

THE CHIGNECTO POST

IS PUBLISHED
EVERY THURSDAY.

—AT—
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Inserted at very Lowest Rates.

W. C. MILNER, Proprietor.

CHIGNECTO POST AND BORDERER.

SACKVILLE, N. B., MARCH 8, 1883.

Municipality of Westmorland.

Statement of Receipts and Expenditures
for the year ending January 8th, 1883.

RECEIPTS.—AMOUNTS RECEIVED FROM ASSESSMENTS.

Parish of Botsford, \$1,719.34

Westmorland by collector, 1,664.42

Auctioneers license, 22.10

Sackville by collector, 5,863.40

Delinquents, 26.77

Dorchester, 4,786.25

Delinquents, 26.77

Shediac collector, 2,408.52

Moncton, 5,808.68

Delinquents, 26.77

Sackville collector, 2,241.92

Delinquents, 21.00

Provincial warrants for jury fees, 188.00

W. W. Wells, 98.00

A. E. Oulton rents, 39.49

Auctioneers license, 100.00

Joseph Hickman rent, 6.00

Samuel Sharp fines, 2.50

James Hamilton, 1.00

Total Receipts, \$24,716.08

EXPENDITURES.

School drafts, \$10,054.84

Jury fees, 1,618.88

Constable fees, 243.36

Witness fees, 291.86

Councillors fees, 22.10

Poor Shediac, 380.57

Sackville, 591.95

Moncton, 798.76

Dorchester, 622.82

Sackville, 622.82

Westmorland, 339.20

Refunded surplus rates Sackville, 346.64

Taxes R. C. Church Shediac, 428.00

Salaries Secretary, 4.00

D. Chapman, 125.00

C. E. Knapp, 150.00

Salary Sec. of E. V. Taylor, 150.00

Salaries Town Clerk, 150.00

Commissions on paying school warrants, \$10,054.84

1 per cent, 100.58

Rent of safe, stationery, &c., 30.00

Auditor, 20.00

County printing, 20.00

R. C. Boxall, Esq., plans, &c., 25.00

Road damages, 429.57

Court House, 124.00

Furnaces, 200.00

Fuel, &c., 118.10

Incidentals, 132.10

Insurance on County buildings, 164.00

Interest on bonds, 348.00

Lantern, 177.50

Coroners, 84.00

Clerk of court fees, 55.99

Assessors, 55.94

Shediac, 155.98

Moncton, 72.22

Sackville, 49.42

Salisbury, 49.42

Refund, 32.14

Collector, Botsford, 18.81

Bill for medical services, 81.25

Interest paid Bank, 62.75

Express charges, 18.53

Bank discount on money, 12.00

Realized—Balance excess of receipts, 767.92

Total, \$24,716.08

PARISH ACCOUNTS, 1882.

Dorchester assessment, \$2,572.75

Amount paid, 4,961.00

Balance due, \$2,388.25

Moncton assessment, \$2,175.00

Amount paid, 5,726.00

Balance due, \$3,551.00

Shediac assessment, \$3,071.94

Amount paid, 2,663.40

Balance due, \$408.54

Westmorland assessment, \$1,564.20

Amount paid, 1,567.79

Balance due, \$306.41

Botsford assessment, 1,762.96

Amount paid, 1,762.96

Balance due, \$0.00

Sackville assessment, 5,206.42

Amount paid, 5,206.42

Balance due, \$0.00

Salisbury assessment, 2,718.93

Amount paid, 2,811.75

Balance due, \$89.82

Net balance due on assessments, \$8,108.50

Dorchester, January 10, 1883.

SUMMARY OF BANK ACCOUNT.

1882, Jan. 11, to balance, \$1,675.22

Express charges, 25.00

Amount charges paid, 19,850.55

Interest, 626.55

Balance to credit, 2,011.59

Balance to credit, \$24,264.29

CR.

1882, Dec. 31, by amt. received from County Treasurer, \$24,264.29

By balance, \$2,011.59

Jan. 1, 1883.

