

Farmers' Gazette,

AND CHERAW ADVERTISER.

VOLUME VII

CHERAW, SOUTH-CAROLINA, WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 2, 1842

NUMBER 16.

By M. MAC LEAN.

TERMS:—Published weekly at three dollars a year; with an addition, when not paid within three months, of twenty per cent per annum. Two new subscribers may take the paper at five dollars in advance; and ten at twenty. Four subscribers, not receiving their papers in town, may pay a year's subscription with ten dollars, in advance.

A year's subscription always due in advance. Papers not discontinued to solvent subscribers in arrears.

Advertisements not exceeding 15 lines inserted or one dollar the first time, and fifty cents each subsequent time. For insertions at intervals of two weeks 75 cents after the first, and a dollar if the intervals are longer. Payment due in advance for advertisements. When the number of insertions is not marked on the copy, the advertisement will be inserted, and charged till ordered out.

The postage must be paid on letters to the editor on the business of the office.

AGRICULTURAL.

From the Fourth Report of the Agriculture of Massachusetts.

MANURES, STABLE, COW AND HOG YARDS HUMAN EXCREMENT.

The price of manures in this country is very high. The farmers in the vicinity of Boston depend upon the city stables for a large portion of what they use. The price in Boston varies from three to four dollars a cord. I have known a market farmer to purchase one thousand dollars' worth in a year. Since the value of liquid manure is established, and its intrinsic efficiency is so much superior to the solid parts of manure, it is strange that no provision is made by the farmers for saving the vast quantities that are now lost in the city. Hardly an instance can be found, there is not one within my knowledge, of any provision for saving it at their own barns. This is an improvement yet to be effected. I have urged this matter so strongly, though not beyond its importance, in my former reports, that I shall add little more.

I have known \$3 50 paid per cord for stable manure taken at the stable; and a farmer, whose soundness of judgment in other matters I have always respected, expressed his willingness to purchase all the manure from the cow-stable in Lowell at five dollars per cord, though he must then cart it four or five miles in order to reach his farm. These prices are enormous, and the more surprising, since almost every farmer in Middlesex has at hand the means of preparing a compost-dressing for his land of equal value, at not half the cost.

Upon the farms in the vicinity very great quantities are carried from the livery stables in the city. The long establishment at West Cambridge supplies a large amount of manure to the farmers in its neighborhood. I do not refer in this case exclusively to the excrementitious matter of the swine, but also to the refuse garbage from the stables, of which I have spoken. This is spread upon their grass lands, or ploughed in on their cultivated grounds, or spread round their apple trees; and in every case with great advantage. If not used immediately, it is placed in a compost heap, and covered with mould, to be used when needed. It has been found particularly useful when applied to fruit-trees at the roots. It is of course full of animal matter, and must furnish in abundance the principles of vegetable life. The intelligent farmer who gives me this account speaks of the effects of this manure as immediate and powerful. To night-soil he objects that its influence is transient. He gives the preference over all others to stable and horse manure. He raises largely of early vegetables and small fruits for the market. The stable manure is more convenient for his forcing beds in the spring, and after it has performed its part there, is easily applied to other crops.

Large amounts of night-soil are obtained in Boston and Charlestown, and applied by the market-gardeners. It is brought out in a crude state in covered and tight wagons, and too often, without regard either to decency or comfort, is carelessly deposited by the road-side near the dwelling-house in a kind of basin, where a quantity of mould is at hand to mix with it, to absorb the liquid parts, and to put the whole into a condition to apply to the soil. The slovenliness with which these matters are sometimes managed deserves no light censure. I knew a case in which, in the opinion of his physicians, the life of a respectable individual was a sacrifice to one of these negligently managed deposits made by a neighbor in his immediate vicinity. I do not know why, in a civilized community, the public have not an equal right to claim that the air shall not be needlessly corrupted, any more than the wells in a neighborhood poisoned, whether it be by the effluvia of some odious manure-heap or the scarcely less disgusting odors of tobacco. These places of deposit, as matter of public decency, ought never, under any pretence, to be permitted by the highway. By careful management of them in some suitable place on the farm, remote from the road and the dwelling, this great nuisance might be abated.

