

Technical and Bibliographic Notes / Notes techniques et bibliographiques

The Institute has attempted to obtain the best original copy available for filming. Features of this copy which may be bibliographically unique, which may alter any of the images in the reproduction, or which may significantly change the usual method of filming, are checked below.

L'Institut a microfilmé le meilleur exemplaire qu'il lui a été possible de se procurer. Les détails de cet exemplaire qui sont peut-être uniques du point de vue bibliographique, qui peuvent modifier une image reproduite, ou qui peuvent exiger une modification dans la méthode normale de filmage sont indiqués ci-dessous.

Coloured covers/
Couverture de couleur

Coloured pages/
Pages de couleur

Covers damaged/
Couverture endommagée

Pages damaged/
Pages endommagées

Covers restored and/or laminated/
Couverture restaurée et/ou pelliculée

Pages restored and/or laminated/
Pages restaurées et/ou pelliculées

Cover title missing/
Le titre de couverture manque

Pages discoloured, stained or foxed/
Pages décolorées, tachetées ou piquées

Coloured maps/
Cartes géographiques en couleur

Pages detached/
Pages détachés

Coloured ink (i.e. other than blue or black)/
Encre de couleur (i.e. autre que bleue ou noire)

Show through/
Transparence

Coloured plates and/or illustrations/
Planches et/ou illustrations en couleur

Quality of print varies/
Qualité inégale de l'impression

Bound with other material/
Relié avec d'autres documents

Continuous pagination/
Pagination continue

Tight binding may cause shadows or distortion along interior margin/
La reliure serrée peut causer de l'ombre ou de la distorsion le long de la marge intérieure

Includes index(es)/
Comprend un (des) index

Blank leaves added during restoration may appear within the text. Whenever possible, these have been omitted from filming/
Il se peut que certaines pages blanches ajoutées lors d'une restauration apparaissent dans le texte, mais, lorsque cela était possible, ces pages n'ont pas été filmées.

Title on header taken from: /
Le titre de l'en-tête provient:

Title page of issue/
Page de titre de la livraison

Caption of issue/
Titre de départ de la livraison

Masthead/
Générique (périodiques) de la livraison

Additional comments: /
Commentaires supplémentaires:

This item is filmed at the reduction ratio checked below /
Ce document est filmé au taux de réduction indiqué ci-dessous.

10X	14X	18X	22X	26X	30X
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12X	16X	20X	24X	28X	32X

Wm. G. Wood

THE COLONIAL FARMER,

DEVOTED TO THE AGRICULTURAL INTERESTS OF NOVA-SCOTIA, NEW-BRUNSWICK,
AND PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.

VOL. I. HALIFAX, N. S., MAY, 1842. NO. 11.

ADDRESS OF D. B. McNAB, Esq.

THE ST. PATRICK'S CHANNEL AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY, CAPE BRETON

Perhaps nothing more clearly distinguishes the man of civil life, from the savage, than the superior knowledge that the former possesses over the latter of the science of agriculture. It is that man in a comparative state of barbarism cultivates the soil, and tends his flocks and herds, from all which he strives to procure a scanty subsistence; but it is only in a highly civilized country, and with a scientific knowledge of agriculture, that he succeeds in rendering the desert a fruitful field, and in changing a sterile, barren country into one capable of supporting a dense and numerous population.

Of all the means by which man earns his subsistence, perhaps that by agriculture deserve the largest share of experience, of judicious and unprejudiced reflection, as well as of united exertion, in order to arrive at that degree of perfection of which it is susceptible; and even the experience of ages, though aided by comparatively recent yet important discoveries in science, has not fully developed the resources of vegetable nature, nor succeeded in teaching him how to call forth and employ his energies to the best advantage,—and the differences in religious creeds may at the present time be so great as are those in the opinions relative to the operations of vegetative nature, and how these are most efficiently called into activity.

It is the duty, therefore, of every agriculturist to be careful in his conduct, to guard against prejudice or bigotry, in the exercise of his profession,—and to bear in mind that the operations of nature are so variously diversified, and in a manner so hidden from our direct observation, that opinions the most discordant may, by the magic of her arts, be found to be in unison,—and that many of those on which opinions now may be unanimous, may yet be found to be at variance with facts. As a single illustration, let us direct our attention to the many and conflicting opinions on the best mode of using lime in agriculture, and also on its mode of action on vegetable life, and on the causes of the many seeming anomalies that its use in agriculture presents, and we may better be able to extend the influence of agricultural science to its requisite limits.

While opinions on many points, connected with agriculture, are so various and opposite, even amongst the most enlightened agriculturists, whose experiments have been conducted with the most care and subjected to the most rigorous scrutiny, there are still opinions that, like axioms, cannot fail while nature upholds the present course. The intimate connection that is known to exist between animal and vegetable life, so far as they are mutually conducive to the support of each other,—the chemical analysis of the soil, by which the necessity for a due combination of their component parts is apparent and indispensable, towards the due support of vegetable life,—the like analysis of putrescent manures, by which the most efficient modes of rendering them conducive to the promotion of vegetation, are, amongst innumerable others, instances of the triumphs of science, and of the necessity of calling it to the aid of agriculture. Agricultural chemistry opens to us a new and unbounded view of the operations of vegetable nature.

By means of it he learns the habitudes of vegetation. Instructed by it, he discovers the component parts of vegetable pro-

ductions,—finds that a portion of lime and of iron enter into the composition of wheat,—and that in order to secure a full crop of this, the staff of life, it is indispensable that his soil be furnished with a due proportion of these seemingly unnecessary ingredients, in the composition of wheat.

While a scientific knowledge of agriculture is so necessary towards the support of man, as well as of all the lower animals dependent on him, one would suppose that this knowledge, by universal consent, would have been eagerly sought for and sedulously diffused. But how far, at this hour, is it otherwise? To begin with Europe. The Russian peasant forms a part of the live stock of the lands on which he resides, and is by his master, the landowner, disposed of as he sees fit. The Pole, in a country noted for fertility, and capable of being made the granary of Europe, drags out a miserable existence on black coarse bread, and like miserable fare,—the fertile soils of Spain and Italy, where the olive and grape abound, are, from the wretched ignorance of their cultivators, doomed to comparative sterility;—while Great Britain, with a climate and soil far inferior, sustains, by her superior agricultural skill, a density of population, and a happy, enlightened peasantry, in every respect superior to those in nature's more favoured climes.

But this superiority springs from an enlightened and scientific system of agriculture, acquired simply by unions amongst agriculturists for the avowed purpose of discovering and adopting the most scientific modes of agriculture: and without such unions amongst ourselves, no man can hope to attain to that perfection of which we are susceptible.

To enable us, in some degree, to appreciate the benefits of a judicious and improved system of agriculture, let us only look at the state of agriculture in Great Britain some seventy or eighty years ago. Some lands were then let for about 2s. 6d. an acre, and from which all the skill and toil of the cultivator could hardly obtain much, if any, more than about 16 bushels of grey light oats. Manuring, by means of lime and compost, was lately applied to these lands,—improved ploughs and ploughing were introduced,—in short, a scientific and improved system of agriculture took place of a system, if such it might be called, in which, too much at present like ourselves, nothing worthy of the name of a system existed. In lieu of unaided and individual effort, societies directed by men of scientific and practical abilities were every where established,—and these lands, from which hardly 16 bushels of their oats could be forced, and for which the pittance of 2s. 6d. an acre of annual rent was deemed an ample equivalent, are now capable of producing nearly twice as many bushels of excellent wheat, and of paying easily an annual rent of £3.

But I need hardly add, that the system by which these great changes were effected was not elicited from cold apathy and careless indifference, nor perfected by a rigid adherence to the modes and customs of our forefathers:—No; the agriculturists of Great Britain felt, like ourselves, the need of improvement; they formed societies for this purpose, and enlisted science and skill on their side; they had prejudices and difficulties to encounter from which we are wholly exempt; on the one hand, the old and narrow, but beaten path of their forefathers presented itself, in which, or rather from which, they had never strayed,—on the other hand, a new

and broad way was opened up, enlightened by science and smoothed by skill, but which conducted to changes of which, in reference to their future prosperity, they were wholly ignorant. To this new and untried way they boldly trusted themselves, and their brilliant success is now to us a leading star that directs us to follow in their footsteps without fear. But to arrive at the desired end, we must in every case employ the means. It is only like causes that can produce like effects; and were we to enquire of our friends in Great Britain the principal, I had almost said the sole cause of their prosperity, and by what means they had arrived to such an exalted position in the science of Agriculture, their reply would be—"We united ourselves into Agricultural Societies." Our whole island became, as it were, one grand association for the advancement of Agriculture; in this association persons of the highest rank and attainments were to be found, and the result was the introduction of an improved system of agriculture that has done more to advance the prosperity of Great Britain than the brilliant and bloody feats of either her armies or navies.

To countries that admit of cultivation Agriculture is the grand basis of national prosperity; but as a science, agriculture will not advance unaided by combined and active exertion. One ingenious mechanic, by a happy exertion of genius and skill, may make a discovery the benefits of which may be powerfully felt throughout the whole circle of society,—nay, the exertions of a single ingenious artist may, in a manner, change the destinies of nations. An Arkwright or a Watt may, by their unaided talents and skill, exalt the manufacturing and commercial interests to the highest pitch of prosperity,—and all this may be effected without any aid either from societies or associations.

I am not aware that the like holds good in the advancement of Agriculture. The very great difference between mere inert matter, and animated and vegetable nature, is such, that while a few well-conducted experiments may lead to unerring and unchanging results in the one, a life-time may be required to attain a like knowledge in the operations of the other. Hence the evident necessity for the Agriculturists, beyond all others, of uniting in societies for the diffusion of individual knowledge,—and of effecting, by union amongst themselves, an advancement in knowledge that probably no length of time would suffice to convey to individual exertion.

But while we continue in a state of apathy and listless indifference, neglecting to unite or to make the smallest exertion towards improvement, can we expect that the capabilities of our country will ever be developed, or our prosperity, either as a community or individually, advanced, until, in short, we unite in earnest to improve our system of agriculture, we never can expect to become flourishing or independent. I have already said, and again repeat, that the true interest of every country that admits of cultivation is its agriculture: What is Peru, with its mountains of silver?—what is Brazil, with its mines of diamonds?—what is Spain, into which these stores of mineral riches flowed? Countries peopled with a horde of impoverished wretches to whom existence must be a burden. Compare their situation with that of the sturdy, independent farmer of Great Britain,—and then say who has really the greatest wealth.

But it is said that our climate is unfit for the purposes of agriculture. The same was said in England in the days of Queen Elizabeth, who, all the world knows, had to send a ship to the continent of Europe when she wished to procure the luxury of a salad. Were our climate now what that of England was then deemed, we might with some shadow of reason disclaim against all attempts to advance our welfare by means of agricultural industry and im-

provements: but so far is it otherwise may at once be perceived from the circumstance alone, that those very articles which, in Great Britain, cannot be ripened but by means of the hot house culture, are brought to perfection by us in the open air. We need not look farther for proofs of the capabilities of our climate and soil,—and did we, in our mode of culture, exercise but a part only of the skill and talent that are employed by the agriculturists in Great Britain, our extensive importations of flour and the like articles from the adjoining states would soon cease, and the money thus lost to us be employed in better purposes. But in order to arrive at this prosperous state, we must unite into societies for the purpose of acquiring a requisite knowledge of agriculture,—otherwise, we may rest assured that from our present dependent condition we never can escape.

To illustrate farther the benefits, nay the absolute necessity of forming Societies for our advancement in Agriculture, let us just take a view of the serious injuries we now sustain in one instance only, for want of a cordial union and co-operation amongst Agriculturists. Our Island long as it has been settled, has not yet been freed from the beasts of prey that infest it, and rob the farmer of his flocks and herds; and how few of our farmers can boast of having sustained no loss from the attacks of the Bear, the wild cat, and of late years, from the fox. Yet while the complaints of serious and sometimes ruinous loss is in the mouths of so many; What have their individual efforts done towards destroying those destructive animals? Why, just nothing—Each complains of his loss to his neighbour, and some feeble efforts are now and then made by a few individuals towards thinning these robbers; but nothing like a system has as been attempted. Why?—Simply for want of union. For want of Societies to encourage and protect the Agriculturist. But let these Societies only become general over this Island, and let the severe loss that these destructive animals cause, only be equally severely felt as at present, and I hazard nothing in saying that means on a scale that will ensure their extirpation will soon be adopted. It is a well-known fact that our farmers would be comparatively well off, could they succeed in securing their sheep alone from these depredators, but while our farmers neglect to unite in the attaining of this, as well as of other objects connected with their Agricultural prosperity, they have no just cause of complaint, even if their losses were greater. To attain the end we must use the means. Do we sincerely desire to promote our prosperity as Agriculturists. We must unite in Societies for that purpose, and effect by our united endeavours, that which neither could, nor would be attained by individual exertion; and how far this union is requisite, were it for the destruction of wild animals alone, may be gathered from the single fact, that although a pound of sheep's wool is worth in the market about 2s. only, (when such article is in the market, which is rarely the case,) yet the want of it to the farmer is a loss of no less than 30s., and every Farmer in Cape Breton knows to his cost the difficulty in obtaining even for money a pound of wool, when in need of it; although few climates are more favorable to the growth of sheep than that of Cape Breton.

