A TOUR IN AMERICA,
IN 1798, 1799, AND 1800.
EXHIBITING
SKETCHES OF SOCIETY AND MANNERS,
AND
A PARTICULAR ACCOUNT
OF THE
AMERICAN SYSTEM OF AGRICULTURE,
WITH ITS RECENT IMPROVEMENTS.

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APPENDIX; containing Extracts from "Sketches" published by J. B. Bordley, Esq. Philadelphia. To which are added, Observations by the Author. p. 669
ERRATA.

Page 351 line 23, for bull read bullock.

491 . 7 read There is a trough fixed behind the waggon when travelling; when in the cities it is put on the pole, which is held up like the pole of a curri- cicle, and two horses are placed on each side, to feed: the waggon, being covered with a cloth extended by hoops, is set so as to form a shelter for the horses, as they remain in the streets day and night, during the most severe weather.

590 . 5 read the inhabitants of which obtain from Balti- more all, &c.

669, et passim, for Boadley, read Bordley.
The manner of preparing land for every crop of grain being so fully explained in a former section, it is needless to say anymore on that head, except on potatoe land, which is generally a small proportion; as all grain is sown after either Indian corn, potatoes, tobacco, or cotton. I never saw any fresh land broken up as in England for oats or wheat: probably because what is termed fresh land is the best for Indian corn, which is the most sheltering crop to keep off the rays of the hot sun from the soil that can be produced in America, for the whole of the summer; and I believe it is
the best preparation for wheat or any grain crop for the ensuing season. Although the American planters and farmers say that Indian corn and tobacco ruin their land, I am convinced the contrary is the fact. The climate is the cause of the soil being so poor. Fourteen days' hot sun scorches up the grass much in England; but what would be the effect of eight months' continued much hotter sun, the winter then setting-in in the course of two days with a severer frost than the sharpest we ever experience, and that generally without snow? When snow falls in America, there is always sun sufficient during the following day to melt it, and expose the soil to the frost. Under those circumstances grass cannot grow, and for want of produce all soils will become poor.

The quantity of seed sown for grain crops is from three to four pecks; I believe as often three as four. When I first got into the country, I supposed there might be an advantage in sowing more seed: but I was soon convinced to the
contrary. I have known some men in England maintain that poor land ought to be sown with a large quantity of seed: but let them go to America, and they will soon be convinced of the contrary; for, of all the rich land in Gennesee, Tennesee, Alleghany county, Miamese, &c. there is not any will bear more seed on an acre than four pecks; nor do I believe the highest produce to be above fifteen bushels per acre: a great part of those lands will not bear wheat at all; and, from all the information I can obtain, they are much of the same nature as the other cultivated parts of America, but fresh land. There is a sameness in all the American land I ever saw—none nearly so good as in England.

Barley is very frequently sown in the autumn, which generally yields the greatest produce. The sort of barley sown in the fall is termed in Great-Britain big or beer. The long-eared barley is called spring-barley. As to battledore or sprat barley, I never saw any; nor I do not believe there
is one foot of land in America naturally capable of producing a grain of battledore barley.

Of wheat there is an early white kind, very much in use at present; concerning which, it is said that some observant man picked up a single ear that was much earlier than the rest, and that all this has been produced from it. The wheat before that time was what we call red purkey, and is in great use now. There is a sort of bearded wheat which is raised in that country, later in harvest, but not in general use.

Oats are some of the Poland kind, and are sold higher than any others. The greater part is what we in England call short smalls: but they may be fairly termed long smalls; for of all the productions of America, oats are the worst: in many cases they do not weigh above six stone per sack, fourteen pounds to the stone; and they are of a nasty dingy colour, as if they had had rain; or, when that has not been the case, I believe, a sort of mildew—as the
barley frequently catches in America what they term the rust, and we call the mildew.

Rye is the same as in England, white and black; is very good in quality, and equal to ours. In general, the soil seems to suit rye. It makes most excellent bread, and as fair as some of our English wheat-bread. The rye-straw grows longer in proportion than that of any other grain, and nearly to the same length as rye in England; and even an observing man might expect the produce to be nearly the same, but it is not.

The produce of wheat I thought from one to ten bushels per acre the average; but Mr. Jefferson says not: in Virginia three bushels and a half; Maryland the same. I am persuaded that from twelve to fifteen bushels is the highest: and I do not think, that, during the time I was in America, I saw fifty acres that had from twelve to fifteen bushels per acre. I have been told of from twenty to thirty, nay as high as a hundred: but I never saw any such. I
rode some miles to look at one of the American hundred-bushel crops, mentioned to me by what in America is termed a man of veracity. I did not expect it to be a hundred bushels: but I did expect it to be something extraordinary. The ears, the gentleman told me, were more than one foot long. But when I got to the place, the wheat was harvested. I went into the barn, and got on the mow; yet did not find an ear above two inches and a half long: I am of opinion that there might be ten or twelve bushels per acre. It had stood very thick on the ground: for I went to see the stubble. This wheat had grown on land highly manured, about four acres, within half a mile of a city.

The produce of barley, in the Northern States, from the best information, is, in good crops, from twelve to twenty bushels per acre, and much better in quality than in the South. The weight is from forty to forty-five pounds per bushel, and a rare sample fifty pounds; but that seldom happens. Long-Island produces the best. New-
England produces a great deal of barley, but cannot produce wheat, even for the use of the inhabitants, who procure their flour from Virginia. The wheat in the Northern States takes the rust, or scab, the same as our mildew. The quantity of seed sown is from three to four pecks per acre of barley. In Virginia the barley is much lighter than in the North, and would not at all be used for malting in England; nor would it be good to sell for any use whatever. The quantity on an acre is from six to twelve bushels, as the farmers' accounts are given.

The produce of oats is very small indeed; generally from three to six bushels per acre: the quantity sown from three to four pecks per acre.

The produce of rye is from four to eight bushels per acre: the weight I do not know, but imagine it to be the same as in England, as it has an equally good appearance. Rye is reaped with the sickle: barley and oats cradled.
SECTION XV.