I am aware upon what a homely subject I have fallen; but I know how essentially it concerns the farmer's interest and the public health. "Evil be to him who evil thinks." I would advise a fastidious reader to pass over this whole chapter, but that I fear if I did, as it happens with forbidden passages in the classics in col-

lege, he would think that he owed it to himself to determine on the propriety of such advice, by first reading with increased attention what the chapter contained.

Every advance in cleanliness is an advance in civilization, a contribution to health and an equal help to good morals. The unfortunate beings who live in cities are doomed to inhale and exhale the innumerable odors, which are there commingled from cellars occasionally filled with bilgewater, muddocks, which the receding tide has left bare, common sewers, and broken gas-pipes. In the country there is no apology for allowing any thing offensive on the premises. The farmers who obtain the night-soil from cities, would find an advantage in digging a long and deep vault, at least four feet in depth, walled up with stone and plastered and floored so as to be made thoroughly tight, and having a close and moveable covering. Into this the contents of the carts should be carefully turned, with such a constant supply of soil or muck or ashes or effete lime or gypsum as would completely absorb the liquid parts, and might be so intimately incorporated with the solid parts as to bring all into a feasible state of application to the land. This vault or stercorary should likewise serve as a place of deposit for all dead animals in the place, and all other offensive matters, which might be converted into manure. The contents of the family vault, being freely mixed with mould or spent tan, should likewise be conveyed there at least once a week. This would be a great gain to comfort and health. I saw such an arrangement on one farm, and its advantages were most obvious. It formed an excellent bank of general deposits, whose discounts in the spring were always most liberal and useful.

The preparation of night-soil for easy use and transportation, has been the subject of various chemical experiments. The prepared article goes under the name of poultreite; and though there have been occasional disappointments, I have seen it used with great success. The admixture of effete or slacked lime with it has the same effect as any other absorbent; but the application of quick lime, while it destroys its offensive odors, expels its ammonia and proportionately reduces its value. Liebig recommends its mixture with gypsum or chloride of calcium, or some mineral acid. I have not known this tried. This would fix the ammonia and give it out to the plants as the vital process is prepared to take it up. The mode of preparing it in Paris, is by drying it in large vats in the sun until it can be reduced to a fine powder and loses all smell. Its best properties are then gone. Fine peat, muck, fine mould, powdered charcoal, tanner's bark burnt and charred, are substances which may be mixed with it to great advantage. It is beyond all question one of the most powerful of manures, but can only be applied advantageously in a prepared state. An establishment for this purpose is about being made in the county which may prove eminently beneficial.

Bone manure has been tried to some extent; in some cases within my knowledge, with great and decided success; in others, without perceptible benefit. These diverse results convince us of our ignorance, and show how much we have to hope from the investigations of chemistry and philosophical experiments in relation both to manures and soils, and the hitherto scarcely approached mysteries of vegetable life. Much of the bone manure which has been used has been from bones which have passed first through the hands of the soap-boiler, and after all the gelatinous parts have been extracted. A considerable portion of their fertilizing properties has thus been taken away. The most successful application of bone manure which I have known was where they were mixed at the rate of about one part to eight with leached ashes or mould, and a fermentation brought on before they were applied. They were then spread lightly in the furrow, where carrots were sown. The effects were most favorable, and surpassed a free dressing of barn manure in the neighboring part of the field to the same kind of crop. I have known this manure applied likewise with great advantage to corn in the hill, a small amount in each hill without other manure, and to turnips in the drill. Peat mud is used with much success by many persons. Its application, when spread directly from the bog upon the soil, has not been approved; but when it has been thoroughly decomposed and reduced by a mixture with stable manure, with ashes, or with quick lime, it has furnished a valuable manure for spreading upon grass ground or putting in the hill with corn.

