meaning to include all ware upon which a considerable part of the value is made by skillful hand-work.

The rate of duty is 40 per cent. ad valorem. We ask to have it increased to 60 per cent. ad valorem. The reason for asking an increased duty of 20 per cent. is the great difference in wages paid abroad and here. The cost of labor in articles in this schedule is fully 90 per cent. of cost of production. From the best information we are able to obtain the wages paid glass cutters and all other workmen engaged in this kind of glass in England are 50 per cent. less than in this country. In Belgium, Germany, Bohemia, wages are about 75 per cent. less.

The manufacture of cut glassware in this country has largely decreased since the incidental protection afforded by the premium on gold ceased, and the importation has constantly and largely increased. The entire production in this country does not now equal the capacity of a single furnace. As cut and decorated glassware is very costly it should be classed as a luxury. We therefore think the duty should be correspondingly high.

I desire to submit a few remarks in that connection and will illustrate what I have to say by exhibiting to you a cut-glass bowl and pitcher. [Exhibiting the articles referred to.] This bowl, entirely plain as it came from the workman's hand, and without the additional labor of the cutter, would have been worth about \$1. We paid the workman \$10 for cutting the diamonds on that bowl. There are some 10,000 of those diamonds, and in addition we furnished the power, pumice stone, and everything of that kind. Here is a pitcher [exhibiting] which is worth, plain, from 75 cents to \$1. We paid \$7 for the cutting of that pitcher as you see it. That shows that about 90 per cent. of the average cost of cut glass is in the labor. Our information as to wages abroad is not as definite in some respects as we would like to have it. We have English workmen who inform us in regard to the wages they are paid when working in England, and we occasionally meet a manufacturer from abroad, or occasionally some of us go over there. We have also official information contained in this book ["Labor in Europe, 1878"] issued by the United States Government, which bears out the statements made. There is an infinite variety of this glassware which we consider a luxury, and it should pay a corresponding duty. The manufacture of ornamental glassware, as it is termed, is just commenced in this country, although cut glassware was very largely made before and during the war. The French, English, and Belgian goods are now coming into this country.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. I suppose on account of the variety of the shapes it would

be impossible to have any other than an ad valorem duty upon these goods; you could not have a duty by the piece—Answer. No, sir; I do not see how you would be able to have a duty by the piece. The glass manufacturers often have doubts whether the goods brought into the country are brought in at their actual value, and whether the foreign manufacturers are not putting into this country some of their surplus product at a lower price. We have no means of finding that out, because we are not at liberty to inspect the invoices. Still, when we meet these goods in the market at such extremely low prices we cannot understand how they can be imported at a fair rate, and the duty properly paid.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. You have given us the value of the plain bowl here as \$1, and you have also given us the cost of the cutting as being \$10.—A. Yes, sir; those are the actual prices for hand-work.

Q. What is the selling price of the article from the works?—A. We should add onto that about 50 per cent., for this reason, that in making these articles we might lose two or three of them after the work is fairly advanced, by breakage, and sometimes it cracks when the article is almost ready for sale.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. Is the cutting done by machinery?—A. Yes, sir; it might be termed machinery.

Q. What is the cost of the machinery?—A. It would cost \$4,000 or \$5,000 with all the equipments necessary.

Q. Are the workmen paid for this kind of work by the piece or by the day?—A. That depends upon circumstances; mostly by the piece. Where ware is decorated very elaborately we pay by the day.

Q. How long would it take a man to cut the pitcher or bowl you have shown us?—A. It would take at least three days to cut and finish that pitcher.

Q. And more elaborate articles longer in proportion?—A. Yes, sir; it would take four or five days to cut that bowl.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. The 50 per cent. added to make the selling price represents the labor?—A. The 50 per cent. represents all that the manufacturer furnishes in the shape of the plant, clerk-hire, the power, the polishing stuff, and all the incidental expenses.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. And the element of insurance enters into it in regard to the breakage that you speak of?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. So that, as I understand you, \$10 is merely the wages that you pay your hand who does the cutting?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And then there should be added to that the interest on the investment, the power that is furnished, and the other items entering into the cost of the article and also the profit to be made?—A. Yes, sir. There was recently a hand-cut vase sold in England for £1,000, or \$5,000, which represented seven years' labor.

The next topic we desire to bring to the attention of the Commission is that in regard to the chimney, globe, and shade branch of the business, which will be explained to you by Mr. Gillinder. But before he makes his statement I would like to show the Commission a prism

which comes from Bohemia and costs about 3½ cents. In this country we could not bore the little hole that is made to attach these pieces together for the price it is sold for here.

By Commissioner KENNER :

Q. To what do you attribute that lowness in the price?—A. This work is done in the mountains of Bohemia by child labor mostly, and, of course, it can be produced very cheaply.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. What will it cost you to make such an article here?—A. Roughly estimating, it would cost us 12 or 15 cents apiece. But it has never been attempted in this country; the prices are so low.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. Is there any glass made now called lead or flint glass?—A. Yes, sir; that is made to some extent.

By Commissioner KENNER :

Q. You say these prisms cost 3½ cents laid down in New York?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. How much is the duty upon them?—A. There is a 40 per cent. duty on those.

By Commissioner MCMAHON :

Q. You have spoken of painted, colored, and decorated glassware. Do the same remarks apply to that class of ware that you apply to cut glassware? Does the same principle follow that it takes 90 per cent. of the cost in the labor on decorated ware?—A. I could not say positively as to decorated ware. We do not decorate any ourselves, so that I cannot speak of my own knowledge.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. Have you any general information from the consular reports in regard to wages in foreign countries?—A. There is some information on that subject in those reports, but it is not very definite.

I have here a tumbler known to the trade as a whisky tumbler. Six years ago, when the American manufacturer commenced to make them, they were imported by the case of twenty-five dozen at a cost of about \$1.40. We made some, and our very first price was \$1.25; but they are now sold at 40 cents. I suppose the price now would be somewhere about \$1.25 or \$1.40 for these goods if we had not commenced making them in this country. Some of the French manufacturers made a special list of prices to meet American competition, and sold their goods for the American trade at a lower price than they did goods taken to any other country. They were compelled to do that two years ago.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. How do you know that?—A. It was so stated to me by two importers—one in Boston and one in New York—and it is something they would hardly tell us unless it was a fact.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. Do you assume that the same result would follow if the duty be increased 20 per cent. on cut ware; that it would tend to reduce the price to the consumer?—A. That has been the history of all manufactures in this country. From our own experience and that of other manufacturers, I think that would be the result.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. Did not the works with which you are connected take the highest premium at the Centennial for glassware?—A. I do not think they did. Honors were divided there. But it was an American manufacturer who had an exhibition of pressed ware in Paris in 1867 who took the premium against all comers.

Q. You got a full share of the honors at the Centennial Exhibition?—A. Yes, sir.

Mr. JAMES GILLINDER, of Philadelphia, said :

Student and other chimneys, porcelain shades, globes, &c., are admitted under the present tariff as porcelain and Bohemian glass, and pay a duty of 40 per cent. ad valorem. Under this duty it is impossible for our manufacturers to make these goods so as to sell them at as low a price as the imported goods are sold at under the existing tariff. The cost of making is very near all in the labor, and at the present low price of labor in Germany and Belgium, where most of these goods are made, it is possible for the manufacturers of those countries to pay inland carriage, ocean freight, and cost of package, and sell them, including duty, at a price equal to the cost of labor alone in this country. The actual price paid for blowing chimneys is 15 cents per dozen, to which add the cost of the other labor employed in the production brings the actual amount paid for labor 20 cents per dozen, or the price at which they are actually delivered in this country for, so that if the materials, fuel and interest on plant were all thrown in there would be no profit to the manufacturer in this country. These chimneys are sold in this country at 20 cents, with no charge for packages. From the best information we have been able to obtain the cost of labor on this class of goods is not more than 25 per cent. of the cost of labor here. We have the same difficulty with porcelain shades. One size, imported, known as the seven-inch Vienna shade, has been sold this season at 68 cents per dozen; the labor alone costs more than that amount here, so that it is impossible to manufacture these goods under existing duties, and our market is practically abandoned to the foreign manufacturer.

We ask in lieu of existing duties that you recommend a specific duty on all glass lamp chimneys and glass gas chimneys, of 10 cents per dozen. On all plain porcelain glass gas globes and shades; on all plain porcelain glass lamp globes and shades, not exceeding 8 inches in diameter, 50 cents per dozen. Exceeding 8 inches and less than 12 inches, 75 cents per dozen; 12 inches and not exceeding 14 inches, \$1.25 per dozen; on all porcelain glass smoke bells, glass porcelain and Bohemian glassware, decorated or plain, 60 per cent.

Most of the chimneys used in this country for coal-oil lamps are manufactured here; but I have here a chimney [exhibiting] which I would like to call your especial attention to. We have not been able to compete with it at all, from the fact that they are made so much cheaper across the water than they can be made here. The whole trouble arises from the price of labor. Fully 75 per cent. of the cost in this country is in the labor; and when you put the cost of labor across the water at one-quarter of the price here, it makes it impossible, in view of the present tariff, for us to compete. The same result holds good in relation to porcelain shades. It is practically impossible for us to manufacture them under the existing tariff. We have some lamp chimneys here, which we can show you, to give you an idea of what the goods are [exhibiting].

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Question. What rate do you ask on that class of goods?—Answer. Ten cents a dozen. They pay 40 per cent. now.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. What is the average cost per dozen of such lamp chimneys in this country?—A. They can be produced in lime glass, or of the same quality of glass of which these are made, at 25 cents a dozen.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. You ask a duty, then, of about 40 per cent.?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What is the cost of the imported goods?—A. They are delivered at the point of shipment in Europe and put on board for 12 cents a dozen.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. What is the average price to the consumer?—A. To the retailer the price is usually about double.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. What does the retailer get for them?—A. I suppose he gets about double. If we were manufacturing these goods in large quantities, we could produce them here for 25 cents a dozen; but, under the present conditions of the business, we cannot make them here at all. They go through two or three hands before the consumer gets them.

I have here a Vienna lamp shade. We could not produce that at less than \$1.25 a dozen, with the present price of labor.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. You say nearly all the chimneys and shades used in this country of this class are imported?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What do you say the price of them is in this country?—A. They have been sold in this country this season for 20 cents a dozen, imported, and the duty is now 40 per cent.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. Where are they made?—A. Principally in Belgium and Germany. There are more lamps used in this country than anywhere else. These goods are sold at wholesale at 20 cents a dozen, and you can buy them in small quantities, a few packages at a time, at 22 cents a dozen, and that includes the outside package, which would cost us in this country at least a dollar. These lamp chimneys are made by boys and girls who work in the glass factories, a thing which is unheard of in this country. Of course it requires a man to do the blowing, but the girls and boys do the helping part.

Q. A specific duty would not apply to your goods?—A. Not to all of them; it would to these we have mentioned.

Mr. BROCKUNIER again addressed the Commission in regard to the duty on pressed and molded glassware.

On glassware, pressed in a mold, the present duty is 35 per cent., and the proposed duty 35 per cent. We do not ask for any increase of duty on pressed glassware, but desire that the present rate continue. We find ourselves able to compete with foreign countries at the present time and present duty. This is due to the fact that we have made use of a great many improvements and appliances of American invention, such as superior machinery and furnaces, larger pots, cooling the molds by

blasts of air, &c., which equalizes the difference between the low wages paid abroad and the higher wages paid in this country for all classes of labor, common or skilled. How long this state of affairs will continue it is impossible to foretell. American presses and machinery are rapidly being sent abroad, and methods of work, the result of long, patient, and expensive investigation here, are being introduced there. The export trade to Europe, which at one time looked encouraging, has fallen off greatly already on that account, and in the near future we not only expect to lose all our export trade but also to have the most serious competition in pressed glassware here at home from foreign-made goods.

A hasty review of the invention of pressed glassware, and its rapid and immense development, gives a brilliant illustration of the inventive genius of the American mechanic and the energy and good judgment of the manufacturers.

About forty years ago the first article of pressed glassware was made in Cambridge, near the city of Boston. The genius of an American mechanic, engaged in another business, devised the invention, from which he never derived any pecuniary benefit, as he failed to apply for a patent. Now there are forty three furnaces, containing five hundred pots and thousands of workmen engaged in its manufacture. It draws its sand from Western Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Michigan, and Missouri; its fire-clay from Missouri, Ohio, and West Virginia, and its coal from the hills and mountains of Pennsylvania, Ohio, West Virginia, and Maryland. We beg at this point to call the attention of the Commission to the fact that the mountains of Massachusetts and Pennsylvania furnish the finest sand in the world for the manufacture of glass, and Missouri furnishes fire-clay superior to the far-famed Stourbridge clay of England and the scarcely less famous clay of Germany.

The manufacturers of glass not only increase the wealth of communities in which their plants are situated by disbursing large sums of money for labor, but also render valuable barren hills and mountains by extracting their hidden treasures and carrying them to their various places of manufacture.

At the time of the invention of pressed glassware, blown, plain, and cut glass was used, and only the wealthy class was able to adorn its tables with it.

It was reserved to the American manufacturer to render the art of glass making tributary to the comfort of a majority of the people, and by its moderate cost enables the poorest and humblest to decorate his tables with the useful and beautiful, while his home is brightly illuminated by glass lamps of elegant shapes and various colors, containing petroleum from Pennsylvania and wick from the cotton-fields of Georgia. What the invention and competition amongst home manufacturers has done to bring about this result is shown by a comparison in prices of a few articles of daily use. A plain, clumsy tumbler then cost \$1.50 per dozen; now a better one is only 25 cents per dozen. Goblets were \$3 to \$5 per dozen; whilst now a very handsome goblet is sold at 42 cents per dozen, and a fair ordinary goblet at 28 cents per dozen. Glassware has ceased to be a luxury, and is now a necessity in every family.

The proportion of labor in the cost of glassware is 65 per cent. If the cost of labor in mining coal, fire-clay, and sand is added, it will make the proportion of labor 75 to 80 per cent.

The proportion of quantity of material of the glass is 70 per cent. native and 30 per cent. foreign.

We consider the wages paid our employés no more than is their due

with present cost of living, and such as enables them to live comfortably, educate their children properly, and save something to live on when old age has dimmed their eyes and their skilled hands have lost their cunning.

The manufacturers of table-ware, pressed, blown, cut, engraved, and fancy ware, chimneys, shades, and globes, are represented before this Commission by a committee. The various plants are located in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Kentucky, and Missouri.

By Commissioner KENNER :

Question. You allude to Missouri fire-clay as being equal to the best English fire-clay. In your furnaces here do you use brick made of that fire-clay?—Answer. Yes, sir; in pots or crucibles.

Q. Do you find this Missouri fire-clay equal to the English?—A. Yes, sir; many manufacturers think it is superior, and resists the heat better. The works with which I am connected have used it for twenty-five years.

Commissioner KENNER. It is a matter of some interest to the Southern people to develop the fact that the fire-clay of the upper valley of the Mississippi is equal to the English fire-clay. A contrary opinion prevails in the South. We should much prefer to use Missouri fire-clay if we were satisfied it was as good as the English.

The WITNESS. It is subjected to about as hard a test in the glass-house pots as it can be. We are nearly all of us using gas furnaces, and the heat is intense; and these pots last us as long as six months in a gas furnace.

Q. Did you ever use the Pittsburgh fire-clay for the same purpose?—A. I do not know it by that name.

Commissioner OLIVER. It is made right above here, in New Cumberland.

The WITNESS. We use that for ordinary purposes.

Commissioner KENNER. It is not so good for furnaces?

The WITNESS. No, sir; it is not so good for that purpose, except for outside work. There is a very fine clay at Mount Savage, and at Frostburg. It is a very superior clay, and is often used in the crowns of our furnaces where the flame blazes up.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. From your statement of prices, I should think that glassware is fully as cheap in this country as it is in England?—A. Yes, sir; take, for instance, goblets, at 42 cents per dozen, and even a fair ordinary goblet at 28 cents a dozen. Some of these articles are exported. The Rochester Tumbler Company exports very largely, and the Central Glass Company exports considerably to Germany, and other factories represented here export to England, Germany, and South America, some of the pressed-glass ware.

Q. How long has the glass manufacture been carried on in the United States?—A. I think it was first begun in the vicinity of Boston in 1807 or 1808.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. Are the wages in this business uniform throughout the country?—A. No, sir; there is an organization which controls that matter. The laborer east of the mountains has the advantage, I think, of us in some things.

Q. How does the price of labor in this locality compare with the price

further west?—A. I presume it is about the same. I do not know of any large factories west of Steubenville or Wheeling in the branch of the business which we represent, unless it is a chimney house; there is one at Covington, Ky. There wages are about the same as ours.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. What is the cost per dozen of the cheapest tumbler that is made?—
A. About 18 cents a dozen.

By Commissioner BOTELEER:

Q. What is the price of these whisky glasses?—A. Sixty-five to seventy cents a dozen, jobbing prices.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. How long have you made them?—A. About six years, I think. There is but little profit in them now.

Q. This is the class of goods on which you were informed there was a special price made by the foreign manufacturers in order to control our market?—A. Yes, sir.

J. C. GIST ET AL.

WHEELING, W. VA., *October 12, 1882.*

Mr. J. C. GIST, of Independence, Pa., representing the wool-growing industry, addressed the Commission as follows:

A few of the wool-growers of the Pan Handle recently met in consultation and agreed upon a certain amount of protection desired, which means a small advance on the present protective tariff. We appointed a secretary, who is present, and who will present to you the proceedings of our meeting in regular form.

Mr. J. C. PALMER, of Wellsburg, W. Va., said:

GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMISSION: At an informal meeting of the wool-growers of this section, comprising the Pan Handle of West Virginia, a committee was appointed to present the subject of the wool-growing industry to the Commission. As far as the Pan Handle is concerned, we may say that wool-growing is almost our exclusive industry. It is essentially and purely a grazing country, and has been for many years. The county which I have the honor to represent—Brooke County—has been very largely interested in this industry for half a century. From that little nucleus there has been a very large dissemination of this industry through all the country round about us. We do not feel that, under the present schedule, adequate protection is given to this industry. I have not the statistics before me showing the quantities of wool and sheep raised, as the reports of the last census have not been accessible to me; but I have some memoranda showing the per cent. of wool grown; that is to say, the extent of the industry. Under this present schedule we have barely been able to live. The industry is not remunerative. We would gladly go into some other branch of agriculture, but our location is such that we seem almost forced into this industry, and we feel that it is the duty of the government to give us such protection as will enable us to live in comfort, and have such facilities as are given to other branches of business.

We think that the present tariff schedule should be modified as follows: On what is called "Class A" of the present schedule there is a specific duty of 10 cents a pound, with 11 per cent. ad valorem; that is, on unwashed wools, called clothing wools, worth less than 32 cents a pound. Our view, as indorsed by all the wool-growers of the Pan Handle who have discussed it, is that, in order to give us such protection as we think we are entitled to, we should have 15 cents a pound specific and 20 per cent. ad valorem. I have hastily calculated the difference which that would make, and, according to my calculation, it would make an advance of 8.4 cents a pound on the present tariff rates. We have been selling our wools at from 35 to 40 cents. Whenever there has been any scarcity of wool, and our commodity here has advanced beyond 40 cents a pound, we then came in competition with foreign wools. Whereas, if we get the rates we are now asking for, our wools would not come in competition with foreign wools until we would get to about 45 cents a pound for our own production. We can raise wool profitably at 45 cents a pound; but when it gets below 40 cents

a pound, as is the case now and has been for several years (except during the very great scarcity of wool, when there was an immense importation, amounting to at least 100,000,000 pounds, which had the effect of bringing the market down to 35 cents a pound), it is not a remunerative price for us.

On the second class of wools in the schedule, combing wools, we ask the same thing. The schedule is 10 cents a pound and 11 per cent. ad valorem, the same as in the other class, and we ask that we shall have the same increase, that is, 15 cents a pound specific, and 20 per cent. ad valorem. These changes of course would be carried through all the different schedules. For washed or cleansed wool it would be double the rate for unwashed.

As to the third class on the schedule, costing 12 cents a pound, the present tariff rate is 3 cents a pound specific, without any ad valorem. In our judgment 9 cents would be the figure which would be satisfactory. But we are not interested at all in that class of wool; we have none of it here, and there is not much in competition with us. But our experience is this, that with any grade of wool, it matters not whether it comes in competition with the grade we raise or with the grade our neighbors may raise, when you get down low in grade, that low grade of wool is, to a certain extent, because of its cheapness, brought in and added with other wools in competition with ours. For instance, the Harris Woolen Company and the Globe Woolen Company, of New York, and the Middlesex Company; those three companies purchase three-quarters of the wool grown in what is called the West Virginia, Ohio, and Pennsylvania section. They buy from six to ten million pounds of wool here. They can, without deteriorating greatly the fabric, put a certain amount of our wools—75 or 80 per cent. of them—into an article, and use 10, 15, or 20 per cent. of these low grades of wool which they work into the fabric. That, of course, deteriorates the goods in quality to that extent, and at the same time detracts from our selling facilities. In other words, whatever wool of any class, description, or grade can be used in competition with our wool detracts that much from the price we think we ought to have.

I do not wish to detain you, as there are other gentlemen who have made sheep-raising the business of their lives; who have been forty or fifty years wool-growers, and I have no doubt you can elicit from them a great deal of information, probably much more than I could give you. But we desire to put our wishes plainly before you, so that you may know exactly what we want.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. Sheep husbandry has been a specialty in this part of Virginia for many years?—Answer. Yes, sir; almost exclusively; to the exclusion of almost every other industry.

Q. And very superior qualities of wool have been raised in the Pan Handle; it is celebrated for the character of its wools?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. This State is peculiarly adapted, is it not, for that branch of husbandry?—A. I think so. It is not only peculiarly adapted to wool-growing, but to the growing of the better grades and finer qualities of wool. We seem to have a perfect adaptation to that peculiar industry.

Q. You ask for an advance of the present rates of duty. We infer from that that any reduction of the present rates would be disastrous to this industry in this State?—A. In my own judgment, and that of other gentlemen, it would be not only disastrous, but destructive; it

would absolutely drive us out of the business and force us into some other pursuit.

Q. Is it a growing industry in the State?—A. Yes, sir; it is spreading from the Pan Handle all over the mountainous region in this State.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. I understand that you are the secretary of the wool association of this vicinity?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Can you give me the number of sheep in what you call the "Pan Handle" at the present time?—A. I could only give you the number approximately from the assessor's books. Under our peculiar legislation, animals under one year of age are exempt from taxation, and not included in the list. I should think the number of sheep in the four counties would be from 250,000 to 300,000 at a very low estimate.

Q. Is that more or less than the number kept here in 1867, when the present tariff was enacted?—A. It is more; they have increased considerably since then.

Q. Do you attribute that increase in any measure to the present tariff?—A. I attribute the increase to the better protection we have had, because the more we are protected the more inclination there is to develop the industry.

Q. What is the average shearing of those 300,000 sheep?—A. I should think five pounds would be about a fair average of brook-washed wool.

Q. How does that compare with the shearing of sheep in 1867?—A. It has very considerably increased. The greatest attention has been paid to the breeding of sheep, and the fleece has been wonderfully developed in that time; increased perhaps a pound and a half in 15 or 18 years.

Q. What is the expense of raising a pound of wool where you raise 5 pounds to the sheep?—A. We estimate the expense in this way: If you were not the owner of any land and had to rent, it would cost you 8 to 10 cents per head every month for summering; 8 months we call the pasture season, which would make 80 cents for the summering of a sheep. We estimate the wintering as costing about 12½ to 20 cents, according to the severity of the season. From a sheep which would shear 5 pounds, we think we ought to get \$2 to have any profit. The keeping of a sheep costs from \$1.50 to \$1.75.

Q. What was the cost, in 1867, when this tariff was enacted; was it greater or less?—A. The expense has not varied very much. It is a staple quantity, subject only to variations of seasons and shortness of supply, of a crop, &c. With a crop of an ordinary season, the expense is always about the same. The price of labor has very much increased. In the keeping of a thousand sheep, we would have to employ, on an average during the year, from 6 to 8 men. That expense has been largely added to, owing to the higher price of labor.

Q. You have not only increased the number of your sheep, but the value of the shearing, under this present tariff?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is it not possible that it would still be profitable with the present duty?—A. We do not claim, now, that it has been profitable; but it is a matter of necessity with us; it is not a matter of dollars and cents only. Our country is such in character that it is a necessity with us, whether it is profitable or not.

Q. If the tariff should remain as it is, it would not be likely to affect the number of sheep raised here?—A. If it should remain as it is, it would not have the effect of increasing the number.

Q. In your opinion, would it have the effect of decreasing the num-

ber?—A. I think it would; if farming continues as profitable as it has been. A good many of our citizens are going more into farming and less into grazing, so far as the character of the land they own will allow.

Q. Have you any means of giving an opinion as to the amount of wool imported into this country that competes directly with Pan Handle wools?—A. No, sir; I have not. I never have seen the importation of wools classified in such a way that I could definitely understand what amount came in competition with us. My impression, however, is that the principal portion of the wools imported from Europe, and the Australian wools, are of a similar character to ours; that at least one-half of all the wools imported come in competition with the wools grown here.

Q. It has been stated that about 80 per cent. of the wools imported are coarse wools, for carpet purposes.—A. I did not think it was more than 50 per cent.

Q. You recommend that the duty on fine wools be advanced substantially 8 cents?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. That would be what per cent. over the present duty; it would be over 50 per cent., would it not?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then you recommend an advance of 200 per cent. on the third-class wools?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. How do you reconcile that with the other recommendation?—A. I have not figured what per cent. it would make, but I reconcile it by the explanation I made to you in reference to the manufacturers; the less expensive wool the manufacturer gets, the more he uses of it as a substitute for our wool; and the more of the lower grades that are used the less necessity for the higher grades.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. It was suggested by a gentleman from Washington County that we recommend an advance on the rates of wool, and the reason he gave was that the lands averaged about \$73 an acre in value, and were too high and expensive for sheep-raising. Is that one reason why you recommend an advance?—A. We are similarly situated, and, of course, as our lands increase in value our local, State, and other taxes increase. We have had a very large increase of taxes because the value of our lands have increased, while our incomes have diminished.

Q. Inasmuch as good lands in West Virginia, adapted for grazing purposes, can be had at cheaper rates than in almost any part of the United States, that reason would not apply to the Pan Handle, would it?—A. I think it would extend to any section whatever in which you undertook to introduce the sheep husbandry as a business. There are expenses and arrangements incident to the business—the sheep need protection and care, and you cannot take them in a wild country and provide for them properly. Of course they do not need the attention and care in Texas and Colorado, and those Southern States, which they do here. But, take the low-priced lands of our State, adapted to the industry, and the wool-growers need protection as much as we do, so as to enable them to develop their lands as we have ours.

Q. These reasons apply more particularly to the high grade of sheep—the merinos and others?—A. I think not; although I cannot speak of other grades of sheep than those we are accustomed to here. I know from my experience and knowledge of sheep that the coarser grades of wool put on the schedule here, such as the English mutton sheep, the Cotswold, Leicesters, &c., are not adapted to this locality, because

they do not herd together in large flocks. Our sheep will herd together in flocks of two or three hundred. You take the coarse wool and mutton sheep, which raise the carpet wools, and put them together and they go into a decline, and die very soon. It is not their nature to live in that way.

By Commissioner KENNER :

Q. Are you practically acquainted with the raising of sheep?—A. Yes, sir; I understand it better than I do anything else. I have been thirty-five years in the business.

Q. If you were to take a flock of sheep, of 100 head say, and keep them exclusively for their wool, and not sell any to butchers, what would be the natural increase for 10 years of that flock of sheep in your State here?—A. We calculate, with good husbandry, and all the appliances necessary which can be used in the successful husbandry of sheep, that there is 75 per cent. of increase every year, if you own 100 ewes to begin with.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. That would not be true, except of the ewes?—A. Of course not; it would not be an average increase of 100. The first year, if you had 100 ewes, the increase would be 75, and the second year only 75, and the third year you would have——

Q. How many sheep altogether in 10 years?—A. I could not say.

Q. A careful farmer records the birth of a lamb with as much precision as he would the birth of a child?—A. The business has never been profitable enough for us to go into those extreme details.

By Commissioner OLIVER :

Q. You are probably aware that there is a sentiment in the country that there should be a reduction of 50 per cent. in the tariff all round; there seems to be a demand by the people that there shall be some scaling down of the tariff. In that view, do you think it wise to raise the duty on wool? If you make the duty too high, in a year or two it may be cut down too low, because the attention of the country is attracted to it. Have you considered that matter—whether it would be wise to raise the duty on wool, and within a year or two have it cut down to less than it is now?—A. I think it is the duty of Congress to give to every branch of industry prosecuted in this country such protection as will induce those who are engaged in it to not only continue in the business, but to develop it. In regard to some articles in the present schedule, the tariff has not been high enough to develop them, while on others, perhaps, it has been sufficiently high. I wish to avoid the risk of over production, and also the risk of over importation. Those are the two evils Congress has to deal with. We do not want importation to choke down our industries, nor do we want any branch of industry encouraged so much that it will have an unnatural growth.

Q. But that is not in answer to my question. I ask you whether it would be politic to raise the duty on wool, if the sentiment of the country is in favor of a reduction on all articles named in the tariff?—A. I do not think the sentiment of the country is in favor of a reduction of duty on all articles; at least such is not the sentiment of our section of the country.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. I understand you to recommend an advance in the duty on coarse wools, from 3 to 9 cents, an increase of 200 per cent; that I understand

to be your recommendation in brief?—A. If you want my individual opinion I will give it, or if you want the opinion of the gentlemen I represent I will give you that; they are a little different. The opinion of the association is that the rate should be 9 cents, but my opinion is a little different.

Q. Taking the opinion of the association, then, I will ask you this The coarse wools, I understand, enter largely if not almost entirely, into the manufacture of carpets?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you know whether or not the carpet industry in this country has increased during the last ten years at a greater rate than any other division or branch of the wool industry of the United States?—A. I think the manufacture of carpets has largely increased as an industry in this country.

Q. In your opinion has the low duty on those coarse grades of wool had anything to do with the remarkable development of the carpet industry of the United States during the last ten years?—A. I think it has; I have no doubt about it.

Q. Then please give me your opinion as to what would be the effect upon the carpet industry of the country should we put a duty of 200 per cent. on this class of wool, or raise it from 3 to 9 cents a pound.—

A. My idea in regard to that is this: that there are two reasons which have led to the development of the carpet industry. The first is the low price of wools, and the second is, owing to the low price of wools it has been a very profitable industry and has therefore been more largely developed. If you will give us a duty of 100 per cent. straight on such merino wools as we raise here, it would set everybody to raising sheep and growing wool.

Q. That is all right so far, but now as to the effect?—A. The effect would be to diminish the profits, of course, of the carpet manufacturers.

Q. And consequently increase the price to the consumer?—A. That depends upon the amount of competition there would be in the business. The first effect, as I take it, of an open production of goods is to diminish the price, but when it comes to diminishing that price beyond the cost of production it ruins the industry. But there are many industries where the profits might be reduced in a measure, and other industries where they should be put on a more equitable basis of profit.

Q. Do you know this fact, that carpets in the United States are to-day practically the same price as they are in England, I mean for several of the more common grades; and is it not also a fact that the importation of carpets into the United States has decreased in seven years from nearly six million yards down to four or five hundred thousand yards a year?—A. I know there is a very considerable difference.

Q. So that the competition you speak of must have been going on?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. It was urged upon us at Pittsburgh that there was greater danger of Western competition than of foreign competition.—A. I have heard gentlemen in the business express this opinion, that wool could be grown at a much cheaper rate in other sections of the country than with us. If such be the case it is only our misfortune of location, and we do not expect any legislation to correct it. All we want of legislation is, not that it shall protect us, which is impossible, but that we shall be protected from foreign outside competition. You cannot do anything to benefit my neighbor indirectly where I do not myself get some benefit from it. I am willing to take my chances with my neighbors, but not with foreign competition.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. Is there any difference of opinion among the wool-growers of the Pan Handle in this recommendation which you make?—A. No, sir. That was a unanimous expression of opinion before we had seen or known what was recommended from other places. We had an informal meeting here and we received a Pittsburgh paper and saw what had been done by them. It was done without any concert of action and knowledge on our part of what others had done. My own individual opinion is different only in regard to the advance from 3 to 9 cents; I entirely agree to the other recommendations of the committee.

Mr. J. D. WHITMAN, of Stenbenville, Ohio, said :

I would like to say a word or two in regard to the wool of which I have a sample here. [Exhibiting a sample of Saxony wool.] It is called three X pick-lock wool. The manufacturers in this country have to go to foreign countries to obtain this class of wool. The great wealth of this section is in fine wool, and it seems to me that the tendency is to go toward an inferior grade of wool, that is, to go down hill as it were. Yet my idea is, that we should be trying to go toward the top, which this class of wools represent.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Question. What duty, in your opinion, would be necessary to make the culture of that wool profitable here?—Answer. It should be 100 per cent. at least, I should presume. While the present protection has brought this section to what it is, a protection of 100 per cent. more than it now gets would ultimately enable us to raise it for a much lower rate.

Q. You have heard the recommendation of Mr. Palmer on behalf of the wool-growers here?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You are familiar with the price of foreign wools, are you not?—A. To some extent.

Q. Taking wool at 32 cents a pound (which would average nearly the highest price of foreign wools), the duty which you recommend, as I understand, would be about 21½ cents: what would that amount to as an ad valorem duty?—A. I think that class of wool is about 27 cents in England; with the tariff it brings it up to 45 cents.

Q. What per cent. would that duty amount to; not far from 70 per cent. is it not?—A. I suppose so.

Q. And that duty, which according to your figures is in the neighborhood of 70 per cent., you think is not enough to encourage the growth of that wool?—A. No, sir; not that class of wool.

Q. But you think an advance of 30 per cent. would encourage and increase the growth of it?—A. I think it would help it, I said; not less than that.

Q. It was stated to the Commission yesterday at Pittsburgh that if the duty on that wool was \$1 a pound the quantity raised in this country would be increased but slightly; how does that agree with your view?—A. I differ with that somewhat. I think it would be increased. A certain class of men, who have followed the raising of the better kind of wool for years, take pride in raising it because it is a first-class article in every respect, and those men have nearly gone out of the business, and they or their sons would feel such a renewal of energy by an increased duty that they would immediately increase their flocks, and their business would spring into life again. But as to new men, I do

not think there would be many or any who would go into it at that price.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. So that it is more a matter of pride with these gentlemen than profit?—A. I may say it is pride *alone* that has kept this wool in this country for forty years. The amount has been growing less and less every year. There is only one flock of what our breeders would term a "pure-blooded" flock of that kind in the United States, and that flock is about to be separated because there is no money in keeping them. The gentleman who kept the flock is dead, and it is to be sold. There may be some other gentleman who has the means and pride to take it up, or there may not be. But it is a class of wool that our own manufacturers in this country must have, and it seems to me that a little protection would help bring forward this class of wool.

As regards our own fine wools of this section, everything has been said that might be said in regard to the competition in our Western Territories. There are many men here who have been in the business a long time who are not afraid of any competition in the West. The Ohio and Pennsylvania wool is a class of wool that cannot be grown in any other portion of the country. By reason of its texture, it gives a certain finish to goods that cannot be obtained from wool grown in this or any other country.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Q. What necessity is there for this compound duty of so much a pound, and so much per cent. ad valorem? If the present duty is 70 per cent., why not say 70 per cent. ad valorem, or arrive at the same result without having an additional duty of so much a pound?—A. Others can answer that better than I can. I have heard it answered, but it is somewhat technical.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. You have no preference for that compound duty, have you?—A. Yes, sir; I have my preference for that compound duty.

Q. What are your reasons for that preference?—A. I think it is more equitable in some cases, and more just. It is self-regulating. That is what it is put there for, I understand. So that when the price of wool is high in the old country, and the tariff on wool is low, it is regulated so that the manufacturers can get wool as cheaply as possible.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Q. But if it is so much per pound and so much ad valorem, the higher it is abroad the more the duty?—A. Yes, sir. That protects us as well as the manufacturers.

Q. Is there any common man who can take that tariff rate at so much per pound and so much ad valorem and say how much the rate is by the pound? How could I, living in Georgia, ascertain what that rate was?—A. I do not think it is necessary that you should.

Q. Do you not think it a proper thing that the people should understand what the tariff is?—A. Yes, sir; I do certainly.

Q. Now, if I cannot understand it, do you believe that people in general can? Please answer that now, squarely and fairly.

The WITNESS. Please give me that question again.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. I say, if an ordinary man, like myself, cannot understand what that duty is, without considerable cipheryng and figuring, how can you expect the people generally to understand it?

The WITNESS. The people can educate themselves up to ciphering it out, if it is necessary. I do not consider myself an uncommon man. I have been a wool-grower all my life——

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. Well, can you tell me what it is, or what it amounts to ?

The WITNESS. I quite agree with you that if the people understood this tariff better than they do it would be an advantage. The tariff question then would not be divided into parties ; it would be divided inside of party lines.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. It has not been a party question, and is not now. Why not say that the duty shall be 13 or 14 cents, or whatever the figure is ?

The WITNESS. I say that was gotten up for the benefit of the manufacturer and the wool-grower. Working one way it protects the wool-grower, and the other way it protects the manufacturer.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. Would it not be best to make it so much ad valorem, or so much a pound ; is not simplicity the great thing to be arrived at ?

The WITNESS. It would suit the wool-growers ; it might not the manufacturers.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. I am not taking sides either way. I am asking for information to know why it is necessary to put that compound duty upon wool.

The WITNESS. That is the only reason I can give in regard to it.

By Commissioner MOMAHON :

Q. I should like a little explanation of this matter. I understand you to say that the kind of wool that is grown in this section cannot be grown in any other part of the United States or in any other country ?—

A. I did not mean that. I intended to say that we grew a class of wool in this section of the country here that could not be, or had not been, grown in any other part of the country. I might have said "in any other country," but I hardly meant that ; and yet I could say that with certain qualifications.

By Commissioner KENNER :

Q. I would like to ask one practical question. You speak of a flock of pure thoroughbred sheep which were to be sold owing to the death of a gentleman ; what would you think the average price of that flock would be when sold ?—A. Fifteen dollars a head, probably, and yet they are sheep that could not have been bought during the gentleman's lifetime, some of them, for a thousand dollars apiece.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. Do you agree to the suggestion made by Mr. Palmer to advance all the low grades of wool from 3 to 9 cents ?—A. I believe I would rather give my own opinion about it. There is a class of men unrepresented here to-day, and I understand that they want something of that kind. I allude to what we term in this section of the country "coarse-wool growers." They have complained that we monopolize the thing. I do not know whether that was interpolated to assist them or not, but that would be my idea of it.

Q. I understood Mr. Palmer to say that it was the unanimous recommendation of the wool-growers of the Pan Handle ?—A. Exactly ; and that is why I assented to it. We are a great people, and want to assist one another, and if it will do them any good we will go in with them and ask for it.

Q. But you dissent from that recommendation personally I understand, you to say?—A. I would not like to put it on the record in that way.

Q. Do you want it to go on the record any other way? I want to get your views.—A. I want to be on the record as assenting. I would not be strongly in favor of that, no matter what sort of influence was brought upon me. I do not know what these coarse-wool men desire, but I understand it to be what they desire, and that this is put in to help them along.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. If conforming to the request of the coarse-wool men, as you term them, would ruin the carpet interests of the country, then you would not be in favor of it, would you?—A. I expect not; but then we must understand that these carpet-wool men have been built up and are able to pay a little more tariff duty. They have been built up by these low wools, &c.

By Commissioner KENNER :

Q. An increase from 3 to 9 cents would be virtually a prohibition on the introduction of these common wools. If that prohibition takes place, would not that force the consumers of wool to use the higher grade wools more freely, with less mixture of these coarse-grade wools in? Therefore it is for the interest of the fine-wool grower to favor; without asking for it, this increase of from 3 to 9 cents; has not that had some influence with the fine-wool growers?—A. Yes, sir; but if either class has to be shoved to the wall, the carpet or the coarse-wool men, we think that it should be the carpet men.

Q. If the coarse wools are kept out, the wool manufacturer would have to use a greater proportion of fine wool to make his products, and the increase of consumption of the fine wool would increase the price. Has not that some influence in favor of an increase of from 3 to 9 cents?—A. Yes, sir; I suppose so.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Q. If this tax of 9 cents was put on these carpet wools, would not the wools raised by these men you call the coarse-wool growers be used for carpets?—A. There is only a certain class of what we call coarse-wool men who produce carpet wool.

Q. Would 9 cents a pound instead of 3 necessarily stop any carpet manufacturer in this country?—A. I might say this: that the first carpet made for the state-house of Ohio was manufactured of this class of wool, I understand, so that they could use any other kind of wool.

Q. If the increase asked for by these coarse-wool men was granted, and the carpet men had to pay the increase, would that necessarily stop their business?—A. I think not.

Mr. A. E. SPRAGUE, of Brice, Ohio, secretary of the Ohio Wool Growers' Association, said:—

I hope this meeting will be productive of a better understanding between the protectionists and non-protectionists, and I am glad to see the turn affairs have taken with regard to putting gentlemen upon the witness stand and asking them questions. I have been a producer of wool for 21 years and have made that subject a study. I follow the business because I like it and I know nothing else. If you deprive me of the capacity I have of producing wool and raising sheep, you deprive me of the only means I have to-day of making a living on my

farm. I have made that my study and have thrown my entire energies into that branch of industry. I say this so that you may know exactly how I stand on the subject.

The question of tariff or no tariff, in its different forms has been before all governments from time immemorial, and doubtless will continue to be agitated as long as any interest is to be protected; for, look at it as we may, it is the protection of interests that has in the past with us as a great nation, as in the present, caused these great upheavals of public sentiment all over this mighty Republic. There are only four classes of interests that need protection, viz: agricultural, manufacturing, commercial, and mining.

No one can for one moment doubt, or even question, but that our multitudinous mining interests need to be protected by a revenue sufficiently strong to more fully develop this, one of our greatest resources.

Already our commercial interests have been shown before this honorable body by those more nearly related to the winged monsters of the briny deep, until we are ready to admit—nay, insist that our infant Republic needs this bulwark to her future greatness and prosperity properly protected.

Our brother manufacturer is not slow to justly portray his claims—nay, insist and demand that no rival from a foreign land, with her skilled artisans and cheap labor, be allowed to openly compete, whether it be made from the more common of mother earth or the glittering and highly burnished steel; whether it be the sixpence print or the deftly plaited camel's hair—all are equally worthy of a place in your protection. We grant all this. We see the need of all this, and with them we assert that Americans have one common interest, and as such the manufacturer must be protected.

Then, gentlemen, when we come to speak of the agricultural interest, which is the basis of all interests, all industries, will you, can you for one moment think that protection is unnecessary? that this mighty interest needs no fostering care? The wool-grower is no "beggar, sitting for alms at the beautiful gate," but an equal with his brethren, and he but justly claims his own.

We produced in these United States, in the year 1882, about 300,000,000 pounds of wool, valued at about \$100,000,000, of which amount no State stands the peer of the one that I so poorly represent. In Ohio we have large tracts of rich lands well suited to the raising of corn, wheat, cattle, and hogs, yet these in the course of time, so impoverish the soils as to render them unfit, uncertain, in the production of the products named. Each of you are aware of the existence of the old Spanish proverb, viz: "There is gold 'neath the foot of the sheep."

Where would Western Pennsylvania and Western Virginia be without her sheep? To answer that question you have but to go back a few decades and you find her hills scarcely able to sustain the stunted bits of grass that were vainly trying to assert the mastery over the more hardy briar and elder. Her crops of grain and grass were poor and uncertain. Her cattle were few and valueless. Her population not numerous but poor. How is it to-day? Look at her grand array of statistics in the production of wool, live stock, and grains. Look at her statesmen, her jurists, her colleges of learning. Her proud position to-day among the bright array of sister States is due to her princely shepherd; and well may the two honorable gentlemen who so fitly represent Pennsylvania and West Virginia grasp with one hand the miner and manufacturer, and with the other that of the flock master, and all join hands with our

commercial brother and say, "our interests are common, one and undivided."

The honorable gentleman from Ohio will say to each of you that in our State we have nearly one thousand flocks of fine-wooled sheep; our lands are valuable, and by the keeping of sheep have been brought up to a high state of cultivation. Our grasses are numerous and luxuriant; multiplied hundreds of our citizens are skilled only in keeping their watchful vigils over their flocks, and to deprive us of an adequate protection will simply ruin the greatest branch of Ohio's industry; will very seriously cripple the revenues of our State government; will deplete, and in a few decades utterly impoverish our now fertile hillsides, and only a few centuries will be required to render the lands of the United States as valueless as those of Arabia, where once was located the Garden of Eden.

Against such dire results, in the name of the united voice of the wool-growers of Ohio, reverberated back from the Green Mountain State, until the echo comes rolling back from our far-off plains of California and the Southwest, like the voice of many waters, demanding adequate protection.

Gentlemen, the President has said to you, "Go see what is for our best interests." The wool-grower of Ohio accepts the olive branch of friendship. We confess to a thrill of pride when the president of the National Wool-Growers is tendered a place on the Commission, feeling that our interests will not be neglected or forgotten.

It gives me great pleasure to lay before your honorable body the proceedings and resolutions of our association.

Proceedings of meeting of the Ohio Wool-Growers' Association, held at city hall, Columbus, August 30, 1882.

The State Sheep-Breeders and Wool-Growers held an informal meeting at the headquarters of the sheep department, on the Ohio State Fair Grounds, at 10 a. m., Hon. C. Delano, the president, in the chair.

The question of the possible action of the National Tariff Commission in reference to tariff on wools was discussed, and the following committee was appointed, to report at the semi-annual meeting in the evening, viz.: E. J. Hiatt, of Morgan County; Hon. C. Delano, Knox County; John Paw, Columbiana County; W. B. Law, Harrison County; and J. P. Copper, of Knox County.

The association then adjourned, to meet in the evening at the rooms of the State Board of Agriculture.

At the evening meeting the association adjourned to the city hall for more commodious rooms.

At 7.30 p. m. the association was called to order in the city hall by the president, Hon. C. Delano, Vice-President, J. C. Stevens assisting, a very large gathering of wool growers from all parts of the State being present.

The committee appointed at the morning session reported the following:

The committee appointed at an informal meeting of this association, held on the Ohio State Fair Grounds this morning, to consider and recommend such action as it might deem best for the society to adopt upon any subject connected with the general purposes of the association, beg leave to report that in their opinion this organization should express to the public as generally as possible, and should present also to the Tariff Commission now in session, distinctly and emphatically, in such language as may be deemed proper and suitable to the following ideas, to wit:

This association regards as among the leading interests of the people that comé

under the influence of the State and national legislation those that may be denominated or classified as agricultural, manufacturing, commercial, and mining.

The order in which these are named is not intended to express their importance or usefulness. They are each necessary elements in our civilization, and each demands, with equal power and emphasis, the support, encouragement, and aid of our legislation, both State and national.

There is no reason for rivalry among these great interests. They should act in harmony, and neither should ask or receive more than can be demanded by justice and equality.

We regard the production of wool, which is the subject embraced in the duties devolved upon the association, as one of the important interests connected with agriculture, and we believe that the true interests of those engaged in woolen manufacture, as well as the general welfare of the people of these United States, will be promoted by such legislation as will enable the wool-growers to utilize our vast territory adapted to raising sheep in the production of domestic wools to supply the demands of domestic woolen manufactures.

We feel authorized to assert, without the danger of successful contradiction, that the present duties on manufactured wools are not sufficient to accomplish the object above stated, and, therefore, we desire to assert this opinion, that if these duties are to be changed, they should be increased. It is well known that the existing tariff on wool permits a considerable annual importation, especially of the lower grades, and hence it is clear that a reduction of the present duties will be ruinous to the wool-growing interests our people, and will compel many now engaged in this pursuit to turn their attention to other branches of agricultural industry. Against such results we desire to present the respectful, yet earnest and emphatic protest of the united wool-growers of Ohio.

We desire to add that, in our opinion, the history of our past legislation affords conclusive evidence that the interests of agriculture have not at all times received a full share of consideration from the national legislature. The situation and condition of our agricultural population forbids easy and ready concentration and combined action; but, happily, our civilization (aided by the improvements in the modes of travel which the science and progress of the present century have secured to us) have removed some of the causes which at one time paralyzed the voice of agriculture, and this justifies us in saying that we expect to see her interests more fully considered in the future, and, at all events, we guarantee for the great body of those who are engaged in this work fidelity and obedience to the Constitution and laws, and a moral support to the welfare and prosperity of the nation.

The above was discussed at length by J. C. Stevens, of Kenton, and the president. Much interest was manifested by the entire membership, and the question recurring on its passage, it was unanimously adopted.

On motion of the secretary, Hon. C. Delano was selected to represent this association before the Tariff Commission. Also, the secretary was, on motion of S. S. Thomas, instructed to have copies of the above resolutions and proceedings laid before the Tariff Commission.

C. DELANO, *President.*

A. E. SPRAGUE, *Secretary.*

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. Are you here representing the Wool Growers' Association of Ohio?—Answer. To the extent that I am instructed to lay these proceedings before you. I am requested by the president of our association, who is the one selected to represent more fully the interest of the wool-growers, to present this matter to you.

Q. The recommendations you make are those of the wool-growers of Ohio as expressed through their State organization?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. You are a practical farmer and devoted to your occupation, and of course have considerable acquaintance with your brother farmers in West Virginia and Ohio?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you hear any great complaints coming up from the agri-

cultural community of the very onerous burden that the tariff puts upon them; the amount of the great taxation they are laboring under, resulting from the tariff?—A. I will say, in answer to that, that I am quite familiar with the views of the people in the Pan Handle region and Western Pennsylvania, and have been secretary of the association I represent for two years. I have not heard any complaint from them in regard to the oppressive action of the tariff, although there may be complaints from some.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. It is stated on the second page of the circular presented, that the present duty, in the opinion of your association, is not sufficient, and they therefore "desire to assert this opinion, that if these duties are to be changed, they should be increased." What specific recommendation do you make in that connection; in other words, does your association ask that they be changed at all?—A. The sentiment of the wool growers of Ohio is, that at the present prices we are compelled to sell our wools (owing to the fact that our interests are not protected) the effect is ruinous. Many men are going out of the business, saying that they cannot sell wool for 37 or 38 cents a pound while grains are so high as they are. So far as I can judge, they seem to be united in the request that we should have a reasonable protection. The protection we now have was agreed upon between the manufacturers and the wool-growers, and we are disposed to think our interests are sufficiently protected.

Q. Then I understand that you ask for an increase in the present tariff?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. How much of an increase?—A. So that it would give us a general increase of about 5 cents a pound; where it is 35 now it will be 40.

Q. Have you any idea how much the present duty affects the price of wool?—A. I think it helps us 6 to 8 cents, and at times perhaps a little more.

Q. If that be the case, to accomplish what you seek, an advance of 5 cents would be substantially the duty that was asked for by the Pan Handle growers of West Virginia—about 70 cents?—A. Yes, sir; I think so; that would be my judgment about it.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Do you know what proportion the entire importation of wool into this country bears to the amount raised by the persons composing your association?—A. About one-half of the wool imported comes from Australia, and that Australian wool competes with our commoner wools.

Commissioner PORTER. I will give you the figures. I understand there was about 58,000,000 pounds of wool imported into the United States in 1881.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. What proportion of the amount is the class of wool that you raise?—A. I think about one-half of it; that is my impression. I think one-half of that would come in competition with our wool.

Commissioner PORTER. I had supposed it was less than a quarter?

The WITNESS. I think it is fully one-half.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. What, in your opinion, is the relative production of fine wool, through this fine-wool belt, as between this year and 1867; has it increased or diminished during that time?—A. I do not know that I could

answer that fully; I think at the present time it has decreased materially compared with what it was from 1867 up to a few years ago. We had a better protection from 1867 on than we had before. I think probably there was an increase after 1867, but there has been a decrease for a few years, so I am told by men living in this county who are well posted.

Q. I am speaking of the center of Ohio and this fine-wool belt.—A. There has been an increase in wool since the enactment of the present tariff and until within the last year. There has been a loss to the wool-growers this present year of over five million dollars, at the lowest estimate we could make, taking the value of grains and what it costs to produce a pound of wool. We cannot produce a pound of wool now for less than 62 to 65 cents, and we were compelled to sell this wool this year and last at from 35 to 37 cents.

Q. What item do you include in the cost of raising wool to bring it up to 65 cents?—A. Mr. Cowden has that reduced to figures and will be able to tell you.

Mr. W. N. COWDEN, of Quaker City, Ohio, said :

Mr. Sprague, the secretary of our National Association, asked me to make a calculation of what it cost to produce a pound of wool; and I have made an estimate here, which I think you will find correct.

I take 100 sheep as the basis of my calculation. These sheep, at a very moderate calculation, will consume 10 tons of hay in the six months that we are compelled to feed through this section of the United States. I count that hay at \$10 a ton. Last year it was nearer \$20 a ton. Ten dollars would be an average for a series of years. That would be \$100 cost of wintering, on hay, 100 sheep.

Hay itself not being a perfect food, we have to supplement it with some kind of grain, say 100 bushels of corn or oats. I count the corn at 50 cents a bushel, and the oats are worth very much more here now, and never are worth less. That makes \$50 for the grain that 100 sheep will consume in a year.

Then I count the pasturage of these 100 sheep, for the other six months of the year, at 10 cents a head, making \$80.

Then I count the cost of washing, shearing, and packing the wool from these 100 sheep at 12½ cents per head—making \$12.50.

Then I charge \$4 for salt, and I make no account of the labor or care of attending them; the manure of the sheep, and the fertilizing qualities they impart to the land, we count equal to the care and labor in handling or housing and feeding sheep; and I offset one by the other.

I suppose these 100 sheep to be worth \$4 a head, and the interest on that amount for one year I count at \$25, which is 6 per cent. and a fraction; at 6 per cent. it would be \$24.

Then I allow 5 per cent. loss for natural causes. That is entirely too low, since I reflect upon the matter, because if you had a first-class flock of young sheep, in good condition, it would cover the loss; but taking the average sheep, it would not cover the loss. That would be \$20.

Then I allow 1 per cent. for the loss of sheep by dogs. In Ohio we have a dog law, and that is some protection; we get what is said to be the value of the sheep back. But those who have any experience know that we get but a small portion of the value of those sheep, and are never remunerated; it helps us to bear the loss, that is all. That makes \$4.

Then we have, as the total cost of keeping 100 sheep, one year, \$195.50. That amount should be \$200, as \$2 per head would be very low, and very few people could get them kept for that.

Commissioner GARLAND. Have you not made a mistake in your figuring, somewhere? It seems to me it should be \$295.50.

The WITNESS. Yes, sir; that is correct; it should be \$295.50. Now, you can readily see how much these sheep must shear, or how much we must get a pound for our wool to be compensated for our labor.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Question. What do they shear as a rule?—Answer. The average of our State is between 4 and 5 pounds, and the average price of wool is about 35 cents, and has been for a number of years.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. Would you not figure your increase as a credit?—A. I have not figured it in that way.

Commissioner KENNER. I do not know the basis on which it is calculated, but it has been calculated by a gentleman who knows about it, that if you take 100 sheep, in ten years, if you sell none to the butcher, allowing for deaths from natural causes, you can swell that 100 to 1,849, that is to say, 100 sheep carefully tended for ten years, losing none except from natural causes, will give a result at the end of that time of 1,849 sheep.

The WITNESS. I was simply trying to show you what it would cost to produce a pound of wool, and I think I have shown you we are getting nothing like the compensation we should get. We have the natural increase to fall back upon to cover this margin of over a dollar a head that we lose by selling our wool at thirty-five cents a pound, but that increase that you speak of is not possible in any merino flock—the Shropshiers and Southdowns.

Commissioner KENNER. Take the estimate and divide it by 2, and that gives you 925 sheep for your 100 that you started with; and divide it by 3 or 4 and see where it leaves you; divide it by 3 and it will give you an increase of 600 sheep, or an addition of 500 to your original 100. There was a calculation made yesterday by a wool-grower from Washington County, Pennsylvania, which put the cost of keeping sheep at \$2.04 per head for the year. If you make this allowance for increase, that would make your calculation about equal. You have made debits and not given credits.—A. I was not intending to show the total profits at all.

Q. But when you take from your profits losses by deaths, you should credit your profits with the increase from births.—A. Many of our flocks do not produce lambs; many of the sheep do not produce.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. You have put 10 tons of hay in your estimate; is that an average amount, in your judgment, for 100 head of sheep?—A. Yes, sir; I think no judicious flock master would start in without that much. Sometimes they do not consume it, and sometimes they need more. Last year we did not, but the year before we would nearly have doubled that if we had had it. That is rather below than above the average.

Q. You put \$10 a ton as the price of hay?—A. That is below the average for a number of years throughout the State, so far as I know.

Q. How much was it last year?—A. The average was nearer \$17 last year.

Q. What part of the State do you live in?—A. I live in the south-eastern part of Guernsey County.

Q. How much do you have to pay for pasturage?—A. Twelve and a half cents per month per head.

Q. Do you think that is a moderate charge?—A. That is the usual price paid in my county. People frequently hire them kept by the head by the month.

Q. So that you regard this as a pretty careful statement of the cost of keeping 100 sheep?—A. Yes, sir; I do.

Q. And you think that the yield from the sheep would be \$1.75 per sheep?—A. Yes, sir; about 5 pounds per head and 35 cents per pound would make \$1.75. The statistics of our State show the average to be 4 pounds, but in our section it would be nearer 5 pounds.

Q. Now, in addition to that, what would the average increase be?—A. We would do well if we got 75 per cent. of increase with merinos; that is, from the ewes of the flock.

Q. What proportion would be ewes?—A. A man keeping 100 sheep will have probably 25 breeding ewes on the average.

Q. And from those 25 breeding ewes you would expect to have 75 per cent. of lambs?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. That would be about 20?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What would they be worth?—A. The common sheep of the country—the merinos—are worth about \$2 per head just after weaning time.

Commissioner AMBLER. That would be about \$40 of increase, making \$215 on an outlay of \$295. That is, you lose \$80 a year out of every 100 sheep you have.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. I would like your opinion as to the relative number of sheep in this locality in 1867 and at the present time.—A. The tariff of 1867 resulted in a remarkable increase in the number of sheep in Ohio.

Q. Has that been maintained up to this time?—A. It has had ups and downs, but on the whole we are far ahead; have more sheep and of better quality. More brains have been used in the improvement of sheep since then than before. We should have had no sheep husbandry if it had not been for that tariff, and we depend on you gentlemen for a continuance of it.

Q. What is your opinion in regard to the present tariff protection?—A. Unfortunately it does not protect us as much as it should at the present time.

Q. Do you ask for an increase of duty, a diminution of the present tariff, or that it remain as it is?—A. Our lands are constantly increasing in value throughout the State of Ohio, and our taxes are increasing, and it has come to be a question whether we can continue in the sheep business much longer on our high-priced lands with high taxes. If the tariff is lowered, or the price of wool declines any more (which I take it will be the result of a lowering of the tariff), we should have to abandon the business. If the tariff remains as it is I would not say that will be the result, but I say that we would feel much safer in our business in the future if there was a stiffening up in our tariff legislation. I regard these carpet wools as injuring us very much, and I am particularly anxious that an increase of duty shall be placed upon them. They are wools grown in uncivilized countries; they come here and are mixed with better wools, and our fine Pan Handle wools, and enter into the construction of garments which do not wear satisfactorily, and it is an injury to the community. If they were wholly excluded it would

be better for our own interests. It fills up a gap which we can supply from our own territory and with a better quality of wool.

Q. What advance of the duty do you recommend?—A. I do not think 9 cents a pound is too much.

Q. You speak of the advance in the price of your land. What other influences have combined to increase the value of your lands?—A. New roads, turnpikes, and railroads have been built in Eastern Ohio within the last few years; our sheep have made our hillsides more productive, and there has been an increase in the acreage of wheat sown and planted. I put the fertility sheep leave behind them against all the labor it takes to feed them.

Commissioner AMBLER. We had a gentleman before us yesterday from Washington County, Pennsylvania, who made the expense of one hundred sheep, including labor, an offset to the manure furnished by the sheep and the increased fertility; he put that against the cost of the sheep buildings and keeping them in repair. He told us that \$2.04 was, in Washington County, a liberal allowance for the keeping of these one hundred sheep per year. In other words he made it \$204 per hundred sheep, while you make it \$295 per hundred sheep; you are \$91 ahead of him in cost.

The WITNESS. I cannot account for that. There is no calculation here that is not under rather than above the actual cost.

By Commissioner MACMAHON:

Q. It was stated by a witness a short time ago, that there were 300,000,000 pounds of wool produced in the United States. What part of that 300,000,000 pounds does this section produce?—A. I have the figures of my Congressional district just across the river here in Ohio, as well as the figures for Ohio, but not for the United States. We have in Ohio 4,250,000 sheep, in round numbers, and in my Congressional district (the 17th) we shear 3,515,822 pounds of wool.

Q. That is about 1 per cent.?—A. Yes, sir; in that Congressional district.

Q. Are there any other sections of the country where wool is grown where land is cheaper than it is here?—A. In Texas the land is much cheaper and wool is grown there very extensively.

Q. Do they have to winter their sheep there six months in the year?—A. No, sir.

Q. Do they have to feed them with hay and grain in addition to the pasturage?—A. No, sir.

Q. Do they produce there more than 1 per cent. of the entire production of the United States?—A. I do not know the production of the United States. It is increasing very rapidly, however. But our own grade of sheep deteriorate when taken there.

Q. The wool produced there pays the same rate of duty that your wool does?—A. Yes, sir; it receives the same protection.

Q. And it is the same kind of wool, is it not, so far as the tariff goes?—A. Oh, yes, sir.

Q. Do you consider a country where sheep do not need to be fed in addition to the pasturage; where they do not need to be housed six months in the year; where the land is very cheap, and where sheep are raised in large numbers, adapted to the growth of sheep?—A. Such a country is undoubtedly adapted to the growth of sheep.

Q. Do you consider that they are entitled there to the same protection that you are receiving here under these different conditions?—A.

Yes, sir; certainly. We ask the same for every State of this Union that we ask for ourselves.

Q. What are their corresponding reasons for asking protection? I understand you to say that you want more duty on wool because you have to house sheep a part of the year, feed them on hay and grain, and because of the cost of the land; you ask for more duty for those reasons. Now, you say that those conditions do not exist in Texas, but that they are entitled to the same protection and the same increase of duty. What corresponding reasons have they, where the same conditions do not exist?—A. The growing of wool there, perhaps, would be profitable with a less duty, and it may be without any duty at all. So far as that matter is concerned they have a very low grade of wool there, and it is only in a partial sense that they compete with us here. The wool grown on our hillsides is a superior quality of wool, and enters into the production of seven-eighths of the manufacture of these goods. They work in these lower grades of wools with that wool to give it strength and elasticity.

Q. Should not that lower grade of wool pay a lower rate of duty?—A. It could be supplied from foreign countries with less detriment to our interests here, so far as that is concerned. I look upon this advantage they have in the Southwest as only a temporary matter. The time is not far distant before that country will be settled, and land will be advancing in price.

Q. You consider these conditions, then, as compared with the conditions there, as adverse and requiring protection?—A. Yes, sir; to some extent.

Q. And at the same time you say that they should have the same rate of duty on their wool there that you have here?—A. No, sir; I do not say that, but I do not see how that could be avoided.

Q. Then you propose to put on the people of the United States an extra tax, in the way of a protection on those wools that are produced under cheap conditions not requiring protection, for the benefit of a district producing only 1 per cent. of the entire product of the United States?—A. The result of the protection has been to cheapen the entire product of the United States, and cheapen the goods produced from this wool. Woolen goods are cheaper now than they were before the tariff of 1867.

Commissioner MACMAHON. That is no answer to my question.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. You say you ask increased protection on certain grounds, such as the additional expense of housing your sheep, &c., &c. Do you not think it probable that there are other causes operating in Texas to destroy sheep, and to render the growth of wool in Texas as difficult and as burdensome to the inhabitant of Texas, which take the place of the cost mentioned which you have to incur in raising them here? Are there not wolves which destroy large flocks of sheep in Texas and depredate on them in many cases?—A. Yes, sir; and diseases, also, to which our sheep are not liable.

Q. All of which somewhat offset the increased price which you have to undergo in order to support your sheep. Is not that some ground for the people of Texas to claim the same protection that you claim?—A. Yes, sir; and as the country gets older those causes will increase.

Commissioner KENNER. I only want the Texas people to stand on the same basis as the Ohio people. You are the largest wool-growing State in the country?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And California is next?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What is the fourth State in the list?—A. I do not know.

Commissioner GARLAND. Texas has more sheep than Ohio, I believe.

Commissioner KENNER. I understood from the books that Ohio was placed first in the sheep list.

Q. Do you know the cost of the production of a pound of wool in Texas?—A. No, sir; I do not know.

By Commissioner MACMAHON:

Q. Then your reply to Commissioner Kenner's question is based on a general assumption of facts and not on figures?—A. Yes, sir; from my general knowledge of the business and from my reading.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Independent of the actual losses by dogs the consequent demoralization upon sheep is very serious, is it not?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner MACMAHON:

Q. Does that affect the texture of the wool?—A. Yes, sir; it destroys the texture to a certain extent.

Commissioner KENNER. No sheep constantly kept in fear and trembling for his life can be in as good condition as one who is perfectly safe from such disturbance.

J. H. ATKINSON.

WHEELING, W. VA., *October 12, 1882.*

Mr. J. H. ATKINSON, of New Cumberland, W. Va., representing the manufacturers of fire-brick, addressed the Commission as follows:

I have been requested by the West Virginia Fire Brick Association, and others, to bring to your attention the interest of a large number of manufacturers and workmen engaged in making fire-brick, tile, and pipe along the valley of the Ohio. We take it for granted that the object of your labors will be to make such suggestions to Congress as shall enable them the more surely to legislate so that every interest and industry in the land shall receive just and equitable consideration, and when that shall be accomplished our citizens should be satisfied that all has been done by the government that can be done to promote the general and individual good.

The people of this country are nearly unanimous in the opinion that a large proportion of the money needed to defray the expenses of the government should be raised by duties upon imports, and the practice has been for years to combine as far as possible revenue with protection to American labor. If this programme can be truly carried out, there are but few to object to the principle, although we may differ as to the details of the plan.

The capital and labor that I represent has been of recent growth. Sixty years since 100,000 fire-brick per annum would have supplied the whole country west of the Alleghany Mountains; now they must supply all the furnaces and fires of all the iron industries of the West. We have inexhaustible banks of fire-clay, not only along the Ohio River between Pittsburgh and Wheeling, but in numerous other places in Pennsylvania, Ohio, West Virginia, and farther west and south, while far up in our mountains we have clays that excel in fire qualities those of the old country. The production of brick, tile, pipe, and pottery wares from these clays is only limited by the demand for the same.

For forty years our bricks have come into competition, in the markets of Louisiana, with the fire-bricks of England. It costs about \$12 per 1,000 to carry ours to that market, while the English have theirs transported much of the time for ballast. Owing to the cheapness of labor in England their brick can be produced at much less price than ours, where we pay about double the wages. The present tariff assesses but 20 per cent. ad valorem upon the foreign brick, which will yield less than \$2 per 1,000 of a protection to our labor. We do not think that this is sufficient, or that it is as much as is afforded to the farmer, and many other manufacturers; and we would suggest that the interests of the sugar-planter who uses fire-brick would not be injured if the duty was fixed at a much higher rate, and for this reason: the English manufacturer has, for a time, undersold us in Louisiana, and then, when we were driven from the market, has taken advantage of our absence, put up prices, and received back more than he had lost by former competition.

Bricks have sold in New Orleans at \$125 per 1,000, while with such a duty as would give the market to our manufacturers, the price, owing to home competition, would seldom exceed \$25 per 1,000. Many of

these sugar planters (independent of their interest, with us, in the system of protection), are convinced that a stable duty that would secure a living price to the American brick would be the cheapest to them.

Not only are the fire-brick manufacturers interested in having such a tariff as will give them this southern trade, but the farmer, the merchant, and the mechanic will all be benefited by the home market which always comes with a diversity of labor.

We trust that Congress may, through such information as may be gathered by your honorable Commission, be able to enact such a tariff as will give to us an even competition for our home market, without reducing the wages of our workmen, whose wages at present are not higher than are paid in other industries in the country.

The comfortable homes of the operatives who do the labor, and who mostly live in their own houses, is a strong argument in favor of such laws as secure to them better wages than those who toil in the old country for such compensation as leaves them no margin with which to purchase a homestead.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Question. What rate of duty do you propose?—Answer. It costs us \$12 a thousand to take our bricks to market, and we ought to have something that would nearly cover that expense. I think they pay on the ad valorem principle, sometimes \$1.50 and sometimes it rises to \$2 a thousand at New Orleans and New York. It would require three times that much to be a protection and give us the trade.

Q. Could that duty be made specific at so much a thousand, instead of ad valorem?—A. It would be much better, we think, if it were specific, so far as the honesty of the importer is concerned.

Q. You recommend an ad valorem duty, but if we make it specific, how much would be right?—A. I think \$6 a thousand would afford sufficient protection to make it a staple trade in this country.

Q. Don't you think a duty of \$6 a thousand would rather incense the consumer, and be asking too much? I want your views as to the real point at which we ought to place this duty.—A. I think a specific duty of \$6 a thousand would not increase the price of bricks to the consumer in Louisiana. For one year it might make a difference; but taking the run of years I am satisfied the prices would be less. We should be glad to supply the whole trade at from \$20 to \$25. While the rates of boating are high the price might rise to \$25; but we have thought it a good trade at \$20 a thousand. I have seen English fire-brick selling in New Orleans for \$10; and then, as a matter of course, we could not compete with them. After going along the coast and putting out what we had to the sugar manufacturers, we would take the remainder in our boats to New Orleans, and we have been compelled to sell them for \$10 a thousand. Then, again, prices would run up to \$125 a thousand.

Commissioner KENNER. \$50 or \$60 a thousand is a very common price. You have heard what the gentleman who preceded you (Mr. Brockunier) said, that Missouri fire-clay was superior to the Ohio or Pennsylvania clay. When you were trading with our country you never brought us anything but Pittsburgh fire-brick. The Ohio Valley brick were designated as Pittsburgh, I suppose?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Why is it that these superior Saint Louis fire-brick have not been brought down to us? It is only within the last year or two that we have ever heard of them.—A. Mr. Brockunier referred to that class of fire-clay for making fire-pots. It does not shrink so much; but for making a fire-brick I will say this, that I have had a good deal of experience in

Saint Louis brick, and have handled them and compared them with ours, and I think they are about the same as ours along in the Ohio Valley. But when we take the other clay referred to—the Mount Savage clay, or Savage Mountain clay—I think it is far ahead of any of our clays. But for the purpose of sugar plantation furnaces, where there is a good deal of knocking with a poker and throwing wood against the bricks, there is no brick equal to those made in this vicinity; they are hard and stand a great deal of knocking. This fine Mount Savage brick, if you throw coal or wood against them in the furnace you knock them out and crumble them up, while ours are like iron.

Commissioner KENNER. Persons living in my section of the country using fire-brick would feel prepared to pay a higher rate of duty if they could get a better article; but you cannot expect a consumer to pay a higher duty and get a poorer article. You spoke of the shrinkage of the fire-clay in the pots used for glass manufacture; that same shrinkage prevails in the fire-brick, and that loosens the brick in the wall and the wall falls down—a very serious matter. Our fires are very intense in heat.

The WITNESS. I have examined your furnaces in Louisiana, and I have noticed the trouble you speak of in regard to shrinkage.

Q. If there is less shrinkage in the Saint Louis fire-brick, I should be glad to know it.—A. I do not think there is so much difference in the fire-brick as there is in the clay. There is a process it goes through which makes it stand the heat better and shrink less than our clay. But, after putting it into brick, and while burning, I do not think there is much difference. In that respect I think the English brick, such as the sugar-planters use, while it is a hard brick, does very well.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. Are fire-brick uniform in size, so that a specific duty per thousand would operate equitably?—A. The English fire-brick are nearly uniform; they have a little larger brick than ours. But I think all the brick that come into Louisiana are about the same size.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. Are any of those bricks sent East?—A. No, sir; we send none over the mountains; the cost of transportation is too heavy. They make a good brick about Philadelphia.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. You get your raw material in West Virginia?—A. Yes, sir; right out of our hills here.

Q. Don't you think it would be just as well to call it West Virginia fire-brick as to call it Pittsburgh brick?—A. Yes, sir; probably.

Commissioner KENNER. I have used hundreds of thousands of them in my life, and I never heard them called anything but Pittsburgh brick.

Q. What do you suppose is the amount of capital invested in the United States in the manufacture of fire-brick?—A. I have no data upon that subject.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. About what weight to the thousand are fire-brick?—A. Six pounds to a brick would make about three tons.

Q. What is the lowest price for which fire-bricks sold when they were at the lowest point here, a few years ago?—A. Here at home our bricks were sold at \$6 a thousand.

Q. If you had the trade of the Southern Mississippi country steadily,

you would get much lower freights, would you not?—A. Yes, sir; it would cost us less, as a matter of course, if we had a staple trade.

Q. You can ship coal from this section down there as low as \$1 a ton, can you not?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then, in that view, if the brick could be taken down at \$3 a thousand, you would be able to sell them and compete with English brick at \$12 or \$15, would you not?—A. No, sir; our brick-men here could not now make a brick at less than \$10 or \$12 a thousand. English brick have been sold at \$10.

Commissioner KENNER. The cheapest English fire-brick I ever bought was \$24.

The WITNESS. A merchant told me the other day that he could buy English brick in large quantities from the ships at \$18.

FRANK W. CHENEY ET AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 13, 1882.*

Mr. FRANK W. CHENEY, of South Manchester, Conn., president of the Silk Association of America, addressed the Commission as follows:

The Silk Association of America respectfully recommends to your honorable body the following scale of duties as a substitute for the existing tariff on silk manufactures:

1. Silk, raw, as reeled from the cocoon, not being doubled, twisted, or advanced in manufacture in any way, silk cocoons, silk waste, and silk-worm eggs, free; bolting cloth, free.
2. Silk, partially manufactured from cocoons or waste silk, and not further advanced in manufacture than carded or combed silk, 50 cents per pound.
3. Thrown silk, in the gum, not more advanced than singles, tram or organzine, sewing-silk, twist, floss and silk threads or yarns of every description in the gum, and spun silk, \$1.50 per pound.
4. Thrown silk, dyed or purified, not more advanced than singles, tram or organzine, in skeins or hanks, sewing-silk, twist, floss, spun silk and silk threads or yarns of every description, dyed or purified, in skeins or hanks, \$2.50 per pound.
5. Thrown silk singles, tram, organzine, sewing-silk, twist, floss, spun silk, and silk threads or yarns of every description on spools or in warps, \$3 per pound.
6. Silk piece-goods weighing one ounce or more per square yard, and silk ribbons, \$4 per pound on black, and \$6 per pound on white and colors, said rates estimated as equivalent to 50 per cent. ad valorem.
7. Silk velvets and plushes and satins, and silk velvet and plush ribbons, \$4 per pound on black, and \$6 per pound on white and colors, said rates estimated as equivalent to 50 per cent. ad valorem.
8. Velvets and plushes and satins, and velvet and plush ribbons, composed of silk and cotton or silk and other materials, commonly known as cotton-back velvets or plushes or satins, \$3 per pound, said rate estimated as equivalent to 50 per cent. ad valorem.
9. Ribbons, galloons, bindings, hat-bands, and hat trimmings, composed of silk and other materials, having either the warp or the filling wholly composed of other materials than silk, \$3 per pound, said rate estimated as equivalent to 50 per cent. ad valorem.
10. Laces made wholly or in part of silk, by whatever name they may be designated, 60 per cent. ad valorem.
11. On all goods, wares, and merchandise not otherwise provided for, made of silk, or of which silk is a component material, irrespective of classification thereof for duty by or under previous laws, or their commercial designation, 50 per cent. ad valorem.

B. RICHARDSON,
 C. LAMBERT,
 C. R. PELGRAM,
 JAMES BOOTH,
 JOHN N. STEARNS,
 M. M. BELDING,
 F. W. CHENEY, *President, ex officio,*
 WM. C. WYCKOFF, *Secretary, ex officio,*
 ALBERT TILT,
 B. A. ARMSTRONG,

Committee.

We have adopted the wording of the present tariff bill mainly. These goods [No. 11] now stand at 60 per cent. We suggest a reduction to 50.

Commissioner McMAHON. Pardon me; they do not now stand at 60 per centum; they stand at 60 per centum *provided* they contain 75 per centum of silk.

The WITNESS. I was coming to that. We have inserted this clause, "made of silk or of which silk is a component material."

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. You stop there?—Answer. Yes, sir; wishing to favor the theory that on all silk fabrics made of two or more materials, the principle be adopted of assessing the duty at the highest rate on any one of the component materials. A fabric composed of silk or cotton should pay the silk duty. If an article is made of silk and wool, then perhaps, under the wool tariff, it would pay a higher duty than under the silk. We wish to get rid of determining what is the article of chief value in goods.

Q. Have you considered what that is going to do? Do you know that there are very many cheap cotton fabrics which have perhaps, at intervals of three or four inches, one thread of silk. Would you make those pay double the present rates? Do you not know that there are cheap work-boxes which come into this country, the silk used on which is only the wastage from dress-makers' trimmings, which is sold and known as waste, but which can be used to make the little top of the pin cushion, and that is all the silk there is about it?—A. No doubt it would bear hardly upon some articles but not on others.

Q. But you say irrespective of the classification under previous tariff acts?—A. In regard to that class of goods we are perfectly willing to insert the words "component materials of chief value," and then accept the final clause of the present tariff on silk goods which provides for all articles which have 25 per centum of cotton, flax, wool, or worsted in them.

Q. Under this provision it is only necessary for woolen manufacturers, for this purpose, to insert a thread of silk here and there in their woolen fabrics, and instead of paying 75, 80, or 100 per cent. duty on the wool they would only have to pay the 60 per cent. duty on silk?—A. We do not present our suggestions as the final wording of the tariff. Very likely there are many flaws in our recommendations, and if that which you mention is an objection we would like to accept instead the final clause of the little tariff bill as it stands. We do not appear before you asking for any increase of duties. We are willing to submit to moderate reductions if we must. The tenor of what we ask for is, that we shall be given a protection of 50 per cent. in lieu of 60 per cent.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. What would be the effect of your proposed specific schedule on the lower-priced silks—would the cheaper or the more expensive silks be saddled with the higher ad valorem rates?—A. The duty would bear very heavily indeed on the cheapest grades of black silks, which are very heavily weighted. Silk has a capacity of taking on the weighting of chemicals to any per cent. you please; 500 per cent. is not uncommon. This duty would be almost prohibitory on the cheaper grades of silks.

Q. But suppose the cheaper grades of silk were not weighted, but were only composed of silk, what would the effect then be?—A. Then the tariff would not be any higher than at present; it would not be excessive.

Q. Which class, the cheaper or the more expensive, under your schedule (assuming that the silks were honestly made and not weighted, as I have been told they are) would pay a higher rate than now?—A. The more expensive silks would come in cheaper than they do now, and that is one of the difficulties in suggesting specific duties on silks. To make the duty uniform, you have to suggest so many classifications that it makes more difficulty than the present ad valorem system based on foreign values.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. Would not the shutting out of these loaded silks have a tendency to encourage their manufacture in this country?—A. Undoubtedly.

Q. Would that be desirable?—A. No, sir; it would be corrupting our silk manufacturers; but we at present do not know how to carry weighting to the extent that it is carried on in the old country.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Your general suggestions are in the line of a slight reduction on the present duties on silk?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Would the effect of your suggestions be to reduce the price of silks?—A. I think it would, in the same ratio.

Q. Then you do not adopt the theory that high duties make low prices?—A. They stimulate home production and home competition, and home competition brings down prices quicker than foreign competition does.

Q. In the matter of silks you do not think it would have that effect. Suppose the duties were raised 100 per cent., would that reduce the price of silk?—A. Certainly not.

Q. In the matter of silks, then, you do not think that it is a correct principle that high duties make low prices?—A. They may by bringing about home competition and eventually leading to a reduction in the price.

Q. I believe you propose to allow cocoons and unmanufactured silks or raw materials to come in free?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Ought we not to produce the raw material in this country, and would not the protection of that class of silk have a tendency to induce our people to go into the business of raising cocoons?—A. If they did, it would be a very losing business indeed. It is impossible for silk culture ever to be successful in America until we are willing to work on the same low scale of wages that the laborers receive in silk-producing countries. When people are willing to work for 20 or 25 cents a day as they do in France, or for 15 or 20 cents a day as they do in Italy, then and not till then can we raise silk in this country. It is not a remunerative crop at present prices even in silk producing countries. In the south of France many of the people in the silk-producing districts are turning their attention to other branches of industry.

Q. You do not think, then, that in the matter of cocoons, high duties upon those articles would cause them to be produced in this country, and come in competition with foreign countries?—A. No, sir; unless the duty was so high as to be prohibitory.

Q. If the duties were raised that high would it have a tendency to reduce the price of silk?—A. I think it would. I think the notion of silk culture in this country is a fallacy. We cannot succeed in it in this generation or in the next, or until we have a class of workmen who will work for these low wages.

Q. You do not think the reduction of duties on silk in any form would reduce the price?—A. I say the raising of the duties on silk goods

stimulates home production, and when home production reaches a certain point it is a material factor in lowering the prices.

Q. In that view do you think the raising of the duties from 50 or 60 to 100 per cent. would tend to reduce the price of silk?—A. Excuse me, but we are asking for a reduction from 60 to 50 per cent. We are not asking for an advance on anything.

Q. I understand that, but I am speaking of things as they are. If the present duty on silk in all its forms in the present tariff was raised to 100 per cent. would it reduce the price of silk? That is a plain question.—A. I think it would eventually.

Q. You do not think the reduction you propose will raise the price?—A. No, sir; I do not.

Q. You think it will reduce it?—A. I think it will. If the reduction of duties is made sufficient to discourage home competition and shut up the silk mills now existing, then we should be left to the mercy of the importers, and I should then look for an advance in the prices.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. In your experience has there been any reduction in the price of goods to the consumer resulting from the competition of the American manufacturer?—A. Some of the other gentlemen who are with me have statistics upon that point and are more familiar with that subject than I am. Mr. Stearns will reply to that question. I know there has been a great reduction in all articles of silk goods in which American competition has been brought to bear noticeably in the case of sewing silk and twist, and the handkerchief trade. Roughly speaking, I suppose the goods are now procurable at one-half the price asked before the competition brought them down.

Mr. C. LAMBERT, of the firm of Dexter, Lambert & Co., Paterson, N. J., silk manufacturers, said:

I have no additional suggestions to make to those already submitted by other gentlemen representing the silk manufacturing industry, but if any member of the Commission desires to question me I shall be happy to respond.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. You agree to the recommendations which have been made by the gentlemen who have preceded you?—Answer. Yes, sir; entirely. Our president, Mr. Cheney, has presented the views of the silk association after careful deliberation. I do not know that there is any point we care to enlarge upon. The duty on sewing silks at present is 40 per cent. and not 60 per cent. as some one suggested. I make a good many silk goods, and we have recommended a duty which would be equal to 50 instead of 60 per cent. I think any more reduction than that would be injurious to the trade.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. You think the recommendations asked for would increase the quantity and quality of the goods made in this country and cause a corresponding reduction in the price to the purchaser?—A. Yes, sir; all competition would be with the domestic manufactures, and that would bring down the price to a very low figure. On novelties in our line of goods, when the people cannot tell the value, there may be a profit made; but on plain silks, staple goods, the margin of profit is close. I think

the quantity manufactured here will be increased every year. We have just gotten hold of the American market and have proved to the American ladies that we can make good silks. We give them more silk and less drugs, and I hope we shall still keep on that tack whether the foreign goods are weighted or not. I think it is far better to stick to making a good silk that will wear and give good service, and I shall pursue it as a manufacturer as near as I can. I think the effect will be that instead of the foreigners sending their goods here, full of drugs, it will result in their sending in a better article of silks; I think that will be the result on the market.

Mr. LOUIS FRANKE, of New York, manufacturer of thrown silk, said that he indorsed the statements already made, and would be happy to explain any of the proposed changes if it was desired, especially in regard to the second and third sections of the scale of duties proposed.

Commissioner Oliver read the second section referred to as follows:

Silk partially manufactured from cocoons or waste silk and not further advanced in manufacture than corded or combed silk, 50 cents per pound.

Also the third section as follows:

Thrown silk in the gum, not more advanced than singles, tram or organzine, sewing silk, twist, floss and silk threads or yarns of every description in the gum, and spun silk, \$1.50 per pound.

Commissioner McMAHON. Mr. Cheney's statement was that that was a reduction from the present rates.

The WITNESS. Yes, sir; it is a reduction. It used to pay 35 per cent., and now it would amount to about 25 per cent. I will say in regard to section 3 proposing a duty of \$1.50 a pound on sewing silk, &c., that it is necessary to have that duty so as to enable us to continue the manufacture in this country.

Commissioner McMAHON. Still that is a reduction of the present rates, I understand you to say.

The WITNESS. Yes, sir; it is a reduction.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. On what figures do you base your statement that it is a reduction—on the importation of last year, the last three years, or what; or is it the general average of the last ten years?—Answer. I can answer that in this way: Thirty-five per cent. is the duty, and \$1.50 would make about 25 per cent.

Q. But I ask you on what basis of value do you estimate that \$1.50 per pound is less than the present rate of thirty-five per centum? Do you base it on the value of the present importations, or on the average value of the importations for the last three or the last ten years?

Mr. FRANKE. It is based upon the values for the last two or three years and up to the present time, the average valuations. In other countries these articles can be made more cheaply. For instance, if our machinery was exported to Japan they could make yarns for the same price that raw silk is brought here, because they have got their cheap labor over there, and then we have to pay 5 per cent. duty in Japan for raw silk, besides 2½ per cent. commission and 1 per cent. for inspection, which makes about 8½ per cent., and this, together with their more economical labor, would amount to about 10 per cent. altogether. Therefore they could make the yarns about 10 per cent. cheaper there than we could here.

Mr. JAMES BOOTH, of Paterson, N. J., manufacturer of silk goods, said:

I have no further information to offer to the Commission than that which our president, Mr. Cheney, has already given. He has clearly pointed out, I think, what is needed, and shown you the advantages of specific duties. I will not occupy the time of the Commission by repeating anything that has been said.

Mr. BRITTON RICHARDSON, of New York, silk broker and importer, said:

I have been a party to the making up of this scale of duties, and I can say that it has been conscientiously considered in all its bearings. We have tried to meet the exigency, and we think we have met it fairly and squarely. In regard to the operation of these duties I may say (to show that there is no prohibition about the 60 per cent. duties) that whilst we have made in this country about \$36,000,000 worth of goods within the last year, we also imported about \$36,000,000 worth of goods, and the imports are increasing rather than decreasing. I mention this to show that there is nothing prohibitory about these duties.

A question was asked one of the gentlemen of our delegation as to whether there had been any reduction in the price of goods owing to this tariff. There was a statement gotten up last year extending over a period from 1865 to 1881, compiled from the best information we could gather, showing that there had been a reduction of from 30 to 35 per cent. in the cost of goods. I remember very well, not many years ago, when Mr. Stearns made a class of goods which he sold at \$2.50 a yard that he would now be glad to make at \$1.25 a yard. There has been, owing to domestic competition, a gradual sagging of prices, as is naturally the case. Knowing as I do the business, I know there is no monopoly in this matter of silks. I do not think there is a silk concern represented here to-night who, if they had taken their money, skill, and industry and put them into other business, could not have made more money than they have made in manufacturing silk.

The question was asked as to how Mr. Franke got his reduction of duty on trams and organzines from 35 to 25 per cent. The last quotation in Europe showed that trams were about 60 francs and organzines 68 francs. Taking it on that basis, or on the basis of our cost here, it would be about 25 per cent. That is a fair estimate, and it is rather in favor of a decrease than against it. I fully concur in all the points which have been submitted to you, and having been familiar with this matter of the tariff for a great many years, I can say that I do not think there is anything there but what we can stand by. We might some of us perhaps stagger momentarily under an unexpected cross-questioning, but there is nothing in the rates proposed but what we can show to be fair and square.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Question. Do these schedules of duties proposed by Mr. Cheney here absolutely and positively reduce the present rates of duty?—Answer. Yes, sir; they are what they pretend to be, honestly.

Q. You are satisfied from the figuring that that is the fact?—A. Yes, sir. There is great difficulty, of course, in adjusting these matters. On some goods the duty might be a little more and on some a little less, but they have been adjusted as nearly as men who are familiar with all the difficulties can adjust them.

Q. You corroborate the statement, then, that has been made, that the proposed rates are a reduction?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You do that from your own knowledge and figuring?—A. Yes, sir; as fairly as any expert can make it.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Do you think the establishment of the silk industry in this country has had the effect of producing a quality of silk that will compare favorably with the foreign article?—A. Yes, sir; I think the greatest difficulty is to get a market for good silks. We will make as good a silk as the market will take. The production of silk has been very much improved. I can tell that, as an importer of raw silks, by the quality of stock used. We now use a large quantity of Italian silk, which formerly we never dreamed of using.

Q. It has also reduced the price as well as improved the quality?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. To what extent, if any, do you think you would be compensated in making this reduction in the lessening of the probabilities of undervaluation?—A. Well, we are told that these parties make full valuations. They show us the figures that they have, and in some things they may give the actual value. The first six clauses of our scale of duties, those which give specific duties, deal with perhaps 70 per cent. of all the imported goods. You might fairly suppose that the duties, being simply weight duty, would be pretty fairly collected. No question arises as to the value at the port of shipment as to its being a job lot or something belonging to a past season; no such questions can arise. The only question is as to so many pounds of silk and so many dollars.

Q. As the duty will be more likely to be collected, while the reduction may *appear* to be a 10 per cent. reduction, in fact it would hardly be a 10 per cent. reduction, because you are lessening the liability to fraud, and that element would lessen the percentage of reduction?—A. Yes, sir; to some extent.

Q. To what extent would it equal the 10 per cent. you are cutting off?—A. It might offset that.

Q. Would you not be as well off with an honestly collected specific duty as you are now with all the liabilities of undervaluation with the present ad valorem duty of 60 per cent.?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. So that it would not in fact be so much of a reduction?—A. No, sir; it would be a reduction to offset the present undervaluation. We have yielded to the general drift, I might say, of public opinion in favor of specific duties. If we had an honestly collected ad valorem duty I think that would be the best way to collect the duty.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Is there anything peculiar, striking, or noticeable in the improvement of American sewing silks?—A. Yes, sir; the American sewing silks are made better than any sewing silks in the world, on account of the sewing machine being an American invention, and requiring a better thread; the machine requires it. That is acknowledged all over the world wherever sewing silk is used.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. The scale that you propose is a reduction?—A. Yes, sir; it is a reduction.

Q. Do you agree with Mr. Cheney that the effect of that will be to re-

duce the price of silk?—A. I do not think there would be any appreciable reduction, owing to undervaluation.

Q. Then the reduction would not do much good to the purchaser?—A. No, sir; not directly.

Q. You say the price of silk has fallen about 35 per cent. in this country?—A. Yes, sir; in the woven goods.

Q. Has there not been a decline in the price of silks in Europe?—A. No, sir; not to the same extent.

Q. What is the difference?—A. I have not figured it out, but we could give you the difference.

Q. Are any silks from Europe invoiced at a lower price than you can manufacture and sell the silk in this country?—A. Oh, yes, sir; because you will not find one invoice in ten that shows the true value of the goods. I have sat as a merchant appraiser and had invoices brought to me where every item has been raised by the commission merchant to avoid penalties. I have seen goods put at 40 per cent. and they bring them here and pay the present duties of 50 or 60 per cent. and then compete with us in the sale of manufactures of silks. They do it by undervaluation. If they did not undervalue their goods, therefore, they could not compete with us.

Q. You think there is a great deal of undervaluation going on?—A. Yes, sir; I saw a list in the custom-house the other day, where in one column was a list of prices invoiced, and in another column the prices where the goods had been advanced, and in another column a list of prices where the expert in London had filled it up, and there was not one of the invoices up to the mark.

Q. When they are advanced, the importer has to pay the advance?—A. Yes, sir; when they are raised on reappraisalment.

Q. Nevertheless, they do compete with you under all these circumstances?—A. Oh, yes, sir.

Q. Then it is a fact that if the duties were taken off the silks they could sell them lower than they do sell them?—A. Yes, sir; undoubtedly.

Q. Then you would be obliged to stop the manufacture or reduce the prices?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You desire the duty retained, in order that the present prices may be maintained?—A. We desire the duty retained, but it does not necessarily follow that the prices will be kept up. The price will get higher or lower according to the state of the market, and the competition that we have in foreign countries.

Q. If the price of manufactured silk went up higher in Europe would you necessarily raise the price here?—A. Not unless it cost us more here.

Q. You do not agree with Mr. Cheney that this reduction would have a tendency to reduce the price of silks in this country?—A. I said I did not think it would have any appreciable effect; I do not see how it could.

Q. Would not 10 per cent. have any appreciable effect?—A. As was stated a while ago, I do not suppose that the importers pay more than 45 per cent. duty now.

Q. But you have got to compete with them now?—A. Yes, sir; the important thing would be the greater certainty; you would avoid extremes.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. In the proposed bill which you submit, you have two sections on sewing silks, and other silks in the thread, yarns, &c.?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. They come in both on skeins and spools; there are two classes; those on skeins, and those on spools?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Are they the same identical kind of silk?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Why do you want 50 cents a pound more on an article of silk yarn because it is on a spool than you want on the same identical article of silk thread in the skein?—A. It is not in the identically same condition. One is spoken of as silk in the gum, and the other as silk purified or boiled.

Q. But is it identically the same sewing silk or yarn?—A. Yes, sir; but one is put on spools ready for the market, and the other is in an unfinished condition. The silk referred to in paragraph No. 5 is silk as it comes from the dyer, while the silk described in paragraph No. 6 has been wound, which it will cost 75 cents a pound to do, and some is not only wound but afterwards put into warps ready to go into the loom, the last process before the shuttle is applied to it.

Q. Is that true of sewing silk?—A. No, sir; the one is in skeins not ready for market, and the other on spools ready for market.

Q. Then why does it come here in skeins if it is not ready for market?—A. It is put on spools here. A skein of silk is a large roll of silk as it comes from the dyer, and when it is put on spools it is ready for the dry-goods dealer. It is quite a separate process.

Q. It is identically the same kind of silk, although in a different condition as to its relations to other things?—A. Yes, sir.

Mr. W. C. WYKOFF, of New York, secretary of the Silk Association of America, said:

I do not propose to occupy your time by any lengthy statement. The statistics of the silk industry have been very carefully prepared for a series of years since the Silk Association of America was formed, and presented in such condition that you can see at a glance what progress has actually been made. In 1850, the total amount of the products of the entire silk industry of the country was \$1,800,000; in 1860 it had risen to \$6,600,000; in 1870 it was \$12,000,000, and in 1880 \$35,500,000. The most rapid progress has been within the last few years, say within the last ten years. In regard to this matter of the decline of the price of silk goods, as being the result of competition, I would like to say that there is a short table furnished in the tenth annual report of the Silk Association of America, which shows what that decline was, and what classes of goods it took place on. And a very brief reference to the goods produced, as shown by the census returns, will indicate that the reduction is greatest in those classes of goods in regard to which we have attained in this country the greatest control of the whole market, and in which the importation has comparatively fallen off. The reduction is least in dress goods, upon which we have only recently, say within the last four or five years, obtained a footing, and it is 56 per cent., for instance, upon sewings and machine twist, which were the very first silk goods to be manufactured in this country, which have been the longest manufactured, and in which we have got control, so to speak, of the market, because the amount imported is comparatively small; whereas on dress-goods, which we have only been manufacturing for the last four or five years, the decline in price is only thirty to thirty-five per cent.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. Has there not been a decline in Europe upon the same class of goods?—Answer. No, sir; not to any considerable extent.

Q. What is the difference in extent? It is thirty-five per cent. here;

what has it been there?—A. That I am not prepared to state with exactness, but in conversations with importers on the subject some of them have stated to me that there had been no decline upon dress goods whatever, practically. In regard to the other class of goods—sewings and twist—we import so little that it is impossible to say what the foreign prices are.

Q. Notwithstanding there has been no decline there, with a 60 per cent. duty they can compete with you in the market on dress goods?—

A. We have but recently begun to manufacture them.

Q. They are competing with you now, are they not?—A. We are trying to compete with them.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. On page 27 of your report, you give an admirable statement of the rates of wages per week to operatives in this country. I wish you would prepare a similar statement, if you can, of the prices paid in England.—

A. On that subject, I would like to read an extract from a letter which I have received within two days from Mr. Frank H. Mason, United States consul at Basle, Switzerland. He writes to the Silk Association of America, giving the rates of wages per week paid to silk operatives; these rates compare with rates of wages now paid in the United States, as follows:

	Swiss.	United States.
Weavers of plain ribbons	\$3.30 to 4.00	\$13.50 to 15.00
Weavers of Jacquard fancy ribbons	4.00 to 4.50	15.00
Warpers	3.00	10.00
Winders	2.31	7.00 to 9.00

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. You have taken Switzerland as a basis. Are the wages as high in Switzerland as they are in France?—A. Not quite as high, I believe.

Q. Then you have taken the country which pays the lowest rate to compare with our country?—A. I have not taken the lowest rate of wages abroad; I have not taken Italy.

Commissioner PORTER. I have found a gentleman here who can furnish me with the table I asked for, so that I will not trouble Mr. Wyckoff with that matter.

FREDERICK PRIME.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 13, 1882.*

Mr. FREDERICK PRIME, Jr., president of the Allentown Iron Company, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: In asking that the duty on pig iron be made \$8 per ton, the producers are only asking to have \$1 restored of the \$2 per ton taken off the duty at a time when the premium on gold was so high as to appear to warrant the reduction then made, the duty before the reduction being \$9 per ton. The high premium on gold at the time rendered the reduction of little or no importance. But as gold is no longer at a premium pig iron is not now protected to the same extent as the other iron and steel products are.

While it may be said that there are some few favorably located furnaces, possessing local advantages as to their supply of ore not common to the great majority of producers, that do not require additional protection, the fact remains that with the present duty of \$7 per ton, coupled with the low freights at which foreign iron is brought into this country, often at a mere nominal rate as ballast, when freights of grain and other American products offer good paying return cargoes, that a majority of the furnaces do not and can not make iron at as low a cost as foreign iron is very often offered and sold in this market. It is no answer to say that foreign iron is sometimes sold without profit to the maker, as it is to be presumed that the importers do not import it and sell it at a loss.

With the boundless supply of iron ore distributed all over the country, there certainly should not be a ton of iron imported, as every ton of iron brought from Europe is a loss to the labor of the country, equal to the difference between the value of the raw material in the ground and the cost of a ton of pig iron at the furnace.

The duty on pig iron is mainly a protection to American labor against the cheap and poorly paid labor of Europe, for the reason that the maximum value of the raw material entering into a ton of pig iron, consisting of ore, coal, and limestone, is not over \$2.50 per ton in the ground, consequently the difference between that sum and the cost of a ton of iron at the furnace is made up of labor and transportation, and as transportation is principally labor it may properly be classed under that head.

Statistics and estimates make the total production of pig iron in the world about 19,500,000 tons per year, and the United States is said to consume about 30 per cent. of the whole production.

In the year 1880 there was 537,982 tons of foreign pig iron imported, in 1881 there was 265,887 tons, and in the first eight months of the present year, 1882, there has been 341,780 tons imported (being 75,893 tons more than was imported in the whole year of 1881), making a total importation in two years and eight months of 1,145,651 tons, which, if produced in this country, would cause a distribution of over \$17,000,000 for labor and transportation, and enrich the country to that extent by disbursing the money at home.

Iron kentledge, which is only another name for pig iron (cast specially for ballasting ships), is now admitted as iron castings at a duty of but 30 per cent., while the same article cast in the shape of pig iron pays a

duty of \$7 per ton; this should be corrected by making iron kentledge pay the same duty per ton as pig iron.

Wrought scrap-iron, which comes in direct competition with American pig iron and consequently with American labor, now pays a duty of but \$8 per ton, which is quite inadequate, and should be made to pay a duty of not less than \$15 per ton, that being but a little less than the value of the labor in producing a ton of American pig iron.

Whatever foreign agents, importers, and free traders may say to the contrary, all the great manufacturing interests of the country have been brought to their present efficient high standard by the fostering protection of the tariff system, and while some few articles may be unduly protected, it is better for the country to err on that side.

F. A. COMLY,

*Treasurer of the Andover Iron Company,
President Langdale Iron Company, and
Director of Glendon Iron Company.*

FRED'K PRIME, JR.,

President Allentown Iron Company.

PHILADELPHIA, October 9, 1882.

HENRY B. METCALF.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 13, 1882.*

Mr. HENRY B. METCALF, of Pawtucket, R. I., representing the hair-cloth manufacturing industry, addressed the Commission as follows :

GENTLEMEN : I appear before you in behalf of the Pawtucket Hair Cloth Company, of which corporation I am the business agent, and will read to you a paper which has been prepared upon the subject of the duty upon hair cloth, or hair seating.

Your memorialists, the Pawtucket Hair Cloth Company, a corporation with large investment of capital, with costly and intricate machinery, valuable for its present purpose, but practically worthless for all other uses, in presenting to your honorable Commission a brief memorial on the subject of import duty upon the fabric usually designated as "hair cloth of the description known as hair seating," being the fabric used for furniture covering, beg to disavow the intent to ask or advise legislation of special character in their behalf, but seek only to present such statement of facts as may aid you to proper classification of the interest in question, and to secure for it rights and opportunities simply *equal* to those afforded to kindred industries.

Whether much or little stress be laid upon the principle of protection, they beg to intimate that, in an inevitable incidental protection on *any* scale of assessed duty, their industry should, so far as possible, bear burdens and enjoy opportunities equal to those of their neighbors.

Hair cloth of the description known as hair seating has long been desirable as a furniture covering, because of its durability, its general cleanliness, and healthfulness. A small quantity of these goods was woven in this country many years ago, but only as an adjunct to other business. As a distinctive interest on any considerable scale the industry may be said to have started in the United States only some twenty-five years ago, prior to which time nearly all the hair seatings used were imported from England and Germany.

Your memorialists have had the fortune (good or bad) to occupy a pioneer position in the development of this new American industry, and they have enjoyed a fair share of the kind of experience that commonly falls to the lot of pioneers. They had plenty of adversity in their early work, and came very near the brink of absolute ruin, but they insisted upon their right to live, have established a highly creditable business, and have encouraged a constantly increasing body of energetic and able competitors to contest their commercial fortunes. Their policy has necessarily been active, and possibly aggressive, thereby provoking pretty warm antagonism and harsh criticism from foreign competitors and their commercial agents. They have been the target for a good deal of pretty wild firing from newspaper critics, and have not always escaped injustice at the hands of the memorialists of tariff committees and commissions, but their record is open, and is, as we believe, an honorable one. Their business has been, primarily, the manufacture of hair cloth of the designation known as hair seating, but incidentally thereto they have engaged heavily in the importation of weaving hair, in which latter interest their agents have visited all the principal markets of the world. This article must be sought almost exclusively in foreign markets, as the small home product of tail hair (from dead horses) is not so gathered and cared for as to make it available for weaving purposes.

This company was the first in the world to introduce automatic looms for weaving hair cloth, which result it effected only after very large expenditure of time, labor, and money. Although said inventions were patented, they were not so perfected that they were a source of any profit until a considerable portion of the term of the patent was spent. These patents have now expired, and the inventions are free to the world. English manufacturers are using these valuable American inventions without cost therefor, and thereby producing goods in competition with our fabric at a cost for labor of about one-third to one-half what we have to pay.

Your memorialists first invite your attention to the fact that horse-hair for weaving, whether cleansed or uncleaned, drawn or undrawn, has almost invariably been in the free list in the tariff of the United States, as well as in England and Germany. They have no reason to expect any change of policy in such regard, but would suggest that, in the possible event that horse hair be made dutiable, justice would demand that an equivalent increase should be made in the duty assessed upon the manufactures thereof. For your information they remark that very few textile fabrics introduce into their entire cost so large a percentage of labor-cost as does the one under consideration, and this simply from the fact that a maximum product of a hair-seating loom does not exceed five to six yards of standard goods per full day. This fact is of importance in any comparisons with other industries.

Inasmuch as past legislation may, in some measure, prevail as an index for the future, attention is called to the fact that the United States tariff legislation prior to 1870 dealt with the fabric in question on the ad valorem plan, and that the change made in 1870 to a plan of specific duty was largely actuated by unquestioned evidence, now on record in the New York custom-house, that the former plan was habitually and enormously abused in its administration. It is also noted that while the ad valorem method was maintained the rate of duty assessed upon the fabric in question was almost invariably much below the then current scale of duty on textile fabrics, and that therein the interest suffered from a discrimination which, however unintentional, was none the less onerous and unjust. If the ground be debatable as to whether or not the government's interest will be best promoted under the specific or the ad valorem form of duty, no argument can be offered so potent as are the records of the New York custom-house of actually exposed enormous and long-continued frauds in the importation of hair seating under the ad valorem plan that prevailed before the tariff act of 1870.

Presuming, however, that under the specific plan you may desire to know the ad valorem equivalent, the following suggestions in illustration of such point are submitted:

It should be noted that in any estimates as to hair seating the question of average widths is an important element in the problem. Long hair costs much more per pound than short hair; at present only a little more than twice as much, but not infrequently the difference is as 1 to 3, or even 1 to 4. Wide cloth as compared to narrow cloth is affected as to value by this consideration. But the consumption of this fabric is so regular as to proportions of widths used that accurate averages are readily determined as a basis of computation.

When, in this memorial, "average assortment" is mentioned, such average is computed upon entire sales of the Pawtucket Hair Cloth Company for ten years.

Furniture manufacturers must have all widths for their work, but in very unequal proportions, and this inevitable demand is for an assort-

ment greatly at variance with the average length of the available supply of hair. This element of the business has always greatly taxed the ingenuity of hair-seating manufacturers. Broken assortments are unmarketable, excepting as "job lots," and their price is dependent upon the necessities of holders, many of whom are without capital and must sell broken assortments for such price as they can get. It is further noted that in any reference herein to foreign prices the quotation pertains to the prices of standard manufacturers for regular assortments, *i. e.*, such a basis as would be accepted by United States appraisers under an ad valorem plan of duty. "Job lot" prices are ignored, because they have no significance in this connection.

At about the time of the passage of the tariff act of 1870 the largest European manufacturer of hair seating sent to Washington, through his consul, a memorial complaining of the high rate of duties to be assessed on his fabric, which memorial is now doubtless on file. Accepting his figures as correct, the specific duty then adopted would be equal to an average ad valorem charge of 34½ per cent. At the prices of the same manufacturer one year later the duty collected would be equal to 27 per cent. Our own computation would make the duty on his goods, at his prices of 1870, 32 per cent. These rates were certainly much below the average of other textile fabrics, most of which have a far more favorable labor account than has the interest under consideration.

Since 1871 the price of hair seating has steadily declined, and on the basis of the latest English prices known to your memorialists, for the same make and grade of goods hereinbefore referred to, the duty as at present assessed would be equal to 40.7 per cent. ad valorem. For purposes of comparison, it is here noted that the Pawtucket Hair Cloth Company make and vend two grades of hair seating, one fully equal to the average imported seating, and one admittedly superior to any other ever offered for sale in the United States market. These are, for convenience, designated respectively as "ordinary" and "extra."

A pertinent question that presents itself is, what effect upon the cost to the consumer of hair seating has been produced by the experiences of the last twenty-five or more years? Premising that during a portion of the period referred to allowances must be made on account of the disturbed value of our currency, as to which feature no computations are at this time presented, it is noted, for whatever it may signify, that the selling prices of Pawtucket hair seating to-day compare with past prices-current as follows:

Year.	Exceeded present prices—	
	For "ordinary,"	For "extra."
Current prices of—	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
1842.....	63	33
1843.....	72	41
1848.....	48	21
1859.....	29	5
1862.....	50	22
1863.....	109	71
1867.....	96	60
1868.....	114	74
1869.....	107	68
1870.....	117	77

In other words, current prices of 1842 were 63 per cent. higher than our present price for "ordinary," and 33 per cent. higher than our pres-

ent price for "extra." Current prices of 1870 were 117 per cent. higher than our present price for "ordinary," and 77 per cent. higher than our present price for "extra."

Except a temporary rise in 1871, the decline in home prices since the passage of the tariff act of 1870 has been constant, and American consumers, whatever the cause, are supplied with hair seating at prices much below the lowest prices of the past.

We note, for your information, that since the Pawtucket Hair Cloth Company became heavy importers of hair the decline in the price of weaving hair has been constant and heavy, and it is not unreasonable to claim that in that respect the work of the company has been largely in the interest of the consumer.

It is freely admitted that the business of the company has for the last few years been lucrative, but such result is claimed to be the effect of hard work, liberal employment of capital, and diligent study of all problems involved, and not of any pampering by legislation. Its policy and action have given low-priced goods to consumers by forcing down the prices of the world, both in raw materials and products.

While, therefore, your memorialists present no claims for special favor, they beg respectfully to represent that they are entitled to critical examination by you of all antagonistic representations, to the end only that strict justice may be done.

For reasons herein assigned, all of which will be substantiated by vouchers if desired, your memorialists respectfully suggest—

1st. That the raw material be allowed to remain in the free list as in the past.

2d. That whatever the rate of duty the form should be specific.

3d. That, provided hair shall remain in the free list, the present duty on the fabric in question is as low as, or lower than, the present general scale of duties, and therefore, without any special favor to the interest under examination, the rate should not be reduced.

4th. That if a duty should be assessed upon the raw material, an equivalent addition should be made to the rate assessed upon the fabric.

As concerning hair cloths other than hair seating, known as padding, erinolines, &c., your memorialists have never made them, and have no pecuniary interest whatever in their manufacture; but being fully acquainted with such fabrics, they express the opinion that the duty, if ad valorem as at present, should be at least 40 per cent., instead of 30 per cent., as heretofore.

Respectfully submitted.

LYMAN A. COOK,
President of Pawtucket Hair Cloth Company.

OLNEY ARNOLD,
Treasurer of Pawtucket Hair Cloth Company.

L. W. BALLOU,

DARIUS GOFF,

A. H. LITTLEFIELD,

CLARK DALRYMPLE,

ISAAC LINDSLY,

GEO. B. WILBUR,

F. M. HOLMES,

Directors of Pawtucket Hair Cloth Company.

D. G. LITTLEFIELD,
HENRY B. METCALF,

Agents.

PAWTUCKET, R. I., October 12, 1882.

It is not my purpose to trouble you with any further remarks, unless some of the members of the Commission desire to interrogate me.

By Commissioner BOTTLER:

Question. What is your recommendation as to the duty on seating hair cloth?—Answer. I have no recommendation to make, except to say that it is now certainly not above the rates on other kinds of goods.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. How long have you been engaged in the manufacture of hair cloth?—A. Since I was a boy—thirty years, or more—I have been importing it and manufacturing it. I was brought up with my old employer, who was an importer, with whom I served my apprenticeship.

Q. As a matter of curiosity, I will ask you how many horses' tails your establishment uses in a year?—A. I have made inquiry into that subject, and I think, from the information I could gather, that it must take about 600,000 horses to supply our demands.

Q. Some reference has been made to the prices of labor as affected by the tariff; will you please tell me what your weavers earn?—A. They averaged \$1.56 cents a day during the year 1881. They have become very expert, and have learned to utilize their time well.

Q. Are they mostly men or women?—A. Women.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. You speak of the present rates of 30 cents and 40 cents per square yard, respectively, as being not higher than the ordinary protection given on other goods. What do you mean by the words "ordinary protection"?—A. I mean on other textile fabrics.

Q. What percentage do you mean?—A. I have stated what the ad valorem equivalent would be. In 1870 I took the figures in a communication that came from an English manufacturer, so that there would be no question about it, and found the specific rate was then equal to 34½ per cent. ad valorem.

Q. Then when you use the term "ordinary protection," or protection accorded to other textile fabrics, you mean about 35 per cent.?—A. I mean that 34½ per cent. is lower than the protection on textile fabrics generally. I have asked no increase, although I do not know what my colleagues in the business may ask.

Q. Do the importations of these goods amount to much?—A. No, sir; they are quite light at present. The fact is that the consumption of this fabric has been quite light for a series of years, as there has been quite a run on fancy fabrics, raw silks and jutes, and a variety of goods of that kind.

Q. Do you think 34½ per cent. is a fair showing of the ad valorem equivalent of the specific rates on the very slight importations for the past three years, say?—A. According to the latest price-list available to me (which was July), it was 40.3 per cent., the prices having dropped during the last ten years, so that it would make the ad valorem equivalent a larger percentage. I would be very happy to go over the figures with any expert appointed by the Commission. I desire to call attention also to the different widths of the seatings. The probabilities are that a considerable portion of the importations here of the class designated as job lots and broken assortments abroad are bought as opportunity offered.

Q. At what rate of duty do they come in?—A. At the specific rate.

Q. Then that does not alter the question of the ad valorem at all, does it?—A. Yes, sir. I suppose that any one can go to Germany at any

time and find some 21 or 23 inch hair seating that he can buy at almost any price. Odd lots accumulate and lie there until somebody comes along and buys them at a low rate. I have no doubt our company furnishes nine-tenths of some widths of the goods used, and not more than two-tenths of other widths.

Commissioner McMAHON. I only wish to bring out the fact, as contradictory of your statement, that by the official records the equivalent rates of duty would be between 75 and 80 per cent.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. I understand your claim is that the importations do not correctly represent the prices in the trade, being for these odd lots, as you call them?—A. Yes, sir; they do not represent averages at all.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. And that is the reason of the inconsistency between your statement and the official statement?—A. Yes, sir.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. If the duty is now higher, and the gentlemen propose to fix it lower, that is asking for a reduction of duties?—A. I have asked for nothing, but have simply stated the facts, and that is the way I intend to leave it so far as I am concerned. I do not come here intending to do anything more than present the facts.

Q. But that is the result at which it arrives; if you are right in the facts, it will be a reduction. If in fact the present rate of duty is 60 or 70 per cent., and you propose a rate of 34 or 35 per cent., of course that is a reduction.—A. I am prepared to demonstrate that on any standard that this Commission may adopt the rate of duty would prove to be other than 60 or 70 per cent. I will accept the task of doing that if the Commission would like to have me.

The PRESIDENT. The gentlemen of the Commission, I suppose, will agree that you make a supplementary statement and file it.

JOSEPH WHARTON ET AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 13, 1882.*

Mr. JOSEPH WHARTON, of Philadelphia, addressed the Commission as follows:

The undersigned, representing the steel manufacturing establishments whose names are appended, dissent from the rate of duty suggested by the Iron and Steel Convention at Cresson upon iron ore.

Though agreeing with the conclusion of that convention that the duty upon iron ore should be specific, we think that it should be set at 50 cents per ton, instead of the 85 cents named by the convention.

We are reluctant to disturb the unanimity of that convention or to oppose the views of our friends in any part of the iron trade, yet we must urge the lower rate of duty, which we trust will not only be adopted by the Tariff Commission and by Congress, but will ultimately prove acceptable to all who at present would prefer the higher duty.

We apprehend that:

First. It is not the intention of Congress nor of the Tariff Commission, nor the will of the nation, that a general advance in tariff rates shall now be established, but that the work of the Commission is to be rather harmonizing, adjusting and correcting of errors and abuses, and even, where practicable, the reduction of rates with a view to permanence; that, therefore, a proposed advance of rate in any particular case would need to be supported by some special and cogent reason.

Secondly. No reason appears to our minds for making iron ore an exception to this general policy. It is a raw material of the first grade, and while deserving protective duty of about the average rate upon the labor expended in mining it, care for the great interests involved in the manufactures of which it is the basis forbid any higher rate of protection.

Thirdly. The duty of 20 per cent. ad valorem now ruling is equal to about 50 cents per ton of 2,240 pounds. The ad valorem duty has given rise to many vexatious disputes, and should be displaced by a specific duty not higher than to be equivalent to the existing rate, to which all interests affected are already adjusted.

Fourthly. It seems unjustifiable to reduce the duty on product, viz, steel rails, the principal manufacture from foreign iron ore, and at the same time increase the duty upon material. We accept, as a sacrifice to the opinion of a certain portion of our countrymen, the proposed reduction of 20 per cent. of the existing duty upon steel rails, but we decline to accept a simultaneous increase of duty upon our material.

Fifthly. Public interest requires that all the steel-rail mills be kept in activity, in order that home competition may do its work. Public equity requires that in making a tariff law no advantage be given to one part of a great industry or to one section of country over another. The effect of a high duty upon foreign iron ore is, however, to handicap those rail makers who are upon the seaboard for the benefit of those others who are so situated as to draw their ores from the interior or Western States.

Sixthly. It cannot be justly claimed that native ores will be deprived of their market by fixing the duty upon foreign ores at 50 cents per ton, for under an ad valorem rate about equal to this ready sale is found for all the ore mined in the country, and the mining interests of those

regions where Bessemer ore exists is believed to be as prosperous as that of the consumers of such ore. Should it be urged that Bessemer ores await development in other regions, we reply that we have made diligent and costly search throughout the Atlantic seaboard for such deposits. Should it be alleged that the product of the known mines may be increased, we reply that legislation should be based upon established facts, and that it is as fair to reckon upon increased demand for ores as upon increased production. The broad fact cannot be ignored that the entire output of every known source of iron ore suitable for Bessemer steel making having been exhausted, a large importation of foreign ores has been absolutely demanded; and has been consumed in producing the steel rails required by our domestic railroads; furthermore, that this is to-day the condition of the industry, and that every indication points to its continuance.

We refrain from burdening this statement with any other statistics than the annexed table, showing the quantities, values, and average duty upon imported iron ores, and, in conclusion, simply urge upon you the establishing of a specific duty of 50 cents per ton upon all description of iron ores, including manganeseiferous.

S. M. FELTON,
President Pennsylvania Steel Company.
JOSEPH WHARTON,
For the Bethlehem Iron Company.

The following statement shows the quantity and value of iron ore imported into the United States during the calendar years 1879, 1880, and 1881, by customs districts. Most of the ore was imported from Spanish and Mediterranean ports. Previous to 1879 the quantity of iron ore annually imported was not preserved by the Treasury Department, but in no year did it amount to 100,000 tons.

Districts.	1879.		1880.		1881.	
	Gross tons.	Dollars.	Gross tons.	Dollars.	Gross tons.	Dollars.
Baltimore.....	27,000	60,869	170,308	506,500	375,708	1,005,496
Boston.....	701	2,438	2,155	13,359	710	2,807
Buffalo Creek.....	5,069	14,251	13,554	36,420	2,392	7,320
Champlain.....	12	31				
Cuyahoga.....	550	1,128	13,858	48,463	10,500	37,675
Detroit.....	1,287	3,508	456	1,160	617	1,640
Genesee.....	2,125	4,101	5,300	16,274	8,716	25,061
Huron.....			72	258	264	770
Newark, N. J.....			260	708		
New York.....	100,230	282,060	148,087	432,078	100,410	641,344
Oswegatchie.....			7,553	21,052	3,118	10,050
Oswego.....	884	2,130	4,185	7,800	13,612	44,026
Perth Amboy, N. J.....	9,634	29,010	5,444	15,068	13,671	48,323
Philadelphia.....	126,659	281,041	120,610	335,110	155,534	394,932
Puget Sound.....			409	412	1,100	1,622
Cape Vincent.....			158	413		
Total.....	284,141	681,467	493,408	1,436,809	782,887	2,322,052
Duty collected.....		136,293 40		287,361 80		444,530 40
Duty per ton.....		48		58		56

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. What proportion of the Bessemer ore mined in this country is used here?—Answer. The entire output of all the Bessemer ore mines in the country has been consumed here. All the mines of the country which can produce Bessemer ore have had full demand for their entire

product, and that entire product has been consumed and paid for at good rates. In addition to that, the extensive railroad building going on in this country has required the consumption of this great amount of foreign ore, amounting to nearly 800,000 tons last year. If that foreign iron ore had not been brought in, the steel-rail makers would not have been able to drive their works as they did, the country would have been obliged to buy large quantities of rails abroad, the price would have been raised, and the natural result would have been an inadequate supply of rails and higher prices for those rails.

Q. I suppose you are aware that discoveries have been made in some portions of our country of deposits of these ores used for making steel, which have not yet been fully developed because of the want of capital in those regions. I refer to the recent discoveries in Virginia and North Carolina.—A. I am perfectly well aware of that, because I am interested in two of these steel-rail companies, and I know personally that each of those companies have expended very large amounts of money in investigating alleged deposits of Bessemer ores. I know from general information that nearly all the other Bessemer steel-rail makers have done the same thing; but in these two cases that I speak of from personal knowledge the researches have been extended from Alabama to Nova Scotia. It is almost a weekly occurrence for us to receive announcements of Bessemer steel discoveries, and they claim that it only requires capital and railroads to develop them. The owners of these alleged Bessemer mines inform us that they possess great amounts of Bessemer ores, and that if we will put in our money and help build railroads to their mines they can assure us of a fine supply of ore. In such cases we send our experts out to examine them, and that has been done so often that I cannot remember the number of times, but in almost every instance the result has been total disappointment. Either the deposit is quite small or the quality unsuitable, or the ore is so mixed that part is good and part is good for nothing, and that condemns the whole thing for Bessemer purposes, or some other reason will be discovered which makes it of no practical value. Occasionally a good deposit of Bessemer ore has been found in this country, and every one of those deposits is being worked to its present capacity. Further, I will say that the use of this foreign ore enabled us to apply to the Bessemer steel-rail manufacture large quantities of American ore which alone could not be used. What we require mainly is an ore low in phosphorus. Great quantities of American ores are moderately low in phosphorus, but not low enough to make Bessemer steel. By mingling these ores with foreign ores which are lower in phosphorus than they need to be, we can make a mixture producing a pig iron suitable for Bessemer-steel making. In that way the introduction of this foreign ore has caused a very great demand for native ores which alone would have been totally unfit for Bessemer-steel making; and therefore the importation of these foreign ores has been of great benefit to the owners of American mines.

Q. It has been advocated before this Commission that we should do away entirely with all duties upon iron ore. What effect do you think a great reduction or the entire abolition of the duty upon iron ore would have upon the resources of the country, especially upon those sections where the deposits have not been fully developed? I mean in the southern portion of the country. What effect would the abrogation of these duties altogether have upon the efforts being made to develop these natural resources?—A. I think that it would be unjust in principle to the producers of iron ore to mark them down for absolute competition with their foreign rivals. It would be making an unjust exception against

that interest if we put foreign ores upon the free list. We cannot, with any justice or consistency, claim that the labor employed in mining iron ore should be unprotected while the labor employed in other industries is protected. I think an abolition of the duty on iron ore would act as a serious discouragement to the development of these ores, which we all hope will be found in this country in sufficient quantities to answer all demands.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Would not the increase of the duty upon foreign ore stimulate the search that is being made in this country for native ores suitable for making Bessemer iron?—A. I think the search is so stimulated at present that it does not need any further stimulus. People are searching everywhere for them, because they know that wherever a deposit has been found it has brought great reward to the owners. The Lake Superior district is one of the most valuable pieces of territory in the United States by reason of the discovery of Bessemer ore there. With that great prize before them, all the people of the country are searching with great diligence.

Q. Where a deposit of Bessemer ores may be found inaccessible to transportation by railway or water lines, would it not stimulate the building of roads and develop the whole interests of the country as well as the Bessemer-ore production?—A. That also is going on to a very great extent. That the ore should be protected, and that there should be a duty on foreign ore, is quite clear. The only question in my mind (and I speak the views of Mr. Felton as well, I believe) is the question of rates. We have considered this question with great seriousness since the action of the Cresson convention, and we think that the duty on iron ore was unduly and unnecessarily fixed too high. We quite agree with the principle of protecting American ores, but as to the question of the degree of protection, we are of opinion that 50 cents per ton would be sufficient to encourage the development of Bessemer ores in this country and the building of railroads into the ore regions, while at the same time it would not have the effect of crippling the manufacture of steel rails on the seaboard. The business of making steel rails at present is not what it was a few years ago. Then we had a period of great prosperity, and the profits were quite large; but since then the profits have been greatly reduced, so that on the average the manufacturers have not received more than a just reward. Lately the pendulum has swung the other way, and it is now a question of whether we are going to get our money back or any decent return for our investment of capital. When it comes down to that point, we have to consider just what our steel rails are going to cost us; and I find that if we have to pay this proposed rate of 85 cents a ton on the ores we are going to be handicapped to that extent which will make it doubtful whether we can afford to continue their manufacture. It is that consideration which forces us, against our will, I may say, to take a stand against our brethren at Cresson.

Q. Then it is your opinion that the rate you propose will be quite sufficient for the object intended?—A. We are of that opinion, that it will give adequate protection to the producers of ores to carry on the development of American deposits of Bessemer ores and at the same time give the American producers of steel rails a basis upon which they can continue the manufacture. It is altogether a matter of balancing between rates. It is a matter of degree. And, after having carefully

considered the question, we think the maintenance of the existing rates is what, on the whole, will be the most beneficial to all.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Do I understand you to say that the introduction of foreign steel ores will be of actual benefit to the iron-ore producers of the country by increasing the consumption of American ore?—A. Yes, sir; and that has been the result to a great extent, for ores quite unsuitable in themselves have been made useful by mixing with these foreign ores.

Q. So that the actual consumption of American ores has been increased as a result of the importation of these foreign ores?—A. I have no doubt of it. I may add that I am carrying on a number of mines of my own, quite independently of those operated by the companies I am interested in, and I can speak, therefore, from absolute personal experience as to the rarity of the Bessemer ores and the great search that is everywhere made for them.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Have you been informed of the discovery of Bessemer ores in the counties of Bartow and Polk, in Georgia, or have you made any investigation with reference to their extent and magnitude?—A. I cannot say that I have. I hear of so many new discoveries that I do not always remember them. Whether these particular deposits that you refer to have come to my individual notice or not I cannot say. I do not know whether you appreciate the immense quantities of these ores used in this country. About 800,000 tons of these foreign ores were brought into the country last year. It would require a large number of most excellent mines to yield that quantity of ore. There is plenty of room for American Bessemer ores. There is a great market for them—about 800,000 tons in round numbers.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. The importation last year showed that the duty averaged about 56 cents per ton.—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What is the price of steel rails abroad to-day?—A. About £6 a ton, I think.

Q. The steel-rail manufacturers united, as I understand, in recommending a duty of a cent a pound on steel rails?—A. You express the conclusion reached, but not exactly in the words I should put it. They consent to a reduction to those figures.

Q. That would be a duty, at the price named, of 80 or 90 per cent., would it not?—A. I think about 70 per cent.

Q. Is there not an inconsistency in the steel-rail manufacturers consenting to a reduction of the rate to 75 or 80 per cent., and then insisting that the duty on iron ore shall be only 20 per cent.?—A. In the first place, I think it is not fair, in estimating the rate of duty, to take the present price, which is confessedly a low one and hardly remunerative anywhere; but we should take the average price for a few years back. If you reckon the ad valorem upon the specific in that manner you will find that the proposed duty of a cent a pound will be more like 40 or 50 per cent. than 70 or 80 per cent. If you take ores at the point of shipment, at Bilboa, or at any of the Spanish mines, I think that you will find that 50 cents a ton will be more than the 20 per cent. you name. These ores can be put on the ship for about \$1.50 a ton. Other gentlemen can tell you more about the cost of putting foreign ores on vessels at the point of shipment; but I think if you take that into considera-

tion, you will find that the 50 cents a ton is a much higher per cent. than 20.

Q. If the foreign ore was appraised at its true value the duty would be more than 50 cents a ton; would it not?—A. That is a question of what the true value is. Are you to reckon in the true value the cost of production, the money rate for capital, or the highest price that the producer can get, putting a big profit into his pocket? Whenever we have gone to Washington before the Committee of Ways and Means and talked about the value, we have been met by the statement of how cheaply these things can be produced. They say that the market value is not the real value, and somebody has got a large profit. Applying that principle to this question of ores, you will find that the real cost of production in these ores is so low as to make the proposed duty of 50 cents a ton a really fair one. Furthermore, I may urge that raw materials have been looked upon as fair subjects for the free list as far as possible, and when dutiable are made dutiable at the lowest rates, while the finished product has generally been subjected to the highest rates of duty by common consent.

Q. Would you not call the fair price of foreign ore the price it would bring on board ship at Bilboa; that is, the price less freight and insurance?—A. That is what we have to consider, the mercantile value. I suggest for the consideration of the Commission whether it is fair to reckon the large profit which we understand these foreign companies are getting as a necessary part of the cost. The underlying principle of the system of tariff protection I have always understood to be that labor was the foundation stone in each case, and our labor costing more, we are entitled to protection for the difference. Applying that to the ore, I think we must take the naked cost of putting that ore on the vessel, without taking into consideration the profits of the owner of it.

Q. Has it not been heretofore your argument and the argument of the Bessemer-steel makers that high duty made a cheap product eventually?—A. Yes, sir; we agree to that.

Q. Are you not departing from that principle in recommending a lower rate on iron ore?—A. We think we are recommending a rate which is adequate. In every instance, we must try to make the rate meet each case and do what is fair and adequate in each case. We are of opinion, after weighing this matter, that 50 cents is the fair rate, which does give a stimulus for home production. We have no doubt that the home production will be diligently urged at that rate.

Q. Should not iron ore as a commercial product—the cargoes, I mean—come in regardless of the unit of iron?—A. Yes, sir; as so much weight of iron ore. There is a constant dispute as to what is the real value of iron ore. That you can avoid by putting a specific rate of duty upon it per ton. When there is a specific duty the tendency will be to bring into the country a better article, and the country will get the advantage of having a better article brought into it. Everybody tries to supply the best instead of the worst under specific duties.

Q. You speak of the rich ores necessary to mix with our more inferior native ores. Will this new process that the steel men are experimenting on, if successful, enable us to use our cheap American ores instead of foreign ores?—A. We hope so, but experience has not sufficiently demonstrated the fact. That is another point we are investigating. The Bessemer Company has explored in every direction around us for ores, and they are exploring for better processes by which the poorer ores may be consumed. But we have not got far enough to assert that our low-grade ores can be used to the exclusion of the Bessemer ores.

Mr. SAMUEL M. FELTON, representing the Pennsylvania Steel Company, said:

I cheerfully indorse all that Mr. Wharton has said. I think there are one or two points which he has omitted to speak of, and one is in regard to the matter of freight. Freight is a very high item; it is rather more than the actual value of the ore, or over 100 per cent., and that acts as a protection to the home producers as well as the 20 per cent. duty. So that the protection from foreign ore, instead of being 20 per cent., is 120 per cent. on the value of the foreign ore as shipped. This same argument applies to steel rails. The freight on steel rails is very low compared with ores, because ores come from points where there is no return freight, and of course the trade has got to pay the whole cost of the voyage in both directions, whereas the freight on steel rails is a small proportion of the cost. The freight on a ton of ore is about 100 per cent. in addition to the 20 per cent. duty, so that ores are protected by a much higher rate of duty than steel rails are.

In reference to the search which has been and is being made for Bessemer ores in this country I have this to say: The company which I represent has made many investigations into alleged deposits of Bessemer ores, and I have the record which shows that out of 454 examinations which we have made, where we spent much money in exploring the country and employing experts, we are only mining in one out of the 454 mines where it was claimed that Bessemer ores had been found, and we get about 300 or 400 tons a month out of that one mine, and that is the whole result of our examination of 454 different properties. I hope we shall find a larger deposit hereafter, but we have been searching for the last fourteen or fifteen years, and that is the result. We ourselves are using native ores that we could not use if they were not mixed with foreign ores. Phosphorus is the great enemy of Bessemer steel.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. What has been the average freight for the last few years on foreign ores?—A. My impression is that it has been about \$2 a ton.

Q. And that is about the cost on board of a ship, is it not?—A. Yes, sir; the ore costs \$2 or \$2.50 a ton on board.

Q. What has been the freight on steel rails during that time?—A. Steel rails have not paid, I suppose, more than ten or fifteen shillings a ton, which is a very small proportion of the whole value.

Q. On an average, if you are able to say, what have steel rails been worth at ordinary points of shipment, say Liverpool, for three years past?—A. The price in 1881 was £6; in 1870, £7; in 1879, £5 2s. 6d. was the average price. I have the American prices from 1868 to 1882. This is under American competition among ourselves. At the beginning of 1868 the price was \$158.50; in 1869, \$132; in 1870, \$106; in 1871, \$102; in 1872, \$112; in 1873, \$120; in 1874, \$94.50; in 1875, \$68.75; in 1876, \$59.25; in 1877, \$45.50; in 1878, \$42.50; in 1879, \$46.50; in 1880, \$67.50; in 1881, \$61.50. There were months during those years when prices were lower, but I speak of the average of each year.

Q. What I wanted to ascertain was the average for the last three years. I believe the present price is somewhere between \$40 and \$50 a ton?—A. The present price is from \$42.50 to \$45.

Q. And the present English price is about £5?—A. I do not know exactly what it is.

Q. I do not mean just now, but recently?—A. The trouble is that they use the American market to dispose of their surplus, without

regard to their profits, whereas it is vital to us, because it is our only market.

Q. At the rate of duty the rail producers have suggested of \$22.40 per ton, I wanted to know if that was not a pretty heavy rate for an article running at the prices suggested?—A. Under this very heavy rate the prices have gone down to about \$60. The domestic competition has regulated the price of the rails.

Q. Still I do not understand that that would furnish a reason why we should put a duty on of 80 or 90 per cent.?—A. I suppose the true principle is to put on such a duty that the country will get them at the lowest price. I believe it has always been found that high protection gave, in the end, the lowest price.

Commissioner OLIVER. Except on iron ore.

The WITNESS. The trouble about that is, it is a raw material, and cannot be yet obtained in sufficient quantities to supply the Bessemer-steel industry, which industry has been developed more rapidly than the pig-iron industry or the ore producers' industry.

Q. You think a specific duty of 50 or 60 per cent. on the average price of the rails for four or five years past would be sufficient?—A. I do not think a duty less than that proposed here would enable the manufacturers to live, because, as I say, the English make this country their slaughter ground, and they are in duty bound to bring their rails in and sell them here at any rate they can get for them, without any regard to their own profits. They have a home market where they make their profits, and send their surplus here.

Q. Take the present price of \$25 a ton and it is hardly likely they can produce much at that price?—A. I do not think they can, but they make their profit at home and send their surplus here.

Q. Take the \$25 and add the \$22.50 duty and you have \$47.50, and add freight and it runs up to \$50, which would seem to be, in the present condition of things, more than would be needed?—A. I do not suppose the English are making any money out of their prices now, even at home, and I am very certain that they are not making any, or very little, here. On the cheapest kinds they may make something, but I think they are losing money to-day. It is only those which have the most complete works and turn out the largest possible quantity that can make any money at all. Those who turn out small quantities are losing money to-day, from what I know of the business.

By the PRESIDENT :

Q. Have you any facts from your own experience in importations which would show the ad valorem rate which the 50 cents a ton duty would be?—A. I got the person in charge of that department to figure up what the rate of duty has been, what we received last year, and find it has been 45 to 50 cents.

Commissioner AMBLER. It averages about 56 cents, I believe, according to the statements of last year's importations. It was so stated by a number of gentlemen.

The WITNESS. I dare say that is right.

Mr. WHARTON. The statement which I submitted only ran up to the end of 1881, and showed the average for the year 1881 to be 56 cents. I understand Mr. Felton speaks now of a period including the present year.

The WITNESS. Yes, ending the 31st day of August last.

GEORGE H. ELY ET AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 13, 1882.*

Mr. GEORGE H. ELY, of Cleveland, Ohio, chairman of the iron-ore committee of the Cresson (Pa.) convention, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: We were deputed by the Cresson convention to come before you and present the case of the iron-ore producers of the country. We had supposed that after holding a convention of the iron and steel manufacturers of this country and the iron-ore producers at Cresson, with the indorsement of a unanimous vote of the convention, there would be but one case to present before you, and that there would be no opposing views submitted. But we understand that certain gentlemen, representing the Pennsylvania Steel Company and the Bethlehem Iron Works, have chosen to dissent from the recommendations of the convention and argue in a line entirely in opposition to the decision of that convention. With this simple explanation I will proceed to give you the results of our conferences, and after the few remarks which I shall present, call upon three other gentlemen, representing the ores of Virginia, of New York, and New Jersey, to substantiate the statements I make here, and then I will resume and close the argument of our branch of the case. Some of you may remember that I appeared before you at Cleveland and made a statement respecting Lake Superior ores. I do not propose to repeat that argument now, but simply to call attention to it, as it is already before you. We were not then prepared to present our case, because the convention had not considered the subject, and we wished to do so only after discussion with our brethren interested in the iron-ore industry. Therefore I will not repeat what I said to you at Cleveland.

The foundations of the iron manufactures of the United States rest upon the fact that we have within our own territory an abundant and a favorably distributed ore supply.

In the absence of these essential conditions there could never have been success and progress in the manufacture of iron upon this continent. Absolute certainty upon this point has characterized every stage of its progress, from the feeble beginnings of the manufacture in a few localities along the Atlantic coast, and when charcoal was the only fuel for reduction, to its present expansion over the entire continent, and its successful domestication in twenty-six States and one Territory. Upon this foundation (an ascertained adequate ore supply) was planted and has been reared the entire fabric of our iron and steel industries, now so vast as to almost control the industrial and financial conditions of our national life. Upon this accepted, indisputable fact capital has been steadily moving in ever-increasing volume in this direction. Up to this stage of the progress of our manufactures, rapid and marvelous as it has been, there has been no failure in the ore supply to meet its advancing necessities.

Investments of capital and the employment of labor in ore mining and ore transportation have not only kept abreast of the manufacture but in advance of it. Nor, except from temporary causes and during very short periods of excessive demand, under the excitement of rapid

and unhealthy advance in prices of manufactured products, has the supply of American ores proved even temporarily to be insufficient.

So well established was this belief, and so thoroughly has it been confirmed by advance in ore production, fully equal to and beyond the rate of progress in our manufactures (as we shall prove by statistics), that the need of foreign importations was hardly thought of. Much less was it expected that home capital and home labor employed in ore production would ever be menaced by the foreign product; nor have foreign ores had a place on our tariff schedule, except under the clause of "mineral and bituminous substances in a crude state, not otherwise provided for." All mineral substances having important relations to our manufacturing system were carefully designated and varying rates of duty imposed, and coal was included at 75 cents per ton.

Had there been any existing commercial conditions which indicated in the least any importation of foreign ores to the injury of the home production, it is not conceivable that iron ore should not have been designated in the schedule, and equally with coal have been covered by a duty really protective. But the truth is that it was never dreamed that Spanish and Mediterranean ores, under the demand for return freights of grain and petroleum shipments to Europe, could be landed here to the detriment of our home production, and Canadian ores have not been until recently developed to large extent. Under such improbability of interference, therefore, with our domestic production, the rate of duty could not be considered as of much importance, and with all other materials not mentioned ore came under the 20 per cent. ad valorem rate.

This was the situation up to a recent period. Within the last few years, however, importations have begun and rapidly increased, and under the very low cost of production and nominal ocean freights, amounting often only to the cost of vessels' time in loading and discharging, they are now competing most injuriously with our home product.

Previous to 1879 the importations were comparatively small, but are now increasing rapidly.

	Tons.	Value.
In 1879.....	284, 141	\$681, 467
In 1880.....	493, 408	1, 435, 809
In 1881.....	782, 887	2, 222, 652

We have paid, then, within three years, nearly four and a half millions of dollars for a foreign article, the product of foreign labor, and that mainly of a country in which wages are the lowest (Spain), and of foreign capital, mainly owned in a country (England) where from centuries of control of the world's manufactures accumulated wealth is greatest and interest is lowest. This foreign product is in direct competition with an article of which we have an incalculable supply within our own territory; an article at the base of the largest and most important of our industries, and in the production of which a vast amount of American capital and American labor is now engaged. Our policy, gentlemen, is an American policy. Discrimination in favor of home interests is the idea upon which our tariff has been framed. Here, however, owing to the extreme improbability, under conditions existing a few years ago, of any considerable importation of foreign ores, and consequent neglect to provide for such a case in the tariff schedules, is a practical abandonment of our policy.

Under the stimulus of the larger market recently opened for them in

this direction, and the more systematic and extensive provision now being made for regularity and continued cheapness of ocean freights to this country, the production and shipment hither of the Spanish and Mediterranean ores especially are certain to increase rapidly in the immediate future.

This existing attitude and relation, gentlemen, of the foreign to our home production, and the disabilities under which, in consequence of this, the home production is even now laboring, demands immediate relief, and just and reasonable security for the future through a thoroughly protective duty.

In this position, gentlemen, we represent not only the entire iron-ore producing interests of the United States, from Lake Superior to the Gulf and from New England to the Pacific, raising from beneath our own soil last year and transporting to furnaces by rail and water nearly 8,000,000 tons, but we also utter the voice of the united iron and steel manufacturing industries of the United States, as expressed by their convention at Oresson, Pa., on the 12th and 13th of September, who are the purchasers of our products. On the other hand, what persons and what interests are opposed to this?

They are the representatives almost exclusively of the capital and the labor employed in the production in foreign countries, and its shipment to our shores.

If the foreign producer is supported in his demand by any manufacturing interest of our own country, it can only be because such interest, from locality or other exceptional reason, is willing for the sake of advantages, apparent or temporary only, to separate itself from the great body of its co-workers in iron and steel, whose judgment upon this subject has been declared in unmistakable terms, and because it is willing to ignore the rights of a co-ordinate industry, and, in fact, to sacrifice the principle of protection through which itself has ascended to power. I mean by that the presentation of the opposite side of this case by the gentlemen here this morning.

If, gentlemen, an unnatural alliance with foreign interests like this does exist in any quarter, and for reasons so unpatriotic, it represents such an insignificant fraction of the great body of our iron and steel industries that its judgment and its appeal on this subject can hardly be entitled to consideration in your conclusions upon this case.

Practically, then, it is a foreign and not an American interest that is opposed to an adequate protective duty.

The foreign producer (and his agent has already urged his argument before you at Long Branch) alleges—

First. A necessity of foreign importations on the ground of a lack of American ores for the Bessemer process, including manganiferous for spiegel.

Second. He claims that the American ore producers have an enlarged market by reason of such importation of foreign ores, each ton of foreign ores so used causing the consumption of an additional ton of native ore which would not otherwise be used.

Third. That the importation of foreign ores is an adjunct to the steel business only, and has no effect in its competition with native ores for the manufacture of ordinary foundry and mill irons.

We dispute all these positions, and we will now proceed to answer them, by laying before you statistics and arguments drawn from them, relating to ore production in Virginia, New York, New Jersey, and other States. Respecting the production of the Lake Superior region and its

very important relations we had the honor of addressing you at Cleveland last August.

With your permission, I will ask Mr. Doran, representing the Virginia iron ore producers, to address you.

Mr. JOSEPH I. DORAN, of Philadelphia, representing the iron-ore producers of Virginia, addressed the Commission as follows :

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMISSION: I appear here to present to you the argument of nineteen furnace men and ore producers of Southwestern Virginia. These gentlemen have forwarded their argument to me to present to you in the interests of Virginia, and with your permission I will read it:

It is safe to state that the mineral resources of Virginia are of such a character that, if properly developed, they would make Virginia the most prosperous State in the Union. Her iron-ore deposits alone, with the facilities now possessed within her borders for the manufacture of iron and steel, and for the transportation of the raw and manufactured material, are not surpassed in any other State.

The want of capital, the difficulties of transportation, and the earlier development of other localities have hitherto prevented any extensive iron mining and manufacturing operations in the State. This condition, however, is now rapidly changing. Transportation facilities are now sufficient. Since 1879 the miles of railroad in Virginia have increased from 1,672 to 2,400 miles, an increase of about 50 per cent. This increase has been mainly in the iron and coal districts. Capital, too, is seeking investment in these districts. Iron and coal mines are being opened, and extensive furnaces and manufacturing establishments, with improved appliances, are being located by practical and prudent men. No less than \$5,000,000 have been brought within the State since 1879 by mining and manufacturing enterprises alone. The rapidity with which benefit has been derived from this development is best illustrated by the town of Roanoke, whose population has increased from 800 in December, 1881, to 3,000 at this time.

The iron deposits of Southwest Virginia are of such extent and variety in kind and quality that they alone are ample to meet the demands of the iron and steel manufacturing districts of the country. The great abundance of superior coking coal in the vicinity of these deposits must compel the establishment near the mines of iron furnaces and steel works. Where iron can be made the cheapest there these industries will be established. Of course it is not to be expected that the great steel works of Pennsylvania will remove their expensive and enormous plants to Virginia, but there is every reason why their supply of Bessemer ores should now be provided here.

In this condition of the iron resources of the State, and with this prospect, it is submitted that it would be unwise to remove the duty now existing on foreign iron ores. On the contrary, as long as a tariff for revenue or for any other purpose is necessary in this country there is every reason that the duty should be increased to a reasonable amount. Where we have the means of supplying such a necessity it should be the policy of the government so to develop them that they can be relied upon at all times.

During the fiscal years ended June 30, 1881 and 1882, the imports of iron ores were as shown by the following statistics furnished by the Bureau of Statistics:

Statement showing the imports of iron ore by countries and districts during the years ended June 30, 1881 and 1882.

IMPORTS OF IRON ORE BY COUNTRIES.

Countries.	Fiscal years ended June 30—			
	1881.		1882.	
	Tons.	Dollars.	Tons.	Dollars.
Brazil.....	1,022	2,507		
Denmark.....	2,020	8,804		
France.....	23,280	48,045	31,276	82,573
French Possessions in Africa.....	111,345	348,280	111,680	312,672
Germany.....	5,107	12,406	1,034	17,933
England.....	04,228	200,866	30,148	148,430
Scotland.....	2,520	11,053		
Ireland.....	10,040	27,378	10,181	23,857
Gibraltar.....	3,250	10,271	400	056
Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward's Island.....			5	37
Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, and Northwest Territory.....	43,177	131,188	45,048	140,470
British Columbia.....	1,000	1,030	500	1,004
Italy.....	05,220	170,433	54,840	104,563
Portugal.....	10,360	23,713	31,237	90,160
Russia on the Baltic.....			907	30,812
Spain.....	203,575	604,700	240,005	508,277
Spanish Possessions in Africa.....	2,500	7,010	240	045
Turkey in Africa.....	10,041	23,704		
Turkey in Asia.....	1,005	*26,001	3,022	*80,330
Uruguay.....			605	1,700
All other countries.....			2,514	8,523
Total.....	621,073	1,723,885	580,207	1,687,677

*Chromo.