The Culture of Indian Corn, and its Produce.

To prepare land for Indian corn, is in the fall to plough it, what is termed flushing it. They raise the soil in a rough manner by ploughing broad furrows; the soil being so thin that it is not turned over, but stands on the edge very much: their ploughs are of a bad construction. Then, in the latter end of April, or beginning of May, they list it out; —that is, crossing the field five or six feet asunder, setting two furrows back to back; —then they do the like the other way, which forms a sort of hill where these furrows cross each other: they then go with a large hoe, such as that its weight will break the clods, in the same manner as malls for that use, and make the mould very fine, something in the manner that gardeners do for cucumbers in the gardens of England.
In these hills they put four or five corns, and this is generally done in the first week of May. Reckoning four corns to one hill, four thousand only will be required to plant an acre containing a thousand hills. When the corn is come up, they go with their hoes, draw a little mould to the plants, destroy any weeds that may appear, and plant fresh corn—if any be wanting, which often happens. That done, they plough from those hills both ways: then they go with their hoes, work the hills again, and draw the plants of an inferior kind out, leaving two of the best plants on each hill; or, if the land be good, three, and sometimes four; and transplant those drawn out where any are wanting. However, when more than two plants are left on one hill, there will be little corn, but much tops and blades. Then they plough all the land towards the plants one way. They then sucker them; that is, take off any young sprouts that have tillered; otherwise the corn will not grow in the ear to its proper length or size, but grow
short—what they call "cobbings." This done, just before it goes into silk, they plough the land to the corn the contrary way, which is five times in all.

The expence would be about seven pounds per acre, if the work were done by hired labourers, and horses for ploughing; and the produce is generally from twelve to fifteen bushels per acre, which sells generally for from three to five shillings per bushel at the best markets: that is, if fifteen bushels, at five shillings per bushel, three pounds fifteen shillings per acre; if twelve bushels, at three shillings per bushel, only one pound sixteen shillings per acre.

The last time they plough is during the latter end of August. Then some of them sow the wheat under furrow, which is harrowed in by others in September. The ploughing is done in a skimmering manner, very thin.

That raising of Indian corn is an absolute preparation for wheat, rye, or winter barley; and, perhaps, better for the land in
that hot country than nothing, and costs little more than the seed-wheat. It is a general practice to cut the tops, and pull the blades, before they sow the wheat. The topping and blading is done by cutting the top off, with a knife, just above the uppermost ear, as there are, or ought to be, two ears on each stalk, which are thrown out about four feet from the ground. I have had from five to seven ears put out silk; but they never come to perfection.

Good corn will be from twelve to fourteen feet high; and the white corn is much higher than the yellow: but the yellow is by far the sweetest, although the tops and blades are not so abundant. There are several kinds of both yellow and white corn. The yellow is earlier than the white by one month.

The tops are set up in bunches, or shocks; the blades are pulled off, tied up in small bundles, about one pound each, and hung on one of the corn-stalks, by the tye
or band; and in two or three days it is ready to carry.

The usual method of preserving them for the winter is to make what is termed a fodder-house, by setting up long-grained posts, and laying a rail upon the top; then placing other rails on the ground, leaning against what may be termed the ridge-tree; they then lay the tops on like thatch, and the blades are stored within the house.

The husks are put into the house after the corn is gathered and husked, and given in the winter to the cattle.

The white corn generally hangs on until frosty weather, as it takes a great deal of curing or hardening, having a very thick husk and a large cobb. One leaf hangs over another, and the ear hangs downward, and would not take harm all the winter, were not the ear to drop off the stalk. It is generally gathered in frosty weather, and sometimes when snow is on the ground. One reason maybe, that it does less injury to
the wheat, as they are obliged to cart upon the land where the wheat grows. The corn is taken from the cob by hand, as it cannot be thrashed as grain is.

They have generally a husking-feast; when all the neighbours come and help to husk; and, after they have done, they have a supper, smoke segars, and drink whiskey.

This is not reckoned a beneficial crop; and, from calculation, it is not: but it must be a useful crop; for it is the whole support of America. They begin to eat it as soon as it is formed, in what is termed roasting-ears. They boil them, and eat the corn in the same manner as we do green peas, with drawn butter, and to bacon, ham, beef, mutton, or any kind of meat. The blades and tops feed the horses, cattle, sheep: the corn feeds both man and beast, and is very excellent food for fowls, hogs, &c. They eat it in hominy, mush, and bread, or cakes. The hominy is done in like manner to our creed wheat buttered,
by knocking the husk off in a wooden mortar: the mush is made of the flour, as our hasty-pudding, and eaten with milk or treacle. The better sort of people make a very nice cake, with eggs and milk, about the size and thickness of pyfleets, or what are called crumpets in London. The lower class of people mix the flour with water, make a sort of paste, and lay it before the fire, on a board or shingle, to bake, and generally eat it hot, as it is but very indifferent when cold. This is called a Johnny cake.
SECTION XVI.


For the culture of potatoes, the land is ploughed once, and harrowed once: then open furrows are made by the plough passing twice on the same place, to make an open ridge, at least three feet asunder, but very frequently four. The manure is put into it, and the potatoes cut, when they will bear it, the same as in England, with two eyes each. But it often happens that they set the refuse of the last year’s crop, not larger than an English walnut. They plant them in rows, from six to nine inches apart; then cover them with the hoe, and, when they are up high enough, plough to them twice, and draw the earth up to the roots.
with the hoe: for in many parts the soil is not very thick upon them, when two feet soil is drawn to the row on each side. To take them up, some people plough a furrow on each side, and then go with hoes, and turn the potatoes up.

The produce is generally about fifty bushels per acre: one hundred bushels are reckoned a very great crop. Indeed the produce of potatoes very much depends on the richness of soil, in all parts of the world, and the quality and quantity of dung used.