Various other manures have been used with great success. Ashes are every where commended as excellent for corn and wheat, and likewise for grass. Ashes being the direct result of vegetable combustion, contain of course that which is essential to vegetable growth and life, and being constantly carried from the earth by the removal of its vegetable products, must in some form be returned to it.

In some cases the waste from the cotton mills has been used with much advantage. This consists of that which is thrown out when the cotton passes through the picker, and is made up not only of the wool itself but a considerable amount of the seeds, which are known to abound in oil, and at the south are much

valued as a manure. This manure is sometimes spread thinly on grass land, and at other times put into the compost heap. It has been too little employed for us to determine the best modes of its application. The waste from the woollen mills has likewise been used as a top-dressing for grass both in Tewksbury in this county, and at Northampton in Hampshire. I have seen its effects in these places and in some other parts of the country. They have been most remarkable, and surpassed by no manure which I have ever seen applied. This refuse used formerly to be accumulated in the neighborhood of the woollen factories at Lowell; and being surcharged with oil used in cleansing it, there was great risk always of spontaneous combustion. When thrown into the river it was complained of as interfering with the shad fishery. The amount of wool used at the Middlesex miles in Lowell is more than 600,000 lbs. per year. Being full of animal matter it is a most excellent manure. Its value has long been appreciated in England, but we seem to have come late to the knowledge of it. I have seen it spread directly upon grass land, both in mowing and pasture grounds, with surprising effect. It is much to be desired that the water in which their wools are washed, full as it is of animal oils and alkalies, could likewise be saved and applied to the land. It would prove beyond doubt a most valuable manure either applied on the grass lands or mixed in the compost heap. In the economy of nature nothing is without its use; and the first duty of the farmer is to remember that nothing should be lost.

A very exact and intelligent farmer in Groton made some comparative experiments with different manures on pieces of land contiguous to each other, of which he has favored me with an account. The land to which these different substances were applied was what is there termed reclaimed meadow, and rich in vegetable mould.

One bushel of ashes applied to three square rods of land at the rate of 53 bushels per acre; this produced a heavy burden of grass, and was considered the best of the several manures applied.

Salt, applied at the rate of one peck to three rods, or fourteen bushels per acre, produced a fair crop, and was considered the next best to the ashes.

Gypsum, sown at the rate of three bushels to the acre, manifestly much improved the crop, and was much the least expensive application. Lime was dry slacked and applied at the rate of one bushel to six rods, or 26 bushels per acre, without any perceivable effect.

I do not present these examples as furnishing any decisive results, but rather with the hope of inducing farmers to make and record exact experiments, though on a very limited scale, that by the accumulation of such facts we may arrive at some thing more definite. Little can be deduced from the above experiments, unless equal quantities of each kind of manure had been used; and then we want likewise to understand the nature of the soil, as in respect to some soils it is obvious certain kinds of manure are much more suitable than others.

LETTER FROM AN AMERICAN IN ENGLAND.

By the Britannia steamer, which arrived at Boston on the 23d ult., we received the following letter from our friend, T. C. Peters, Esq., president of the Genesee County Agricultural Society in this State, who is now on a visit to Great Britain:—
Messrs. Gaylord and Tucker.—I have been so entirely busy since my arrival in this country, that I have not had time to fulfil my promise to you till this moment. Even now I have so much upon my mind of the cares incident to business, that I fear I shall not be able to make a letter at all interesting.

I have seen the country at a very bad season of the year. It has rained almost every day since I landed; but even with all that disadvantage, I can see that it is a beautiful country. And its farming is but an enlarged system of gardening. In many things connected with agriculture, they are decidedly superior to us; and in no one thing more than in the great attention and care they bestow upon their land. No man can farm successfully here without considerable capital over and above his farm stock. Without that the farmer could do but little towards manuring, which is a great expense. I have been shown farms where the outlay for manure alone was equal to \$50 per acre the first year.