IMPORTS OF IRON ORE BY DISTRICTS.

Customs districts.	Fiscal year ended June 30—			
	1881.		1882.	
	Tons.	Dollars.	Tons.	Dollars.
Baltimore, Md.....	238,300	623,500	247,010	705,303
Boston and Charlestown, Mass.....	2,103	12,807	2,260	6,830
Buffalo Creek, N. Y.....	5,567	15,852	004	2,027
Capo Vincent, N. Y.....	158	413		
Cuyahoga, Ohio.....	13,011	47,751	8,351	29,062
Detroit, Mich.....	208	688	587	1,509
Genesee, N. Y.....	8,233	23,520	6,300	10,876
Huron, Mich.....	254	008	274	740
New York, N. Y.....	195,780	580,004	134,708	441,140
Oswegatchie, N. Y.....	7,133	22,104	275	848
Oswego, N. Y.....	4,773	0,067	28,005	80,937
Porth Amboy, N. J.....	12,015	42,205	13,071	46,043
Philadelphia, Pa.....	130,873	343,387	137,553	343,709
Puget Sound, Wash.....	1,000	1,300	500	1,004
Total.....	621,073	1,723,885	580,207	1,687,677

It thus appears that the Spanish ores, which form the largest part of the importations, pay a petty duty of about forty cents a ton, and that the shipments went through the ports of Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York into the iron districts of Pennsylvania. At Johnstown, Pa., 400,000 tons of ore were consumed in 1881. Of this*325,000 tons were foreign ores. In the United States in 1881 the manufacture of Bessemer-steel rails amounted to 1,200,000 tons. In the same period there was imported into this country through the ports of Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York, over 600,000 tons of foreign ores that were manufactured into Bessemer pig iron for the steel works.

It is a remarkable fact that the material consumed by industries which are fully protected should be drawn from foreign sources, to the injury of a native industry. The facility with which the supply of foreign ores is obtained at present by the steel works of Pennsylvania is a serious obstacle to the development of the iron interest in this State. The Pennsylvania iron-worker will hesitate to put capital into ore lands in Virginia as long as the enormous importation may jeopardize his investment. Many of the present owners of the iron deposits are too impoverished to attempt development on their own account, and no extensive industries can be attempted without the aid of outside capital. This partially accounts for the small iron production of Virginia.

The competition which the iron-ore producers of this country have with the foreign ores is not a fair one.

The wages of laborers in Spain scarcely average one-third the wages paid in this country (State of Labor in Europe, 1878), while it has already been stated before the Commission that the Spanish miners receive less than one-fifth as much as the American.

The ores are brought to this country at nominal freights, so that with freight and duty paid they can be sold at the ports of Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York, for \$5 dollars a ton. The reason for the cheap freight will be readily understood by reference to the following extract from the Philadelphia Record of September 11, 1882:

Forty OCEAN TRAMPS CHARTERED TO LOAD CARGOES HERE FOR EUROPEAN PORTS.—Forty English steamships which have been rusting in the Liverpool docks for years were chartered recently to load cargoes, principally iron ore for Philadelphia and New York, and to return with grain and oil. Being originally constructed for the Black Sea trade, and hardly fitted to weather the Atlantic gales, they are being patched and painted to cover the infirmities of age. A number of them are now loading iron ore in Spanish ports for this city. Among seafaring men they are familiarly known as ocean tramps. These are the craft that have for years past crowded all the leading seaports of the United States, competing for cargoes at extremely low rates. They are so cheap that competition against them is unprofitable. They serve a useful purpose in our commerce with the Mediterranean, which has largely increased under the influence of the substitution of these cheap steamers for the long, slow transit by sailing vessels between this port and the Mediterranean. How they manage to avoid wreck and disaster and earn money enough at such low rates of freight is a question unknown to any person excepting the owners of the vessels.

Should the rate of duty on foreign ores be not increased, it is plain that as shipments of grain and oil increase the freights on foreign iron ores will be cheaper. In other words, the more prosperous our country shall become, just so much the more will the iron-ore producer of the country be crippled by the foreign importations. Prosperity of the country at large must also increase the wages he must pay, so that times of prosperity for others will necessarily increase the hazard of his enterprise. Dull times, while they may remove the competition and reduce the cost of production, will bring no compensation for these evils. Demand will then be restricted, and production will give no profit.

No wonder if the capitalist should hesitate to develop our great deposits of ore. No wonder that the table of imports of foreign iron ore necessarily has been designated "an eyesore to every patriotic American."

The only reason that has been given for the removal of the duty on iron ore is that "foreign ore is imported here chiefly because it is so low in phosphorus, and a large amount of native ore is now used as a mixture in the furnace that without it would not be available for Bessemer purposes at all. It is not because foreign ore is *cheap* that it is used, but because it is *low in phosphorus.*" * * * "The East has almost no Bessemer ore to depend upon, and it is here that foreign ore finds its chief market."

This is an error. Bessemer ores in localities convenient for transportation to the iron manufacturing districts of Pennsylvania are found in large quantities in the Valley of Virginia, in Southwest Virginia, and in North Carolina and Tennessee, near the western borders of Virginia.

In the correspondence to the American Manufacturer of September 8, 1882, relative to the coal and iron development of Virginia, it is stated:

It is impossible within the limits of space allowed to do any extended or particular justice to the variety and characteristics of the ore deposits in this vast and remarkably rich region. Brown and red hematites appear in the Shenandoah Valley below Luray in incalculable quantities, and these continue with limonites, specular, fossil, and magnetic ores in almost uninterrupted succession through the entire mountain ranges extending through Southwestern Virginia into North Carolina and Tennessee. The Shenandoah Valley, Norfolk and Western, and New River Railways have been constructed directly through this ore belt, and the delivery of the Flat Top coal and coke was the only thing wanting to render its development active and remunerative. It has already supplied a multitude of small furnaces and forges scattered along its entire extent, generally cold-blast charcoal, of from five to ten tons daily capacity. Most of them are rude in construction, antiquated in appliances, and managed more or less carelessly. But they have turned out a superior quality of ear-wheel iron, which has had a widespread demand. Where these have been concentrated, as on Cripple Creek, the exhaustion of the timber has limited the duration of their continued production. Some of these furnaces have been in operation for a century, and have made many of their proprietors wealthy. The fuel question, however, is now settled. The construction of the mineral lines of the Norfolk and Western Railroad will enable such as desire it to continue the production of charcoal iron by bringing in the wood or charcoal directly to the furnace floors, or, as is now plainly evident, will induce the erection of large hot-blast coke furnaces, equipped with all modern machinery and appliances. Many of the most valuable ores have been left untouched, owing to the difficulty of treating them in old-style furnaces. All through the iron country are swift streams, generally permanent in supply of water, and furnishing power and facilities for washing ores. Limestone of superior quality for fluxing is abundant and convenient. In some localities excellent stone for furnace hearths is found. Nature seems to have provided everything in its province for the most economical manufacture of iron. It only remains for man to apply the energy, skill, and capital to insure the result. To this end the management of the Norfolk and Western Railroad comes with its contribution of cheap and efficient transportation. It has opened the coal-fields of Flat Top, and this autumn will be pouring in the supplies of coal and coke, and it is now building the Cripple Creek extension of the New River Railroad to bring coke and ores together, and render their reduction possible at the minimum of expense. This extension, now under contract and in active construction, will form another mineral branch of some 70 miles, 5 feet gauge, stone ballasted, and thoroughly equipped. It will pass through immense deposits of iron ores, lead, zinc, and copper pyrites, and deposits of, as yet, but partially appreciated mineral wealth. Other branches have been projected and are under examination.

In a letter lately written by Prof. A. S. McCreath, chemist to the geological survey of Pennsylvania, after months of examination in the localities to which he refers, he says:

WYTHEVILLE, WYTHE COUNTY, VIRGINIA, *August 26, 1882.*

F. J. KIMBALL, Esq.,

*First Vice-President Norfolk and Western Railroad Company,
37 South Third street, Philadelphia:*

DEAR SIR: I have now practically finished the field work of my examinations of the iron ores of Southwest Virginia, and before presenting my final report to you I desire to call your attention specially to one point, viz, the promising field which this section of country offers for the systematic development of large bodies of ores suitable for the manufacture of Bessemer pig iron. A chemical analysis has not yet been made of all the specimens collected for this purpose, yet sufficient work has been done in this direction to justify me in saying that Bessemer ores exist in large quantities in Southwest Virginia, and at other points tributary to your railroad. It will not be necessary for me at present to specify all the localities where such ores may be found, and a few instances will suffice.

In Smith, Washington, and Giles Counties, Virginia, and in Sullivan County, Tennessee, there are found important and highly promising deposits of a rich red hematite ore (specular, and sometimes magnetic). Numerous analyses have been made by me of this variety of ore, showing from 58 to 65 per cent. metallic iron with 0.023 to 0.050 per cent. phosphorus.

In Carroll and Grayson Counties, Virginia, and in Ashe and Mitchell Counties, North Carolina, large bodies of magnetic iron ore have been more or less developed, and analyses invariably show the ores to be suitable for Bessemer purposes.

An unusually fine quality of brown hematite ore exists in large quantity along Cripple Creek and New River, in Wythe County, and this variety of ore has been opened up at a great many points to supply the stock for the charcoal blast-furnaces of the district.

While it would be too much to say that all of these ores, extending over such a large territory, could *per se* be used for Bessemer pig iron, yet all of the analyses made show an ore almost uniformly low in phosphorus, and many of the developments would produce an excellent quality of pig metal, suitable for conversion into steel by either the Bessemer or open-hearth process. The percentage of iron is fully equal to it, if it does not exceed that found in the brown hematite ores now so largely imported from Spain.

With the increased facilities for transportation offered by your railroad and its proposed branches these ores should be made to play a prominent part in the Bessemer iron interests of this country.

Very truly, yours,

ANDREW S. MCCREATH.

Bessemer ores can therefore be readily obtained in Virginia to supply the iron manufacturers of Pennsylvania. Sufficient quantities exist to supply every possible demand. The argument for the removal of the duty is not because foreign ores are *cheap*, but because native Bessemer are *scarce*. Were there no other sections of the country interested in this, Virginia alone could answer that argument.

The use of steel in the place of iron is the demand of this age. It is a necessary of peace and war. This great country, with its variety and wealth of minerals, will be a poor country indeed if reliance must be placed on foreign ores for the manufacture of steel. A foreign war would deprive her of the material for defense and place her at the foot of her enemies. A dependency on the rate of ocean freights might cripple the manufacture in the time of peace. There is no foundation, however, for the charge of the poverty of this country in Bessemer ores. In this respect she is blessed with a wealth only equaled by the other great supplies of minerals with which she abounds.

In urging the removal of the duty on foreign ores the advocates "do not find fault with the present duty of 20 per cent. ad valorem as being in any way excessive or oppressive *per se*," but ask that "iron ore and manganese iron ore be admitted free of duty as one means of protection to the iron and steel trades."

It is true that the removal of the duty would add to the profit of these trades, and in that way would be a further means of protection to them. Unfortunately, however, for those interested in the removal of the duty, the iron and steel trades of this country have not only not asked for the removal of the duty, but representatives of those trades have, as shown by the action of the Cresson convention, joined in recommending an increase of it to a minimum specific duty of 85 cents per ton. The American iron and steel men have not yet declared that the native ore producers have no rights which they are bound to respect. Manufactures which have been encouraged and established by duties of \$7 and \$28 a ton do not ask that a cognate industry of their own country shall be deprived of the benefit of a petty duty of 4 cents a ton. The American workers in iron do not ask the American miner to starve on Spanish and African wages.

Protection to native labor is not secured by the ocean freights. It is true that the ocean freight at this time on foreign ores is \$3 a ton, but within twelve months ores may be brought into the country without any freight charges whatever. There is no certainty in the rate of ocean freights. Since January 1, 1878, ocean freights from New York, Baltimore, and Philadelphia have varied from charges of 11½¢ per sixty

pounds to actual premiums paid by vessels of 2½ cents a bushel in order to secure cargoes. If, with the balance of trade in our favor, premiums have been paid at the Atlantic ports in order to carry a cargo without charge, it is a very great probability that foreign ores will be carried at such freights that cargoes will be sold here at prices not in excess of the cost at the ports of shipment. No protection is afforded by a duty that might one day be \$3, another \$6, and another nothing at all. It is the permanence and stability of a duty as much as the duty itself which affords protection to native industries. The ore producer knows that if he is compelled to rely upon the rate of ocean freights for his protection he must be prepared for a contingency when foreign ores will be sold at the Atlantic ports at the same prices for which they were obtained at the mines in Spain and Africa. Even if the cost of local transportation were nothing, the American ores could not compete with ore produced at Spanish and African wages. The present duty on foreign ores is not sufficient to take the uncertain element of ocean freights from the question. The capitalist sees that the production of native Bessemer ores is at this time an uncertain enterprise. Production is therefore hazardous, and must be feeble until this uncertain element in the industry is removed. To encourage the proper development of native ores a rate of duty should be fixed which, while not prohibitory, would at all times prevent this unfair competition. This should not be less than \$1.10 per ton. The element of uncertainty is the material difference which exists between ocean freights and local transportation freights. Local transportation freights contain no element of uncertainty to the business man. They are steady, with a continual tendency to a lower rate.

The following table, furnished by the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, on "cost of transportation," October, 1881, shows the gradual and steady decrease in the freight charges of this country from these causes on the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad, the New York, Lake Erie and Western Railroad, and Pennsylvania Railroad from 1868 to 1880:

Year.	Tons transported.	Average freight charge per ton per mille.
1868.....	11, 103, 120	<i>Cents.</i> 2. 163
1869.....	12, 906, 610	1. 881
1870.....	14, 778, 650	1. 688
1871.....	16, 400, 658	1. 400
1872.....	18, 417, 774	1. 511
1873.....	22, 200, 170	1. 480
1874.....	21, 808, 341	1. 343
1875.....	22, 231, 172	1. 180
1876.....	23, 509, 230	1. 014
1877.....	23, 200, 500	.983
1878.....	20, 238, 341	.935
1879.....	32, 309, 637	.782
1880.....	30, 303, 714	.800

In the same report, page 9, it is stated—

That the increase in the value of the domestic exports of the United States to foreign countries from \$142,820,178 during the year ended June 30, 1871, to \$902,319,473 during the year ended June 30, 1881, has largely been due to such reductions is evident from the fact that such exports are chiefly the products of Western and Northwestern States, a large proportion of which is transported to the seaboard on railroads. Another and very interesting illustration of the public benefits which have been realized from the widely extended advantages of cheap transportation afforded by railroads has been furnished in the fact stated by a careful collator of statistics, that the freight charge for the movement from Chicago to Boston, a distance of 1,000 miles, of one year's subsistence of grain and meat for an adult workingman amounts to but \$1.25, which sum is only one day's wages of a common laborer, or half the daily wages of a good carpenter or mason. A striking corollary from the fact is that the importance of

distance, and therefore of geographical position, as a condition affecting the material interests of sections of States and of commercial and industrial towns and cities, has been greatly reduced by the facilities for transportation afforded on railroads.

The country need have no fear that the haulage to the iron and steel districts will prevent the development of the Bessemer ores of this State. While it is true that the distance from the Marquette region to Harrisburg, Pa., is 975 miles, from the Champlain region 800 miles, and from the Iron Mountain of Missouri 975 miles, the distance from the New River of Virginia is but 350 miles. The freights on ores from Bessemer districts of Virginia will average less than 40 per cent. of the present freights from the other Bessemer districts of the country. The question of freights will necessarily adjust itself to the competition and the wants of the manufacturers. Decrease in freight charges comes with increase of traffic and increase of competition.

This statement is only in harmony with the experience of all business men. The rate of local transportation freights may therefore be dismissed from the consideration of this question. The tendency of local transportation freights is steadily to a lower rate. Ocean freights are affected by so many circumstances that the rates are higher or lower as these circumstances vary. A business dependent upon the one can be conducted with some certainty. A business dependent upon the other contains an element of uncertainty and hazard which no prudence can avoid. Remove the element of ocean freights by maintaining a proper duty, and the iron-ore industry can be carried on with profit to the producer and manufacturer.

In our opinion the discussion of this question shows:

1. That ocean freights on foreign ores afford no protection to the American ore producer.

2. That sufficient Bessemer ores exist in this country to meet the needs of Bessemer iron and steel industries.

3. That it is admitted that the present duty of 20 per cent. *ad valorem* is not excessive or oppressive.

4. That representative consumers of Bessemer ores deem a minimum duty of 85 cents per ton but simple justice to the American ore-producer.

5. That the duty should be a specific one, of not less than \$1.10 per ton.

Respectfully submitted by—

J. W. MCGAVOCK, Graham's Forge, Va.

N. P. OGLESBY, Graham's Forge, Va.

W. O. MOORE, Red Bluff, Va.

D. P. GRAHAM, Cedar Run Furnace, Va.

H. E. SAMPSON, Brown Hill, Va.

JAS. H. MCGAVOCK, Max Meadows, Va.

J. A. WALKER, Wytheville, Va.

JNO. T. HAMLETT, Wytheville, Va.

WM. TERRY, Wytheville, Va.

J. H. FULTON, Wytheville, Va.

J. B. BARRETT, Wytheville, Va.

JOHN W. ROBINSON, Graham's Forge, Va.

M. B. TATE, Glade Spring, Va.

JAS. S. CROCKETT, Crockett's Depot, Va.

JNO. C. RAPER, Austinville, Va.

C. S. VAN LIEW, Ivanhoe Furnace, Va.

D. S. FORNEY, Allisonia, Va.

LEE S. CALFEE, Martins, Va.

D. F. HOUSTON, Crozer Steel and Iron Company, Roanoke, Va.

Owners of ore deposits or furnaces, or both.

WYTHEVILLE, VA., October 7, 1882.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Question. I will ask you one question. I want to emphasize the fact, I think stated by you, that these developments that are now being made of Bessemer ores in Southwestern Virginia are the result of recent researches, comparatively speaking.—Answer. So far as I am informed, from correspondence I have had with these gentlemen (and my information is derived entirely from that), these developments are the result of the late examinations made by Professor McCreath and others, of Pennsylvania. Railroads are now being constructed to reach these particular localities.

Q. If this duty should be taken off, as has been suggested to the Commission, or measurably lowered, would it be disastrous to that industry, and check all further research in that section?—A. My information is derived entirely from the gentlemen who live in that section, and I can assure you that they are in a very anxious state of mind in regard to the matter. These gentlemen who have forwarded this argument to me express great anxiety on the subject, and consider that it will be difficult to induce capitalists to go into their section of the country in case the duty is repealed. In order to develop these resources capital is required, and capitalists are waiting to see whether it will be safe to put their money into the business, and that depends upon the action taken in regard to the tariff on iron ore.

Q. So that Pennsylvania and other manufacturing States are quite as much interested as Virginia is in having these developments made; in other words, the whole country is interested?—A. I have no doubt of that fact; but Virginia especially feels anxious in regard to this subject, and desires to be considered as pressing this matter solely in her own particular interests. Of course, these gentlemen believe there are ores elsewhere, but they want it distinctly understood that they appear here as Virginians, asking for the protection which they think necessary to the development of this industry in their section of the country.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. I understood you to say that the points at which these ores have been discovered are mainly in Wythe County, Virginia—A. Mainly in Wythe and Smith Counties. I have a map here which will show the exact location, but the developments are substantially in those two counties.

Q. And those counties are located in the southwestern portion of the State?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. About how far are they from tide-water?—A. To Philadelphia it is about 531 miles; to Baltimore, 433 miles; to New York, 621 miles; to Norfolk, 364 miles; to Pittsburgh, 563 miles, by the way of Harrisburg.

Q. Are these distances by the ordinary lines of transportation?—A. Yes, sir; by the ordinary lines of transportation; by existing lines now in operation.

Q. What are the ordinary lines of transportation?—A. By the Shenandoah Valley Road, and by the Norfolk and Western Railroad to Speedwell, which is at the extreme point of production.

Q. The only mode of transportation, then, would be by rail, as I understand?—A. Yes, sir; the ore districts are along the line of the road, a few miles back from it.

Q. I understand you to say that the road now building has reached to the edge of the mining district.—A. Yes, sir.

Q. How far will it have to go to reach the center of the district?—A. The extreme point, I think, will be about 30 or 40 miles.

Q. These ores have been used to some extent, I understand.—A. They have been used for the manufacture of car-wheels and other purposes.

Q. Have they been used to any extent for the manufacture of Bessemer steel?—A. That I am not able to state. All I can say is that Prof. Andrew S. McCreath, who is connected with the Pennsylvania Steel Works, says that they can be. There may be other gentlemen here who can give you that information. Mr. Kimball can probably tell you.

Q. So far as you know, there has been no actual utilizing of the ores for the purpose of making Bessemer steel?—A. No, sir; as far as my knowledge is concerned.

Q. But there has been an analysis by the gentleman whose name you give us, which gives the percentage of phosphorus in them. Do you remember what it is?—A. It varies from $\frac{2}{100}$ to $\frac{3}{100}$ of 1 per cent.

Q. Does he give also the analysis in other respects?—A. Yes, sir. I have his analysis here, showing from 58 to 65 per cent. metallic iron. I also have his analysis of different ores in different localities.

Q. And you say it shows an average of 58 per cent.?—A. Yes sir; 58 to 65 per cent. in metallic iron.

Q. Do I understand you that the entire ores in that district show as low a percentage as .02 to .03 of 1 per cent. of phosphorus, or are those exceptional mines?—A. I will read you what Professor McCreath says, as my information is entirely from him.

Q. Never mind; if the analysis is in your paper, I can read it. You mentioned the point at which you had railroad transportation, somewhere near the edge of the district.—A. Yes, sir; at Martinsville.

Q. Do you know what the rate of freight is from Martinsville to the nearest point where they could be utilized at present to make steel?—A. That would be at Harrisburg; and the distance from Martinsville to Harrisburg is 372 miles. I understand the rate of freight is about 1 cent per ton per mile.

Q. That would be about \$3.72 a ton delivered at Harrisburg. Are these Martinsville ores as low in phosphorus?—A. I understand they are.

Q. None have been taken to Harrisburg, or anywhere else, so far as you know, to make Bessemer steel?—A. I have no information on that subject myself, but it can easily be obtained.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. What figures do you give of the importation of iron ore during the year 1881?—A. The figures for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1881, as shown by the Bureau of Statistics, are 621,073 tons, valued at \$1,723,885.

Q. What is the total consumption of ore in the United States, or what was it for the year ending June 30, 1881?—A. I could hardly give you that information. Mr. Kimball could probably answer that question.

Q. Are you familiar with this product—this kind of ore—in other sections of the United States?—A. No, sir; I am not.

Mr. F. J. KIMBALL, vice-president of the Norfolk and Western Railroad, said:

I have no statement to make to the Commission, but will answer any questions the gentlemen may desire to ask about ores. I am president of the Shenandoah Valley Railroad, and vice-president of the Norfolk

and Western Railroad. We have built 300 miles of railroad in Virginia to develop the mineral resources of the State. The roads to the mining regions are nearly completed.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Q. Can you tell us something of these ores and their character and extent; what has been done, and what they expect to do toward developing them?—A. The Cripple Creek section extends from the Norfolk and Western Railroad about 20 miles along New River and 27 miles along Cripple Creek. The railroad runs through an ore belt, and Professor McCreath has made analyses from fourteen different ore mines; has made a very thorough and exhaustive analysis of these different mines. All of them are connected with charcoal furnaces, and the average, I believe, of the fourteen mines is 54.7 of metallic iron and .05 of phosphorus. They are brown hematite ores. On the main line, near Bristol, 464 miles from Harrisburg, are inexhaustible quantities of red hematite and semi-magnetic ores, averaging 65 to 70 per cent. of metallic iron, and as low in phosphorus as .06. We tried to induce the Pennsylvania Steel Works, the Cambria Iron Company, and other large works in Pennsylvania to look into the quality of the ores, but they postponed action, and finally I asked them to say whose report they would believe, and they settled on Professor McCreath as being a person whose report they would rely upon. I did not know him until then. We arranged with the Pennsylvania State Geological Survey to secure his services for three months. He has gone there, and is very enthusiastic on the subject. His report has been partially made. There is no doubt of the existence of Bessemer ores in large quantities. The people there want to develop them, but they are poor. Some of the charcoal-furnace people have 50,000 acres of valuable mineral lands, but no money to develop them with. They have been trying to get Pennsylvania people to go down and spend their money in developing them, but they had great difficulty in inducing them to do so. They are about ready to mine, and they are trying to-day to sell steel ore in this city, but they are met with the foreign ores right here, which fix the rate.

Q. So that the ores are already gotten out of these beds and brought here, but they find difficulty in selling them on account of the competition of these ores brought from the Mediterranean?—A. Yes, sir; there is no doubt there are thousands of tons ready for shipment that the owners want to find consumers for.

By Commissioner AMBLER :

Q. Are these ores expensive to mine?—A. No, sir; not very. In the Ivanhoe furnace I found that the ore cost at the furnace 52 cents a ton put in the stack-house of the furnace.

Q. What is the freight?—A. To Harrisburg it is about \$4.

Q. So that the actual cost would be \$4.52 to lay it down there?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is that a 65 per cent. ore?—A. No, sir; that is 51 to 52 per cent. In that country the better the ore the more expensive it is to mine it.

Q. Do you know what the per cent. of the Spanish ore is?—A. I think 10 cents a unit in Philadelphia, which would be \$5.20. That is the price they are asking the buyers of the ore.

Q. You mean duty paid?—A. Yes, sir, duty paid. That is the market price.

Q. And it costs \$4.52 to lay that ore down here?—A. No, sir; it costs

that to lay the ore referred to down at Harrisburg, or some other central point. Most of the railroads have empty cars returning from the seaboard to the West, so that they can afford to carry ore cheaply from New York, Baltimore, and Philadelphia to Harrisburg. Therefore they can make cheaper rates than we could get.

Q. What do you know about bituminous coal in this same region?—

A. At a distance of about 80 miles by railroad, and 40 miles in a direct line, there is a fine body of coal, containing less than 1 per cent. of ash, or in the coke less than 3 per cent. of ash, taking the run of the mine. We are not shipping that yet. The road will be completed to these mines next month; the New River division.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. You said that the freight from there to Harrisburg was \$4 a ton. Does that agree with the statement of the gentleman who preceded you, that it was about one cent per ton per mile?—A. Yes, sir; the ore territory extends from Luray, Virginia, to Alabama. Ore is found continuously through all that section of the country, on what we call the western slope of the Blue Ridge. The ore varies in quantity and quality. When I say \$4, I mean that is the freight from some neutral point to a point like Harrisburg.

Q. Are you familiar with the price of transporting ore from the Lake Superior region to Harrisburg?—A. No, sir, I am not, only from hearsay, and I would rather not make any statement in regard to it.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. You seem to know a good deal about railroads. You state that this ore region extends down into Alabama. I suppose you mean it extends also through Georgia and up to Chattanooga, and in that neighborhood?—A. Yes, sir; all through there, and in Western Alabama.

Q. Do you know that Mr. Noble's foundry at Rome, Georgia, has been constructing a splendid article of car-wheels?—A. Yes, sir; that is well known. The Cranberry ores in Western North Carolina have been shipped to Harrisburg.

Q. Do you know anything about the Tellico River ores in Tennessee?—A. No, sir, I do not. The Cranberry ores now being mined by General Pardee's company are well known Bessemer ores. They are located in the section of the country where North Carolina, Virginia, and Tennessee join each other, about 25 miles beyond the terminus of our road. We have a narrow-gauge road which comes out on our road near Bristol.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. Who is working those mines there?—A. General Pardee, of Allentown.

Q. Are they being worked successfully?—A. I do not know; they are just beginning, the same as the mines in Virginia.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. Do you know about the James River ores?—A. Yes, sir; they are undoubtedly good in quality, but they have been difficult to mine, and hard to find, as the quantity is not sufficient. The Pennsylvania Steel Company has had, I think, 10,000 tons of ore from that neighborhood. They are strictly Bessemer ores.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. You gave the cost of a ton of native ore delivered in Harrisburg

at \$4.52, as I understood you?—A. That would be about a fair average cost.

Q. Do you know the average prices of foreign ores at Harrisburg; did you say they were \$5.20 at Harrisburg?—A. No, sir; I said \$5.20 at Philadelphia.

Q. What would the price be at Harrisburg?—A. I think probably about \$6.

Q. Then the \$1.50 difference is not sufficient to allow the native ores to compete with them?—A. The freight of the native ore is so high.

Q. The freight is \$4 a ton and the cost 52 cents a ton; is not that your proposition? What does it cost to land the native ore in Harrisburg? I understood you to say \$4 freight and mining 52 cents.—A. No; I said the mining was 52 cents cost at the charcoal furnace, but the better quality costs more to mine. The ore they would bring to Harrisburg would cost from \$1 to \$1.50 put on the car. This particular ore that I spoke of costing 52 cents, when our branch road is built, will be about three miles from the railroad.

Q. Do you mean that it costs 52 cents a ton before it leaves the mouth of the mine?—A. Yes, sir. The furnace is right there at the mine.

Q. And it costs how much to get it on board the car?—A. Ore is being offered there at \$1.50 a ton put on the car, and better qualities at \$3 a ton.*

Q. One dollar and fifty cents a ton put on the car and \$4 for freight would make \$5.50. Even then you have an advantage of 50 cents a ton over the \$6 foreign ore.—A. That might be the case in exceptional instances.

Q. No; I am taking your own figures, as I understood you to state them. You say it can be bought for \$1.50 a ton put on the car, and the freight to Harrisburg is \$4, and then it comes in competition with foreign ore that is selling there at \$6.—A. The imported ore would not bring 10 cents a unit. I doubt if the 50 per cent. ore would bring more than 8 cents a unit in Philadelphia.

Q. Then I must have misunderstood you. Is there an abundance of fine ore in the open, working mines in the United States, which is equal to the Spanish ore in all respects?

The WITNESS. Do you mean where the mines are open so that you can get in to see them?

Commissioner McMAHON. I mean in actual operation so that they can supply orders.

The WITNESS. Of course you cannot tell how much ore there is in a mine until you get to work. The people there have opened mines for their own purposes. There is enough ore in sight to warrant me in saying, however, that there is abundant Bessemer ore in that section to supply the blast furnaces in Pennsylvania forever.

Q. The census reports show that we consume about 8,000,000 tons of iron annually. The Treasury reports show that the import of iron into the United States in 1881 amounted to 625,761 tons, or less than 8 per centum of all the ore consumed in the United States, and it is in view of that that I asked the question if there was a plenty of iron ore in the

*The "better quality" alluded to by Mr. Kimball is the strictly *Bessemer ore* with which *alone* foreign ore, delivered at Harrisburg, Pa., at \$6 or \$6.50, is to be compared, as the cheap brown hematites are quite *unfitted* for Bessemer use as any one in this trade knows. The \$3 Bessemer ore, plus \$4 freight to Harrisburg, costs \$7 delivered at Harrisburg; while good foreign Bessemers are laid down at same point for from \$6 to \$6.50.

mines in operation, or in those which could be operated at once, which could take the place of the Spanish ore.—A. To that, I say, unequivocally, yes.

Q. Then, taking your own figures, you show that that native iron ore, which is equal in all respects to the Spanish iron ore, can be laid down at Harrisburg at a less price than the foreign ore could be. Why don't the Harrisburg people take the native ore in preference?—A. I did not intend to make the statement in the way you state it. Altogether we have 800 miles of railroad. To transport the ore from any one point there to Harrisburg, depending upon the point you start from, it would be from 400 to 500 miles.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. For example, take the 60 per cent. ore that you speak of, and we will suppose it costs \$1.50 a ton to put it on the car and \$4 freightage, making \$5.50 to deliver it at Harrisburg.—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then take the expenses of the other ore to Harrisburg—you buy it, of course, at Philadelphia—and the profit is included at 10 cents a unit.—A. That is the lowest price I have heard for it.

Q. And that sells for \$6 a ton?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What will it cost to transport it from Philadelphia to Harrisburg?—A. I have been told it can be transported as low as 60 cents a ton.

Q. That makes \$6.60 a ton against \$5.50, a difference of \$1.10 a ton. The profit of this 10 cents a unit is in it already, under the present tariff, and it leaves you \$1.10 as a margin.

Commissioner McMAHON. Besides, I understand they sell it on board the car at \$1.50, and I suppose there is some profit in it then.

The WITNESS. No; I mean it costs that to put it on board.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. You say there is a better kind, which costs \$3 a ton, put on board the car?—A. Yes, sir.*

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. Do you mean to say that this steel ore will cost \$3 to mine and put on the car?—A. No, sir; but General Pardee has offered his ore at \$3 a ton. His ore is further away than 400 miles from Harrisburg. I believe it is 523 miles from the Cranberry mines to Harrisburg.

Q. Did you not state that the freight for carrying ores was one cent a ton per mile from there to Harrisburg?—A. It is if we carry a great deal of it. We hope to get the freight down lower soon.

Q. What is the usual rate, for instance, where there is no return of empty grain-cars or any thing of the sort?—A. The lowest rate I know of for moving ore is on the Pennsylvania Railroad, where they charge $\frac{1}{10}$ of a cent a ton, and that is for the longest haul. There is no lower rate than that.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. That is what is called the Bessemer-steel rate?—A. Yes, sir. I think that is lower, because that comes from the seaboard.

Q. Do not the railroads generally figure out how much they can stand, and then figure out how much the ore-producers can stand in the way of freight, and live?—A. That is the general understanding.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. This ore, I believe, is transported in flat cars altogether, is it not?—A. Yes, sir; if the railroad companies have them.

* See foot-note on page 15.

Q. It is very cheap to handle?—A. Yes, sir; it is undoubtedly the cheapest kind of freight.

Q. How would your charges compare with the freights from Chicago to Saint Louis?—A. I am not familiar with the rates on Western roads.

Mr. WILLIAM E. SMITH, of Plattsburg, N. Y., in behalf of the iron-ore producers of the State of New York, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: It was intended that the argument of the ore-producers of the State of New York should be presented to you by Mr. Le Grand B. Cannon, of New-York. But yesterday morning a telegram was received from him stating that he was too ill to attend your sessions, and in his absence I have been requested to present to you the paper prepared by the iron-ore producers of the State of New York.

Believing that no argument which we could make to your Commission would present the question of the necessity of a proper tariff for iron ore so well or so forcibly as the collection of individual opinions of those engaged in the business of producing iron ore, together with certain facts connected with this business, we have preferred to present to you only certain ore statistics, and the opinions of the leading iron-ore producers of New York State upon the questions connected with the tariff upon this article, in order that you may thus learn the sentiments of the men largely interested in the production of iron ore in the State of New York and in its vicinity, all of whom have a large experience in the ore business, and the demands both of their own particular business and of the iron business of the country at large.

To aid in the preparation of the Eastern iron producers' case for presentation to the Tariff Commission, the secretary of the New York State Iron Ore Producers' Association has sent out circulars asking for answers to the following questions:

First. The alleged necessity of the importation of foreign ores from lack of American ores for the Bessemer process.

Second. The claim that American ore-producers have an enlarged market by reason of such importation of foreign ores, each ton of foreign ore so used causing the consumption of an additional ton of American which would not otherwise be used.

Third. That the importation of foreign ore is an adjunct to the steel business only, and has not the effect of competing with native ores for manufacturing of ordinary foundry and mill irons.

Taking up the first question, the answers have been as follows:

Mr. James A. Burden, president of the Burden Iron Company, of Troy, N. Y., a company consuming ten times the quantity of ore it mines and three times the quantity of pig metal it produces in its own furnaces, writes as follows:

TROY, N. Y., October 9, 1882.

HON SMITH M. WEED, *Plattsburgh, N. Y.:*

DEAR SIR: I am in receipt of your letter asking for my views about an increase upon the present rate of duty on iron ore. You refer to statements made by certain parties that there is an insufficient supply of iron ore in the United States, east of the Alleghany Mountains, suitable for the manufacture of Bessemer-steel, to meet the requirements of the Bessemer-steel works located in this section of the country. I venture to say that the authors of this statement have arrived at this conclusion without sufficient investigation. I regret I have not the time to enter into a full review of all the Bessemer-ore deposits of the East. I think, however, it will be sufficient if I show to you, as I shall endeavor herein to do, that one Eastern ore company alone is able to supply far more than all the ore required, excepting for spledelsen, by all the Bes-

Bessemer-steel works east of the Alleghany Mountains. I refer to the Chateaugay Ore and Iron Company. The mines of this company were first discovered about the year 1864, and mining operations were commenced on a small scale in the year 1869. The quality of the Chateaugay ore for Bessemer purposes and high-grade steel is unsurpassed by any imported or native ores used in the production of Bessemer steel in the United States. It is very low in phosphorus. Frequent determinations of phosphorus made in the chemical laboratory of our works, show an average of this element in the Chateaugay ore used by us during the past twelve months, to be twenty-nine one-thousandths of one per cent., and the average of phosphorus in the whole production of the Chateaugay mines, as shown by the determinations of the Chateaugay Company's chemist during the same time, is twenty one-thousandths of one per cent. As good a quality of Bessemer steel can be made from the Chateaugay ore alone as from the best ores of England, Spain, or Africa. With the exception of the great deposit of iron ore in the north of England, known as the Cleveland deposit, the Chateaugay deposits are probably the most extensive continuous veins yet discovered, and the production of the Chateaugay mines is practically limited only by the men and machinery employed in its mining operations. It is well known that the great Cleveland deposit is high in phosphorus and not suitable for the manufacture of Bessemer steel (as is the Chateaugay ore) by the acid process, which is the one used by all the Bessemer-steel works in the United States.

The Chateaugay Company have already opened two parallel veins of this Bessemer-steel ore upon their property; one of these veins averages 18 feet thick, and the other 36 feet thick. One of these veins has been opened continuously, and is now being worked on its outcrop (which has only a few inches of cover) for a distance of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and this vein has been traced continuously on the company's property for a distance of about 5 miles. The distance between two important workings at the present time on this vein is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles; and the company have other veins which have not been traced or examined.

This property alone—from the veins already explored—is capable (in the opinion of a competent authority who has had the experience and the opportunity to judge of its resources) of producing 6,000,000 tons of Bessemer-steel ore per annum. While this is the maximum output of the mine, yet, for the purpose of my argument, I will assume the possible output to be only one-half of this quantity, which is certainly making a liberal allowance for "faults" and other irregularities in the deposits. I therefore call the possible annual output of the Chateaugay mines 3,000,000 tons, two tons of which will make a ton of the highest quality of Bessemer pig iron; and should an iron ore higher in metallic iron than this be in demand, the Chateaugay Company could supply a 52 per cent. or a 60 per cent. concentrated ore of the quality above referred to. Judging from the production from the 1st of January to the 1st of September, 1882, I estimate that the production of the Bessemer-steel works, east of the Alleghany Mountains, for the entire year of 1882, will be about 690,000 tons of finished Bessemer steel of all kinds, including rails, which would require about 820,000 tons of pig iron in its manufacture; and to produce this amount of pig iron about 1,640,000 tons of Chateaugay ore would be required. Assuming the annual output of the Chateaugay mines to be 3,000,000 tons, as already stated, it will be seen that the Chateaugay Ore and Iron Company alone can supply 1,300,000 tons in excess of the total quantity required for Bessemer-steel purposes east of the Alleghany Mountains. I estimate that the product of all the Bessemer-steel works in the United States for the year 1882 will be about 1,800,000 tons of finished Bessemer steel of all kinds, including rails, which would require in its manufacture 2,050,000 tons of pig iron; to produce this amount of pig iron 4,100,000 tons of Chateaugay ore would be required, or only 1,100,000 tons in excess of a possible output of the Chateaugay district.

It may be asked, whether this ore can be mined and sent to market at a price which will bring it within reach of the ore consumers. It is a sufficient reply to this that the Chateaugay Ore and Iron Company is now delivering its ore to its customers at \$3.50 per ton of 2,240 pounds, at Plattsburgh, on Lake Champlain, and guarantees that two tons of the ore will make one ton of pig iron. The freight from Plattsburgh to tide-water on the Hudson is \$1 per ton of 2,240 pounds, and from the Hudson low rates of freight by water can be had to Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and other iron-making districts.

I cannot, within the scope of this letter, review the advantages to the ore consumer of a home supply of ore, but, as an illustration of the risk of depending upon a foreign supply, I would refer to the case of the "Carlist war" in 1874 and 1875, when operations were interrupted at the Bilbao mines, which exported to all countries, in 1881, 2,500,000 tons of ore. Fancy the condition of this country with its ore mines undeveloped, its steel works dependent on foreign countries for their supply of ore, and we at war with a foreign naval power.

During the coming year the Burden Iron Company will use nearly three times as much pig iron as it will make, and my interest in manufacturing pig iron into finished products of iron is more than ten times as great as my interests in iron-ore mines. Therefore I do not speak as an ore producer. A manufacturer, who intended to be in the iron

business but a short time, might be in favor of a merely nominal duty on ore, as at present, and protection on his finished products of iron and steel; but as I expect to continue in the manufacture of iron, and hope that my children may succeed me in the same business, I am in favor of increasing the present rate of duty on iron ore to a rate somewhat in proportion to the present rates of duty upon finished steel and iron, in order to encourage the development of the ore deposits of this country, and to build up home competition in iron ore.

Yours, truly,

JAS. A. BURDEN.

Witherbees, Sherman & Co., of Port Henry, N. Y., producers of over 200,000 tons of iron ore per annum, write as follows:

We have in Northern New York more Bessemer ores than is required to supply the demand; but have not been able to run our New Bed Bessemer mine for the last eighteen months on account of the importation of foreign ores.

The mine referred to has a capacity of 60,000 to 80,000 tons per annum, and produces an excellent quality of Bessemer ores.

A. Tower, esq., treasurer of the Port Henry Iron Ore Company, producers of over 200,000 tons of ore per annum, writes as follows:

In my opinion there is no necessity for such importation of ores. If encouragement is given, all that is wanted can be furnished from mines in this country.

The Port Henry Iron Ore Company is operating the Fisher Hill Bessemer ore mine, having a capacity of 75,000 to 100,000 tons per annum. The production at present is 15,000 tons.

Mr. Henri M. Braem, secretary of the Forest of Dean Iron Ore Company, producing at present about 30,000 tons of ore per annum, writes as follows:

There would be no lack of American Bessemer ores if the development of the mines had not been checked by foreign importations.

Mr. A. W. Humphreys, president of the Sterling Iron and Railway Company, producers of about 80,000 tons of ore per annum, writes:

I believe that there is no necessity for any importation of ores.

George Williams, esq., president and treasurer of the Weed Iron Mining Company, writes as follows:

Hon. SMITH M. WEED:

MY DEAR SIR: I this day wired to your secretary an estimate of the actual capacity of the hematite mines of the Harlem Valley, and remit an estimate of their actual output in 1882, showing that the demand through foreign competition was so lessened as to reduce the volume of business from 177,000 tons to 76,000 tons.

Perhaps the most instructive letters are the two following from two *producers* of Bessemer-iron ores, *who can find no market* for their ores:

Mr. J. R. Rand, treasurer of the Manhattan Mining Company, writes as follows:

Our mine is virtually closed at the present time; having worked out our contracts with our customers, and not obtaining new ones, we have stopped working, except the pumps, which we are obliged to keep at work. As you will see by the inclosed analysis it is steel ore, and was used extensively in making Bessemer pig by one of our largest customers until the foreign ore took its place. We have employed 75 to 100 men at wages varying from \$1.25 to \$1.50 per day for ordinary laborers.

Mr. J. B. Brinsmade, president of the Mahopac Iron Ore Company, writes as follows: *

There is no lack of American ores for the Bessemer process. As a proof of it, I state the fact that the Mahopac Iron Ore Company to-day is producing more ore than it can

* It may be well to note here that the ore he refers to is among the richest and purest Bessemer ore to-day mined east of the Alleghanies, yielding from 55 to 58 per cent. in the furnace, and containing practically no sulphur, and only .018 of 1 per cent. of phosphorus, and no free silica.

sell. It has freely offered it at the same price as is asked for foreign ores of no better quality, and it has been able to induce but one Bessemer works to even try it in a furnace. And though the ore is of better quality than the average of imported Spanish and African ores, and perfectly adapted to the Bessemer process, the company has been obliged to find customers among those who make foundry iron.

There are large and numerous deposits of Bessemer ores on Lake Champlain and along the Hudson River which are not now in the market, and are kept out of the market by foreign ores. Magnetic iron ore mines require large expenditures of money for labor, and nothing but labor, before they can be made profitably productive. The great mines of the Port Henry Iron Ore Company were worked thirteen years, and capital to the amount of over \$970,000 was expended before they were worked at a profit. The Forest of Dean mine was worked by its present owners eight years at a cost of capital of \$400,000 before it began to yield a profit. The mine of the Mahopac Iron Ore Company has been worked three years and a capital of \$75,000 has been expended in labor on it, but it has never yet yielded any profit, and will not for some years to come; whether it ever does depends on the competition of foreign ores. The history of the Tilly Foster mine, now producing 60,000 tons per annum, is quite similar, but I cannot give the figures.

These are samples which illustrate the history of iron mining. The experience of one is substantially the experience of all. After there has been an enormous expenditure of labor in sinking shafts, running drifts, getting the veins properly opened and developed, and setting suitable machinery, if the mine produces a good ore, it begins to pay, and never till then. But the risk of opening a new mine is very great, as the extent of the deposit and the character of the ore cannot be determined until after years of labor have been expended on it. This is the history of every magnetic ore mine that I am acquainted with; and I do not know of one successful magnetic mine in the State of New York which is to-day owned by the parties who first began to develop it. Those parties have in every instance exhausted themselves, and have had to turn the mine over to others, and this on account of want of sufficient capital to properly develop their mines.

The little county of Putnam alone is full of Bessemer ores which have never been opened and worked, and never will be so long as there is the present competition of foreign ores. Some of them on being developed would be found to pay, while others would not. While foreign ores flood the market as they do at present, no one will take the risk of opening these mines. With a duty of \$1.50 on foreign ores, I think they would all soon be opened; and when all are well developed, Putnam County alone can provide against a scarcity of Bessemer ores for all the eastern mills. If the other policy is pursued, and foreign ores are now admitted with a very low duty, or no duty at all, while a very few eastern mines may continue to be worked, the vast majority of them will have to shut down, and there will be no new mines opened. Mr. Earnshaw's gigantic syndicate will then be masters of the situation, and will have it in their power to hold it against all comers till wages in this country come down to 50 cents per day for common labor and 60 or 70 for skilled miners.

Taking up, now, the second question, which it will be remembered was as follows: That American ore producers have an enlarged market by reason of such importation of foreign ores; each ton of foreign ore so used causing the consumption of a ton of native ore which would not otherwise be used.

The answers to this question can be summed up in the answer of Mr. J. B. Brinsmade, president of the Mahopac Iron Ore Company. The answer is short and to the point. It is—

It is sheer nonsense.

Mr. Henri M. Braem writes:

This is an extraordinary proposition, and too absurd to answer.

Mr. Peter P. Parrott, president of the Parrott Iron Company, a large consumer of iron ores, writes as follows:

When we are using foreign iron ore we are using just so much less native ore. I think the consumption would have to be enormous to warrant such a conclusion as above claimed.

A. W. Humphreys, president of the Sterling Iron Railway Company, writes:

The claim seems to me to be entirely unfounded.

A. Tower, treasurer of the Port Henry Iron Ore Company, writes:

I consider the above claim entirely false, and that every ton of ore imported takes the place of ore that can be furnished from mines here. All we need is capital to develop our mines.

Witherbees, Sherman & Co., of Port Henry, write as follows:

Before foreign ores were imported we had a surplus of lump ore for puddling. But for the last three years we have had a surplus of fine ore used in furnaces. It is increasing every year since the importation of foreign ores.

In other words, the importation of foreign ores has reduced the demand for the furnace ores sold by that firm.

The third question was as follows: That the importation of foreign ore is an adjunct to the steel business only, and has no effect in competing with native ores for ordinary foundry and mill iron.

John H. Cheever, president of the Croton Magnetic Iron Mine, writes as follows:

It has and does compete with our ores; we know of orders we have lost to a large amount.

A. W. Humphreys, president of the Sterling Iron Company, writes:

This claim, I am sure, is without foundation.

Peter P. Parrott, president of the Parrott Iron Company, writes:

We have used the foreign Bessemer ore for two years, but don't produce iron for steel purposes.

Henri M. Braem writes:

Foreign ores compete with native ores for furnace and mill purposes more and more every year.

J. B. Brinsmade writes:

In the beginning foreign ores competed only with native Bessemer ores, but for the last two years they have competed just as decidedly for foundry and mill purposes; and that this competition has not yet reached an alarming extent is due to the fact that the mines which produce ores for foundry and mill irons are older than Bessemer mines and more developed, and are consequently better able to meet competition.

The answers before given have been communicated by the largest iron ore producers of the State; producers who mine two-thirds of the total iron ore mined in the State of New York. This total is at present about one and half million gross tons of furnace ores—that is, ores which are shipped to a distance and are brought in competition with foreign ores. In addition to these furnace ores, in the vicinity of 200,000 to 250,000 tons of iron ore are produced and consumed upon the spot.

In the census year of 1880 the production was estimated at about a million and a quarter net tons. The total number of men employed in regular establishments was estimated at 4,675, and the total capital invested in the regular industry was estimated at over \$8,000,000. The capital now invested and the total number of men employed is proportionate to the increase in production, and may be roughly placed at 7,000 men and \$12,000,000 of capital.

The total number of persons either directly or indirectly depending on the production and transportation of iron ore in the State of New York is estimated at 75,000.

The sense of the iron ore producers of the State of New York was expressed at a meeting held by them in the city of New York, at which all the prominent iron ore producers were represented, in the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this meeting that the duty on iron ore should be not less than \$1.50 per gross ton.

The following extract is from a paper written by John F. Quarles, esq., who was sent by the Treasury Department to Spain and Africa as a special agent to investigate the production of iron ores in those localities:

The solution of the question as to whether the domestic ore producer needs protection from foreign competition, turns upon the following propositions:

First. Whether the supply, or possible supply, of foreign ore suitable for our furnaces is of sufficient magnitude to compete in quantity, as well as in quality, with our domestic mines.

Second. Whether this ore can be mined and put down at our furnaces at a cost that will enable it to compete in price with our domestic ores.

If these queries be answered in the affirmative, it will be successfully demonstrated, it would seem, that the American ore producer is entitled to protection at the hands of the government. Now, as to the first inquiry: Is the supply of accessible foreign ore of sufficient magnitude, other things being equal, to seriously menace the domestic producer? A brief survey of the districts from which foreign ore is obtained for our markets, and their actual and probable output, will furnish a sufficient answer. The districts from which foreign ore is chiefly obtained for our markets are those of Bilbao, Marbella, Almeria, Carthagena, in Spain; Benisof, Ain Sedma, and Mokta in North Africa, and the island of Elba on the coast of Italy.

The Bilbao mines yield an annual output of over 2,500,000 tons, and it is estimated that this quantity can be largely increased if necessary. The Marbella mines have at present an output of about 60,000 tons, but this is no index as to the capacity of this district, as it constitutes one continuous vein of the richest ore from the plains of Malaga to the rock of Gibraltar. It is not too large an estimate to say that there can be produced with ease, from what is here termed the Marbella district, 400,000 tons annually. The Almeria mines yield an annual output of about 40,000 tons, which mines, if worked to their highest capacity, could quadruple this amount. The Carthagena district, comprising the mines of Porman and Ganucha, have an output of from 600,000 to 700,000 tons annually. Passing to North Africa, we have the Benisof mines, yielding about 100,000 tons annually, with capacity for largely increasing its output. The Ain Sedma mines, though not worked to a very great extent at present, have capacity for an output of 150,000 tons per annum. The Mokta mines, at Bona, are now producing 350,000 tons per annum, which, the director of the company informed the writer of this article, might with ease be increased 100,000 more. The Elba mines have not been systematically worked for a number of years; but, as the entire island is one iron rock, it is safe to say that by reasonable effort the mines can be made to produce from 300,000 to 400,000 tons annually.

Now, if the foregoing figures are correct, or approximately correct, here are mines and mining districts favorably situated for transportation, lying in almost every instance along the seaboard, capable of furnishing from 4,000,000 to 5,000,000 tons annually. That all this ore is suitable for use in our furnaces is attested by the fact that the importations have risen from 40,000 to nearly 800,000 tons within the last six or seven years, and that nearly all these mines have contributed to these importations.

It sufficiently appears from this statement that the first query must receive an affirmative answer.

But if the supply is sufficient in quantity and quality, the question still recurs, can these ores be put down at our furnaces at a cost sufficiently low to bring them into competition with domestic ores? The answer to this question involves two other queries: What is the cost of mining a ton of foreign as compared with the cost of mining a ton of domestic ore? Then what is the cost of transporting to our furnaces as compared with the cost of transporting domestic ores to the same points? As to the cost of mining the Mediterranean ores there is, I believe, no controversy. It is conceded on all sides that the cost of mining a ton of ore in Spain or Africa is less than one-half the cost in the United States. The Mediterranean miner receives all the way from 35 to 60 cents per day, according to circumstances—never more than the latter figure; the American miner receives from \$1.75 to \$2 per day for the same work. Of course, other things being equal, there could be no competition here, simply because the American producer would be instantly driven out of market.

But it is argued that ocean freights restore the equilibrium between the foreign and the domestic producers, and that this affords the latter all the protection he needs. This argument was first put forward by a dealer in foreign ores. Let us examine this statement; for if it be true that ore freights do restore the equilibrium between the foreign and domestic producer, if they do afford ample protection to the latter, then he has no standing in court, and his claim must be dismissed. But is it true that ocean ore freights protect the domestic producer? If the price of ore freights was controlled by the demand for ore alone, there might be some ground for this statement; but as ore freights are dependent upon other circumstances, and governed by

other markets, this proposition loses its force. Ore freights are ruled entirely by the condition of the grain markets of the world, the tonnage employed in the one trade being the same as that employed in the other. If grain freights are in great demand in our ports, vessels coming from the Mediterranean will take ore at nominal rates, as it serves them in many instances in place of ballast. But it may be said that these transient vessels would not furnish constant ore freights, since the vessels, once in our ports, would not return to the Mediterranean, as most of their grain cargoes would be for the northern countries of Europe. But this argument is untenable. The two great competing marts of the breadstuffs of the world are our Atlantic ports and the ports of the Black Sea.

Between these two granaries and the other ports of the Old World the great bulk of ocean traffic is constantly plying. When vessels cannot secure grain freights in our ports they go to the Black Sea, and *vice versa*. But vessels which secure grain cargoes in our ports to-day, on account of the sharp competition between our markets and those of the Black Sea, are not sure of getting profitable cargoes on their immediate return. Hence, in order to protect themselves, ship-owners usually make some such arrangement as this: They agree to take a cargo of grain from New York to Liverpool, or other ports, as the case may be, with option of cargo of coal or other merchandise from the port of delivery to some Mediterranean port. Arrived there, they are in position to take advantage of either market. If grain freights are still good in America they take ore cargoes at nominal rates and return to our ports; if freights are not favorable here, they proceed to the Black Sea ports.

Hence it follows, that when grain freights are good in our ports—that is to say, when we export large quantities of breadstuffs—ore freights can be had at very low rates, and the capacity of ore freights will only be limited by the capacity of tonnage required for grain. As a fair illustration on this point may be cited the fact that in 1880 we exported largely of grain, and ore freights from the Mediterranean were very easy; sailing could be had from 7s. to 9s. sterling, and steam freights were obtained at from 9s. and 6d. to 11s. and 6d. sterling. In 1881, owing to the speculation in grain, our exports of breadstuffs fell off to an alarming extent, and consequently ore freights from the Mediterranean advanced to 15s. and 6d. for steam and 14s. for sail.

If these be facts, and facts they are which cannot be gainsaid nor controverted, it follows that the assertion that ocean freights furnish adequate protection to the domestic producer does not bear the test of examination. At all events, it will be agreed that an interest so important and so vital to the well-being and prosperity of all other branches of industry should not be compelled to accept a standard protection so varying and unstable. An industry based upon protection so frail and uncertain will offer no inducement for the investment of capital, and thus one of the greatest elements of our national wealth will languish for want of investment and enterprise. If the writer has been successful in stating the case of the American iron-ore producer intelligently, he thinks it sufficiently appears that his claim for protection is fair, reasonable, and just, and that it cannot be rejected without great injury to the best interests of the country. The strong position of the domestic ore producer grows out of the fact that while every other interest has been *doubtly* protected, up to the present, he has neither asked nor received any protection at the hands of the government, for the incidental duty of 20 per cent. *ad valorem* levied on foreign ores was not imposed for his benefit, nor as a measure of protection to his product, but such duty was imposed under a clause of our customs laws enacted rather as a guide to the customs officer than as a protection to any given interest.

In all these discussions, it is to be remembered that the great object of protection is to secure honorable, self-sustaining employment to the American laborer, and to save him from the hapless fate of the laborer of the Old World who toils without hope of adequate reward or ultimate amelioration. As Mr. George H. Ely, of Cleveland, has so well put it, the American miner must have his home, his church, and his school-house, and in order to secure him these blessings, adequate protection must be afforded him against the ruinous competition of the ill-requited labor of the Old World.

If the gentlemen of the Commission desire any particular information in relation to the New York ores, I would suggest that they call upon Mr. Arthur F. Wendt, who is the secretary of the Iron-Ore Producers' Association of the State of New York, and who is much more familiar with the details than I am.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. I desire to ask two questions on two points referred to in the paper of Mr. Quarles. First, he reports, I believe, the rate of wages in Spain as from 35 to 60 cents a day, and here the rate is said to be from \$1.75 to \$2 a day. It has been stated that the Spanish workman

in the mines does not do more than one-third of the work that the American miner does for the price he gets. Do you know anything about that?—Answer. I have no information on that subject.

Q. But that would have some relevancy and importance if it was true, wouldn't it?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. I understand another point made in that paper to be, that when the exports of grain are great from the United States, then the advantage is on the side of the importer of the foreign ore?—A. Yes, sir; and Mr. Quarles refers to two instances.

Q. And when the exports of grain from the United States are light, then the advantage, if any, is against the importer of foreign ore; is not that true?—A. Mr. Quarles gives two illustrations which seem to indicate that.

Q. And he cites the year 1880 and 1881?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then when the exports are light, the advantages are against the foreign importer?—A. He states that in 1880 we had a large exportation abroad of breadstuffs, and that the ore freights from the Mediterranean were from 7s. to 9s. sterling for sailing vessels, while freights were from 9s. 6d. to 11s. 6d. sterling by steam. He says that in 1881, owing to the speculation in grain, our exports of breadstuffs fell off to an alarming extent, and consequently ore freights from the Mediterranean advanced to 15s. 6d. for steam and 14s. for sail.—A. Yes, sir.

Commissioner McMAHON. That is about double. I wanted to call your attention to this point in the statistics; that in 1880 there were 416,000 tons in round numbers imported, when the advantage was in favor of the foreign importer; in 1881 there were 625,761 tons imported, or more than 50 per cent. advance in the importation, when the advantage was against him.

The WITNESS. But it does not appear from that whether, while there was an increase in importations, there might not have been a decrease in profits.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Do you know whether it is a fact or not that the average yearly earnings of the coal miners and miners of ore in this country do not exceed \$330 or 340 a year? A. I could not state.

Q. You made a statement that they average \$1.75 to \$2.00 per day. What is your authority for that statement?—A. I made that statement on information based from reading communications from gentlemen in the ore business. I do not make that on my own responsibility.

Q. And in regard to the prices paid in England, you put the figures at from 60 to 75 cents a day.—A. I think my statement was that the English miners received from 75 cents to \$1. I meant those engaged in the working of iron and steel. I did not state that of my own personal knowledge, but only as a fact that has been communicated to me. I do not assume to be an expert on this subject, in any respect.

Commissioner PORTER. That is a subject I should like to have one clear statement about from some of you gentlemen; I mean in regard to the wages of miners in the Mediterranean country and in England and in this country, so far as you are able to obtain them. Of course you can take Professor Pumpelly's report for the wages here—a very elaborate report issued by the Census Bureau—and the other information, if you can obtain it, I should be glad to receive.

The WITNESS. I will endeavor to prepare such a table in time to submit it as an appendix to my statement.

Mr. ARTHUR F. WENDT, secretary of the Ore Producers' Association of the State of New York, said:

The Mahopac Iron Ore Company, located in Putnam county, New York, pay for common labor \$1 per day and for skilled miners \$1.50 per day. Of course I cannot give you the number of days each man will work in a month, for some work the whole month and others only fifteen days in the month and spend the rest of the time in loafing.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Is the average of loafing, or holiday-making, greater in this country than in England?—A. That I do not know.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. I should like to know how generally the practice of loafing prevails among the miners.—A. I think it is very general among miners.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. Does a man average twenty days in the month?—A. I do not think they average over that, and the majority are below that, especially the men who get the highest wages. I believe the firm of Witherbees, Sherman & Co., of Port Henry, N. Y., pay \$2.35 a day for foremen, \$1.60 for pitman, and \$1.50 for outside men.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. How much skilled work is there in mining iron ore; what is the proportion of skilled labor required?—A. That depends upon the definition you attach to the phrase "skilled labor." I call all miners skilled workmen, because all our mining is done with power drills, requiring skilled labor to control them. You cannot take a green man into a mine and make him do nearly as much as a man who has been working in the mine for some time.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. I would like to ask about the character of these ores. You are familiar with the iron ores of Lake Champlain, are you?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Are not those ores, or nearly all of them, of the general character of magnetic ores?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. They are in very deep beds, so that when the mine is well opened and developed, there is an assurance of a large supply of ore for a long time, is there not?—A. No, sir; not always.

Q. Take the case of the Port Henry ores.—A. But that is the one exception to the rule. There, there is an enormous body of ore.

Q. Is that ore fitted for the Bessemer steel work?—A. No, sir. The Port Henry ore is very high in phosphorus, and is not well adapted to the acid process. The Crown Point and Chateaugay and the beds near the Port Henry mine are the only beds now being worked for Bessemer ores. The Tilly Foster mine and the Mahopac, and two other properties in New York, are being worked for Bessemer ores; also one or two smaller properties in Orange County. These constitute at present all the Bessemer ores that are being mined in the State of New York. The balance is furnace ore.

Mr. J. WESLEY PULLMAN, of Philadelphia, representing the iron ore producers of New Jersey and other States, addressed the Commission as follows:

Forges for working the magnetic ores of Morris County into bar iron were built at Whippany about 1710. The blast furnace at Oxford, Warren County, was built in

1742, and iron has been a staple product of New Jersey from those early days. The magnetic ores of New Jersey are all in the azoic formations, and occur in beds interposed conformably between the layers of the gneiss rocks. They sometimes extend for a considerable distance, but they are not continuous like the rocks themselves, thinning out to nothing at their edges, and in many cases descending beneath the surface in long folds or rolls to an unknown depth. The mines opened (in 1876) number nearly two hundred, and are capable of supplying one million tons of ore annually. The ores are rich, and, being near the great markets of the country, they find a ready sale. They vary in purity, some containing a little phosphorus, others sulphur, while others are almost entirely free from these impurities. Many of the ores in the Northwest or Pequest Belt contain oxide of manganese, and are in demand for making Bessemer steel.—*State Geological Reports.*

The New Jersey State Commissioners to the Centennial Exhibition reported in 1876 sixteen blast furnaces in New Jersey, all of which were run almost exclusively on New Jersey ores, but the greater part of the annual mine product is transported to the Pennsylvania furnaces.

The State geologist reported in 1880 a total list of three hundred and fifty mines, of which one hundred and thirty-six only (39 per cent.) were worked during a part or all of the year, producing for the calendar year 745,000 tons.

The United States census of 1880 (Bulletin No. 270) reported for census year (through Raphael Pumpelly, special agent) upon one hundred and nine establishments, putting their

Maximum yearly capacity at 1,487,829 tons, and actual output for year 757,372 tons. Value of product, \$2,910,442. Materials used in regular industry, \$584,229. Wages paid, \$1,606,257. In all \$2,190,486. Total number of employes 4,811; working capital and value of real estate, \$6,201,761.

Establishments not included or valued in Mr. Pumpelly's figures foot up \$500,000 additional value of mine property. The investment in mining property has increased but slightly since 1880, owing to slack demand for and low prices of American ore due to foreign competition; the few new openings being confined chiefly to the Pequest Valley on the line of the Lehigh and Hudson Railroad, only opened for through traffic in July of this year. It is not possible to give in this place exact figures showing total mine and transportation investment *to date*. A postscript will be added with any approximate results attainable. New Jersey ranks fourth in iron-ore-producing States; Morris County ranking as the third county in the Union, being exceeded only by Marquette, Mich., and Essex, N. Y.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Question. I take it that all these statistics you have read are from Professor Pumpelly's report?—Answer. Yes, sir; chiefly.

Among the larger mines the Hibernia ranks eighth, having produced 138,173 tons.*

* Actual Hibernia mine products for 1880, which includes Andover, Glendon, and Bethlehem-Hibernia.

List of iron-producing States in order of the production of 1880.

[Census Bulletin No. 270.]

	States.	Total product.	Percent of total product.	Per cent. of total value of product.
		<i>Tons.</i>		
1	Pennsylvania	2,185,675	27.418	23.8144
2	Michigan	1,834,712	23.015	26.0485
3	New York	1,202,127	15.833	15.7743
4	New Jersey	757,372	9.591	12.56.9
5	Ohio	547,303	6.866	5.4780
6	Missouri	380,197	4.845	7.2206
7	Alabama	191,676	2.404	0.8714
8	Virginia	182,326	2.287	1.8088
9	Maryland	130,028	1.752	1.8.02
10	Tennessee	104,405	1.311	0.0353
11	Georgia	91,416	1.147	0.0109
12	Kentucky	64,800	0.813	0.7161
13	Massachusetts	62,037	0.780	0.9701
14	West Virginia	61,216	0.768	0.4384
15	Wisconsin	41,440	0.520	0.3151
16	Connecticut	35,018	0.430	0.0380
17	Oregon	6,972	0.087	0.0202
18	Maine	6,000	0.075	0.0388
19	Texas	3,600	0.045	0.0350
20	North Carolina	3,318	0.042	0.0228
21	Delaware	2,720	0.034	0.0283
22	Vermont	560	0.007	0.0110
23	Indiana	513	0.006	0.0044
	The United States	7,971,706		

The rank of the sixteen States reported in the census of 1870 as producers of iron ore was as follows: Pennsylvania, Michigan, New York, New Jersey, Ohio, Missouri, Maryland, Tennessee, Massachusetts, Wisconsin, Kentucky, Virginia, Vermont, North Carolina, Delaware, Indiana.

The six great iron States retain in 1880 their former relative rank, and Alabama, a new State, takes the rank next them. Pennsylvania and Michigan yield over one-half the entire product. The six States at the head of the list yield 87.48 per cent. of the total, which is worth 90.91 per cent. of the total value. Sixteen States were reported in 1870 against twenty-three at present. The new iron-producing States are Alabama, Georgia, West Virginia, Connecticut, Oregon, Maine, and Texas.

List of counties of the first class producing over 100,000 tons.

[Census Bulletin No. 270.]

	County.	State.	Tons.
1	Marquette	Michigan	1,374,812
2	Essex	New York	630,914
3	Morris	New Jersey	568,420
4	Menominee	Michigan	459,900
5	Lehigh	Pennsylvania	321,322
6	Lebanon	do.	285,620
7	Berks	do.	252,940
8	Blair	do.	154,914
9	Saint François	Missouri	144,205
10	Dutchess	New York	125,859
11	Northampton	Pennsylvania	104,788
	Total of eleven counties of the first class		4,423,703

The eleven counties above produce 55.49 per cent. of the entire tonnage, of which total Marquette County, Michigan, must be credited with 17.25 per cent.

List of counties of the second class producing less than 100,000 tons and over 50,000 tons.

[Census Bulletin, No. 270.]

	County.	State.	Tons.
12	Clinton	New York	92, 100
13	Orange	do	88, 988
14	Crawford	Missouri	87, 033
15	Putnam	New York	70, 746
16	Sussex	New Jersey	70, 305
17	Cumberland	Pennsylvania	67, 846
18	Jefferson	New York	64, 111
19	Fayette	Pennsylvania	63, 702
20	York	do	63, 570
21	Lancaster	do	63, 274
22	Berkshire	Massachusetts	62, 637
23	Lawrence	Ohio	62, 590
24	Dent	Missouri	58, 878
25	Iron	do	57, 207
26	Warren	New Jersey	50, 214
	Total of the 15 counties of the 2d class		1, 029, 510

The following table contains a list of all mines or industrial establishments producing over 50,000 tons during the census year, in the order of their production:

[Census Bulletin, No. 270.]

State.	County.	Name of mine.	Product.	Value.	Em. ploy'és.
			<i>Tons.</i>		
Pennsylvania..	Lobanon	Cornwall Ore Bank	280, 000	\$500, 000	135
Michigan	Marquette	Republic	224, 000	808, 000	600
Do	do	Lake Superior Iron Company ..	215, 030	771, 180	542
Do	Menominee	Norway and Cyclops	210, 875	527, 187	510
New York	Essex	Old Bed	203, 416	744, 344	321
Do	do	21	187, 448	238, 525	282
Missouri	Saint François	Iron Mountain	144, 153	1, 001, 801	300
Michigan	Marquette	Jackson	134, 585	569, 582	252
Do	do	Cleveland Iron Mining Company	125, 440	448, 000	450
New York	Essex	Crown Point	112, 000	500, 000	450
Michigan	Marquette	Champion	99, 000	355, 748	350
New Jersey	Morris	Glendon Hibernia	85, 023	382, 245	550
Michigan	Monominee	Vulcan	83, 304	208, 485	200
Do	Marquette	Michigamme	66, 153	212, 052	107
Do	Menominee	Quiniseo	63, 080	150, 220	178
Missouri	Crawford	Merline Iron Mining Company	60, 385	134, 788	184
New York	Putnam	Tilly Foster Iron Mines	50, 000	131, 500	250
Missouri	Iron	Pilot Knob	52, 701	115, 903	410
New Jersey	Morris	Mount Hope	50, 379	264, 590	104
			2, 400, 845	8, 222, 640	6, 355

Since 1870 the price of ore has fallen from \$3.89 to \$2.90, but as gold was 30 per cent. above the paper dollar, the real fall is only about 14 cents per ton.

The reductions in price have been, in Michigan, 15 per cent.; New York, 29; New Jersey, 30; Pennsylvania, 35; but in Missouri the price has risen 56 per cent.

The statistics of the New Jersey mines for the past decade, and the estimated output at intervals back to 1790, are put by the State geologist in a tabular statement as below:

	Tons.
1790.—Morse's estimate	10, 000
1830.—Gordon's Gazetteer	20, 000
1855.—Dr. Kitchell's estimate	100, 000
1860.—United States Census	164, 960
1864.—Annual Report State Geologist	226, 000

	Tons.
1867.—Annual Report State Geologist.....	275, 067
1870.—United States Census.....	362, 636
1871.—Annual Report State Geologist.....	450, 000
1872.—Annual Report State Geologist.....	600, 000
1873.—Annual Report State Geologist.....	665, 000
1874.—Annual Report State Geologist.....	525, 000
1875.—Annual Report State Geologist.....	390, 000
1876.—Estimate.....	300, 000
1877.—Estimate.....	350, 000
1878.—Annual Report State Geologist.....	409, 674
1879.—Annual Report State Geologist.....	488, 028
1880.—Annual Report State Geologist.....	745, 000
1881.—Annual Report State Geologist.....	737, 052

A glance at the statistics of recent years shows how the iron manufacturing industry felt the general depression of the country extending from the panic of 1873 nearly to the end of 1879. The minimum of production was not reached until 1876-'77. Most of the larger and older mines were kept in moderate operation (*continuous working* being a usual obligation of important leases). A large part of the surplus labor found precarious work in the anthracite fields of Pennsylvania and in the mines of the far West.

Notwithstanding the most rigid economy in general mine expenses, the enormous fall in the price of labor, and the reduced cost of supplies, the extremely low price and slack demand for ore compelled the suspension of many of the old mines which had struggled along in hopes of better times, and stopped nearly all developments in new localities. About the end of 1879 the general revival of trade, with advanced prices and heavier demand, restarted most of the old mines, and the work of prospecting and exploration was resumed. Although labor-saving appliances came into general use, the demand for miners steadily increased, recalling many from the West and the coal-fields to their old homes. The increase of ore outputs from 488,000 tons in 1879 to 745,000 tons in 1880—say 54 per cent.—exhibits clearly the capacity of the New Jersey district for enormously enlarged production and at short notice whenever the condition of the market affords a reasonable margin of profit.

The New Jersey ore-producers are perhaps more seriously damaged by importation of foreign ores than are the miners of any other State. At Jersey City, Hoboken, Elizabethport, and Perth Amboy vessels discharge iron ores brought from all parts of the globe. Competitive lines of railway transport these ores directly across our New Jersey ore-beds, at rates far below any mileage charge obtainable from American mines to the same market.* Hence these products of the most poorly-paid labor in the world can be deposited at furnaces and steel works at a *delivered* price that cannot be reached by the American producers. They can readily supply equally good ores, but their cost both of labor and mining material is based on the scale of living and prices-current of the American system.

But a few years since, 50,000 tons was about the limit of the annual

*To furnish an example of this railway discrimination in favor of foreign ore, the writer testifies that in 1881 he had practically closed a contract with one of the steel companies for a large quantity of ore; the price and quality were satisfactorily agreed upon (and were about the same as of foreign ore), delivery to be at New York tide, at which point the steel company took its foreign ores. Nothing remained except the securing of a freight-rate corresponding with that then existing on the foreign ores for the same haul. The railway company, notwithstanding the utmost efforts of both parties to the contract, utterly refused such rate, and insisted on a rate 60¢ cents per ton in excess of its rate on foreign ore. This, of course, was fatal to the sale.

import of iron ore. In 1880, 500,000 tons (exact, 493,408) were imported. In October, 1881, the writer endeavored to obtain figures of iron-ore import of that year, to present to the iron-ore delegates to the National Tariff Convention in New York. Figures were only obtainable for the first four months (to May 1) of that year, footing up 188,575 tons; but knowing of heavy increase in arrivals from May to October, the writer ventured the prediction that we would import as much foreign ore as the total product of the New Jersey mines. New Jersey produced, by return of State geologist—a careful statistician—737,052 tons. The import as per return of Joseph Nimmo, Chief of Bureau of Statistics, was 782,887 tons; the imports thus exceeding by 45,835 tons the total output of the New Jersey mines for the calendar year 1881.

Statement showing the quantity, value, rate of, and amount of duty received from iron ore imported and entered for consumption in the United States during the fiscal years ended June 30, 1870 to 1882, inclusive.

Fiscal year ended June 30—	Iron ore.			
	Tons.	Values.	Rate of duty.	Duty received.
1870.....		\$35,950 81	20 per cent.....	\$7,100 17
1871.....		68,585 50	do.....	11,717 10
1872.....	23,733.40	49,593 25	do.....	9,018 65
1873.....	45,926.00	103,130 50	do.....	20,627 01
	50.00	385 00	20 per cent., less 10 per cent.	99 30
1874.....	57,987.50	106,306 85	20 per cent.....	33,273 37
1875.....	56,854.75	146,061 70	do.....	20,212 34
1876.....	17,284.50	55,065 93	do.....	11,133 18
1877.....	30,608.68	83,210 54	do.....	16,643 29
1878.....	28,212.20	60,383 48	do.....	12,070 69
1879.....	150,197.05	305,345 00	do.....	73,069 00
1880.....	416,174.75	1,173,842 00	do.....	234,768 40
1881.....	625,701.44	1,733,125 97	do.....	340,635 10
1882.....	583,996.70	1,071,239 00	do.....	334,247 80

JOSEPH NIMMO, Jr.,
Chief of Bureau.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, BUREAU OF STATISTICS, October 3, 1882.

From the above table we have calculated the average invoice value of each custom-house ton of 2,240 pounds of imported ores, and the duty, per ton, collected by the government. For 1870 and 1871, during which years the government kept no record of the tonnage, the exact duty per ton cannot be given, but may safely be taken at about forty cents.

Years.	Invoice value per ton.	Duty per ton.
		<i>Cents.</i>
1872.....	\$2 08.0	41.8
1873.....	2 25.1	45.0
1874.....	2 86.0	57.4
1875.....	2 57.8	61.0
1876.....	3 22	64.4
1877.....	2 71.3	54.3
1878.....	2 14	42.8
1879.....	2 49.2	48.6
1880.....	2 82.1	56.4
1881.....	2 76.9	55.4
1882.....	2 86.2	57.2

Statement showing the imports of iron ore by countries and districts during the year ended June 30, 1882.

Countries from which imported.	Tons.	Dollars.	Customs districts into which imported.	Tons.	Dollars.
France.....	31, 278	82, 572	Baltimore, Md.....	247, 010	705, 393
French Possessions in Africa and adjacent islands.....	111, 580	312, 672	Boston and Charlestown, Mass.....	2, 260	5, 820
Germany.....	1, 034	17, 033	Buffalo Creek, N. Y.....	664	2, 027
England.....	30, 148	148, 430	Cuyahoga, Ohio.....	8, 351	29, 062
Ireland.....	10, 181	23, 857	Detroit, Mich.....	587	1, 569
Gibraltar.....	400	956	Genesee, N. Y.....	6, 309	10, 370
Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island.....	5	37	Huron, Mich.....	274	749
Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, and the Northwestern Territory.....	45, 948	149, 470	New York, N. Y.....	134, 708	441, 140
British Columbia.....	500	1, 004	Oswegatchie, N. Y.....	275	848
Italy.....	54, 349	104, 593	Oswego, N. Y.....	28, 065	89, 937
Portugal.....	31, 237	96, 160	Perth Amboy, N. J.....	13, 071	46, 043
Russia on the Baltic and White Seas.....	967	30, 812	Philadelphia, Pa.....	137, 533	343, 700
Spain.....	246, 095	568, 277	Puget Sound, Washington Territory.....	500	1, 004
Spanish Possessions in Africa and adjacent islands.....	246	645			
Turkey in Asia.....	3, 622	*80, 010			
Uruguay.....	505	1, 700			
All other countries.....	2, 514	8, 523			
Total.....	580, 207	1, 687, 677	Total.....	580, 207	1, 687, 677

* Chrome Iron ore.

JOSEPH NIMMO, Jr., Chief of Bureau.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, BUREAU OF STATISTICS, September 28, 1882.

As far back as 1874 the State geologist of New Jersey reported the Hedges (Chester) mine as "yielding largely of pure and rich ore, which is used for the manufacture of steel."

Other Chester concerns also shipped from their mines in Morris County a large quantity of ores of the same character and for Bessemer use.

Near Split Rock Pond ores were developed rich in iron, practically free from sulphur, and free enough from phosphorus to make pig for Bessemer. The Green Pond mines were producing, at the rate of 30,000 tons per annum, an ore containing from 1 to nearly 3 per cent. of sulphur, but, on account of the richness of the ore and the very low percentage of phosphorus, it commanded a ready sale for Bessemer pig metal. An extension of railway southwest to Port Oram would afford a more direct outlet for the Green Pond, Pardee, and Chester Iron Company's mines, near Denmark, to the furnaces of New Jersey and the Lehigh Valley.

The *developed* ores of the Green Pond* and Denmark range may be safely put at 55 per cent. metallic iron, and .04 per cent. in phosphorus. Fifty thousand tons could be readily mined the first year, and 100,000 tons the second, and it is difficult to fix a limit to the full capacity of this region. The Chester district (moderate estimate of capacity 250,000 tons) is now producing at the rate of 100,000 tons of ore almost identical with that of Green Pond as to metallic iron and sulphur, but showing more variation in percentage of phosphorus. That considerable good Bessemer ore can be regularly shipped from these districts will be made evident by reference to the below table of analyses. Average Green Pond analysis 50 to 60 per cent. metallic iron; phosphorus, .04 per cent.

Phosphorus. Metallic iron.

Chester Iron Company's Denmark property (Green Pond) (5).....	.0480	53.03
Chester Iron Company's Denmark property (Green Pond) (1).....	.033	58.40

* Operated under a receiver (who stopped mines because unable to get enough out of the ore to pay his men's wages); produced 25,000 tons per annum from 1877 to 1879.

The following report of analyses of Chester iron ores was lately issued by one of the mining companies, in a circular stating that "special statistical and commercial value attaches to these eighty-nine determinations (90 per cent. of the samples having been taken by consumers), covering as they do over ten years' mining of nearly 200,000 tons of ore."

"Blue," from Bessemer veins.

Number of analysis.	Phosphorus.	Metallic iron.	Sulphur.	Silica.
(15)0332	56.54	11.85
	.036	57.46	2.66	9.92
	.033	57.08	3.42
	.025
(5)021	55.53	2.72	11.58
	.036	53.75	3.33
	.045
(10)0475	48.00	3.12	13.86
	.058	2.06
	.032	55.72
(13)0474	50.08	2.91	10.00
(3)0388	55.51	1.815	8.69

Total number of analyses, 46, including Booth, Garrett & Blair, and Dr. F. A. Genth, Philadelphia; George Suclus, of England; New Jersey State geologist; Lackawanna Iron and Coal Company, Andrew McCreath, Pennsylvania Steel Company, C. W. Roepper, Dr. T. M. Drown, Cambria Iron Company, Professor Allen (Sheffield Scientific School, Yale College), and Bethlehem Iron Company; date extending from 1870 to 1880, inclusive.

Extreme phosphorus range of the several mines is { .006 to .075
.022 to .066
.021 to .045
.022 to .095

Average of all (15) phosphorus determinations in 1875..... .035

	Phosphorus.	Metallic iron.	Sulphur.	Silica.
Blue ores..... { (7)	.090	52.37	2.912	Non-Bessemer.
{ (4)	.113	58.32	
{ (11)	.0955	52.153	2.92	
Red ores..... { (4)	.047	(8) 57.497	(3) .030	(2) 0.16
{ (1)	.074	53.955	.127	12.64
{ (1)	.0602	62.86

Other mines of the same (Chester) district report below results:

	(1) "Red Chester."	(2) "Red Chester."	(3) "Hard Blue."
Metallic iron	64.63	64.628	60.062
Silica.....	4.350	4.000	9.170
Alumina	0.830	2.585	1.576
Sulphur	1.625	3.407
Phosphorus033	0.053	0.031

Nos. 1 and 2 by Detwiller, chemist of Bethlehem Iron Company; No. 3 by Booth, Garrett & Blair.

The ores of the Big Hill Andover Mine, Sussex County, and of the Midvale Iron Company, Passaic County, are also perfectly adapted for

the Bessemer acid process as to low phosphorus and metallic iron requiring only preliminary roasting to expel the sulphur.

The Roseville Mine, Sussex County, is an undoubted Bessemer ore, and does not require roasting.

The Big Hill and Roseville mines are idle for lack of demand at remunerative rates.

For the five fiscal years from 1874-'78 the average quantity of foreign ore imported was 38,161 tons. During this period from 30,000 to 60,000 tons per annum of the Green Pond and Chester ores, all containing sulphur and requiring preliminary roasting, were sold to furnaces making Bessemer pig. It was asserted by Hon. A. S. Hewitt, before your Commission, at the Saint Paul session, that iron ore is an "earth," and costs only the labor of shoveling out, and that each ton of foreign ore brought here, so far from damaging home mining, causes the consumption of a ton of native ore that would otherwise *not be used*. The writer does not find iron ore defined by any other authority as an "earth." Searching, however, through the existing tariff we find "earths" classified and dutiable as follows: Unwrought clay, pipe clay, fire clay, \$5 per ton; kaolin the same; and fuller's earth \$3 per ton; all specific duties. As a matter of fact, iron ore is not, as a rule, dug out like an earth. Over 90 per cent. of the New Jersey and New York magnetic ores are only won from the ground by expensive and costly underground workings, involving as much expenditure of skill and labor as that employed in *smelting* the raw stock in the blast-furnace. The same eminent authority (?) (Hon. A. S. Hewitt), posing as the largest mine operator in New Jersey, replying to the petition of Morris County miners for an increased duty upon iron ore, contemptuously tells them their prayer is based on total misconception of the case, reiterating the above, and saying that all the ores of Morris County contain too much phosphorus, but by mixing them with an equal portion of foreign ores the resultant product in blast-furnace is a pig-iron fit for the Bessemer converters; that the miners should, therefore, petition for the *free admission of foreign ore to enlarge the market, and enhance the value of American ores*, and enable HIM to pay the miners better wages for their work.

If this claim, "that the consumption of inferior or low-grade native ores is enlarged by the free use of foreign ores," be true, it should be easily sustained by facts, especially in relation to the mines of the seaboard. Such evidence has not, however, been presented. In direct contradiction to this claim the writer offers the following instance which is within his personal knowledge: A single Bessemer steel company purchased over 50,000 tons in 1874-'75 of the low-phosphorus but sulphury Morris County ores. If a total annual import of less than 40,000 net tons some years since induced the consumption of a like amount of low-phosphorus but sulphury New Jersey ores, then, by Mr. Hewitt's theory there should have been a demand for 600,000* tons of the *same class* in 1881 for Bessemer use, but in point of fact not a single car load of the New Jersey ores referred to was sold in that year for the purpose of mixture with foreign ores for Bessemer pig.

Reckless misstatements, entirely devoid of foundation, as to the resources and quality of American ores have been persistently repeated before the Tariff Commission, and attained the most astonishing circulation and credence in quarters to which the trade and the public have been accustomed to look for sound judgment and sufficient knowledge

* Ore import 1881 was 625,761 tons, fifteen times greater than average import of 1874-'78.

for a fair treatment of the question of the proper duty upon foreign ores. Besides the Chester and Green Pond districts, there are New Jersey mines idle to-day that have produced pure Bessemer ores, quite as free from both sulphur and phosphorus, and almost as low in silicon, as the average foreign ores. Other mines are also idle, having abundant deposits of ore higher in silicon, but admirably adapted for mixture with the richer class. One mine in the Pequest belt (referred to by State geologist in his report for 1873), producing pure and high-class Bessemer ore, has been steadily operated, but its product for years past has been used for ordinary foundry iron, because it pays better to sell or use it for that purpose than for Bessemer.

This list might be enlarged, but sufficient has been said to convince any candid mind of the absurdity of the Hewitt theory, and to prove the suitability of a considerable class of New Jersey ores for use in the Bessemer *acid* process.

The writer is entirely lacking in the full Pennsylvania mine statistics essential to set forth properly the immense resources of this State in ores suitable for use in the manufacture of pig iron for the Bessemer acid process.

I have, however, the following report from the proprietors of the Steel Ore Company of Pottstown, Pa.:

Our black magnetic (calcareous) ore from Boyertown analyzes as follows:

Metallie iron.....	52.92
Oxide manganese.....	0.21
Carbonate of lime.....	15.23
Carbonate of magnesia.....	1.15
Alumina.....	0.50
Soda and potash.....	0.02
Siliceous matter.....	2.12
Sulphur.....	0.28
Phosphorus.....	04
Titanic acid.....	None.

This is unquestionably Bessemer ore.

Present production at rate 43,000 tons per annum. Maximum capacity 96,000 tons per annum.

At this point let me ask if it can be doubted that the present output of the great Cornwall ore beds of Lebanon County, Pennsylvania, which in 1880 produced nearly 4 per cent. of all ore mined in the United States, can be immediately doubled. Here we have an additional 300,000 tons of Bessemer ore per annum from this one source, immediately available for the requirements of the East.

Detailed reports submitted to your Commission by the representatives of the ore-producing districts of New York and Virginia, as well as a brief reference later in this paper to new and extraordinary Southern developments, sufficiently show the adequacy of native ores for the entire requirement of the Eastern steel works.

It remains now to be stated very briefly that although large deposits of New Jersey low-phosphorus ores are neglected and unused, this class is the *smallest* of our supply. In New Jersey, as well as throughout most of the principal iron-ore districts of the country, perhaps three-fourths of the ores mined are known as phosphoric ores, having too much phosphorus for Bessemer, and, in fact, so large an excess as to make the proposal of a half-and-half mixture utterly ridiculous to any intelligent ironmaster. These ores (all termed phosphoric if containing much above .05 or .06 per cent. phosphorus) are usually quite free from sulphur and other impurities, and, if not running above .30 per cent. phosphorus, produce alone a good pig iron for mill use, while for foundry

iron a much larger per cent. of phosphorus yields the coarse-grain soft metal so desirable for fine castings. Even if it could be shown that an adequate supply of native low-phosphorus ores could not be had for the Bessemer *acid* process, no valid exception could be taken by the steel works against the imposition of an adequate specific duty upon iron ore, because they hold the entire ownership or control of the Thomas-Gilchrist or basic process, which successfully uses the most highly phosphoric irons in the manufacture of a steel at least as pure as the product of the acid method.

In the report on the basic process at Creusot by M. Delafond, the inspector of rails for the French Government, which appeared in a late number of the *Annales des Mines*, he says:

Summing up, we can say that the problem of the manufacture of steel from phosphoric pig is resolved, both for the Bessemer and open hearth processes, by the employment of a peculiar lining of magnesian lime. The removal of phosphorus is as satisfactory as possible, that of silicon is almost complete, and a great part of the sulphur is also removed. The series of analyses quoted show that the basic steel is purer than the acid steel, and is more uniform in composition. The mechanical tests of tensile strength show that the basic steel is appreciably more regular than the acid. The rails manufactured with the two kinds of steel give equally good results. The State has therefore decided to accept, indifferently, rail tenders for acid and basic steel. In the Siemens furnace the Thomas-Gilchrist process is more easily carried out than even in the converter, and the dephosphorization is more complete.

"As showing the superior quality of steel produced by the basic process, we are informed that there is a saving of 40 per cent. in the cost of drawing basic steel rods into wire, as compared with the cost of drawing acid steel rods of the same size; and for this reason one wire firm has recently sent an order to Germany for 5,000 tons of basic wire rods, Nos. 4 and 5. We regret the necessity of this, and hope that basic rods may soon be made in this country."—*Eng. and Mining Journal*.

If this basic process were in use the great majority of American ores would be immediately available for steel manufacture. At the risk of seeming undue length, I cannot help quoting here from a recent article by Messrs. Thomas and Gilchrist, that the dephosphorizer's ideal pig includes, with a minimum of sulphur and silicon, from 1 to 3 per cent. of phosphorus, which requirement is met by the use of such ores as abound in the great deposits of our Mount Hope, Irondale, Mount Pleasant, Byram, and Hibernia ranges.

The course taken by a prominent mining journal favoring the reduction or abolition of duty on ore would have excited more surprise but for the known connection of its editorial management with one of the heaviest iron firms east of the Alleghanies.

While on the one hand blunders as to the quality of Morris County ores and misstatement of the ore-producing rank of the firm are mildly qualified, the journal proceeds to indorse the theory of the importers, that an increase of duty on ore will only admit it *farther advanced* in the shape of Bessemer pig iron. To this the ore-producers of New Jersey reply that American Bessemer ores exist in abundance, to replace if needed *all* foreign ore, but that an adequate duty, while restricting the influx of the low grade ores, will by no means prohibit the use of foreign ores of the higher grade, and that the menace of blowing out the most costly and perfect American blast-furnaces because of a trifling increase in the cost of foreign ore is as idle as it is uncalled for. This mining journal, however, suddenly professes fright at the danger of exhaustion of American mines. "Of all the resources with which we are endowed by nature, minerals alone when once taken out cannot be replaced." If Spain and Canada can supply us with ores, why not avail of them, leaving our own intact for the great future? The puerility of this MINING (?) journal's reasoning may be best answered by

asking, Why not save up our bituminous coal? Nova Scotia would be happy to spare us some. Why not shut up our Richmond and Quincey granite quarries, our Tennessee and Vermont marbles, our Monmouth marl beds, and our Amboy fire-clays? Once taken from the earth these cannot be replaced.

The unmined ore of Northern New Jersey may be worth a trifle of 25 cents per ton in the ground, but if kept there what becomes of the towns and villages, the machinery and railroads, the foundries and mills, the schools and churches, the merchants, the bankers, the professional men, nay, what of the farmer (in 1816 it took a bushel of corn to buy a pound of nails; in 1882 one bushel of corn purchases fifteen pounds of nails)? Where is his market for grains, garden produce, and timber? Society, education, living itself, all rest upon the steady, continuous employment of the miner delving deep beneath the ground, compelling treasures from the hidden folds of the rocks. The State geologist says, in 1880:

Our mines and ore localities are more promising than ever before. About one-fourth of the mines listed in 1868 have ceased to be producing, but in their place we have twice as many new ones which are productive. That we have discovered all the more valuable beds is altogether improbable; the signs of exhaustion are not worthy of present consideration.

The *mining* of our ore, and its sale as fast as it can be marketed at remunerative rates, means the development of our resources. The time may come when iron shall be more cheaply obtained from other sources than from the magnetic and similar existing ores. Our red shales and our green sands contain iron enough to supply the world, when chemistry and metallurgy find the proper method of extraction.

The developed mines of New Jersey are not worked to-day to over one-half their capacity, the demand for ore being so limited and the competition for trade so close as to compel the acceptance of prices so low as hardly to keep the principal mines fully employed. Capitalists are naturally slow to invest money in the building of railroads to reach and develop the newer fields. In many States besides our own mineral territory exists, abundantly stocked with Bessemer ores, needing only a demand to become very centers of industry. Heavy imports of ore have not only retarded New Jersey's development, but have shut up mines of undoubted productiveness. American rail and water ways equipped with boats and cars built chiefly to carry American ores are not idle, but largely engaged in the transport of African and Spanish mine products from tide-water, not only to the Bessemer works, but to furnaces supplying the market with ordinary foundry and mill irons.

The writer has been most careful to present the case of the New Jersey ore-producers in a candid and conservative manner. The facts set forth are fully sustained by evidence. We have an established industry, built up already to considerable dimensions, employing (by United States census of 1880) nearly 5,000 men, with an investment of over \$6,000,000 in the 109 establishments reported, and a product valued at nearly \$3,000,000. The words "iron ore" do not occur in the existing tariff, and it is evident that had any considerable import of iron ore been expected, in place of being admitted at a duty of 20 per cent. ad valorem as a "crude mineral and bituminous substance not otherwise provided for," an ample specific duty would have been given iron ore. Bituminous coal, worth only 80 cents per ton at mines in Pennsylvania, pays a duty of 75 cents per ton, while pipe-clay and fire-clay, the latter no more valuable than iron ore, pays \$5 per ton as before shown, and even common quarried stone for building purposes pays \$1.50 per ton.

We claim that our miners' labor and our mining capital is just as much entitled in its *degree* to protection as other interests employing labor and capital. Our product, notwithstanding its crudity in a general sense, is practically *all labor*, save the trifling ground value or royalty. It is produced by American labor under the *American system*, and pays its full share of support to all branches of industry. We are consumers of coal, and of fire-clay and its products; we use iron in all its shapes and forms of manufacture, brick, lumber, and timber, engines, cars, and machinery. We demand as simple right and justice, protection to our American ores against that heavy tide of foreign competition which has already made serious inroads upon the stability of our older and stronger mining enterprises, and well-nigh stifled all attempts at new developments in our Eastern seaboard. The duty (taken at 50 cents) is not claimed by the importers to be excessive, but is objectionable to them because it is an important factor in limiting the amount of ore brought here from abroad. We found the import of nearly 800,000 tons in 1881* crushing weight upon our industry, and we do petition for an increased duty to *still further* limit the import.

The importers claim "that it is not because foreign ore is cheap that it is used, but because it is *low in phosphorus*." Experience has shown that foreign ore *is* brought here because it is "cheaper" than American. In a letter dated June 20, 1881, of Mr. D. J. Morrell, general manager of the Cambria Iron Company, addressed to the Saint Louis Age of Steel, he says:

The furnace-men who make Bessemer pig are themselves buying foreign ore, and our American mine-owners might complain about it, and probably do, but the manufacturers will say justly that they buy the foreign ores because they are "cheaper," and that unless they do they cannot live.

To complete the story: The market price of domestic Bessemer pig was then so low by reason of foreign competition (the steel companies importing English and Continental metals heavily) that it was impossible to make a profit on smelting even cheap foreign ores in our American furnaces.

It is a matter of common notoriety that our furnaces located under the very shadow of certain eastern steel works have reaped no advantage from such proximity, because foreign pig was steadily taken in preference to American.

As the honored and venerable Peter Cooper truly said to the Tariff Commission last week in New York:

Everything that could be bought "cheap" from a foreign country would always be bought, leaving our own materials unused and our labor unemployed.

Until the basic process, now locked up, is made available for use in this country, lowness in phosphorus is an element of value which renders certain foreign ores cheap on the Eastern seaboard, even at an apparently high price.

American Bessemer ores produced on the Eastern seaboard, having the special requirement of low-phosphorus, low-silicon, and high-metallic iron, are expensive chiefly because of their being produced under the American system at current prices of American labor and materials, and the foreign ores are intrinsically so cheap as to discourage any attempt at the development of the home mines.

That the present utterly inadequate duty is absolutely no incentive to search for new deposits of Bessemer ores in States upon or near the

* Calendar year 1881.

Eastern seaboard is apparent from the fact that the existing Bessemer mines are unable to market their present product for Bessemer use.

As to the importers' claim that "the importation of foreign ores is merely an adjunct of the steel business, and must be so considered," the steel companies know exactly how much foreign ore they use out of the entire import. The ore-producers have no access to figures showing the precise distribution of all foreign ore; but as an American ore *producer* and *merchant* the writer testifies to this fact—perfectly well known to the ore-importers—that foreign ore is very largely used at furnaces making ordinary mill and foundry iron, and further, that pure American ores perfectly adapted for use in the Bessemer acid process are to-day used for ordinary iron because supplanted by the influx of foreign ores of the same quality.

But the importers further claim that—

If you stop the importation of foreign ores altogether, it will not increase directly by one iota the price of native ore, and it will not cause the mining of one ton more ore in this country, simply because to-day every ton of good ore that can be mined here is being mined without any regard to foreign ore at all.

It has been shown, both by the New Jersey and New York ore representatives, that good American mines in some cases are actually stopped for lack of demand, and that the output of both of these seaboard States can readily be doubled. The precise figures given by Mr. Pumpelly are as follows (Census Bulletin No. 270, entitled "The Production of Iron Ore"):

1880, New Jersey: maximum yearly capacity of production, 1,487,829 tons; actual product, 754,872 tons.

New York: maximum capacity, 2,149,129 tons; actual product, 1,239,750 tons.

As to ocean transport being a protection against foreign ore, I would say first that iron ore producers demand a *duty* upon the foreign competing product sufficient to cover difference in cost of our production—including both labor and interest on capital—without *regard* to the extremely uncertain element of ocean freight. This sea transport may be a "freight," or it may be *mere cost of loading and handling*. This present season a good foreign ore, carried as ballast, was quoted to the writer on ship at Baltimore at a cost practically no higher than on the other side of the water.

When the average general business of the country is most prosperous, harvests overflowing, and labor most highly paid, west-bound vessels are glad to get ore as ballast, being chartered abroad to carry east at full freights grain and oil. *Failing adequate duties, then*, the quantity of foreign ore brought is only limited by the amount of dumping-ground available on this side. Beside which, Canadian ores have but a short lake cut to reach our Northern coast line, as Mr. Ely has shown you. The great Iron Mountain of Hatillo in St. Domingo and the Cuban mineral belt may be quickly developed into most serious competition, as these ores are within much shorter haul than the transatlantic deposits.

We claim that ocean freight is only a *natural* advantage, and for the average year but a small one, because of the *considerable* quantity of ore which does come in *as ballast only* at mere cost of loading and handling; and further, that, as Americans, we claim a right for an adequate duty without regard to this extremely uncertain element of ocean freight.

It has also been asserted by the importers that there are no known deposits of manganiferous iron ores in this country suitable for the manufacture of spiegeleisen, and that no harm can possibly be done to anybody by removing the duty.

On the contrary, known deposits of good manganiferous ores do exist

in the South and elsewhere. In this connection we quote as follows from a letter addressed to George H. Ely, of Cleveland, Ohio, by J. G. Butler, jr., general manager of the Brier Hill Iron and Coal Company, a well-known ironmaster, and a producer of spiegel:

I am satisfied there are plenty of good manganiferous ores in this country to make all the spiegel used by the Bessemer steel works, without any foreign admixture. It will require time and a "protective" stimulus to bring about this condition of affairs.

We started in 1881 to make spiegel, and but with very indifferent success; but this year have done very well so far as practical results are concerned. There is no margin, however, in competing with the foreign article.

There is no margin, however, in competing with the foreign article.

From a recent report to the Lake Superior Ship Canal Railway & Iron Company we copy the following:

An analysis of fifty fragments taken from points a few inches apart along the length of this trench shows: Metallic iron, 54.25; phosphorus, .075; metallic manganese, 8.40; silica, 0.69. This is known as the "South vein of Section fifteen."

About five hundred and twenty-five feet north-easterly from the tract above described is a series of pits, three of which show a large amount of crystallized manganese (pyrolusite) in iron ore more or less mixed with rock. One pit in particular, which was sunk twenty feet into the ledge, shows a very large quantity of manganese, and by sorting I should think an ore could be produced which would carry a very high percentage, and further exploration might be expected to reveal a much cleaner deposit of manganese.

It seems to me that the deposits of manganiferous ores of this district are worthy of especial attention. By selecting the ores found on Sections 15, 16, and 17, 47,-46, and Section 24, 47,-47, ores carrying almost any desired percentage of manganese could be had. A selected sample from Section 16, 47,-46, analyzed by the Cambria Iron and Steel Company was found to contain 41.04 of manganese.

Prof. J. L. Campbell, of Washington and Lee University, writes to the editor of *The Virginias* as follows, over date of September 11th, 1882:

The high grade of the manganese ores at present obtained from the Crimera mines, near Waynesboro, Virginia, is indicated by the following results of analyses made very recently in the laboratory of this institution. By way of comparison, it would be well to bear in mind that 70 per centum of the peroxide (binoxide) is the standard richness for these ores in the English markets. It will be seen that all these run considerably above the standard, and will have their market value rated accordingly.

No. 1. An average sample from a cargo for a Liverpool firm gave 81.25 per cent. of available peroxide of manganese.

No. 2. Average sample of a second large cargo gave 79.35 per cent. available peroxide.

Nos. 3 and 4. The former fine ore from the washings, the latter "crystallized" (abounding in drusy cavities), gave, respectively, 81.84 and 82.58 per cent. of the peroxide. These are rich ores.

As showing the cost and conditions of raising iron ore in the Bilbao district of Spain, the Iron Age quotes from a paper read before the British Iron and Steel Institute at its May meeting of 1882, saying the statement about labor is especially interesting, and we copy it:

The number of men employed in raising and loading is about 7,000. Of these the majority came from Castile, Aragon, and the outside provinces. The wages earned by good drillers average 14 reals (2 | 11) per day during the greater part of the year; increasing to 3 | 4 and 3 | 9 during the harvest season, when quarry labor is scarce. Ordinary laborers receive 2 | 1 to 2 | 3 a day, and women and boys, 1 | 3 to 1 | 8. The working hours vary greatly according to the season of the year. In the summer months they extend from dawn till dusk, with intervals of two hours at midday, and half an hour each in the morning and afternoon. These hours should, in the interest of masters and men, be shortened; but there is a strong prejudice in their favor. The sanitary condition of the mining district is unsatisfactory. The men are ill-fed, ill-clad, and overcrowded in filthy hovels; and they are, by the nature of things, prone to disease. Small-pox and typhoid, therefore, are never wholly absent from the mines. To combat this evil, an hospital and sick fund have been established by a general subscription of owners of mines and railways, to which the men also contribute to the extent of 2 per cent. of their wages. The hospital has now been for one year in successful operation, and a notable improvement has been made in the cure of disease.

It would be better, however, if the authorities were to look to its prevention, by the enforcement of efficient sanitary measures.

These wages are not one-third those earned in the ore districts of the United States. The statement of the condition of the workmen, their hours of labor, &c., shows at what cost the English ironmasters procure their cheap ore. And if it is at such a cost as this that the iron works of England are able to produce cheap pig iron, and, consequently, to produce cheap steel rails, the world had better pay higher prices for its iron and rails rather than have them produced under such conditions.

This paper being intended principally as the presentation of the New Jersey ore producers' case, has not attempted to show the resources of our other ore-producing territory, and which will be adequately set forth by abler pens. A word only as to Virginia and North Carolina.

Prof. A. S. McCreath, chemist of the geological survey of Pennsylvania, after months of examination of promising deposits of rich red hematites in Smyth, Giles, and Washington Counties, Virginia, and in Sullivan County, Tennessee, reports analyses of these ores from 58 to 65 per cent. metallic iron, with .023 to .050 per cent. phosphorus.

Also, in Carroll and Grayson Counties, Virginia, and in Ashe and Mitchell Counties, North Carolina, large bodies of magnetic iron ore have been developed, and analyses invariably show the ores to be suitable for Bessemer purposes. A very fine quality of brown hematite exists in great abundance along New River, Wythe County.

Analyses of iron ores from line of New River Railroad.

[Analyzed by Booth, Garrett & Blair, and by Prof. F. A. Genth, U. of P.]

General character.	Percentage of metallic iron.	Percentage of phosphorus.
A. Compact red hematite.....	64.34	.028
B. Compact red hematite.....	64.95	.050
C. Slightly magnetic.....	68.90	.017
D. Magnetic oxide, siliceous.....	55.69	.028
E. Brown hematite, compact.....	57.80	.106
F. Brown ore.....	54.06	.240
G. Johnson's.....	70.238	.050

Ores marked "E" and "F" are good foundry ores, but non-Bessemer.

Mark.	Metallic iron.	Phosphorus.	Sulphur.
New River ores:	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
No. 1.....	59.539	0.010	0.200
No. 2.....	51.550	0.050	0.266
No. 3.....	61.301	0.013	0.048
No. 4.....	50.937	0.018	0.148
No. 5.....	66.223	0.006	None.

Such analyses tell their own story.

I take the following extract of a description of the Cranberry mines, North Carolina, from a work of J. B. Killebrew, A. M., Ph. D., entitled "Iron and coal in Tennessee:"

Some openings show an ore of a yellowish cast, which is known locally as Rattlesnake ore. This is said to be more easily smelted than the black. This whole body of ore is magnetite, exhibiting strong polarity.

Various analyses have been made at different times to determine its steel-making qualities, and the result is highly satisfactory. The following analyses are taken from the report of the geological survey of North Carolina:

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
Magnetite oxide of iron.....	94.37	91.45	83.69	80.77	91.89
Oxide of manganese.....	0.20	0.06	0.24	1.42	0.32
Alumina.....	0.42	0.77	0.11	0.52	1.03
Lime.....	0.43	1.01	0.72	1.06
Magnesia.....	0.30	0.63	0.33	0.23
Water.....	0.44	1.53	8.21	1.15
Silica, pyroxene.....	4.10	5.74	11.48	9.08	4.02
Sulphur.....	0.25
Phosphoric acid.....	Trace.
	100	100	100	100	99.95
Metallie iron.....	68.34	66.22	61.98	58.40	66.53

An analysis of the same ore by Professor Burton shows :

Water.....	0.67
Silica.....	6.30
Metallie iron.....	63.72
Combined oxygen.....	24.29
Sulphur.....	0.06
Phosphorus.....	0.07

Professor Chandler, of Columbia College, New York City, who made the analysis of No. 5 in the table above, says it is the best iron ore he ever analyzed. An inspection of the table will at once show that it possesses all the qualities demanded by the manufacturer of Bessemer steel. The quality of iron made from this ore may be inferred from the fact that it has been sold in Baltimore at fifteen dollars above the market, for boiler plate. It is exceedingly tough, and, tested by the Ordnance Department at Washington, ranks fully equal to the best Swedish iron.

These Cranberry mines, Mitchell County, North Carolina, having been visited by the writer last summer, he can vouch for the existence of a breast of very handsome rich magnetic ore some seventy feet across, from which, with proper preparation, a very heavy output may reasonably be expected. I understand some 2,000 tons per month are now being taken out (while they are practically *getting ready* to mine). The ore is strictly Bessemer, as will be seen by the analyses given by Killebrew and Chandler, and *confirmed* by this more recent determination of Booth, Garrett & Blair, of Philadelphia :

Analysis of Cranberry iron ore.

[Made by Garrett, Booth & Blair.]

	Per cent.
Silica.....	7.280
Metallie iron.....	62.976
Sulphur.....	.373
Phosphorus.....	0.008
Titanium.....	None.

The Cranberry property covers an area of 3,700 acres, the ore vein extending for 3 miles on the property; the extent of ore range of which Cranberry is part is about 15 miles. That the Cranberry district is good for an immense output of choice Bessemer ore cannot be questioned. A very heavy outlay has been incurred to complete a 34-mile railway, 24 miles of which are built in the face of the most serious natural obstacles. In the mountainous portion of the railroad, within about 6 miles, there are five or six rock tunnels and as many bridges; the grade in some places 158 feet to the mile. The railroad is now complete to Johnson City, Tenn., connecting with the Norfolk and Western system.

Ore can be shipped direct to Harrisburg, Pa., via Norfolk and Western and Shenandoah Valley, at through mileage rates, and can also be delivered at tide at Norfolk, Va.

The Chapel Hill mines property in North Carolina, already producing considerable ore, can be driven up to a large output for easy delivery at tide-water as soon as the market will warrant.

The mineral statistics of the census of 1880 are not fully in print, and yet so wonderful is the wealth of American minerals that the developments of the past two years practically put the 1880 census *out of date*.

Alabama, a new ore-producing State, ranks, as before shown, seventh in the list of iron-ore producing States in 1880.

While *Colorado*, not in the 1880 list at all, produced about 20,000 tons of high-grade ore (mostly Bessemer) in 1881, and a single company (the Colo. C. & S.) is now producing over 60,000 tons per annum (say 200 tons per day), all Bessemer ore running 52 to 66 per cent. metallic iron, practically free from sulphur and with a *trace* only of phosphorus, and the capacity of their mines now opened may be put at about 200,000 tons per annum.

SPECIMEN ANALYSES FROM THE BREECE MINE, COLORADO.

By Booth & Garrett—

Iron, 66 Phosphorus, .008

By T. T. Morell, Cambria Iron Works—

Iron, 67 Phosphorus, .008

By U. S. Assay Office—

Metallic Iron, 69 Sulphur, 0.247 Silica, 0.60

We ask that the duty be made specific. The effect of fictitious valuations and fraudulent invoices may tend not only to reduce the protection to which iron ore would be entitled under whatever ad valorem rate be adopted, but also tend to drive honest importers out of the business and defraud the government of its due.

The following is from an Iron Age editorial:

These importations attracted the attention of the Treasury Department, and a special agent was detailed to investigate the importations, their character, &c., and to report his views as to duties. As a result of this investigation, the difficulty of the application of the ad valorem rate of duty on iron ore became apparent. The rates appraised on ore also became a subject of complaint on the part of the importers. A commission was appointed some time ago to hear appeals from the action of the appraisers at Baltimore advancing the values on thirty-nine cargoes of iron ore. The duties of the commission were very arduous. Three meetings were held and very voluminous testimony was taken. The questions, both of law and fact, were quite intricate. Among these were the actual market value at the date of exportation; whether the market prices were fixed or subject to fluctuations; whether any royalty was paid to local governments; the proper rate of commission; ocean freight and insurance as per actual contract, as well as the percentage of pure metallic iron and of manganese contained in the ore. The decision rendered by the board was as follows: The price of the English (blue billy) was fixed at 12s., or \$2.93 per ton, an advance of 9.08 per cent. on the invoice cost; Spanish (Porman or Carthagena) ores at 9½ pesetas, or \$2.70 per ton on manganiferous ores, an advance of 5.85 per cent. on the former and 7.44 per cent. on the latter; Italian or Elban ore at 14.25 paper liras, or \$2.50 per ton, an advance of 9.61 per cent.; and on Safira or Algerian ore, 10 | 6, or \$2.61 per ton, an advance of 7.49 per cent. The decision of the local appraisers was affirmed on the Algerian and Spanish, but not on the Italian ore, and in no case did any penal duty accrue.

This having been settled, the question now arises, What is the actual duty and what should it be? The duty is 20 per cent. The average value of the iron ore imported during the year ended June 30, 1880, was \$2.82 per ton. This would make the duty 56½ cents per ton. The report of the appraisers, as given above, would not change this much so that the average rate of duty would be 50 to 60 cents per ton. This is at the present rates of value, but the question arises, Can this appraised value

be reduced? The custom-house value of the ore introduced in this country in 1879 was \$2.52 per ton; the duty at this appraisement would be 50½ cents. The value of that imported in 1878 was only \$2.14 per ton; duty, 42½ cents. It is probable that the ore imported into this country in 1880 was of a better grade, on the average, than that imported in 1878, so that part of the difference between the \$2.82 per ton value of 1880 and the \$2.14 value of 1878 was due to better quality; but, even with this in view, it is evident that a considerable reduction in the appraised value of foreign ores could be made were it necessary—say 20 per cent.—and by so much would foreign producers be enabled to meet our ores in competition.

The iron-ore producers, lacking all the advantage of organization and the possibility of an elaborate presentation of statistical and historical points so admirably kept by James M. Swank for the manufactured iron and steel industries, nevertheless have no fear that these candid and earnest statements will give us from Congress such partial and most tardy relief as is yet possible.

In arguing for an *adequate* specific duty on iron ore we must express our conviction that such duty when fixed by Congress should remain undisturbed, as such fixity is an essential element to the successful conduct of any business, and especially demanded in one involving so much risk and the employment of so much capital as that of iron mining.

The phrase "*infant industries*," as applied to the major part of American work, is unquestionably absurd, and, in our opinion, is a fair target for the shots of free-traders. A comparatively *new* mine is just the one capable of taking the best care of itself. As a general rule, after a *mine* is reached by transportation lines and fairly opened, say, by ten to twenty years' shipping development, the cost of its output is thereafter on the *increase*. There may be nothing like *exhaustion*, and probably the amount of ore *in sight* far exceeds any earlier show; but deeper and more extensive workings bring gradually increasing cost.

Against the arguments of the importer—usually not even an American citizen, whose contributions to our country's support may be summed up in the payment of office rent and the hire of half a dozen clerks—we put the voice of the great army of American labor and the heavy sums of American capital embarked in our home iron-ore mining, and the rail and water ways directly dependent thereon, with all their vast equipment of vessels, cars, and motive power.

The importer's argument, though most specious, has an air of plausibility to the general reader who lacks exact knowledge of the subject, and who naturally accepts certain preliminary statements which *we utterly deny*. This argument rests solely upon the *truthfulness* of claims whose utter untruth we have made manifest. Sophistical reasoning based on false premises has never yet gained a case before an honest and intelligent judge and jury.

When our importing friends, however, take the sound protectionist view, that the development of the *Southern* iron business will be hastened by a higher duty upon pig iron, and will finally result in a permanent reduction in the price both of Bessemer pig iron and Bessemer ore, we cordially agree, and our assent to this proposition is only based on their acceptance of the fact that an ample supply of Bessemer ores is known to exist in the South, and which only needs the stimulus of an adequate duty for such mine development as will insure ample scope for a large shipping business to the Northern steel works as well as abundant resources for *Southern manufacture*.

Against Mr. Hewitt's statements at Saint Paul, and against Mr. Horace Brooke's exordium at Baltimore, we are willing to place the testimony of Mr. Blankenship, of Richmond, Va., and that of Mr. Ashburner, of Baltimore, both of the latter gentlemen having no personal interest

in iron mines, both large *purchasers* of iron ore, both being gentlemen of the highest standing in the iron trade, and representing the largest bar, plate, and nail industries of Virginia and Maryland.

Also the Eastern Bar Iron Association's resolution (at its meeting at Mahattan Beach last August) for not *less* than \$1 specific duty, indorsed by a vote of the Cresson convention of the entire iron and steel trades for not less than \$1 specific, afterwards modified (to obtain unanimity) to not less than 85 cents per ton.

We quote from address of Hon. D. J. Morrell to the convention :

"Advancing to a revision of the laws in this spirit, the work of the Tariff Commission is of supreme importance and of great difficulty. The Commission asks from us ample and candid information. As it strives to do equal justice to all interests, we should ourselves strive for no inequitable advantage.

"The success of every branch and department of our industry is necessary to the prosperity of the whole. * * * * *
The only way to obtain an *adequate supply*, at cheap and stable prices, of *iron ore*, of pig iron, of cotton-ties, of steel blooms, of steel wire rods, of tinplate, or of any other article of iron or steel, is by the imposition and maintenance of a fairly protective duty upon the competing product of foreign manufacture. The importation of any article of this nature may afford a temporary profit to some of us, but this is of trivial consequence when compared with the lasting injury occasioned by the destruction of any American industry.

"In the proposed revision of the tariff we should act in harmony to secure equal and adequate protection for the labor and capital employed in our *various allied industries*."

Unfortunately for Mr. Morrell's reputation for consistency, he not only opposed the one dollar minimum duty reported by the iron ore section, but deliberately argued for a fifty cent rate, being a reduction of over seven cents per ton on existing duty. (See page 8 of this pamphlet. "Invoice value, foreign ore for fiscal year 1882, \$2.86 $\frac{2}{10}$ per ton. Duty, 57 $\frac{2}{10}$ cents per ton.")

Finally, to show still further the spirit of enlightenment, good feeling, and honor actuating an important leader in the trade, we copy the following communication from Mr. O. W. Potter, president of the North Chicago R. M. Company, to the Age of Steel dated June 18, 1881, (a time of great depression in the pig-iron market):

So far as the policy of our company is concerned, we have never bought a ton of foreign ore, a ton of foreign metal, or a ton of steel blooms. Neither do I think we have any right to do this and still ask for a protective tariff on steel rails; and if all the Bessemer works in America did the same thing there would not be an over-production of pig metal; and I also believe we would be supplied at prices that we could afford to pay, and at the same time pay to the makers of pig metal, and to the miners of iron ore a fair margin of profit for their material.

Following is the report of the Iron-Ore Section presented to and adopted after thorough debate by the Cresson convention :

CRESSON, PA., September 12th, 1882.

At the meeting of the Iron-Ore Section of this date, at which the attendance was large and representation full of nearly every iron-ore district of the country, there was the greatest unanimity upon the following points:

1st. That a true American policy dictates such a rate of duty as will stimulate and develop American ore production, without *any reliance* upon *foreign importation*.

2d. That the existence of iron ore and its favorable distribution over the entire continent, and in the utmost variety of chemical adaptation to all the necessary uses of iron and steel manufacture, renders such reliance entirely unnecessary.

3d. That not only every dictate of their future interest and safety requires of the iron and steel manufacturing interest a cordial support of the iron-ore interest of the

country, but simple justice also to the vast amount of capital and labor now employed in this department of iron industry.

4th. That the existing rate of duty, viz, 20 per cent. ad valorem is entirely inadequate for the protection of the great interests represented. The conclusions of the section, unanimous, with only the exception of two votes which represented *importation of foreign ores*, are now presented to the convention in the terms of the following resolution:

Resolved, That this meeting recommend a specific duty of not less than one dollar per ton on all foreign iron ores.

GEORGE H. ELY.
SAM'L L. MATHER.
POWELL STACKHOUSE.
J. WESLEY PULLMAN.

In closing, we submit some responses received from ore producers and furnace owners to the below questions:

1st. The alleged *necessity* of such importations from *lack* of American ores for the Bessemer process.

We are fully satisfied that the United States have an abundance of ores adapted to the Bessemer process.

There is no necessity for importing ores from Europe or Africa. Our ores are as well adapted to Bessemer steel making as the great majority of foreign ores.

There is no actual necessity for importation of ore for the manufacture of Bessemer metal. All the ores needed could be *now* supplied from known mines, and proper protection would further develop these and add other sources of home supply. A *prohibitory* duty would incommode the Eastern works, but only for such time as would be necessary for them to develop and draw from other sources, many of which are only awaiting the demand.

There is no lack of American Bessemer ores. Many home mines are now unable to market their product for Bessemer use. An adequate duty will develop many other native mines on the Eastern seaboard.

2d. The claim that American ore producers have an enlarged market by reason of such importation of foreign ores, each ton of foreign ores so used causing the consumption of an additional ton of native ore, which would not otherwise be used.

Claim unwarranted. Every ton imported causes one ton less of American ore to be used.

We deny that the importation of foreign ore gives an enlarged market for native ore. Every ton of ore imported cuts us out of the sale of a ton of our ore.

Every ton of imported ore takes the place of a ton of American ore, for foundry and mill iron.

Not based on facts or reason.

3d. That the importation of foreign ores is an adjunct to the steel business only, and has no effect in competing with native ores for the manufacture of ordinary foundry and mill irons.

Foreign ores have been imported for the manufacture of foundry and mill metal.

We are also deprived of the sale of ore for mill iron as well as for Bessemer, as the nearest furnaces to our mines use thousands of tons of foreign ore to make mill and foundry iron.

They are used considerably for mixture in the production of foundry and mill irons; this use displaces American ore.

The foreign Bessemer ores, being rich and easily smelted, are coming into more general use every year; we use about one quarter in our mill iron mixture.

The writer's personal interests being about the same in pig iron as in iron ore, he is perhaps the better qualified to reason impartially on the subject of an iron-ore duty. He fully appreciates the fact that all statements submitted to your honorable Commission must bear the test of careful scrutiny; in full view of which he claims that the conclusions reached by the iron-ore producer's arguments are incontrovertible.

I believe that a duty of \$1.50 per ton will be far from prohibitory, but will *admit* a considerable quantity of foreign ore of the higher grades, and that no embarrassment can accrue to any steel works, East or West, from the imposition of such reasonably adequate duty.

Mr. GEORGE H. ELY said: I have just been informed on the highest authority, that of Mr. Butler (the secretary of the Briar Hill Coal Company), in regard to the matter of manganiferous ores; that there are abundant manganiferous ores in this country for the manufacture of spiegeleisen. That gentleman informs me that in Northern Alabama and in adjacent counties he personally knows of large deposits which are accessible. I have only a few words additional to say to you now.

This documentary evidence, gentlemen, in such ample detail, from sources entitling it to the highest consideration, and the inevitable deductions from it, we believe absolutely refute the claims and pretensions by which it is sought to justify in this conspicuous instance a great wrong to American industry. That attempted justification comes almost solely from the representatives of foreign labor and foreign capital. Ostensibly it is in the interest of the American iron and steel manufacturer, but that manufacturer accepts no such intervention—*non talis auxilibus*. He declares that our American system possesses ample and enduring support in the mineral resources underlying American soil. He declared at Cresson for such an absolute maintenance of the principle of protection, throughout the entire range of our industries, as will result in the most complete development and utilization of those resources.

The rate and form of duty on all kinds of iron ores finally recommended by the Cresson convention, as you have been informed, gentlemen, was a specific duty of not less than 85 cents per ton. The iron-ore section reported to the convention for a minimum duty of \$1 per ton, and this rate was confirmed by the convention by a very decisive vote. Subsequently, however, the 85-cent minimum rate was agreed to by a vote unanimous, and it now stands as its recommendation.

I want to observe here that that was a national convention, and in attendance were representatives, probably, of 49 out of 50 of the entire steel manufacturing and iron industries of the country. The gentlemen who appeared before you this morning, representing the Bethlehem Iron Works and the Pennsylvania Steel Company, did not participate in the Cresson convention, but their brethren in the iron and steel industries of the whole country did participate in that convention, and they voted with us for this recommendation of not less than 85 cents per ton, as follows:—From schedule of Cresson convention:

Upon iron ore of all kinds, including manganese ore, manganiferous iron ore, pyrites, and what is commercially known as "purple ore" or "blue billy," a specific duty of not less than 85 cents per ton.

This iron and steel manufacturer, gentlemen, now appeals to you, under all the sanctions of the open public declaration of a national convention called for the express purpose of deliberation upon the subject, for a protective duty upon the raw materials of his own industry. His reasons for this we have, in great variety of form, stated. If they justify his action, they certainly should be accepted as valid in every other quarter.

There is no cavil or miserable sophistry, gentlemen, from the Cresson manufacturer about iron being only "an earth, having no labor on it except that of digging it out," as you have been gravely informed. There is no ignoring by him of the vast combinations of labor and capital, in a great variety of forms, involved in the production and movement to coal of the material constituting the basis of his industry.

Gentlemen, we will not occupy your time with further discussion. We thank you sincerely for your attention and patient consideration of the subject, and with a few additional suggestions and obvious conclu-

sions from the facts and arguments we have presented, we will leave the case in your hands. We know that justice only and the highest expediency will govern your conclusions respecting it.

Under a probable increase of the grain movement from the Northwest through Canadian waters to Europe, as a consequence of the enlargement of the Welland Canal, there are likely to be entries of Spanish and Mediterranean ores at our upper lake ports, in direct competition there with our own as now upon the Atlantic coast. It is also certain that through the rapid development of ore territory in the Canadas we are, in the immediate future, to be subjected to additional and very injurious competition from Canadian ores along our entire northern coast line of 1,000 miles.

Our iron and steel industries, which underlie our entire industrial and financial system, have reached their present position only through protection. That policy cannot be abandoned, and its principles must be applied to the ores of iron equally with its finished products.

Our deposits of ore are practically unlimited in extent. Whatever, therefore, may be true as to the necessity for the importation of the raw material of any other American industry, there can be no such necessity for the support of our iron and steel industries. Their raw material underlies our entire continent, and every ton of foreign ore imported displaces a ton of American ore.

Hitherto, under the effects of home competition, and in the absence, until recently, of a serious competition by foreign ores, the supply of ore—and in such variety of chemical constitution as to meet the wants of every department—has kept pace with the marvelous advance of our iron and steel manufactures. Home competition can certainly be relied upon to meet all the necessities of the future, provided our American labor and American capital are encouraged by the exclusion of foreign ores.

Under protection home competition never fails to increase the supply and inevitably to bring the article to the consumer at the lowest possible cost.

This process is now going on. It is forcibly illustrated by the fact that ore production in the United States is now increasing in a considerably greater ratio than the production of pig iron.

A comparison of statistics covering nearly one-half the total ore production of the country, and which does not include the production in some districts where the advance is known to be correspondingly large, shows, that while the production of pig iron increased during the ten years from 1872 to 1881 63 per cent., the production of ore increased 98 per cent. What guarantee, beyond this single conclusive fact, can be required respecting the ore supply of the future, and through competition, at the lowest possible cost?

American iron ore can *never be exported*. It is *entitled to the home market*. Give it scope and freedom here without detriment from foreign sources, and it will safely and securely work out the problem of cheap iron for us and for the world.

MARCEL VAN DE VELDE.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 13, 1882.*

Mr. MARCEL VAN DE VELDE, of Philadelphia, secretary of the American-Belgian Chamber of Commerce, addressed the Commission as follows:

There has been organized in Philadelphia lately an exhibition of works of art by the Belgian Government, and also by the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts. As a result of that exhibition, our president and myself have been placed in correspondence with a great many artists and dealers, and people interested in the fine arts generally. The president of our society, Mr. Sève, who has been most active in the organization of this exhibition, has made a report to the American-Belgian Chamber of Commerce, and I ask permission to read you a few extracts from his report, in view of asking the complete removal of import duties on works of art.

REPORT OF HON. EDWARD SÈVE.

The object of the American-Belgian Chamber of Commerce, an association founded the 15th of November, 1867, is the study of all practical questions concerning the development of commercial relations between the United States and Belgium. To this effect it communicates with all the institutions interested in promoting these questions. Without interfering with individual efforts, it gives its moral support to every effort tending to promote these interests. It organizes state and local committees. The American-Belgian Chamber of Commerce studies, discusses, but does not vote. Its by-laws forbid all political or religious discussions. No institution in the United States takes a deeper interest in the work of your honorable Commission.

The exhibition of Belgian works of art, organized by the Belgian Government and the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, revealed many facts which are of the highest interest to the United States, and falling directly within the scope of your honorable Commission.

The exhibition of works of art of the Belgian school will undoubtedly be followed by exhibitions of all the European schools when the question of the tariff on works of art is decided.

The formula for protection is this: The first duty of every nation is to insure the prosperity of its industries by ridding them of such foreign competition as would interfere with their development.

The formula for free trade is as follows: The first condition of a nation's prosperity is to be able to freely exchange for its own products those that are necessary to its industries and consumption.

I will not enter into the discussion of these two principles in the name of the American-Belgian Chamber of Commerce. For twenty-five years my opinion has been made up on the subject, and I defended it in many international congresses, in Brussels, Ghent, Amsterdam, Berne, Paris; in several meetings in North and South America, in Japan, China, and the Indies, and again recently in the international congress of commerce and industry, held in Paris and Brussels, where I had the honor of being called to the chair. I only want to examine to-day the high interest of art, and upon this ground I am confident I shall not meet any objection. Freedom is the only stimulant art wants in order to progress, and also the only way to create an American school in the United States and a commercial market for its works of art.

In the address I made to the pupils of the Spring Garden Institute, the day I had the pleasure of receiving the officers, teachers, and pupils of this fine institution at the Belgian exhibition, I said:

In reality you are artists. Your mission is to study the good, the true, the beautiful, and your excellent and distinguished professors teach you the ways of finishing industrial works in the highest and most artistic style; the more artistic taste you display in finishing your products, the more your people will enjoy them. The beautiful alone is the origin and the end of all art.

To make a success of our exhibition we have not spared any effort, but I have not withheld from my government the fact that the result obtained did not come up to my expectations. Among the valuable works exhibited there were evidently a great number that ought to have been eagerly purchased, and most of those that were sold did not obtain the price at which they were valued.

There are several reasons for this condition of things: 1. In this essentially positive country nothing has yet been done to awaken the taste for the fine arts, and consequently the artistic feeling does not exist; 2. The misconceived spirit of exclusivism entertained by some artists; 3. The dealers in paintings, who are the sole leaders of the artistic taste, do not like or cannot give a place in their collection to every school; 4. And lastly, the custom duties.

The custom-house is the greatest obstacle to the introduction of works of art. Not only do the duties increase the cost price of paintings and statues, but their shipping is thereby surrounded with difficulties; they encourage fraud and plagiarism; they disgust and discourage the dealers, who would often furnish the public and the American artists opportunities to admire the masterpieces of the different schools, if they did not fear the whims of the custom-house officer, his ignorance, his often irreparable carelessness in opening boxes.

During 1882 there have been more than thirty exhibitions in the United States, and, outside of the Belgian exhibition, hardly a twentieth part of the works exhibited belonged to foreign schools, although emulation is much more necessary in art than in industry.

It is entirely to the interest of art dealers to increase the number of amateurs as much as it is to the interest of artists to spread the taste for art works. A work of art is not so much an article of commerce as it is an object of teaching. In a country that spends annually \$84,000,000 for public instruction hardly \$100,000 are spent for teaching painting and sculpture. Serious efforts are now being made for promoting the teaching of drawing.

Private collections are incomplete, and the collections of the museums are very poor. It is a fact that there are hardly any serious amateurs in America.

Compared with all the other nations of the world, the fifty million people of the American Union (50,980,000), who have accumulated wealth to the amount of fifty milliards of dollars (\$49,750,000,000), are certainly the poorest in the world as far as artistic wealth is concerned. It is time that this condition, unworthy of a prosperous nation, should be changed.

The time for the erection of museums in all the principal cities has arrived. Art needs the enlightened protection of the government and of the people of the United States. The day that works of art will enter the United States free of duty, and that artistic property will be guaranteed, you will have acquired a new and great element of wealth. The object of the teaching of drawing and of the fine arts is to elevate and perfect the mind and the character, and to appropriate the means of acquiring easily a certain technical skill in all handiwork; it develops the

knowledge of all that is legal, legitimate, rational in all things, concerning their forms, their dimensions, their light, their colors. The fine arts complete the teachings of science. Art as much as science is the cause of progress of humanity. The fine arts temper the customs and habits and inspire the noblest passions.

It is in the interests of mankind, and especially for the benefit of the population of the forty-five States and Territories of the American Union, that we demand the complete suppression of custom duties on works of art, as partly provided for in article 2505 of the statutes.

EDWARD SÈVE.

I will only add a few remarks to this forcible argument:

Who wants to keep the duties on works of art? It is neither the general public nor the art dealers. The answer will be, a half-dozen narrow-minded artists. We doubt if any of them would like to put his name on record as opposing the free entrance of works of art.

What is the amount collected annually on painting, statuary, &c., in the United States? In 1881 it was only \$2,221,881 (30th of June, 1881).

Most of the works of art imported hang in the parlors of a few of our millionaires, without any profit to the general public.

Our wealthy artists complete their studies abroad, but the poor ones cannot develop their genius.

We pride ourselves, with good cause, on being the first nation in the world for inventions and mechanical skill, and in many departments of industry, but is it not time also that this grand and glorious republic should occupy a place in the artistic world? Abolish the duties on works of art and a giant stride will be made.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. The principal point you make is in favor of the encouragement of art in this country, and the development of schools for the artistic education of the people, as I understand?—Answer. Yes, sir, that is the main point. I have conferred with many teachers in the public schools here, and with the principals, and they all seem to regret the fact that they have no provision for teaching drawing. There is a great revolution in public sentiment now in regard to these matters, and most of the teachers regard drawing as an absolutely essential study.

Q. And to that end you ask that no duty shall be imposed on works of art?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. I will just read you the law as it has been since 1861, in part, though it has been amended from time to time, "Regalia and gems, and statutes and specimens of sculpture, where specially imported in good faith for the use of any society incorporated or established for philosophical, literary, or religious purposes, or for the encouragement of the fine arts," &c., free of duty; also, "statuary, casts of marble, bronze, alabaster, or plaster of Paris, paintings, drawings, and etchings specially imported in good faith for the use of any society or institution incorporated or established for philosophical, educational, scientific, or literary purposes, or encouragement of the fine arts, and not intended for sale," free of duty. Does not that dispose of the main point that you make here?—A. No, sir; I think not. If you had known what our experience was here during our exhibition of works of art, and how the law operated, you would not think it did.

Q. Do you propose to admit free of duty copies as well as original productions of artists?—A. Yes, sir. Copies are guaranteed in European countries under the operation of a law upon that subject, and that is just what this report suggests should be done in this country.

WILLIAM DEAN.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 13, 1882.*

The following argument of Mr. WILLIAM DEAN, woolen manufacturer, of Newark, Del., was read and ordered to be printed:

GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: As I see many other American citizens have done, I take this opportunity of conveying to you the views of one humble citizen, a manufacturer of woolens. I went to work in a woolen mill at the age of six years, and now, in my sixty-third year, am still in the harness, and have, during the summer, built one good-sized mill and greatly enlarged another. Although a manufacturer, I am also, to a small extent, interested in agriculture, owning between 200 and 300 acres of land of a very fair quality, on which to-day I have over 300 sheep, some 20-odd Jersey cattle, and about 18 horses. I have some fruit, and about 15 acres under truck farming. As American farmers, with cheap virgin soils and one of the best climates of the world, we can raise wheat, rye, corn, cotton, tobacco, pork, beef, mutton, &c., and send them for sale into all the markets of the world, and they are sold in competition with the cheapest products of similar character that the world can bring forth, and we do a paying business at it, at least are making a living. If not, it takes a long time to prove to the contrary, for I have neighbors who have been engaged in grain and cattle raising for the last twenty years, and, judging by their surroundings, they are better off to-day than at any time of my acquaintance with them. It may be said, after you know my views, that they are formed from a selfish motive. Being a manufacturer, I do want cheap wool, but not so much to make money for myself as to give to American farmers cheap clothing. I have enough of this world's goods to satisfy any reasonable man, and to see me through the balance of my time, and to leave each one of my six children all that any man who has a regard for his children's welfare should leave them. But I am an American; I am proud of my nativity and of my country; it has within it all the natural resources to make it able to compete with the world in anything that our citizens choose to engage in, provided they act the part of sensible people, or, in other words, not to undertake to do impossibilities. To illustrate: We cannot grow oranges on the borders of Canada, in the open air, to compete with Florida; neither should any person undertake to manufacture iron a hundred miles from the beds of ore, coal, and limestone, and expect to be able to compete with the person who locates in the midst of the important factors in the production of iron. These two illustrations are sufficient to show my views on that matter. Although a Pennsylvanian by birth, and a Delawarean by adoption, I have acquired, owing to my living for over two decades alongside of two shrewd Yankees, the ability to ask questions, and shall presume, if allowed to do so, to ask you gentlemen (whom the American people have selected out of over fifty millions of persons as the persons having the greatest knowledge and being the best fitted to prepare something sensible to be presented for the action of our representatives in Congress) a few questions that are not entirely clear to my mind. The first is, why, when our American farmers, who I have tried to show you are able to produce the articles aforementioned and

sell them in foreign markets in competition with the cheapest similar products of the world—why is it that these same farmers, with this same cheap virgin soil, the same rains, the same sunshine, and all the other natural advantages that the Creator of the universe has endowed us with; that this same American farmer cannot raise wool unless he is protected at the rate of about 100 per cent.? Yet I know that we do raise sheep, and are sending them to England by the thousands, for I saw them being landed last season at Birkenhead, in England.

No better evidence can be brought that we can raise sheep without protection than that we are exporting and selling them to a profit after the shipping expenses, insurances, and commissions are added. It therefore is plain to me we can raise sheep to sell in competition with the world. Why cannot we raise the wool also? Why the wool grown should be protected at the rate of 100 per cent. is one of the things I cannot understand, and therefore ask your honorable body to please explain the matter, not only for myself, but for the benefit of thousands of other equally ignorant persons. The wool that is on the sheep's backs that are sent to England has to be sold there at one-half price what it would bring here; it has been raised and sold to a profit without any protection; if not, the exportation of sheep with the wool on their backs from this country would soon cease; so it is plain to me that the American wool grower can raise wool and send it to England on the sheep's back and sell it to a profit at one-half the price he is willing to sell it to the American manufacturer. When I left America in June, 1881, our common and quarter washed fleece wool was selling here for from 33 to 35 cents per pound; when I arrived in England and traveled through the agricultural districts of that country I found the last clip; and many farmers had two years' clip on hand; and they told me they would gladly take 9*d.* per pound for it, yet could not get purchasers at that price; if there was any difference between their wools and ours, it was that the English were the cleaner washed of the two. Now, as a woolen manufacturer, I want to know how we possibly can compete in other markets than our own, with this great difference in the cost of wools against us? During my manufacturing life I have seen the American market for woolen goods so overstocked with goods that it was impossible to sell a single yard at the cost of production, and I have seen lots of goods sold for two-thirds of their cost of production. I have run a mill for over a year, and made a loss on all the goods manufactured (and this all took place under the operations of the present existing tariff, it having made us pay two prices for our wool); this government of ours, which is said to allow more freedom, and to be the best government that the sun ever shone upon, by its protective system, has put it out of the power of any manufacturer attempting to find any other than our own overstocked market. It will take about one and a quarter pounds of washed fleece wool to make a yard of three-fourth wide, 12-ounce cassimeres, and which will sell for about 85 cents, the commission for the sale of which will be about 10 cents; the wool, 42½ cents; labor, 14 cents; rent interest, dye, soap, oil, &c., 14 cents per yard; by this you will see that at prices of wool in June, 1881, the English manufacturer had an advantage over the American manufacturer on the wool alone in the yard of goods of 21½ cents per yard, or more than one and a half times the cost of the entire labor required to produce the yard of goods. Why should all the consumers of woolen goods in America be obliged to pay such an extravagant price for their woolen goods, unless it be for the benefit of the few persons called American wool growers, who are not a tithe of the per-

sons engaged in agriculture, let alone the millions of others not interested in the production of wool? I do not believe a reduction, or taking off entirely the duty on wool, would have any more tendency to lower the price of wool here than what it would to put up the price in foreign countries, for the American woolen manufacturers would go to the foreign market until such time as the prices were equalized.

The cry of protection to the American workingman is like many other American Barnums—all humbug. Did you ever hear of one American manufacturer paying an American workingman \$2 per day when he could employ a foreigner of equal skill and industry at \$1.50? If you have, they are like white crows—few and far between. Do not all manufacturers in our country have to go to the same market to dispose of their products? That being the case, do they not all try to produce their fabrics as cheaply as possible? Is not cheap labor one of the means used to produce cheap goods? Did you ever hear tell of any manufacturer giving more for his labor than was asked? Whenever manufacturing is a losing business, let me ask any candid man in the business if the labor is not one of the first things that comes up in his mind in which to economize the cost of production? Then what becomes of all that spread-eagle patriotism that we hear so much about (in political campaigns), protection to the American workingman from pauper wages of Europe? Will any of the howlers for protection to American labor give the American laborer his relative share of protection put on the products of his labor over and above what he could hire a newly imported foreign laborer, who has equal qualifications and industry? I would not; for my manufacturing is followed to make money and not to keep open a benevolent institution for the benefit of American laborers. Human nature is very similar the world over. In England, in the summer of 1881, a couple of months of my time was spent in Yorkshire, near Leeds, the great center of the woolen interest of England, and I met many gentlemen engaged in the same line of business as myself. I had many conversations on business matters, labor, cost of production, cost of raw material, economy of management, the difference in the management of the different departments in the two countries, &c., by all of which I have profited. In one mill in Leeds the owner was as well posted as any with whom I came in contact. He was engaged in the same business as myself, making a very similar kind of goods, and in talking about the cost of spinning yarn for making of cassimeres, he said he could spin it at three farthings per pound. Thinking of our money, it at once struck me that three-quarters of a cent per pound was a very small price; on second consideration, of a cent and a half per pound; even that looked to be a low figure. On my reaching home, and in conversation with my partner in business, and telling him how cheap they could spin yarn in England, he said we were doing that well at the Kiaminsi Woolen Company's spinning mill. So I got from the clerk the amount of yarn spun for three months in succession of 1881; also the amount of money paid for work during the same time. I divided the former into the latter and found the cost to be but \$1.60 per 100 pounds, but a small fraction over what it cost in one of the best mills in Yorkshire; and we had one hand more employed in our mill—a watchman—at \$10 per week, a hand that they did not employ in England at the mill where I got my figures. Although in America we pay a man more money for his week's work, we get it done equally cheap, for we work longer hours, and we work very much faster; produce more pounds in a given time. While in Yorkshire I saw lots of stock put down to the picker to make cassimeres of that cost from a

penny to threepence per pound. Were we, as manufacturers, to try to purchase that same kind of stock in England, it would cost us, in addition to freight, insurance, and commission, 12 cents per pound duty, or more than four times what it costs the English manufacturer. This is all owing to this wonderful tariff which was enacted to benefit the American consumers of woolen clothing, by making it cost them from two to three times what it can be bought for in England; and yet, under this same tariff, our American farmers are obliged to go to England to find a cheap market in competition with the cheapest agricultural products of the world for their surplus products; yet we forbid them buying their cheap supply for their families, knowing that if they spend any money there it will cost them twice, and in some cases more, in duties before they can get it through the custom-house. I am one who thinks that the American farmer has fought his way and earned a reputation that is world-wide for his products in all the markets of the world, and don't believe the American manufacturer is a bit less qualified to work his way through the world than what the farmer is; only put him, like the farmer, to depend upon his own efforts. I brought home with me from England a sample of cotton-warp shoddy cloth, weighing 18 ounces per yard, and the manufacturer told me that he got net $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ per yard. Now the duty on that yard of goods, at 40 cents per pound, specific, would be 45 cents; 50 per cent. ad valorem, also to be added to it, would make $52\frac{1}{2}$ cents per yard of duty on an article selling in England at about 16 cents per yard.

Is not this a beautiful picture to hold up to the gaze of the American farmer, whom we force to go to England to find a market for his surplus product, and there to make a price for his entire crops? You never, in fact, hear tell of any American factory employé or employer of factory hands paying any more for farm products than what they can be bought for in our Atlantic cities. In theory, the advocates of a tariff will tell you that it makes a better market for the American farmers' products. But it is only in theory; the farmer never realizes it. Is it justice to the American farmer to thus impose upon him? And this in a republican government claiming to be the most free, the most just, and the best government that the sun ever shone upon; a government of the people, for the people, and one of equal rights; where one man is supposed to be the equal of any other man! Is it right that one person should receive special privileges from our government that all do not enjoy? If special privileges in the shape of protection is granted, why not grant it to all? And if all have it, where comes the protection? Now it may be said that our farmers would not buy cloth like the sample I brought from England, as it was shoddy; but my knowledge of what they do wear tells me that at twice the price at which it is sold in England they would gladly buy it. To say that our manufacturers will give the farmers as cheap clothing as they could buy in England, is not a word of truth in it, and I defy any man to prove it. If the American manufacturer were to undertake to go into the English market to buy rags at a penny a pound it will cost 12 cents per pound specific duty; the freight on that kind of stock also adds a considerable; the latter we cannot help, but the former we might, if our representatives in Congress were disposed to deal justly and fairly with all persons. Such articles as above spoken of are manufactured into clothing here every day, but at many times the cost to the English manufacturer; our duty of 12 cents drives all such low-priced stock away from our shores. There are rags sold in England as low as a penny a pound, or two cents; 12 cents per pound specific duty on that is, if my education in arithmetic was a

correct one, about 600 per cent. The freight, handling, commissions, and other charges on such stock would, no doubt, add largely to the percentage of first cost of such low-priced stock. Yet that very low-priced stock, when manipulated as it is done in England, and woven into a cotton warp, makes a very creditable piece of goods, fully equal to much of what is worn by American workingmen, at a cost of from two to three times what the workingman in England can buy them, for every article, from house-rent, fuel, clothing, and all things needful for the comfort of man, can be bought there for from one-third to one-half less than what they cost in America, except food; and as much of that goes from this country, it is not to be expected that it can be sold at less than it is sold for in this country, yet the difference in the cost between here and there is very trifling.

That we are fast approaching the condition of the pauper labor in Europe cannot be denied, for Mr. Arrott, of Philadelphia, who was selected to collect statistics for the census report of 1880—I will give his language as I copied it from the “editorial columns of the Philadelphia Public Ledger,” so that I cannot be accused of making them. He says: “That while the wages earned in 1870 was, per hand employed, \$446 for the year, in 1880 it was but \$313.75, or a decrease of about 29 per cent.” If there was a decrease of 29 per cent. in one decade, how many decades shall we have to witness before we are down to the pauper rates of Europe? And yet this was all done under the existing tariff of 1867.

