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AND

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THE PHILOSOPHY OF PRUNING.

We apprehend the common practices in this branch of rural labor are not altogether based upon a sound philosophy. The animal structure, we all know, is admirably adapted to its wants, to its habits, and to its uses. There is no superfluous—no useless incumbrance—all is necessary to fulfil the designs of nature. From analogy, as well as from the system and order which everywhere pervade the visible creation, it is not reasonable to infer, that every part of the vegetable structure is alike essential to its well being? Are not the branches and leaves as essential to the tree, as the limbs and lungs are to the animal? Who will say otherwise? Nature produces nothing in vain. Although we may assist in carrying out her designs, we cannot cross her purposes without suffering the penalty imposed for a violation of her laws.

No part of a plant can be affected without affecting the other parts. Roots and branches reciprocally produce and nourish each other. If a tree has part of its roots destroyed, the branches which these supplied decay; and when some of the branches are destroyed, some of the roots perish also. The extent and form of the one, will in a measure ever correspond with the extent and form of the other. If a young tree is kept close pruned, divested of its limbs and foliage, it is soon stunted in its growth, the wood becomes carious, and diseased, and the plant is short-lived. If, therefore, we destroy equilibrium—which nature has established, between roots and branches, by greatly diminishing the one or the other, we thwart her designs, and mistake our interest. Every branch has its roots—its mouths—in the soil, to supply it with the elements of its food; and every root has its branch and its leaves—its lungs—in the air, to convert these elements into food, for the joint benefit of them both and of the stem. One cannot attain growth without the cooperation of the other. Without the roots the plant cannot obtain the elements of food; without the leaves those elements, if taken into the system, are of no benefit; but, on the contrary, like the undigested food upon the animal stomach, generate disease, rather than promote health and vigor. Every leaf performs its office in the process of nutrition and growth; and, other circumstances being alike, the increase in the growth of the plant, will be in the proportion to the number of healthy leaves; if one half of these be destroyed, the growth will be but one half as great as if the whole had remained—if complete defoliation takes place, the growth will entirely cease. Hence pruning decreases growth, in proportion to the extent or severity with which it is practiced.

"Whenever a tree has a live spray cut from it, an injury is inflicted on that tree that can never entirely be repaired. Every wound received is stored up; and if wounds be constantly added, they will accumulate to a degree too great to be borne, and the tree will sink under its infirmities. It is useless to attempt to transfer the timber of the boughs to the stem, or to confine the growth of timber entirely to the stem. However desirable it may be to the pruner, to have all the growth diverted to the increase of the stem, he never will be able to effect it. He may, like the dog, snarl at the shadow, and lose the substance; but never will be able, by pruning off the boughs to increase the growth of the stem one jot. No; the size of the stem will be in proportion to the head it has to support. The stem is not as he may imagine, a production formed merely for the use of man; it is the canal, or passage, in which the juices pass between the roots and branches; and the size of this passage is always in proportion to the office it has to perform. If the number of branches [meaning to include leaves] be increased, the quantity of sap passing between them and the roots will be increased; a greater space is necessary for the increased quantity of sap, and consequently the stem is increased. Let the head of the tree increase, and depend upon it, there will be a corresponding increase of the stem.

"It is said to be right to cut away a small proportion of the weaker branches, and turn the current of the descending sap more abundantly into the stem. It is hard to understand what is meant by this explanation of the effects of pruning. Does the sap descend down the stem till it arrives at the weaker branches, and then ascend up them and increase their size, instead of that of the stem? If so, the weaker branches

would soon become the stronger; or rather if trees have the property of sending the sap from the strong branches to the weaker all the branches would be equally strong. The descending sap, on reaching the weaker branches would become ascending sap. And if the small branches be considered obstructions preventing the descent of the sap, the large branches must be greater obstructions. But where does the sap descend from? Pruners forget, that they cannot cut a live spray from a tree without lessening the quantity of its leaves. Their theory is founded in error, and all their reasoning is false."—*Ballard in Farm Mag.*