There are many sorts of potatoes in use in America. The cluster potatoe is in very general use. The wise potatoe, or what is termed the pink-eye in England, which is a light red or shaded, cuts a little red within, and is the best potatoe I ever tasted in America: but the produce is small. There are what they call the London lords, which is a large potatoe, something like the ox-noble in England, reckoned by Americans the best potatoe for production. There are what they term Irish potatoes, which in England
are called the red apple and black potatoe; and are preferred to all others, by the Americans, to eat in the spring. They have also some other sorts, for which I know no names; having taken their names from some small cause, such as the poor-house potatoes, from coming from the poor-house at Baltimore: these are a summer or early potatoe,—but not dwarf potatoe,—and they are the best, though small. I saw no kidney potatoes, except a few sent from England to Mr. Bowley, a neighbour of mine, to set: and the produce of them was very small indeed, both in size and quantity, although great pains had been taken to enrich the land they grew on.

The potatoes intended to be early are sometimes set in November, and answer well. They cover them with leaves of trees, over which is put earth; and they remain in the ground all the winter, although there are such severe frosts. The other early potatoes are set as soon as the frost breaks up. The winter potatoes, or
what they intend to preserve for the winter, are set from May to August; but the proper time is the first week in June; for, if set sooner, it sometimes happens, that, if they get forward, there are two growths; the young ones sprouting in the ground when at the size of a walnut, and putting forth tops intermixed with those set first, making a second crop. When that is the case, they seldom are worth any thing. It does not frequently happen that those set in August are worth labour.

Turnips are only in general use for the table: the land they are sown on is generally new, the wood being cleared for that purpose. The refuse-stuff is burnt, once ploughed, the seed sown, and the turnips seldom hoed. According to the quality of their land, they are very good to raise: but the land, if old, is either manured or cow-penned, the same as for tobacco. The fly, or lop, destroys them, the same as in England.

The time of sowing is the 10th of Au-
gust; and, if properly managed, they will be as early fit for use as turnips sown on the 10th of June in Great Britain; the vegetation in America being much quicker. The quantity of seed sown is generally a quarter of a pound per acre. Thus they are often very thin; but that you must expect, as it is very customary to sow timothy-grass seed amongst them; in which case they cannot be hoed; therefore, these sort of crops are about one hundred or one hundred and fifty bushels per acre. Some Americans will tell you the produce is one thousand bushels per acre, and that they sell for one dollar per bushel. So they do for one or two market-days; and sometimes at one penny each, in the spring, when not larger than a hen's egg. These are the early turnips to use in soup. The general price of the winter turnips is half a dollar per bushel.

The sorts of turnips in general use are—the old English red-top, and green-top, with a large tap-root. There are a few of
the Norfolk lily-white, and some of the Norfolk green-top, which grow very fine. The turnips are generally very sweet and good, when used on the table, from their quick growth; they are preserved for the winter in the same manner as potatoes, either put in pies or cellars.

Radishes are much in use, and very fine, growing to the size of an English carrot.

Carrots are raised; but they are, in general, almost tasteless, and nothing like those of England; the soil being too poor for them.

Onions are in the Southern parts two years raising: the first year they are about the size of such as are used in England for pickling; the next year they are set out in beds, and dibbled in; then they grow to a very tolerable size, and in quality are equal to the onions in England. In the Northern States, they raise onions in one year, and on Long-Island produce great quantities.

Cabbages are very much used; and the Savoy sorts grow very well. The Scotch,
or drum-head cabbage, is in great request, grows to a moderate size, and is used for what they call sour-cROUT, for the winter. To preserve them, they shred the cabbage into a barrel, and salt it; and when it has remained there sometime, it grows sour, and is also used as sallad, or boiled for the same purpose as other cabbages are. The early York and May are cultivated, but not in the same perfection as in England. After the first cutting of the early cabbage, the stalk dies. All cabbages, intended for winter, are either placed in a cellar with earth to put the roots in, or taken up and planted thick on a bed in the garden, and a shelter like a house erected over them, covered with pine-tree boughs, or thatched with straw, which causes the outer leaves to rot, and the whole of the cabbage to have a very unpleasant smell and taste.

Vegetables are so much used in America, that young clover is very frequently eaten for greens in the spring. The stalk of the cabbage is generally set out in the garden
for sprouts: turnips are set out in the same manner, and their tops used, both cold and boiled. Indeed, in the spring, they boil every thing that is green, for the use of the table. These sort of sprouts are sold at a quarter of a dollar per peck.

Great numbers of lettuces are raised and used.

There is a small sort of garlic which grows so abundantly as to cover some thousands of acres, and is very obnoxious to all grain-crops, so as to produce nearly as much garlic as grain, particularly the winter crops. This garlic is a very early plant, is excellent food for sheep, and might be found valuable for sheep in some parts of England, if it would not be injurious to the succeeding crops. It vegetates from both the root and seed, but never grows after the land is enriched. The seed is little larger than wheat in England.

Peas of all kinds that are set produce very well. The field-pea of England is not in use.
Garden (or Windsor) beans produce very little: as to the English field-bean, it will not produce at all. Kidney-beans are very productive, and are much in use. What are termed Indian peas, are a sort of kidney-bean; the bunch-bean is the same, and produces abundantly. They are rodded, and run to a great height. The hominy-bean is a sort of kidney-bean, and very productive.

All these sorts of peas and beans are of an unuseful kind: no sort of animal likes them—neither horses, cows, hogs, nor fowls. Therefore, they are but little worth notice, except for the table.

To show the expence of garden-seeds, &c. I insert the following bill, with which I shall conclude this section.
Mr. Richard Parkinson, in Account with M.... H....

Dr. | Dollars | Cents | Per Contra. | Dollars | Cents
--- | ------- | ----- | ----------- | ------- | -----
1799.—Aug. 26. To $\frac{1}{4} lb.$ early York-cabbage seed, | 2 0 | | By 1 barrel apples, | 3 0 |
   Sept. 15. To $\frac{1}{4} lb.$ early dwarf-cabbage seed, | 2 0 | | By 1 book, | 5 0 |
1800.—April 4. To $\frac{1}{2} lb.$ early May turnip, | 1 0 | | By $3\frac{1}{4} lb.$ wool, at 27 cents, | 0 $87\frac{1}{2}$ |
   To 2 oz. green curled Savoy, | 0 70 | | By 4 pigs, at 2 dollars, | 8 0 |
   To 2 oz. large Scotch cabbage, | 0 70 | | By $\frac{1}{2}$ bushel peas, | 2 0 |
May 22. To 1 quarter French speckled beans, | 0 25 | | By balance due in favour of Mr. Parkinson, | 18 $87\frac{1}{2}$ |
Aug. 15. To 2 lb. turnip seed, | 2 0 | | | 10 $22\frac{1}{2}$ |

8 65 |
SECTION XVII.