Now, if this tariff is the great boon for the American workingman that some of its advocates would have us to believe it to be, why this great reduction of wages in a single decade? Why did it allow this reduction to take place if it was enacted, as is said, for the benefit of the American workingman, and to keep him from being reduced to the condition of the pauper laborer as of Europe. Mr. Arrott says: “The reputed value of the products over and above the amount of materials used and wages paid is about \$58,450,000, or about 22 per cent. of the product and about 31 per cent. on the capital invested.” Why is it that the cotton manufacturers of America can export their fabrics to foreign countries and sell in competition with the cheapest similar productions of the world? This question I will try to solve, or at least give my own idea of it. In the first place, the American cotton manufacturer gets his raw material as low in cost as any cotton manufacturer of the world. We have as good machinery as the world can produce. The American people are as ingenious as industrious; as attentive to business as those of any nation. They can practice as much economy in their business as any other persons. Then why not be able to compete with the whole world as they are now doing? It to me is plain that American farmers, cotton manufacturers, watch-makers, sewing-machine makers, and clock-makers can compete with any competitors throughout the entire world. Then why not the American woolen manufacturer? It will not do to tell me that we who are engaged in the latter business are not the equals of our brothers engaged in the other businesses named. No, gentlemen of the Commission, what’s the matter is that we woolen manufacturers are handicapped with an outrageous and unjust duty of about 100 per cent. on the raw wool, and from 200 to 600 per cent. on rags, waste, and shoddy; and while that state of affairs exists it never will be any different from what we have experienced since the tariff of 1867 was enacted. Nearly my all is invested in woolen mills, machinery, and stock, and I say unhesitatingly that I believe we would be better off with the markets of the world to buy our stock in as cheaply and in

competition with the European manufacturer without any duty on manufactured goods.

Now I don't want to be understood that I would, were it in my power, take it all off at once; but from my knowledge of the cost of raising wool along with other products of the farmer he can as easily and as profitably raise wool as any other of his products without protection. Sudden changes are disastrous at any and on all occasions. It is not necessary to go from one extreme to another at once; no thinking person would wish it done. By saying that we are the equals of any nation I do not want to disparage any; to do so would be to do what I know would be untrue; for while in England I found as bright, intelligent, and as honorable gentlemen as any I ever met during my life. While in Leeds, England, I was told by an iron manufacturer that steel rails were then being sold at £5 per ton, and by American statistics I learned that in the same year, 1881, there were manufactured in this country 1,100,000 tons, and were sold at an average of \$62 per ton, or an additional cost to the railroads using the American rails of about \$40,700,000. Who paid for this? Why, the American farmer paid for it in the shape of excessively high freights to get his large surplus products to the Atlantic seaboard to find a market for exportation. How long, oh, how long will the brawny-armed, sun-burned, plodding, hard-worked farmer continue to be humbugged into keeping a set of persons engaged in some protected enterprise, and who has not sufficient ability to make a living at the business without getting his hands into the pockets of the farmer? All such persons are nothing more than paupers (not the equals of paupers of Europe of whom we hear so much about), and all paupers should, if economically dealt with, be put in the almshouse. The great wiseacres who fill our halls of Congress tell the farmers that they must continue thus to be taxed and robbed for the purpose of protecting our infant industries so that they may thrive and flourish. Whenever will these infant industries arrive at an age when they will be able to go alone? Would it be much cheaper for the heavily-taxed farmer (for all tariffs are simply taxes levied on the protected articles to be paid by the consumer) to provide larger almshouses and keep all such paupers as the steel, iron, woolen, silk, and other manufacturers in, and to keep them like fighting-cocks, and they will do it at a quarter of the amount of what they, the manufacturers, are at the present time robbing the American farmer of under the pretext that it is for the benefit of the American workingman, and that the infant industries of the country shall not perish, but that they shall be continued as hot-bed plants until such time as the farmer shall get his eyes opened to the impositions which he is now groaning under, at the same time wondering what's the matter.

The matter can easily be found out if the farmer will only investigate. Let him take Mr. Arrott's figures as given of the returns of the manufacturing and mechanical industries of the city of Philadelphia for the year 1880. He plainly tells you that, after paying labor and all other expenses, those industries, in that year, cleared a net profit of 31 per cent. on the entire capital invested. He also tells the workingman that each and every person employed, little and big, old and young, during that same year, got \$132.25, each person, less than they received for the same services in 1870, ten years before. That is one of the ways that the workingman is protected. This tariff of 1867 has been in operation for fifteen years, and under it I have seen prosperous times, and yet I have also experienced, under this same tariff, the very worst times that I have experienced in a manufacturing life-time of half a century. If

the tariff is the great panacea for the cure of all the ills that a country is subject to (its advocates would have us believe so), why did it not help us from 1873 to 1878? They were the worst continuous five years of my life-time. What has been the cause of the strikes among the workmen in the steel and iron manufactures during the last spring and summer? One would almost be led to think \$28 per ton on steel rails ought to be enough to be able to pay the workingman a satisfactory compensation. My own individual opinion is that the men who own the great iron monopolies are human, and are disposed to be a little like myself, "kinder selfish, only more so, I think, than what I am." What do they care for the workingman, only to get his labor as cheaply as they can; and just before an exciting election to take him by the hand and tell him how deeply they are interested in his welfare; but they only want his vote to help them make 31 per cent. per annum on their invested capital, and at the same time reduce the workingman's wages, as Mr. Arrott has plainly shown you they have done. At the commencement I said on my farm there were kept 300 sheep; it may be asked why they are kept. My answer is, they pay me better than anything else that I can put there, and yet my land is valued at \$100 per acre. But, says the advocate of the wool tariff, take off the duty and sell your wool at the price the English farmer does; then will it pay? I say yes; it would only reduce the income from my flock about \$1.50 per annum, and even at that it is the most profitable regular farming that I have been interested in. *It may be said that I have found fault with the existing tariff, and yet have offered nothing better. That is not my business; my part is to state facts and things as they present themselves to me. Nothing more.* It is the duty of the gentlemen of the Tariff Commission to sum up all the evidence and to present something in a tangible form, so that our Representatives in Congress will only have to vote yea and nay upon it. When you have done that, the people of America will shout "Hosanna," and say, "Well done, good and faithful servants of the people."

E. S. WHEELER.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 13, 1882.*

Mr. E. S. WHEELER, president of the New Haven, Conn., Wire Company addressed the Commission as follows:

Before presenting my brief argument in the matter of the duty on steel wire rods, I am requested by the thirteen manufacturing firms which I represent, to congratulate the Commission on the approaching close of its public hearings. We have watched your proceedings with a great deal of interest; and while it is possible that we may not agree with all the recommendations that you will make in your report, we are unanimous in one thing, and that is in commending your patience and industry in listening to all the various industries of the country as they have appeared before you, and we feel assured that the country itself will confirm that opinion.

I respectfully call the attention of this Commission to the desirability of a uniform and specific rate of duty on steel wire rods valued at less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, of three-fourths of a cent per pound, or $\$16\frac{80}{100}$ per ton of 2,240 pounds. The present rate of duty is 30 per cent. ad valorem, which produces at the present foreign valuation a duty of $\$11.22$ per gross ton. The manufacturers whom I represent, and others who have not authorized me specifically to appear in their behalf, believe that the best interests of the country would not be injured by the retention of the present duty of 30 per cent., and with no advance. We admit that this duty is illogical and inconsistent. We are well aware of the fact that it came about through an interpretation of the law by an officer of the Treasury Department, and that it is not in harmony with the general tariff. We believe that many interests in the last eighteen years, while this tariff has been in force, have become vested, and that such interests have the right to insist that no change shall be made which will, in any sense, interfere with their business; and that especially no change shall be made which shall greatly advance the duty upon articles which are so near the condition of raw materials. Any advance beyond three-fourths of a cent per pound will involve us in heavy losses, without any compensating advantage to the country at large. We recognize the fact that the manufacturers of Bessemer steel are entitled to reasonable protection; but we respectfully submit that the very large agricultural interests, and a great variety of smaller but no less important interests which have been greatly benefited by the low price of wire, resulting from the cheap steel rods, ask, and certainly ask with reason, that the tariff shall not be so much disturbed as to greatly advance the price of wire. The only opposition to the retention of the present tariff of 30 per cent., so far as we know, comes from the manufacturers of steel rails, many of whom are also manufacturers of steel wire. It is claimed that the 30 per cent. does not give sufficient protection. In answer to this we ask the attention of the Commission to the fact that the present cost of importing these rods is about $\$55$ per gross ton, that it has never been below $\$52$, and seldom under $\$58$. At a meeting of the manufacturers of iron and steel wire of the United States, held at New York, August 30, Mr. P. E. Chapin, the general superintendent of the wire and wire rod department of the Cambria Iron Company, stated that his company could sell steel rods at $\$50$ per ton and make

\$5 profit. The tariff of three-fourths of a cent, which we propose, will make the cost at present foreign valuation about \$59. We respectfully submit, therefore, that the plea of insufficient protection is inadmissible.

Furthermore, our loss by an advance would be reduced if the tariff were so arranged that we could get our material in some condition in which it may be found previous to being rolled abroad into wire rods; as, for instance, in billets, but this is prohibited by a tariff of $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound, or an ad valorem rate of about 150 per cent.

If the tariff on billets, a form closely approaching absolute raw material, could be so reduced as to make their importation possible, a large number of men would be employed in their manufacture into various forms of steel other than wire. We confidently expect a large reduction in this item, and cannot believe that this Commission will consent to recommend a continuance of any prohibitory duties upon any article of iron or steel.

In the matter of protection on our own product, this specific duty is equal to 45 per cent. The digest recently prepared by the Metropolitan Industrial League shows the average duty collected last year on steel wire as follows:

Description.	Specific.	Additional ad valorem.	Ad valorem average of customs receipts last year.
Steel wire less than one-fourth of an inch in diameter and not less than No. 10, wire gauge, per pound.....	\$0 02 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$0 20	\$0 47
less or finer than No. 10, wire gauge, per pound.....	03	20	27
Steel commercially known as crinoline, corset, and hat steel wire, per pound.....	09	10	28

It will thus be seen that we pay on our raw material a higher tariff than is levied on the finished product we produce from it, a condition of things quite contrary to the ideal tariff.

In consenting, therefore, to an advance in the duty on our raw material from \$11.22 per ton to \$16.80, or an advance of 50 per cent., we believe we are yielding to our friends who make steel rails all and more than we should be asked; and we are confident that the Commission, in seeking the greatest good of the greatest number, consistent with proper protection to American labor, will grant our request.

The companies whose views I represent in the foregoing statements are the following:

American Screw Company, Providence, R. I.
 J. Wool Griswold, Troy, N. Y.
 Horace Lamb & Co., Northampton, Mass.
 Spencer Wire Company, Spencer, Mass.
 George W. Prentiss & Co., Holyoke, Mass.
 Kennebec Wire Works, Hallowell, Me.
 Cary & Moen, New York City.
 Thomas Hamilton & Co., Philadelphia.
 John A. Roebling's Sons Co., Trenton, N. J.
 Troy Wire Works, Troy, N. Y.
 New Haven Wire Company, New Haven, Conn.
 Stewart & Co., South Easton, Penn.
 Falls Wire Manufacturing Company.

In regard to specific and ad valorem duties, I desire to say that, in case the tariff of the future should be an ad valorem one, if there

should be some system adopted by which the method of appraisal could be changed, it would avoid much perplexity which at present exists in regard to the matter. I have recently been called upon to sit as a merchant appraiser, and I found that it was almost impossible for the custom-house examiner to ascertain as required the correct market value of the goods at the time of shipment, for the custom of the trade is to buy goods a long time ahead of their actual shipment, so that the market value of the goods at the time of shipment, as required by the law to be ascertained, is a very difficult matter to determine.

I am also requested by the American Screw Company, of Providence, to ask that the duty on iron wire rods shall be placed at the same rate as the duty on steel wire rods—that is, three-fourths of a cent per pound. They ask this because they desire the tariff on all their materials reduced. They are quite willing to have the tariff on manufactured goods reduced to correspond so that they can build up a foreign export trade.

I have but one more request to make: The New Haven Rolling Mill Company, manufacturers of merchant iron, respectfully call the attention of the Commission to the injustice done the New England manufacturers of bar iron in the present tariff. They are dependent largely upon foreign wrought scrap for their raw material. From its bulk and expensiveness to handle, the ocean freight forms a heavy charge in its cost. The protection given on this material, at present foreign cost, is, with ocean freight added, fully 85 per cent., while manufactured iron produced abroad from the same material is protected by about 60 per cent. We believe that this refuse material, not including old rails, should properly come in free of duty, and a deduction in the rate of duty on manufactured iron made to correspond.

Wrought scrap, excluding old rails, is chiefly used in New England for the manufacture of wire. It does not, as is often stated, drive out of use a similar quantity of pig iron, because there is no pig iron east of the Alleghanies known to us which has ductility sufficient to make wire without great cost.

We can conceive of no interest that will be injured by free wrought scrap (excluding old rails), and its greater importation would not only employ many men in its manufacture into various forms, but the lower price at which the manufactured article could be sold would be a great advantage to many iron consumers. Furthermore, it is a step in the direction of tariff reform on the best economic grounds.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. You consume wire rods and are also importers of wire rods?—Answer. We import a very small quantity above our consumption.

Q. The point I desire to get at is this: You say in your paper that the 30 per cent. duty levied is under a Treasury decision. Is not that a great trouble to you and other importers where you depend entirely on this foreign material and give large orders in advance for it, the fear that this 30 per cent. decision may be upset by another Treasury decision, and the rods you have ordered be appraised or valued at 2½ cents a pound?—A. That uncertainty has been a matter of great annoyance, but having existed for eighteen years we have the benefit of the precedent, and we feel perfectly safe at present to import these rods subject to the future action of Congress, for we do not consider it possible that any Treasury official would change that decision after it has been so long in force.

Q. You said that you thought eventually the proper way would be to have ad valorem duties. Now, you have had a great deal of experience in that line, and I will ask you whether you do not think it fairer and surer, and whether you could not import with more safety and intelligence, with the duty specific, rather than ad valorem?—A. I did not intend to say that my opinion was that the ad valorem was the ideal tariff. No doubt an ad valorem tariff would be better, certainly as well, if there could be some system by which the method of appraisal could be changed. A system which would appraise goods at the port of arrival, regardless of their cost at the port of shipment, would without doubt be an equitable arrangement.

Q. Do you not find a difference in the appraisements at the different ports?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Does not that bear directly against the ad valorem system?—A. Yes, sir; the tariff I should recommend would most certainly be specific from beginning to end.

Q. Have you had experience at other ports outside of New York in regard to this matter?—A. I have.

Q. Have you ever had importations either of rods or other material that have been differently valued at different ports at about the same period of time?—A. Yes, sir; that has occurred. At the port of New York the appraiser decided that rods not over a certain length should be admitted as scrap at \$6 a ton, while at Philadelphia the duty on the same article was \$50.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. You said in answer to Commissioner Oliver that you thought the proper system of valuation would be to have the valuation made at the port of arrival. Do you favor, then, what might be termed home valuation?—A. I do not mean by that home valuation. I favor a system which I understand was at one time in force in England, where the importer of the goods put his own valuation on them at whatever amount he pleased, and it was the privilege of the government to take those goods at his valuation, plus an advance of a reasonable per cent., and the valuations of the goods entered were published every day. The result would be that a competing importer seeing a certain entry made, for instance, of steel wire rods, at a valuation that he thought less than the proper rate, could go and take the goods himself by paying a certain percentage on them. As a consequence, the importer would be very careful not to undervalue his goods, because if he did his competitor would be able to get them.

Q. Do you think such a system would be practicable in this country?—A. I see no difficulty about it.

Q. Do you think it would apply to the interior ports, such as Chicago and Saint Louis, where there might be only one importer, and he might value his goods at whatever figure he choose, knowing that it would be impracticable for the government to take them. Under those circumstances do you think the importer would be disposed to give a fair valuation to his goods?—A. I think if I was an importer on the Atlantic coast I should have some one in Chicago, for instance, to represent me, who would watch these things and take advantage of them if possible. The competition in the trade which watches the competitor closely and carefully would remedy that evil.

Q. Then you think such a plan as you suggest would be a practicable one?—A. It seems to me it would be entirely practicable.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. Your system would be, then, to entirely do away with any appraisal whatever?—A. Yes, sir; as at present conducted.

Q. Any appraisal, I mean, by any one other than the importer?—A. The government would have to decide under such a system whether it would be their privilege to take the goods or not, and the importer would have to get them by some scheme of public competition. It would not answer for the importer to step up to the examiner and say, "I will take these goods." The government would very soon find whether a buyer could be found, or it could sell them at auction, for instance. If such a plan were adopted the force of the appraiser's department could be very largely decreased.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. I understood you to say that such a system prevailed in England at one time. How long is it since this disposition in this way of such goods as were undervalued has been abandoned?—A. I cannot answer that question; I do not remember when it was given up.

Q. Is it done at present?—A. No, sir; I think not.

Q. Then would it not be a proper inference to draw, that as England has done away with such a system after having tried it, that they found it impracticable and unwise?—A. No, sir; because I think they had reduced the tariff to such small rates that undervaluation was not resorted to, and there was no necessity of having such tests.

D. LANDRETH ET AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 13, 1882.*

MR. D. LANDRETH, of the firm of D. Landreth & Son, of Philadelphia, addressed the Commission as follows:

I am here with some of my associates in business to speak to you, not as seed merchants, but in the interest of agriculture in its highest branch—the production of seeds, specifically known as seed farming, an interest which no doubt we all appreciate as being the foremost one in that industry.

We ask for such a revision of the tariff as is practicable which will afford us protection on such seeds for farming and garden use as can be successfully raised in this country; and, on the other hand, free entry for such seeds as cannot be raised here. We are now protected by a schedule of duties under the act of 1874, which is the outgrowth of two acts, one passed in 1861, and the other in 1862—before that, entries being free. In 1861 the duties were placed at 20 per cent. ad valorem. In the succeeding year, they were placed at 30 per cent. Since then, under the act of 1874, they have been reduced to 20 per cent.

Under the revivifying influence of this protection, business has largely increased. Up to 1861 the number of seed farms in this country of large extent could almost be counted upon your fingers. But, through the influence of protection and the development of the country, the production of seeds has increased immensely, until now it is estimated there are in this country over 2,500 seed farms, and possibly many more. I have in my hands here the names of 250 of the larger ones, who, in these papers, bear out all I have to say to you. We estimate that these 2,500 seed farms are cultivating between 60,000 and 100,000 acres of land, and employing possibly 10,000 agricultural laborers, producing annually a crop valued at about \$3,000,000. This, we claim, is due greatly to the protection we have had.

Now, I will beg you to look abroad. The production of seeds in Europe has, we think, reached its maximum, as far as European sales will allow. But they have a capacity over there to double, treble, and quadruple their production, and we perceive they are looking abroad for a market, and they have concluded they have found it here. They are making extraordinary efforts to place their seeds here in competition with ours, and the point we make is that unless we have an additional amount of protection the American trade will be strangled out of existence, and this very valuable adjunct to our prosperity will be diminished. We claim that European seeds are not as good as ours. We claim that, ripened under a moist temperature, they do not present the fertility that our seeds do ripened under an almost tropical sun. We claim that the American seed-farmers are the most intelligent and advanced of their class, while the majority of seed-growers in Europe are the peasantry, never away from their own firesides, and not aware of the advances that are or should be made in producing the different qualities of seeds. These foreign seeds which are imported here are never sold as imported seeds, but are always sold as American, and in that way come in direct competition with the American product. If

they were sold upon their own merits, the case would be somewhat different.

Now, to meet this foreign competition we ask that the present duty of 20 per cent. (which at one time was 30 per cent.) shall be advanced to 50 per cent. on all seeds which can be successfully grown in this country, and that the present duty of 20 per cent. which now exists on seeds which cannot be grown here may be removed. Why should there be any duty on those? Take, for instance, Holland bulbs, a vast interest in Holland. These bulbs are not, and I do not think ever will be, raised in this country, and yet they bear a duty of 30 per cent. We ask you to take it off such articles as that, and on flower seeds, for instance, and such articles as you will find enumerated in the paper I present to you. We ask that there shall be a duty of 50 per cent. on all garden and field seeds, excepting grass and grain seeds; that there shall be a duty of 20 per cent., which is the present duty, on all grass and grain seeds intended for sowing, and on all other seeds not otherwise provided for, and that free entry be given canary seed and all medicinal seeds, all flower and herb seeds, all tree seeds, plants, and bulbs. There are here to-day with me two or three of our largest seed-growers, and if you have time to hear them a moment we should be very glad.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. You mention in the paper to which you have referred, "on all garden and field seeds, excepting grass and grain seeds."—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. What would you include under the head of "field seeds," except grains and grasses; I mean outside of garden seeds?—A. I would include corn, for instance.

Q. Isn't that a grain?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You speak of field seeds, outside of grains and grasses, as distinguished from garden seeds.—A. Garden seeds, under the common acceptance of the term, are seeds grown within limited areas. Agricultural seeds are seeds grown out in the field. They sometimes are synonymous terms. For instance, a turnip is both a garden seed and an agricultural seed. A mangel-wurzel is both a garden and an agricultural seed; when grown for the table it is a garden seed, and when grown for feeding cattle it is an agricultural seed.

Q. It would all come in as turnip seed, would it not?—A. Yes, sir; but we did that to cover the matter entirely; otherwise, if the tariff classification simply describes the article as a garden seed bearing a duty, it might be imported as an agricultural seed free of duty.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. If you should happen to get two rates on each, how do you find out which rate it should pay?—A. That is what we wish to guard against. My present specification calls for 50 per cent. on all seeds except grasses and grains. Many foreign grasses which come into this country, which pay 20 per cent., we cannot grow; it is impossible for us to grow them for seed. You can grow them for forage and hay, but not for seed.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. You have filed a list, I understand, of these seeds?—A. I have filed a digest or classification which covers the whole matter.

The following is the paper referred to:

We memorialize you, not as merchants, but representing agriculture

in the specialty of seed farming in the United States, and ask your Commission to recommend to Congress such a revision of the tariff schedule upon agricultural and horticultural seeds as will be more practical than the present list. We ask protection where it is protection. We ask that the duties on seeds which can be successfully grown in the United States be advanced up to 50 per cent., and, on the other hand, we advise the removal of all existing duties on seeds and bulbs not successfully grown here.

The present duties, under the act of June 22, 1874, are the outgrowth of those laid by acts of March 2, 1861, and July 14, 1862; and since, at various times, amended. Up to the year 1861 all seeds entered free.

Up to that date there were not a half dozen seed farmers in the Union of any prominence. Market gardeners saved seed in small quantity, but only partly supplied demands in their own localities.

Under the vivifying influence of the revenue act of July 14, 1862, by which garden and farm seeds were placed at 30 per cent. ad valorem, the production of such seeds was greatly stimulated, and seed farming soon became widely pursued throughout the States; the intelligent farmers in appropriate sections entering into the business, erecting seed barns and drying houses, purchasing special machinery and implements, and bringing to bear upon every family of plants cultivated a more perfect development of species.

Seed farmers, probably exceeding 2,500, have since established themselves all over the country; they cultivate, it is estimated, in the finer table vegetables, quite 60,000 acres of land. Not estimating seed stocks of cereals and potatoes, they employ quite 10,000 farm hands, and their annual productions are valued at \$3,000,000. This is the result of slight protection and the development of the country.

We now, however, perceive that an extraordinary effort is about to be made by a number of the larger English, French, and German seed merchants to gain complete possession of the American seed trade, consequent upon which would be the destruction of American seed farming—an important and developing industry.

The development of seed growing and selling in Europe has reached its maximum, unless American production can be strangled out. Such accomplished, a new field would be opened for all surplus seeds of European firms.

From the best sources European seeds are always open to doubt, both as respects vitality and purity; and if American consumers had to rely entirely upon such they would be sorely disappointed, especially as with the better American seeds removed from the market. This country would be the recipient of all the trash from the seed stores of the old world.

If foreign seeds were sold on their own merits the American grower might exist under the present rate of duty; but it is impossible to detect, by inspection, any difference in the quality between foreign and American stocks, which fact permits the sale of the foreign as American, which is done at a less price than the latter can be produced.

To meet this organized effort to gain possession of the American trade in seeds, and destroy home production, we ask an increase of duty to 50 per cent. on such varieties as are produced successfully; and such others as might lead to fraud.

We take the liberty to submit a classification, which is in accord with the ideas as herein expressed, and trust it will receive your very favorable consideration.

CLASSIFICATION.

Fifty per cent. on all garden and field seeds, excepting grass and grain seeds.

Twenty per cent. on all grass and grain seeds intended for sowing, and on all other seeds not otherwise provided for.

Free entry for canary seed, all medicinal seeds, all flower seeds, herb seeds, tree seeds, plants, and bulbs.

Mr. C. O. MORSE, of the firm of Kellogg & Morse, seed growers, Santa Clara, California, said :

The seed-growing business in California is a new one. It does not date further back than eight years ; but this year we supplied the Eastern market with not less than sixty tons, I suppose, of garden seeds, and I think it is conceded that the most of this demand was owing to the superior quality of our seeds. We feel in this matter of the tariff that we ought to be protected until we get a little older, and are better able to compete. We have a tariff against us in the production of seed for the Eastern market, which is perhaps greater in some instances than the European tariff—I mean in the matter of freight. We have to bring our products here before they are marketable, and the freight makes a considerable item. We are experimenting, and trying to produce a better sort or strain of vegetables than has been brought before the country for years past. The vegetables of to-day are much better than the vegetables of fifty years ago, and the possibility of further improvement within the next ten years is very great.

I will not weary you by a long address on this subject. But we ask, as California seed growers, that the present tariff may be increased, and that we may be protected while we are experimenting and working this subject up. I regret that the Pacific Coast did not have a representative upon this Commission, as there are many matters in which we are peculiarly interested which need attention. I think the whole Pacific Coast will join me in this regret that we are not represented by some one member from that portion of the country—a country large enough to found an empire.

Commissioner OLIVER. As you have alluded to the fact of there being no representative on the Commission from the Pacific Coast, I will ask you if you have heard of the communication which was addressed by the president of the Commission to the governor of California, and to the governors of all the Pacific States, stating the regret of the Commission at their inability, on account of the shortness of the time allotted to them in which to do their work, to visit the Pacific Slope, and naming the different items which occurred to them on which they desired speedy information from the people of that section of the country ?

The WITNESS. No, sir ; I have not seen it, but I presume the governor of our State will give it due attention, as he seems to be on the alert to look after the interests of California and the Pacific Coast generally.

Mr. S. M. WELLS, of Weathersfield, Conn., said :

I represent the small seed farms of New England, near Weathersfield, where we have at least thirty seed growing farms. I have been engaged in this business for many years. We have buildings and everything arranged for the carrying on of the business properly, but we

feel somewhat depressed by the influx of foreign seeds, which are sold in competition with us, owing to the present low rate of duty. I called lately on a dealer in Hartford to sell him some onion seed, and he told me he could buy the imported article at a very much lower price. So that I cannot dispose of any to him. The same is true in regard to other seeds. The imported article has driven us out of the market, and we cannot compete with it. As a result the business of seed growing is falling off, and in some cases farmers are obliged to buy imported seeds because the American seeds are not grown, for the reason that they cannot be grown at a profit. We have to compete, for instance, with turnip seed, which they bring in at 10 cents a pound, while we cannot grow it at less than 20 cents a pound and make anything out of it. This imported seed is of an inferior quality, and we are compelled to sell our seed in direct competition with it. If we cannot get 20 cents a pound for our turnip seed we shall stop growing it, as has been done now with potato seed. We think it absolutely essential to our business that the duties on these seeds shall be increased; otherwise we shall have to give up the business of growing garden seeds. All through New England we are growing seeds, but the agents of importing houses are constantly coming between us and the dealers offering them seed at less than we can afford to grow it for.

FIRE-BRICK MANUFACTURERS.

PHILADELPHIA, *October 14, 1882.*

The following petition from the FIRE-BRICK MANUFACTURERS of Philadelphia was ordered to be printed:

Herewith we submit a petition from the fire-brick manufacturers of Philadelphia, who feel that their business is gradually falling off on account of the increasing importation of fire brick, and as efforts are now being made on a very large scale to still increase importations, we would most earnestly, on behalf of said manufacturers, ask that this matter have your careful consideration.

CYRUS BORGNER,
WM. JNO. O'BRIEN,
Committee.

The manufacturers of fire-brick of Philadelphia would call the attention of the Commission to the tariff on fire brick, which is 20 per cent. ad valorem; this enables importers to undersell us from \$12 to \$15 per 1,000, which we cannot compete with, owing to the price of labor in this country. We would therefore most respectfully recommend that the duty be made no less than \$3.50 per ton.

SAMUEL A. EDGERLEY.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. SAMUEL A. EDGERLEY, of New York, representing the McComb Arrow Tie Company, addressed the Commission as follows :

I have no lengthy, detailed statement to present to the Commission, and have had no time to prepare myself in that way. I expected at some time during the continuance of the Commission to bring the question of the duty on cotton-ties properly before you. But having heard that statements will not be received after to-day, I have asked the privilege of coming before you to say a few words.

As manufacturers of cotton-ties, we protest against the suggestion which has been made to advance the duty to $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound. We prefer a reduction in the tariff, but we are willing to accept the present rate of 35 per cent. ad valorem, or an equivalent specific rate. We prefer the latter, because it does away with attempts at fraud upon the revenues, does away with invoice values, and is more certain in results.

I have no doubt the Commission has heard a good deal said upon this subject of undervaluations. The importer is continually harrassed by the increase of his invoice values, based upon the consular quotations which the consul derives from some source or other, and forwards to this country as being the market value of goods on the date of shipment. The present rate of duty on cotton-ties is only nominally 35 per cent. ad valorem. The business is always spoken of as being protected to that extent, but in fact, through the efforts of the iron men, the Treasury Department has decided against cotton-ties being imported with the buckles loose, and we have to rivet the buckles to the bands, which causes nearly 10 per cent. additional expense, an expense which the American manufacturer does not have to incur, as he can make his with the buckle loose. Besides, through the efforts of certain parties (aided by consuls in the interest of iron men), in raising invoice values we are frequently mulcted from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 per cent. additional, so that the duty would stand more fairly as 35 per centum ad valorem, with 10 per cent. and 5 per cent. added, making in all about 50 per cent., the usual rate we have to pay on cotton-ties.

The proposed advance of the duty to $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound contemplates a duty of not less than 86 per cent., and from that to 100 per cent. Either of these figures is unquestionably excessive, and is not needed by the American makers of these ties to equalize the difference in the cost of labor. I might say here that there is an additional protection in the matter of freights. Freights this year range from 12s. 6d. to 40s. a ton, the highest rate named being by steam, and the lowest by sail. That adds enormously to the protection. A moderate specific tariff, or the present one properly administered, offers the advantages of a revenue to the government, protection to the American workman, protection to the consumer, and protection for our trade. Under such a tariff we have a choice of markets, and this choice prevents the compulsory payment by us of high prices in this country, or successful combination by American mill men.

This is illustrated by our experience of a year or so ago. When the iron boom occurred in the fall of 1879, we had mainly purchased our cotton-ties in this country, but we still had some supplies from the

English manufacturers. We were selling them from \$1.75 to \$2.25 per bundle, net. But while selling them at these prices, the lowest figure at which we could purchase from the American mill maker in the fall of that year was \$2.75 a bundle, and if we had not a choice of markets we should have been compelled to pay the highest price that he could charge as against English cost and excessive duty and freights. It would have thrown the business entirely into their hands. We could not get a lower bid than \$2.75 that fall from manufacturers who had made ties for us that same season at \$1.30 a bundle; showing the enormous advance in iron between \$1.30 in July, and \$2.75 in December. Yet that shows that if the tariff was advanced to 1½ cents a pound, thereby practically prohibiting the importation of foreign ties, and throwing us entirely upon the American manufacturer we should be compelled to pay his price, which would be whatever he chose to fix it. While the ties were made for us that year at \$1.30, they had been offered under certain conditions at \$1.15 a bundle, fairly competing with the English manufacturer, that is, on the basis of 35 per centum. ad valorem, *flat*. Fifty-six pounds is the standard weight of a bundle. When trade is poor on this side of the water and prices low, our manufacturers can make ties successfully with a duty of 35 per centum. ad valorem, and when trade is good and prices high, they can afford to let the consumer have the benefit of cheapness on one article of iron. The advance to 1½ cents a pound would shut out all foreign competition, and deprive the United States of all revenue from this source, and enable the mill men to combine to destroy our business. We come before you as Americans. We have a trade which has been built up by long years of labor. This trade does not belong to the iron men; they have no special claims on this article. It stands by itself on the list of productions. The cotton-tie trade is the result of the invention and the persistent, indomitable energy of J. J. McComb. We have succeeded in overcoming the objections of the underwriters to the use of the cotton-tie as a substitute for rope. When it was first proposed to use iron as a binding for cotton, the main objection was, that in loading, and on ship board, the bales would strike against each other, and the iron tie would inevitably strike fire and burn the cotton. But we all know that iron ties have lived down that objection, and to-day they have superseded every other article for the baling of cotton. This article was not known to the trade when the tariff of 1864 was framed. It is not hoop-iron. It is an article of special manufacture, made for a special purpose, and there is no other article in the list like it. It is our manufacture; and, being Americans, we are entitled to fair play in this matter. The business is an open one, and never can be monopolized, because importations can be brought from the other side, and competition here prevents high prices or large profits.

I might state, as an instance of the reduction of profit by competition, that the business this season will not afford the importer 5 per cent. clear profit, no matter what may be thought in regard to the enormous profits of the cotton-tie business. It is now an open business, from the fact that the principal patent on cotton-ties has expired, and any one can now make the very best style of cotton-tie he desires and sell it. A large number of manufacturers have gone into the business, and the importation has been enormous, and largely in excess of the demand, but still at a profit of not over 5 per cent.

The proposed increase of duty to 1½ cents a pound is an attempt to monopolize this trade for the profit and aggrandizement of the mill owners, and means a tax of one-half or three-quarters of a million dol-

lars for their benefit. There are only ten mills in the United States which make cotton-ties, and they employ only a small proportion of the total number of workers in iron. I call special attention to that fact. It has been stated that the necessity for increasing the tariff is, that it will benefit an enormous number of people employed in the manufacture of these ties in this country. That is a fallacy. The entire consumption of the United States is never more than 30,000 tons, which would only occupy 300 men, making one ton a day, 100 days. One mill alone, in Pittsburgh, could make half the amount in a season without an effort; and the consumption is positively limited by the amount of the cotton crop. The cotton crop is a fixed quantity, and that limits the demand for cotton-ties. You cannot sell another bundle of cotton-ties, except on speculation, beyond the demands of the crop. The necessary result will be that if the rate of 1½ cents is adopted the American mill owners will have entire control of the business, and they will have to enter into arrangements among themselves to prevent an overplus from being manufactured. There are not over 250 people in the business who earn their livelihood by it. That shows that the change is demanded for the benefit of a limited number, and those mainly in Pittsburgh and Youngstown.

There is one point which is constantly urged against the cotton-tie, and that is that it is simply hoop iron, and its importation as a tie is simply an evasion of the tariff law, which calls for a duty of 1½ cents a pound. Cotton-ties are not hoop iron; they require in their composition a different quality of iron. Tensile strength is necessary, and arrangements must be made to secure that. That difficulty was originally met in the making of cotton-ties. Mr. McComb, one of the first manufacturers, found great difficulty in England, and subsequently in this country, in securing the peculiar quality of iron necessary for the manufacture of a cotton-tie. Any iron manufacturer will readily understand the difference required in a cotton-tie, which must have tensile strength, and hoop iron, which is held by a rivet driven down on a barrel. They are entirely different. Notwithstanding, it is always claimed that they are the same. But they are not convertible, and the charge of fraud in this direction cannot be sustained, and never has been whenever such allegations have been made before any court or jury. On the contrary, during the trial of a case in Philadelphia it was shown that there was no chance for an economical substitution of cotton-ties for barrel hoops. The charge is a fictitious one on the part of the United States mill men to affect the Treasury decisions in regard to the tariff. They are now charging fraud on us also in regard to the invoice value, and the result is they tax us higher, and put us in for 20 per cent. penalty whenever they can. Some means should be adopted to save our self-respect, and at the same time secure correct consular quotations. I suppose importers in other lines of goods are affected in this way the same as we are, although I am not familiar with their methods. But I know we are continually harrassed by consular quotations being sent from Liverpool to this city, quoting prices from 5 to 10 or 15 shillings higher than our invoice values, which we raise from 2s. 6d. to 5s. above the fair market cost, to insure their coming through without objection. Yet in addition to that our invoices, on representations of quotations furnished by the consuls on the other side, are raised 10s. or 15s. higher. That compels us to have a dispute on this side in regard to nearly every invoice. To-day we have three invoices in New Orleans which have been advanced from 5s. to 7s. 6d. each. We went there with the proof in our hands, and showed the collector that on the day of shipment we

had tenders from most responsible manufacturers of ties at a lower price. For instance, we had some ties valued at £7 15s. which we invoiced at £8, yet they raised us here to £8 5s., and compelled us to pay the additional duty.

By Commissioner McMAHON :

Question. Did you state the fact correctly just now, or did I misunderstand you, that you purchased these ties at a certain figure and invoiced them at another figure?—Answer. No, sir; we manufacture ties on the other side, and to establish a market value (which is very difficult to do) we ask tenders from half a dozen prominent mill men, and we use those offers in proof to sustain our valuations when we come before the reappraisal board, which we are compelled constantly to ask for.

There are special arguments for the reduction of the tariff on cotton-ties. I call your especial attention to the fact that it is a peculiar article, and stands by itself on the list. It is an article of prime necessity to the planter. It is the string that ties up the cotton to enable the planter to get it to the seaboard and to market. It is to him practically a raw material. The present duty levies a direct tax of nearly half a million dollars upon that producing class—the cotton planters. It is a fallacy to say that he does not pay those taxes, but sells his cotton-ties at the price he gets for his cotton. You need not fear that the cotton planter does not pay for his bagging and ties. When his cotton is bought it is bought with full knowledge of the weight of the bagging and ties, and the price is made to correspond. Besides, on the other side of the water, in the English market, there is an actual 4 per cent. deduction for tare, which is loss. So that in the price of his cotton he loses for his bagging and ties. He does not sell them at the cotton price, although he may think he does.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. I never saw a planter who thought he sold his cotton-ties for the price of the cotton.

The WITNESS. But that is the argument which has been advanced for the last ten years.

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. I know it is.

The WITNESS. The cotton-tie is practically the highest article of its kind on the tariff list in one respect—I mean in regard to the life of the article. Iron rails have a life of ten years on the average, and pay a specific duty *only once* of \$28 a ton. With cotton-ties, however, it is different. Cotton-ties have a life of only six months and have to be renewed every year, and the equivalent of the 35 per cent. duty they pay in 10 years would be 350 per cent.

To cite a presumable case: A vessel could come to New Orleans with cotton-ties on board for her cargo of cotton. She could deliver these ties to the compress to be put on this identical cotton, and carry it away. The ties on that cotton on board the vessel have not been in this country to exceed two months, yet the cotton-ties have to pay full duty, and, strange enough, there is no drawback after they are shipped. I mean by that they pay a heavier rate than any other iron goods. Two-thirds of all the cotton-ties used in the United States are exported every year, and yet no drawback is allowed, as in the case of tin, when used to export domestic produce. The allowance of a drawback, most of us say, is impracticable. It is impossible for us to devise a plan of drawback on cotton-ties which will reimburse properly the man who pays the duty. These same cotton-ties must pay a duty if reimported, even though made here in the United States. In that respect they differ from any other goods of American manufacture. To show you what it costs I will give you some figures.

The government received a tax of about \$310,000 on cotton-ties exported during the year 1881, on which there is not a cent of drawback. So \$300,000 a year is paid in duties on an article exported from the country, and none can be brought back without paying a duty again. On the other hand, if it was a domestic manufacture, shipped out the same as cotton-ties upon cotton, you could bring it back again without paying a duty. So I think we should either reduce the tariff, allow a drawback to the consumer, or permit a reimportation of duty-paid ties, on sworn proof of their having been previously imported.

There are one or two other points in relation to this matter. A necessity exists in our business for stability in the rate of duty. We have to make preparations for supply six months in advance of the demand for the article. We have to go abroad and buy it, and, after purchasing, some legislative discussion or enactment will take place, whereby we are very much affected. One great thing we desire is stability in whatever tariff may be enacted.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. Do you say that American cotton-ties cannot be brought back without paying a duty?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. There is no regulation about it.—A. Yes, sir; I believe there is a special clause in regard to that matter.

Q. Is not the life of a cotton-tie so short that it would not be worth while to bring them back and pay a duty?—A. No, sir. Ties can be taken off the bale on the other side and rerolled and brought back very much cheaper than new ones.

Q. If the rate of duty be put up to 1½ cents a pound and a drawback allowed, under proper regulations, would it be of any consequence to the producer what rate of duty was imposed, so far as the exported cotton is concerned?—A. If you could regulate both of those matters it would not make any difference, but you cannot. The importer sells the cotton to the dealer, and the dealer, in his turn, to the consumer, and you never can get the tie back again to the importer, who has paid the duty. In the case of tin cans, you can trace them from the importer to the jobber, or wholesaler, and from the wholesaler to the canner, and from the canner to the exporter; from the exporter to the foreign dealer, and the drawback is allowed. But you cannot keep track of cotton-ties. Some go to Texas, some to Louisiana, and they are scattered to the four winds. By breaking a bundle you destroy its identity.

Q. Could you not overcome that difficulty by stamping them?—A. You might possibly invent a stamp or tag, or have a peculiar cut on the band, but there could not be any positive proof that a band had been previously imported.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You are the secretary of the McComb Cotton-tie Company, I believe?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. How long have you been connected with that company?—A. That company has been in existence about three years.

Q. How long have you been connected with the American Cotton-tie Company?—A. About 12 years.

Q. What was the price per bundle or pound of cotton-ties in 1873?—A. They were about 5 cents a pound.

Q. At that time the American Cotton-tie Company had control of the whole business of furnishing cotton-ties in the United States?—A. No, sir.

Q. Did it not control 95 per cent. of the trade in the United States ?
—A. No, sir ; by reason of patents, and the enormous capital invested, I have no doubt it controlled 80 per cent. ; but there were other persons in the business.

Q. You say the price was then 5 cents a pound ?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. When the American Cotton-tie Company commenced buying their ties from American mills in 1877 or 1878, what was the price then of cotton-ties in this country ?—A. The price differed on styles, all the way from \$1.60 to \$2.50, with a discount.

Q. Did not the competition of the American mills force the American Cotton-tie Company to bring down the prices on cotton-ties to the planter or dealer very nearly one-half ?—A. No, sir.

Q. How much did it affect that question ?—A. I do not think it had any effect on it.

Q. What was the price in 1878 ?—A. It was \$2.50 a bundle ; nearly 5 cents a pound.

Q. Did not the your agents sell the McComb or American Cotton-tie Company ties in large quantities at \$2.50, \$2.60, or \$2.70 a bundle ; is not that a fact ?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What are the figures you are selling at now ?—A. The figures are \$1.50 a bundle gross.

Q. The first year or two after the expiration of the patent the price was reduced to the cotton planter more than one-half, was it not ?—A. It was reduced nearly one-half for various reasons ; doubtless the principal one was the competition of the American mills. Prior to that the patents controlled the business. If a man had not a patent he could not make a cotton-tie. There were several favorite styles, and these had the trade, and it was very difficult to take it away from them or compete with them. It was the attrition and competition of succeeding patents coming in, making so many of them, and their becoming owned by the different rolling mills of the country, which helped cut down the prices, together with the foreign competition.

Q. Were not all the American mills persistent in getting up new patents ?—A. Yes, sir ; they were. But the most successful opposition that was ever made against our cotton-tie came from Liverpool.

Q. The American mill owners were trying to cut these prices down, and make a difference to the cotton growers of \$2,000,000 a year ?—A. No, sir. They were trying to absorb the proprietary trade, or cut into it.

Q. Do you advocate a specific or an ad valorem duty ?—A. If the government must have a duty, we shall be content to accept a bona fide 35 per cent. ad valorem duty, or an equivalent specific rate. The reason why I ask for a specific rate is on account of the convenience of invoicing, and to rid ourselves of this continual charge of trying to defraud the government by invoicing our goods 2s. 6d. lower than they cost us.

Q. You manufacture all these cotton-ties yourself in England ?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Your factory in England, or your agent in England, makes a bill to your American house ?—A. Mr. McComb manufactures on the other side, and has an office there. Since the expiration of some of the patents the business has become an open one. There is hardly a vessel which leaves Liverpool for the United States that does not bring cotton-ties as part of her cargo.

Q. You think it is better to have a fixed specific rate of duty than one not liable to be interfered with ?—A. Yes, sir. There should be but

one rate for cotton-ties. There need be no difficulty about ties coming in under one classification. A cotton-tie is a cotton-tie, notwithstanding the efforts that have been made to call it hoop iron.

Q. To get rid of that difficulty you would name it specially in the tariff as a cotton-tie, and put a specific duty on it as a cotton-tie?—A. Yes, sir; provided that specific duty was fair and equitable.

Q. What is your information in regard to the quality of the American as compared with the English tie?—A. The American tie made by proper parties under proper supervision is just as good as any other tie.

Q. Is it not better?—A. No, sir; it is not better.

Q. It has been so stated to us by an American manufacturer.—A. I do not think that is the case. On the contrary, I remember seeing ties advertised as being made of *English* iron—the only instance I can recall of a distinction being made—and this would suggest some people thought them better than domestic goods.

Q. What is the estimate of this year's cotton crop in this country?—A. It is estimated at from six and a quarter to seven million bales. The crop is a positive quantity, and that limits the sale of cotton-ties. If the trade in ties from foreign countries is destroyed, and it is put into the hands of the American mill owners they will inevitably come together and say, "Why we cannot make but 30,000 tons for the year, because there is no greater demand for them; let us agree to distribute this amount among ourselves and arrange our own prices."

Q. Would the consumer be any better off if he were left in the hands of the American manufacturer, as he was twelve years ago in the hands of the American Cotton-tie Company, who charged him just what he could stand, and put up the price to 7 or 8 cents a pound?—A. I do not think that is a fair presentation of the case.

Q. You have asserted there would be a combination here?—A. But we must look at the altered condition of things since that time.

Q. But I ask you if he would be any worse off in the hands of 10 men here than in the condition he was in in the past?—A. Yes, sir. The consumer would be worse off, because the mill-owners would combine; whereas the American Cotton-tie Company had always to stand up against all competition.

The following tables show the consumption of cotton-ties in the United States for the periods named:

Cotton-ties used for crop of 1880-'81.—Total crop, 6,606,000 bales; @ 1 bundle ties to 5 bales, 1,321,200 bundles cotton ties; @ 40 bundles to the ton, 33,030 tons cotton-ties; average value, £7 15s. per ton, or, in Federal money @ \$4.86 for pound sterling, \$37.67; duty @ 35 per cent. per ton, \$13.18; duty on 33,030 tons, \$435,484.03.

Cotton-ties used for crop of 1881-'82.—Total crop, 5,456,048 bales, or 1,091,209 bundles cotton-ties, or 27,280 tons cotton-ties; average value, £8 per ton, or, in Federal money @ \$4.86 for pound sterling, \$38.88; duty on \$38.88 @ 35 per cent. per ton, \$13.60³/₁₆; duty on 27,280 tons, \$371,226.24.

Exports, season 1880-'81.—4,565,000 bales cotton, or 913,000 bundles cotton-ties, or 22,825 tons; duty @ 35 per cent. on \$37.67, value per ton, \$300,956.21. Season 1881-'82, 3,551,075 bales cotton, or 710,213 bundles cotton-ties, or 17,755 tons; duty @ 35 per cent. on \$38.88, value per ton, \$241,610.04.

Total crop for 10 years, from 1872-'73 to 1881-'82.—48,412,000 bales; estimated duty, if all imported, on 243,060 tons @ \$13.20 per ton, \$3,209,392.00.

Total exports for same 10 seasons.—33,217,000 bales; estimated duty as above on 166,086 tons, \$2,192,335.00.

Cotton-ties @ £8 cost per ton @ \$4.86 per pound sterling, \$38.88; present duty 35 per cent, \$13.60; duty proposed of 1½c. per pound, \$33.60, or over 86 per cent. protection.

Cotton-ties @ £7 cost per ton @ \$4.86 per pound sterling, \$34.02; present duty 35 per cent, \$11.90; duty proposed of 1½c. per pound, \$33.60, or nearly 100 per cent. protection.

Present actual protection :

	Per cent.
By tariff of duties.....	35
By rivotting English ties.....	10
By freights, average 15s. per ton, say.....	10
Or a total of.....	55

Cost of cotton-ties.

	At 35 per cent. duty.	At 1½ cent per pound duty.
Cotton-ties at £8 cost per ton.....	\$38 88	\$38 88
Freight, at 15s. per ton.....	3 65	3 65
Insurance, 1½ per cent. on value of \$50 per ton.....	75	75
Duty.....	13 60	33 60
Cost per ton.....	<u>\$56 88</u>	<u>\$76 88</u>
Cost per bundle, at 40 bundles per ton.....	\$1 42½	\$1 92½

Average annual consumption, 25,000 tons.

Revenue to government at present rate, \$340,000.

Loss of revenue annually by proposed advance prohibiting importations, \$340,000; additional tax on consumer of 50 cents per bundle, \$500,000, or an equivalent of \$340,000 per annum bonus to American mills engaged in making cotton-ties, and not one cent of revenue to the government.

Number of mills in United States making this class of goods, not over 10; estimated number of men employed, 250.

GEORGE FULLER ET AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. GEORGE FULLER, of Lawrence, Mass., addressed the Commission as follows :

The executive committee of the manufacturers of card clothing of America, beg leave to submit to your honorable body the following statements in relation to the tariff upon card clothing :

At the formation of the present tariff laws, no mention was made of card clothing, and as the industry is now one of considerable importance, having a capital of \$2,210,000, and giving employment to over 500 hands, we would respectfully ask your body to recommend that card clothing be specially mentioned in our tariff laws, and that a sufficient duty be placed upon the articles to enable the American manufacturer to compete with his foreign rivals.

We would ask that a specific square-foot duty be placed upon card clothing for the following reasons :

All card clothing in this country is sold by the square foot.

By giving a specific duty to this article, dangers of under-valuation, such as the cases now before the collectors of the different ports, occasioning losses to the government and injury to the American manufacturers, will be avoided.

This committee would urge that a specific duty of 35 cents per square foot be placed upon card clothing, of whatever material, composed of leather or cloth, to enable the American manufacturers to successfully compete with manufacturers abroad.

We beg to submit the following statement, to show the disadvantage the American manufacturers are laboring under with the present ad valorem duty.

All card cloth used in the manufacture of card clothing in this country, with the exception of a very small quantity composed of cotton, wool, and linen, is imported, and the American manufacturer compelled to pay a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem; when the cloth is composed of cotton, rubber, and linen, and when composed of cotton, wool, and linen, 50 cents per pound and 35 per cent. ad valorem. The card cloth composed of cotton, wool, and linen is manufactured in this country in small quantities on account of the present duty of 50 cents per pound and 35 per cent. ad valorem, it coming under schedule L, class 3, of the present tariff laws. This latter card cloth, when set with ordinary wire, is admitted, as is all card clothing (except when set with steel wire), at a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem; when set with steel wire, 45 per cent. ad valorem.

You will thus see that the material from which the principal portion of card clothing is manufactured, is admitted at the same rate of duty as the manufactured article, giving the foreign manufacturer the advantage of setting the wire or manufacturing the card clothing at a very much lower cost for labor than is paid by the American manufacturer.

The following will show the wide difference in the cost of labor employed in England and America in this industry; the former country supplying almost wholly France, Belgium, Italy, Spain, Germany,

Russia, and other European countries. Cost of labor in England, \$1 to \$1.75 per day; cost of labor in America, \$2.50 to \$4.50 per day.

Besides the difference in the cost of labor is the greater cost of plant and machinery.

We ask, as card clothing manufacturers of America, that protection be given to us, not as a bounty, but sufficient to maintain our business and to equalize the difference in the condition of the industry at home and abroad.

GEORGE L. DAVIS.
 GEORGE A. FULLER.
 JOS. MURDOCK.
 H. B. LINCOLN.
 E. P. STETSON.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. You spoke of undervaluation, a matter concerning which we hear from almost every manufacturer. Have you ever known of any instances of undervaluation, personally?—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. Have you brought them to the attention of the custom-house officers invariably?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Have you been prepared, whenever you have done so, to fix a value on the article?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Having fixed that value, would you have been prepared to purchase these goods at the valuation you gave, that is, exclusive of duty?—A. I think I would.

Q. Would you favor, then, a change in the law which would render it practicable for an appraiser to call in any expert or any manufacturer who is competing with the foreign manufacturer who consigns here to an agent, and let the domestic manufacturer take these goods at that advanced valuation, at the option of the importer (who is the foreign manufacturer's agent), or let the foreign manufacturer's agent pay a duty on the advanced valuation?—A. Yes, sir; I think I should favor such a law as that.

Q. Do you think that would do away practically with the present difficulty?—A. It might. I am not positive in regard to it, but I think it would.

Q. It would tend in that direction?—A. Yes, sir; it would.

Q. Then, with the additional safeguard that when an appraiser gets his knowledge of values from other sources, say the consul's certificate, for example, and the importer differs from the appraiser in *toto*, if the appraiser, on the one side, might call in as a merchant appraiser a competent, discreet, and experienced merchant, familiar with the character and value of the goods, and the importer, on his side, might have the same opportunity and right, and the two persons so chosen could select a third person, and the three should constitute a tribunal of arbitration similar to that employed by the Chambers of Commerce throughout the country, should you think that such a plan, together with the first one that I have spoken of, would do a way in any considerable measure with the present objections to ad valorem rates of duty?—A. I think it ought, most certainly, if the men understood their business thoroughly.

Q. Would you consider the two plans together as fair, just, and equitable—as much so as you could suggest?—A. I should, though I have not had time to fully consider the matter.

Mr. WILLIAM A. BURKE, of Lowell, Mass., was interrogated as follows:

By the PRESIDENT :

Question. Have you any written statement prepared to submit to the Commission?—Answer. No, sir; I have not.

Q. Will you please state how long you have been connected with the manufacture of textile machinery?—A. About fifty-four or fifty-five years.

Q. In what establishment?—A. I began as an apprentice in a machine-shop and have been connected with the manufacture of machinery ever since, except for about sixteen years, when I was engaged in managing cotton mills. I have been all that time conversant with machinery for the manufacture of cottons.

Q. What establishment are you connected with at present?—A. The Lowell machine-shop.

Q. How long has that establishment been in operation?—A. They commenced in 1845; that is to say, they purchased a machine-shop which had been started in 1824, and succeeded to the business.

Q. So that it is one of the very oldest shops of the kind in the country?—A. Yes, sir; one of the very oldest.

Q. Do you make most of the machinery used for the manufacture of cotton at Lowell?—A. Yes, sir; I should say we have made nine-tenths of all the cotton machinery there.

Q. As you have been so long in this business of course you are familiar with all the improvements made in textile machinery?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you agree to the statements made by Mr. George Fuller, who has just addressed the Commission?—A. Yes, sir; I do.

Q. Did you not at one time prepare a statement showing the gains and economies which have been brought about by the improvement of American textile machinery in making cotton goods?—A. In 1876 my attention was called to the progress made in cotton manufacturing in this country, and I undertook to find out the difference in the cost of goods in the years 1836 and 1876. I had the materials at hand. I took one of the mills of a company equipped for making drillings, such as are exported to China. It had 6,000 spindles and 176 looms, and I compared that with the same number of looms at present in operation. I made a computation of the hours of labor and found that an hour's work in 1876, with the improved machinery, produced nearly three times the amount of cloth that could be produced in the same time in 1836, the machinery used in each instance being of the best kind and having the latest improvements. The number of hands employed to produce about the same number of pounds of goods was, if I recollect right, 203 in 1836 and 74 in 1876. The wages of the male operatives in 1876 was about 30 per cent. more than they were in 1836, and of the female operatives about 40 per cent. more, after deducting the increased cost of living. This result was brought about by improvements in machinery of various kinds. There has been no imported machinery brought into Lowell, or very little at least, to be used in the manufacture of cotton. All the improvements were the result of American invention.

Q. All these improvements diminish the price of the goods to the consumer?—A. Yes, sir; they reduce the price about one-half, I think.

Q. Did the consumer get the benefit of that decrease in the cost of manufacturing?—A. I do not know about that; I suppose he did.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You maintain that your machinery for the manufacture of textile

fabrics is better than the English?—A. Yes, sir; I think it is preferred usually.

Q. The manufacturers of cotton goods have made the assertion publicly that if they were relieved from the present duty on machinery and chemicals they would be willing to consent to have the duty on cotton goods taken off, and that they could then enter the markets of the world in competition. What is your opinion about that?—A. That depends somewhat on the character of the goods you refer to. The manufacturers of the coarser fabrics are doing an exceptionally large business.

Q. Is their business increasing?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. The assertion has been made that they have been protected to a point where, if relieved of this 35 per centum duty on machinery (or whatever the duty may be), and the duty on chemicals, they would be able to get along without any duty on cotton goods. In your judgment is that statement correct?—A. I can hardly see how they wish for any relief when they can export goods to China and Africa and the Southern States in competition with English goods. It is a question of trade, I think, more than anything else.

Q. Is the 35 per cent. duty on machinery for making textile fabrics so burdensome or onerous on the manufacturers of cotton goods as to prevent their exporting the goods at present?—A. If you relieve the foreign maker of machinery of the duty he would put his price up at once, and I do not believe the American manufacturer would be relieved at all by the taking off of such a duty, while, on the other hand, I think, it is to his interest to have it continued. As a manufacturer, I think, the American machinery is superior and that it is better to protect the American maker and stimulate him to improve the machinery than to depend upon the manufacturers abroad for it. It is not a very profitable business in one sense. Hardly any new establishments have been erected in some years, and many who were in the business have been obliged to retire. The protection has not been sufficient to make it profitable to build new machine-shops.

CHARLES H. SPENCER.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

MR. CHARLES H. SPENCER, representing the Philadelphia Association of Hosiery and Knit Goods Manufacturers, addressed the Commission as follows :

MR. PRESIDENT, AND GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION : I appear before you as the representative of the hosiery and knit goods manufacturers of Philadelphia. An industry as old as our city, and peculiarly identified with it. I am instructed to present to you, as the needs of our industry, the maintenance of the existing tariff on goods made wholly or in part of wool, worth 80 cents per pound and above at point of export, viz, 50 cents per pound specific and 35 per cent. ad valorem.

I am also instructed to ask a change on knit goods made of cotton, from the present duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem to 40 per cent. ad valorem.

There are but few who realize the extent and importance of this industry. In Philadelphia there were, in 1880, 130 establishments, with a capital of \$3,903,540, using 9,705 knitting machines, employing 10,538 people who earned \$2,571,247. In that year there was consumed material valued at \$5,728,903, and there were produced goods valued at \$9,090,017, and there has since been a large increase. Philadelphia consumes both wool and cotton and makes all sorts of knitted fabrics, but more especially stockings, fancy knit goods, such as hoods, scarfs, nubias, &c., and gloves and mittens.

Now, it is important to state here and to bear very carefully in mind the fact that all knitted fabrics, whether stockings or underwear, or what not, may be of three very different kinds :

1. They may be made in cloth on the knitting frame and shaped afterwards by scissors and finished on the sewing machine, forming a class known as cut goods.

2. They may be made partly as above, but partly shaped or fashioned on the knitting frame, forming a class known as half-regular or half-fashioned goods ; as, for example, a stocking with circular leg and fashioned foot.

3. Or they may be shaped entirely on the knitting frame and thus form a class known as full-regular or full-fashioned goods. The importance of this classification is found in the fact that these classes represent percentages of labor to total cost. The first class costing relatively least, the second more than the first, while in the third class labor forms a very large part of their cost.

Now come the significant facts :

1. There is no importation of the first class into this country, but on the other hand there is a domestic overproduction.

2. There were imported of the second and third class, but principally of the third, in the fiscal year ending June, 1882, goods to the amount of \$8,299,234.

So that while American manufactures of cut knit goods are in a very depressed condition from excessive domestic competition, there is an importation of the half-regular and regular goods to an amount equal to nearly the entire production of Philadelphia manufacturers of knit goods

of all kinds. In this state of affairs we are naturally turning our attention to the better class of goods and trying, in obedience to sound economic principles, to vary our product and so prevent too great competition in one sort of goods.

Now, what is our position in relation to the foreign manufacturer of similar goods under the present tariff? Foreign knit goods made of cotton pay now an ad valorem duty of 35 per cent. Let us see how they compare here with domestic goods, and for that purpose we will take as an example a lady's solid scarlet cotton full-fashioned stocking, made in Chemnitz, Saxony. This stocking is sold in Chemnitz for 100 groschen, and costs landed here, net, \$3.24. The American equivalent made in Philadelphia is sold for the net price of \$3.61, showing a difference in favor of the foreign article of 37 cents per dozen. Now, when the jobber can obtain the same price for the foreign article as for the domestic, it is easy to see which he will prefer to use.

Foreign knit goods made of wool, worth at the point of export 80 cents per pound and above, pay a specific duty of 50 cents per pound and an ad valorem duty of 35 per cent. Let us see how these compare with similar goods of domestic manufacture, and once more we take as an illustration a full-fashioned lady's solid scarlet hose, but this time of wool.

The foreign article made in Nottingham, England, costs there 20s. and is landed here at a cost of \$8.02 net, while the domestic equivalent cannot be sold for less than \$8.46 net, showing a similar difference in favor of the imported goods, and indicating once more what the preference of the American jobber must be.

These illustrations are perfectly good as to the whole subject of regular-made knit goods, a sort of goods which the American manufacturer is now beginning to produce, and which he must produce largely in the future, unless he is interfered with by a reduction of the duties.

Now, in regard to a very important part of our industry—the production of woollen hoods, scarfs, infants', misses' and ladies' jackets, men's cardigans, &c.—we must call your attention to the imperative necessity of the maintenance of the specific duty as it is. We will take as a fair illustration a lady's hood which weighs $3\frac{1}{2}$ pounds. The price here is \$7.19 per dozen net. The specific duty on the same goods if imported would be \$1.75. The American manufacturer's profit on this article is 72 cents per dozen. Now you can readily see that if the specific duty were reduced, foreign goods would be imported here to the exclusion of domestic goods.

Taking into consideration these few practical illustrations, to which, knowing the immense number and variety of industries you are called on to examine, we have limited ourselves, you can determine what we we need.

If the present duties on knit goods made of wool are maintained at 50 cents per pound specific duty and 35 per cent. ad-valorem duty, an important American industry can be successfully developed and a new product added. If the duty on knit goods made of cotton can be advanced to 40 per cent. instead of 35 per cent., the manufacturers of cotton hosiery in America can successfully develop their branch of this important work.

It is well said by the National Association of Wool Manufacturers that a just tariff is one that sufficiently and only sufficiently protects the American manufacturer in his home markets, giving him a slight advantage at home over his foreign competitors. This you will observe we do not even ask. We are content to remain on wool knit goods at a disadvantage of 6 per cent., and we only ask on cotton goods to have our disadvantage of 10

per cent. reduced to 6 per cent., and we will trust American intelligence and aptitude to discount that difference in the near future.

It might be argued that knit goods should form but a part of a general system of duties on wool goods or on cotton goods, as the case may be; but we reply not so. There is no textile fabric produced by man into whose cost labor enters so largely as fashioned knit goods, and therefore they are not to be classed with wool or cotton goods generally, where labor is so much less a factor in the cost.

Our argument could be perhaps strengthened by enlarging our illustrations and showing how our manufacturers of gloves, mittens, and all similar goods are now paralyzed momentarily by the presence of similar foreign goods imported this last summer under the suspension of the specific duty—how this paralysis would extend throughout the entire industry if that error had not been corrected. But we feel sure that enough has been shown to convince you of the justice of our claims.

There is said to be an universal feeling throughout the country in favor of lower duties. Very likely this may be true, but surely no true American can wish to reduce the duty on knit goods if he will consider for a moment the facts of the case. If reduction in duties is made it will simply increase the profits of importers and jobbers and not reduce the price to consumers, as is proven by the history of the knitting trade for the last thirty years.

Wherever an article imported from Europe under low duties has, by protection to American producers, come to be made here, the price to the consumers has been reduced by competition among American manufacturers.

If the duties are now decreased the American manufacturer must remain out of the market until he has starved his employes into accepting wages on the European basis, which is at the best, English one-half and German one-third the American, while the consumer will pay about the same price for his goods as now.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. When you speak of the present rates of duty, do you mean the rates readopted at the last session of Congress in regard to knit goods?—Answer. I mean the rate adopted after the correction of the law was made.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. You mean the rates you supposed to exist before the revision of the statute?—A. Yes, sir; I mean the rates which were collected up to last March, and which were collected until the act was passed. Goods were imported during the absence of that duty, at rates which were utterly ruinous to the American manufacturer. Stockings which were sold here at \$9 a dozen and which weighed two and three quarter pounds were imported for \$1.43 less than they could be produced here. I could give you many instances of that kind to illustrate the points.

Q. In other words, there was a suspension of the specific or neutralizing duty?—A. Yes, sir; entirely so.

Q. And as the result of your experience you say it was entirely ruinous to your industry although you had a 35 per cent. ad. valorem duty?—A. Yes, sir.

Commissioner OLIVER. How long was this suspension or interim between the decision of the Treasury Department and the change in the law?

Commissioner McMAHON. It was not a decision of the department; it was a decision of the court. The court overruled the decision of the Treasury Department.

The WITNESS. I cannot tell you from memory how long it was.

The PRESIDENT. The Treasury circular I think was issued about the 1st of April.

The WITNESS. Then it lasted from the first of April until some time in July, just before the closing of the session of Congress.

Commissioner McMAHON. The decision took effect from the date of its announcement by the court and not from the date of the promulgation of the Treasury Department circular.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. It was only an interim, then, of four or five months?—A. That was all.

Q. What effect did it have on your business?—A. It had this effect: that importers anticipating this state of things placed large foreign orders, and these came in without the 50 cents a pound specific duty. The effect of that was to utterly destroy the trade in all these kinds of goods which are similar to those made on the other side and which could be ordered at once. Anything which was on hand abroad or could be produced rapidly was sent over here and affected this market, to the extent of the weight of the goods. For instance, on hosiery weighing from two and a half to three pounds a dozen, the price was reduced \$1.25 to \$1.50 a dozen. There is always more or less surplus stock on the other side, of goods especially adapted to the wants of the American market, and all those goods were immediately shipped over here. England has not produced some of these goods for years, and therefore they could not readily adapt themselves to the change. It would require a little time for them to manufacture the goods.

Q. Was there a large stock imported from abroad?—A. Yes, sir; a large quantity, sufficient to supply the market this season with this kind of goods.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. I gather from what you say that the low duty reduced the price of the goods?—A. Yes, sir; the absence of the specific duty reduced the price of the imported goods and made it impossible for the American manufacturers to compete.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. Did it reduce the price to the consumer?—A. I do not think it did. I will give you an illustration of that, the first one that comes to my mind. Worsted wristlets, which ordinarily cost \$1.49, under the suspension of the duty came in at \$1.24. These goods were sold by the jobber at \$2.25, precisely the same price that he sold them for last year, and will no doubt be retailed for the same price. I think it will very likely reduce the cost on some goods this season. But in the long run, if that 50 cents a pound specific duty were taken off, it would not reduce the price of the goods to the consumer.

Q. Suppose the goods were admitted free of duty, would that reduce the price to the consumer in the long run?—A. Yes, sir; I think it would reduce the price to the consumer decidedly; but at the same time it would reduce the price of American labor to about one-third of what it is now, and consequently reduce the laborer's purchasing capacity as well.

WILLIAM P. SHINN.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. WILLIAM P. SHINN, of New York, representing the manufacturers of hydraulic cement, addressed the Commission as follows:

The committee appointed by a meeting of the manufacturers of hydraulic cement, held in the city of New York on Tuesday, October 10, 1882, to present their views on the question of the tariff duties on hydraulic cement, respectfully submit the following:

1st. The manufacture of hydraulic cement in this country, first started by that eminent civil engineer Canvass White, out of the cement rock of Western New York, has its principal development now in Ulster County, New York, in making what is known as the "Rosendale cement," its manufacturers having invested about \$2,800,000, employing 3,000 men, and producing annually 1,600,000 barrels of cement, worth in New York City about \$2,000,000.

The next largest development is in Indiana and Kentucky, near the falls of the Ohio, where the cement rock is found from which is made the article generally known as "Louisville cement."

There are several other locations where cement is made on a smaller scale; and from the best information accessible to the committee we estimate the whole cement-manufacturing interest in the United States as having capital invested, \$5,500,000; men employed, 6,000; and annual product, 3,000,000 barrels, valued at \$3,600,000.

2d. Prior to 1871 all the cement manufactured and nearly all that was used in the United States was made from the cement rock of which the Rosendale cement is the best type. In 1871 there began to be a growing demand for a better (*i. e.*, stronger and more uniform) cement, which was met by the importation of English "Portland" cement. Prior to 1869 the amount of cement imported had been so inconsiderable that no notice had been taken of it in the statistics of the Treasury Department, and in 1869 the dutiable value of all the cement imported was \$9,855, being probably about 2,500 barrels.

The growth of this importation is shown in Schedule A, attached, to have reached, in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882, 371,721 barrels, having a dutiable value of \$675,582, of which 264,357 barrels, valued at \$478,241, were entered at the port of New York.

The number of barrels of cement imported has not been kept in the custom-house until last year. We have learned from an outside source the number of barrels imported at New York during the calendar years 1877 to 1882, which we append as Schedule B; from which it appears that the imports for the nine months ending September 30, 1882, were 269,565 barrels at the port of New York, being 5,208 barrels in excess of those for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882, of which over one-half was of the cheaper grades from the continent of Europe.

3d. In 1876 the manufacture of Portland cement was commenced in this country by the Coplay Cement Company, at Allentown, Pa., followed in 1877 by the Wampum Cement and Lime Co., limited, at Wampum, Pa., and later by parties at Rockland, Me., Rondout and Buffalo, N. Y., Kalamazoo, Mich., and Chicago, Ill.

The quantity manufactured in each year, as near as the committee has been able to ascertain, has been about as follows:

	Barrels,
In 1876.....	5,000
1877.....	15,800
1878.....	25,000
1879.....	40,000
1880.....	50,000
1881.....	72,000
1882 will make.....	85,000

of which over one-half has been made at the Allentown Works.

There is now in the manufacture of Portland cement in the United States capital invested \$300,000; annual capacity 100,000 barrels, worth \$250,000.

Several works that have started in the manufacture have failed and closed, with the loss of all their capital.

The manufacture of Portland cement requires more labor and consequent expense than that made from cement rock, in consequence of its being an artificial mixture.

4th. The prices of English Portland cement have declined in this country from being, in 1870, \$6.50 to \$7 per barrel, and in 1873, \$5.25 to \$6 per barrel, to, in 1882, \$2.65 to \$2.85 per barrel, as shown in the list of prices for each year in the city of New York, Schedule C.

The greatest reduction occurred in 1876, 1877 and 1878, when American Portland cement began to compete in the New York market.

5th. The duty on foreign cement was fixed in the tariff act of 1861 at 20 per cent. ad valorem, and it has so continued ever since.

The dutiable value of English Portland cement in 1861 we have no means of ascertaining accurately, but it was probably \$4.50 to \$5 per barrel, making the duty 90 cents to \$1 per barrel.

In 1873 the dutiable value was \$3 to \$3.50, making the duty 60 to 70 cents per barrel.

The present dutiable value is \$1.75, making the duty 35 cents per barrel.

6th. It has been claimed and represented by importers of foreign Portland cement that because of the absence of chalk deposits in this country we could not make Portland cement, and that therefore any addition to the duty would only raise the price of the imported article and benefit no industrial interest.

We assert, as of our own knowledge, that this statement, once true as to what had been done, never was true as to what could be done, and that Portland cement is now being made in this country equal in quality to any imported cement.

7th. The cost of cement is wholly the cost of labor. The material in a barrel of cement is not worth *in situ* over 1 to 3 cents. Could we obtain labor (and were it desirable to do so) as cheaply as the foreign manufacturers we could compete with them without protection.

In Germany many women work in the cement works, constituting the lowest-priced labor employed.

Our materials are harder and therefore not so easily worked as the foreign chalk, which further increases our cost for labor.

The foregoing being the facts in the case, that we desire to recommend to your Commission is as follows:

1st. That the tariff duty on hydraulic cement be made specific.

2d. That it include by name Portland, Roman, and all other hydraulic cement, hydraulic lime, cement cinder and clinker.

3d. That it be fixed at near what it was when the 20 per cent. duty was imposed.

In support of the proposition of specific duty we would simply refer to the well-known fact that ad valorem duties fail to be protective when protection is most needed, *i. e.*, when the foreign price becomes low.

The duty on steel rails of $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound was equal to about 20 per cent. ad valorem when it was enacted.

Had it been so expressed, who can believe that the United States would have had to-day the capacity to supply all its home demand for steel rails and at prices which admit of a material reduction in the duty? Such a duty on steel rails would have deterred capital from investing in their manufacture, and would have left the market to the foreign producers, who would have gotten much higher prices than have generally prevailed since 1875.

The ad valorem rate of duty on cement has prevented capital from being invested in the cement manufacture, and to-day prevents us who are in the business from so enlarging our works as to enable us to attain that economy in cost which can be reached only by manufacturing on a large scale.

In support of the second proposition, we think it best that all the known forms of cement be specifically named. "Cement cinder," or "clinker," is simply unground cement. It is brought over as ballast, and only requires grinding to make it merchantable cement.

In support of the third proposition, we submit that what we need is adequate protection; that the present duty (about 35 cents per barrel) is not adequate; that the freight on cement is very low. When grain shipments are heavy it is frequently brought at 50 to 60 cents per ton, equal to 10 to 12 cents per barrel; so that freight and duty combined do not exceed 50 cents per barrel, or less than 30 per cent. on an article the foreign cost of which for labor certainly does not exceed 60 per cent. of the cost to manufacture in this country.

Give us adequate protection and we will be justified in increasing our capacity so as to supply the domestic demand for all grades of hydraulic cement, and within five years the result will be the same as it has been in the steel-rail interest—we will supply the home consumption at prices lower than the foreign article has ever been supplied and of as good quality.

Our recommendation is, therefore, that the tariff on hydraulic cement be made to read as follows, to wit: On Portland, Roman, and all other hydraulic cement, hydraulic lime, cement cinder and clinker, 20 cents per 100 pounds.

This will make the duty on Portland cement (weight 400 pounds per barrel) 80 cents per barrel, which will be protective, but not prohibitory, as will readily be seen by the following comparison:

In 1878 and 1879, duty value \$2.25, duty 45—\$2.70.

In 1882 duty value \$1.75, proposed duty 80—\$2.55.

This will bring the cost to the importer no higher than it was in 1878—79 when foreign cement was sold in this city as low as it sold during the early part of this year.

WM. P. SHINN,
F. P. NORTON,
Committee.

SCHEDULE A.

Statistics of value of cement imported in the fiscal years ending June 30, 1869-1882.

Years ending June 30.	Port of New York.	Other ports east of San Francisco.	Total east of San Francisco.	Port of San Francisco.	Total dutiable value.
1869	Not reported	Not reported	Not reported	Not reported	\$0, 835
1870	\$12, 538	\$2, 827	\$15, 365	\$546	15, 911
1871	43, 057	0, 983	50, 040	708	50, 808
1872	157, 322	10, 300	173, 628	589	174, 217
1873	130, 220	58, 250	104, 470	14, 013	208, 492
1874	214, 770	46, 787	201, 560	6, 885	268, 451
1875	100, 416	28, 183	224, 500	33, 027	257, 626
1876	167, 749	35, 857	203, 806	41, 064	244, 670
1877	161, 233	13, 072	175, 205	33, 529	208, 734
1878	140, 948	32, 043	172, 001	31, 431	204, 422
1879	131, 000	41, 588	173, 488	31, 580	205, 074
1880	270, 134	50, 030	335, 104	38, 437	373, 601
1881	273, 040	60, 919	330, 959	100, 060	440, 025
1882	478, 241	94, 803	573, 044	102, 538	675, 582

The above shows the "dutable value" as reported by the Bureau of Statistics.
The quantity for year ending June 30, 1882, was as follows:

Entered at New York	Barrels. 264, 357
Entered at other ports east of San Francisco	*52, 668
Entered at all ports east of San Francisco	317, 025
Entered at San Francisco	54, 696
Total	371, 721

* This item is partly estimated.

SCHEDULE B.

Statistics of quantity of cement imported at the port of New York during the calendar years 1877-1882.

Years.	From Great Britain.	From Continent.	Total.
	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>
1877	47, 632	10, 818	58, 450
1878	51, 477	10, 040	70, 517
1879	80, 834	25, 212	106, 046
1880	120, 833	45, 080	165, 913
1881	140, 486	73, 186	222, 672
1882 *	130, 235	130, 330	269, 565

* For nine months ending September 30.

It will be noticed by comparison with Schedule A that the increase in quantity has been steady and rapid, that in 1881 being double, and in 1882 will probably exceed three times, the quantity imported in 1870.

The most notable increase is in the importations from the Continent (mainly Germany and Sweden), which have exceeded those from Great Britain in 1882. This brings in competition still lower-priced labor than that of Great Britain.

SCHEDULE C.

Prices of English Portland cement in the city of New York.

Years.	Wholesale prices.	Duty value, or London quotation.
1870.....	\$6 50 to \$7 00	\$2 50
1871.....	5 00 to 6 00	2 25
1872.....	4 50 to 5 25	2 50
1873.....	{ 4 50 to 5 25 } { 5 25 to 6 00 }	{ \$3 00 to 3 35 }
1874.....	{ 5 10 to 5 50 } { 4 50 to 4 75 }
1875.....	3 75 to 4 25
1876.....	3 50 to 4 00
1877.....	3 20 to 3 50
1878.....	{ 3 00 to 3 25 } { 2 75 to 3 15 }	2 25
1879.....	2 75 to 3 25	2 25
1880.....	{ 2 85 to 3 25 } { 2 60 to 2 85 }	2 20
1881.....	{ 2 65 to 3 00 } { 2 50 to 3 00 }	1 80
1882.....	{ 2 75 to 3 50 } { 2 65 to 2 85 }	1 75

The above wholesale prices are from prices current published in New York.

The "duty values" for 1870 to 1873 are from London prices current; those for 1878 to 1882 are from custom-house returns. The very low prices made in the last half of 1880-'81-'82 are made by consignments of continental cement, which tend to break the market for all cements.

Where two ranges of prices are given for one year they are for the first and last half year respectively.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. The Allentown cement is not made, like the Rosendale cement, from the natural rock, but by a combination of materials?—
Answer. It is made by a different process, requiring two grindings in the place of one.

Q. And the Portland cement is also made by a combination of materials?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do not the natural cements compare favorably with the artificial cements?—A. There have been great improvements made in the natural cements. The Rosendale compares very favorably with the Portland cement.

Q. And with some of the Southern cements also?—A. I do not know so much about them. The Rosendale has long been the leading cement in our markets, and has been considered a sort of standard cement.

Commissioner BOTELER. The second cement made in the United States was made from rock taken from the Potomac River, and for many years they supplied the government and the country with all the cement required. That cement has stood the test of time, and is as hard as the natural rock. It has become very low in price. I believe they sell it as low as \$1 a barrel in Washington and Baltimore. Is that low price brought about by foreign competition?—A. Yes, sir; very largely.

Q. And not by the home competition?—A. I am told that the Rosendale cement in the New York market has been very materially reduced in price by the foreign competition. It may be remarked here that a barrel of Portland cement weighs 400 pounds, while the American cement only weighs 280 pounds. So that a barrel of Portland cement is equal to about 1½ barrels of native cement. The imported cement, with the present duty and freight from Great Britain added is not as

much as many of us have to pay for freight alone on our products to reach the market, owing to the fact that it is brought over here at such low rates of freight, it being a heavy material, and when large quantities are shipped it can be used for ballast for returning grain vessels.

Q. Does not nearly every section of our country abound with the raw material of which good cement can be made?—A. I presume cement can be made in any State of the Union, at the least artificial cement. It may be that some of the States do not contain a good natural rock; but artificial cement can be made in every State of the Union.

Q. Most of the States contain natural rock. I think if the duty were arranged as you suggest there would be ample material in our country to furnish all the cement that would be required here, to keep the price at a moderate rate, and supply the demand with a good article.—A. Yes, sir; I think that within five years we would not only supply the whole demand, but at prices cheaper than the foreign cement has ever been supplied for. I know, from our own experience in making cement, that where we could make 75,000 to 100,000 barrels annually, instead of making only 15,000 or 20,000 barrels annually, we could cheapen our own production 30 per cent.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. Your recommendation reads: "On Portland, Roman, and all other hydraulic cement, hydraulic lime, cement cinder, and clinker." Do you mean by the last phrase that it must be cement clinker and cinder together?—A. I mean cement cinder and clinker. Cinder and clinker are two names for the same thing. It is the article unground.

Q. The words "cement cinder," or "cement clinker," would then be explanatory?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Are they much cheaper than cement?—A. No, sir; only a little cheaper. The last grinding is not at all expensive. We suggested that, because the question had already arisen in the custom-house whether cement cinder or clinker should not come in on the free list, and we thought it best that it should be specifically set forth.

Q. You say, "Portland, Roman, and all other hydraulic cement, hydraulic lime, cement cinder, and clinker." Is there a difference in price between any of those?—A. No, sir. Hydraulic cement is, of course, a general term. Portland and Roman cement are both hydraulic cements. They are only designations of the kinds of hydraulic cement now imported. Hydraulic lime differs slightly from hydraulic cement, enough to bring it in under another name, but it is fully as valuable.

Q. What I want to know is whether this recommended duty of 20 cents a hundred pounds would bear with approximate equality on each kind?—A. Yes, sir; it would.

GEORGE C. POTTS.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. GEORGE C. POTTS, of Rio Grande, N. J., a producer of sorghum, addressed the Commission as follows:

I have the honor to submit the following statement touching the production of sorghum, and the manufacture of sugar and sirups therefrom:

It will be needless to refer you to the reports on this subject of the Department of Agriculture, as these, doubtless, have been already placed before you.

Thirty years ago the raising of sorghum sugar cane created quite an excitement in this country, owing to the promised revolution it was to effect in the sugar production of the country. The failures that ensued are well known, and the production of sugar from Northern cane has only had spurts of success, and up to about the present time has resulted only in disaster.

The raising of sorghum cane, now practiced among small farmers, produces only the crude molasses for which local demand may exist. During these thirty years the cane has been continually improving in quality, and yielding largely increased amounts of sugar in the juice. The last report of the Department of Agriculture names some producers who returned nearly sixteen per cent. of sugar. We have found it profitable to work it when as low as eight per cent.

Of first importance in the raising of sorghum cane is the selection of a proper climate.

Second. A proper soil.

Third. Skillful fertilization.

Fourth. Proper appliances for conducting the processes in a systematic and skillful manner.

In the report I am about to give you of the incipency and success of the Rio Grande Sugar Company these matters have been carefully looked after.

With regard to the selection of the land, it was made with a view of being near the waters of the ocean and bay, as the settlement of "Rio Grande" is about four miles distant from, and between the Atlantic Ocean and Delaware Bay. At such points the early frost of our autumn does not reach an injurious effect within thirty days of the time it does in the inland country but a few miles distant.

The season for growing the cane is comparatively a short one, consequently a great gain arises from the longer period of time that can be secured for the late production of cane, and when it may be given ample time to come to a ripened condition.

While upon this point it is well to note the large area of country that is applicable to this culture, and that fulfills the requisites as I have stated them; for example, the large area included in the peninsula of which we are now speaking, as well as of the Delaware and Maryland peninsula, lying between Chesapeake and Delaware Bays.

In raising sorghum in such a limited period of time for its growth the soil is a highly important element.

The character of that occupied by the Rio Grande Company has demonstrated the fact that a rich soil is not a requisite; it can be said

that a comparatively poor and sandy soil may be considered the most desirable for this purpose, as the plant cannot absorb or receive any large quantities of salts (say potash salts) from such soil.

The plant of these works has been erected in the most approved fashion, and in size and completeness will compare favorably with those of Cuba and the State of Louisiana.

The Rio Grande Sugar Company was organized in the year 1881 with a capital of \$250,000, based upon the works being almost completed at that time by private hands, when an additional capital was taken, and the lands purchased, as it was shown that the only safe method of raising sorghum was for the company to undertake it, as the farmers immediately surrounding the locality, although able to produce it of proper quality, were not to be entirely depended on to deliver it in good condition, and from fields in the order of fitness for grinding.

The drought of 1881, together with the fact just mentioned, made the raising of cane during that season of small account. In the spring of 1882, about one thousand acres of the two thousand four hundred owned by the company were planted and liberally manured with Peruvian guano, enriched with sulphate of ammonia. The cane planted was chiefly of the amber variety, as this ripens in three months after planting. Sufficient demonstration now exists to prove that sorghum can be successfully and profitably raised in the manner already mentioned.

In the year 1880 the State of New Jersey passed a law granting a bounty of 1 cent a pound on sugar, and \$1 a ton on cane produced for the term of five years; therefore, but three years now remain during which it may be taken advantage of. However, without this bounty, and with the existing rates of import duty on sugar, it is altogether possible that, within the next decade, the regions spoken of will be largely occupied by planters of sorghum, as these lands require some change of crops to relieve them from a condition of poverty.

A large portion of Virginia and North Carolina will ultimately produce this cane, and it can be said that the benefit derivable from showing the way to improving such a large area of land is one of the most important considerations now existing in the United States.

That the country should, in a short prospective period of time, be on the highway to independence in her sugar production, will add also to the interesting features of this matter.

The Rio Grande Sugar Company was established in view of continued protection by the Government of the United States. I trust, therefore, it will not be a part of the acts of the Tariff Commission to reduce the duties on sugar, and thus possibly extinguish in its infancy so important a branch of industry.

We have made 200,000 pounds up to date, and we expect to make 300,000 pounds more for the balance of the season.

By Commissioner KENNER :

Question. How long did it take you to make that 200,000 pounds?—
Answer. We started making sugar on the 11th of September.

Q. You marketed that quantity within a month, then?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. That is equal to the capacity of an ordinary Louisiana sugar house?—A. We have only half of our crop worked up. Our molasses we have not sold because we propose to make "seconds and thirds" sugar out of it. We have on hand between 20,000 and 30,000 gallons of molasses which we shall make into sugar. We made day before yesterday 10,000 pounds of sugar, which is more than was ever made out of sorghum in the United States in any one year before, I believe. I feel

certain that it is a practical success, and that it is only a question of time when we will make all our own sugar.

Q. Do you mean by that, sugar enough will be made in the United States to supply the demand of our own people?—A. Yes, sir; enough to make us independent of all other countries.

Q. What area of land in New Jersey is susceptible to this cultivation?—A. In Cape May County alone there are 40,000 acres of land where you can grow this cane. It will grow almost anywhere where corn will grow. The only advantage the people of the South have over us is that they have a longer time to grow the cane and are less liable to injury from frosts.

Q. Why did you select New Jersey as the place for your experiments in this business?—A. Because the presence of the salt water tempers the climate.

Q. Did you take into account the bonus that is given by the State of New Jersey to promote the culture of this crop; did that induce you to enter into it at all?—A. Yes, sir; that was the inducement to go into this enterprise, because we thought we saw we could make a profit.

Q. That was an inducement?—A. Yes, sir; that was the principal inducement; the law passed by the State of New Jersey.

Q. Are you familiar with the bonuses given for the cultivation of beet-root sugars in the early history of that industry?—A. No, sir; I am not. I know they were very much nursed.

Q. Do the people of New Jersey appear to be satisfied with paying the bonus which they have offered?—A. Yes, sir; nearly everybody in that section says it is going to be a great thing for the State, and they are glad the State offered the bonus.

Q. Cannot the people of Delaware and Maryland to a certain extent follow this same industry?—A. I am sure they can; their soil is as well adapted to it.

Q. Are you familiar with the culture and manufacture of this kind of sugar in the West?—A. Somewhat. It is made there mostly in open pans by evaporation, and on a very small scale. I believe that sorghum has been grown successfully as far north as Saint Paul, Minn.

Q. You think, then, that with proper machinery they would be able to produce the same result which you have produced in New Jersey?—A. Yes, sir; I am sure of it, and still more so in the South, because you have a longer season.

Q. Have you had any chemists or scientific men examine your product?—A. Yes, sir; Professor Silliman, of Yale College; Professor Brewer, of the Census Bureau; and Professor Jackson, one of the leading agricultural chemists of the country, have all visited my place within a week, as well as Dr. Collyer, the government chemist at Washington.

Q. What is the method for testing this sorghum juice adopted by these professors?—A. They test the sugar the same as they do other sugars, by the polariscope, which gives the amount of saccharine matter in the sugar. This sugar polarizes 95 as it is now; raw sugar.

Commissioner KENNER. You may term this sample that you have exhibited raw sugar, but it deserves a better name than that.

The WITNESS. It has not been refined; it has only been washed; washed in the centrifugals. It is made in the vacuum pan.

Q. Does the percentage of saccharine matter in the juice test as high as in the sugar cane?—A. Yes, sir; we have as high as 17½ in single instances of cane, and, taking the whole day's work, the average of the juice was 12.4 per cent., while the average of the cane is 14 per cent.

Q. What is the quantity of product to the ton?—A. The samples I

have here are what are called first sugars, taken out of the centrifugals after it revolves a few moments. The yield of these is about 65 pounds to the ton.

Q. You make about 65 pounds to the ton of first sugars?—A. Yes, sir.

Commissioner KENNER. If you can do that in New Jersey, you certainly exceed the average product of the State of Louisiana, and you will really make your own sugars inevitably if you produce the result you state.

The WITNESS. We have all our data down there, if you care to look into it.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. What does this sugar cost you per pound?—A. That is difficult to answer. We are now in the midst of the grinding, and until we get through and make up our books we cannot say. We think we see that there is going to be a fair business profit in it.

Q. You have marketed 200,000 pounds, which have been produced up to this time?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. About what is sugar worth in the market?—A. We sold our raw sugars to E. C. Knight, of Philadelphia, the refiner here, who paid us 7 cents a pound for it, and we have sold some to the grocers at 7½ cents a pound.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. The lands in the lower part of Maryland and Delaware are as well adapted to this cultivation as New Jersey?—A. Yes, sir. The object is to get the crop to mature before the frost comes; land surrounded by water is apt to have an exemption from frost until a later period of the year, it is generally supposed.

H. H. COLQUITT.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. H. H. COLQUITT, of Atlanta, Ga., addressed the Commission as follows:

The topic I desire to discuss before the Commission is that of pyrites, an article that is not known in the present tariff, and perhaps very little known in the country generally, except to a few of our most progressive manufacturers of sulphuric acid. It is well known in Europe, particularly in England, where sulphuric acid to an enormous amount is made from these pyrites ores. There has been an effort made for a number of years on the part of progressive chemists in this country to get our manufacturers to take hold of these ores, but it is only within the last few years that the manufacturers have begun to turn their attention to them. The very moment their attention was turned to pyrites as native ores, that moment the English people who control the large Spanish mines, or at least two of the companies, representing a large amount of capital, propose to bring into this country immense quantities of this ore, and to sell it at prices with which we cannot compete. This industry with us, as you understand, is a new one. Very few of our mines have been opened, for lack of capital; we have only been able to get a few capitalists to take hold of them. I will ask the indulgence of the Commission while I read a report upon this subject written by a man who knows more in regard to it than any other man in the country; a man who has spent years in the study of the question; the same man who discovered the value of the phosphate deposits of South Carolina, and who is the ablest and most progressive chemist and mining engineer in our country. I refer to Dr. A. A. Pratt.

“Previous to the year 1838 all the sulphuric acid made in England was made out of sulphur imported from Sicily, and the use of pyrites (a mineral containing 53.3 per cent. of sulphur and 46.7 per cent. of iron, and which burns in a furnace more readily than anthracite coal) for that purpose was an idea that existed only in the minds of the most progressive scientific chemists.

“At this time manufacturing chemists turned their attention to it as a source of sulphur; and for that purpose, in 1840, a small cargo of 200 tons of low-grade ore, containing only 30 per cent. of sulphur, was consumed. This was all that was used that year in the United Kingdom of Great Britain. From that time the consumption of these low-grade ores increased annually until 1856 to 1861, when it was found more profitable to import from Spain, Belgium, and Norway the high-grade ores of those countries, which contained an average of 44 to 49 per cent. of sulphur. These at this date (1882) have for many years almost entirely superseded the use of Sicily sulphur in that country.

“So great has been the demand for these pyrites ores *vs.* sulphur in Great Britain that in 1876, only twenty years after their first introduction, the customs statistics show an annual importation of 578,000 tons of foreign ore, all of which was used in the manufacture of acid, which acid was, in turn, used in the manufacture of soda ash and of chemical manures.

“So great has been the increase of acid production within the last

six years that there is no doubt the importation this last year is close on to 800,000 tons. Think of it! 2,000 ship loads of 400 tons each, or an average of six cargoes per day for 365 days in the year, imported into the British Islands alone, which have an area but little greater than Georgia and Alabama together!

"Germany and France, also, are large consumers of these ores, but I have no access to the statistics of those countries. It is a fact, however, that in neither of these three large manufacturing countries is sulphur now used to any great extent.

"After burning and utilizing the sulphur from these ores, which alone is sold to the chemists, the importers reserve to themselves the residues, containing iron and copper, and extract the latter for their own profit. One of these companies clears annually a net profit of one and a half million dollars.

"Until the year 1881, notwithstanding English success in the use of pyrites, all the acid made in this country was practically derived from Sicily sulphur, even when the cost of sulphur was \$65, gold (or more), per ton; at which price I bought my first cargo, in 1868, for use in Charleston, S. C.; the only exception to this being that one small factory in New Jersey did, for a few years, burn pyrites, of a peculiarly fine and granular character, in a patented furnace; but have since abandoned it. Many other attempts were made in New York and Boston, but uniformly failed, by reason of defective processes and ores, or want of skill.

"The large manufacturers have uniformly and persistently used sulphur rather than pyrites, and still continue to do so.

"In 1878 the writer of this report determined to utilize some of the Georgia pyrites in the manufacture of acid in Atlanta, Ga., and at that time the Atlanta Constitution published his views on the subject. Subsequently many localities were carefully examined, with a view of obtaining the ore at a reasonable price and of good quality.

"The Tallapoosa (or Waldrop) mine, in Haralson County, was selected, and a conditional purchase made; but capital, both for mining and manufacturing works, could not be raised at that time, and the trade failed; but in 1880, under my advice, the mine was sold to parties who at once commenced mining operations, and soon having a surplus of ores, they contracted to supply me with ores equal in quality to the Spanish.

"I then induced Cincinnati and Georgia capitalists to engage in the manufacture of acids and chemicals, and in a few months the extensive works of the Georgia-Chemical and Mining Company, with acid chambers 175,000 cubic feet capacity, were in full and successful operation, based on the burning of from 8 to 10 tons daily of Georgia ores. Atlanta may be proud of this, the first successful manufactory of acid from pyrites in the United States.

"Since my success here I learn that during this year (1882) three other works have started in or near to Boston and New York, and are using, or are about to use, the Spanish ores. Another set of large works on my plans are now being erected in Nashville, Tenn., which will soon be in operation, using Georgia ores at the rate of 7 to 10 tons daily. It is evident, then, that the successful use of pyrites in the United States and in the South is no longer an experiment—it is an accomplished fact; and the time is near when acid made from pyrites from Georgia, Alabama, North Carolina, and Virginia, and manufactured at home, will drive from the markets that made from sulphur from Sicily, and this, with the native bone phosphates of South Carolina and Georgia, will control the immense fertilizing trade of the

South, and alum made from our Georgia clays will fill the markets of the West.

“Already one-tenth part of the immense amount of fertilizers consumed in this State is made from acid out of Georgia ores, within 4 miles of her capital city, and thereby one-tenth part of the millions of money formerly sent abroad is withheld within her limits.

“What, then, are the advantages of pyrites over sulphur? Much the same as that of South Carolina phosphate over raw bone, viz, being of equal, if not superior, value as a source of profitable manufacture, they can be mined or used and sold at one-half or even one-third the cost; especially is this true for chemical works in the interior of the State. For instance:

“Sulphur, at an average cost of \$32 at the ports; freights to interior added cost, say, \$4; making a total cost of \$36 per ton; for 96 per cent. pyrites of 47 per cent. will yield 45 per cent. of available sulphur, so that 2½ tons will make as much acid as 1 ton of sulphur. Such ore of 47 per cent. can be mined and delivered at \$6 to \$7, with profit to the miner, thus making \$13.50 to \$13.75 worth of pyrites equal in acid capacity to \$36 worth of sulphur.

“Most of our ores contain 2 to 4 per cent. of copper, and, unlike the Spanish ores, are absolutely free from arsenic and other like troublesome impurities. The copper can be extracted from the residue at a total cost of 3 to 4 cents per pound, and is worth for market from 16 to 20 cents per pound.

“The iron residues are also salable, and if allowance is made for these the cost of the sulphur is next to nothing, and to the miner the copper contents are a source of no small profit in addition to his profit on the sulphur contents.

“A large amount of pyrites will be demanded within a few years. The fertilizers sold annually in the State of Georgia alone would require for their preparation 30,000 tons of pyrites, and as soon as mines are opened and supply is made constant and reliable, so soon will new works be built and the demand grow.

“Pyrites is found of good quality in many different geological formations, but in quantity only in the oldest, viz, in the azoic and metamorphic rocks.

“East of the Rocky Mountains these rocks show their greatest development in Canada and along the course of the Alleghany Mountains in the Atlantic States, and as these continue southward from Canada and Vermont they widen out, and attain their greatest development in North Carolina and Georgia (extending into Alabama), where they exhibit a belt of 150 to 200 miles wide.

“Here the pyrites ore, containing 44 to 49 per cent. of sulphur, is constantly associated and impregnated with workable and well-paying quantities of copper and gold.

“The development of the Tallapoosa (or Waldrop) mine, above referred to, shows a well-defined vein of pyrites from 4½ to 5 feet thick, the whole vein being workable ore, carrying from 3 to 3½ per cent. of copper.

“An illustration of the occurrence of that class of veins in this and adjoining States I quote from my report of January, 1880, to the owners of that property, as follows:

“2d. The vein, as exposed in the shaft or drifts, has an average thickness of 4½ feet of pure, unmixed ore, containing an average of 45 to 48 per cent. of sulphur, which is about the average of the best imported ores used in England and on the continent of Europe for the manufacture of sulphuric acid; and in addition to this, the impregna-

tion of copper amounting in the average of the whole vein '*in sight*,' as selected by myself, to 5.33 per cent. of copper by Professor Land's analysis, made at my request.

"3d. In regard to the quantity of ore '*in sight*' or positively available now, I would say that in the exposures already made there is now available to the practical miner no less than 5,000 tons of ore of the quality described above, and the indications certainly all lead to the belief that the vein, as exposed in your mine, continues to considerable depth.

"This report accomplished the sale of the property and the purchasers, within the last year, have lifted fully 5,000 tons of ore and extended their shaft to 150 feet deep, with, I am told, evident increase of the size and quality of the vein.

"The celebrated Ducktown mines, near the line of North Carolina, Georgia, and Tennessee, are in the same belt, and show an abundance of just such ores, but are too well known to need further description here.

"Many other properties, altogether similar to this, exist in this State, but here, as elsewhere, have remained undeveloped because of their low percentage of copper, which can only be extracted properly when the sulphur contents are used in the manufacture of acid.

"The large works of the Georgia Chemical and Mining Company, erected in Atlanta last year, 1881, have demonstrated the profit of extracting both sulphur and copper from these ores, and henceforth such properties are valuable, and each future development of mines will lead to the establishment of other chemical and acid works in our own midst."

This paper gives as succinct a history as can be given of the growth of this industry in England and what we can expect in this country. Already 10,000 tons of Spanish ores have been brought here. Those ores will assay 4 per cent. of copper by the wet assay, but under the dry assay, on which they pay duty, less than 2 per cent. of copper. All the ore has been brought in as brimstone or sulphur and admitted free of duty, or a duty has been paid on the copper it contains, which is less than one-half, and 20 per cent. on the remainder, which is iron.

Instead of paying \$3 a ton as an ore containing both iron and copper, both dutiable articles, they only pay about \$1.50 per ton. Their freight is \$2 per ton across the ocean, and if they get the balance of that copper in free of duty and extract it, they get the ore delivered here for nothing. We are offered these foreign ores, delivered in our ports, at \$7 per ton. Now, we cannot mine our ores at any point in New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Georgia, or Virginia and deliver them here at that price. We have but very few mines opened. We have but few mines in our country, and we have to pay them enormous prices. These English people have already gotten hold of all the Spanish mines, and now, when they see our manufacturers are seeking to use pyrites instead of sulphur, they send in one hundred thousand tons of fertilizers into the country to compete with us. The English take the phosphate rock from Charleston, carry it to their factories in England, grind it up, mix it with sulphuric acid made from these pyrites, and ship it back here and undersell our manufacturers in Charleston at their very doors, where the phosphate rock is found, under this process of manufacturing sulphuric acid out of pyrites. It has been argued by some of the fertilizing manufacturers that that is owing to the cheapness of the labor in England. That has something to do with it. But the English manufacturer can make sulphuric acid for \$6 per ton, while the American manufacturer cannot make it for less than \$10 per ton. The article known in commerce as a fertilizer is made of some material containing phosphate of lime. Our Charleston rock is the best basis of all fertilizers known at present. It contains from 50 to 60 per cent. of the phosphate of lime. Sulphuric acid

is used to make alum and soda-ash, but its great consumption is in the manufacture of fertilizers. In the production of the 600,000 tons of fertilizers used in the United States annually there is required over 300,000 tons of sulphur. There are about 400,000 tons of sulphuric acid made in this country, as shown by the customs statistics, which show an importation of 105,000 tons of brimstone, a ton of brimstone making 4 to 4½ tons of sulphuric acid. What we are seeking to do is this: Our manufacturers have found that they must manufacture their sulphuric acid from pyrites in order to compete with the English manufacturers, who take our rock across the ocean, acidulate it, and bring it back and sell it for less money than we can do it. The Rio Pinto mine, in Spain, represents millions of capital and controls the business. There is a fleet of vessels most always coming from the Mediterranean and other ports, and they will take this stuff almost for ballast, and they can afford to sell it for \$7 a ton, which is much less than we can sell it for. Their freight is almost nothing.

The only way for us to develop these thousands of mining properties lying along the Allegheny Mountains is by placing a duty upon the foreign ore which will prevent the importers from bringing it into the country. Under the pretext of bringing in pyrites they bring in copper and iron, and I claim there ought to be a specific duty on pyrites that will get rid of that whole question of the copper and iron contained in it. We do not ask for any duty on sulphur; let them bring in sulphur free. We only want a chance to develop these industries. There are millions of tons of these ores in this country, and a number of us are developing them. I have samples here from my mine, discovered in Georgia, which is owned by a man who is a policeman in Atlanta, Ga., getting about \$50 a month. How can he develop such a mine? We have two kinds of pyrites, one entirely free of copper, and the other with a certain percentage of copper. The best pyrites known to the trade have contained about 3½ per cent. of copper and 48 per cent. of sulphur; the residuum is iron. To give you an idea of the value of this ore when it is developed, let me state a few figures: The value of the ore for sulphur is \$7 per ton; the copper in it is worth about \$16 per ton; the iron residuum is used in Germany and France for the manufacture of Bessemer steel and pure metallic iron, and is worth about \$4 a ton; making the total value of the ore about \$27 a ton. The English give about \$16 a ton for their ore delivered, and they can well afford to sell the brimstone out of it for \$7, when they can get the ore over here and clear \$9 a ton for the expense of mining it.

It is claimed you must not put a duty on these things because the Spanish ore is the only ore in the world that will burn; that we want cheap fertilizers, and that this is the only mine that will give you cheap sulphur. At the Tallapoosa mines they are burning 5,000 tons to extract the copper. I do not know whether they have enough of the sulphur or the iron residuum to make it valuable.

The expense of mining in our country and the scarcity of railroads makes the business a difficult one. The Tallapoosa mine is 12 miles from a railroad. The next best property I know of in our country is 6 miles from a railroad. Consequently the ore has to be hauled a long distance to the railroad. Our railroad freights are high, and we cannot freight the ore at less than \$5 a ton. Hauling will cost a dollar or two, and at the minimum we cannot compete with the foreign producer. The brimstone used in this country annually amounts in value to about \$3,500,000. If our home pyrites is used there is a saving to our people

of \$3,500,000 on that one article. Put the duty on foreign pyrites, and we will produce that amount here and save every dollar which we now send abroad. It will also lead to the development and manufacture of soda-ash in this country, which is imported to the extent of nearly \$3,000,000 a year. The Spanish ore has arsenic in it, and when made into a fertilizer it is an injury to the land. They do not get the arsenic out of it before it goes into the fertilizer. It would be no injury to the foreign mines if this duty was put on now. They have shipped over here, experimentally, six or seven thousand tons of ore, and are about to make arrangements for sending it over in larger quantities, but they have not perfected them, so that there would be no injury to vested rights if the duty was levied as we suggest. There are no factories here prepared to burn the foreign ores, but there will be twelve months from to-day. If the duties are put on, these foreign importations will not come here, and the whole country will be benefited. I have examined the matter carefully, and I can see more reason for a heavy duty being put on this article than on many articles which are protected by a heavy duty at present.

By Commissioner BOTTLER :

Question. Are you aware that they are refining in the Kanawha Valley and are about to utilize their product?—Answer. Yes, sir; and Mr. Crenshaw, of Richmond, is mining in Louisa County, Virginia, and is burning pyrites there successfully. The English themselves say these ores are better than the Spanish ores, and if they could get them as cheaply from this country as they can get them from Spain, they would prefer them. That whole country is full of it. This is the mineral that has been known all over the land as “fool’s gold” for the last fifty years. It has been picked up by thousands of men and sent to chemists and geologists to decide whether it was gold or silver.

Q. It has been stated before this Commission by persons interested in bringing these ores in that we have not any in this country at all.—A. That is not true. We have a belt about 200 miles wide which contains them, as I have already described.

L. STRAUS & SONS.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

The following petition of importers and dealers in earthenware, china, and glassware, addressed to the Commission, was read and ordered to be printed:

We, the undersigned merchants, importers and dealers in earthenware, china, glassware and toys, representing the medium through which the greater portion of the consumption of articles pertaining to the lines named reach the consumers, beg to submit for your consideration, in addition to what has already been submitted by a committee representing this line of business, which appeared before you at Buffalo, the following:

1. The abolition of duties on all charges for packing, inland transportation, and commission.

2. A uniform duty of 30 per cent. ad valorem on pottery of every description, whether earthenware or china, white or decorated, and a duty of 30 per cent. on glassware of every description, and also on toys and dolls.

We ask for the abrogation of duty on packing charges, &c., because on the lower grades of white and printed earthenware, majolica and Bohemian glassware, on which the nominal duty is 40 per cent., the actual duty collected on the cost of the goods amounts to from 70 to 80 per cent., and we have every reason to believe that none outside of those who are engaged in the importation of these goods have, and even those who enacted the laws respecting thereto had, the remotest idea of how onerous the packing charges, inland freight, &c., bear on the original cost of the goods.

We suggest a uniform duty, as it does away with many perplexing questions which constantly arise, and simplifies the tariff, which is a great convenience for the merchants, and a fully corresponding advantage for the government.

We suggest a reduction in the duty because your honorable Commission, as we understand it, was called into existence for the purpose of readjusting the tariff on an equitable basis, not with the view of increasing, but of reducing the revenue.

On many articles appertaining to our line, the present duties are in fact prohibitive, and unless reduced might as well be 100 per cent. as 35 to 40 per cent., if it be not the object to have a prohibitive tariff. By a simple study of statistics as to the amount of earthenware that is being imported into this country, whether in number of packages or in value, compared with what it was ten years ago, an erroneous conclusion is arrived at. Then fully 95 per cent. of all importations of earthenware consisted of plain or white ware; but home manufacturers, through the enormous protection, have succeeded in making such inroads on the imported article that to-day the importation of white ware is not exceeding 50,000 packages, or only about half what it was ten years ago. The other 50,000 packages, which figure in the statistics, are colored goods, which ten years ago were not imported to the extent of 2,000 packages.

So far as glassware is concerned, 80 per cent. of the consumption is supplied by domestic manufacturers, and the preposterousness of a protection being required becomes apparent, from the fact that we are ex-

porting in no inconsiderable amounts to the very country from which we imported it.

If earthenware manufacturers were able to build up under the present tariff to their immense proportions, and drive out 50 per cent. of the imported goods, while they were grappling in the dark with difficulties of a new undertaking, and the intricacies and mysterious freaks of nature that occur in the mixing of chemicals and clays, they surely ought to be able to continue to make sufficient profitable returns, when all the former difficulties have been reduced to as exact a science as it is among the older potting communities of foreign countries, with the reduction in tariff as indicated.

The signers of this embody not only importers, but, to a much larger number, dealers in goods made everywhere, merchants who buy their goods where they can be obtained to best advantage, American or foreign. Consequently the views set forth here do not spring from narrow-minded, selfish motives, but are actuated by principles of equity that will result in the greatest good for the greatest number.

Whatever may be the result of your deliberations and your recommendations to Congress, so far as the rates of duty are concerned, whether you adopt our views or not, let us at least impress upon you the importance and the point which we have most at heart, of having a *uniform duty*, in order to do away with the many perplexing questions and annoying intricacies constantly arising under the present tariff.

This petition is signed by about 250 persons and firms, dealers and importers throughout the country, embracing the States of New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Illinois, Ohio, Maryland, Missouri, Louisiana, South Carolina, Michigan, Iowa, Minnesota, Georgia, Virginia, Indiana, Alabama, Tennessee, Kentucky, Maine, Kansas.

AUCHINCLOSS BROTHERS.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

The following statement regarding cotton yarns and spool cotton was read and ordered to be printed :

The undersigned, representing mills manufacturing fine cotton yarns and spool cotton in this country, respectfully recommend that the following be substituted for paragraphs 927 and 928, section 2504, schedule A, of the revised tariff, approved June 22, 1874 :

Par. 927. Cotton thread, yarn, warps, or warp yarn, whether single or advanced beyond the condition of single by twisting two or more single yarns together, whether on beams or in bundles, skeins, or cops, or in any other form, except as hereafter provided for, valued at not exceeding forty cents per pound, ten cents per pound; valued at over forty cents per pound, and not exceeding sixty cents per pound, twenty cents per pound; valued at over sixty cents per pound and not exceeding eighty cents per pound, thirty cents per pound; valued at over eighty cents per pound, forty cents per pound; and in addition to such rates of duty, twenty per centum ad valorem.

Par. 928. Spool thread of cotton, six cents per dozen spools, containing on each spool not exceeding one hundred yards of thread, and in addition thereto ten per centum ad valorem; exceeding one hundred yards, for every additional hundred yards of thread on each spool, or fractional part thereof, in excess of one hundred yards, six cents per dozen, and fifteen per centum ad valorem.

The same making a reduction of 20 per centum in the duty upon spool thread of cotton, with no material reduction in the revenue derived therefrom.

(Signed)

AUCHINCLOSS BROTHERS,
 For J. & P. COATS,
 THOMAS RUSSELL & Co.,
 For JOHN CLARK, JR., & Co.
 CLARK THREAD COMPANY,
 WILLIAM CLARK, *Treasurer.*
 WILLIMANTIC LINEN COMPANY,
 W. E. BARROWS, *President.*
 HADLEY COMPANY,
 By ARTHUR T. LYMAN, *Treasurer.*
 ARLINGTON MILLS,
 By WM. WHITMAN, *Treasurer.*
 MERRICK THREAD COMPANY,
 TIMOTHY MERRICK, *Treasurer.*
 GARDINER HALL, JR. & Co.
 GREENE & DANIELS MANUFACTURING COMPANY,
 E. A. GREENE, *Treasurer.*
 STAFFORD MANUFACTURING COMPANY,
 J. A. ADAMS, *Treasurer.*

THE GROWTH OF THE SPOOL-COTTON INDUSTRY.

The attack upon the spool-cotton industry, some weeks ago, by Mr. J. S. Moore, on the ground that it was a monopoly which brought in no revenue, has led us to look up the figures contained in the government statistics for the past ten years.

In the valuable "Compilation of foreign commodities imported," by Charles H. Evans, issued from the Government Printing Office in 1879,

we have found full details on pages 111, 112, 113, which, when properly arranged by years, show that this industry has continued to pay the large sum of over one million of dollars per annum through all the changes of the tariff since 1867, although the thread no longer comes in on spools, but is imported in hanks and put on spools in this country.

The quantity imported has increased largely since the war, and at no time did the government raise so large a duty from spool cotton under the tariff acts existing prior to 1865 as subsequently.

It is an industry which, instead of being driven off and made non-productive of revenue by the imposition of a high tariff, has actually thrived under it and yielded more revenue than before.

This is because those engaged in the business built mills in the United States and continued to import their goods in a partially finished state.

The figures given below expose the fallacy stated by Mr. J. S. Moore, that the present tariff on spool cotton has caused the revenue to dwindle down (as he stated) to the pitiful sum of \$65,515.07, and that a change in this respect would be for the good of the Treasury.

There are no reliable statistics of the imports of spool cotton before the war published by the Government Bureau of Statistics, for as there was no special duty on spool-cotton thread, all importations were included under the general heading of thread, yarn, and twist.

But we have ourselves published for many years weekly reports of the number of cases and value of spool cotton imported at the port of New York, and we believe that these figures are the only ones accessible which give even an approximate idea of the business done in spool cotton before the present duties were placed upon it.

We condense from our files:

Marketed at the port of New York in the five years prior to the war.

Years.	Quantity.	Outable value.	Rate of duty.	Revenue collected.
	<i>Packages.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>	
1850.....	2,000	\$642,843	24	\$154,282 32
1857.....	3,808	770,355	24	184,855 20
1858.....	3,687	745,633	24	178,951 92
1859.....	7,246	1,621,109	24	389,087 76
1860.....	7,193	1,589,187	24	381,404 40
Total revenue collected from spool cotton in five years under a 24 per cent. tariff.				1,288,581 00

WILLIAM B. HACKENBURG.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. WILLIAM B. HACKENBURG, of Philadelphia, representing the silk manufacturers, addressed the Commission as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: In representing the silk manufacturers of Philadelphia it will be my purpose to furnish you with such statistics and statements as pertain to this city. It may, however, on some points be necessary to generalize. The Silk Association have prepared and presented a schedule relating to the interests of the trade for the consideration and guidance of your honorable Commission in arriving at such conclusions as will tend to recommend the necessary protection to this branch of manufactures, which promises to become one of our great American industries.

The manufacture of silk goods in this country is of but recent development; carefully nursed by those interested, had it not been for the protection afforded it never would have attained its present proportions. It has grown from a mere novelty to transactions of many millions every year; it has offered the laboring classes a better field for work, it being well known there is no factory work lighter than that of a silk mill as conducted in America; it has fostered a taste for art-culture in the constant demand for new and attractive designs; good and remunerative wages are always paid its employés, in evidence of which a strike or labor trouble seldom occurs. With all these facts well established by the statistics of the Census Bureau and the Silk Association, extracts from which are now presented, we feel warranted in asking from you a careful study of the silk industry of the United States, satisfied that you cannot but offer such recommendations to our national legislature as will continue to guard and encourage this young industry in the rapid strides it must continue to make; resulting in the retention in this country of many millions of dollars annually sent abroad for luxuries in silk, besides giving employment to thousands of our people, thereby adding to its wealth, to the demand for skilled labor, and increasing the taste for artistic work.

We find that from 1843 to 1846 there was imported raw silk valued at \$612,588; from 1847 to 1857, \$6,241,934; from 1858 to date, \$105,174,073.* These amounts are exclusive of that re-exported, therefore it is safe to say this was all used in the United States.

Importations of raw silk into and consumed in the United States, by years (ending June 30 each year).

1843.....	\$49,997	1855.....	\$678,972
1844.....	165,851	1856.....	986,979
1845.....	204,092	1857.....	949,571
1846.....	192,648	1858.....	1,448,103
1847.....	119,373	1859.....	1,599,179
1848.....	320,911	1860.....	1,162,795
1849.....	310,723	1861.....	1,354,690
1850.....	323,255	1862.....	468,114
1851.....	404,342	1863.....	1,004,356
1852.....	353,693	1864.....	2,026,463
1853.....	711,810	1865.....	713,677
1854.....	1,082,305	1866.....	3,239,471

* Silk Association, Fourth Annual Report, p. 65; Tenth Annual Report, p. 21.

1867	\$2, 442, 725	1875	\$4, 471, 396
1868	2, 274, 747	1876	6, 554, 062
1869	3, 261, 465	1877	5, 002, 483
1870	2, 974, 927	1878	8, 080, 081
1871	5, 549, 809	1879	11, 749, 943
1872	5, 492, 250	1880	10, 885, 167
1873	6, 414, 729	1881	13, 177, 898
1874	3, 824, 943		

In 1850 (this being the earliest period we have any statistics on these points) the capital invested in silk manufacturing was \$678,300, and hands employed, 1,723; in 1880 the capital was \$19,125,300, and hands 34,521.*

The following table shows the value of the silk productions and wages paid in the several years, as also the value of imported manufactured silk goods.†

Years.	Production.	Wages paid.
1850	\$1, 800, 470	\$207, 410
1860	6, 607, 771	1, 050, 224
1870	12, 210, 002	1, 642, 280
1876	27, 158, 071	6, 392, 256
1880	31, 510, 723	9, 146, 705
1881-'82	35, 957, 722

Imported manufactured goods.‡

1850	\$17, 679, 137
1860	32, 961, 120
1870	23, 870, 142
1880	32, 188, 690
1881-'82	36, 432, 706

The home production for 1881-'82 amounted to \$35,957,722, of which \$3,491,840 (about one-tenth of the whole) was produced in this city; to the full detailed statement of which I ask your attention. §

Statistics of silk industry, prepared for the United States census, for the year ending June 30, 1880.

	Pennsylvania.	Philadelphia.
Number of establishments	49	47
Capital	\$1, 379, 900	\$1, 313, 900
Number of hand looms on broad goods	30	} 769
Number of hand looms on narrow goods	220	
Number of power looms on broad goods	95	
Number of power looms on narrow goods	471	
Number of spindles, winding, cleaning, and doubling	9, 497	
Number of spindles, spinning and twisting	15, 744	
Number of spindles, braiding	6, 864	
Value of machinery	\$287, 000	
Value of buildings	\$422, 000	
Greatest number of hands	3, 300	
Average males above 16 years	1, 000	
Average females above 16 years	1, 870	
Average children and youths	319	
Hours in day labor	10	
Total amount of wages during the year	\$678, 120	\$620, 620
Value of raw silk and silk materials consumed	1, 207, 705	
Value of other textiles consumed	394, 680	
Value of dyestuffs, chemicals, and oils consumed	50, 975	
Value of fuel consumed	10, 265	
Value of all other materials and supplies consumed	107, 270	
Gross value of material and supplies, total	1, 830, 885	
Silk material twice included in foregoing	404, 000	
Net value of materials and supplies	1, 426, 885	
Gross value of manufactured products	3, 401, 840	\$3, 102, 340
Silk products twice included	638, 675	
Net value of manufactured products, finished goods	2, 863, 165	\$2, 627, 665

*Census Report 1880, pp. 24, 25.

†Census Report 1880, pp. 24, 25; tenth report of the Silk Association, p. 19.

‡Census Report 1880, p. 20.

§Prepared by W. C. Wyckoff, esq., secretary of the Silk Association.

Now it must not be supposed because our raw silk is admitted free our manufactured goods can be placed in the market to compete with the foreign without additional protection. Sufficient duty must be imposed on the imported manufactured goods for several substantial reasons. In the first place, the difference in rates of wages of this country and others is simply enormous. Take a few instances:*

	United States.	England.	France.	Italy.	Germany.
A female hard-silk winder receives.....	\$5 25	\$2 00	\$1 40
A female hard-silk doubler receives.....	5 18	2 45
A female spinner receives.....	5 00	2 00	\$1 44
A male spinner receives.....	5 57	2 10
A male hard-silk twister receives.....	5 08	3 42
A female soft-silk winder receives.....	8 00	2 00
A female warper receives.....	10 00	2 40
A female weaver, hand looms, receives..	8 44	3 00	2 28	\$2 72
A male weaver, hand looms, receives....	14 15	5 40	4 80	3 03
A male weaver, power looms, receives...	11 43	5 40	3 00
A female weaver, power looms, receives..	7 94	4 38
A weaver in best ribbons receives.....	15 00	0 00	(*)
A male weaver in dress goods receives..	12 00	0 00	2 73
A female weaver in dress goods receives..	0 00	1 00
A male designer receives.....	24 71	12 00
A female fringe-maker receives.....	5 30	1 43
A dyer receives.....	12 77	7 00	3 30

* Switzerland, \$4.50.

These prices are for ten hours per day's work in this country, and for twelve to fifteen in Europe.

It is thus shown that we pay our operatives, in addition to receiving less work from them, about 100 per cent. more than the same class of work people receives in England; over 200 per cent. more than in France; over 300 per cent. more than in Italy; and a still greater percentage than is paid in Germany.

Another reason, the cost of raw material when purchased by our manufacturers has necessarily large additions for freight, insurance, commissions, and handling which many of the foreign silk-producing countries are not called upon to sustain. From the census returns it is shown that the proportion of home-made goods of the whole quantity consumed in the United States has steadily increased. In 1860 it was 13 per cent.; in 1870, 23 per cent.; in 1880, 38 per cent., and in 1881 nearly 50 per cent.

That there must be good existing causes for this marked increase in the demand for American silks is very evident, and upon this point particular attention is asked. Our silks, dress goods, ribbons, upholstery goods, handkerchiefs, fringes, trimmings, sewing and machine silks are equal to any of the same kind in the world; some are even better. Take the sewing and machine silks (being engaged in that branch, am more familiar with it than the others). It is hardly twenty-five years since nearly every dollar's worth of sewing-silk used in the United States was imported and sold at what now appears fabulous prices—from \$10 to \$16 per pound—the cost of raw silk being then no higher than at present. To-day this class of goods, of better quality, sells for \$7.50 to \$10, with but a very small quantity, if any, imported. In this one item of sewings, \$7,689,512 was produced in 1881.

In dress goods and ribbons, there is not a merchant in the country dealing in these articles who does not keep a large line of American goods, quantities of which, owing to the prejudices of many people, are

* Tenth report of the Silk Association, p. 15, by W. C. Wyckoff, esq.

compelled to be sold under a foreign brand or name. Taking the comparative value between dress silks fifteen years ago and the present time, it must be acknowledged the quality is better, styles superior, and prices lower to-day. Why is this? Because the American manufacturer by purchasing the best material, using the most improved machinery, constantly watching for and adding new inventions, employing competent work-people, perfect dyeing, and catering to the wants of the people in new designs and styles, has so improved the goods that the European manufacturer has been compelled to make better qualities and sell them at lower prices to compete with those made here. If in less than twenty-five years the American silk manufacturers have succeeded in doing this, are they not justly entitled to receive full protection for the industry they have matured?

And right here let me add another unmistakable evidence of their superiority--that foreign commission houses and others in New York now represent the production of American factories. Now take the consumption of manufactured silk goods in the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882:

Imported	\$36,432,700
Domestic	35,957,722
Total	72,390,428

With our continued prosperity the demand must yearly increase. There is no reason why the bulk of the imported goods should not be replaced by the domestic. We have the facilities for producing, and can produce them equal in every respect, if the required protection due to a business of such importance is provided; which should be, at least, that *raw silk* remain *free* and the *duties* on manufactured goods be imposed as recommended by the Silk Association.

CHARLES M. SAULSON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. CHARLES M. SAULSON, of New York City, journalist, appeared before the Commission and made the following statement :

I love liberty, and I believe that the individual should be allowed the greatest liberty of action consistent with the common welfare. I believe that trade should be free and unfettered, and that society should not interfere with personal liberty to the extent of dictating to any man from whom he should buy and from whom he should not buy. I do not hold that society has not the right to do this if it be for the common welfare, but I deny that it is for the common welfare, and assert, on the contrary, that it is mischievous, and only productive of evil. I do not, however, expect or hope to demonstrate that proposition in the limited time which I propose to occupy. My purpose, to-day, is merely to direct your attention to one glaring inconsistency in the protectionist doctrine.

I shall not claim that it constitutes in itself a disproof, but I must insist that it is of a nature so grave that it involves the doctrine itself in absurdities so utterly at variance with well-known principles that, when pointed out you will see the necessity of re-examining the doctrine itself, with a view either to clear up all suspicion thus thrown upon it, or else to abandon it altogether.

Two distinct conditions must be present for the development of a system of protection for any given commodity. First, there must be two communities (for no people care to protect against themselves); and secondly, it must be possible, in one of these communities, from some cause, no matter what, to produce this commodity at a smaller cost than in the other. These are the conditions which develop protection. The producer whose product is the dearest finds himself soon without a market; he is threatened with financial ruin; his workshops and his factories must close; his workmen must be remanded to enforced idleness, and all who have embarked in this enterprise, whether as proprietors having a direct interest in the profits, or creditors having an indirect interest, and all who have had profitable dealings with the manufacturer or his workmen, all must suffer in a greater or less degree.

Here we certainly have a case, if ever there was one, upon which the benefits of protection can be properly bestowed. With the imposition of a little tariff law, the prosperous condition of this producer and his workmen and his creditors and his friends, and all who have dealings with him, is at once restored. I ask, then, of this protection theory, what answer it has to make to the request of this producer. Has he made out a case? Admitting, of course, that all the facts are as presented, does the protection theory pronounce judgment and say that the interests of the community in which he resides demand that he shall be protected by a tariff? No; the theory is not yet ready to deliver judgment. It asks a question first, and according as the answer is yes or no, it decides favorably or adversely in the manufacturer's suit.

It is to the monstrous absurdity of this question, to its utter irrelevancy, to its profound stupidity, that I wish to draw your attention. It no longer asks, as it was once accustomed to ask, "do you desire

permanent protection, or do you simply want aid until you can build up an infant industry to the point at which it will be self-supporting?"

This is no longer a pertinent question, for the theory has outgrown the baby plan, and its advocates have discovered that the "soothing syrup" that was once so essential to the welfare of the babe, is absolutely indispensable to the very existence of the full-grown vigorous man. No. Your theory does not ask this question, but it does demand further information before it ventures a decision so momentous. It wants to know more about the two communities in which the producer who asks to be protected and the other one live. And what is the information which it seeks? Is it whether the two communities have the same religion, or whether their people are of the same color, race, or nationality? How ridiculous! Certainly, you will say, it asks no such questions as these, for what possible connection can the subject have with the answers to such queries? A decision of the producer's suit for protection, based upon the answer to an inquiry so entirely immaterial, must be a decision entitled to no respect whatever. But the question which it does ask is quite as immaterial and absurd as any I have mentioned. It wants to know if the two communities have the same government. If so—if, for instance, the oppressed producer lives in Pennsylvania and his competitor and oppressor in New York, then protection (as taught to-day) answers no. But if the producer lives in Pennsylvania, and the competitor in Canada, then it answers yes; a case for the producer has been made out; he ought to have protection, and he wins his suit.

Now, I submit, gentlemen, that the question as to whether or not New York and Pennsylvania elect some officials once in two or four years to perform certain services for the common advantage of both in Washington, can have no possible connection with the merits of this case. If perfectly free and untrammelled trade between New York and Pennsylvania is a blessing to each when there is some political connection between them, it would be none the less a blessing were all political ties which bind them together to be severed to-morrow. And yet, imagine for a moment what a clamor would, under such changed condition of things, be raised by producers in each State for protection for their particular industries. New York, every year, sells millions of its products into Pennsylvania, and Pennsylvania sells millions of its products into New York. You need not go into statistics to discover that in the commodities which each State sells to the other the seller possesses some advantages, natural or acquired, in their production. But this is precisely the condition precedent with which protection invariably has to deal. It never seeks to protect the producer who has an advantage, but him who is at some disadvantage.

Of all the commodities which the citizens of New York sell to the people of Pennsylvania, I doubt if you could place your finger upon a single one that does not, in being brought into Pennsylvania, injuriously affect some producer in that State, and his workmen, by the competition to which it subjects them; and precisely the same is true of the products which Pennsylvania sells to New York. Under present conditions, with the two States forming a part of one common country, by some peculiar intellectual hocus-pocus which I confess I am utterly unable to comprehend, any complaint on the part of such a producer that he is subjected to unfair competition by producers in another State who have natural or other advantages, and any petition to be placed, by a little tariff, upon "an equal footing," as the saying is, with his competitor, would be received with contempt and ridicule, and by the very people,

mind you, who are the very high priests of protection, and who, if the two States were made politically distinct to-morrow, would demonstrate that ruin and beggary must come upon one or the other, if not, indeed, upon both, if somebody be not protected; and they could show this quite as conclusively as they show it to-day, when trade relations between the United States and Europe are under discussion.

Understand me, gentlemen, the fundamental principle which is the basis of all protectionist doctrine (and the doctrine itself could not live an instant if the principle were abandoned) is, that competition on the part of a producer having natural or acquired advantages is an evil, not alone to the producer not having those advantages, but, as well, to the community as a whole in which he casts his lot.

As I have already intimated, it is no part of my purpose to-day to combat this idea. But I do wish to emphasize as loudly as lies in my power the absurdity of the limitation which the doctrine puts upon it. It says this competition is an evil only when the two producers live under different governments. I insist that if it is an evil at all, and one calling for remedial legislation, in the shape of tariff laws, it cannot matter whether one government or two administer the affairs of the competing manufacturers. Now, I will anticipate the reply that will be made to this. It will be said that while it is true that each State could benefit its own producers by discriminating against the product of its neighbor, yet, both being members of the same family of States, and their people being fellow-countrymen and brothers, such a course would be unadvisable and highly discreditable so long as they remained politically united, for neither could benefit its own producers except by injuring those of the other.

Now, this position involves a fallacy which lies at the foundation of the whole protection theory. It assumes that in the trade relations between New York and Pennsylvania one is on the whole a loser and the other a gainer, and that the loser, in a resigned and Christian spirit in the highest degree commendable, pockets her loss with the consoling reflection that her neighbor who has pocketed the gain is, after all, a sister State, and she shouldn't feel so bad about it. But this is a radical misapprehension of the principles which underlie all trade. If it were proposed to-morrow to set up the barriers to trade between the States that exist between our country and foreign nations, would you expect to find the statesmen of Pennsylvania arguing against it by urging that the people of Pennsylvania ought to be magnanimous with their brethren of New York, and should consent to the sacrifice which a free interchange of commodities would entail upon them, because it would benefit a sister State? Further than this, would you expect to find the people of any State in the Union, in their present industrial condition, or in any conceivable industrial condition, with cheap labor or dear labor, high prices or low prices, no matter what—would you expect to find any State in the Union advocating free and untrammelled intercourse with her neighboring States for the reason that it was willing to make a sacrifice of its own welfare for the good of its neighbors?

The mere statement of the position is its own refutation. The people of Pennsylvania buy from the people of New York and sell to New York, not because it benefits New York, but because it benefits the people of Pennsylvania; and, therefore, she is interested in free trade between the two States, not because it benefits New York, but because it benefits Pennsylvania; and this is the case with every State in the Union in its trade relations with its sister States. Now, this is the chain of

truths, briefly stated, which forms, as I claim, an almost conclusive presumption against the correctness of the protection theory:

First. The evil against which protection seeks to guard, namely, the competition of more favored producers, is found to exist in every State in the Union, and in every State are thousands of producers whose interests would be advanced by excluding this competition, thus giving them free swing at their neighbors to exact what prices their greed demanded.

Second. The feeling universally as to the desirability of excluding such competition is unanimously against it, and no State has yet developed a movement seriously looking to such a result, notwithstanding that the apparent benefits to be derived from it are quite as important as those urged in any instance in favor of excluding foreign competition.

Third. This universal conviction against the propriety of excluding the competition of producers in other States, springs in no case from a charitable desire to benefit those competing States at its own expense. Such an explanation of it would be everywhere jeered at as absurd. It springs, on the contrary, from purely selfish considerations, and it is everywhere held (and I have yet to hear the protectionist who will dare dispute it) that such exclusion would work mischief to the people of the community which attempted it. It is because of this conviction, and not because of any charitable considerations for sister States, that universal free trade between the States goes by default.

Fourth. Not only is this true of present industrial conditions, but no possible conditions can arise, nor can conditions be imagined, under which any State would find it profitable in the interests of its own people to exclude the competition of other States, no matter how hard that competition appeared to press upon its own producers. And not only would such a course never be seriously contemplated, but under no conceivable industrial conditions would it occur to any sane man that it was sacrificing itself for the benefit of its neighbors in refraining from the temptation to exclude their products.

Fifth. If this view is correct, then the question of the existence of a common government, or its absence, becomes entirely immaterial. If it were believed that free trade between the States ever demanded the sacrifice of any one State for the benefit of others, then the question would be very pertinent; for a State could only be asked to make such a sacrifice to benefit another which was bound to it by the strongest ties with which different communities can be united. But when it is conceded that no sacrifice is anywhere demanded; that each State in supporting perfectly free and untrammelled intercourse with every other State acts purely and exclusively in its own interests, without a thought to those of others, what does it matter whether the States are united politically or entirely independent? Or whether they love one another or hate one another? Since each acts for its own best interests in any event, what possible difference can it make what their political relations may be?

Now, gentlemen, these considerations may not be, in your judgment, a refutation of every claim for respect made by the protectionist doctrine, but it does seem to me that you cannot resist the conclusion that they are a perfect demonstration of this proposition, namely, that the limitation which the doctrine carries with it, that its principles are applicable only when two communities are considered which are politically independent, is a limitation which is illogical, unreasonable, and worthy of no respect. In other words, if protection is a fine thing when the community to be protected and that to be protected against are gov-

erned from different centers, then it is a fine thing when they are governed from the same center, and *vice versa*. If it is an evil, productive of mischievous results in the one case, it is no less so in the other.

To state the proposition still more concisely, the question of the political relations of the two communities is entirely immaterial and should be eliminated.

Now, a word as to the practical application of this truth. You have had many producers before you during the last few months, all with a grievance or afraid that they might have a grievance. Their troubles in every instance consisted in the fact that some other producer could manufacture cheaper than they, and undersell them. But in every case only such producers came before you as had a grievance against *foreign* competitors, and wished to be relieved of *foreign* competition.

If I have succeeded in establishing the correctness of my position, then it is entirely immaterial whether the competition complained of is of foreign or domestic origin.

You have had a goodly representation of the men who came to complain of the one variety, but you have heard nothing whatever of the other. And yet, if you will think a moment, you will see that for every complaint in which the foreign competitor is the aggressor, you can find a thousand in which domestic competition works out precisely the same ills, if they are ills, and impose the same hardships, if they are hardships. Think of the little shoemakers, for instance, scattered throughout this country, each in his own little shop, perhaps employing an apprentice or a journeyman, perhaps relying for subsistence upon the labor of his own hands alone, and consider how the competition of the five-story factory in the large city, a hundred or a thousand miles away, grinds down the pittance which he is enabled to demand for his work. Think of the thousands of miles of railroad in this country over which millions of tons of merchandise are carried daily, and consider that not a dollar's worth is carried except from a section which produced cheaply to a section which cannot produce as cheaply, and ask yourselves if the producers in the sections where the goods are sold cannot make out a case and establish a claim to be "put on an equal footing" quite as worthy of your consideration as any that have been presented to you. Such claims could be presented to you by the million if you only invited them as you invite those of the other sort, and every claim will be based, as are the claims with which you are better acquainted, not merely upon the selfish and personal interests of the person making it, but upon grounds of public policy narrowed within the limits of the section with which the suitor is identified. He will tell you, and tell you truthfully, that he can build up manufactures there which would otherwise languish, pay his workmen well when otherwise they would starve, give employment to capital which must otherwise lie idle, and insure all the other well-known protectionist blessings which would otherwise have no existence. And all this, if you will only "put him on the same level" with the producer in another section of the country. Gentlemen, what answer will you make to this claim? Of course you will deny it, but upon what grounds? Will you say, "We know you are asking for what ought to be granted, but we know of no practicable method of restricting the competition of the domestic producer"? No, I do not think you will base your refusal upon a matter of detail. You will refuse the request because it is wrong in principle and because you will base whatever action you decide to take upon a broader public policy than this.

But, again, will you say to him, "We know that this competition is

a ruinous thing for your section; we know that it will keep your people poor; we know that it will prevent the building up of your manufactures, &c., but then, you know, you ought to be willing to suffer these things because the benefits will go to people in another part of your common country who live under the same glorious flag, whose fathers fought, bled, and died for liberty together with your fathers," and all that sort of thing? Well, I don't know whether you would be disposed to make such an answer, but I am inclined to think that the poor fellow who made the request, ground down by the ruinous, killing competition of richer or otherwise more favored producers, would not take to it very kindly. He would probably venture to doubt the justice of such a position. Such an answer, gentlemen, would certainly not be satisfactory to yourselves. Let me suggest what your reply would be. I think you would say to such an applicant for protection: "We refuse to sanction any trade obstructions around your territory, whether by your territory you mean a great State or only a county in that State, or only a town in that county, or only a village in that town, or a street in that village. We are well aware that unobstructed trade relations between your section and others will benefit others, but we know as well that it will benefit you, and we refuse your demands, not by any means because we think you ought to make a sacrifice of yourselves for the benefit of your neighbors, but because by refusing it we are well satisfied that we are acting in your interests quite as much as in the interests of the others whom we represent." You will make no appeals to his patriotism, you will not shake the American Eagle or the Stars and Stripes in his face. Such a course is only pursued when you demand a sacrifice for the common welfare. But here you demand no sacrifice. You only seek to explain what you sincerely believe, that, notwithstanding the evils which from the producer's point of view the position entails, free intercommunication between all sections is a blessing, and must prove a source of prosperity to each, taken separately. Can you make any other answer than this, gentlemen? I think not; and yet you must know what such a reply involves. It contains within it the essential principle for which I contend—that the question of free trade or protection must be decided without reference to the political connection or political independence of the communities interested. If, when you urged the desirability of free and unrestricted exchange of products between the States, you did so by an appeal to patriotism and by attempting to show the duty of any State to sacrifice its own interests that the interests of its sister States in our common country might be advanced, then the question of a common country and a common government for all would enter as a very potent factor in your argument, and one which could not be ignored. You could demand no sacrifice of one State except in the interests of another, bound to it by the tenderest ties. But, gentlemen, this is not your position. You will not admit that a sacrifice is anywhere demanded. You make your appeal in each case to self-interest, not to patriotism. How then can the question be pertinent or its answer material—"Do the producer seeking protection and the more favored producer against whom protection is sought live under the same flag?"

I think I have shown that the question is, as the lawyers say, "irrelevant, immaterial, and inconsequent," and the answer to it would not and should not affect the decision as to whether protection in any case is to be recommended or refused. But, as I intimated at the outset, I do not claim that the establishment of this truth constitutes a disproof of the protection theory. On the contrary, you may very well believe with me that the question of a common government has no relevancy in

the controversy between protection and free trade, and yet you may remain protectionists to the backbone. But you will have to stop building your custom-houses exclusively along your frontiers. And when the producers of the country come before you again to ventilate their grievances and to ask you to help them by tying the hands of the consumers to whom they expect to sell, you must no longer ask them, are you injured by *foreign* competition? You must make your question broader, and ask, are you injured by competition? And if he answers yes, you must immediately proceed to fence him in. Build a chain of custom-houses around him so as to insure him a market, but you must be careful to fence in with him the consumers upon whom he expects to fatten and wax great. If he is a miner and has to go down ten thousand feet into the bowels of the earth for his coal or his iron or his lead, see to it that he is not crushed by the ruinous competition of his neighbor whose minerals lie, in sufficient quantities to supply the whole world, within a few feet of the surface. If he is a manufacturer and does not understand his business, if he has built his iron mill too far from the mouth of the mine, if his machinery is antiquated, his help ignorant, his capital inadequate, or for any other reason he cannot successfully compete with his better-equipped neighbor, why fence him in, and fence in with him as many consumers of his wares as you can that he may have somebody to sell to and a market free from this dreadful thing—the competition of a more favored producer.

If you are logical protectionists and have the courage to follow your convictions wherever they may lead, protect everybody from the competition of everybody else, make of this country an immense checker-board with innumerable squares, and between the squares place long rows of custom-houses, and allow nothing to pass the line until every producer has been “placed on the same footing”; and if still you find ruinous competition inside of one of these squares, be not afraid to subdivide them again and again, for the logic of your theory demands it. Gentlemen, if you do not like this position, there is one escape from it, and only one. You may say this: Since there is no logical distinction to be drawn between the producer who complains of foreign competition and the one who complains of the competition of his neighbors, we shall not lend the impress of our approval to any scheme of commercial legislation which has for its foundation stone the fanciful and unreal distinction which empirics draw between the two. We will proclaim that, as all are satisfied, no harm can result, and only good can flow to all alike from unrestricted, untrammelled commerce between the States of this our common country, though many are separated by thousands of miles of territory, so can no harm result and only good flow from unrestricted, untrammelled commerce between all the nations of the earth.

Another stumbling-block which I wish to point out to you, gentlemen, in the way of the acceptance of this theory of protection, is the utter, hopeless impossibility of defining its limitations. I will show you, first, that in following it to its necessary and logical conclusions you are drawn into absurdities of the most glaring and ridiculous sort; and, secondly, if you seek to evade those absurdities by crying halt to your theories before you are quite upon them, you will find it a task utterly hopeless and fruitless to discover any principle upon which to determine when a halt should be ordered.

To explain, when a manufacturer comes to you seeking protection (you have had them in droves before you), he states his case. The particular commodity which he manufactures costs him a dollar to make; it can be made in Europe and landed here for seventy-five cents; if you

allow the European to sell, unbindered, in this market, he must close his factory, he can no longer derive a profit from his business, his workmen can no longer gain a livelihood, their wives and children must starve; the factory, with all the capital invested in it, must stand there as so much useless rubbish until decay claims it for its own. What a deplorable picture, and how, as if with a magic wand, Congress can change all this ruin and misery into happiness and joy, with a simple little tariff. He asks only a little duty of 25 cents. We all know how this 25 cents is computed—75, the cost abroad, from 100 cents, the cost here, and you have the proper theoretical duty which, in the technical vernacular, places the manufacturer on the same footing as the European producer. So far everything is lovely. But wait, gentlemen; I want to ask your permission to cross-examine this manufacturer. I want to ask him a few questions. Now, it is true that 75 from 100 leaves 25, but it is equally true that 50 from 100 leaves 50. Suppose, then, I want to ask, instead of your production costing 75 cents in Europe, you found that it cost but 50 cents there, the cost to you here remaining the same, what, as an ideal manufacturer seeking protection, would you ask this Commission to do? I don't wish to misrepresent this manufacturer, but I think we are all agreed what his answer would be—certainly a duty of 50 cents. This would again, in the vernacular, place him "upon an equal footing with the foreign producer."

Very well; now let us vary the figures slightly once more. Suppose these unconscionable and unscrupulous producers in Europe, with their pauper labor which works cheap, and their pauper capital which rents cheap, were to selfishly and criminally sell us their product still lower, say 25 cents, what would in that case be the proper thing for this Commission to do? If this seeker after protection is of the usual, thick-skinned variety, he will not hesitate to answer, and, accepting his first principles as correct, his answer will be strictly logical: "We must have a protection of 75 cents to place us on a level with the pauper labor and capital of Europe, else I must close my factory." If, however, he is a thinking man, he will begin here to get a faint glimpse of the absurdities into which his pet theory is leading him. The chances are, however, that even the thinking man will give the same answer. He will picture to himself not, gentlemen, his own lost profits, not his own idle capital, not his own decaying factories, if you should refuse him his modest request of a 75-cent tariff. Oh, no; none of these things trouble him. He only thinks of his own starving workmen and the deprivations and sufferings of their families, and these ills he will reproduce for you in all the ghastly, gloomy blackness with which they oppress his susceptible nature.

But, gentlemen, I am not yet done with our manufacturer. I must ask him, before I release him, what course, as a protectionist, he would advise if, perchance, these detestable foreigners should take it into their heads to send us their goods by the ship-load without price, free gratis, for nothing—if, out of pure philanthropy, they would load up cargoes of them, pay the freight, and land them here at absolutely no expense whatever to anybody on this side, just as the Americans did in the case of Ireland a few years ago? Well, this would certainly threaten your capital with destruction, your workmen with loss of employment, and every ill which you pictured to us when you asked for only a 25-cent tariff. Every object which you then sought to obtain by a tariff can now with the same facility be wrought by a tariff. It only needs to be a little higher. Why do you hesitate now to demand 100 per cent. tariff? The immediate result sought to be effected is pre-

eisely the same—the exclusion of the foreigner's goods. The ultimate results sought are exactly the same—the salvation of your own capital, the conservation of your own profits, the prosperity, aye, the very existence, of your workmen. Are these objects less worthy, are they less important, do they partake less of the nature of a common good, now that you must place a full hundred in the tariff schedule where you only had 25, 50, or 75 before? Why need you hesitate? What possible difference can it make to the foreigner whether his goods are excluded by the cold figures on the statute-books which stand for 25 or those which stand for 50 or 75 or 100, so long as he is excluded anyhow? And yet, gentlemen, this man will hesitate long before he recommends the heroic remedy of a tariff of 100 cents. With all his interests pointing in that direction, with all his thorough belief in the justice, the efficacy, the fruitfulness of the protection remedy, he will not dare to insult your intelligence and his own by asking that these goods which, because of superior natural advantages than ours, or greater skill or knowledge than ours, have come to us at a cost which is nothing, or next to nothing, that these should be turned back and forbidden by a tariff to land on our shores.

And you, gentlemen, those of you who have been protectionists, you would not follow your theory to this, its logical conclusion. But why? If your object was worth attaining, when you shut out the foreign producer with a moderate tariff, what possible objection can there be when you attain precisely the same objects by shutting him out with a higher tariff? What difference can it make to anybody what the tariff is by which his products are kept out, when the tariff is never paid in any event, but only remains on the statute books as a standing menace and threat to intending importers? Do the dead figures, which mean nothing, scare you? Have they made you forget this poor manufacturer's threatened industry, his poor workmen's loss of bread, their starving families? Are not the same evils still to be avoided and the same blessings still to be attained? And will not this hundred-cent tariff still avert the evils and insure the blessings as before?

It is no use, gentlemen; you cannot be made to follow your theory to this point. You cannot, as thinking, reasoning men, believe that the common welfare can be subserved by throwing away what we can get for nothing in order that our manufacturer may have profits, that his workmen may have employment. You appreciate the fact that, in the hypothetical case presented, the factory would be only an immense poor-house, and every inmate, from our suave and agreeable manufacturer in the office to the coal-heaver in the boiler-house, would all be paupers, fed by public charity, because for what they would receive from the public they would perform no service whatever. No, gentlemen; you may believe firmly in the soundness of your theory, but none will dare to follow it as far as this; for this is the point of contact between the truth and the lie, and the lie won't fit.