This explains what often seems economical to superficial observers in vegetable economy, viz. that moderate sized trees from a nursery, have ordinarily a much thrifter and healthier growth, and arrive sooner to a good bearing state, when transplanted, than trees that are very large. In the former, natural proportion between the roots and the branches is preserved,—the former being taken up nearly entire—the sap vessels are filled, and the growth is but partially retarded. While in taking up very large trees, whose roots have greatly extended, the mouths of the plant are seriously diminished, the sap vessels contract and become indurated, in consequence of the diminished supply of sap—and the tree must acquire new roots, and new sap-wood, by a slow process of growth ere it can flourish with its accustomed vigor. The same evil results from cutting off the entire top of a tree. It is deprived of its elaborating organs; and although the root may send up the elements of food, they cannot benefit the plant for want of leaves to convert them into vegetable blood. It is no argument against this position, that deciduous trees spontaneously develop foliage and flowers in the spring. There is a store of elaborated sap laid up in autumn to effect this.—Strip a tree in June, when this store is exhausted, entirely of its leaves, and the tree will not grow, and will probably die. The stem, at least, will sustain serious injury.—The nurseryman knows, that after an apple, pear or plum stock has been cut down and grafted upon, the heart-wood becomes ungrafted if the graft fails to grow, and the whole stock dries and in a manner of worthless for a future scion, and that it will not grow a particle above where it sends off succors.

The tendency of pruning to generate disease, and to shorten the life of trees, is illustrated in the appearance of old orchards, which have been injudiciously pruned.—Wherever a limb is split off by winds or accident, it exposes a diseased heart-wood; and this disease at the heart spreads to the roots and branches, and induces premature death. The natural duration of the apple tree is believed to be more than one hundred years; and yet how few are found in a healthy state at fifty years? Mark the contrast, in soundness of wood, in vigor of growth, and in duration of life between the apple, and other frequently pruned trees, and those trees, whether fruit or forest, which are left to luxuriate naturally, without the artificial aid of the pruning knife.

If pruning be prejudicial to the growth and longevity, why then, we may be asked—why prune at all? We answer, for utility, to give beauty, and to improve and increase the fruit.

In natural forest growth, trees attain height, and a straight clear timber form, from their crowded situation; and as the lower branches become useless they die and fall off. But in cultivated grounds, or where there is ample room for roots and branches to spread, this does not take place; and hence the propriety of pruning here to obtain a good stem for timber, or a handsome top for shade and ornament.—Often there are two or more leading shoots striving for the mastery, and unless they are shortened, or taken off, there will be two or more stems, of diminutive size, instead of one stem, of large size. We may therefore prune shade trees to improve their form, or to please the fancy, and timber trees to improve the bole; but in neither case do we either increase the growth, or prolong the life of the tree.

"As the twig is bent so will the tree incline," is literally true in regard to pruning. We may give almost any form to trees which fancy may conceive, by beginning early, and preserving with the pruning knife or shears, as is witnessed in clipped hedges, and often in ornamental and garden grounds. We may make them dwarfs or standards, or give them a thin or a dense foliage, at our pleasure. They may be trained or cut into the shape of animals, into geometrical forms, or architectural composition.

We prune fruit trees to improve the fruit, and to induce a bearing habit. The roots of trees take up from the soil a certain quantity of vegetable food, call it gine, or humus, or organic remains, or what you please—it has constituted parts of vegetable structure and is convertible, by natural processes, into wood or fruit, or both. If the tendency of the plant is to wood, as is generally the case with all healthy young trees the fruit will be scarce and inferior, at least till the tree has attained to mature size. On the other hand, as the tendency to growth is checked, by poverty of soil, disease, or judicious pruning, the tree will be brought into precocious state of bearing, and, in the case of judicious pruning, produce more and better fruit.

In pruning or training to induce a fruit-bearing habit, the object is to check the interrupted, and we may say natural, descent of the elaborated sap to the root, by en-

couraging a horizontal, instead of an upright, growth of the branches, when the tree approaches the bearing age. This causes a stricture in the descending sap vessels, at the bifurcation, or junction, of the branches with the stem, and a consequent accumulation of elaborated sap in the branches, to generate fruit buds, and to swell the fruit. The same object is sometimes, though injudiciously, effected, by taking out a narrow circle of bark, or by ligatures, to prevent the descent of the elaborated sap. Hence the upright shoot is often cut out, particularly in the apple tree, and the branches are trained horizontally, diagonally, or in a half inverted position, as on walls, espaliers, and in the *en queneille*, or distaff-form of training. These operations have also a tendency to improve the quality of the fruit, by giving it a better exposure to the kind of influences of the sun, air and light, all essential to its due maturity and high flavor. Nature provides for the propagation of the species, by producing perfect seed, leaving to art the labor and contrivance of enlarging and enriching the pulp or fruit. All fruits may be improved from their natural state, by artificial culture, though nothing may be added thereby to the intrinsic value of the seed, or natural duration of the tree. The seeds of the wild crab, or wild pear, are as good to sow for stocks, to graft or bud upon, as the seeds of the cultivated varieties of these fruits; and indeed, according to Dr. Van Mons' theory which his practice seems to have confirmed, they are the best from which to start new varieties.