If in this instance alone, the benefits of union are so apparent. What might not we expect when such union is directed to the improvement of our Stock, our Seeds, our Farming Implements; in short, to the improvement of our Farming system? That the system now adopted is of the most defective kind, and instead of improving rapidly exhausting our best lands, and bringing them to a state bordering on sterility, is now generally acknowledged; and more, is also becoming generally felt. In many parts of our Island when the lands were being reclaimed from the forest and their state of pristine vigour, their return was abundant, and was

was comparatively unknown; but now that these lands have for a series of years been subjected to a pernicious system of culture, their energies are so completely exhausted that their returns will hardly repay the mere labour of their cultivators, or afford to them a scanty subsistence. Their owners are thus forced into the market for a supply of food for themselves, and their families; and thus have the foundations of embarrassments been laid, that have at length led to the removal of many from the lands that their industry reclaimed from the forest. I mean not in thus stating known facts, to insinuate that these ruinous results have been entailed, by want of industry, but merely from the want of that knowledge that is required to insure an abundant return from the labour bestowed; and in illustration of this, I will just mention one fact, which is, that while our lands in general, after the stimulus derived from the removal of the forest by fire, has been exhausted, demand the fertilizing energies of lime towards restoring them, yet the use of this invaluable fossil as a manure, is as yet hardly known. Just let me ask what was Great Britain as an Agricultural country before the introduction of lime as a manure, when as I have already said only 16 bushels of grey oats could be obtained, where now nearly twice the quantity of good wheat is raised.

If our present defective system requires farther illustration, let us just take a peep at our manure heaps. How are these managed? Are they secured from the wasting influences of sun, rain, wind and snow, while accumulating, or are they exposed to the wasting effects of all these. It is indisputable that the fertilizing principle in the manure resides, not in that which constitutes its solid particles, but in its liquid and gaseous parts, which are only held by the other until extracted from them by the soil; and if previously washed out, bleached and exhaled, of what value as a manure can the dry remains be? Truly not equal in many instances to as much dried beech leaves or saw dust. And who, from carting out such materials only, could expect to reap bountiful crops? Or even any crops from lands previously exhausted by injudicious and excessive cropping. An old woman might as well spread her tea leaves to the influences of the sun, winds and rains for half a year before using them and then expect to enjoy from their infusion a cup of good strong tea; as a farmer from the injudicious management of his manure just described, to raise an abundant crop, or even any crop at all.

It is evident therefore that our soil in general, possesses very superior energies to enable us to exist under our present mode of cultivation; and he who has travelled over our Island in the spring, knows best how many he has seen, of snow washed, rain bleached, sun dried dunghills; the farmer's hope for the ensuing season, and the source from which he vainly expects to derive a bountiful return for his toil.

Well—perhaps some of my hearers think they will abandon their bleaching system of preparing manure; and will carefully roof it over, and defend it from the wasting influences of the elements. They do so; and still unacquainted with the process of preparing manure, they find their heaps in the spring to be what is technically styled *fire-fanged*, and equally useless as that prepared by their former mode. Fools that we were, they exclaim, to listen to this visionary innovator. His new fangled schemes are all folly. He has picked up a smattering of farming from books, and would persuade us to believe that he knows every thing about it, while his actual ignorance is greater than our own. He would induce us to form Farming Societies, just for the purpose of getting our half dollars. He got one from me for his new nonsense last year, but let him catch another for such folly when he can. I am done for

ever with him and his Societies; and shall in the good old way, throw the manure out of doors this season, the rain and snows will wash out the poison, and the sun beams and March winds will render it quite light and pleasant for my poor hungry oxen, when hauling it out in the spring. This easy method our forefathers found out and taught us, and they acquired their knowledge from experience; and not by droning over books. I am forever done with these ignorant bookish fellows, that never handled a spadeful of manure in their lives, and therefore know nothing about it, and out for ever goes my name from their books and their money catching Societies!

It is plain therefore that something more with respect to the proper mode of making good manure, remains to be learned than simply to house it from the weather; and to acquire this, as well as the knowledge that is indispensable towards ensuring success in Agriculture, is just one of the principal uses of Agricultural Societies. But it may be necessary, before the science and practice of Agriculture are viewed by our farmers in the highly respectable light in which they have been deservedly placed in Great Britain and in every enlightened country, to attempt to remove the prejudice that in this country seems to prevail against farmers. The cultivator of the soil here, is looked down on as a being of inferior grade. As a kind of Helot or Pariah, whose rank is contemptible, whose company is degrading; nay whose very touch is polluting. Would that I possessed the ability to combat this mistaken opinion, and successfully to place its fallacy in its true light. In the parent country, whose gradations of rank in the scale of society, may with great justice, form a rule for our guidance, the independent cultivator of his own freehold, holds a deservedly high and respected situation in society; and takes precedence of many, who in this country are pleased in their self-exaltation to look down on the independent farmer, and to consider him as a being far their inferior. This undue assumption of superiority ought to be treated by the farmer with the contempt it so richly merits. Its effects are injurious to his best temporal interests in no small degree; one of its most prominent and perhaps most injurious effects, is to impress on the minds of his offspring a fallacious idea that the labours of the farmer are mean and degrading: that to be seen following the plough or even engaged in any of the duties of a farmer, is almost ignominious. It may aid the farmer in checking this mistaken opinion, to be made fully aware of the respectability of his position in society, and of his undoubted right of precedence of all those, who in this country have arrogated to themselves a superiority over him. And I trust that the day may not be far distant when the sons of our independent yeomen will duly be able to discriminate between the respectability that attaches to their situation, when guiding their own plough, compared with what they now erroneously suppose to appertain to them, when stationed in some public office or behind a counter. But I must again repeat, that without associations for the advancement of our Agriculture it cannot possibly advance. Its success, and the consequent comfort, happiness and respectability of our farmers depend solely on the extent of scientific skill and manual dexterity brought into action.

Our Legislature, now aware of the importance of an improved system of Agriculture, and for the necessity of our adopting such as the true basis of the prosperity of our country, has, with that wisdom that distinguishes every enlightened government, voted, this last session, sums for the sole purpose of encouraging Agriculture. But while these sums have thus judiciously been appropriated, there has also an equally judicious condition been enacted,

ere they can be drawn from the Treasury, and this is, that we shall, amongst ourselves, for the same purpose, raise, by subscription, a certain sum—the whole, thus voted and raised by subscription, to be, as I have said, exclusively devoted to the improvements of Agriculture. This conditional subscription acts well as a nice criterion by which to determine how far we are capable of appreciating the boon of the Legislature, and of being benefited by it. Should we, in the blind spirit of ignorance, neglect to respond to this vote, and to form the societies and comply with the conditions prescribed, the Legislature has a right to conclude that, as a body, our farmers are wholly dead to their best interests, and in no manner whatever susceptible of improvement.—that, from their labours, any prospect of obtaining for our country a competent supply of food must be utterly hopeless,—and as the country must be supplied, legislative encouragement must be directed to the most suitable mode of encouraging foreign importation, should this ultimately lead to the utter extinction of our Agriculture.

No middle course, therefore, remains for us to pursue. We must either, by promptly responding to the legislative vote, convince the government that energy and intelligence exist amongst our farmers as a body, and that they as fully appreciate the need as they are willing to embrace the means of improvement, as well in the present instance as in any future encouragement that legislative aid can bestow. We may thus reasonably expect that the present enactment in favour of Agriculture is only a prelude to others, by means of which and of our own co operation the Agricultural, and consequently the general prosperity of our country may be advanced to a degree beyond our most sanguine expectations. But should we, by our supine indifference in the present instance, convince the Legislature that nothing need be expected from us as farmers,—that indolent contentment, in our present defective system, is inherent in our natures, we must not be surprised to find our future applications for legislative aid, towards opening roads through the interior, erecting mills and bridges, improving our stock and importing seeds, destroying wild animals, or, in short, towards whatever would advance our welfare, treated with merited contempt. The attention of our Legislature must necessarily and exclusively be directed to the advancement of those means by which the country can be supported. Foreign importation, therefore, of every kind of agricultural produce must be encouraged,—and then our farmers, unable to compete with such in the market, may leave the little they can bring to market to rot at home, as it will not pay the expenses of carriage when roads are wanting on which to carry it thither. Embarrassment, debt, with the finishing oyster, mortgage, will thus place our freeholds in the hands of those who can appreciate their value, and the advantages of legislative aid,—and thus, in the course of but a comparatively short period, will our freeholds pass into the hands of men of enterprise, and but too many of us may live to see ourselves and our children tenants and day-labourers under those who, by their superior skill and activity, have become the owners of our freeholds.

Would we avoid this, or some like change, that certainly hangs over us, as it has fallen on the Indian, the once listless, indolent owner of the soil, then let us exert ourselves in earnest to improve our present system of agriculture by the means held out to us at present, and before the opportunity has for ever passed away, of escaping from the dangers that threaten us, and of becoming happy and independent. Let us, throughout the whole length and breadth of our land, establish Agricultural Societies, and we may reasonably expect that they will introduce the implements here which they have elsewhere.

Baddeck, 29th Sept., 1841.

AGRICULTURAL.

DEAR SIR—At the last quarterly meeting of the Agricultural Society here, along with other topics of Agriculture, the propriety of having an Agricultural School, and Model, or Experimental Farm combined, established in some part of the Province was discussed, and it was supposed by every member present that it would have a great tendency to improve the Agriculture of the country. Although not instructed to that effect by the Society, I now take the liberty to suggest to the Honble. Board of Agriculture the propriety of taking this subject into their deliberate consideration. As there is part of the Legislative Grant for the encouragement of Agriculture unappropriated to the different societies, perhaps something might be devoted to this purpose, which I conceive would answer a better purpose than a special grant from the Legislature to any one County in the Province.

Many are now persuaded that both the soil and climate of Nova Scotia is well adapted to farming, but there is a great lack of scientific knowledge, and until it is more generally diffused it is vain to look for much improvement in practice. The benefits accruing from such institutions are now highly prized in the best cultivated countries, and there is little doubt but they will soon become very common: Theory without a practical test is apt to mislead the inexperienced farmer, from a variety of circumstances, but here there would be such a plain illustration as would give confidence, and the most salutary results might be anticipated.

I have thought a good deal upon the subject, and if the Board consider it worth an investigation I shall be most happy to give any information in the matter at my command, if called for.

The Agricultural Implements are all safe to hand, and give general satisfaction.

I formerly spoke of trying an experiment in Drilling Wheat the result was favourable, five acres yielded 142 bushels.

Yours, most respectfully,

JOHN BONYMAN,

Secretary to the Stirling Agricultural Society

To Titus Smith, Esquire.

We have taken the liberty to publish the above letter, although the fund to which Mr. B. refers is otherwise disposed of this year, but the experience of Europe has certainly shewn the great utility of Agricultural Schools, and it is a subject to which we wish some talented persons would turn their attention. It is important the children when young should begin to think upon what is to be the business of their future lives; a Farmer with whom the writer was acquainted had the custom every morning of calling his son before he went to work, and stating to him the different jobs that ought to be done that day, and asking his opinion as to which ought to be first performed, the particular way in which the work should be performed, &c. mentioning the advantage or loss that would follow in each case. The child who was but seven years old answered first, "I don't know Father, you know better than I." The Farmer still continued the practise, and before the boy was ten years old he always had planned the business for the day before he was called to give his opinion. He had learned to think, and proved afterwards a very successful Farmer.—EDITOR.

Extract from the Report of the Parrsborough Agricultural Society.

"Hay was never so plentiful in Parrsborough before as in 1841 and there was no instance of failure in wheat,—there would have been more of it sowed only for former failures. Potatoes for the drought were a light crop, probably not more than one or two thirds the usual quantity, but this deficiency has, in general,

measure been made up by the unusually large quantity of Beech nuts, by which a great deal of pork has been altogether made. The only two instances in which the potatoes were not a failure here, were where lime had been extensively used. It is supposed it retained the moisture besides serving other useful purposes to the crop in question. The two farmers who used it had each a thousand bushels of potatoes, where their neighbours with as good prospects, except the lime, had only five hundred bushels each."

The kind of soil to which the lime was applied is not mentioned, but according to our recollection a considerable part of the land in this district has a dry deep soil of the colour of a pale brick, with a slight mixture of gravel, but with neither rock, solid clay, or hard pan of any kind, near the surface. As it is not improbable that we may have a dry season, it would be desirable that the Parrsboro' experiment should be repeated. A Drought, we have thought, has more effect upon the upland in Cornwallis, than in Windsor, which rests upon gypsum and limestone.

It is certainly the case that potatoes manured with a mixture of stable manure, and of kelp or rockweed which had begun to putrefy, will withstand a drought which considerably diminishes the crop manured with nothing but stable dung.—Ed.