Are you prepared, gentlemen, to yield implicit obedience to a doctrine which begins by declaring foreign competition an evil against which all the terrors of tariff legislation should be directed; which continues by insisting that the greater the competition the greater the evil, and the more favored the foreign producer the more stringent must be the tariff; and which winds up by declaring that when that competition is the greatest possible, when the foreign producer is secure against all attacks, then that competition is no evil at all, and no legislation is called for?

It seems to me that before subscribing to a doctrine which demands

such a sacrifice of all reason, which stifles common sense, and substitutes the dicta of empiricism, gentlemen intrusted with grave responsibilities such as yours would wish to subject to a more rigid scrutiny the doctrine involving such absurdities. That you take the proper steps to this end, that you examine again this time-honored theory of protection to home industries before fastening for another ten or twenty years its fetters upon your country and mine, is the only recommendation I have to make.

L. CRAWFORD & CO.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. L. CRAWFORD & Co., of Chase's Lake, Lewis County, New York, in regard to the duty on hemlock bark extract, was ordered to be printed:

The undersigned, manufacturers of the extract of hemlock bark for tanning, upon their best information and belief do respectfully represent—

That the present duty on the extract of hemlock bark is 20 per cent. ad valorem.

That the business of its manufacture in the United States was practically created by the levy of the existing duty, no works of the kind being in existence at the time of its imposition, the entire supply being furnished by Canadian companies.

That since the imposition of the present duty extensive works for the manufacture of this extract, in which large amounts of money have been invested, have been erected in Maine, Vermont, New York, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and Wisconsin.

That these works are of ample capacity to supply all possible demands for the commodity in the United States.

That many of them have large tracts of timber lands attached, and have saw-mills for manufacturing the peeled timber into lumber.

That there are immense tracts of hemlock timber lands in the Eastern, Middle, and Western States, the bark from which can in no other way be so advantageously used as in the manufacture of extracts to supply the tanners in the Eastern States and cities.

That there are in Canada and New Brunswick large manufactories of hemlock extracts belonging principally to English companies, which have for years had the almost exclusive control of the English and Continental markets.

That the owners or managers of these companies have until recently systematically and fraudulently undervalued their product, the duty having been assessed upon a sworn valuation of one and one half cents per pound, including the cost of packages and freight to the port of entry.

That in 1880, the attention of the Boston Customs Authorities being called to the matter, after a very slight examination these Canadian companies advanced their sworn valuation to two cents per pound, thus practically acknowledging a fraudulent valuation previously of thirty-three and one-third per cent.

That the average cost net of hemlock bark extract *at the works* in the United States is not less than two and one-half cents per pound.

That hemlock bark delivered at the extract works in the United States costs from \$5 to \$6.50 per cord, representing a value of from \$1.50 to \$2.50 per cord on the tree.

That the Canada corporations are in possession of leaseholds of vast tracts of government lands, the hemlock bark upon which they have at the nominal cost of 50 cents per cord, payable when peeled.

That the cost of labor in peeling and delivering this bark to their factories and in manufacturing it into extract is very much less than the same service to the manufactories in the United States.

That the machinery for these establishments has been imported from England duty free, at a cost very much less than similar machinery made in the United States for our factories.

That for the most part bark extracts are used by tanners as an assistant to increase the rapidity of tannage when the demand for leather is strong, and when the demand for leather is dull but little comparatively is used.

That in these days of rapid communication by steam, brisk or dull markets here and in Europe occur at the same periods.

That at times of strong markets and brisk demand for leather, when Canadian importation would not seriously affect our markets, but little extract is placed here, the bulk of their product then going to Europe; but when demand is light and stocks accumulate their surplus is often pushed upon our markets, and, as it is a perishable article, sold for what it will bring.

That during the past five years we have repeatedly been obliged to sell our product, delivered to the tanner on the eastern seaboard, at 2½ cents per pound to meet this competition, or close our works, throw our workmen out of employment, and see our trade pass into other hands.

That the effect of the tariff by building up the competition among American factories has reduced the price of hemlock extracts from 8 cents per pound, in 1862, to an average of 3 cents per pound for the three years last past.

That for these, and other causes, more than two-thirds of the extract works built and operated in the United States during the past fifteen years have now discontinued business.

That the placing of hemlock bark extract upon the free list would place in the power of these English capitalists to close every factory in the United States, and, this being done, to dictate terms to the eastern tanners.

That with a tariff placing them upon an equality with our manufacturers, the price will be regulated by the cost of bark and other tanning materials at the seaboard, and no combination can advance the price beyond the intrinsic value of the product as a tanning agent, as compared with other commodities.

That legislation placing hemlock bark extract on the free list would, for the reasons and facts presented, be exclusively in the interests of foreign companies, and oppressive and ruinous to the manufacturers of the United States and to their employes, who assist in paying the expenses of our government and contribute to the general prosperity.

The argument for lower duties is very freely used, that the consumer will be greatly benefited thereby, &c. So far as extracts for tanning are concerned such reasoning is unsound. It is an established fact that the cost of the leather in a pair of boots would be increased less than one-half cent by an increase of 1 cent per pound on the price of the extract with which the leather was tanned.

The hemlock timber in all sections of the country of which we have knowledge grows interspersed with spruce, pine, and deciduous trees. These for lumber are much more valuable than the hemlock, and the lumbering interests demand that they be cut. The *débris* is left upon the ground, and sooner or later forest fires are sure to sweep through, killing whatever timber may have been left. Hence, whatever is saved by utilizing the hemlock bark and timber is so much saved and added to the wealth of the country.

Taking as a basis the sworn valuation of the Canadian extracts of 2 cents per pound, we respectfully submit that a specific duty of three-fourths of 1 cent per pound would no more than place American manufacturers upon a par with foreign competitors in our own markets.

L. CRAWFORD & Co.

CYRUS WAKEFIELD.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. CYRUS WAKEFIELD, of Wakefield, Mass., in regard to the duty on chair cane, was ordered to be printed:

The Wakefield Rattan Company is informed that an argument has been submitted to your Commission by Mr. O. Girdan, of New York, in favor of the reduction of the duty on chair cane.

I am instructed on behalf of the corporation to protest against such reduction, and would ask leave to present a brief statement of some of the facts and to suggest some of the grounds on which it is claimed that the protective duty upon the article in question should still be maintained.

Unmanufactured rattan is now imported free of duty.

The manufacture of rattans has grown up in this country chiefly within the last twenty-five years; and especially within the last five or ten years it has rapidly developed by new processes and applications of the manufactured product into various new branches and into great importance.

The capital now directly employed in the business is not less than \$2,500,000—that of the corporation which I represent being \$1,000,000; and the number of persons directly employed is not less than 2,000.

The town of Wakefield, whose name, like that of the corporation, is derived from one of the principal manufacturers, owes its wealth and flourishing condition and almost its existence to this business; and the same is true to almost the same extent of other towns and villages of New England.

This growth has been promoted, this capital invested, and this large amount of industry has taken its direction under the encouragement and fostering influence of a protective tariff. The business which has thus been built up is now and for some years has been open to free competition, and uncontrolled by the patents which once limited it, and during the period of such freedom has received its greatest impetus and increase. As in the case of other manufactures, that competition may be relied on to protect the consumer and the public; and it is believed that no branch of industry presents in itself a better claim for protection than this, which in some of its departments is still in its infancy.

It is now proposed to destroy or reduce the duty upon one of the products of this industry, viz, "Chair cane."

This, as your Commission is doubtless aware, is only one of the manufactured products of rattan, being the outer rind or shell, which, by ingenious machinery (the patents in which have now expired), is separated from the pith or reed, dressed, shaved, and split into strands suitable for the seating of chairs and other like purposes.

It is this article which it is supposed might be imported from Hamburg and other foreign ports in competition with the home product, if the duty were removed.

This "chair cane" formerly constituted the chief element of value in

the rattan; the other parts were for many years treated only as waste substance to be destroyed as useless. Of later years, by ingenious mechanical devices, and improvements in the process of manufacture, the pith or reed, and even the shavings and waste, have been utilized in various applications, and it is thus that new and important branches of the manufacture, which are still young and rapidly extending, have arisen.

Still the chair cane is, and must continue to be, an important and valuable part of the rattan, and its production an important part of the manufacture, without which, and without a profit on which, the business cannot be profitably conducted *in any of its branches*. The raw material cannot be profitably manufactured at all in this country, unless this, its principal element of value, can be profitably disposed of; and, consequently, the varied manufacturers of the other portions of the rattan must fail if the importation of chair cane is thrown open as the importation of a raw material to the foreigner, who deals with the other portions of the product abroad as a manufactured article.

It will thus be seen that the release of duty upon chair cane will not only operate directly upon one of the manufacturing interests of the country by bringing it into direct competition as to the article in question with the foreign producer, but that it will indirectly operate harshly and destructively upon other allied and kindred branches of a comparatively new and infant growth.

The corporation would have been happy to explain their positions to the board more fully, and to illustrate them by an exhibition of their works and products, if opportunity had been afforded during their session in Boston, but it was not then supposed that any claim would be made for legislation injuriously affecting its interests, except on general grounds applicable to all the manufacturing interests of the country, into a discussion of which it does not propose to enter.

W. G. SUMNER.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Prof. W. G. SUMNER, of New Haven, Conn., addressed the Commission as follows:

I have noticed that in the discussions which have taken place before this Commission there has been a constant reiteration of some false doctrines of theoretical political economy about wages. If there is to be any theoretical political economy admitted, it is worthwhile to have it correct. I have therefore thought that it might be proper for me, as a professional student of political economy, to appear here and read a paper setting forth the true relations between protective taxes and wages.

I learn from the reports of the proceedings before this Commission that some people believe that protective taxes make wages high, and at the same time that high wages make protective taxes necessary. If the Commission should act on these two doctrines it would first raise taxes in order to raise wages in obedience to a delegation of workmen, and then raise taxes again in order to offset the previous increase, in the interest of a delegation of employers, and so on forever. These two notions, therefore, contradict each other, and produce an absurdity. They are both false. Protective taxes lower wages, and high wages are a reason for free trade, not for protection. These two propositions confirm and sustain each other, and so ratify the truth of each.

The interests of the man who pays wages and those of the man who receives wages are antagonistic. The one wants wages low and the other wants wages high. The protectionist legislator pretends to step in between them and satisfy both at once. He pretends to make both parties happy at once. "I am going to make your wages high," says he to the wage receiver. "What, then, will become of me?" says the wage payer. "I will make wages low for you," he replies. "How is that," cry the laborers and all their friends, "you are going to make wages low?" "No," replies the legislator, "I mean that I will make the price of the products high, which will have the same effect for the employer." "But how is that," cry the consumers, "you mean to make prices high by law?" "No," replies the legislator, "I do not really make prices high; it only looks so. My measures really make prices low." We have here, then, the greatest miracle that has ever been accomplished. We have heard of making something out of nothing, but here we have creation and destruction in one and the same act. Certainly the problem of universal happiness is solved if we have found out how those who buy need pay little, and those who sell may at the same time receive much; how prices may be raised for the producer and lowered for the consumer both at the same time. As we are all producers and all consumers, we may all sell at the high prices, and all buy at the low ones, and all get rich together. This is why it is that the protected manufacturers are found belling what they are short of (that is, labor) and bearing what they are long of (that is, products). They have discovered this wonderful system by which all are to bull everything and bear everything at the same time, and win a big difference out of nothing. No wonder the protectionists are enraged at the economists who are still stupidly teaching that we can produce nothing except by applying labor and capital to land.

Who is the beneficent genie, now, who works all the magic of the protectionist system? It is tax. If taxes are only rightly adjusted, says the protectionist, they make wages high and low and prices high and low both at the same time. When one hears this kind of nonsense one is forced to believe that the sum of superstition in the world is a constant quantity. Superstition is a defective sense of causation. The savage who wears a bone tied to his arm as a fetich to ward off misfortune, believes that there is a connection of cause and effect where there is none. The astrologer thought that the relations of the planets to each other affected the fate of persons born at a certain time. He saw a connection of cause and effect where there is none. The protectionist legislator lays a tax and goes home secure in the faith that wages will be high, prices low, and prosperity stable, as if there were a fixed, direct, and inevitable law of nature connecting taxes with social welfare and nothing else. This superstition is more wild than fetichism or astrology.

In discussing the effects of taxation ambiguity is often introduced by not distinguishing carefully the alternatives which may be imagined. If we could imagine a state of society in which vice, passion, and other destructive forces no longer existed, government could be dispensed with, or it would sink into some low form of co-operation for common purposes. Taxes could then be dispensed with. If we compare our present condition with any such ideal state of things, all taxes are minus quantities, reducing by so much the available wealth and attainable comfort of the community. But such an ideal is a mere poetic dream. If we had no government we should have vice and passion running triumphantly through society, wasting and destroying on every side. Comparing our present condition with that state of things, the taxes which we pay for security, peace, and order as products of civil government are a small loss incurred to prevent a great one. Such is the only sensible and correct view of taxes. They are never anything but loss and diminution of wealth, and it is as impossible to convert them into productive forces as it would be to make destruction create, or waste save. Every tax is on the defensive, so to speak. It is necessary to justify every cent which is drawn from the community by taxes and to show that all the capital thus consumed is necessary, under the existing order of things, to secure the protection of society, on the cheapest terms, against the forces which would disturb security, peace, and order. If the taxes were large enough, they might, as in Egypt or Turkey, almost take the place of the evils against which governments pretend to guard society. Every unnecessary cent of taxation is, therefore, a pure evil. Government in Egypt and Turkey, and in much of Asia, is not an organization to defend society against evils. It is only an organization by which some plunder all the rest, and taxes are the means by which they do it. Wherever any taxes are laid for any other purpose than to provide civil order, peace, and security, government approaches by just so much towards the Turkish pattern. Such is the case whenever protective taxes are laid.

Taxes which ward off greater evils at the lowest practicable cost are economical. They do not lessen the average comfort of the people. Taxes which do not conform to this description do lower the average comfort of all classes of the people. The wages class has no separate interest in the matter which either can be or ought to be considered by itself. It is pure demagogism to say that it is the business of the government to make wages high. If I discuss the effect of taxes on wages, it is only by way of meeting the question in the form in which

it is raised. Protective taxes do not aim to produce good government, or to accomplish any civil purpose at all. Their aim is industrial. They are planned to help some people to get a living. They interfere, on behalf of certain persons, with the conditions of production and the relations of competition. A man who engages in a protected industry has some other reliance in his business than his own capital, energy, enterprise, prudence, &c. The man who is in an unprotected industry has something more to guard against and contend with than the problems of his industry and the difficulties of the market. One of these parties has a special advantage created by law at the expense of the other party, who is therefore under a special disadvantage. These protective taxes, therefore, cannot be defended or justified under a sound view of the function and justifiability of taxation. They waste labor and capital, and keep the wealth of the country less than it might be for the labor and capital which have been expended. Let us examine in particular their effect on wages.

Anything which lessens the number of persons competing for wages, or which increases the amount of capital which may be divided in wages, increases wages. In a new country in which there is an immense amount of unoccupied land, and in which the amount of capital required for tilling the soil is small, any man who has a pair of stout hands, although he has no skill and very little capital, may become a land owner and agriculturist. He is then withdrawn from the wages class; he lessens the supply of labor in the labor market; and, as an independent producer, he contributes all the time to the capital of the country. Every man of the unskilled labor class, therefore, has an alternative offered to him. He is never driven by starvation into a desperate competition with others in the same predicament to work for low wages. He is on the right side of the market. Supply and demand are in his favor. He owns a thing for which there is a high demand in the market. The comfort he could win on the land fixes a minimum below which wages cannot fall. If they do temporarily fall below that minimum, the laborers take to the land, as they did in the hard times a few years ago. Since the comfort obtainable from an abundance of cheap and fertile land is high, the minimum of wages is high. This makes the average wages of the country high. High wages, therefore, simply mean that the soil of this continent is rich, the climate is excellent and well varied, the rivers are large and convenient, the mountains are full of metal and coal, the people are industrious and energetic and are eager to accumulate, the public order is fairly secure, and the general intelligence is good. The conditions of production are, therefore, good, and we produce a great deal. We accumulate capital far more rapidly than any other people in the world.

It is one of the humors of the tariff that the politician appears at this stage and says, "Oh, no! you are quite wrong in attributing the prosperity of the country to those causes. It was I who did it, with my little taxes. The country has prospered because I taxed it vigorously. If I had not put on my taxes the country would have been ruined." He argues that an industrious people on a fertile soil could not have got food and clothing out of it if they had not had the right taxes. A further touch of the ridiculous, however, is added by those politicians who declaim about the dignity of the American laborer. To listen to the speeches and read the editorials, one would think politicians formed a standard of comfort which they thought suitable for the American laborer and then just passed the right laws to get it for him. It is said that *our* laborers ought not to be on the standard of comfort

of European paupers. It must be, then, that the American sovereign can formulate his demands on nature. He makes up his mind what is suitable to his own majesty, and serves notice on nature to provide it. His attorney, the politician, justly indignant that nature does not respond, passes a law to secure the becoming thing for his noble client, the American laborer. In this view of the matter, certain persons are "nature's noblemen" in a sense not heretofore used. A little examination shows us, however, that we are only dealing with an old fraud under a new face. The old-fashioned nobleman drew his drafts not on nature but on his fellow-citizens, and, as his friends were in control of the government, they got payment for him. The American sovereign can get nothing from nature which he does not earn. If the politician meddles in the matter he can only rob one sovereign to favor another. That is all that he ever has done. That process has never made us any richer, but only poorer.

Under the conditions of the United States, a tax on immigrants would probably lower wages, not raise them. The country is underpopulated. So long as there is an immense amount of unoccupied land the immigrants do not go to swell the wages class; they go upon the land, they open it up, win wealth from it, and contribute to the capital of the country. Each new-comer who is industrious, counts more as a pair of new hands to produce, than as another mouth to consume, and he may well add to the average wealth per head. Taxation has not even, therefore, in this country, the field which it might have in some countries, if it were used to keep competitors out of the labor market.

If a tax on laborers could not raise wages, certainly no tax on commodities can do so. Protective taxes aim to keep certain foreign commodities out of the country. An army of custom-house officers must therefore be supported, not to collect revenue, but to prevent revenue from being collected. This device is kept up in order to secure the home market to the home producer. The home producer carries on his business at a loss. He says that he would lose capital if it were not for the tariff. His industry, he says, would not exist if it were not for the tariff. It is therefore conducted at a loss all the time, only that the loss is not borne by the persons carrying on the business, but by the consumers of the goods. The protective system, therefore, involves the following expenditures: The pay of all the custom-house expenditures to keep up the system; wages and profits to all those who are carrying on the productive industries; the losses incurred by the protected industries. All these outgoes must be borne by the non-protected in order that there may be less goods of all kinds in the country than there might be under free trade. How, then, can protection increase wages, or the average amount of these goods which can be obtained by each laborer in the country? There could not be a more flagrant error. If there is anything cheap anywhere the protectionists spring into activity to keep the American people from getting it. If there is an abundance of food, clothing, furniture, and other supplies which is offered to the American people on easy terms, the protectionists call it an "inundation," and run to set a barrier against it. A few weeks ago I saw a hundred women waiting for hours on the sidewalk for the opening of a store at which some fire-damaged goods were to be sold cheap. A protectionist must hold that those women were insane, or that they were selfishly ruining the country. It is impossible to raise wages by opposing cheapness and abundance. The protective system lessens wealth and until somebody invents an arithmetic according to which 10 will go in 70 more times than it will in 100, it is certain that smaller

dividend will give a smaller share to each person. The protective system, therefore, lowers wages.

Let us next look at the effect of protective taxes on the alternative which is open to the American laborer to go upon the land. The protective taxes enhance the cost of all articles of clothing, furniture, crockery, utensils, tools, and machinery. They also increase the cost of fuel and transportation. They therefore reduce the amount of all the commodities mentioned which a farmer can get for a certain amount of farm products. They therefore lessen the profits of agriculture in all its forms, and lessen the attractiveness of the land. Whatever lessens the attractiveness of the land lowers the minimum gain of all manual laborers, increases the number of competitors in the labor market, and reduces the amount which the employer needs to bid in order to counteract the advantages of the land. Protective taxes, therefore, take away from the laborer the advantage which he has by nature in this country; that is to say, they take away from him part of his advantage in the labor market. Consequently, they lower wages.

It has been affirmed by protectionists that their system increases capital. Two ways have been alleged in which it does this, (1) by improving the organization of labor, (2) by bringing capital into use which would otherwise be idle.

1. The people of this country are all the time exercising their utmost ingenuity to organize their industry to the highest advantage. Partly they do this by instinct. Plenty of people never heard of the "organization of industry," but they are constantly arranging their business to save labor and so gain time and prevent waste. They are also constantly laboring intelligently to secure a better organization of industry. But, after they have exhausted their ingenuity, the protective system assumes that some other persons, viz, politicians and legislators, can see some better organization than the persons engaged in industry have themselves been able to devise. If one part of the American people have not invented the best organization of labor, we have no one else to call upon than some other portion of the American people, and we must appeal from the men of business to the politicians. The politicians, then, as an incident to their own occupations, rectify the errors and shortcomings of the business men. The mode they employ is taxes. It is the same old magic. But the business men have to bring intelligence to bear on the organization of labor, while the protectionist legislator never has brought any intelligence at all to bear on the problem, and he never can. Protective taxes have never been laid in view of any true knowledge of the industrial circumstances, and they never can be. A thousand commissions, sitting for ten years, and actually engaging in a real study of the industries of this country, could not win a knowledge of our industrial system, and if they could acquire such knowledge of the industrial system as it exists on a given day, their knowledge would not be good for anything the day after, on account of the new inventions, discoveries, processes, lines of transportation, financial arrangements, and so on.

We have here now fifty millions of people spread over a continent with great varieties of climate and soil, and we constitute the most energetic, restless, and indefatigable nation which has ever existed. To try to plan a system of artificial relations of industry for such a nation is the most ridiculous undertaking that could be proposed. Any one who talks of reaching a permanent adjustment of the tariff to fit the needs of all interests and do injustice to none is talking the wildest nonsense. Nothing less than the impersonal forces of nature can adjust interests

under such conditions, and there is only one thing which can be predicated of any steps taken by the statesman, that is, that he will make mischief. A man who is running a railroad easily sees what crude nonsense people talk about railroading when they know nothing of the business. A banker makes the same observation. So does every other man in his own line. What chance is there, then, that politicians can deal wisely with the thousands of industries and interests in this country in all their manifold and complex relations to each other. We might as well try to establish, by legislation, a system of health which would prevent the people of the United States from ever being sick any more.

Furthermore, the politicians never try to deal with the whole combination of industrial interests. They listen only to the most clamorous. They heed only those who win influence and so secure the position of favorites. They never bring any intelligence to bear on the question. How much assistance is needed? There never is any adjustment of means to ends. No tests are ever applied; no guarantees are ever given; no subsequent reports are ever made by the recipients of favor to show results for the expenditure. Each interest comes forward and asks for favor and gets it for no reason save because it asked for it. The petitioner thinks that about so much per cent. will do and does not himself know or ever try to calculate what will be the effect of that much protection to him when offset by all the taxes to which he must submit in behalf of others in order that the system may be completed. Mr. Peter Cooper says that the tariff ought to just about offset the difference between American and European wages. If that could be done and were done, it would just take away from the American laborer those superior advantages which made him or his ancestors come across the ocean. Now, from this tangle of absurdities and contradictions, and ignorances, and guesses, it is expected that guidance will come which shall lead the American producer to a better organization of industry than he could arrive at if left alone, so that greater accommodation of capital and larger wages would follow. From such causes no result, save waste and loss, can ensue with reduction of capital and lowering of wages.

2. It is alleged, in the second place, that protection brings capital into use which would otherwise be idle. Every one of us who has any capital is anxious to put it to productive use without delay. It is impossible, in the nature of things, to keep all capital all the time employed. Improvements (such as a better credit system) which make this more fully realizable are eagerly adopted. The argument I have quoted means that in spite of this eagerness, and in spite of the chances for employing capital on a new continent, some portion of the capital now in protected industries would not be in use if it were not for protection. Such a notion is beneath discussion.

There is, then, no way in which protective taxes can produce capital. Every analysis shows that they waste it. Not a cent can come to A. by the action of the tariff which does not come from B. The consequence of universal borrowing or stealing or gift-making, however, is not to increase capital but to waste it. Hence protective taxes lower wages. The laborers have been exhorted to vote for protection lest their wages should be reduced to European rates. I have shown that the rate of wages obtained here is due to the economic forces at work in this country. There is only one thing which could reduce American wages to European standards, and that is protective taxes applied long enough and with sufficient weight.

There is, however, another argument which must be considered in

this connection. It is said that under free trade all our population would go into agriculture, and that wages and all other remuneration for labor would be reduced until we should all be in poverty together. Hence the agriculturists, and the mechanical laborers, too, are exhorted to support a wide protective system in order to diversify industry and prevent ruinous competition.

We have seen above that the direct cost of keeping up the protective system consists of three items: (1) payment of custom-house officers to keep goods out; (2) support of laborers and profit on capital in protected industries; (3) the losses of the protected industries. These costs must be paid to buy off competition.

In the first place, it can pay no one to buy off competition unless he has a monopoly. Protected industries have done it sometimes. American farmers share the world's market with a number of strong competitors. If they buy off the competition of American manufacturers they must bear all the cost of it, and they must share the gain, if any, with all the agriculturists in the world. That means that if they try it they will put themselves at a great disadvantage with their own competitors in the world's market.

In the second place, all the protected industries of this country are now parasites on the naturally strong industries. Agriculture now supports itself and all the rest and all their losses. Therefore, even if it were true that all the population would, under free trade, take to agriculture, it is mathematically certain that agriculture could support them all better directly than under the present arrangement.

The farmers would indeed gain a great deal if the protected people would keep still and not do anything, for then they would at least waste nothing. The earnings of farmers and the wages of laborers would then not be reduced so much as they are now. The protectionist theory, however, is that it increases wages to keep on an occupation which wastes capital and lessens all the time the goods within reach of the population. It is interesting to apply this theory to some other cases.

On the protectionist theory it would be a means of raising wages to keep up a big standing army. All the soldiers would be withdrawn from competition in the labor market, and would consume while producing nothing. In time of peace they would not be destroying anything; but in time of war they would be just like a protected industry, they would be wasting capital all the time. In that case, then, they would raise wages all the more.

On the protectionist theory a leisure class of idle, rich people make wages higher than they would be if the same people should go to work. By the same reasoning women who now consume without producing would lower wages if they should go to work, and while consuming, as they now do, should compete in the labor market. Indeed this view of the matter is very often taken, and perhaps the popular view is that the rich make wages high, if they not only keep out of the labor market, but also consume luxuriously, and do not save anything.

On the protectionist argument paupers living in an almshouse raise wages as compared with what wages would be if the same persons should no longer consume unproductively, but should come out and compete in the labor market while consuming as before. On the same argument paupers who produce something, though less than they consume, lower wages compared with what would be the case if the paupers did nothing; still more as compared with the case in which the paupers should destroy.

On the protectionist argument, convicts in the State prison raise wages by consuming the product of taxation in idleness, and lower wages if they go to work, and while consuming as before, produce something, because in the latter case they compete in the labor market. In fact, criminals out of State prison would satisfy the protectionist reasoning still better. They always destroy far more than they produce, and they do not compete with laborers. They would, therefore, raise wages by their operations. It would be a limitation of their beneficent action to put them in prison as consumers in idleness, still more so to set them to work at a useful industry.

On the protectionist view of the matter the trade-unionists are right when they adopt wasteful processes, practice shiftlessness and neglect, study not to be skillful or effective, and try to make work, as they call it, believing that they thus raise wages. The protectionist and the trades-unionist both mistake toil for wages. They think that when they increase the difficulties which intervene between us men and goods they increase wages, and that to make goods abundant is to lower wages.

On the protectionist theory those men in the riot at Pittsburgh, who exulted in the destruction of the city because they thought that it would make work, which they confused with making wages, were right from their point of view. No man wants work; that is, toil, or irksome exertion. Least of all does the man who has no capital want toil. He supplies toil. He cannot supply and demand the same thing. He demands capital on which to live. When capital is destroyed and toil is necessary to reproduce it, the ratio in which toil must be given for capital is rendered more unfavorable to the laborer; that is, wages fall. If they do not fall on the spot where the destruction took place they must fall elsewhere whence the capital is drawn to replace the capital destroyed. If Pittsburgh had to be rebuilt other cities could be built up just so much less. If Pittsburgh had not been burned up the capital which went to replace it would have been used to employ laborers in adding so much more to the comfort and possessions of the country. The country is poorer for all time by the capital there destroyed, with all its accumulations. Just so every year that this nation, on account of the protective system, attains to the possession of a less amount of goods than it could have obtained under freedom, the effect is the same as if we had produced a city and had seen it burn up; and anybody who believes that the protective taxes raise wages must believe that to burn up cities raises wages. All these notions are miserable fallacies, which sin against the first elements of common sense. He who believes that the way to raise wages is to hinder people from getting at things easily and cheaply or to refrain from the most profitable modes of obtaining goods, must believe that workmen raise wages when they stop working and go out on strikes, and lower wages when they go to work again. Trades-unionism and protectionism are falsehoods. The way of prosperity for human society is by industry, economy, thrift, skill, energy, painstaking, excellence, liberty, abundance, and not by some crafty and artificial devices to produce scarcity and bad work. The protectionist system requires a new set of proverbs which have never yet found their way into any popular philosophy, such as these: Want makes wealth; destroy and prosper; taxes are wages; to have much produce little; blessed are the bad workman and the foolish capitalist, for they shall get abundance.

Let us now look at the other dogma: High wages make protective taxes necessary. It is the very opposite of the truth. If wages are

high, that is the reason why no protective taxes are needed, even if they might be in some other case. In Germany the protectionists generally allege that lower wages in Germany than in England are a proof that Germany is industrially inferior and needs protection against England. The protectionist argument never flags on account of any little variation in the facts.

In the arguments under this head of the subject it is constantly assumed that wages are the controlling condition in production, or that there is some direct connection between the wages paid and the value of the product or the profits of the capitalist employer. These assumptions are false. Suppose that an individual comes forward and claims that he cannot compete because he pays higher wages than a foreign producer. When has any examination ever been made to find out whether such person has an adequate capital, or has a competent knowledge of the business, or diligently attends to his business, or has located his establishment wisely, or has organized his business economically, or has bought his raw material judiciously, or has kept up with improvements in machinery, or has not speculated with his product unsuccessfully, or has not violated some one of the other conditions of success? The wages paid are but one, and often one of the least important conditions of production. If it is alleged, as it constantly is in this controversy, in a sweeping way, that American industries need protection because American wages are higher than foreign wages, it is a case of joining a very wide inference to very inadequate premises. What are the comparative conditions of industry in America and elsewhere as regards convenience and cost of raw materials, quality and cost of machinery, rent of land used, character of the climate as affecting the requirements of various industries, national character as respects industry, diligence, sobriety, intelligence, &c., of labors, distance from the market or convenience and cost of transportation, convenience and cost of natural agents (coal or water), taxes and tax system, the security afforded by the excellence or otherwise of the government, &c.? Surely it is plain that these things are the conditions of production and the comparative money rates of wages, taken apart from the purchasing power of money, or the efficiency of labor, to say nothing of all the other conditions enumerated, are by no means a criterion for a decision whether an industry can be carried on successfully or not. The lists of comparative wages which have been made, and which are relied upon by protectionists, and are often accepted by free-traders as pertinent to the issue, and perhaps as decisive of it, have no value at all for the purpose. The employer alleges that he can make no profits because he pays high wages. He assumes, apparently, that wages and profits displace each other. It is certain that they do nothing of the kind. There is no ascertainable relation between wages and profits. Wages are paid out of the capital during the period of production. The employer tries to keep wages down, just as he tries to keep down cost and waste of raw material or wear of machinery, because he wants to economize on his outlay. He, of course, tries to minimize every outlay, because that is the road to success in the competition of the market, and to maximum profits. The price of his product when he gets it done will be determined by supply and demand on the market. He must replace his capital and then he will find out what profit he has. No law whatever can be established between this profit and the wages which were paid to the men while they were making the article. Profits and wages may both be high or both low at the same time, or one may be high and the other low. The fact is, that

instead of one being displaced by the other they most always go together, both high or both low at the same time.

It is much more to the point to notice that profits are higher in this country than in Europe. We ought not to take too low views of human nature, but when an employer pretends to bull wages, we shall not believe him without examination. When we notice that profits are high in this country we can understand the applicants for tariff favors, without assuming any disinterestedness. No capitalist will go into a business which gives less profit than some other which is open to him. The American producer does not want to put up with the rates of profit which his European competitor is satisfied with. He wants the rate which he could get if he went into one of the industries which are favored by nature in this country. Instead of going where he could get it on a natural basis, he wants the law to tax his fellow-citizens to give it to him. The talk about wages is all for effect. It is only so much smoke and noise imported into the contest to obscure the issue. It has had no little effect, because no one has taken the trouble to expose it in detail. The competitor whom we fear most is England, in which country wages are higher than anywhere else in Europe. How does England pay high wages and beat all the others, if high wages are the controlling consideration? And if she pays higher wages than the continental countries and beats them all, because other considerations come in, why may we not pay higher wages than she and beat her, at least in our home market, because other considerations come in? The nearest approach to pauper laborers in Europe are agricultural laborers. Our farmers send their products, raised by men remunerated at American rates, and pay transportation, and beat the pauper laborers in their own home market. How can this be done if the criterion of possible competition is the comparative rate of wages?

If it is said that we cannot compete, what is meant? These phrases are allowed to pass without due examination. I cannot compete with my inferiors or with my superiors. I cannot compete with an Irish laborer at digging a ditch, and I could not compete with the late Mr. Scott in running a railroad. Could any taxes enable me to run a railroad as Mr. Scott did, and to earn such remuneration as he earned? Certainly not. No taxes can possibly enable a man to compete with a superior. Could any taxes enable me to compete with an Irish laborer at digging a ditch? Indeed they could. They might interfere between me and the laborer and prevent me from getting his services, and I might be forced to dig my own ditch, turning away from other and better paid occupations to give my time to an inferior occupation. That would impoverish me. Such is the only way in which protective taxes can make competition possible. They drive us down to compete with those who are far worse off than we instead of allowing us the full use of our natural advantages.

If we have high wages, then they are a proof of industrial superiority. They prove that there are some lines of industry open to us, as a nation, in which great returns for both labor and capital may be obtained. To argue from high wages that we need protection, is like arguing that a man needs charity because he is rich, or needs help because he is strong.

A true analysis of the facts therefore shows us that protective taxes lower wages, and that high wages are not a reason why protective taxes are necessary. We get the remuneration of labor by using our natural advantages. The remuneration of labor is high because the advantages are great. It will be highest if the laborer is let alone to use the advantages without any restraint or interference. If we get a high remuneration

neration by the use of our advantages, our strength in competition will come from the very advantages of nature which gave the high rewards of industry. Thus every aspect of the matter is consistent and straightforward, clear and natural. The more we study the case in all its aspects, the more thoroughly is the free-trade solution of it confirmed, for, instead of entangling ourselves in ridiculous absurdities, we find that all the relations are simple and consistent.

The application of these ideas to the matter in hand is simple and direct. I have spoken wholly as a political economist whose business it is to study theoretical questions. If it is proper to do anything about wages, the right thing to do is to abolish all protective taxes, and that will let them rise where they ought to be.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Question. Of course you do not object to our receiving your communication (which I will admit is a very strong one, and probably as forcible as could be presented) under the well-known saying that "granting a logician his premises he can reach any conclusion he wishes"?—Answer. Yes; I object to that very much.

Q. You object to our taking your paper with that understanding?—A. Yes; I do, very much.

Q. Of course your long residence in New England has made you familiar with the soil and climate of that section of the country?—A. Yes, sir; I was brought up there.

Q. You recognize the fact that New England has attained a high position morally, intellectually, and financially?—A. Yes, sir; it is so understood, I believe.

Q. You recognize the fact, also, that the soil of New England, in fertility and in all other qualities which lead to great productiveness (I mean in reference to climate, &c.) cannot compare with the prairies of the West or the savannas of the South?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Well, do you suppose that this great eminence which New England has attained, in its intellectual, moral, and financial condition, and in its immense accumulation of surplus wealth, could have been attained under a system of free trade; in other words, if there had been no tariff from the inception of the government down to the present day, do you think that New England could have attained that eminence and those qualities which constitute a great nation?—A. It is impossible to doubt it. It would have been much greater than it is now, if there had not been any tariff at all. The contrary hypothesis would force you to assume that the people of New England had been getting rich at the expense of the rest of the country, which I do not admit.

Q. You admit that they have got rich?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And you admit the system under which they did get rich?—A. Yes, sir; they have borne up against obstacles.

Q. Have you visited the South during the last 25 years, or do you know enough of the condition of the South to answer such a question in regard to its present condition?—A. I have been in the South, but have not acquired any particular knowledge of that section.

Q. You have acquired such knowledge, I suppose, as you would get by looking at the landscape?—A. I was there a few days once, on political business; I did not go into the question of its industries at all.

Q. But you must have attained impressions from looking at the buildings and the landscape as presented to any person who travels through a country?—A. I had rather tell you just what was the fact. I went down from Louisville by the Jackson road to New Orleans and right

back again, on an express train. So much as a man can see out of a car window in the daytime, I saw.

Q. Did you not see a directly opposite state of things from that which you have observed in any of the New England States?—A. Yes, sir; considerably.

Q. Did you not observe that the houses were in a dilapidated condition, and that the people were comparatively impoverished?—A. Yes, sir; that was the general appearance.

Q. And it formed a great contrast to the appearance of things in New England?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Are you not aware that the system which you advocate has been adopted in the South for 50 years or longer?—A. No doubt. When I went down there they had just passed through a terrible war; their capital had been used up, and they were in the midst of a most horrible political muddle.

Q. I am glad to hear you admit the horrible political muddle. But the system which has been adopted by the Southern people is the one which you have been advocating here to-day; while the opposite system has been adopted by the New England States, by Ohio, Pennsylvania, and the Middle and Western States. They have taken advantage of this system which you say is all nonsense—the sublimest nonsense, utterly and ineffably ridiculous, and all that sort of thing.—A. I prove that it is.

Q. And I started out by saying that if you grant a logician his premises he can prove anything.—A. But I do not admit that in regard to my paper. We are not discussing logic. Besides, I do not think that is a good proposition in logic.

Q. We are not discussing logic, but, as a professor in a college, you cannot object to your statements being tested logically; as a matter of course you cannot object to that?—A. I do not want any logical dogmas interposed in the matter. I have no objection to a logical examination of my paper.

Q. I understand perfectly well. Our purpose is to arrive at the truth. We want to get at facts which will enable us to form some system of revenue which will be of benefit to the country. You appear before us to advocate a system, and I want to get at the bottom of that system in order to determine how far it will stand the test of fact as well as of theory. I suppose you will admit that it is the part of wise statesmanship to look at the results of a theory as well as to look at the theory itself as expounded by a logician?—A. No doubt you have to test theories; everybody admits that.

Q. Now we see one section of the country (and I have taken the South as an illustration; I speak of it without hesitation because I am a Southerner by birth, and have lived in the South all my life, so that my motives are not susceptible to being misinterpreted) in a very dilapidated condition. We have turned our backs on manufactures of every kind as a rule, and have adopted the theory propounded by Mr. Calhoun and other great men of the South, that we were tributary to the North, and have carried that theory into practice. The result has been that it has placed the South at the bottom of the hill, while New England and the Middle and Western States, such as Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, and Tennessee, which have adopted the opposite theory from the one adopted by the South, have reached, if not the top of the hill, at least a place very far up the slope. Now, as a commission appointed to prepare a system of revenue, or to revise a system which has been in existence for a long time, do you not think it wise on our

part to look at the results of the two systems, instead of considering exclusively the theory of the one system or the other?—A. If you are going to discuss these results which you have alluded to, as shown by the present condition of the one section or the other of this country, you will have to go into the entire history of the country, not simply on the tariff question, but also in regard to the slavery question, the effects of the civil war, and everything else which has happened since the adoption of the Federal Constitution. Consequently, any deductions such as you suggest taking into account, with respect to Mr. Calhoun's theories of free trade, and the theory of protection, would certainly be very fallacious. It would be necessary to go over a great deal of ground to take the whole thing in. I have spent some time in the study of these questions, and could go into that matter if we had time.

Commissioner KENNER. No, I do not care to do that; that is not our business. We are appointed to investigate the question of revenue. If the question of slavery was before us I should be happy to hear you on that subject, although, probably, you would not be so happy to hear me.

The WITNESS. I should like to hear you on any subject.

Commissioner KENNER. If that question was before us, my views would be as plain and as practical, I hope, as they may be in regard to any other matter.

The WITNESS. I gave the only answer I could to your question, that the whole history of the country would have to be gone into to get at the causes of the results you speak of. But if you attribute the condition of the South solely to the effect of the tariff, you are wrong.

Q. But, as I have said, we have been appointed to prepare a system of revenue, and for this purpose we are endeavoring to collect the necessary information. You have suggested objections to the present tariff system. You have stated as facts certain things which other people deny. Whether you are right or they are right is a question for discussion between the two parties. But you have not yet told us what system you would recommend in the place of the present tariff. Suppose the present tariff was wiped out, and we were to follow your theory of letting labor seek its own market, and letting the products of labor be sold where they can be sold at the highest price, regardless of a tariff or any other outside consideration, what system would you advise us to adopt?—A. I am not a statesman at all; I cannot formulate a revenue system for the country. I have never taken such a matter upon me; it is quite out of my line.

Q. Our purpose is to get at the facts. I had supposed that when you condemned one system, you would be prepared to offer another to take its place.—A. I would say, give them all the free trade you can. Remove all protective taxes as fast as you can, or make them as low as you can, if you cannot abolish them altogether. That is all I have to say about it, speaking as a political economist. All protective taxes are mischievous, and you should get them out of the way if you can. If anybody tells you that a protective tariff raises wages, I come here to tell you that it does not, but that, on the contrary, it lowers wages.

Q. I do not think our purpose is to find out the way either to raise or to lower wages. Our object is to find out the best system of revenue.—A. Then abolish all protective taxes.

Q. Without regard to the \$250,000,000 or \$300,000,000, that it is necessary to raise for the support of the government? What would you recommend in the place of the present tariff system?—A. You have a large number of revenue taxes, and if you strike out half of them and

divide the rest by two you would double the revenue, if you want more revenue.

Q. Divide which taxes by two?—A. All you have got—the whole tariff system, the whole intricate import tariff duties that we have. Strike half of them off the list and lower the rest to one half of what they are now and you will double the revenue.

Q. I thought you said just now that we should abolish all revenue taxes?—A. All protective taxes.

Q. All import duties?—A. I never said that; I said all protective taxes.

Q. I understood you to say abolish all protective taxes, and I understood you to mean by that all import duties.—A. Oh, no; I do not mean that.

Q. I wish you would be more explicit then.—A. I am as explicit as a man can be.

Q. I thought you considered all those duties as protective?—A. If you had a duty on tea, or on pepper, it would not be a protective tax; neither would a duty on coffee be a protective tax. If you have a duty on wine, that might be protective. The tax on sugar is largely a revenue tax, but it is also a protective tax on behalf of the Louisiana sugar growers. If you ask me what I want done, I say I want an excise put on Louisiana sugar men, in order to make them pay into the Treasury an amount equal to the protective tax; so that when I buy sugar I shall not pay any tax to the sugar grower at all. I want to pay taxes to the United States Treasury, but not to the iron man, the sugar man, the woolen man, or any other of my fellow citizens.

Q. I did not suppose that you proposed paying taxes to the United States Government. I understood you to be opposed to the present tariff system?—A. I oppose the protective system. Protective tariffs are the only ones I have discussed. I have not touched upon the revenue system at all. The minute you touch protection you touch what I am talking about. It is the business of Congressmen and statesmen to provide for a revenue, not the business of professors.

Q. What do you mean by a protective tax?—A. I mean a tax laid for the benefit of an industrial person in the country.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You mean a tax laid on any article produced in this country?—A. Yes, sir. It may be partly for revenue, and partly protective.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. You advocate a protective duty on articles not made in this country; and that the duty should be taken off all articles made in this country, agricultural, mechanical, and commercial.

The WITNESS. Please repeat that.

Commissioner KENNER. I asked you to define what you call a protective duty, and you say a protective duty is a duty imposed on any article grown or manufactured within the United States.

The WITNESS. No, sir; I did not say that. I said that a protective tax is one which is paid, not into the Treasury, but to some industrial person in the country. I would not object to paying a tax on iron, for instance, if the amount which I paid would go into the Treasury; but I do object to paying such a tax if it goes into the pockets of the Pennsylvania manufacturer. That is what I am opposed to, and nothing else. Such a tax favors the manufacturer in his business, and is not paid for revenue.

Q. Any duty which favors the business of the country is a protective tax which ought to be abolished; is that what you say?—A. Yes; I will say that, if it favors any particular business. It is not the object of taxes to favor the business of a country, not in the least. We must be on the lookout all the time for ambiguous terms in this discussion.

Q. There is another question I will ask, not because it affects you particularly, but because it affects everybody. I am an agriculturist by profession, and have been all my life; I am not a lawyer; and there is one point in this discussion which I do not understand. The manufacturer appears before us and seems to be enthusiastic in behalf of the interests of the poor man, and tells us that he wants a protective duty because it will protect the poor man and enable him to receive better wages. Now, on your part, are we to assume the same ground; that you want to protect the poor man?—A. No, sir; I do not make any such claim.

Q. Who, then, do you profess to plead for, or in whose favor do you make your statement if it is not in behalf of the mass of the community, and of those particularly who are not able to help themselves?—A. I speak for those who are now being oppressed and injured by existing legislation. I have stated the effect on them. As to favoring anybody, or coming forward to do anything more than to help a man stand on his own feet and look out for himself, I have not done it here, nor have I ever done it. I disclaim all that in my paper and do not make any such special plea. I think it is the business of demagogues to do that. It is not the business of the government to make wages high or to favor the poor laboring man, except to let him do the best he can for himself. I make a plea against protective taxes because they keep these men down; because those who receive small wages have to pay their share of the public loss that the protective system inflicts on the country.

Q. As I have said, our object is to formulate a proper revenue system; that is our duty, and if you can suggest such a system we shall be glad to receive such information. Have you done that in your paper?—A. No, sir; I have not. I have only talked about the relation of protective taxes to wages; I have not undertaken to talk about a revenue system.

Commissioner BOTELER. I have listened with great interest to your paper and to your answers to Commissioner Kenner. You have announced yourself as a political economist, as a theorist, and as we are practical men with a practical object in view, I should be glad, for my part, to have you answer the question, in the first place, whether England is not confessedly more perfect in her industrial pursuits, and has not made more industrial progress than any other nation of the world?

The WITNESS. Yes, sir; in some lines.

Q. In all lines of manufacturing industry, I mean?—A. No, sir; not in all lines.

Q. Well, except in those manufactures, perhaps, that require nicer manipulation with respect to some minor matter, such as the French make a specialty of?—A. The Germans are ahead of them, I think.

Q. Will you please tell me how you can reconcile your theory, as announced in your paper (which I consider as very forcibly expressed), with the fact of England's progress; to what is her commercial pre-eminence to be attributed?—A. In the first place, to the fact that she had the richest stores of coal and iron that existed anywhere in the world.

Q. How did she come to make them valuable; did she not protect her industries for more than two hundred years?—A. I was wonder-

ing which particular erroneous view of English history you might have in mind.

Q. Beginning with the time she introduced through the Flemings the wool industries that have made her so great, has she not given the most rigid protection to all her industries?—A. Yes, sir; for awhile she did, very much to the injury of all her industries, and which has set her back a century, perhaps.

Q. Inasmuch as she has commanded a great share of the commerce of the world as an exporting nation, should we not in some degree attribute her success to her protective system?—A. Not at all. The protective system was never anything but a great injury to her, and there is hardly a writer now who does not take that view.

Q. To what is her great prosperity attributable, then?—A. To the extraordinary natural advantages which she possessed, especially in having a great store of coal and iron available and close to each other, and to the extraordinary energy and industry of her population. When you consider these things you get at the secret of her success.

Q. We have as many natural advantages and resources as any country in the world. Do you think we should have attained any great degree of eminence in the production of those manufactured articles that have made us important in the world's history, if we had been kept in subjection to England and received our supplies from the old country instead of improving our natural advantages?—A. The colonial system was nothing in the world but a protective system.

Q. It was a protective system to England, but not to us. It did not encourage manufactures here; on the contrary it restricted them. So far as the protective system existed in the old country it had no application to our country?—A. Yes, it did. It was exactly the same as the levying of taxes on the Western farmers to-day for the benefit of the Eastern manufacturers—identically the same. The application of the colonial system of Great Britain to the colonies did not differ by a hair from the protective system of to-day. I am a pretty careful student of all these matters, and I think I speak with all the facts behind me. If you gentlemen would learn the theory of the matter—

Commissioner BOTTLER. We are practical men, and want only facts.

The WITNESS. I suppose you understand that a man who speaks where he knows his reputation is at stake has to have his proofs behind him. The limitation on the industries of these colonies was a sacrifice of their interests to the interests of Great Britain; and the protective system to-day as it exists in the United States is a sacrifice of the interests of the Western farmer to the interests of the Eastern manufacturer. That is where the peril is. You can study it as closely as you like and look into the matter as far as you can, but you cannot get away from that.

Commissioner BOTTLER. We have traveled many thousand miles during the last few weeks, searching for facts, in the humble hope that we might be able to send to Congress a record that would be considered as a mirror of the public sentiment of the country, and we have never yet found in the neighborhood of any manufacturing town where the farmer finds a ready market for his perishable products, one single person who did not rejoice in the establishment of such manufactories and feel that the greatest encouragement that could be given to the farming community was to vary the industries of his region of country and develop a market for his products.

The WITNESS. That is the famous truck-farm argument.

Commissioner BOTTLER. Still, I am happy to tell you that we find a

great many of those truck-farms springing up in a section of country which has heretofore neglected manufactures. We find a great change of public sentiment in those localities. While we may find free-trade theories obtaining in New England, emanating from the colleges of Massachusetts and Connecticut, we were glad to find that the people are a long way ahead of the politicians in the South, and are bringing these matters home practically, and applying them to their own business, and are proclaiming themselves as earnestly and honestly in favor of a protective tariff.

The WITNESS. I know these fallacies are very strong, indeed, and if a man gets them into his head it takes a long time before he can get them out.

The PRESIDENT. Whatever difference of opinion may exist between Professor Sumner and myself, he has stated his case so clearly and with such perfect distinctness that no question of mine could bring out his views more completely; and as I do not regard it as our province to talk, but simply to listen, I do not desire to put any questions to him.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. I understood Professor Sumner to reply, in answer to a question, that a tariff for revenue would necessarily be, in some degree, a protective tariff. [To the witness:] Do I state your position correctly?—A. No, sir. Revenue and protection are entirely exclusive of each other, and never can overlap one another at all. The minute you touch protection you prevent revenue, or, to put it in a simpler form, if I buy a ton of imported iron, it comes through the custom-house and I pay an import tax to the government for it. On the other hand, if I buy the iron in this country I pay an equivalent tax to the iron producer here, but do not pay anything into the United States Treasury.

Q. I understood that part of your answer, but there was another subdivision of it which I did not understand. Do you mean to say that where a tariff is placed upon an article that is not produced or manufactured in the United States (such as tea and coffee, for example), there can be no protection?—A. No, sir; no protection on that.

Q. But whenever an import tax is placed upon an article which is produced in the United States, that then it is protection?—A. Yes, sir; unless it is offset by an excise, as in the case of tobacco, wine, and cigars.

Q. Then I understand that your theory results in this: that if an article is produced or manufactured in the United States the producer or manufacturer of that article is protected to the extent of that tax unless that article is offset by an internal-revenue tax or excise?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then I understand your second proposition to be that the agriculturists of the country—the farmers—have to pay this protective tax to the manufacturers?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do the manufacturers have to pay any protective tax to the farmer?—A. No, sir; they pay to each other, all round, but not to the farmer.

Q. You say that the agriculturist pays a tax to the manufacturer whenever he buys a manufactured article?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. But when the manufacturer buys a produced article which is taxed he does not pay anything to the farmer?—A. On the agricultural product? No, unless you call sugar an agricultural product (which, of course, it is), or hemp, but not on wheat.

Q. Why not on wheat?—A. Because there is a tax on wheat in the

tariff. Of course it is ineffective, because the producers of this country are exporters. I understand, however, they have been getting wheat from Manitoba lately, and they have had to pay this tax.

Q. Then does not the manufacturer pay that tax?—A. The mill-owner pays that, and then it comes to the manufacturer, who consumes it. But when the wheat comes from Manitoba to this country, where the production of wheat is 500,000,000 bushels, although technically it is a protective tariff, it does not amount to much.

Q. It theoretically exists in the other case. Suppose we do not import certain articles of manufacture, still we are paying the tax on them under your theory. The agriculturist is paying that tax to the manufacturer, although there is no importation of those articles?—A. There you would have to take each fact by itself. It would be a matter of statistical inquiry to see how much there was imported and where it goes. You could not generalize upon that. Take this matter of wheat imported from Manitoba, and that is a protective tax for the agriculturist right along there on the border.

Q. Here are some generally conceded facts, I believe. We do not import any beef or pork. We do import ham and bacon. We import a considerable amount of foreign ham because it is supposed to be better in some respects than ours. Is not the duty on those articles a tax on the manufacturer? We also have imported potatoes and other vegetables of late, although we raise them in this country; is not the duty on them a tax on the manufacturer?—A. Yes, sir; that would be like sugar, and there is unquestionably a protective tax on rice—a very unjust one. There are, of course, a number of agricultural products on the tariff list.

Q. And a considerable importation of them?—A. There are importations under several heads unquestionably, and it makes it appear to the agriculturist as though he was getting something back once in a while; but he pays \$100 and gets one cent in return.

Q. We have developed, in the course of our investigations, the fact that we have imported for some years more barley than we have exported?—A. Yes, sir; a great deal of barley has come in from Canada.

Q. Was not that a large tax on the manufacturer?—A. No doubt that would be a set-back towards the agriculturist, of that particular article.

Commissioner McMAHON. That is all I desire to ask. You had spoken particularly of the agriculturist as alone paying the tax.

The WITNESS. The agricultural interest of this country bears the expenditure that is involved by the tariff in regard to manufactures. You cannot get something out of nothing. If you get a cent for a manufacture, by means of the tariff, that you could get in no other way, it has to come out of somebody, and in the end it is the agriculturist who pays it, as he is engaged in a fundamental industry. He is strong and independent, and he has got to pay it all. As to the manufacturers themselves, they are all the time scalping one another, and therefore, I do not believe they make anything out of it. I believe it is all a great folly, from the standard of the manufacturer. If all the manufacturers of this country could be dropped right down on a free-trade basis, with all their supplies free, and their raw materials free, and if their workmen could buy their shoes, hats, clothes, crockery, furniture, stoves, bedding, and all the rest of it, on a free basis, they would all find themselves far better off than they are to-day. If, instead of trying to scalp each other, they would begin on a free-trade basis and get down to hard pan they would be far better off, and there would be

an immense saving of waste—the cost in keeping up the system as it exists to day.

Commissioner KENNER. That is the doctrine that has been advocated in the South for the last fifty or sixty years.

The WITNESS. And I hope they will stick to it.

Commissioner KENNER. They will not stick to it; they have seen the folly of it.

The WITNESS. They are going to begin to manufacture there to their very great loss.

Commissioner OLIVER. To their loss, or New England's loss?

The WITNESS. New England can stand it. I do not think it would be any loss to the country if there was no New England.

Commissioner KENNER. I agree with you in that last remark; that it would be no loss to the country.

The WITNESS. And it would be no harm to the country if there was no Louisiana.

Commissioner KENNER. Yes; there would be. I wish you would prove that proposition. We tried to leave the country and you would not let us, and yet you say it would be no loss. That is a *non sequitur* which I do not understand.

The WITNESS. We should all live here and be happy and get our living, even if there wasn't any New England, any Louisiana, or any Pennsylvania, I suppose.

Commissioner OLIVER. The Commission is composed of practical men, and we have been endeavoring for the last three months to try and learn as much about these matters as possible. We have visited all sections of the country and have examined the subject in all its various forms. The views of a gentleman of your standing, who occupies the position which you do in one of the largest and best-known institutions of learning in the country, where we send our children to be educated, are entitled to respectful consideration; but when you make such very radical suggestions as you have made, we want to see how far you can substantiate them.

The WITNESS. By all means.

Q. I have only a question or two to ask you. I suppose you will admit that large numbers of Irishmen come to this country every year and are successful in business. Is there a more purely agricultural country in the world than Ireland?—A. No, sir.

Q. Is there a country in the world, with the same population, which has fewer manufactories?—A. They manufacture but little in Ireland.

Q. I understand from your argument that you are opposed, for example, to having help extended by the government, directly or indirectly, in the establishment of steel-rail factories. You think that industry should have waited its proper time of development and not have received the benefit of a protective tax, or any help in the way of extra prices?—A. Yes.

Q. Do you think that argument would apply to every industry, or to every institution?—A. Do not let us use the word "institution"; let us say "industry."

Q. Very well; we will say industry. An institution may be connected with an industry. You are connected with an institution which has attained great eminence, and to which the sons of our leading men are sent for instruction. Do you think your college would have attained that position but for a protective tax, as it might be called? I mean the benefit it has received in the way of legacies left to it by rich men at different times.

The WITNESS. Is that a protective tax?

Commissioner OLIVER. I do not know. I just ask you the plain question whether you would have attained the position which you have attained as an industry, without such assistance?

The WITNESS. We are not an industry. We are sinking capital all the time.

Commissioner OLIVER. I know you are, and that is the reason why I ask you the question.

The WITNESS. Certainly, we have a small endowment, but it is very insignificant, and we really earn what we get. The endowments of Yale College do not amount to more than fixed capital, and we have to earn all we get; if we did not we should soon stop. But still, admitting that an institution may be well endowed, it would not have any comparison with a protective tax or anything of that sort, any more than an endowment to an insane asylum would.

Q. Would it ever be able to stand on its own footing, without such extra help?—A. It does now, by earning what it spends. But, of course, no educational institution in the world could support itself unless it was a private school.

Commissioner OLIVER. I was trying simply to call your attention to the fact that while it is necessary to have colleges, yet they need protection.

The WITNESS. No, sir. In a sense, it was not necessary to have them here; they made themselves. I cannot admit that they have anything at all to do with the protective theory we are talking about. I cannot see the slightest or remotest connection.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. I understand you to say that you do not believe in favoring any one person, or class of persons, at the expense of any other.—A. No; not at all.

Q. Then, inasmuch as the present tariff admits free of duty for schools and institutions of learning, like the one you are connected with, many articles, such as books, maps, charts, philosophical and scientific apparatus, and chemical apparatus, by special exemption, you would be in favor of an imposition of a duty on all such articles?—A. Not at all; that only means that Congress has relieved the great institutions of the country of a little bit of the iniquity involved in this system. They have not relieved me of it personally. I have a great personal grievance in regard to books. I am a poor man, living on a small salary, and working hard for it. I want all the books I can get from my toil; but when I go to buy them I find the law of my country has got in my way and says that I cannot have those books until I pay an extra price for them, which is not necessary. I ought to be able to get all the books I need on the business basis of supply and demand, at a certain price; but the law says I must spend a part of my small salary in order that certain great American publishers shall be protected.

Q. Do you think it is fair, then, for such an institution, which pays you so small a salary, to get these articles in free of duty?—A. I am glad that they can get out of paying it; that somebody can get out of paying it. I do not want all the world crushed by such iniquity, because I am exempted from it. I am glad if there is any let up on it, and I wish there was more.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Your argument, at the outset, was that protection does not benefit the laborer.—A. That protection lowers wages.

Q. Now I will take an illustration on that point, which has occurred to me. The material to make a ton of pig iron within 50 miles of this city is not worth over 50 cents or \$1 a ton—I mean the ore, coal, and limestone in the hill. Everything else necessary to make that ton of pig iron is the labor, is it not?—A. Very likely; I do not know the details of the industry; but I dare say it is.

Q. The cost is in the labor and transportation, and transportation is labor. The price of a ton of pig iron of equal quality in England to-day would be about \$11 or \$12 a ton, while the price here would be about \$22 to \$23 a ton. Now, how can you maintain your argument, when the same quantity and amount of labor in Eastern Pennsylvania is worth \$22, and in the Cleveland district in England it is only worth \$11, one under free trade and the other under protection?—A. That is exactly what is wrong about it. It does not make any difference what the wages are over there.

Q. There the laborer gets 50 cents a day, and here he gets \$1.25 a day?—A. That does not make any difference.

Q. It makes a difference in his style of living, and a difference in the condition of the man's family who receives \$1.25 a day instead of 50 cents a day, doesn't it?—A. Not at all; the only difference is whether he can make \$1.25 in making iron easier than he can in tilling the land. You cannot cut him down to 50 cents a day wages, because the laborer in Europe receives that; or to 10 cents a day wages, because the laborer in China receives that. You cannot get the American laborer down below the American rate. The iron manufacturer wants protection because he cannot get the American laborer to work below the American rate, and he will not work in iron unless he can do better than in something else. Because a man gets 50 cents a day in England for doing that work does not affect the case.

Q. Is not that the reason why the laborers are leaving Ireland, Germany, and other countries, and coming here?—A. Certainly; they say, "We will go to America and make iron and get as good wages as if we were tilling the ground." But it does not come out of what they make; they do not produce it. It comes out of me and the other consumers; and that is what we are growling about.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. They would not come to this country except for the difference in wages, would they?—A. They would if they wanted to. They will come if they can find profit in it; if not, they will stay at home. They are coming fast enough now, whether they find profit in it or not. Let us stand off and let them do as they like, if they are not living off of us. If they are to live off of our people, the more that come the worse for us. When I see a ship-load of immigrants landed on our docks, I feel anxiety, because I know that we shall have to pay more taxes to help support them.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Q. Then you object to immigration?—A. No, sir; not at all.

Q. I understood you to say so; it seems I cannot understand you at all?—A. The trouble is that you do not get my idea of labor; that I do not want to prescribe what any man under God's heaven shall do. Let every man stand on his own basis and help himself. I do not want to be taxed to help support him.

Q. But you do not want him to remain in ignorance?—A. Every man has to take care of himself and win his own way through the world, as I have had to do and as all the rest of us have had to do,

JOHN BOYD.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. JOHN BOYD, of Philadelphia, representing the Clay Tobacco-Pipe Makers' Union, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: The Clay Tobacco-Pipe Makers' Union beg leave to offer the following facts for your consideration:

The condition of affairs in the pipe trade at the present time is very poor. Work cannot be easily had, and when obtained the remuneration for the workman's labor is so poor that men employed at the business cannot maintain themselves as they ought to. The cause of the trouble is the immense importation of foreign pipes. Some idea may be formed of the extent of the importation from the fact that the duties collected at New York for pipes last year amounted to \$42,607. Large importations of pipes are made in Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and New Orleans. The present duty on all common pipes imported is fixed at 35 per cent. ad valorem. The labor in Europe is so cheap, and the goods being charged at their value there, the duty charged on them is no protection at all. The duty on imported white clay is fixed at \$5 per ton; the clay in England is sold at an average of 25 shillings per ton. The excessive duty of nearly 80 per cent. puts it beyond the reach of the American workman for pipe-making purposes, so that we are restricted to the use of a much inferior quality of clay, got at Woodbridge, N. J. The American clay is of so inferior a quality for pipe-making that no market worth the name can be obtained when in competition with imported pipes made with foreign clay.

We would respectfully appeal to your honorable body to recommend a measure of relief. The substitution of a specific duty of 25 cents per gross for the present ad valorem duty on imported clay pipes, and the reduction or abolition of the duty on foreign clay, would suffice to make pipe-making one of the most flourishing minor industries in America.

JAMES DOBSON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. JAMES DOBSON, of the firm of John & James Dobson, of Philadelphia, carpet manufacturers, addressed the Commission as follows:

At a meeting of carpet manufacturers of this city I was selected to present to you their views in reference to any changes in the tariff laws that might affect this branch of industry. Up to the year 1870 the manufacture of the finer grades of carpets was confined to two or three establishments in this country, and then prices were made and based upon the foreign markets in Europe. In 1872 we imported of foreign carpets nearly six million square yards of the finer grades, while we made the common kinds. How is it now? The industry, during the past twelve years, has made such progress in this country that to-day we stand as the greatest carpet-producing (and consuming) country of the world. Protection to these industries has stimulated and built up vast and varied establishments to such an extent that we can supply the American market with each and every grade at a cost quite as low as supplied by the foreign manufacturers' prices in 1872.

The changing of the carpet industry from England, France, and Germany to the United States has made us the largest buyers and consumers of carpet wools. These wools—known in the tariff laws as class three—are grown in semi-barbarous countries, and would be unprofitable for our farmers to grow them on account of the low prices obtained for the wool, varying from 4 to 10 cents per pound. The American farmer can produce wool, with the same amount of cost and attention, yielding twice as many pounds of wool for each sheep, and realizing from 20 to 40 cents per pound for his wool. Hence, this class of wool, known as carpet wool, does not in any way compete with American-grown wools, and should be taxed only for revenue purposes. The total amount of this wool produced in the world, and available for manufacturing purposes, is approximated at 84,500,000 pounds, half of which is washed and the other half unwashed, distributed in the different countries as follows:

	Pounds.
East India, washed	35,000,000
Persia and Syria, half washed	8,000,000
Smyrna and Turkey, unwashed	8,000,000
Russia, washed	15,000,000
Valparaiso, unwashed	3,000,000
Cordova and Creola	8,000,000
White Highland (Scotch)	5,000,000
Sundries	2,500,000
	84,500,000

Out of this amount there is of washed wool, 50,000,000; of unwashed, 34,500,000. Reducing the latter to a washed basis we have a shrinkage of 16,000,000 pounds, leaving 18,500,000 as the residue, which, added on to the 50,000,000, makes a total supply of 68,500,000 available for

manufacturing purposes, as the world's supply of class three or carpet wools in a washed state.

	Pounds.
We imported of these wools during the year 1879	33, 163, 054
During 1880	59, 320, 412
During 1881	42, 385, 769
Total for three years	134, 879, 235

Taking the above as an average for three years, we have consumed 44,959,745 pounds each year, or two-thirds of the world's supply.

These wools are dutiable as follows: Wools costing 12 cents or less per pound 3 cents, over 12 cents per pound 6 cents, exclusive of charges in port of shipment. The advance in duty from 3 to 6 cents per pound on wools bordering on 12 cents has been the cause of considerable annoyance to both importer and customs officials. The temptations to undervaluation by unscrupulous persons are so great that some other mode of determining the dutiable value should be adopted, so that we would have equal duties; no matter what the price, the percentage of duty would be the same.

Recognizing the public demand for lower rates of duties on imported articles, the carpet interests are prepared to submit to such reduction by reducing the compensating duties on the carpets in the same proportion as you would reduce the duties on raw materials that enter into their manufacture. There is no branch of textile industry that requires the same amount of capital and technical knowledge as the carpet manufacture. The machinery is the most expensive, and is mostly imported, and pays duty ranging from 35 to 45 per cent., exclusive of charges; and there is scarcely anything that enters into their manufacture that does not pay, including freight and charges from abroad, all the way from 30 per cent. to 90 per cent. on first cost. In any revision that you might suggest, we hope you will take into consideration the compensating duties upon which the present tariff was based on two-ply ingrain carpet.

Duties on the wool used	\$11 70	
On drugs	2 00	
	<hr/>	\$13 70
Three-ply ingrain	15 23	
Drugs, &c.	2 50	
	<hr/>	17 53
Tapestry Brussels carpet, wool	11 80	
Drugs, &c.	9 00	
	<hr/>	20 80
Velvet, wool, &c.	30 24	
Brussels	33 92	
Wilton	51 36	

And in addition thereto charges on account of duties and expenses, 10 per cent.

According to the census report, as compiled for the Census Department by Mr. George W. Bond, we have a total cost of materials for carpets manufactured of \$18,984,877; the total amount of wages paid, \$6,818,218; making the cost of labor, 35.9 per cent. of the whole. This will average, at least, in all the departments, fully 100 per cent. more than is paid in Europe for the same kind of labor. While this and the cheapness of the raw materials which the foreign manufacturer can command should be carefully weighed in computing the rates of duty, our present protection duty is not over 27 per cent.

I think, in view of all the facts, that a reduction in the duty on wool to, say, 10 per cent ad valorem, with a corresponding reduction of the

comparative duties, would be of great benefit to the whole community, and would enable us to cheapen the cost, and to that extent benefit the consumer.

According to the census report, there were consumed in the manufacture of carpets in 1880, wool and woollen yarns, 65,555,174 pounds, producing 38,870,213 yards (exclusive of cottage, rag, and felt carpets), consisting of—

	Yards.
Axminster	303,000
Brussels	4,077,190
Tapestry	9,441,195
Two-ply ingrain	21,986,434
Three-ply.....	862,394
Wiltons and velvets.....	200,000
Venetian and damask	2,000,000
	38,870,213

The increase in the production of Brussels carpets since the census was taken will be fully 35 per cent.; tapestry carpets, 20 per cent. This will require more raw material, and the annual importation of wools for manufacturing purposes will be nearly 50,000,000 pounds. An ad valorem duty of 10 per cent., with increased importation and all charges dutiable, will amount to about five-eighths of the present revenue derived from this class of wool. The balance will be made up by cheapening the cost of carpets to the consumer. By adopting this view of the matter, it will in no way interfere with the growth and prosperity of the wool industry of this country. Out of a total importation of wool for the past three years, two-thirds was carpet-wool alone.

The consumption and production of wool for carpets of American growth is uncertain, varying from two to three and a half million pounds. This wool is the product of the common Mexican sheep, and known and grown chiefly in Colorado and New Mexico, the shepherds' breeding in with merino blood increasing their yield and quality. Texas formerly sent us wool that could be used for this purpose, but the introduction of merino blood into their flocks makes the wool more valuable for clothing purposes. We have no place to look for our supply of wools only abroad. There is no amount of protective duties that could be imposed to encourage their growth in this country. Even the foreign supply is being curtailed and gradually decreasing; hence it is a raw material that should be classified for revenue only.

The consumption of wool and its substitutes for the manufacture of carpets for 1883, taking the quantities as furnished with the increase of Brussels and tapestry Brussels carpet since the census was taken in 1880 to the present time, of Brussels carpets we produce 5,504,266 yards. To produce these goods it takes 2½ pounds of washed wool per running yard.

Description.	Quantity.	Pounds per yard.	Wool needed.
	<i>Yards.</i>		<i>Pounds.</i>
Brussels.....	5,504,266	2½	13,760,605
Tapestry Brussels.....	11,329,435	1½	14,101,794
2-ply ingrain	21,986,434	1½	41,225,563
3-ply ingrain	862,394	2½	2,480,380
Wiltons.....	157,020	3½	557,601
Axminster.....	300,000	2½	750,000
Moquette	700,000	2½	1,750,000
Velvet.....	300,000	2½	750,000
Venetian and damask	2,000,000	1½	2,750,000
Carpet	43,314,158		78,720,003

In this estimate I make no allowance for the increase of ingrain carpets, but add the Moquette carpets, not enumerated in the census of 1880. I also increase the velvet from 60,000 yards to 300,000, which is below the actual quantity manufactured.

An industry of such magnitude, that is dependent on foreign countries for eighty-eight per cent. of its raw material, will require, and must have, compensating duties to the extent that the raw material is taxed; and just to that extent the cost of the goods will be enhanced to the purchaser. Low prices encourage consumption. We cannot look to a foreign market for our products, because we have not the elements of cheapness with us; we are sure a policy which cheapens labor is *not a good* policy to be adopted. Let labor have a fair share of the benefits of a protective policy, and by so doing we shall not need to seek a foreign market for our products. It will offer such inducements to the skilled labor of the world that they will seek our shore in the future as in the past. So legislate that labor will be in demand, for it is the bone and sinew of the country, from which all prosperity comes.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Question. It was stated to the Commission the other day at Wheeling, that under the head of third-class wools there had been imported a large amount of wool that interferes with wool of the second class. What is your experience in that direction?—Answer. My experience is this: The finest third-class wool is the East India wool, commonly known in England as blanket wool. We import 5,000,000 pounds of that wool, which goes directly into the manufacture of the best grade of Wilton and Axminster carpets. There is no carpet wool that can successfully compete with our wools for clothing purposes. We have made blankets from these East India wools, but they do not take. They are too coarse and rough; the fiber is too strong, and they are not pleasant to sleep upon.

Q. You mean there is no percentage of the wools you buy for carpet wools that are used for any other purposes?—A. We do not use it for any other purpose than for carpets. I do not know of any being used to any extent.

Q. I thought you said there was used in wool, and substitutes for wool, something near to 80,000,000 pounds?—A. I said we should require that this year, taking the same basis of computation that Mr. Bond made, in getting up the census reports. I do not consider his computation, however, as entirely correct.

Q. What do you include in the term "substitute for wool"?—A. I mean the substitute for wool in the manufacture of ingrain carpets. The stronger yarns are made from cheaper material, such as the hair of the cow and goat, which are used in the common qualities of yarns to take the place of wool. If we did not have these substitutes we should not have enough wool to go round.

Q. What amount of this 80,000,000 pounds would be likely to be substitutes for wool?—A. About 25,000,000 or 30,000,000 pounds out of 80,000,000.

Q. Something over one quarter, then?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Have you had any experience in the use of this palmetto fiber? It was stated before the Commission at Richmond that it was being used in the manufacture of carpets instead of wool.—A. I never heard of it before. That is a story gotten up against us. No vegetable fiber will do to mix with wool, either palmetto or other vegetable fiber; that is an absurdity.

By Commissioner PORTER :

Q. It was urged upon the Commission at Pittsburgh and Wheeling that we should recommend an increase of duty on the coarser grades of wool. Please state what the effect of such a recommendation would be on the carpet industry of the country, and also to what extent you suppose such wool could be raised here.—A. A high rate of duty on the raw material will enhance the value of carpets, of course.

Q. That is not the point I wish to make. I will repeat my question. An increase of the duty has been recommended to the Commission on the coarser grades of wool of from three to nine cents; in other words, an increase of two hundred per cent. What effect would that have, in your opinion, upon the carpet industry of the country? Also, please state whether it is possible to raise the coarser grades of wool in the United States, as I understood you to say it was cheaper to raise them in semi-barbarous countries.—A. The effect of raising the duties would be, of course, to raise the value of the wool, and the increasing of the value of the wool would increase, in the same ratio, the value of the product made from it. The higher we get the product in price, the less consumption there is for it. Consequently a higher rate of duty would retard the growth of the industry. As to the second part of your question, whether we can raise such wool here or not, I would answer that we cannot do it profitably.

Q. Do we not raise it now?—A. Yes, it is possible to do it. But, for instance, take the Russian sheep. Their fleeces will weigh from a pound to two pounds each. It requires the same amount of food and attention to produce that two pounds of wool as it does to take a blooded sheep which will produce three and sometimes four times the amount of wool, which will enable you to get two or three times the amount of money for the wool when it is produced. That is why the production of these wools in this country will be retarded.

Q. Can you furnish us with any statistics showing the relative price of carpets for a series of years since 1867?—A. I can from 1872. In 1872 (I speak now of the lowest price—the manufacturer's price) Brussels carpets cost about 4s. 9d. Ingrain carpets at that time were about 3s. 6d. a yard, or a little over 90 cents. In 1872 the lowest price of American Brussels carpets was about \$2.25 per yard. When I speak of Brussels carpets I mean body Brussels or English Brussels. Tapestry carpets were worth then, I think, about 3s. 6d. abroad. To-day you can buy Brussels carpets in this country for from \$1.10 to \$1.25 a yard. So that the carpet manufacturer in ten years has reduced the cost of the goods 60 or 70 per cent. To-day ingrain carpets, such as we make in Philadelphia and such as are made in the Eastern States, are worth 2s. 10d. in England per yard, and you can buy carpets of the same grade and quality but of better material here in Philadelphia for 72 to 75 cents per yard.

Q. Has there been a corresponding decrease in the price of three-ply carpets?—A. Yes, sir; there has been a falling off in prices on all grades of carpets.

Q. There has been a gradual but a decided decrease in the price?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. So that carpets are practically as cheap here as in England?—A. Yes, sir; for the same quality of goods.

Q. Is it not also a fact that the American manufacturers have displayed more taste in patterns than the English manufacturers have; was not one of the reasons why the English people lost the carpet trade

of this country the fact of the common-place or conventional character of their patterns?—A. No, sir. The carpets desired for the English market are made especially for that market. The carpets desired for the American market are made in the same way.

Q. That is when made in England?—A. Yes, sir; they are made expressly for the American market, and have patterns designed especially to supply our trade.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. What is the difference in the English and American patterns?—A. There is just as much difference in the patterns of carpets as there is in the patterns of ladies' dresses.

Q. I mean what are the general characteristics of them?—A. In the English patterns they use heavy, dull colors, so that all the furniture and drapery in the house will stand out in relief so that you can see it. In this country the carpets are brighter and more flashy, and we try to make our carpets help furnish the house.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Is there not a grade of more luxurious carpets than those you have referred to—the moquettes—which have been introduced into this country?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Were those manufactured here in 1867?—A. No, sir; the moquette carpet was not manufactured here at that time. The loom for making them is the invention of an American manufacturer. The same loom is being worked to-day in Europe, and is paying a royalty to the patentee. These carpets are manufactured by only two firms in this country.

Q. They are of the same character as the Axminster carpet?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And are used by the more wealthy classes of the people?—A. The price has been brought down to such a figure that almost anybody can use them. The wholesale price to-day is only \$1.45 a yard.

Q. What was the price of the French moquette carpet when first introduced here?—A. From \$2.50 to \$3.50 a yard, varying according to quality.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. Why do you not recommend free carpet wool?—A. We have no objection to that. We will accept that, and you can take a corresponding duty off our goods.

Q. Would a reduction of the duty on your goods accrue to the benefit of the consumer?—A. Yes, sir, certainly it would.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. You said something about using an inferior material as a substitute, such as cow's hair, &c. Does that make a durable carpet?—A. To a certain extent it does.

Q. But is it what you would call a durable carpet?—A. A carpet of that kind made in the ordinary way will last eight or nine years, and I think that is long enough for a carpet to wear if you want to encourage industry.

Q. Does your house make and sell carpets that will not last a year?—A. No, sir; not with ordinary use. If you take these cheap cotton carpets, of course they are not fit to be put down, but then people will buy them. Manufacturers have to make just such goods as the people want; we adapt ourselves to circumstances.

Q. All the carpets you make are durable?—A. Yes, sir; we think so.

The average life of a carpet, with ordinary use, will be from three to seven years, and if you take those used in bedrooms and other places where the wear is light, they should last fifteen or twenty years.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You have used the phrase several times "substitute for wool"; do you not mean the adulteration of it?—A. No, sir. There is not enough wool grown to supply the demand of the world. There is not enough wool produced to keep the woolen machinery of the world going four months. The material in the coat on your back and the carpet on this floor comes into use again in another form of manufacture. They go to the rag picker and afterwards appear in another shape, and that is what I call the substitute for wool. There is also the hair of the goat, and the calf, and the cow which are used as substitutes, but they are not used so much in carpets as in the lower quality of blankets. You never find any of these substitutes for wool in any carpet except an in-grain carpet. The Brussels, Wilton, and Axminster, and carpets of that kind, are made exclusively of wool, and cannot be made otherwise.

JOSEPH BIERHOFF.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. Joseph Bierhoff, secretary of the American Bronze Powder Company, of Verona, N. J., was ordered to be printed:

We would most respectfully call your worthy attention to the great irregularity and apparent inconsistency in levying import duties upon the article of bronze powder and metal chippings, and the great injury this system, "as it now stands," is working to the home manufacturer and the workmen employed therein.

The article of bronze powder in its refined state is dutiable at 20 per cent. ad valorem; but the metal clippings, or, better stated, the half-worked article, is now subject to 35 per cent. duty ad valorem. Taking into consideration the fact that our American lake copper is sold in European ports for nearly 5 cents per pound less price than New York ruling prices, it may be easily seen to what hardships the home manufacturer is subjected, what just privileges are now withheld from him, and how detrimental it must necessarily prove to this young native industry and those workmen now dependent for their livelihood upon the success of this enterprise.

Before the year 1880 we were refiners only of the unrefined imported article; but, stimulated by a pride to achieve success in the production of the raw material necessary for the refining into bronze powder, we ventured to start our present mill, using altogether American metals and other ingredients required for its manufacture.

We find, however, that by the present tariff on these goods, which can be justly classed among the articles of *luxury* (such as silks, fine woollens, and textile fabrics, upon which last-named articles a duty of from 40 to 55 per cent. is now collected), a barely nominal duty of 20 per cent. is levied upon bronze powder, thus allowing foreign competition to force us, so to speak, in cutting down wages here, so as to be enabled to compete with the very low wages now ruling in Germany.

We now most respectfully pray that your honorable body will recommend to our honored legislature, when again assembled, to pass a law whereby all materials of which copper is the chief component part be subjected to a uniform duty of 30 per cent. ad valorem, and thereby accord to the home industry the protection of a fair and reasonable tariff, and grant to those employed therein a just and equitable compensation. We ask for no prohibitory tariff, but for such protection from foreign cheap labor as your honorable body in their wisdom must be surely willing to recommend.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. WORTHINGTON C. FORD, journalist, of Brooklyn, N. Y., appeared before the Commission, and made the following statement:

GENTLEMEN: Having followed with close attention the testimony which you have taken in various cities of the country, I could not but notice that your time has been mainly taken up by the representations of persons who desire to avail themselves of the taxing power of the government for the purpose of imposing upon the people heavy burdens which will not produce a revenue to the government (the sole ground on which taxation is justifiable), but which, so far as they result in the payment of money by the consumers of products, accrues to the *private* benefit of those who declare themselves incapable of conducting their business unless they are sustained by taxes thus imposed upon their neighbors and received by them. In making this statement, I do not intend to denounce the advocates of what is technically known as the system of "protection to American industry" as spoliators, or as having any intention of asking to be supported at the public expense, without having seriously looked into the burdens that are in consequence thrown upon the consumer. They doubtless honestly believe that they themselves are receiving a benefit from the protective system, for which they return to the consumer an equivalent benefit. But their view is of necessity a narrow one, regarding only the relation between themselves and the great mass of consumers, and ignoring their relation to the general manufacturing and agricultural interests of the country. I hold that they are mistaken in their methods, that they are not fully informed as to the facts, and that they are unaware of the power of this country to be practically independent in all important branches of industry, including iron, steel, and textile manufactures, without recourse to any artificial obstructions to the importation of what have been called the "products of labor of foreign paupers."

I noted, also, that what I regard as an important element or function of the problem which you have undertaken to solve was ignored. As I understand your position, you are to consider the interests of the country, manufacturing and commercial, and frame a report which may serve as a guide to the future economic policy of the country, so far as it may be properly regulated and controlled by legislation. And though connected in an official capacity with one of the important revenue reform organizations of the country (I refer to the Brooklyn Revenue Reform Club, which has already been ably represented before you in New York by Mr. Thomas G. Shearman), I do not appear as a representative of that club, nor do I claim to have its sanction to what I am about to lay before you. I come as one who has devoted some attention to economics, and for that reason wish to confine myself, for the most part, to general statements, the greater part of which are amply supported by the facts already presented to your body. I wish also to disclaim the idea that I am possessed of a universal theory which will furnish a certain and infallible guide for tariff reform. Such a claim can only be made by an economic quack.

The present tariff is unsuited to the condition of the country, for it was hastily imposed in a time of disturbance, without an inquiry into

its probable results, and without any thought of the burdens which it imposed on the industries of the country. Its most important plea was that of necessity. At the same time a system of internal taxes was put in force, the two forming one of the most, if not the most, pervading and oppressive systems of taxation that was ever devised and carried into effect among a civilized people. Raw materials and the products of manufacture, processes and instruments, wages and capital—all were heavily taxed, and all on the same unreasonable plan. The idea was that to obtain a large revenue everything that could be should be taxed, and this idea it was attempted to carry out by legislation. To add to the complications an irredeemable currency was issued, and the science of values was for the time legislated out of existence, to be succeeded by an era of inflated values and speculation. It would be absurd to claim that what was then good is good now, under entirely different circumstances. A man in health does not need to dose himself with physic, nor would he derive any benefit from taking it, and only injury could follow. Thus, called into existence by a special set of circumstances which were only temporary, the internal and customs duties should have been modified when the new condition came to pass. It is true, the war created a vast debt and greatly increased the expenditure of government, so that a higher rate of taxation than that which existed before the war was necessary. It is also true that the internal revenue system has undergone extensive modifications, which have always tended to a reduction of its burdens while still maintaining a large revenue from internal sources. But an opposite policy has been applied to tariff legislation, and the tariff is essentially the same as it was in 1865, not materially modified as to its real burdens. Unfortunately, its long continuance has created an industrial *régime*, which is in a great measure bound up with it, so that the belief has become prevalent that what affects the tariff must react injuriously upon manufactures. This, however, is not true, and should not deter reform; for the benefits which many of our industries—I might say many of our leading industries—appear to derive from protection are illusory, and they would actually obtain greater benefits without any duties whatever, whether they be applied to raw materials or to manufactured products.

The tariff does not recognize that the condition of the country has been materially modified within the last twenty years, and no attempt has been made to conform it to the new conditions. Within that period the Western States have assumed a prominence which was unthought of in 1860. Their influence, thus far, has been rather political and agricultural than industrial. But this last stage must come, and there are indications that it is now at hand. Does the tariff consider this new empire, and has it been modified so as to develop this new power? The industrial needs of the West are of a very different nature from those of the East, and I believe the future problem will be how to protect many of our Eastern manufacturers from their more favorably situated competitors of the West. The wheat-producing area has already moved westward, and industries will follow. What is the advantage the West possesses? The Eastern States are burdened with heavy debts, which are increasing in amount and demand an increasing rate of taxation. In some States, it is true, a debt reduction is being effected. But taking the aggregate of debt it is on the increase. The Western States, on the other hand, have within recent years carried on a debt reduction to which, in comparison, even that of the Federal Government appears moderate. Illinois and Michigan are practically out of debt, and the debt of no other State exceeded in 1880 the sum of seventeen

millions. This means low taxation, and low taxation means an advantage to capital invested in manufactures. Many of our Eastern States hold out substantial inducements to the settlement of manufacturing establishments within their boundaries, and this is but producing artificially what naturally exists in the West. Those who know the facility with which capital seizes upon every possible advantage, may easily realize how important this question of local taxation, as affecting industrial movements, may become.

Take an example of a manufacture which might avail itself of some of the advantages presented by the West, were it not for the tariff. Mr. Stockdale, the editor of the *Wool Grower and Farmer*, spoke of the competition of Australian wool growers as likely to threaten the destruction of the wool-producing interest of Washington County. Did he not omit to state that the same advantages which the Australian enjoys are possessed by the Western sheep raiser? Did not his plea directly prove that Washington County is at present unfavorably situated for the wool industry? In connection with the Southern cotton mills we are told that there is a saving in the waste incident to the packing and transportation of the raw cotton, and that this saving is such as to compensate for the disadvantages by which these mills are surrounded, and even to give them an advantage over their competitors in Massachusetts. If this advantage is but a very small one, it should not be disregarded, for to day, with the ease and rapidity of communication and transportation, the possession of a market does not depend upon the advantage of a shilling or a penny, but on that of a farthing or a mill. Now, in the matter of wool, the West occupies very much the same relation to the East as the South occupied in the matter of cotton, but with this important distinction: that it cannot secure the foreign wools which are necessary to a successful manufacture; nor do I think that the cost of transportation is such as to afford a natural protection to the woolen manufacturers of the East; nor that this cost of transporting wools from the seaboard to the place of manufacture would render void the advantage to be gained by a free introduction of foreign wools. So that I believe that the duty on such wools prevents the establishing of woolen manufactures in the West, and, as such, is a protection to the East against the West.

I pass now to another point I wish to make, that many of the reasons for maintaining the tariff are non-existent, by which I mean that the system no longer produces, if it ever did produce, many of the results which it was claimed were derived from it, and I may add that these results that are not produced are the very reasons on account of which the tariff is most urgently defended. On the other hand, the results that are still produced, and in all their pristine vigor, are those on which the system stands condemned. No one can claim that a tax, whether imposed on an imported commodity or on a commodity produced in the country, on the capital employed or wages paid to labor in such production, on land or on profits, is not a burden. No matter in what form it is imposed, a tax cannot change its nature, and however much the pill may be sugar coated, the bitterness is eventually reached. A tax is always a tax, and is so much taken from the pockets of the people where it would fructify and bear profit, to be expended by that non-producing monopoly, government. Hence, generally speaking, the burden of the tariff cannot have decreased (because the average rate of duty has not been altered) unless there has been some other active cause in operation. Such, for instance, might be an improvement in production, whether by cheaper methods or better and more efficient

labor or machinery. This is the real cause of the low prices of some highly protected commodities. The competition of home manufacturers among themselves, aided by great natural advantages and improved machinery, has accomplished this, and the tariff and protective systems have had nothing whatever to do with it. As I have just said, the burden of the tariff may have been somewhat lessened (1) by a reduction in the price of the manufactured commodity, by which the bounty to the manufacturer may be lessened, and (2) by a decrease in the demand for the foreign product on account of the low priced home product; for this would decrease the number of those who pay customs duties, which fall wholly on the consumer. Except in such cases the burden of the tariff has not decreased, and even where it has, there is still some unnecessary drain on the pockets of the consumers. Thus the worst feature of the tariff—its oppressiveness—has not been diminished.

I would also ask your attention to two instances in which I believe the benefits of protection (if there ever were any) to have ceased.

I. It is often stated that the high rate of wages paid to labor in this country is a direct result of the tariff, and one of the most effective arguments on the protection side, the argument that has taken most readily among the lower classes of our people, is that wages are influenced by the tariff, and that the only means of maintaining wages at their present level is by maintaining the protective system. Now I believe that the tariff has no more to do with the question of wages than has the moon. If the relation between the two is of such a close nature as we are told it is, why should we not expect to find the highest wages where there is the highest protection? It has been a notorious fact that this is not the case, and the results of the census of 1880 have only confirmed what was already believed before. The number of persons engaged in coal and iron mining, iron and steel manufactures up to the pig and bar, in silk, cotton, and woolen manufactures, did not exceed in 1880 750,000—of whom two-thirds were men and one-third women and children. The total population of the country in that year, as is shown by the final official figures of the census, was 50,155,783, so that the number of persons engaged in the great industries of the country, for whose benefit the tariff is supposed to exist, is but one and one-half per cent. of the total population. The sum which these persons received in the census year in the form of wages, yielded to each one a trifle over \$300, or \$1 per day if they worked three hundred days in the year. This rate of wages is less than that of foreign laborers who are employed in work which cannot be subjected to foreign competition; less than the wages of those to whom coal, iron, and steel, and cloth are raw materials; less than the earnings of persons who may be numbered by millions instead of hundreds of thousands, whose commerce with the world is obstructed under the mistaken pretense that foreign competition may subject them to a lower rate of wages.

The cause of high wages in this country as compared with the wages of like labor in Europe is easily found. There is in nearly every branch of production (that of tea forming an exception) a high degree of productiveness; that is to say, a given amount of labor applied in a given manner produces larger results here than in Europe. A high rate of production means a high rate of remuneration; and the man who can, by employing 100 men, produce 100 bales of cloth in a given time, can afford to pay higher wages to his men than could a manufacturer whose labor and capital employed in the same manner can secure but 90 bales in the same time. A high rate of wages is an index of a high degree of productiveness and of a higher standard of living. Yet this funda-

mental principle that wages depend upon product is lost sight of, and in its place we are offered the artificial machinery of a protective tariff to account for the comparatively high wages of labor.

We do not, however, believe that the difference between the hire of labor here and in Europe is as great as is usually represented. The factors of this question are so many and so intimately united with a host of other questions that I doubt very much whether any real and satisfactory solution of the question can be reached without a trial of absolute free trade, which will, of course, be accompanied by free competition. If a laborer in England receives \$8 per week and a like laborer in this country receives \$15 per week, it might at once be said that the product which required the labor of a \$15 workman could not compete with the same product which required but \$8. Yet there are cases in which the former may actually possess an advantage over the latter. For, as I have said, a high remuneration of labor indicates a high degree of productiveness; and the labor which costs \$15 per week may, by better machinery, more efficient application of its energies, or other causes, compensate for the apparent difference in the wages as measured in money, and even acquire such an advantage as to drive the low-priced labor from the field. It is not money wages which indicates the cost of production; and in like manner it is not relative cost of production, but the absolute cost of production which determines the final advantage. Otherwise, how is it that nothing is ever heard of the labor of continental Europe, where wages are from one-half to one-third those of England. Should not the labor of continental Europe be feared much more than that of England, did the money price of wages show its true cost? Sir Thomas Brassey, who was one of the largest employers of labor in the world, found it cheaper to employ English navvies at ten times the rate of wages for which he had obtained and tested Italian laborers. The English navy performed so much more work as to obliterate the difference in money wages. Taking into consideration the different standards of living, I do not regard the wages of an English laborer as proportionately less than those of his American competitor.

II. Take, as another instance, the "home market" theory. Professor Thompson a few years since stated that by a persistent policy of protection a home market would be created for all the breadstuffs that the country produces; and Mr. John Roach, at one of your recent sittings in New York City, expatiated on the advantages which the farmer derives from a home market, a product of the protective system. The events of the last three or four years offer a curious commentary on this theory of the home market for breadstuffs. Take, for example, the production of wheat, as shown in the census returns. In the Eastern and Middle States so called, where this home market is said to be found, there were produced in the census year 43,359,083 bushels of wheat; no States, save Maryland and Delaware, producing sufficient for the wants of their own populations. The population of these States was 15,588,985. Allowing to each head of population an annual consumption of eight bushels of wheat (a liberal allowance), there were required from the Western States to make up the required amount, 81,352,581 bushels. Now the Western States, after supplying the wants of their own population, had a surplus sufficient to supply this demand of the Eastern States and to furnish an excess over and above all the wants of the home market of 58,233,241 bushels or one-eighth of the total crop. Since that year, however, immigration has reached a height unparalleled in the history of the peaceable movements of populations, and the bulk of it flows to the wheat fields of the West. The crop of the present year is esti-

mated to be 100,000,000 bushels in excess of the crop of the census year, and the increase of population that has taken place within this period could not by any possibility require more than one-third of this amount. So that as it stands the home market is no nearer to the point Professor Thompson predicts it will reach than it was in 1880, and is in fact moving backward. And as to this question of a home or any market, a market cannot be created by artificial means unless force is used; and such a measure is analogous to the "stand and deliver" of the highwayman.

I also submit that protection is no longer efficient in maintaining the profits of manufacture; in proof of which may be cited the undoubted fact that during the twenty years' existence of the present system of high duties those employments that have been particularly protected have been subject to greater fluctuations than any other branch of industry pursued within the limits of the country, and have not earned higher profits, if as high, if the whole period be considered. In certain cases it has been proved that enormous profits have been reaped at certain periods; but if the rate of profit in these industries was permanently higher than in other industries, capital would at once flow towards them, unless there was a monopoly, and would, through competition, reduce profits to their normal rate.

It must be admitted that protection has been asked for agriculture, and that it finds its chief expression in the tariff on wool; but it is respectfully submitted that in this respect even the tariff on wool has been an obstruction to the wool manufacturer, without material benefit to the farmer. The prices of domestic wool reduced to gold, even including the abnormal stimulus of war, have been little, if any, higher during this period of excessive duty than they have been when wool was absolutely free; and during a large portion of this period the price of wool has been lower than when wool was free, thus affording an illustration of the claim of the advocates of protection that in the end lower prices are attained. At the end of twenty years our farmers receive less for their wool than when foreign wools were imported into the country free of duty.

The reason of this is plain, and is not far to seek. The woolen manufacturer needs the choice of wool, and cannot develop his work without it. Hence it has followed that the branches of woolen manufacture for which domestic wool is best fitted, have been overdone, while his foreign competitor, enjoying a free market in the purchase of every variety of wool, has been able to compete with him successfully, even within the limits of our own country. And this, too, by our own act, because the very rejection of foreign wool in this country has, by limiting its market, reduced the price to the foreign manufacturer, and has given him better opportunity for competition with us than he would otherwise have enjoyed.

I have said that there are barely 750,000 persons employed in the principle branches of industry in behalf of which a high tariff is in vogue. Even of these more than one-half or two-thirds could not, under any circumstances, be subjected to foreign competition, even if there were no duty. The nature of their occupation protects them. For instance, the larger part of the coal in the mining of which one hundred and sixty thousand of the number named are now employed would be employed under any conditions. That is to say, we could not, under the wildest suppositions possible, import all or even a great part of the coal consumed in this country. In fact, the duty on coal utterly fails to confer any benefit either on the coal owner or the coal miner. It merely

subjects the people of New England to a heavier charge for bringing coal from Maryland and Pennsylvania, over the railroad or by sea, in place of obtaining it more cheaply by importing it from Nova Scotia, and therefore ends in a waste of money for useless transportation.

When considered in relation to the foreign commerce of a country, there is no essential difference, so far as regards the practical results, between a tax on imports and one on exports. I purposely omit all consideration of producer and consumer, because, when all the elements which these would introduce into the problem are considered, they will not modify in the least the point I wish to make. A tax upon imports or upon exports, even if it bears a comparatively small proportion to the value of the product, is a restriction upon the influx or efflux of the commodities taxed. Moreover, you cannot restrict or hamper imports without affecting at the same time, and I may say to the same degree, exports, or *vice versa*. The two are as intimately connected as are demand and supply. In its most important property foreign trade does not differ from domestic commerce. In both cases it is as an exchange of commodity for commodity, and in foreign trade it is an exchange of a home product for a foreign product. If there is any balance which barter cannot settle, it is made good by a commodity, gold, which has by common consent assumed this function. That is, when I have no commodity of my own production at hand to give for what I wish, I offer gold or its representative, which will be exchanged later for the commodity the holder wishes. It makes no difference to me whether I exchange my products for a home product or a foreign product; nor does it make any difference to my fellow-citizens. The steel rail that is sent from England to this country is as much a demand for my product as is the rail from Pennsylvania; for whatever is imported must be paid for by something that is exported, whether it be a manufactured commodity or gold; and that something, if a commodity, must be a product of American labor, or have been obtained by a previous exchange of an American product. So that all foreign importations become as truly one of the results of the application of American labor to home industry as if it had been brought into existence for the use of man within the limits of our own country, and yet a peculiar school of social economy openly teach that a foreign commerce is undesirable.

Again, it is not what is exported that should fasten the attention, but what is imported. When I purchase an article I do it because it has a greater utility to me than what I give for it possesses. In like manner, it may be said that a nation buys its imports by its exports, and therefore it must follow that the imports possess the higher utility. The surest test of profit in foreign or any commerce is the existence of a steady and continuous trade. It shows that both parties are securing a benefit; that each possesses a higher utility after than before the exchange. The talk of "foreing" a trade is all bosh; such an act would be suicidal. If, then, the imports represent the national purchases, and the value of the imports are in excess of the value of the exports, is not the nation gaining instead of losing? What becomes of the balance of trade then? The present commercial policy of the country is calculated to deprive it of this advantage by shutting out imports, and at the same time crippling the exporting power of the country. The wonderful increase of internal production and commerce since 1860 is often pointed to as a direct result of the tariff. In one sense it is. By limiting the power of the country to develop externally, to form and maintain the large and profitable foreign commerce that belongs to this people by reason of their advantages, the tariff has stimulated develop-

ment within, where restrictions have been fewer in number and less effective. Protectionists even cry out to limit and restrict production! The development was hastened by artificial means, and it is proposed to remedy it by artificial measures. Could anything be more preposterous! In the interest of American labor and for the protection of American industry, reformers demand the removal of all possible obstructions to our commerce with the world; and we demand that the tariff shall be adjusted so as to yield such revenue as may be necessary with the least interference with foreign traffic.

The sum of all the taxes now imposed upon the people of the United States, whether in the form of State, county, or municipal taxes, collected and expended for local purposes, or national taxes, collected under what are known as the internal revenue and tariff systems, amount to over seven hundred millions annually, not less than seven per cent. of what competent authorities estimate to be the entire annual product of the people of the United States. Of this sum over \$300,000,000 are paid in the form of local taxes for State and municipal purposes, and over \$400,000,000 for national purposes. When the aggregate debt, expenses of the civil list, and general duties of the State and Federal Governments are compared, it would seem as if the relative proportion of taxation should be reversed, and that four hundred millions would more properly be the share of the local taxation.

The excess of revenue of the United States over and above its necessary and legitimate expenditure, including many extraordinary expenses, such as the arrears of pensions, the river and harbor bill, &c., is now \$150,000,000 a year, and probably more. It is therefore in the power of the Congress of the United States, and of your body, to make the recommendation to lift from the shoulders of the people one-seventh, and perhaps one-fifth, of the entire burden of taxation now oppressing them. And if the right measures are taken for the abatement of taxation to the extent of \$100,000,000, which pass into the Treasury of the United States, and which is recorded as a part of its receipts, there will be an annual relief from bounties now paid to individuals or to corporations, under cover of our present high tariff, of not less than \$50,000,000 a year, and probably \$100,000,000.

In presenting the reasons for this measure of relief, especially from private bounties now imposed for the ostensible purpose of protection, we do not allege that the chief injury which happens to the people is this mere contribution of money for such bounties. In fact it may be admitted that if protection did protect, and did result in all the benefits its advocates claim for it, the country might afford the cost. But, as I have shown, the benefits to be derived from protection are by no means what its advocates claim, and the point is now reached when it is a serious burden on the industry, and especially the foreign trade of the country. The time is come when we must cease to speak of "infant industries," except of such as are willing to claim a "second childhood."

We demand relief from the imposition of the taxes which the people pay, and which the government receives, to the extent of \$100,000,000, and also of the taxes which the people pay to an unknown and enormous amount, but which the government does not receive, and which is in part private bounty and in part absolute waste. With such a relief we shall be free to enter in the competition for the great commerce of the world, and to take advantage of our greater natural resources and of our freedom from the burdens—such as that of standing armies—to which other nations are subject.

We also demand a reduction of the rates of tariff taxation for the pur-

pose of increasing the revenue from such articles as may be hereafter subject to taxation, to the end that a larger revenue may be had from fewer subjects, and therefore under a less complicated system than at present, and with less interference with the pursuits of the people.

We demand a reduction of the duties on sugar and a relief from the complex system of collecting, in order that there may be no inducement to commit fraud, and that, while the people may enjoy a larger quantity of sugar at a lower price, the government may receive a larger proportional revenue than it now does from what is consumed.

We demand the entire abatement of all duties upon coal and upon what may be called raw iron and raw steel in the form known as pig and ingot, for the reason that our principal competitor, Great Britain, now produces but little more than we do, and because the removal of the duties may actually benefit us in more ways than one; for such removal will cause such an immediate demand by Great Britain as to raise the wages of those who do the work there. But higher wages mean increased consumption, so that England will become a larger consumer of the farm products of America; the cost of iron and steel will be raised in proportion relative to the cost here, while the cost of iron and steel to our consumers will be measurably reduced. It may be shown that for the production of iron and steel this country has a natural protection of distance from the foreign mines equal to 50 per cent. on the wages paid, and, therefore, other things being equal, we can afford to make iron and steel at 50 per cent. higher wages, and yet at as low a cost as it can be landed from abroad. But other things are not equal. We have the advantage in the proximity of iron and coal and nearness to the surface. And a very competent iron master has pointed out that as yet we are not working our most advantageously situated mines, which lie in the Southern States. The claim that tariff taxes are necessary to obstruct the importations of iron ores and crude iron or steel is without foundation in reason or in fact.

We demand the abatement of all duties upon unmanufactured wool in the interest both of the wool-grower and manufacturer, and upon woolen manufactures to a revenue point not exceeding 25 per cent.

We demand the reduction of the duties upon the manufactures of cotton to a revenue point not exceeding 25 per cent. We enjoy advantages in raw cotton which are possessed by no other country.

We demand the reduction of the duties upon the manufactures of silk to such a point as shall prevent the smuggler and dishonest importer from securing the only benefit which accrues to any person from the present high rates.

We demand the abatement of all duties upon chemicals, drugs, and dyestuffs, because the true independence of this country in their production rests upon the interdependence of nations; and in order that the manufacture of chemicals in this country may be extended, the materials, which are not produced here, but must be brought from abroad to be used or consumed here, should not be shut out by the imposition of taxes.

We demand the abatement of all duties upon tin plates in the interest of agriculture especially. No branch of industry has in recent years advanced so rapidly as the canning of fruit, fish, meat, and other articles of food, and the taxes now collected upon tin plates under the tariff is confessedly one of the greatest obstructions to the extension of this branch of home industry.

We demand the adjustment of the tariff upon all the minor articles which produce but little revenue, all of which could be treated by you

in detail with a view to putting them on the free list, or maintaining moderate duties on those which may be considered articles of luxury, and which may be made subject to a duty should an increased revenue become necessary.

In making these demands for such a change in the laws for the collection of revenue from customs, we call your attention to the fact that any measures which you may present, but which are of limited character, and which are confined to a reduction of rates of 10, 15, or even 20 per cent., will utterly fail in one of the necessary purposes of legislation at the present time, viz, in reducing the revenue. Such lower rates will obstruct importations less than the present high rates, and will therefore increase the revenue. It has been proposed to carry into effect the maxim that where "protection begins revenue ceases," and to increase the scale of duties to such a point as to prohibit importation, a measure that must decrease revenue. We submit, however, that this is a very narrow view to take of the matter, and that such a course would only add, in the form of private bounties, to the burdens of the community. If revenue must be decreased—and we believe it should be—there are better methods of accomplishing it, and it may be done in such a way as to remove a great part of the burdens of taxation in place of increasing them.

Were the subject of revenue reform before you, as it should be, we would demand the reduction of the tax on distilled spirits from 90 to 50 cents per gallon, and the introduction of measures by which manufacturers may obtain the alcohol necessary to their operations free of all tax.

It is admitted by all who have given any serious thought to the subject that the basis on which the currency rests is a very unstable one, and that this instability is in part caused by two measures of protection—the silver bill and the tariff bill. The silver bill was a measure to protect the owners of silver mines by affording them a market for their commodity which would not otherwise have existed. The basis of a sound currency, as the finance of the world is now conditioned, is gold, and no currency can be regarded as stable unless it may secure gold when wanted. In other words, the movement of gold must be free. Now we submit that while importations of commodities are restricted the commerce of the country is on an artificial basis; and because this is so, the movement of gold is not free and unrestricted, but is subject to spasmodic movements, influenced by a peculiar set of circumstances such as occurred in 1879. With a free commerce, or, to express the same idea in different language, with a natural commerce, gold would be free to come and go whenever it was or was not required, and our money market could never be disturbed by the export of a few millions of gold, as it was a few months since. That occurrence alone would be a sufficient proof of the instability of the currency.

We call your attention to the fact that at the present rate at which surplus revenue is now flowing into the Treasury of the United States, subject to the action of the sub-treasury law, the business of the country is disturbed for want of the mere instruments of exchange—viz, the coins and notes by means of which balances are settled, and which compose the reserves of the banks. These coins and notes are the tools of trade, and if there is a deficient supply trade suffers on account of such deficiency, and by reason of the ease with which the currency in the market is manipulated for speculative purposes. If the surplus revenues of the country continue to be poured into the Treasury of the United States a little more than two years longer, there will be no bonds of the United States outstanding which can then be paid at the option of the government. There will then come either a necessity for repealing or

suspending the sub-treasury act, or for removing at that time, without an instant's delay, 200,000,000 of taxes, and either measure would be of such a radical character as to work injury to the financial and commercial interests of the country. If, however, neither of these measures should be adopted, the country will be subject to a crisis of the most severe kind, which will be brought on by the mere obstructions which legislators have permitted to remain in the way of commerce, preventing the establishment of banks, the right use of the banking system, withdrawing the instruments of exchange and locking them up in the Treasury, and thus depriving trade of its sustenance and life; and, finally, perverting the whole purpose of government from its legitimate use to become a mere instrument for sustaining, under the name of protection, branches of industry which either need no protection or which suffer from obstruction. And this will be accomplished at a cost to the community which will be enormous, as compared with the existing indirect bounties.

We call your attention to the fact that so long as the present system is maintained, the benefit of our protective system inures to the manufacturers of Great Britain, by removing from them the fear of our competition. This has been done by the obstructions which we ourselves have placed in its way; and we can easily show that there is nothing which the sagacious statesmen, manufacturers, and metal workers of Great Britain so greatly dread as the establishment of freer trade on the part of this country; knowing, as they do, that whenever the obstructions to commerce which now exist are, even in some small measure, removed, we shall at once realize our own power, and shall take from them the control of the markets of the world.

JAMES H. HEROY.

PHILADELPHIA, *October 14, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. JAMES H. HEROY, of New York, in regard to the duty on plate glass, was ordered to be printed:

Herewith I submit for the consideration of your honorable Commission a tariff of specific duties on cast polished plate glass, based on an ad valorem rate, as suggested by importers at a meeting of your Commission in this city, with the addition of rates for the same glass silvered and in the rough state.

The reduction suggested may seem large, but that arises from the present duties being excessive. The proposed rates exceed the highest levied under the present tariff on all manufactures of glass other than window-glass.

On rough cast plate, the present duty is prohibitory on all over one-quarter inch thick, and it is only a question of time when it will be so on all thickness. It has been manufactured successfully when the tariff was 24 per cent. ad valorem, proving that the present rates are unnecessary to its manufacture in the States, and that the proposed reduction can work no injury to domestic manufacturers.

Cast polished plate.—The rates of duty suggested are equal to an average of 45 per cent. ad valorem, on a cost covering all expenses of transportation until on ship-board, and manufacturer's profit. The consumption is fully two-thirds at the highest rate of duty, which is equal to 50 per cent. ad valorem. The cost of labor in producing a foot of polished plate in the States is about 21 cents; the average duty paid, 42 cents.

Cast polished plate, silvered.—The changes suggested are made to conform to the proposed rates on unsilvered. There is but a small percentage of this article imported, owing to its liability to damage on the voyage. The chief importations under this head are a much lower priced article, being polished cylinder glass, and mostly imported in small plates 5 francs and under, both descriptions paying the same duty under the present tariff as looking-glass plates. This is the cause of the small difference on small plates silvered and unsilvered.

What is needed on all descriptions of window-glass is, first, that no duty shall be levied on this article in excess of all other manufactures of glass. Second, a tariff at the lowest possible rates that will create a competition between the foreign and domestic manufacturers to produce the best goods at the lowest possible cost.

Present tariff designation or commercial name of article.	Present rate of duty.	Proposed rate of duty.
Polished cast plate glass a duty of 40 per cent. ad valorem, or specific duties, as under:		
All plates not over 2 square feet	3 and 5 cents per foot.	4 cents per foot.
All over 2 and not over 5 feet	5 and 8 cents per foot.	8 cents per foot.
All over 5 and not over 10 feet	25 cents per foot	15 cents per foot.
All over 10 feet	50 cents per foot	20 cents per foot.
Rough-rolled, fluted, and cathedral case plate a uniform rate on all sizes, as under:		
Not over $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch thick	5½ cents per foot, average	3 cents per foot.
Over $\frac{1}{8}$ and not over $\frac{1}{4}$	12 cents per foot, average	6 cents per foot.
All over $\frac{1}{4}$ thick	22 cents per foot, average	10 cents per foot.
Cast polished plate glass, silvered or looking-glass plates:		
All plates not over 1 foot	4 cents per square foot.	3 cents per square foot.
Not over 3 square feet	5 cents per square foot, av.	5 cents per square foot.
All over 3 and not over 5 feet	10 cents per square foot.	10 cents per square foot.
All over 5 and not over 10 feet	35 cents per square foot.	25 cents per square foot.
All over 10 feet	80 cents per square foot.	30 cents per square foot.

CYRUS ELDER.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. CYRUS ELDER, attorney at law, of Johnstown, Pa., addressed the Commission as follows :

At the urgent request of some of the representatives of the manufacturing industries, who think a few words ought to be said in reply to the theories of political economists which have been presented to you, I appear before you. You have been addressed by a distinguished professor of one of our great colleges upon this subject. He has presented to you his theories on the subject of wages, and has incidentally spoken on the subject of tariff protection and taxation. These views seem to have attracted some consideration, or claim to consideration, from the fact that they are supposed to be delivered by a man of science, who is thoroughly familiar with the science known as "political economy," as taught in our schools and colleges. He has given to you what is now known and recognized as English political economy. He has stated certain abstract propositions in logical form, but they are not based upon facts; they are results of the deductive method of investigation. It reminded me very much of the old series of propositions under which motion was proved to be impossible. You will remember them. A thing cannot be moved where it is, because if it is moved it ceases to be in that place. A thing cannot be moved where it is not, because nothing can be or suffer where it has no existence. Therefore, as a thing must be where it is or where it is not, motion is entirely impossible; and the only answer which could be made to the professor would simply be to knock him down. You may also remember the distinguished scientific professor who demonstrated that it would be impossible to cross the Atlantic Ocean by use of steam; and his demonstration was published at just about the time the first steam vessel had accomplished its voyage successfully.

The weight you should accord to these theories depends somewhat upon their current acceptance. I can assure you that their acceptance is not very great. Some years ago, as secretary of the Industrial League, it was part of my duty to make inquiry as to the studies of political economy pursued in our colleges. I then discovered that in a large number of the colleges the English system of political economy was taught, and the American system had not penetrated them. But there was, in most of them, a very earnest protest against the dogmas of the English school, and some of the professors seemed inclined to give both sides of the subject to the pupils, while they were adhering to Mill or some other English authority as a text book. That interest is still manifested in some places; but in most of the colleges but one side of the subject is presented. This morning I happened to drop into the rooms of the American Iron and Steel Association, and there I found a letter just received from a student at Williams College, Massachusetts, and I will read one extract from it which bears upon this subject. It says :

Our American colleges in general are too theoretical in reference to the study of political economy, and prefer to study John Stuart Mill or Professor Perry in preference to Henry C. Carey or any other writer of the American school; and it is my experience under Professor Perry that Henry C. Carey's name has never been mentioned

in the class-room except to be cursed, and in his works there is not a single point advanced which at all pleases these American-Englishmen. I would like very much to obtain Thompson's Social Science, for which I believe you are publisher. I tried to obtain it in all the bookstores of Albany, N. Y., but it was nowhere to be found. Will you please send me a copy and also the bill with it. It is not in our college library of 50,000 volumes, and what is more astonishing not one of Carey's works can be found there. This college always has been and is a hot-bed of free trade.

I reserve the young man's name, but it will be furnished to any one who doubts the authenticity of the statement. This shows that there is a protest among our American college boys against these unsound and un-American theories, and that they desire to know what eminent and distinguished American political economists have written on the subject.

Now, in regard not only to this assumed authority for free trade, but as to the other principles which go to make up this matter of political economy, I will say that they all have been conclusively refuted; that they have no acceptance among the leading writers of the world. The science of political economy has been almost wholly derived from the writings of Mr. Henry C. Carey; before his time, outside of his writings, this so-called science was in a chaotic condition. The principal maxims of the political economist, upon which the so-called science rests, apart from free trade, are the doctrine of the theory of population and the doctrine of rent. These doctrines assume that this world is out of tune and out of harmony, and that there is a constant tendency on the part of the population to outrun its means of support; that wars, pestilence, and famine, and even vices, are providential correctives of this unfortunate tendency, which the Creator introduced into the world in making it. The other doctrine is that of rent, which justifies the landlord in taking all the profits of the soil, and which increases his rewards just in proportion as the tenant is impoverished. These two doctrines have been conclusively and absolutely refuted; and Mr. Carey has done great service to humanity by his efforts in this direction. The doctrine announced by Mr. Carey in regard to the occupation of the soil was the gospel of hope to humanity. It gave a Christian basis to the great system of American political economy. Upon almost every point that the free trade professor has touched, such as free trade, protective taxes, &c., there has been a world of light thrown by our American writers, and our boys in the colleges are demanding that they shall have that light. Their professors are not able to answer their questions. If a professor cannot answer the questions of his class how can he endure with any degree of reputation the interrogatories propounded to him by this Commission?

Now, gentlemen, so far as the theories of this science are concerned, I say to you that they are being abandoned in England; that the majority of English writers are conceding that there is no scientific foundation or basis for this so-called English system of political economy, especially in regard to this theory of free trade. What do we see abroad in regard to this matter? Has free trade any existence in the world? It has not. Do the English people themselves practice it? You are urged to abolish all custom-houses, as they are one form of the protective system. The English people maintain custom-houses, and the English Government collects large revenues from customs and from duties on American products, such as wheat, spirits, and tobacco. There is no propaganda of the free trade doctrine anywhere now, except in the Cobden Club in England. We might safely say to England to-day, "If you will abolish all your duties, we will abolish all ours;" so nearly is the

practice of the two countries (no matter what they may profess) in accordance with what they understand themselves to be their true interests. If you go to France, what do you see there? You see that France intelligently protects her own industries; that she makes a schedule of duties—not a short or simple one, but an elaborate schedule of duties in which she takes great care to protect her own industries. If you go elsewhere on the Continent, what do you find? It is the same everywhere on the Continent. You find no country which proposes to abandon its labor and industries; no free country, not under the domination of Great Britain, that does not protect its industries. What do you find here in the English colonies in America? You find the strongest possible protective sentiment. Free trade has never been put in force anywhere. It is simply a very nice scientific dogma; but it is entirely inapplicable to human affairs. If we had a confederation of nations; if we were all one country, instead of being many; if we all had the same interests, instead of having adverse interests, then this doctrine of free trade might have some application. But under the existing state of affairs it is impossible. I might enlarge upon the subject, if I had time, and compare in detail some of the theories which have been presented to you, and which may appear somewhat plausible; but I would prefer very much, if you have any questions to ask me, to answer them rather than to extend my statement.

T. C. SEARCH.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

MR. T. C. SEARCH, of Philadelphia, representing the worsted spinners, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: A tariff to be of value must be protective in its operations, and to be protective it must insure the parties protected by preserving to them a legitimate profit on the business in which they are engaged over and above their foreign competitors. This is the kind of tariff needed by the worsted spinners of this country. The vital question before us, then, is to have a tariff so adjusted as to protect us in this profit in all the ordinary conditions of trade, and yet under extraordinary conditions, such as scarcity of raw material or some unusual demand for our products, one that will operate as a governor to save consumers from exorbitant prices and increase of values that might otherwise prevail. The worsted spinners desire a tariff for protection only and not for speculative purposes.

Fifteen years ago the worsted spinners in Philadelphia were represented by one or two small mills only, but under the fostering care of our tariff laws the industry has made astonishing developments. The trade here is a wonderful example of the wisdom of a protective policy. It had its birth in protection and has been reared under its flag. The machinery used was all English; every spindle and every wheel paid the duty exacted, and yet, in the year 1880, we produced in this city alone \$10,000,000 worth of worsted yarns and nearly \$20,000,000 of woven worsted goods, and the worsted carpet trade is not included in these statements.

We have passed through many periods of depression caused by the enormous competition among ourselves as manufacturers, these being eventually dispelled by the natural growth of our country. Since the beginning of the year 1880 we have been passing through just such a trial, working on the most favored styles with barely a living profit and on the great bulk of our business with practically none at all, and on a very considerable portion a positive loss; and during all this time the raw material values have been maintained almost without any fluctuation.

The present tariff has so increased the production of wool in this country that, with all the enormous demand upon the raw material, the various kinds to which our soil and climate are particularly adapted have a value comparatively uninfluenced by the importing cost of similar material. Adelaide wool, costing 35.7 cents, shrinkage 62 per cent., costs, laid down here, 94 cents scoured clean; while our California wool, fine and scoured, can be had for 75 cents.

New Zealand unwashed superior, costing 47½ cents, shrinkage 53 per cent., costs here \$1.01; while its competitors, Ohio and Pennsylvania wools, at 41 cents, cost 86 cents scoured clean.

Montevideo wools, costing 86 cents scoured here, are offset by Colorado, Texas, and Kansas wools, costing 70 to 75 cents clean; and, eventually, if the wool-growing interest be wisely protected, we shall doubtless become able to export this article. There are, however, some very fine wools grown which seem to be not well adapted to our soil and climate, the loss of which our manufacturers keenly feel. I refer to

that class of wools used by foreign manufacturers in making goods for the American market, and which recommend themselves by their soft texture and finish.

The protection on this class is not sufficient for us, considering the protection on the raw material. We cannot make these fine yarns in competition with the foreigner; our facilities for doing so are too limited, and the demand, by reason of unequal protection, too limited to warrant the creation of plants necessary for their cheap production; and yet we see 25,000,000 yards of cloth, largely of this character, imported into this country.

Here is a case in which further facts and figures seem unnecessary. Manufacturers here have, one after another, tried to make them, and failed. Within two years' time we have seen a most successful English manufacturer send his looms to this country, with skilled men to manage them, and yet absolutely fail to make the goods without loss here that he is making in England and selling in America at a profit.

We believe this result to be largely attributable to an unforeseen action of our tariff laws. These laws say that on all goods weighing 4 ounces and over per square yard the duty shall be 50 cents per pound and 35 per cent. ad valorem; this is equivalent to 12½ cents per yard and 35 per cent. This protection is probably sufficient, but the foreigner eludes it by making his goods weigh very slightly less than 4 ounces per yard, and lands them here, paying only 8 cents per square yard and 40 per cent. duty, a loss of 50 per cent. and over of the specific duty by conceding only 5 per cent. on the ad valorem.

Now let us look at the duty on fine yarns. When our tariff was made it was probably very far from the thoughts of the framers that, in the year 1882, the United States would be in position to bid for the finest grades of goods that spindles and looms can produce; hence, they slipped over too lightly those portions of the bill affecting these grades.

The position we are in to-day is, that the more labor we put on our work the less protection we have. Our tariff law says that worsted yarns costing not exceeding 40 cents per pound shall pay a duty of 20 cents per pound and 35 per cent., or a total duty of 85 per cent.; if they cost above 40 cents and not over 60 cents per pound, 30 cents per pound and 35 per cent. duty, equal to 110 per cent. on the 41-cent yarn down to 85 per cent. on the 60-cent yarn. If cost is above 60 and not over 80 cents per pound, the duty is 40 cents per pound and 35 per cent., or 110 per cent. down to 85 per cent.; if above 80 cents per pound the duty is 50 cents per pound and 35 per cent.—97½ per cent. duty. Now in this last clause of the act arises our trouble. Look at its operation on 80-cent yarn, the duty is 97½ per cent.; on 90-cent yarn it is only 90 per cent.; on \$1 yarn, 85 per cent.; on \$1.10, 80½ per cent.; \$1.20, 76¾ per cent.; \$1.30, 73½ per cent.; \$1.40, 70.2 per cent.; \$1.50, 68½ per cent.; \$1.60, 66¼ per cent.; \$1.70, 64.4 per cent.; \$1.80, 62¾ per cent.; and all this tremendous reduction is going on while we are paying over 57 per cent. duty and expenses on the raw material, and 100 per cent. on labor as compared with England, and 150 per cent. to 200 per cent. on labor of other countries.

We believe that this, in effect, is offering a premium to foreign manufacturers to supply our markets with fine goods when it were far better to put that premium into use here at home and help build up practically a new industry.

We believe that instead of limiting the protection on yarns above 80 cents to 50 cents and 35 per cent. the duty should go on by regular increments as the price on manufactured goods advances.

We believe in a wise protection for the wool grower of the United States, an equally wise one for the manufacturer, and pray that as far as possible, consistent with right, the relations we have adapted ourselves to under the present tariff be maintained.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Question. I understand that the corresponding ad valorem percentages as given, corresponding to the present compound rates, are based upon present prices. How do they vary from the prices which prevailed at the time the law was passed? Was the same principle then true that the finest goods had the lowest rates comparatively?—Answer. I do not know that I should like to answer that question. I do not know that I am competent to answer the question until after I have had some consultation upon the subject. I can state that the effect of the present tariff in the protection it has afforded to our manufactures since 1872 has been to reduce the prices of foreign yarns 25 per cent.

Q. That is not the point I desire to elicit; what I want to know is this: In 1867 the wool tariff was passed by Congress in accordance with the wishes of the wool growers and wool manufacturers of the United States, and it occurs to the average intelligent mind that the wool manufacturers at that time did not advocate a tariff which would operate as unjustly towards them as it now appears to do. It seems to me that if it is anybody's fault that it works wrong now it is the fault of the men who had that compound tariff passed.—A. It may be that the fault existed then, but I would not like to say so, because values have changed very much since.

Q. If they had had a purely ad valorem tariff instead of this compound one the difficulty would not have arisen?—A. No, sir; not if the tariff had been a sufficiently ad valorem tariff.

C. N. BOVÉE ET AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. C. N. BOVÉE, of New York, addressed the Commission, as follows:

In behalf of a large number of newspaper and periodical dealers and publishers in all sections of the United States I desire to present a statement, giving reasons for a removal of the duty of 25 per centum ad valorem on newspapers, magazines, and periodicals, now levied under section 2504 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, Schedule M, and why they should be placed on the free list:

First. Because, under the provisions of the postal treaties, such matter is now received through the mails free of all custom duties.

Second. Because, under said provisions, the United States Post-Office not only receives and carries through the mails such matter free, receiving no compensation whatever therefor, but the provisions of the Universal Postal Union are that "each administration keeps the whole of the sum which it has collected."

Third. Because this works in the interest of foreign periodical dealers, who not only send periodical printed matter into this country free of duty, but have it carried to all parts of the United States, having it delivered from door to door in the large cities by the United States Post-Office Department, and at very great expense and loss to the department, which receives no compensation whatever for this service rendered to foreigners.

Fourth. Because this discrimination in favor of foreign dealers is having the effect of taking away the bulk of this trade from American dealers, who, being subject to duty, cannot compete with them. The removal of the duty would clearly have a tendency to transfer a fair share of this trade back into the hands of the American dealers, or would at least place them on an equal footing with foreign dealers, a position which they do not now occupy.

Fifth. Because such mail matter now coming in free of duty and distributed free of mail charges averages upwards of six hundred and seventy bags weekly at the New York post-office, and is constantly increasing, and already the quantity upon which duty is collected is only one-fifth part of the whole quantity coming in. The annual quantity received at New York at present is as follows, viz:

By mail, 34,480 bags, weighing 2,438,800 pounds, at an expense to the government for carrying of.....	\$48,776 00
By freight, 3,314 bales, weighing 640,160 pounds, upon which the government collects duty.....	30,877 40

Net annual loss on this matter to the government now..... \$17,898 60

And to this loss should be added the cost of collecting the \$30,000 duty.

Sixth. Because, as fast as the balance of this matter now received as freight is transferred to the mail, the expenses of the government for handling and carrying will be increased, and the amount of duties decreased. Consequently, it will be a great saving of expense to the government to remove the duty, and allow American dealers to receive their supplies as freight, who, when using the mails for the transmis-

sion of the matter, after its receipt into this country as freight, would prepay the postage, thereby increasing the revenue of the government.

Seventh. Because there are ten thousand newspaper and periodical dealers in the United States who are injuriously affected by this advantage given to foreigners; said dealers will, if this duty is removed, receive their supplies as freight, and when using the mails in this country, will prepay the postage on such matter, and to that extent increase the revenue of the Post-Office Department.

Eighth. Because foreign dealers are flooding the country with circulars, examples of which are appended hereto, setting forth the said discrimination in their favor, by which they are enabled to undersell American dealers.

Ninth. Because, if this duty is not removed, in order to keep their trade from going entirely out of their hands, American dealers will be compelled to open branch offices in foreign countries, and have their list of periodicals mailed from those points to save the duty, and in this way place themselves in a better position to do business in their own country from foreign points than they are at home, "a state of affairs that should not be forced on the trade of any country," as is well said in a petition for the removal of a similar duty, since abolished, under another government.

Tenth. Because the removal of said duty would actually increase the revenue of the United States Government. The duties now collected on this matter only amount to about \$30,000 per year, while it costs the government \$48,000 per year to carry that portion which comes in free of duty by mail, for which the government gets no compensation whatever.

Eleventh. Because already it scarcely pays the government to collect the duty, for it amounts in the port of New York to only about \$30,000, and that a progressively diminishing amount, and at other ports it is comparatively nothing. It being cheaper to use the mails than to pay duty and freight, the tendency is to transfer the whole of this matter to the mails, thereby rapidly decreasing the amount of duty collected.

Twelfth. From the absence of any existing duty on foreign newspapers, magazines, and periodicals conveyed through the mails from abroad, and from the rate of postage within the Postal Union being so very low now, such matter is already sold throughout the United States by foreign publishers and dealers as cheap as American dealers could afford to sell it even after the removal of the duty. The quantity coming into this country would not therefore be increased by removing that duty, and consequently it would not be injurious to any class of American citizens. On the contrary, by the removal of the duty, much of the business now being done in consequence of it, by foreign publishers and dealers, would come back naturally into the hands of American dealers, and the channel of its importation would be transferred from the post-office to the custom-house.

Thirteenth. Because, within the last two or three years, the Canadian government has entirely removed all tax on such matter, and it is now admitted free into that country, and from there Canadian dealers can and do send it to American subscribers through our mails, without revenue to the United States.

Fourteenth. Because the following examples of the working of the duty presents, in a light that cannot be mistaken, the impolicy of a continuance of said duty, viz :

	Cents.
A copy of the Nineteenth Century, a magazine weighing 9½ ounces, can be mailed from London to Chicago for.....	5
The duty alone on the above is.....	07. 62
The freight from London to New York is.....	01. 25
The freight from New York to Chicago is.....	01. 25
Freight and duty together.....	10. 12
Difference per copy in favor of sending by mail.....	5. 12
A copy of the Saturday Review, a newspaper weighing 3 ounces, can be mailed from London to Chicago for.....	2
The duty alone on the above is.....	2. 25
The freight from London to New York is.....	. 40
The freight from New York to Chicago is.....	. 40
Freight and duty together.....	3. 05
Difference per single copy in favor of sending by mail.....	1. 05

The 5 cents in the one case and the 2 cents in the other, it will be remembered, are paid to and retained by the British Government. On the other hand, if the duty should be removed, then the situation will be reversed, as follows :

	Cents.
Carrage by freight to New York from London on Nineteenth Century.....	1. 25
Postage.....	5
Difference in favor of freight.....	3. 75

Fifteenth. Because the impolicy of a continuance of said duty here is not only significantly suggested by the abrogation of a similar duty lately in Canada, but the injurious effects of such a duty are also strikingly shown in the representations, in the nature of evidence, there urged for its removal. Witness the following extracts from the memorial there addressed to the government by the newspaper trade asking for its removal, viz :

The discrimination in favor of private individuals in allowing them to receive through the mails, free of duty, magazines and periodicals has had the effect of rapidly transferring the bulk of this trade from Canadian to foreign channels.

Actual figures can be produced to show that in 1878 certain large quantities of periodical matter were received in the country by freight or express, and 5 per cent. duty collected thereon; while now the mails are used to carry this large amount of matter into the country free of duty and free of postage—the loss in revenue to the government being great, and very great injustice being inflicted on the news trade of the country.

The effect of this unfair discrimination is that whereas formerly Canadian booksellers enjoyed a lucrative trade in magazines, periodicals, &c., published in other countries, now this trade has been taken out of their hands and transferred to the trade of other countries, the government has lost the revenue and postage in conveying it into the country, and the private individual pays as much as heretofore.

In order to keep their trade from going entirely out of their hands, several Canadian dealers have been compelled to open branch offices in New York and London, and they now actually have their lists of periodicals mailed from those points, to save the duty, and in this way are in a better position to do business in their own country from a foreign point than they are at home; a state of affairs that should not be forced on the trade of any country.

Recognizing the validity of these considerations, and the severity of the hardships complained of, the Canadian Government has granted the prayer of the memorialists, and abolished the duty in that case, and now these memorialists, in behalf of a much larger number of dealers in the United States, ask a like measure of consideration and justice from their government.

This memorial has been signed by Judge Arnoux, Mr. S. S. Blood, of the International News Company, and myself.

I stated at Long Branch that we had appeared before the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives, but when the bill was introduced creating the Tariff Commission, of course we suspended all further action in that direction. We respectfully submit that we are entitled to consideration and to a report from your Commission to Congress. I would like permission for Mr. Blood and Mr. Abercrombie to state what the effect has been on their business.

Mr. SAMUEL S. BLOOD, manager of the International News Company, said :

Nearly all the points which I desire to present, I think, are covered in the statement which has been submitted. But to show the effect of these provisions more clearly, I will say this :

Packages by mail are limited in size and weight to suit consumers, but are not suited to the business of dealers.

If foreign dealers in dry goods could send small packages of dry goods through the mails free of duty, they would flood this country with circulars, and ruin the business of all our dry goods merchants who have to pay duty. The effect on our business is precisely the same in proportion to the amount of business done.

Mr. ABERCROMBIE, of Baltimore, said :

I represent the large retailers in Baltimore. Prior to the passage of the Postal Union laws for this country, we had quite a large English periodical business in Baltimore, amounting from subscriptions alone to about \$5,000 a year, if not more. Since the passage of this Postal Union bill allowing persons to get these publications through the mails without paying any duty, it has caused a loss to us of at least \$4,000 a year in subscriptions. For example, a person can subscribe for a paper in London, and get it delivered to him at Baltimore at a less rate than I can, because I have to pay a duty, because I am a dealer; whereas no duty is required from him. That has affected our business very largely. I have tried my best to retain my trade, but have been unable to do so. People say to me, "We can get our English papers so much less than you can supply them for, that if you cannot do any better for us we shall get them through the mails." I reply, of course, that I cannot furnish them any cheaper. I could name a number of instances where gentlemen have taken their orders from me and sent them to Europe. The Atheneum Club, the Maryland Club, and others, want lower prices, and I cannot give them. They prefer to get their supplies from me because their papers are not crushed so much when I deliver them as they are when sent through the mail. We retain some few of our subscribers who would rather pay us the difference for that reason. All this has been caused by the passage of this Postal Union treaty, whereby papers come in at a low rate of postage. Prior to that time we had no cause to complain.

Commissioner BOTELER. We have no power to interfere with the operations of the Postal Union treaty.

The WITNESS. That is why I say that if we had the 25 per cent. duty removed we would be in a condition to compete with any English house; we would not be at all afraid of them, and our business would all come back to us. If you will look at article 4 in this printed paper, and ar-

ticles 8, 9, and 12, you will see exactly the position that I, as a dealer, am in.

Commissioner OLIVER. It is free trade through the mails?

The WITNESS. Yes, sir. Article No. 4 says: "Because this discrimination in favor of foreign dealers is having the effect of taking away the bulk of this trade from American dealers." It has done that in my case.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. I understand that when you receive your package of publications by freight, you distribute them by freight, is that the idea?—Answer. No, sir; we deliver them to our subscribers by hand.

Q. Certainly, in the city; but I mean outside of the city. Are you a wholesale dealer?—A. Yes, sir; I am both wholesale and retail.

Q. How do you supply distant subscribers?—A. Some by mail, unless it is an exceedingly large package, when it would be sent by express. After these papers reach us, the most of them go through the mail, so that the government would get the benefit of that postage.

Q. And in the other case under the Postal Union, the government does not get any benefit?—A. No, sir; no benefit at all.

Mr. BOVRE. The postal treaty provides that whatever sum is collected by each government, shall be kept by that government.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. If your suggestions are adopted, I understand you to say there will be less expense at the custom-house?—A. Yes, sir.

Commissioner McMAHON. That is a popular fallacy. It takes just as much clerical labor, and manual labor in examination, where there is no collection of duty, as where there is a collection of duty, the only difference being in receiving and counting the money. I mean, the same forms have to be gone through; the entries, invoices, and permits, and everything takes the same course as if duties were paid.

Mr. BOVRE. I referred to the fact that packages have to be examined by the custom-house officers, to see whether there is dutiable matter in them.

THOMAS HAMPTON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. THOMAS HAMPTON and others, silk dressers, of Paterson, N. J., in regard to silk sliver or dressed silk, was ordered to be printed:

I wish to call your attention to an article called silk sliver or dressed silk, and imported to this country duty free.

It is manufactured from silk waste or cocoons, and is used for silk purposes; but as this is not classified or enumerated in the tariff list with other silks at a proper rate of duty, it is imported as silk waste duty free. Now this article in question is partly manufactured from silk waste or cocoons, and should pay a duty.

It was brought to the notice of the department of customs at New York and Washington in May, 1878, and assessed at 60 per cent. as silk not provided for; afterwards it was assessed at 35 per cent. ad valorem by the Secretary of the Treasury, at Washington, D. C., June 6, 1878, as spun silk. But for some reason or other in October, 1878, this was reversed to no duty.

There are a number of mills engaged in the manufacture of spun silk which import the article in large quantities, more or less manufactured by combing or carding to be completed into yarn, and avoid the duty on spun silk, which is 35 per cent. ad valorem, and also the cost of combing and carding the same, which is more than one-half the price of completing it into yarn.

Partially manufactured silk, that is carded, combed, or dressed, ought to pay duty according to the title-page under the head of imports (section 2449), 35 per cent. ad valorem.

This article partially manufactured, combed or dressed silk for spun silk purposes from silk waste or cocoons, can be bought according to quality for \$1 to \$4 per pound; it is manufactured and sold in the English, French, and Italian markets, but as it is not classified or enumerated, importers here claim there is no law to hold it dutiable, and they now import it as silk waste duty free. Now, we workingmen who are engaged in combing or carding or dressing the same in this country ask your attention to this partly manufactured article from silk waste or cocoons, and used for spun silk purposes, to classify the same according to the class to which it belongs, and encourage home industry, and stop free imports, and give us all equal protection, and we can manufacture the article here as well as elsewhere.

This should not be on the free list as silk waste, but as partly manufactured silk from silk waste or cocoons, and requiring skilled labor which ought to be protected with an ad valorem duty, say of 25 per cent., as we ask protection for our labor as well as the importer or manufacturer his capital.

We humbly suggest to you that all partly manufactured silk from silk waste or cocoons, and not more advanced than ecceled, carded, combed, or dressed pay an ad valorem duty of 25 per cent.

JAMES MILLIKEN.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. JAMES MILLIKEN, of Bellefonte, Pa., addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMISSION: With each effort made for the introduction of protective duties in our system of laws, every device on the part of those who opposed the system was, and has been, resorted to to defeat if possible the practical benefits of such laws to our country at large. The free-trade dreamer who fancies, in advocating his doctrines, that he has hold of an exact science, misled our statesmen of fifty to forty years ago with his logic, and turned their attention from practical results to considerations of will-o-the-wisp theories. The serious mistake in starting out to consider the question of free trade on the one hand and protection on the other, is the assumption that either can be resolved into an exact science.

The whole question is purely practical, applicable to each country in varying form, and to each in forms to-day that may be wholly unsuited to the same country a quarter of a century hence.

I assume, therefore, that the scope of your examinations and inquiries is to deal with the practical side of the questions involved, and to consider all questions that relate to the practical working and benefits of a protective system, and not so much to follow the system into regions of political economy, or, still higher, into those of social science.

The first effort to hinder the benefits that might flow from a protective system, pure and simple, was the introduction of ad valorem duties introduced at the instance and for the benefit of the foreign manufacturers and merchants. This system is simply a scheme to deprive our manufacturers of the benefits indicated in our tariff laws. An ad valorem duty is plainly a bounty for fraud. The sworn foreign value is testified to, in nine cases out of ten, by partners and clerks who are not cognizant of the real value of the invoice. From my personal researches on this head I am satisfied that many manufacturing firms and mercantile houses in Europe have junior partners who are purposely kept ignorant of the real value of an invoice that they may testify "to the best of their knowledge and belief." You observe in this the facility for fraud, and how the whole of an ad valorem duty may be stricken from the real value, and your manufacturers be entirely defeated of that protection which the law by an ad valorem duty assumes to give them. If the system of ad valorem duties were even accurate and true the system is nevertheless, in itself, wholly wrong in practice. If you base an ad valorem duty on an average value of the goods taxed your duty falls too low, when the price or value abroad declines, and again becomes too high when speculation or scarcity enhances the foreign value. This form of duty is unstable and far too uncertain for our manufacturers to keep pace with or even to keep advised of.

The second, and one of the most important schemes to hinder the practical working and benefits of duties levied for protection, is to be found in what may be called "the warehousing system," a system wholly designed for the benefit of foreign merchants and foreign manufacturers. By this system a foreign merchant or manufacturer, without so much as a domicile or citizenship, may store his surplus wares and

merchandise without the payment of a dollar of duty in almost every important city of our country to wait a market. The presence of large stocks of goods constantly hanging over a market is at all times a hinderance to commercial enterprise, a source of alarm to the producers, and a grave wrong to every manufacturer in our country. The foreign producer is enabled by these facilities to stand over your own producers and be the first to seize upon those surges of fluctuations in values so common in every condition of commercial ventures. Indeed so great is his power that he is almost enabled to say to your producer, "You shall not sell until I have disposed of the contents of your warehouses"; and yet it is called "protection." These goods, too, can be transported in bond from city to city all over our country until they may find an entering spot to the detriment and hinderance of your own producers.

Do you know of any country on the face of the globe, adhering to protective duties, that has been good enough to provide a warehousing system and keep up an army of paid officials to receive, warehouse, and take care of the production of your manufacturers? If we would not learn from others, let us at least recognize that the first duty of every government is to take care of its own.

So timid has protection, in the hands of the statesmen I have referred to, been, that scarce a measure has been adopted looking to that end that has not in some such manner as I point out been wholly robbed of every feature of protection, while the world has been taught to believe that our protective duties are exorbitant.

If it is the design of this honorable Commission that the outcome of their recommendations shall have practical application, and result in practical benefit, I would beg leave to entreat you earnestly to give large consideration to the two important branches—that of ad valorem duties and the warehousing system—I have had the honor granted me to bring thus briefly to your attention. I speak not for any class of industry or of manufacture, but for the benefit to the whole country and to the prosperity of the whole people.

Commissioner McMAHON. I think it possible that the witness is laboring under a misapprehension, or else I have misapprehended what he says about warehouses. Do I understand you to say that the government sustains warehouses?—Answer. No, sir; there is no government expense connected with a warehouse; but there is the clerical expense, which the government does not charge on the invoice, of the men who have to be employed in the business of warehousing goods.

Q. Do you mean the assistant storekeepers?—A. No, sir; I mean the clerical force.

Q. Do you mean the persons engaged in passing invoices and entries?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. The government storekeepers' wages are paid by the warehousemen, are they not?—A. Yes, sir; entirely.

Q. You do not believe in allowing these goods to be transported from place to place in bond, under the warehousing system?—A. No, sir; I do not.

Q. Of course you are familiar with the Liverpool docks?—A. Yes, sir; but in England they have no protective duties. In regard to the general principles of protection, I will say a word on a subject which seems to me to have been overlooked somewhat, and that is this: That there is no country to-day, among what we call the advanced or civilized nations having any financial or commercial character, which has not arrived at that position through protection, and there is not a country which has followed the opposite theory which is not in a large measure at the mercy of the other countries who have followed protection. I

give you as an illustration England, France, and Germany, the Zollverein and Switzerland, and on the other hand, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and all those countries lying across the Mediterranean, also, which may come within the scope of civilized countries, such as Turkey, Egypt, Morocco. There you have the whole question in a nutshell; the experience of thousands of years.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Your suggestions are quite radical. Have you made any estimate of the trouble and change in business that a sudden action of the government in regard to the warehousing system would cause?—A. This matter of abolishing the warehouse system should be preceded by a year's notice of the intention of the government to abolish warehouses.

Q. You are the only witness, I think, who has appeared before us, who has presented a scheme for abolishing the warehouse system.—A. Well, I do so because I think it is an outrage upon our people and a wrong upon the country. I contributed an article ten years ago to a public journal upon this same subject.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. I suppose you are aware that such a plan was recommended to Congress by a committee of manufacturers?—A. Yes, sir; that was some years ago. It was originally recommended by some of the manufacturers on the other side of the water for certain purposes of their own. Their object was to get raw materials, and they thought the raw materials would come in in large quantities, but there they utterly failed. With your present ad valorem duties you are tempting persons to commit fraud, and with your warehousing system you are doing the same thing in a different way. Let me give you the result of my researches in another direction, showing the danger of trusting to foreigners in these matters. I had occasion to investigate the work done under the international treaty between Spain, Great Britain, and the United States in relation to the suppression of the slave trade in the West India Islands. By the provisions of that treaty all ships which were caught with slaves on board coming from Africa were to be returned to Africa and the slaves to be released, except when captured within a certain number of miles of the West India Islands, and then they were to be taken in and dealt with there. I saw myself a cargo of these poor creatures landed on the island of Cuba under such a provision. The captain-general of the island immediately sent word to the planters that if they wanted any of them they could take a certain number by paying the ship \$10 a head and the government \$4. They had to keep them ten years until they learned the language, and then they were to pay them \$4 and set them free. Of course all the planters were eager to take them on these terms, and a man who would take ten would perhaps have a hundred slaves on his plantation. Whenever one of his slaves died he would take one of the medals or tin plates which had been placed around the necks of these men, with a number on it, and transfer it to the dead negro, send for the priest, and he would certify that he buried "Emancipado No. 42," or whatever the number was, and he was stricken off the list. In this way I found that 170,000 of these poor creatures passed into slavery because we had trusted Spain to perform her part of the treaty. If you trust a foreigner to levy his own value upon his foreign goods he will cheat you every cent of your protective duty in nine cases out of ten.

CHARLES J. PUSEY.

PHILADELPHIA, *October 14, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. CHARLES J. PUSEY, of Philadelphia, in regard to the importation of Canadian iron ores, was ordered to be printed:

The constantly increasing demand for iron ores suitable for making Bessemer steel has led to the most thorough examination of every district in our own country for the purpose of obtaining such ores in sufficient quantities, but with few exceptions our own ores are not well adapted to that purpose.

In consequence of this scarcity in our own country and the rapid increase in the production of Bessemer steel, the manufacturers, after exhausting every effort to secure a supply from mines within our own country, were compelled to seek a supply elsewhere, which has resulted in large importations of this class of ore from Spain, Africa, and other countries, but the large demand caused examinations to be made with a view to procure at least a portion of the supply needed from places nearer by, which has resulted in attention being called to the iron-ore deposits of Canada, particularly those in the province of Ontario, which, as already developed, are shown to be of very great extent, and with very few exceptions are equally well suited for Bessemer purposes as the ores being imported from Spain.

The accompanying statement shows the analyses of most of the deposits in Ontario, which includes only such as would be worked. Some twelve to fifteen other mines have been opened, from which I have not received the analyses, but am told they are all good Bessemer ores. You will observe in the list thirty-five mines are named; and out of this only three are unfit for Bessemer purposes, on account of the presence of too high a percentage of phosphorus, and only four of them have sufficient titanium to be objectionable.