Prune, therefore, when necessary to improve timber; prune for ornament; prune to improve the fruit; but do not prune in the hope of accelerating growth or of prolonging life. And in all your prunings, cut while the wood is small, and spare to the tree all the foliage you can consistent with the object you have in view. By pruning when the tree is young, and pruning often we may secure a handsome stem and well formed head, and we cause no wounds that do not speedily heal.

The common practice is, to prune in autumn or spring, when the tree is divested of foliage. To this practice we make two objections. In the first place the wounds are exposed—unless covered with a suitable composition—to the searching and corroding influence of the sun, wind and rain, there being no leaves to shield, nor circulating pulp to heal them. In the second place, it causes the multiplication of succors, and often increases the evil which it is designed to cure. The sap is arrested in the spring, when its flow is greatest, in its natural course to the amputated branches, oozes out and corrodes the bark and wood, or exhausters itself in the production of a prolific growth of succors, more detrimental than the parts that have been lopped off. If pruning is performed at the last of June, when the exuberant flow of sap has abated, the wounds are in a measure protected, the foliage, from the weather, much ameliorated, has become elaborated sap, and transformed into cambium, or pulp, whose healing qualities soon cover the edges of the wound; few or no succors are generated, and the heart of the tree is in a measure preserved from canker and decay. These opinions as to the propriety of summer pruning fruit trees, have been confirmed, in our mind, by three years' practice and observation.

Another common error in pruning, is the practice of cutting all the lateral shoots from a young tree, except a few at the apex; and to cut young vigorous wood from the tops of old trees, leaving long extended naked branches, which are often broken by the winds. In the first case, we obtain long sapling stems, incapable of supporting, when transplanted to an open situation, a respectable top. The same evil occurs in the nursery, or the forest, when the young trees stand in a crowded position. In the second case, we produce unsightly and comparatively unproductive tops. Since the offices and importance of leaves in vegetable economy have been better understood, a manifest improvement in pruning has succeeded. It is now contended, and we think upon correct principles, that none, or but very few, of the lateral branches should be cut entirely from young trees, until the tree is tall enough to form a head; but that the pruner should be content with shortening those which interfere with the main stem, and such as are of unreasonable length. By this means, we obtain a tapering, and straight stem, and retain the aid of a large portion of the leaves towards its enlargement. Every leaf contributes to the growth of the stem below the point of connection. When the tree has attained a proper height to form the top, it is advisable, particularly with the apple, to cut out the upright shoot, leaving three, or at most four, laterals, or branches, upon different sides, to form the top. If a little attention is given annually to cutting out the small limbs, which are likely to cross or interfere with each other, the necessity of cutting off large branches will for a long time be superseded. In old trees, the old branches frequently become cankered and diseased, and young thrifty wood is thrown out at or near their base. In this case it is always preferable to cut the diseased wood, leaving the healthy shoots to fill their places. When transplanting trees, the knife should be used sparingly. If the roots are greatly diminished, in digging up the tree, the top may be lightened by thinning its branches; or if none of these can be spared without marring the form, the longer branches may be shortened, or cut in, at a bud; but we do not advise, in any case, the cutting off the entire top.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.

The public attention in Europe is awakened on this subject, as well as in America; and not only are schools specially devoted to this study continually rising up, but ample provisions are being made to introduce elementary books upon agriculture into the common or primary schools.

It appears from the French *Annals of Agriculture*, that there were three prizes of one thousand francs each, awarded last year in France, to three authors of elementary works upon agriculture, prepared for the use of schools; and also two gold medals, and one silver one, to the authors of three other like essays. And in the list of prizes offered for the current year, we find one of 1000 francs for the composition of elementary books upon agriculture, for children in schools.