As an agricultural people, we are not thirty years behind the people here, and should I live to the common age of man, I expect to see my country fully equal to any thing in Europe for the perfection of its agriculture. We have but to will and it is done. Let us thoroughly work our own farms, bestowing upon them all our care and attention, encourage agricultural societies and publications, and aim to make our dwellings, pleasant, by spending an occasional hour in the proper season, in planting round them trees and shrubs, and it will be but a few years before our country will present an appearance superior to anything abroad, poets and tourists to the contrary notwithstanding. You see nowhere the same life

and activity in the landscape here, as you see with us. It is generally one of sweet repose. You miss the numerous farm houses and comfortable barns and out houses, which are scattered thickly over the country with us giving it the appearance of life and thriving industry. I am in favor of our fences, as compared to the hedges and ditches, which are used everywhere here. I think a good rail fence is far more sightly than a great majority of the hedges in Ireland and this country. It is true, they may not look so beautiful to a stranger, unaccustomed to rural life; but I should feel far more at ease if my fields were enclosed with a rail fence, than the best hedge which I have seen in this kingdom. At some time, I make no doubt, hedges will become necessary with us, and perhaps it is worthy of the attention of agricultural societies to endeavor to ascertain the best tree or shrub for quick fences. But when other materials are reasonably cheap, I would never trouble with a hedge.

In making butter and cheese, and preserving them in good condition for market, we are immeasurably behind the English, Dutch, and indeed all the better parts of agricultural Europe. I have devoted a good deal of time and attention to their butter and cheese here, having been through some of the best dairy regions of Ireland and Great Britain; and I am satisfied there is no good reason why we should not make as good as their best. I have examined the cheese which has sent over here from the United States, side with English and Dutch cheese; some of it is acknowledged to be equal to their best. A large portion of it, however, is very poor, even worse than the Dutch or Welsh. There are two prominent defects which might be easily remedied; and that done, we might send a large quantity into this market at a fair profit. At present, it is no use to ship cheese, because it cannot be sold at a remunerating price. One objection to our cheese is, that it is too thin and flat. They should be made in deeper hoops. A cheese weighing from twenty-five to thirty pounds, ought not to exceed thirteen inches in diameter, and should be from five to seven or eight inches thick. It is an object with the people here to get as much as they can in as small a surface as possible. Our flat cheeses present quite too much outside for the weight. Cheese weighing about forty pounds, when well cured, is the best size, and most preferred, and it should not be less than six inches thick. Another defect is in the making and curing. They prefer a rich mild flavored cheese, that will not crumble in cutting; ours is too strong of the rennet, and not as rich as it would be, if the farmer sold less butter. The whey should all be pressed out, and the cheese well cured, so that it would keep its shape any length of time. Great care should be taken to make all of the same dairy, as uniform in taste and appearance as possible. In fine, if the farmer wishes to have a ready market at home, he must make his cheese deeper and narrower, and mild flavored, and it must be rich and well cured, and keep its shape.

My own impression, is that none but the best Liverpool salt should be used. I find I have no room left for remarks on butter, which perhaps your readers will not regret. I did not get up here in time to attend the Smithfield Cattle Show. Sincerely yours, T. C. PETERS.

REPORT ON THE EXCHEQUER.

The Select Committee, to whom was referred so much of the Message of the President as relates to the plan of finance therein recommended to Congress, as also the Letter from the Secretary of the Treasury, accompanied by a draught of a bill for the establishment of a Board of Exchequer at the seat of Government—report, in part:

The Committee have bestowed, on the subjects committed to them, all the deliberate and anxious consideration, which the importance of those subjects demands.

It became their duty to inquire as to the wisest and best method of keeping the public moneys of the United States; the material in which the same should be collected and disbursed; and the power and obligations of the Federal Government in regard to the currency and exchanges of the Union.