The Nature and Culture of Timothy Grass; pointing out the proper Sort of Land, and the Method of sowing and reaping.

The nature of timothy is very like that of wheat; it suits a clay soil,—so much so, that if the land be in the least inclined to sand, it will neither grow well nor be productive, and soon goes off. The preparation of the land is to pulverise it very fine; they frequently plough up a meadow after mowing the hay, and harrow it and sow the seed, about two quarts on an acre. —It is sown in September, chiefly alone, and yields a full crop the August following. It should stand until the head is brown. If some of the top part of the seed drop, it is better. It must not be eaten by sheep, or any other animal, the first year. It has a good after-grass, or
eddish, and may be eaten by sheep or cattle in the fall of the year. Horses are better kept from it: it is not proper to pasture. To raise seed from this grass is little or no loss to the hay, that I could perceive. I mowed it at the proper time of mowing, to make hay: for all the best seed is ripe first; and by that process all the best seed is preserved: and I found it the best way to draw all the longest timothy out by the head, after it is mown, and shake out all the bottom grass, which will leave more than one-half of the substance, and bind that drawn out into sheaves, the same as wheat, and set it up in shocks until it is ready to thrash. By shaking out the loose grass, or grass without seed, it is better to harvest and thrash. Then I took it into the barn, and thrashed it; then mixed the straw, or thrashed timothy, amongst the remaining part of the hay which I had shaken out. Thus it becomes very profitable. It sold for the same price as the rest of the hay, and only lost some weight.
The method the Americans take to preserve the seed is, they go into the meadow, with a sickle, before the timothy is mown, and cut off the heads, put them into a bag, and throw them on the ground for several days. By this means, if rain comes, it sometimes spoils the seed; and it is a hard matter to get good-growing seed in America, for want of which the crops often fail. It is a hard grass, and very good to harvest, as it will not be easily spoiled by rain.
SECTION XVIII.

Herd Grass, a new Sort of Grass; its Qualities, and the Land proper for its Culture. Some Anecdotes, and Remarks made on Sheep, &c. during the Author's Pursuit in Search of the Grass.

The great advantage of herd grass is that it grows on swampy ground where water is liable to stand: it grows in those sort of swamps with such luxuriance in America, as to produce, it is said, a greater burthen than timothy; and is much superior, in quality, to either clover or timothy. It is a much finer grass than timothy, is better hay for cattle or sheep, is hardy to harvest; and, in growing, forms a sod, which mats the land over in such a manner, as to cause it to bear the pressure of cattle, horses, &c. though previously so soft as not to bear the footsteps of a man. It is the only grass that
forms any kind of sod on land in America; for by nature I never saw a sod in the country, but where the herd grass grew. The earth is so loose as not to cause grasses to form a sod, as in England; the swamps are the very same.

As a proof of that—Mr. Boadley, of Philadelphia, in my search for this grass, gave me a letter of introduction to one Colonel Morgan, of Princeton. I had found this seed offered for sale by a seedsman in Philadelphia, and he very much recommended it; but, as I supposed that he, in all probability, knew nothing about its natural qualities, I determined to find the cultivator, and accordingly set out to see that gentleman, who is looked up to as a very improving man in the arts of breeding cattle, horses, hogs, and particularly sheep; so much so as to endeavour to give me proof that his sheep were superior to the Dishley, or New Leicesters, in England, by saying that he went to see a gentleman of the name of Mr. Saint-John, who had got some sheep
from Dishley, and they weighed several of them alive, and he weighed some of his, when he returned home, and found his sheep superior, in weight, at all ages, to those of Mr. Saint-John, which were said to have come from Dishley, in England.

Mr. Saint-John had lived some time with Mr. Bakewell. I have been in his company: he is most heartily tired of his situation; but he has bought an estate, which he is striving to sell, to return to England again. It does not do him much credit, as a pupil of Mr. Bakewell, to have bought any American land that I ever saw; for, from my first landing, I never met with any I would have accepted as a gift, to confine me and my sons after me to live upon that land and in that climate.

To return to the sheep.—I told Mr. Morgan that was not any proof of the superiority of his sheep. I would undertake to buy a ram in England, for five pounds, that should weigh, living, eighteen or twenty stone (fourteen pounds to the stone): but,
as for a Dishley sheep, that would not weigh (living weight) more than from fourteen to sixteen stone, I could not perhaps buy that for three hundred pounds. He then shewed me some fat weathers he had got, and kept like race-horses, as to fattening, with clover and timothy hay, Indian corn, blades and tops, and oats, some potatoes, turnips, &c. He had his sheep in the greatest order, as to care, I ever saw any, either in America or England. They were in houses separated in a very proper manner, and in the day-time had a fine space to walk out to take the air. He had very good stables for cattle. This was at a time when General Washington, Mr. Boadley, and others, had formed an agricultural society, and gave premiums for improvements. He had a gold medal given him for forming his fold-yard, and the only one that ever was given in America. He then, in shewing me his sheep, remarked, that there was one very fine sheep, which was of the Irish kind, large-featured, and
flat-sided. I told him I knew very little of sheep by looking at them; but, if he would give me leave to touch him, I could then give an opinion. He immediately caught him; and on touching, or handling, I found him, as I expected, to be far from fat: but I saw another amongst the flock which I thought in good condition;—he was one of the breed of sheep from Holland, that are far superior, both in carcase and wool, to any other reared in America; although they have every sort that we have in England, except the Dishley. I have been told there are of the Dishley in more than one place in America: but I disbelieve it, as I think the best of them could not live there; and that the heat of the sun would kill them.