We make the extracts below, from the proceedings of British agricultural Societies, at the autumnal meetings, to show, that the importance of education to those who till the soil—to those who furnish the bread and meat to feed the nation, is attracting much public attention there.

"Mr. Brewster, [in the Stafford Waldron meeting,] observed, that the system of their fore-fathers, however good, was to be much improved by the assistance of education, and the combination of science, and the exploration of the mineral and vegetable kingdoms. He also impressed upon the meeting the advantage of combining theoretical with practical knowledge."

"You never can forget, that England's greatness is based on her agriculture."—*J. Gibson.*

"Agriculture should be regarded in a more scientific point of view, [John Greg, in the Northumberland meeting,] and the principles of science applied to it. These principles ought to be followed out by men of science, for the public benefit. * * * There is a great field to be discovered here, but not by the mere practical farmer, but by the researches of scientific men. Gentlemen, in the prosecution of subjects of this kind of agriculture may be considered as yet in its infancy; and I am of opinion, that in the next sixty years, a still greater advance will be made, than in any similar period which has passed."

"His Lordship, [Lord Braybrook, in the Stafford Waldron meeting,] also exhorted agriculturists, to give to their children that sort of education, which was unknown when the elder agriculturists were young. Next to a conscience devoid of reproach, no blessing could be greater than that of possessing a well cultivated mind. The greater degree of instruction agriculturists gave to their children, the more happy they would make them—for the seeds of knowledge, properly sown, would come up and produce an hundred fold."

"This difficulty [said Mr. Binns, at the Preston meeting,] arises in a great measure, from the want of the same education amongst farmers than other classes enjoy. The scientific men who make and recommend experiments, want practice; and the practical men, want science and education. For want of a knowledge in cause and effect, farmers are not able to communicate their ideas with the same facility as others, nor properly to reason upon them. The merchants and manufacturers are congregated in towns, and have the advantage of libraries, lectures, newspapers, and a more ready communication with each other.—Even mechanics have great advantages over farmers. Let us then shake off the lethargy with which we are so justly charged, and be determined, as well as we can, to keep pace with the manufacturers.

"Other advantages would attend [agricultural] education. It would infuse an admiration of nature. This would not only refine the mind, and lead it to enjoy intellectual pleasures, before unthought of, but it would add to the blessings which surround us, unheeded and unenjoyed. It would increase the pleasures of social intercourse—it would teach humanity and kindness to all around us, and to the brute creation, and it would also increase our comforts in every shape. Is there any reason why the farmer should not take his rank in intellectual society? The youthful mind ought to be instructed in the principles of vegetation, the production of fruits and flowers, chemical agency, and the study of electricity, that mighty and mysterious power, which operates through earth and air in a manner very imperfectly understood. The advantages of science, are beautifully expressed by the Rev. Mr. Whewell, at the late meeting at New-Castle.—The vast scheme of law, and order, and beauty, to which science introduces us, only lifts our thoughts to that great Being, in whom are the fountains of law and order, and who makes the earth his footstool, and the heavens his temple."

"Agriculture was one of the most important, useful, and elegant sciences, [Mr. Gray, in the Lancashire meeting,] and took cognizance both of our subsistence and our comforts. The cause of the slow adoption of improvements by farmers, was the want of education among them. The manufacturer had opportunities of educating his children, which the farmer did not enjoy; and some system whereby farmers sons may receive a better education, would tend more than any thing else to relieve them from this reproach. They would then be better able to appreciate works of agricultural information, and would attend meetings of this sort.

"Let practical agriculturists, or their children, be educated [in the science which benefits their business,] then we should see

agriculture make rapid strides. Let the children of farmers be also taught the elements of mechanics, chemistry, the nature of manures, plants and vegetation."

"It is as important to the country, that agriculture should be scientifically understood and studied, as that manufacturing science should progress. The mere culture of the land is nothing, except it is conducted on the best possible principles. To plough and manure—to sow and to break up and lay down land—to breed and to rear stock, and to farm, and labor on a farm merely as they who have passed away did, is no great merit. This is merely to exercise an imitative talent. The resources of the mind ought to be brought to the labor; and profiting not only by experience, but in learning by experiment, we may hope to see improvement progress in an equal ratio in agriculture as in mechanics; and the knowledge, that the stores of experimental philosophy affords, be applied to this, the most useful of all the arts, because it produces the raw material, on which the human race is fed and clothed. When the mere operative farmer knows the value of science, he will then see that it is the best auxiliary to the production of agricultural wealth; and learn the secret, why his better informed neighbor, who has devoted some attention to such pursuits, has beat him in the cause of enterprise."—*Chester Chronicle.*

DRILL HUSBANDRY.