CROPPING NEW LAND.

The cropping of new land when prepared, is a matter that may be useful to the settler to offer some remarks upon. It is in this respect he will be most subject to err. In Lower-Canada, settlers are generally inclined to sow wheat, whether the land is suitable and prepared in time or not; the consequence is, a total failure frequently, and if not, a very short produce, when, if the same land were sown with barley or oats, it would have produced abundantly. If land is suitable for wheat, and can be sown any time in April, by all means the settler should try it; but much later in the spring it will not be profitable, nine times in ten to sow wheat on new lands. Very favourable seasons, fine harvests, and no early frosts, a late crop might succeed, but the risk is considerable, and one that need not be incurred, when crops that are certain, and equally profitable, may be raised. It will be much better for the settler to cultivate the crop most likely to succeed, than incur the risk of disappointment in sowing wheat. He can always sell oats and barley to buy the wheat he may require, and oatmeal will be an excellent substitute occasionally for the flour of wheat. It is exceedingly discouraging to a settler when his first crop fails, and I have known it frequently to occur, from sowing wheat in a sheltered spot surrounded with high trees, at a late time in spring, when it was certain, in a moist season, to be injured by mildew or some other disease, or by early frost in the fall. When the settler will advise with his neighbours, and know how they have succeeded in circumstances similar to those in which he may be placed in spring sowing time, he will be better able to determine what course to pursue; and in asking such advice, it will be well to apply to those that are known to have succeeded best in the settlement; the advice of any other is not safe to follow.

After a year or two, the settler who has agricultural knowledge, and is prudent and industrious, will not require advice from any one; and those who may go to the woods without these qualifications, cannot be better instructed than by following the example of those who are so qualified, and those whom he finds are doing well. If he can improve upon their system, so much the better, but it will be safest not to try experiments, until he is in circumstances that their failure will not affect him very injuriously.

As I before observed, agricultural knowledge is of great importance to any person who becomes a farmer on cleared land, or in the woods; but it must be obvious to any clever man, that he will have something to learn in coming to a country so different in climate from the British isles, and particularly when he goes into the forest, where it will be many years before he can plough freely, and cultivate as he was accustomed to do before. In consequence of this circumstance, he will not have the same latitude to exercise his skill, confined by the forest, and interrupted by the roots of large trees; but nevertheless he will find means to overcome difficulties with greater facility than a man who has not much experience in

farming, because he will understand where he ought to conform to the climate and circumstances of a country so different from that he was accustomed to, and no national prejudices in favour of the system of the country he has left will prevent a sensible man from adopting what is suitable to that he finds himself placed in. I am persuaded that a person possessing the qualifications that are necessary to constitute a good farmer in every country, fixing his residence in a new settlement, would not only be sure to be successful, but his example would be of incalculable advantage to his neighbours, at least to all those who would be possessed of sufficient common sense and due regard for their true interest, to learn and profit by it.

Indian corn is a crop that ought not to be neglected on new land. Though it should not always come to full perfection it will be very useful for feeding swine, and the stalks will be good winter food for cows, when it may be difficult to provide hay. Should the season be favourable, there is not a more profitable crop for a new settler than Indian corn; it is easy to cultivate, requires little seed, and the produce when it succeeds well, is very great, and will be found good food by the settler, until he can grow wheat to advantage. It is usual to sow seed of pumpkins at intervals in Indian corn land, after the corn is over ground, and first hoed. There is generally a considerable produce of pumpkins, which assist in feeding cows or swine, and do not injuriously affect the growth of the Indian corn crop.

Peas will grow well on new land that is not over fertile, and are a good crop for a settler. The greatest danger of their failure is from lodging, and in consequence not filling. If they were only sown on a small scale for table use, it would be a good plan to put them in rows far apart, and plant a few beans at proper intervals, that would help to support them and yield a produce. Settlers cannot often find time to put down stakes to peas. In most places spots of suitable light soil will be found to grow peas in perfection without any support being necessary for them. Windsor, kidney, and horse beans succeed well, and are very productive if sown in good time. I would recommend their cultivation, particularly the two first, to settlers. They answer well for soups and haricots.

Turnips grow in greater perfection on new land, and are less subject to failure than on the old cultivated lands; they are a good crop for the settler to a certain extent, who may sow them any time he finds opportunity to the 1st of August, and when it would be too late to sow any other crop.

Carrots are a crop I would highly recommend; the produce is great, and they seldom fail. Parsnips will succeed well, as will onions, and all kinds of garden vegetables. The new soil and ashes are the very best for their production in perfection. For carrots, parsnips, and such root crops as penetrate deep into the soil, the settler will require to take out all roots of trees to the necessary depth. Though this will be at an expense of some labour, it will amply repay it. A few perches well prepared, will produce more roots than three times as much land ill prepared.

Potatoes may be cultivated without much labour, in hills between the roots and logs, and give a large produce, and they are generally of better quality in new land, than in land long in cultivation. It is not possible to cultivate potatoes in any other way but in hills, for the first few years, until the roots of trees are taken out.

The settler who will manage judiciously, and cultivate vegetables or green crops, principally, for the first two or three years, will seldom fail of success; he will grow the vegetables I have enumerated with ease and almost certainty, where, perhaps, he would not reap a crop of wheat that would produce more than the seed sown. With these vegetables in abundance, he can feed pork in sufficient quantity to supply his table constantly; and if a new settler, for the first few years, can insure for himself and his family a full allowance of good pork and vegetables, with milk, butter, eggs, and whatever more his means or industry will allow him to provide, their lot will not be very deplorable. It is not wish to be understood as recommending that no wheat should be sown the first years under any circumstances. On the contrary, I have said when the soil and season were favourable, and the seed could be sown in good time, it would be right to try it; but only when all these favourable circumstances would combine. Barley, oats, peas, rye and Indian corn, are the most certain grain crops for the first few years, in Lower-Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, until the clearance is more extensive, and a free circulation of air is admitted. Grass seeds should be sown as soon as possible, the first year if practicable, on a small part that could be sufficiently cleared of the

small roots Grass will affectually check the small roots under the surface from sprouting again, and hay is very necessary for the winter support of a cow or two, and a horse, if the settler can keep one.

It is of the most essential consequence to the settlers that they would so manage as to be able to locate themselves convenient to each other, if possible, so that each lot would be connected. Though the land might be rather of inferior quality, it is a great benefit that no interval of wild land should be allowed to remain between farms. Settlers are, when located together, able to assist each other in various ways, in erecting houses, piling logs, making roads, draining, and by example of the most experienced and industrious. What is the consequence when a settler happens to get upon a lot that requires draining, if he be surrounded with unoccupied wood land? He perhaps loses his crops, and the benefit of his labour year after year, without a remedy being in his power. It is out of the question that under such circumstances he could alone and unassisted, attempt draining through the wilderness. I know that from this cause proceeds the failure of many poor settlers, and it may well be supposed that perfect draining is impracticable unless the land is regularly taken up and settled in rotation, without allowing any waste lots to intervene or remain unoccupied. I do not believe it would be possible to promote successful settlement more effectually than by adopting this regulation in disposing of the waste land.

In no country in the world is draining more necessary than in both the Canadas, where the surface is generally level, and where there are heavy falls of rain which requires ample drains to carry off the superfluous waters in the spring, and when the crops are in a growing state before they are injured by it. It may reasonably be supposed that in a new country yet almost in a state of nature, and abounding in rivers and lakes, much superfluous water must be retained in many situations by natural causes, which would require ample outlets to be cut, to allow these waters to run off. In England, so long inhabited, and cultivated for centuries better than any other country, it is only within the last fifty years, that extensive tracts of land have been drained and cultivated with great success, which previously gave no valuable produce. A settler who gets a few acres cleared in the forest, and cannot get it perfectly drained, will have to wait in spring until the moisture is dried up by natural evaporation. In new land the surface is very uneven, and it has many hillocks and hollows that require several days of fine weather to dry them perfectly. From this cause sowing is delayed, or a large portion of the best of the soil is left waste. There are some situations where the soil is naturally high, dry, loamy or sandy, that will not require much draining; but in every situation new land is of uneven surface, caused by the roots of trees, &c. that cannot be perfectly levelled until it is some years under cultivation.

There is a very considerable difference between the Upper and Lower Provinces of Canada in respect to the first crop raised on new land. In the Upper Province they generally sow the new land with wheat in the fall, and it succeeds in favourable seasons extremely well; almost all the wheat is sown there in the fall, which is certainly a great advantage, as it secures the cultivation of the only crop that requires very early sowing. There can be no doubt but Upper-Canada generally is much better adapted to growing wheat than Lower-Canada or the other British Provinces; however I have seen very fine crops in Lower-Canada of spring sown wheat, and have raised, not on the very best wheat land, 33 English bushels to the acre; but I must say this produce is of rare occurrence. I shall give the average returns reported from several counties and townships of Upper-Canada, but I cannot answer for their accuracy. The climate is on an average, warmer and dryer than that of Lower Canada, and more favourable to the production of wheat in perfection; but the reader is not to infer from this, that Lower-Canada is not a good wheat country, though it may not be equal to Upper-Canada. I believe that oats are more productive in the Lower Province than the Upper. I have seen as fine crops of oats in the county of Montreal as could grow in any country. Barley, rye, and peas are produced in perfection in all the provinces. Indian corn succeeds well in Upper Canada, though it may occasionally be injured by frosts before it is at maturity. Much of that province is south of 45° latitude, the line that is said to be the northern boundary for successfully cultivating that plant. Potatoes do not succeed so well in the Upper Province as in the Lower, nor are they so good for the table. The crop of hay is seldom so abundant in Upper as in Lower-Canada.

There is no peculiar mode necessary to be observed in the cultivation of crops in one province, more than in another except in sowing wheat in the fall, which seldom succeeds well in Lower-Canada. I think, however, it might be tried there on new land, if sown sufficiently early in the fall to take firm root before the winter. The snow is so likely to remain on the ground in sheltered situations, that it might succeed in favourable years. The covering of snow upon the wheat until the spring is fairly commenced, is the best protection for fall wheat; but it has to incur another risk, the danger of rust, to which it is much more liable than spring wheat in Lower-Canada, though it does not appear to be so in the Upper Province. As I before observed, the settler in the Lower Province will do well to be cautious in making experiments unless he is prepared to meet the results, whether they turn out favourable or the contrary.

It is not necessary for me here to state how the settler is to put in the seed in his new land when prepared. He will be very unfit for a farmer if he is not able to take example by those who he may find placed in similar situations, when he sees how they execute the work. The more effectually he can stir up the soil between the roots with the hoe or harrow, the better chance he will have to reap a good crop of wheat, barley, oats or peas. One bushel to the acre on new land is sufficient. It is not good to sow over this quantity, except the land is very poor. The seed is in most cases harrowed in, if not, it is hoed or raked in. The settler must, in planting potatoes, endeavor to cover them as well as the roots of trees will allow; in sowing any other seed, there will not be much difficulty in finding sufficient mould or soil to cover it. If the land gets a good burn, all is likely to go on well, but frequently settlers are disappointed of obtaining a good burn the first year. In that case the settler must sow and plant between the logs and stumps in the best manner he can, but a full crop is not to be expected, unless of potatoes, and perhaps Indian corn and turnips.

It may be proper to notice here that settlers are prone to form erroneous ideas of the progress they are likely to make in the clearing and cultivating of new lands. They imagine they can go on year after year adding to the quantity of cleared land, and the extent under crop. This must, however, depend on the abundance of his funds for the employment of labour, or command of labour in his own family. When a settler has not abundance of help or funds to employ labour, there must be a limit to the extent of his clearance and his crops, because one man is only able to cultivate to a certain extent, and when he has brought it to that extent, all his attention will be required for the cultivation and cropping of a few acres of land, and he is not able to add much to his clearance. If the settler was strong and active to go on with clearing new land and seed down with grass after the first or second crop what he had cleared and cultivated, it would be the most speedy way to bring the land into a productive state, and the most certain to independence. The roots would be decaying in the land seeded down, and it would be producing hay or pasture, which would, perhaps, be as profitable as any other crop, and he would be constantly adding to his clearance, and cropping the new land with grain and vegetables. In this way a man might in a few years, have a considerable farm cleared. I have seen some tables showing the progress of improvements on new settlements in Upper-Canada, and though they are wanting so far as that they do not show the means of the settler, yet they give some idea of what progress may be possible. By the table, 25 settlers, who appear to have been all married, and to have between them 87 children (but their ages are not given) in five years had cleared 574 acres, or 23 acres for each family on an average. By another table, 21 settlers, 19 wives and 51 children, had in crop the second year 175 acres, being an average for each family of 8½ acres. A third report was of 24 settlers, with 15 wives and 54 children, who, the second year, had 175 acres chopped, and 12 acres in crop, being an average for each family of near 6 acres in crop, and 7½ acres cut down. By a fourth report, 24 settlers in two years 9½ acres chopped, 9 cleared, of which 8½ acres were in crop for each, on an average. In all these cases log houses have been put up by the settlers. These tables give a fair view of the progress of settlement in the forests, when the settler has not sufficient funds to expend on clearing land, but must rely chiefly on his own labour and exertions.