—Mr. Morgan seemed not a little surprised that I should like the small sheep. I then took hold of the sheep of the sort from Holland, and he was one of the fattest I ever touched in America. The number of his wethers was eighteen. He then shewed me his ewes in lamb: they were in
very fine order; and, amongst them, I found some beautiful-featured ewes, which he called rat-tailed sheep: but he did not know from what stock they had descended. When I afterwards returned to my friend, Mr. Boadley, at Philadelphia, and told the story to him, he informed me they were from Holland.

I believe Mr. Morgan was somewhat disconcerted in his future plans, respecting sheep and cattle; and, probably, at the moment was not so happy with his new acquaintance as if I had commended everything he had. He then shewed me his cattle; and, among the rest, a very fat bullock, as he thought. The animal was cleaned like a horse, fed in the same manner, and tied up in a stall. I recommended to him to go to see Mr. O'Donnel's cattle, which he had imported from Dishley; and told him he would be convinced when he saw those cows, which were much fatter than his bull, although they gave milk, and had not such care taken of them,
yet were greatly superior in fatness, and their weight lay in better parts. He shewed me his farm-yard, which was a very complete place for America, but not worth describing in this work. Among other things, he shewed me some ears of Indian corn, which had nine hundred corns on the ear; and he gave me one which I brought to England.

I believe Mr. Morgan to be one of the most industrious gentlemen-farmers in that country. He follows the plough with the rest of his people, and told me he never saw but one man (who was an Englishman) that laid the land so well as himself with the plough. He showed me some of the red peas so much famed in America, and the same sort I had been informed of by Mr. Jefferson, the president. He gave me some of them to eat for dinner; but as to their flavour, I cannot say much about it, the cook having made them so hot with pepper, as to taste of nothing else. He gave me some of these red peas, and some
white peas, all which I brought with me to England. I planted the red pea, but the climate is not sufficiently hot to bring it to perfection.

To return to the sod.—He told me his father embanked a large piece of meadow, with an intention of warping it, in the same manner as he had read the English do: but the winter's frost and summer's rains had so crumbled down the embankment, which was by the side of a river that flowed over it at times, as to prevent it being of the intended use; for it would not hold water: and he was mixing dung with the bank, to make compost of it, which answered uncommonly well, so as to astonish all his neighbours with the fine crops of Indian corn, wheat, and clover, &c. which he had raised by such process. But he had none of the herd-grass: he thought, however, if I went fifty miles further, I should find it. In coming along the road, I had repeatedly asked about this herd-grass: many men in those parts called timothy by that name, and
endeavoured to persuade me there was no such grass as I was searching after. But, having seen the seed, I knew better.—Having spent an agreeable day and night, I returned back to Philadelphia; and, after many enquiries and researches, I found out the place where the herd-grass hay was to be seen. I repaired thither, and saw the sward, which had matted, and formed the best sod I ever saw in America. I am of opinion there are many loose wet lands in England that would be much improved by this grass. It is best sown in spring. I should think two bushels to the acre sufficient: the Americans sow but one. This seed might be sown with any other crop, although not managed so in America; the land it is sown on there will bear no crop of any kind but this herd-grass, and was before entirely useless. Mr. Boadley told me it used to be called duck-grass.

I took some very fine greyhound-dogs with me: but, in the first summer after my arrival in America, they all died; apparently
from the effect of heat. Two of them lived in a tavern: they were so much admired for their beauty, that they fed as well as any gentleman in the house, and were very fat during the winter. They were a profitable speculation; for I sold whelps, of four weeks old, at five guineas each.
SECTION XIX.


Cotton is raised in the same manner as tobacco, in every respect.—(See Section XXIV).—It grows on a plant about twelve or eighteen inches high, and has a husk round it like a chesnut, which opens when ripe. It requires great attention: for either sun or rain will readily injure it, and spoil the colour.

Buck-wheat is easy to raise. It is sown in August, and reaped in October. The produce is small—not more than three or four bushels per acre. It is in great use for cakes for breakfast; they are very good: by taking the outer skin off before it is ground, the flour is very white.
Rice is grown in the southern parts of America, and is said to be profitable. The culture is much the same as that of garden peas. Mr. Pinkney, a member of congress, gave me information how to raise it; and I had some thoughts of making the trial: but I found it impracticable on my land, and in the climate where I lived; the winter season continuing too long, and the weather being too variable. The south part of America is more like the West Indies, and the weather more steady.

Flax is raised in the same manner as in England. It grows shorter in general, on account of the poor soil. Instead of rating it, as is the common practice in Britain, the process they have adopted is termed rotting, by laying it on the ground, to make the outer skin divide from the bun; which causes it to rot in some parts before it divides from the bun in others, and the line is in consequence very tender. This is one reason why the boots and shoes are so bad, as they use line in the making of those articles.
I never saw hemp growing in America; nor did I see any land rich enough to bear it, although I am told there is land on which they do raise hemp; and that they rot it in the same manner as flax; which must cause it to be tender, as the line: therefore it cannot be so durable in ropes for shipping, &c.

Hops are raised in the same manner as in England: they are equal in produce, and as good in quality; but the gusts of wind and heavy rains often entirely destroy them.

Soap is made for family use at a very cheap rate, as, from the great quantity of wood burned, the ashes are in great plenty. For this purpose, they boil bones of any kind in a ley of wood-ashes; strain it off; boil it a second time; and thus make a very good sort of soft soap.

Candles are made for domestic use in private families: but I found the difference to be very little, as to expence, between that and buying. They cost, when bought,
about one shilling and six pence currency per pound.

Honey-bees are kept in America with equal success as in England; the trunk of a hollow tree being usually the hive: boxes are sometimes used, but I never saw a hive made of straw. From the great number of flowering shrubs in the woods, I should imagine that bees, with proper care, would become valuable. Honey sells in the market at about fifteen pence currency per pound.