We have no doubt will ultimately come into vogue among us—we mean in the culture of wheat and other grains—thought for a long time its progress will be slow. At the late Preston agricultural meeting in England, the question proposed for discussion was—"the comparative advantages of the drill and broadcast systems of husbandry." Mr. Binns ably advocated the drill system, and set forth its advantages under the following heads.

1. The seed is delivered with regularity.
2. It is deposited at proper depth.
3. The weeds, during the growth of plants, are destroyed with great facility.
4. The plants cultivated receive the undivided benefit of the soil and manure, and have not to maintain a constant struggle with weeds.
5. The land by the process of hoeing, is undergoing preparations for another crop.
6. The necessity of summer fallowing is avoided.
7. By admission of the sun and air between the rows, a stronger and healthier plant is produced, and of course a heavier crop.
8. By stirring the soil it is more susceptible of benefit from the atmosphere, imbibing more oxygen, and being both warmed and enriched by the sun.
9. The roots shoot freely in pulverized soil.
10. By drilling, the farmer is enabled to have heavier crops of beans and wheat on light land.

11. Clover and grass seeds answer incomparably better in the pulverization produced by hoeing, independent of the clearness from weeds.

12. The drills give facility for depositing smaller portions of manure with greater effect.

These advantages are all self-evident to a good farmer; and it might have been added, as a thirteenth advantage, that drilling economizes seed, though Mr. Binns rejects it, on the ground, that if the plants are thin, they throw out side shoots, which produce imperfect grain, and ripen unequally. In drill husbandry, Mr. B. affirms, fifty-six bushels of wheat have been raised on the light soils of Norfolk.

The drills employed in sowing wheat, &c. are drawn by a horse, and sow six or eight rows at a time at a required distance, dropping and covering the seed. The machine for clearing between the rows, is also drawn by one horse, and consists of a frame with six hoes fixed to it, which occupies the same space as the drill. The rate of drilling is an acre per hour. Wheat is drilled at nine inches between the rows, and barley at seven. The horse hoe is used once, and the hand hoe twice. The expense of weeding, in England, is stated at two shillings (forty-four cents) per acre.

There was, some years ago, an excellent drill presented for examination, to the Albany County Agricultural Society, by a gentleman living in the west part of Oneida county; but as then drill husbandry was little understood, and its advantages less appreciated, the machine attracted but little attention, and has gone, we believe, to the tomb of the Capulets, to spring up again, we hope, phoenix like, in a better and more popular form. [Cultivator.]

THE HIGH PRICE OF PROVISIONS.

Those who anticipate a great fall in the price of provisions, bread-stuff and meat, we are inclined to think will be mistaken. True, should the season continue favorable, a great crop of "small grain" may reduce the price of wheat and flour—yet nothing can reduce them below the point at which they will give a profitable return to the farmer. That there will be some fluctuation, resulting from the difference of seasons, must be admitted; but the causes which ensure remunerating prices of all the substantial articles of subsistence, such as wheat, rye and corn, beef, pork and mutton, are deep-rooted and enduring. In a word, the consumers are increasing faster in relative proportion, than the producers—that is, the number of consumers in 1839, is larger in proportion to the producers than it was in 1838. Besides the increase, which is geometrical, in the number of immigrants, all of whom are consumers and non-producers, for the first year at least; causes have been operating to