I also include herewith a copy of the records showing the amount of ore mined and exported from Canada to the United States during the years 1878 to 1882.

From these two statements you will recognize the undoubted value of these ores to our manufacturers; at the same time the development of the mines and shipment of the ores to our country is quite out of proportion, and this can be attributed to the following causes:

First. The cost of mining in Canada is nearly as great as in our own country, and its nearness to our markets causes a much higher dutiable valuation than usually prevails in the case of the Spanish ores, which does not average over \$2.50 per ton, while the valuation of the Canadian ores has probably averaged \$3.25 per ton.

Second. The annoyances resulting from improper valuations, which has so often seemed like a disposition on the part of our officials to discriminate against this trade, that our manufacturers, many of whom are already directly interested in many of these properties, have hesitated as to investing any sums of money beyond what was necessary to test the quantity and quality of these ores.

Third. The low cost of mining the Spanish ores by reason of cheap labor, their low market value at point of shipment, the low rate of

freight to this country, as compared with the higher cost of labor in Canada, and the difference of duties under the present system, along with the doubts and uncertainties always attendant upon developing new mining districts, are unfair discriminations against Canada.

On account of the absolute necessity of our manufacturers having these ores, many of them have already secured properties in Canada, and of the mines now being worked, they are without exception under the management of our own people, so that we are not only discriminating against Canada but against our own direct investment of capital, which we have been compelled to make on account of not being able to get the required quality of ore in sufficient quantities within our own borders.

Now I contend that when we cannot get the kind of ores necessary in our own country we should, if it were deemed politic to discriminate in the adjustment of our tariff, consider carefully our relations with the various governments of the different countries from which we can draw our supply of raw materials, and in this case, while the discrimination is so clearly against Canada, it must be admitted that our trade relations with her are far more important than that of any other country from which we can get these ores. The amount of American coal consumed in Canada yearly is now, and will continue to be, far in excess of the amount of ore we will import from there, aside from other branches of trade which are equally important to us. Our trade with them must necessarily continue to increase from year to year, so that I claim, an adjustment of the tariff with Canada by which these ores can be brought in free of duty will not to any appreciable extent interfere with similar interests in our own country, but will greatly promote our Bessemer interests, as well as being the means of directly adding to the volume of general business between our country and Canada.

I would therefore suggest for your consideration that steps be taken toward a treaty with Canada which will include the admission by our country of all Canadian iron ores free from duty, provided the Canadian Government will remove the duty and admit our anthracite and bituminous coal into their country free from duty.

Under the circumstances such a treaty would undoubtedly be very important to both countries, and, all things considered, no sacrifice to either, but so advantageous to both in the interchange of traffic that the general prosperity of both countries would be promoted thereby.

Analysis of Canadian iron ores from Ontario.

Name of mine.	Location.	Metallic iron.	Phosphorus.	Titanium.
		<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>
Seymour mine	Near Madoc	08. 83	0. 0104	None.
Dominion mine	do	57. 81	Trace.	Do.
Bronke mine	do	68. 37	0. 023	Do.
Wallbridge mine	do	64. 60	Trace.	Do.
Moore mine	do	64. 99	do	Do.
Dufferin mine	do	64. 60	0. 013	Do.
Neeson mine	do	56. 58	0. 006	Do.
Orton mine	North of Madoc	60. 80	. 027	2. 47
Baker mine	do	62. 20	0. 057	None.
Wollaston mine	do	60. 52	None.	Do.
Coulson mine	Near Bancroft	66. 13	0. 02	Do.

Analysis of Canadian iron ore from Ontario—Continued.

Name of mine.	Location.	Metallic iron.	Phosphorus.	Titanium.
		<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>
Dungannon mine	Near Banoroft	69.77	0.020	Do.
York Branch mine	do	50.49	.959	Do.
Banoroft mine	do	68.27	0.012	Do.
Bouttiff mine	Near Madoc	68.40	0.005	Do.
Mullett mine	do	59.25	0.013	Do.
Sexsmith mine	do	57.18	0.017	Trace.
Wager mine	Near Tamworth	64.12	0.017	None.
Paxton mine	Near Kinmount	55.12	Trace.	Do.
Swamp Lake mine	do	62.69	0.008	Do.
Victoria mine	East of Kinmount	61.02	0.052	Trace.
Howland mine	do	61.48	0.01	None.
Imperial mine	do	46.82	0.02	Do.
Ledyard mine	do	55.00	0.02	Do.
Pine Lake mine	do	53.00	0.007	7.91
New York mine	do	70.38	Trace.	None.
Monmouth mine	do	70.60	do	Do.
Cardiff mine	do	62.10	.180	Trace.
Thompson mine	North of Kinmount	67.11	.701	None.
Hull mine	Near Ottawa	58.44	Trace.	Do.
Haycock mine	do	68.34	do	2.34
Glendower mine	North of Kingston	64.83	0.01	1.32
Chaffee mine	do	52.36	Trace.	11.43
Roberts mine	do	62.04	0.009	None.
Thunder Bay mine	North shore Lake Superior	61.36	None.	Trace.

While the above analyses only show metallic iron, phosphorus, and titanium, the analysis was in every case made full and complete, but in no case was there found any other deleterious substances in objectionable quantities.

Exports of iron ore from Canada to the United States, years ending June 30.

From—	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	Total.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Port Hope, Ontario			227	3,909	300	4,496
Whitby, Ontario		117		654	378	1,147
Belleville, Ontario		902	15,081	4,698	15,000	37,187
Kingston, Ontario	3,020	1,680	7,040	11,803	20,359	43,902
Ottawa, Ontario			6,028	22,259	5,828	35,015
	3,020	2,699	30,176	43,443	42,469	121,807

STOCKTON BATES.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 14, 1882.*

Mr. STOCKTON BATES, of Philadelphia, appeared before the Commission and made the following statement:

The American textile machine industry, as yet less than one hundred years old, owes its origin to the indomitable will and inventive ability of the native machinist. For seventy-one years from 1774 the restrictive laws of England relative to textile machinery were vigorously enforced. The first of these statutes was entitled "An act to prevent the exportation to foreign parts of utensils made use of in the cotton, linen, woolen, and silk manufactures of this kingdom." And the preamble recites:

Whereas the exportation of the several tools or utensils made use of in preparing, working up, and finishing the cotton and linen manufactures of this kingdom, or any or either of them, or any other goods wherein cotton or linen or either of them are used, will enable foreigners to work up such manufactures, and greatly diminish the exportation from this kingdom; therefore, for preserving as much as possible to His Majesty's British subjects the benefits arising from these great and valuable branches of trade and commerce, it is enacted, &c.

Then follow the most stringent penalties for violations of this statute—*forfeiture and heavy fines*—and to these, in 1781, was added "*imprisonment for the space of twelve months.*"

Deprived of English machinery, which this country would have contented herself with importing, if permitted [says a very able writer on this subject], instead of the one industry which she aimed to acquire, she attained two, and one infinitely higher than that which she sought, viz, the industry of manufacturing machinery. * * * Forced to be self-reliant, our textile arts and our machinery are as original and characteristic as our indigenous plants. * * * Thus did England's policy of restriction overreach itself and build up the rival which she now most dreads.

From data gathered by the same able author, the following-named contributions from American inventors in machinery may be briefly enumerated: The cotton-gin of Whitney; the card-setting machine of Amos Whittemore; Arnold's compound gear; Batchelder's stop-motion; George Danforth's speeders, and Charles Danforth's cap-spinner.

The incomparable modern ring-spinning was first conceived of by John Thorp, of Providence, and improved by Mr. Mason, of Taunton; then successively by more recent inventors.

Spindles, mules, cards, eveners, shears, openers, warp-spoolers, looms, in fact every department of textile machinery bears the impress of America's inventive skill.

Under England's acts restricting exportation of textile machinery, the American builder was indeed protected. Now that, under England's later policy of free trade, the most strenuous efforts are being made to force her machinery upon the American markets, the textile-machine builders of this country must invoke the continued protection of their industry through the medium of the United States tariff laws.

Cotton-machine building was the first mechanical industry in this country that required mechanical skill of a high order, and, as cotton manufactories increased, the shops that built the machinery and did the repairs for the mills became the nurseries of the wonderful development of mechanical skill that has since done so much toward making us the foremost nation of the world in producing labor-saving and ingenious machines. As the manufacture of cotton soon became a leading industry, and constantly demanded more and better machines, large shops were established and care-

ful attention was paid to learning apprentices the nice working of iron and steel, which was especially required in the production of cotton machinery. The skill of our mechanics soon produced cotton machinery equal to that produced in England; and, not content with this, they sought out new inventions, and soon taught the English even how to economize and simplify the construction and to increase its productive qualities, so that now many of the machine-builders of England are using inventions of American skill in their machines. Wonderful inventions, like the cotton-gin, reapers, and mowers, came along, and their inventors went at once to these very shops for the skilled labor that reduced their plans to practical results. Following these came improved "machinists' tools," steam-engines, locomotives, marine-engines, firearms, and sewing-machines, every one of which drew largely their skilled workmen from these nurseries, where they had learned the art of constructing tools as well as machinery.

The builders of American textile machinery represent an aggregate capital of not less than from \$20,000,000 to \$25,000,000, with an annual production of about the same amount. They employ about 25,000 hands, mostly male adults. This represents a dependent population of about 100,000 souls. They convert raw materials into finished productions, and thus consume about 51,472 tons of pig iron, 10,000 tons of bar iron, 2,900 tons of steel, 40,000 tons of coal, 14,242 tons of molding sand, 1,073,000 feet of lumber, and about \$3,334,300 worth of other materials.

Under the present tariff, with a duty of 35 per cent. on manufactures of iron and 45 per cent. on those of steel, as not more than about 2 per cent. of steel is used in the construction of cotton machinery, the virtual rate is about 35 per cent.

The duty on pig and bar iron ranges from 45 to 90 per cent., or, from careful investigation, the average may be stated at not far from 60 per cent.; but cotton and wool machinery is highly finished, and requires a very large proportion of skilled labor in its manufacture, so that labor constitutes 50 per cent. of the value of the finished product. Inasmuch as English mechanical labor is from 40 to 50 per cent. cheaper than American, the latter is held at a decided disadvantage. Large quantities of English machinery have been imported, almost, if not quite, defying competition under the operation of the above conditions. Cotton manufacturers have bought the English machinery on account of the low prices at which it could be obtained, while generally conceding the superiority of the American.

The position of shops making cotton machinery in the United States in relation to the revenue laws of the country, may be stated as follows: A large proportion of the materials of which textile machinery is made consists of metals, to wit: pig iron, bar iron, and steel; all of which pay a much higher duty than is levied upon textile machinery. Of the cost of cotton and wool machinery made in this country about one-half is labor and one-half materials, and wages here are from 40 to 50 per cent. higher than in England.

Taking into account the losses and failures, builders of textile machinery in this country have realized only moderate returns on their capital, and nowise in excess of those reaped in other branches of labor. While the business has been fairly remunerative, the difficulties attending its prosecution are such that for many years no new establishments have been projected, and some that once carried on the business have been closed. The demand for textile machinery is necessarily very fluctuating, owing to the uncertain conditions of trade in textile fabrics, so that a large part of the plant in textile-machine shops is at times idle, necessitating the discharge of much labor trained in special operations. For the past two or three years there has been an increased demand for cotton and wool machinery, which has been met by the enlargement of existing shops and by importations from England. Yet, notwithstanding the vast amounts of capital seeking investment, there has not been

sufficient promise in the business of textile-machine building to attract capital for new enterprises.

This recent demand is now decreasing, and the shops will soon be repeating past experience by closing portions of their works. It is during these periods of depression that protection is most urgently needed. As the elements of cost of any machine are interest and capital invested in the plant, expenses of conducting the business, which includes taxes, insurance, wear and tear of tools and buildings, and a percentage of loss from bad debts, material used directly in the process of construction, and wages paid to the workmen, to the sum of which is added a percentage for legitimate profits, it can be shown that in all the elements of cost above mentioned the English has the American machine-builder at his disadvantage. The rate of interest is lower, all expenses are less, the price of foreign compared with American material is much less, and wages are little, if any, more than one-half the amount paid in the United States. It follows, therefore, that English machinery can be built for much less than American.

To enable textile machinery to be built in America, as conditions are at present, it is necessary that this primary difference in the elements of cost shall be equalized. Could these elements of cost be reduced here by lowering the rate of interest, reducing all expenses, scaling down the values of property and raw materials, fixing the wages of working people upon the same level as paid in England, then it would simply be a question of American against English skill and management. This being unadvisable, if indeed not impossible, equalization must be reached by the governmental restrictions of a tariff. To protect the American industry it is necessary to affix such a charge upon foreign-built machinery as will at least in part equalize the cost.

The present rate—nominally 35 per cent., as has been shown—taken in combination with the superior advantages of American-built machinery, constantly improved, as it is, and its productive capacity increased, thereby conferring incalculable advantages upon the manufacturer of textile fabrics, and this, coupled with improved American methods of manufacture, is barely sufficient to hold in check the aggressive foreign machine-builder.

The American builder, however, does not ask a higher rate of protection than the present law is intended to afford, but does ask a continued enforcement of existing laws.

RIEHL & HAILER.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. RIEHL & HAILER, of Philadelphia, in regard to the duty upon scientific instruments, was ordered to be printed:

Believing it to our interest to take some step towards the protection of our industry in this country, and seeing that there are a great many scientists opposed to us in the interest of protection on scientific goods, instruments, &c., we take this means of communicating our desire to your honorable body.

We are for protection or tariff on all manufactured goods of a scientific character that are made by our own people in this country.

At present the duty is 40 per cent. on all instruments of foreign manufacture, and with this duty we are compelled to work at very low prices to compete with English manufacturers' prices. In some cases we are compelled to make and sell them (finding material, &c.) at lower prices than we have received when working at the bench as journeymen. One article we name, of small amount, is imported to this country, duty included, for \$4.50. In this country a workman is paid \$5.50, and does not furnish material, thus enabling one firm who makes a specialty of foreign goods to bring prices so low that our own goods are forced out of manufacture. To use the expression of a workman, when asked what he would do if they took the duty off scientific instruments, he said he would go into some other business. This, gentlemen, means the annihilation of an elevating and important industry in this country, a business that needs and ought to be protected; instead of duty being taken off it ought to be added to the present rate.

We have in this city firms turning out work that cannot be excelled by any foreign manufacturer, and they merely plod along, on account of competition, in the way of low-paid foreign labor and low duty. In the microscopical line Zentmayer's instruments are the best made anywhere; and he is unable to dispose of them as he ought, on account of English goods, that are nowhere their equal in precision or finish, thus shutting out home goods—giving the patronage to English goods that have naught to recommend them but their low price, all on account of low duty.

We have noticed in the public press at various times accounts of scientists asking that scientific instruments be admitted free of duty. Now, we believe this unnecessary; as in many cases the very ones wanting this tariff taken off are making more money and getting a better living by simply looking at a man and telling him what the trouble is with him, in the case of disease, or rendering an opinion on the construction of some structure such as a railway or a bridge, or as an oculist examining a patient's eyes. These people get enormous amounts for a few moments' work, and it takes the workman days and sometimes weeks to earn the same amount, and still they do not want to protect the workman, who has to be as skilled and give as much time to learning as the professional man.

This is one of the reasons why we hear so much talk about the lack of skilled American labor, and why no American apprentices are being

fitted to be skilled laborers, simply because there is very little use for them, and the business is not encouraged by our government, which having plenty of money goes abroad for its instruments when it can buy the same article much cheaper and better made in this country.

Another fact we would like to call to the notice of your honorable body, is the act of Congress June 22, 1874, for the importation, free of duty, of all instruments for the use of institutions of learning. This we believe is much abused. It is very easy for a firm to get acquainted with a president or professor of some institution and have him ostensibly import instruments for his college, when in reality they are for his friend who carries on business who can afford to give him a small dividend. Thus they both make it an object for one another. This we believe is often done by unscrupulous parties carrying on business.

BURGESS & NEWTON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. Burgess & Newton, of New Haven, Conn., in regard to the duty upon sulphate barytes, was ordered to be printed :

We notice an argument made before you by McKesson & Robbins, of New York City, accompanied by a list of articles upon which they suggest a change of duty from the present rates, and among them we notice barytes, sulphate of—present duty, one-half cent per pound; duty proposed, 10 per cent. In relation to the same, we would say that we are large manufacturers of sulphate barytes, producing the same from the crude material, which is imported on our account from Germany. We believe there is only one other mill in the United States besides ours using foreign ore, and that is located at Elizabethport, N. J. There are several mills located in Virginia and through the South, and also some in Missouri, who use domestic ore mined on land near their mills. The present rate of duty on the crude material is 20 per cent. ad valorem. At present there is more or less manufactured sulphate of barytes imported into this country, and all that comes here is readily sold, bringing \$26 to \$28 per ton after duty of one-half cent per pound has been paid. Barytes manufactured by us and others in the United States sells in the market from \$22 to \$25 per ton. To make the duty 10 per cent., as proposed in the list of Messrs. McKesson & Robbins, foreign manufacturers would be enabled to offer their barytes at \$16 to \$18 per ton, all costs of freight, insurance, and duty included, and would practically close all manufacturing in this country. Sulphate of barytes as manufactured by us is sold entirely to the paint trade, and any change of the present rates of duty would simply be a benefit to paint manufacturers, and would not in any sense benefit the public. We do not for a moment believe that such a change in the rate of duty as proposed by Messrs. McKesson & Robbins has been even suggested by the consumers of barytes, but would think it more than probable that it has been suggested by brokers and commission merchants dealing with Germany and other countries, who would be enabled, with the rate of duty as proposed, to import all the barytes required and ruin the business here. In our mill we can produce from 5,000 to 6,000 tons a year. We employ some twenty hands, all of whom would in one sense be called skilled laborers, and to whom we pay from \$1.75 to \$3 per day. In our manufacture we use large quantities of coal, acid, and other materials, our weekly expenses being some \$700.

We did not think of addressing you on the subject, believing in letting well enough alone; but seeing the article referred to has led us to address you, and we have no doubt that we could easily obtain from all the consumers of barytes their signatures to a request that the duty on sulphate barytes remain as it now is, one-half cent per pound, as that rate is just enough to protect and does not prohibit the importing of it. If any change is made, we would suggest that the only change would be to let the crude material in free which now comes in under the head of unenumerated articles and paying duty at the rate of 20 per cent. ad valorem.

JAMES H. CANFIELD.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Prof. JAMES H. CANFIELD, of the Kansas State University, in regard to the duty on lumber, was ordered to be printed:

I beg leave to present for your consideration two suggestions only.

Deforestation is taking place in this country with alarming rapidity. Good authorities say that thirty-five acres are cleared where one is set out. But six States are able to supply more than their own needs. Many cannot do even this. In Maine, lumbermen are going to the very headwaters of streams and are using "trash" that a few years since would have been regarded as almost worthless. All through New England, streams that once turned the wheels of industry are still, or run only in rainy seasons. It is said on good authority that there is not a merchantable walnut tree in the State of Ohio. At the last meeting of the lumbermen of the Northwest, at Chicago, the prevailing impression seemed to be that at our present rate of consumption we shall exhaust most of our merchantable timber in twelve years. When exhausted, a clever statistician asserts that the entire merchant-marine of the world cannot carry enough to supply the demand. Climatic changes are constantly taking place. The earth is parched in summer, and its bare surface seamed with the winter's frost. New diseases are making their appearance, and old ones are taking new and disastrous forms. Terrible storms devastate whole counties, and floods impoverish States.

All this, and much more and even more startling, is well known to your honorable commission. The nation is alarmed. Bounties are offered to those who will systematically attempt to remedy this growing evil. The States are urged to active measures. Both local and national government seems to be anxious and alert.

At present the duties on more common classes of foreign forest products and manufactures of wood are as follows:

Cabinet wares and household furniture.....	35 per cent.
Lath.....	15 cents per M.
Lumber.....	\$1 and \$2 per M.
Lumber planed on one side.....	50 cents extra per M.
Lumber planed on both sides.....	\$1 extra per M.
Lumber planed on both sides, tongued and grooved.....	\$1.50 extra per M.
Posts.....	20 per cent.
Shingles.....	35 cents per M.
Common staves.....	20 per cent.
Ordinary hewn and sawed timber.....	20 per cent.

I will say nothing now as to the enormous drain made on the pockets of our citizens by such a tax—for a careful comparison of prices on each side of the Canadian line assures me that it becomes a tax almost to the extreme limit of the duty; nor as to the very limited revenue to the government when compared with the amount thus wrung from the people. But in view of the class of facts to which reference has been made, may I suggest that all duties on lumber ought to be removed—unless upon that which is most rare and costly—and that other nations should have absolutely free access to our markets with that which we so much need and with which we are supplying ourselves at such an absolutely fatal cost.

In 1880 our home consumption of pig-iron was not far from three and one-half million tons. Of this amount about three-quarters of a million tons were imported. The duty was \$7 per ton. A careful comparison instituted between prices in this and in other countries, with allowance made for exchange and freight, both rates being known, showed that American manufacturers took advantage of the tariff as far as possible, say about \$6.75 per ton. The account would therefore stand about as follows:

The American people bought of pig-iron, at prices above that at which it was offered by other nations, 2,750,000 tons at \$6.75, \$18,562,500.

As nearly as I can determine from such data as are available, the capital employed in this industry in 1880 was not far from \$60,000,000; the wages of labor in pig-iron, about \$15,000,000, which simply means that in 1880 we could have paid the laborers in this industry (?) full wages, allowing them to be idle; we could have paid the capitalists nearly six per cent. on all they had invested; we could have used for other purposes over five hundred steam-engines; we could have saved all the coal, coke, &c., used in the process of changing the ore to pigs; we could have bought all our pig-iron abroad; and we should yet have in store in our mountain-fastnesses ore for two and three-quarters millions tons of pig—to be taken out by those who could do so at profitable rates.

This same condition of affairs—though generally even more unfavorable to us—has been known for each of the past ten years at least.

You will understand that these figures are approximate, though sufficiently accurate to illustrate our folly.

May I suggest that it is not wise to continue a duty that so effectually and in every sense “wastes our substance.” Our population is now but about eighteen to the square mile. Not only should the present generation be spared this extraordinary tax, but some of our natural resources should be reserved for that population of two hundred and fifty to the square mile which is as sure to come as time is to continue.

Are protection and devastation, development and waste, to be considered synonymous terms?

A. BARROWS.

PHILADELPHIA, *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. A. BARROWS, of Philadelphia, was ordered to be printed :

The writer has been engaged in the manufacture of vessels of cast iron for forty-five years. The tariff act of 1842 gave an impetus to all branches of the iron business, and the firm of which I was a member commenced the manufacture of sad, tailor, and hatters' irons, in addition to our plain and glazed iron vessels; about the same time another firm in this city, aided by patented lathes for turning out the articles, engaged in the manufacture of plain tinned and glazed cooking vessels. There are now employed in these two establishments two hundred and fifty men; there are two other establishments in the State, two in Ohio, and two in New York State manufacturing tinned and glazed cooking utensils; there are also in other States a large number of establishments making, extensively, cooking vessels of cast and wrought iron, while all stove founders cast more or less of this kind of wares, making it a very important industry.

The tariff act of 1842 placed a duty on glazed and tinned vessels of cast iron, and on sad, tailor, and hatters' irons of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, on vessels of cast iron $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, and on pig iron \$9 per ton.

The tariff act of 1846 reduced all the above to 30 per centum ad valorem.

The tariff acts of 1857 and 1861 places vessels of cast iron, sad, tailors, and hatters' irons at 1 cent per pound, and tinned and glazed ware at $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, and pig iron at \$6 per ton.

The tariff acts of 1866 and 1872 places vessels of cast iron, andirons, sad, tailors', and hatters' irons at $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, and on hollow ware glazed and tinned $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, and pig iron was put \$9 per ton in the former and \$7 per ton in the latter acts.

We have examined the subject and the several tariff acts, and from our long experience, recommend the specific mode of determining duties as more simple, and less liable to errors than the ad valorem, as many of the articles we manufacture are sold by weight, while those not so sold, the weight can be readily obtained and as readily verified by our custom-house officers, thus removing the temptation for the seller to connive with the buyer, and manufacture invoices to obtain a lower duty.

Tariff laws should be as stable as possible. The mere discussion of the subject in Congress, with the view of change, has a depressing effect on our business.

Previous to the discovery of borax in this country we paid for the foreign article from 24 to 32 cents per pound; we now get the American refined borax for $13\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound. Our experience has been, any industry firmly established here gives the consumer lower prices through home competition than a reliance on the foreign manufacturers; no matter how low the goods are produced in the foreign market, they are sold at as high a price as this market will bear.

We appear before you, gentlemen, in behalf of the manufacturers of cooking utensils and household hardware of the United States, but

represent particularly the firms of Stuart, Peterson & Co., and Barrows Savery Company, limited, of this city, and the Marietta Hollow-Ware Works of Marietta, Pa., and suggest the duty on our goods be continued as it now is, viz: On tinned and glazed cooking vessels, $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound; and on vessels of cast iron, andirons, sad, tailor, and hat irons, $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound; and if the principle of fostering our manufactures is adhered to, and an assurance given that this policy will prevail a number of years with our lawmakers, in the near future the foundation will be laid to make this country one of the principal workshops of the world.

AUGUSTA, GA.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following table, showing the extent of the cotton manufacturing industry of the city of Augusta, Ga., was presented by Commissioner UNDERWOOD, and ordered to be printed:

Mills.	Spindles.	Looms.	Hands.	Yards of goods.	Bales of cotton.	Capital.
Augusta.....	26,000	770	675	15,500,000	13,000	\$600,000
Enterprise.....	30,000	900	750	13,000,000	12,000	650,000
Sibley.....	30,000	1,000	1,000	12,000,000	13,000	1,000,000
J. P. King*.....	25,000	750	700	12,000	1,000,000
Graniteville.....	24,000	590	520
Vauchuss.....	10,000	314	200	15,000,000	13,000	600,000
Langley.....	12,000	320	300	5,000,000	5,000	400,000
Summerville.....	4,000	150	170	2,250,000	1,500	100,000
Globe.....	4,000	05	Yarns.	2,000	Private.
Riverside.....	2,400	50	Yarns.	2,000	Private.
Sterling.....	2,800	40	Yarns.	1,000	Private.
Goodrich.....	2,000	25	Yarns.	600	Private.
	172,800	4,812	4,501	62,750,000	75,600	4,350,000

* J. P. King not yet running.

AUGUSTA, GA., *October 11, 1882.*

ALEXANDER C. FERGUSSON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1872.*

The following communication from Mr. ALEXANDER C. FERGUSSON, of Philadelphia, in regard to the duty on chemicals, was ordered to be printed :

Permit me briefly to call your attention to a few suggestions respecting the present rates of duty on chemicals :

First. *Caustic soda*, which is now classed to pay a specific duty of $1\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound. When this rate of duty was fixed the article was sold for more than double its present price. I am of opinion that the manufacture of this article in this country was stimulated by the heavy protection accorded, but that is not the reason of the low prices ruling for the past few years. The development of chemical science and the vast improvements in the process of manufacture have more than any other cause contributed to the low price. In proof of this assertion take the article of bleaching-powders, or chloride of lime, which a few years ago ranged in price from £15 to £20 per ton, and the duty then was 30 cents per hundred pounds. Now it is on the free list, and the price is £4 per ton, and selling cheaper than ever before in this country, much to the relief of the paper-makers.

There is only one manufacturer of caustic soda in the United States, located in Pennsylvania, and the product is but a small proportion of the consumption of the country. Nor can there be any other manufacturers from the same raw material, for the concern alluded to holds the lease-right exclusively for this country of the raw material.

The English price of caustic soda to-day is £8 5s. per ton, equal to about \$1.85 per hundred pounds, with duty $1\frac{1}{2}$ cent per pound and freight $\frac{1}{4}$ cent per pound, making a total of \$3.60 per hundred pounds. The percentage is over 80 per cent., and an unwarranted protection of one single manufacturing concern.

Again, this article of caustic soda contains 60 per cent. of real caustic alkali, and about $17\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of impurities, the remainder being the water of crystalization.

Soda ash, made by the ammonia process, contains 58 per cent. of pure alkali, is assessed one-quarter of a cent per pound, and sells in the market, duty paid, at about 2 cents per pound. Caustic soda is selling at \$3.60 cents. The difference is largely because of the duty, the one is so nearly the strength of the other.

Caustic soda is used almost exclusively for making soap, and every family in the country is directly concerned in having cheap soap. "Cleanliness is next to Godliness," and certainly we all want a God-fearing nation of citizens. Let us help them to the next best thing possible while it is in our power, *cheap soap, to make them clean*. A duty of one-half cent. per pound should be ample protection for the manufacturer, and a much needed relief for the whole population of the country.

Bicarbonate of soda is in a somewhat similar predicament. The duty of $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound has outlived its usefulness. When the price was from 8 to 12 cents per pound the duty was not excessive. Manufacturing was encouraged to a large extent, and for years the importations.

have steadily declined, till now they are exceedingly nominal. The American make sells here at 3 to 3½ cents per pound. There are makers in Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts, and elsewhere. The manufacture is now established on such a firm basis that with protection of not over a half cent per pound I am of opinion it can hold its own against the world. The chief use of the article is in baking and the preparation of baking-powders, and south and west, all through the country districts, it is most largely used. It seems quite reasonable, therefore, and fair that an article protected so long and so well should give way to a reduction for the good of the whole people.

Potashes.—The present duty on this article is 20 per cent. ad valorem. This article is made in the West and Northwest and in Canada, wherever timber land can be reached to be burned. The duty was originally imposed to keep out of the country the Canadian potashes, and protect our farmers who spent their winters in utilizing the forests cut down in the process of clearing the land. Canada has until recently supplied Europe with potashes, and does to a large extent yet.

Just here let me ask if it is not questionable legislation that would protect an industry which requires exclusively for its raw material our noble forests of the Northwest? Would it not be the part of wisdom to allow our neighbors across the border to supply our potashes as cheaply as possible. By some it is assumed the Montreal ashes are better quality than the American. The difference in quality is trifling. Potashes imported from Canada I should like to see on the free list, and I think the country would be benefited thereby. During the past year or two the finest quality of potash has been made in England and is shipped to this country in iron drums, and used for the same purposes as Canadian potashes (and American) are. It is dearer in price because it is purer and more desirable to work with. Its distinctive name is "caustic potash." So far as I can learn its manufacture has not been attempted in this country. With continued protection it might be made here, and possibly to advantage; therefore I would be in favor of a specific duty on this equal to the duty I propose on caustic soda, namely, half a cent per pound. In all such articles a specific duty per pound is much to be preferred to an ad valorem duty. The temptation to undervalue a *consignment* for account of the *manufacturer* is naturally very great, and this is probably often attempted, thereby placing the importer on his own account at quite a disadvantage in competition. A specific duty works alike to all. I would be pleased to see all ad valorem duties abolished and specific duties imposed instead. It would be better for every one.

Carbonate of potash or *refined pearl ash* is now largely imported from Europe, and by reason of its greater purity largely supplements the ordinary pearl ash made here and in Canada. The present duty on this article is 1½ cents per pound. I do not know of its being manufactured here, and see no reason why it might not be placed on the free list or taxed for a revenue only.

JOHN B. CONNER.

NEW YORK, *October 4, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. JOHN B. CONNER, of Indianapolis, Ind., was ordered to be printed :

The adjustment of commercial relations with a nation must depend upon the organic structure of those with which such relations are to be sustained. If the social and political conditions of the people composing nations were identical, there could be no just reason for statutory discrimination of one toward the other. But if, somewhere in the organic structure, natural rights have been disturbed and violated; the nations having avoided such disturbance in their structure, in adjusting their relations can only avoid the effect of such violence on their own people by arbitrary provision against it.

On the same principle there could be no occasion for criminal law were there no encroachments on natural rights. The principle involved is not different, whether these encroachments prevail in organic structure or among individuals. In the one case they are provided against by statutory law for individual violations, in the other by the adjustment of national intercourse. Not a tariff for revenue alone, but protection to our people and to investments in our industries, equivalent to the effect which the violation of natural rights has had upon the industry elsewhere, with which we are called to compete, is here maintained.

This nation deems it wiser to shield her own people from the effect of violation of natural rights by other nations than to march armies there for the purpose of arresting the cause of the violence and of correcting it at its source. Hence our "protective policy" in the right of suffrage, and many other things beside manufactures and trade, to which no one objects. If "free trade," why not "free suffrage" as well? The reasons are obvious—mercenary interests are not involved.

Why American protection to her industries? Why for material development? Are the people of Europe giants, the sons of Anak? Are we not able to possess the country and fashion its raw material for commerce? We are the equal of any people in intelligence, in skill, ingenuity, and physical endurance. The political and social systems of Europe for the most part are abnormal. This nation has said so, plainly, in its organic structure, by instituting a totally different system, and therefore there can be no controversy here on that point. An equal race under free trade involves here the effect, if not the necessity, for the same abnormal conditions which prevail elsewhere. What but rebellion against this and adherence to truer ideas of human rights has nurtured the better system here, and developed this into a greater nation in a century than ever ten centuries witnessed in any other attempt? What these abnormal conditions of European systems are is best understood when we consider how we differed from them when building our own. Government of the people without equal voice of the people; social and political systems founded upon the privileges of the few in the ownership of the reality, but which put their burdens upon the many, and especially the laboring classes. These in general terms indicate the distinctions. The factors which secure a day's labor in Europe for less than half the sum paid here would require to be transplanted here in order to make free trade an "equal race" between this nation and those where such conditions prevail. Can these factors or their equivalents be made to obtain here? That is the question preliminary to that of free trade. If these could be transplanted here, would this not involve

the idea of social revolution? Is this desirable? Further on we shall see.

Statistics show that investments in manufacturing industry in this country for a series of years in the aggregate do not pay more than investments in other pursuits. Free trade with countries whose systems of proscription of natural right has forced a day's labor for less than half that paid here means the melting away of the margins of profit on manufacturing investments here to the extent of unprofitableness; for on the average 50 per cent. of the value of manufactured products is added by labor, and neither could labor in manufacturing pursuits be brought to acquiesce in one-half less compensation than in other pursuits, nor would capital remain invested in lines where it returned less profit than in other pursuits. Therefore the opening of free competition with nations whose organic structure lays such unequal burdens on labor, would mean the end of such pursuits as were left without a margin of profit. If, on the other hand, it were possible that we could compel labor to accept such compensation as is paid in Europe, then a worse condition of things would ensue, viz: It would of necessity here as there drive from the public schools, and into the factories, shops, and fields the families of the laborers, whose service, would be required to provide for the necessaries of life. And thus our general educational system, out of which has sprung the very genius of our institutions and industries, would fall into decay. The very existence of a nation founded on the intelligence of its people, as ours is, would be threatened when the possibility of such general intelligence was forbidden by social conditions. In any view which may be taken of the subject, it is seen that free trade with a nation which maintains abnormal relations with its wealth-producing classes would of necessity—(1.) Beget abnormal relations here; or, (2.) Suffer utter defeat, and only result in closing up many of our industries.

This subject is more fully illustrated in the fact that trade between the States of the Union is free, and is nowhere an embarrassment to the people or industries of either, because all the States stand upon like free and equal social and political relations—all the people have an equal race for life in all its phases. The demand for free trade is but another form of demand to be like Europe in other regards, or to cease our industries and material development. Disturbance or violation of natural right first suggests a rule for self protection, whether of person or property, and tariff law here has its origin in the social and political structure of European countries. The proof of the abnormal condition in the Old World is found in the following tables, showing wages in some of the leading pursuits as compared with the same in this country, expenses of living and comparative illiteracy.

WAGES PER WEEK.

Vocations.	Belgium.	France.	Germany.	England.	United States.
Bricklayers	\$6 00	\$4 00	\$3 45	\$8 12	\$15 00
Masons	6 00	5 00	4 00	8 10	15 00
Carpenters	5 40	5 42	4 18	8 25	12 00
Painters	4 20	4 90	4 00	7 25	15 00
Plasterers	5 40	4 35	8, 10	15 00
Blacksmiths	4 40	3 00	8 12	12 00
Cabinetmakers	4 80	4 05	7 70	12 00
Laborers	3 00	2 60	5 00	7 50

It should be stated that the wages shown here for England are more apparent than real, for not more than half to two thirds time is made in that country, and, this considered, makes wages in England at least not exceeding half that paid in this country.

COST OF LIVING.

[Per pound of provisions.]

Articles.	France.	Germany.	England.	United States.
Bread	\$0 03	\$0 05	\$0 01	\$0 05
Beef	18	18	20	12
Mutton.....	18	14	10	12
Veal	18	14	20	12
Pork	14	18	16	14
Flour		05	01	04
Butter		22	30	25
Coffee		35	30	35
Sugar		11	8	10

COMPARATIVE ILLITERACY.

Country.	Per cent. of population.	Country.	Per cent. of population.
United States (old free States).....	3.41	Belgium	30.00
United States (old slave States)	20.01	France	31.00
Great Britain.....	24.00	Russia.....	78.00
Italy	80.00	Germany	60.00

The latest statistics on the subject show that in iron and other mills operatives receive 50 per cent. higher wages in this country than in England and other European countries, and in some lines, such as operatives in pig-iron factories and rolling-mills, the wages are 100 per cent. greater here than abroad.

What relation the facts in the foregoing tables bear to the causes which produce such a great preponderance of illiteracy in European countries, as compared with that in the United States, is a question worthy the best thought. That there is specific cause for these differences is as true as that effect has cause. In general terms the cause has been briefly mentioned.

It has its root in that "insolent prerogative," as Gibbon calls it, of primogeniture, the laws of descent and entail, from which the whole brood of other abnormal conditions proceeds. There is a very excellent illustration of this matter still painfully familiar to the people of this country. In nearly one-half of the country, but a few years ago, we had analogical proof conclusive of what has been stated. We had very similar abnormal conditions, and very similar effects from them, as has been shown to exist elsewhere. Under the system of slavery a large part of our population was denied a voice in the public policy, which affected them in all their rights, and with worse than primogeniture and entail barring rights of ownership. The Southern laborers were in worse condition than the same classes in Europe, only in the ratio of the greater violation of natural rights. Schools and political privileges were here entirely denied them, and wages were hardly quotable. The

ultimate effect of all this is seen in the comparative illiteracy, as shown in the foregoing table, between the populations of the old free and the old slave States. This cannot be charged to the mere matter of color, for since the natural rights of these people have been restored no discrimination is made against them in wages, and they are now, also acquiring property, and the per cent. of illiteracy is rapidly disappearing.

In England we still see, notwithstanding the extension of the suffrage to certain limitations, the small class, owning all the land under primogeniture and entail, managing public affairs to their own advantage and greatly to the harm of the real wealth-producing class. Witness the fact that taxes on lands have been kept low or reduced, while the levies on all other property have been increased enormously; this in order that tenant-farmers may be able to pay larger and larger rents. This oppression is also seen in the administration of the game laws; in the probate duties; in the votes of the *military* and church representatives in Parliament, and in a hundred ways which those possessing advantages always assert.

It is one of the chief functions of government to protect its citizens; in the language of Herbert Spencer, "not only of shielding each citizen from the trespasses of his neighbors, but of defending him, in common with the community at large, against foreign aggressions." And it matters not whether the aggressions come in the form of class legislation, the exercise of arbitrary power, the march of invading armies, or by the "insolent prerogative" of primogeniture—descent and entail laws—which hatch all the other broods of oppression. It is the duty of the nation to protect each of her citizens and the common interests against the effects of these. The exercise of such functions alone against all forms of encroachment on natural rights preserves the integrity of our institutions, and it may be repeated that it is wiser to protect our industries by tariff than to march armies for the purpose of correcting the abuses of natural rights at their source. Just as slave labor, by reason of violated natural rights, was once the deadly foe of free labor in this country, so is the European form of slave labor, by reason of outraged natural rights, not only the foe of free labor here, but of our beneficent free institutions. The effect is the same whether labor wears forged manacles outright, or in some other way. We can accept the policy of free trade with a people that are free, and maintain the integrity of our industries; but an attempt at an equal race with a nation whose laborers are not free has been and ever must prove a failure.

Free schools, general intelligence, political and social equality will forever forbid so delusive an attempt here. That free trade, under such circumstances, is yet seriously considered feasible by those who reflect upon the causes already named, and which lie at the bottom of the civil revolt now prevailing in Great Britain, is the wonder. There will be no cessation of the revolution now going on there till the landed and electoral systems are overturned, and until the afflictions growing out of it all shall work the "peaceable fruits of righteousness," and then, under the law of equal mutual rights of all men under all systems of government, we can generously accept the "equal race" of life with all men.

HENRY B. METCALF.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following supplementary statement from Mr. HENRY B. METCALF, of Pawtucket, Rhode Island, in regard to the duty on haircloth was ordered to be printed:

When I had the honor to appear before the Commission, Hon. Mr. McMAHON called my attention to an apparent discrepancy of my statement of ad valorem equivalent of duty as assessed as compared with custom-house tables, and your president invited my further explanation, which I beg to submit in the subjoined memoranda, numbered 1, 2, 3, and 4, to which I respectfully ask attention.

Memorandum 1 explains "average width."

Memorandum 2 explains ad valorem equivalent in 1870 in detail.

Memorandum 3 furnishes illustration of ad valorem equivalent on present values.

Memorandum 4 explains custom-house method of computation.

I think these memoranda will be deemed an explanation of the seeming disparity, although an absolute *demonstration* of the matter cannot be made without a detailed statement of the *widths actually imported*.

Referring especially to memorandum 4, I remark that the custom-house method of computation therein referred to must be very vexatious to all parties, and if the rate of duties on hair-seating is to be maintained as at present, as I have advised, I should further advise that it be provided that measurement for assessment of duty should be *within the selvedge*. This would practically amount to a reduction of duty equal to 6 to 10 per cent.

On the plan thus suggested the law would read as follows:

Hair-cloth of the description known as hair-seating, less than 18 inches wide (measured between the selvedges), 30 cents per square yard.

Hair-cloth of the description known as hair-seating, 18 inches wide and over (measured between the selvedges), 40 cents per square yard.

Hair-cloth of the description known as padding, crinoline cloth, and all other descriptions of hair-cloth of which horse hair forms the filling, not otherwise provided for, 40 per cent. ad valorem.

Memorandum No. 1.—Average width assortment of sales of hair-seating as computed upon entire sales of Pawtucket Hair Cloth Company for ten years, not including widths above 30 inches, whose sale is so small as to hardly justify estimates:

Of 1,000 pieces—

151 are	14 inches and below.
53 are	15 inches.
62 are	16 inches.
48 are	17 inches.
74 are	18 inches.
59 are	19 inches.
69 are	20 inches.
63 are	21 inches.
78 are	22 inches.
69 are	23 inches.

Of 1,000 pieces--

79 are	24 inches.
49 are	25 inches.
51 are	26 inches.
34 are	27 inches.
27 are	28 inches.
11 are	29 inches.
23 are	30 inches.

1,000

Memorandum No. 2.—As a basis of ad valorem equivalent in 1870, I assumed the complaining memorial of a foreign competitor, whose detailed statement of ad valorem equivalent was as follows:

	Per cent.		Per cent.
14 inches	34	23 inches	30
15 inches	35½	24 inches	28
16 inches	37	25 inches	26½
17 inches	37	26 inches	25
18 inches	49½	27 inches	23½
19 inches	45½	28 inches	21½
20 inches	44	29 inches	20½
21 inches	37	30 inches	19½
22 inches	33		

i. e., ranging from 19½ to 49½ per cent. Computing this on the basis of average width assortment (memorandum No. 1.), the average ad valorem equivalent in 1870 will be found to be as stated, 34½ per cent.

As will readily be seen, different assortments will produce a widely varying average of ad valorem equivalents.

Memorandum No. 3.—As to my statement of ad valorem equivalent on standard of present values, my basis of action was a printed price-list received from personal hand of the foreign manufacturer before referred to, bearing date July 18, 1882, which is as follows, viz:

	s.	d.		s.	d.
16 inches	1	7	24 inches	2	11
17 inches	1	8	25 inches	3	2
18 inches	1	9	26 inches	3	5
20 inches	2	0	27 inches	3	8
21 inches	2	1	28 inches	4	0
22 inches	2	3	29 inches	4	2
23 inches	2	6	30 inches	4	4

Fourteen and fifteen inch not being quoted, I assumed their price to be respectively 1s. 4d. and 1s. 5d., and as the quotation is for linen warp, I deducted 1d. per yard for cotton warp, according to usage. I made no addition for custom-house charges, assuming that there was probably manufacturers' discount sufficient to cover that item.

Computation on the basis of average width assortment, and as above, will give 40⁷/₁₀ per cent. ad valorem equivalent.

Memorandum No. 4.—I learn on inquiry that it has been the practice of the custom-house, latterly, to make computations for duties on hair-seating on the basis of measurement of width, including selvedge. All of my computations are according to trade usage, made on the basis of measurement between the selvedges. I think that the difference of ad valorem equivalent in this difference of method of computation will be from 6 to 10 per cent.

HARRY McCALL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following statement from Mr. HARRY McCALL, of Evan Hall plantation, Louisiana, in regard to the sugar and other industries of that State, was ordered to be printed:

It must, at the outset, be understood that the sugar planters and manufacturers of Louisiana do not ask for an increase of the present rates of duty, though it would seem to have been conclusively shown to the Commission by Mr. Dymond that these rates do not compensate for the increased wages paid to our free labor (which wages are 70 per cent. of the whole cost of production), as compared with those paid in Cuba to the slaves and coolies, and elsewhere to peons, semi-bondmen, and such like field-hands; nor do they contend for the retention of the present scale or mode of determining the rate of duties. All they ask is that the Commission shall, in its judgment, propose and advise the adoption of such a scheme as shall not injure an industry undertaken and pursued on the faith of protection against the fruits of slave or pauper labor; and which now, just struggling out of the destructions of the civil war, gives employment to more than a hundred millions of capital, and to not less than four hundred thousand artisans and laborers.

And perhaps here it may be permitted to cite, for your consideration, the very instructive and suggestive examples of European nations, in dealing with their sugar questions. There is, with one single exception, not one of them that has not and does not guard jealously, by various ingenious methods and bounties, this capital industry. France especially, the pioneer in the beet-root sugar manufacture, in the early part of the present century aided it, as well by heavy internal bounties as by exclusion of alien-grown sugars. In her wake have, to a greater or less degree, followed Belgium, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia, now large and prosperous producers of beet-root sugars. England alone, of all these European nations, has, in the last fifteen years, admitted foreign sugars free of duty. If it be asked why a nation so keen and clear sighted in the pursuit of her commercial interests has done this, the answer is not far to seek. In the first place, her climate does not permit the growth of the sugar-beet at home; and next, confident in her vast capital, her enormous tonnage, and in the actual possession of the markets of the world (as those in China and the East Indies), she hoped to bring sugars, grown by pauper labor and of low grades, so cheaply to her refineries that her refiners might undersell those of the Continent. But mark the result. With all her capital, with her manufacturing skill, and with her underpaid labor of ryots, coolies, and starving Indians, it has been found that the wisely-protected manufacturers and refiners of sugar on the Continent are, and have been, underselling her in her own markets; and so, for several years past, her refineries, seeing ruin staring them in the face, have been holding meetings and petitioning Parliament for some protection that shall countervail the bounties under which foreign-grown sugars are imported into her marts.

Now, if at the same time we recall that these bounties and protective schedules obtain precisely among those of the European nations, most advanced in the mechanic and industrial arts, and who stand

among the highest in the scale of civilization, are we not justified in asking why we, in the United States, should sacrifice our sugar industries, which now offer so marked an example of intelligence, energy, and thrift, to free-trade theories and the very ill-concealed efforts of foreign capital to control and command our market? And when, too, the most outspoken free-trade organs have been obliged to admit that, except on the broad denial of protection in any shape, the sugar planters and manufacturers of the United States present a case so strong that it is absolutely unanswerable.*

It may be proper, at this point, to ask the careful attention of the Commission to the actual present condition of the sugar planters of Louisiana, of the other cane-growing regions of the South. It may be stated that the production of the sugar cane, and its manufacture into sugar, might not unfairly be considered in its infancy in this country, for notwithstanding the very remarkable exhibit made of its products and resources, in the memoir presented to your body by Mr. Dymond, a very simple statement will show that this view is not an unreasonable one. At the outbreak of the late civil war, the production of sugar, in Louisiana alone, was in round numbers about five hundred thousand hogsheads of sugar (or 300,000 tons), together with some 30,000,000 gallons of molasses. The immediate effect of the war, and of the emancipation of the slaves, was seen at the end of two years in the falling of the production of sugar to 7,000 tons; in fact, an almost total obliteration of the industry. Probably there had never before occurred in the commercial world so crushing a destruction of property in so brief a period; yet, in spite of all this, such was the vitality inherent in the nature of the business, such the pluck and energy of American planters, that little by little the ruined plantations were refitted, the broken fortunes rebuilt, and to-day the estimated production of the crop of 1882 is over two hundred thousand hogsheads, with molasses in proportion, the values of which will reach from \$20,000,000 to \$25,000,000. Nor is it any idle or exaggerated expectation that with a wise and stable measure of protection no long period will elapse ere the sugar consumed in the United States will be manufactured from cane grown within its own borders, and that the enormous sums paid to foreigners for East and West India sugars will remain at home and furnish the basis of a vastly extended commerce and exchange between the South and the other portions of the Union. As a straw to show the way the current is setting already, Texas, from sugar canes grown within her borders, realized about \$1,000,000, to which, if the value of the molasses be added, the amount would reach \$1,400,000. Florida, too, is about seriously to enter on the growing of the sugar cane and its manufacture into sugar. Large sums of Northern and Eastern capital are being devoted to the draining and reclamation of lands in that State, rivaling those of the Delta of the Mississippi in fertility.

Looking, then, at the present condition of the sugar industry in the Union, and the prospect of its speedy expansion, it is asked in all earnestness, if it have not a special claim for protection from our statesmen, and whether it can be a wise policy to strike down a business and pursuit which gives employment to hundreds of thousands of workmen of various kinds, and represents not less than one hundred millions of capital.

* See the World, New York daily journal, in the early part of August.

JOSEPH P. TRAINOR ET AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. JOSEPH P. TRAINOR, of Philadelphia, representing the Silk Hat Finishers' Association, addressed the Commission as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN: We should have appeared before the Commission and made our statement at an earlier date, but we have been in communication with the Silk Manufacturers' Association, as was suggested to us in a communication received from the Commission, and some four days ago we received a reply from them, which I will submit at the conclusion of my statement. I have been deputed to present to the Commission the following statement of our case:

On behalf of the Journeymen Silk Hat Finishers of Philadelphia, we appear before you for the purpose of explaining why the present almost prohibitory duties should be reduced to 10 per cent. We will say that the movement to obtain the reduction is a general one throughout the United States, as the manufacturers' employés, wholesale and retail dealers, and last but not least the consumers themselves, are each and all equally interested in this momentous question.

Hatters' black silk plush is manufactured mostly in France and to a small extent in Germany. Efforts have been made to produce it in England but without success. The German article does not stand in high repute, and the greater proportion consumed throughout the world is manufactured in France. In this country the manufacture of the article was started under most auspicious circumstances, such as abundant capital, experienced workmen, &c. But after a sacrifice of a large part of the money invested the enterprise was relinquished, having failed from the same cause as in England, namely, the impossibility of producing the deep lustrous black capable of standing without changing from the intense heat to which the plush is subjected while being manufactured into hats.

The import duty on hatters' plush was, prior to 1861, 18 per cent.; during the war it was successively advanced to 30, 40, and 50 per cent., and under a false construction of the so-called little tariff bill of 1875 the duty on it since that time has been 60 per cent. Black silk plush for hatters' use is in the full sense a raw material; in the state in which it is imported it is adapted to no other use whatever, and could be sold for no purpose but for that of being converted into silk hats. Piece silks, velvets, &c., can be used in many manufactures; hatters' plush, however, only for the one purpose for which it was originally designed. In most countries it is admitted free, or at a nominal duty.

Therefore there is no interest protected by a duty on hatters' plush, while the silk-hat manufacturing interest, a home industry, has been and is seriously injured by the high rates of duty imposed on the material used in their manufacture, hundreds of skilled artisans, men and women, who have spent years in acquiring the proficiency required by their delicate trade, deprived of a livelihood, and the government deprived of revenue, by reason of a government tax intended to foster a home industry.

For the further information of your honorable Commission, we beg to annex a statement based upon the quantity of material required for one

dozen hats, showing, in separate columns, the foreign cost and the duty, to illustrate how onerous the tax is upon our manufacturing interest:

Material.	Foreign cost.	Duty.	Tax.
Black silk plush.....	\$13. 15	60 per cent.	\$7. 89
Silk band and binding, lining, &c.....	6. 93	60 per cent.	4. 16

Thus showing that at the present rate of duty for every silk hat manufactured the government derives one dollar, and if plushes are admitted free the government would still receive 34 cents on each hat derived from duties on materials other than silk plush.

We therefore earnestly and respectfully ask your honorable Commission to bestow early, prompt, and serious attention upon this matter, and to afford us relief from the distress at present surrounding our manufacturing interest, and ask you to recommend in your report to Congress to place hatters' black silk plush at not over 10 per cent. ad valorem, firmly convinced that in affording us the relief prayed for it will not affect any other interests injuriously, but will increase the government revenue from the increased consumption of hatters' supplies.

Mr. GEORGE MOORE, one of the committee, said:

Hatters' plush has not been manufactured in this country since 1864. The last attempt to manufacture it was at Paterson, N. J.

Commissioner OLIVER. You represent the same views that were submitted to us by Mr. Dunlap and others?

Mr. TRAINOR. Yes, sir; and you will find this opinion universal throughout the United States wherever the hatters have come before you.

Commissioner OLIVER. You maintain that this article cannot be made in this country?

Mr. MOORE. I would not like to say that it could not be manufactured in this country; but when it was manufactured here before, it was of a very poor quality with flaws in it, so that the manufacturers could not use it to advantage. It would turn red, brown, or green after the hat was finished.

Mr. TRAINOR. The hat would receive the luster all right, but it would not stand the great heat necessary in the operation. I will say that if the Silk Association of America can produce the article, we will be willing to have the tariff on it increased; but they have never suggested to us, previous to this time, that they desired to manufacture silk plush. If they want a market for their goods, the way to get it is to have the tariff reduced so that we can increase the manufacture, and there will be a market prepared for them whenever they get ready to supply it.

Mr. MOORE. The hats that are imported, interfere very greatly with our business in this country. If the public who wear silk hats knew as much about the matter as we do, they would not buy foreign hats, and we should not care if they were admitted free of duty. Their higher class of hats cannot compare with ours in any respect, although the material used may be the same; but in workmanship it is far inferior. In 1873, in competition with England, France, and Austria in the making of silk hats, we went over and took the gold medal at the Paris Exposition, and brought it to this country.

By Commissioner BOTELER :

Question. Have the silk men recently made any attempts to manufacture this plush ?—Answer. No, sir ; not since 1864. I believe they state that there are two or three manufacturers who are endeavoring to make it, and who will be able to do so in a short time. They do not make it in England at the present time. The supply comes from three different sections in France. That which was made in this country looked as well in the piece as any, but when used for making hats, in undergoing the work necessary to finish it, it generally turned brown. The same thing occurred in England. They imported operatives from France, and tried to make it there, but they could not, successfully.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. Do you state that the manufacture of hats is diminishing in this country ?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. How long has the business been declining ?—A. It commenced to decline in 1874.

Q. And has continued to do so up to this time ?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What was the tariff on the plush in 1874 ?—A. It was 50 per cent. Now it is 60 per cent.

Q. When was that advance made ?—A. In 1875.

Q. And the manufacture of hats has fallen off nearly one-half ?—A. Yes, sir ; that is in the number of persons employed, and those engaged in the manufacture.

Q. Do you think that is all attributable to the increase of 10 per cent. in the tariff, or to a change in the style of hats ?—A. It may not all be owing to the change in the tariff, but a considerable portion of it can be accounted for in that way.

Q. What proportion of it ?—A. Well, say 20 per cent.

Q. Is it your opinion that a reduction of 10 per cent. in this duty would restore the manufacture to where it was in 1874 ?—A. No, sir ; we ask for 50 per cent. off.

Q. I understand that ; but if 10 per cent. increase has reduced the manufacture one half, would 10 per cent. reduction restore it ? You think a reduction of the present duty to 10 per cent. would restore the manufacture of these hats ?—A. Yes, sir ; that is our opinion.

Q. What is the difference in the price of hats now and the time when plush was taxed 50 instead of 60 per cent. ?—A. In a dozen hats there is a difference of \$12.

Q. What was the price before this last advance, in 1875, when it was raised 10 per cent. ?—A. The price of hats in 1875 was greater than it is at the present time, because we had to pay a great deal more for the labor. Everything was higher at that time.

Q. With an advance of 10 per cent. duty, you have advanced the price of hats \$12 a dozen ?—A. That is not our doing.

Q. I am speaking of course of the trade.—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What per cent. is that upon the price of hats ?

Mr. TRAINOR. It varies according to the quality of the hats which you get.

Commissioner GARLAND. When the duty was advanced 10 per cent., did not the price of the hats advance more than 10 per cent. ?

Mr. MOORE. No, sir ; they did not. The journeymen had to suffer. We had to take it off the journeymen's wages at that time.

Mr. TRAINOR. The retailers did not pay any more.

Mr. MOORE. That did not advance the price of hats at all.

By Commissioner GARLAND :

Q. You have stated that the price was advanced \$12 a dozen?—A. I say from 1872, after the price was raised. In 1861 they were selling hats for \$19, and during the war the price advanced to \$84; and now we have got it down so that we can make about the finest hats for \$72 a dozen, and we have got them down as low as \$36 a dozen.

Q. How much does that duty of 60 per cent. add to the cost of the material in a hat?—A. It costs \$7.89 a dozen for the silk plush alone.

Mr. TRAINOR. The other materials used in making the hat—the bands and bindings—pay 60 per cent.; the under-brim a specific duty by weight, and the shellac comes in free. We also import leathers. There is nothing in the component parts of a silk hat that is manufactured in this country. Hats are manufactured principally in England. We have a very small market here compared with the English, and our manufacturers do not seem ready to extend the trade by investing their capital.

JOSEPH WILLETS ET. AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. JOSEPH WILLETS, manufacturer of pottery, Trenton, N. J., addressed the Commission as follows :

I have the honor to present to the Commission a petition signed by all the potters of Trenton, N. J., as follows :

“GENTLEMEN: In the *New York Daily Times* some time ago there appeared an article in which the writer says: ‘The infant industry, pottery manufacture, needs a little more brains.’ We fully agree with the writer in his statement, and appeal to you, gentlemen, to assist us in this direction. Success in this industry requires a large amount of brains. It may properly be called an art manufacture employing a class of workmen who need a better education than ordinary skilled artisans receive. In other countries, where the business has been brought to perfection, the governments have aided by appropriations of money and facilities for the education of their people in those arts conducive to pottery business. There is no assistance given to our people in this way by our government; hence this appeal. The work of our artisans has to be sold in competition with that of the educated artisans of other countries, and unless aid is given in some form we must remain behind.

“We are a young country, and are especially young in the manufacture of pottery. We have the best materials in the world; these materials are imbedded in the earth, and require labor to bring them to the surface, labor to prepare them, labor to transport them to our manufactories, and labor and brains to make said materials successfully into pottery. The employment of this labor is beneficial to the country. Gentlemen, what we desire is sufficient protection to enable us to draw educated labor from other countries to help to educate our young people. We have the latent ability, but need the opportunity to develop it. Place us on a level with other countries, and we will do credit to ourselves and credit to the nation.”

As I have said, all the potters in Trenton have signed this petition. Before proceeding with the paper which I propose to read to you, I will state that I have here, also, a petition signed by nearly 2,000 of the operatives of the various potteries in Trenton, which is entirely in accord with the views we present to the Commission to-day. They say :

“We, the undersigned, citizens of Trenton, N. J., all of us operative potters, desire to urge upon you the necessity of protecting the pottery industry, to such an extent as will maintain our present wages. American crockery was never before sold so low, and the condition of trade was never in such a deplorable state since before the war. Many of the potteries are working on short time, some are closed entirely, and none of them will long maintain themselves unless relief is granted in the way of an increase of duties. Either the industry must be protected more effectually, or our present inadequate wages must be reduced, in order that our employers may compete with the cheaper labor of foreign countries.

“Therefore, we most respectfully petition your honorable body to aid us by advancing the present duties. Our industry is very unhealthy.

We, therefore, feel warranted in asking this at your hands, and will ever pray."

This has been signed by 1,827 potters in Trenton, and shows what they desire should be done.

In presenting to your honorable Commission the petition of the Trenton potters, we represent an industry which never has had adequate protection, which at the time of the adoption of the present tariff was almost unknown and in its merest infancy, and without representatives to secure the proper recognition of its necessities.

Its growth and development have been fostered by the accidental and large premium on gold during and since the war.

With the gradual decline of this premium, English competition has been more and more severely felt, steadily forcing down prices until, with the disappearance of the gold premium, we now find ourselves in direct competition on equal terms with the English manufacturers at a disadvantage of 100 per cent. in the cost of labor, and with a protection of only 40 per cent.

We claim that all legislative protection should be primarily based upon the difference between the cost of labor in this and other countries; and, secondly, the greater the proportion of labor entering into the total cost of production the higher should be the rate of protection accorded.

In mining materials and making our goods but little labor-saving machinery can be used; consequently the element of labor enters perhaps more largely into the cost of pottery than into any other branch of industry, and from 90 to 95 per cent. of its cost, the materials in the earth being comparatively valueless. It is upon this ground that we ask that all pottery, both plain and decorated, shall be placed in the class of the highest-protected industries.

We do not propose to enter upon any new line of argument, but simply ask your attention to the most pertinent and trustworthy evidence that has already been presented, and add our testimony to the truth of the same, believing that we may confidently rely upon a thorough understanding of all the facts for a just appreciation of our needs and for the relief that our necessities most imperatively demand.

In the printed form of the argument presented to your honorable Commission by the representatives of the United States Potters' Association, at Long Branch, August 22 last, on page 6, is a copy of statement of weekly wages paid by the English manufacturers, over the signature of Edwin Powell, chairman of Manufacturers' Association. On page 8 is a statement prepared in same manner for the same branches of labor, showing the weekly wages paid by the Trenton manufacturers. The authority of the first cannot be doubted, taken as it is from the recognized Pottery Journal of Great Britain (and not intended for our use). The second was compiled by us and taken from the books of each of the Trenton potters.

A comparison of the two statements shows the undeniable fact that there is a difference largely exceeding 100 per cent.; that the American potters are paying upwards of 100 per cent. higher wages than the English potters for the same class of labor.

As a further confirmation of this fact, we would again call your attention to the printed list of wages paid per dozen in England, presented to your honorable Commission at Pittsburgh on the 9th instant, together with the printed working list of wages paid by all the American manufacturers per dozen—the first conclusively proved to be correct by Mr. Ernest Mayer and Mr. Enoch Reilly, who gave their testimony before

you at that time—the American list being the regular established printed list by which all pottery work is paid in this country.

Another point in favor of the English potters is the payment for the making of goods “from oven” by them and from hand by us, which is an item of fully 10 per cent. This means that they pay for goods that come out of the kiln good. Thus the workmen bear the loss from the firing. We pay for goods as made and before they go into the kiln, and thus we bear the loss in firing, a very serious item, which adds just the amount of this loss to the difference in wages shown by the wage list before alluded to.

Still another point in favor of the English potter: This is in the apprentice system in force in England, by which an apprentice serves for seven years at a discount from the list of from one-third to one-half. The American apprentice system is for a service of four years, beginning at a discount of 33½ per cent. from the wage-list. Thus the English potters have the advantage of three years' more work from an experienced artisan at a heavy discount, which the American potter does not enjoy.

It has been charged by the importers and foreign agents as a proof, that with higher tariff, higher wages do not follow; that wages paid here now are 30 per cent. lower than before the war under 24 per cent. tariff, and that English wages have advanced 40 per cent. within the last twenty-five years. Both of these assertions we most emphatically deny. As to the first, there are now present one or more of the oldest potters in this country who can testify that no such reduction has been made, but that, on the other hand, with the steady employment that our potteries are now enabled to offer their employes they earn far larger wages than in the early days, when their employment was often interrupted and uncertain.

As to the second, I hold a sworn affidavit in my hand of William Mold, of the city of Cincinnati, made on the 4th instant, who was a workman in the English potteries between the years 1855 and 1872, and who says no general advance was made between those dates. In the latter year an advance of 10 per cent. was made, which, however, was taken off in 1877, thus proving that no advance was made in English wages as alleged.

It is claimed by the free trade advocates, *i. e.*, the foreign agents and importers, that the geographical protection, as they term it, makes the present tariff give a protection of about 90 per cent. This claim is based upon an entirely erroneous and dishonest assumption, that the costs of English packages and the ocean freights make a protection to the American potter. This is not the fact. American goods are alike subject to the charges for packages; and did not the English manufacturer make the charge for his crates, an item of large profit, but like the American barely make a charge sufficient to cover the cost of the same, this assumed item of protection would not be so great an advantage to the American manufacturer as the importers claim it to be. Ocean freights for ten years past have averaged scarcely higher per package than the cost of transporting one of our packages 100 miles from Trenton, or hardly more than to New York or Philadelphia, one-half that distance. Hence packages and ocean freights form no protection.

In fact, the total incidental protection on importations of crockery cannot be truthfully assumed to increase the total amount of protection beyond 55 per cent., or thereabouts.

At Chicago it was charged that the millions of the people were being taxed for the benefit of the handful of potters, and that the poor were

obliged to drink from tin cups because of the high price of crockery owing to this "unjust tariff." Let us look into this a little.

We quote from the argument made at Long Branch, and will take the amount at which a crate of goods was sold to a retail dealer in 1852, long before the war and before any white ware was made in this country, viz, \$95.30. Take the same crate of goods sold by the same firm, who are still in business jobbing crockery in New York, in the year 1882, viz, \$57.89; cheaper in 1882 by \$37.41, showing most uncontrovertably that the retailer paid in 1852 \$37.41 more than he does for the same goods in 1882. That in 1852, before there was any American competition, and under a tariff of 24 per cent., he paid 65 per cent. more for the same goods than he pays to-day under a 40 per cent. tariff.

We fail to see from this statement of the facts how the poor man is obliged to drink from tin, owing to the greatly increased price of crockery cups.

The above figures are taken from the books of the oldest and one of the best known crockery houses in the city of New York, and cannot be doubted.

Now, a word about prices of goods in England. There was but little variation in prices or discounts of English goods for the American market between the years 1855 and 1862. There was during that time no American competition to speak of; in fact until within less than 10 years the American potteries were never taken into account as a factor in the regulation of prices; and until the increased production of these enlarged potteries and the greatly improved quality of their wares began to be felt there was no influence exerted upon English discounts, and the average discounts made by English manufacturers to American buyers at those dates may be fixed at 45 per cent. What are English discounts now? We answer, 55 per cent., a difference of 25 per cent. that the English manufacturer realized for the same goods more in 1855 to 1862 than he does in 1882. The larger saving to the retailer, as shown by the former figures, being made up by the reduced profits of the English manufacturer by the reduced commissions or profits of the English manufacturers' agents or importer, and the reduced profits of the jobber, brought about by what? We answer, by bringing the consumer and producer nearer together, by making the goods in America, where the retailer can reach the manufacturer if necessary.

It is not in price only that goods have been cheapened. The sizes have been enlarged very much while the prices have been reduced, by making a size that was once small so much larger that it now takes the place of one that was before called a larger size and cost a higher price. This has amounted to a matter of nearly ten per cent., in addition to the actual difference in reduction in prices.

There is a cry from interested quarters that the quality of American goods is inferior to that of English goods; we have here a few pieces of each that we can leave, if desired, for comparison.

To show the estimate of English potters of the quality of American goods, when talking amongst themselves and not for American ears, we again refer to the argument made at Long Branch, to see what such English manufacturers as Mr. Anthony Shaw, Mr. John Maddock, and Mr. Thomas Elsmore say on this subject. They all considered American materials better and American ware as good as English.

We unhesitatingly assert that the quality of American goods is fully equal to the same class of English goods. It has been charged before your honorable body that American goods are more likely to craze. This is not so; we are quite safe in saying that American goods are to-

day as free from crazing as English goods. It is true that in the early days of pottery in this country this trouble, with other difficulties, did exist; but the experience in manipulating American material has overcome all these troubles and American goods are now as reliable as English goods. It is idle for the English potters to claim for themselves immunity from crazing; this is not worthy of discussion, as every dealer knows that no manufacturer in England or America ever was totally exempt from crazing more or less.

We have scattered over nearly every State in this Union beds of the finest materials adapted to potter's use, and it has been with regret that we have heard suggestions made that a reduction of the present rate of duty on china clay would be desirable; we feel that such a course would be a great detriment to the pottery industry of this country. We need this incentive and protection for the discovery of new clay beds and the development of those already found, and for the improved preparation of the clay from those now worked.

Could the demand for pottery materials be largely increased, improved methods of mining would be adopted, at the same time improving the quality and lessening the price. For these reasons we are strongly opposed to any reduction in the rate of duty in china clay. One of our materials, feldspar, is so highly esteemed in England that there is at least one agency for its sale in the Staffordshire potteries.

It has been represented to your honorable Commission that the working potters of Trenton petitioned Congress for a reduction of the tariff some years ago. It is true that such a petition was gotten up and signed by many of the operatives. It was gotten up at the time of the last strike as a blow at the manufacturers, and under the excitement often attending such troubles.

We have been informed by some of the leading men in the matter that it was never intended or expected to be presented to Congress, and we feel quite confident that it never was so presented, but is now in the hands of parties in Boston. To show the present wishes of the operatives regarding the tariff; we present to your honorable Commission a petition signed by 1,872 employes of the several potteries in Trenton, praying that additional protection may be extended to labor employed in the pottery industry, to which we respectfully ask your attention.

In many of the communications received by you, we notice much stress laid upon the fact of the large profits reaped from the pottery business.

We do not dispute the fact that the pottery business has been fairly remunerative in former years. For several years, however, prices have steadily declined, as all admit, and this decline has been very great. It has entirely absorbed the margin of profit existing in former years. The business of last year resulted in no profit, the potters barely holding their own, and in some cases not doing that.

Those facts cannot be known to the parties making such assertions; it is all surmise with them; but they are hard realities to the potters, who must have relief in some way.

At Buffalo, it was asserted that until the American potters ceased to ask for government aid they never could show what their ability could attain.

The speakers on that occasion chose to show an ignorance of the fact, that in all countries where the pottery art had attained the greatest perfection it has ever enjoyed the patronage of government by pecuniary appropriations, public art schools, &c. Through those agencies it

has arrived at that perfection which the speaker desired that we should attain without any such aid as our foreign competitors enjoy.

C. S. COOK,
JOSEPH WILLETS,
S. W. DAVENPORT,
Committee.

As to the prices of English goods before and since the war I can speak advisedly, having been from 1850 to 1879 engaged in the importing business, and being perhaps as thoroughly acquainted with the details of the importation of earthenware as any one. Since 1879 I have been a manufacturer in Trenton, and I have some little knowledge of that side of the case also. I want to allude especially to the statements which have been made to the Commission in regard to the crazing of American goods; the quality of them, and the fact asserted that American goods are unreliable from their liability to craze. I can state that from my own experience as a manufacturer we have not allowed for, and have not had anything like as many claims for, crazed goods as we had in some years on English goods that we imported. I now call to mind two cases where we had to allow very large sums for goods that were imported for the trade throughout the country, and upon one occasion \$3,000 was allowed, and one of the parties came over here from England to adjust the claims. They were so large and so serious that we desired them to adjust them themselves, as we were only acting as agents for them here. On another occasion I remember we allowed more than \$2,000 upon a line of English goods imported from a house which previous to that time stood among the first in England in its reputation for making sound and reliable goods. I probably have handled as many imported goods as any other man in the country, and I want to emphatically say that no manufacturer, whether he be English or American, can possibly make goods that will never be liable to craze.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Question. As you are a member of one of the best-known firms in the United States, and, as you say, familiar with both the importation and manufacture of crockery, I will ask you a few questions. The tariff on your goods has not been changed for eighteen years. I suppose you knew something about the American and English crazing before you went into the manufacturing business?—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. You changed from an importer of foreign goods to a manufacturer of American goods?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Bearing in mind that prices are constantly fluctuating in all kinds of merchandise, will you tell me what the tariff has to do with your changed conditions? Your goods crazed in 1879, when you began to manufacture, as they do now, and the English goods crazed then as they do now?—A. Some of them craze; we do not admit that our goods craze.

Q. Do you make a point on the difference in the crazing?—A. I do.

Q. And you also make a point on the difference in wages. You knew all these things when you went into the manufacturing business?—A. We did.

Q. I assume you went in because you made money at the time?—A. Yes, sir; that was the object.

Q. What has the tariff got to do with your not making money now?—A. The tariff has not anything to do with it, perhaps, but this fact has: the prices of English goods have continually been declining, and

the discounts on English goods to-day are lower than they ever were. Hence, their goods come in here at a much-reduced cost.

Q. Do you mean to say that you want an elastic tariff, that goes up and down with the variation of English prices?—A. No, sir; it is the low price of English labor that causes the difficulty with us.

Q. You knew that at the time you went into the business of manufacturing?—A. No, sir; prices have been reduced largely since we went into the business.

Q. And the prices may go up again next week. What I mean to say is this: that you have been living under the present tariff laws for fifteen or sixteen years, and knew what you were doing when you went into the business. I do not see that the conditions have changed in any way from the time you went into the manufacturing business, except in the fluctuation of trade, which is now against you, whereas it was formerly in your favor, and may be again to-morrow.—A. The English potters, owing to the low price of wages they pay, sell their goods at such a price that we cannot compete with them, even with the present duty. In other words, we are paying 100 per cent. more than they are paying in the way of wages, and we have a protection of 40 per cent., and we are handicapped by the difference of 60 per cent.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Is labor in England less than it was in 1864?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. We have had information given to us that wages were higher.—A. I know you have. There was a reduction made in the price of labor a few years ago of 8 per cent., but last year they had a strike in England and endeavored to regain that 8 per cent. Mr. Young, who is here with me, can give you all the statistics on that subject that you desire.

Mr. WILLIAM YOUNG, of Trenton, N. J., said:

I do not know that I can add anything of value to Mr. Willets's statement. I am an old manufacturer; started business in 1853, and quit in 1879. In 1859 and 1860 we were paying then for a certain branch of clay-making \$1.50 a day to our operatives, and in 1878 and 1879, when I quit the business, we were paying \$2.50 to \$3 for the same kind of work. That same kind of kiln-work is paid for to-day at the rate of \$2.25. Then we were paying engineers \$1.50 a day; now they are paying \$2.50. Then we were paying our laborers \$1 a day, against \$1.50 a day at the time I quit the business. We were then paying boys \$1.50 to \$2 a week; at the time I quit the business they were receiving \$3 to \$4 a week; girls were receiving \$2.50 to \$3 a week, and at present they are receiving \$3.50 to \$4 a week, which shows a difference in the rates paid in 1859 and 1860, and in 1878 and 1879.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. The increase is about proportionate to the increase in the wages of other classes of labor, I suppose?—Answer. Yes, sir; about the same.

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Q. Did you quit business because it did not pay you?—A. It was not paying just at that time.

Q. Mr. Willets went into business just about the time you quit?—A. Yes, sir; he went into business in 1879.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Previous to that time Mr. Willets was an importer?—A. Yes, sir.

Mr. C. S. COOK, of Trenton N. J., importer of pottery, said:

I desire to state a word suggested by the question of Commissioner McMahan, in which it was inferred that Mr. Willets went into business two years ago, knowing what was before him. I do not think he did go into it with his eyes open. I do not think he realized the difference in the condition of labor here and in the old countries; if he had, I do not think he would have gone into the business. My own opinion has been, for the last five or six years, since we lost the benefit of the gold tariff, that the English manufacturers have started out to crush us, and I have thought they would be able to do it; I could see nothing to prevent them. I have been for sixteen years located on the same ground where my business is conducted now, and have been doing about the same kind of business. With the difference of about 100 per cent. in wages abroad (and it is nearer 125 per cent. than it is 100 per cent.), there is no reason why the English manufacturers cannot crush us out with the present duty. I didn't stop to study this thing up when I went into the business during the war. I saw that the few people in the business then were making money, and I saw that the profits were large. But since we have lost the advantage of this gold tariff the prices have come down, they have lowered 5 per cent. at a time, gradually, and my impression is that they will continue to lower, because the English can manufacture these goods at 100 per cent. advantage in the matter of wages. Unless we have a sufficient duty to counteract that, they can drive us out of the business. We have not been making any money for the last two years, and are not making any now. Many of the potters have suffered severely, and more will have to go under unless we get greater protection. We have as good or better materials lying dormant in the earth than they have, and the goods we make are as good as theirs, but it is this question of the rate of wages which determines the whole matter.

I desire to say a word in regard to the arguments laid before the Commission at Buffalo by Mr. Jones, of Boston, and others in favor of a reduction of the present duties. In regard to the petition of the potters which they presented to you at that time, I have this to say: that I happen to have working for me two men, one the president and the other the secretary of the workingmen's association, during the strike of 1877, and they instigated and drew up that petition to Congress, and they say unequivocally that they did it as a war measure to "beat the bosses," as they call us, and they never intended to have it go to Congress, and had no idea that it ever did. They say it got into the hands of some men that they did not intend should have it. They were the first men who signed this petition which we have here to-day, and were only too glad to do it.

Commissioner OLIVER. They only signed the first petition in fun?

WITNESS. No; they intended to force us to accede to their demands at that time. That was the first reduction we ever made on their wages. We had revised our working list, which was equivalent to about 10 per cent. reduction, and that was the first reduction, to my knowledge, and the only reduction that has ever been made on our men during the sixteen years I have been in business. The men of course fought that reduction, and had a long strike of six or eight months, and during that strike they resorted to almost any measure that they thought would

help them, and one of those measures was this petition to Congress for a reduction in tariff rates.

Mr. THOMAS MADDOCK, of Trenton, N. J., stated that he could answer any questions the Commission desired to put in regard to the prices of labor paid in the pottery manufacture.

Commissioner PORTER. I have asked for that information several times and should be exceedingly happy to receive it.

The WITNESS. I can give you approximately the prices paid in England and in this country at the present time.

Commissioner PORTER. I should prefer to have such a statement put in writing and made with great care and exactitude.

The WITNESS. I will have such a statement prepared. I have here a cup and saucer which was made before the war, when we were paying \$1.25 a day to the person who decorated it, and also a cup and saucer recently made where we paid \$3 a day for the same kind of work. I call your attention to the fact that there is a great change in the character of the decorations demanded at that time and now. The people at the present time want fine labor and artistic work, and we are not able to compete with the English in these branches unless we have protection. The gold leaf used in this decorated ware is about the same price in England as it is in the United States, and in that respect it costs us no more in the United States than in England to decorate the same kind of goods. There we come on an equality with them. But when we come to the fine goods, where it is all labor and but little gold work, we are at a disadvantage. In England they would pay for decorating this cup and saucer about 5s. or \$1.25, whereas, as I have said, we pay \$3 a day for the same thing. We cannot do this fine decorative work unless we are protected, and as a result that branch of the business must decline. We are striving at present to avoid the making of this finer class of decorated goods and trying to see how cheaply we can do the work. There is as good talent in this country as anywhere in the world if it is properly developed; but we cannot develop it here because there are no schools of art, and this class of goods is used by people who can afford to pay something for the education of our people in these matters.

I would like to say one word in regard to the subject of crazing which has been prominently brought forward by our opponents, the importers, who say that our goods craze. I have here an article made by the first manufacturer in the world—Minton & Co. [exhibiting a piece of ware], and you will see that that piece of goods is crazed. You will find it crazed on the back. No manufacturer anywhere has yet been able to make goods that will not craze to a certain extent; a proportion of them are always liable to craze. It is owing to the unequal expansion and contraction of the materials used; that is what we call crazing. Unless the body of the goods and the surface are properly combined, a piece of ware is liable to craze.

Mr. S. W. DAVENPORT, of the firm of Davenport Bros., New York City, importers of earthenware, said:

Our firm has been in the importing business for about forty-two years, and you might think that my interest would lie in another direction than in the direction of the interests of the potters of Trenton. But I hold, with most other merchants, that when we look at an interest in which we are all more or less as citizens interested, we should

sink our pecuniary interests with the expectation that in the end something better will come out of it. For about five years we have been connected with a Trenton pottery. Our object was so that we might have American ware to sell as well as imported ware. We have now discovered that there is no profit in the manufacture of these goods, and hence we are now closing our relations with that establishment. But hearing so many petitions coming here and applications of jobbers for the taking off of the tariff on pottery or reducing it, I thought I would come before the Commission to say a word on the other side, because I know from my own experience that the interests of the American people lie in the development of the American potting interests. It seems to me that the one central fact that should weigh with the Commission is this: Do the people, the consumers, those who are the most interested in the matter, those who have to pay the prices charged for the goods, petition you for a reduction in the tariff? Who is it that has petitioned you for such a reduction? You will find that it has come in every case from the importers and the jobbers. Why? Because I know as a jobber, and they know as jobbers, that we can make more profit in the sale of foreign than in the sale of American goods. The American potters are supplying the retailers generally with these goods. The difficulty was to get the jobbers to handle them. Hence they were compelled to go to the retailers. And let me say here, gentlemen, that they have been unable to sell their goods until the last four or five years unless they placed the lion and the unicorn upon goods made by American workmen; and business is such to-day that if we were to place the lion and the unicorn upon them and give the name of the potter underneath and not simply the initials of the name, the jobbers would not handle them. But when the quality of the ware produced in this country improved so as to rival the imported ware, the American potter began gradually taking off the English stamp and substituting rightfully the American stamp. Then the competition was laid bare and the buyers met it. Five years ago we supplied all the teas and coffees that were used here with the English lion and unicorn stamped on them, but now we can supply the goods with that stamp left off.

It has been charged here that you are called upon to put a tax upon the American people in order to protect a few potters; that is their argument. Now are those facts borne out? Do the American people pay more for their goods, and is the ware made by the American potters equal to the English goods? I say it is not only as good, but the makers of English ware have been compelled to improve the quality of it in order to compete with us, and the result is the English and American ware both is better to-day than ever before. How is it as regards the price? The consumers are everywhere buying both English and American ware at one-third less in price than ever before. I understand that at your session in Chicago it was stated that common ware was sold before the war as cheaply as it is now. If I knew what particular articles were referred to I could tell you what the fact was but allow me to say here that one of the largest dealers in the West, and one who was before you and furnished you with the most information on the subject, said to me, "I do not refuse to sell American ware because I do not consider it as good as the English; I have tested it and consider it in every way equal. But I do not sell it for the reason that the potters are selling to my customers direct, and we have no chance to make a profit, and there is a prejudice in favor of the English ware, and I am enabled to get 10 to 15 per cent. more for the English ware." And

the same thing has been admitted to me substantially by another large importer. There is no mistake about these facts. I can give you from our books prices as they existed in 1852 to prove what I say. There were two articles which before the war always sold at considerably less than cost. One was the old-fashioned blue-edged plate, and the other the common cup and saucer with a common print upon it. These articles were sold before the war at considerably less than cost, owing to a custom that existed a century and a half ago. When it was first introduced into England, they would give these cups and saucers away when the purchaser bought a certain amount of goods. These articles were sold at that time for 12½ cents, although they cost to import 22 cents. We lost \$3,000 or \$4,000 a year alone on these teacups, but the other articles were sold from 30 to 100 per cent. higher in price than they are to-day. These are facts that no one can deny.

What the potters desire is that they may be aided to go on and develop this industry; that we may be able to import workmen from the other side instead of importing their material. Within a few weeks a gentleman from the other side of the water, who has \$750,000 invested in the pottery business, called upon me, and said he had come over here to look over the ground. He had heard of this discussion that was going on. He had heard of the statements made before this Commission, and he had made up his mind that the tariff would be continued; and he said if it was, he was coming here to establish his business. He said to me, "We are doing every thing in the world we can to prevent your getting control of this trade, and we know if you have a high tariff put upon these goods we shall have to come over here to get that trade. At present we are selling at a loss because your market is worth all the world besides to us. Take away your market and we are gone; and in order to maintain our control of your market, we are selling goods far below their actual cost. If I were here among you I should make the tariff just as high as you have got it, or higher." And allow me to say here, gentlemen, from my experience as a merchant and business man, that if I wanted to-day to bring down prices most speedily on iron and the products of iron, I would put a tariff of 1,000 per cent. on all foreign productions, and I believe we would have cheap prices much sooner. In the same way, if I wanted to reduce the price of pottery, I would give the American potters such protection that home competition would bring down the prices very quickly. What makes the price of English pottery so low to-day? They say it is the cheap labor they have over there. I look beyond that and see them struggling to control this market, and see them losing money in their effort to do so. When they attended the Centennial Exposition, some of them came and visited the Trenton potteries, and it was reported that some of them said, "We will soon unroof these potteries." What did they mean to do? They meant to go home and send their goods over here at such a low rate that we could not possibly compete with them; and the capital is so small in this country that it takes but a short time to break up the manufacturers. That is one reason for the reduction of the price. Another reason for the reduction of the price is this: The potters, until a few years ago, were making money. The point of home competition was reached less than ten years ago, and it has only been five years since we have been able to take off the brand of the lion and unicorn, and it is not wholly taken off yet. At that time they were enlarging the business very rapidly, and foreigners were sending in goods in immense quantities, but losing, every man of them, even with their cheap labor and their cheap material. But they knew it was a life and death

struggle, and if the tariff was taken off I know that the American potters would have to close their establishments.

I am not pleading here for my own selfish interests. Our firm has no especial interest in the American potters, except that we would like to have American goods to sell along with imported goods. We can make more money selling foreign goods. Why did the importers of earthenware who appeared before you at Buffalo go all the way from Boston, Philadelphia, and New York, a distance of 500 miles in some cases, when you had sat here all summer at Long Branch, and they could have been heard there? I say, why did they go to Buffalo to present their plea? It was because they were afraid to meet the people here. They knew they could not meet us on this question of prices. They knew that the American competition had reduced the price to the consumer one-third. Can they or have they questioned that? Do they show you that the consumer wants the tariff reduced so that it will reduce the prices? Did they tell you that they wanted to offer these English goods lower? Not a bit. If the tariff is cut down to 25 or 30 per cent. then they will advance the prices, not reduce them. Why? Because they will act like other sensible men as long as the law of supply and demand exists, and that covers all these matters. No man will sell his goods at a low price if he can get a higher price, and when you take out of the business this competition at home among our own potters, and put the business back in the hands of the foreign makers, then they will be able to fix the prices to suit themselves.

For 36 years the house of which I am a member has been engaged in importing these foreign goods, and I can say to you that we have received infinitely more crazed goods from English houses during that time than we have ever seen from the potters in this country. It is the competition of the American manufacturers that has compelled the English to improve the quality of their goods. There is a wonderful mineral wealth in this country all through the Middle, Southern, and Southwestern States, and in order to develop these resources the potters must be encouraged in their business.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. You are not in favor, then, of bringing in English clay free of duty?—Answer. No, sir.

Q. You would rather develop the natural deposits we have here?—A. Yes, sir, that is what I am after. We have got them here, but in developing them we have large superabundant beds of earth to remove. The great practical fact in all these questions is, does American competition reduce the price to the consumer? And there is another question also to be considered, and that is, How are we going to provide for the employment of the large number of people who are coming to this country? I say we must encourage American manufacturers for the benefit of the American people.

WILLIAM WHITMAN.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

MR. WILLIAM WHITMAN, of Boston, representing the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: As the representative of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, I desire to present some considerations of the principles which underlie the true adjustment of duties upon raw wool and upon manufactured goods, and to suggest to this honorable Commission a schedule of duties upon both, which, in the opinion of the association, will be just to the manufacturers and therefore liberal to the growers; for it is to the manufacturers of domestic goods only the grower can look for consumers of his raw material.

The National Association of Wool Growers has recently considered this matter, and in connection with the association I represent.

At a meeting of the National Association of Wool Growers, held in Rochester, on Wednesday, August 30, 1882, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That any material change of the present tariff would be detrimental to the best interests of the wool-growing interests of the country.

On the day following, viz, Thursday, August 31, 1882, the executive committee of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers held a meeting at the Osburn House, Rochester, N. Y.

At this meeting the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved, That this committee of woolen manufacturers, recognizing that public opinion demands a modification of the existing rates of duties on wool and wools, favors uniting with the wool-growers, and aiding the work of the Tariff Commission by recommending to it such a schedule of modified rates of duty on wool and wools as will meet reasonable expectations of the people, and thus secure permanency to the woolen industry.

Later, on the same day, there was a meeting of the executive committees of the National Associations of Wool Growers and Wool Manufacturers, which adopted the following:

Resolved, That a committee of six be appointed by the chair, to consist of three members of each association, to collect information, and to report to an adjourned meeting a plan of action for consideration.

The chair appointed as that committee C. M. Fellows, Michigan; H. J. Chamberlain, Texas; W. G. Markham, Avon, N. Y., of the Wool Growers' Association; and William Whitman, Massachusetts; James Dobson, Pennsylvania; H. F. Coe, Massachusetts, of the Wool Manufacturers' Association. This committee reported, as the result of its deliberations, the following recommendation, which was adopted:

We advise the appointment of a committee from each association, each committee to consist of five members, who shall be empowered to consider the whole subject of duty upon wool and wools, and present to the Tariff Commission a joint report upon the subject, provided they can agree upon the same, at the earliest moment practicable.

The representatives of the two associations went into separate sessions and reported their committees as follows:

National Wool Growers' Association: William G. Markham, Avon, N. Y.; Columbus Delano, Mount Vernon, Ohio.; John B. Mead, Randolph, Vt.; H. J. Chamberlain, Vavilla, Texas; C. C. Puffer, Rochester, N. Y.

National Wool Manufacturers' Association: William Whitman, Andover, Mass.; Royal C. Taft, Providence, R. I.; James Dobson, Philadelphia, Pa.; J. N. Carpender, New Brunswick, N. J.; John L. Houston, Hartford, Conn.

The committee adjourned subject to the call of the chairman.

At a meeting of the Joint Committee of the National Associations of Wool Growers and Wool Manufacturers, held at Fifth Avenue Hotel, on Thursday, October 5, 1882, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Whereas, at a joint conference of the committees of wool-growers and wool-manufacturers held this day, the wool-growers deem it inexpedient at this time to concede any reduction in the rates of duty upon wools: therefore,

Resolved, That we report the same to our respective organizations for further instructions.

This bit of history has been given to show you that the efforts of the joint committee referred to have been unproductive of results. The Wool Manufacturers' Association therefore deem it a duty to lay before this Commission their views upon the subject of duties upon wools and woolen goods, not only in the desire to aid the Commission in its difficult work, but to submit reasonable and just propositions which will aid the public to recognize the wisdom of the tariff measures which have already done so much to expand the production of wool in this country.

The present tariff upon raw wools is as follows:

CLASS I. *Clothing wools, unwashed*.—Value 32 cents or less per pound, 10 cents per pound, and 11 per cent. ad valorem. Exceeding 32 cents per pound, 12 cents per pound, and 10 per cent. ad valorem.

CLASS II. *Combing wools*.—Value 32 cents or less per pound, 10 cents per pound, and 11 per cent. ad valorem. Value exceeding 32 cents per pound, 12 cents per pound, and 10 per cent. ad valorem.

CLASS III. *Carpet wools*.—Value 12 cents or less per pound, 3 cents per pound. Value exceeding 12 cents per pound, 6 cents per pound.

Of Class I, washed, double duty; of all classes, scoured, treble duty; woolen rags, 12 cents per pound.

The principles on which this tariff was based were just.* They recognized that the problem presented was to secure protection to the wool-grower without injury to the manufacturer of woolen goods, for it was admitted as sound doctrine that the American wool-producer should be placed on an equal footing with the foreign producer of competing wools. The fact was also recognized that the European manufacturer possessed the advantage of having his raw material free of duty. The principle stated once recognized, the problem further required that the manufacturers should have the benefit of a duty which should be reimbursing in its nature, that is, covering the duty on raw materials, including wools, dyes, &c., and a further duty which should give him the favor over his foreign competitor. Thus the problems involving a rational adjustment of the tariff upon wools and woolens became complicated. With these principles, and upon the basis, proven by experience, that four pounds of mestiza wool were required to make one pound of finished cloth, the present specific duties upon goods were established as reimbursing duties, and the present ad valorem duties as favoring duties to the manufacturer, it being the intention that these favoring or protective duties, the ad valorem, should be fully 35 per cent.

Granted, and it is freely granted, that the wool-grower is entitled to

* For a more detailed discussion of such principles, see "Statement of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, relative to Proposed Duties on Wool and Woolens; with Explanatory Key: addressed to the United States Revenue Commission, May, 1866;" and "An Exposition of the Principles forming the basis of the Present Tariff on Manufactures of Wool, and of the Sections relating to Woolens, recommended by the Committee of Ways and Means, February, 1870."

protection, we must also recognize the principle stated that the woolen manufacturer is entitled to a duty sufficient to place him on an equality with his foreign competitor in the supply of raw material, and also to give him—the home producer—the advantage in our own market; that is, he should have the advantage of free wool, and his favor besides. But in placing him on a free-wool footing lies the danger, for the duty on wool may be too large. The wool duty is the initial step, and if it is erroneous the whole line of subsequent adjustment becomes erroneous.

Sound public policy demands not only that our domestic manufactures should be protected, but it also demands that duties be no larger than the measure of equality with the foreign producer, with an additional, but reasonable, margin in favor of the domestic producer. So the duty on wool, which is, as we have seen, the measure of the duty on woolen goods, needs to be very carefully adjusted.

This adjustment consummated in a just and liberal manner to the grower, the manufacturer will readily consent to a modification of the existing duties upon manufactured wool which shall meet the demands of public policy.

Guarantee the American wool-grower against the foreign grower, and the home production is stimulated, as witness the increase in the production of home-grown wools, from 137,000,000 pounds in 1866 to 290,000,000 pounds in 1881. Now to guarantee the producer of domestic wool against the foreign producer, a measure of duty must be ascertained, and this is found in the cost of foreign wool laid down on our wharves. In seeking this measure of the duty on wools it should be remembered, as a sound principle in tariff legislation, that foreign goods or materials which do not come in competition with our own productions should be admitted either free or at the minimum duty cost. This principle leads to the consideration of the quantities of domestic and foreign wools consumed in this country, and of the kinds which can be called competing. The manufacturers should not be called upon to contend with useless reimbursing duties. There are wools which are needed in the production of certain grades of goods, broadcloth for instance, which cannot be produced profitably in this country, and whose production cannot be stimulated by even an excessive duty, while there should be liberty to obtain such wools in order to vary the manufacture in case of over-production in any department. So in regard to carpet wools, the third-class wools of the tariff, there is no necessity for anxiety because 90 per cent. (estimated) of such wool consumed here is produced abroad, and these wools are of such low grade that our growers do not wish to engage in their production.

In 1880 (that is, the year ending June 30, 1881) our total importations of first and second class wools were 25,031,198 pounds (importations of carpet wools, 42,385,769 pounds). Our total production for the same period was 290,000,000 pounds. That is, the domestic producer met each pound of foreign competing wool with eleven and six-tenths pounds of his own production.

For the census year ending June, 1880, the importations of dress goods amounted to over 68,000,000 square yards, while the American production of dress goods for the same period amounted to the 40,000,000 square yards (63,833,341 running yards). That is, the home manufacturer of one square yard of dress goods was met in the market with one and seven-tenths yards of foreign goods. It is easily seen how much greater relatively is the burden of foreign competition borne by the manufacturer than by the wool-grower.

Notwithstanding these facts as to unequal burdens, the wool manu-

facturers, that there may be a harmonious adjustment of duties instead of a variable and ever-shifting tariff, are fully disposed to favor a uniform tariff, which shall be sufficiently protective on the one hand, and compensating and protective on the other, not only to satisfy justice to the grower and the manufacturer, whose privileges should be reciprocal, but to satisfy sound public policy, which demands the fullest production of raw material and of manufactured goods; and the fullest production can be reached only through the consuming power of the people, a power which is fostered and kept in healthy activity by the fullest employment and reasonable prices.

These considerations lead us squarely to the solution of these problems:

How to protect the grower of wool.

How to compensate the manufacturer for such protection to the grower, and protect domestic production.

How to satisfy sound public policy and adjust these two features of the problem so as to secure reasonable prices to the consumer; for reasonable prices to the consumer mean increased consumption, and, of course, correspondingly increased stability and lucrativeness of employment.

If legislation can accomplish these results it is beneficent; if it cannot, it is obstructive to the best interests of the country.

I believe the propositions I shall submit to this honorable board are calculated to effect a harmony of parts and conditions so desirable to be reached, and certainly the propositions are based upon the principles laid down and which have met the warmest indorsement of men of wisdom who have undertaken the study of the subject.

What is an equitable duty on wool?

It is such duty as will render the price of foreign wool, laid down on our wharves, so much greater than the ruling price of like grade of domestic wool, that consumers will not purchase the former except for peculiar and exceptional wants, so imperative as to permit the paying of a higher price. This is effectual protection; and when such price is reached, the difference between the cost—at last port of export, plus the cost of importation, and such price—constitutes an equitable duty.

Experience resulting from long-continued observation of prices indicates that ten cents per pound on all unwashed wools, and fifteen cents per pound on washed wool of the first class, and ten cents per pound on all wools of the second class, would so enhance the price of foreign competing wools as to place them above the ruling prices of domestic wools. The National Wool Manufacturers' Association, through its committee, therefore suggests the rates hereafter given as liberal and just to the wool-grower and fully protective to his interests.

As already stated, sound public policy demands that materials which do not come in competition with our own productions should come into our markets either free of duty or at a minimum duty cost. This principle applies to carpet or third-class wools. These are for the most part the coarse and uneven-haired long wools produced upon sheep of the barbarous races. These inferior wools are not grown in this country, simply because their production would be unprofitable. The American grower is constantly aiming to breed his sheep away from the possibility of raising carpet wools, and needs no duty to encourage their production, for he is perfectly well aware that no amount of protection, not even prohibition, would make their cultivation profitable; for the sheep from which carpet wools are clipped produce but two or three pounds to the animal, while their carcasses are of but little value. On the other hand, it costs as much to grow them as it does Leicester or Cotswolds. For these reasons it is found desirable to import our carpet wools from the semi-barbarous countries of South America, Asia,

and portions of Russia, where labor is so cheap that it becomes profitable to grow sheep of an inferior grade. Ninety per cent—so it is estimated by competent authorities, as I have already said—of all wool consumed by our carpet mills is of foreign production, and this deficiency, large as it is, is one our own growers do not care to see supplied by domestic production.

It is evident, therefore, that carpet wools might be admitted free of duty without disturbing the efforts of our wool-growers to expand their important industry.

But the manufacturers' association, keeping in view the support of the government as well as the prosperity of the productive forces of the country, suggest as rates of duties for carpet wools—

Two cents per pound for unwashed, three cents per pound for washed. These rates bring carpet wools to the closest reasonable proximity to the free list where carpet manufacturers would be willing to see them placed. To support this view the carpet manufacturers, who are members of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, have submitted the following:

STATEMENT OF CARPET MANUFACTURERS.

Carpet wools are almost exclusively of foreign growth, and a clear line of distinction can therefore be drawn between them and wools that compete with those of American growth. The case cannot be better stated than in the words of the secretary of our association, in an address delivered at Philadelphia, October 22, 1880. He said:

We do not grow these wools, not because we cannot produce them, but because it is unprofitable. I have seen beautiful carpet wools from Colorado, grown from descendants of the Mexican Churro races, with fiber as white as mohair. We do not grow these wools for the very simple reason that it is more profitable for the farmer to grow something else. Dr. Randall used to say, "The farmer will not grow rye when he can grow wheat." I pointed out to an experienced wool-grower a picture of some Cheviot sheep in my office, and said to him, "Why don't you try that race of sheep? They are profitable in Scotland." His answer was, "It will cost me no more to grow Leicesters or Cotswolds, and their wool and carcasses are worth twice as much." The Churro sheep of Colorado, which I spoke of, will produce but two or three pounds of wool, while, improved by a Merino cross, the product in wool is four or five pounds. The grower is all the time doing his best to breed away from carpet wools; as a consequence he wants no duty to encourage him to grow these wools. He knows that under no amount of protection would the cultivation of these wools be profitable. It is for this reason that, with the unanimous consent of the wool-growers, a mere revenue duty has been placed upon carpet wools. The duty on carpet wool is the only one in the whole range of the wool and woolen tariff which is a tax upon the consumer, and should be continued only for revenue purposes. We shall probably always find it desirable to import our carpet wools from the semi-barbarous countries of South America, Asia, and portions of Russia, where labor is so cheap that it will pay to keep sheep producing only two or three pounds to the animal. Our American deficiency of carpet wools is therefore one which we do not desire to see supplied by domestic production.

Not only is the revenue from carpet wools no longer needed, but, for several obvious reasons, a reduction of revenue is very desirable. The limit (12 cents) for the low duty (3 cents) under the present tariff on carpet wools has now for a considerable time been about the price at the ports of shipment of unwashed carpet wools, and the slightest advance doubles the duty. As the limit now stands it offers an immense inducement to fraud, and greatly hampers the carpet trade. A large part of the supply of carpet wools reaches the markets of France and England in a washed or partly washed state, and the limit of 12 cents for the low duty practically cuts us off from a large portion of the world's supply of carpet wools. The illustrations of this during the past year

have been striking and burdensome. For the above reasons we request that carpet wools be put on the free list. We believe that this will be in the interest of all parties, wool growers, wool manufacturers, and consumers, and that it is for the general interest of the whole country that at least all raw materials that do not compete with home products, and which enter into important established industries, should be admitted free, in order that such industries may receive the fullest practicable development, and thus in turn contribute in a thousand direct and indirect ways to the consumption of articles of American growth and manufacture.

We consider it very important that the limit for the low duty on carpet wools should be entirely done away with; and we respectfully request that, if your Commission is not willing to recommend the entire removal of the duty on carpet wools, a rate not exceeding 2 cents per pound for unwashed wool, and 3 cents per pound for washed wools, without any limit of value, be recommended to Congress.

If the rates for three classes of wools which have been suggested are adopted, the rates for manufactured wool can be readily adjusted. It should be remembered that the wisdom of the men who have borne the burden of pioneers in the manufacture of woolen goods has heretofore insisted, with entire justice, that woolen manufactures should, with respect to the tariff, be placed upon the most favorable footing possible. This proposition is sound, because, while the woolen trade is one of the largest and most important we have, there are certain grades of wool which the manufacturer must import if he wishes to supply the public with marketable goods. Also, the prosperity of the wool grower depends entirely upon the prosperity of the manufacturer, because the American mills furnish the sole market for domestic wools, and their production can only be increased by increasing the capacity of our own mills to take the product of wool. The wool-grower of this country finds no outside market for his product, as does the producer of cotton, leather, and various other staple materials. Thus, while the National Association of Wool Manufacturers is ready to make liberal concessions in modifying the specific duties upon manufactures, it is deemed but just to the manufacturers and to the wool-growers that the protective duty upon average grades of goods should be at least 35 per cent. in addition to specific duties, with an additional 5 per cent. for extra grades. These rates are demanded on account of the great and constant changes going on relative to grades and styles of goods, involving not only vast outlays of capital, but making competition sharper and sharper, for as the market responds more and more readily to the dictates of fashion, the foreign manufacturer contrives to undersell and underbid the American manufacturer. The establishment of American agencies of foreign houses compels the closest competition; the facts already quoted show that the largest part of the dress goods sold in our market are of foreign make.

A full measure of protective duty is essential to the woolen manufacturer, because, while many branches of manufacture compete only with English labor—whose wages are the highest in Europe—he also competes with the labor of France, Germany, and Belgium, or the cheapest labor of Europe; while these latter countries are those which use the greater part of the cheapest wools of the world, which are excluded from our market by the high rate of duty imposed upon them, viz, those grown in South America.

When you consider the great variety of fabrics embraced in the woolen manufacture, their utility as well as their beauty, ranging from the common blanket that protects our animals to the elegant and costly

textiles that clothe the person and adorn the home of man; when you know the immense outlay of capital required in their production, and the artistic taste and technical skill necessary to success in the higher branches of the manufacture; when you realize the lapse of time between the purchase of the raw material and the complete garment, the vicissitudes to which the manufacturer is subject by the ever-changing dictates of fashion, and the frequent assaults upon the laws under which his business was organized; and when you compare the amount of protection granted to him with that granted to other industries, I believe that it will appear to you that the rates indicated are not more than sufficient for the prosecution of his business.

Notwithstanding this, our association—in the schedules submitted herewith—suggests to you, in addition to reduced specific or compensating rates based upon the reduction of duty upon wool, the reduction of the ad valorem duty on the great mass of manufactures of wool from 35 to 30 per cent., with the understanding that our suggestion of an increase of 5 per cent. in the ad valorem rate upon the finer, lighter, and more costly cloths—forming an inconsiderable portion of domestic consumption—shall be acceded to and recommended, the claim being that under existing rates the foreign manufacturer of such goods possesses advantages that enable him to undersell home producers.

In making these marked concessions, which are not intended as the least abandonment of the principle of protection, we are actuated by the following considerations:

The association which I represent was among the earliest of the industrial organizations of the country to advocate the creation of the Tariff Commission. In doing this it declared its purpose not to increase the measure of protection, but to modify it in accordance with public sentiment and the changed conditions of commerce and production since the enactment of the present laws. They believed that stability in tariff legislation would be best secured by the lowest rates of duty consistent with the safety of the industries. These views were not supposed to be applicable to themselves alone, but to apply to all the departments of the protected industries.

They believe that the reduction of the duty would be less mischievous to any single department if it be applicable to all, as the materials which the industries mutually supply to each other would be uniformly affected.

In conformity therefore with the pledge implied in our advocacy of the Commission, we proffer these concessions on our part. But in doing so, it is with the expectation that the rates of duty to be recommended to Congress on the products of other industries shall be relatively modified, so far as it can be done consistently with safety.

In the schedule of duties proposed there are two classes in which it is freely admitted that there is an exception to the rule adopted of making a reduction of the existing duties. The first case is that of women's and children's dress goods made with warps of cotton or other vegetable material, and the welt made of wool, worsted, &c., these goods constituting almost the entire production of the worsted dress goods mills in this country at the present time. It is proposed to make no change in the existing duties upon this class, for the following reasons.

The duties provided in the existing law, although amply sufficient for the protection of classes of goods then made and contemplated to be made, are found by experience to be not more than adequate to admit of the production of a class which have superseded the old class in other

countries and are rapidly doing so here. The weight of these goods is composed of the fine and soft merino combing wools obtained free of duty by European manufacturers.

European fashions control the American fashions, and necessitate the abandonment of the old fabrics and a corresponding change in our own manufactures.

Such a change cannot be successfully made if there is any diminution of the existing duties.

The second case is one having in view the extension of our worsted manufacture in its higher branches, and the development of our material resources, rather than any present direct interest of individual manufacture.

The clause relating to all-wool merino dress goods, such as cashmeres, merinos, satteens, Henrietta cloths, &c., has in view the introduction of a class of fabrics never yet successfully made in this country. Many of these goods constitute staple fabrics subject to few changes in fashion, and the manufacture of them, if once established, would be a permanent source of prosperity; and as they are the choicest woollen fabrics for female apparel they would be a most desirable acquisition to our national industry.

The manufacture of these goods, if successfully introduced, would more than double the existing worsted dress-goods industry of this country, give employment to tens of thousands of people, and add many millions to our national resources. While failing to occupy this branch of manufacture we cannot pretend to rank among the first manufacturing nations of the world.

The successful introduction of this branch of the worsted industry cannot be accomplished without a new schedule of duty arranged for the purpose, and it is believed that the one recommended herewith would effectually accomplish the object intended.

Upon the basis laid down, we recommend the following schedule of duties:

SCHEDULE L.—WOOL AND WOOLEN GOODS.

All wools, hair of the alpaca, goat, and other like animals, shall be divided, for the purpose of fixing the duties to be charged thereon, into the three following classes:

CLASS 1. *Clothing wool.*—That is to say, merino, mestiza, metz, or metiz wools, or other wools of merino blood, immediate or remote; down-clothing wools and wools of like character with any of the preceding, including such as have been heretofore usually imported into the United States from Buenos Ayres, New Zealand, Australia, Cape of Good Hope, Russia, Great Britain, Canada, and elsewhere, and also including all wools not hereinafter described or designated in classes two and three.

CLASS 2. *Combing wools.*—That is to say, Leicester, Cotswold, Lincolnshire, down-combing wools, Canada long wools, or other like combing wools of English blood, and usually known by the terms herein used; and also all hair of the alpaca, goat, and other like animals.

CLASS 3. *Carpet wools* and other similar wools, such as Donskoi, native South American, Cordova, Valparaiso, native Smyrna, and including all such wools of like character as have been heretofore usually imported into the United States from Turkey, Greece, Egypt, Syria, and elsewhere.

The duty upon wool of all classes which shall be imported scoured shall be three times the duty to which it would be subject if imported unwashed.

Wools of the first class, if imported unwashed, 10 cents per pound. Wools of the same class, if imported washed, 15 cents per pound. Wools of the second class, and all hair of the alpaca, goat, and other like animals, 10 cents per pound. Wools of the third class, if imported unwashed, 2 cents per pound; and if imported washed, 3 cents per pound. Wools on the skin: the same rates as other wools, the quantity and value to be ascertained under such rules as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe. Woolen rags, shoddy, mungo, waste, and flocks, 10 cents per pound. Woolen cloths, woolen shawls, and all manufactures of wool of every description, made wholly or in part of wool, not herein otherwise provided for, 40 cents per pound, and 30 per cent. ad valorem. Flannels, blankets, hats of wool, knit goods, and all goods made on knitting frames, balmorals, woolen and worsted yarns, and all manufactures of every description, composed wholly or in part of worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other animals, except such as are composed in part of wool, not otherwise provided for, valued at not exceeding 40 cents per pound, 15 cents per pound; valued at above 40 cents per pound, and not exceeding 60 cents per pound, 25 cents per pound; valued at above 60 cents per pound, and not exceeding 80 cents per pound, 35 cents per pound; valued at above 80 cents per pound, 40 cents per pound; and in addition thereto, upon all the above-named articles, 30 per cent. ad valorem.

Provided, however, that all cloths made of wool, worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other animals, or of a mixture of them, weighing over 5 ounces, and not exceeding 12 ounces per square yard, and all worsted yarns exceeding in value \$1 per pound, shall pay a duty of 40 cents per pound, and 40 per cent. ad valorem. Bunting: 12 cents per square yard, and, in addition thereto, 35 per cent. ad valorem. Women's and children's dress goods, coat linings, Italian cloths, alpacas, Orleans cloths, Coburgs, and goods of like description, now and heretofore known as worsted stuffs, the warp of which is made wholly of cotton, linen, ramie, China grass, or other vegetable materials, or of a combination of them, and the weft of which is made wholly or in part of wool, worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other animals, valued at not exceeding 20 cents per square yard: 6 cents per square yard, and in addition thereto, 35 per cent. ad valorem; valued at above 20 cents per square yard: 8 cents per square yard, and in addition thereto, 40 per cent. ad valorem.

Provided, however, That all goods of the foregoing description, weighing over 5 ounces, and not exceeding 12 ounces per square yard, shall pay 40 cents per pound, and 40 per cent. ad valorem.

Women's and children's dress goods, such as cashmeres, merinos, satteens, Henrietta cloths, and goods of like description not herein otherwise provided for, the warp or weft of which is made wholly or in part of wool, worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other animals: 15 cents per square yard and 40 per cent. ad valorem.

Provided, however, That all such goods weighing over 5 ounces and not exceeding 12 ounces per square yard shall pay a duty of 40 cents per pound, and 40 per cent. ad valorem.

Clothing ready-made, and wearing apparel of every description, and balmoral skirts and skirting, and goods of similar description, or used for like purposes, composed wholly or in part of wool, worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other animals, made up or manufactured wholly or in part by the tailor, seamstress, or manufacturer, except knit goods: 50 cents per pound, and, in addition thereto, 40 per cent. ad valorem.

Webbings, beltings, bindings, braids, galloons, fringes, gimps, cords,

cords and tassels, dress-trimmings, head-nets, buttons, or barrel buttons, or buttons of other forms for tassels or ornaments, wrought by hand or braided by machinery, made of wool, worsted, or mohair, or of which wool, worsted, or mohair is a component material: 40 cents per pound, and, in addition thereto, 50 per cent. ad valorem.

Aubusson, Axminster, and Chenille carpets, and carpets woven whole for rooms: 48 cents per square yard, and, in addition thereto, 30 per cent. ad valorem. Saxony, Wilton, and Tournay velvet carpets, wrought by the Jacquard machine: 52 cents per square yard, and, in addition thereto, 30 per cent. ad valorem. Brussels carpets, wrought by the Jacquard machine: 32 cents per square yard, and, in addition thereto, 30 per cent. ad valorem.

Patent velvet and tapestry velvet carpets, printed on the warp or otherwise: 30 cents per square yard, and, in addition thereto, 30 per cent. ad valorem.

Tapestry Brussels carpets, printed on the warp or otherwise: 20 cents per square yard, and, in addition thereto, 30 per cent. ad valorem.

Treble ingrain, three-ply, and worsted-chain Venetian carpets: 13 cents per square yard, and, in addition thereto, 30 per cent. ad valorem.

Yarn Venetian and two-ply ingrain carpets: 9 cents per square yard, and, in addition thereto, 30 per cent. ad valorem.

Druggets and bockings, printed, colored, or otherwise: 18 cents per square yard, and, in addition thereto, 30 per cent. ad valorem.

Hemp or jute carpeting: 8 cents per square yard.

Carpets and carpetings of wools, flax, or cotton, or parts of either, or other material not otherwise herein specified: 40 per cent. ad valorem. And mats, rugs, screens, covers, hassocks, bedsides, and other portions of carpets or carpetings, shall be subjected to the rate of duty herein imposed on carpets or carpeting of like character or description, and the duty on all other mats (not exclusively of vegetable material), screens, hassocks, and rugs, shall be 45 per cent. ad valorem.

NOTE.—Oil-cloths and oil-silk cloth we do not report upon, as they are not properly classed under the woolen tariff.

The foregoing propositions are fully sustained by all the data bearing upon the subject, but in order to place the Commission in possession of such data various tables have been made up from authoritative sources and are presented herewith. [See appendix.]

Table I shows the present cost of representative wools of Class No. 1, unwashed, and No. 2, washed, at London, in cents; the cost per pound of importing such wool (including commissions) in cents; the specific duty per pound; the ad valorem duty per pound; the total duty and cost of importation per pound at Boston; the total cost per pound at Boston; the per cent. of duty upon cost at London; the per cent. of duty and cost of importation, including commissions, upon the cost at London. This table shows that at present the duty on such wool ranges from $44\frac{7}{10}$ per cent. upon New Zealand superior unwashed wool, costing 30 cents per pound at London, to $85\frac{5}{10}$ per cent. on Buenos Ayres unwashed wool, costing $13\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound at London; and the total duty and cost of importation, including commissions, ranges from $58\frac{2}{10}$ per cent. on New Zealand unwashed superior, costing 30 cents per pound at London, to $108\frac{8}{10}$ per cent. on Buenos Ayres unwashed wool, costing $13\frac{1}{2}$ cents at London.

Table No. 1a shows the actual imports of wool for the three fiscal years, 1879, 1880, 1881, ending June 30, 1881; the duties actually paid upon the same; and the average per cent. of duty on the foreign cost. By this table it will be seen that the duty on Class 1 averaged $55\frac{2}{10}$

per cent.; on Class No. 2 $47\frac{1}{100}$ per cent.; and on Class 3, $27\frac{3}{100}$ per cent.

Table II gives prices of foreign and domestic wools since 1867, gold and currency.

Table IIa exhibits the average prices of domestic wools, 1857 to 1867, and the duties on foreign wools for same period.

Table No. III shows the actual production of domestic wool since 1866, and the sections of the country in which it was produced.

The total clip of 1866 was 137,000,000 pounds; the total clip of 1881 was 290,000,000 pounds; percentage of gain, $111\frac{7}{10}$ per cent.

The production of Iowa, Missouri, Minnesota, and States east of the Mississippi, except Lower Southern, for 1866 was 120,000,000 pounds; for 1881, 164,600,000 pounds; percentage of increase, $37\frac{2}{10}$ per cent.

The production of California, Oregon, Colorado, New Mexico, and other Western States and Territories was: for 1866, 9,000,000 pounds; for 1881, 87,200,000 pounds; percentage of increase, $868\frac{9}{10}$ per cent.

The production of Texas was: in 1866, 6,000,000 pounds; in 1881, 26,000,000 pounds; percentage of increase, $333\frac{1}{3}$ per cent.

The production of Georgia and Lake and Southern States was: in 1866, 2,000,000 pounds; in 1881, 12,200,000 pounds; percentage of increase, 510 per cent.

Table No. IV is similar to No. I, but substituting proposed rates of duty instead of those now in force. By this table it appears that, if subject to a duty of 10 cents per pound, Port Philip unwashed superior, costing 33 cents per pound at London, would pay a duty equal 30.3 per cent., and Buenos Ayres unwashed average, costing $13\frac{1}{2}$ cents at London, would pay a duty equal to 74.7 per cent. upon the cost at London.

Table V shows cost of foreign wools at Boston, and per cent. of shrinkage and cost of scoured wool at Boston.

Table Va shows cost of domestic wools, washed, unwashed, and scoured, at Boston.

Tables VI, VII, VIII exhibit the imports of woolen goods for the year ending June 30, 1881.

Tables IX to XV, inclusive, show the products of woolen manufactures in the United States for the census year 1880, as reported by Mr. George William Bond, special agent, United States Census. [See Appendix.]

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Question. This compound duty which you have recommended is said to operate very unequally in this respect—that it makes the rate on lower priced goods very much higher than the rate on the higher priced ones; is that so?—Answer. Yes, sir; it is in most cases.

Q. What is the extent of that difference?—A. It operates unfairly on low-priced imported goods, and does not operate fairly enough on the high-priced goods to enable the manufacturer to make them here.

Q. What would be the range of ad valorem duties equal to the present duties?—A. The average is about 67 per cent. on most classes. I think the general average of wool and woollens is brought down to 60. Wool is included in the government reports, and seems to average 60.4; that is, raw wool and manufactures of wool. I think about 67 per cent. would not be far out of the way.

Q. What is the lowest and highest range on that average?—A. It is impossible to tell. It could not be told with any sort of approximation at all. Take the article of dress goods: The price in Europe ranges from 17 cents to \$1.50 a square yard; there is a wide range.

Q. Take the 17-cent goods; what would the duty average on them?
—A. The duty would average about, as I have told you, 67 per cent.

Q. What is the objection, then, to providing for the entire classification of woolen goods and goods partly made of wool at an ad valorem rate of duty?—A. Because it affords such a temptation to fraud. That is the only objection.

Q. You spoke of this compensating pound duty. You propose to keep the same ratio under the proposed tariff?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. You spoke of mestizo wools as being the basis upon which that was arranged; that is, it took four pounds of mestizo wools on the average to make a pound of cloth?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Was that an average class of wool?—A. It was the class of wool that was imported at the time that tariff law was passed.

Q. It was an average class of wool?—A. It was the principal class of wool against which the home producers or growers wished especial protection.

Q. Are you able to give us the proportion of mestizo wool imported at that time?—A. No, sir; I do not remember.

Q. How did it compare with the other wools imported, as to the amount of cloth that could be produced from a given amount of wool?
—A. All wools vary, and cloths vary, so that there is no absolute average.

Q. I understand that. I understand, however, that the mestizo wool was the particular grade of wool that required the most duty?—A. Yes, sir; and at the same time it was the kind of wool that paid the lowest rate of duty.

Q. That is, the lowest rate of duty of any clothing wool, you mean?
—A. Of any other wool. I mean, except carpet wools.

Q. What is the present rate on mestizo wool?—A. Ten cents a pound and 11 per cent.

Q. It was an average rate of about $11\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound, as was assumed, at least?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And then you take four times $12\frac{1}{2}$ as the compensating duty?—A. No, sir; we take four times $11\frac{1}{2}$, which would be 46. Then there was $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents added for dye-stuffs, &c., and 10 per cent. on the whole added for carrying charges, making $53\frac{3}{10}$, but the Commission put it down to 50.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. Do you recommend a reduction of the duty on wool?—A. The association does so in its circular.

Q. In your opinion what effect would that have on the importation of wool?—A. The reduction proposed here would have no effect at present on the price of wool, because the great bulk of the wool grown here is now cheaper than it would be if wool was admitted at this rate of duty. It would be an advantage for mixing purposes, for some fabrics, if we were allowed to get these fine wools at this reduced rate. But what is proposed, in my judgment, would have no effect whatever on the market price of wool in this country.

Q. Would it have any effect upon the demand for those wools in this country?—A. No, sir; I do not think it would.

Q. What is the character of the clothing wools that are now most heavily imported?—A. They are very fine wools, mostly from Australia.

Q. What are the special uses to which they are put?—A. They are very largely used in combing-mills to make yarns for the manufacture

of worsted cloth. They are also used for fine dress goods, to take the place of French goods.

Q. Are they ever, or usually, used alone, or mixed with other goods?
—A. There is no rule about it; sometimes it is one way, and sometimes the other, depending upon the fabric they want produced. It depends upon the fancy or whim of the manufacturer, governed, of course, by the fabric he wishes to produce.

Q. What material is generally mixed with them?—A. The best wools imported are usually made into all-wool goods; fine and expensive goods.

Q. Are they mixed with domestic wools?—A. Domestic wools are used in many instances. They make the fine warp of Australian wools, and mix in the common domestic wools in the back, which gives the cloth weight and makes it just as good.

Q. Are there any wools grown in this country similar to these wools you speak of?—A. The best of them are not, to any extent.

Q. I understand you to say that there are none, then?—A. I dare say there are some. It is hard to tell just where the dividing line comes.

Q. I did not know but that as a buyer in the market you might have met with them?—A. The fine merino wools I import from Australia and London. There are no domestic wools which will take their place. Of course I mean that answer to be taken in its broad sense.

Q. You spoke of all-wool goods. Could you give us some idea of the proportion of the woolen goods made in this country that are entirely of wool; I mean by that, wool as distinguished from substitutes for wools, shoddy, &c.?—A. I hoped to have that information prepared for the use of the Commission, and have it printed with the report, but I have not been able to do so. I cannot give it from memory.

Q. Can you state the amount of raw wool consumed in the United States, both domestic and foreign?—A. According to the census report the clip is about 290,000,000 pounds, and the imports 25,000,000 pounds, making about 315,000,000 pounds. It is somewhere from 300,000,000 to 350,000,000 pounds. I do not suppose that it is possible to get at the figures accurately.

Q. Can you approximate as nearly as that to the amount of wool substitutes used?—A. I have no knowledge on that subject. The only information I suppose accessible is the report of the last census, and that is not in such shape that it can be used.

Q. Can you tell the pounds of cloth manufactured out of this wool?—A. No, sir; I could not. There is an immense amount of cloth made that is never weighed.

Q. It has a weight which is known to the trade, has it not?—A. I don't think that the buyers of goods ever weigh cloths, except under a specific standard. They are spoken of as so much a yard, and not as so much per pound.

Q. You were referring a short time ago to substitutes for wool—shoddy and such things. What effect has that upon the demand for wool in this country, in your opinion; I mean the consumption of these substitutes?—A. I do not know that I could answer that. I do not know how we could clothe the people if it was not for these substitutes. If you were to abolish all substitutes for wool, of course the price of wool would go up to an enormous extent. It is one of the first principles in manufacturing to economize waste materials and work them up. It would add to the price of every garment in the country at once if their use was prevented.

Q. What per cent. of reduction upon the raw wools would the specific

duty of 10 cents a pound, which you recommend, make?—A. It would be somewhere about 20 per cent., I think, in round numbers.

Q. What is the per cent. of reduction that you suggest on manufactured goods?—A. The 20 per cent. off from the specific duty, and 5 per cent. from the ad valorem duty, or 5 per cent. of the 35, which would be equal to about 14 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Q. What is the percentage of reduction that you recommend?—A. On the specific rates, 20 per cent.; from 50 to 40 cents a pound.

Q. What would be the aggregate or entire percentage of the reduction you recommend?—A. I have not figured that out; 20 per cent. from the total value of the goods would be an unfair relation to 20 per cent. on the valuation of the raw material.

Q. That is the point I wish to get at; whether you had preserved the relation between them.—A. The basis on which the tariff was framed was that it took four pounds of wool to make a pound of cloth. The manufacturer makes a concession in reducing the ad valorem rate of duty from 35 to 30 per cent., which is equivalent to 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., which has a larger relation to the manufactured product than the 20 per cent. to the raw material. I do not think any one has ever estimated the value of wool in a piece of goods at over one-half the total value.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. Your reduction of specific duty precisely balances the other, so that that may be taken out of the account?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Your actual reduction is 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.?—A. Yes, sir, on the ad valorem rate.

Q. In regard to the other reduction, the wool manufacturer has given it to you and you give it to the public?—A. Yes, sir; in the present condition of affairs it is lowering a barrier, and if it was to come out of anybody, so long as American wool is cheaper than foreign wool of the same kind, the reduction of the specific duty necessarily lowers the manufacturer's barrier without taking anything from the wool.

Commissioner AMBLER. That is, as long as the specific duty is still maintained high enough, so that it does not affect the importations, it would not affect anybody?—A. Yes, sir.

Commissioner GARLAND. That is the point I was trying to bring out. It occurred to me from the reading of your paper that the reduction which you recommend came altogether upon the wool-grower and not upon the manufacturer at all; that was the impression left upon my mind, and that was the fact I was trying to get at. You speak of the basis of 4 pounds of wool to 1 of cloth being true of mestizo wool at the time the tariff was made. Is it true of the wools used in this country now, generally speaking—that it takes four pounds of wool to make a pound of cloth?

The WITNESS. I do not think it would apply to the average of wools. It would vary from 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 pounds. A large proportion of our American wool is washed wool, and most of the foreign is unwashed.

Q. I will confine my question, then, to the foreign wools. What amount of the foreign wool is now required to make a pound of cloth; how many pounds?—A. It would vary probably from 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 pounds, according to the nature of the wool and the fabric into which you put it.

Will you please give me the per cent. of the proposed reduction as applied to woolen goods?—A. The reduction on clothing wools is 20 per cent.; on carpet wools 50 per cent.; on woolen cloths 20 per cent. on the specific rate, and 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ on the ad valorem rate. On other woolen cloths, value not exceeding 40 cents, 25 per cent. from the specific rate, and

14 $\frac{2}{7}$ from the ad valorem rate; value not exceeding 60 cents, 16 $\frac{2}{3}$ from the specific rate and 14 $\frac{2}{7}$ from the ad valorem; value not exceeding 80 cents, 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. from the specific rate and 14 $\frac{2}{7}$ from the ad valorem; value over 80 cents, 20 per cent. from the specific rate, and nothing from the ad valorem. On dress-goods, no change; clothing, no change. Webbing and goods under that clause, 20 per cent. from the specific rate. On carpets 25 per cent. from the specific rate, and 14 $\frac{2}{7}$ from the ad valorem. The per cent. of reduction would depend upon the value of the goods abroad, and that would vary according to the different costs. If an article were worth \$1 per pound under the present rate the duty would be 85 cents, and under the proposed rate it would be 70 cents, a reduction of about 18 per cent. on the whole.

Q. As against 20 per cent. reduction on wool?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then would not the effect of your proposition be to throw the burden of your proposed reduction upon the wool-grower rather than upon the manufacturer?—A. Not at all, because the specific rate or compensating rate is reduced in precisely the same proportion as the duty on the raw material is reduced. You must remember that as the raw material only amounts to a part of the whole value of the product, therefore the per cent. of reduction would not bear the same relation.

Q. You spoke of a compensatory duty reimbursing for that. That you ask to be continued as in the present tariff—four to one, I understand you?—A. That is the theory; it actually works out less than that.

Q. That is the theory of the schedule you propose under the reduced duty on wool; that is the same theory?—A. No, sir; according to the way it was presented to the United States Commission in 1867 it gave 53 $\frac{25}{100}$ cents per pound; 46 on the wool, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ on the drugs, dye-stuffs, &c., and the charges for carrying, which made it 53 $\frac{25}{100}$. But the Commission reported the bill at 50 cents. Working on the same theory, it would make the specific duty amount to 44 cents; that is, the difference on that particular basis would be four pounds on wool at one and a half cents, which would be 6 cents; 6 cents deducted from 50 leaves 44; but we have reduced it to 40 for the reason that the duty on the average of the importations (we have taken that as the basis in order to make it as liberal as possible) would be 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound, and four pounds at 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ would be 10 cents. It must be borne in mind that in 1867 we took the very lowest rate of duty, which was 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound.

Q. You took the lowest grade of wool at the same time?—A. Yes, sir; that was understood at the time.

Q. Then the scheme was consistent; you took the lowest rate of duty because you took the lowest grade of wool?—A. Yes, sir; and it was that particular kind of wool that the American farmer wanted to be protected against, because it came in competition with the great bulk of the wool grown in this country at that time.

Q. Is there any considerable amount of that wool imported at present?—A. No, sir.

Q. If that is the case, why would it be necessary in any proposed scheme, if there should be a readjustment, to retain this proportion of four to one, if there is no such heavy wool brought in from abroad?—A. Well, it might be brought here. For instance, if the fashion should change for men's garments from the present style back to the style that existed at that time, it would be necessary probably to have wool finer than that usually raised in this country at the present time. I know that a great many of the Eastern manufacturers, particularly those from Rhode Island, thought they had suffered hardly by that arrangement of the tariff. I have no doubt you have read of the remonstrances that were

sent in at that time. They believed that the 50 cents a pound was not sufficient.

Q. Do you think it is sufficient?—A. I think it is a fair rate. As I stated before, these things are all fluctuating; there is no absolute standard. It think it is fair and right that the duty should be made up in the way proposed. But, in order to have even figures, it was reduced from 44 by us, in our proposition, to 40.

Q. That is on the assumption that this pound of finished goods is made of pure wool, is it not?—A. Yes, sir; that is it. If you will allow me to state the fact, I will say that there is a large proportion of goods made in this country which came in under an entirely different schedule. In some instances where we proposed 15 cents a pound specific duty, that would only be equal to one pound and a half; where we proposed 25 cents, it would be equal to two and a half pounds; where we proposed 35 cents, equal to three and a half pounds, and so on. That was done to take care of the mixed goods, of goods that did not shrink so much, such as blankets, balmorals, knit goods, and all that class of goods included in paragraph 1163.

Q. Where any arbitrary amount should be fixed, then, as a compensating duty, that amount is fixed with reference to the pure wool in the article. Is not that duty increased in proportion to the quantity of adulteration in the goods whenever this adulteration is by a cheaper article than wool?—A. Yes; and all low goods under this schedule are practically prohibited, and it was done intentionally; and one of the arguments made at the time was that it would shut out of this market the miserable stuff that they were in the habit of sending here from foreign countries, which it was claimed interfered with our home production of wools and our manufacture of cloths.

Q. Do you ask any change in that regard with reference to these goods adulterated with cheap material?—A. No, sir. In 1878, I think it was, when what is known as the "Wood bill" was up for discussion, we went into that subject pretty thoroughly. That clause seemed to bear hard on the low priced goods. But if you will refer to the imports you will find that none of them are brought here. Some of them could not be brought here under a less rate of duty than is fixed there. We corresponded with the appraisers at Boston and New York, and they informed us that it would be impossible to change that and carry on the business of the government. I have in my possession a letter from Mr. Balch which, if you had time to hear, I would read.

Q. You refer in your paper to certain wools that were quite desirable for use in the manufacture of certain goods in this country which could not be imported under this tariff. I desire to ask you if you are able to suggest any wording in the tariff law which would admit that class of wool without, at the same time, admitting the lower grades of fine wools that are raised in this country?—A. I have given a good deal of study to the subject, and I can conceive of no way by which the duty can be uniformly collected except in the way proposed by the association.

Q. There was one question, I think probably the first, which I asked you, where it seemed to me your answer was not very clear. I asked you what effect, in your opinion, the reduction of the tariff on foreign wools would have on the importation of wools into this country. You said you did not think it would affect the importation of foreign wools.

The WITNESS. Do you mean the importation of wools under the schedule proposed in my report?

Commissioner GARLAND. Yes; or any other change. I ask you what

effect, in your opinion, a reduction of the duty on foreign wools would have upon the importation?—A. If the duty were reduced enough to admit of the general importation of wools to take the place of American wools, the effect would be to lower the price here and increase the price abroad until they became equal, or nearly so.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Can you speak of what the effect of the tariff of 1867 was upon the wool production of this country, or what class of wools it excluded?—A. The tariff of 1867 has excluded more, especially the wools from South America, and sent nearly all of the wools grown there over to Belgium. I believe Antwerp is now the principal market in the world for that class of wools. Of course that has depressed the price of these wools. The changes in fashions have something to do with it. But it is that, I am informed, which enables the Belgians to produce cloth so cheaply. It has tended gradually to diminish importations until now, in the year ended June 30, 1881, the pounds of competing wools imported were as 1 to 11.6 of domestic wools. It stimulated the growth here, and tended, of course, to keep the price of wool low in Europe so that the manufacturer in Europe has been able to make his cloth cheaper, and at the same time it has stimulated the production and manufacture of goods. I have not the statistics with me, but I am informed on the authority of Mr. George William Bond that this country imports less manufactures of woollens per head than any other country in the world. Our imports of woollen goods probably are not one-sixth of our total production of all kinds.

Q. What is the character and price of those wools you refer to that were grown in the Argentine Republic and called mestizo wools?—A. At that time they were estimated to be worth 15 cents a pound.

Q. How did they compare with other wools; are they not the cheapest wools in the world of that class?—A. Yes, sir; I think they are. They shrink, I think, about 70 per cent., and are worth about 50 cents a pound clean.

Q. When the tariff of 1867 went into operation was, or not, the shutting out of these wools regarded as a very considerable evil, and was it not protested against considerably by the manufacturers?—A. It was, more especially by the manufacturers of Rhode Island, and remonstrances were sent in against it. It was considered to be a great evil at that time by the manufacturers of New England.

Q. Why did the manufacturers, upon the whole, consent to it and become reconciled to it?—A. In the expectation that the duty imposed would increase the growth of wool here and establish a national industry, and in time supply wools enough for the manufacturers of the country, which has very nearly been done.

Q. The effect, then, has been to increase the growth of what is called the American merino or medium wools of American growth? Please state what the character of those wools are; how they compare with the other wools and what their uses are?—A. Nearly all the woollen goods consumed by the people of this country are made of American wools, and a good many of them possess certain advantages. In regard to the great bulk, there are no wools in the world that will compete with them. They are not so fine as some, but are fine enough to clothe the masses.

Q. How are they in regard to strength?—A. They are all strong, good wools. There was a prejudice against them at first, but now the people would give them the preference over foreign wools for the great mass of the trade; the great proportion of the goods made here, I mean.

Q. You introduced a schedule in your paper having reference, not to the present wants of the manufacturer, but to the introduction of an industry which has not yet been accomplished in this country, but which opens a great future for our natural resources; and in that connection you referred to certain fabrics. Please state more particularly what those fabrics are.—A. The class especially alluded to is known as “all wool” ladies, dress goods, made in France, Germany, and Belgium. They are beginning to make them in England. At the time this tariff went into operation, in 1867, in the dress goods trade the great article was luster wool. The fashion in England has changed and it has begun to change here. The women in England began supplying themselves with dresses made of cloth from France, and the women of America are doing the same thing. They are buying clothing made of the very finest merino combing wools, and they are really intrinsically the best things that ladies can buy. They are all imported at the present time, or nearly so, the light weights especially.

Q. Have you specimens of that class of goods?—A. Yes, sir; I have some here (exhibiting some—the goods referred to).

Q. Are not these goods regarded as the most perfect fabrics of wool that can be prepared for ladies wear?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. They are staple; their fashions do not change, do they?—A. In the plain goods they do not. This is French cashmere; or merino; sometimes called the one and sometimes the other.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. From the information we have obtained here and elsewhere, it seems that there is a general tendency towards a simplification of the tariff. In that view I will ask you whether it is not possible to avoid this compound duty? You take the compensatory duty of so much a pound, and then add an ad valorem duty of so much per centum. Could not the whole duty be put at one rate, at so much per pound? Is it not possible to make a schedule in that way which will do justice to the manufacturer and at the same time simplify the tariff?—A. The tariff could be so framed that it would give us all the protection we want if the specific duty were placed high enough; but in order to do that it would have to be placed upon the higher rate of goods, and would bear hardly on the lower rate of goods. Take the average price—I mean for the last three years—could you not make a satisfactory rate per pound?—A. If that were done, the first thing that would result would be that the entire class of these fabrics in Europe would be changed to correspond to the altered condition of things here. They would change the weight and texture of these fabrics so as to bring them in here at the lowest possible duty. We have tried to think of some way in which that could be changed for the better, but none of us have been able to find out any way in which it can be done.

Q. Then the question I put to you has been already considered by you?—A. Yes, sir; it has been considered every time that the tariff has been brought forward for discussion. I know that we gave a great deal of time to it when Mr. Wood's bill was before Congress. He proposed such a measure but it made a very low rate of duty on high priced goods, and a fearfully high duty on low priced goods.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. I would like to know if that is not the effect of the present tariff; upon goods used by common people the duty is very high, while it is lower upon goods used by people who are more able to pay for them?—A. It is so to some extent.

Commissioner OLIVER. You are trying to obviate that by asking an

increase of the duty on this line of goods, which is imported and not made here?

Commissioner UNDERWOOD. I understand that; but I do not see where there is any relief to the buyers of the lower-priced goods.

The WITNESS. Practically, it does not make any difference, because in regard to these low-priced goods we make them so cheaply here that the market is almost always glutted, and the consumer is getting them as cheaply as he would under any circumstances.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Q. Is it not a fact that persons going to England and the Continent, when they come back here say that they can buy clothing of certain kinds and descriptions abroad at one-half the price at which they can buy it here?—A. That may be true, to a certain extent, of people who have clothing made to order, because the tailors in the principal cities in this country have enormous expenses, and the fashionable people who have their clothing made by such tailors have to pay a good price for it. But the great bulk of the clothes that are worn are nearly as cheap here (I refer, of course, to ready-made clothing) as they are abroad.

Q. It has been stated to us by an importer that a piece of goods costing in England from 50 to 60 cents a yard, in consequence of the duty, which is 110 per cent., when it gets here is sold for about \$1.75 a yard.—A. I do not think there are any cloths made in England of wool where the wool itself, apart from any cost of manufacture, would not cost at least 60 cents.

Q. But you perceive that there are a great many other substances introduced into the article in England as well as in this country, such as shoddy and other things. When you say "made of wool" you mean made wholly of wool, and not of wool and these other substances? But, do they not in both countries introduce a great many things into the manufacture of woolen goods besides wool?—A. Yes, sir. There is not wool enough to make all the clothing required. But I doubt if the gentleman who goes to Europe and buys his suit of clothes compares the quality with the same article produced here.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Is not your recommendation of lower rates on wool based on the fact that the woolen manufacturers feel that they are now getting on their feet, and prefer free wool and the world for a market?—A. I do not think it has got to that point yet. There are manufacturers who belong to our association who talk free wool; but I have been surprised to see that whenever the tariff question came up they seemed to be just as anxious for high rates as other people, and I find that what they mean is free wool and a high duty on imported goods.

Q. Take for instance the cotton goods manufacturers. Is there a feeling that they have been sufficiently protected, and that now by reason of American invention and quickness, and better designs in goods, they have reached a point where they would prefer to have all their supplies free, and no duty on anything which they consume, if they could have the world for a market, instead of being confined to the United States; is not that sentiment prevailing?—A. That sentiment is not general in New England; it is confined to a few. The tendency all over the country, so far as we are able to judge, is that whenever it is practicable we ought to get on a lower plane. But among our manufacturers in New England, whether cotton or woolen, no such general sentiment as you have stated prevails.

Q. I have not analyzed your recommendations, but they seem in one or

two points to be radical; that is, you propose much lower rates of duties on wool proportionately than you advocate on goods generally, and I did not know but what you were reaching that plane where you thought that you had been protected, until you had commenced to feel that you could stand alone.—A. It is just the other way. There are large amounts of cotton goods exported now to China—I mean common fabrics in which the labor element is a small part of the cost compared with fine goods, and undoubtedly the export in cotton will gradually increase. I manufacture some cotton goods, fine cotton yarns, and if the duty were taken off fine cotton yarns or fine cotton goods, or any radical change made in the duty, it would stop the entire production of them in this country. In New England we are just starting out in the production of the finer work; the coarser work seems to be going South. It seems to be the tendency that New England is working into the finer class of manufacture. It is a new branch of the industry, and is being prosecuted at present successfully, and of course the tendency in prices for these fine goods will be downward, as the competition increases and we get to making them successfully. I assure you from personal knowledge that but few leading gentlemen entertain the sentiment you mention; it is not a general sentiment by any means.

Q. Can you tell me, then, why it is that in regard to a great industry like the manufacture of cotton goods we have not heard from any of the manufacturers, why they have not made any recommendations to us?—It has been stated that some of them would prefer to have no tariff on their goods at all; that they had grown strong and were now ready, like old England, if they could get their supplies where they could buy them cheapest, to have free trade with the world. This is our last day for taking testimony, and we have not yet heard from hardly any of them.—A. You have heard from some of the largest cotton spinners in the United States—from the J. & P. Coates Thread Company, from the Clark Thread Company, from Thomas Russell & Co., and from Willimantic Linen Company, of Hartford Conn.; they have sent in a the report suggesting a reduction on spool cotton.

Commissioner OLIVER. Yes, we have received a communication in regard to that, but I am speaking of the manufacturers generally. These statements which I have referred to are made by people who seem to know about these matters, and they state that they are willing to accept a radical reduction in the tariff rates in all their lines. I speak now of what is called the cotton goods manufactures. Is there any general feeling of that kind?—A. Not at all. There was a certain clique which seemed to think the work of this Commission would amount to nothing, and it has even been charged upon our association, in advocating the appointment of a commission, that it was only done to stave off legislation, although there was no truth whatever in that report. There is another thing: In 1878, when the Wood bill was under discussion, the cotton people went to work and prepared very carefully a schedule and sent it to the Committee on Ways and Means. In that schedule they made very radical reductions, and arranged the work with a great deal of care; but the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee at that time cut it down, and it disgusted a good many of our leading men, for they felt that they had "given themselves away," to use a common expression. But I can assure you from personal knowledge, as I came in contact with all the principal manufacturers in our section of the country, that no such idea prevails, and that in regard to the general range of cotton fabrics, we have not yet reached a point where we can discard the protective tariff.

By the PRESIDENT:

Q. Please state what personal relations you have to the manufacturers of New England, independent of your official relations.—A. The company with which I am connected manufactures fine cotton yarns for the trade, and for our own use. I believe we are the only concern of the kind in the country, at present, except the thread people. We are making fine cotton combing yarns. We are also engaged in the manufacture of women's fine dress goods, known as "Bradford goods," used largely for dresses, coat linings, &c.; made of fine wools, known as wools of English blood. My relations with all the principal manufacturers of our section are such that I think I know their views on the subject, and I speak advisedly when I say that no such sentiment exists among the cotton or woolen manufacturers of New England; that whatever reports of the kind have reached you have come from individuals, and not from men who are entitled to speak as representing New England interests.

Commissioner KENNER. A representative of a cotton factory in Cincinnati made a positive assertion to the effect stated by Commissioner Oliver.

Commissioner OLIVER. And when in Saint Louis we had similar suggestions. I put the question to you, being a New England manufacturer of large acquaintance and experience, as the Commission is seeking for information, and as we have been told by two manufacturers that they wanted no protection, and have had reports brought from half a dozen others to the same effect. Therefore, I think it proper for us to speak of that subject now, as we have been for three months inviting persons to come before us, and have been listening to them, and seeking knowledge from all the manufacturers, merchants, and importers in every line of business. The manufacture of cotton goods is a great industry, and, with the exception of the reference made in your communication to that subject, we have heard from no person advocating the retention of the present duties; but, on the contrary, we have been told that the cotton-goods manufacturers had waxed so great and became so strong through protection that they did not need it any more. Therefore, as we are closing our work to-night, I thought you would be able to give us an insight into the true condition of the case.

The WITNESS. I do not want to occupy too much of your time; but, as you asked me the question, I felt it a duty that I owed to the New England manufacturers to answer it.

Q. Do you not think that the New England manufacturers owed it to themselves and to us to give us that information at the proper time, and in the proper way, so that we should not go wrong in any recommendation we might make to Congress?—A. I certainly do. As one of the cotton manufacturers of New England I called some gentlemen together and prepared a complete schedule of duties, based upon a schedule reported by the cotton manufacturers to the Committee on Ways and Means, in 1878, I think it was, and had it printed, and urged the leading cotton manufacturers to make such a report to this Commission. But for some unaccountable reason they have not done so. You know how these things go. These people who have large interests at stake have been cared for in the past, and they are expecting that somebody is looking out for them now.

Commissioner OLIVER. The only fact I desired to state was, that this is the only large industry of the country which has not come before the Commission and given us all the information we needed.

The WITNESS. I am sorry that it is so; I regret it. I think it was a

duty that they owed to themselves, to the country, and to the Commission, to come forward and make such recommendations.

By Commissioner BOTELEK :

Q. I would like to call your attention again to the subject referred to in a question put by Commissioner Oliver in regard to the assessing of duties according to the weight of the goods. Would that not be, in your judgment, an incentive to fraud, as far as these goods are concerned? Can they not weight these goods the same as they can these silk goods, with foreign ingredients?—A. Yes, sir; they could weight them, but not to the same extent as they could silk.

Q. But still they could weight them, and that would be an incentive to fraud?—A. These goods used to come heavier than they now come from abroad; and the very minute there was a limit put on the goods of four ounces to the square yard, they began to make them just light enough to bring them in at 8 cents a square yard, when if they had gone over the line it would have been 12½ cents. There is hardly anything that you can do that will offset the ingenuity of the foreigner in bringing his goods in at a low rate of duty.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD :

Q. Do they not frequently say when a new tariff law is passed, "We can beat that?"—A. I have no doubt that if you should recommend a schedule on this class of goods in conformity with the recommendation of our association, for the first year there would be a combined effort on the part of these French manufacturers to control this market and drive us out of it altogether.