It is remarked, in America, that all such gentlemen, or breeders of sheep, as have endeavoured to become great sheep-breeders, have, from some cause or other, been unsuccessful in the attempt. An opinion is entertained, that sheep will not be healthy in any one place long together: the rot is said to be the cause; but that is not the fact: and they say, from experience, that, if they change them from the north to the south, they thrive much better.

In cattle, the hollow-horn is a very bad complaint, and many die of it. It is some
decay in the head, and appears to be from the brain: it is pus; the horn becomes hollow, and, when cut off, a stinking purulent matter issues from it. This disorder affects the animal in severe weather; and, in the opinion of many, it is for want of food. The cow-itch is another disorder, during the summer months, something like the foul in the cattle's feet in England.

The Hessian fly is a great calamity; so much so, that in many parts of the country all ideas of growing wheat have been given up. They are to be seen on the wheat when young, then in embryo in the stubble, between the lowest joint and the second joint, in great numbers, exactly like flax-seed. They are in that state during the winter, and easy to be destroyed by burning the stubble. And, as the corn-stalks lie hid in the fields when the wheat is growing, I make no doubt that these insects lay their eggs in them. The flies come out in the spring, in the same manner as the butterflies in
England, and continue among the wheat all the summer. This insect must injure all wheat-crops where it is: but it never destroys wheat on rich land. It is to be discovered by the wheat falling down when in the ear, like what are termed in England shaffled crops.

There is a moth which gets into the wheat, and destroys it in the stack or mow after it has been harvested. Likewise a worm in granaries that quickly consumes large quantities: it is the same as that which gets into the bread on ship-board. There are abundance of weevils.

In white or garden-peas, there is a worm that eats a large hole through every pea, or nearly: and this is in embryo when the pea is green; as I bottled some, and corked them up; but in the spring there was a great number of the flies in the bottle, and the peas were all eaten through: therefore they are not to be avoided. These peas are, in consequence, not pleasant to use for the table. I suspect such numerous
swarms of noxious creatures must be injurious to the human constitution.

There is a kind of beetle, called a tumble-bug, which, in the summer forms a cave in the earth; and, when an animal drops his dung, two of those go to the place, and roll up into a round ball a piece, as big as a small walnut, which they push forwards with their fore feet or legs to their cave. It is said that there is an egg in the inside of every one of those balls. There are such quantities of these beetles, that you will scarcely see any dung left in the pasture during the summer: consequently they greatly impoverish the land.

There is a kind of grass-hopper, which eats up the meadows in the summer, and potatoes, indeed every thing that is green. They are not frequent: but when or where they do come, they destroy all before them. Mr. Gitting told me he had all his fine timothy destroyed by them one year, and every thing in his garden: they even took the bark from the currant-trees.
Locusts appear once in eleven, or, as some say, every fourteen years. They were there the last summer I was in the country. They come, like an army, in one day apparently; making such a noise and continual humming, that I wondered what was the matter. Being so many thousands, they cause a very great alarm. They remain about one month, and do much damage to all kinds of trees, by eating in a circular manner round the bark of young shoots, of every part of the tree, about three or four inches from the end, and sometimes at a greater distance. This causes great injury to the fruit the ensuing season. They are, from the Americans’ account, eleven or fourteen years generating; and, what is very strange, not one is to be seen except in those years.

There are bugs, the same as the house or bed bug, by thousands in the woods, so that I should think there is not a house in America without them.
Small black flies are so numerous, that it is usual to have some kind of poison to destroy them. For which purpose a substance, called fly-stone, mixed with sugar and water, is spread on a plate. In my house it was necessary to sweep the room repeatedly in the course of the day, during which time several handfuls were poisoned.

There is a tick or dog-louse in the woods, in great numbers: and they will fix themselves in such a manner upon the human body, as, if not quickly removed, to make the place very disagreeable for a month after. There are hundreds of those sorts of reptiles, flies, and bugs, (all denominated bugs by the Americans,) too tedious to mention, or more than I can enumerate.
SECTION XX.

The Nature of Plaster of Paris, and proper Directions given for using it. Several Experiments tried, and a Proof of its valuable Qualities.