draw off the labor of our people from productive agriculture to other pursuits. The Florida war—the great number of public works—the increase of manufactures—the opening of iron and coal mines—the cultivation of the mulberry tree—and again, the spirit of speculation which has tempted thousands to quit, or to avoid the plough and the sickle, impatient for larger and quicker returns—have all tended to diminish production, and augment the price of provision; for employ themselves as they may—whether traveling, or working upon rail roads or steam boats—whether working in a factory or delving in a mine, hunger must be satisfied—men must eat, at least three times a day, and generally in our country twice a day heartily of meat and bread. Of the former article no population in the world consumes half as much, and ours would do in all respects quite as well, if it devoured less. But the most prolific source of constant demand for the provisions, which are the fruits of agricultural labor, and one which must ensure an adequate reward to the industry and capital of the husbandman, is the great increase of city population. The calculation is, that London, were it not for its accessions from points beyond its limits, would not augment in numbers, but perhaps diminish. It has not in itself and of itself the capacity to grow, and its results not from any insularity of climate, but from the want of the means and the comforts which in our country swell so rapidly the population of our towns. Take Baltimore for example—Children born here, are as apt to live nearly as if born in Calvert, or Charles, or St. Mary's—and while the producers of provisions in these counties have rather diminished by the last census, look at the immense growth of the population of Baltimore and of all our towns! and then observe, of people who are bred in cities, and of parents engaged in all other pursuits, how few there are that abandon them, and take to the "dull pursuits" of rural life—while, of those who are born in the country, what a large proportion eschew the plough, the hoe and the axe, to swell the aggregate of all other pursuits, and of city population—some to "hang on the rear of the bar"—some to wield the pestle, and some to top the counter! A glance at the statistical tables would show if we had time for it, how rapid is the increase of villages and towns compared with that of the country—the aggregation being made up by accessions from the country, as well as by the natural, healthy and rapid growth of the cities themselves.

We have adverted to these points to let the farmer see that the foundations of his prosperity are deeply rooted and widely spread. The value of his staples is not depending on any temporary monopoly. He wants but industry and economy to thrive and prosper. If his life is not full of excitement—elated to-day and depressed to-morrow—as that of the merchant and professional man, by circumstances beyond his control, yet it is healthful, honorable and independent. If he share not in the triumphs and the spoils of the partizan, he is equally exempt from the base duplicity and heartless ingratitude of those who make a trade of politics. Let him then hold on to his calling. It will rise in public estimation with the increase of knowledge, and cannot fail to be profitable in our country for ages to come. "Man made the town, but God made the country." May he bless and prosper it. [American Farmer.]

The Yankee Farmer, May 11, begins with APPLS.

It is maintained that the value of sweet apples over roots for feeding stock, is rapidly becoming known—but they may be raised to give reasonable return on land and labor, at half cent a bushel, while the root crop, by the cheapest mode of culture, will cost ten times as much—or five cents per bushel—that they are particularly adapted (sweet apples) to fattening hogs. It is even predicted with confidence that in a few years apples will be esteemed second only to the wheat crop! The writer says molasses is obtained from the juice of sweet apples by evaporating the cider in its freshest state, of good quality and cheaper than can be bought; and he further insists that sugar will ultimately be extracted from sweet apples cheaper than from beets, which it will supersede on account of the trifling labor in producing the other. The writer urges the importance of careful selection of the kind to be planted—he adds that with far more expensive food than apples, at half cent a bushel, some farmers make large profits on their pork, and the article ends by the statement of this interesting fact:

"Mr. Phinney, of Lexington, Mass., a remarkably successful farmer, makes it said some three thousand or four thousand dollars worth of pork a year, and pockets five proceeds as clear profit. He makes his hogs pay their way, up to the time of slaughtering, in the manure he gets from the piggery."

The rearing of hogs, like every thing else, except the great staples, is managed south of the Delaware in the most careless manner, without system or calculation. Can any man tell the breed of his hogs—bred altogether by chance, in process of time, the best points of the animal are bred out, and the worst retained. Not one man or manager in a thousand can tell when cow, sheep or hog is to increase its stock—thus they bring forth their young at an unreasonable and uneconomical time of the year. Better be looking to reform in their own habits than in the habits of politicians in whose hands most farmers are but tools to be used and then—*forgotten.* [Ibid.]

GOOD ADVICE AND GOOD SENSE.

For ourselves we have no hesitation in recommending the North Devon cattle, in preference to the Short Horns, for ninety-nine out of an hundred of the Farmers in the tide water slave holding States; the improved short horn is better for the rich grass lands in the west, where they want to convert their corn and grass lands into beef, and to send them to market on the hoof. We shall take an opportunity to enlarge on this subject. [Ibid.]

From the Franklin (Ky.) Farmer.

SHORT HORNED CATTLE IN THE WEST.

We have a word or two for those who are becoming infected with the "short horn fever." If you are the least predisposed to the disease, and even look at the animals, it is a game case with you—you'll buy to a dead certainty, at no matter what price. Now what we have to say is: Don't think of buying Durham cattle before you are prepared to