APPENDIX.

TABLE I.—Present prices of representative wools at London and Boston, with cost of importation and duties.

[London quotations by John L. Bowes & Bro., Liverpool, are for August, 1882. Cost of importation from actual experience.]

Kind of wool.	Cost per pound in London.	Cost per pound of importation to Boston, including commissions.	Specific duty per pound.	Ad-valorem duty per pound.	Total duty per pound.	Total duty and cost of importation per pound at Boston, including commissions.	Total cost per pound at Boston.	Percentage of total duty of cost at London.	Percentage of total duty and expense of importation (including commissions) of cost at London.
CLASS I.									
Port Phillip, unwashed, superior	33	4.321	12	3.418	15.418	19.730	52.730	46.7	59.8
Adelaide, unwashed, average	20	3.514	10	2.278	12.278	15.792	35.792	61.3	79.0
New Zealand, unwashed, superior	30	4.071	10	3.418	13.418	17.489	47.489	44.7	58.3
Cape, unwashed, average	15	3.235	10	1.709	11.709	14.944	29.944	78.0	99.6
Monte Video, unwashed, average	18	3.403	10	2.050	12.050	15.453	33.453	60.0	85.8
Buenos Ayres, unwashed, average	13.5	3.152	10	1.538	11.538	14.690	28.190	85.5	108.8
CLASS II.									
English, Lincoln hogs	23	3.081	10	2.020	12.020	10.301	39.301	54.0	70.8
English, Lincoln wethers	22	3.025	10	2.505	12.500	10.131	38.131	50.8	73.3
Irish, hogs	23	3.081	10	2.020	12.020	10.301	39.301	54.0	70.8
Irish, wethers	22	3.025	10	2.506	12.500	10.131	38.131	56.8	73.3

TABLE Ia.—Imports of wool.

Kind of wool	1879.			1880.			1881.			Average per-centage of duty of value for the three years.
	Quantities.	Values.	Total duty.	Quantities.	Values.	Total duty.	Quantities.	Values.	Total duty.	
CLASS No. 1.—Clothing wools.....	<i>Pounds.</i> 5,229,987.20	\$1,114,301.01	\$648,120.16	26,785,171.58	\$6,412,273.13	\$3,514,240.98	20,009,707.30	\$4,751,453.79	\$2,599,841.96	55.08
Value 32 cents or less per pound.	5,173,616.20	1,091,135.61	638,166.24	24,907,049.82	5,644,976.13	3,112,996.96	19,944,040.30	4,492,839.79	2,488,772.53	55.57
Value over 32 cents per pound...	50,714.00	20,031.00	8,088.78	1,166,056.75	435,947.00	183,521.51	643,832.00	244,435.00	101,703.35	41.88
SCOURED.										
Value 32 cents or less per pound (before scouring)	229.00	166.00	123.48	13,661.00	8,757.00	6,988.11	9,090.00	8,844.00	5,546.52	72.47
WASHERD.										
Value 32 cents or less per pound (before washing).....	5,328.00	2,913.00	1,706.46	695,525.00	320,992.00	209,723.24	11,765.00	5,218.00	3,500.96	65.30
Value over 32 cents per pound (before washing)	100.00	56.00	35.20	2,879.00	1,601.00	1,011.16	980.00	417.00	318.60	65.81
CLASS No. 2.—Combing wools. . . .	1,709,601.25	413,760.71	218,785.29	13,266,856.42	3,801,730.00	1,783,361.46	4,421,490.50	1,271,332.39	585,499.93	47.16
Value 32 cents or less per pound.	1,618,587.00	378,207.71	203,743.52	10,920,005.00	2,925,417.00	1,413,796.38	4,207,558.50	1,193,900.39	552,084.89	48.22
Value over 32 cents per pound . . .	89,438.25	34,727.00	14,296.39	2,346,036.42	875,596.00	369,083.97	213,932.00	77,432.00	33,415.04	42.20
SCOURED.										
Value 32 cents or less per pound (before scouring)	1,576.00	826.00	745.38	815.00	717.00	481.11				79.49
CLASS No. 3.—Carpet and other similar wools.....	33,163,054.00	3,988,751.71	1,100,546.15	59,320,412.00	7,699,663.05	2,077,959.04	42,385,769.33	6,038,040.72	1,675,746.35	27.38
Value 12 cents or less per pound	29,641,993.00	3,350,109.71	889,269.79	49,412,562.50	5,558,413.05	1,483,488.07	28,917,217.33	3,384,423.97	867,633.23	26.42
Value over 12 cents per pound...	3,521,061.00	638,642.00	211,276.36	9,907,849.50	2,161,250.00	594,470.97	13,468,552.00	2,653,616.75	808,113.12	29.59
Totals.....	40,102,642.45	5,510,813.43	1,967,451.60	99,372,440.00	17,913,006.18	7,375,561.48	67,416,967.13	12,060,826.90	4,861,088.24	40.02

H. Mis. 6—153

WILLIAM WHITMAN

WOOL MANUFACTURES.

TABLE II a.—Average prices of domestic wools, 1857 to 1867.

[Based on authority of Geo. Wm. Bond, esq., Boston.]

Kind of wool.	July, 1857, to April, 1861.		April, 1861, to July, 1864.		July, 1864, to April, 1867.	
	Paper.	Gold.	Paper.	Gold.	Paper.	Gold.
Fine		49. 15	66. 15	47. 73	75. 54	49. 05
Medium		42. 73	64. 23	46. 73	71. 12	46. 01
Coarse		33. 09	57. 15	38. 20	65	41. 63

Duties on foreign wools, 1857 to 1867.

July, 1857, to April, 1861.		April, 1861, to July, 1864.		July, 1864, to April, 1867.	
Price.	Duty.	Price.	Duty.	Price.	Duty.
Under 20 cents	Free.	Under 18 cents.	5 per cent. ad valorem.	Under 12 cents.	3 cents per pound.
Over 20 cents ..	24 per cent. ad valorem.	18 to 24 cents..	3 cents per pound.	12 to 24 cents..	6 cents per pound.
		Above 24 cents.	0 cents per pound.	24 to 32 cents..	10 cents per pound and 10 per cent. ad valorem.
				Above 32 cents.	12 cents per pound and 10 per cent. ad valorem.

TABLE III.—Production of domestic wool.

[This table is based on statements of James Lynch, esq., of New York City.]

States and sections.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
	<i>Pou. ds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
Total wool clip, United States	137, 000, 000	160, 000, 000	177, 000, 000	162, 250, 000
Iowa, Missouri, Minnesota, and States east of the Mississippi, except Lower Southern ...	120, 000, 000	140, 000, 000	150, 000, 000	135, 000, 000
California.....	9, 000, 000	11, 000, 000	16, 000, 000	17, 250, 000
Oregon				
Other Western States and Territories.....				
Colorado and New Mexico				
Texas	8, 000, 000	7, 000, 000	8, 000, 000	7, 000, 000
Georgia, "Lake and Southern"	2, 000, 000	2, 000, 000	3, 000, 000	3, 000, 000

States and sections.	1870.	1871.	1872.	1873.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
Total wool clip, United States	163, 000, 000	146, 000, 000	160, 000, 000	174, 700, 000
Iowa, Missouri, Minnesota, and States east of the Mississippi, except Lower Southern ...	130, 000, 000	110, 000, 000	120, 000, 000	125, 000, 000
California.....	23, 000, 000	25, 000, 000	24, 000, 000	
Oregon				33, 200, 000
Other Western States and Territories.....			3, 000, 000	
Colorado and New Mexico				4, 000, 000
Texas	7, 000, 000	8, 000, 000	9, 000, 000	9, 000, 000
Georgia, "Lake and Southern"	3, 000, 000	3, 000, 000	4, 000, 000	3, 500, 000

States and sections.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
Total wool clip, United States	178, 000, 000	193, 000, 000	198, 250, 000	208, 250, 000
Iowa, Missouri, Minnesota, and States east of the Mississippi, except Lower Southern ...	120, 000, 000	125, 000, 000	110, 000, 000	117, 000, 000
California.....			57, 500, 000	53, 000, 000
Oregon	89, 500, 000	48, 000, 000	6, 250, 000	9, 250, 000
Other Western States and Territories.....				
Colorado and New Mexico	5, 000, 000	6, 000, 000	6, 500, 000	8, 000, 000
Texas	10, 000, 000	12, 000, 000	13, 000, 000	14, 000, 000
Georgia, "Lake and Southern"	3, 500, 000	4, 000, 000	5, 000, 000	7, 000, 000

TABLE III.—Production of domestic wool—Continued.

States and sections.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
Total wool clip, United States	211, 000, 000	232, 500, 000	264, 000, 000	290, 000, 000
Iowa, Missouri, Minnesota, and States east of the Mississippi, except Lower Southern	125, 000, 000	133, 000, 000	148, 000, 000	161, 000, 000
California	39, 000, 000	47, 000, 000	40, 000, 000	43, 000, 000
Oregon	10, 000, 000	14, 000, 000	7, 000, 000	7, 000, 000
Other Western States and Territories			15, 000, 000	17, 200, 000
Colorado and New Mexico	12, 000, 000	13, 000, 000	15, 000, 000	20, 000, 000
Texas	17, 000, 000	10, 000, 000	22, 000, 000	26, 000, 000
Georgia, "Lake and Southern"	8, 000, 000	9, 500, 000	11, 000, 000	12, 200, 000

Recapitulation of TABLE III.

Production.	Total wool clip, United States.	Iowa, Missouri, and States east of the Mississippi, except Lower Southern.	California, Oregon, other Western States and Territories, Colorado, and New Mexico.	Texas.	Georgia, "Lake and Southern."
Per cent. of increase in 1881 over 1866..	111	37.2	808.9	333.33	510
Average yearly production, in pounds..	190, 934, 375	129, 537, 500	44, 228, 125	11, 937, 500	5, 231, 250

TABLE IV.—Cost of foreign wools on basis of duty at 10 cents per pound.

Kind of wool.	Cost per pound in London.	Cost per pound of importation to Boston, including commissions.	Proposed specific duty per pound.	Total duty and cost of importation per pound at Boston, including commissions.	Total cost per pound at Boston.	Percentage of total duty of cost at London.	Percentage of total duty and expense of importation (including commissions) of cost at London.
CLASS I.—Unwashed wool.							
Port Philip, unwashed, superior	<i>Cents.</i> 33. 0	<i>Cents.</i> 4. 050	10	<i>Cents.</i> 14. 050	<i>Cents.</i> 47. 050	30. 3	42. 6
Adelaide, unwashed, average	20. 0	3. 400	10	13. 400	33. 400	50. 0	67. 0
New Zealand, unwashed, superior	30. 0	3. 900	10	13. 900	43. 900	33. 3	40. 3
Cape, unwashed, average	15. 0	3. 150	10	13. 150	28. 150	66. 6	87. 7
Montevideo, unwashed, average	18. 0	3. 300	10	13. 300	31. 300	55. 5	73. 9
Buenos Ayres, unwashed, average	13. 5	3. 075	10	13. 075	26. 575	74. 7	96. 8
CLASS II.—Washed wool.							
English, Lincoln hogs	23. 0	3. 550	10	18. 550	36. 550	43. 4	58. 9
English, Lincoln wethers	22. 0	3. 500	10	13. 500	35. 500	45. 3	61. 4
Irish, hogs	23. 0	3. 550	10	18. 550	36. 550	43. 4	58. 9
Irish, wethers	22. 0	3. 500	10	13. 500	35. 500	45. 3	61. 4

TABLE V.—Cost of foreign wools, October, 1882.

Kind of wool.	Total cost per pound in Boston.	Percentage of shrinkage (estimated).	Cost per pound of scoured wool at Boston.
CLASS I.			
Port Phillip, unwashed, superior	<i>Cents.</i> 52.739	52	<i>Cents.</i> 109 $\frac{3}{4}$
Adelaide, unwashed, average	35.792	62	94 $\frac{3}{4}$
New Zealand, unwashed, superior	47.489	53	101 $\frac{3}{4}$
Cape, unwashed, average	29.944	67	90 $\frac{3}{4}$
Montevideo, unwashed, average	33.453	61	85 $\frac{3}{4}$
Buenos Ayres, unwashed, average	28.190	70	93 $\frac{3}{4}$
CLASS II.			
English, Lincoln hogs	39.301	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	50 $\frac{1}{2}$
English, Lincoln wethers	38.131	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	49 $\frac{1}{2}$
Irish, hogs	39.301	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	50 $\frac{1}{2}$
Irish, wethers	38.131	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	49 $\frac{1}{2}$

TABLE V a.—Cost of domestic wools, October, 1882.

Kind of wool.	Condition.	Present market value per pound at Boston.	Average per cent. of shrinkage.	Cost per scoured pound at Boston.
CLASS I.				
Ohio and Pennsylvania, X and XX	Washed	<i>Cents.</i> 41	52	<i>Cents.</i> 85 $\frac{3}{4}$
California, fine	Unwashed			75 $\frac{1}{2}$
Texas and Kansas	Unwashed			70*
CLASS II.				
Kentucky and Missouri	Unwashed	25	40	41 $\frac{1}{2}$
Indiana	Unwashed	28	40	46 $\frac{1}{2}$

* Sales of these are made on the basis of these prices per scoured pound.

NOTE.—No foreign wools compete with our medium combing and clothing wools, which are grown largely in the United States.

TABLE VI.—Imports of merchandise.—Quantities and values for twelve months ended June 30, 1882.

[Taken from quarterly returns of Treasury Department.]

WOOLEN GOODS.

Articles.	Quantities.	Values.
Cloths and cassimeres		\$12,979,889
Woolen rags, shoddy, mungo, waste, and flocks..... pounds..	1,097,641	358,886
Shawls.....		1,052,728
Blankets.....		15,768
Carpets..... square yards..	715,583	949,670
Dress goods..... do.....	65,007,453	16,893,504
Hosiery, shirts, and drawers		797,793
Other manufactures of wool, &c., n. e. s		4,813,780
Total		37,361,520

TABLE VII.—Imported dress goods entered for consumption in the United States during the year ended June 30, 1881.

Classification.	Quantities.	Values.	Rates of duty.
Valued at not exceeding 20 cents per square yard, square yards.	26,385,238.75	\$4,556,833.02	8 cents per square yard and 35 per cent.
Valued at above 20 cents per square yard, square yards.	31,540,869.33	9,395,887.28	8 cents per square yard and 40 per cent.
Weighing 4 ounces and over per square yard, pounds.	1,143,021.06	2,008,345.44	50 cents per pound and 35 per cent.
Totals.....		15,961,065.74	

Classification.	Duty.	Average value per unit of quantity.	Average ad valorem rate of duty.
Valued at not exceeding 20 cents per square yard... sq. yards	\$3,178,005.86	.173	69.74
Valued at above 20 cents per square yard... do	6,281,709.17	.298	66.86
Weighing 4 ounces and over per square yard... pounds.	1,274,808.04	1.757	63.46
Totals.....	10,734,523.07		67.25

NOTE.—The imports of the above from France were (weight goods not enumerated): Square yards, 17,659,903; value, \$4,630,460.

TABLE VIII.—Imported carpets entered for consumption in the United States during the year ended June 30, 1881.

Articles.	Quantities.	Values.	Rates of duty.
Aubusson, Axminster, and carpets woven whole for rooms.	<i>Sq. yards.</i> 165,748	\$371,081.00	50 per cent.
Brussels carpets, wrought by the Jacquard machine.	162,106.35	213,724.00	44 cents per square yard and 35 per cent.
Brussels tapestry, printed on the warp or otherwise.	415,447.29	284,258.00	28 cents per square yard and 35 per cent.
Druggets and bookings, printed, colored or otherwise.	6,870	2,802.00	25 cents per square yard and 35 per cent.
Carpets of wool, cotton, or parts of either, or other material, not otherwise provided for.		66,038.53	40 per cent.
Patent velvet and tapestry velvet, printed on the warp or otherwise.	53,710.75	60,721.00	40 cents and 35 per cent.
Saxony, Wilton, and Tournay velvet, wrought by the Jacquard machine.	33,919.71	71,674.00	70 cents and 35 per cent.
Screens, rugs, covers, &c., of wool or other material not otherwise provided for.		287,425.16	45 per cent.
Treble, Ingrain, 3-ply, and worsted chain Venetian carpets.	9,601.06	9,454.00	17 cents and 35 per cent.
Wool carpets, not otherwise provided for.		11,205.10	40 per cent.
Yarn, Venetian, and 2-ply Ingrain	20,462	14,989.80	12 cents and 35 per cent.
Totals.....	887,865.16	1,400,062.59	

Articles.	Duty.	Average value per unit of quantity.	Average ad valorem rate of duty.
Aubusson, Axminster, and carpets woven whole for rooms ..	\$190,638.75	2.242	50
Brussels carpets, wrought by the Jacquard machine.....	146,147.74	1.318	68.37
Brussels tapestry, printed on the warp or otherwise.....	215,815.54	.684	75.92
Druggets and bookings, printed, colored, or otherwise	2,608.20	.408	96.30
Carpets of wool, cotton, or parts of either, or other material, not otherwise provided for.	26,417.31	40
Patent velvet and tapestry velvet, printed on the warp or otherwise.	44,836.05	1.242	67.20
Saxony, Wilton, and Tournay velvet, wrought by the Jacquard machine.	48,820.70	2.113	68.13
Screens, rugs, covers, &c., of wool and other material not otherwise provided for.	182,393.22	45
Treble, Ingrain, 3-ply and worsted chain Venetian carpets....	4,941.08	.985	52.26
Wool carpets, not otherwise provided for	4,555.84	40
Yarn, Venetian, and 2-ply Ingrain	7,710.72	.733	51.88
Totals.....	824,984.75	58.93

TABLE IX.—*Woolen manufacture.*

[United States Census, 1880.]

Branches of the industry.	Number of establishments.	Number of employes.	Wages and salaries of all employed during the year.	Capital invested.	Value of all materials used.	Value of products at wholesale.
Woolen goods	1,990	86,504	\$25,835,992	\$97,095,504	\$100,845,611	\$100,000,721
Carpets	195	20,371	6,818,218	21,468,587	18,984,877	81,782,802
Felt goods	28	1,524	419,750	1,058,255	2,580,710	8,619,653
Worsted goods	76	18,803	5,683,027	20,374,043	22,013,028	83,540,942
Wool hats	43	5,470	1,803,215	3,615,830	4,785,774	8,510,569
Hosiery and knit goods.	356	28,817	6,684,026	15,548,991	15,181,409	29,097,277
All branches	2,686	161,489	47,334,228	160,061,270	164,342,099	267,182,964

TABLE X.—*Woolen Goods—Products.*

[United States Census, 1880.]

Blankets	pairs..	1,083,671
Horse blankets	number..	1,114,827
Blanketing	yards..	22,393
Horse clothing goods	do..	616,157
Carriage robes	number..	58,485
Cloths, cassimeres, doeskins, diagonals, and suitings	yards..	74,614,953
Beavers and overcoatings	do..	7,432,084
Cloaking	do..	1,359,296
Felted cloth	do..	129,904
Coverlets	number..	1,330,066
Flannels	yards..	64,923,204
Jeans	do..	29,538,959
Kersey	do..	2,579,374
Linsey	do..	4,781,007
Waterproof cloaking and repellents	do..	3,838,297
Satinets	do..	16,629,116
Tweeds	do..	2,035,015
Shawls	number..	1,242,979
Cashmerottes	yards..	1,557,537
Balmorals	dozens..	144,900
Cottonades	yards..	1,821,600
Dress goods	do..	4,771,140
Cashmere	do..	2,919,050
Cotton yarn	pounds..	1,420,968
Woolen yarn	do..	28,581,950
Woolen rolls	do..	3,549,429

TABLE XI.—*Carpets. Products.*

[United States Census, 1880.]

Brussels	yards..	4,077,190
Tapestry	do..	9,441,195
Ingrain, 2 ply	do..	22,155,959
Ingrain, 3 ply	do..	863,094
Venetian	do..	1,984,201
Velvet	do..	60,000
Wilton	do..	157,629
Cottage	do..	241,220
Dutch	do..	12,000
Axminster	do..	303,366
Girthen	do..	820
Rag	do..	161,805
Druggets	number..	40,000
Rugs	do..	47,530

TABLE XII.—*Felt goods. Products.*

[United States Census, 1880.]	
Felt skirtings	yards.. 3, 096, 776
Rubber shoe linings	do.. 1, 688, 880
Felt cloths	do.. 1, 642, 485
Felt for ladies' hats	do.. 65, 800
Saddle felts	do.. 23, 609
Trimming and lining felts	do.. 213, 402
Table and piano covers	do.. 60, 979
Hair felting	feet.. 1, 262, 950

TABLE XIII.—*Worsted goods. Products.*

[United States Census, 1880.]	
Coating	yards.. 3, 957, 908
Overcoating	do.. 492, 331
Dress goods	do.. 64, 176, 327
Suiting	do.. 1, 276, 755
Worsted and wool-mixed suitings and dress goods	do.. 10, 932, 898
Cloaking	do.. 16, 107
Upholstery goods	do.. 205, 000
Alpaca	do.. 4, 351, 701
Serges	do.. 586, 479
Shawls	number.. 657, 869
Braids	dozens.. 2, 612, 691
Binding	yards.. 63, 520
Reps	do.. 1, 966, 650
Tapestry	do.. 329, 000
Picture cord	gross.. 250, 000
Terry	yards.. 214, 000
Bunting	do.. 2, 585, 221
Italian cloth	do.. 1, 357, 444
Elastic frills	do.. 105, 000
Lastings	do.. 1, 078, 005
Lining	do.. 50, 000
Worsted yarn	pounds.. 13, 047, 219
Noils, shorts, &c	do.. 4, 526, 906

TABLE XIV.—*Wool hats. Products.*

[United States Census, 1880.]		Dozens.
Wool hats of all descriptions		1, 391, 862
Straw hats		9, 358

TABLE XV.—*Hosiery and knit goods. Products.*

[United States Census, 1880.]		Dozens.
Half-hose, woolen		288, 111
Hose, woolen		1, 132, 274
Half-hose, mixed		627, 234
Hose, mixed		2, 653, 099
Hose and half-hose, cotton		2, 490, 743
Shirts and drawers		2, 641, 712
Leggings		41, 683
Gloves		48, 462
Mittens		201, 489
Gaiters		43, 310
Hoods		64, 830
Scarfs		47, 178
Wristers		20, 745
Cardigan jackets		103, 721
Fancy jackets		58, 522
Nubias		72, 050
Usters		12, 389
Cohoes		3, 675
Shawls		49, 545
Skirts, sacques, and waists		3, 789
Boot and shoe lining		452, 350
Coverlets		1, 550
Fancy knit goods		19, 868

HENRY F. CHASE.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. HENRY F. CHASE, of Boston, Mass., treasurer of the Sanford Mills, in regard to the tariff on woollen goods, was ordered to be printed:

We desire that in the bill relating to the duties on wool and woollen manufactures you will include plush goods, or goods made in which the hair of the cow and calf is used, and not leave this class of goods entirely to the decision of the Secretary of the Treasury, as it is at present.

Mr. Thomas Goodall, of Sanford, Me., first commenced the manufacture of these goods in 1868. Up to that time these goods had always paid the full wool duty. Hearing of goods being sold in New York at very low prices, we found that they were imported as manufactures of calf-hair and cotton, with an affidavit from the manufacturer that there was no wool or worsted, or wool or worsted waste, used in their manufacture, and subject only to a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem. The importation was continued, we think, until May, 1870, when Secretary Boutwell ordered that the goods should pay a full wool duty. After this order we met a gentleman from New York, interested in the importation of these goods, and he said that "the importers of New York" (to use his words) "were going to move heaven and earth to have that order changed." During the month of May one of the importers went to Washington and stated to Secretary Boutwell that a party in England had obtained a patent for the mixing of vegetable material with the hair of the cow and calf in place of wool, and gave the names of several parties who were working under this patent. In June of the same year Secretary Boutwell decided that the parties so named, working under this patent, should be allowed to enter their goods at 35 per cent. ad valorem, an affidavit accompanying the invoice that there was no wool or worsted, or wool or worsted waste, used in their manufacture. As soon as we learned this we sent to England to a reliable party who lived near the place where this class of goods are made, asking him if there had been any such patent granted. He wrote us that there was no such patent, and that no such patent had been applied for in England. While Mr. Boutwell was Secretary, a special agent from the Treasury Department was sent to England and Scotland to look after the manufacture of steel. He was directed to go to one of the large manufacturers of these plush goods and ascertain what they were made of. He reported that he saw the stock mixed and the goods made without the use of any wool or worsted. Since then we have had in our employ two men who were at that time at work in that mill, and it was known by the operatives throughout the mill what this special agent was there for, and that he was being deceived as to the making of these goods, and that they never made only that lot without the admixture of wool or worsted. We simply refer to these things to show what the manufacturers and importers will do to evade the duties.

Since 1871 the goods have sometimes been admitted at 35 per cent. ad valorem, and at others have been obliged to pay the full wool duty, depending upon the report of the experts and the decision of the Secretary of the Treasury in regard to it, as the experts would not always agree as to what the goods were composed of.

While we do not believe these goods are ever made without the admixture of wool, we think it a very difficult matter for an expert to determine what they are made of after the goods have been napped and sheared, showing only a portion of the fiber, especially as the manufacturers in England have a chance to buy waste which is composed of a mixture of wool, mohair, and calf hair. Whenever these goods are admitted at a low rate of duty it not only affects us as manufacturers of these goods, but also all manufacturers of shawls, goods for cloaks, and overcoatings. It surely cannot be your intention to allow goods to come in at less than the woolen duties which displaces so many kinds of woolen manufactures in this country. There is a large amount of labor in the manufacture of these goods, as much or more, we think, as in any class of woolen goods, which is a reason why they are entitled to full protection.

At the time Mr. Schenck was chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, when they were considering a tariff bill, it was proposed and discussed, and the House voted to strike out the word "like" in the clause referring to woolen manufactures, where it reads "wool, hair of the alpaca, goat, and other like animals." We would suggest that this clause should read "manufactures of wool, hair of the alpaca, goat, cow, or calf." Should your commission decide to make this change, possibly you would have cow and calf hair pay the same duty as wool. If so, you should provide that the hair, which has been removed from skins by the use of lime, and the lime partially removed by washing, should not be classed as washed, and therefore liable to double duty.

We would also suggest a change in the duties on mohair. Under the present tariff mohair noils costing 8*d.* per pound pay a duty of 10 cents per pound and 11 cents ad valorem, when it would seem that they should be classed and pay the same duty as on wool.

WILLIAM PETERSON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. WETHERILL PETERSON, of Philadelphia, Pa., manufacturer of chemicals, addressed the Commission as follows:

Somesix years since, after tedious and costly experiments, I commenced the manufacture of English Venetian red in this country, and have barely succeeded in keeping my factory in operation to this time. It is a new industry and capable of large expansion if adequate protection is given until it can be firmly established. Everything necessary to its manufacture is cheaper in England than here. Besides it is shipped as ballast (as all cheap heavy articles are) to all our ports at less rates than I can ship to any one of them. I can therefore supply trade tributary to Philadelphia only.

For these reasons the duty should be advanced from 25 per cent. to 35 per cent. ad valorem. This will add only 7 to 8 cents per 100 pounds to the imported article and will enable us to sell in the great distributing port of New York. I do not ask more than to be placed on an equality with the foreign manufacturer, although I am expected to make a better article for a less price. The abolition or reduction of the duty will entirely break up the manufacture. Venetian red is used only as a paint, and, being very cheap, no interest will suffer from the small amount of protection necessary to sustain the industry. Agents of foreign makers in New York wish the duty abolished that the American manufacture may be broken up. Before I commenced making it the importer's price was \$1.88 to \$2 per 100 pounds; now it is \$1.25 to \$1.40.

Oxide of iron, Turkey red, Indian red, purple brown, crocus, colcothar, and other paints of which oxide of iron is the coloring ingredient, should be made the same rate, 35 per cent. ad valorem, for the same reasons.

Colethar oxide of iron is now free. It is very important that this should pay the same rate of duty as other forms of oxide of iron for painting and polishing, as all the above-named articles and sometimes Venetian red are fraudulently brought in under the name of colethar, oxide of iron thus evading the duty; as a consequence the American manufacture, as well as the business of honest importers who will not falsely enter their goods, has been entirely broken up. The article known as colethar is a residuary product of the old process for nitric acid, but it is not now made to any extent. The oxide of iron brought in as colethar is made by entirely different processes and is used as paint and rouge, which articles are subject to 25 per cent. and 50 per cent., respectively. I respectfully ask your especial attention to this article. The duty should be 35 per cent.

Let me add that the chemical industries of this country, of which the manufacture of paints is a very important one, have hitherto, in most cases, been but poorly encouraged by our government. There are no industries of more importance, requiring more thorough knowledge and experience, more expensive plant, or in which the liabilities of failure are greater. There should, therefore, be reasonable protection to facilitate their establishment.

The principal thing is the additional 10 per cent. duty, which will

add to the foreign valuation only 7 to 8 cents per hundred pounds, while it would allow us to distribute to other points. We cannot touch Boston, New York, or Baltimore in our trade. The foreign agents agree to deliver it right in their stores at 7 cents a hundred pounds. We cannot send it to New York and sell it at less than 10 cents a pound. That hardly places us on an equality, but I am not in favor of asking for more than a moderate rate of protection. The name "coleothar" seems to be used for bringing in these other articles free of duty. Coleothar is not now known to commerce. These oxides of iron are made from waste liquors in England, precipitated by the soda process, and soda being very cheap there we cannot compete with them. We could not make that here without the taking off of the duty on soda. But I would not have the soda interest set back, as efforts are being made in Michigan and elsewhere to produce all the soda we need. I think 10 per cent. additional will be all we need. We do not ask to be protected at the expense of any other interest.

A. J. HOLMAN & CO.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. A. J. HOLMAN & Co., of Philadelphia, manufacturers of photograph albums, was read and ordered to be printed:

GENTLEMEN: We are among the oldest manufacturers of photograph albums in this country, having commenced to make the goods shortly after their introduction into the United States some twenty years since. In a short time they became very popular, and within five or six years there were no less than twenty-five firms engaged in their manufacture in Boston, Springfield, Philadelphia, New York, and other cities; these establishments giving employment to about 1,000 workmen.

Some ten or twelve years since photograph albums began to be very largely imported, principally from Germany; from that time our manufacturers found great difficulty in competing with the foreign goods, and gradually retired from the business year after year until now there are not more than six or seven manufacturers, and they are in New York and Philadelphia, and the number of operatives now do not exceed 150 persons. We believe there are more albums sold here now than ever before.

The causes for the shrinkage in the manufacture of these goods may be assigned as follows:

1st. The present duty of 35 per cent. is not a sufficient protection. A large proportion of the materials used in the manufacture of these goods are subjected to a duty of from 25 to 60 per cent.

2d. The undervaluation of the goods by the European manufacturers and importers.

3d. The extremely low price paid for labor in Germany, it being only about one-half the price paid for skilled labor in this country.

In explanation of our first reason we would say that the materials used in the manufacture are principally imported, and pay a duty of 25 to 60 per cent. (leathers 25 per cent., plush 60 per cent.); so that the present duty is in effect scarcely any protection.

In regard to the second cause, would say that we have investigated the matter of valuation by a personal visit to Germany, and from information obtained there we are entirely satisfied that in many cases the goods are grossly undervalued, and are invoiced at below the actual cost of manufacturing, and not at the true value of the goods in the markets where they are made; this is done through the foreign manufacturers and the importers. This matter was fully demonstrated to the custom-house authorities some time since. No doubt they use the best possible means to prevent it, yet we have good reason to believe it is still done under the present system.

In regard to the third reason, would say that the average price paid for skilled labor in this country is from \$14 to \$16 per week, and from personal knowledge obtained in Germany this class of workmen receive there but about \$7 to \$8 per week. Their mode of living is entirely different and much cheaper than ours. It would not be advisable or acceptable to bring the wages or mode of living of our workmen down to this level.

In our judgment the remedy for the evils we have set forth, and to simplify and insure the collection of duties, would be to fix a duty on photograph albums at 20 cents per pound. This would effectually prevent the undervaluations that have been practiced on the government and on this industry for years. It would add 10 per cent. to the present duty and facilitate its collection, and furthermore enable our manufacturers to continue this branch of business.

We heartily concur in the foregoing statement relating to the duties on photograph albums, and favor a specific duty of 20 cents per pound instead of 35 per cent. ad valorem as at present.

JOHN E. POTTER & Co.

CHAS. H. YOST.

WM. T. AME.

THE MILLER BIBLE AND PUBLISHING HOUSE (limited),

F. H. MILLER, *President*.

OLDAEH MERGENTHALER.

E. & H. T. ANTHONY & Co.

GUSTAV BECKER.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. GUSTAV BECKER, of Philadelphia, representing the labor element, read the following paper:

SIRS: In the interest of the wage-workers I would beg leave to draw your attention to the fact that the argument of manufacturers that "the tariff is necessary for the protection of the working class," is based entirely upon a false contemplation of our present society. On the other hand, I maintain, and I hope will be able to prove, that the present tariff is not only advocated by manufacturers out of pure self-interest, but because they are enabled to keep their employés, under the present tariff, into a starving and slave-like submission. In the interest of the wage-workers generally I beg leave of permission to make some oral explanation,

And remain, respectfully yours,

GUSTAV BECKER,
Only a Workingman.

I have a few more words to say in regard to the effect of the tariff on the wage-worker. I have heard a great deal said in favor of the manufacturer, while the wage-worker has almost entirely been left out. The tariff has been a most disastrous thing as regards its effect upon the laborer, and if I had time I would prove it to you. The fact is that by protecting these different industries in this country, we drive the wage-workers out of employment in other countries, and in consequence of that they come to the United States to try to find employment, and our capitalists generally use these men for their operatives. Take, for instance, the iron industry, and the glass industry. When the 50,000 iron workers of the country had debated in their secret meetings this question of wages and labor, they came to the conclusion that the manufacturers were receiving a handsome profit on their labor, which they were entitled to a share of, and they demanded an increase of wages. The manufacturers said, "No, you cannot have it," and the workers stopped work. But the manufacturers held out, knowing that they could import all the labor they wanted from Europe. The capitalists want to buy everything as cheaply as possible and sell everything at as high a price as they can, as we have seen and heard here to-day. They come to the Government and say, "We want protection for our industry;" and when the workmen come to them and demand a small part of this bounty which they receive from the government, then they apply these very tariff acts against the workingman and want to oppress him. This has been the case in the present struggle with the iron manufacturers. These gentlemen come before your honorable body and claim protection because they say, "We cannot compete with foreign labor." The glass-blowers in this country have a union, and not long ago they gave the manufacturers three months' notice of a demand for increased wages of 10 per cent. One of their number proved to be a traitor, and reported the fact to the glass association, and they sent to Belgium and imported foreign laborers, and when the time came round when the increase of wages

was to be insisted upon they found that foreign laborers had been imported to supply their place.

I maintain that the happiness of a nation can never be increased by class legislation, which benefits certain classes of the people at the expense of other classes. The tariff is this kind of class legislation, which tends to benefit certain individuals, while the workingman has to groan under the high prices of all the necessaries of life, which he has to pay on account of these tariff laws.

We demand that the workingmen shall have a proportionate share of this bounty which the capitalist receives, for at present he is suffering from the effects of it, and he will be kept continually in subjection down to the starving point in order that these capitalists may thrive. It is not right that the country should give millions and millions of money in this way to certain individuals, while they themselves oppress their workingmen and bring wages down to the lowest point.

I have the statistics of the New Jersey Labor Bureau, which prove that the workingmen in England are paid at the present time better wages than the workingmen in this country are. The plea that the capitalist is making, that he cannot compete with foreign labor on account of the cheapness of wages abroad, is a fallacy; it does not amount to anything. It is not a question of how much wages a man receives in dollars and cents, but it is a question of how much he can buy with the money which he receives. If I, in Europe, can earn a dollar, and I can buy with that twice the amount of the necessaries of life for my family that I can do here with \$2, I am better paid in England than I am here. But the statistics show conclusively that the workers in England are paid as much as ours, while the workingman in this country has to work longer hours than he does abroad. If men come before this honorable body to maintain the fact that they cannot compete with foreign labor on account of the lower price of wages received there, I have to say that it is a fallacy, and that they are speaking only in their own interest.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. You have signed the statement which you present, as a workingman; what is your occupation?—Answer. I am a barber by trade; but I am interested in labor organizations and in improving the condition of the workingman. I speak in the interest of the workingmen generally.

RICHARD V. MATTISON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. RICHARD V. MATTISON, of the firm of Keasbey & Mattison, of Philadelphia, manufacturing chemists, addressed the Commission as follows :

I present, in the name of the manufacturing chemists of Philadelphia, a memorial as follows :

The undersigned, manufacturers of sulphate of quinine in the United States, respectfully call your attention to the great injury done to their business by the act of Congress of July 1, 1879, which placed quinine and the salts of quinine on the free list, and went into immediate effect.

The results of the repeal of the duty have been great expansion in the manufacture of the article in Europe, excessive shipments to this country, which are often offered for sale at lower prices than those current in the foreign markets, and the decreased importation of cinchona barks from South America.

In view of the greater cost of carrying on manufacturing establishments in this country, as compared with that of similar establishments in Germany and Italy, you can readily understand that we cannot successfully compete with the European manufacturers without a duty.

The importations of sulphate of quinine have been as follows, viz :

	Ounces.
For the year ending June 30, 1879	228,348
And since the repeal of the duty,	
For the year ending June 30, 1880.....	416,998
For the year ending June 30, 1881	408,851
For the year ending June 30, 1882	704,495

The following table of the importations of cinchona barks in Europe and the United States, for the last ten years, shows the effect of this legislation upon the trade of this country with South America:

Years.	Europe.	United States.
	<i>Packages.</i>	<i>Packages.</i>
1872.....	32,016	34,473
1873.....	44,410	35,344
1874.....	36,950	42,720
1875.....	34,070	35,150
1876.....	20,735	32,400
1877.....	39,220	23,400
1878.....	57,190	41,000
1879.....	64,668	46,700
1880.....	98,420	32,800
1881.....	141,812	31,400

The largely increased supplies of barks would have greatly reduced the price of quinine, if the removal of the duty had not taken place, and the manufacture of the article could have been continued to the full capacity of our establishments ; whereas, we have been obliged to greatly curtail our operations, and some of us have not worked at all for months at a time.

We respectfully ask that you will recommend to Congress a duty of

not less than 15 per cent., at which rate we are of the opinion that the manufacture of sulphate of quinine can be maintained in this country.

POWERS & WEIGHTMAN, *Philadelphia.*

ROSENGARTEN & SONS, *Philadelphia.*

KEASBEY & MATTISON, *Philadelphia.*

In regard to the results of the repeal of the duty on quinine, we state that there has been a great extension of the manufacture of that article in Europe. The manufacture of sulphate of quinine on the continent has within the last three years doubled. The receipts in this country have risen from 228,000 ounces to nearly 800,000 ounces. The receipts of the past week in New York were 23,000 ounces, which, if continued throughout the year, would give a grand total for the year of about 1,200,000 ounces. The total consumption of foreign quinine in this country in twelve years has not been more than 1,100,000 or 1,200,000 ounces at the most. I received on Saturday a circular from the Mannheim factory, which has an agency in New York controlled by the Boehringer manufacturers, stating that they had completed their new works and requesting orders from America, which they agreed to fill in any quantity. The factory at Milan, Italy, working under a 45 per cent. protective duty, is the largest manufactory of quinine in the world since the repeal of the duty. They have doubled their capacity during the last few years. That is the quinine which is so largely brought to this country. They are working under very great advantages. They have cheap labor and cheap materials.

I have shown by the table the decrease in the importation of cinchona bark. Ten or fifteen years ago nearly all the cinchona bark was sent to New York, and what was not purchased there was sent to London, but now London receives five times as large an amount as New York. I have letters from London to-day giving the price of German quinine at 8 shillings, and the new factory built this summer in Amsterdam for the avowed purpose of making quinine for the American market puts its price at 8 shillings and sixpence. Foreign quinine can be bought in New York for \$1.70 an ounce, and there are probably 300,000 ounces of foreign quinine in New York to-day. The foreign manufacturers send their surplus here to be sold even below cost sometimes, because this is an outlet for their surplus product. They have many advantages over us. They can make large purchases of bark in London and get it at a much cheaper price.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. How many firms are there engaged in the manufacture of quinine in this country?—Answer. Five.

Q. How many hands are employed in its manufacture?—A. I do not know the aggregate number; I should think between 400 and 500.

Q. Quinine is a medicine in general use, is it not?—A. Yes, sir; there are but two manufacturers of quinine in England, two in France, two in Italy, one in Russia (who failed), one in Holland, and three or four in Germany.

H. BONZANO.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. H. BONZANO, of New Orleans, La., in regard to certain proposed changes in the tariff laws, was ordered to be printed :

I take the liberty of representing to the Commission, in the interest of the importers of green fruit, that the present tariff, Schedule M, section 1281, provides that "no allowance shall be made for loss or decay on the voyage, unless the loss shall exceed 25 per centum of the quantity, and the allowance then made shall be only for the amount of loss in excess of the 25 per centum of the whole quantity." This proviso applies to importation of oranges, lemons, pine-apples, grapes, limes, bananas, plantains, shaddocks, and mangoes, the most perishable of all imported merchandise. Partial relief from an oppressive mode of interpretation of this law has been obtained through an opinion furnished by the Attorney-General, Hon. Wayne MacVeagh, adopted by the Department of the Treasury August 30, 1881 (Synopsis of Decisions, 4990); but it is but fair to represent and urge upon the Commission that full relief should be granted; that the allowance for damage on the voyage of importation on this class of merchandise should be for "actual damage," the same as is allowed on all other merchandise, perishable articles, such as potatoes, tomatoes, and other green or fresh vegetables included, and the restriction that no allowance shall be made for loss unless such loss be for and in excess of 25 per cent. should, in justice to this class of importers, be done away with.

Next I beg leave to call your attention to the grievance of the importers of wines, liquors, olive oil, ale, and porter. Their complaint is that duties are charged on the ordinary glass bottles in which liquids are contained (except on bottles containing still wines). They claim, in the spirit of article 437, customs regulations, that no duties should attach to bottles containing liquors paying a specific rate of duty when the bottles are "of a character or description ordinarily used in commerce." The injustice of the duty charge on bottles containing malt liquors is particularly glaring. Ale and porter in casks or barrels pay 20 cents per gallon. So manifestly wrong did the charge of duty on bottles in such cases appear to the officers of the government, that the Treasury Department promptly decided (letter to collector, Fall River, Mass., January 22, 1869), that separate duty on bottles did not apply.

But a subsequent elaborate analysis of the law furnished by Attorney-General Devens, February 20, 1879, caused the department to recede from this reasonable position, and at the present day importers have to pay on porter and ale in bottles duty at the rate of 35 cents per gallon, and are obliged to submit to the further exaction of 30 per cent. ad valorem duty on the bottles containing same.

Relative to the transit of imported merchandise to Mexico, I have to observe that, up to a very recent date, the custom-house formalities appertaining to this class of business have been of such ancient, cumbersome, dilatory, and vexatious a nature that, it is no exaggeration to say, often the ocean steamer which brought the goods in transit for Mexico to this port has returned to Europe with a full cargo and arrived there before

the goods she brought were passed and permitted through the custom-house here.

This evil, so detrimental to the interests of importers, and to the forwarding, railroad, and steamship interests centering here, has, thanks to the present Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Folger, been remedied as far as lay in his power (Treasury Circular, June 24, 1882); but further legislation will be necessary to enable him to meet the new order of things, and to empower him to create new ports of delivery on the frontier of the Rio Grande to facilitate the delivery and transit of merchandise to Mexico by the various railroads now constructed and crossing that boundary.

A minor point, but one also equally deserving of attention, is that the practice of "cording and sealing" goods in bond should also be abolished as obsolete and of no further practical utility, and the charge of 8 cents per package for this useless service discontinued as an unreasonable and oppressive tax against the interests of commerce.

I trust that these suggestions will commend themselves to the Commission as measures of simplicity for the adjustment of duties, furtherance of commercial interests, and as an act of justice to the importers.

EDWARD D. COPE.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Prof. EDWARD D. COPE, of Philadelphia, representing the National Academy of Sciences, addressed the commission as follows :

The present tariff laws of the United States contain the following provisions :

Duty on specimens of natural history is only remitted when they are for institutions and cabinets and not for sale. If for sale, the charges are according to the materials or objects included. This applies to zoölogical, mineralogical, and botanical specimens.

1. Duty on philosophical apparatus and instruments is 40 per cent., unless for religious purposes, when it is 15 per cent.

2. Live animals not for breeding purposes, 20 per cent. (In some cases 30 per cent.)

3. Anatomical and botanical models, 35 per cent.

4. Cut or wrought glass for philosophical instruments, &c., 40 per cent.

5. Unwrought glass for philosophical apparatus, 10 per cent.

6. Alcohol; import duty, \$2 per gallon; excise, nearly as much.

7. Books, periodicals, all printed matter, engravings, illustrated books and papers, maps and charts, 25 per cent., unless imported for academies or societies.

The objects above enumerated constitute the materials of scientific research. The progress of science is impossible without them. They are allowed to institutions, which is well, but the private investigator is taxed very heavily. The institutions usually exist for the purpose of teaching and not for scientific research, although a few of them allow their professors leisure in which they can prosecute research. Generally investigators are not connected with educational institutions at the outset of their careers, when their reputations are to be made, and many never become so. Newton, Darwin, and Spencer, and many other celebrated names are illustrations of this general truth. Even when they are connected with institutions investigators are often unable to use the apparatus of the institution to advantage away from their private studios. There are large classes of material which institutions often cannot or will not import. Special investigators require a much larger amount of material and apparatus than is necessary for teaching. Original research the world over is conducted by private individuals who cannot devote time to teaching in institutions.

The class of private students is generally poor. Wealth is rarely the inheritance of genius. Moreover, the influence of the class of original investigators is perhaps greater than that of any equal number of persons. They furnish the basis of current thought, and the principles which, when applied to practice, sustain, protect, and develop society. They furnish the subject-matter of all the vehicles of education; encyclopedias and school books are compiled from their writings.

It is a general objection urged against a life devoted to scientific research that it yields no income, and will land its devotee in poverty. This general statement deters hundreds of young men from occupying themselves in this way, and the profession in the United States is re-

duced to the smallest numbers through the operation of such repressive influences.

It is, perhaps, not the intention of Congress to tax this useful class of its citizens; nevertheless they do so to a ruinous and disastrous extent. The business of importing natural history collections for sale in the United States no longer exists, while in Europe there are houses in almost every principal city where exotic products of all kinds can be purchased for purposes of research. This will become as much a business in this country as in Europe so soon as the general taste for science is developed here. The government probably does not desire to interpose any obstacles to the progress and reputation of the science of the country in addition to those which exist in the nature of things.

But should such a tax have been deliberately inflicted, it must be characterized as iniquitous and discreditable. This remark applies expressly to the tax on books, which is also most absurd and injurious. Such laws are a direct tax on intellectual progress, and although it is not unlikely that this result is entirely due to oversight on the part of the framers of those laws, the consequences are none the less injurious. Some of our contemporaries doubtless remember the difficulties experienced by Alvan Clark & Sons, of Cambridge, in procuring unwrought optical glass for use in building the telescopes for which their house is so highly esteemed. The high tariff on these rough discs operated as a prohibition to the manufacture of the optical instruments to which they are necessary. This result was probably not anticipated by our legislators. After prolonged negotiations, special dispensations from the Treasury Department have permitted the discs to pass with the exaction of a duty of 10 per cent.

As to the law with regard to "specimens of natural history," that is, those relating to botany, zoölogy, palæontology, geology, and mineralogy, the greater number of specimens of this kind are obtained by persons who depend on their sale for reimbursement, it is evident that students in this country must pay the tax or go without them. The actual result is, that students and institutions being mostly poor, do not purchase, and sellers must pocket the loss. So well known has this become that such objects nearly all now go to Europe, to the impoverishment of science here and the great enlargement of the facilities for study abroad. In spite of considerable self-praise, the poverty of most of our museums is marked, and in proportion to our population and resources, their number is probably smaller than in any other civilized nation.

Precisely why Congressmen should wish to tax bottled frogs and snakes we cannot clearly understand. Perhaps it is because these animals have a market value as food for man, and our government taxes foreign meat and breadstuffs. Nor has any one of our legislators announced his intention of fencing in a tract to be used as pasture for boas and anacondas, for it is generally believed that the breeding of these animals, though profitable, is not practicable in this country, owing to the antipathy to them of certain American citizens of foreign birth. Nor is there any fear of a dangerous foreign competition with their natural production here; for although we were once informed by a Virginian mountaineer, that both "the bowling constrictor and the Africanstrietor" were found in his neighborhood, we afterwards learned that he had been led into error by confiding too implicitly in the representations of a traveling showman.

We may, however, be wrong in all this, for we have lately been taught by our rulers that a live hippopotamoid is merchandise. A specimen

of the small hippopotamus-like *Chæropsis liberiensis* having been imported from West Africa by Mr. Forepaugh for the instruction of American citizens, it became necessary to restrain this pandering to a corrupt taste, by imposing the duty ad valorem. It was hoped by the officers of the United States that the beast had been obtained on the east coast of Africa, so that they might be enabled to levy 30 per cent. duty. But Mr. Forepaugh unpatriotically called on Professor Leidy, who swore (and so do we) that the animal was derived from the west coast, so the government could only collect 20 per cent. Dr. Leidy also swore (and so do we) that it was a *Chæropsis*, and not a *Hippopotamus*, but Mr. Forepaugh could not get any reduction on this account. And this in spite of the argument urged with much force, that although the hippopotamus manufactories along the Delaware and Mississippi would certainly be ruined by the introduction into the country of a hippopotamus free of duty, there had not been as yet a single establishment for the production of *Chæropses* set up within the limits of the United States.

We had almost overlooked one remarkable effect of the tariff on collections of foreign fossils. The home industry in fossil bones has been so stimulated that, like our cotton goods in China, and our cutlery in Australia and Sheffield, our fossils are assuming a front rank in the markets of the old world, once the sole producers. And from still another stand-point, if some unwise legislator does not remove the duty all too soon, we shall undoubtedly have a greater home production of fossils in all that relates to knowledge of the laws of nature than any nation on the globe, not excepting the Indian and the negro. And we shall ultimately have the proud satisfaction of engraving on the tomb of science in this country, "*De mortuis nil nisi bou(e)um.*"

Perhaps the Secretary of the Treasury desires to aid the friends of repeal by a *reductio ad absurdum* of some of the provisions of our tariff law. By a ruling of his department, made some time last month, all books coming through the foreign mail for private persons are charged a duty of 25 per cent. if of the value of \$1 and over. To collect this amount the book must be sent from the post-office to the custom-house, then from the custom-house to the appraiser's store, where a valuation is put on it. It is then returned to the custom-house, from which a notice is issued to the addressee. All this requires the filling of blanks and the obtaining of the signatures of eleven or twelve officials, by which the government is richer, frequently, by 25 or 50 cents. A more disreputable law it would be difficult to imagine. Only the poor student is taxed in his efforts to elevate himself above the general dead level. The aspirations of the seeker for knowledge have, it seems, to be paid for, although by following them the student usually resigns the opportunity of financial success in life. We know very well that it is not the producers of books in this country that desire protection. The sale of their wares abroad depends on their merits, and the production is not to be stimulated by a protective duty. It is the publisher who, like another noted character, sits

Hard by the tree of knowledge

to whom we are indebted for this beautiful piece of legislation. Of course we may be wrong. It may be clear to greater minds than ours that by taxing the books of Gegenbaur, Claude Bernard, and Owen we develop our native genius and cause little *fac-similes* of these gentlemen to come immediately into being. By increasing the pressure we might squeeze out Meissoniers and Whistlers. Tighten the prohibition,

and hear the land resound with the harmonies and melodies of a crop of Verdis, Wagners, and Sullivans. But possibly the framers of this law were moved by far different aims. They wish to prevent the influx of corrupting scientific literature into the country. Haeckel, Darwin, and such men should not be permitted to instill poison into the minds of our young men and women. Or, if people will have it, like poison, they must pay for it.

As a matter of fact, the needs of the student class have simply been overlooked in this matter. Publishers wish, in the absence of a copyright law, to protect themselves against foreign piracy. I would suggest that the difficulty may be gotten over in a manner satisfactory to both parties by enacting that duty be only levied on foreign reprints of books published in America. To tax books produced abroad is to tax American education and intelligence. If there be any class of books which it is desirable to exclude from the country, a prohibitory duty might be levied, but this applies to nothing needed by the student.

Finally, the following is the list of foreign products which it appears to me to be essential to the intellectual life and progress of this country to import free of all duty whatever. All specimens of natural history, including mineralogical, botanical, and zoölogical, living or dead; materials for the manufacture of philosophical apparatus, philosophical apparatus completed; models of minerals and geological formations, and of the anatomy of plants and animals, including man; alcohol and menstrua and reagents and preparations necessary to scientific study; and all books and publications, including engravings and maps, when intended for research or instruction.

JOHN P. VERREE.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. JOHN P. VERREE, of Philadelphia, representing the Philadelphia Iron and Steel Company, addressed the Commission as follows:

I am an iron manufacturer, and naturally feel interested in the discussion of tariff matters; but you have heard so many essays on this subject that no doubt it has become tiresome; therefore I will ask your indulgence only for a few moments. I have been engaged in this business all my life, and have acquired a certain practical knowledge of it which has given me very decided convictions that it is the duty of this country, possessing natural advantages in an equal if not greater degree than any other nation in the world, to protect the labor of this country against the cheaper foreign labor of Europe. It is simply a question of protection to labor; capital can take care of itself. The history of the iron manufacture in this country is only an illustration of all other manufactures. My father in 1814 built a rolling mill 10 miles from Philadelphia for the manufacture of sheet iron. It was during the war, when the price of sheet iron had advanced very high, as cotton did during the war of the rebellion, and his business, during the war, was, of course, successful. But after the war terminated the country was flooded with products of English manufactures, and after peace was declared his business was prostrated. For fifty or sixty years we have been struggling in this country to protect ourselves against foreign competition, and by the aid of Congress, and the duty, we have been enabled successfully to do so, and we stand now before the world somewhat defiant of all English competition in the general manufacture of iron—I mean if we have the present tariff, and the necessities of the country I think will require such protection as will protect us against all contingencies in the future. Therefore I say that, the East and West having perfected the manufacture in this country by improved machinery and skill, we are now independent and do not ask further protection than what is afforded us under the present law, and we could even do with less.

During the crisis and the distress in our business a few years ago, terminating in 1879, Pittsburgh manufacturers were enabled to sell iron in Pittsburgh as low as, or approximating to, the price it was sold in Liverpool. And even to-day Pittsburgh is selling iron in the East at \$10 a ton less than the same iron can be imported for. So that it is not a question of competition any further with foreign manufacturers; it is a question of home competition, and on that issue I wish to say a few words—and I do not think it is a sectional issue; I think it is a national issue.

Pittsburgh has very many natural advantages. She is located on a river which takes her products to the extreme West and Southwest at a very cheap rate. She has the best coal at a cheap rate, she has gas without any cost, and iron of the best quality, which enables her, in mixtures with our own inferior ores, to make as good iron as any manufacturers can make, and with the cheap transportation which she has, she is enabled to transport iron to the Atlantic coast and deliver it cheaper than the English or the New England manufacturers can. I therefore come here to ask protection for the eastern coast, although that may seem an anomaly.

The Allegheny Mountains are a protection to the West as against Eastern competition. The West has an unlimited territory increasing all the time, while we have a very narrow belt on the Atlantic coast. Therefore I claim protection from Pittsburgh.

The Pittsburgh manufacturers appeared at Cresson and they asked an increase of duty on all imported raw material. They asked there that scrap iron shall be advanced from \$8 to \$12; that pig iron also should be increased, and ore increased. The effect of that increase is to place the Eastern coast at a greater disadvantage. If they advance scrap iron from \$8 to \$12, it makes our raw material cost \$4 more, and places us at a greater disadvantage than now. Therefore I claim, although it may appear strange, that our interests are such that we are justified, as Eastern manufacturers seeking to protect our own interests, to ask for cheaper raw material. We do not want the duty advanced on scrap iron, which places us at a disadvantage. Pittsburgh and the West have no competition, while our field of territory is a more limited one.

I therefore ask of the Commission careful consideration of this question, and, as they have such an unlimited territory and ours is so limited in extent, that you shall not increase the cost of our raw material, but the law shall be so amended that it may be admitted at a lower rate than the present duty, so as to enable us to employ our labor successfully in the prosecution of our business. If, therefore, the policy of Congress should be to reduce the duty on raw material, which I hope it may be, we shall be enabled to compete successfully with the West, and in a few years compete with England in the markets of the world. Competition at home will so regulate prices that we shall have to seek a foreign market at some time, or it will be injurious to our own interests. With cheap scrap iron we can make iron on the Atlantic coast, so that I think after ten or twenty years we can compete with the markets of the world. I hope that the question of the admission of scrap iron and crude material will be carefully considered by the Commission and that we may be aided through your recommendations to continue our manufacture upon the Eastern coast.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. How much of a reduction do you think should be made in the duty on iron?—Answer. I think there is very little pig iron coming to this country except the Bessemer and scrap pig.

Q. But I ask you how much of a reduction you recommend on it?—

A. I did not speak particularly of pig iron; I spoke of scrap iron more particularly; old scraps.

Q. I understood you to say raw material.—A. Well, pig iron is to some extent a raw material, although it is perfected to some degree as well.

Q. Therefore I ask you what reduction of duty you recommend?—A. I do not make any recommendation, except that I think on raw material, and scrap iron particularly, there should be a reduction. I do not fear the importation of pig iron into this country. We can get our own pig iron cheaper than we can import Bessemer pig.

Q. What do you call raw material; what is your definition of it?—

A. Ore is raw material; scrap iron is raw material, and you might call pig iron raw material in that sense.

Q. You spoke of the reduction of duties on bar iron; what would you suggest in regard to that; what do you, as an iron manufacturer, think you can stand?—A. I only say that Pittsburgh is selling iron now at \$10 less than iron can be imported for on our Atlantic coast.

Q. That is no answer to my question. I ask you what reduction, as

a Philadelphia iron manufacturer, you would suggest that we should recommend to Congress on bar iron; it does not make any difference what Pittsburgh sells iron for. What reduction do you think you could stand on bar iron?—A. Perhaps \$5. Unless they can put bar iron in our market cheaper than we can they cannot sell it.

Q. We want something specific. You say that you could stand \$5 on bar iron?—A. With the present condition of the markets of the world we can stand \$5.

Q. And you do not make any recommendation in regard to pig iron?—A. No, sir.

Q. How much on scrap iron?—A. We should like to have it nearly free. I could stand it free, and the Eastern coast could stand it free.

Q. That takes the place of pig iron to a certain extent. It is argued before us that in that case this country would be made the dumping-ground of the world?—A. If they would dump 5,000 tons of scrap iron on our wharves we would manufacture it up into finished iron very soon. We desire that the manufacturers of the Atlantic coast shall have the advantage of cheap materials.

Q. On bar iron, and other kinds of iron, you think you could stand a reduction of \$5 a ton?—A. I only say what is a positive fact. They are selling iron at Pittsburgh to-day at \$10 a ton less than it costs to import iron.

Commissioner AMBLER. You do not mean without the duty?

The WITNESS. No, sir; I say with the duty. With the present duty we are secure against all foreign competition.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Bar iron is worth in England \$30 a ton and the duty is \$20 a ton, making \$50 or 2½ cents a pound. Is Pittsburgh selling iron at 2½ cents a pound?—A. They are selling it in New York at 2¼. I do not refer to the common bar iron; we all make the best bar iron. I think the fine iron is £7 or \$35, and with the duty \$60 or over. The Pittsburgh men have been standing idle now for six months, and they have just gone into competition again, and they cannot find a market for their product and must seek it wherever it can be sold, and therefore the price is decreasing all the time.

Commissioner OLIVER. I ask you the question particularly because a committee stating that they represent nearly the unanimous sentiment of the bar-iron manufacturers appeared before us and recommended that the present duty be maintained. That is why I wanted to know if you think there are many more of your way of thinking. You are willing to give up \$5 of that duty. It is not often that we get men of that kind, and we want to develop them.

The WITNESS. I may be in advance of others, but, if so, I have the courage of my own convictions. This is the way we feel about it: that we have a locality along the Atlantic coast which we desire to have protected in this manufacture, and if any other locality in the West has superior advantages over us we will recognize the advantages of their position; but we think it is a little ungenerous on the part of Pittsburgh, with its unlimited advantages, to ask us to pay more duty on scrap iron. They come demanding an increase of \$4 on scrap iron, which would make our iron cost us \$4 more than it does now, and give to them that much advantage.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Q. You would like to have ores come in free?—A. I think that raw

material ought to be admitted at a very low rate. Ores are admitted at a low rate of 20 or 25 cents a ton.

Commissioner AMBLER. About 56 cents is the average for the past three years.

The WITNESS. I thought it was lower than that.

Commissioner BOTELER. They are developing on the Atlantic coast very abundant supplies of ore.

The WITNESS. Of Bessemer-steel ores?

Commissioner BOTELER. Yes; there are many developments of Bessemer-steel ores.

The WITNESS. There is very little of it, I think, in the North; there may be some in the South. Therefore the advance on Bessemer ores gives them an advantage over us and other localities where there are not any ores.

Commissioner PORTER. You simply mean in your statement, I suppose, that the Pittsburgh people advocated an advance to \$12; not that the convention decided to recommend it. I believe they concluded to leave it as it was.

The WITNESS. They advocated it, and it was resisted very earnestly by many of us, and the whole question was compromised on a vote of about 50 to 30.

THOMAS DONALDSON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. THOMAS DONALDSON, of Philadelphia, addressed the Commission as follows:

I appear here, gentlemen, in behalf of an interest with which I am not identified. I am a picture buyer and not a picture seller. I come here because I believe American art should be protected. I do not believe it is any part of the government's duty to feed its people, but I do believe it is a part of the government's duty to make laws whereby its people can feed themselves. There are 600 artists in America, about 400 of them wholly dependent upon art for their support. About \$5,000,000 worth of works of art, oil and water-color paintings, etchings and statuary are sold in this country annually, of which the American artists sell less than \$800,000 of their own productions. Forty firms control the trade in works of art. Five firms in America make or break the value of a picture. Two firms in Paris put prices on foreign pictures and fix their value. Thirty years ago there were but few artists in America. There has been no revival of art in America; it has been a steady growth. It was indigenous, for we have as fine skies here and as beautiful women for models as in any country of the world. If there had been no art in Europe we would have had it in America. Thirty years ago we had no art schools of importance in America, and we had to send our young people to Europe to be educated as artists. To-day we have 70 art schools in the United States. Boston is said to be the hub of the universe as well as the center of art, while New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Chicago, Saint Louis, Buffalo, Cincinnati, and San Francisco have become art emporiums. In the 449 cities, having a population exceeding 10,000 inhabitants, perhaps nearly one-half of them have resident artists. Unfortunately, artists are compelled to eat, and, unfortunately, in some cases, they have families, and they must eat, too. A studio must be rented, models employed, colors and materials purchased, all of which follow a long and costly term of study and preparation. A picture has no actual money value. It may cost an artist a year's work, but yet it has no real value, for art is taste, and one pays for his taste in art as in other things. Culture increases art values. A man could not get a meal of victuals for a Rubens, a Raphael, or a Titian on a commercial basis; there is no value to a picture absolutely. So that men who deal in pictures, the art dealers, are benefactors, because they understand the process of putting a picture on the market and giving it a money value. In other words, you can't eat or drink a picture, and it has only an artificial value. As I have said, 400 out of 600 of our resident artists are dependent upon the sale of their pictures for a living. For instance, take that picture by Philip Weber, an American, hanging on the wall of this room; it cost the artist in time and labor \$100 to make it. But an artist in Europe will paint and sell such a picture as that for about \$30.

The duty on works of art is 10 per cent. if they are painted by a foreign artist, and nothing if they are produced by an American artist or student residing abroad. I would increase this to at least 40 per cent. upon all imported works of art; I believe it would protect us in art; that it would result in putting better foreign pictures on our market, and stop the bringing in of the trash that now comes from Europe and is sold here and placed on our walls. Better still if we had some system

by which pictures were brought into the country upon their merits, and which would prevent common daubs and trash that now come in from being sold at high prices, or from coming in at all. Under existing arrangements frauds are invited. At present who knows whether he is buying a Corôt or a Daubigny? The importer says it is a genuine picture, but who knows? One can buy in Europe for \$4 or \$5 a very respectable looking picture, and I have seen an invoice of 200 pictures sold at an average price of \$8, where there was a good profit made on them, while the American artist was standing outside hungry, looking into the window during the sale. A protective duty will especially benefit our younger artists, men and women, who cannot now sell their pictures to dealers at any price. These low-priced European pictures are more profitable to art dealers than the works of our young artists. When the 10 per cent. duty was enacted we had but few art schools in America and but little foreign art, ancient or modern. Now you can find private galleries containing \$200,000, \$300,000, and sometimes \$500,000 worth of foreign art. The best collections of the contemporaneous art of France and the Continent are to be found in the United States, for Americans have been for twenty years past the best foreign art patrons in the world. They have enormously enhanced the value of modern French and other foreign pictures. Now we are strong both in art schools and public and private collections. The chromos of Prang, Sinclair, and other artistic chromo houses, are infinitely better in artistic merit than any of the low-priced pictures from abroad; art in our country is now found in every hand and in all shapes. The applied arts and household decorations also feel the art influence.

We can produce just as good works of art in America as can be produced in Europe. At the Centennial at Philadelphia, in 1876, in art matters, our people held their own. Eastman Johnson and J. G. Brown in figures; Thomas Hill, Albert Bierstadt, and Thomas Moran in landscape; Edward Moran in marine; Peter Moran in animals; Sandford R. Gifford in representations of nature in her sweetest moods; Peter F. Rothermel in historic graphics; Winslow Homer in country life; William Bradford in Arctic scenes; Daniel Huntington in portraits; and the legion of our meritorious men and women artists, surely upheld national honor and revealed to our people the real strength of our art progress. It was a revelation, and moved our people forward at least a generation in the love of form and beauty; and the few earnest, zealous patrons of art in this country, led by Marshall O. Roberts, John Taylor Johnston, and James L. Claghorn, could contemplate with quiet satisfaction the partial culmination of their faith and labor in the interest of our art. The skies are as bright, the water as clear, the flowers as varied, the men as well molded, the women and children as beautiful in this favored land as elsewhere. Here our artists riot in the beauties of kindly nature, and revel in scenic splendor. Copies of the classics, of marbles, oils, and bronzes are found at every hand. But our artists in robbing beauty of its form divine for their canvas, or in shaping her in marble or bronze, are not compelled to steal from the frozen form of the dead past, but can find on our streets, every day, living, breathing flesh and blood, that in elastic form and grace of figure puts to blush the marvelous poetry of the figure of the Venus of Milo, or the classic lines of a Dianian goddess of antiquity.

The placing of a duty of at least 40 or 50 per cent. upon all foreign pictures imported would not affect the high-priced pictures which are the dealers' great profit, and which we want. The common people who have but little money do not buy such productions; it is only the Vanderbilts and the Stewarts who can afford to buy them and pay \$50,000

for a picture by the master of modern times—Meissonier; and they would rather pay \$300,000 if they could get the only Meissonier that there was in the country and prevent a rival from getting it, just as they would be willing to pay an exorbitant price for the best race horse or blooded stock or anything of that kind. So that a duty of this kind would not affect the importation of these high-class pictures. Men who can afford these luxuries are willing to pay for them. At present the law admits paintings free of duty which are to be used for the study of art. All works of art for the use of universities, colleges, and schools of instruction are now admitted free of duty. Private incorporations and individuals are the only art patrons in America. The great Academies of Fine Arts at Philadelphia, New York, and Boston are illustrations of munificent private action, while the Corcoran Art Gallery at Washington, named for its liberal and manly donor, is an example of private endowment. All such galleries are fertile fields for the student. Private effort in aid of art studies is universal. Gentlemen who have large collections, like Mr. Gibson, Mr. Whitney, Mr. Olaghorn, Mrs. Joseph Harrison, and Mr. Fairman Rogers, of Philadelphia; Mr. August Belmont, Mr. Vanderbilt, Mr. Harper, Mr. D. O. Mills, Mr. C. P. Huntington, Mr. John Jacob Astor, Miss Wolf, and Mrs. A. T. Stewart, of New York; Mr. Adams and Mrs. John M. Forbes, of Boston; Mr. Coles, of St. Louis; Mr. Probasco and Mr. Longworth, of Cincinnati; Mr. Fields, Mr. Jones, and Mr. Leiter, of Chicago; Ex-Governor Standford, and Mr. Crocker, and Mrs. Kate Johnson, of San Francisco; Mr. Walters, of Baltimore, and perhaps forty other private collectors in the United States, open their galleries at stated times for art students and other visitors, which, of course, is a great means of instruction. Most of our collectors find quite as much pleasure in the fact that their pictures are a means of enjoyment to others as that they are the owners.

On the question of protection to American art, I am referring to pictures in oil, water-colors, etchings, and statuary. I am not speaking of metal working or anything of that kind, for all metal, wood, and porcelain art-work imported are now fully protected by law. There is fashion in art as in dress, and but few artists of any decade have the staying qualities essential to their pictures having a value in the future. In no profession does real hard, earnest work pay so well, or is more requisite.

Many of the great artists reached and do reach earthly immortality after death, but it is of more interest to the artists of the present day, and to the interests of their stomachs, that they at least reach a moneyed value while they live. Artists do not at all times commune with angels and sweet spirits. They are frequently, alas! too frequently, compelled to meet landlords, grocers, butchers, and other entirely worldly persons. Needy creditors are not great aids to artistic excellence. An artist must make his hay while the sun shines, or while he is in favor. Generally, successful artists are good business men. It is at all times a precarious business and profession.

Usually, when an American snob wants to buy a picture it is necessary that it should have a long foreign name attached to it in order to bring a high price, though I am glad to say that we are gradually overcoming that delusion. You have had the artistic potters before you, and many other manufacturers of artistic wares, and if they have told you the truth they have told you that they are compelled, also, to put the brand of some foreign manufacturer upon their goods in order to sell them at a fair price, and to suit a certain class of people. The cheap imitation artistic trash with long names attached is the stuff that many of our people buy, and that is the stuff that ought to be kept out

of the country. The artists petitioned Congress a long time ago asking for relief, but they got none.

The practice of art has opened new fields of labor for women and for persons physically incapacitated from manual labor. It has grown into an every-day want and use. It is now almost impossible to sell an ugly dish, garment, or piece of furniture in the great cities of the United States. The influence of the development of art in the cities is hourly felt in town and country. The modern palace of the wealthy citizen has its influence in the form and color of our country homes. The monthly and weekly illustrated magazines and papers in an artistic point of view are educators, for they employ the best art effort. The guild of American artists is strong in intellect, genius, culture, and abilities. It is gradually receiving the encouragement of men of means. Why should it not receive from the government the benefit of a system that has built up a great nation and founded an American civilization? American art finds its worst enemy in a portion of its own people—people, usually, who are educated to believe that the art productions of their own country are crude and new. It is to be regretted that this class do not die more rapidly than they do.

A picture or a piece of statuary represents both labor of mind and hand. You protect the brain labor of literary people; why not that of the artists? You protect the hand labor of the mechanic, skilled and unskilled; why not the labor of the artist?

The methods of instruction in our art schools are modeled upon the best forms in use in Europe, viz, with life models and objects of still life, improved by methods due to American genius.

Our men and women have paid large sums of money abroad for art education and spent years of time and labor. We have ransacked the by-ways and paths of Europe for methods of instruction. We have here the necessary tools for the best work in art. Let Congress, now that the ready cultivated minds and hands are within our own land, place a duty on foreign art productions that will enable our men and women art-workers to live while they produce true American art and rival or excel the famous workers of the Old World.

Why shall not our land become the home of true art, and students from beyond the seas come here to study the methods of new masters? Certainly the day is not far distant, considering the rapidity of acquisition, when art students of Europe desiring to study the best efforts of the modern masters, French, Belgian, Spanish, or Italian, will be compelled to come to American private collections for examples. Perhaps the day is coming when committees of selection in erecting a statue of our immortal Washington will not go to Berlin for an artist. Neither will we pay Cabanel or Bonnat fabulous sums to paint the ceilings of our bed-chambers, nor import Italians to fresco the rotunda of the Capitol at Washington. We have become self-reliant in other national things; why not in this?

In asking for a protective duty no element of charity is to be considered. It is demanded as a right. While the nation leaves to private hands the purchase of art productions (nor does she establish art schools) she should at least encourage her artists to good work by surrounding their profession with the law guards given to other trades, professions, or callings.

With a profound respect for the masters that have gone before, for the pathfinders of the craft, and with a desire to aid in developing art in America, the law power of the republic is invoked in the interest of a cultured and deserving portion of our fellow citizens.

WIRE-CLOTH MANUFACTURERS.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from manufacturers of Wire Cloths and Wire Nettings was ordered to be printed:

We, the undersigned, being interested in the pending revision of the tariff, respectfully represent that we are engaged in the manufacture of wire cloths and wire nettings, samples of some varieties of which are herewith transmitted. Previous to the enactment of the present tariff these articles were produced only in small quantities by handicraft method, and were not much known in commerce. They are not specified in the present tariff, and are included under the head of "Manufactures of iron not otherwise specified," on which an ad valorem duty of 35 per cent. is imposed. The *square foot* is now the unit of measure. Owing to the inflexible character of these fabrics, it is not possible for custom-house officers to properly examine them to determine their superficial measurement, and restore them to their original condition, without mechanical means for that purpose. The consequence is that measurements are rarely verified, thus allowing great opportunity for fraud in the use of false invoices. It is believed by those engaged in the manufacture of these goods in this country that such frauds are continually perpetrated.

In order to protect the government against such frauds, and to secure to the manufacturer the intended protection, we would respectfully suggest that the *pound* be made the unit of measure, as it can be applied to test the invoice with a good degree of accuracy, without removing the goods from their original cases.

We beg to suggest, therefore, that you will incorporate into your new tariff bill the following provision:

On iron-wire cloths and iron-wire nettings, made in meshes of any form, a duty equal in amount to that imposed on iron wire of the same gauge as may compose the fabric, and 4 cents per pound in addition thereto.

On steel-wire cloths and steel-wire nettings, made in meshes of any form, a duty equal in amount to that imposed on steel wire of the same gauge as may compose the fabric, and 4 cents per pound in addition thereto.

In support of this provision, we would state that wire is the raw material of the wire-cloth manufacture, and that the cost of such wire is determined by the cost of importation; therefore,

If wire cloths and nettings pay no larger duty than that imposed on the wire of which they are made, the wire-cloth manufacturer would receive no protection.

The intention of the provision in question is to impose on iron and steel wire cloths and iron and steel wire nettings a duty of 4 cents per pound in addition to the duty imposed on the wire of which they are made.

A specific duty of 4 cents per pound is equal to an average duty of 21 per cent. on the foreign cost of the goods.

The manufacture to which this provision relates has rapidly increased of late years. In 1860 it gave employment to about one hundred per-

sons, with a capital of \$20,000, while to-day the production of wire window-screen cloth alone amounts to over \$1,250,000 annually.

Both the Morrison and the Wood "Committee on Tariff" recognized our claim, which may be found in House bill No. 4106, Schedule E, "Metals," lines 301, 302, 303, and 304.

CLINTON WIRE CLOTH COMPANY,
By CHAS. F. FAIRBANK, *Treasurer,*
Clinton, Mass.

WICKWIRE BROTHERS.
J. H. DE WITT & SON.
NEW JERSEY WIRE CLOTH COMPANY, WM. OER, JR.
DE WITT WIRE CLOTH COMPANY,
By JOHN N. BROWN, *Secretary.*

F. S. ROBINSON ET AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Messrs. FREDERICK S. ROBINSON & Co., and Messrs. LAWRENCE, GILES & Co., of New York, importers of green fruit, in regard to the duty on fruit, was ordered to be printed:

We, the undersigned, importers of green fruit, respectfully request that the duty on the same be made specific instead of ad valorem as at present.

The reason we ask this change is to do away with the constantly recurring questions concerning the true market value of fruit when no real market value exists and, therefore, no ad valorem duty is possible. Prices are according to quality of fruit, position of gardens, pretensions of sellers, &c., who will ask a price for selling and will ship at a lower price on their own account.

A specific duty would place American importers on same footing, and, besides, it will have the effect to bring here the best fruit and stop, to a large extent, the shipment of inferior so-called second-choice fruit, as it would have to pay same duty.

Fruit, being perishable, lands in a more or less decayed condition, which renders it still more difficult, if not impossible, for an appraiser to form a correct judgment of comparative values, and which appraisers admit; and in the necessary confusion of miscalculation, much difficulty and annoyance result, to the detriment of consignees and importers, which difficulties would be obviated by specific duty not only, but the revenue and the mode of collecting the same would be greatly simplified and at less expense and better protected, and importers and consignees would be properly relieved from the annoyances in regard to invoice values, to which they are at present subjected.

With a view to obviate this difficulty, protect American importers, and simplify the collection of the duty, we respectfully recommend and earnestly urge that the duties upon green fruit be regulated in the following manner:

On oranges in cases measuring not exceeding 46 inches long, 19 inches wide, and 16 inches deep, 40 cents per case.

On oranges in boxes measuring not exceeding 34 inches long, 18 inches wide, and 16 inches deep, 20 cents per box.

On lemons in cases measuring not exceeding 46 inches long, 19 inches wide, and 16 inches deep, 50 cents per case.

On lemons in boxes measuring not exceeding 36 inches long, 19 inches wide, and 16 inches deep, 25 cents per box.

On grapes in barrels measuring not exceeding 22 inches long, 24 inches wide, and 24 inches deep, 75 cents per barrel.

On grapes in half-barrels or kegs measuring not exceeding 15 inches long, 16 inches wide, and 16 inches deep, 40 cents per half-barrel or keg.

We apprehend no difficulty will arise about measures, as boxes are especially made for the purpose and always uniform in size.

We further beg, respectfully, to recommend, for the protection of American production and manufacture, that all boxes of oranges and lemons imported in boxes of American growth and manufacture should be charged 5 cents per box, less duty, same being now free.

On all oranges, lemons, and grapes not herein otherwise provided for, 20 per cent. ad valorem.

The present allowance for damage on green fruit, viz, only in excess of 25 per cent., is arbitrary and unjust, as the article is perishable and more or less decays during the voyage of importation. There is no other article in the entire tariff that is treated in this manner, and we therefore respectfully beg that said unjust law be abolished, or, if in your judgment advisable, cancel all allowance for return duty for damage.

We don't ask for free duty, because this country produces some fruits which demand protection, and the above-stated duty is sufficient protection, and the government would derive nearly as large a revenue as has been for the past realized under the duty of 20 per cent. ad valorem. All we respectfully beg is said trifling reduction—to be placed on same footing as foreign shippers, and to be relieved from annoyances in regard to the true market value to which we are now subjected.

FREDERICK S. ROBINSON & Co.
LAWRENCE, GILES & Co.

GEORGE C. TICHENOR.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following report of Mr. GEORGE C. TICHENOR, special agent of the Treasury Department, addressed to the Secretary of the Treasury, in regard to importations of foreign goods, having been referred to the Commission for its information, was ordered to be printed:

OFFICE OF SPECIAL AGENT TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
Portland, Me., September 14, 1882.

SIR: In a conversation recently had with Assistant Secretary French, concerning the tariff and our customs laws and administration, he did me the honor to suggest that if I would formulate my views and impressions, particularly such as have resulted from my experience and observations while abroad as an agent of the department, the same might prove of some value to the department, and possibly to the Commission now engaged in gathering information preparatory to a revision of the tariff and customs laws.

My official engagements and the condition of my health are such as to preclude compliance with the suggestion other than in the hurried and cursory manner following:

Acting in accordance with the tenor of my instructions, my time while abroad was largely devoted to "obtaining full and reliable information as to the true market value of silks, velvets, gloves, embroideries, and other merchandise subject to ad valorem duties, exported * * * to the United States, particularly of goods shipped upon consignment," and in familiarizing myself with the cost and manner of production of such merchandise, as well as of "statuary, works of art, dye-stuffs, chemicals, drugs, manufactures of metals, and other similar articles exported to this country."

The information resulting from my inquiries has mainly been communicated to the department in the numerous reports I have transmitted from time to time. These reports abundantly show, that the ingenuity and depravity alike of the Old World and our own have been ceaselessly employed in devising means and perfecting plans for defrauding our revenues and evading our customs laws. There is scarcely any kind or description of merchandise, subject to ad valorem duty, imported into this country from beyond the seas but has been or is being undervalued, more or less. I would not be understood as saying that all of any class has been undervalued, but that some of all classes has been, even of regular purchases, while those consigned to agents for sale on commission, notably from the continent of Europe, have been and are being, as a rule, considerably undervalued.

Notwithstanding the efforts of the department toward its repression, the practice of undervaluing seems on the increase and to be becoming more and more general. This is attributable to a number of circumstances: 1st, it has proven successful; 2d, a brisk competition has grown up amongst those engaged in it; 3d, it has become more and more necessary in order to enable the foreign manufacturers to compete with our home productions; and 4th, by the act of Congress of June 22, 1874, known as the "anti-moiety act," undervaluation, and fraud generally, was invited by putting it practically out of the power of the

government to punish the same when discovered. The custom-house records at our principal ports show numberless instances where invoice values have been advanced by local appraisers 10 per cent., 20 per cent., 30 per cent., and even as much, in instances, as 200 per cent. to make market value, and such advances have been sustained by reappraising boards when appeals have been taken. As a matter of course, an undervaluation of 200 per cent., or even 20 per cent., ordinarily presupposes fraud, and often the circumstances attending slighter undervaluations are such as to convince the officers of the fraudulent intent of the importer. The merchandise, therefore, in all such cases should be seized and libelled and the parties proceeded against criminally. Under the very remarkable provisions, however, of the act above referred to, it is practically out of the question to forfeit the goods, impose a fine, or punish the guilty parties; for where the fraud *is* proven, in order to recover and secure the punishment of the offenders, the fact must be established as a separate proposition, not only that the act or omission was intentional, but that it was done or omitted with intent to defraud the revenue, which ordinarily is rendered almost impossible by the inability of the government's officers to seize or secure access to the offender's books and papers. I believe that under any other known statute, if a man of sound mind is proven to have violated the law, it is presumed that he did so with *intent*. Under this statute, however, though it is made clear that an importer has disregarded or violated the law, with a motive of gain, it devolves upon the government to *prove* that he did so with intent to defraud the revenue, which involves the necessity of proving that he had full knowledge and an understanding of the law—a most absurd requirement and one in most cases utterly impossible of accomplishment. Until such provisions are repealed and laws enacted to meet the case, frauds will continue, and it will not be known what actual rates of duty are collected on merchandise subject to ad valorem duties.

I merely state a fact known to most merchants and tourists who have visited Continental Europe of late years, that the practice of undervaluing has become so common and universal there that even the shopkeepers and small trades-people voluntarily tender American buyers, of small or large articles, invoices specially made for “the customs.” Numerous instances of the kind came directly under my observation, and I was told that in most cases the purchasers accepted such invoices most cheerfully, and at times requested them. While in a true sense such practices indicate a low state of business morals, it is only fair for me to explain that this view of the case is stoutly controverted by the people of those countries, and the practice is commonly justified on high grounds of policy and duty, when the subject is brought seriously to their attention and gravely discussed with them; a fact which renders the case a far more serious one for us than if viewed otherwise by these people, and should in consequence be gravely considered by all who have to do with the revision of our tariff and the reconstruction and administration of our customs laws.

The impression appears to prevail in most countries of Europe that our rates of duty on most articles produced in those countries are so high as to be oppressive and unfriendly, and our tariff laws, as a whole, hostile, iniquitous, and contrary to that comity which it is understood should govern commercial intercourse between friendly nations; hence it is more a duty than sin to avoid and evade them.

Such expression of sentiment has been made to me upon numberless occasions, in the different countries of Europe, by manufacturers and

others of fair reputations in their communities. It matters little whether such sentiment is the outgrowth of a diseased condition of morals, or has sprung from a faulty code of ethics; it has in many instances taken the fixed form of a conviction, which, whether goaded by poverty or stimulated by avarice, amounts in many cases to an angry fanaticism, which, disregarding law and reason alike, declares that "self-preservation is the first law of nature." But recently in Switzerland a prominent manufacturer admitted to me, in terms, that his products could not be shipped to the United States so as to compete with our domestic products of the same class, if they paid full duty according to our tariff, and basis for determining market values, nor even if honestly invoiced at cost of production. He declared that he held to the view that our government was not justified, before God and man, in imposing such rates of duty as would drive him from our market, force him to close his works, lose the capital invested in them, and leave his 700 or 800 work-people to starve; that we as a people relied upon the Old World for a market for our surplus breadstuffs, which were admitted free, while our rates of duty were in many cases almost prohibitive. Such a tariff he considered wicked, unfriendly, and tyrannical, and he held it to be a sacred duty to evade, avoid and defeat it. It is perhaps unnecessary for me to add that large quantities of this gentleman's products are consigned to the United States, and that he stands well in his community.

By means of the consignment system, now so generally in vogue, foreign manufacturers and shippers have been enabled so to close the avenues of information as to the market values of their products, in the country of production, as to enable them to undervalue the same with comparative impunity. It is the habit of many manufacturers and shippers, so consigning, to make, or have made, goods specially for the American trade, which differ in width or style from those made for their home trade and other markets, to such extent as to render it difficult to identify them sufficiently with such other goods as to fix their true market value.

It is well known that for years past even our wealthiest and most extensive importers have been unable to purchase in regular way abroad very many of the most important articles and classes of merchandise made there, but have been compelled to buy them to be delivered through commission agents in this country, at the dollar price, duty paid, of course. This system is becoming more and more general, and its disastrous effects both upon the revenue and the legitimate importing trade are becoming more marked year by year. There are in this country, largely at New York, an army of commission agents, who, in order to secure business, advise and urge foreign manufacturers to undervalue their consignments to them, as they make advances generally on such basis. In a large number of cases the goods are "declared for duty," at and below the bare cost of manufacture, and the commission agent, who can make such returns of sales as pleases him, is enabled through dishonesty to profit both from the consignor and the revenues. A notable case of this kind was but recently reported to the department by Consul Mason, of Basle, and myself, wherein the manufacturer swore and proved that he had for four years undervalued his consignments of silk ribbons to a company of commission agents at New York, on an average 20 per cent., being at less than cost of manufacture, and as a result, the commission agents failing to account to him for any profits, he had been forced into bankruptcy. I learn he has since committed suicide. The

commission agents are reputed very wealthy, and are receiving consignments from a very large number of continental manufacturers.

While the ad valorem system appears most equitable and just, all experience has shown that under it the dishonest importers prosper, while the honest ones and the revenues suffer, and it has proved to be most expensive to the government and people, and vexatious and demoralizing to customs officers and employés.

I do not hesitate to say that I am entirely convinced that the only safe and sure remedy for undervaluation in all its forms is specific duties, and I believe that after careful consideration and preparation on the part of those charged with the revision of our tariff, the same will be found applicable to most articles of import. In order, however, to obtain the data and information necessary to perfect a tariff according to such system considerable time and preparation would be required. It would, I apprehend, be necessary to have all the classes of merchandise now subject to ad valorem duties, and to which it was contemplated to apply the specific system, carefully weighed or measured as the case may be, and accounts kept of such weight or measure, and of the value of the merchandise, for such length of time as would safely determine the relations of weight or measure to the value. I have been told that the French experimented in this way for some years before the promulgation of the uniform specific system of general tariff which they but recently adopted. It is known that this system was substituted for the ad valorem system as a protective measure, and it is a significant fact that, pending the late protracted negotiations between the English and French governments concerning an international commercial treaty, the French manufacturers, particularly those in the district of Roubaix, made public remonstrance against any concessions in the direction of ad valorem duties, or departure from the specific system, as to textile fabrics or tissues, urging as a reason that English goods would come in undervalued, as much, they said, as 30 per cent. I apprehend they reasoned from experience and practice.

Having in view ad valorem duties, I would suggest as a measure calculated to circumvent and break up the pernicious consignment system, to which I have referred, the levying of a discriminating duty of, say 20 per cent. upon all such importations, subject to ad valorem duties. And since the market value of such goods is, as a rule, fixed at a dollar price duty paid, in this country, instead of in the country of production and currency of such country, there is eminent propriety in assessing the duty thereon, according to the *home value*, instead of the unknown and uncertain value in the country of production. I am aware that cases would arise where it would be difficult to apply home values, such, for example, as the first importations of new articles and classes of merchandise. I apprehend, however, that it will not be contended that the difficulties thus encountered would be as great as are met in arriving at the true foreign market value of the immense quantities and kinds of goods consigned to this country, for sale and returns, which are reputed to be made "specially for the American market." It rarely occurs that goods in large quantities and of great value are consigned here, unless they have been placed in advance or their probable value in the market ascertained.

Should the principle of "home values," either as a rule or alternative, be adopted in the revision of the tariff, the dutiable value should, I think, be the wholesale market value in the principal markets of our country.

Our faulty system, or lack of system, of civil service in itself renders

an ad valorem system of duties difficult and dangerous to us. It is requisite to the safe, equal, and efficient assessment of duties according to value that we should have trained, honest, and faithful experts to examine and appraise the merchandise, and to classify the same correctly for duty. In the nature of things we cannot have such officials as matters now stand. If a competent and reliable man happens to be appointed, his tenure is so uncertain that his time and thoughts are too apt to be employed in casting about for another engagement when he shall be bade to "step down and out," instead of giving his best thoughts and efforts to the government. If, therefore, the ad valorem system is to be perpetuated in our tariff, provision should be made for the appointment or employment of honest and competent experts as appraisers and examiners, whose tenure shall be fixed and be dependent alone upon their efficiency and good behavior. A man may be an excellent butcher, blacksmith, or bricklayer, and a very poor examiner of silks, embroideries, or chemicals.

It is often the case that the entire importations, especially of consigned goods, of particular classes, which come into the country, come to but a single port and are passed upon by but one and the same examiner. This is notably the case at the port of New York, where vast and entire lines of goods are entered there and at no other port, and are examined and practically appraised and passed by a particular examiner, who if he be incompetent, careless, unfaithful or corrupt, can injure the revenue and legitimate trade beyond measure without being detected.

Provision should be made for some responsible, regular, and efficient supervision of appraisers of merchandise, both as relates to the determination of dutiable values and the rate of duty or classification of merchandise. As matters now are, each appraiser is a law unto himself, and as a consequence the dutiable values, and at times classification, of the same articles, differ at different ports according to the intelligence, fidelity, efficiency, fancy, or temper, of the appraising officer. Cases of this kind are of frequent occurrence, as is well known at the department, and they not infrequently relate to important articles of import. The evil results of such inharmony need not be detailed.

It has occurred to me that it might be well to clothe the board of general appraisers with such supervisory functions as would be requisite in the premises. I am of the opinion, also, that the number of general appraisers should be increased to seven; their resident stations to be so arranged geographically that one could act in all cases of reappraisalment. (See letters of Secretary of Treasury to Congress recommending both these measures.)

If the dutiable value of merchandise—subject to ad valorem duty—is to be based upon the foreign market value, the law should more clearly define what shall constitute such foreign market value. It should, in substance, declare that the same shall be that price or value at which such merchandise is, at the time of exportation to the United States, freely and regularly offered to all desiring to purchase, in usual and ordinary wholesale quantities in the principal markets of the country from whence exported. In countries like Canada, for example, where articles subject to excise tax or impost duty, are held in bond and the market value thereof is less than out of bond, the value of such article out of bond should be declared to be its dutiable value when exported to the United States.

I have found instances in some foreign countries where it was claimed that the prevailing market values for certain articles were different,

lower of course, for the export trade than for the home trade, and in some instances the prices for export to different countries differed. It appears to me that in such case either the home value there or here should be taken.

No matter upon what basis duties are assessed, all practicable means should be adopted to secure the correct and true invoicing of goods, both as to value and their actual and recognized trade descriptions and designations. All invoices should be required to be certified by the United States consular officer nearest to the port or place of purchase and shipment, and the declarations to all such invoices should be required to be sworn to before officers or persons authorized to administer oaths which are valid and binding in the higher courts of judicature of the country.

According to my observation the practice of undervaluing, and fictitious invoicing generally, prevails to a much greater extent on the continent of Europe than in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. This is sometimes accounted for on the theory of a higher state of business morality in the latter than in the former. I, however, attribute it in no small degree to the fact that the declarations to consular invoices in the United Kingdom are sworn to before an officer regularly authorized to administer oaths, and perjury is punishable and is punished as a crime under the English law; while on the Continent such declarations are not so sworn to but are merely made before our consular officers, which is regarded as a mere perfunctory proceeding, devoid of solemnity and carrying with it no legal, nor indeed moral, responsibility. Shippers should be required, at the time of presentation of their invoices for certification, to furnish to consular officers samples, of proper quantity to determine character of all sampleable merchandise; such samples to be forwarded by the consular officer, with the triplicate invoice, to the collector of customs, and no such invoice of goods should be passed by the appraiser until he has received such samples and compared the same carefully with the merchandise; and samples of such importations, together with those sent by the consular officer, should be duly marked for identification and carefully preserved under proper supervision.

Consular officers should be required, in all cases where they have reason to believe or cause for suspicion that any merchandise is being undervalued or otherwise incorrectly or falsely invoiced, to specially advise the Secretary of the Treasury and the collector of the port to which such goods are destined, to the end that both the department and the collector may inquire into the matter and know whether the appraiser has given due attention thereto.

Consular officers should be empowered and directed to withhold their certificate from invoices when not fully satisfied that such invoices are true and correct in all respects. And in all cases where a consular officer refuses his certificate he should fully advise the Secretary of the Treasury and the collector of the port to which the goods were shipped or intended to be shipped. And the collector should not allow the same identical merchandise to be entered under an invoice certified before another consular officer.

I am satisfied that frauds are frequently perpetrated by importers entering merchandise upon *pro forma* invoices or appraisement entries, and afterward having invoices made out and certified to meet the case, thereby escaping all risk and avoiding the 20 per cent. penal duty for under-valuation. A number of clear and of apparent cases of this kind have come under my observation. In one instance last year one of the

most extensive houses in London had forty-two invoices certified at the consulate-general there at one time, which invoices covered the same number of consignments to the port of New York at different times within a period of seven months; the aggregate invoice value of the goods being over \$250,000, all subject to high ad valorem duties, and all of which had been entered and passed on *pro forma* invoices. The exporters' place of business was convenient to the consulate, and there was no good reason why they did not have the invoices certified as the goods were shipped. All of the invoices had been freshly made out when presented for certification, although dated as of the dates of shipment.

In no case should regular importations of merchandise be admitted to entry upon *pro forma* invoices or appraisement entry until the importer has made affidavit that a consular invoice had been obtained and lost, and the circumstances of such loss fully explained, or that it was impracticable to obtain such invoice, giving the reasons in detail; and if not satisfied that such representations are true, the collector should still refuse to admit the merchandise to entry. All cases of entry or of attempted entry of regular importations of merchandise upon *pro forma* invoices should, in my opinion, be specially and promptly reported to the Secretary of the Treasury for investigation by a consular or other officer abroad.

It is scarcely necessary for me to refer to the troubles which constantly afflict the department and customs officers as well as importers on account of the ambiguous phrases, vague descriptions, loose and uncertain definitions, impracticable and indefinite distinctions, contradictory terms, and conflicting provisions which abound in our tariff laws. These weak and assailable places in our armor often serve to defeat the manifest purpose of the provisions, and open the way to abuses and frauds. In a very large number of instances they have proved loop-holes through which imported goods are passed, to the serious detriment of our home manufacturers, whose products it was the probable intention of the law to protect against such competition.

It is the constant study of foreign producers to take advantage of such provisions, while the department is being literally besieged to make decisions in disregard of the law or to cure its defects, until it has finally come that the department's decisions are looked to rather than the tariff as enacted.

Plain, simple, and definite terms only should be employed in constructing a tariff. Mere fancy, arbitrary, or fashionable designations should be avoided, and as far as practicable generic terms or descriptions adhered to.

The following observations and suggestions in relation to particular articles and classes of merchandise, provided for in the different schedules, and to which I have at different times devoted more or less attention, are respectively submitted.

SCHEDULE A.—COTTON AND COTTON GOODS.

The provisions embraced in the first seven paragraphs (Heyl) of this schedule are in many respects so ambiguous, indefinite, and conflicting as to render their uniform application practically impossible. In my opinion all provisions whereby the rate of duty is regulated according to the number of threads to the square inch or the value per square yard should be omitted and a fixed rate per square yard or per pound—

or uniform ad valorem rate—substituted, the only distinctions being between the bleached, unbleached, and colored or printed.

The eighth paragraph should, in my opinion, be so modified as to make the duty purely specific—per pound, the rate to be fixed according to the size or spinner's numbers of the thread or yarn, instead of according to value.

The ninth paragraph should, I think, be changed to a specific rate per dozen spools, according to the amount in yards of thread on each. If on any account it is deemed necessary to retain the ad valorem feature also, I suggest that it be so reduced as to leave no real inducement for under-valuation.

(I shall treat of "cotton braids, insertings," &c., under Schedule M, as to "embroideries.")

SCHEDULE C.—HEMP, JUTE, AND FLAX GOODS.

I would apply the same principles to this schedule as to Schedule A.

SCHEDULE D.—LIQUORS.

I recommend a provision prohibiting the importation of all brandies or other spirits or spirituous beverages, wines, or other liquors of any kind, or of any compounds, preparations, or decoctions bearing the name or semblance thereof or made in imitation of the same, which, upon due examination, test, or analysis shall be found to be falsely described and composed of or containing ingredients foreign to the pure, genuine, and natural article, or containing poisonous or deleterious ingredients of any kind whatever; all such importations to be forfeited and destroyed.

I also suggest that the provision for "ale, porter, and beer in bottles" (986 Heyl) be reconstructed so as to read "ale, porter, and beer in bottles, jugs, or other vessels of capacity not exceeding one gallon, thirty-five cents per gallon; otherwise than in such vessels, twenty-five cents per gallon."

SCHEDULE E.—METALS.

I would particularly recommend specific duties under this schedule in so far as their application is at all practicable. I would also suggest the abolition of a large number of distinctions, and closer grouping and simplification of classes. Where plain, specific duties are deemed inapplicable—such as in case of certain manufactures of metals—I would suggest compound duties, specific and ad valorem, being careful, however, to make the latter so low as to offer no inducement for under-valuation. I would also favor a provision to the effect that no article should be admitted to duty as a manufacture of any kind of metal (named in this schedule) the cost of manufacture or fabrication of which shall not be equal to the value of the finished material from which the same is made, and the duty exceed the duty payable upon such materials. By reference to my reports, on file in the department, it will be found that such articles as so-called "cotton-ties" and "splayed barrel hoops" have been invoiced at barely a shade above the market value of the hoop-iron, from which they are advanced to the title of "Manufactures of iron n. o. p.," and in many instances the importers, not being satisfied with introducing the "manufactured article" at a much lower rate of

duty than is levied upon the hoop-iron itself, have actually under-valued the same in their invoices.

Under a tariff framed with a view to protection, it certainly appears anomalous that the manufactured article should be admitted at a lower duty than the bare materials from which the same is made.

Both "nickel" and "nickel oxide and alloy of nickel with copper" (1059 and 1060 Heyl) should be admitted at the same rate of duty, or the character of these articles should be more clearly defined. From a careful examination of the subject, (see my report of April 18, 1881, on file in the department) I am satisfied, that it was the intention of those who framed the provision fixing the duty on these articles, to include as "nickel" the article as then commercially known, and which contained from about 75 per cent. to 95 per cent. metallic nickel, and to include as "alloy of nickel with copper" a substance which had up to that time been imported, containing from about 40 per cent. to, say, 50 per cent. nickel in alloy with copper. Under a strict or technical construction of the provision, however, substances containing as much as 98 per cent. nickel, and less than 2 per cent. copper, have been admitted to duty as "alloy of nickel with copper," at 20 cents per pound, instead of 30 cents. Here is one of the cases alluded to on sheet 26 of this report.

SCHEDULE G.—SUGARS.

In the course of some inquiries I made last winter in Germany and Holland I learned, to my surprise, that the Dutch standard of color is not strictly adhered to in the latter country, either in assessing duties or determining the commercial value of sugars. Customs officers are there instructed in all cases where they have reason to believe that sugars have been artificially colored, or their color degraded, to assess the duty according to "titrage" or rank; otherwise, according to its saccharine richness or true value, to be determined by polariscopic test, regardless of its color. And in commercial transactions there, as well as in Germany, France, and the United Kingdom, the value is determined by use of the polariscope.

I mention this not as an argument in favor of the polariscopic test as a basis for assessing duties in this country, but as a reason for discarding the Dutch standard.

My inquiries at the time stated resulted in proving beyond doubt or cavil (as will be seen from my reports to the department) that it is a common practice to degrade the natural color of German beet-root sugars, by artificial means, when intended for the Dutch or American markets; the business of coloring being regularly carried on as a distinct pursuit, at a fixed price per 100 pounds.

Never having given any attention of consequence to the subject in the United States, I am not prepared to express an opinion as to whether cane sugars are so manipulated. I am clear, however, that the Dutch standard of color is an unsafe guide in determining the true value of such sugars. From the little thought I have given to the subject, I am inclined to question the advisability of adopting the polariscopic test also. As the market value of sugars can at all times be fairly ascertained, and there is comparatively little danger of fraud from undervaluation, I am inclined to the opinion that it would be the simplest and most satisfactory plan to collect the duty according to value; otherwise, make it compound, at say $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound and 10 per cent. ad valorem; the same to be general, including all sugars from all countries

SCHEDULE H.—SILK AND SILK GOODS.

It is scarcely necessary for me to mention that for many years past all or nearly all piece goods under this title, including silks, satins, velvets, plushes, and ribbons, have been invoiced to this country below their true foreign market value. This is well understood by the appraising officers at all the principal ports, and by the importing trade generally, and has been the source of no end of discussion, trouble, and vexation. So patent is the fact that for a long time past our most wealthy and extensive merchants in the legitimate importing trade have been utterly unable to purchase the same from the foreign manufacturers, particularly on the Continent, in regular way, and import them without serious loss, but have been compelled to make their purchases thereof from the agents and commission merchants in this country to whom such goods have been consigned for account of the manufacturers. While the many efforts made by the department, the custom officers, and legitimate importing merchants, to detect and prevent such practices have in some measure checked them, they have by no means put a stop to them, and in my opinion never can while the goods are subject to the existing rate and system of duty. The custom-house records at the principal ports will show that for years past the appraisers, advances upon invoices, to make market value, have amounted to millions of dollars annually on these goods, and while these advances have often carried the 20 per cent. penalty, and have been sustained and paid, the same thing goes on right along, even though a large proportion of the entries show considerable advances made upon entry by the importers themselves. I am not prepared to declare the motives which have, as a rule, induced importers to make such advances, but assume that in the majority of cases they, being well aware that the undervaluation was apparent, have sought to avoid payment of the penal duty, in others they have sought to deceive and mislead the officers by a false show of virtue, and possibly in a few instances their consciences have been slightly smitten by the enormity of the undervaluation.

The records of the third division of the appraisers' department at the port of New York will show, that the advances made by the appraiser upon invoice values of these goods will approximate \$1,250,000 for the current year in addition to the immense advances made by the importers themselves on entry.

The devices employed by the foreign manufacturers are such as to render it a matter of utter impossibility for our appraising officers to ascertain with any degree of certainty the actual foreign market value of these goods coming into this country, and as a result of very considerable attention to the subject while abroad, I am free to say that it is more a matter of surprise to me that our appraising officers have done as well as they have than that they have not done better.

As a rule these goods are made especially for the American market, and differ to such extent in width, and some other features in their make up, as to prevent their identification with goods of the same classes made for the home and general European markets, and as they are not sold at all, nor any samples thereof given out with quotations, but are all consigned by the manufacturers to or through their agents in this country, all avenues to information as to the foreign value are effectually closed, the market value being fixed in this country rather than in the country of production. This is notably the case in black dress silks and velvets.

A large proportion of the black silks and those of dark color, as well

as velvets, intended for our market, are more heavily "weighted" or "charged" than those made for the European trade. So that the weight of the fabric affords no reliable indication of its true value. This practice of "weighting" or "charging" has become so common and the art attained such perfection as to puzzle and mislead even the most experienced and competent experts, and under cover of such goods it is believed that large quantities of pure and high value silks are brought in immensely undervalued. I have seen dress silks of apparent high value, quite lustrous and so stiff and heavy as to "stand alone" almost, which an unpracticed eye would pronounce a very rich article; yet when folded sharply would not recover form, but show an enduring crease, which would readily break or "cut," the substance or "body" being largely composed of sulphates of iron or lead, re-enforced by some glutinous substance. I have been shown black silk which was said to have been "weighted" 400 per cent. in the dyeing process, and have been told that it was no uncommon thing for 10 ounces of "weft" or "filling" to be "heavy dyed" up to 60 ounces. Silk loses in the dyeing process from 15 to 25 per cent. of its weight, which loss is, in almost all cases of dark goods, compensated by "weighting," and generally considerable addition made as being necessary to stiffen the fabric and make it drape well. I have been told that even in the best black silk goods, that are made for the United States, the "weft" or "filling" is "weighted" on an average about 50 per cent. By chemical analysis of course the quantity of actual silk and of the materials added in dyeing can be determined, but the result will afford no reliable basis for reaching either the market value or cost of production of the fabric. In the pure silks even the value depends much upon the kind and quality as well as its flature, as, for example, it is said that certain of the Lyons and Zurich manufacturers use generally the finest flatures of European silks, while others use the coarser and less even flatures of Japan and China silks, thereby getting more weight at less cost. Again, there is said to be some difference in the market value of silks (even of the more popular manufacturers) of equal weight and purity, on account of difference as to uniformity and evenness of the flature. The reputation of the manufacturer also has considerable to do with the market value of the goods.

All these things go to show how extremely difficult it is to determine the market value or intrinsic worth of these goods, and when to these are added the uncertainties and variations influenced by fashion, and the unending admixtures and uncertain and indeterminable proportions of cotton, wool, flax, mohair, &c., it becomes manifest that the duty on such goods cannot be fairly, honestly, and uniformly collected under the ad valorem system.

One of the most eminent and respectable manufacturers in Switzerland, who took part in arranging the recent commercial treaty between France and Switzerland, informed me that, prior to and pending the negotiations between the two countries, he ascertained beyond all question of doubt that the Swiss silks consigned to the United States were, in one way or another, undervalued upon an average full 20 per cent., and the French goods generally from 10 to 30 per cent., and that the same was necessary to enable them to compete with American-made goods. This gentleman gave this as a reason why we should modify our tariff system and lower our rates of duty on such merchandise; and thereby, while really collecting as much duty, save the fairly disposed Swiss and French manufacturers from the necessity of resorting to the "questionable" practices referred to.

If a plan on a specific basis can be devised whereby we can uniformly and certainly collect 40 per cent. of the true value of all piece silks, satins, velvets, and plushes, or of which silk is the component material of chief value, and 35 per cent. of the true value of silk and velvet ribbons, trimmings, gloves, hosiery, braids, laces, gauzes, underwear, handkerchiefs, crapes, ornaments, ready-made garments, and other articles not enumerated, of which silk is the component material of chief value. I am satisfied it would afford more actual protection to our manufacturers, secure better goods at less cost to our consumers, save large expense in the collection of duties, and give general satisfaction to our honest importers.

I am by no means prepared to formulate a tariff to meet the case. If I should, however, undertake to do so, I should begin with a specific rate which, as to piece goods, appeared high enough to exclude all the "weighted" or "heavy dye" trash, and finish with an ad valorem feature high enough to measurably equalize duty and value without being so high as to present an inducement for undervaluation. I have thought that \$4 per pound and 15 per cent. ad valorem would not miss the mark very far, except as to marcelines. By excluding the spurious stuffs, consumers would be protected from imposition, and our manufacturers would be relieved from that sort of competition and would be amply protected in competition with honest goods; while the revenues would be measurably protected from fraud, and our legitimate importers enabled to import and sell in a regular way.

As to silk, ribbons, trimmings, hosiery, lace, crapes, &c., mentioned above, I should also arrange a compound duty, starting with a specific basis high enough so that its ad valorem associate, while sufficiently high to serve as an equalizer, would not be so high as to offer a premium for undervaluation.

I inclose herewith, marked A, a communication from Mr. Hans Sarasin on the subject of specific duties on ribbons, and inclosing (marked B) a statement prepared by himself at my suggestions, showing the amount of duty per kilogram his firm has paid on certain description of their products consigned to this country. Mr. Sarasin is one of the most extensive and reputable ribbon manufacturers in Switzerland, and is, I am abundantly convinced, sick and tired of the consignment business, and anxious to see a return of fair and honest business methods with the United States.

The phrase, "component material of chief value" should, I think, be defined to mean that where an article is composed of more than two materials the one which shall exceed in value either of its associates shall be the component of chief value. In this connection I may add that it is a favorite practice of continental manufacturers to misrepresent the percentages of cotton and silk contained in mixed silk and cotton goods, almost invariably overstating largely (on their invoices) the percentage of cotton.

The provision for "spun silk for filling in skeins or cops" should also include spun silk for warp, which is, in fact, the same thing, and there is no reason for admitting the one at 35 per cent. and requiring the other to pay 60 per cent.

SCHEDULE L.—WOOL.

My attention to wool has been confined to class 3, and is comparatively limited even in that respect, but sufficient to justify me in saying that I am convinced that the tariff has been steadily evaded to greater or less extent.

During the past spring I made quite thorough inquiry at the principal wool centers in England and Scotland, as well as in the wool-growing districts of the latter country, and found no lots of what is known as Scotch white Highland (unwashed) but that were held at above six pence per pound. Nevertheless such wools were imported into this country about that time invoiced below six pence per pound, and have recently been so imported, although the market is understood to be as high as when my investigations were made, and my information has been obtained from the most reliable sources.

The means of evading the tariff are simple and easy. An American buyer may offer a dealer or commission merchant at Liverpool, Glasgow, or Marseilles $5\frac{7}{8}$ pence per pound, exclusive of all charges and commissions, and the transaction is ostensibly made on that basis, but in reality, if the wool be worth $6\frac{1}{2}$ pence, the charges and commissions will be swelled so that the seller will actually realize his $6\frac{1}{2}$ pence per pound, and the importer entering the wool at $5\frac{7}{8}$ pence will get it in at 3 cents per pound duty. I apprehend the instances are by no means infrequent where parties buying for this country will pick up unbaled wool in small lots inland, long distances from last port of shipment, at less price than six pence per pound, and, after incurring the expenses of so purchasing, delivery at inland shipping stations, handling, baling, and freight, and other charges to port of shipment, will invoice at the original net price paid, and treat all expenses incurred as charges incurred at last port of shipment, soothing their consciences the while with the reflection that the voyage of exportation really began at the place where the wool was clipped from the sheep, and was thenceforth continuous to the port of entry in the United States.

I have been astonished to find so large a proportion of wool invoiced at $5\frac{7}{8}$ pence per pound, and to observe such generous charges for baling, cartage, exchange, &c., and also to find brokerage and commissions charged as high as 5 per cent., when the usual rate was 2 per cent. If the present rates of duty on wool are adhered to, I think it would be advisable to define clearly what shall constitute the "last port or place from whence exported into the United States," as well as to limit and enumerate the charges. An invoice may be made out at an obscure inland place, and the wool really or ostensibly shipped thence, by any sort of vehicle, to a shipping port, and there put aboard ship for transportation to the United States, and neither the inland place nor the point from whence the vessel sails be such wool markets as would fairly indicate the price or value of the wool in the principal markets of the country of production. Yet the importer would contend that the voyage of exportation began at the inland place, and that was the "last port or place from whence exported into the United States," and the appraiser would have no definite means of knowing what the value of the wool was, either at the inland place or where it was loaded on the ship. Again wool may be invoiced, for example, at Leith or Glasgow and shipped thence to Liverpool, and there reshipped on another vessel direct to the United States, the bill of lading of the last shipment reciting that the freight rate was the through rate from the port or place whence originally shipped. Would such port or place, or would Liverpool be the "last port or place from whence exported into the United States"?

I am reliably informed that wool dealers in the different countries of the old world, who have bought wool at remote inland places in the wool-growing districts, and conveyed the same to the more important exporting points at the seaboard, will sell the same at such exporting

points, to American buyers, and either invoice the same there at or below the price paid or prevalent for the wool, unbaled, at the distant inland places, or will make invoices out as if the American buyer had actually purchased the wool at such inland places, fixing the invoice price, of course, at or below the prevalent price of the wool unbaled, notwithstanding such price may be 50 per cent. below that paid by the American buyer, and as much below the market value at the actual place of purchase and shipment to the United States.

I have recently received direct and positive information to the effect that wool grown in the Province of Georgia, Asiatic Russia, has within the last few months been sold in large lots at Marseilles, France, to American buyers at from 1.55 to 1.65 francs per kilogram, with the express condition that invoices covering the same should be furnished, made out, and certified at points—such as Tiflis or Poti—in the country of production, with the value fixed as low as, say, 1.36 francs per kilogram, so as to secure the admission of the wool into the United States at 3 cents per pound duty instead of 6 cents per pound, which latter rate it would have to pay if honestly invoiced.

The difference in the rate of duty between carpet-wool valued at 12 cents per pound or under and that valued at above 12 cents is too great, so great as to offer a premium upon undervaluation and to invite evasion. It also appears unequal. Assume that the bulk of the more ordinary foreign carpet-wools are worth, upon average, 9 cents per pound, while the average value of better qualities would not exceed 14 cents per pound, and there is manifest inequality in the one paying duty at 6 cents per pound, while the other pays only 3. The case becomes stronger when that valued at 12 cents pays 3 cents duty, and that valued at 12½ or 13 cents pays 6 cents. The lower rate even appears generous for raw material.

It seems to me that the only safe and reliable basis from which to determine the value of wool would be the home value, or the market value, in the principal markets of the country from whence purchased and shipped direct to the United States.

There appears to be great need for the simplification of the existing wool tariff, in many respects. I apprehend that there are very few of our appraising officers but that will readily admit their inability to apply it with anything like accuracy.

SCHEDULE M.—SUNDRIES.

Paragraph No. 1210 (Heyl), provides duty at 25 per cent. ad valorem on all unbound books, periodicals, pamphlets, and printed matter, while the same are admitted free when brought into the country through the mails. Thus we have the anomaly of two of the executive departments of the government engaged in competition in the same line of business; the one defeating the purpose of the other; the one engaged in free trade, the other collecting duties! There appears to be no limit upon the quantity that may be brought in through the mails. For example, an extensive Boston publishing house brings in regularly through the mails, duty free, 150 copies each of the London Quarterly and Edinburgh Reviews, worth 4s. 7d. per copy in London, while a New York news dealer importing regularly pays 25 per cent. duty on the same or much smaller periodicals. Such legislation as is necessary should be had to correct this.

I am convinced that the provision (1510 Heyl) placing "books, which shall have been printed and manufactured more than twenty years,"

on the free list has been taken advantage of quite largely by bringing in late reprints of old works, so manipulated as to have the appearance of "well-preserved old age."

CHICORY-ROOT.—The phraseology used in the provisions (1232 and 1233 Heyl) appears to have been unfortunate, since, according to a decision of the Supreme Court, the article in all of its forms is admitted at a duty of 1 cent per pound. This is manifestly contrary to the intention of the framers of these provisions. I apprehend it was intended to have the raw root, no further advanced in manufacture than cleansed and dried, pay duty at 1 cent per pound, and that ground and prepared for use pay 5 cents per pound. As I understand it chicory-root requires to be burnt before it can be ground. It may, however, be burned and ground coarsely, and yet have to be "prepared" before it is fit for such use as is generally made of it. I think duty should be levied on the article according to the following classifications, viz:

Chicory-root, raw or cleansed and dried, say 1 cent per pound.

Chicory-root, burned and crushed, say 3 cents per pound.

Chicory-root, ground and prepared, say 5 cents per pound.

EMBROIDERY.—Referring to No. 932 and 1264 Heyl, I would respectfully invite attention to a report of mine, under date May 29 last, from St. Gall, Switzerland, in which I endeavored to give quite a full insight into the manner and cost of production as well as market values of the articles and classes of articles popularly known as "Swiss embroideries" or "Hamburg edgings," and which comprehend a great variety of articles which I think may be included under the general head of "embroideries." That report shows that the duty on such merchandise has been largely evaded by direct undervaluation and other devices and methods usually employed under the consignment system. I-extract the following from that report:

Although I am satisfied that if the suggestions and recommendations herein presented are carried out, very much can be done toward reforming abuses and preventing undervaluation, it is manifestly impossible to prevent frauds in the importation of embroideries, so long as they are subject to ad valorem duty. To my mind the simple and easy remedy is to be found in a specific duty, based upon weight. And in this view I am joined by Consul Beauchamp and cordially sustained by the most eminent and reputable manufacturers and dealers here.

As a measure of protection, those most interested in the industry here secured the adoption of a specific duty of 7.50 francs per 100 weight on such goods imported into Switzerland; and the French, after having tried the ad valorem system for years, in the revision of their general tariff lately provided for levying duty at 8 francs per kilogram on such merchandise; and in their commercial treaty with Switzerland, concluded a few months since, arranged for 4.50 francs per kilogram. I am reliably informed that at the rate provided in their general tariff they calculated that they would derive equal to 25 per cent. ad valorem from this source. I am told by a gentleman thoroughly conversant with the subject, and who was a commissioner for Switzerland at Paris, pending the treaty negotiations between the two governments, that after a test of five years in the French custom-houses, it was ascertained that the Swiss embroideries imported into France averaged in value 30.75 francs per kilogram.

The foundations of the embroideries made here for France average lighter than those for the American market, being largely of light nainsook and of the lighter muslins and cambrics, while for America they are most largely of the heavier cambrics and muslins, which are also of lower value according to weight. The embroideries for France are largely open-work—holes, wheels, &c.—requiring finer yarn. Those for America are quite largely "blattitech"—solid or leaf-work—which is coarsest, requiring more thread and heavier thread; hence it would seem that our value per kilogram would be less than the French. It is estimated by houses here, who have been in the American trade for a great many years, that the average value per kilogram of the coarsest goods sent there would be near 20 francs per kilogram, and of the lower class of narrow edgings and insertings the average would be about 15 francs per kilogram. Take the average of value at 30 francs per kilogram would equal, say, 13.75 francs or \$2.75 per pound. I should think a careful test for a period

of six months at the ports of New York and Philadelphia would afford a safe basis for determining the existing and probable relations of weight and value.

Considering the undervaluation and other methods resorted to for the evasion of duty, and estimating the proportion of "job lots," and also taking into account the saving that would be made in the cost of determining and collecting the duty, I am abundantly satisfied that the government would secure as much revenue from this source on a specific basis, yielding 25 per cent., as it is now securing, while our people would get the finer and better, and, in an economical sense, cheaper goods at reduced cost.

FEATHER-BEDS (1272 Heyl).—I am unable to harmonize this provision with the provision (1493 Heyl) making "bed feathers and downs" free.

GLOVES, KID OR OTHER LEATHER (1287 Heyl).—My inquiries prove that these goods have been, as a rule, more or less undervalued, and in instances largely so. There is such great difference in the kinds, qualities, and values of the skins used, such great skill and ingenuity employed in tanning and dressing such skins, and in making up and finishing the gloves, as to render it exceedingly difficult, if not practically impossible, to determine with any degree of certainty the true quality and value of the larger proportion of these goods imported into this country. For example, cases have come to my attention where good quality kid gloves, worth 42 francs per dozen pairs, have been invoiced to the United States as lamb-skin at 22 francs, and have been passed accordingly. Notwithstanding the protracted controversies which have taken place as to these goods at the principal ports, especially at New York, and the great care and pains which I am convinced is taken in the examination and appraisal of the same at the latter port, the records of the appraiser's office there will show, I doubt not, that advances are being almost constantly made there upon invoice values to make market values, and that in many cases such advances reach 20 per cent., 30 per cent. and above. These, like most all other goods subject to high ad valorem duties, are mainly consigned for sale on manufacturers' account, and in consequence the market value thereof is established in the United States rather than in the country of production. To my mind it is utterly impracticable to collect duties fairly and equally on these goods under the ad valorem system purely, unless the rate be reduced more than one-half.

If I am correctly advised, a large portion of the lower grades and cheaper qualities of both kid and other leather gloves imported, are of very little real value, and our people of all classes, would be better off without them. In that view I believe it would be advisable and practicable to apply the principle of specific duties to all kid and other leather gloves. For example, begin with a duty of say \$3.50 per dozen pairs on all gloves of two-button length, as now usually made, and add 40 cents per dozen pairs for each additional length usual for one button. A compound duty of say \$2.50 per dozen pairs, and in addition 20 per cent. ad valorem would be preferable to the present rate, in my opinion.

GLYCERINE (1280 Heyl).—As shown by my reports, made at different dates while in Europe, this article has for a long time past been undervalued to the United States, particularly from the Continent. Its rapid advance in value, owing to its increased use in the arts and reduced demand for stearine, has rendered it difficult for appraising officers to keep informed as to its true market value. In the course of inquiries made in France during the fall of 1881, I found very large quantities of the grade or quality known there as "Blonde, 30° Baume," for dynamite, invoiced to the United States at prices ranging

variously from about 80 francs to 110 francs per 100 kilos, while the actual and true market value of the article there at that time was about 280 francs per 100 kilos.

The article is bought and sold by weight, and should be made subject to specific duty, a fixed rate per pound; say 6 cents per pound for all grades.

LEATHER AND SKINS (1319, 1320 and 1321 Heyl).—My reports will show that I devoted considerable attention to the subject of leathers in England, France, Switzerland and Germany, my inquiries being mainly devoted to ascertaining the market value of the different makes and kinds of tanned and dressed calf, matt, and glazed kid, and chamois skins, some of which appeared to have been undervalued more or less. I am of the opinion that it is advisable to subject each of these classes of leathers to specific duty, a fixed rate per pound for each class.

MEDICINAL PREPARATIONS (1332 Heyl).—The suggestion is respectfully made, that all preparations or compositions recognized in the pharmacopœias of the United States and of other nations, as medicinal preparations, should be subject to the same rate of duty, unless otherwise specially provided for.

OILS, ESSENTIAL OR ESSENCE (1345 Heyl).—The rate of duty provided for oil of bay leaves, is so high as to have prevented its importation almost wholly, if not entirely, and has led to its being smuggled quite extensively. I suggest that the duty be reduced to \$4 per pound.

PAINTINGS AND STATUARY (1349 Heyl).—There is, perhaps, no provision of the tariff that has provoked more discussion and led to a greater amount of controversy, or that has been construed more widely and interpreted more variously than this one, so far as it relates to "statuary." I have found customs officers of experience and intelligence, who contended that anything in the form or similitude of a statue, no matter how rude in form or finish, or whether an original or copy, was entitled to admission at 10 per cent., provided it was made by a person whose business it was to carve or sculpt, or who claimed the profession of a statuary or sculptor; while others have stoutly claimed that the provision had reference only to originals or perfect copies of originals of a high order of artistic merit wrought in such substances as marble or bronze, by the hand of a person accepted by the profession and recognized by art connoisseurs as a statuary or a sculptor, and that it was not sufficient that the piece be the work of a professional statuary or sculptor, but that it should be the professional production of such statuary or sculptor only, and worthy of his name and fame. Such conflict of views could not result otherwise than in the greatest confusion and inharmony in the classification of figures and images of all kinds, classes, sizes, and materials at the different ports, and in giving the department and all concerned no end of trouble and annoyance. In November, 1879, I reported to the department that I had found that a class of merchandise called "church statuary," comprising figures of religious subjects, single, in groups, bas-relief, and alto-relievo, cast in moulds, painted and decorated, and of low price and order of merit, was being entered and passed at the port of New York in large quantities, at 10 per cent. ad valorem, under the provision in question, while at the same time merchandise of the same kind, made in the same way, of similar material, value, and order of merit, and intended for the same uses, was being classified as a "manufacture of mineral substance," at 40 per cent. ad valorem. In the one case the United States consul at the place of production attached to the invoices his printed certificate to the effect that the head of the firm which manufactured the articles,

was a professional statuary or sculptor, and that the same were made under his professional direction; in the other case there was no such ridiculous certificate attached to the invoices. While in Europe recently, I made some inquiry in relation to this so-called "statuary," and find the same to be the merest sort of mechanical productions, cast in moulds by ordinary workmen, and smoothed down, touched up, painted, and decorated by mere mechanics. If my memory is not at fault the market price, in wholesale quantities, of "statues" of our Savior, from certain specified models, life-size, painted and decorated in the "highest style of art," and ornamented with a brass nimbus, was about equal to \$63.75, less 10 per cent. Yet these things are known as "statuary," are so styled commercially. In point of real artistic merit they would rank, perhaps, with our average Indian tobacco signs, costing, perhaps, somewhat less, according to size.

In addition to this class of articles there is a vast field of "statuary," in the form of statues, statuettes, &c., of various sizes, designs, &c., composed of marble, stone, gypsum, terra cotta, bronze, &c., intended for use as household or lawn ornaments, or to adorn the graves of the dead, which also claim recognition as "statuary" under the provision in question. Many of these are copies or reproductions of subjects designed and wrought by famous professional "statuaries or sculptors," and possess more or less merit, being of a much higher order than the molded goods before mentioned, but are not themselves, properly speaking, the "professional productions of a statuary or of a sculptor only."

I have the impression that the framers of this provision had in view the encouragement of importations of a high order of statuary. The works of celebrated and recognized artists, including statues of our great heroes and statesmen, which would afford subjects of study for our own artists and amateurs, and elevate and stimulate the tastes and aspirations of our people; hence the low rate of duty.

It is unjust to our mechanics and artisans to admit the lower order of articles into the country at a low rate of duty, and it is discouraging to artists to have such things ranked with objects of true art. It is respectfully suggested that care should be taken in the revision of the tariff to draw the lines of distinction so clearly between the classes as to close the doors to doubt and speculation.

PAINTS AND DYES—ANILINE DYES AND COLORS (1350 Heyl).—Like the preceding provision, concerning "statuary," this one has provoked much discussion and controversy; has been variously construed by customs officers; has resulted in lawsuits, and has caused the department a vast amount of trouble and vexation. The tariff act of June 30, 1864, provided that "aniline dyes" should pay duty at one dollar per pound and thirty-five per centum ad valorem. At the period of the passage of this act the industry devoted to the production of these dyes was in its infancy and had scarcely developed beyond an experimental state. The products were then derived exclusively, I believe, from a single hydrocarbon resulting from the distillation of coal-tar, then exceedingly expensive, and which was called aniline—a mere arbitrary and accidental name, which owes its origin to the circumstance that its coloring principle was, I believe, first discovered by a Portuguese chemist, through the destructive distillation of indigo, which is known as "anil" in the language of Portugal. At that time (1864) these so-called aniline dyes were enormously expensive, had not entered into general use in the arts of dyeing and printing, and it was not thought that the high rate of duty would burthen our textile industries or be at all generally

felt. It was also, probably, the intention to encourage and foster the production of these dyes in this country. It should also be borne in mind that we were then in the midst of the war period, and were legislating to increase our revenues. Dyes that were then worth in Europe say \$30 per pound are now scarcely worth \$3. So that at that time the specific rate of \$1 per pound was a comparatively trifling matter.

The act of July 14, 1870, fixed the duty on "aniline dyes and colors, by whatever name known," at 50 cents per pound and 35 per cent. ad valorem. Although great progress in the industry had been made by this time, and the cost and price of the dyes had been much reduced, they were still of high price, were being produced from the same source, and had not come into general use. Efforts had also begun to be made to build up the industry in this country, and the protective idea was in consequence perpetuated in the new act.

Within the twelve years past far greater progress has been made in this industry in Europe than in all previous time. In addition to reducing the cost of production and selling price of the original aniline dyes proper to a fabulous extent, and thereby vastly extending their use, a vast field of new and useful dyes have been produced from naphthaline and other coal-tar derivatives, which, coming from a cheaper source than aniline, have been produced at still diminished cost, and have come into quite general use as substitutes for many of the old vegetable and other organic dyes, including cochineal, logwood, and indigo, while madder has been almost entirely supplanted by a dye called alizerine, produced from anthracine; this latter dye having been originally classified as a manufactured article not otherwise provided for at 20 per cent. ad valorem, the other newly-discovered dyes, produced from other coal-tar derivatives than aniline, were entered and largely passed under the same classification as alizerine, which also led to entering many colors mainly produced from aniline at the same rate of duty, while others again were entered and passed as paints, &c. The Department's attention having been brought quite fully to the subject, it was held in numerous decisions that dyes or colors produced from derivatives of coal-tar other than aniline were subject to duty as "aniline dyes and colors," in accordance with the provisions of section 2499 Revised Statutes, from which decisions and assessment of duties numerous appeals have been taken, and some suits brought for the recovery of duties in excess of 20 per cent.

Alizerine, so-called, was taken out of the controversy by the act of February 8, 1875, by being placed on the "free list" with "madder and munfeet," which it had largely superseded. All these coal-tar dyes are familiarly—commercially—known as aniline dyes, or aniline colors, and I can see no reason for putting alizerine on the free list that would not apply both to its older and younger associates, a number of which pay duty in excess of their actual cost in the country of production. I think no candid man who understands the subject will contend for a moment but that all these dyes, "by whatever name known," coming from any of the series of coal-tar hydrocarbons, should be subject to the same rate of duty so long as they remain dutiable; they all come from the same parent source, take the same place substantially in the arts, and are used for the same purposes; those being for coloring silks, woollens, cottons, jute, flax, leather, and other substances, as well as for the manufacture of different colored writing and printing inks, artists and painters' colors, &c., in which manufactures they are in the nature of raw materials. It requires expert knowledge of the very highest order, aided by most exhaustive chemical analysis, to de-

termine whether one of these dye-stuffs, as imported, comes from aniline, naphthaline, or some other coal-tar product; so that they should all be included under one and the same head in the tariff. I incline to think a provision in substance as follows would meet the case, viz: "All paints, dyes, and colors produced in whole or in part from coal-tar or its derivatives." This, it will be seen, would include some articles, notably alizerine and picric acid, now on the free list, and hence would admit of a large reduction in the rate of duty without decreasing the aggregate amount of duty derived from dye-stuffs. And since all these dye-stuffs enter into the same uses as the large number of organic dyes and coloring matters now on the free list there is apparently no good reason why the latter should not as well as the former pay duty.

The experience of the last eighteen years has, I regret to say, shown that a high protective duty has not resulted in the building up of anything worthy of the name of an aniline color industry in this country, notwithstanding it is understood that there is an abundance of the raw materials here, and aniline oil and arseniate of aniline have been admitted free of duty. There are, to be sure, a few small concerns making certain classes of colors, but these employ so few people and produce such limited quantities of dyes as hardly to amount to an industry worth protecting at the expense, at least, of burthening and crippling the vast industries devoted to the manufacture of textile fabrics, as well as to putting a tax upon the consumers of such fabrics.

Having, after much inquiry and experience, ascertained beyond question that aniline dyes imported into the country have been largely undervalued, and that it is practically impossible to prevent such undervaluation so long as they are subject to an ad valorem duty high enough to present any inducement of consequence for undervaluing, I am convinced that it would be advisable to retain the specific feature with an ad valorem rate sufficient only to serve as an equalizer, and not to exceed 15 per cent. I have thought that 25 cents per pound and 15 per cent. ad valorem would be as high rate as could be asked for purposes of protection. This would amount to near 40 per cent. on a very liberal proportion of the dyes most used, and to about 60 per cent. upon some of them.

I was informed while in Europe that the use of arsenic in the manufacture of all coal-tar dyes had been prohibited by the German Government, and perhaps by others, not only on account of the danger to the life and health of those engaged in their production, but also to those who wear garments and live in rooms where the carpets, curtains, and papered walls have been dyed or printed with such arsenic colors.

I mention the following articles now on the "free list," or which have been classed either as free or at rates of duty other than as aniline dyes and colors, which are understood to be derived from coal-tar, and are used as dyes or colors, viz: alizarine, aurine (held to be rosolic acid, *n. o. p.* at 20 per cent.) picric, and nitro-picric, acid.

IRON ORES (see 1334 Heyl).—In quite an exhaustive report to the department, bearing date at London, October 28, 1881, I reported the result of extended inquiries I had made in relation to the peculiarities, qualities, market values, &c., of the iron ores of the United Kingdom, Spain, Italy, and Africa, which are largely imported into the United States. I found that much the greater part of these ores from the Continent came from mines which were either owned or leased by capitalists or companies who did not sell the ore at the mines or delivered free on board at port of shipment, but shipped the same on contracts or speculation to the various countries; hence there was no established

or prevailing market values at the place of production and shipment; so that the same was invoiced to the United States according to the conscience and judgment of the shippers, somewhat regardless of the price realized for it, or its true value at the time and place of exportation, and from the best information obtainable much of it had been underinvoiced, particularly those of the better qualities, and especially the richer manganiferous ores. None of these ores (except those from the Nervian River in Spain, called Bilbao ore) being quoted or quotable in the markets, and the actual value being to a considerable extent dependent upon the cost of freight at time of shipment, and of the condition of the market at date of arrival in this country, it can well be seen that it is extremely difficult for our appraising officers to arrive at all closely at the dutiable value from time to time.

Taking the value of the different ores, both English and continental, so far as I could arrive at the same at that time, and the prevailing freight rates, and it appeared that the cost of ocean freight from the port of shipment to this country exceeded by far in instances the value of the ore at the mines, and ranged approximately from 25 to 150 per cent. of the value of the ore. As this cost in itself appears to afford a generous protection to our domestic ores, and the article being raw material in the manufacture of Bessemer steel and pig-iron, it has occurred to me that true economy would dictate that it be admitted free of duty. I refer of course to the ores I have mentioned as coming from beyond the seas and not to those from foreign territory adjoining or contiguous to the United States.

I would respectfully suggest that all iron ores, which in the revision of the tariff shall be subjected to payment of duty, be placed at a uniform, specific duty, of, say 50 cents per ton.

POTASH (1395 Heyl).—I have had occasion to invite the attention of the department to an article manufactured at St. Helens, England, known as caustic or hydrate potash, which is being imported quite largely into this country, and is replacing caustic soda in the manufacture of soaps. I understand it to be made under a patent, and its production controlled by the Greenbank Alkali Works Company, of St. Helens, England, by whom it is consigned to agents in this country for sale on commission, and was found and reported by me not long since to be considerably under invoiced. Being a new article not specially provided for in the tariff, it has been assessed for duty at 20 per cent. ad valorem. As it is used for some of the same purposes as caustic soda, is put up in the same manner, and closely resembles the same in appearance, although its market value is very much higher, I suggest that it should pay the same rate of duty, viz, one and one-half cents per pound.

It is suggested that this provision (1395) and all other provisions of the existing tariff, including Nos. 1408, 1409, and 1422, Heyl, relating to alkalis (as well as those in relation to the various salts) be carefully examined and considered both by scientific and practical experts. A number of new preparations have been introduced and the form of those mentioned materially changed, and the uses of many extended; since these provisions were enacted, a number of which have, under department rulings, been variously classified for duty either under the assimilation clause (Sec. 2499, R. S.), or the provision for non-enumerated articles (Sec. 2516, R. S.).

As will appear from reports I have made to the department, I have found large quantities of alkalis in powdered form invoiced and entered—and, in instances, passed—as soda-ash which contained as much

as 50 per cent. caustic soda; also, very pure and high carbonated sodas invoiced and passed as soda-ash. The law should define what is meant, for example, by "soda-ash," and by "all carbonates of by whatever name designated."

STEREOTYPE PLATES (1427 Heyl).—In the course of inquiries made while abroad, I ascertained that it was quite a common practice for American publishers to negotiate with foreign authors and publishers for the use of stereotype plates of popular works, either at a fixed price or lump sum, or upon royalty, dependent upon the number of copies of the work sold. In such case they would usually have the plates stereotyped by a founder who would invoice them to the United States at his price for casting, and they would be so entered and pay duty accordingly, whereas the amount paid for the privilege of having them cast would amount to more than the invoice price of the plates, and unquestionably formed a part of their dutiable value.

The same practice I found prevailed in regard to electrotypes of cuts and engravings of subjects of current interest, which are designed and engraved for the popular illustrated periodicals, the American publisher paying a fixed sum to the foreign publisher for the privilege of having such plates as he desired to use, for a given period, or for such plates, in which case the plates would be invoiced at their bare cost—the other and more important consideration not appearing. It appears to me there should be specific provision made to meet such cases.

TANNIN (1434 Heyl).—This article appears to be also provided for under the title "acids" (1182 Heyl), at the rate of \$1 per pound.

VARNISH (1446 Heyl).—The term "varnish" has been construed to apply to such a variety of preparations, composed of different materials, possessing different attributes and used for different purposes, as to make it necessary that its meaning should be more clearly defined by law.

Distilled spirits withdrawn from bond in this country, without payment of internal-revenue tax, have been exported to Canada, and there entered in bond, whence, after having added to each gallon from one to two or more pounds of gum shellac, they have been shipped into this country, perhaps in the original packages, invoiced and entered and passed as "varnish" although the invoice value was only about \$1 per gallon, while the value of distilled spirits in the regular market here was some \$2.25 per gallon, the invoice price of the so-called varnish being based upon the value or cost of the distilled spirits *in bond* in Canada, and including the value of the gum shellac added. As this shellac displaced but a small percentage of the spirits, and could be eliminated by a simple and inexpensive process, with but slight injury either to the shellac or spirits, it can readily be seen that both the customs duty on imported distilled spirits and the internal-revenue tax on domestic could by this means be successfully avoided. After much controversy the department finally ruled that the article was covered by Sec. 1 of the act of July 28th, 1868, which provides that "on all compounds or preparations of which distilled spirits is a component part of chief value, there shall be levied a duty not less than that imposed upon distilled spirits." The case having gone to the courts, however, it was, as I am informed, held by the court that the specific provision for "varnish" took precedence over this general provision, and as the article was understood to be a varnish, it was subject to duty according to such specific provision. And, as I understand it, the matter so stands to-day. A case like this might perhaps be met by adding to the provision for varnish a proviso to the effect that no varnish of which

distilled spirits shall be a liquid component of chief value shall be admitted at a less duty than that imposed upon distilled spirits.

THE FREE LIST.

ACIDS (1454 Heyl).—As to picric and nitro-picric, see reference to "aniline dyes and colors." I am of the opinion that the closing sentence of this provision should be modified so as to include such acids not otherwise provided for as are in condition and intended only to be used for chemical and manufacturing purposes.

ANIMALS (1473 Heyl).—The question has at different times been presented to me whether that portion of this provision in relation to animals specially imported for breeding purposes should include animals imported from foreign countries adjoining and contiguous to the United States, and which were not imported from beyond the high seas.

BERRIES, NUTS, &C. (1497 Heyl).—I suggest the restoration of the old proviso to the effect that no article shall be classed as such that has undergone any manufacture.

COLCOTHAR, &C. (1554 Heyl).—Under this provision a paint provided for is admitted free of duty when invoiced as "colcothar or oxide of iron." I suggest the repeal of this provision.

COCHINEAL (1549 Heyl).—This article, together with the following other articles under this title (free list), imported for use as dye stuffs, may be understood as included in my observations concerning organic dyes and coloring matters, on page 72 of this report, viz: Catechu, or cutch (1535), eudbear (1568), garancine (1600), indigo (1630), lac dye (1647), madder and numject, etc. (1661), orchil or archil (1691), persis, or extract of archil and eudbear (1703), saffron and safflower, &c. (1733), and turmeric (1784).

MINERAL WATERS, ALL, NOT ARTIFICIAL (1672 Heyl).—I would respectfully refer to my reports (printed) of dates August 30, 1881, and September, 1882.

REGALIA AND GEMS, &C. (1726 Heyl).—It has come under my observation, and I have so reported to the department, that chandeliers, candelabra, monstrances, and many other articles of church fixtures, furniture, and ornaments have been imported and admitted free of duty under this provision, being classed as "regalia," or "church regalia." Molded images, composed of plaster of Paris, and other plastic substances, consisting of single figures, groups, and in various forms of relief, the products of the workshop rather than the studio, and in no sense calculated to encourage the fine arts, have also been admitted free of duty under this provision, generally for the use of churches and denominational schools. Articles of dress, in large quantities, such as robes, vestments, and the like, worn by clergymen during religious exercises, as well as hats and other uniform gear to be worn by students, as also banners, canopies, etc., have also been admitted free as "church regalia," although in many cases they were really the property of the individual, and not in proper sense of the church or other institution. In many cases large quantities of all these things have in reality been imported by merchants engaged in their sale, and have been allowed free admission on false and fraudulent affidavits or certificates to the effect that they were specially imported for the use of certain churches, schools, &c. These abuses suggest either a repeal of the provision outright, or that the articles exempted shall be more clearly defined by law. I know of no good reason for the free admission of ar-

ticles of furniture and ornaments, such as candelara, monstrances, chandeliers, etc., that would not apply as well to chairs, carpets, or other needed articles. I can scarcely regard the class of figures, images, &c., I have mentioned as comprehended in the literature of art, as "statues and specimens of sculpture," but rather as manufactured articles the productions of artisans, mechanics, laborers. I do not see why the robes and vestments worn by clergymen, or articles of uniform or regalia worn by students, should be exempt from duty any more than their usual wearing apparel. All such special exemptions are liable to abuse and entail vast labor upon customs officers, and much annoyance to the department.

WORKS OF ART, PAINTINGS, STATUARY, &c. (1708, 1799, and 1800 Heyl).—If these provisions are perpetuated in the revised tariff I think that so far as they have reference to paintings, statuary, and other works of art, they should be restricted to productions of high artistic merit, calculated to afford encouragement to the fine arts, to stimulate art culture, and minister to the aesthetic taste; subjects conceived in the brain and wrought by the hand of true and professional artists; and should not include the productions of the "foundry and the workshop," nor the rude and inartistic efforts of unskillful amateurs or inferior professionals, even though they claim rank as "American artists residing abroad." I think it a duty to encourage and to protect the American artists and American mechanics residing at home.

ARTICLES IMPORTED BY INDIANS (sec. 2515 R. S., 1815 Heyl).—This provision, which comes to us from the act of March 2, 1799, has, I think, served "its day and generation," and of late years has been taken advantage of to secure the free admission of merchandise not contemplated in the act, nor belonging to real Indians. As the result of investigations I had made, I reported to the department, in September, 1880, that large quantities of articles, such as are known as "Indian curiosities," were being brought into the country from Canada at different points along the frontier. These articles constitute the stock in trade of numberless booths and shops at Niagara Falls and other places of resort along and adjacent to the borders, and enter into commerce more or less throughout the country. They represent regular industries, carried on by "bleached" Indians, half-breeds, and other admixtures, dwelling beyond our borders in Canada, and are often imported in "Saratoga trunks," and in bales, baskets, and packages "unusual among Indians." I have been informed, also, that other dutiable merchandise is sometimes allowed to be brought into the country by Indians from the British possessions of the North in the interests of white men trading in that region.

I respectfully suggest that section 2499 Revised Statutes be so amended as that it will, in effect, provide as follows, viz:

There shall be levied, collected, and paid on each and every non-enumerated article which is a substantial equivalent, either in material, quality, texture, or the use to which it may be applied, of any article enumerated in this Title as chargeable with duty, the same rate of duty which is levied and charged on the enumerated article of which it is the substantial equivalent in any of the particulars before mentioned; and if any non-enumerated article is equally the substantial equivalent of two or more enumerated articles on which different rates of duty are chargeable, there shall be levied, collected, and paid on such non-enumerated article the same rate of duty as is chargeable on the article of which it is the substantial equivalent paying the highest rate of duty; and on all articles manufactured from two or more materials the duty shall be assessed at the highest rates at which any of its component parts may be chargeable.

In closing my observations concerning the tariff, I trust I may be pardoned if I remark that no one single interest should be protected at the

expense and to the detriment of other and greater interests, and that protection ceases to be protection when it is carried to the extent of pampering an industry into slothfulness and beyond the reach of the whip and spur of competition. As "necessity is the mother of invention," so is competition necessary to the development and enduring prosperity of any industry. I am an ardent believer in the theory of protection. Yet, having given some attention to some of the manufacturing industries of the Old World, I cannot overlook the fact that their perfection in system, economical organization, and the cheapness and excellence of their productions has resulted in no little degree from the development of our manufactures and our high rates of duty. We, as a people, are famous for ingenuity, and I doubt not that if put to their "mettle" our manufacturers would prove as skillful as any in the world. While fixing such rates of duty as shall appear necessary to fairly protect our various industries, we should provide such means *as will insure the exact and uniform collection of such duties.*

I am convinced that all laws making provision for *allowances for damage* to imported merchandise of any kind should be repealed. They operate to make the government an underwriter, taking risks without premium, and their tendency and effect is to invite abuses and frauds, to favor some importers to the detriment of others, to despoil the revenues, and to put the government to great expense and trouble. It may appear a hardship to collect full duties upon goods wholly or even partly damaged; yet if damage allowances were not made, importers would make their arrangements and calculations accordingly, and certainly in that case there could be no hardship. From no little attention to the subject I am well satisfied that in a large number of cases where damage allowances are claimed and allowed, the damage has not occurred on the voyage of importation; and in many instances the damage returned is in excess of that which the merchandise has suffered on the voyage or otherwise. It is too often the case that allowances are regulated by the influence and exertions of importers or their attorneys, the result being that importers are dealt with unequally, the more honest ones being placed at a disadvantage in the sale of their importations, having paid higher duties than their competitors.

Under the law and regulations the stereotyped phrase in bills of lading "received in good order and condition," or "shipped in good order and condition," is accepted as *prima facie* evidence of sound shipment, and as a general rule this is the only proof actually obtained or sought by the officers making appraisal and return of damage, their inquiries at times not even extending to whether the vessel encountered any mishap on the voyage from springing a leak, shifting cargo, or otherwise, the mere allegation "damaged from salt water" or "damaged from heat of hold" being generally accepted. Russia sheet-iron transported for long distances upon sledges, becoming wet and "chilled" from frosts and snows, is put aboard the exporting vessel in such condition, and the "heat of the hold" will of course produce more or less rust, especially along cut edges which are not annealed. Here the cause of damage existed before the voyage began, yet immense allowances have been made for such damage. Fruits inherently damaged and improperly cured or put up are shipped in large quantities, such damage perhaps not being clearly apparent at the time, but which developed on the voyage, and are commonly appraised as largely damaged on the voyage of importation. Glass and glassware, China, etc., which has undergone rough usage in handling before placed aboard the exporting vessel, is commonly, when broken, treated as damaged on the voyage.