They entered upon the discharge of this duty at a period when, in consequence of the magnitude and pressure of the public debts of many of the states of the Union, the condition of their banking institutions, and other causes, the currency and exchanges of a large part of the United States were involved in calamitous disorder; at a period, when the pecuniary disasters of the country, the extreme differences so long existing among eminent statesmen as to the nature and causes of those disasters and the proper remedy for them, and the uncertainty and instability of the financial policy of the Federal Government, had conspired to render a sort of anarchy of opinion characteristic of the times.

Under these circumstances, the Committee felt themselves called on by the highest claims of patriotism and of honor, to endeavor to look steadily and calmly at the facts surrounding them; to emancipate their minds so far as possible from the dominion of all preconceived opinions; to bring to the solution of the great questions before them the benefit of at least uncommitted judgments and unshackled freedom of decision; to inquire not merely what might be in the past or present view of each, but also what was the best of things now practicable; and having thus, without fear or favor, fully discharged their own duty to their country and themselves, to submit unhesitatingly the result of their deliberations to the candor and wisdom of the House.

They were the more strongly impelled to the adoption of these principles of action, in consideration, that the duty they were to perform was one imposed on them by the command of the House, not sought nor desired by themselves; and that, under subsisting political relations, for the success of any measure they might propose, they must of necessity rely on its intrinsic propriety, and the impartial sense of the Legislature.

The Constitution of the United States empowers Congress "to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States," it being requisite that "all such duties, imposts, and excises, shall be uniform throughout the United States." And it recognises the existence of "the Treasury of the United States." But it does not prescribe the organization of that Treasury, nor set forth the mode in which its personnel shall be constituted or its business transacted; otherwise than as it provides that the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint the principal officers of the United States. But the constitution further provides that Congress shall have power to make all laws "necessary and proper for carrying into execution" all other powers vested by it in the Federal Government. And under these constitutional provisions is the Treasury of the United States to be organized by legislation, and its concerns conducted; the President being empowered and enjoined "to take care that the laws be faithfully executed."

Besides this, Congress has power "to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States;" power "to coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;" and power "to borrow money on the credit of the United States."

And, on the other hand, while conferring these powers on the Federal Government, the States have expressly forbidden to themselves and to each other to emit bills of credit, to make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts, or to pass any law impairing the obligation of contracts. By the act to establish the Treasury Department, passed on the second of September, 1789, it was provided that it shall be the duty of the Treasurer to receive and keep the moneys of the United States, and to disburse the same, upon warrants drawn by the Secretary of the Treasury; but the plan and mode of so keeping the moneys of the United States were not specifically prescribed, unlimited scope of choice being left to the Treasurer in this respect, subject always to the authority of the President to see to the due execution of the laws, and, in his executive capacity, to guard the interests of the Government.

Under these provisions of law, the fiscal operations of the Federal Government, as now constituted, commenced, and so proceeded, until the 25th of February, 1791, when the Bank of the United States was incorporated for a period of twenty years.

Prior to which, there existed in the United States three incorporated banks, namely, that of North America, in Philadelphia; that of New York, in the city of New York; and that of Massachusetts, in Boston; all of them established before the adoption of the Constitution. Each of these banks was a state corporation; for, though the Bank of North America was originally established by Congress, in 1751, yet it had since accepted and now acted under a charter from Pennsylvania.

These banks, it was thought, were unfit or incompetent to perform the fiscal business of the Government; besides which, they could not absorb any amount of the public debt, nor be relied on for advances of money to the United States.

The incorporation of the Bank of the United States originated in an order of Congress calling on the Secretary of the Treasury to prepare and report a proper plan for establishing the public credit. In obedience to which, the Secretary presented two reports; in one of them recommending that the public debt be funded, and additional taxes raised to pay the interest on it; and, in the other recommending the incorporation of a national bank, as being of "primary importance to the prosperous administration of the finances," and "of the greatest utility in the operations connected with the support of the public credit," or, as set forth in the preamble of the act, as tending "to give facility to the obtaining of loans for the use of the Government; to which, in the same preamble, was added the further

reason of "advantages to trade and industry."