The French plaster of Paris and that from Nova Scotia are both of the same nature: no difference is to be discerned in using them: and I am of opinion that the English plaster, ground in the same manner, would have a similar effect, as the principal use of it is, that it attracts moisture, hinders the heat of the sun from penetrating so deep into the soil, and prevents exhalation: so much so, that the earth where the turnips grewed would look much blacker in the parts to which the plaster was applied: the sun causes so great exhalation in America, that, in the evening of a hot day, the vapours rise from the swamps like the steams of hot
water on the fire; which must stop the plants from growing in so vigorous a manner as they ought to do. And the principal cause why I have found such superior advantage in the application of plaster to turnips, is its attracting the moisture, and defending the plants while young from the burning rays of the sun. It covers the soil, and keeps the ground moist and cool all the summer. Indeed, although every other plant in America will look sickly;—so much so, in the heat of the day, that you would suppose many plants would not revive again, particularly the turnips that have not had plaster applied to them, in the same field, the outward leaves turn yellow, die, and drop off;—yet those that have had the plaster, will look of a rank green and healthy: and if you go in the evening, you will see dew on those plastered, much earlier than on the others; and in the morning they will have drops of dew, when the others are parched with the heat of the sun.
The smallness of the quantity necessary is very strange: two bushels will suffice for an acre, in drills; as I did not find any perceivable difference where I had applied more: nor has plaster been found of any use but where the land was by nature rich or dunged, as it is not possible that there can be any food for plants in that sort of stone. There is a very material difference in the appearance and feeling of French plaster and that of Nova Scotia: the former feels like sand in your fingers, and is of a yellow colour; the latter sort is softer and whiter. The American farmers like the soft and white, when in the stone. Many of them buy it by weight in the stone, supposing it richer—more oily they say: but I never found any of them able to give a reason for its efficacy; and the farmers will frequently tell, that, in the same field of clover, plaster did great service one year, and none the year following. The cause seems evident. It was always in the first year, I observed,—
never in the last,—that it did good. Fine moist seasons, on fertile rich soils, make fine luxuriant pastures, and abundant crops of hay and corn, in any country: on poor barren soils not so much so; but such seasons make them greener. So may the case be with plaster. The soil may be exhausted, and want food for the plants. It is a general practice in America to let clover stand for three or four years; and the second year's crop is greater than the first, as I am told; but I never saw such an incident. The clover on my farm, when I took possession, was not worth reaping either the first or second year; nor did plaster make any difference, except in verdure: but the land was poor by nature, although called good, and thought capable of producing as fine Indian corn as need to be. Nor had the plaster any good effect on turnips, when manure had not been applied. I left a part of a row or drill unduged, to try. There were no turnips on it, although, where the plaster was applied, there was no great difference to the
eye in the plants. And further I am of opinion, from some observations I have made, that it is of much more advantage applied after a shower of rain, or when the dew is on the ground, than at any other time. But in Judge Peters’s book on plaster, it is something to the same effect:—If a plant of any kind was put in plaster, it would not grow any more than it would in a lime-heap. It does not seem, from all the use made of it in America, to have been of any utility, except in clover. The turnips are my own experiment only. I tried it on cabbage plants: in the seedling-bed they were very fine: but in the spring I put it to the cabbages; and I could not discern any difference made, although the land was very highly manured indeed; as, by way of experiment, I, in the month of October, set out in the field four thousand five hundred cabbage-plants, of the early York and early May kinds, for the purpose of trying the effects of rich compost during such inclement weather and in such poor soil, and
(as the inhabitants told me that early cabbages were so rare, and very dear in their country) I thought they would be a valuable crop, at five cents and a half each. The compost had a most wonderful effect. It is customary, when the gardeners set out cabbage-plants to stand the winter, to place them in drills, with a ridge towards the north-west side, and cover them with the boughs of trees, with the leaves on. I did the same: but, by way of trial, I left some uncovered; having an opinion the richness of the compost would preserve them: so it did; and I saw little difference between those uncovered and those covered, for the covering rotted some, where the leaves lay too close to them; and there were about as many stood the winter in one part as in the other. But their standing the winter is of little consequence: for in the spring, or at least in summer, the sun is so hot, as to cause them to run to seed; and very few out of the number set become cabbages. Clover is sown on the snow, in the
month of March, or sooner, as the weather happens to suit; and it answers very well; for it drops through the snow, gets to the soil, and takes root more early. If the clover were to be sown when the summer had set in, the sun would scorch the seed and prevent its growing. The same method is practised on winter crops.

I am not of opinion that plaster would answer so often or so well here as in America: but I doubt not of its being of great service, and especially on turnips, in hot, dry seasons. It is said to be of no service near the sea in America. The last summer I was in that country, there were more regular rains than during the preceding; and I rather supposed that to be the reason why I perceived no difference in the parts of the grain-crops to which the plaster was applied. It was a natural conjecture that the plaster would not have been of so much use to the turnip-crop: but that was not the case.
SECTION XXI.

Timber. The various Kinds in Use. Those producing Nuts, &c.

There are in America black, white, red, willow, chesnut, Spanish, black-Jack, and live oaks. I have heard the inhabitants say they have thirteen sorts of oak, of which the live oak and the white oak are the best.—But neither of them is nearly so durable as the English oak; particularly for ship-building.

Almost every kind of wood grows quickly in America; and, from that cause, generally straight: but, from the quickness of its growth, it is less durable. Cedar is the only slow-growing timber they have, and possesses great durability; very like our yew in England.

There are many sorts of hiccory: it is a
very tough wood; more so than any other I ever saw; some of it remarkably good for ax-shafts, &c.

There is no American wood of which bowls or dishes could be made, equal to many kinds in England; nor any comparable, in the construction of pumps, pipes, &c. to the English elm; which is imported to plant, and admired as a beautiful tree.—There are no elms growing in America as timber.

Large quantities of haw-thorn are also imported from Great Britain; and grow as well as the poor soil will admit, but seldom rise to any perfection, except the land be dugged: they have much longer prickles than trees of the same sort in England. The American haw-thorn is of slow growth, with a prickle upon it three inches long.

There are but five evergreens: the pine, the cedar, the saffron, the holly, and the ivy,—which is not at all like the English ivy. The pine-tree produces good timber: it is used for making the decks of
ships, and is very beautiful for floors. It grows to a great height in the woods, without any branches; and is not in the least an ornamental tree in fields.

There are walnut-trees in great numbers; the fruit of them is not at all pleasant, it has a very oily disagreeable taste, and is so fixed in the shell, which is very thick, as with difficulty to be got out; the case is the same with the hickory-nut; they both requiring a hammer to break them: but the kernel of the latter is much pleasanter than the walnut. The land is reckoned fine that bears the hickory. There is a tree, the shell-bark, that bears a nut called hickory, the shell of which breaks more easily than those of the walnut or many other hickory-trees, and is agreeable to the taste.

The chestnut-tree is very handsome, and its fruit pleasant.

There are but few hazel-trees; therefore, not many nuts: their shells are much thicker and kernels smaller than those in England.

There are ash-trees, but not in plenty;
I never saw above ten trees of the kind during the whole time I was in the country. The wood is used for the shafts of single-horse chaises, in preference to any other, and sold at a very high price. I had a chaise, the shafts of which were made of this wood. By an accident, one of them was broken: the wood did not appear to be of so elastic a nature as an English ash. The charge for a pair of shafts is three pounds fifteen shillings. Hicory is sometimes used for the same purpose, but is not so good: although remarkably tough, it is more liable to bend.