MEMO.—Am't by checks issued, \$21,909.75

Floating checks of last year paid this year, 427.04

Amount paid this year, 22,336.79

Floating checks Jan. 1, 1883, 2,286.84

By amt. floating checks, 2,286.84

Balance in hand Dec. 31, 1882, 2,011.59

Balance Treasurer account, Jan. 8, 1883, 510.36

Difference in account to balance, 1.12

CR.

Jan. 8, 1883.—By amt. receipts for year, \$24,716.08

By amt. floating checks, 2,286.84

Balance, \$27,002.92

LIABILITIES.

Jan. 8, 1883.—Amount checks issued and not paid brought down, \$2,388.25

Am't school warrants due, 5,595.34

Balance, \$7,983.59

ASSETS.

Jan. 8, 1883.—Cash bal. brought down, \$2,011.59

Cash do. do., 510.36

Jan. 16.—Cash received since 8th inst., 755.00

Due on parish assessments, 3,108.50

Balance, \$6,385.45

GEORGE CAMPBELL, Auditor.

R. A. TREWMAN, Auditor.

Dorchester, Jan. 18, 1883.

AUCTIONEERS LICENSED FOR THE YEAR 1883.

Wm. Simpson.

W. W. Price.

CHIGNECTO POST.

Preserve Success and you shall Command it.

VOL. 13.—NO. 44.

SACKVILLE, N. B., THURSDAY, MARCH 8, 1883.

WHOLE NO. 667.

Lovell Lewis.
Joseph Warren.
Patrick McGinley.
Jacob Wortman.
R. C. Tait.
W. B. Deacon.
Alexander McVay.
J. H. Hebert.
Patrick McSwenny.
Blair Eschbrook.
Willard Lawrence.
W. C. Gale.

A. E. OULTON.
Secy. Municipality,
Westmorland.
Dorchester, Feb. 15, A. D. 1883.

Mt. Allison Agricultural Course.

Tenth Lecture.

Soils.

In the preceding lecture the composition of the ash of plants was studied with a view to ascertaining what plants take from the soil, and what chemical compounds are needed by the various crops. In this lecture it must be our aim to study the nature, and origin of soils, so that we may have data for determining generally at least, their fertility and special capabilities. When a portion of soil is heated, part of it burns away, the organic part, and the mineral or inorganic remains. The organic part varies in quantity in different soils. In boggy soils it may reach as high as 50 per cent, but in ordinary cultivated land it is much lower. Oats will grow readily where there is only 15 per cent of organic matter, barley thrives with 3 per cent, but wheat requires from 4 to 8. The organic part of the soil is derived from the decay of animal and vegetable remains. It is useful in two ways: in the first place, by its decay it supplies carbonic acid, inorganic salts, and ammonia to the plant; in the second place, it has a great power of retaining the soluble salts which would otherwise be quickly washed out by rain. Ammonia is also retained by the organic portion of the soil.

The inorganic part of the soil is partially soluble in water, partially insoluble. The soluble part is very small, only about 50 grains to the pound. It consists principally of common salt, gypsum, sulphate of soda and magnesia, salts of potash and soda, nitrates, phosphates, &c. From these small quantities, the plant derives in a great measure the nutriment which forms the ash. The soluble parts of the soil have a tendency to sink into the subsoil when rain falls; but when warm weather dries the surface soil it soaks up the water from the wet subsoil, and thus obtains a fresh supply of the inorganic part of the plant food. The insoluble portion which forms by far the great part of the soil consists of sand (silica), clays (silicates of alumina, &c.), carbonates of lime and magnesia, phosphates (principally of lime and magnesia) oxides of iron, &c., giving the color, &c.