There is another error that settlers are liable to in the estimate they make of a lot of wild land. I have seen estimates and calculations of the produce that might be expected from new land, from which a stranger would infer that any lot of land he would purchase

in Upper-Canada, he might expect that every acre of it would produce, when merely cleared of the wood upon it, at the rate of 25 bushels of wheat to the acre, or more. There may certainly be many lots that are all capable of producing wheat, but there are other lots that will be found of very mixed quality of soil, and requiring much draining before they can be profitably cultivated, and perhaps considerable portions that would not pay for cultivation, only fit for pasture, or to produce wood. I do not make this statement to discourage settlers, but to prevent them from entertaining erroneous expectations which could not be realized in any country on the globe.

There are few farms in England at this day, though long it has been occupied, and cultivated better than any other country, that would not show some inferior land, requiring draining and improvement. How can it then be expected that farms are to be had in the forests of America that will have no inferior land, or require any expenditure but that of clearing off the wood, and sowing the seed? Farms may be cultivated in this way certainly, but strangers may rest assured that the crops that will be produced by such management will be far short of yielding the large returns attributed to them; except small portions of land that are very favourably situated. I offer these remarks in order that emigrants may expect to find British America in some degree like other countries; that though the soil in general is good, yet it will only produce crops in proportion to the skill and good management applied to their cultivation. Though the country has not much bogs, almost every part of it requires draining, and constructing proper drains through a forest lately cut down, is a work of some difficulty. There is no doubt that much of the lands in Canada produce good crops of wheat with cultivation that would be considered in Britain very defective indeed; but, nevertheless, I would by no means hold out this circumstance as encouragement to strangers that they could expect good crops in British America without adopting a judicious and regular system of improved husbandry. There is sufficient encouragement to the skilful and industrious farmer, in a permanent title to lands, and in the almost total absence of rents and taxes, to settle in British America, without its being necessary to offer the prospect of obtaining abundant crops by the least possible expenditure of labour in their cultivation. Any competent farmer who travels through the settled parts of British America, will see in every direction he goes, a great necessity for improvement in the system of agriculture, and the breeding and management of live stock. Whatever be the present produce from agriculture, it might unquestionably be vastly increased by adopting a better system of management throughout.—*Evans.*

CABBAGE.

The cultivation of cabbage for the common purpose of farming will be still less profitable in these provinces than turnips or mangel-wurtzel, however highly the cultivation of this vegetable may be recommended elsewhere. For some time to come, it will be best only to cultivate such roots as are easy to manage, most certain to produce a crop, and after the crop is raised, least difficult to preserve during our severe winter, for future use. It is very dangerous to commence an improved system of agriculture by too many speculative improvements, with such an agricultural community as we have in British North America, who cannot afford to risk capital without a reasonable prospect of a return. Those who have abundant capital, and are fond of speculation and experiments, may be allowed to make them, without exciting any jealousy amongst their neighbours, whose means may be more limited; and from these experiments they may learn and profit, without any cost to themselves.

The allowance of cabbage for a cow is from 100 to 150 pounds daily, and for a sheep 10 or 12 pounds, besides a moderate allowance of hay. As cabbage is cultivated in British America principally for human food, it may be interesting to some readers to know how it is preserved for this purpose in Germany, and other countries, for winter use.

Salted cabbage, or sauerkraut, is thus prepared. Any sort of cabbage, turnips, and kidney beans, may be prepared in this way; but white, compact-headed large cabbages are preferred. The first process of preparing them is to scoop out the interior part of the stalk with an iron instrument or scoop; they are then cut into small shreds by a wooden machine composed of a flat board or tray, which has a ledge on two sides, to steady a box or frame into which the cabbage are put. In the middle of the board are four

flat pieces of steel, similar to the steel part of a spoke shave, placed in an oblique direction; and the near end of each being a little raised up with small spacers between each, to let the stalks fall down into a tub placed underneath to receive them. The cabbages are then put into the box before described, which is pushed backwards and forwards, when the cabbages, being cut by the steel, fall into a tub placed below. A barrel stands by ready to receive them when cut, the sides of which are first washed with vinegar. A man stands on a chair by the barrel, with clean wooden shoes on, whose business it is to salt and prepare them, which is done in the following manner: the man first takes as much of the cut cabbage as covers as much as four inches above the bottom, he next strews upon it two handfuls of salt, one handful of unground pepper, and a small quantity of salad oil; he then gets into the barrel, and treads it down with his wooden shoes, till it is well mixed and compact. He next takes another layer of cabbage, and puts salt and pepper on it as before, and treads it again, and so goes on till the barrel is filled. A board is then placed on it, and on the board some heavy weights are put; and it remains so ten or fifteen days, when it partially ferments, and a great deal of water swims on the surface; it is then put into the cellar for future use. The men who prepare sauerkraut in Germany, are Tyrolese, and carry their machine from house to house.

There are several other plants which might be cultivated in the fields for their roots or leaves as food for man or cattle, in a recent state. Of these I shall only notice chicory, and rough comfrey.

The chicory, wild endive, or succory, has long, thick, perpendicular roots, a tuft of endive or lettuce-looking leaves, and when it shoots into a flower, its stem rises from one to three feet high, rigid, rough, branched, and clothed with leaves and blue flowers. It is found wild in dry calcareous soils in England, and in most parts of Europe of similar or greater temperature, it is also found in Canada, and considered as a weed. It is cultivated in France as an herbage plant, and in Germany and Flanders for its roots, from which a substitute for coffee is prepared. It is supposed that on poor soil this plant is superior to all others, and will yield a greater quantity of sheep food on such soils than on any other at present cultivated. It also thrives well on bogs or peaty soils. It is said to do well for soiling cattle and swine, and is made into hay in France and Lombardy. It is objected to in England, on the ground of its rising and becoming a vivacious weed in succeeding crops. I have no experience of this plant, and therefore I cannot particularly recommend it to the notice of farmers.

The rough comfrey, a perennial from Siberia, has been lately brought into notice in England by D. Grant, a nursery man at Lewisham, and tried by a number of cultivators. Cattle of every kind are said to be fond of this plant; and so great is its produce on good soil, that Mr Grant thinks an acre might be made to produce 30 tons of green fodder in a year. He has grown it to the height of seven feet as thick as it could stand on the ground. The plant is of easy propagation, by seeds or by division of the roots; the better way would probably be to sow in a garden, and transplant, when the plants were a year old. As all the symphytums are plants of great durability, this species, if once established would probably continue to produce crops for many years.—*Gardener's Magazine, vol. 5, Country Times, May, 1830.*

CATTLE EPIDEMIC—At the Annual Meeting of the Royal Agricultural Society, in July, at Liverpool, an able Report was made by Prof. Sewell, on the recent epidemic which has made such destruction in cattle throughout the Country.

The Report was formed on about 600 communications from different parts of the Country. This Report will appear in the Journal of the Society.

Like the cholera the cattle epidemic has been several years in traversing Europe from east to west, and the past season has proved fatal to thousands of cattle in England, and at the present time is committing fearful ravages among the cattle of Ireland.—*Cultivator, Oct., 1841.*

When a horse is sick in winter, he must be covered. Every humane and reflecting person must rejoice at the leaving off the fashion of cutting off the horses tail. It is clear that nature produces nothing in vain. The tail may be trimmed; but never forget that a horse, harrassed by flies, has no other means than his tail to brush them off, and that it may prevent accidents in keeping him to stand quiet.

From the Cultivator, for March, 1842.

CULTURE OF BUCKWHEAT—*Messrs. Editors.*—I wish to know on what kind of soils buckwheat will grow the best? And whether it is not a great exhauster of the soil? and whether it can be profitably turned under as a green crop? It being objected to by some, that the acid which it contains tends to render the soil unproductive.

L. DEGRAND.

Soils rather light than otherwise are the best for buckwheat. On heavy clay soils it rarely succeeds. From 30 to 40 bushels an acre are not an uncommon crop on soils adapted to its culture, and properly prepared. Buckwheat is not a greater exhauster of the soil than other plants which yield the same amount of straw and grain when removed from the field. A few years since we saw a heavy crop of buckwheat on a piece of land from which the owner assured us he had for thirteen years in succession taken a similar crop. This was in one of the southwestern counties of the state; the soil a light yellow loam. Buckwheat is extensively used in Germany and some other parts of Europe as a crop for a green dressing, and is highly prized. In England, turneps fed on the ground are preferred, as in that way food for animals and the dressing of the soil is at once effected. It is very probable that on a soil divested of alkalis, too liberal dressing of any green plant might prove hurtful at first; but such instances must be very rare, and a small quantity of ashes or lime strewed over the field would prevent the possibility of such a result.

A FARMER PENNYWISE AND FARMER POUNDWISE.

There is a farmer Pennywise, with whom I am acquainted, will occasionally raise a good heifer, steer or colt, for his neighbors keep good breeds, and he by accident will be occasionally benefitted thereby. When he has such an animal in his flock, he is apparently uneasy until it is disposed of; and after selling such an animal, a heifer, for instance, if you follow him into the house you may hear something like the following:—"Well, my dear, I have sold the big heifer for fifteen dollars. Is not that a good price for a heifer of her age?" "Good price indeed," his wife would reply, "you had better have sold two of them little cat-ham'd, crooked-legged, scrawny things that you always keep for cows. The reason that our cattle look so bad, and that we sell so little butter and cheese is, that you will sell the best heifers." Poor woman! I pity her; her pride and ambition are injured, and her children and self in rags, because her native industry and economy are cramped by the foolish and niggardly policy of her husband.

The picture is reversed in farmer Poundwise, who always keeps his best animals until full grown; then selecting his best breeders for his own use, and selling the rest. If he has a good young horse, he will say that he will make a fine team horse; a mare, she will make a good breed mare. "And what will you do with that?" says his neighbour, pointing to an ordinary animal.—"Between you and I," says he, "I shall sell that colt the first chance. Such an animal spoils the looks of the rest, and will not pay for keeping." Thus he will sell his poor steers, heifers, sheep and pigs at the first offer. If not sold, he would fatten those that would pay the expense, and give away those that would not. Not pay the expense of fattening! Are there any cattle, sheep, or hogs, that will not pay the expense of fattening? Reader, take some of each, of the real Pharaoh breed, feed them until fat, keep an exact account of the expense, and you can answer this question yourself. In this way farmer Poundwise always has valuable stock; his steers are ready sale and command a good price; his horses are the best in the neighbourhood, and the first to be looked at by purchasers. So with all the animals that he raises. Pennywise, on the contrary, is thronged with an ill-shaped, worthless stock that none will buy and pay the expense of raising; which are continually eating out his substance and making no return. Thus Pennywise drags on a miserable life in the road to ruin, while Poundwise moves easily and happily along in the road to wealth.—*Maine Cultivator.*

From the Anti-Slavery Standard.

BRILLIANT WHITEWASH.

Many have heard of the brilliant stucco whitewash, on the east side of the President's house at Washington. The following is a receipt for making it, with some additional improvements learned by experiment:

Take half a bushel of nice, unslacked lime, slack it with boiling

water, covering it during the process, to keep in the steam. Strain the liquid through a fine sieve or strainer, and add to it a peck of clear salt, previously well dissolved in warm water; three pounds of ground rice, boiled to a thin paste, and stirred in boiling hot, half a pound of powdered Spanish whiting; and a pound of clean glue, which has been previously dissolved by first soaking it well, and then hanging it over a slow fire, in a small kettle, within a large one filled with water. Add five gallons of hot water to the whole mixture; stir it well, and let it stand a few days, covered from the dirt. It should be put on quite hot; for this purpose, it can be kept in a kettle on a portable furnace. It is said that about one pint of this mixture will cover a square yard upon the outside of a house, if properly applied. Brushes more or less small may be used, according to the neatness of the job required. It answers as well as oil paint, for wood, brick, or stone, and is cheaper. It retains its brilliancy for many years. There is nothing of the kind that will compare with it, either for inside or outside walls. Coloring matter may be put in, and made of any shade you like. Spanish-brown stirred in will make red or pink, more or less deep according to the quantity. A delicate tinge of this is very pretty for inside walls. Finely pulverized common clay, well mixed with the Spanish brown, before it is stirred into the mixture, makes a lilac color. Lamp-black in moderate quantities makes a slate color, very suitable for the outside of buildings. Lamp-black and Spanish brown mixed together produce a reddish stone color. Yellow ochre stirred in makes a yellow wash; but chrome goes further, and makes a color generally esteemed prettier. In all these cases, the darkness of the shade will of course be determined by the quantity of coloring matter used. It is difficult to make a rule, because tastes are very different; it would be best to try experiments on a shingle, and let it dry. I have been told that green must not be mixed with lime. The lime destroys the color, and the color has an effect on the whitewash, which makes it crack and peel.

When walls have been badly smoked, and you wish to have them a clean white, it is well to squeeze indigo plentifully through a bag into the water you use before it is stirred in the whole mixture.