This bank answered immediately three purposes of the Government, namely, 1. Of its capital of ten millions of dollars, three-fourths was composed of funded debt; 2. It was made the fiscal agent of the United States; 3. Its notes became a legalized currency, being declared receivable in all payments at the Treasury.

And the system of the Government was completed by the act of the 2d of April, 1792, establishing a mint, and regulating the coins of the United States upon the basis of the dollar unit, previously proscribed by the Continental Congress.

The incorporation of this bank was resisted, in the outset, on considerations of expediency and of constitutionality; which considerations led to the refusal of Congress to renew its charter. On the expiration of its charter, it does not appear to have been deemed necessary or expedient to legislate further, either as to the means of collecting or the mode of keeping the public moneys; but this was left to stand on the authority vested in the Treasurer, by the act of 1789, to receive and keep the moneys of the United States.

Meanwhile, the number of banks, incorporated by the several States, had increased, previous to or at that time, to one hundred, and in 1812 about twenty more were incorporated, with an aggregate capital, in the whole, of upwards of seventy-seven millions of dollars; and the business of the Treasury was conducted in their notes, and by deposits with them. In the progress of the war with Great Britain, all the State banks south of New England ceased to pay coin for their bills, (in 1814,) as the United States Bank would, in all probability, have done, if it had continued to exist, as the suspension was chiefly in consequence of advances made by them to the Government; but, notwithstanding the non-redeemability of their bills, they continued, from the necessity of the case, to be received and paid in the business of the Treasury, though gold and silver coin was at that time, by express enactment, the only legal currency of the United States.

Under this condition of things, the act of the 10th of April, 1816, was passed, establishing the second Bank of the United States.

The prime inducement to the establishment of this corporation, as stated by the President (Mr. Madison) in the message recommending it, was, to restore to the community "a uniform currency;" to provide a "substitute" for coin, "which might engage the confidence and accommodate the wants of the citizens throughout the Union," until the time when the precious metals could again be rendered "the general medium of exchange." The same precise object was dwelt upon more at length by the Secretary of the Treasury, (Mr. Dallas.)

The President, in his message, indicated three means of providing a "common (paper) medium of circulation," viz: 1. By the bills of the State banks; 2. By a national bank; and, 3. By "the notes of the Government."

In deciding for the second of these means, rather than the third, the Secretary of the Treasury put his decision simply on the point, that there was no "adequate motive;" that is, no Government exigency, to induce the use of its credit as the basis of a circulation, expressly asserting, at the same time, the power of the Government "to supply and maintain a paper medium of exchange."

This bank, then, like its predecessor, furnished a paper declared by law to be receivable in all payments at the Treasury; it was made the fiscal agent and the depository of the Treasury; and it absorbed in its capital a portion of the public debt; since, of the thirty-five millions of dollars constituting its stock, only seven millions were required to be in specie, the remaining twenty-eight millions of private subscription, being authorized to be received in stock, as also the seven millions to be subscribed by the Government.

In further regulation of the currency, at the same session of Congress, by an act in the form of a resolution, passed on the 30th of April, 1816, it was provided that all duties, taxes, debts, or sums of money accruing or becoming payable to the United States, shall be collected and paid in nothing but the legal currency of the United States, or Treasury notes, or notes of the United States Bank, or notes of banks payable and paid on demand in the legal currency of the United States.

And by the combined action of the Government, the United States Bank, and other causes, the bank currency of the country was brought back to a specie standard.

On the expiration of the legal term of the charter of this bank in 1836, (a bill for its recharter having been vetoed by President Jackson, and the public deposit withdrawn from it,) the business of the Treasury was again transferred to the banks of the States, and transacted by them, at first, under the general authority of the act establishing the Treasury Department, and afterwards according to the more specific provisions of the act of Congress passed the 22d June, 1835, to