A rough analysis of soil can be made by any farmer in the following way: Stir up half a pound of the soil with a gallon of water, allow it to settle for a few minutes, when the sand will be found on the bottom of the dish, while the clay floats in the water. Pour the muddy water off into another vessel and allow it to settle until it is clear. Pour off the clear water, dry and weigh both sand and clay. If less than one oz. of clay is obtained the soil is a sandy soil; between 1 oz. and 3 1/2 oz. of clay to the half pound of soil makes a sandy loam; from 3 1/2 oz. to 6 oz. a loamy soil; from 6 oz. to 7 oz. a clay loam; and from 7 oz. to 7 1/2 oz. a strong clay soil. A marl is a soil containing more than 5 per cent of carbonate of lime. A chalky, or calcareous soil contains more than 20 per cent. It is thus seen that soils vary considerably in their composition, and soils may be found which, answering to the description of, say, a loamy soil, are yet different in their composition and of different degrees of agricultural value, owing to the varying proportions in which the valuable constituents are present. The subsoil also determines to a certain extent the suitability of the surface soil for particular crops. Thus, a sandy subsoil allows the water to drain off quickly and thus would not be suitable as a foundation for a soil in which to grow a crop requiring much moisture.

A study of the origin of soils will explain this diversity and at the same time afford a means of judging as to the probable fertility or barrenness of any tract of land. Soil is produced by the crumbling and gradual decay of rocks under the influence of moisture, frost, &c., in fact by that process, known as common language as weathering. Therefore, we would expect the soil to be chemically similar to the rock on which it lies. Thus, the farmer calls in Geology to his aid. In this course of lectures there is no place for even an outline of the principles of Geology; and I shall content myself with reminding you that the outer part of the crust of the earth consists of layers or strata of rocks, each layer differing in its chemical composition and other characters from the rest. It is rarely possible that the layers are placed horizontally, but they were formed, since the upheavals and convulsions which the earth has since undergone have caused them in most cases to be inclined at various angles. These layers are arranged in regular and invariable order, i. e. it is never hap-

pens that a certain stratum is in one place above and in another below a certain other. Now as the soil at any place has been formed by the weathering of one or more of these strata, we can from the Geological features of a country predict the nature of its soil. For example, we know that in the south eastern part of New Brunswick and in the adjoining part of Nova Scotia, the local measures from the surface layers. Now, the coal measures consist of alternate layers of sandstone, shale, coal, and occasionally limestone. When the sandstone alone comes to the surface the soil is thin and poor. Shale alone gives a stiff clay soil, wet and cold. But it may happen in some places that the inclined edges of a shale and a sandstone come to the surface together, and produce an excellent soil by the moisture of the soil in like manner, a limestone layer may mingle the products of its decay with those of a shale or sandstone and thus form a good soil. A farmer who knew these facts would never think of paying a high price for land when only one of these layers came to the surface.

The physical properties of soils (as distinguished from chemical) will next occupy our attention. The most important are (1) density, (2) capacity for absorbing and retaining water, (3) porosity, and (4) temperature.

Sands and marls are the heaviest of all soils, while dry peat or bog is the lightest. Still clay is lighter than sand. A clay soil absorbs much more water than a sandy soil and retains the water more tenaciously. A boggy soil absorbs still more. These facts point to the necessity for draining in clay and peaty or boggy soils, i. e. not a single draining but a good system of drains always kept open. Every farmer knows too how much more readily a sandy soil dries than does a clay soil; the air circulates more freely in the former, carrying away the moisture. The drier a soil the more easily it is warmed. This accounts for the great coldness of stiff clay soils as contrasted with sandy soils. The color of a soil exerts considerable influence on the absorption of the sun's heat. The darker the soil, other things being equal, the more heat will it absorb from the sun. It is plain from the above statements that mixing any one of these soils with any other tends to improve its physical properties. A cold, wet, clay soil would be much improved by mixing it with sand. Chemical analysis shows that all soils contain all the substances found in the ashes of plants, but in variable quantities; thus some soils contain a little potash as to be of little value. Although mere traces of the chief ash constituents are sufficient to keep the plant alive, yet in order to get the best crop the plant must be able to get an abundant supply of food readily, without being obliged to seek too widely for it. If the supply is scant the plant may not be able to grow to its full capability during the season. This accounts for the good effects of increasing the supply of a certain article of food already present in considerable quantity in the soil.