If a larger quantity than five gallons is wanted, the same proportions should be observed.

L. M. CHILD.

From the Maine Farmer.

CURE FOR THE HOOF BOUND.—Dear Sir—I have lived within a few days of 71 years, have owned between ten and twelve hundred horses, many of which have been troubled with what is commonly termed hoof bound, in their forward feet. I have tried a great number of experiments to effect a cure, but never until lately could. But now within about eighteen months I have tried one more experiment which works well, I was told by a stranger that oiling the scab, which grows on the inside of the fore leg with neat-foot oil until it becomes soft, which will be in a few days, then take the scab off, and keep it well oiled, say apply the oil every two or three weeks for eight or ten months, and the horse will be well. I have two old mares one is 20 years old this spring, the other I suppose about 12 years, both became lame in one of the forward feet, the hoofs became much contracted, the one which is the youngest was so lame that the owner made a present of her to me, she could not be used at all, I turned her out to pasture, took off her shoes and applied the oil, and did not use her at all for fourteen months, and she is well, the other I used all the time, and she is well, and the hoofs look quite natural. The whys and wherefores are quite out of my ken.

J. JEWETT.

BURNS AND SCALDS.—The pain of a burn or scald on such parts as the finger, may be greatly assuaged by instantly dipping the part in cold water, or applying to it any cold moist substance—mint from the street is as good as any thing. But the sudden dipping of the whole hand or foot into cold water, may prove dangerous to a delicate person, by causing a too quick flow of blood to the heart and therefore should be resorted to with extreme caution. The safest and best application to either a severe burn or scald is sweet cotton. In many cases it is applied perfectly dry to the part, and in others, it is wetted on the side next the sore, with a mixture of lime-water and linseed oil. A rag wetted with some substance may be used where cotton cannot be had; but cotton is best, and no house should be without a quantity of it.

'There is some sry-le about me,' as the hog said to his pen.

From the Albany Cultivator.

TRIALS OF PLOWS.

In our first and second numbers of the Cultivator, for last year, we gave a full account of this implement, and the results of numerous experiments, made in England and in this country, to ascertain the form best adapted to remove the soil perfectly, and at the same time require the least draught, or, in other words, be the easiest for the team. Since that time the subject has continued to receive public attention; the makers of plows have redoubled their efforts at improvement, and the most active exertions have been made to produce implements as perfect as possible. This is the more gratifying, as the plow ever has been, and will continue to be, one of the most essential implements of agriculture, as well as the most common; and every improvement that shall render it better adapted to general use, and spare the labor of our patient animals, will be widely felt. Until the means of measuring the draft, by the dynamometer, became common, the vast difference existing in the power required to move them, was not known or understood. A plow was a plow; so, at least, the farmer considered it; and though the teams used might have told a different story, had their opinions been asked, or their distress when at work been admitted as evidence, there was for years little effort made for rendering their construction more philosophical, or consistent with the obvious principles of mathematics. The idea that a philosopher could know any thing about a plow, was scouted as absurd; and we well remember the ridicule, not to say suspicion, with which the celebrated essay of Mr. Jefferson, with its reasonings and diagrams, was received by the farming public.

The annual agricultural meetings and fairs, with their plowing matches, have contributed much to bring and keep the subject of plows before the public mind; and those of the last fall have, in many instances, had particular reference to this great element of good husbandry. Massachusetts has, in this respect, taken the lead; and the trial of plows at Worcester, in 1840, did much to invite the attention of agriculturists, both at home and abroad, to the necessity and possibility of improvement. The plows of Howard, Prouty & Mears, Ruggles & Co., all of Boston, and all deservedly celebrated, are among the finest specimens of mechanic and scientific skill the country has yet seen. The improvements made during the past year in their plow, by the last named firm, have rendered it at least equal to the best of the New England plows, in the opinion of those competent to decide. The estimation in which the Howard plow is held, may be inferred from the fact, as stated in the New England Farmer, that the makers have received orders, during the past year, for four hundred more than they were able to provide.

The fair of the N. Y. S. Ag. Society brought together a great number of plows, as well as other agricultural implements; and although the trial, owing to the circumstances stated in the Report of the proceedings, was not as perfectly satisfactory as it might have been, still it was sufficient to show a great improvement had been made in the form, mechanical execution, and ease of draft, over those that had preceded them. At this fair, the Motville plow, which received the first of the regular premiums, the Laughlin plow, and the Wisconsin plow, as well as one presented by Ruggles, Mason, Nourse & Co. to the editors of the Cultivator, but not offered for the premiums, attracted much notice. But the double mould board plow of Messrs. Mooers & Slater, from the excellence and novelty of its construction, the facility with which it would operate on side hills as well as on level land, and its ease of draft, rendered it deservedly a favorite implement, and the honorary premium was deemed well awarded. It was supposed by many very good judges of plowing, that the resistance offered by the land side share would increase the draft sensibly, but the result showed that such was not the case.

The trial of plows which took place under the direction of a committee of the American Institute, at New York, was very well conducted; and although the number of plows on the ground was not as great as at Syracuse, the trials with the dynamometer were more satisfactory. It is to be regretted that some of the favorite Massachusetts plows had not been present for competition, as a full investigation and understanding of the matter requires repeated and careful comparison of plows in the same soils, and as near as possible under the same circumstances. We believe that such will hereafter be the case. The manner in which the report of the trials of plows last year at Worcester was presented, renders a comparison of the actual draft used there and at New-York, difficult; but

as the mode was adopted at New-York that English experimenters have used, a comparison between the plows of England and Scotland, and those of this country, is more easily made. The following table, which we find prepared at our hand in an account of the New-York trials, given in the Brooklyn Star, we transfer to our columns with pleasure, merely remarking that we have verified the correctness of the foreign results, by reference to the reports in the Journals of the English Royal Agricultural Society, and the Scotch Highland Agricultural Society, from which they were taken. The reader will see that the best British plow, Yester No. 1, weight 170 lbs., draft 380 lbs., removed a furrow slice of only 10 inches by 6, while the best American, Barnaby & Mooers' double mould board side hill plow, (the same that received the premium at Syracuse,) weight 142 lbs., draft 350 lbs., removed a furrow slice of 12 inches by 8, or nearly twice as large. We are gratified to learn that this plow, which received the premiums at Syracuse and New-York, has been presented by the Institute to the Royal Agricultural Society, and that doubtless it will be subjected to comparison with the best plows of that country. In examining the list of Agricultural implements, we have often remarked the fact, that English plows range in prices from \$20 to \$30, while the best improved American ones do not cost more than from \$10 to \$15. The table will be understood without further explanation.

NAMES OF PLOW.	Weight of Plow.	Draft by dynamometer.	REMARKS.
Hart's, English.....	140 lbs	400 lbs	Furrow not well taken out
Ransome's wheel, do.	168	480	Best furrow not well laid up.
Yester, No. 1, Scotch.....	170	380	Clean furrow.
" 2, English.....	136	440	" "
Scouler's swing, do.....	150	446	" "
Hunter's, do.....	190	560	Furrow not well laid up.
Currie's, Scotch.....	170	500	" "
Coltman's, do.....	176	500	Second best furrow.
Hadden's, do.....	180	510	Third "
Neill's, do.....	185	500	Good furrow.
Wilkins', English.....	175	540	" "
Ransome's swing.....	160	452	" "
Palmer's wheel, Eng.....	230	560	Good work.
New spring, Scotch.....	189	560	" "
Sussex, English.....	189	680	" "
The following plows were tried at Sing Sing, 14th October:			
Barnaby & Mooers'.....	142	350	Best work of any American
Wisconsin.....	170	438	Second best rate.
Beebe's swing.....	451	451	Good furrow.
Minor, Horton & Co's.....	460	460	" "
Cornelius Bergen's.....	472	472	" "

The furrow slice turned by the European plows, was 10 inches broad, and 6 deep, and that by the American plows, at Sing Sing, 12 inches wide, and 8 deep.

MANURES.

From the Transactions of the Society for promoting Agriculture in the State of Connecticut.

OF MIXED FARTHS AND CREEK MUD.

What experiments have been made of creek or harbor mud from the sea flats? what of mud taken from fresh water ponds? what of the soil taken from swamps overflowed? how have they been used? on what soils, for what crops, for what grasses, in what manner, in what quantities, and what advantage has been derived from them?

Mr. Belden, of Wethersfield. A piece of land in my neighbourhood was manured with earth that had been leached to make saltpetre—the earth had been leached ten years before—the land has borne surprising crops ever since this earth has been applied. I have never witnessed so great and lasting effects from any species of manure.

Mr. Hart, of Berlin. One of my neighbours carried on to his up-land mowing a number of loads of earth from under an old barn. It has improved his land surprisingly. For several years the crops have been very great.

Mr. Abel Bronson, of Waterbury. I have tried the earth taken from the ditches in my meadows, but never found that my land received any benefit. I have carried large quantities into my hog sty and barn yard in autumn, and in the spring have manured my

Indian corn with it. I have found a load of this mixture of the earth and manure as beneficial as a load of unmixed manure, from the barn yard, or the sty. I have used the mixture, when it has lain in this situation a year, and never found any dung better.

OF YARD OR STABLE DUNG—TANNER'S BARK, &c.

What methods have been taken to augment the manures taken from the yard, or stable? What means have been found to succeed best for that purpose?

Mr. Andrew Hull, Jr., of Cheshire. I have found no manure so beneficial, on poor land, for potatoes, as the droppings of the cattle, intermixed with straw, thrown into the yard to make manure, even before it is matured.

Mr. Abel Bronson, of Waterbury. I have thrown punice, tanner's bark, &c. into my log sty, and found them to become very good manure.

Mr. Blakesley, of Plymouth. More than twenty years past, I had a large nursery of fruit trees. To prevent weeds, &c. from growing, I covered the ground over with tanner's bark. It prevented every thing but the trees from growing. After some years had elapsed, when the trees had been all taken from the nursery, I sowed the land with oats and clover. The oats were good, and the clover excellent. Since the clover has gone out, the natural grass has come in, and the land has continued as good as any I have. I have found bark one of the best kinds of manure.

I find, from experiment, that two loads of dung carried on the land in the spring, is worth three loads carried on in the fall.

PLOUGHING IN OF CLOVER, OR BUCKWHEAT.

Have any experiments been made of manuring land with clover, buckwheat, or oats, turned or ploughed into the earth before they were ripe; and has any benefit been received?

Mr. Hart, of Berlin. I have made an experiment in ploughing up a field on which I had two years before sown clover. The clover was mowed and yielded a good crop. Soon afterwards I ploughed the field, and let it lie until I found that the clover had been matured. I then ploughed it again. The land looked very well, and I supposed it much enriched. I sowed wheat, but was disappointed in it, for the crop was poor. I knew, however, that the land was much enriched, and concluded that I was prevented from having a good crop of wheat from other causes than the land not being well prepared.

Mr. Philips, of Simsbury. I ploughed up a clover field, the second year after it was sown, when the roots were full grown. It was about a fortnight after mowing the land. I let the field lie in this situation about six weeks, then harrowed it well—sowed it with wheat, and ploughed in the wheat. The next year I harvested as much as twenty bushels to the acre. The soil was rather dry and sandy.

Mr. Hooker, of Farmington. I sowed a sandy field with buckwheat. When it was grown, and in bloom, I ploughed my field in ridges, and covered the wheat. After it had lain about six weeks, I ploughed it again in ridges, putting the new ridges where the balks were before. Soon afterwards I harrowed the field, and sowed it with wheat. The next summer I harvested an excellent crop.

Mr. Belden, of Wethersfield. I have sown buckwheat, both on sandy land and on loamy land, and ploughed it in to prepare the land for wheat. I have had good crops from it, and have found the experiment to succeed to my wishes.

ACCUMULATION OF MANURES.

There are some points connected with the theory of turning in green crops for manure, upon which it may not be improper to dwell, especially as the rationale of the system appears to be somewhat obscure, and involved in the intricacy of principles which many of our farmers do not appear fully to understand.

That the mere turning in of a crop should actually enrich the soil upon which it has grown, is what many find no reason to believe. There is a difficulty, with many, in supposing that plants can grow and be matured without exhaustion of the soil, which is regarded, by many, as the principal and sole medium through which plants derive their nutriment, and to which, consequently, the plants so grown and nourished, can return no more nutriment than they receive. The physiologist, however, assumes a different position in relation to this important point. He recognizes the vegetable kingdom as divided, naturally, into three grand and distinct orders

or classes of plants, and characterizes them, according to their different modes or habits of growth, by the three distinctive appellations of *terrestrial*, *aquatic*, and *aerial*,—the first comprising that extensive order, the individuals of which are native to dry and arable lands, and which derive the most important portion of their pasturage from the soil;—the second embraces all plants to which the classical name *aquatic* may be justly regarded as belonging, whether they be in their nature strictly marine or sub-marine;—the third division contains only such as are known to derive a large portion of their subsistence, or the whole of it, from the air, and which are not, or at least appear not to be sensibly influenced by the nature or character of the soil to which they are confined.