Sardines which have been injured before being cured, and which have been packed in inferior oils, and which were, in a measure, rotten and worthless when put up, have been returned as damaged from "heat of hold," etc. Wines which are poor in alcohol, or green and unfermented when shipped may damage on the voyage, but the cause existed before shipment. Yet it will be appraised as damaged on the voyage of importation. And so it goes through a whole gamut of merchandise of various classes. I do not speak at random in this matter but from much observation and inquiry while abroad. The recitals in bills of lading such as "received in good order and condition" are really meaningless terms, for, in point of fact, the goods, especially when packed in cases, or other close coverings, are not examined prior to shipment, not to the extent, as a rule, even of determining what the goods are. In illustration of this I recall a circumstance where a large number of shipments, extending over two years, had been made upon different lines of steamers sailing from Liverpool to the United States, which goods were understood to be "hide cuttings," yet which I found, upon investigation to have been *silks* and *lastings*. No matter how honest or competent appraising officers may be they are placed at a disadvantage, not having the means to determine when or how the damage occurred, yet being required to accept the bill of lading recital as *prima facie* evidence of sound shipment.

Having reference to the action of certain foreign governments in interdicting and otherwise hindering the importation and sale within their dominions of certain products of this country, I would suggest the advisability of a statutory provision authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to retaliate upon any foreign nation that shall, without good cause, either by legislative enactment, or arbitrary measures of any kind, interdict, or hinder the importation and sale of any American product within its dominion, by forbidding the admission into this country of such products of that country as he may, for the time being, deem proper.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

GEORGE C. TICHENOR,
Special Agent.

To Hon. CHAS. J. FOLGER,
Secretary of the Treasury, Washington, D. C.

A. F. DAMON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. A. F. DAMON, representing the Pennsylvania Salt Manufacturing Company, of Philadelphia, submitted the following statement:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMISSION: The following argument is respectfully submitted as to the duties on various sodas and other chemicals:

The present position of the alkali or soda trade in the United States is a somewhat humiliating one from a national point of view, as three-fourths of the entire consumption of these articles is supplied from foreign sources—chiefly from England. The reason of this is, that although the raw materials necessary for the production of soda and other chemicals largely exist in the United States, or could easily be imported, the present duties are barely sufficient to compensate for the difference in price of labor and facilities for manufacture, in a comparison between this country and England.

On the one point of labor alone the English alkali manufacturers, owing to some over-production amongst themselves, have recently been able to reduce their labor to an average of not exceeding \$1 per day for skilled operatives, against an average of \$2 per day in this country, or a difference of 100 per cent. in labor alone between England and the United States.

The labor is a most important item in the cost of all forms of soda, as large masses of material have to be handled and dealt with, and yet the selling price is comparatively a low one. In illustration of this, about 200,000 tons of soda-ash, sal-soda, and caustic soda were imported into the United States during last year. The labor alone for the production of this quantity, even on the low basis of English labor, amounted to \$1,000,000. If it had been made in the United States this sum would have been entirely saved, and distributed amongst the operatives of this country. In addition to this labor, 1,000,000 tons of coal were used in England in the production of the above-named quantity of alkali, besides 400,000 tons of lime and limestone; all of which, for the purpose of its manufacture, might have been mined and produced in the United States.

The grinding down of wages in England, in order to cheapen production, is a most objectionable feature, and cannot commend itself to enlightened citizens of the United States. In England the wages paid to the operatives in the alkali trade is in many cases a mere pittance, often barely sufficient for existence, many laborers only receiving the small sum of 70 cents per diem. In this country the aim of the soda manufacturers has been to pay fair wages, not only sufficient for mere existence in providing food and clothing, but also to allow of the education and bringing up of the children of their operatives in a proper manner, thus making them better and more enlightened citizens of the republic.

Notwithstanding the difficulties the soda manufacturers of this country labor under (who together produce about 80,000 tons of various forms of soda), competition between themselves has nevertheless considerably reduced prices. This will be shown by the following table of the pres-

ent prices of the various articles enumerated below, as compared with the prices before the imposition of the present duties.

	Present prices.	Prices before imposition of present duties.
	Per lb.	Per lb.
Alum	\$0 02	\$0 03½
Bi-carb. soda	02½	04½
Caustic soda	03½	07½
Sal-soda	01½	03

The amount of duties on sodas generally, since their original imposition, is considerably less than was paid at first, owing to the fact of the English manufacturers being quick to perceive that by concentration of certain articles the duties might be considerably reduced. In other cases, owing to uncertain definitions in the existing tariff, they have been almost completely evaded, and the Government of the United States thus defrauded of a considerable amount of revenue. The following are specific instances:

In the case of caustic soda, on the first passing of the tariff, the usual and only strength of this article as imported was 60 per cent. Since the imposition of duties, and at the present time, very little 60 per cent. caustic soda is imported. It is all brought up to 70 to 76 per cent. strength. As the duty is a specific one per pound on caustic soda, the practical effect of the increase in strength has been to reduce the duty by one-fourth on the higher grades, or 25 per cent. of its entire amount.

The most glaring case, however, has been in the importation of refined carbonate of soda, practically concentrated sal-soda, which is now so largely imported as soda ash. When the tariff was framed a duty of one-fourth cent per pound was imposed on "soda ash." At that time what undoubtedly was meant by this definition was an impure carbonate of soda, as manufactured by the "Leblanc process," and of about 50 degrees of strength. It contains many impurities (including iron), in the aggregate amounting to not less than 15 per cent. This article is totally dissimilar or unfit for use as sal-soda, which being a pure carbonate of soda (though combined with one and a half times its weight of water, and therefore only about 23½ degrees of strength), is on account of its purity fairly and properly classified at the same rate of duty as "soda ash," or impure carbonate of soda, although containing less than one-half the amount of actual soda. During the last four years enormous quantities of pure carbonate of soda, totally different from soda ash, and made by a new process, have been imported into this country as "soda ash" at a low rate of duty. This article is precisely the same as sal-soda, but without its water of crystallization. In other words, it is two and one-half pounds of sal-soda concentrated into one pound, and passed at the same rate of duty as actual sal-soda, thus defrauding the revenue of nearly ½ cent per pound on every pound of this article imported. So concentrated is this pure carbonate of soda that it contains within 2 per cent. as much soda as the lower grades of caustic soda; and yet as "soda ash" it passes into the United States at one-sixth part of the duty. It is respectfully requested that this glaring anomaly be adjusted by precisely defining "soda ash," so as to show what it actually is, thus:

Soda ash, an impure carbonate of soda, containing not less than 10

per cent. of impurity, present rate of duty one-quarter cent per pound.

Then to classify:

Carbonate of soda, free from iron, and containing less than 10 per cent. of impurity, 1 cent per pound.

In this way this pure carbonate of soda would be brought on a proper level with ordinary sal-soda, which is certainly in a highly concentrated form, and actually is used almost entirely as a substitute for sal-soda.

As to the other articles mentioned above, we would recommend that the present duties be continued, for the reason that they afford no more than a reasonable protection to compensate for the enormous difference in the price of labor between this country and abroad, as already clearly shown.

With reference to the subject of duty on the importation of foreign pyrites, as bearing on the production of cheap sulphuric acid in the United States, the following facts are respectfully submitted:

The present production of sulphuric acid in the United States is about 350,000 tons per annum, and the average value is about \$28 per ton. It is almost without exception produced from brimstone (or crude sulphur), imported duty free, with the exception perhaps of two makers of sulphuric acid, who produce their acid as a by-product in the smelting of rich cupreous pyrites imported from Canada. In England the annual production of sulphuric acid is about 1,400,000 tons per annum, and the average value about \$7 per ton, or one-fourth only of its value in the United States. Nineteen-twentieths of this enormous production of sulphuric acid is obtained in England from Spanish pyrites; which in quality, regularity, and cheapness has so far been quite without a rival. It is a well known fact that there are numerous deposits of pyrites in England and Ireland, yet they are found to be quite uneconomical and inferior to the Spanish pyrites. Before the introduction of Spanish pyrites, in addition to the English and Irish pyrites (the use of which has been entirely given up), Norwegian pyrites were largely used in England. These ores are equal in quality to the very best pyrites so far discovered in the United States. In 1874 78,000 tons were imported into England; in 1881 less than 5,000 tons were used. The low price of sulphuric acid in England is therefore entirely caused by the use of this fine quality of Spanish pyrites cheaply imported, and so far nothing has been found to equal this description of ore in the manufacture of sulphuric acid. Spanish pyrites contain an average of 49 per cent. of sulphur, 43 per cent. of iron, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of copper. In its natural state, as mined, it is absolutely unfit for any other purpose than the manufacture of sulphuric acid; that is to say, it is only a substitute for crude sulphur, and has positively no value either to the iron manufacturer or copper smelter. This will be perfectly manifest from an iron manufacturer's point of view. It is a fact that no iron ores containing as little as 43 per cent. of metallic iron are imported, or even used in this country, quite irrespective of the fact that the enormous amount of sulphur obviously renders this pyrites, in its natural state, quite unfit for the manufacture of iron. Even after the removal by the sulphuric-acid maker of the sulphur, the iron residue is still absolutely without value to the iron maker, on account of the percentage of sulphur and copper it still contains; and at the same time the small quantity of copper is without value to the copper smelter without further treatment. Neither of these substances are in a form, therefore, to be available for the iron manufacturer or copper smelter without a further complicated chemical process of separation, which, in

the United States, with expensive labor and reagents, is a process of very doubtful value from an economical point of view. We would respectfully ask, therefore, that, in order to place American manufacturers of sulphuric acid on the same footing as the English manufacturers of sulphuric acid, foreign pyrites should be admitted duty free, no duty being charged on the copper unless it is of sufficient percentage to be directly available to the copper smelter, which is certainly not the case when not exceeding $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of copper by usual smelter's assay.

It may be argued that at present no sulphuric acid is imported from England into the United States; which is undoubtedly correct, owing to the difficulty of its transportation. It has, however, been well stated by the celebrated German chemist, Baron Liebig, that the civilization and prosperity of a nation is to be estimated by its consumption and production of sulphuric acid. This valuable reagent enters into the composition or is used in the production of almost every textile and metallic article manufactured, besides being directly the base of the paper, glass, soap, and manure trade. Though, therefore, not itself directly imported, it has been employed to produce numerous articles which have been imported, many of which could have been made here with cheap sulphuric acid.

Two notable instances need only be given. As previously stated, in the year 1881, 200,000 tons of soda ash, caustic soda, and sal-soda, were imported into the United States. A very large proportion of this quantity, with cheap sulphuric acid and cheap salt, might undoubtedly have been produced in this country. Again, during the year 1881, about 80,000 tons of chemical manures—or super-phosphate of lime—were imported. This manure actually was made from crude phosphate rock, taken to England from South Carolina, treated there with cheap sulphuric acid made from Spanish pyrites, and returned to this country! With cheap sulphuric acid this would have been utterly impossible, and the whole of the large sum paid for carrying the phosphates to England in British vessels, bringing the manures back, and cost of sulphuric acid, might have been saved to the people of the United States.

In conclusion, certain vague statements have been made, quite unfounded on facts, as regards the reduction which would be effected in the cost of paper, soap, and glass by the removal of the duties on soda and chemicals. These statements require some correction by concise figures.

It is a fact that in the reduction of fiber for the production of the commonest kinds of paper (which require the largest amounts of soda ash and caustic soda), not exceeding ten pounds of caustic soda or fifteen pounds of soda ash to one hundred pounds of paper are required. In the former case, the total abolition of the duty would only make a difference of $\frac{1}{100}$ cent per pound. In the latter case, with soda ash—the article generally used by the large paper-makers—the total saving effected by removal of the duty would be $\frac{1}{100}$ cent per pound. Bleaching-powder, the principal chemical used, is now duty free, and the small quantity of alum employed to add weight to the pure paper stock need not come into the calculation. This figure has, without any statements of facts or figures, been erroneously given at one-half to one cent per pound, instead of an average of not exceeding one-tenth of a cent per pound on the commonest kinds of paper, even if the duty on chemicals was entirely removed. On the finer qualities of paper, made from rags, one-third of this amount only would be required.

In the same manner, the reduction on the cost of soap by the total abolition of the soda duties would average less than one-tenth of a cent

per pound on the soap produced—a small difference, that would hardly find its way into the pocket of the consumer.

The same facts may be stated as to the production of glass. The saving in cost per 100 feet of glass, if the duty on soda was totally removed, would come to so small a fraction as to be quite inappreciable.

The above statements are always supposing that the abolition or reduction of duties would leave the prices of the various sodas where they now are, on arrival at the port, or before paying duties. In actual fact, a very different state of things would doubtless be arrived at by the removal of the duties. The natural effect would be that the chemical manufacturers in this country would be upset, thus removing all competition. The English manufacturers would not be slow to take advantage of the increased demand which undoubtedly would then occur for foreign chemicals, owing to the total cessation of production in the United States. Prices would quickly rise to fully cover, if not exceed, the reduction in value by the removal of the present duties, and the whole of this increased cost would find its way into the pocket of the foreign manufacturer, instead of now being available for the reduction and ultimate extinction of the national debt.

J. F. LLEWELLYN.

PHILADELPHIA, *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. J. F. Llewellyn, of Mexico, Mo., in regard to the duty upon quinine, was ordered to be printed:

It may appear strange to you that the retail druggists all ask for free quinine, while the wholesale druggists all ask for duty upon quinine. The retail trade are satisfied that the duty does add to the price, and is almost entirely out of their pockets. I have only of late learned why the wholesale trade want the duty. I had supposed they made a fixed profit whatever the price, and could not see what difference it was to them what the price might be, but it appears from a letter of Mr. Geo. D. Rosengarten to the *Evening Post*, of New York, that the manufacturers make contracts with the wholesale trade when the price is down, guaranteeing against decline, so that the wholesale trade profit by any advance, and are insured against loss, giving them thus three to ten times the profit they can make if foreign competition is possible.

In 1878, prices fluctuated from \$3.25 to \$5.50, which doubtless was pleasing to all that had contracts for the year, but burdensome to those who paid.

In 1860, quinine was \$1.20 per oz., with a duty of 15 per cent. Now the makers have a cheaper process, using no alcohol, and richer bark. They get with free quinine from \$1.90 to \$3.60. Either they cannot supply the demand, or they can get the full market price. If the latter, they need no help; if the former, the people should not be shut out from other sources of supply. It is the height of absurdity for a firm like Powers & Weightman, whose wealth is millions, to be begging from the government.

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF BORDEAUX, FRANCE.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from the CHAMBER OF COMMERCE of BORDEAUX, FRANCE, transmitted through the French minister at Washington, in regard to the duty on French wines, was ordered to be printed:

GENTLEMEN: Having been informed of the existence of your Commission, we have thought it advisable that we should write you on the subject of the duties on French wines now existing in the United States.

Wine is one of the most important products which France sends to the United States. The more its introduction into your country is facilitated, the more, as a necessary consequence, the exchanges between the United States and France will grow in importance, for experience teaches us that the products of one country are paid for with the products of other countries, for the obvious reason that a country cannot pay for what it buys except with what it possesses.

The Bordeaux Chamber of Commerce has several times taken action in regard to this important question, and for the purpose of submitting to you our ideas on the subject, we cannot do better than to send to you, inclosed, copies of the letter which we wrote on the 10th March, 1878, to the President and Congress of the United States.

The facts which we have indicated in that letter have continued in an aggravated form, as you may judge by the tables annexed to this letter.

The duties on French wines in wood arriving in the United States are exorbitant, but they are about double upon wines in bottles.

In the interest of the interchange of products between our two countries, we think it would be extremely desirable that the duties should be largely reduced on wines in wood, and that the duties on wines in bottles should not be heavier than upon wines in wood, for the reasons set forth in our letter of the 10th March, 1878, as the sending of wines in bottles is only making use of a better system of packing.

We are convinced that the adoption of such measures would have the very best consequences to the mutual advantages of the United States and France, in greatly stimulating the trade between the two countries.

The following is the communication referred to in the foregoing letter:

BORDEAUX, *March 10, 1878.*

The Chamber of Commerce of Bordeaux to the President of the United States and to the Presidents and Members of the Senate and of the House of Representatives of the United States, Washington:

GENTLEMEN: In addressing ourselves to you directly, in order to treat the question which is to be the object of this letter, we are not unaware that we are taking a step which may seem unusual. Nevertheless, it has appeared to us that it was perhaps the best way of calling your immediate attention to certain facts and considerations, referring to a subject which, to a very high degree, concerns the trade and commerce of the United States with France. We therefore hope that you

will excuse us for having used this direct mode of submitting to you our views on that question.

In perusing the bill presented to the Congress of the United States for a new tariff of the custom-house duties, we have been deeply impressed by what concerns the French wines, especially at a time when, to a certain extent, the ideas of free trade and a public financial situation which has become very prosperous had induced us to hope that the United States would gradually lower their custom-house duties on the different articles of importation. It is assuredly unnecessary to recall to your mind how much that lowering of duties, when it is effected with skill and prudence, tends to produce happy results, and how frequently it has happened that such reductions have had the three-fold advantage of developing commerce, of giving satisfaction to the consumers, and, at the same time, of increasing the income of the public treasury, in consequence of the enormous increase of consumption. It seems to us that these sound economical views are those which, from the beginning, have guided the authors of the proposed new American tariff; for the bill is headed in the following manner: "A bill to impose duties upon foreign imports, to promote trade and commerce, to reduce taxation, and for other purposes."

Is it not quite evident that, in order to promote trade and commerce, it is necessary to reduce custom-house duties, and that, on the contrary, to increase them greatly is a sure means of reducing the importance of trade and commerce with other countries? We know indeed that in the proposed new tariff the duties on many articles are reduced and even suppressed in several cases. We have therefore been the more painfully impressed in seeing that in the proposed new tariff the duties on French wines were enormous and much higher than those which are in force at the present moment.

One hogshead of claret, which contains 60 gallons (wine gallons), pays now in the United States a fixed duty, whatever its value, of 40 cents per gallon—say \$24 per hogshead.

A case of one dozen quarts pays now a fixed duty of \$1.60 per case.

These duties are already very high, for, as regards the largest portion of the French wines imported into the United States, they are equivalent to 50 or 100 per cent. of their value. They are, as regards clarets in wood, double what is imposed in England, and three times as much as for the wines in bottle.

Under the influence of those duties, which, either in one shape or another, have for many years been exceedingly high in the United States, our wine trade with your great country has hardly increased within the last forty years. We annex to this letter a statement of the exports of wines from France to the United States from 1838 to 1876. We must acknowledge that quantities of some importance of French wines have been shipped within the last few years via England; but, however, taking this into account, we must remark that from the annexed statement, our exports to the United States in 1875 and 1876 have hardly been superior to what they were forty years ago, and yet within that period we believe that the population of the United States has increased twofold, and that the general wealth of the country has increased in a much more considerable ratio. Have we not reason to regret this stagnation of our wine trade with the United States?

We had entertained the hope that the new tariff of the United States would reduce the duty on our wines to figures much more moderate than those existing at the present day, and, for instance, as a maximum,

to the level of the duties which exist in England, where our wines pay \$12.50 per hogshead and 50 cents per dozen bottles.

Unfortunately, far from improving the already very unfavorable situation in which French wines are placed by the present tariff of the United States, the proposed new tariff aggravates it in two ways:

The new tariff revives the old system, so defective in our opinion, of the duties ad valorem, a principle of taxation which assuredly is very just in theory, but which in practice leads to many frauds and difficulties, especially with regard to such an article as wine.

It is indeed to be considered first that the working of the above system makes the wine trade almost an impossibility for respectable firms in their competition with those of a less scrupulous character, for the latter, by false declarations, find the means of reducing considerably for their benefit the custom duties which the former are obliged to pay. Certainly nobody has forgotten the numerous frauds to which this system gave rise some years back in the United States—frauds which reached such proportions and created so many difficulties that the United States, in order to put an end to them, were compelled to come back to the present system of a fixed specific duty.

Allow us to call your serious attention to the dangers which would unavoidably be the consequence of the application of the system of duties ad valorem for wines, the value of which it is so very difficult to determine, even for persons of the greatest experience.

With regard to the rates of the duties proposed, allow us respectfully but frankly to say that those duties appear to us absolutely exorbitant.

According to the proposed new tariff, our still wines will have to pay the following duties:

1st. Wines valued at not exceeding 40 cents per gallon, 25 cents per gallon; say, more than 60 per cent., which is equivalent for 1 hogshead of claret containing 60 gallons to a duty of \$15.

2d. Wines valued at over 40 cents per gallon, and not over \$1 per gallon, 60 cents per gallon, which, for the wines of this class, is equivalent to a duty of from 60 to 150 per cent.; say, for 1 hogshead, a duty of \$36.

3d. On wines valued at over \$1 per gallon, the duty will be \$1.50 per gallon; that is about 150 per cent., equal to \$90 for 1 hogshead of claret.

We recapitulate the above figures indicating that, according to the several classes, our wines would have to pay in the United States the following duties: \$15 per hogshead of a value of not more than \$24; \$36 per hogshead of a value of not more than \$60; \$90 per hogshead of a value of more than \$60; while in England, where the duties on our wines are still heavy, they are only \$12.50 per hogshead, or \$50 per tun of 4 hogsheads.

As to the wines in bottle, the duties stipulated in the proposed new tariff are almost prohibitive, for they are 100 per cent. Thus, a case of our most ordinary wines, costing 10 francs in Bordeaux, will have to pay a duty of 10 francs in the United States; a case of 25 francs, which still represents only a wine of an ordinary quality, will have to pay 25 francs; a case of 60 francs will have to pay a duty of 60 francs.

These duties are really exorbitant. In England the duty upon wines in bottle is uniformly, as we have already mentioned, 50 cents per dozen bottles, and is still considered as too high.

We are vainly endeavoring to understand the motives which might induce the United States legislature to adopt a tariff of duties so ex-

ceedingly high, which may almost be considered as prohibitive. These motives, which we are unable to understand, may perhaps be one of the following:

1st. A financial motive, having for its object to make the duty yield the greatest possible amount of revenue to the Treasury of the United States.

2d. A protectionist motive, and the wish to shut up more or less the United States from the importations of foreign wines, in order to favor the consumption of American wines.

3d. A motive of temperance, in order to diminish the consumption of fermented liquors.

Allow us to submit to you a few observations on these three motives:

1. *The financial point of view.*—Is it not self-evident that such very high duties will be financially injurious to the American Treasury?—for they will act to a certain extent as prohibitive, greatly diminish the consumption, and therefore will yield but very little. We feel quite certain that, in a financial point of view, the only means of making the wine duties yield a high revenue is to lower the rate of duty; for it is evident, as proved by experience, that it is the only means to place the consumption of wines within the reach of the middle classes, and even of the working classes, which are so much the most numerous. Allow us once more to state facts which have taken place in England. Previous to 1860 the duty on our wines was, in the United Kingdom, 5s. 6d. per gallon; this duty has been reduced to 1s.; that is to say, in about the proportion of 6 to 1; but the consumption has increased in the proportion of 1 to 10, so that, with reduced and moderate duties, the British Treasury receives an amount of duty about double what it was when the duty was five times higher.

The above facts seeming to us important, as the result of experience, we have the honor to send to you herewith a comparative statement of the consumption of French wines in the United Kingdom, showing the results which have been obtained under the influence of the high duties and under that of moderate duties. There can be no doubt that if the United States imposed upon our wines duties as moderate, and, what would still be better, more moderate than in England, the increase of consumption would be much more rapid in the United States than in England, because the natural taste for clarets is much greater in the United States than in England, where, before the reduction of the duties, clarets were consumed only by a very limited number of rich people.

2. *Motive.*—Must we suppose that it is a protectionist point of view that would induce the American legislature to impose upon French wines such exorbitant duties for the purpose of protecting American wines? If such is the case, we should have to submit to such an intention with regret, while deploring it, but fully understanding that we should have no right to discuss such intentions. Allow us only to observe that the United States have immense quantities of natural products and other goods which may find a sale in France; but, after all, the French people can only pay American products with French goods, and therefore to restrict the importation of the latter is certainly to restrict also the exportation of the former.

3. Must we look for the motives which would induce the American Congress to adopt such an enormous increase on the duties which French wines would have to pay in the United States to the ideas advocated by temperance societies? We are inclined to believe that the ideas and intentions of those societies, very praiseworthy in themselves,

completely fail to attain their object if the application of them is exaggerated. Assuredly the abuse of fermented liquors is a very bad thing in a hygienic point of view; but can the same thing be said of their moderate use? In France it has frequently been ascertained that the moderate use of wine has a tonical and very beneficial influence on the health of men who have to undergo the fatigue and exhaustion of a hard labor.

It has been moreover observed in the several departments of France that the vice of drunkenness exists almost exactly in an inverse proportion with the usual habit of the people to drink wine as their ordinary beverage. It is in the south of France, where wines are produced, that the consumption of them is the more usual, where cases of drunkenness are, relatively speaking, rare, while they are immeasurably more frequent in the north, which does not produce wines, and where they are consumed much less habitually than in the south.

Such are, gentlemen, the divers considerations which we have thought it our duty to submit to your attention on the important subject of the proposed new tariff as regards French wines. We do not hesitate to conclude that in our conviction the true and best solution of the question of the rate of duties to be imposed upon French wines in the United States would be:

1st. To establish specific and fixed duties only, and not to come back to the very dangerous system of the ad valorem duties on wines.

2d. To establish, as in England, uniform duties upon wines in hogshead and in bottle, which certainly would give a very great impetus to the trade of wine in bottle, much to the advantage of the consumers, who thus receive the wines in a more convenient form and of better quality.

3d. To fix the duties, as a maximum, at what they are now in England; that is to say, not more than \$12.50 per hogshead and 50 cents per case of 1 dozen quarts.

We are firmly convinced, and we may add morally certain, that such a reduction of duties, by increasing consumption to an enormous extent, would secure for the American Treasury the highest revenue which it can expect from the wine duties, and would be a powerful means of contributing to develop and increase the commercial intercourse between the United States and France.

We have the honor to be, gentlemen, your very obedient, humble servants,

ARMAND LALANDE, *President.*
HUBERT PROM, *Vice-President.*
BEYLARD.
MARC MAUREL.
SCHENGRUN-LOPÈS-DUBEC.
ALFRED DANÉY.
L. LAGROLET.
HENRI BRUNET.
ARMAND GAY.
A. BAOUR.
HENRI BALARESQUE.
WUSTENBERG.
F. CUZOL.
BEYLOT.
P.-A. LABRUNIE.

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE CONSUMPTION OF FRENCH WINES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

1. During the period when the duties were of 5s. 6d. per imperial gallon, and 5 per cent., or about 1,400 francs, per French tun.

Years.	Gallons.*	Tons.*
1839.....	878,030	1,893
1840.....	841,841	1,709
1841.....	353,740	1,708
1851.....	468,488	2,342
1852.....	503,898	2,610
1853.....	309,402	1,997
1858.....	571,993	2,830
1859.....	605,911	3,470

2. During the period when the duties have been reduced to 1s. per imperial gallon, or about 250 francs per tun.

1860.....	1,125,509	5,027
1861.....	2,229,028	11,145
1862.....	1,900,344	9,601
1863.....	1,930,555	9,697
1864.....	2,305,766	11,628
1865.....	2,011,771	13,058
1866.....	3,865,802	16,839
1867.....	3,595,508	17,977
1868.....	4,501,931	22,509
1871.....	4,407,008	22,335
1872.....	4,771,402	23,757
1873.....	5,714,030	28,570
1874.....	5,079,302	25,506
1875.....	5,289,935	26,450
1876.....	6,745,710	33,728

* The English "imperial" gallon is equivalent to 4 liters 54 centiliters, or about 200 gallons per French tun of 905 liters.

The above figures show that—

1st. During the twenty years from 1839 to 1859, under the influence of the old high duties, the consumption of French wines in England only increased by 1,700 tuns, or about 80 tuns per annum.

2d. From 1859 to 1876, in seventeen years, under the influence of the new and moderate duties, the consumption has increased by 30,000 tuns, equal to an increase of 1,800 tuns per annum—an annual ratio of increase twenty times greater than what it was under the influence of high duties.

Exports of French wines to the United States (Atlantic Ocean).

Years.	Wine in wood.		Wine in bottle.	
	From the Gironde.	From other parts of France.	From the Gironde.	From other parts of France.
	<i>Hectoliters.</i>	<i>Hectoliters.</i>	<i>Hectoliters.</i>	<i>Hectoliters.</i>
1838.....	52.838	38.024	11.265	10.574
1839.....	56.954	47.818	14.924	11.042
1840.....	34.019	34.784	6.106	5.435
1841.....	50.068	34.716	6.041	8.580
1842.....	92.196	10.937	2.523	1.810
1843.....	37.773	18.248	1.180	2.597
1844.....	50.712	24.652	2.511	5.708
1845.....	50.819	27.651	1.792	7.884
1846.....	64.209	34.658	1.616	7.700
1847.....	57.327	30.593	8.278	6.880
1848.....	95.409	42.835	7.010	10.147
1849.....	97.513	52.125	9.054	10.855
1850.....	114.753	65.936	11.323	13.608
1851.....	121.200	52.182	11.628	15.841
1852.....	180.735	62.306	14.285	17.386
1853.....	113.932	67.585	15.224	24.140
1854.....	09.048	28.830	17.530	22.648
1855.....	51.435	8.470	16.238	16.398
1856.....	62.307	27.882	17.535	23.630
1857.....	45.778	35.195	18.158	21.198
1858.....	60.584	18.651	10.792	18.424
1859.....	105.576	50.644	22.636	24.293
1860.....	71.246	44.537	19.303	21.850
1861.....	86.619	10.608	7.928	4.468
1862.....	30.862	13.381	8.399	10.646
1863.....	46.507	32.120	10.532	12.881
1864.....	43.275	10.914	18.930	8.509
1865.....	79.617	46.668	11.159	9.405
1866.....	109.023	104.942	29.761	13.992
1867.....	86.482	45.093	9.507	11.512
1868.....	42.580	48.419	4.876	13.215
1869.....	63.393	95.521	12.705	22.179
1870.....	89.812	112.717	19.146	17.282
1871.....	97.295	109.410	6.881	14.995
1872.....	90.636	113.429	5.186	29.765
1873.....	79.910	73.505	6.588	23.937
1874.....	70.909	95.812	4.266	20.294
1875.....	44.823	46.946	7.073	16.603
1876.....	38.162	30.125	4.868	15.648
1877.....	33.618	28.549	4.393	14.446
1878.....	34.187	18.645	8.338	11.864
1879.....	23.081	27.337	4.498	15.972
1880.....	35.551	21.697	5.330	16.590

DRUGGISTS' PETITION.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following statement, signed by dealers in drugs and chemicals in various cities and towns of the United States, was ordered to be printed:

To the honorable members of the Tariff Commission:

GENTLEMEN: We, the undersigned, dealers in drugs and chemicals in various cities and towns of the United States, beg leave to request an attentive hearing of the American manufacturers of quinia, in relation to the repeal of the act by which quinia was made free of duty.

We respectfully represent that since this act has been in effect, its results have been quite unsatisfactory. Manufacturers and dealers, owing to the disturbing influences of the foreign article, have not been able to manage their stocks so that in times of need supplies would be on hand for consumption, whereas formerly the trade were able to contract on a satisfactory basis with the American makers for regular deliveries extending over the seasons of demand.

The consumer has not been benefitted by the change, either in price or quality, for our American manufacturers have always furnished a reliable article and have never encouraged speculative prices.

The tendency has been for the worse, in uncertainty of supply and risk of loss in dealing in the article.

We fear that without reasonable protection we must eventually be entirely deprived of our manufactories of quinia, to prevent which and to once more restore the commerce in it to a basis advantageous alike to dealer and consumer, we would urge that the very moderate duty of 10 per cent. be placed upon the importation of quinia and its salts.

Signed by a large number of druggists in various sections of the United States.

F. L. BODINE.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. F. L. BODINE, of Philadelphia, representing the manufacturers of glass bottles, addressed the commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMISSION: The green and black bottle and vial manufacture is to be distinguished from all other kinds of glassware, especially from flint, lime, or white glass, which, while finished into bottles and vials, is a totally different class of goods. The manufacture of "green or bottle glass" is a large one, well adapted to the country, consuming large amounts of materials existing and accessible in large parts of the country.

The materials used in the manufacture are mainly:

SAND—Whose cost is principally the labor of digging, washing, and transporting.

LIME—The value being only the labor of quarrying and burning the stone or shells, and of transporting.

COAL—A full ton or more of which is used for every ton of glass made, and the cost of which is mostly for labor.

LUMBER—Very large quantities of which are required for boxing such bulky goods.

The direct wages paid in manufacturing bottles is about 60 per cent. of the total cost; in addition to which about 30 per cent. is paid for labor in the preparation of crude materials, making a total proportion paid for labor in making bottles fully 90 per cent. of the whole cost. The product, therefore, being exclusively by manual labor, no machinery being employed, justifies a duty as high as on any other goods.

There are now in the United States one hundred and eight furnaces, with a capacity of 700 pots. The product of these furnaces amounts to \$7,000,000 annually, giving direct employment to about eight thousand operatives, besides a very large additional number in the preparation of the materials. The number of furnaces has increased from sixty-four in 1860 to one hundred and eight in 1882, besides which the capacity of furnaces has been more than doubled in the same period. In numbers and capacity combined the increase is 170 per cent. under the operation of extra duty through the gold premium.

These furnaces are distributed as follows:

Massachusetts	2	Western Pennsylvania.....	11
Connecticut	2	Ohio	4
New York.....	15	Indiana	1
Maryland	3	Illinois.....	8
New Jersey.....	37	Kentucky	2
Eastern Pennsylvania.....	15	Wisconsin.....	3
		Missouri.....	5
Total in the East.....	74	Total in the West.....	34

Total in twelve States, 108 furnaces.

The present tariff classification and duties are:

Glass:

- "Plain, molded and pressed, not cut, engraved, or painted..... 35 per cent. ad valorem.
- "Carboys, empty or containing acid"..... 35 per cent. ad valorem.
- "Not otherwise provided for"..... 35 per cent. ad valorem.
- "Bottles or jars filled with sweetmeats or preserves".... 40 per cent. ad valorem.
- "Bottles containing wine"..... 3 cents each.

These rates of duty have fluctuated but 5 to 10 per cent. ad valorem since the specific duties under the act of 1842; and are inadequate to enable manufacturers here to compete with the much lower rates paid for wages and capital in competing countries. Our competition is principally with the cheap labor of Belgium and Germany. In the latter country their new rates of duty are said to largely discriminate against American product.

The effect of these duties before the war was to prostrate the industry. Of the sixty-four furnaces existing in 1859 and 1860, but forty-three were run; although at that time high freight rates on shipments from Europe, the expense of package and the bulky nature of the goods, and the length of time required to transmit orders and receive goods by sailing vessels, gave a practical protection much higher than now. Yet 33 per cent. of the furnaces developed under the specific duties before 1846 were idle under the ad valorem rates of 1860 still practically prevailing, and with less incidental advantages than then.

The reason so little change has been made in the tariff on bottles is that the industry was not until recently well organized, and as a result seldom urged its necessity at the time of fresh tariff enactments. Besides this, the limited amount of goods formerly used by individual consumers, and the length of time required, and large expense to receive the goods made foreign competition limited.

Its existence or prosperity, however, was precarious until the premium on gold largely added to the duty. All these circumstances are now changed. Communication of orders by ocean telegraph is rapid and easy. Supply is prompt by steamships at nominal or very low rates of freight (because received as ballast for return voyages from grain or cotton shipments). Orders of large consumers, several of whom use from 20,000 to 50,000 gross of beer bottles annually, are solicited at lower prices than foreign manufacturers are believed to give in their home markets. Shipping bottles in bulk (by piling in bins) and transferring in car-load lots without packing, saves all cost of boxes, hay, and labor. As a result of these changed circumstances, large and rapidly augmented imports are being made at prices below the cost of production in the United States. Recently a New York transportation company's agent called manufacturers' attention to the fact that he was then forwarding from one ship 50-car loads of empty beer bottles alone.

This withdrawal of a considerable part of the demand for home production makes all the rest unprofitable; so that the cost of importation at the present rates of duty leaves no profit to the manufacturer, and threatens to compel a greatly diminished product. Full and comparative statements of the amount of importations of green glass bottles have been found inaccessible.

The Chief of Bureau of Statistics has informed us that the tariff act and the Treasury regulations thereunder do not require the amount of bottles to be reported separately, but they are included under the general head of "glass ware," which also includes flint and white glass bottles, table-glass, shades, and many other items as well; although they are totally distinct in character and value.

The only statement we have been able to get is the following from Bureau of Statistics in a letter from J. B. Nimmo, jr., Chief of Bureau, Washington, D. C.

[From the Treasury Department, Bureau of Statistics, October 11, 1882.—Joseph B. Nimmo, jr., Chief of Bureau.]

Table of the value and duty received from glass bottles (empty only) imported and entered for consumption in the United States, by quarters, during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882.

IMPORTS OF GLASS BOTTLES (EMPTY ONLY).

Quarter ended—	Values.	Duty.
September 30, 1881.....	\$85, 074 43	\$20, 086 05
December 31, 1881.....	21, 838 20	7, 043 40
March 31, 1882.....	24, 204 00	8, 492 40
June 30, 1882.....	87, 067 00	30, 788 45
	210, 743 72	70, 010 30

If to this statement is added the amount of bottles imported filled, as this includes an enormous amount of mineral waters (Apolinarus alone being a very large item), wine bottles, pickle and preserve jars, &c., &c., the aggregate will be very large, probably over \$1,000,000 annually.

Existing bottle factories are ample to supply the total wants of the whole country. Developed home competition has reduced the cost to consumers since 1860 on almost all classes of these goods, besides which the quality of the American manufacture in many articles is superior to foreign. Already the recent large increase of imports has caused the stoppage of several furnaces which were running in the beginning of 1882. Should these imports continue or increase it must inevitably drive from business many of our manufacturers, with its resulting loss of consumption of native material and idle labor; and then higher prices, because of destroyed competition.

No reliable data as to cost prices abroad for the principal articles of importation have been attainable, although carefully sought for. Enough, however, is known, from the low prices at which bottles are entered at the custom-house, to justify the belief that under-valuations to a very great extent are frequent, and that prices abroad for export to the United States are very much lower than for their own home trade, and that higher rates of duty are necessary to enable manufacturers to produce at cost to compete with imported bottles.

Part, though not all, of this foreign competition arises from the mode of assessment.

An ad valorem rate is so generally understood as no reliable rate; and the extreme low price at which glass of this class is entered at the custom-house indicate that if any other simple system can be applied it should be done. Under-valuations and mercantile depression abroad render specific duties the only fair and stable method of assessment. The different tariff acts, from 1816 to 1842, levied specific duties per gross, which is the way such goods are always sold. Either a duty "per gross" for small ware, and "per bottle," as is now charged, for large ware, or a fixed rate per pound, varying with the size of the ware, would be more in accordance with the cost, and a less fluctuating standard, than an ad valorem rate. The assessment of specific duties "per gross," or per pound, has been made from 1816 to 1842, and is not impractical or difficult. The size of package, with occasional examination of a few cases to verify statements, would readily indicate the quantity contained. Any manufacturer could furnish a table of sizes to indicate the quantities contained. A rate per pound, including package (in the largest items of imports no packages are employed),

could easily be ascertained by actual weight, as is now done with many other goods.

We therefore propose the following rates of specific duties as necessary to enable manufacturers here to compete with imported bottles:

On green and colored glass bottles, vials, demijohns, carboys, pickle and preserve jars, filled or unfilled, and not otherwise provided for, either per gross or per pound, as follows:

Of the capacity of—	Either—	Or—
Under 6 ounce contents.....	75 cents per gross.....	3 cents per pound.
6 ounce and under 1 pint.....	2 cents each.....	2 cents per pound.
1 pint and under 1 quart.....	3 cents each.....	2 cents per pound.
1 quart and under 1 gallon.....	3½ cents each.....	2 cents per pound.

1 gallon and under 5 gallons, 3 cents per gallon contents.

5 gallons and under 10 gallons, 2½ cents per gallon contents.

10 gallons and over, 2 cents per gallon contents.

Demijohns, covered, 3 cents per gallon additional.

Carboys, boxed or covered, 2 cents per gallon additional.

Green or colored glass-ware, plain, moulded, and pressed, not cut, engraved, or painted, and not otherwise provided for, 2 cents per pound, including package.

Flint and lime glass bottles, vials, and ware, not otherwise provided for, 25 per cent. additional to above rates.

Because this industry has heretofore existed and grown under the present duties is no reason it will not be destroyed if these duties are not advanced.

Withdrawal of the protection heretofore supplied by gold premiums, bulky packages, high freights, and small volume of orders—all of which are now changed, and has resulted in large imports below cost of making here, and has already actually stopped many furnaces.

Because the cost of these goods is fully 90 per cent. for labor only, without machinery, duties should be as high as on any goods. They are now below the average rates of the present tariff.

Although well aware any advance in duty will be carefully considered, yet believing such advance will be profitable to the consumers as well as the producers, because home competition keeps down prices which would advance as soon as imports crushed the home manufacture, and also profitable in the consumption of native crude materials, and profitable to the government by specific duties, producing more revenue on a smaller amount of importations.

We therefore trust your commission will recommend specific duties only as any reliable protection, and the rates named above as necessary to continue the home production and its beneficial competition.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Question. About what would these rates you have suggested be on the average of an ad valorem duty?—Answer. We have been unable to ascertain that; the entries at the custom-house furnish no reliable basis for estimate. It would amount to about 30 or 33 per cent. on the cost here.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You recommend a simpler specific duty without so many classes in?—A. Yes, sir. We have condensed it into seven or eight different sections, which will cover almost as many hundred sizes. There seems to be no possible way to simplify the matter more than we have here suggested unless you choose to take a rate by the pound. To a stranger

many of these half-dozen rates might seem more complex than the rate per pound. In point of fact it would be very easy to assess the duty under either basis, but I believe per gross would be the easier way in collection.

Q. You recommend specific duties altogether?—A. Yes, sir, entirely so.

Q. In your paper do you not recommend duties by the pound and also by count?—A. No, sir; I said by the pound *or* by the count, one or the other, leaving it for the commission to determine which they thought the simpler way of collecting the duty.

In regard to the window-glass manufactured at Pittsburgh, I desire to state that the question there raised was one regarding wages paid here as compared with the rate of wages paid in Belgium. When we appeared before you in Pittsburgh we stated that at our request the State Department had sent out a series of questions, but they had been unable to get anything very reliable in response. From that data and other collateral statements we found that one class of our laborers, the blowers, were receiving 33 per cent. higher wages in this country than in Belgium. But that only relates to one of the several classes of skilled labor employed in making window-glass. The actual rate of difference in wages is 50 or 60 per cent.

H. Mis. 6—158

S. P. WETHERILL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. S. P. WETHERILL, of the firm of S. P. Wetherill & Co., of Philadelphia, representing the Lehigh Zinc and Iron Company, addressed the Commission as follows:

I am secretary of the Lehigh Zinc and Iron Company of Bethlehem, Pa., and have a few remarks to make on spiegel eisen.

The cost of making spiegel eisen in this country is so largely in excess of that of making common iron that the present duty, seven dollars per gross ton, is insufficient to protect the industry, which has been of late entirely abandoned by all but a few makers who utilize the waste product of zinc, iron, and manganese-bearing ores. It requires from 3 to 4 tons of coal to make a ton of spiegel; for iron, from 1.2 to 1.7 tons suffice. The labor and cost of plant in proportion to the tonnage produced are fully double. The import duty is absolutely the same.

There is in this country an ample supply of ores required for the manufacture of the spiegel used, and yet the effect of the present tariff has been such that importations are five times as large as home production, the former being 100,000 tons yearly, the latter 20,000 tons.

Home production is at a standstill. Importations are largely on the increase; and we only ask at the hands of your Commission sufficient protection to enable us to take our proper place among the iron-producing interests.

I also desire to speak on the subject of crude barytes. We do not feel safe in importing foreign barytes ore under the present ruling of the department (10 per cent. duty), as they may at any time insist upon the payment of the duty, which appears so clearly expressed, of one-half cent. per pound. We therefore ask that whatever duty you conclude to recommend on this article be so clearly expressed that there can be no uncertainty on the subject. There are abundant supplies of barytes ores in different parts of the Southern and Western States. We would prefer to use American ores, but the freight on them amounts to so much more than the freight and duty now charged on foreign ores that our mines cannot be worked successfully. Foreign ores cost about \$6 per ton on board vessel; the freight averages about \$1.75 per ton; duty at ten per cent., 60 cents per ton, making the whole cost of delivering foreign ores \$2.35 per ton, as against a freight of \$5 per ton on American ores. We therefore ask that the duty of one-half cent per pound be made to include barytes ores of all kinds as well as as the manufactured article.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Question. At what points are they making spiegel eisen now?—Answer. The only points where they are successfully making it now is where there are zinc works using Franklinite ores, extracting the zinc and utilizing the ores afterwards. There are two works at Newark, N. J., and our works at Bethlehem, Pa. The Cambria Iron Company had a plant, and made it largely for a long time, and obtained their material principally from Virginia, I think.

NATHAN A. TAYLOR.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. NATHAN A. TAYLOR, of the firm of N. & G. Taylor & Co., Philadelphia, representing the tin-plate trade, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: It may not be generally known that the present duty on tin plate is unintentionally higher than was sought to be imposed by the tariff act of February 8, 1875. We are, in fact, to-day, paying a duty of fully 100 per cent. in excess of what was intended by that act. We propose to explain this briefly, and to recommend to the Commission a reduction in the duty on tin plates to $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 cent per pound.

Recognizing the fact that there have been more important interests than tin plate before the Commission, that our growing industries are properly deserving of the fullest consideration, we desire to be as brief as possible and to present only some important facts in favor of the slight reduction asked for. We appear in behalf of the entire tin-plate trade of Philadelphia—a trade which is rapidly assuming enormous proportions, and, as we shall presently see, is identified so largely with our growing commerce.

We propose to call your attention to the several acts of Congress upon the subject, and the resulting duties; to the growth of the trade; to its advantages and to its value as affecting American interests, American industries, and American commerce.

We shall disregard technicalities and combine in the one phrase, "tin plates," the "tin and terne plates and taggers" tin of commerce.

Let us first review the several acts of Congress and point out the inconsistency of the present tariff of $\frac{1}{10}$ cents per pound.

By the early acts of Congress, tin plate was admitted free of duty. By the act of March 2, 1861, a duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem was imposed. By the act of July 14, 1862, the duty was *temporarily* increased to 25 per cent. ad valorem. I say "temporarily," as the title of this tariff act reads "An act increasing *temporarily* the duties on imports," and, being a war measure, its repeal was thus promised at an early date. It was not, however, until the passage of the act of June 6, 1872, that the tariff was reduced to 15 per cent. ad valorem, and by the same act pig tin or block tin was placed upon the free list with the *sole* object of encouraging the manufacture of tin plates in our own country.

The expansion of the tin-plate trade had by this time brought with it a wide increase in the number of its brands or grades, and the multi-form qualities were so difficult to reconcile that Congress, in the act of February 8, 1875, substituted the specific duty of *one and one-tenth* cents per pound in place of the ad valorem duty of 15 per cent. The *intention*

was excellent, as although a specific duty taxes tin plates most unequally and to the injury of the largest class of consumers, still we believe it removes all difficulties in the way of a just and simple administration of the tariff, and places all importers upon the same fair basis. This act did not take into consideration the large decline in price that was to follow, and has, therefore, been most prejudicial in effect, as the following facts will show. Its intention was merely to change the *nature* of the duty from ad valorem to specific—to neither increase nor decrease it, and the corresponding duty of $\frac{1}{10}$ cents per pound was ascertained by taking the average of *values* ruling at the time; a most unfortunate mistake, as the only fair way was to take the average, not of the values of each kind, but of the value of the *quantities* of each kind used or imported. Now, we will be pardoned if we are obliged to bring in some figures to verify our statements, but they are the most reliable of witnesses. During the year 1872 (when the tariff was reduced from 25 per cent. to 15 per cent. ad valorem) the following were the average values of tin plates in Liverpool:

Charcoal tin, highest 46s. per box of 1 cwt., less 3 per cent.

Charcoal tin, lowest 32s. per box of 1 cwt., less 3 per cent.

Coke tin, highest 40s. per box of 1 cwt., less 3 per cent.

Coke tin, lowest 28s. per box of 1 cwt., less 3 per cent.

It was a year of extreme and violent fluctuations, and it was our first experience of one of those "booms" that have been so disastrous upon prices since. The duty upon the above values at 15 per cent. ad valorem was the exact equivalent of $1\frac{1}{10}$ cents per pound. In 1875 (when the tariff was changed from 15 per cent. ad valorem to $1\frac{1}{10}$ cents specific) the following were the values of tin plates in Liverpool:

Charcoal tin, highest 35s. per box of 1 cwt., less 3 per cent.

Charcoal tin, lowest 24s. 6d. per box of 1 cwt., less 3 per cent.

Coke tin, highest 27s. per box of 1 cwt., less 3 per cent.

Coke tin, lowest 20s. per box of 1 cwt., less 3 per cent.

A reduction all along the line of about 10s. per box of 112 pounds, a large decline having occurred over the years 1873-'74 as the natural result of the inflated prices of 1872. Now, the average value of all importations for the year 1875 was about 24s. per box, or \$5.64, upon which the intentional duty of 15 per cent. ad valorem would have been 84 cents per cwt., or exactly three-fourths of a cent per pound; but it was assumed, and very fairly, that as values might react the government was justly entitled to a little higher specific duty, and a tariff of $1\frac{1}{10}$ cents per pound was imposed, and an actual increase in the duty equivalent to an ad valorem one of 22 per cent. was the result for that year alone, with a corresponding increase in the revenue. That was not the intention of the act of February 8, 1875.

Since 1875 we have passed through seven years of extreme depression, and a large decline in values has resulted, with the single exception of a temporary improvement for a few months in 1879-'80. Production over these seven years has steadily increased beyond the wants of consumption, and as the manufacture has been cheapened through a variety of causes we cannot look for any return to the high values of former years.

Commissioner OLIVER. When was the lowest value reached?

The WITNESS. Do you mean the lowest average value?

Commissioner OLIVER. Yes.

The WITNESS. In 1878 it was the lowest, I believe. I am coming to that.

The following short table will show the effect of the present tariff of $1\frac{1}{16}$ cents per pound :

Year.	Average value of all importations, reduced to cwts. for the year, and upon which the uniform specific duty of \$1.23 has been paid.	Equivalent ad valorem duty of—
	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
1870.....	20 0= \$1 70	26
1877.....	18 0= 4 23	20
1878.....	15 0= 3 52	35
1879.....	17 0= 4 00	31
1880.....	18 0= 4 35	28
1881.....	16 0= 3 70	33
1882 (6 months).....	16 0= 3 70	33

The equivalent specific duty of 15 per cent. ad valorem over these six years is exactly fifty-five hundredths of a cent per pound, and yet we are paying just double this amount.

Now, only to point out in a few words some of the advantages of tin plate, let us say at the outset that its great point is its absolute cheapness, bringing it into universal use. It is in no sense whatever an article of luxury, and in this respect, perhaps, it stands alone as essential to the humblest kitchen and the most obscure cabin in the growing West. It is the one material for a roof, by reason of its lightness and extreme durability. It furnishes our kitchens, where nothing can take its place for cleanliness and absolute *purity* from all poisonous properties. Two-thirds of its importations are made up into cans for meats, fruits, vegetables, and petroleum, and these indispensable adjuncts of our daily life are thus within the reach of the humblest purchaser. It gives employment to hundreds of thousands of busy hands in all its varied industries throughout our country. Its importation is in the nature of raw material, which is worked up here, and which we cannot supply ourselves. A reduction of the duty would cheapen it to the consumer. An increase of duty would check its importation and render necessary a variety of substitutes.

Tin plates are not made in this country. Their manufacture has been attempted at various periods, but has never succeeded. We cannot think of competing with the cheap labor of Europe, where the workman is satisfied with 20 or 30 shillings weekly, and where his family frequently aid him in adding to his receipts. We therefore have no industry of this kind to protect. The placing of pig tin on the free list over 10 years ago and a duty on tin plate of about 33 per cent. since that time have not encouraged its manufacture here. Double the present duty and continue pig tin free and it cannot be made here to compete with the cheap labor of England, but by increasing the duty you restrict its importation and consequently its revenues, and you exert a depressing influence upon a foreign market, rendering it still more difficult to attempt its competitive manufacture here. We can speak for ourselves and our friends in the trade here, when we say we are in favor of a protection that protects every American industry; but with no industry of this kind in our country, even with the encouragement afforded by the present tariff, we respectfully ask that the Commission recommend the reduction of the duty on tin plates, not to $\frac{1}{2}$ a cent per pound (where it properly belongs under the intention of the act of February 8, 1875),

but to, say, $\frac{3}{4}$ of a cent per pound, and thus encourage its larger and wider use, and a corresponding increase in revenue. We think tin plates are properly the subject of *some* duty, as a large revenue can be derived from this source without injury to anyone, but the present rate of duty is unfair, unnecessary, unintentional, and excessive. While cheap labor prevails in Europe—and let us hope for the sake of humanity that its value will ere long be recognized more in the spirit of American intelligence and education—nothing but a most extraordinary tax upon the importation of tin plate will ever allow its home manufacture. Let us here instance a single comparison. We can buy a good quality of tin plate suitable for making into cans at 16 shillings; a second quality at 14 shillings, and a fair quality of terne plate, for roofing, at 15 shillings—all per cwt., less 4 per cent. cash. This is exactly $3\frac{1}{10}$ cents per pound, and yet we have to pay in this country for an inferior quality of No. 30 sheet iron—the same thickness as tin plate—6 cents per pound. Meanwhile, we see no reason, looking at the subject fairly and without prejudice, why its millions of consumers in this country should be the subjects of an excessive tax while its importation conflicts in no manner whatever with any American industry.

We have now to consider very briefly the enormous growth of the trade.

There were imported from England into the United States—

	Boxes of all kinds.
From 1848 to 1857	3, 457, 079
From 1858 to 1867	6, 726, 784
From 1868 to 1877	15, 218, 225
For the year 1878	1, 931, 128
For the year 1879	2, 755, 421
For the year 1880	2, 959, 380
For the year 1881	3, 134, 402
And the year 1882 promises to exceed	4, 000, 000
Or, 230,000 tons.	

This large increase in consumption has been caused, first, by the decline in values from an average price of 34s. per box in 1872, to an average price of 16s. per box in 1882, with a probability of a low, or even lower, range of values being maintained over many years to come; and, second, by the wonderful growth and prosperity of our own country. It may be a selfish consideration to know that the manufacture in England has been unremunerative for many years, so that we as consumers are profiting thereby, as will be seen by the following extract from a letter of our Liverpool correspondents, received only this morning:

As for the manufacturing department of the tin-plate trade, we feel almost in despair about it. It looks just now as if there never could be a profitable trade. The demand is enormous—larger than anyone could have imagined—and it is supplied at prices leaving nothing to the manufacturer, with numbers of mills waiting to start when there is a paying profit.

The demand for tin plates has been unprecedentedly vigorous and healthy, occurring conspicuously over periods when languishing and expiring enterprises were frequent in all directions, and we ask in a reduction of the duty only the execution of a measure that will cause a fulfillment of our statement that the consumption of tin plates will be greatly increased and the revenue be ultimately benefited.

This conclusion is the result of a business experience by our firm of over seventy years, during which time we have paid the government duties amounting to many millions of dollars, and we respectfully ask the concurrence of the Commission with our views. The relief asked

would be only about \$1,500,000, and this amount would soon be more than made up in increased importations.

In connection with the rapid increase in the importation of tin plate at Philadelphia, there remains but one more subject to refer to, and we do it with a pardonable pride. Ten years have now elapsed since our Philadelphia merchants started an American line of first-class steamers between Philadelphia and Liverpool, building them at our own wharves, and encouraging them over a long number of uniformly successful voyages. We point to-day at the only line of American-built steamers crossing the Atlantic, and as we see the flag of our country floating from their peaks and crowning these beautiful models of American shipbuilding as they glide into English waters, we are led to hope the day is not far distant when our commerce shall enjoy something of its former prestige, and when Congress can consistently encourage it by reducing the duty on all goods fully 10 per cent. when imported in American vessels.

If the Commission desires any further information, I shall be glad to furnish it.

THOMAS JONES.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. THOMAS JONES, of Philadelphia, representing the pearl-button manufacturers, read the following statement:

To the Tariff Commission:

GENTLEMEN: We, the undersigned, representing the pearl-button manufacturers of Philadelphia, beg to state that we cannot exist under the present rate of 30 per cent. duty on manufactured goods, as we will show by the following example:

The cost of manufacturing what is commonly known as the 14-line shirt button per gross in Philadelphia: Cutting blank, 8 cents; backing, 5 cents; facing, 12 cents; drilling, 3 cents; sorting and carding, 5 cents; card foil and boxing, $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents; wear and tear, foreman, and rent, 8 cents; cost of pearl shell per gross, 30 cents; total, $72\frac{1}{2}$ cents per gross.

The cost of manufacturing 14-line pearl shirt buttons in England: Cutting blank, 6 cents; backing, 3 cents; facing, 7 cents; drilling, $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents; sorting and carding, $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents; card foil and boxing, 1 cent; foreman, wear and tear, and rent, 2 cents; cost of pearl shell per gross, 20 cents; total, $41\frac{3}{4}$ cents. Duty, 30 per cent., $12\frac{3}{4}$ cents; commission and expenses, 4 cents; total, $58\frac{1}{2}$ cents.

All other lines of pearl buttons cost the same in proportion to the 14 lines.

We also beg to state that we think the 10 per cent. duty on pearl shell imported from London, England, should be taken off, London being the principal market in the world to buy from; taking the 10 per cent. off of shell and adding a 20 per cent. on manufactured goods will put us on an equal footing with the foreign goods.

E. O. MILLS & Co
SCHOEN & PRINCE.
CHARLES GRATEY.
PETER SMITH.
CHAS. SHINZEL.

WILLIAM G. MARKHAM.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. WILLIAM G. MARKHAM, of Avon, N. Y., representing the National Wool Growers' Association, addressed the Commission as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: In behalf of the National Wool Growers' Association, I have the honor to submit for your consideration the following views, together with some of the reasons therefor, upon the subject of tariff revision in its relation to the sheep and wool industry of the country.

This national organization is composed of the sheep and wool associations of the several States, comprising an aggregate constituency of 400,000 farmers and flock owners. These men are distributed throughout every State in the Union, and are the owners of more than 50,000,000 sheep, yielding annually 300,000,000 pounds of wool, and furnishing for the shambles not less than 12,000,000 mutton carcasses, aggregating an annual production of more than \$120,000,000.

The views herewith submitted represent the unanimous opinion of this vast industrial element—one of the largest in the country, and *the one* most closely identified with the great body of the people.

We understand that protection is the settled American policy, and that the purpose of your Commission is not to reverse this policy, but rather to conserve and establish it upon an equable and stable basis.

The joint report of wool-growers and wool-manufacturers, submitted by them to the Revenue Commission in 1866, declared, "with the utmost emphasis, that American wools are eminently the foundation of the prosperity of our manufactures"; that it was necessary "to give a sufficient protection to the wool grower, and to place the manufacturer in the same position as if he had his wool free of duty; that sound policy requires such legislative action as shall give them (the wool-grower and wool-manufacturer) equal encouragement and protection." It was also insisted that one of the chief obstacles to the prosperity of these industries was "the vacillation and instability of tariff legislation."

These statements were believed to be true then; the experience of fifteen years convinces us that they are equally true now, and we desire to solemnly and earnestly reassert them. While on the one hand American wools are the foundation of successful American manufactures, on the other hand a home market is essential to the wool-grower; and an equable adjustment of the tariff requires that the wool-manufacturer shall have a duty compensating for the duty on the raw material in addition to all the needed protection as a manufacturer.

We still approve of the wisdom and justice of the form of duty agreed upon in the joint report and incorporated into the existing tariff. While in theory a purely ad valorem duty may be more strictly just, experience has shown that practical difficulties exist in regard to its collection which tend to defraud the revenue and defeat designed protection. We cannot learn that either of these objections lie against the present form of the duty on wools; while the objection of complexity is disproved by the united testimony of the appraisers of Boston and New York, who assert that no difficulty is experienced from that cause.

We also further insist that stability is a most important feature of tariff legislation, and is essential to the prosperity of great industries, which

cannot be changed or modified by outside influences without seriously affecting the great majority of the people. When under the promise of immunity from foreign interference, and consequent wild fluctuations and panics in prices, so many millions of dollars have been invested in the wool-producing industry, to now break that promise by lowering the barrier would not only threaten general disaster and destroy the energy and confidence of both labor and capital, but would involve the good faith of government itself. It should be distinctly shown, not only that such a guaranty of immunity was, and is, against public policy, but that great and positive damage has been caused thereby, before it is destroyed or weakened.

The existing tariff on wools and woolens was enacted in 1867, upon the joint recommendation of this association and the National Association of Wool Manufacturers. It has now been in operation fifteen years, long enough, certainly, for the interests affected to test its value. A careful analysis of its effects upon these interests—and, through the consumers of woolens and mutton, upon the country at large—should show the wisdom of its enactment. It came into being at a period when the war and an inflated currency had greatly embarrassed the business conditions of the country. Wool had been selling at seventy-five cents to one dollar per pound, and every variety of sheep, good, bad, and indifferent, had been bred indiscriminately, with reference solely to rapid increase of numbers. When the crisis came, the price of wool fell more than fifty per cent. in two years, and the price of sheep declined to a point far below the cost of production. Immense numbers, including entire flocks, were slaughtered for the pelts and tallow. Heavy importations of wool had taken place in anticipation of the passage of the tariff of 1867, and still further assisted in depressing prices; medium domestic wool, that in 1865 sold for one dollar, sold for forty-three cents per pound in 1868. So general and disastrous was the depression that the destruction of the wool industry was only arrested by the guaranty of stable and adequate protection for the future, afforded by the tariff law of 1867, the salutary effects of which began to appear early in 1869.

After such experience, capital, always timid, would not for a second time have embarked in a business subject to the risk of frequently recurring wool freshets, had not a barrier against these been provided by judicious legislation.

A comparison of the prices of wools during the operation of the present tariff will show, at the beginning of that period, an increase of prices, continuing until enhanced production—resulting from protection—by the operation of the law of supply and demand, dictated a gradual decrease of prices, adapting them to the economies and necessities of the consumer.

With 100,000,000 acres of unused herbage, apparently created for this industry, and with the *present condition of productions undisturbed*, this gradual decrease of price, notwithstanding the enhanced demand of a multiplying population, must continue until the lowest point of profitable production in the whole country is reached; a point little if any above the cost of production abroad.

The average price of medium wools in Boston, for thirty-five years preceding the war, and under a low tariff, was nearly 43 cents. The average price of the same wools during the fifteen years of the present tariff has not been above that figure, and with the exception of the years 1871 and 1872 has been materially less.

The consumer has also been enabled through the direct influence of the wool tariff to secure a supply of cheap *mutton*, which (cheaper than

beef, and making beef, and in fact all animal food, cheaper than it would have been in the absence of mutton) has become an indispensable factor in the economy of every household.

When these facts enable us to say—as they now do—that *in no other country in the world will so few days' labor so well clothe and feed the people as in our own*, the wool feature of the present tariff seems to require no further vindication.

The increase in numbers of sheep for the decade from 1850 to 1860—a period of *low* tariff—was from 21,700,000 to 22,100,000, or less than one-fifth of one per cent. annually. The increase during the ten years between 1870 and 1880, under the existing tariff, was from 28,500,000 to 42,400,000, a total increase of 45 per cent., or $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. annually. The comparison is still more marked by the increase of wool production during the same period. The production of wool in 1870 was 163,000,000 pounds. In 1880 it was 264,000,000 pounds, an increase of 61 per cent., or over 6 per cent. annually. This increase is healthy, and still continues both as to numbers of sheep and quantity and quality of wool, promising in the immediate future to supply the demands of American manufacturers for clothing wools, although their home customers are increasing at the rate of nearly two millions yearly.

It is alleged that the operation of this tariff works a practical discrimination against the heavier class of fine wools. Such criticism loses its force in view of the fact that the remedy for the assumed injustice lies so clearly with the foreign producer of such wools. Let him bring his product to the condition of the article he seeks to supplant rather than ask that legislation be shaped to favor methods he finds it convenient to pursue.

At the present time the wool industry is undergoing a grave transition. It has been found that wool can be produced more profitably on the cheaper lands of the South and West than in the Northern and Eastern States; hence in the latter there has been a diminution in numbers of sheep and in the quantity of wool produced. Agriculturists have been compelled to turn their attention to those types of sheep in which mutton production is the primary, and that of wool the less important, consideration, and to the breeding of stud flocks from which to supply improved animals in response to the demand from those regions in which pastoral husbandry is so rapidly extending. Efforts in this direction have already yielded the most satisfactory results. The breeders of thorough-bred American merinos have taken high rank, and secured for themselves a reputation reaching into every country where enlightened stock-husbandry has received attention. Through their care and skill merino sheep which formerly sheared four to six pounds have been made to yield fleeces of ten to fifteen pounds, and in some instances very considerably heavier. Rams from these flocks rapidly ameliorate the product from the lower grades of sheep upon which they are used, and to-day have representatives in the flocks of Japan, Australasia, and South America.

The tenure of the lands on which sheep are now most cheaply subsisted is already affected, and will, within a few years, be materially changed. The construction of railroads and influx of immigration will inevitably increase the cost of flock maintenance, while the cost of fitting unimproved regions for comfortable living must be simultaneously borne. Until these rapid changes in values become slower and less violent—until the actual results of the large ventures in wool production in the newer localities, with their inseparable risks, have been determined it will—in our judgment, prove detrimental to this industry

to reduce the amount of protection now afforded. Especially is this true since the present duty, while stimulating production, does not prohibit importation; and since any material rise in the price of wools in this country is certain to be followed by an influx of foreign wools, showing that the duty cannot be safely reduced so long as it is designed to be protective.

There is still another, and, in its far reaching results, more important, reason why the existing encouragement to wool-growing should be continued. Throughout the South are vast areas of waste lands, some new, others formerly cultivated, but now allowed to run wild. Upon these lands sheep are beginning to be introduced. A careful study leads us to the conclusion that the problem of reclaiming such lands—of securing an improved system of agriculture—of cheapening the food supply, and of gradually, without panic, and in accordance with the interests of other sections, reducing the price of wool, will be in large part solved by the wool-growing industry of the South, which the existing tariff is promoting.

In view of the foregoing facts we beg to urge upon your attention the following propositions:

1. That the existing tariff on foreign wools was established after the most careful consideration of the whole subject, and that the duty was placed at the lowest rate consistent with the safety of the wool-producing industry in this country.

2. That under this tariff, and in consequence of it, sheep husbandry has made such substantial progress as to fully vindicate the policy of the measure and fulfill the expectations of its promoters.

3. That without hindering or interfering with any other industry the growth and permanency of sheep husbandry thus secured has enabled the people of our country to provide themselves with food and clothing more advantageously than is vouchsafed to the people of any other land.

4. That our tariff has encouraged domestic production by giving a *regular and natural home market*. The stability and reliability of this market has reduced the price of wool, while it has increased the production faster than population and consumption have increased. These results are the normal sequences of rightful protection to home industry.

5. If the duties are now changed so as to largely admit foreign wools to this market, then such wools will be sent here at prices and in quantities that will cause our producers to turn their attention to other industries, as grain, cattle, hogs, &c., and when this is accomplished foreign wools will advance in price, because they can control the market, and the manufacturer will pay more for his wool, the consumer more for woolen goods, and the country will suffer because another item in commercial transactions will be added to the list of those which go to increase the annual balance of trade against us. This, if the duties are so reduced as to largely admit foreign wools. It is certain that no material reduction can be made without admitting such wools, and any less reduction not expected to admit them would be an idle and fruitless experiment, and would be hazardous, because it might do more than those who favor it claim, and prove in the end to be a wooden horse with an enemy secreted within.

By Commissioner KENNER:

Question: How many sheep do you say there are at present in the United States?—Answer. Upwards of 50,000,000.

Q. Have you any data to show the number of sheep in Australia?—A.

I have seen figures, which I suppose to be correct, putting the number at 75,000,000.

Q. Do you know the aggregate number of sheep in the whole world?—

A. About 450,000,000.

Q. Australia is the principal competing point for the American wool market?—A. Yes, sir; Australia, including New Zealand, supplies more wool than any other one country.

Q. Do you advocate the maintenance of the present duty on wool?—A. Yes, sir, substantially; the ad valorem and specific; they seem to have worked very satisfactorily.

Q. You represent wool-growers in all parts of the country in this application?—A. I represent the National Wool Growers' Association, which is an organization composed of the several State organizations throughout the country, comprising the wool-growers of the different States.

Q. You hinted in your remarks at the fact that there had been some misunderstanding between the wool-manufacturers and the wool-growers; did you not make some such remark as that?—A. There was a misunderstanding in former years; but since 1866 the wool-growers and manufacturers have found their interests identical, as a rule.

Q. That is the fact which you alluded to, then?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Do you appear at all in the character of an advocate of the present duties on woolen manufactures?—A. Only so far as the success of the woolen manufacturers is requisite in order that we shall have a market for our wool. It is necessary that they should be successful, and to that extent we are interested in the protection of the manufacturer.

Q. That is to say, you require consumers or manufacturers of your wools to use them up as they are grown, and but for these manufacturers you would have to ship your wools abroad; there is an interdependence between the two interests?—A. Yes, sir; that is the meaning of it. If the manufacturers are not placed on a successful basis, we should be obliged to send our wools abroad in competition with the wools of Australia and other countries.

Q. In other words, there is an interdependence between the two interests—the wool-manufacturer and the wool-grower?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Cannot, and ought not, the wool-grower's interest to be looked upon in the light of an agricultural interest, and as one of the few industries which can be protected in the interest of the farmer?—A. Yes, sir; the sheep-growing and wool-producing industry certainly is a strictly agricultural industry, and I think the largest one. I think the production of wool and mutton is larger in amount than the production of iron, and certainly the great body of the people throughout the country are more interested in wool and mutton growing than in any other of the industries that require protection.

Q. I asked a gentleman a question the other day, and did not get an answer at all satisfactory, in regard to the order of the States which produce wool in the largest quantities. Can you tell me which State is the largest wool-growing State, and the next in order, and so on?—A. Texas, I think, now produces the largest amount of wool. California has been first, but there has been a decrease of wool-growing in California, as the lands have become more valuable for agricultural purposes, forcing the wool-grower on to the cheaper lands. But still I think that California may be regarded as the next in order, and Ohio, I think, comes next.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. What would be the range of a specific duty equivalent to the pres-

ent compound duty; that is to say, about how many cents a pound would it be on an average; I mean on clothing wools, of course?—A. It would be about 12 to 13 cents, I think.

Q. What is about the lowest rate of duty on clothing wools per pound as a specific duty per pound; taking the cheapest grade of clothing wools which are brought in, what would the rate per pound be at the present compound duty?—A. On wools valued at, say, 20 cents, it would be 12.2 cents.

Q. Take the highest priced wools and reduce the present compound duty to a specific duty per pound, and say what that would be?—A. At 32 cents, it would be about 13½ cents.

Q. Is there any reason why we could not arrange an absolutely specific duty per pound which would cover the whole cause?—A. I presume it would satisfy the wool-growers, if that was done, better than the present tariff does. In reality an ad valorem duty is more just; but in those features of the tariff where a specific duty discriminates against the lower class of wools, it would make the discrimination still greater. As wool-growers, we should be entirely satisfied with such an arrangement, however.

Q. I agree that a specific duty with any range at all of values must operate, to some extent, unjustly. But it seems to me it is so limited in this case that it is a case where we might possibly dispense with the compound duty and have a specific duty which would operate without any gross injustice.—A. Yes; without any gross injustice; but they quote against our tariff the excessive duties on those very greasy wools; that is, the 20 cent and less priced wools.

Q. It would make little difference per pound, on imported wool, because it would be, at the outside, 1½ cents; that is, between the present compound duty and a specific duty which was its average equivalent?—A. Well, not to exceed 2 cents, at any rate.

Q. It would be less than 1½ cents?—A. There have been wools bought at less than 20 cents.

Q. Take the very lowest, then, and say what that would amount to?—A. There have been wools sold as low as 15 cents.

Q. That would make a duty of 11.65?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. And the very highest, I understand, is about 32 cents?—A. Yes, sir; there are scarcely any wools above that price imported.

Q. So that the entire range would be between 11.65 and 13.52. The entire range would be only 1.87, adopting the average between the two, and the actual range would be just half of that—that is to say .93. Do you think it worth while to maintain a compound duty for the purpose of giving such a small dose of equity as that comes to?—A. We look to the Commission to make such changes as they think necessary; as wool-growers we would be entirely satisfied.

Commissioner AMBLER. I am not asking what you would be satisfied with, but I am trying to get at the extent of the injustice, if there is any, and, knowing your acquaintance with the subject, I call your attention to the fact.

By Commissioner GARLAND:

Q. You spoke of your relation to the wool-growers of the entire country. Have you recently obtained an expression from them in reference to tariff legislation?—A. Yes, sir; I have been in communication with all the different State wool-growers' associations, and it has been the unanimous expression that we could not afford to submit to any reduction of the tariff.

Q. You have given expression to that opinion in the remarks which you have made?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. As the fact that the number of sheep have been reduced in certain States since the existing tariff was in operation has been mentioned before the Commission, and urged as an argument against the present tariff, I would like to hear an expression of opinion from you on that subject.—A. I have already referred to that. Owing to the increase in the prices of land, with the benefit of railroad communication and transportation to the seaboard, it has been found that general farming may be conducted more profitably, as compared with sheep husbandry in other portions of the country, so that upon these high-priced lands the sheep husbandry has been, to a certain extent, supplanted by other classes of husbandry, while the sheep are grown upon low-priced lands, where they can be grown more profitably. I refer to the cheaper lands in the West and in the South.

Q. You mean that the apparent reduction in the number of sheep is accounted for from the fact that they are driven from these sections referred to into others, where land is cheaper; but it does not necessarily follow that they have been slaughtered, or that the raising of sheep has been abandoned?—A. No, sir.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. Assuming that 15 cents a pound is the lowest price of wool, and 32 cents a pound the highest price, and that the present duty is somewhere near 30 per centum, I would like to ask what renders that duty necessary. What is the difference in the cost of sheep raising in this country, under the favorable natural conditions which you say exist in some parts of the country and do not exist in others, as compared with those other countries with corresponding natural conditions?—A. The item of labor enters into the question to some extent. Labor in Australia and Buenos Ayres is very much cheaper. It is also a question of larger areas of cheaper lands. When wool-growing has become thoroughly diversified, when our lands are properly occupied after this transitional state which I speak of (the change from the North to the South), I think it is possible we may grow wool pretty nearly as cheaply as it is grown in other countries. But at the same time we need a protection against the flood of wool which may come from other countries even then, and derange the condition of things, reducing prices so as to disorganize the business with us. At present we need a higher duty than we shall at such a time.

Q. Is it not a fact that wool-growing has been prosecuted in a manner, so to speak, contrary to nature; haven't we, in other words, been trying to raise oranges in Maine in a hot-house? We produce beef here in immense quantities, and export it to other countries. Do we not do that from the fact that our cattle-growers have taken advantage of natural conditions, whereas the wool-growers have not taken advantage of them, but have fought against them?—A. They are taking advantage of them now.

Q. Take Washington County, Pennsylvania, which is one of the most prominent counties in the United States as regards wool-growing; are they not fighting against nature in Washington County, and could they not grow the same wool in other places in this country at less than half the cost, yes, less than one-third of the cost of growing it there?—A. I doubt if they can do it for less than one-third or one-half of the cost; but it can be grown at a much less cost upon these less valuable lands we have, than in Washington County.

Q. I understood you to say that there has been an understanding for years between the wool-growers and manufacturers; that their interests are interdependent. That being so, and the wool-growers stating that it is impossible for them to continue their business with any reduction of the tariff on wool, would a reduction of duty be possible on the manufactures of wool?—A. I am not so familiar with the requirements of the manufacturers.

Q. If they have based their present rates of duty (which were based, I understand, in the act of 1867, by Congress, after an agreement by the wool-growers and wool manufacturers) on the wool-growers' rates, does it not follow that they could not submit to a reduction if the wool-growers do not, unless the conditions between them have changed in the mean time?—A. It must, perhaps, necessarily follow; that would naturally be inferred.

Q. Do carpet wools compete with our wool?—A. Strictly speaking, carpet wools do not compete with our wools.

Q. What would be the effect on the wool-growers if carpet wools should be admitted free?—A. It would only injure us so far as regards the wools which enter into such fabrics and take the place of our wools.

Q. Do they take the place of them except to deteriorate or adulterate wools; that is all, is it not?—A. To a certain extent.

Q. They do not take the place of our wools legitimately?—A. No, sir; not legitimately.

Q. You have made, I know, tariff legislation a study, and are recognized as an expert throughout the United States, as regards your own particular branch—the wool industry. You have made one remark which has been made before the Commission a number of times, and I allude to it now because I think you are more competent, perhaps, than anybody else to explain to us what you do mean. You spoke of the necessity of “permanent legislation,” stable laws. How do you expect any guarantee from the labors of this Commission, even supposing Congress were to adopt its bill, word for word, and syllable for syllable, that the next Congress would not tear it to pieces, and the next also, and so on?—A. We have to take our chances, of course.

Q. Then we have nothing to do with the stability of it?—A. You might have something to do with the changing of it.

Q. You spoke also of undervaluation, and expressed the opinion as a practical man, that ad valorem duties were generally recognized as the most equitable, did you not?—A. I think so.

Q. Do you think that a plan which would permit the importer to exercise his option of paying duty on an advanced value which might be fixed by any of the experts who would be called in by the United States appraiser, or allowing these experts, or any one of them, to take the goods at the advanced value, would do away with that difficulty? I will illustrate so as to make my point clear. There is a wool which comes in at 15 cents, and you are called in as an expert, and you say the wool is worth 18 cents. The importer has the option of paying his duty on the basis of 18 cents (assuming that it is ad valorem, of course), or you can take it at 15 cents and pay the duty as well. Would that prevent any unfair competition by reason of undervaluation?—A. I am not familiar with the custom-house regulations or the methods of getting wool through to avoid ad valorem duties. In speaking of that matter I simply take the universal testimony of those who have given that subject study. In my own judgment, personally, looking at it from my standpoint, it seems to me that it would be practicable.

Q. You do not need to be familiar with custom-house regulations to

understand that. You think such a practice would avoid undervaluation?—A. I think there might be some such plan of appraisement which might be practicable; but I would not like to speak for anybody but myself on such a matter.

By Commissioner AMBLER:

Q. You gave 15 and 32 cents as the extreme prices of foreign wools. These being the extremes, within what range do the wools ordinarily come in; what is the ordinary range of price?—A. I should think about 20 or 23 cents would be the average.

Q. Is there a considerable proportion of the wools which come below 20 cents?—A. There is a portion of them.

Q. What is the percentage below 20 cents?—A. I am not able to give you that now; I will do so hereafter.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. Referring to Commissioner McMahon's questions about the hot-house forcing of the wool industry, I will ask you this: Before the present high tariff on wool was put on, what sections of the country were the largest wool-producing sections?—A. I think Washington County has produced wools about as largely as any county in the United States, except one county in Texas. There is one county in Texas which has produced a larger quantity.

Q. I am speaking of the period between 1855 and 1865. What special locality produced the largest amount of wool during that period?—A. There was one county in Western New York which produced as much wool as any county, and perhaps Washington County, Pennsylvania, was among the largest wool-producing counties.

Q. In the production of wool, the cost of living, the price of labor, the price of land, the price of feed—hay and corn—all enter into the cost of production, and determine the price per pound of wool?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Is not that the reason why you need this protection; that all the items I have named cost twice as much here as in Buenos Ayres or in Australia?—A. Yes, sir; that is the reason why it costs more in the north in any event. Wool growing, when finally adjusted to the country, will of course be carried on so far as possible where very little corn or grain, or even hay, has to be fed, and where the flocks can pasture. In that respect we are at a disadvantage in competition with Australia and other foreign countries, and always will be, because in those countries sheep are grown and ranged throughout the year upon pasturage, without cutting hay or feeding grain. A portion of our country is of that character, but only a small portion. Moreover, a substantial yeomanry is the main dependence of a government constituted like ours. They must expend more money to fit them properly for the exercise of their duties as good and intelligent citizens than the peasantry of other lands. They must have such an income as will provide both the means and opportunity for improvement. All this is a charge upon their resources which a free government must recognize in legislation affecting their industries. Hence we shall always need some tariff protection to provide against the competition of those countries where wool can be more cheaply grown, and the position of the laborer is so inferior,

J. E. MITCHELL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. J. E. MITCHELL, of Philadelphia, Pa., in regard to the duty on grindstones, was ordered to be printed:

I take the liberty of sending herewith a copy of statement I made in March last to the Hon. William D. Kelley, chairman of Committee of Ways and Means, in reference to the duty on grindstones.

The present rate is \$1.50 per ton on rough or unfinished grindstones (made by hand with mallet and chisel) and \$2 per ton on finished grindstones (or turned true in a lathe).

The cost of foreign grindstones will rule about the same on the Atlantic ports, but will cost considerably more on the Pacific coast.

Provincial grindstones cost less in Boston, and the domestic stones rather more than in Philadelphia or New York.

I do not send this with a view of having the duty abolished (although it might be done without injustice to the domestic manufacturer), but simply to enable you to act intelligently should any increase of duty be demanded.

It will afford me great pleasure to give you any further information on the subject which you may require.

Cost of Ohio grindstones in the Philadelphia market in 1880, per 2,000 pounds	\$10 75	
Freight to Philadelphia	3 50	
		\$14 25
Cost in 1881 (in Ohio)	13 00	
Freight to Philadelphia	3 80	
		16 80
Average of		15 50

Cost of foreign grindstones in the Philadelphia market in 1881, per 2,000 pounds in Boston:		
Bay Chaleur (finished), province of New Brunswick, including \$2 per ton duty	\$18 00	
Freight to Philadelphia	2 00	
		20 00
Wickersley, English (unfinished), per 2,240 pounds	\$21 60	
Duty	1 50	
		23 10
Liverpool, English (unfinished), per 2,240 pounds	21 70	
Duty	1 50	
		23 20
Newcastle, English (finished), per 2,240 pounds	24 70	
Duty	2 00	
		26 70

The above is a correct statement from my books.

JOHN H. LEEDS.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. JOHN H. LEEDS, of New Haven, Conn., addressed the Commission as follows :

Mr. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN : The industry that I am delegated to represent, the manufacture of extracts of dye-woods, is rather a peculiar one, differing from any other business with which I am acquainted in this country in its relations to foreign trade.

The following statement, setting forth the facts relating to this industry, has been signed by leading firms interested in the business, and gives some statistics which will be of value in considering the subject. We say :

“Our industry, which is one of American origin and development, having succeeded in building up an important manufacture, involving large invested interests and giving employment to many skilled and other laborers, now, owing to an unjustly favored foreign competition, is imperiled, except the fostering care of the government accord to it the protection which she grants to other industries.

“The statistics showing the importations of crude dye-woods for the past six years are worthy of attention :

	Tons.
July 1, 1875, to July 1, 1876.....	75,248
July 1, 1876, to July 1, 1877.....	60,278
July 1, 1877, to July 1, 1878.....	78,914
July 1, 1878, to July 1, 1879.....	74,919
July 1, 1879, to July 1, 1880.....	96,068
July 1, 1880, to July 1, 1881.....	85,950

“During the same period the looms and mills of our country have given a rapidly augmented product, and the manufacture of textile fabrics has advanced with marvelous strides; how happens it, then, that this contingent business, the manufacture of dye-wood extracts, has not progressed with an equal pace? Their consumption has been in a direct ratio with the increase in the cotton and woolen manufacture, and yet the statistics show no material increase in our business. The only competition in manufacturing dye-wood extracts is found in France, where the manufacturers were long carefully protected by their government by prohibitory laws, which sealed their ports to the introduction of all American dyeing extracts, and even of yarns and fabrics which had been dyed, colored, or printed. In 1881 France modified its tariff so as to admit dye-wood extracts at a duty equal to 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ cents per pound on logwood extracts, and 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound on red and yellow wood extracts. French manufacturers have, within the past few years, prospered to such an extent under these favoring laws, that they have not only supplied their own markets fully, but have also made serious inroads into the continental markets, supplying a large proportion of their vast consumption.

“To show the rapid growth of this industry in France, your attention is called to the following statistics, showing the importations of crude dye-woods into that country from 1867 to the present time :

	Tons.
1868.....	42,742
1869.....	63,904
1870.....	67,284
1871.....	47,490

	Tons.
1872.....	51,930
1873.....	44,436
1874, for seven months only.....	33,323
1875.....	82,488
1876.....	94,425
1877.....	75,676
1878.....	70,795
1879.....	108,873
1880.....	113,512
1881, for first six months only.....	60,519

“The marked success of French effort to introduce their products into the United States, which imposes an ad valorem duty of only 10 per cent. on dye-wood extracts, may be seen at a glance from the following statistics of the importation of dye-wood extracts:

Importations of dye-wood extracts into the United States.

	Pounds.
July 1, 1875, to July 1, 1876.....	916,573
July 1, 1876, to July 1, 1877.....	1,175,218
July 1, 1877, to July 1, 1878.....	1,323,100
July 1, 1878, to July 1, 1879.....	2,796,631
July 1, 1879, to July 1, 1880.....	5,376,052
July 1, 1880, to July 1, 1881.....	6,091,388

“The large increase in this industry in France has been very disadvantageous to this country in diminishing our exports to the West Indies, whence the logwood supply of the world is drawn. Our vessels take there cargoes of American products, flour, beef, pork, lumber, &c., also manufactured goods of various descriptions, and bring back the crude dye-wood as a return cargo and remittance.

“How the French have succeeded in transferring to themselves the greater portion of the continental trade in dye-wood extracts, introduced by ourselves, and until the last ten years mainly supplied by ourselves, and how they have also supplied a considerable and rapidly increasing proportion of our own domestic consumption, will be apparent as we consider further their advantage in the item of cheaper labor. The average pay of our workmen is not less than \$1.75 per day, while the wages of corresponding labor in France will not exceed 70 cents per day. It should also be borne in mind that French manufacturers have some advantage over us in the singular prejudice that some of our consumers entertain against home-made goods—a circumstance which secures for them a considerable trade here, and which would probably maintain it sufficiently to secure to the United States all of the present customs revenue derived from that source, even with an increased tariff. Neither would a better protective tariff for us increase the price of American goods. The effect of competition between American manufacturers renders high prices impossible for any considerable time. Moderate prices and the continued welfare of the consumers of dye-wood extracts will best be secured by a protection which will strengthen and make sure the American manufacturers in their unfairly handicapped race with their French competitors.

“That dye-wood extracts are raw material is an opinion which needs refutation with those only who are ignorant of these products and their manufacture. Subject as they are to all the conditions of complicated machinery, scientific knowledge, and skilled labor incident to other manufactures, they seem likewise to merit the same governmental recognition and fostering care. Interests both of capital and labor now so

extensively employed in this industry cannot but view with alarm their competitors' increasing strength and growing commercial supremacy, so that the question which presses upon us to-day is not so much whether we may regain our trade on the continent of Europe as it is whether we are to retain a fair and firm footing in our own home market.

"We respectfully ask that the Commission shall recommend that the tariff upon these goods be made more nearly reciprocal with that imposed by France upon the same class of merchandise. Our suggestion is that the items of the present tariff (Heyl's Tariff, page 179, paragraph 1359) be amended so as to read as follows:

"Upon extracts and decoctions of logwood, 1½ cents a pound.

"Upon extracts and decoctions of fustic and redwoods, and upon extracts and decoctions of all other dye-woods, 2 cents a pound.

"We also recommend that crude dyewoods be continued on the free list.

- "THE STAMFORD MANUFACTURING COMPANY,
"New York and Stamford, Conn.,
"By E. HARRISON SANFORD,
N. Y. DYEWOOD, EXTRACT AND CHEMICAL CO.,
"New York,
"By JOSEPH C. BALDWIN, treasurer,
"BOSTON DYEWOOD AND CHEMICAL COMPANY,
"Boston, Mass.,
"By CHAS. E. THAYER, president,
"ATLANTIC DYEWOOD COMPANY,
"Boston, Mass.,
"By CHAS. DAVIS, Jr., treasurer,
"JOHNSON & Co.,
"Uncasville, New Linden County, Connecticut,
"GIFFORD, ATKEN & INNIS,
"New York and Poughkeepsie.
"JOHN M. SHARPLESS & Co.,
"Philadelphia and Chester, Pa.
"BIDDLE & WEISS,
"Windmill Island, Philadelphia.
"W. WHARTON FISHER,
"Philadelphia and Camden, N. J.
"BROWNING & BROTHERS,
"Philadelphia and Camden, N. J."

By Commissioner BOTTLER:

Question. You say that you want a portion of the dyewoods to continue on the free list?—Answer. Yes, sir.

Q. Brazil wood, fustic, and other dyewoods in sticks are on the free list already, but I see that decoctions of dyewoods, not otherwise specified, are placed at 10 per centum ad valorem?—A. That is not on the woods; it is upon the extract; extracts of dyewoods, logwood, &c.

Q. How do you propose to have the duty assessed?—A. If I gave my own personal views I should say that an ad valorem duty would be the most just and equitable; but at a meeting of the association of manufacturers I was overruled, and, of course, I present the views of the association and ask that the present rate of duty, 10 per centum, a very low rate, shall be continued. The equivalent ad valorem of the specific duty we ask for would be about 12½ to 15 cents.

Q. It is an increase of the present rates of duty somewhat, is it not?—A. Yes, sir, a slight increase; still it is an exceedingly low rate. We

are forced to ask this, owing to a peculiar combination of circumstances. This is a peculiarly American industry. It was begun in this country in 1832, and the Stamford Manufacturing Company, of which I am a managing director, was the pioneer company, and we have supplied Europe for many years with the material. Nearly every steamer going across the Atlantic takes some of the material or the extract. We were enabled to do this by the improved methods employed here over and above those used in Germany, France, and England. During all these years our system has been pirated to that extent that within sixty days a Frenchman has come to this country and taken out a patent upon the identical method that we started on in 1832. Of course his patent is good for nothing; but I will not discuss that part of the question. Under the fostering care of a prohibitory tariff, France has cultivated her industry to that extent that it has created a prejudice in the minds of Europeans, to some slight extent, against our products, though it has grown to be an immense industry in this country. The French have revised their tariff, and, as I show you, they have made it a specific duty of 20 and 30 francs per hundred kilos. For the last six years they have been making, as a petition expresses it, sad inroads upon our home industry. A great many of our manufacturers were not content to ask for a lower rate of protection than the French rate. But I think myself these figures will be sufficient, and will afford the highest possible amount of revenue to the government, because these extracts will continue to come in, and this will give us the necessary incidental protection without making it onerous or oppressive to the consumer. Justice would demand that it be made reciprocal with the French tariff, but I believe good policy should incline us all to be satisfied with and recommend these rates.

I also desire to present to the Commission from another body of manufacturers a petition upon the subject-matter of licorice paste. The company of which I am a managing director is interested in this as well as the other matter, but the rest of the companies signing the petition in regard to dyewood extracts are not.

"The manufacturers of licorice undersigned beg leave to request of your honorable body that the customs duty on licorice be retained in your revision of the tariff without change.

"This duty is on licorice paste or rolls, 10 cents per pound; licorice juice, 5 cents per pound; licorice root, free.

"The use of licorice paste is confined almost entirely to the manufacture of plug tobacco. It sweetens and preserves it, and serves to prevent throat irritation sometimes caused by tobacco. While thus benefiting tobacco it does not increase its cost, as the price is less, and it gives *additional weight* to the tobacco. Licorice in rolls, or stick, is the same article in a more convenient form for use as a medicine or confection; its consumption for these purposes bears but a very small proportion to the use of licorice in tobacco.

The average price of licorice paste in this country previous to 1861, or when the duty was increased, never in any one year fell below 20 cents per pound. During the past five years the average price has never exceeded 15 cents, and the quality has been greatly improved. These facts, both as to improved quality and diminished cost to consumers, are due solely and entirely to the protection afforded by the present duty. When the duty was increased to 10 cents per pound English capital and skill were withdrawn from Spain and Asia Minor and established here. New York importers of licorice also engaged in the manufacture, and the consequence was a fierce and unrelenting

American competition, which has continued since, and not relaxed as against foreign competition, as the imports of licorice prove. So well are these conditions understood and appreciated by the plug-tobacco manufacturers (the parties chiefly concerned as purchasing and consuming almost the entire product) that when efforts have been made by a portion of them for free licorice, or a rebate or drawback on licorice used in tobacco, the better informed, representing more than one-half of the entire consumption of manufactured licorice in this country, on several occasions, and as lately as in 1880, petitioned Congress to retain the duty, alleging as a reason their fear that free licorice would check or destroy American competition, which had cheapened and improved the article.

"Not anticipating any further attempt to have the duty changed, we refrain from unnecessarily occupying your valuable time by any lengthy argument, but should an attempt be made, we most respectfully request that an opportunity be afforded us to meet and frustrate such effort by the presentation of facts and arguments that may be within our reach. It is only a few years ago that the manufacturers of licorice became enabled, by tests which could not be ignored and practical comparisons, to successfully combat the general and absurd prejudice against the home-made article, and in isolated districts there are still tobacco manufacturers tenaciously adhering to the prejudice in favor of foreign goods, bequeathed by their fathers. We are therefore at any time liable to attack, and hence our request to be permitted to answer any opponent, should one appear before you.

"THE STAMFORD MANUFACTURING COMPANY,
"Stamford, Conn., and New York.

"S. K. SATTERLEE, *Treasurer*.

"JAMES C. MCANDREW, of New York.

"YOUNG & SMYLLIE, Brooklyn, N. Y.

"S. V. & F. P. SCUDDER, New York.

"WEAVER & STERRY, New York.

"MELLOR & RITTENHOUSE, Philadelphia."

By Commissioner MCMAHON:

Question. Have you seen the letter written on this subject by Mr. Robbins of the firm of McKesson & Robbins? I understood that it was generally accepted by the manufacturers.—Answer. No, sir; I have not seen it.

Q. My recollection is that he recommends (and I understand that the other manufacturers agree to it) 5 cents a pound on all licorice paste, or rolls, and juice, at one uniform rate.—A. This is the first I have heard of it. As a representative of the licorice-paste manufacturers and as a delegate sent by them, after due and careful deliberation, I present you the paper which I have read asking for 10 cents on paste and rolls, 5 cents on juice, which is imported only to a limited extent, and so on.

Commissioner MCMAHON. Possibly I may be mistaken about the matter.

The WITNESS. I understand very well who Mr. Robbins is. He is not a manufacturer of this article at all, and may have been misinformed. He is certainly under an erroneous impression if he has recommended that, for it does not represent any accepted agreement, and not a single manufacturer that I know of has or would advocate such a thing, or would listen to it unless forced to do so. I wish to make that statement in a most emphatic manner.

R. H. ALLEN.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following statement from Mr. R. H. ALLEN, of Rienzi plantation, Lafourche Parish, Louisiana, in regard to the duty on sugar and rice, was ordered to be printed:

GENTLEMEN: I object to reducing the tariff on sugar and rice for the following reasons:

First. Because I think it the duty of all good governments to protect the agriculture of the country as well as the manufacturing interest. In protecting sugar and rice, you add to the wealth of the whole nation; in that all the proceeds of our crops go to make markets for Western and Northern products. We buy our coal, our mules and horses, our corn, oats, and hay, all our provisions, also lime, hoop-poles, our wagons and carts, iron, steel, nails, all our cutlery, in fact everything we consume. This industry gives employment to all the labor in the country at good wages. I think we have rich lands enough in the South, if they were cultivated, to supply all the sugar and molasses this country requires.

Second. As you honorable gentlemen of the Commission well know, large sums of gold pass out of this country to Cuba and other foreign ports for sugar and molasses, which never return. What few articles Cuba takes from us are paid for in depreciated bank paper. Spain knows well how to protect her planters from the trade of foreigners, though she oppresses them herself. This subject has been more ably discussed before you than I can do. I will close by begging to suggest the reduction on the internal revenue, and allow the present duties on imports to stand.

SAMUEL MULLEN.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., October 16, 1882.

The following communication from Mr. SAMUEL MULLEN, of New Orleans, La., in regard to the tariff upon rice, was ordered to be printed:

GENTLEMEN: I beg leave respectfully, in behalf of the Louisiana rice farmers, to present for your consideration facts which in their opinion justify them in asking for an increase of the duties on cleaned rice, from 2½ cents per pound, as at present levied, to 3 cents per pound, and on uncleaned rice from 2 to 2½ cents, and on paddy or rough rice to 2 cents, and on rice flour to 3 cents per pound.

In asking the Commission to report favorably upon the increase of duties as suggested, I beg to submit detailed facts and figures which can be vouched for by the most reliable personal statistics, and shall avoid all argument or theory, merely inviting attention to the salient point, that a repeal or any reduction of the existing tariff would utterly annihilate the rice industry of this great State, while the cost of production renders the business barely remunerative even under the protection at present afforded; and in this connection I wish to make the positive statement that *the annually increased production of rice in Louisiana, and the very existence of the industry are solely due to the protection accorded by the tariff.*

Up to the close of the late war the cultivation of rice in Louisiana was on a very small scale, chiefly confined to the parishes of Plaquemines and Saint Bernard, and on lands that were entirely unsuited for any other purpose. The annual production was insignificant, and the means and appliances for cleaning the rice for market were so meager and crude that the article, then generally called Creole rice, was hardly known, if at all, outside of New Orleans or on the coast, and it may be said that all our supplies were derived from Charleston and Savannah, quite a fleet of small sailing vessels being engaged in the business, but occasionally there were very considerable importations of India rice at New Orleans.

Immediately after the war many whose means had been swept away, and who were unable to revive the culture of cane, directed their attention to rice culture, and in the course of two years preceding 1867 the industry received such an impetus that the New Orleans market was oversupplied in that year, and small shipments were made to the West. I was actively engaged in the business at that time, and for some years after, and am practically familiar with the progress of the industry through all its successive stages since that period. When it became apparent that the interior markets at the West could take the surplus product increased attention was paid to the cultivation. New seed was introduced from Carolina and elsewhere, the milling facilities were augmented and improved, and rapid progress was made in the most approved methods of handling the crop. Prior to the season of 1867-'68 the rice came to market in nondescript packages of irregular size, but the demands of the Western trade compelled the adoption of barrels, largely extending the cooperage industry of New Orleans, and this interest has increased to such an extent that at the present time 300,000 barrels are annually required in the handling of the crop; and three

extensive manufactories, with the latest improved machinery, have been established during the past year to meet this demand, together with the steadily increasing demand for sugar barrels.

THE RICE FARMS.

There were in Louisiana during the past year 932 farms devoted to the culture of rice, which were distributed as follows:

Parishes.	Number of farms.	Production.
		<i>Barrels.</i>
Avoyelles	15	500
Saint Landry	18	900
Lafayette	9	200
Saint Mary	3	650
Terrebonne	35	1,590
Lafourche	288	88,105
Assumption	41	6,922
Iberville	13	24,886
Ascension	12	17,260
Saint James	50	80,155
Saint John	03	29,215
Saint Charles	60	15,143
Jefferson	11	4,070
Orleans	12	9,684
Saint Bernard	11	3,182
Plaquemines	387	55,003

Of these 932 farms, 593 produced less than 100 barrels each.

The total production was 55,422,180 pounds, or 240,966 barrels of cleaned rice.

During the previous year the total production was 61,331,340 pounds, or 266,658 barrels of cleaned rice.

The deficit of the past year was due to the low stage of water in the Mississippi during the summer of 1881, which interfered with irrigation, farmers being compelled to purchase steam engines and pumps to obtain the requisite water, and many small farmers, whose means would not permit the outlay for this purpose, were compelled to abandon their crops.

In this connection I wish to call your attention to the fact, that the rice crop is *the poor man's crop* in this State, thousands of freedmen being engaged in the industry, and the immediate effect of its disturbance or destruction would be the infliction of misery upon this numerous, hard-working class.

There were 80,000 acres of land under cultivation in rice in Louisiana the past year, and the amount now invested in the industry considerably exceeds \$5,000,000.

The annual production, based on last year's results, amounts to \$2,500,000 in value of rough rice, and when cleaned the marketable value is \$3,250,000.

The average production of rough rice per acre is 10 barrels, or 1,620 pounds, worth, on basis of last year's values, \$4.50 per barrel. The average cost of production per acre is about \$30 for planting, cultivating, and harvesting.

The cost of milling is three-fourths of a cent per pound of the result in cleaned rice, and there are additional expenses for carriage to the mills, barreling, and other expenses.

It may, therefore, be safely estimated that the minimum cost of production in Louisiana is $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound of cleaned rice.

It is also estimated that more than 50,000 people in Louisiana are directly dependent upon the culture of rice for the means of support; not less than 100 sailing vessels and 30 steamboats are largely engaged in the transportation of the crop to the New Orleans market, to say nothing of the hundred or more steamers plying between this and the Western ports, of whose carrying trade rice forms a large proportion.

THE RICE MILLS.

The milling interest has during the past few years grown to proportions commensurate with the annually increasing crop, and is steadily enlarging, several new mills having commenced operations this season.

In the city of New Orleans there are now in operation 11 mills, with a daily capacity of 1,900 barrels of cleaned rice, and employing regularly and transiently during the year 1,350 hands in various capacities, mostly skilled.

Considerably more than \$1,000,000 is invested in these mills, and the industry is one of the most important factors in the recuperation of the commercial interests of the city.

In the parishes there are 6 mills with a daily capacity of 1,200 barrels of cleaned rice, employing during the year about 600 hands, directly and indirectly, and with more than \$300,000 invested in the business, and new mills are in process of erection.

A RÉSUMÉ.

I have thus briefly sketched the outline of the producing and milling interests for the purpose of showing the actual condition of the industry, and I have clearly demonstrated that the cost of production allows no more than an ordinary profit with all the protection afforded by the tariff, but it must be remembered that these results are based upon even conditions of weather and do not take into account the frequent losses by excessive rains or severe drought, or the annual damage inflicted by the equinoctial gales on the lower coast, which occur during the harvest season, the loss by the September gales this year amounting in Plaquemines parish to 10,000 barrels of cleaned rice, nor do they include the exceptional injury sustained by the low stage of water in the rivers and bayous at intervals of years as during the last year, and the additional expenses rendered necessary for the purchase of engines and pumps for irrigating and cost of running.

Yet it is clearly shown that the industry directly sustains upwards of 60,000 people, who are mostly small farmers and their families, and it is prosecuted under variable conditions of weather and other dangers, and upon lands which are absolutely useless for any other crop that we know of.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS.

I deem it proper to go beyond the range of the Louisiana interest alone, to present other facts which should merit the careful consideration of the Commission in framing its report with respect to the tariff on rice, and for this purpose I invite your attention to the following statement of the domestic production and consumption of the United

States since 1865, as well as the accompanying statement of the production in Louisiana during the same period:

Years.	Domestic production.	Total consumption.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
1865-'66	11,592,600	63,362,280
1866-'67	12,206,720	76,851,823
1867-'68	14,602,000	53,314,734
1868-'69	26,790,200	70,947,911
1869-'70	53,037,000	95,900,691
1870-'71	47,348,000	73,126,092
1871-'72	30,625,000	93,623,048
1872-'73	52,634,400	114,621,237
1873-'74	62,900,380	126,170,194
1874-'75	68,241,400	115,099,317
1875-'76	72,860,800	119,145,857
1876-'77	81,391,800	135,903,047
1877-'78	77,240,400	125,462,837
1878-'79	84,730,200	121,941,380
1879-'80	86,996,800	135,389,719
1880-'81	117,766,000	175,535,691

The production of Louisiana for the same period was as follows:·

Years.	Cleaned rice.	
	Barrels.	Pounds.
1865-'66	20,978	4,195,000
1866-'67	24,914	4,582,800
1867-'68	21,063	4,982,490
1868-'69	20,960	0,890,800
1869-'70	57,950	13,328,500
1870-'71	37,580	8,043,400
1871-'72	29,979	0,893,790
1872-'73	52,266	12,021,180
1873-'74	96,516	22,198,680
1874-'75	104,415	24,015,450
1875-'76	170,394	39,190,620
1876-'77	187,116	43,036,080
1877-'78	136,587	31,415,010
1878-'79	154,518	35,539,140
1879-'80	100,680	23,158,470
1880-'81	266,658	61,331,340
1881-'82	240,966	55,422,180
1882-'83 (estimated).	275,000	63,250,000

The enormous growth of the domestic industry is apparent at a glance, and it is equally apparent that it has been due to the protection afforded by the tariff.

It appears from the foregoing statistics that the domestic production has increased in seventeen years fully 1,000 per cent., and is rapidly approaching the figures of the annual consumption of the country. The Louisiana swamp lands, unfit for any other purpose, are capable of producing considerably more than enough rice to meet the entire consumptive demand of the United States, and with the continuance of protection to the industry, such a result is only a question of a few years.

This State now produces more than one-half of the total domestic product, as shown by the statistics.

A COMMUNITY OF INTEREST.

It is of the greatest importance to consider in this matter not only the immediate welfare of 60,600 people who are directly involved in the

result, but the community of interest between them and the producing classes of the West. The rice farmer of Louisiana cultivates lands which produce rice alone; he cannot cultivate vegetables or fruits or grain, nor can he raise stock, but is dependent for all his food supplies and necessaries upon the products of the West and North. Here, then, is apparent a mutual interest, the proportions of which can be accurately gauged, and it deserves the deepest consideration.

THE HAWAIIAN TREATY.

I desire to ask that the Commission, before framing its report to the Congress, will inquire into the alleged violation of the stipulations of the so-called commercial reciprocity treaty concluded between the United States of America and His Majesty the King of the Hawaiian Islands, June 3, 1875, and which was officially promulgated by the President of the United States September 9, 1876.

By the terms of that treaty it can only be terminated on September 9, 1884, due notice of twelve months having been given previously.

That treaty admits, among other articles, free of duty, rice, the production of those islands; but it has been repeatedly stated upon most reliable authority that India rice has been largely imported into the United States, by way of Honolulu and other ports in the Sandwich Islands, free of duty. Whether this be true or not the fact remains that so-called Hawaiian rice has been largely introduced into the Western and Northern markets during the past year and sold at prices which practically shut out domestic rice.

I respectfully submit that this is a proper subject for inquiry by the Commission, and if it should be true that the treaty has been violated in any of its provisions, Congress should be asked to abrogate it at once.

It has been my purpose in presenting this matter for your consideration to offer only indisputable facts, and I have studiously avoided any argument or theory in behalf of the constituency whom I represent, but I may be pardoned for saying, in conclusion, that theories cannot controvert facts, and that speculative opinions as to the results of free trade will not satisfy people whose real living interests are linked with the beneficent provisions of a protective tariff.

JOHN A. MCSORLEY.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. JOHN A. MCSORLEY, of New York, was ordered to be printed :

In behalf of various societies, incorporated for philosophical, literary, and religious purposes, I urgently recommend that paragraph 1726 (Heyl's Digest) be amended to read as follows :

Regalia, gems, paintings, statues of whatever material made, and specimens of sculpture, when specially imported, in good faith, for the use of any society, incorporated or established for philosophical, literary, or religious purposes, or for the encouragement of the fine arts, or for the use or by the order of any college, academy, school, or seminary of learning in the United States.

The proposed amendments simply restore the provisions of the law as it stood before the enactment of the Revised Statutes.

The word "*paintings*" was omitted from the existing provisions (Heyl, 1726) *by manifest oversight.* (See Heyl, c. 144 and 650.) "*Statues*" for religious purposes are often made of wood, plaster, composition, &c., carved, partly molded, and works of this kind are now excluded by the construction given by the department to the provisions for statues, &c.

That the above-mentioned articles, when imported as stated above, should be on the free list, as they tend to the encouragement of the fine arts, and do not injure any domestic trade or industry of the United States.

W. H. REINOEHL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. W. H. REINOEHL, wool-hat manufacturer of Reading, Pa., addressed the Commission as follows:

I appear before you representing the wool-hat manufacturers of the city of Reading. We have had no communication with any of the manufacturers in the East. Reading manufactures about one-half of the quantity of wool hats sold in this country in number, though not in value. We make the cheaper kind of goods and the larger quantity. We are in favor of wool to be placed on the free list, and dye-stuff also, if possible, without destroying our own production.

With the present high tariff on wool and hat-bands we have nearly lost all our export trade. In fact, wool hats can now be made in Canada and exported to the United States, and pay an import duty of 25 per cent., and undersell us 20 per cent. in our own market. This is brought about by Canada having wool free, hat-bands 30 per cent. duty, and labor 30 per cent. lower.

We also find that the low tariff on furs enables the fur-hat manufacturers to supply the trade with a low-price fur hat in place of a good wool hat. This they are enabled to do by the low duty of 20 per cent., while the duty on wool is 70 per cent., thus making the duty on wool three and a half times higher than fur, while the fur hat, when finished, brings 100 per cent. more than the wool hat.

It appears to us that the farmer will not suffer my loss if wool is placed on the free list; the decline in the price of wool, if any, would be made up to him in the manufactured woolen goods he buys.

That it is unnecessary to have any tariff on wool to protect our wool-growers is shown by comparing the cost of labor for our farmers in placing one dollar's worth of wheat in the market with one dollar's worth of wool, the labor on the wheat being double the cost of the labor on wool.

The following statement, taken from the Census Reports, shows that although the hat manufacturer uses 8,000,000 pounds of wool, but one-quarter of that amount is imported.

Abstract from incomplete returns of the Tenth Census of woolen manufactures.

	Establishments.	Sets of cards.	Combing machines.	Wool.		
				In condition received.		Scoured.
				Foreign.	Domestic.	
				<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
Woolen goods.....	1,046	5,780	78	20,757,407	176,335,025	102,289,789
Hosiery and knit goods.....	356	616	8	440,753	7,966,187	5,827,692
Carpets.....	199	285	155	34,044,252	2,029,819	23,593,215
Felt goods.....	23	121	721,067	4,192,898	2,671,796
Worsted goods.....	75	258	281	15,687,815	23,646,511	25,025,235
Wool hats.....	41	302	1,865,513	6,074,471	3,535,279
All industries.....	2,643	7,861	517	73,524,812	220,244,269	169,913,007

Abstract from incomplete returns of the Tenth Census of woollen manufactures—Continued.

	Shoddy.	Cotton on cards.	Cotton warp.	Capital.	Value of products.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>		
Woolen goods.....	40,214,381	28,360,754	16,092,263	\$93,911,004	\$160,375,300
Hosiery and knit goods.....	1,739,947	20,750,151	260,511	15,111,020	38,253,683
Carpets.....	60,369		6,636,382	29,486,287	33,158,377
Felt goods.....	2,456,840	1,131,500		1,958,255	3,610,653
Worsted goods.....	190,800	1,757,842	5,178,952	29,411,043	33,350,941
Wool hats.....	1,248,952	185,400		3,605,830	8,490,845
All industries.....	51,911,298	52,191,647	28,774,109	161,484,105	267,263,799

NOTE BY MR. BOND.—It will be seen that 73,524,812 pounds foreign and 220,244,289 pounds domestic wool, as purchased by the manufacturers, yielded to the cards 169,913,069 pounds, which indicates that of the whole wool consumed, at least ten to twelve million pounds must have been in the scoured condition, thus accounting for a consumption of at least 75,000,000 pounds foreign and 270,000,000 pounds domestic, in the usual marketable condition.

The imported wool is of the best quality, and is too high-priced to be put into a wool hat; if it were not, the hatters would use it. They use a little of it in order to make their goods better, but they cannot afford to use it altogether. There are about \$8,000,000 worth of wool hats made and sold out of this \$2,000,000 worth of wool. We have in Reading and in that vicinity about twenty-seven factories, employing 1,625 hands and producing 1,680 dozen hats daily, when run to their full capacity. The industry, however, has been declining; that is, there are fewer hats made now than there have been for the last three or four years, on account of the competition. We used to sell a great many hats to Cuba, which trade has been entirely lost to us. We used also to sell nearly all the Canadian trade their goods, and perhaps three-fourths of that trade has been lost. They are now manufacturing wool hats there, are perfecting their machinery and introducing our skilled labor until theirs becomes adequate, and when that condition is reached they can certainly come into this market and undersell us 5 per cent. We do not favor any high duty on hats. We would rather see hats come in free if we have raw material free. We can, we think, on the labor question compete with them. We did not find any trouble in selling all the hats we made, when the duty in Canada was 16 per cent. We sold nearly all their hats to them; they got a few from England. But since the duty was put up to 25 per cent. they want to buy them that much cheaper, or else they will go to England and buy their goods.

Commissioner McMAHON. I want to correct a wrong impression that your statement may possibly have produced upon the Commission. The importation of wool hats for the year ending June 30, 1881, was less than \$600 in value. Those that were valued at 40 and not above 60 cents a pound paid a compound duty, which averages 93 per cent. and over. Those valued above 60 and not exceeding 80 cents a pound paid a duty averaging 96 per cent. and over. Those valued above 80 cents a pound paid a duty averaging ad valorem 98 per cent. and over. You speak of wool hats, as I understand you, coming in from Canada paying a 25 per cent. duty.

The WITNESS. That is correct; that is, 25 per cent. on the dollar, not on the pound.

Commissioner McMAHON. This is on the dollar, too.

The WITNESS. I thought you said per pound. We have no trouble with the wool hats that are imported into this country at all.

Commissioner McMAHON. I should not think you would have, with less than \$600 worth imported into the country during the last year.

The WITNESS. But we shall have trouble with wool hats exported under the high tariff on wool from Canada. They cannot make them in England and import them at present; they may in the future. Germany is now supplying Cuba with the wool hats that this country used to supply, the difference in the wool being so high. Seventy per cent. on the wool gives them more than the duty on the hat alone, and they have an advantage in Canada of at least 30 per cent. on the bands. Very few bands are made in this country, and of cotton bands none. The duty on them is 50 to 60 per cent. I think a duty of 30 per cent. on bands would protect us. It should not certainly be higher than the duty is on fur.

W. H. FOLWELL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

MR. W. H. FOLWELL, of Philadelphia, manufacturer of dress goods, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: Taking it for granted that you desire to know the actual workings of the tariff in all its phases, I propose to state very briefly what it has been possible for a private firm to do under its workings.

Three years ago I went to Europe and brought out men and machinery and commenced to manufacture goods. The protection given us was 6 cents per square yard and 35 per cent. ad valorem; since that time we have grown rapidly, and now give employment to 250 people, mainly coming out from Europe for us. We pay out \$140,000 in wages; for wool, mainly home grown, \$150,000; for cotton, \$70,000; for iron, leather, lumber, and oils, \$50,000.

We have \$250,000 in machinery and stock, directly interested in the permanency of the present tariff.

We claim that to the United States protection is an unmixed good.

1st. Inducing immigration of skilled labor; bad trade in Europe is always followed by artisans coming to us.

2d. Developing our own resources, making a home market for the farmer.

3d. Giving the people good wages.

4th. Giving them cheap goods through competition, as you all know what it has done in cottons; the same result will follow in woolens and worsteds.

We say to you frankly that we hope you will stand by the policy that has brought us prosperity as a whole people.

One word about the wool interest. We believe that the increase in the wool clip under the present protective tariff will give us cheap wool, and we advise no change.

We know some manufacturers desire fine wools brought in at a lower rate, but we would rather wait for fine wools to be grown here, as they will be, than to strike a blow at our grower by letting a foreigner in.

We give you the above facts in regard to our business, because we think surely we deserve a policy of support, for we have fed a thousand streams, and every home industry you can name has been benefited by our enterprise, made possible alone, as we repeat, by a wise protection.

S. A. RULON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. S. A. RULON, of the firm of J. W. Rulon & Sons, importers, Philadelphia, addressed the Commission as follows:

I have been requested by some of my commercial friends, our house being the oldest East Indian house in Philadelphia, to call your attention to the subject of the discriminating duties on East India goods imported from places east of the Cape of Good Hope. It is a subject which has not claimed your attention at all, I think, in any shape. I will first present a memorial which has been freely signed by a large number of firms in the city. It is as follows:

"The undersigned, being largely engaged in the direct importation of East India merchandise from the ports of growth or manufacture to the United States, beg hereby to call the attention of your honorable body to the recent repeal of section 14 of the tariff act of July 14, 1862, which relates to and was intended to foster direct trade between East Indian and Chinese ports and the United States. We most earnestly protest against said repeal, as being of such a nature as to work very disastrously to nearly every importing and shipping interest in this country, without any corresponding benefit to our American importers, but largely in favor of English and continental houses. Their markets being largely supplied with certain inferior descriptions of merchandise which are sent forward from the East Indies on consignment by native producers and merchants and stored in warehouses, and must eventually be sold, they are often forced to markets at ruinous prices. The repeal of the discriminating duty admits of these goods being sent to this country by foreign houses to compete with direct importations made from the East Indies by and for account of your memorialists, and much to our disadvantage. We, therefore, beg that you will, in framing new tariff act, give this matter your serious consideration, and allow said section to be again placed on the statutes, for, without this much, direct trade from eastern countries to the United States must and will be discontinued and our American importers of these goods made subservient to European agents and commission houses, and will eventually result in the stoppage of what is now almost the only remunerative employment of large American sailing vessels. We respectfully submit to your honorable body that if the sugar and coffee interests require the repeal of the 10 per cent. discriminating duty heretofore imposed, they are of sufficient importance to warrant special legislation, instead of a general act affecting many interests adversely."

This petition is signed by all the leading importers in Philadelphia interested in the trade.

At the same time I present from Boston a memorial which was signed there by fifteen of the largest and most important houses. It is the same memorial precisely.

This is a matter of such great importance that I am surprised it has not been brought to your attention before. The repeal of the act is entirely in the interest of foreigners, and is much to our disadvantage. The passage of this discriminating duty act in 1862 has been the means

of increasing direct imports from Indian countries to the United States. The business is a very large and important one, as it comprises the products of all countries east of the Cape of Good Hope. The effect of this repeal will not be to cheapen these products here to the consumer, because we import them now direct. There is no duty hardly on any of them, and they are brought out at the lowest rates of freight that vessels can give. The price cannot be reduced unless you reduce the original value at the port where they are shipped. No tariff act of any kind will affect that matter; it is a question of supply and demand, regulated by the crops principally.

I have prepared some memoranda of the direct imports from two of those ports with which we are most familiar, viz, Calcutta and Singapore, showing what the direct imports were for seven years prior to passage of the act of July, 1862, which imposed discriminating duties, and also, for comparison, statement of direct imports for seven years immediately preceding the repeal of the act, by which you will observe a great increase on the direct trade between those periods, due, no doubt, in great measure to the protection given to the American importer against foreign competition.

The government statistics show that the receipts of revenue under the act were very trifling, owing to the fact that the protection given to the American importer by it fully prevented the foreigners from interfering with our direct trade, as they were not able to pay the additional 10 per cent. duty and ship to our ports the products of eastern countries from their English and continental warehouses.

The discriminating-duty act was never intended for the production of revenue, but simply to protect and foster an all-important interest solely belonging to the importing and shipping merchant of the United States, and the fact of the small receipts arising from it gives the most conclusive proof that it was effectual and to the purpose for which it was created.

Average of direct imports to the United States.

FROM SINGAPORE.

Articles.	Seven years previous to passage of act of July, 1862.	Seven years previous to repeal in 1862.
	<i>Per annum.</i>	<i>Per annum.</i>
Block tin.....piculs..	14,000	58,000
Gambier.....do....	41,500	118,000
Pepper.....do....	20,500	51,000
Sago (pearl and flour).....do....	6,500	13,300
Nutmeg and mace.....do....	1,500	2,900
Gums.....do....	800	9,800

FROM CALCUTTA.

Catch.....bags...	9,000	40,000
Goat-skins.....bales..	2,500	5,000
Shellac.....cases...	4,100	11,500
Jute and jute-butts.....bales..	25,000	291,000
Cow and buffalo hides.....do..	6,900	10,700
Indigo.....cases...	1,700	3,400

These are the leading articles from those two ports, and comprise but a small portion of the exports from all East Indian countries. We have not referred to the hemp, sugar, indigo, gums, &c., from Manila, Batavia, Java, &c., nor the teas, spices, silks, &c., from China and Japan, as we have not statistics at hand to give them, but have no doubt they would show a like result. Now, with our most careful observation, we fail to see where or how the repeal of that act can in any way benefit the American importer or ship-owner, or the consumers of those Eastern products, but, on the contrary, it will inure entirely to the benefit of foreign houses, who, with their agencies established in our midst, will flood our market with the contents of their warehouses, much to our disadvantage. Our labor and capital have for twenty years been largely invested in this growing enterprise, and with our energies it has increased to enormous proportions, and, gentlemen, must it now be destroyed by the avaricious grasp of the foreigner, be he English, Greek, or German, for they are all banded together for the purpose of bringing about such a change as will break down our direct trade and make us subservient to their foreign will?

Beside all this, the repeal will not in any measure cheapen the goods to the consumer, as we are now importing direct, at the cheapest rate of freight that vessels can possibly sail at, while almost all our articles are free of duty (when brought direct), and nothing can reduce their cost here to the consumer, except a fall in price in the producing countries, and that is a matter that no tariff legislation here can control or alter; the laws of supply and demand connected with the annual crops produced are the only regulators. Another very great disadvantage under which we labor at present time, with cable and steamer at our command, is this: In the event of any great changes in market price here of such produce, the foreign agent of English or continental houses can cable to the parent house in London or Liverpool and in (10) ten days have the goods at our doors, while we with all possible dispatch cannot reach the East Indian ports with cable and steam and get our goods here in less than (60) sixty or (65) sixty-five days, thus giving the foreign houses always that great advantage over us.

The act creating the discriminating duty was of purely American origin, brought forth during the struggles of our civil rebellion when our foreign friends were not as anxious to shake us by the hand as they are to-day; it was intended solely and entirely for the protection of American interests, and has well answered the purpose for which it was created. While, on the contrary, the repeal of the act is purely of foreign origin, and designed for their sole and entire benefit, and the trade which we have fostered and protected for so long a time must, under that repeal, languish and pass into the hands of our foreign neighbors, to our own destruction and to the direct injury of all direct American importers of eastern products and American ship owners who send their vessels to eastern seas.

We ask your earnest consideration of our petition, signed by about (15) fifteen of the leading importing houses in Boston and by nearly all of those in Philadelphia; and knowing, as we do, that you are desirous in your deliberations of advancing the interests of your own countrymen, and feeling that we, as the representatives of a great commercial and maritime interest, are entitled to your protection, we rest our cause in your hands, trusting that you will see the matter in the light which we do, and grant our petition by a restoration of the discriminating duty act, and not allow our rights as American citizens to be trampled on.

I desire also to read the following statement on this same subject, which has been signed by leading importing houses in Boston :

"It has long been the object of the London houses in the East India trade to monopolize that trade with this country and to make London the great central depot for East India products, supplying us with these goods as required when they could make a profit out of us and relieve their market from surplus stocks.

"The imposition of the 10 per cent. discriminating duty put a stop to this pleasant monopoly, and we have gone on steadily increasing our direct import trade with the East, to the large extent shown by your statistics, and our supply of second-hand goods from London has diminished to corresponding ratio.

"Consumers could count on getting regular supplies as their wants required direct from the place of production at uniform cost.

"Removing this duty is playing into the hands of the London houses, Greeks, Jews, and Germans; and the direct import trade from East Indies will be amongst things of the past.

"Our own houses in Calcutta, Singapore, &c., must be closed, and we shall be entirely dependent on London for supplies of East Indian products. It is a heavy blow to our merchants who have established houses in India and built up an important business, relying in this duty remaining unchanged.

"Our direct importation of indigo alone last year amounted to (\$3,000,000) three million dollars, and the greater part of this trade will be diverted to London by the removal of the duty.

"We earnestly hope that the Tariff Commission will give this subject careful consideration and recommend the continuance of the 10 per cent. discriminating duty."

"WHITNEY BROS. & Co.,
 "BOSTON DYEWOOD AND CHEMICAL COMPANY,
 "JOS. C. STEVENS, *Treasurer*.
 "W. B. ATKINSON.
 "HOWE & GOODWIN.
 "TEMPLE B. FAY.
 "E. D. BROOKS & Co.
 "CYRUS WAKEFIELD & Co.
 "J. GARDNER CURTIS & Co."

By the PRESIDENT:

Question. I will ask you if the general facts you have presented here were brought to the attention of the Ways and Means Committee at the time of the repeal of this act?—Answer. I do not think they were.

The PRESIDENT. I think at the time this movement was made some member of the Committee of Ways and Means requested some persons in Boston to obtain information in regard to this matter, and the merchants, thinking it of little consequence, perhaps, did not attend to it. My impression is that the law was passed without any full presentation of the case such as is now presented to us.

The WITNESS. I am not aware of anything having been done by the merchants at that time. The repeal was gotten up principally in the interest of foreign houses and foreign agencies in New York.

Q. And without the facts now presented being brought to the attention of Congress?—A. I never have known of the facts being presented to Congress. We were very much surprised when we found that the repealing act was passed.

By Commissioner McMAHON:

Q. Are you aware that there has been comparatively little of that duty collected of late years, owing to decisions of the Treasury Department?—A. I am not aware of any such decisions. There has been but little discriminating duty collected, from the fact that the 10 per cent. duty has prevented the English, French, and German houses from shipping their goods here, and it has been a protection to us in our direct trade with India to have this 10 per cent. duty on. The fact that but little discriminating duty has been paid, is owing to their inability to import the goods in competition with us.

Q. But have not goods been shipped from the countries east of the Cape of Good Hope for the European markets, and then transhipped to the United States from those European markets, thus rendering nugatory the object and intent of the law, which was to discriminate in favor of direct trade between the United States and those distant countries?—A. I know that has been done, but of course illegitimately and dishonestly. Goods have been warehoused in English warehouses, and brought to this country, and I have seen goods on the docks at Boston with the English warehouse marks on them which should have paid the 10 per cent. discriminating duty.

Q. What would be the effect on the Pacific coast trade of the restoration of this tax?—A. I know but little about that trade.

Q. There we have direct trade with those countries?—A. I scarcely know what the effect would be. The imports of East India goods into San Francisco have been very light. I do not refer particularly to China and Japan, because I am not so familiar with imports from those countries; but it affects them all. We import a great many goods from England, but they are direct importations on bills of lading—being only transhipped from one steamship to another; but after going to the custom-house they are liable to the 10 per cent. duty. It is merely a protection to the American importer of goods direct from the East Indies, as against the foreign agencies of New York, which are being established every day. We have frequent applications from houses in London, Liverpool, and other places wishing to serve us; and a week ago a friend of mine from New York said it was going to work injury to our trade. He said that he was in London the day on which this repealing act passed the House of Representatives, and he said it was a perfect gala day amongst the East India merchants there. One of them said to him: "Now we have got you where we want you; the American trade is ours, not yours."

WILLARD WARNER.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Hon. WILLARD WARNER, President of the Tecumseh Iron Company, Tecumseh, Ala., in regard to the duty on pig-iron, was ordered to be printed:

In the matter of pig-iron, I recommend that the tariff be left as it is, and in this I think all pig-iron makers of the South will agree.

With us it is a question of labor. We cannot make a ton of charcoal hot-blast iron for less than \$15. In Alabama and Georgia the materials, in a state of nature, for a ton of iron, cost only about 65 cents; that is, ore in the ground, timber on the stump, and lime in the quarry, leaving \$14.35 for labor. We pay about double English wages, or \$7 per ton of metal more than is paid in England. This is just the duty on pig. With English wages we would need no protection and could defy the world in cheapness and quality of iron. Scotch pig even now comes to Rome, Ga., in competition with Southern irons.

All classes in the iron region have been benefited by manufactures, and none less than the capitalists; laborers by employment and higher wages, farmers by a home market for all their productions except cotton; merchants, mechanics, lawyers, and doctors by increased business. A squirrel or a chicken will now buy a plow-point; a bushel of potatoes or of blackberries and a cord of wood eight, at any of the charcoal furnaces. In Alabama and Georgia lands have doubled and trebled in value in their vicinity since their construction.

In general, I am in favor of the plan and policy of protection as taught by Henry Clay and Horace Greeley, and as applied in the present tariff; that is, a tariff to raise sufficient revenue to meet all the demands of the national government in peace times, with the aid of a moderate tax on liquors and tobacco, with duties so distributed as to afford the largest protection to home labor.

Individually and nationally, moral duty, like charity, begins at home, and, as General Garfield well said, "When each has cared best for home, the best will have been done for all and for the whole."

THOMAS G. BENNETT.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. THOMAS G. BENNETT, representing the Winchester Repeating Arms Company, of New Haven, Conn., and the Union Metallic Cartridge Company, of Bridgeport, Conn., addressed the Commission as follows:

I appear here to invite the attention of the Commission to a matter connected with our own business, that of the Winchester Repeating Arms Company, and I am also authorized by the Union Metallic Cartridge Company to speak in their name regarding the same matter. I have prepared a paper in which there are quite a number of tables of figures, but we have endeavored to make it as short as possible. Both of these firms have been accustomed to manufacture largely metallic ammunition in all sizes and forms for foreign governments. For a long time we had the business to ourselves. It originated in this country under patents, but foreign manufacturers have acquired our machinery and our art, and we have to compete with them in price under conditions which are crowding us out of the business. They can buy their material much cheaper than we can. That is true of all their materials. So far as our export business is concerned, we are relieved to some extent in the matter of gunpowder, that is, the saltpeter in the gunpowder and the lead in the cartridges, by the provisions of the drawback law. But the provisions of that drawback law do not extend to the brass which is contained in the shells of the cartridges. We laid this matter before the Treasury Department, and tried to show them that brass, when made up in metallic cartridges, should be subject to drawback as well as lead and gunpowder. But the law is so worded that they are not at liberty to allow us a drawback for the brass when made into cartridge shells. I have prepared an article here requesting finally that the drawback law should be changed so as to apply to any article of foreign manufacture which has been imported and paid duties, in order that we may be able to buy at the same price as foreign manufacturers, where we are obliged to compete in the same markets. As the law now reads, only articles wholly manufactured of imported materials can be exported for benefit of the drawback. The Treasury ruling is, in short, that a metallic cartridge shell is not wholly manufactured of imported materials when it contains a primer. There are many reasons why we cannot import the primers or make them of foreign material; also many reasons why a shell without the primer would not be of value in foreign markets; so that we are at great disadvantage in this way. We should like to have the drawback clause, section 4 of the law of August 5, amended by inserting the words "or any part," after the word "wholly," and by striking out the clause commencing with the word "provided" down to the word "respectively," so that when amended it would read "From and after the passage of this act there shall be allowed on all articles wholly or in part manufactured of articles imported on which duties have been paid, when exported, a drawback equal in amount to the duty paid on such materials, and no more, to be ascertained under such regulations as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury." Having this, if we desire foreign trade, we can use foreign materials and go into foreign markets. For our own home trade we ask nothing more. We are ready to be put on the same footing as any other manufacture. We do not see that the tariff law needs any other change, so far as we are concerned.

I omitted to state one fact, and that is; that the drawback law pro-

vides that the government shall retain 10 per cent. of the amount of the duties from the drawback ; that is, you do not receive the whole amount of the duty which you have paid, but the amount of duty less 10 per cent. This 10 per cent. upon brass shells, which pay a duty of 45 per cent., would be in itself a considerable tariff, and in the proposed drawback clause I have stricken out the 10 per cent. clause as it heretofore existed. The amount of 10 per cent. upon such duties would pay the government very little, and it is a great impediment to us. About two thousand hands were employed at one time in 1871, '72, and '73, in the manufacture of cartridges for foreign governments. At present I think there are no large contracts in this country at all. The English and Belgian manufacturers have the advantage in a government shell of about \$1.25, which comes from the cost of brass alone. They have cheaper labor, which, however, we do not think is good as ours. We only ask protection in our foreign trade in the way in which we have proposed.

By Commissioner McMAHON :

Question. What section of the law was it which you referred to just now?—Answer. I referred to section 4 of the law of August 5, 1861. That does not cover the shells. We want something to cover shells and all material imported for use in our foreign trade.

Q. That is all you are interested in?—A. Yes, sir; that is all we ask. I will leave this petition with you.

The petition presented reads as follows :

“We desire to call your attention to some of the features of the tariff law, and of the rulings of the Treasury Department under this law, whereby a measure intended for the protection of the people is made oppressive to some of them, without promoting any offsetting advantage to the rest.

“In the manufacture of ammunition for export we are obliged to compete with foreign manufacturers, using American machines, and paying lower prices for material and labor. It has resulted from this that a large business, formerly ours, is now in the hands of foreign manufacturers. The materials used in this manufacture are mainly brass (zinc and copper), lead, gunpowder, and fulminating mixture. The brass is purchased either in the sheet, or in the form of cups, as may be most economical. The English manufacturer can buy brass cups at a price, varying with the cost of copper and zinc, about 4 cents cheaper than the American. This difference alone in the cost of material works a manufacturer's profit to the foreign manufacturer at prices for the complete cartridge which would leave the American no margin. By special act of Congress (see section 7 of an act to modify existing laws, dated March 3, 1863, page 56, United States Duties on Imports, 1877, Louis Heyl) a drawback is permitted on saltpeter, and by section 10 of the act of February 8, 1875 (see page 234 of the same book), a drawback is permitted on the lead of which bullets are made, and upon the saltpeter in the gunpowder used, if they are united by a metallic shell in the form of a cartridge, and have paid duties, when such cartridges are exported. By this wise provision of the law the American manufacturer can use foreign lead and powder made of imported saltpeter, but he is obliged to pay one-tenth of the amount of the duties for this privilege more than the foreign manufacturer, and is moreover made to lose the interest on the duties during the time the lead or gunpowder remains in this country. As, however, the duties upon lead and saltpeter are not great, this amount retained by the government is not onerous. Brass shells, however, cannot be exported for benefit of drawback. There is no sale for the shell alone, uncombined with the primer and unloaded, and if primed or loaded the

Treasury Department decides that it is not an article 'wholly manufactured of articles imported,' as section 4 of the act of August 5, 1861, requires. (See United States Statutes at Large, vol. xii, page 292, or page 37 United States Duties on Imports, 1877, Louis Heyl.) This law also provides that 'ten per cent. of the amount of all drawback so allowed shall be retained for the use of the United States.' The duty on brass cups is 45 per cent. If we take the English price, at 20 cents per pound, the 10 per cent. remaining with the government would amount to nine-tenths of one cent per pound. This would give the foreign manufacturer an advantage of from 22 to 27 cents per thousand in military cartridges, the shells of which weigh from 25 to 30 pounds per thousand. Thus, both by the wording of the law and by the clause exacting 10 per cent. of the duty, the business of importing brass cups to be exported for benefit of drawback in the form of metallic ammunition is prevented. The magnitude of the business thus lost has been in times past considerable. Foreign governments alone have bought under various contracts between the years of 1872 and 1878, more than eight millions of dollars worth of cartridges, giving employment at times, directly and indirectly, to about two thousand mechanics and operatives. At present, however, very little can be done. The foreign manufacturer is now provided with American machines (which he has not been slow to improve), and thus has a great advantage over the American manufacturer, who cannot buy his materials at the same price. To afford relief, home manufacturers should be allowed to export, for benefit of drawback, any material which has paid duties, and in any form or mixture, or however combined. The government should not retain 10 per cent. of the duty. Americans should not be obliged to pay duties on foreign materials when sold abroad. Section 4 of the law of August 5, 1861, should be amended by inserting the words "or any part" after the word "wholly," and by striking out the clause commencing with the word "provided" and ending with the word "respectively." When so amended it would read, "From and after the passage of this act there shall be allowed on all articles wholly or in part manufactured of articles imported on which duties have been paid when exported a drawback equal in amount to the duty paid on such materials, and no more, to be ascertained under such regulations as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury." This would work harm to none. The producer of copper and zinc cannot or will not furnish metal at prices which will make brass to meet the foreign price. The roller or manufacturer of brass cups is in the same condition. The government would lose very little. An examination of the records at the custom-house of New York shows that American producers of copper send about one-fourth of their product abroad. As the copper producers are sellers abroad, their business cannot be harmed by new buyers in foreign markets. The importations of ingot copper into New York are a fair test of the importations into the country, and are as follows:

Year.	Pounds.	Duty.	Revenue.
1874	684, 240	<i>Per pound.</i> 5 cents....	\$34, 212 45
1875	138, 634	...do	6, 931 70
1876	128, 897	...do	6, 444 85
1877	87, 418	...do	4, 370 90
1878	73, 718	...do	3, 685 00
1879	640, 295	...do	32, 314 75
1880	2, 491, 854	...do	124, 592 70
1881	425, 886	...do	21, 294 30
Total	4, 076, 951		233, 847 55

Against this importation we have the following record of exports:

	Pounds.		Pounds.
1874.....	8,300,696	1878.....	13,337,623
1875.....	7,436,382	1879.....	13,013,519
1876.....	16,192,529	1880.....	318,761
1877.....	11,418,143	1881.....	7,029,539
	<u>43,350,750</u>		<u>33,690,442</u>
			<u>43,356,750</u>
Making a total of.....			77,050,192

"Deducting the amount of imports from the amount of exports, we find that 72,379,241 pounds were exported during the years 1874 to 1881, inclusive. This shows very clearly that American producers have been exporters for the past eight years at the rate of over nine million pounds per annum. The following table will show how completely the United States is self-supporting in its copper production:

Year.	Production.	Exports less imports.	Remaining for United States use.	Actual consumption.
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
1876.....	40,700,000	10,063,632	24,636,368	30,636,368
1877.....	42,000,000	11,330,725	31,669,275	31,600,000
1878.....	42,000,000	13,263,905	28,736,095	33,030,000
1879.....	46,500,000	12,367,224	34,132,776	34,132,776
1880.....	57,250,000	2,173,093	59,423,093	48,423,080
1881.....	70,300,000	6,663,653	63,636,347	70,696,350

"The column of actual consumption in this table is obtained by deducting the stocks on hand January 1st from the year's product plus the stock on hand the previous January. As showing the same facts of exports exceeding imports, there is appended the total United States imports over four years, and 1882 up to date. The figures vary some from the New York statement, because the United States fiscal year ends June 30, and the table is given in fiscal years by the United States Bureau of Statistics.

Statement showing the imports into and the exports from the United States of copper and manufactures of copper during the years 1878 to 1882, inclusive.

Fiscal years ending June 30—	Copper, and manufactures of.		
	Pigs, bars, sheets, and old.		All other manufactures.
	Pounds.	Dollars.	Dollars.
IMPORTS.			
1878.....	370,596	49,100	322,418
1879.....	154,955	17,961	276,746
1880.....	5,262,086	821,329	409,893
1881.....	718,616	86,433	387,076
1882.....	744,566	90,945	315,475
DOMESTIC EXPORTS.			
1878.....	11,297,876	2,102,455	217,446
1879.....	17,200,730	2,751,153	79,900
1880.....	4,207,258	667,242	126,213
1881.....	4,805,407	786,860	38,036
1882.....	3,340,351	565,295	93,646
FOREIGN EXPORTS.			
1878.....	126,847	13,388	122,845
1879.....	120	30	8,406
1880.....	233,457	42,532	14,357
1881.....	604,584	103,286	13,304
1882.....	108,504	18,636	13,575

“The average price of domestic ingot copper in New York City for the past eight years has been as follows :

	Cents per pound.
1874	23
1875	22½
1876	20½
1877	18½
1878	17½
1879	17½
1880	19½
1881	18½

“On the other hand the sales of copper for export have been, in round numbers, as follows :

	Cents.
February and September, 1877, 10,000,000 pounds, at.....	17½-19½
May, 1879, 10,000,000 pounds, at.....	14-14½
October, 1878, 2,000,000 pounds, at.....	15
April, 1881, 7,000,000 pounds, at.....	15½

“It is observable that export sales were two to three cents lower than the average New York price. Thus it appears that the foreign manufacturer actually obtains American copper cheaper than the American.

“When the law was passed making the duty on copper imported 5 cents per pound, we are informed on good authority that the producers would have been satisfied with about half this amount, and were surprised when the duty was made 5 cents, but asked for and got it. The duty of 5 cents seems to be excessive.

“Again, it is clear that the government could lose little or nothing. This is proven by reference to the table given on page 4, where it is shown that the total amount of copper imported into New York for the eight years, 1874 to 1881 inclusive, was 4,676,951 pounds; at 5 cents per pound the amount realized by the government was \$233,847.55. None of this was imported for the manufacture of cartridges, and it is probable that none of it was imported for exportation for benefit of drawback. The same uses which introduced this copper into the United States will undoubtedly continue to introduce it in the same proportion, and the revenue to the government will be as heretofore. If, however, by reason of the change of the law this revenue should disappear, the table shows that the actual loss to the government would be insignificant.

“The cartridge manufacturer, under such change of law, would be able to greatly increase his business, to employ more operatives, to bring more money into the country, and would be given an even chance with his foreign competitor. The law now permits drawback on lead and the saltpeter of the gunpowder when exported in the form of cartridges. Why should it not also permit drawback on foreign brass, zinc, or copper when so exported? It is believed that by this change in the law all who manufacture for export would be alike benefited.”

UNION METALLIC CARTRIDGE COMPANY.

M. HARTLEY, *President.*

THE WINCHESTER REPEATING ARMS COMPANY.

T. G. BENNETT, *Vice-President.*

ARPAD HARASZTHY ET AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from the California State Vinicultural Society, in regard to the duty on wines and spirits, was ordered to be printed:

The undersigned committee, appointed at a meeting of the State Vinicultural Society of California, beg leave to lay before your honorable body the reasons why no reductions in the present existing duty on foreign still wines, champagnes, and spirits should be made, and why an increase in the present duty on dry and fortified wines is necessary, in order to protect a domestic industry which the present existing import duty discriminates against.

As the efforts of the Wine and Spirit Traders' Society of New York, composed to a great extent, if not altogether, of importers of foreign wines and liquors, are directed towards a reduction of the present duty, permit us to refer you to the letter of their president, Mr. C. McK. Leoser, addressed to your honorable body, under date of August 22, 1882.

His first proposition is to reduce the present duty of \$2 per proof gallon on spirits to \$1.50. We consider this inadvisable, unless the tax on domestic spirits is previously reduced to the extent of 50 cents per proof gallon. Unless this reduction is also made in the tax on domestic liquors, the producer of grape brandy in the United States cannot compete with the foreign manufacturer. The manufacture of California grape brandy is on the increase; the article produced is a pure, wholesome distillation of the grape, in contradistinction to the adulterated spirits that form the bulk of the importations from France.

The domestic product has to pay an internal-revenue tax of 90 cents per proof gallon, and it can be laid down in New York City, tax paid, and after the payment of excessive freight, at from \$1.75 to \$1.90 per gallon. This enables consumers to purchase a pure article at a reasonable price.

The result of a reduction in the duty on foreign spirits, without a previous similar reduction in the tax on domestic spirits, would be that foreign compounders and distillers would ship to this country liquors produced from potato, beet, and other spirits, flavored and adulterated, which can be produced at very little expense there, thus seriously interfering with a domestic production of undoubted purity, which even with the present duty, onerous as it may seem to the Wine and Spirit Traders' Society of New York, and after paying an internal-revenue tax of 90 cents per gallon, does not command as much as two dollars per gallon.

Thus the duty now existing does not create a monopoly in favor of a domestic article, is no hardship to the domestic consumer, while a change as advocated would only be to the benefit of the foreign merchant or distiller, to the detriment, perhaps ruin, of a domestic industry.

The second proposition, to reduce the duty on wines from 40 cents to 20 cents per gallon, is equally made in the interest of French wine importers, and, if consummated, would prove ruinous to the wine producers of this country.

In spite of the present duty of 40 cents per gallon, dry (or light) wines can be purchased from vintners here at from 20 to 30 cents per gallon,

and can be delivered at New York City at from 50 to 55 cents per gallon. This price includes the package containing the wine and the very high freight from this coast to New York, the latter item amounting to from 10 to 12½ cents per gallon.

Hence, in spite of a protection of 40 cents per gallon, in the way of duty, a domestic product is offered to the consumer, after the payment of excessive freight, at but a trifle more than what the duty on foreign goods amounts to. A reduction from 40 cents to 20 cents per gallon would affect the price of the domestic article to such an extent that the vine-grower would not receive for his product as much as the expense of raising it amounts to.

The cost of production of wines in France and other parts of Europe being less than in this country, owing to lower price at which labor can be obtained, lower interest on money, &c., the present duty of 40 cents per gallon is hardly sufficient to enable the domestic producer to compete with the foreign one, which fact is fully proven by the price the domestic article is selling at, in spite of a protective tariff of 40 cents per gallon.

But this duty, instead of being a protection, is a discrimination against the domestic wine-producer. The duty is a specific one of 40 cents per gallon on wines, however great their alcoholic strength may be.

Thus, a wine in its natural fermented state, containing $\frac{8}{12}$ degrees of alcohol pays 40 cents per gallon, while a wine with sufficient spirit added to bring the weight to $\frac{20}{4}$ degrees pays also 40 cents.

The spirit used to fortify wines in this country has to pay an internal-revenue tax of 90 cents per gallon, while, according to the present duty, this extra addition of alcohol to the foreign wine is admitted free of duty.

In France there is no internal tax on spirits used for the fortification of wine, when same is intended for export, while under our internal-revenue laws all spirits, for whatever purpose used, is taxed 90 cents per proof gallon. Hence, a foreign wine when fortified is allowed to enter this country without the payment of any tax on the spirit added, while this tax is collected on wines so manufactured here. The result is that foreign fortified wines, in spite of a duty of 40 cents per gallon, can be sold cheaper than what the domestic article can be produced at. The duty hence discriminates against the domestic producer, and should be changed so as to compel the payment of duty on all spirits added to the wine. The duty on wines should be in proportion to their alcoholic strength to proof spirits, and as the duty on proof spirits is \$2 per gallon, each degree of absolute alcohol in the imported wine should pay a duty of 4 cents, but no wine should be admitted at a less rate than 40 cents per gallon.

By this method the government would be protected against the surreptitious importation of spirit added to the wine, which spirit ought to be made taxable, like that used here to fortify wines with. This change would not only become a source of revenue to the government, but would put the domestic producer on a fair footing with the foreign wine-maker.