A careful chemical analysis of a soil will in most cases decide whether or not it is fertile, and if barren will show the cause. Such an analysis is a long and tedious process when complete and exhaustive, but when for decision may be often obtained by a partial analysis.

Subjoined are analyses of three soils of various degrees of fertility. No. 1 is a fertile soil which has been cropped with grain and vegetables for sixty years without manure; No. 2 gives good crops but only after manuring with gypsum; No. 3 is very barren.

The analysis gives the number of parts in 1000 of the finer part separated from the sand and soluble portion.

No. 1. No. 2. No. 3.

Organic Matter, 97 50 40

Silica, 648 683 778

Alumina, 57 61 91

Lime, 58 18 4

Magnesia, 84 8 1

Oxide of Iron, 61 80 81

Oxide of Manganese, 1 8 3

Potash, 4 4 4

Soda, 4 4 4

Ammonia, 4 4 4

Chlorine, 2 2 2

Phosphoric Acid, 4 13 4

Carbonic Acid, 4 4 4

Loss, 14 14 14

1,000 1,000 1,000

No. 1 owes its great fertility to the presence in considerable quantity of all the constituents of a plant's food. It contains a large quantity of organic matter and also of lime, it is also rich in potash and phosphoric acid, but a large proportion of the former would be extracted in the process of washing away the soluble portion. No. 2 is less fertile because of its deficiency in lime, potash, and soda; and No. 3 is still more deficient, but owes its barrenness also to the presence of too large a quantity of iron.

It is a fact familiar to all who have any practical acquaintance with farming that each crop grows best in some particular kind of soil. Thus, for example, wheat prefers a clay soil, oats, a heavy loam, barley and turnips, an open, free loam; while beans and peas will thrive in stiff soils if well-drained. The natural growth in any region varies from point to point as the chemical characters of the soil vary, and if the chemical characters be changed by applying a fertilizer the growth

will also change. While clover requires lime, and does not grow in an acid soil. Thus, if a sour bog in which no clover is growing be limed, clover will probably spring up and flourish. It is necessary then to choose carefully the soil in which to grow to the best advantage any particular crop.

The next lecture will deal with the subject of improvement of soil.

RACKED BY INNUMERABLE PAINS, restless by day, sleepless at night, refreshed in the morning, without appetite, and pestered by varying and perplexing symptoms, the dyspeptic takes indeed a gloomy view of human existence. For him the rest of life seems gone. Heart-burn, oppression at the pit of the stomach, and the attendant annoyances of constipation and biliousness, combine to render his existence wretched. But there is, if he will take advantage of it, a reliable source of relief from all this misery. No. 1. LYMAN'S VEGETABLE DISCOVERY and Dressing Case as its name imports, a botanic preparation, free from mineral poison, and in all-sufficient remedy for the dyspeptic. It not only cures the food by enabling the digestive organs to convert the food received into nutriment, but depurates it by increasing the action of the bowels and kidneys, the natural outlets for its impurities. But while it relieves the bowels, it never does so violently and with pain, like a drastic cathartic. It aids, but never forces, Nature, invigorating as well as purifying the system. Every farmer knows too how much more readily a sandy soil dries than does a clay soil; the air circulates more freely in the former, carrying away the moisture. The drier a soil the more easily it is warmed. This accounts for the great coldness of stiff clay soils as contrasted with sandy soils. The color of a soil exerts considerable influence on the absorption of the sun's heat. The darker the soil, other things being equal, the more heat will it absorb from the sun. It is plain from the above statements that mixing any one of these soils with any other tends to improve its physical properties. A cold, wet, clay soil would be much improved by mixing it with sand. Chemical analysis shows that all soils contain all the substances found in the ashes of plants, but in variable quantities; thus some soils contain a little potash as to be of little value. Although mere traces of the chief ash constituents are sufficient to keep the plant alive, yet in order to get the best crop the plant must be able to get an abundant supply of food readily, without being obliged to seek too widely for it. If the supply is scant the plant may not be able to grow to its full capability during the season. This accounts for the good effects of increasing the supply of a certain article of food already present in considerable quantity in the soil.

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