To illustrate each of these orders by a distinct reference to individual plants would occupy more room than we have at present to devote. It will be necessary however, to say, that in selecting crops to be turned in, those ought invariably to be preferred which derive their sustenance principally from the air. A slight knowledge of vegetable physiology will be amply sufficient to direct us aright in this matter, and to unfold to us the complicated system of laws by which the all important and wonderful economy of vegetable nutrition is so admirably governed and controlled.

"Nature is a skillful workman," and orders every thing so as best to subserve the great and important purpose for which it was formed—the welfare and happiness of man.

Of the many crops usually produced by our farmers, for this purpose, buckwheat, peas and clover, are probably in best repute. It may here be remarked, that all plants of a culmiferous character, or which are distinguished by having a profusion of large and expansive leaves, are those which derive the largest portion of nutriment from the air; those plants having small leaves being gross feeders, and consequently powerful exhausters of the soil.—*Correspondent of Boston Cultivator.*

From the Farmer's Cabinet.

BIRDS ON FARMS.

The value of birds in districts settled as thickly as the county of Philadelphia, is appreciated by but few individuals. The beauty of their plumage delights the eye; their song cheers the husbandman in his toil, and gives a charm to the country which no residence can too highly appreciate. The joyous twitter of the swallow and the martin, the song of the blue bird in the spring, the delightful wild notes of the partridge, the lark, the plover, the robin, the thrush, the mocking-bird and the sparrow, awaken an interest in these companions of the farmer, which should impel him to prompt and energetic exertions for their preservation. And let me ask, was there ever a time when these interesting creatures demanded protection more than at the present period? In this country our farms are overrun by parties of worthless boys, and more worthless men, who employ their time in destroying whatever comes in their way. They break our fences, alarm and very often injure our cattle;—jeopardize the lives and limbs of our people, and the teams with which they are at work, and many of them do not hesitate to plunder us of our poultry, when an opportunity offers. They tread down our crops, and injure and annoy us in various ways, and all for the ostensible purpose of destroying the few birds which yet remain with us, which are not worth to them the cost of the powder and shot used in their destruction. When our horses are alarmed and become unmanageable in consequence of their firing, they very often refuse to abstain from what they denominate their sport, and my people have been compelled to quit their work for fear of some serious accident, and still they would persevere. Let us no longer submit to such annoyances and injury, but assert our rights boldly and fearlessly. There is a law which applies to this county, which, if put in force, is abundantly sufficient to afford our birds protection, and to rid us of this intolerable nuisance. The value of birds to a farmer, few are able to estimate. To say nothing of the songs of those warblers, to which I always listen with delight, their value in the destruction of bugs, flies, worms, and noxious insects, is incalculable. The swallow, the martin, and many others, busily employ themselves in destroying muscetoes, flies, and other tenants of the air, which annoy us with their sting, or injure us in other respects.

The robin, woodpecker, sapsucker, and various other birds, protect our orchards, destroy the worms and insects that there do us mischief, and in their absence there is no little labour required to protect and save the trees which their industry alone would relieve us from. Besides, they do their work better than we can. The

presence of a worm in a young tree is only indicated to us by the borings thrown from the orifice made by his entrance, and in removing them with a knife serious injury is done to the tree. The bird, on the contrary, eats the egg, destroys the worm when young, or if he has avoided his vigilance and got under the bark, nature has endowed the two last mentioned with a strong bill with which to strike through the bark, and long and rough tongues with which to drag the lurking villain from his hiding place, and too with least possible injury to the tree. Where is the farmer who has not seen his apple-trees perforated along the whole length of their trunk by these industrious laborers; and who has not seen such trees distinguished for their health and fruitfulness?

I can recollect when there was large orchards of healthy trees in parts of this country where it is now almost a folly to attempt to rear an apple tree. Those orchards that are near clumps of wood, may still exist here, but where there is no such harbor for birds designed for their preservation, it is in vain to attempt to rear a tree and preserve it against the destructive ravages of the insects that feed upon it.

The partridge, the plover and lark, too, feed upon insects and labor diligently to promote the interests of the farmer in destroying his enemies.—What gives a man more pleasure than when walking over his grounds, he is welcomed by the shrill whistle of the partridge,* who, grown familiar with his friend and daily companion, cheers him in his toil and delights him when at leisure?

These birds I have often seen so tame that they would scarcely leave my path, and I remember a covey that during one winter, would frequently come to my gravel walk to receive the feed that was placed there for them. They amounted to about twenty, and I set a high value upon them; but there came upon my farm, during my absence, two gunners with their dogs, and destroyed them all. I assure you I felt the loss of those birds more than I would that of the best horse in my stable.

For myself, I feel in regard to my birds as the ancients did of their household goods; nor can I control a feeling of indignation and a sense of injury, when I see my neighbors or strangers wantonly destroying them upon my premises. There are many depredators in our wheat fields that are destroyed by the partridge, for it is on these he feeds. The lark and the plover do their work in our grass lands. The sparrow, blue-bird, wren, and other small birds, labor diligently in our gardens, orchards and pleasure grounds, and they should be welcomed as agreeable visitors by all who reside in the country.

Boxes for their accommodation should be nailed to the trees, and by carefully avoiding to alarm them, and other kind means, they could be domesticated among us. They will otherwise take to the woods and other by-places, and we shall be deprived of the pleasure of listening to their cheering songs, and lose the advantages of their incessant labors.

Farmers, think of this. Let us not be unkind to our neighbors, nor deny them reasonable privileges, but do not continue to refrain from expressing a sense of injury at their depredations, and of making known to all the high value we set upon our birds.

* The Quail is called Partridge in Pennsylvania.

From the Agriculturist.

The Cranberry is an excellent fruit and worth more attention than has been paid it. It grows in marshy grounds and peaty bogs in Russia, Sweden, the north of England and Germany, also in our country. The leaves are small and oval, the stem is thread shaped, the blossoms are beautiful, consisting of four petals rolled back to the base, and of a deep flesh color. The American Cranberry differs a little from the common, and is frequent from Canada to Virginia. It is a larger plant than the former, has larger leaves, and berries of a brighter color. It is exported to England, but is not there considered equal to that of Russia. In Germany, the fruit is gathered with wooden combs, in this country, rakes. The vines are said not to be injured by raking, but rather improved, and after having been raked for several seasons, the fruit is gathered with more ease than at first. One man may gather 40 or 50 bushels in a day. As before noticed, this fruit grows wild, but may be easily cultivated, and yields a profitable crop, sometimes as much as 400 bushels to the acre. Hall, of Barnstable, has raised it for twenty years, he digs holes four feet apart each way, and plants the roots. In three years, the ground is covered with vines. In 1830, Mr. Hadyn, of Lincoln, gathered from his plantation 400 bushels,

which brought him \$400. A dry soil, with a mixture of bog earth, will produce an abundant crop, although moist earth seems to be its native place. Neill says, it is a good plan "to make a bed at the edge of the pond." He directs driving stakes several feet within the margin of it, and afterwards placing boards to prevent the earth from falling in the water, then puts stones or rubbish at the bottom, and cover with bog earth. The plants soon take root, in one year or two there will be a fine growth, the long runners take root in all directions, and of course the plant spreads rapidly. Every one knows how savory this fruit is in tarts and preserves, and it may not be amiss to remark, that it may be kept for a long time bottled in pure spring water. In England, many use dry bottles, corked so as to exclude the air. The demand for the Cranberry has been constantly increasing. The Yankee Farmer observes, "that one company last year sold in the New Orleans market six thousand dollars worth of Cranberries. Three times as much is now given for this article than was asked fifteen years ago. Four acres of land in New England, were several years ago offered for \$60, lately five hundred have been offered for it. The increased value is owing to its producing Cranberries. The last crop from it was sold for four hundred dollars." In Massachusetts, there are great quantities of Cranberries. Wet boggy lands, formerly considered of little or no use, have now become very valuable on account of their being suitable for the cultivation of the plant. Some of the farmers raise as many as 1500 bushels on 6 or 7 acres. The average price is \$1.50 per bushel. The plant may be raised from the root, slip or seed.

A HINT TO THE FARMER.—We may send to England for Durham Cows, and to Spain or Saxony for the choicest Sheep, we may search the world over for cattle that please the eye, but unless they receive the best care and liberal feeding they will most assuredly deteriorate, and eventually become as worthless, and as unworthy of propagation as any of the skeleton breeds that now haunt our rich but neglected pasture lands. We remember an anecdote in point, and will relate it by way of illustration:—A farmer having purchased a cow from a county abounding in the richest pasturage, upon taking her to his own inferior pastures, found that she fell much short of the yield which he was informed she had been accustomed to give. He complained to the gentleman of whom he had purchased, that the cow was not the one he bargained for, or in other words that she was not what she was "cracked up to be." "Why," said the seller, "I sold you my cow, but I did not sell you my pasture too."

If you purchase fine Durhams,
Or Merinos select,
Give food of the richest,
Beware of neglect;
Or LEAN KINE will greet you
(As th' Egyptian of old)
Lean kine in your pasture,
Mean sheep in your fold.

—Tennessee Farmer.

PRUNING FRUIT TREES.—If you prune your apple trees now, cut all the succours, and take off all the limbs which ride or rub each other. You will see in July, that the trees which have been pruned will appear healthier, more vigorous, and be characterized by an unusually dark green foliage, and fairer and larger fruit, in autumn, than what they produced when they were unpruned and neglected. The summer may be the best time for pruning—yet experience has taught us that these farmers who do not prune their trees in the spring, seldom prune them at all. It is as necessary to prune fruit trees, as to thin out vegetables, and the effects are somewhat similar.

WINE FROM PLUMS.—Mr. Pond, of Cambridgeport, gave us a bottle of this wine, which we regard as superior to nineteen twentieths of the wine we see in our community. It was made as follows, without one particle of alcohol: 1 quart plum juice, 2 quarts water, and three pounds molasses sugar, for a gallon of wine. It was put into kegs, left open and suffered to ferment, the kegs being kept full the meanwhile. After this process was over, it was stopped up tight, and left to stand on the lees till cold weather, and then drawn off and bottled up. This was the whole process.

A gentleman who has just returned from New Orleans, says they have had green peas there all winter. In fact there has been no cold weather at all there.—Boston Cultivator.

AGRICULTURE is the art of obtaining from the earth food for the sustenance of man and his domestic animals, and the perfection of the art is to obtain the greatest possible produce at the smallest possible expence. Upon the importance of the art it is needless, therefore, to insist—for by it every country is enabled to support in comfort an abundant population. On this its strength, as a nation, depends,—and by its independence is secured. An Agricultural country has within itself the necessaries of life, and to depend upon these there will never be wanting a host of patriot soldiers. Of the pleasure attending the judicious cultivation of the soil, we have the evidence of facts. The Villa Farms sprinkled throughout our happy land, would never have been formed if the occupation connected with them was not delightful. We have an unexceptionable witness to the same fact in the late Mr. Roscoe, the elegant and talented author of the lives of Lorenzo de Medici and of Leo the Tenth. Mr. Roscoe was the son of an extensive potato-grower near Liverpool. In the cultivation of that and other farm produce, he had been an active labourer,—and he who thus had enjoyed the delights that spring from literary pursuits, and from the cultivation of the soil, has left this recorded opinion—“If I was asked whom I consider to be the happiest of the human race, I should answer, those who cultivate the earth by their own hands.”—*Johnson.*

TEST FOR SOUND SEED POTATOS.—From the now generally diseased state of the potato, it appears to us that there is but one way to test the seed before planting, which, if properly attended to, will prevent those melancholy results that may be anticipated in the crop. It is this: Select from the potatoes proposed for seed, a dozen or two—cut them with a sharp knife into sets, then put them on the floor of a potato house, or any other place free from damp, with the skin next the floor—if, upon examining them three or four days after, it should be found that the incision has dried up, and is covered with a kind of new skin, be assured that the seed is wholesome—plant it. But if, on the contrary, the wound is found to be wet, sluggish, and spotted, touch not the unclean thing, but be certain that the constitution of the potato is exhausted. This experiment should not be tried until vegetation has completely taken place, say about the middle of April.—*Dunbartonshire Farmer.*

BORROWING.—“My dear,” said Mrs. Green to her husband one morning, “the meal which we borrowed from Mr. Black a few days ago is almost out, and we must bake to-morrow.”

“Well,” said her husband, “send and borrow a half a bushel at Mr. White’s, he sent to the mill yesterday.”

“And when it comes shall we return the peck we borrowed more than a month ago, from Widow Grey?”

“No,” said the husband, gruffly, “she can send for it when she wants it. John, do you go down to Mr. Brown’s and ask him to lend me his axe, to chop some wood this forenoon; our’s is dull, and I saw him grind his last night. And James, do you go to Mr. Clark’s and ask him to lend me a hammer; and, do you hear? you may as well borrow a few nails, while you are about it.”

A little boy enters and says, “father sent me to ask if you had done with his hoe, which you borrowed a week ago last Wednesday; he wants to use it.”