What has been mentioned above, concerning poorly-paid labor and cheap capital in the production of still European wines, applies with even greater force to the production of European champagnes as against American sparkling wines. This native production requires almost daily handling, bottle per bottle, for over two years' time, and the investment of many times the capital required for the same amount of still wines. Besides this, the United States Government already derives a revenue of 35 per cent. from the champagne bottles, and the same amount from

the corks, that the American producer is compelled to import from France and Spain, as neither of these articles are produced in the United States. Labor, capital, bottles, and corks being so very much higher with us than in Europe, any reduction in the present tariff on foreign champagnes would prove utterly ruinous to our own American industry.

We trust you will give this proposal your earnest attention.

We shall be happy, if you desire it, to give you more fully our ideas as to the manner in which this change can be made effective and practical. We also think that a change as proposed, to abolish the consular certificate, now required to be attached to all invoices, is not advisable.

By means of this certificate we get an idea of the original value of the goods in the country of export, and should a change of duty as proposed by us be decided upon, this information will be exceedingly valuable to our customs authorities. The consular certificate might then include a statement as to the alcoholic strength of wine at time of shipment, and serve as a guide to some extent to our authorities when testing the strength of wine on its arrival here.

We agree with Mr. Leoser that "facilitating the consumption of light wines and similar beverages is probably the only way in which legislation can really be made to conduce to the sobriety of the citizen," but think that this desirable end can be brought about by encouraging the production and consumption of a domestic wine cheap enough to be within reach of the poorest, pure in quality, and unadulterated, and not by so reducing our duties, and allowing all Europe, with France as a channel, to send us their adulterated wines and liquors.

The grape-growing industry is, as yet, only in its infancy in this country, and can only by being protected compete with foreign productions. This industry, in which to-day fully fifty millions of dollars are invested in California alone, gives employment to thousands of laborers, and it is due to the producer and to the laborer of this country that they should receive protection against the producer and poorly-paid laborer of Europe.

But, in spite of the present protection, prices are low, thus showing that the protection is not in the nature of a monopoly, benefiting a few at the expense of many, and, with the increased production, probably fivefold of that of to day, which we can expect within a few years, it is natural to suppose that prices will be still lower.

This all will inure to the benefit of the consumer in this country, while a change as proposed by the Wine and Spirit Traders' Society will simply benefit the foreign producer at the expense of and loss to the domestic producer and the thousands of laborers employed by him. We therefore trust that, should you recommend any change in the present existing duty, it will be to increase the same so as to give the domestic producer the just protection as asked for by your petitioners.

Respectfully, yours,

FREDERICK JACOBI, *Chairman*,
 J. DE BARTH SHORB,
 CHAS. A. WETMORE,
 CHAS. BUNDSCHU,
 WM. SCHEFFLER,
Committee.

ARPAÐ HARASZTHY, *President.*

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., *September 14, 1882.*

JOSEPH TRELOAR.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following communication from Mr. JOSEPH TRELOAR, of the New York custom-house, addressed to the Hon. Secretary of the Treasury, in regard to the present method of disposing of disputed questions under the tariff laws, and the accompanying memorandum upon home valuations, were ordered to be printed :

CUSTOM-HOUSE, NEW YORK CITY,
Collector's Office, July 18, 1881.

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of a printed copy of your letter of the 15th ultimo, relative to the present method of disposing of disputed questions under the tariff laws.

It has occurred to me that many of the questions would be avoided if the suggestion of the late assistant collector at this port to a committee of Congress were heeded, and that was, referring to the tariff schedule on cottons, "Stop taking duties by the microscope!" Many more would be cut short, in all probability, if, after they were presented to the head of the Treasury, they were made the subject of special report to Congress for further legislation. Had such course been pursued the Treasury might not have been depleted of millions of dollars for the benefit of so-called "claim agents," as in what are known as the "Fruit" and "Silk ribbon cases." The United States appraiser's return as to the character of imported merchandise has been decided by the highest tribunal in the land to be "final and conclusive." (See 24 Howard's Reports, page 525.) There is no law for an appeal from such return.

Perhaps it would be well to provide by law for an appeal from the local appraiser's return, as to the nature of merchandise (now entertained by the Treasury Department) to a board of general appraisers consisting, say, of three members, to be designated from time to time by the Secretary of the Treasury, who should also have power to direct as to the time and places at which the board shall sit; the board to examine the merchandise for themselves, and to call for such persons and papers as they may need, positively excluding, however, from their proceedings counsellors learned in the law who shall seek to appear for the appellants; the statute to declare the decision of a majority of such board "final and conclusive" as to the nature of the merchandise.

Would not such a board be better qualified, by the character of their official functions, than the collector can be to decide as to market values where the general appraiser and merchant appraiser disagree? Why not amend section 2930 Revised Statutes by substituting the board for the collector.

The decision of the board on appeals, if made final, and promulgated to the officers of the customs at the several ports for their information and guidance, would leave only questions as to the legality of the proceedings of the board, and as to the rates of duty chargeable. With the nature of the merchandise finally determined, there would be little, if any, room for doubt as to the correct rates of duty under the tariff; and such questions as may arise in regard thereto will, of course, call for

interpretations of the language of the statute which properly belong to the courts.

The difficulties connected with the assessment of duties on sugar are easily cured by the substitution of ad valorem duties for the present rates, according to the Dutch standard, which it has been demonstrated is impracticable.

A clear and comprehensive law which shall designate a time before and after which it shall not be competent to protest and appeal against the duties exacted, would go far to secure the object aimed at in your letter.

The present law as it has been construed does not serve the purpose for which it is believed it was intended, viz, the filing of protest after liquidation of the duties, whether the entry be for consumption or for warehousing. There is no liquidation known to the custom-house of a "withdrawal entry." If the rate of duty is by authority changed before the goods are withdrawn, the original warehousing entry is necessarily reliquidated, and that, and not the withdrawal, is the liquidation contemplated by the statute; and the acceptance of protests before liquidation tends to swell the great number of such documents without ground therefor.

Respectfully submitted.

JOSEPH TRELOAR.

HON. WILLIAM WINDOM,
Secretary of the Treasury.

MEMORANDUM.

The title of the "proposed bill" by the Chamber of Commerce should be amended to read: "An act to enable importers to experiment in the undervaluation of imported merchandise."

The first section of the bill proposes the assessment of duty on imported merchandise based on the value thereof in the principal markets of the United States after deducting the duties.

How can the appraiser deduct duties until they have been determined by the collector? and how can the collector fix the duties before he is advised by the appraiser of the nature and market value of the goods? What about goods of a description not before imported, and for which there can be no market value in the United States until after their importation and entry?—and would not the values vary in the principal markets of the United States for the same kind of goods although imported from the same foreign port or place, and, as a consequence, the duties not "made uniform throughout the United States," as required by the Constitution?

The same section provides for the making of an entry by a person not the importer, even when the latter is present in the port.

The framers of the organic law saw the importance to the safety of the revenue of bringing home to the importer his responsibility, by requiring his personal attendance at the custom-house and verification by himself of his entry.

It is also proposed to substitute a "declaration" for the oath now required. A declaration before whom? It should be before the collector if the change is to be made, so that proof of the declaration may be had at any time; and if before the collector, what is there to be gained by the change? It is said that the oath as now administered is a farce.

If so, are not the importers themselves responsible for a great share of the farce? But, however that may be, abuse is no argument against proper use. It is apprehended that a declaration by authority, away from the custom-house would lead to looseness and to great danger to the revenue. The making and signing of entries would be treated, it is feared, as routine matters, without the care which the safety of the revenue demands. Furthermore, would not the opportunity be afforded to third parties intrusted with the entries for presentation to tamper with the same by reducing the amount, and by collusion, without the knowledge even of the importer, to secure the possession of the goods by payment of less than the amount of duties chargeable. The law as it is now prevents that in a measure, by requiring the entry to be sworn to *after* it has been examined by the customs officers. When sworn to, it should pass from the hands of the importer directly into the possession of the customs officers.

Section 2 is unobjectionable.

Section 3. Same objection as to section 1 in regard to value. This same third section provides that the value on which duty shall be assessed is that "at the date of entry"!

Why should an importer who forces the government to take the custody of his goods as unclaimed have them appraised at a different value than that placed on merchandise of importers who make entry and pay duties immediately on arrival? There is but one answer: There is no reason! Again, this section proposes that no advance of the value by the appraiser shall hold unless the appraisement is completed within a stated number of days, and written notice delivered or mailed to the importer; so that an investigation as to the true value, if prolonged, would deprive the government of the duties, not to mention interminable disputes as to the date, delivery, or mailing of notices.

While regulations in this regard may be proper, the interests of the revenue should not be jeopardized by an enactment that will prevent extended inquiries as to the facts in any case where required.

Section 4 provides that if goods undervalued are not taken by the government, they shall be delivered to the importer at the entered value. If this is not a premium for collusion with government officers to have them advance the entered value and compel the government to buy, what is it? Goods fraudulently entered must pass, to the detriment of honest men, or the government must take the merchandise and force it upon the market, and thereby influence prices. In other words, the government shall test the market for the benefit of scheming importers.

Section 5 should fall with section 4.

Section 6 repeals section 2900 Revised Statutes. Section 2900 is a safeguard, if enforced, against undervaluations not fraudulently made, and should not be repealed. The merchant while doing no wrong against himself should protect the government.

Section 7 proposes that the government shall lose its duties by laches of its employés. Perhaps designing importers would not give substantial encouragement to such laches?

Section 8 proposes the abolition of consular invoices. Consular invoices for goods paying duties based on value should be required. The fact that the consul is present at the port of shipment and has the opportunity for ascertaining the correctness of invoices when offered naturally makes shippers careful, while if they are not to be certified by him he would have no data on which to make inquiries and inform the customs officers, as he now frequently does, especially as to purchased goods, the price paid for which cannot be known to the appraiser ex-

cept through the invoice. Perhaps the expenses to the government of triplicate invoices is in excess of any benefit therefrom.

Section 9 simply deprives the collector of the advisory report of the appraiser as to the classification of merchandise in the language of the tariff. This would be suicidal to the government, in that the importer might give a name to his merchandise not known to the tariff.

Section 10 provides for the acceptance of bank checks for duties. Who is to save the collector who innocently accepts a forged check, the importer having fled the country? There is risk now in counterfeits with duties payable in coin, and if paid in checks the risk would be a hundred times greater.

Section 11. In addition to the certificates proposed in this section for the cancellation of export bonds, it is suggested that a foreign customs certificate should be required.

Section 12 proposes that no duties shall be exacted on goods lost or stolen while in custody of customs officers. Would not goods go into consumption under such a law without payment of duties? In the case of part contents of packages, how are such losses to be proven? As to bonded and unclaimed goods, at whose risk should they be stored if not the importers?

Section 13 makes provision simply for security in reduced amount for duties on fraudulent importations, which I pass without remark.

Section 14 abolishing all fees should be made law.

Section 15 provides in effect for protest and appeal before liquidation, *i. e.*, before there is any action of the collector to appeal from. This would be bad law, and would certainly encourage and increase the number of protests and appeals, in that every importer under such a law will be prompted to make protest on every entry without regard to whether he has cause or not. An appeal from the decision of the court might as well be made before any decision has been rendered, and that would be an absurdity.

Section 16. The provisions for abolition of damage allowances and for the abandonment of the goods in such cases to the government deserve the favorable consideration of Congress, but the proposition that the goods in bond, *i. e.*, on which the government has given credit for the duties, may be abandoned without payment of duties, is certainly a novel one, not worthy of a moment's reflection. It condemns itself.

Section 17. The naval office: Its functions as a check against the collector's office, are in the interests of correctness and safety, and it should not be abolished. Revenue laws are of necessity strict, but strict as they are, and even harsh as they may at times seem, no one will venture the assertion that all the duties imposed by the tariff are paid by importers into the National Treasury.

Many more objections might be stated against the proposed bill.

JOSEPH TRELOAR.

MAY 13, 1880.

The following is the bill referred to in the foregoing memorandum:

PROPOSED BILL.

AN ACT in relation to the collection of revenue from customs, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, SECTION 1. That hereafter an entry of imported merchandise subject to an ad valorem rate of duty or to a rate of duty regulated by, or dependent upon, the value of any specified quantity thereof, shall be required to specify only the name of the vessel and of her master, the port or place from which the merchandise

was imported, the particular marks and numbers of each package or parcel, or, if in bulk, the quantity and quality, a general description of the merchandise, and the value thereof in the principal markets of the United States, after deducting and allowing for the increased value created by the duties; and such value in the United States, after the deductions as aforesaid, shall constitute the dutiable value of the merchandise and also determine the rate of duty whenever the rate of duty is regulated by, or dependent upon, the value of any specified quantity of the merchandise. And there shall be delivered to the collector with the entry and bill of lading, a particular account of the merchandise described in the entry, specifying the contents of each package, and the value or wholesale price of each article therein, in the principal markets, and in the currency, of the United States, at the time of the entry. Such entry shall be subscribed by the person making it, if the owner or consignee, in his own name, or, if another person, in his name as agent or factor for the owner or consignee.

The person making an entry as aforesaid shall be required to subscribe a declaration, that the entry and account subscribed by him and presented to the collector, are in all respects true; and section twenty-eight hundred and forty-one of the Revised Statutes of the United States, is hereby repealed.

SEC. 2. That the collector may take possession of all the goods described in the entry, and retain the same until the appraisement is completed, or, in his discretion, he may deliver any portion thereof not greater than nine packages in ten to the importer, upon receiving the bond now prescribed by section twenty-eight hundred and ninety-nine of the Revised Statutes of the United States.

SEC. 3. That upon entry of imported merchandise as hereinbefore provided, it shall be the duty of the appraisers of the United States, and every of them, and every person who shall act as such appraiser, by all reasonable ways and means in his or their power, to ascertain, estimate and appraise the true and actual market value and wholesale price of the merchandise, in the principal markets of the United States, at the date of the entry of the same, and to ascertain the number of such yards, parcels, or quantities, and such actual market value or wholesale price of every of them, as the case may require, and to make the deduction therefrom as provided in the first section of this act; and such appraisement shall be completed and reported to the collector, when goods are entered for consumption, within ten days after any portion of the goods or samples thereof ordered by the collector to be examined by the appraisers are received by them; and when goods are entered for warehousing, within twenty days after any package or samples thereof, as aforesaid, are received at the office or public stores occupied by the appraisers. And within one working day after the appraisement shall have been reported to the collector, as aforesaid, he shall give notice in writing to the person making the entry, either by delivering the notice to him or by mailing the same to him addressed as stated in the entry, of the result of said appraisement, stating whether the merchandise, either in whole or in part, has been appraised at the value stated in the entry, or whether the same has been appraised higher than such entered value, and in case the merchandise has been appraised higher than the entered value, the percentage of the increase shall be stated; and if such appraisement shall not be completed within the ten or twenty days respectively as aforesaid, or if said notice shall not be given as herein required, then, and in such case, the value stated in the entry shall be deemed and taken to be the dutiable value of the merchandise, and the duty shall be liquidated accordingly, any law of Congress to the contrary notwithstanding.

SEC. 4. That whenever any merchandise subject to ad valorem rate of duty, or to a rate of duty regulated by or dependent upon the value of any specified quantity thereof, shall be appraised higher than the value as declared on the entry of such merchandise, the collector may, whenever it shall be deemed necessary in order to protect and secure the revenue of the United States against fraud or undervaluation, and the same is practicable, retain such merchandise for the use of the United States, under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, and shall forthwith give the person making the entry notice of such retention; and within five days from the time of such notice the collector shall pay to the person making the entry of merchandise the amount of the entered value, with an addition of ten per centum added to the said entered value as aforesaid, together with the amount of duties which may have been paid on said merchandise; and all bonds theretofore received by the collector to secure the duties, or for the redelivery of such merchandise, shall be canceled forthwith after said money is paid as aforesaid. But whenever merchandise which shall have been appraised higher than the value as declared on the entry shall not be retained by the collector for the use of the United States, as aforesaid, the duties on such merchandise shall be finally liquidated and collected upon and according to the value as declared on the entry of such merchandise.

SEC. 5. That whenever merchandise is retained by the collector and taken to the account of the United States, as aforesaid, the same shall be sold for cash at public auction within twenty days, unless the Secretary of the Treasury shall otherwise

specifically direct, from the time when the collector gives notice to the person making entry as aforesaid that he will take the goods; and all the details of said sales shall be under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury. But in no case shall such goods be sold in lots, parcels, or quantities less than the entire quantity in each lot, parcel, or quantity, or, if the goods are imported in bulk, in no single lot less than one ton in weight; and the proceeds of all sales of merchandise as aforesaid, after deducting such expenses as may be authorized by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall be received by the collector, and be by him paid into the Treasury of the United States.

SEC. 6. That section twenty-nine hundred of the Revised Statutes of the United States is hereby repealed.

SEC. 7. That in all cases the duties shall be liquidated and finally determined within thirty days from the time when the appraisement is reported to the collector as herein above provided for; and no person shall be liable for the payment of any duties which may be found to be due to the United States on such liquidation beyond the amount estimated at time of entry, unless such final liquidation shall be completed within said thirty days, nor unless notice in writing demanding further duties shall forthwith after such liquidation be delivered to the person making entry, or mailed to his address, if such address be given on the entry.

SEC. 8. That sections twenty-eight hundred and forty-two to twenty-eight hundred and sixty-two, inclusive, of the Revised Statutes of the United States, and sections nine, ten, and eleven of the act of Congress entitled "An act to amend the customs-revenue laws and to repeal moieties," approved June twenty-second, eighteen hundred and seventy-four, are hereby repealed.

SEC. 9. That whenever an entry for immediate payment of duties on imported merchandise shall contain a true description of the merchandise or of its component materials, the rates of duty determined by the officers of the customs receiving the entry shall not be increased on said merchandise after the amount of duty assessed at the time of entry has been paid and permit for the landing of the goods has been issued as provided for by law. *Provided, however,* That where merchandise is subject to a duty dependent upon the value of any specified quantity thereof, the foregoing rule shall not apply, when the appraised value exceeds the entered value, and, in consequence thereof, the rate of duty is changed.

SEC. 10. That every collector of customs shall receive for duties, and receipt for the same, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe, checks for gold drawn payable to the order of the collector of customs, upon and certified by any banking association established in such collector's district under the provisions of the Title "National Banks" or any amendments thereof.

SEC. 11. That the contents of section three thousand and forty-five of the Revised Statutes of the United States are hereby repealed, and in lieu thereof the following is inserted, viz.: The certificate required by the preceding section shall be confirmed by the oath of the person subscribing the same, and also by a certificate under the hand and seal of the consul, or agent of the United States residing at the place of delivery of the merchandise exported, declaring either that the facts stated in the certificate of such consignee or other person, are to his knowledge true, or that such certificate is deserving of full faith and credit. And where there is no consul or agent of the United States residing at the place of such delivery, the certificate of the consignee, or other person, required by the preceding section, shall be confirmed by the certificate of two reputable merchants, residing at the place of delivery, testifying that the several facts stated in such certificate are to their knowledge true, or that such certificate is, in their opinion, worthy of full faith and credit.

SEC. 12. That no duty shall be payable on any merchandise lost, stolen, or destroyed while at the appraisers' stores, or while at any place in the custody of any officer of the customs, and any money received for duty on goods so lost, stolen or destroyed, shall, under such instructions as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe, be refunded by the collector who received the same to the person from whom such duty was received.

SEC. 13. Section thirteen of the act entitled "An act to amend the customs-revenue laws and to repeal moieties," approved June twenty-second, eighteen hundred and seventy-four, is hereby amended by striking out the following words in lines three and four, viz: "or while in his or their possession, to double the amount claimed," and by inserting in lieu of the five words last mentioned, the following words, viz: To an amount equal to the value of the merchandise forfeited under section twelve of the aforesaid act.

SEC. 14. That paragraphs sixth to eleventh, inclusive, of section twenty-six hundred and fifty-four of the Revised Statutes of the United States, are hereby repealed.

SEC. 15. That the protests and appeals provided for in section twenty-nine hundred and thirty-one of the Revised Statutes of the United States, if filed at any time prior to the expiration of the ten and thirty days, respectively, specified in said section, are to be considered as complying with the requirements of that section, in re-

spect to time. An appeal to the Secretary of the Treasury from the decision of a collector, required by said section, shall be regarded as made to the Secretary of the Treasury when delivered to the collector whose decision is appealed from, and the collector shall transmit such appeal, with the reasons for his decision, to the Secretary of the Treasury, within ten days after the appeal is delivered to the collector; and upon every such appeal the Secretary of the Treasury shall make a decision within ninety days after the delivery thereof to the collector as aforesaid, and shall forthwith notify the collector, and the appellant, of such decision; and in default of such decision and notifications, within the time prescribed aforesaid, the claim, as made in the appeal, shall be allowed, and the excess of duty claimed to have been exacted of the appellant shall be refunded to him, in like manner as if the Secretary of the Treasury had rendered a decision in favor of the appellant.

SEC. 16. That sections twenty-nine hundred and twenty-seven, twenty-nine hundred and forty-three, all of section twenty-nine hundred and twenty-eight, excepting the first twenty-one words, beginning with the word "Before," and ending with the word "appraised," of the Revised Statutes of the United States, together with all other laws providing for damage allowances, are hereby repealed; and hereafter no allowance in, or deduction from, the original estimate of duties on imported merchandise shall be made in consequence of the damage which any such merchandise may have sustained on the voyage of importation, but in every case the same amount of duties shall be assessed and paid as if the merchandise had not sustained damage on the voyage as aforesaid, unless the owner, agent, or consignee of said merchandise may elect to totally abandon the same, or any part thereof, to the United States, in which case no amount of duties shall be assessed and paid on the merchandise so abandoned, but the same shall become the property of the United States, to be disposed of as the Secretary of the Treasury may direct. And any merchandise remaining in bond, or which may hereafter be entered for warehousing, may be abandoned to the United States, and disposed of as aforesaid, and on goods so abandoned no duty shall be collected.

SEC. 17. That the office of naval officer is hereby abolished, and all official books, records, and papers, and all other public property in the possession or custody of any naval officer of the customs, shall be forthwith delivered to the collector of the customs, or other chief customs officer of the district wherein any such naval officer may reside. At ports to which no collectors are appointed, but to which only either surveyors or naval officers, or both, are appointed, collectors shall be appointed.

SEC. 18. That this act shall take effect on the first day of August, eighteen hundred and eighty.

CHARLES W. JENKS.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. CHARLES W. JENKS, of Boston, Mass., representing the growers and manufacturers of mohair, submitted the following statement:

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN OF THE TARIFF COMMISSION: As the pioneers in growing the raw material of mohair, and also of its manufacture into some of the most valuable mohair fabrics, we jointly address to you a few facts relative to the two industries.

We send as our representative Mr. C. W. Jenks, asking for him a patient hearing, and such recommendations from you for legislative action as in your judgment shall be needful to secure united success and prosperity to our industries. We regard the cordial co-operation of each with the other, and the endeavor to promote each other's interests, as the only true basis for success and prosperity to producers, consumers, and the general public.

There is, at this present time, an intelligent, energetic, and well-directed effort among some of the agriculturists and manufacturing capitalists of the United States to establish here, on a permanent and profitable basis, the Angora goat husbandry and the mohair manufactures that grow out of it.

From a very early date these allied interests have found a prosperous existence among the people of the Old World in Persia, India, and Asia Minor. The Angora goat, in its best condition, is the most valuable of the lanigerous animals. Its flesh is not inferior to the best mutton. Its milk is copious and of excellent nutritive qualities. Its skin is the Turkey morocco of ancient commerce, or cured with the hair on furnishes rugs and mats of great durability and beauty, taking all dyes with the facility of silk. Its product in fleece is one of the four or five leading raw fibers of the world. It has, in addition to other desirable qualities, certain special peculiarities not possessed by any other animal or vegetable fiber, adapting it to certain classes of goods and uses, having extensive and increasing consumption; and these, until the past year, have been entirely of foreign manufacture.

The number of Angora goats in all parts of the world may be roughly estimated at 3,000,000, the yield of mohair from which is 10,000,000 pounds. Of this amount Asia furnishes 6,500,000, Africa 3,000,000, and Australia and the United States the most of the remainder. The number of goats of all grades, from the lowest to the thoroughbreds, in this country, is not far from 100,000, and the yield of all qualities of mohair is from 150,000 to 200,000 pounds. This production can be rapidly increased, as is seen by the history of the Angora husbandry in the English Cape Colony, South Africa. There the clip of mohair in 1866 was 6,000 pounds; this year it is 3,000,000. This rapid growth in so small a population is based upon the ease and certainty with which flocks of good mohair-producing animals can be built up and reared upon the common and otherwise almost worthless goat of the country by crossing the native ewes with the imported Angora bucks. It is a noticeable fact, too, in this connection, that the whole number of imported animals from Asia Minor—the factors in the attainment of such splendid results—amounted to but 600 of both sexes.

Well selected Angoras, delivered at any of our sea-ports, cost \$200

each. First grade mohair, of thoroughbred stock, is worth 50 to 60 cents per pound in the English market to-day. There is but one thoroughbred flock of any size in this country; but there are grade flocks of from 500 to 4,000. For twenty-five years prior to 1876 the average price of fine grades of mohair in the markets of Europe was 60 per cent. above that of the best English combing wool. The possibilities of the industries in this country, under intelligent supervision, are very promising. Every facility should be given by the government for free importation of animals for breeding purposes for the next five years. Large flocks of goats, as in South Africa, can be multiplied from the common goat, often called Mexican, the fourth and fifth crosses giving a mohair scarcely distinguishable from the thoroughbred fleece. The Angoras are excellent pioneers in clearing up new ranges for sheep and cattle and not only do not injure but positively benefit other stock, sheep especially. Vast districts of the Alleghany ranges, Texas, Arkansas, and Missouri, and all along the Rocky Mountains, now almost valueless, can be utilized by the Angora husbandry. A removal of the duty, which is now on mohair 10 cents specific and 10 per cent. ad valorem, would destroy the profitable growing of the raw material here, and we ask it be retained. As there is in contemplation the importation of the cashmere goat, we desire a like free importation of that animal, and a protection of its product known as cashmere hair by the same rate of duty.

We would say here, as pertinent to the matter, and as a fair illustration of the incidental benefits of the tariff laws that were enacted for the protection of the wool and woolen interests of this country, that the birth and growth thus far of the mohair industry is the result of that legislation.

Two important and promising industrial enterprises in the raw material and the manufacture of the same have been by such legislation quickened and protected, and these were not within the contemplation of the framers of those enactments. The two varieties of goats, known as Angora and cashmere, are sometimes confounded; but they and their product are entirely distinct, and should be treated as such in discussion and legislation.

In the various lines of the fabrics made from mohair there are importations this year of over \$4,000,000 in value. These goods are braids, linings, plushes, trimmings, robes, mats, dress goods, silk and mohair mixtures, imitation seals, &c. Until the past year few, if any, of these goods were made here. Several of our mills are entering extensively upon the manufacture of some of these fabrics, samples of which we show you. In the use of American-grown mohair better results are attained than by the use of that grown abroad. One of the main reasons for this result is that the raw material coming to us from abroad passes through the hands of English buyers, who cull the stock for use at Bradford, Saltaire, and other centers of the mohair industry in England.

Our leading mohair manufacturers are willing to pay more by several cents per pound for carefully-grown American mohair than for the same nominal grade of the fiber grown abroad. There are some single lines of goods now being made here that will rapidly increase if fostered by the government. In the manufacture of these there would be a vast consumption of domestic-grown mohair. For instance, in imitation seals and furniture plushes no fiber can compare with mohair for such uses. The fact that each individual hair stands in its place, with no felting tendency, renders mohair independent of all other materials for such and like uses. The product of more than three times the present

number of animals in this country would be required to supply material for the plushes for car-seats alone now annually consumed by the railroad shops in repairs on cars and new construction of the same. These goods should be made by our own mills from mohair grown here, and they can and will be with proper aid and protection. The present rate of duties on mohair braids is 50 cents specific and 30 per cent. ad valorem. On mohair pile goods and dress fabrics, 50 cents specific and 35 per cent. ad valorem.

We would advise the duty be the same in each class—50 and 50—for the encouragement of a growing industry in both raw material and manufactures, and that it apply also to fabrics made from the hair of the cashmere goat.

In conclusion, we request that the language of the laws, as applied to these industries, be more specific and carefully worded, as meaning the Angora goat and its product of mohair and the cashmere goat and its product of cashmere hair, the animals and products with the fabrics made from the same having distinct and individual specifications.

RICHARD PETERS, of Georgia,
For the Growers of Mohair.

J. H. TINGUE, of Connecticut,
For the Manufacturers of Mohar.

By Commissioner UNDERWOOD:

Question. Where is that thoroughbred flock of Angoras now; who is the owner of them?—Answer. Colonel Peters, of Georgia, is the owner.

Q. The land along the line of the Blue Ridge country is well adapted to the raising of these animals, is it not?—A. Yes, sir; I believe it is so regarded.

POWERS & WEIGHTMAN.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

The following statement from Messrs. POWERS & WEIGHTMAN, of Philadelphia, manufacturing chemists, was submitted and ordered to be printed :

In presenting for your attention the following remarks, apart from the representations of our fellow-manufacturers, we desire first of all to say that we would much have preferred to avoid any statement as an individual firm. In our own opinion, whether an article should be dutiable or not depends on the use it is to the country and its industrial relations to the community. Personalities relating to the manufacturers should be rejected as irrelevant, and tending to divert attention from the real points involved; but as our name has been so particularly, and, we think, unnecessarily referred to by some of the witnesses, we feel it incumbent upon us to reply singly to a certain extent.

The first instance is in the testimony of Mr. John D. Dix, which dwells so particularly upon our name that we extract some passages in replying.

We put opium at \$2 a pound, and morphia, which is its alkaloid, at \$2 an ounce.

In Europe to-day, and always, since the manufacture of fine chemicals has become a business largely pursued, the price of morphia is less than half the price of opium. I have here the list of Powers & Weightman for the first of this month, from which I see that the price of pure morphine on the 1st of July was \$5.50 per ounce, while it was \$3.75 for the sulphate of morphia. Opium cannot come into this country unless it contains 9 per cent. of pure morphine.

In his remarks upon opium and morphia Mr. Dix does not mention that the duties on these articles have been reduced to \$1 per pound and \$1 per ounce, respectively. But whether \$2 or \$1, by his own showing, as can be seen by a simple calculation, nearly three-fourths of the duty on the morphia has been paid to the government in the opium before manufacture. At \$1 per pound for opium the 9 pounds or 144 ounces of morphia have paid \$100 as opium duty.

Now, if 100 pounds of opium yield 9 pounds of morphine, supposing the opium to cost \$4 a pound, duty paid, you can see there is considerable chance for sulphate of morphine at \$3.75 an ounce making a very handsome profit.

Now, if, as Mr. Dix thinks, the profit is so great, how is it that capital, always keen to discover and active to take advantage of opportunity for profit, has not more largely taken up with the business? That it has not done so shows at once that there is an error in his conclusions.

The last price that I received from Edinburgh, where there are large manufactories of morphine, was 6s. 6d.; that is about \$1.60 in round numbers.

The British manufacturers of morphia have a considerable advantage in the fact that there are no government restrictions as to the morphia strength of the opium they buy. They are thus enabled to use the

lower grades, which can be bought at relatively much lower rates than standard opium.

I believe last year Powers & Weightman made 1,500 cases (of opium) into morphine. There was an immense fortune in that business, and they made it. Mr. Powers died worth, probably, from \$7,000,000 to \$10,000,000.

The statement that 1,500 cases of opium were manufactured in one year into morphia by us is one of a class to which we refer in our general remarks. It is simply enormously exaggerated. As to the fortune of Mr. Powers, Mr. Dix may have better sources of information than we, but we believe the figures to be exaggerated. Moreover, we fail to see what this has to do with the propriety of a duty on any given article. If it has, then in the case of every article submitted for tariff, the fortune of the manufacturers should be ascertained, and it will become the duty of the investigating committees to determine what amount has been made in the business, what outside of it, and in the case of a complex business, what proportion on this article, what on that. As considerations of this kind have not been the rule, we have a right to object to this exceptional personality.

They talked about fusel oil. If it was not made a point of importance, in their statement, it would be a matter of ridicule, &c.

Regarding fusel oil, Mr. Dix professes to consider it as a trifling matter. We have, nevertheless, been compelled to pay \$2 per gallon duty upon it, to import, when scarce in this country. On one occasion alone we brought in 9,000 gallons, paying \$18,000 duty.

In regard to the capital invested in the plant for the manufacture of quinine I have no special knowledge. I am free to say, gentlemen, that I am speaking only from my general knowledge of such things.

I do not believe that there is any \$150,000 invested in plant for the manufacture of sulphate of quinine by all of the five manufacturers.

At all events, I would not like to buy the plant in this country for the manufacture of quinine for \$150,000 as a speculation.

What inference are we to draw from the remarks of this witness as to the value of the plant for making quinia? He would fear to buy it for "\$150,000 for the manufacture of sulphate of quinia as a speculation." If, as an expert on the subject, he can see no gain in such a transaction, further discussion is unnecessary. The profit cannot be so great as his general remarks would lead you to believe, and the necessity of protection, if the industry is to be kept alive here, must be infinitely greater.

With such evident contradiction, it would not be worth while to seriously rely upon his estimate of the number of hands or other statistics.

I doubt if an assurance by this Commission of a favorable report of a 20 per cent. duty could draw from any of those firms an account-current of an average parcel of bark, debiting the cost of bark, labor, solvents, wear and tear of plant, &c., and crediting the actual value of the quickly salable articles of quinine, chinchonidia, &c., and also a fair estimate of the value of other products.

Question by Commissioner OLIVER. Do they have a very large profit at \$2 per ounce?—A. I believe at the present price of bark they are losing money at \$2.

Q. Is there a large stock of quinine now held in this country?—A. There is a large stock for the present demand. There seems to be, just at present, an unusual freedom from malarial diseases throughout the country.

Powers & Weightman fix the price.

Regarding the making of an account-current of the cost and selling price of any product for any given lot, such a thing would scarcely be practicable, and, if applied to isolated cases, would prove nothing. Mr. Dix might import opium to cost \$4 per pound and sell it for \$6. In another instance an importation might cost him \$4.50 and he might sell at \$4. So the prices of bark fluctuate as do those of quinia, and when

a manufacturer buys bark he cannot tell what he will obtain for the quinia from it. So, also, as the maker must work his business, barks of various grades—some relatively cheaper, others relatively dearer—are used together, and the risk of the market taken in selling the product—possibly, *not* selling it if the market is flat, as not unfrequently happens, even at the season when demand is usually expected, as in fact was the case when this witness gave his testimony in July, when he was obliged to admit the existence of large stocks and unremunerative prices.

Concerning prices, we must again object to the invidious obtrusion of our name, with the purpose of influencing improper inferences. Powers & Weightman do not fix "*the*" price. We fix *our* price as Mr. Dix fixes his on any of his merchandise, and governed by possibly about the same reasons, the cost of the product and the price that can be obtained. Other manufacturers fix their prices. Competition may exert compulsion downward, but there is no power of one maker over another to regulate prices.

We cannot draw anything from Europe that is grown in the East Indies without paying differential duty. But they suffer nothing by that. There have been growers from Ceylon who would sell Powers & Weightman or Rosengarten any quantity they would wish, and guarantee them a certain amount of pure alkaloid in each pound, at a less price in the average than they could buy it for in London.

Concerning East India barks, we have no knowledge of any guarantee of yield of alkaloid having been offered. Further, we do know that the results of the analyses of bark, as reported from India, vary widely from those of the European chemists who have a reputation for analysis.

Quinine can be made just as cheaply here as in England, even considering the difference in the price of labor.

Mr. Dix admits a difference in the price of labor, but in the same sentence says that quinia can be made just as cheaply here as in England—which is certainly a contradiction. Elsewhere he admits his inability to make an account-current, to estimate cost. How, then, can he know as to its comparative cheapness of production? Besides the actual labor in making the article, there is the higher-priced labor in erecting factories and warehouses for it, apparatus for making it, auxiliaries for putting it in marketable shape.

Q. What is the objection to putting a duty of 20 per cent. on quinine? Will it not stand it?

A. It will stop importation utterly.

Contrary to Mr. Dix's assertion, the duty of 20 per cent. did not stop importation, as reference to revenue statistics will show that 228,348 ounces were imported for the year ending June 30, 1879, under the 20 per cent. duty; also large quantities in previous years.

That a resolution for the abolition of the tax on bark could have been passed at the meeting of the Western Drug Association was the case; and, further, it was opposed by a representative of the manufacturers.

Another witness, Mr. Robert H. Cowdery, attests that manufacturers were opposed to abolishing the duty on bark. Now, we never heard of any such opposition as this witness mentions. We do know that we used every effort on occasion after occasion, and sought opportunity to urge the repeal of all duties on bark.

Another argument advanced is, that the consumer has not been benefited. Each retail dealer is the best judge of that, for when quinine was under a protective tariff 2 cents a grain was the ordinary price, and now, without tariff, the consumer obtains it at 1½ cents a grain.

In March, this year, quinine was at the lowest price I have ever seen it in the trade. It was then worth about \$1.80 to \$1.90.

The retail trade has just recovered from the tumble in price from nearly \$4 to the present price of \$1.90 to \$2.00.

We have not the least idea that a fluctuation of 20 to 40 cents has any effect on the price to those who have prescriptions filled.

That a reduction in the grain price of half a cent was not necessary from any change in the wholesale price is obvious by an arithmetical comparison. As there are 437½ grains in the ounce, to be a necessity the difference should be somewhere about ($\frac{1}{2} \times 437\frac{1}{2}$) \$2.19 on the ounce. But nowhere is such a difference claimed. A variation of 60 cents per ounce will make only about $\frac{1}{7}$ of a cent per grain—20 cents per ounce only $\frac{1}{2}$ of a cent per grain. Other reasons than this must have influenced the retail trade in any change. We do not pretend to say whether 1½ cents or 2 cents per grain would be correct. This is a matter for the retail dealers to decide. We only say that a difference of half a cent per grain is not a necessity from any alteration in the manufacturers' price of quinia.

Except during the war, manufacturers' prices have never approached \$4 per ounce for quinia. The following list will show this. Where intervals occur between the dates, it is to be understood that prices were unchanged. We would mention that the prices given are from the manufacturers' printed lists; their actual selling rates were lower by 10 cents per ounce, at least. This list will also show that under a duty prices were lower frequently than at present; also that the range of prices did not vary greatly from present ones. In 1859-'60 it ranged from \$1.30 to \$1.80 (list prices—the actual selling price was as low as \$1.18). In 1867, when there was a premium on gold of 32 to 45 per cent., and both quinia and bark were dutiable, the former 45 per cent., the latter 20, the price of sulphate quinia was \$1.95 to \$2.20, which is as low as it has been at any time since July 1, 1879, when quinia has been free and gold at par. Here was apparently the most unfavorable combination for low prices. Through all the years from 1866 to 1876, and while gold was at a premium, and quinia dutiable not less than 20 per cent., the price of quinia continued comparatively low, showing that other considerations besides the duty are able to affect prices.

Dec. 20, 1859	\$1 30	Oct. 2, 1865.....	\$2 75
Feb. 23, 1860	1 40	Nov. 1, 1865.....	2 65
Mar. 16, 1860	1 50	Jan. 1, 1866.....	2 60
May 24, 1860.....	1 60	Feb. 1, 1866.....	2 65
July 6, 1860.....	1 80	April 1, 1866.....	2 55
Mar. 7, 1861.....	2 00	May 1, 1866.....	2 45
June 5, 1861.....	2 10	July 1, 1866.....	2 65
Mar. 15, 1862.....	2 25	Oct. 1, 1866.....	2 70
May 13, 1862.....	2 40	Dec. 1, 1866.....	2 45
May 14, 1862.....	2 55	Jan. 1, 1867.....	2 35
June 26, 1862.....	2 60	Feb. 1, 1867.....	2 20
July 10, 1862.....	2 80	Nov. 1, 1867.....	2 15
July 29, 1862.....	2 90	Jan. 1, 1868.....	2 05
April —, 1863.....	3 45	Feb. 1, 1868.....	2 10
July 1, 1863.....	3 15	April 1, 1868.....	2 15
Aug. 1, 1863.....	2 60	Aug. 1, 1868.....	2 25
Nov. 2, 1863.....	2 80	Sept. 1, 1868.....	2 35
Dec. 1, 1863.....	2 65	Dec. 1, 1868.....	2 20
Feb. 1, 1864.....	2 70	Mar. 1, 1869.....	2 35
April 1, 1864.....	2 95	May 1, 1869.....	2 45
July 12, 1864.....	3 95	June 1, 1869.....	2 40
Nov. 1, 1864.....	3 45	Sept. 1, 1869.....	2 35
April 1, 1865.....	2 70	Nov. 1, 1869.....	2 30
June 1, 1865.....	2 45	Feb. 1, 1870.....	2 25
July 1, 1865.....	2 30	Oct. 1, 1870.....	2 35

We add another table, showing that the foreign prices abroad were quite as high as the American, exhibiting such figures as 15s. to 16s. = \$3.75 to \$4; as high, indeed, as was reached by the American in war times.

	In ounces.		In tins.	
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1873.				
March 15	7	6	7	2 to 7 8
April 15	8			
June 21	8	3		
August 16	8	3 to 8	6	
August 23	8	6 to 9		
August 30	8	6 to 9	6	
September 5	8	6		
September 10	8	9		
September 20	9			
October 31	9	to 9	6	
November 15	9	to 9	3	
December 13	8	3 to 8	6	
1874.				
January 3	8	6	8	3
January 17	8	3 to 8	6	8 to 8 3
January 31	8	3 to 8	0	
February 7	8	to 8	3	
March 21	7	to 7	3	
April 4	7	to 7	6	
April 18	7	3 to 7	6	
May 10	7	to 7	6	
May 30	8			
June 13	7	9 to 8		
July 11	8			
July 25	8	to 8	3	
October 4	7	10		
October 17	7	6		
October 31	7		6	9
1875.				
January 16	6	9	6	6
January 30	6	6		
March 13	7			
April 17	7	3		
May 20	7	to 7	3	
June 20	7			
July 10	6	8	6	5
July 24	6	6		
August 21	7			
October 2	6	6		
1876.				
February 19	6	8		
March 4	6	10		
March 18	7			
April 1	7	2		
May 27	7	to 7	2	
July 22	7	4		
August 5	7	8	7	3 to 7 5
August 10	7	10 to 8		
September 4	8	1 to 8	3	
September 30	9	4 to 9	0	
October 28	10	to 10	1	
November 11	11			
1877.				
February 17	10	3		
March 3	10	3		
March 31	14	6		
April 14	16			
May 12	16	6		
May 26	16	to 16	6	
June 23	15	6		
July 7	15			
July 21	14			
August 4	13	to 13	6	
September 1	12	6		
October 13	11	9 to 12		
October 27	11	6 to 11	9	
November 12	11	3 to 11	9	
November 24	11	6		
December 23	10	6		

	In ounces.		In tins.	
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1878.				
January 19	10			
February 2	9	6		
March 2	10			
March 16	14			
March 30	14	3 to 14	6	
April 10	13	8		
April 13	14			
May 25	13	0 to 13	8	
June 9	13			
June 22	12			
August 3	10	6		
August 31	12			
October 12	11			
October 26	11	8		
November 23	12	6		
December 7	13			
December 21	12	6		
1879.				
February 1	12			
March 15	12	6		
May 24	12			
June 7	11	6		
July 5	12	6 to 13		
July 19	13	6		
August 2	13	3 to 13	6	
August 15	13	to 13	6	
August 30	12	6		
September 13	12	6 to 12		
October 11	12	6		
October 25	12	3 to 12		
November 11	11	9		
December 6	11			
December 20	10	3 to 10	9	
1880.				
January 3	11			
January 20	12			
May 8	11	9 to 12		
June 5	11	6 to 11	9	
June 19	12	3		
July 17	12	8		
September 25	12	4		
October 4	12			
November 6	11	6		
December 4	12			
1881.				
February 19	11			
April 30	11	6		
May 20	11			
June 11	10	6		
June 25	10			
July 23	10	to 10	3	
August 6	10			
September 3	9			
October 1	8	6 to 8		
October 29	8			
November 26	10			
December 24	11			
1882.				
April 29	9	6		
June 10	9			
August 18	10			

It is a notorious fact that during the period that quinine was protected by a 20 per cent. duty, the individual members of the firm of Powers & Weightman made millions of dollars, &c.

We find in Mr. Cowdery's remarks another of those personal allusions that are sometimes put forward without any reference to the point in question, and which are calculated to mislead. Were the facts to be admitted, and the propriety allowed of using it as an argument, we ask again, How will it be discerned what proportion is due to one article,

what to another? But we are not aware that the method has been attempted with regard to fixing duties in the case of any other article.

The statement that American manufacturers would be bankrupted by "free quinine" is met by Mr. J. S. Moore, who states that there has not been a year that Powers & Weightman produced so much quinine as in 1881, and as a whole there has been more quinine produced in the United States than ever before, and challenges them to say he is not correct, and as the statement has not been contradicted to this day, it is fair to assume that it is correct.

Regarding the assertion that more quinia was produced by us in 1881 than ever before, we would first remark that we have no doubt many such "statements" appear. Some of them we see, but others we do not, but to make it a point to ascertain them and further to contradict them would keep us busy in paper controversy. Those who are interested in the matter can readily find out the facts, as they can in this instance. The "statement" is entirely erroneous, and will be clearly seen to be so when, as shown by the revenue statistics, 794,495 ounces of foreign quinia were imported in 1881. The production of the American manufacturers was largely lessened.

This is still further illustrated by the following list of bark shipments:

Years.	To Europe.	To United States.
	<i>Packages.</i>	<i>Packages.</i>
1872.....	32,016	34,478
1873.....	44,419	35,844
1874.....	30,950	42,720
1875.....	34,070	35,150
1876.....	20,735	32,400
1877.....	39,220	28,400
1878.....	57,100	41,000
1879.....	64,688	46,700
1880.....	98,420	32,800
1881.....	141,812	31,400

It will be seen that the ratio between the importations of bark into Europe and importations into United States was fairly uniform between 1872 and 1879, ranging from 20,735 to 57,190 packages per annum into Europe, against 23,400 to 42,720 packages per annum into United States. When the duty was removed in 1879, 64,688 went to Europe and 46,700 to United States. In 1880, 98,420 went to Europe and only 32,800 to United States. In 1881, 141,812 went to Europe and only 31,400 to United States.

Q. How many quinine manufacturers are there in this country?—A. Three.

There are at present five firms engaged in the manufacture of quinia in this country. There have been others who have started in and given it up. We know of ten such.

Throughout so much of the testimony given are reiterations of disparaging comments on individual manufacturers. They are most frequently absurd enough to be left to exhibit their own refutations to candid minds. If the persons attacked were to reply to them, unprofitable controversy only would result. We trust that it will not be necessary for us to answer further in this direction than we have above, and that the discussion will proceed upon the real merits of the case, viz:

1. The *desirability* of maintaining the manufacture in the country.
2. The consideration of the necessary conditions for its manufacture here, just as any other industry is considered.

Very respectfully,

POWERS & WEIGHTMAN.

PHILADELPHIA, October 14, 1882.

H. Mis. 6—162

F. M. BROOKE ET AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. F. M. BROOKE, of Philadelphia, representing a committee of maltsters, addressed the Commission as follows:

GENTLEMEN: In compliance with your courteous invitation, and in furtherance of the object of your creation, yet without prejudice to our allied interests, as maltsters we beg to invite your earnest attention to the duties on barley and its manufactured product, malt; and to show you that, at the average current market, a very large premium is offered to us and to our foreign competitors to provide for the large and annually fast-increasing demand outside of our borders, not alone because of the less money needed to be there employed, nor the less cost of plant, labor, &c., but upon the same basis, the present duties imposed, average against the barley and in favor of the malt, and so against its domestic manufacture.

In malting a bushel (48 pounds) of barley, there is a loss in weight and a gain in bulk, according to the kind used and the process of manufacture. The surplus of 2 to 4 pounds over the bushel (34 pounds) of malt is designated and known as the "increase."

The railroad rates of freight on barley and malt are the same per 100 pounds, so that there is little difference in the cost of transportation between 2 bushels (96 pounds) of barley and 3 bushels (102 pounds) of malt. The former averages a loss in transit of 1 per cent.; the latter, being calcined in the process of manufacture, absorbs sufficient moisture to average a gain of like amount, making a difference in transportation alone of 2 per cent. in favor of the foreign malt. The Dominion of Canada, lying along our whole northern border, has a large barley-producing territory, with a large annually-increasing production, and to show the relative conditions of the Canadian and—as they term us—the American maltster, we submit the annexed statement, based on the average cost of Canadian malting barley to-day in their markets, which is above the average of a term of years, and therefore in favor of the Canadian, with the present specific duty of 15 cents per bushel on barley and 20 per cent. ad valorem on malt.

AMERICAN.	CANADIAN.
Barley cost to local buyer per bushel (48 pounds).....	Barley per bushel (48 pounds) delivered at malt-house by producer
\$0.75	\$0.75
Commission and charges.....	Malting
.05	.10
Duty.....	Total cost malted.....
.15	.85
Freight, 21 cents per 100 pounds. .1008	Estimating increase, 10 per cent. .0778
Cost delivered	Cost 1 bushel (34 pounds) malt..
1.0508	.7722
Add loss in transit, 1 per cent. .0105	Freight to border, 8 cents per 100 pounds.....
Real cost.....	.0272
1.0613	Cost at border.....
Malting7994
.1000	Duty, 20 per cent.....
Total cost malted.....	.1598
1.1613	Freight from border, 13 cents per 100 pounds
Estimating increase, 10 per cent. .1055	.0442
Cost per bushel (34 pounds) of malt.....	1.0034
1.0558	Gain in transit
	.0100
	Cost per bushel, delivered.....
	.9934

Showing a discrimination in favor of the Canadian and against the American manufacturer of 6.24 cents per bushel.

But the Canadian's statement should be restated on the basis of the relative difference in cost of their plant, labor, &c., which is fully one-third less than with us, and the difference of their average valuation (as shown by the report of B. H. Hinds, special agent of Treasury Department, Washington, D. C., March 15, 1881).

Malt invoiced, per bushel, at	\$0.70
Freight to border, 8 cents per 100 pounds.....	.0272
<hr/>	
Cost, delivered at border.....	.7272
Duty as paid on invoice and freight, less 2½ per cent., at 20 per cent.....	.1418
Freight from border, 13 cents per 100 pounds.....	.0442
<hr/>	
	9132
Less gain in transit0091
<hr/>	
Cost per bushel, delivered.....	.9041

Showing a real difference of 15.17 cents per bushel instead of 6.24 cents, as before stated. The Canadians have the additional advantage of not having to pay either freight or duty until they market their product, and then the duty is usually paid by the transportation company at the border, and charged forward and collected with the freight from the consignee, so that the cost of a malted bushel of barley shows that the Canadians' (75 cents + 6½ cents, their relative cost of malting) 81½ cents can and does do as much as their American competitors with 116.13 cents, an advantage on working capital alone of 42 per cent.

With these statements of facts and their logical conclusions, we beg to ask you to recommend that the duties on barley shall be so adjusted as to transfer the protection from the Canadian to the American maltster, and so as to avoid the possibility and prejudice of undervaluation it should be specific, and we would suggest that if (as it should be in the interest of our producers) that on barley should remain, as at present, 15 cents per bushel, that on malt should be correspondingly increased, and 35 cents per bushel would afford but about 4 cents protection on an average market, as above stated. By this adjustment, a large and necessarily growing interest would be retained and developed within our borders, and none would be prejudiced but the foreign manufacturer.

The difference in cost has been wholly to the advantage of the Canadian. Our brewers have not shared it. It would not be prohibitory any more than the duty on malt liquors has been, which exceeds the total cost of the material used, and expense of manufacture being 20 cents per gallon in casks or 35 cents per gallon in bottles. We have the beers of Germany, the ales of England and Scotland, and the stout of Ireland; so would we continue having, for those who wanted it, Canadian made Canada malt.

For your further information, we annex hereto a statement from the records of the United States Treasury, showing for a term of years the annual production of malt liquors, also the imports of barley, malt, and malt liquors.

We thank you for the hearing given us, and hope for your favorable action.

WILLIAM MASSEY, *Chairman.*
 JOHN GARDINER.
 T. MORRIS PEROT.
 FRANCIS BLACKBURNE.
 WILLIAM LITTLE.
 FRANCIS M. BROOKE.
 V. C. SWEATMAN, *Secretary.*

Statement of the annual production of malt liquors, also importations of barley, malt, and malt liquors, from 1877 to 1882 (both inclusive), from the official records of the United States Treasury, furnished by Hon. Joseph Nimmo, jr., Chief of Bureau of Statistics, and Hon. H. C. Rogers, Acting Commissioner of Internal Revenue.

Year ending June 30.	Barley import- ed in bush- els.	Malt imported in bushels.	Malt liquors imported in gallons.	Malt liquors, domesticman- ufacture, in gal- lons.
1877.....	6,702,965	314,130	974,277	304,111,860
1878.....	6,764,228	552,656	767,709	317,485,601
1879.....	5,720,970	537,095	897,487	344,105,604
1880.....	7,135,258	1,023,447	1,007,297	413,760,410
1881.....	9,528,618	685,297	1,173,365	443,641,898
1882.....	12,182,722	1,137,832	1,573,083	525,514,635

THOMAS S. HARRISON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. THOMAS S. HARRISON, president of the Manufacturing Chemists' Association of the United States, submitted the following statement:

Herewith we beg to present the schedule of rates of duties agreed upon by the Manufacturing Chemists' Association, which has been carefully prepared in accordance with the views expressed in the early part of your deliberations.

Inasmuch as the Commission has given us ample opportunity to discuss the bearings of the tariff upon the chemical industry, it will be needless at this moment to reiterate them. At the suggestion of your president a separate schedule for drugs and chemicals was considered as not only proper but desirable. In the remarks of Commissioner Kenner to our committee, after alluding to a system we had proposed, by which Schedule M could be greatly simplified, dividing the articles into three classes—animal, vegetable, and mineral—he said—

Now the simplification of the tariff is a very important matter to the country. If you have framed a schedule for the tariff, based upon the system you have explained, will you please furnish the Commission with a copy?

Such a schedule, we stated, would be presented. Again, Commissioner Kenner remarked:

You will understand that chemistry and the products of chemistry are, as a rule, matters but little understood by the community at large; and this commission forms a portion of that community, and are more or less in that category. Therefore, the more explicit, definite, and enlarged the manner in which you give your views on the subject, the better it will be for us.

In presenting this schedule we desire to say that we have, as far as possible, adopted the system referred to, and have largely consulted not only members of the Manufacturing Chemists' Association, but also those not members, but directly interested in drugs and chemicals; so that we believe the schedule as presented to be an emanation from the chemical industry in all its branches.

The sweeping clauses of articles "*not otherwise provided for*" have been carefully prepared by reference to text-books, and with the combined intelligence of professors and experts. They may be said to be as complete as can be made, and as they simplify the tariff largely this may be considered an important element in your work.

We beg to call your attention to the clause commencing "rate of duty on alloys," which may possibly be of service when you come to the adjustment of duties on textile fabrics and other mixed goods. By this system you may be guided in departing from the present system of "similtude" and "component part of chief value," which has heretofore ruled in fixing duties. By using this schedule, "Schedule I" may be eliminated, as spices, excepting those "ground," are placed on the free list.

The rates of duty have been advanced in but few instances, and the reasons therefor are explained in notes appended. On the other hand the *reduction* in rates may be said to be quite sweeping. It is not possible to state the amount of this reduction in a percentage, but an idea may be gained by reference to a few important articles, as, for instance,

all the acetates, lead and lead preparations, refined borax, medicinal preparations, cream tartar, tartaric acid, essential oils, &c.

We also wish to call attention impressively to the uniformly low rates of duty proposed in this chemical list. When rates of other classes of goods are considered, we think they must be regarded as indeed quite moderate. The free list, as proposed by us, is much enlarged.

We cannot properly close without a reference to the importance of the chemical industry. The census of 1880 shows among its items the following:

Number of chemical establishments in the United States.....	1,349
Capital invested, including buildings and machinery.....	\$85,483,856
Total value of all products.....	117,407,054
<hr/>	
Hands, average number of males, of sixteen years and above.....	26,751
Same below sixteen years.....	1,207
Average number of females fifteen years and above.....	1,493
Same below fifteen years.....	49
	<hr/>
	29,500

When it is considered that, beyond giving employment to its own working people, this industry assists those engaged in other branches of manufacturing, by constantly and largely using the products of their labor—such as machinery, glassware, apparatus, packages, &c.—its importance is further shown. The item of glassware alone is no inconsiderable one. Coal is a large one, amounting to a yearly consumption of 273,161 tons of anthracite and 326,398 tons of bituminous.

Rates of duties on drugs and chemicals proposed by the Manufacturing Chemists' Association of the United States.

FREE LIST.

Ambergris.	Indigo.
Bones, not manufactured.	Iodine, crude.
Bone-ash.	Lac dye, crude, seed, button, stick, or shell.
Guano.	Licorice root.
Mannros, unmanufactured.	Litmus, prepared or not prepared.
Musk, crude, in natural pod.	Mace.
Civet, crude.	Manna.
Cuttlefish-bone.	Myrobolan.
Hide-cuttings, raw, with or without hair on, for glue-stock.	Nutmega.
Hoofs.	Nux vomica.
Horns, unmanufactured.	Ottar of roses.
Leather, old scrap.	Oils:
Argal, or argal (see <i>Tartar</i>).	Anise.
Asafetida.	Aspic, or spike lavender.
Barks, cinchona, or other barks used in the manufacture of quinia.	Bergamot.
Camphor, crude.	Cassia.
Cassia, cassia buds, and cassia vera, unground.	Citronella.
Cinnamon and chips of, unground.	Lavender.
Cloves and clove-stems, unground.	Lemon.
Cutch.	Limes.
Divi divi.	Neroli, or orange flower.
Ergot of rye.	Orange.
Gambier.	Palm.
Ginger-root, green, fresh, and dried, unground.	Thyme, or organum, red or white.
	Rosemary, or anthos.
	Pepper, unground, of all kinds, except red pepper.

Plimento, unground.
 Perfumed pomades, made by the process known as *enslourage*—not put up in shape for retailing, as hair-dressing.
 Tartar, crude, and the crude by-products in the distillation of grape-skins, known in trade under name of *Alambique* and *Pinnaceto argols* and *Lees*, crude.
 Valonia.
 Vegetable wax.
 Acid, arsenious, or arsenic.
 Acid boracic.
 Acid muriatic, acid nitric, acid sulphuric—commercial—not chemically pure, and aqua fortis.
 Apatite.
 Arsenic, sulphide of, or orpiment.
 Baryta carbonate, as witherite.
 Bauxite.
 Bismuth.
 Cadmium.
 Cerium.
 Cobalt, as metallic arsenic.
 Chalk.
 Iridium.
 Iron, sulphuret of, as pyrites, in its natural state, containing more than fifteen per cent. of silica.
 Cryolite or kryolith.
 Kieserite.
 Kyanite or cyanite.
 Lime, borate of.
 Lime, citrate of.
 Lime, chloride of, or bleaching powder.
 Magnesite, or mineral carbonate of magnesia.
 Osmium.
 Palladium.
 Platinum and platinum pans, vases, retorts, and other apparatus or parts thereof for chemical use.

Potash, muriate of.
 Quicksilver or mercury.
 Soda, nitrate of.
 Strontianite, or mineral carbonate of strontia.
 Sulphur or brimstone and sulphur ores.
 Tincl, crude.
 Tin ore; bars, blocks, or pigs, grain or granulated.
 Free goods from beyond *Cape of Good Hope*, imported from places west thereof.
 —Free.
 All barks; beans; berries; balsams; buds; bulbs and bulbous roots, not edible; excrecences—such as nutgalls; fruits, not edible; flowers, dried; fibers; grains, not edible; gums and gum-resins; herbs, not edible; leaves; lichens; nuts, not edible; roots and stems, not edible; spices; vegetables, not edible; seeds, aromatic, not garden seeds, and seeds of morbid growth; weeds; woods used expressly for dyeing; and dried insects—the like of which are not produced in the United States, and not advanced in value or condition by refining or grinding, and n. o. p. f.—Free.
 All minerals the like of which are not found in the United States, and not advanced in value or condition, by refining or grinding, and n. o. p. f.—Free.
 Sodium, muriate of, or salt, for use in the manufacture of muriatic acid, and of *Soda* and the salts thereof.—FREE when imported direct and for the purpose herein indicated, or entitled to refund of duty if withdrawn from warehouse after the duty imposed upon it shall have been paid.

DUTIABLE LIST.

DRUGS AND CHEMICALS.

Animals, portions of, dried but unmanufactured, for glue-stock, other than hide-cuttings, ten per cent.
 Bladders, dried blood, common glue, isinglass or fish-glue, rennets, and vaccine virus, twenty per cent.
 Carbon, animal, half cent per pound.
 Albumen, in any form or condition, twenty-five per cent.
 Beeswax, twenty per cent.
 Gelatine, and all similar preparations, thirty-five per cent.
 Glycerine, crude, two cents per pound. (See explanatory notes.)
 Glycerine, refined, five cents per pound. (See explanatory notes.)
 Honey, twenty cents per gallon.
 Phosphorus, ten cents per pound.
 Soap, hard, all n. o. p. f., one cent per pound and thirty per cent. ad valorem.
 Fancy, perfumed, transparent (alcoholic), and all descriptions of toilet and shaving, ten cents per pound and twenty-five per cent. ad valorem.
 Soft, one cent per pound and thirty per cent. ad valorem.
 Sponge, twenty per cent.
 Acid, acetic, acinous or pyroligneous acid or vinegar, exceeding the specific gravity of 1.047, ten cents per pound.
 Acid, acetic, acinous or pyroligneous acid or vinegar, not exceeding the specific gravity of 1.047, two cents per pound.
 Acid, citric, fifteen cents per pound. (See Lemon or Lime juice. See explanatory notes.)

- Acid, tartaric, ten cents per pound. (See explanatory notes.)
 Camphor, refined, in all forms, including flowers and compressed, five cents per pound.
 (See explanatory notes.)
 Castor bean, twenty cents per bushel of fifty pounds.
 Castor oil, sixty cents per gallon.
 Cream of tartar, six cents per pound.
 Dextrin, twenty per cent.
 Glucose or grape-sugar, twenty-five per cent.
 Indigo, extracts of, twenty-five per cent.
 Indigo, powdered, ten per cent.
 Iodine, resublimed, fifty cents per pound.
 Lemon juice or lime juice, five per cent.
 Lemon juice or lime juice, concentrated, five per cent. (See Citric acid.)
 Licorice paste or roll, ten cents per pound.
 Oil-cake (of flseed), ten per cent.
 Oil of bay-leaves, essential, or bay rum essence or oil, two dollars and fifty cents per pound. (See explanatory notes.)
 Oil, croton, fifty cents per pound. (See explanatory notes.)
 Oil, flaxseed or linseed, twenty-five per cent.
 Pepper, red, unground, five cents per pound.
 Pepper, red, ground, ten cents per pound.
 Quinia, sulphate of, fifteen per cent. (See explanatory notes.)
 Soda and potassa tartrate, or Rochelle salt, five cents per pound.
 Strychnia or strychnine, and all salts thereof, fifty cents per ounce.
 Tartars, refined or partially refined, including lees crystals, six cents per pound.
 (See explanatory notes.)
 Acidulated phosphate of lime, ammoniated or otherwise, three dollars per ton.
 Alloys, or mixtures of metals, not otherwise herein provided for, shall pay duty, at the rates hereinbefore fixed, upon the several component metals in their respective proportions, and in addition thereto a duty of thirty per centum upon the aggregate duty so computed.
 Alumina, sulphate of, or concentrated alum; alum cake, lump or ground; and alum in crystals, or ground; sixty cents per 100 pounds.
 Ammonia, as—
 Ammonia anhydrous, liquified by pressure, twenty per cent.
 Ammonia aqua or water of ammonia, twenty per cent.
 Ammonia, muriate of, or sal-ammoniac, twenty per cent.
 Ammonia, carbonate of, twenty per cent.
 Ammonia, sulphate of, twenty per cent.
 Antimony as regulus, or metal, twenty per cent.
 Antimony ore, or black sulphuret of, ten per cent.
 Baryta, sulphate of, or barytes, unmanufactured, ten per cent.
 Baryta, sulphate of, or barytes, manufactured, twenty per cent.
 Acid, boric, free.
 Borate of soda or borax, three cents per pound.
 Bromine, ten per cent.
 Calcium, chloride of, crude, not medicinal, half cent per pound.
 Chalk, free.
 Chalk, as whiting, dry, half cent per pound.
 Chalk, as whiting, ground in oil, one and a half cents per pound.
 Chalk, as prepared chalk, precipitated chalk, French chalk, red chalk, and all other chalk preparations, n. o. p. f., twenty per cent.
 Chromates:
 Chromic iron ore, twenty per cent.
 Chromic acid, twenty-five per cent.
 Chromate of potash, four cents per pound.
 Bichromate of potash, four cents per pound. (See explanatory notes.)
 Cobalt, oxide of, fifty cents per pound.
 Copper, sulphate of, or blue vitriol, three cents per pound.
 Iron, sulphate of, or copperas, half cent per pound.
 Lead:
 Ores of, ten per cent.
 In pigs or bars, one cent per pound.
 In sheets, roll, and pipe, or in any other form of the metal, one and a half cents per pound.
 Acetate of, brown, three cents per pound.
 Acetate of, white, five cents per pound.
 Carbonate of, as white lead, when dry or in pulp, two cents per pound.
 Carbonate of, as white lead, when ground or mixed in oil, two and a half cents per pound.

Lead:

Oxide of, as litharge, two cents per pound.

Oxide of, from the carbonate, as orange mineral and red lead, two and a half cents per pound.

Nitrate of, three cents per pound.

All manufactures of, n. o. p. f., thirty-five per cent.

Magnesia, carbonate of, six cents per pound.

Magnesia, calcined, fifteen cents per pound.

Magnesia, sulphate of, or Epsom salt, half cent per pound.

Nickel, thirty cents per pound.

Nickel, alloy of, with copper, thirty cents per pound.

Nickel, oxide of, twenty cents per pound.

Paraffine, five cents per pound.

Potash:

Potassa carbonate or potash, in all forms or grades thereof, but not including the bicarbonate, as—

Crude or fused potash,

Calcined potash or pearl ash,

Caustic or hydrate of potash, not including the pure, in sticks, all twenty per cent.

Chlorate of, three cents per pound. (See explanatory notes.)

Iodide of, fifty cents per pound.

Prussiate of, red, ten cents per pound.

Prussiate of, yellow, five cents per pound.

Nitrate of, or saltpeter, crude, half cent per pound.

Nitrate of, or refined, two cents per pound.

Sulphate of, twenty per cent.

Potash lye (liquid), twenty per cent.

Soda:

Sodium, twenty per cent.

Soda ash, thirty per cent.

Soda sal, or soda crystals, quarter cent per pound.

Bicarbonate of, or supercarbonate of, one and a half cents per pound.

Bicarbonate of, or saleratus, one and a half cents per pound.

Hydrate or caustic, one and a half cents per pound.

Lye (liquid), twenty per cent.

Sulphate, known as salt cake, crude or refined, or niter cake, crude or refined, or

Glauber's salt, quarter cent per pound.

Sulphur or brimstone, free.

Refined, in rolls, ten dollars per ton.

Sublimed, or flour of, twenty dollars per ton.

Sulphuret of iron, as pyrites, in its natural state, containing less than fifteen per cent. of silica, same duty as on iron ore, and in addition thereto, three cents per pound for the copper contained (dry assay).

Crude sulphides, or sulphurets, n. o. p. f., ten per cent.

Sulphur lac, or precipitated, twenty per cent.

Tar:

Coal tar, ten per cent.

Coal tar naphtha, benzine, benzole, dead oil, and pitch, asphaltum or bitumen, twenty per cent.

Preparations of coal-tar distillations, or derivatives thereof, and like products, by whatever name known, and n. o. p. f., forty per cent.

Ultramarine, six cents per pound.

Colors and paints, whether dry or mixed, or ground with water or oil, and n. o. p. f., forty per cent. (See explanatory notes.)

Ochre and ochrey earths, umber and umber earths, and sienna and sienna earths, when dry, half cent per pound; when ground in oil, one and a half cents per pound.

Zinc, oxide of, when dry, one and a half cents per pound.

Zinc, oxide of, when ground in oil, two cents per pound.

Extracts and decoctions of logwood, one and one-quarter cents per pound.

Extracts and decoctions of fustic, redwoods, and extracts and decoctions of all other dye-woods, two cents per pound.

Preparations known as essential oils, expressed oils, distilled oils, rendered oils, acids, alkalies, alkaloids, neutral principles, and all combinations thereof, by whatever name known, and n. o. p. f., twenty-five per cent.

Preparations known as cements; cerates; conserves; decoctions; emulsions; extracts; solid or fluid; infusions; juices; liniments; lozenges; mixtures; mucillages; ointments; oleo-resins; pills; plasters; powders; resins; suppositories; syrups; vinegars and waters; of which alcohol is not a component part, and n. o. p. f., twenty-five per cent.

- All barks; beans; berries; balsams; buds; bulbs and bulbous-roots, not edible; excrescences—such as nutgalls; fruits, not edible; flowers, dried; fibres; grains, not edible; gums and gum-resins; herbs, not edible; leaves; lichens; nuts, not edible; roots and stems, not edible; spices; vegetables, not edible; seeds, aromatic, not garden seeds, and seeds of morbid growth; weeds; woods, used expressly for dyeing; and dried insects—the like of which are not produced in the United States, and which have been advanced in value or condition by refining or grinding, and n. o. p. f., ten per cent.
- All barks; beans; berries; balsams; buds; bulbs and bulbous-roots, not edible; excrescences—such as nutgalls; fruits, not edible; flowers, dried; fibres; grains, not edible; gums and gum-resins; herbs, not edible; leaves; lichens; nuts, not edible; roots and stems, not edible; spices; vegetables, not edible; seeds, aromatic, not garden seeds, and seeds of morbid growth; weeds; woods used expressly for dyeing; and dried insects—the like of which are produced in the United States, but not advanced in value or condition by refining or grinding, and n. o. p. f., ten per cent.
- All barks; beans; berries; balsams; buds; bulbs and bulbous-roots, not edible; excrescences—such as nutgalls; fruits, not edible; flowers, dried; fibres; grains, not edible; gums and gum-resins; herbs, not edible; leaves; lichens; nuts, not edible; roots and stems, not edible; spices; vegetables, not edible; seeds, aromatic, not garden seeds, and seeds of morbid growth; weeds; woods used expressly for dyeing; and dried insects—the like of which are produced in the United States, and which have been advanced in value or condition by refining or grinding, and n. o. p. f., twenty per cent.
- All minerals, the like of which are not found in the United States, but which have been advanced in value or condition by refining or grinding, and n. o. p. f., ten per cent.
- All minerals, the like of which are found in the United States, but not advanced in value or condition by refining or grinding, and n. o. p. f., ten per cent.
- All minerals, the like of which are found in the United States, and which have been advanced in value or condition by refining or grinding, and n. o. p. f., twenty per cent.
- All ground or powdered spices, n. o. p. f., five cents per pound.
- All earths and clays, unmanufactured, and n. o. p. f., one dollar and a half per ton.
- All earths and clays, manufactured, and n. o. p. f., three dollars per ton.
- China clay or kaolin, three dollars per ton.
- Proprietary preparations, to wit, all cosmetics; pills; powders; troches or lozenges; syrups; cordials; bitters; anodynes; tonics; plasters; liniments; salves; ointments; pastes; drops; waters; essences; spirits; oils; or preparations or compositions recommended to the public as proprietary articles, or prepared according to some private formula, as remedies or specifics, and n. o. p. f., fifty per cent.
- Alcoholic preparations:
- Distilled spirits, containing fifty per cent. anhydrous alcohol, one dollar per gallon.
 - Alcohol, containing ninety-four per cent. anhydrous alcohol, two dollars per gallon.
 - Alcoholic perfumery, as cologne water, two dollars per gallon, and fifty per cent. ad valorem.
 - Alcoholic compounds, n. o. p. f., two dollars per gallon for the alcohol contained, and twenty-five per cent. ad valorem.
 - Chloroform, fifty cents per pound.
 - Collodion, fifty cents per pound.
 - Ether, sulphuric, fifty cents per pound.
 - Hoffman's anodyne, thirty cents per pound.
 - Iodoform, two dollars per pound.
 - Acid tannic, or tannin, one dollar per pound.
 - Spirits nitrous ether, thirty cents per pound.
 - Santonin, three dollars per pound.
 - Amylic alcohol or fish oil, ten per cent.
- Preparations known as essences; ethers; extracts; mixtures; spirits; tinctures; and medicated wines; and the like thereof, by whatever name known, of which alcohol is a component part, and n. o. p. f., fifty cents per pound.
- Varnishes, valued at one dollar and fifty cents per gallon or less, fifty cents per gallon and twenty per cent. ad valorem.
- Varnishes, valued higher, fifty cents per gallon and twenty-five per cent. ad valorem.
- Opium, one dollar per pound.

(Opium containing a less percentage of morphia than is recognized by the United States Pharmacopœia or United States Dispensatory, shall be admitted, when imported by manufacturers of opium products, the importer giving bonds to the collector of the

port of entry that said opium is to be used exclusively for extracting the alkaloids and not for salens opium.)

Aqueous extract of, for medicinal use, two dollars per pound.

Prepared for smoking, six dollars per pound.

All preparations or extracts of, n. o. p. f., and retaining the form of opium and used for smoking, six dollars per pound.

Tincture of, as laudanum, and all other liquid preparations of opium, n. o. p. f., forty per cent.

Morphia or morphine, and all salts thereof, one dollar and twenty-five cents per ounce.—(See explanatory notes.)

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

Acid citric.—The present rate of duty is inadequate in view of the duty on lime juice and lemon juice.

Acid tartaric is largely produced in this country, in New York City and Philadelphia.

Camphor is refined in this country, and in sufficient quantity to supply the entire home demand.

Colors and paints.—As the bases of colors (lead, chrome, prussiate of potash, &c.) are dutiable from twenty-five to forty per cent., the results from such bases (viz. colors) should have protection a little more than equivalent as an advanced manufacture. In many instances the rates herein proposed, such as those upon chrome and lead colors, will be but countervailing and not protective.

Glycerin, crude, is defined to be of a brown or yellow color of 1.2500 specific gravity or less, at the standard temperature of 60° Fahr., as directly extracted from fats and oils of the stearine candle, soap, and other manufactures, without having been subsequently purified by the processes of refining and distilling.

Glycerine, refined, is defined to be white glycerine of any gravity, and brown and yellow glycerine of more than 1.2500 specific gravity, and any glycerine of any gravity which has been wholly or partially refined or distilled.

Morphia, or morphine, is one of the proximate principles of opium (opium dutiable one dollar per pound)—largely manufactured in this country.

Oil of bay leaves, essential.—This oil is now made here in sufficient quantity to supply the home demand.

Oil, croton.—The manufacture of this article has been but recently commenced in this country. Under the rate recommended we think it can be successfully produced here.

Potash, dichromate of.—Chromic ores are found in Maryland, Pennsylvania, and California. The manufactories now established using chromic iron ore are ample to supply the entire home demand for chromate and dichromate of potash. The price of dichromate of potash has been considerably reduced by the establishment of this industry in the United States.

Potash, chlorate of, will probably be produced here as soon as the manufacture of soda alkalies shall become sufficiently established.

Sulphate of quinia, or sulphate of quinine.—There are factories established in this country capable of meeting the entire home demand. A countervailing duty of ten per cent. is required to compensate for higher rates of wages paid in the United States, and for increased cost of apparatus, machinery, &c. Fifteen per cent. duty would be mainly countervailing, and but slightly protective.

Tartars, or argols partially refined.—These articles are of an intermediate character, i. e., between crude argols and cream of tartar, but are frequently so light in color, and so rich in bicarbonate potash, as to make them practically cream of tartar, and therefore they should be dutiable at about the same rate as cream of tartar.

GEORGE W. MCKEAG ET AL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *October 16, 1882.*

Mr. GEORGE W. MCKEAG, of Philadelphia, representing the Knights of Labor, addressed the Commission as follows :

Representing an organization united for mutual benefit, and not in the least selfish in its aim or object, but, on the other hand, looking to the advancement of the entire country and not that of sections, you must see that our task is one calling for the candidness upon the part of those who are delegated to present the views of diversified interests, coupled with justice to one and all, and to do that we must necessarily consider all questions in the relation each bears to the success of a common interest; that interest is, gentlemen, the prosperity of industry, be it agricultural, commercial, mercantile, manufacturing, mining, or the industrial interests of the United States.

It is not so much that the tariff affects us as a tariff to work to our detriment, be it in its application specific or ad valorem, so long as it does not exclude that which we cannot produce ourselves; but when it is used to enable us to produce the wealth of this country for no other reason than to have it cut up by extortionate rates of interest, then, sirs, it is high time that something is done to prevent it, and it is our desire to impress on you, gentlemen, this fact: that the tariff has been made an engine to work in the interest of the "mighty dollar," by men whose interests are diametrical to the welfare of this country. They have delegated to them governmental functions, and are not held responsible in their stewardship either to Congress, which is or should be our protector, nor the business interests, which place the burdens on those the least able to bear them. This is the cause of all the strikes, lock-outs, petitions, grain corners, speculation, whether it be in watered stocks or wild-cat insurance companies it amounts to the same, fleecing a credulous people in their endeavors to adjust their income to the enhanced value upon articles of their own creation. When it is considered that the income sufficient to maintain man only in animal existence is adequate to him, which appears not as a theory, but in many instances a fact, then, sirs, something is wrong, and that something can be removed by the government administering a prerogative consistent to public welfare.

Let no mistakes be made upon the effect of tariff, as was done a short period ago on the question of finance, which resulted in producing a paralysis upon trade beyond a parallel, except England, in 1816, when that government undersold other countries at a loss to obtain the precious metals to resume specie payment—a farce and an illusion—for it may prove more injurious in its practical application than beneficial in its theoretical results.

Therefore, we insist that the tariff is a benefit in developing the resources of any country, provided that the duty does not by excessive measures produce a monopoly in which the competition is for quantity instead of quality. This question and all questions, be it the tariff or cheap money, should be considered not in the spirit of partisanship, but rather in that of patriotism, and when that day arrives you will see these two questions automatic in regulating the differences now existing in the minds of those who do not stop to think that all questions of politi-

cal economy are relative questions, and it is in its relation that it should be considered bearing on the result to be obtained.

Being opposed to strikes, as we are, well knowing that it is the effect of causes which can be settled by a fair presentation of the same in a fair, candid expression of opinion, we have established a tribunal of arbitration in which justice shall be rendered to those evoking its aid and assistance.

Thanking you for your attention in listening to the opinions of those who from necessity as well as love of freedom have made a study of the burning question that you have been called upon by our President to seek to remedy, we submit this for your earnest consideration.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. What is the membership of your organization in the United States?—Answer. Mr. Wright, one of our committee who, is present, can answer that question better than I can.

Mr. JAMES L. WRIGHT said: We have a membership in our organization throughout the United States of over 150,000.

By Commissioner BOTELER:

Question. Does the organization extend to most of the States?—Answer. It covers every State in the Union. I would like to say a few words in regard to the subject of the tariff. It seems to me that the great difficulty workmen labor under is the continual changing of the tariff. The organization which I have the honor to represent here was organized for the special purpose of preventing strikes. Anything that tends to increase the cost of living by placing a high tariff on one article and reducing it on another, or any sudden change in the tariff laws, has a tendency to bring about strikes, and then the employer as well as the laboring man suffers. As a representative of this organization, having for its object the prevention of strikes, I urge upon you the necessity of preparing a tariff that will remain stable and that will not be a vacillating and changing one. I have no doubt the members of the Commission appreciate the importance of this matter. No strike has occurred in this country for over 30 years, to my knowledge, which has not resulted either from a financial change or a change of tariff. So that the strikes of which we hear so much complaint are really caused by measures which increase or decrease values, or increase or decrease the expense of living.

In 1880 I had the honor to be chairman of a committee of five representing the executive committee of this order in the United States, and during that year there was not a single strike in the country, owing to the fact that our committee arranged these difficulties between the employers and the employés. We think that a fair tariff would be one which would provide for the difference in wages between the laborers here and abroad, and which would give the manufacturers a chance to deal squarely with their employés. We think the workmen should be protected to that extent. I am satisfied, from the knowledge and information I have derived, that wages are better in America than in England or any other part of Europe. I desire to state, also, that our committee will, before the labors of the Commission are concluded, give you a full statement of the amount of wages paid the laborers in various industries in Europe compared with wages paid for the same labor in this country.

By Commissioner OLIVER:

Q. You do not believe that if duties were taken off all goods it would

increase wages in this country?—A. No, sir; I think it would reduce them.

Q. We were told on Saturday that if Congress would take the tariff off all articles, wages would advance, and as you represent the laboring element, I would like to know if that is the opinion you entertain.—A. No, sir; it is not. The man who told you that has been sitting in a corner and thinking his ideas out by himself. Men may sit in corners and theorize, and think they have discovered great things, while in fact they have not discovered anything. But a man who has been working over fifty years in a mechanical business knows something about how the thing ought to be. It is not necessary that he should go to college to understand what lowers or raises wages.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Q. Have you ever looked into the question of the difference in the purchasing power of money in this country and in England?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. What is your opinion in respect to that?—A. I will furnish you with a statement in regard to that matter, and will try to get the cost of living in England as compared with the cost of living in America.

Mr. EDWIN R. FAIRBANKS, of Philadelphia, said:

I will speak on the subject of the tariff question as it affects the laborer. The great desire of the working people is, that we shall have an equal chance to develop this country in competition with foreign countries, and be able to realize a fair profit for our labor. Our labor is our capital. The laboring man in this country suffers whenever the capitalists combine and make a corner in wheat, flour, or other necessities of life. Last winter there was an increase of at least 40 per cent. in the cost of living while our wages did not increase any. This is owing to the use of large amounts of capital for speculative purposes. We think the manufacturers should be protected to the extent of enabling them to pay a fair rate of wages to their employes, but we do not believe they should be protected to the extent of enabling them to accumulate great wealth at the expense of the laboring classes of the community.

By Commissioner PORTER:

Question. The fault of which you complain results more from the speculating mania which exists in this country than from any combination of manufacturers, does it not?—Answer. I suppose it does.

QUICKSILVER MANUFACTURERS' MEMORIAL.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., November 14, 1882.

The following memorial of the QUICKSILVER MANUFACTURERS OF CALIFORNIA was ordered to be printed:

To the President and Members of the Tariff Commission:

The undersigned, quicksilver manufacturers in the State of California, respectfully beg leave to submit to your honorable body that the production of quicksilver is one of the most important interests of the Pacific coast, representing a capital of \$30,000,000, and giving permanent employment to more than 5,000 men, who are paid liberal wages; that the article of quicksilver is an absolute necessity in the mining of silver and gold, and other uses; that for many years, while the article was protected by a duty, the business was fairly profitable and remunerative to the manufacturers, and that some thirty mines were in operation in this State.

That within the last few years, since the abolition of the duty, owing to sharp competition with foreign producers, particularly of the Almaden mines in Spain, which are owned and worked by the Spanish Government, and the Idria mines in Austria, owned and worked by the Austrian Government, the price has been reduced to so low a figure that there is no profit to manufacturers here; that only eight mines are now being worked in California, and that the total amount received for sales of the article during the last three years has not paid the cost of its manufacture, allowing for depreciation in works and exhaustion of mines; that owing to the richness of the Spanish and Austrian mines, and the fact that the cost of labor in those countries is not more than one-sixth of what is paid in California, quicksilver cannot be manufactured in America to compete with the product from Spain and Austria, and unless some relief or protection is given, this important interest must entirely give way to foreign competition; that owing to the high rates of transportation between California and the Eastern States, foreign quicksilver can be sent from Europe to New York at one-quarter the freight and in one-third of the time that it can be sent from San Francisco; that many articles necessary for the working of quicksilver mines, particularly iron and steel, are subject to high duties, thereby largely increasing the cost of manufacture; that quicksilver flasks are subject to a duty of 35 per cent.; that most of the flasks used in California are second-hand flasks returned from China, on which the quicksilver manufacturers here are obliged to pay the high duty, often paying many times on the same flasks, *while new flasks filled with quicksilver are imported into New York from Europe free of duty*; that owing to these facts all of the American market east of the Rocky Mountains has been lost to home manufacturers, and supplied with a foreign product which pays no duty or revenue to our government.

That the imposition of a duty on quicksilver would lead to no hardship or damage to other industries in this country; the article being used over many times in gold and silver mining, so that the small advance in price would practically be almost nothing in the cost of mining, while the only other industries which would be affected—the manufacture of vermilion and the manufacture of medicinal preparations

from mercury, both of which are small in comparison with the manufacture of quicksilver—are now protected by a duty.

That owing to the great extent and richness of the Spanish mine, as compared with any mines in this country, and the low rate of labor in Spain, the Spanish Government can at any time produce quicksilver in sufficient quantities to supply the consumption of the world, and at a price which would close every mine in this country; that the control of this Spanish product is a practical monopoly in the hands of Messrs. Rothschild, of London, who have a lease of the Spanish mines for thirty years, to secure the payment of a loan to that government; that there is a very large accumulation from the products of these mines now in London; that prior to the manufacture of quicksilver in California the price of foreign quicksilver was more than treble the present price, and that, should the California mines, which are practically the only competitors of the Spanish and Austrian mines, be, for want of protection, driven from the field, the price of the foreign article would be advanced to a rate that would compel the consumers of quicksilver in this country to pay a hundred fold more than the imposition of a duty on the American product would cost them. The admission free of duty of a product manufactured exclusively by foreign governments (which themselves have a high protective tariff) to the detriment and ruin of an American industry is an anomaly in our revenue laws which your petitioners beg may be at once removed.

Your petitioners further respectfully represent that all other metals of American manufacture from native ores, iron, copper, zinc, nickel, lead, &c., are protected by high duties, quicksilver, which under the present foreign competition seems to require it more than any other, forming almost the only exception; and they therefore trust that your honorable body will recommend the imposition of a duty on this article.

Under the old tariff the duty on quicksilver was 15 per cent. ad valorem, and ranged in amount from ten to twenty-three cents per pound, but your petitioners would respectfully suggest that a specific duty of from twenty to twenty-five cents per pound be recommended; twenty cents being, in their opinion, about the lowest figure which would enable American manufacturers to compete with the Spanish and Austrian Governments and give them a fair return for the capital invested.

Signed by—

The Quicksilver Mining Company, New Almaden, California, J. B. RANDOL, *Manager*.

Sulphur Bank Quicksilver Mining Company, by PARROTT & Co., *Agents and Factors*.

Great Western Quicksilver Mining Company, G. PALACHE, *President*.

The Redington Quicksilver Company, JOHN H. REDINGTON, *President*.

The New Idria Mining Company, by THOMAS BELL, *President*.

The Santa Olara Mining Association, of Baltimore (Guadalupe), HENRY MAY, *Receiver*.

The Oakland Mining Company, by THOMAS BELL, *Trustee*.

The Napa Consolidated Quicksilver Mining Company.

The Great Eastern Quicksilver Mining Company.

Production and price of quicksilver for the year 1881.

103
H. M. S. 0

Months.	New Almaden.	Sulphur Bank.	Great Western.	Naja Con.	Gundalupo.	New Idria.	Redington.	Great Eastern.	Cloverdale.	Various.	Total production.	Price in San Francisco.		Exports.*	Production of the Almaden, Spain.	Price in London.	
												Highest.	Lowest.			Highest.	Lowest.
1881	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.			Flasks.	Flasks.	l s. d.	l s. d.
January	2,259	895	451	430	1,300	330	140	13		43	5,261	\$57 00	\$36 00		2,127	6 15 0	6 15 0
February	2,187	635	299	533	609	171	32			4	4,261	39 00	37 00		2,456	6 15 0	6 15 0
March	2,466	1,100	400	505	350	206	354	179			5,580	38 00	38 50		2,853	6 15 0	6 15 0
April	2,507	706	447	466	357	158	284	133			5,071	39 00	34 50		2,836	6 10 0	6 12 0
May	1,346	1,163	681	659	500	200	218	97			4,889	37 75	34 50		2,774	6 10 0	6 5 0
June	1,780	1,463	801	621	340	201	196	94	45		5,584	37 50	34 50		2,774	6 5 0	6 5 0
July	2,208	1,057	714	481	255	110	160	47	44	108	5,188	38 00	34 50		2,774	6 10 0	6 5 0
August	2,266	1,139	585	490	300	209	190	57	32	88	5,350	37 00	34 50		2,774	6 10 0	6 5 0
September	2,090	1,076	457	592	201	212	157	113	32	5	4,965	37 25	36 75		2,774	6 10 0	6 5 0
October	2,233	969	414	425	400	140	165	106	50	12	4,965	41 50	38 50		2,774	6 10 0	6 10 0
November	2,572	588	434	310	375	577	180	168		30	5,112	41 50	38 50		2,774	6 12 6	6 5 0
December	2,162	361	458	280	250	261	88	70		15	3,945	37 75	36 50		2,585	6 5 0	6 5 0
Total	26,060	11,152	6,241	5,552	5,228	2,775	2,194	1,065	208	376	60,851	41 50	38 50	45,799	50,353	7 0 0	6 2 6

* By sea and rail from San Francisco.

Production in California during 1881..... 60,851 flasks, each of 76.50 pounds avoirdupois.
 Production in Spain during 1881, 1,737,571,600 kilograms 50,353 flasks, each of 76.97 pounds avoirdupois.

SAN FRANCISCO, December 31, 1881.

QUICKSILVER MARKET IN MEXICO

QUICKSILVER.

2593

Production and price of quick

[Compiled by J. B. Randol, manager

Years.	Production of mines in California.					
	New Almaden.	New Idria.	Redington.	Sulphur Bank.	Great Eastern.	Mount Jackson.
	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.
1850	7,723					
1851	27,770					
1852	15,901					
1853	22,284					
1854	30,004					
1855	29,142					
1856	27,138					
1857	28,204					
1858	25,701					
1859	1,204					
1860	7,001					
1861	84,420					
1862	30,671					
1863	32,803		444			
1864	42,480		852			
1865	47,104		1,014			
1866	36,160		3,545			
1867	24,401	6,525	2,254			
1868	25,028	11,403	7,802			
1869	10,898	12,180	8,680			
1870	14,423	10,315	5,018			
1871	18,608	9,888	4,540			
1872	18,574	8,180	2,128			
1873	11,042	8,171	8,040			
1874	0,084	7,735	3,204			
1875	13,018	6,911	6,078	573		
1876	20,540	8,432	7,613	6,872	412	26
1877	23,090	7,272	9,183	8,307	987	128
1878	15,852	6,816	9,309	10,092	505	268
1879	20,514	5,138	0,686	0,465	1,866	158
1880	23,465	4,425	4,510	0,240	1,455	17
		3,200	2,139	10,706	1,279	
Total	710,720	116,190	80,703	54,725	5,404	597

Production from 1856 to 1866,
17,455 flasks; no yearly de-
tails obtainable—included
in production of various
mines.

silver for thirty-one years.

New Almaden mine, California.]

Production of mines in California.											Years.			
Rattlesnake.	Guadalupe.	Great Western.	Oceanic.	Altoona.	Saint John.	Oakland.	Sunderland.	California.	Abbott.	Cloverdale.		Manhattan.		
Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.			
.....	} Early production previous to 1875 not obtainable (estimated at 20,000 flasks); included in production of various mines.	} Some was produced prior to 1875, but no record kept (estimate production previous to 1875 at 1,000 flasks); included in production of various mines.	1850		
.....		1851	
.....		1852
.....		1853
.....		1854
.....		1855
.....		1856
.....		1857
.....		1858
.....		1859
.....	1860		
.....	1861		
.....	1862		
.....	1863		
.....	1864		
.....	1865		
.....	1866		
.....	1867		
.....	1868		
.....	1869		
.....	1870		
.....	1871		
.....	1872		
.....	1873		
.....	1874		
.....	1875		
.....	1876		
.....	1877		
.....	1878		
.....	1879		
.....	1880		
65	48,240	32,702	7,301	7,627	8,698	6,831	2,777	5,663	2,272	2,453	1,415			

Production and price of quicksilver

Years.	Production of mines in California—Continued.										Total yearly production of Californian mines.
	Napa Con.	Buckeye.	Belle Union.	American.	Kentuck.	Wall Street.	Pope Valley.	Bacon.	Porter.	Various mines.	
	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.	Flasks.
1850.....											7,728
1851.....											27,779
1852.....										4,090	20,000
1853.....											22,284
1854.....											80,004
1855.....										3,858	83,000
1856.....										2,868	30,000
1857.....											28,204
1858.....										5,230	31,000
1859.....										11,700	13,000
1860.....										2,939	10,000
1861.....										571	35,000
1862.....										1,885	42,000
1863.....										0,870	40,531
1864.....							300			2,280	47,489
1865.....										2,201	53,000
1866.....										3,621	46,650
1867.....										3,184	47,000
1868.....										112	47,728
1869.....							1,122				33,811
1870.....							1,580				30,077
1871.....							1,220				31,686
1872.....							1,970			840	31,621
1873.....							1,830				27,642
1874.....							1,055			3,276	27,750
1875.....							1,645				60,250
1876.....	578	407	271	250	54	65	1,940			3,591	75,074
1877.....	2,229	466				74	300	150	100	1,161	70,396
1878.....	3,049						1,060	150	100	250	63,880
1879.....	3,605						1,075				73,684
1880.....	4,416						1,325			84	59,926
Total.....	13,872	878	271	250	54	139	18,097	300	200	50,791	1,197,095

Production in California for thirty-one years..... 1,107,005 flasks, each of 76.50 pounds avoirdupois.

Production in Austria for thirty-one years..... 239,834 flasks.

Production in Spain for thirty-one years..... 902,364 flasks.

1,142,198 flasks, each of 75 pounds Spanish = 34.5 kilograms = 76.07 pounds avoirdupois.

Italy and other countries, present yearly production estimated, 2,000 flasks.

for thirty-one years—Continued.

Exports from San Francisco by sea and rail.	Price in San Francisco per pound.		Production of the Idria mine (Austria).	Production of the Almaden mine (Spain) in periods of five years.	Price in London per flask.		Years.
	Highest.	Lowest.			Highest.	Lowest.	
<i>Flasks.</i>			<i>Flasks.</i>	<i>Flasks.</i>	<i>£ s. d.</i>	<i>£ s. d.</i>	
.....	\$1 50	\$1 10	4, 100	101, 517	15 00 00	18 2 6	1850
900	1 00	75	4, 092		18 15 00	12 5 00	1851
18, 800	80	72½	4, 085		11 10 00	9 7 6	1852
20, 003	72½	72½	4, 409		8 15 00	8 2 6	1853
27, 105	72½	72½	4, 060		7 15 00	7 5 00	1854
23, 740	72½	67½	4, 446		0 17 6	6 10 00	1855
27, 202	67½	67½	5, 935		6 10 00	6 10 00	1856
24, 412	70	60	9, 189		6 10 00	6 10 00	1857
3, 399	65	60	4, 977		7 10 00	7 5 00	1858
9, 488	1 00	65	8, 230		7 5 00	7 00 00	1859
35, 995	75	65	4, 321	7 00 00	7 00 00	1860	
23, 747	65	45	4, 693	7 00 00	7 00 00	1861	
26, 014	50	45	4, 712	7 00 00	7 00 00	1862	
38, 927	60	50	5, 878	7 00 00	7 00 00	1863	
42, 409	60	60	7, 293	9 00 00	7 10 00	1864	
30, 287	60	60	4, 008	8 00 00	7 1 6	1865	
28, 853	75	60	5, 327	8 00 00	6 17 6	1866	
44, 506	60	60	7, 532	7 00 00	6 16 00	1867	
24, 415	60	60	8, 253	6 17 00	6 16 00	1868	
14, 240	60	60	9, 179	6 17 00	6 16 00	1869	
16, 339	90	60	10, 745	10 00 00	6 16 00	1870	
16, 780	90	75	10, 904	12 00 00	9 00 00	1871	
11, 164	87½	85	11, 116	13 00 00	10 00 00	1872	
11, 750	1 20	90	10, 939	20 00 00	12 10 00	1873	
37, 829	1 55	1 20	10, 789	26 00 00	19 00 00	1874	
49, 046	1 55	65	10, 717	24 00 00	9 17 6	1875	
52, 695	70	45	10, 794	12 00 00	7 17 6	1876	
41, 877	57½	40	11, 020	9 10 00	7 2 6	1877	
62, 845	47	39	10, 403	7 5 00	6 7 6	1878	
46, 294	45	38	12, 153	8 15 00	5 17 6	1879	
	45	36	12, 356	7 15 00	6 7 6	1880	
816, 891	239, 834	902, 364	

Of the twenty-seven mines on this, producing quicksilver in 1876, only seven are now in operation. The Guadalupe, the third on the list of producers in 1880, was closed by attachment in 1882, and is now in the hands of a receiver, with a debt of over \$300,000. The Sulphur Bank, the second on the list of producers in 1880, has lost \$100,000 in the last two years, and an assessment of \$50,000 on the stockholders is now being collected. The total production of California for 1882 will not, probably, exceed 50,000 flasks.

The amount imported into New York from Europe this year will be about 1,000,000 pounds.

WITNESSES.

	Page.
Abercrombie, M.....	2364
Adair, George W.....	1291
Adams, Lyell T.....	1660
Allen, R. H.....	2536
Allen, William N.....	1400
Alley, John B.....	1162
Ames, Frank M.....	719
American artists' petition.....	1598
Anmidown, E. H.....	1675
Amory, William.....	705
Anderson, J. S.....	1144
Andrews, W. E.....	1147
Angell, A. H.....	1899
Angell, Edwin G.....	726
Archer, W. L.....	2116
Armstrong, T.....	825
Armstrong, Thomas M.....	2125
Arnoux, William H.....	293
Ashburner, Charles H.....	1673
Atkins, Edwin F.....	702
Atkinson, J. H.....	2161
Auchincloss Brothers.....	2293
Auerbach, Immanuel.....	558
Bach, S. J.....	1957
Balbach, Edward.....	2127
Baldwin, Joseph.....	381
Ball, Charles B.....	1377
Baneman, William.....	1533
Barbour, Thomas.....	287
Barnett, Walter E.....	1943
Barrett, Edwin S.....	709
Barrows, A.....	2381
Barry, Patrick.....	733
Bates, Theodore C.....	1653
Bates, Stockton.....	2373
Becker, Gustav.....	2447
Bennett, John F.....	1974
Bennett, Thomas G.....	2553
Benson, B. S.....	1409
Bicycle riders' petition.....	1670
Bierhoff, Joseph.....	2342
Bilderback, G.....	2121
Bissell, J. B.....	1339
Bishop, O. A.....	1038
Blakesby, R.....	1043
Blakeley, R.....	583
Blankenship, R. E.....	1371
Blunchard, D. W.....	1066
Bloede, V. G.....	565
Blood, Samuel S.....	2364
Bodino, Frank L.....	1999, 2509
Boker, Hermann & Co.....	1939
Bonzano, H.....	2451
Booth, James.....	2170
Bour, Phillip A.....	241
Bovee, C. N.....	292, 2361
Bower, Henry.....	131, 207
Boyd, John.....	2334

	Page.
Bruce, Samuel.....	387
Bradley, Thomas W.....	406
Brauch, John P.....	1359
Brasher, William M.....	359
Brewer, J. H.....	613
Britton, John W.....	267
Brockunier, C. W.....	2133, 2137
Brooke, F. M.....	2578
Brook, Horace L.....	1411
Brown, John G.....	664
Brown, T. W.....	669
Brown, Stephen.....	585
Brustlein, Sury & Co.....	1522
Bryce, Charles.....	339
Buck, George.....	951
Bunn, Jacob.....	1936
Burdsal, James S.....	890
Burgess & Nowton.....	2378
Bursloy, Ira.....	1619
Burke, William A.....	2268
Burt, John.....	845
Burt, W. R.....	1219
Butler, J. G.....	2032
Campbell, A.....	1971
Campbell, Joseph.....	329
Campbell, John.....	154
Canfield, James H.....	2379
Carhart, L. B.....	519
Carl, Emil E.....	1395
Carr, Ellis.....	537
Carsey, William A. A.....	341, 1878
Carter, Hawley & Co.....	1937
Catlin, F. H.....	396
Chalfant, John W.....	2035
Chamberlin, H. T.....	1278
Chamberlin, S. E.....	1379
Chandler, Alfred B.....	700
Chapin, C. O.....	975
Chase, Henry F.....	2441
Cheney, Frank W.....	2165
Chaffin, H. B.....	1645
Clark, B. C.....	649
Clark, George B.....	655
Clark, William.....	2038
Clarkson, David.....	1649
Clement, Stephen.....	1105
Coates, Henry T.....	1501
Cole, C. W.....	894
Colman, Norman J.....	1233
Colquitt, H. H.....	2285
Colyar, A. S.....	1265
Comer, H. M.....	1327
Comfort, G. F.....	853
Conner, John B.....	2387
Constable, James M.....	632
Cook, C. S.....	2406
Cooper, Peter.....	1583
Cope, Edward D.....	2453
Copeland, William P.....	1461
Corbett, M. J.....	474
Cornwell, Clark.....	852
Cowden, W. N.....	2155
Cowdery, Robert H.....	942
Cox, E. T.....	1953
Cram, Henry A.....	1891
Crane, B. E.....	1287
Crawford, L., & Co.....	2309
Crenshaw, William G.....	1365
Crenshaw, W. G., jr.....	1657

	Page.
Cronmeyer, W. C.....	2080
Cutler, William J.....	683
Cutter, John D.....	1627
Daly, M. V.....	895
Damon, A. F.....	2495
Darrall, Robert K.....	643
Davenport, S. W.....	2407
Dean, William.....	2241
Dean, George W.....	1463
Dean, Thaddens.....	1015
Demuth, William.....	1515
Donison, A. E.....	713
De Pauw, N. T.....	937
De Pauw, W. C.....	1529
Dix, John D.....	297
Dobson, James.....	2335
Donaldson, Thomas.....	2461
Doran, Joseph I.....	2194
Doyle, W. H.....	1071
Druggists' petition.....	2508
Dunlap, Robert.....	1518
Dymond, John.....	547
Earle, Parker.....	968
Earnshaw, Alfred.....	569
Edgerley, Samuel A.....	2259
Elder, Cyrus.....	2054, 2355
Ely, George H.....	803, 2191, 2236
English, James W.....	1257
Eshbaugh, H.....	1226
Estabrook, John S.....	967
Eustis, A. S.....	718
Fairbanks, Edwin R.....	2590
Fay, C. M.....	1011
Felton, Samuel M.....	2189
Fergusson, Alex. C.....	2385
Ferrier, Robert O.....	1882
Feuardent, Gaston L.....	333
Field, Marshall.....	1048
Finlayson, Bonsfield & Co.....	1526
Fire-brick manufacturers.....	2258
Firth, Thaddens.....	365
Fitch, Charles H.....	819
Folwell, William W.....	1099
Folwell, W. H.....	2546
Ford, Worthington C.....	2343
Frank, Morris.....	1973
Franke, Louis.....	2169
Frasch, Herman.....	787
Frazer, J. A.....	489
French, Abram.....	758
French, J. W.....	985
Fremont, S. L.....	1352
French, Henry F.....	157
French, George Z.....	1355
Fuller, George.....	2267
Fulton, M. A.....	1067
Garrison, O. F.....	1222
Gates, S. F.....	665
Gerdau, Otto.....	1499
Gillinder, James.....	2136
Gist, J. C.....	2141
Glenny, B. B.....	757
Glenn, James M.....	891
Goss, J. H.....	1293

	Page.
Goode, L. W.....	1139
Goodwin, E. D.....	1493
Gould, Henry A.....	661
Grasselli, C. A.....	801
Green, Joseph W.....	367
Gregory, S. S.....	1034
Gridley, Junius.....	1581
Grinnell, J. B.....	1129
Gross, J. H. C.....	1241
Gue, B. F.....	1149
Gwinnell, John L.....	391
Hackenburg, William B.....	2295
Haldeman, L.....	786
Hall, A. W.....	1061
Hall, William C. J.....	779
Hall, James F.....	539
Hamilton, James M.....	1272
Hamlin, N. P.....	667
Hammerstein, Oscar.....	425
Hampton, Thomas.....	2366
Haraszthy, Arpad.....	2558
Harrison, Thomas S.....	264, 2581
Hartshorn, E. A.....	272
Harris, A. C.....	861
Hastings, R. E.....	431
Hastie, William S.....	1258
Havemeyer, H. O.....	685
Hawley, Richard.....	831
Hawley, Thomas D.....	849
Hawley, Lewis T.....	1503
Hawley, Frederick B.....	409
Hay, Frank.....	555
Headley, W. S.....	448
Hedges, Isaac A.....	1249
Hendrick, James.....	253
Henly, T. L.....	737
Hedges, Isaac A.....	1249
Herrmann, Henry.....	390
Herriott, W. A.....	2115
Heroy, James H.....	2354
Hersey, J. D. T.....	1631
Hewitt, Abram S.....	1083
Hickson, Thomas.....	1592
Higgins, Charles L.....	651
Higbie, William S.....	338
Hill, Arthur.....	964
Hill, Charles S.....	1676
Hill, H. R.....	1975
Hinde, John.....	279
Hinton, John W.....	1655
Hitchcock, E. A.....	1185
Hitt, John.....	1013
Hoeverer, W. A.....	2123
Holman, A. J., & Co.....	2445
Holt, D. R.....	1026
Hotchkiss, G. W.....	1022
Houghton, H. O.....	595
House, T. W.....	358
Howard, H.....	729
Howard, J. Q.....	593
Howe & French.....	692
Howe, Archibald M.....	285
Hoyt, W. B.....	453, 1563
Hoyt, William S.....	533
Hussey & Co.....	2106
Hutchinson, J. A.....	1285
Hyndman, W. G.....	875

	Page.
Industrial League statement.....	1675
International Pavement Company.....	1964
Jackson, W. H.....	1259
Jackson, H. C.....	1401
Jeffries, B. Joy.....	681
Jenks, Charles W.....	2568
Jennings, William T.....	848
Jervey, T. D.....	1346
Jewett, George W.....	419
Johnson, Frank B.....	1240
Johnson, A. M.....	1277
Johnston, T. F.....	1329
Johnston, J. H.....	1321
Jones, William N.....	1361
Jones, Pembroke.....	1354
Jones, Thomas.....	2520
Jones, Aquila.....	855
Jones, W. N.....	745
Jones, Alexander H.....	139, 261
Jones, Jerome.....	753
Judd, L. F.....	395
Judd, S. Corning.....	1029
Keating, A. F.....	2051
Kellogg, Sheldon G.....	835
Kent, William.....	510
Kerrigan, M. S.....	383
Killibrew, J. B.....	1263
Kimball, F. J.....	2202
Kinney, George S.....	1274
Klipstein, A.....	1960
Knowlton, Danford.....	310
Koelkenbeck, H.....	992, 1967
Kursheedt, Alexander E.....	257
Lambert, C.....	2168
Landreth, D.....	770, 2253
Lapsley, John.....	363
Laufman, B. H.....	2079
Lauriat, Charles P.....	660
Laurent, E.....	1514
Laws, James H.....	883
Lee, Daniel W.....	531
Lee, William H.....	1216
Lee, Luke.....	1282
Leeds, John H.....	2531
Leeson, J. R. & Co.....	1527
Le Moyne, Julius.....	2113
Leoser, Charles McK.....	1615
Leseur, E. C.....	463
Levy, Benjamin J.....	561
Litchford, Josiah.....	394
Livermore, Arthur.....	1656
Llewellyn, J. F.....	2500
Loomis, Silas M.....	1405
Loughran, S. J.....	1127
Lowe, S. B.....	1281
Ludlow, Thomas W.....	1956
Lumber dealers' statement.....	1599
Lyall, William.....	590
Lyell, James.....	285
Lyell, William.....	277
Lyman, Joseph.....	1452
Lyon, W. W.....	860
MacGowan, J. E.....	1275
MacKellar, Thomas.....	576

	Page.
MacRae, Donald	1350
Maddock, Thomas	2407
Manchester, Asa	1995
Manning, John B	771
Many, J. L.	564
Markham, William G	2521
Marshall, William	1623
Marshall, W. S.	1283
Marvel, William D	1469
Mason, David H.	1193
Mattison, Richard V	2449
Mayer, Alexander J	1654
Mayer, Ernest	1985
McAndrew, James C	1652
McCall, Harry	2393
McCreery, James	1605
McDowell, John	2110
McGuffey, Charles D	1282
McKeag, George W	2588
McKee, George R.	885
McKelvey, John H	2119
McKeever, D.	371
McMullen, L.	433
McNair, Charles A	1170
McQueen, H. C.	1357
McShane, Henry	1389
McSorley, John A	2542
Means, Archibald	1171
Meier, Adolphus	1175
Mellier, A. A.	1251
Menelas, C.	345
Meriam, Joseph B	799
Metcalf, William	2064, 2074
Metcalf, Henry B	2177, 2391
Meyer, C. F. G.	1256
Michels, John	1969
Miller, Oscar C.	671
Milliken, James	2367
Mitchell, J. E.	2530
Mitchel, J. B.	905
Moen, P. L.	2045
Moore, George W	837
Moore, George	2396
Moore, J. S.	1421
Morgan, E. D., & Co	1510
Morrison, Edward A	1607
Morris, Edward S	397
Morse, C. C.	2256
Mostyn, Berkeley	1942
Mullen, Samuel	2537
Munford, James E	1243
Murray, George W	1027
Myers, Daniel	828
Noble, H. A.	1138
Norcross, Jonathan	1290
Norcross, William R	783
Norwood, C., & Son	722
O'Doherty, Matthew	911
Olds, L. P.	1671
O'Reilly, P.	1880
Oudeshuys, Charles L	1420
Palmer, J. C.	2141
Parkes, Leonard	1267
Park, James	2009
Parsons, W. J	1625

	Page.
Pearson, Edward M.....	2128
Peck, William.....	1408
Pemberton, J. S.....	1376
Peters, Richard.....	1301
Peterson, W.....	2443
Pfau, John L.....	898, 899
Philpott, Henry J.....	1107
Picher, O. H.....	1245
Pierce & Robertson.....	778
Pike, F. A.....	2126
Pillsbury, Charles A.....	1232
Pollitzer, G. M.....	1331
Pope, Albert A.....	325
Potter, O. W.....	1004
Potts, George C.....	2281
Powers & Weightman.....	2571
Prescott, Martin.....	1963
Prime, Frederick.....	2175
Proctor, Redfield.....	1553
Pullman, J. Wesley.....	2215
Purcell, Frank.....	1877
Pusey, Charles J.....	2370
Quicksilver manufacturers' memorial.....	2591
Raisin, R. W. S.....	1397
Randolph, N. V.....	1375
Ranlett, E. L.....	305
Rawolle, F. R.....	1895
Redmond, Roland.....	357
Reed, Samuel R.....	887
Reeves, A. H.....	1053
Reinoehl, W. H.....	2543
Remsen, A. G.....	557
Rice, Thomas G.....	723
Richardson, Britton.....	2170
Riehl & Hailer.....	2376
Riley, Enoch.....	1986
Roach, John.....	1905
Robbins, D. C.....	1663
Robbins, Royal E.....	657
Robbins, C. A.....	245
Robbins, Daniel C.....	843
Roberts, H. C.....	742
Robinson, Goldsborough.....	913
Robinson, F. S.....	2467
Rockwell, William F.....	399
Rose, A. B.....	1304
Rosengarton, S. G.....	250
Rulon, S. A.....	2547
Rust, Ezra.....	963
Russell, D. L.....	1349
Ryan, Denis T.....	854
Ryerson, William T.....	488
Salter, William.....	1106
Sampson, Norman D.....	1523
Sampson, W. S., jr.....	873
Sanborn, J. B.....	1075
Sargent, J. B.....	597
Sargent, S. S.....	370
Saulson, Charles M.....	2299
Schoenhof, J.....	1883
Schoellkopf, J. F.....	749
Schwab, Gustav.....	467, 482
Schwartz, A.....	1674
Schwartz, H.....	1535
Scott, George.....	871

	Page.
Scott & Co.....	879
Screven, John.....	1305
Search, T. C.....	2358
Sears, R. E.....	1009
Shallenberger, W. S.....	2107
Shaw, James M.....	1644
Shearman, Thomas G.....	1539
Shenkol, Vincent.....	896
Sherer, Edward.....	477
Sherman, Francis T.....	1005
Shinn, William P.....	2275
Shook, A. M.....	1264
Sibloy, Hiram.....	739
Sinaz, Philip.....	1378
Sisson, Hiram.....	281
Sloane, John.....	269
Smith, O. B.....	349, 1604
Smith, Thomas C.....	1949
Smith, A. L.....	491
Smith, William E.....	2207
Smith, Wellington.....	975, 981
Snow, Samuel T.....	375
Soper, A.....	1022
Spearman, J. J.....	2032
Spencer, Charles H.....	2271
Spire, B. W.....	1269
Sprague, A. E.....	2150
Stadler, Charles A.....	209
Steel, Edward T.....	1374
Stevens, Cyrus A.....	527
Stevens, H. H.....	1948
Stockdale, John M.....	1989
Stowell, W. H. H.....	988
Straus, L., & Sons.....	743, 2291
Stribley, George.....	902
Sturgis, David C.....	493
Sturtevant, C. C.....	1093
Sumner, W. G.....	2313
Suydam, M. B.....	1998
Taintor, H. F.....	1002
Tatham, Benjamin.....	1593
Taylor, Nathan A.....	2515
Taylor, Robert Minton.....	857
Taylor, S. L.....	1419
Tempest, M.....	864
Thomas, James B.....	693
Thomas, W. H.....	1875
Thompson, C. A. R.....	1271
Thornton, M. E.....	1292
Tichenor, George C.....	2469
Tingue, John H.....	1457
Torbitt & Castleman.....	910
Torrey, Charles.....	666
Townsend, David.....	675
Trainor, Joseph P.....	2395
Tredway, Dwight.....	1223
Treloar, Joseph.....	2561
Trenholm, W. L.....	1333
Truslow & Company.....	1511
Tupper, Samuel Y.....	1341
Tyrrell, John.....	999
Van De Velde, Marcel.....	2238
Van Dyke, John H.....	822
Van Schaick, A. G.....	1021
Van Vleck, F. B.....	1614
Veron, H.....	416

	Page.
Vorree, John P.	2457
Viti, Alonzo M.	325
Voltz, C. G.	751
Walker, Hay.	1988
Wallace, W. H.	2030
Waller, J. A.	1958
Ware, Joseph E.	1191
Ward, De Witt C.	214
Warner, Willard.	2552
Warren, J. L.	1325
Waters, John R.	1633
Wakesfield, Cyrus.	2311
Webster, John G.	698
Weeks, Joseph D.	791, 2035, 2069
Wells, S. M.	2256
Wells, Thomas H.	813
Welsh, Osgood.	1621
Weikel, George W.	485
Wendt, Arthur F.	2215
West, A. G.	1298
Werum, G. W. W.	1145
Weston, George M.	1565
Wetherill, S. P.	2514
Wharton, Joseph.	201, 2183
Wheeler, E. P.	217
Wheeler, E. S.	2248
White, Charles S.	243
White, N. D.	1521
Whitham J. D.	2147
Whitman, William.	2411
Whitehead, Elisha P.	653
Whittler, J. A.	955
Whitworth, James.	1267
Wickham, Merritt.	579
Willets, Joseph.	2399
Williams, Arthur.	699
Williams, Aaron.	732
Wilson, William.	786
Wilson, John G.	973
Wilson, Woodrow.	1294
Wills, E.	1343
Windmuller, Louis.	1617
Winn, John T.	1882
Wire cloth manufacturers.	2465
Witmer, W. W.	1165
Witte, L. H.	789
Wolfe, R. H.	1467
Wood, W. D.	2076
Woodford, J. H.	1648
Woodhull, Maxwell.	811
Wolf, Adam.	1269
Work, S. C.	2116
Wright, James L.	2589
Wright, William R.	759
Wright, Alfred.	1081
Wyckoff, W. C.	2173
Wyman, Charles H.	1227
Wyman, F. A.	679
Young, William.	2405
Young, Otto.	971
Youngs, Jasper S.	782

SUBJECTS.

PAGES.

Acetates, 135, 266, 297, 419.
Acids, 297, 419, 421, 1961, 2490, 2491.
Aconite, root, leaf, and bark, 421.
Agricultural implements and machinery, 811, 1077, 1079, 1096, 1109, 1110, 1128, 1304, 1409.
Agriculture, effect of the tariff upon, 234, 409, 839, 1030, 1037, 1075, 1112, 1129, 1140, 1149, 1226, 1233, 1259, 1276, 1284, 1299, 1493.
Albata, argentine, and German silver, 444.
Alcohol, 137, 142, 246, 913, 1376.
Alcoholic compounds, 420.
Alizarine, 663.
Alkanet root, 421.
Alum, 241, 242, 419, 825.
Ambiguities of the tariff, 157, 1013.
American artists, petition of, 1598.
Ammonia, 419, 1962.
Anchors, 438.
Angora goats. (See Mohair.)
Aniline dyes, 154, 205, 207, 237, 253, 565, 661, 749, 1960, 2486.
Animals, domestic, 674, 2491.
 wild, 1419, 2453.
Antimony, 419.
Antiquities, 333, 528, 530, 559.
Anvils, iron, 438, 1941.
Apples, 969, 970.
Argentiferous ores, 308, 545.
Arrowroot, 503.
Art, works of, 495, 559, 1598, 2238, 2461, 2485, 2492, 2542.
Asphaltum, 1964.
Bagging, cotton, 306, 2079.
Bamboo fiber, 1405.
Barbed-wire fencing, 1005, 1010, 1138, 2047.
Barley. (See Malt.)
Baryta, 419.
Barytes, 2378, 2514.
Base bullion, 545.
Baskets, 581.
Bay-rum, 420.
Beans, 493.
Bell-metal, 1389.
Bells, church, &c., 1389.
Benzoates, 420.
Benzole, 254, 566.
Bessemer steel. (See Iron.)
Bibles, 732.
Bicycles, 325, 1670.
Bladders, 722.
Blankets, 633, 641.
Blooms. (See Iron.)
Boards. (See Lumber.)
Bologna sausages, 496.
Bonded warehouses, 1616.
Books and publications, 292, 293, 545, 558, 595, 691, 732, 1071, 1106, 1501, 1542, 1552, 1891, 1956, 2361, 2453, 2482.
Boots and shoes, 383, 561, 585, 711, 902, 1036, 1162.
Borax, 138, 297, 2381.
Bottles, 397, 450, 499, 501, 2509.
Box-shooks, 496.

- Braids, straw, 1631, 1632.
 Brass, 444, 2553.
 Bricks, enameled, 416.
 fire, 1191, 2161, 2258.
 pressed, 225.
 Brimstone. (See Sulphur.)
 Bristles, 581.
 Bronze metal, 445.
 Bronze powder, 2342.
 Bronze statuary, 527.
 Brushes, 531.
 Buckwheat, 493.
 Building materials, 225, 786, 836.
 Bulbs, 500, 735, 1027.
 Bullion, base, 545.
 Buttons, 458, 729, 1514, 1563, 2520.
 Button cloth, 1514.
 Calamine, 422.
 Calomel, 420.
 Camphor, 661.
 Canada, reciprocity treaty with, 209, 214, 751, 831, 835, 849, 968, 1572.
 imports from, 209, 214, 751, 771, 968, 1055, 1060, 1600, 2370, 2578.
 Candles, 504.
 Card clothing, 2267.
 Carpets, 579, 635, 642, 2335, 2415, 2438, 2439.
 Carriages, 267.
 Cartridges, 2553.
 Catgut strings, for musical instruments, 1952.
 Cattle. (See Animals.)
 Caustic soda, 233, 241, 651, 826, 1971, 1988, 2385, 2490, 2495.
 Cement, 705, 2275.
 Chair cane, 1499, 2311.
 Chalk, 1355, 1900, 1902.
 Charges and commissions, 445, 446, 451, 457, 460, 461, 476, 501, 524, 543, 558, 582, 1048,
 1061, 1255, 1940, 1942.
 Chemicals, tariff on, discussed, 131, 139, 264, 297, 419, 448, 661, 825, 890, 942, 951, 1251,
 1285, 1376, 1440, 1663, 1707, 2495, 2508, 2571, 2581.
 Chemicals, rates of duties on, proposed by Industrial League, 1739.
 rates of duties on, proposed by Manufacturing Chemists' Association, 2581.
 rates of duties on, proposed by D. C. Robbins, 1667.
 rates of duties on, proposed by druggists of Saint Louis, 1253.
 Chicory root, 504, 2483.
 Chloride of lime, 143.
 Chloroform, 141, 303.
 Church bells, 1389.
 Cigars, 425, 1733, 1875, 1943.
 Cinchona bark, 148, 244, 245, 252, 261, 299, 1376, 2449, 2573, 2577.
 Cinchonidia, sulphate of, 1252.
 Clay, fire, 1191, 2139, 2161.
 German, 2106.
 pipe, 1533, 1954.
 potter's, 350, 858, 864, 1950.
 Clothing, 513, 848, 1552, 2036.
 Coal mining, 2012.
 Cochineal, 156, 2491.
 Cocoa, 496.
 Coffee, 1619.
 Coke, 2012.
 Colcothar, 353, 2443, 2491.
 Cologne water, 420.
 Commerce, foreign, effect of tariff upon, 1067, 1565, 1919.
 Composition metal, 444.
 Consular certificates, 447, 635, 645, 673, 908, 1049, 1517, 1615, 1635, 1641, 1940, 2474.
 Consuls, fees of, 672.
 Cooking-utensils, 2381.
 Copper, acetate of, 419.
 ore, 203, 204, 218, 393, 443, 599, 1392, 1953, 2555.
 manufactures of, 217, 219, 236, 2555, 2556.
 regulus of, 443.
 Corks, 1011, 1511, 2125.

- Corsets, horn strips for, 1461, 1653.
 Cosmos. (See Ramie.)
 Cotton culture, 796, 2043.
 manufactures of, 163, 180, 371, 533, 534, 536, 641, 906, 1714.
 tariff on, discussed, 533, 632, 1267, 1703, 2475.
 bagging, 306, 2079.
 Cotton-seed oil, 494.
 ties, 158, 160, 305, 306, 791, 793, 813, 1089, 1287, 1291, 1325, 1327, 1524, 2039, 2042, 2070, 2259.
 Cotton spinning machinery, 2269, 2373.
 spool; schedule of rates on, proposed by manufacturers of, 2293.
 yarns, 1614.
 Customs court, proposition to create a, 184, 198, 508, 527, 529, 643, 724, 1610, 1611, 1872, 2071, 2561.
 Customs regulations discussed, 237, 351, 354, 434, 448, 465, 506, 507, 508, 519, 539, 635, 642, 672, 905, 973, 1013, 1051, 1061, 1227, 1269, 1329, 1477, 1516, 1523, 1544, 1605, 1609, 1611, 1634, 1638, 2070, 2072, 2251, 2451, 2469, 2561.
 Cresson Convention, proceedings of, 2088.
 proposed schedule of tariff duties by, 2096.
 Crockery. (See Earthenware.)
 Crucible steel. (See Iron.)
 Crude materials, 217.
 Cutlery, pocket, 396, 399, 406, 435, 1939.
 Damage, allowance for, 499, 900, 2493.
 Dates, 1648.
 Dextrine, 715.
 Diamonds, glaziers', 1378.
 Discriminating duties, 748, 1252, 2547.
 Drawback, allowance of, 1078, 1096, 1232, 2262, 2553, 2554.
 Dress goods. (See Worsted dress goods.)
 Drugs. (See Chemicals.)
 Duties, ad valorem, compound, and specific discussed, 206, 223, 230, 238, 256, 372, 393, 448, 455, 464, 523, 533, 633, 644, 723, 843, 1049, 1090, 1449, 1525, 1543, 1605, 1627, 1633, 1646, 1664, 2020, 2367, 2469, 2526.
 Duties, reduction of recommended, 239, 305, 597, 632, 1029, 1048, 1149, 1165, 1175, 1223, 1234, 1243, 1496, 1539, 1614, 1617, 1624, 1644.
 Duties, discriminating, 748, 1252, 2547.
 schedule of proposed, by J. S. Moore, 1435.
 schedule of proposed, by Thomas G. Shearman, 1551.
 schedule of proposed, by Metropolitan Industrial League, 1681.
 schedule of (on chemicals) proposed, by William J. Cutler, 683.
 schedule of (on chemicals) proposed, by A. A. Mellier, 1253.
 schedule of (on chemicals) proposed, by D. C. Robbins, 1667.
 schedule of proposed, by W. B. Hoyt, 1563.
 schedule of (on iron and steel) proposed, by Cresson Convention, 2096.
 schedule of (on chemicals) proposed, by Manufacturing Chemists' Association, 2581.
 Duties, schedule of (on wool) proposed, by National Association of Wool Manufacturers, 2418.
 Dutch metal, 445.
 Dyestuffs, 154, 230, 371, 449, 1960, 2486, 2531.
 Earthenware, 613, 743, 753, 757, 759, 778, 783, 864, 871, 873, 999, 1446, 1644, 1716, 1949, 1975, 2123, 2291, 2399.
 Earths, ochrey, 351, 356, 1581.
 East Indian goods, discriminating duty on, 748, 1252, 2547.
 Elastic fabrics, 367.
 Electrotype plates, 531, 2490.
 Embroideries, 257, 459, 1609, 2483.
 Emery ore, 938, 1521, 1652.
 Enamel, 657, 971.
 Enameled bricks, 416.
 Encaustic tiles, 857, 861.
 English biscuits, 537.
 Extract of hemlock bark, 588, 679, 2309.
 Fancy goods, 558, 1448.
 definition of, 1448.
 Fashion plates, 531.
 Fees, consular, 672.
 custom-house, 1545, 1633, 1635.
 Fertilizers, 329, 331, 1343, 1365, 1397, 1420.

- Fiber, Palmetto, 1405, 2338.
 Tiles, 434.
 Fine arts. (See Art, works of.)
 Fire-crackers, 505.
 Flannels. (See wool.)
 Flax, culture of, 272, 281, 288, 290, 737, 992, 1056, 1132, 1526, 1967.
 machinery for spinning, 1948.
 manufactures of, 173, 272, 279, 287, 737, 1146, 1645, 1718.
 Flaxseed, 1998.
 Floor-cloth, 359, 361, 363.
 Flour, 504, 1058, 1093, 1111.
 drawback upon, 1078, 1096, 1232.
 Flowers, natural, 420.
 Foreign commerce, effect of tariff upon, 1067, 1565, 1919.
 Frames, picture, 1598.
 French wines, 2501.
 Fruit-plants, 498.
 Fruits, green, 491, 499, 968, 1071, 2451, 2467.
 dried, 506.
 Free list, suggestions in regard to, 421, 424, 1755.
 Free trade and protection discussed, 409, 507, 632, 819, 831, 887, 911, 1029, 1099, 1107,
 1129, 1139, 1149, 1162, 1165, 1175, 1213, 1234, 1251, 1258, 1265, 1294, 1463, 1583, 2299, 2313,
 2343, 2355, 2387.
 Furniture, 506.
 Furs, 580.
 Fusel oil, 300, 2572.
 Garancine, 131.
 Gems and regalia, 2491, 2542.
 German silver, argentine and albata, 444.
 Glass bottles, 397, 450, 499, 501, 1056, 1408, 1447, 2451, 2509.
 window, and plate, 226, 561, 563, 937, 1186, 1629, 1957, 1999, 2354.
 optical, 559, 563, 655, 2454.
 other manufactures of, 562, 1408, 1447, 2133.
 Glassware, 1644, 2133.
 Glaziers' diamonds, 1378.
 Gloves, kid, 459, 463, 634, 642, 2484.
 Glue, 2123.
 Glycerine, 132, 138, 1895, 2484.
 Goat and sheep skins, 561, 709, 902, 1364.
 Gold leaf, 339, 431, 660, 1053, 1592.
 Gold and silver ores, 545.
 Granite, 672.
 Grease, 503.
 Grindstones, 2530.
 Gut strings, 1952.
 Hair cloth, 2177, 2391.
 Harness. (See Hardware, saddlery.)
 Hardware, 227, 600, 669, 1273.
 saddlery, 370, 381, 387, 391, 394, 395.
 Hats, silk, 1518.
 straw, 517, 1631.
 wool, 456, 2543.
 Hatters' plush, 338, 511, 1518, 2395.
 Hawaiian treaty, 667, 675, 676, 691, 695, 1224, 2541.
 Hay, 488, 671.
 Hemlock bark, and extract, 588, 679, 2309.
 Hemp, culture of, 272, 582, 885, 1455.
 manufactures of, 272, 1623, 1645, 1718.
 machinery for spinning, 1948.
 Hides, 229, 1283.
 Home valuations, 174, 238, 372, 525, 593, 637, 643, 645, 2472, 2562.
 Hoop iron. (See Cotton ties.)
 Horn strips for corsets, 1461, 1653.
 Horse hair, 2178, 2181.
 Hosiery. (See Knit goods.)
 Immediate transportation act, 973, 1013.
 Indians, articles imported by, free of duty, 2492.
 Industrial League, schedule of rates proposed by, 1675.
 Instruments, musical, 365, 1660, 1952.
 philosophical, 681, 1969, 2376, 2453.
 Interior ports of entry, 374, 390, 647, 907, 973, 1013, 1227, 1269.

- Interest, rate of, 240, 1688, 1913,
 Internal revenue, present condition of the, 1762.
 Iowa State Free Trade League, views of the, 1107.
 Iron and steel, tariff on, discussed, 540, 541, 1127, 1170, 1185, 1263, 1523, 1910, 1940, 2009,
 2054, 2064, 2069, 2457, 2476.
 Iron anchors, 438.
 anvils, cables, &c., 438, 1941.
 bar, 159, 169, 438, 543, 598, 664, 899, 1275, 1277, 2051, 2250, 2458.
 boiler, 433, 2076.
 (and steel) blooms, 541, 1240, 1482, 1524, 2056.
 castings, 439, 2381.
 (and steel) Cresson Convention, recommendations of, in regard to, 1004, 2009.
 damage for rust on, 441, 1940.
 files, 434.
 kentledge, 2175.
 hoop, band, and scroll, 160, 435, 791, 813, 1524, 2038, 2042, 2070, 2259.
 (and steel) Industrial League, recommendations of, in regard to, 1722.
 (and steel) ingots, 159, 541, 1483, 1524, 2056.
 locomotives, 182, 488, 1359, 1915, 2012.
 machinery, 437, 544, 811.
 mill irons, 438.
 nails, 2051.
 pig, 433, 542, 570, 598, 833, 837, 1066, 1087, 1216, 1264, 1275, 1277, 1298, 1391, 1411,
 1415, 1911, 2011, 2013, 2030, 2032, 2037, 2175, 2380, 2552.
 (and steel) rails, 171, 204, 220, 221, 222, 236, 542, 855, 1068, 1088, 1114, 1275, 1411, 1416,
 1438, 1446, 1468, 1486, 2012, 2014, 2029, 2033, 2054, 2060, 2189.
 (steel) rods, 727, 1009, 1138, 2047.
 saws, 434, 441.
 screws, 227, 726, 1941, 2058.
 scrap, 435, 440, 1086, 2031, 2458.
 sheet, 433, 880, 900, 2076, 2079.
 sheet roofing, 875, 879, 898, 1524.
 spiegeleisen, 1974, 2514.
 squares, 436.
 (and steel) definition of, 2055, 2061, 2066, 2069, 2074.
 (steel) crucible, 2054, 2064, 2074.
 sword blades, 435.
 taggers, 441, 442, 900, 2077.
 tin plates, 205, 228, 442, 877, 879, 898, 900, 2078, 2082, 2515.
 tubes, 439.
 (and steel) wire, 224, 328, 433, 435, 1005, 1089, 1091, 1138, 2045, 2249.
 wire rods, 1467, 2057, 2248, 2250.
 wire cloth, 2046, 2465.
 ore, 443, 569, 742, 803, 822, 842, 845, 1083, 1182, 1279, 1281, 1371, 1374, 1394, 1411,
 1472, 1673, 2012, 2183, 2191, 2194, 2370, 2459, 2488.
 Isinglass, 722.
 Italian cloths, 905.
 Ivory, 1499.
 Jewelry, 527, 544, 729, 1674.
 religious, 1674.
 Jute, cultivation of, 269, 275, 286, 345, 347, 1056, 1145, 1452, 1718.
 butts, 271, 305, 1452, 1623.
 manufactures of, 269, 271, 279, 291, 346, 590, 1645.
 machinery for preparing, 269, 277, 280, 285, 1948.
 Kaolin. (See Clay.)
 Kid gloves, 459, 463, 1050.
 Knit goods, 456, 854, 1535, 2271, 2440.
 Knives. (See Outlery.)
 Kryolite, 264, 800, 827.
 Labor element, 341, 819, 887, 1038, 1408, 1877, 2447, 2588.
 Laces, 259, 260, 513, 2165.
 Lace curtains, 259.
 Lava gas-tips, 894.
 Lead, acetate of, 297.
 drawback on, 1596.
 ore, 231, 308, 1245, 1593, 2127.
 pipe, 227, 231, 442.
 pyrolignite of, 266.
 white, 349, 2119.
 red, 349.

- Leather, and manufactures of, 383, 561, 585, 747, 902, 2485.
 Licorice, 298.
 paste, 135, 298, 2534.
 Lime, 782.
 Linens, 357, 371, 632, 641.
 Linolouns, 359, 361, 363.
 Linseed oil, 350, 1145, 1998.
 Liquors. (See Wines and spirits.)
 Litharge, 350.
 Locomotives, 182, 438, 1359, 1915, 2012.
 Lumber, 226, 671, 830, 955, 1015, 1110, 1599, 1734, 2379.
 Lupuline, 420.
 Machinery, agricultural, 811, 1128, 1304, 1409.
 textile, 269, 277, 280, 285, 1948, 2269, 2358, 2373.
 Madder, 131.
 Magnesia, carbonate of, 298, 1625.
 Malt and barley, 209, 214, 751, 771, 849, 1055, 1066, 2578.
 Manganese ore, 1974.
 Manila, 307, 582, 1455, 1456, 1623.
 Manufacturing Chemists' Association, schedule of duties proposed by, 2581.
 Marble, 227, 666, 1553, 1649.
 Matches, 1963.
 Matting, 580.
 Medals, religious, 1674.
 Metal sheathing, 376, 385.
 Methylated spirits, 137, 141, 144, 919.
 Metropolitan Industrial League, schedule of rates presented by, 1675.
 Mineral waters, 500, 2491.
 kermes, 421.
 Mohair, 512, 905, 1457, 1458, 2568.
 pilo fabric, 1457.
 Molasses, 891, 895, 2121.
 Morocco, 383, 710.
 Morphine, 299, 2571.
 Musical instruments, 365, 1660, 1952.
 Mustard oil, 698.
 Nails, 2051.
 Natural history, collections of, 2453.
 Newspapers. (See Books and publications.)
 Nickel, and alloy of, 171, 201, 219, 220, 235, 236, 393, 444, 2477.
 Oakum, 649.
 Ochers and ochery earths, 351, 356, 1581.
 Oil-cloth, 359, 361, 363.
 Oil:
 of cinnamon, 299.
 cotton-seed, 494.
 essential, 298, 299, 2485.
 fusel, 300.
 linseed, 350.
 mustard, 698.
 olive, 493.
 palm, 397.
 salad, 493.
 soluble, 1522.
 Opium, 299, 2571.
 Optical glass, 559, 563, 655, 2454.
 Olive oil, 493.
 Orange mineral, 352.
 Oranges and lemons. (See Fruits.)
 Oxide of iron, 2443.
 Paint, 228, 231, 349, 1604, 2443, 2486, 2492.
 Paintings, 495, 559, 1598, 2238, 2461, 2485, 2492, 2542.
 Palm oil, 397.
 Palmetto fiber, 1405, 2338.
 Paper, printing and other, 232, 531, 595, 852, 975, 1106, 1135, 1139, 1147, 1243.
 Paper boxes, 1375.
 Paris white, 350, 1899.
 Patent medicines, 450.
 Peanuts, 504, 1355.
 Pease, 493.

- Pencils, slate, 894.
 Pepper. (See Spices.)
 Perfumery, 420, 449, 1081.
 Periodicals. (See Books.)
 Peruvian bark. (See Cinchona bark.)
 Philosophical instruments, 681, 1969, 2453.
 Phosphates. (See Fertilizers.)
 Photographic albums, 532, 2445.
 Photographs, 531, 853.
 Pianoforte ivory, 1499.
 Picture frames, 1598.
 Pineapples, 1671.
 Pipes, 1515, 1533, 1973.
 Plants, 420, 422, 499, 733.
 Plaster, calcined, 2126.
 Plush goods, 2441.
 Plush, hat er's, 338, 511, 1518, 2395.
 Porcelain, 356, 1949.
 Ports of entry, interior, 374, 390, 647, 907, 937, 1013, 1227, 1269.
 border, 671.
 Potash, 699, 1962, 1972, 2386, 2489.
 Potatoes, 1656.
 Potato starch, 713.
 Pottery. (See Earthenware.)
 Powdered drugs, 423.
 Pulp-wood, 232, 852, 984, 1142, 1148, 1454.
 Precious stones, 528.
 Provisions, 493, 1656, 1728.
 Pyrites, 1365, 1399, 1420, 1657, 2285, 2497.
 Quicksilver manufacturers' memorial, 2591.
 Quinine, 144, 235, 243, 245, 250, 261, 301, 683, 843, 890, 942, 951, 1251, 1254, 1256, 1285, 1376,
 1440, 1665, 2449, 2500, 2508, 2572, p. 2574.
 table showing price of, 1859 to 1870, 2574.
 in Europe 1873 to 1882, p. 2575.
 Ramie, 1301.
 Rattan, 2311.
 Reciprocity treaty with Canada, 209, 214, 751, 831, 835, 849, 968, 1572.
 Reduction of duties recommended, 239, 305, 597, 632, 1029, 1048, 1149, 1165, 1175, 1223,
 1234, 1243, 1496, 1539, 1614, 1617, 1624, 1644.
 Regalia and gems, 2491, 2542.
 Religious jewelry, 1674.
 Ribbons, 475, 515, 2165.
 Rice, 503, 564, 891, 895, 1224, 1305, 1321, 1333, 1339, 1342, 1346, 1349, 2121, 2537.
 flour, 1354.
 Rose leaves, 423.
 Roofing, sheet-iron, 875, 879, 898, 1524.
 Saddlery hardware, 370, 381, 387, 391, 394, 395.
 Salad oil, 493.
 Salt, 233, 234, 1144, 1193, 1219, 1331, 1503.
 Saltpeter, 304, 699, 1648.
 Sardines, 504.
 Satins. (See Silks.)
 Saws, hand, 434.
 cross-cut, 441.
 Scientific instruments, 681, 1969, 2376, 2453.
 Screws, 227, 726, 1941, 2058.
 Seeds, 420, 507, 739, 770, 2253.
 Sheathing metal, 375, 385, 444.
 Sheep and goat skins, 531, 709, 902, 1364.
 Sheet-iron roofing, 875.
 Ship-building, materials for, 375, 379, 386, 665, 1905, 1916, 1919.
 Shoes, 383, 561, 585, 711, 902, 1036, 1162.
 Silk culture, 2167.
 manufactures of, 162, 257, 259, 512, 513, 514, 558, 633, 637, 641, 644, 906, 1606, 1627,
 2165, 2295.
 nails, 510.
 the tariff on, discussed, 474, 633, 1443, 1629, 1635, 2173, 2295, 2478.
 rags, 510.
 schedule of duties on, presented by the Silk Association of America, 2165.
 schedule of duties on, presented by the Industrial League, 1731.

- sewing, 511, 1627, 2171.
 silver, or dressed silk, 2366.
 spun, 510, 1627, 2366.
Sisal hemp, 1455; 1623.
Skins, goat and sheep, 561, 709, 902, 1364.
Sleeve-buttons, 729.
Smokers' articles, 1515, 1973.
Soap, 1988.
Soap stock, 503.
Soapstone, 894.
Soda, acetate of, 135.
 ash, 242, 255, 651, 787, 799, 826, 852, 938, 1971, 1988, 2385, 2490.
 caustic, 233, 241, 651, 826, 1971, 1988, 2385, 2490, 2495.
 bicarbonate of, 241, 826, 1988, 2385, 2496.
Soluble oil, 1522.
Sorghum, 583, 1043, 1249, 2281.
Specific and ad valorem rates of duties. (See Duties.)
Specimens of natural history, 2453.
Spelter, 1171, 1222, 1241, 1245, 1617.
Spices, 485, 498, 1732.
Spirits and wines, 498, 1615, 1720, 2476, 2501, 2558.
Starch, 497.
Starch, potato, 713.
Statuary, 335, 495, 527, 559, 1561, 2485, 2492.
Steam plows, 1409.
Steel and iron. (See Iron.)
Stereotype plates, 531, 2490.
Stone, building, 786, 836.
Straw goods, 1631, 1632.
Strings, of gut, 1952.
Sugar culture, 358, 547, 719, 883, 891, 895, 910, 1223, 2121, 2393, 2536.
 drawback on, 311, 694.
 Hawaiian treaty discussed, 667, 675, 676, 691, 695, 1224.
 mode of assessing duties upon, 191, 192, 193, 310, 312, 313, 315, 317, 319, 477, 482,
 550, 555, 675, 685, 693, 703, 1379, 1443, 1510, 1620, 1622, 2477.
 recommendations of refiners of, 667, 675, 685, 693.
 recommendations of importers of, 310, 702, 1619, 1621.
 duties on, proposed by Industrial League, 1730.
 of milk, 789.
 sorghum, 583, 1043, 1249, 2281.
Sulphur, flour of, 828.
 ore, 329, 332, 801, 828, 1402.
Sulphuric acid, 827, 1365, 1397, 1420, 2497.
Sumac, 745, 1360, 1361.
Sumatra tobacco, 425.
Sundries, schedule of rates proposed on, by Industrial League, 1746.
Taplocn, 503.
Tannic acid, 421.
Tannin, 421.
Tariff, ambiguities of the, 157, 1013.
Tariff, general discussion of the, 1276, 1282, 1287, 1290, 1291, 1294, 1320, 1341, 1359, 1377,
 1389, 1421, 1463, 1469, 1493, 1539, 1565, 1583, 1677, 1905, 2009, 2064, 2209, 2313, 2343, 2387.
Tariff, history of legislation on the, 1421.
 of Great Britain, 1685, 1851.
 of principal European countries, 1678.
 rates (U. S.), 1842, 1846, 1857, 1861, p. 1792.
 tribunal. (See Customs Court.)
 revision of the, as proposed by J. S. Moore, 1428.
 revision of the, as proposed by T. G. Shearman, 1551.
 revision of the, as proposed by Metropolitan Industrial League, 1675.
 revision of the (on chemicals), as proposed by D. C. Robbins, 1667.
 revision of the (on iron and steel), as proposed by Cresson Convention, 2096.
 revision of the (on chemicals), as proposed by Manufacturing Chemists' Association,
 2581.
 revision of the (on wool), as proposed by National Association of Wool Man-
 ufacturers, 2418.
 revision of the (on wines) as proposed by Chamber of Commerce of Bordeaux,
 France, 2502.
Tartar emetic, 421.
Tea, 1619, 1937.

- Textile machinery, 269, 277, 280, 285, 1948, 2269, 2358, 2373.
 Thread, cotton, 2293.
 Tiles, encaustic, 857, 861.
 Timber. (See Lumber.)
 Tin plates, 205, 228, 442, 877, 879, 898, 900, 2078, 2082, 2515.
 Tobacco, leaf, 1733.
 Sumatra, 425.
 manufactures of, 1733, 1875, 1943.
 Toys, 558, 559.
 Trimmings, dress, 513, 515.
 Type founding, 576.
 Type, printing, 576.
 Undervaluations, 373, 505, 520, 522, 636, 723, 1050, 1605, 1607, 1628, 2010, 2469, 2479, 2481.
 Valuations, basis of, 457, 458, 519, 535, 1702, 2471.
 Varnish, 692, 2490.
 Velvets, 514, 535, 633, 641, 2165.
 Venetian red, 2443.
 Vinegar, 1395.
 Violin strings, gut, 1952.
 Vitriol, 421, 827.
 Watches and watch materials, 653, 657, 971, 1936.
 Warehousing system, the, 2367.
 Wages, 243, 273, 279, 289, 339, 381, 383, 411, 431, 538, 549, 603, 610, 614, 616, 649, 660, 729, 762, 827, 838, 839, 845, 852, 862, 866, 872, 888, 938, 956, 959, 991, 1053, 1111, 1138, 1158, 1190, 1238, 1339, 1532, 1533, 1686, 1699, 1886, 1901, 1912, 1940, 1978, 1980, 2001, 2035, 2039, 2067, 2084, 2129, 2174, 2214, 2245, 2297, 2313, 2346, 2388, 2400, 2405, 2406, 2445, 2495, 2513.
 Wearing apparel. (See Clothing.)
 Webbing, elastic, 367.
 Wheat flour, 504, 1058, 1093, 1111.
 Wheat, drawback upon, 1078, 1096, 1232.
 Whiting, 350, 1899.
 Window glass. (See Glass.)
 Wines and spirits, 498, 1615, 1720, 2476, 2501, 2558.
 Wines, medicinal, 450.
 rates of duties on, proposed by Chamber of Commerce, Bordeaux, France, 2501.
 Wire. (See Iron.)
 Wire-cloth, 2046, 2465.
 Wood-pulp, 232, 852, 984, 1142, 1148, 1454.
 Wool, domestic, table showing production of, 2435.
 the tariff on, discussed, 453, 467, 632, 724, 1035, 1067, 1068, 1109, 1136, 1267, 1151, 1169, 1236, 1470, 1540, 1636, 1884, 2241, 2411, 2441, 2480, 2521.
 growing, 1136, 1150, 1157, 1267, 1884, 1989, 2107, 2141, 2412, 2521.
 manufactures of, 165, 206, 228, 229, 371, 635, 641, 854, 1535, 1609, 1639, 2242, 2335, 2358, 2543.
 prices of, at London and Boston, 2432, 2434.
 schedule of duties on, presented by National Association of Wool Manufacturers, 2418.
 schedule of duties on, presented by the Industrial League, 1735.
 and worsted defined, 456, 633.
 table of imports of, 2433.
 statement of National Wool Growers' Association, 2521.
 Worsted, dress goods, 454, 519, 632, 635, 641, 779, 1535, 2440, 2546.
 spinning, 2358.
 Yellow metal sheathing, 375, 385.
 Zinc, 1171, 1222, 1241, 1245, 1617.
 Zinc, sulphate of, 421.
 Zoological collections, 1419, 2454.