“Wants his hoe, child? What can he want with it! I have not done with it yet—but if he wants it, I suppose he must have it. Tell him to send it back, though, as soon as he can spare it.”

They sat down to breakfast, “Oh Mercy!” exclaims Mrs. Green, there is not a particle of butter in the house. James, run over to Mrs. Notable’s; she always has excellent butter in her dairy, and ask her to lend me a plateful.”

After a few minutes James returns; “Mrs. Notable says she has sent you the butter, but begs you to remember that she has already lent you 19 platefuls, which are scored on the dairy door.”

“Nineteen platefuls!” exclaimed the astonished Mrs. Green, holding up both hands, “it is no such thing—I never had half the quantity; and if I had, what a little plateful! I should never think of keeping an account of such a trifling affair; I declare, I have a great mind never to borrow any thing of that mean creature again as long as I live.”

“Little boys should be seen and not heard” as the little chap said ven he could’nt say his lesson.

It is easy to tell a good farmer by the appearance of his premises.



THE COLONIAL FARMER.

HALIFAX, N. S., MAY, 1842.

ADVANTAGES OF SCIENTIFIC FARMING.

When land covered with an old growth of wood is first cleared the soil is always in a state that will produce good crops for a number of years without manure; but after the lapse of a sufficient time to rot the stumps, it begins to fail. It is then generally ploughed and worked without much manure till it no longer pays for the labor; when it is allowed to become a pasture, and another piece of wood land is cut down and cultivated in the same way.

These pastures, on what was originally not the best kind of land, will grow poorer for fifty years; the best kinds of grass disappearing one after the other till nothing is left but “poverty grass,” or “animated oat” as it is sometimes called. This soon follows the others, and there being now very little that Cattle will eat, the ground is occupied by Mountain Tea, Mayflower, and other wild plants, soon followed by Dwarf Laurel and Creeping Juniper. The ground now begins slowly to improve, having a covering of vegetables to protect it from sun and wind, and a strong turf which defends it from having its finer parts washed deep into the earth by rains. It will now, if neglected, become again covered with wood, and finally again become fertile.

This impoverishing mode of farming upon new land is not peculiar to Nova Scotia. It has been generally practised in the American States, and many there who had farms from which they procured a comfortable living, have worn them out and removed to the far West to begin again upon new land. It is not two centuries since a very large proportion of the land in Europe was in this worn out state, but since the skill of the scientific farmer has been applied to its cultivation, much that was nearly worthless has been made very productive, and now supports three or four times as many people as it did a hundred years ago.

An English Gentleman formerly travelling through a very barren part of Germany, where very little cultivation was to be seen, but only large plains covered with heath, was surprised by discovering a very rich farm covered with excellent crops of various kinds in the midst of the barren. He found that it was owned by an old Austrian soldier, who having performed some extraordinary service had been rewarded by the Government with a tract of this barren heath, upon which a house had been built for him. He had served a long time in Flanders among a people who were skilful farmers and had paid particular attention to the way in which they managed their land, which had convinced him that the same kind of cultivation that he had seen so successful on the poor sand of the Low Countries would answer as well in Germany. He had therefore requested the Government to give him this land to try his skill upon. He had chosen a place not far from a town which would serve as market for his produce, and which was so dirty that he knew would supply him with manure. He commenced with a small piece which he broke up very deep, and manured highly, and found

produced a very great crop. He continued breaking up and cultivating according to the Flemish mode, and had at that time sixty acres in the highest state of cultivation; all fenced in ten acre lots with handsome hedges. He was then a rich man, and owed his wealth to the knowledge he had acquired in Flanders, without which he would have lived poorly upon the small pension that was allowed him.

Scotland was from time immemorial accounted one of the poorest of countries, but the last fifty years have made a wonderful change. A better education has been given to the people, and Agricultural Science has more than doubled the Produce of the land.

For a considerable time men of abilities in the American States have perceived the folly of their exhausting mode of farming, and are gone to work in earnest to improve their worn out land, with much success that they have changed the crop of Indian Corn from fifteen to fifty bushels an acre, and that of hay from less than a ton and a half and three tons, and have found in many instances that notwithstanding the additional expence, the very great crop is much more profitable than the small one, even in the first season, while the good effect of the extra quantity of manure continued several of the following seasons. They have generally found it not profitable to work no more land than they can keep very rich, and for this reason exert themselves to collect and preserve as much manure as possible. The urine of the cattle and the wash of the stables are preserved by turning them upon sods or swamp mud which imbibe them.

Much advantage is derived from a mixture of different soils; sand and gravel are useful upon clay, and clay improves a soil that is too sandy. Considerable portions of the Eastern States resemble the Southern front of Nova Scotia, the soil, like ours, resting upon what is called "primitive rock," and of course inferior to that which rests upon sandstone and limestone. In this district, which is often very stoney, swamps are found to be the most valuable land for pasture. They are drained, have an inch or two of upland soil spread over them, followed by a dressing of manure; and then sowed with clover and grass seeds. Clover stands the winter very well upon drained swamps. They should never have the turf burnt, for the effect of burning would be, to give two or three heavy crops and to leave the land in such a barren state that it will be nearly worthless.

Six sand that has a mixture of mud and shells is very useful on drained swamps.

Gravel containing many small stones seems to answer better on drained swamps than a finer soil. I have seen a small piece covered but four inches deep with a gravelly soil, of which one-third at least was small pebbles, having been dug three feet below the surface in making a cellar. It was moderately manured with rotted manure and sowed with Timothy, of which it gave a large crop for four or six years before it required manure again.

Shallow swamps are better for draining than those that have a great depth of peat or swamp mud.

It is generally necessary to make a small ditch adjoining the swamp entirely round the swamp which should be cut a few inches below the solid ground to catch the springs that come from the hills. This is best carted upon a drained swamp when it is frozen, if it has been previously thrown into large heaps, and covered with straw boughs.

Clover and upland grasses may be easily introduced into a drained swamp without breaking it up simply by giving it a top dressing of manure; but if it is broken up the grass is exposed to be thrown

out by the frost, unless the ground has a large quantity of upland soil spread over it.

Upon clayey hills such as are found at Lawrence Town and Three Fathom Harbour, the crops fail in wet seasons for want of drains; the land retaining so much water about the roots of the crop that it is nearly drowned. Upon such land a coat of swamp soil ploughed in deep, by going twice through every furrow is very useful. Water passes readily through peat, and a layer of it below the surface would always yield a passage to the superfluous water. In the middle of the Garden at the North Barracks there was a piece of ground which, though well manured, would never produce a tolerable crop; upon examining it, it was found to have under it, at the depth of about ten inches, a bed of hard red clay which water could not pass through. Mr. Dalton, the gardener, brought in twenty-five loads of peat from the swamp back of the Citadel Hill and had the ground trench-dug fifteen inches deep, putting five inches of peat at the bottom. This ground has since been as good as any part of the garden.

Small stones should never be very carefully taken off clayey ground. In England people who had hired children to pick all the small flint stones off their land, have since been glad to cart them back, and spread them again. Almost any soil will by manuring for a long time become clayey, for both stable manure and swamp mud will slowly change slate to clay, and blue whinstone to white sand and clay.

When swamp soil is used to mix with manure it should be remembered that there is a great difference in swamps. Those which are shallow and in situations where the water from the hardwood hills has been bringing leaves upon them, have a more fertile soil than the deep peat bogs formed wholly from the remains of the trees and plants of the most barren kind of land. The peat of the barren is best for fuel, but of little use upon the land farther than serving to make it more loose and open.

The peat from the barren swamp is however the best to plough in deep for the purpose of draining the land, because it does not quickly change to mould.

It is often the case that the inhabitants of a rough rocky region like the southern front of Nova Scotia, when they hear of lands where great crops are raised for a long time without manure—where the ground is level, mellow and free from stones—and where there is little or no winter, wish that they were inhabitants of such a climate, and that they could leave their children where they would not be compelled to work as hard for their living as they have done themselves. Such wishes are very natural; we all carry about a spirit of discontent and an aspiration after something better, and are as unwilling to see that the cause of our discontent is in ourselves, as we are to look steadily at the sun: we therefore ascribe it to the lack of something we have not, but which we wish we had, and not a few believe, that all that is necessary to make them happy would be found by removing to some other region, which appears a second Eden to their fancy, yet if they try this expedient they always fare like the man who removed from a haunted house, who as he stood by the truck that was taking the last load, was addressed by a neighbour who said, "So you are leaving us." "Yes," replied the Devil popping his head out of the bung-hole of an empty cask, "We are all a-going." But unfortunately the region where discontent will not follow us has not yet been discovered.

Near the seaboard of the Eastern States the soil is generally poor and rocky. The climate so cold that the corn is often injured by the frost, yet the inhabitants of this poor land are not the least wealthy portion of the Union. In Europe there is no district

which has so fine a climate and soil as Italy—none where the people are more miserable and oppressed. A woman dare not walk into Naples and sell a basket of eggs or butter till she goes to the Custom-house and pays a tax upon it; if her children are calling for bread, she dare not bake a cake for them—she must go to the oven belonging to the King or the Lord of the land, pay the tax and bake there. If there is a great crop of olives, some farmers are obliged to let them rot, because they are not allowed to make themselves a press, they must pay the Lord for the use of his, and often he does not have enough when the crop is good. There are lawyers innumerable, but no justice can be obtained in a court, and the country would not be at all habitable, were it not that some thousands are annually assassinated. The oppressor knows that if he provokes a man beyond all bearing, the oppressed person can readily hire a Bravo to kill him, and to these Murderers by profession the people are indebted for the little protection they have. The East Indies is a fertile country. It is said that sufficient food could generally be raised in one year to support the inhabitants for three: yet we often hear of thousands dying there with famine. From the evidence on Mr. Hastings' trial it appears that a Collector goes to gather the taxes attended by a party of soldiers carrying cords and whips, and that he frequently finds all the huts of a village empty, the inhabitants having heard of his coming, and run away. This was never the case in Sweden or Norway, nor will it ever be the case in Nova Scotia. The greatest evils that mankind suffer come from their fellow men. They who live by the labour of others will always lay as heavy burdens on the labouring class as they are able and willing to bear, but men who are always obliged to work hard to procure a living and to face the storms of a Nova-scotian winter will necessarily retain so much strength of body and energy of mind that they will never submit to unreasonable impositions. Upon a very fertile soil in a very mild country the human race degenerates, Indolence reduces them to such a state that they become the prey of all who choose to plunder them. India has often been overrun and ravaged by the hardy inhabitants of the North.

The man who is weary with hard work finds great pleasure in resting, and sometimes thinks that if he could live without work he should always enjoy this pleasure; but this is a delusion. We must pay for all our pleasures in this world; without hunger and thirst we can have no pleasure in eating and drinking, and without previous weariness we cannot rest. No man is happier than he who by constant hard work procures a comfortable living. Few are more discontented than they who have the means of living without doing anything. The farmer has no cause to envy the merchant, he whose only exercise lies in calculating and writing, often feels a depression of spirits more insupportable than great bodily fatigue. A proportion of those who become merchants acquire wealth which enables them to live at an expense which few farmers can afford, but be it ever remembered that all the wealth of the Indies can never purchase cheerfulness, sound and refreshing sleep, and a good appetite—of these good things no class upon earth has a greater share than the farmer, while at the same time he has the satisfaction of knowing that his employment is always both innocent and useful, and that he is not enriching himself by impoverishing others.

BEARS.

In new settlements a number of years frequently elapse before any injury is received from this animal by the farmer, but there is reason to think that the Bear who has once destroyed any cattle or sheep will as long as he lives continue to molest them, but he will

very rarely escape the skillful hunter who sets a gun for him in the place where he has killed an animal, as he almost invariably visits the place again in two or three days. A lane should be fenced by two rows of stakes about three feet long driven into the ground within four inches of each other. This lane should at each end be three feet wide, but near the middle not more than two feet. A dead sheep or pig, a large fish, or a piece of a dead horse or ox should be laid in the center of the lane for bait. The gun should be 25 or 30 feet from the bait, lashed fast to two young trees, stakes driven firmly into the ground. It should range with the center of the lane, and, at the bait, should be levelled to the height of 22 inches above the surface of the ground. A line from the trigger is fastened to the end of a spring-pole, such as is used for snaring Rabbits; the end of the pole being under a short stick, the ends of which are sharpened wedge-like and fixed in notches made in a pair of stakes or small trees. The spring-pole should be so fastened that it will, when released, fly four or five feet, and it must not be fastened to the little stick, but only secured in its place by passing under it. A line must be fastened to the bait, which is carried out of the lane and after passing one stake is again brought into it, and fastened to the little stick which confines the spring-pole. It should be well soaked with water, or else allowed a yard of slack rope to prevent the effects of its shrinking, and the same precaution is necessary for the line attached to the trigger. It is carried round the stake that the Bear may pull the little stick away, and release the spring pole, if he carries the bait towards the gun, as well as when he carries it from it. The stakes which form the lane should be cut at least fifty yards from the place, and the tops of the stakes covered by sheets of moss turf from old logs or rocks, or rubbish with swamp mud. When this work is done, the gun should be unbound, loaded with a ball and buckshot, and again lashed in place, the lock covered with birch bark to secure it from rain, and a few small dead bushes placed so as to partly conceal it. The little stick that lies in the lane should also be covered with leaves or moss. If the Bear should not come the first night, the gun should be primed anew. He will rarely fail to come by the third night. This mode of destroying bears is so sure that the writer has known a person who killed seven Bears, three Loup-cerviers, and three Dogs, before he once failed to kill when he had set his gun. The Bears are more shy of the common deadfall traps than they are of guns, but they may be caught in these traps in the month of April, being then, generally, very hungry. They have certain fishing places on the streams which the Gaspareaux enter in the spring, and they generally come to these streams ten days or a fortnight before the fish, and at this season the Indians were accustomed to set traps along the rivers within half a mile of each other, and rarely failed to catch some of them. Steel traps if properly made are the surest, as they may be covered completely, but none of the imported traps will hold bears; they may however be made here by a Blacksmith who can make a good spring that will bear to be used for twenty-four hours under water. They should be made very strong in every part. The jaws should form three sides of a square by which means a considerable part (often one half,) of the point of the springs is lost. As a single spring of sufficient strength will generally break, there should be two double springs at each end of the jaws. Many bears have been caught in traps of this kind. Beaver oil is the best bait for both Bears and Loup-cerviers, when a steel trap is set for them. It may sometimes be procured from the Indians. There are in the hinder parts of the Beaver, analogous to the bags which hold the Castor, two bags of the size of pullets eggs, filled with oil which has a very strong and most

ful scent, wholly unlike that of the Castor. A pair of these sufficient to bait a thousand traps; it is only necessary to dip all twigs in the oil and stick them about the trap; they will be enticed to a great distance. The Loup-cervier will be generally caught enough to go into a dead-fall trap made like a small bear-trap and well baited. They are most easily caught on ground where the Carriboo feed in winter, as they always are near them at that time and destroy a considerable number of them, but they generally remain for three or four weeks after the Carriboo have left the barren. As this animal eats its own species when dead, it is necessary to visit the traps daily, or a considerable part of the skins will be destroyed. The Loup-cervier generally inhabits thickets on the edge of an open barren, and lives most of the year upon herbs.

POTATOES.

Never use very dry, mealy, well ripened potatoes for seed, if you procure seed of the kind you wish for, which is watery, in consequence of being planted too late to ripen. This last always grows most freely; and very dry potatoes of some kinds will prove stems affected with the English disease, "the curl." Old ground on grass land produces the best potatoes; and potatoes bear drought much better if on grass land than when planted on stubble ground.

To grow potatoes of the first quality it is necessary to plant early, and it is not proper to plant till the weather is warm enough to make the buds of trees begin to swell, because the potato will not germinate in colder weather. I formerly for a number of years raised early potatoes for market from seed which had been sprouted by putting it near a stove and covering it with chaff slightly moistened. In most seasons these potatoes ripened a fortnight before those sown with seed which had not been previously "sprouted." As these potatoes were really more free from any strong or acrid taste than the same kind raised in the usual way, many believing that they were a peculiar kind, applied to me for seed. It was in vain that I assured them that my potatoes were the same early kind that they raised themselves, that the difference was wholly owing to the preparation of the seed which was used, and that if they would prepare their seed as I directed them, it would produce a crop of as good quality as mine, and that without such preparation my seed would not produce it. I still continued to receive applications for "seed potatoes," till having taught the art to my nearest neighbours, they readily adopted a practice which they saw was profitable, it spread from them to every side of the town. The real cause of the superior quality of these potatoes may be found in the fact, that the stems had reached their full growth before the commencement of the hottest weather. Our potatoes are of a better quality than can be raised at New York, and New York potatoes are better than those raised in a warmer part of the States. If an old acquaintance who has resided for some years in Kentucky should come to visit you; set before him a dish of good Mackerel or Trout and bluenoses of the first quality, he will prefer them to any luxury that you can import.

When potatoes are planted in gardens do not grow them for several years in succession on the same ground; they may follow beans or peas—use manure sparingly; either strawey litter, or manure from the hotbed of the preceding year—avoid chips and saw dust; they should be used for radishes, but will make potatoes scabby. Break the ground into beds, separated by trenches eight inches deep, keep the ground mellow by working it with the fork hoe, and you may raise very passable potatoes in an old garden.

There is not perhaps a better Potatoe for feeding Cattle than the

large blue, with black upright stems, called Mohawk in some places. This has yielded a fair crop in a very wet season on a clayey soil where several other kinds failed. Where Potatoes are exposed to be frequently injured by the Black Blight, or Rust, as it is sometimes called, none are so much affected by it as the small round white rusty coat, (a potatoe of excellent quality,) and none so little as the Spanish white, perhaps the worst and most prolific of all, and the two varieties which nearly resemble it, the Rohan, and the long red with many eyes. It appears that the vermin who injure our crops, whether microscopic animalcules or larger insects have a taste like our own, always preferring what we find the best. The most tough and bitter of all cabbage, the red, is little harmed by insects in gardens where it is hardly possible to prevent them from destroying the leaves of the sugarloaf and the turnip cabbage.

GARDENING.

Small seeds like those of Thyme and Sweet Marjoram should not be sowed till the ground is so dry that it can be made very fine; they should be very slightly covered, and the beds should be made very smooth by beating with the back of the spade. Parsley and Parsnips should be sowed very early; it is best to sow them in the fall. Parsnips should have the drills at least two feet apart. Onions, if wished to ripen, should also be sowed as early as the ground is fit to work. They should be where they will be sheltered from winds, and especially from Southerly winds. The ground should be highly manured, but not dug more than six inches deep. They may be sowed in drills eight inches apart, and the plants may be allowed to stand in the drills within an inch of each other. The greater part of the crop will notwithstanding be large although there will be a considerable proportion of small pickling onions, but if they were not somewhat dwarfed by standing thick, there are many seasons in which they would not ripen. A very rich soil not more than eight inches deep, resting on sand or gravel is very suitable for onions, for they will push their roots to the depth of two feet in deep rich mould and by that means be retarded a fortnight in ripening.

There is a considerable difference in hardness among the many varieties of Kidney Beans. In a warm soil and situation the best early dwarf, is the White Dutch, with large pods like those of the Case-knife runner. It has been sold in New York by the name of Thorburn's Favorite. In cold or windy situations it is generally affected with the Black Blight. The same disease in such situations ruins the Yellow Dwarf and the Cranberry Runner. The small Red Dwarf and the Canterbury are never blighted; the Horticultural Runner is also secure against this disease. This last, the Scarlet Runner, and the Mohawk, will bear earlier planting than most of the other kinds. Among the late dwarfs the white is valued, being as prolific as any, while it gives no stain to anything boiled with it. The late dwarfs generally are more prolific than the early.

REMEDIES FOR SCAB IN SHEEP.

Youatt recommends as the safest and most effectual application, an ointment made by mixing common Mercurial ointment with five times its weight of lard. A little of this is to be rubbed well in upon the head; a furrow is to be then made from the head to the tail by parting the wool so as to bring the skin in view, and a little of the ointment applied to the skin along the whole of the exposed surface. Another furrow should then be drawn on either side, and the ointment applied, and in this way over the whole sheep, rubbing in thoroughly all the ointment. For very bad cases

three parts only of lard may be mixed with one of mercurial ointment. This must be aided by giving daily a dose of two drachms (about a quarter of an ounce) of an alterative powder, composed of one part of Ethiops mineral, two parts of Saltpetre, and four parts of Sulphur. If the Sheep are housed at night the litter should be carefully removed every day, and every place where they are accustomed to rub themselves, frequently washed, otherwise they will be constantly receiving fresh infection, as some of the insects who cause the disease, or of their eggs, will always be left on the litter, and the rubbing places. The alterative should not be neglected, as outward applications have often failed wholly to eradicate the disease. Mr. McCully, of Amherst, has published an account of the success which has attended the practice of giving Saltpetre to Sheep affected with the Scab.

FOOT ROT.

Youatt's directions are, to cut away every portion of the hoof that is in the slightest degree separated from the parts beneath; also to cut off the fungus granulations (lumps of proud flesh) if of any considerable size, and to clean the foot thoroughly; it is then to be washed with a solution of chloride of lime in the proportion of one pound of the powder to a gallon of water. The Muriate or Butyr of Antimony should then be applied by means of a small swab to every naked part; lightly where the surface has a healthy appearance, and more severely where fungus granulations have been cut off, or others are springing up. If the hoof has been stripped off a considerable part of the foot, it should have a little clean Tow put round it. The foot should be dressed every day—each new separation of horn removed; and every portion of fungus should have the caustic Butyr of Antimony applied to it. It should be recollected that the foot rot is an infectious disease and proper precautions should be used to prevent its communication to the healthy sheep. Blue Vitriol is used by some persons for this disease.

The following extract from the *Albany Cultivator* is worth attending to, for the natural issue, which in horses and swine is found on the inside of the leg, is, in sheep and deer, placed in the foot.—“All sheep have an issue in the foot, between the hoofs, and when I see one of my sheep limp, I catch it, part the hoofs, and on the top of the foot between the claws, there are some coarse hairs in the hole of the issue; pull them out, and put one finger under the foot, one on the top, and press them down gently, and there will come out a thick gummy matter which stops the issue from discharging; this done the Sheep is well in a few days.”

SILAS ADAMS.

PAY AS YOU GO.

Extract from General McDuffie's Address to the South Carolina State Agricultural Society:—“I have known many men who were considered bad planters, and who made small crops yet in a series of years have grown wealthy by this very simple rule, which I once heard laid down by a friend. He never made large crops, and when asked how he got rich so much faster than his more energetic neighbours, replied, “My neighbours begin at the wrong end of the year. They make their purchases at the beginning of it, on a credit; I make mine at the end of it and pay down the cash.” And here I am reminded of a saying of the late John Randolph of Virginia, a man not more remarkable for his genius and eccentricity, than for the profound philosophical truths which sometimes escaped him, like the responses of an inspired oracle. In the midst of one of his splendid rhapsodies in the Senate of the United States, he paused, and fixing his eyes on the presiding officer, exclaimed, Mr. President, I have discovered the Philosopher's Stone. It consists in these four plain English monosyllables: PAY AS YOU GO.”

PROSPECTUS.

THE COLONIAL FARMER,

VOLUME II.

TO BE PUBLISHED SEMI-MONTHLY.

Great Inducement.

The ‘Colonial Farmer’ and Agricola's Letters and Correspondence combined.

THE CHEAPEST AGRICULTURAL PAPER IN BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

TITUS SMITH—EDITOR.

TERMS—One copy, 5s.; Six copies, 25s.; Twelve copies, 50s. Twenty-five copies, 100s. per annum, *in advance*.

With Agricola's Works, as follows:

One copy of each £0 12
Six copies of the Colonial Farmer, and one copy of Agricola's works..... 1 12
Twelve copies of ditto, with two copies of ditto..... 3 2
Twenty five copies of ditto, with three copies of ditto.... 5 17

In order to put the *Colonial Farmer* in more immediate connection with the Central Board, and to hold a more frequent intercourse with Agriculturists and Agricultural Societies, the subscriber has determined to publish the above paper—(half its present size)—every fortnight, instead of monthly, as heretofore. He has been urged to this course by numerous influential agricultural friends, and he believes it will meet with general satisfaction for its patrons.

The circulation of the work is rapidly increasing, and every possible exertion will be used by the publisher so to improve it from time to time as will make it more worthy of support. The opinions of practical farmers—and the press, however, at the present time, are so flattering, that the Publisher cannot shut his eyes to the fact, that the superiority of a periodical, almost exclusively devoted to the interests of the Agriculturist, over all others, will no distant day, be more generally felt and acknowledged.

The publisher is not sufficiently egotistical to assert that he will make the *Colonial Farmer* the best Agricultural paper in British North America—but he will endeavor, so far as practical science, and industry are concerned—to make it second to none. Well written original Essays will be procured, and appropriate selections made from the latest and best Agricultural works published in England and the United States, and attention will be paid to the publication of new inventions, and improvements in Agricultural Implements. In addition, each number will contain a statement of market prices of produce.

At least one number in each month will be embellished with executed cuts of animals or machinery—as arrangements have been entered into to secure this desideratum.

Secretaries of Agricultural Societies, and Post Masters, throughout the Provinces are requested to act as Agents.

Any paper publishing this Prospectus one week, and sending us a copy—will receive our thanks, and be entitled to the work for one year.

RICHARD NUGENT,
Proprietor

Halifax, April, 1842.

“THE COLONIAL FARMER,”

TITUS SMITH, EDITOR; R. NUGENT, PROPRIETOR,

Is published monthly at the Novascotian Office. Terms: single copy, 5s. Per annum, six copies for \$5, twelve copies for \$10, and twenty-five copies for £5—in all cases in advance.

Every description of Plain and Ornamental Printing executed with neatness and despatch at the “Novascotian Office.”