The English willows grow to an uncommon size, very quick, and superior to those in England, especially the weeping-willow; particularly on dry hot land, and poor soil, which to me is astonishing. I saw some weeping-willows at Mount-Vernon growing by the sides of the lawn before the hall-door, the shoots of which, the growth of one year, were from ten to fourteen feet long, and no part of them thicker than a
turkey-quill. They hung down from the top of the trees, and lay on the ground for some feet. I was struck with surprise, and asked the General if they were of any particular kind. He said "No: but, the winter before, the weight of the snow and icicles had occasioned the tops to break off; and, during the summer, they had grown to that amazing length: which was the cause of their superior beauty; for he had not seen an instance of any of the tops of these trees having been cut off before, and it was only a few years since their first introduction into America. It was an accident that had caused their extraordinary beautiful appearance." This was in frosty weather: and it is very common for their trees to look like cut glass, from some sort of moisture settling on them, and freezing at the same instant, which was the case at that time.

The Lombardy poplar, an imported tree, grows uncommonly quick, and looks very pretty, especially in towns and cities. The
streets being from sixty to seventy feet wide, it is a customary thing to plant a row of these trees before the houses on each side, to separate the foot from the carriage way.

There are very few white-thorns, no sallows, nor any kind of plant that will make fork or hoe-shafts. There are great numbers of farmers that have not a hay-fork; which surprised me at first:—but that is not at all strange, as hundreds of them have no hay.

I was, however, astonished, that, with so many thousand acres of oaks, acorns should not be more plentiful. I did not hear of a single instance of their hogs ever fattening on acorns in the woods, and have frequently enquired the reason: the inhabitants could not inform me; but I suppose there never is a sufficiency for the purpose. Such a mode of feeding hogs would be of infinite advantage to the Americans; particularly as they live so much on salt pork.

There is a tree that they call gum, of which they make their pumps: but it will
not answer well when the bark is taken off, because it is then less durable. It is used for bowls. Little of that work is done in the part of America where I was, as those vessels are procured considerably cheaper from England.

There is a fringe-tree, beautiful beyond description, and resembling the fringe made of cotton. These trees are rare: I never saw more than one.

Peach-trees grow almost spontaneously: there are various kinds, which I never saw in England: the fruit of some is yellow, like a lemon; some white; others of a dark-red throughout: they bear from the stone in three years, but the fruit is much better when grafted. There is also a beautiful tree, like a peach-tree in leaf and colour, but does not bear fruit.

There is a tree, called dog-wood, which bears a white flower very early in the spring, and looks beautiful in the woods, blossoming before there are any leaves on the other trees.
They have what they call the honeysuckle, a flowering-shrub, with many others of the shrub kind, for which I do not know any name. Indeed the woods are so much variegated by a diversity of colours, from the different kinds of trees, as to produce a pleasing effect; particularly the oaks, and especially in autumn.
SECTION XXII.

Clothing—House-rent—Fire-wood—Labour: the Expense of each.

A beaver hat costs eight dollars, or three pounds currency; an inferior hat five dollars, or one pound seventeen shillings and six pence. A pair of boots eight dollars. The boots I bought lasted only six weeks before they wanted soaling and calashing, which cost me four dollars more. Shoes cost fifteen shillings per pair; inferior ones, very bad indeed, seven shillings and six pence. A pair of common trowsers and jacket cost from five to six dollars.

My tailor's bill, which I intended to have inserted, is mislaid; but the following were the prices, as near as I can recollect, of the several articles specified:—A topcoat for a boy twelve years old, of the cloth
called bear-skin, eight dollars; ditto for a youth eighteen years old, ten dollars (three pounds fifteen shillings); a coat of ladies' cloth, such as sells in England at about fifteen shillings a yard, seven pounds nineteen shillings and five pence; a milking-jacket, four dollars and a half, or one pound thirteen shillings and nine pence.

A front store, or shop, of sixteen feet in front, lets for a thousand dollars per annum; a larger one at fifteen hundred. There is a tavern, called the third tavern in Baltimore—the house only, lets at twelve hundred pounds a year: and every other house in proportion. The land within two miles of Baltimore (the place to which these observations attach) sells, for ten or fifteen acres together, at forty-five and fifty pounds per acre.

Wood is from five to nine dollars per cord; the cord is twelve feet long, four feet high, and three feet over.

Portering in towns is from one dollar to
one dollar and a half per day; at harvest-
work, one dollar per day and a pint of
whiskey; at all other times of the year,
from five to six shillings per day; if diet-
ed, from three shillings to three shillings
and six pence per day: women servants,
by the month, from eight to twelve dol-
lars.
SECTION XXIII.

A correct Account of every Crop, with Rotations; including the Expence and Profit arising therefrom. Remarks on rural Life, Cows, &c.

Rotation of four Years with Crops of Indian Corn and Wheat, Dr. and Cr.

Dr.  First Year.  £  s.  d.
To ploughing one acre, what is termed flushing,  1 2 6
To listing and preparing the hills for planting and sowing the seed,  1 2 6
To molding the corn, where the first missed,  0 15 0
To ploughing from the corn,  0 18 0
To hoeing and transplanting, where any may be wanted,  0 15 0

Carried forward,  4 13 0
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>£</th>
<th>s</th>
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<td>Brought forward</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
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<tr>
<td>To ploughing to the corn</td>
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<tr>
<td>To suckering the corn</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>To ploughing the other way to the corn</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>To topping and blading</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>To leading home</td>
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<td>To pulling the corn</td>
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<tr>
<td>To carrying home</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>To seed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To husking fifteen bushels</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>To rubbing it off the ear (fifteen bushels)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>To one year’s rent, fencing, &amp;c.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td><strong>Second Year</strong></td>
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<td>To one bushel of seed-wheat</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>To sowing</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To reaping, by the cradle</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To leading</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To thrashing ten bushels, at eight pence per bushel</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To one year’s rent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Carried forward, **9** **14** **11**
Third and fourth Years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>£</th>
<th>s</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brought forward,</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To two years’ rent, fencing, &amp;c.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Per Contra.

By fifteen bushels of Indian corn, at three shillings and nine pence per bushel, £ 2 16 3
By blades and tops, £ 0 12 0
By ten bushels of wheat, at eleven shillings per bushel, £ 5 10 0
By the straw, £ 0 10 0
By two years’ pasturing, £ 0 10 0
By loss on an acre of land, for four years, £ 1 2 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>£</th>
<th>s</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is to be observed the loss in all these calculations is occasioned by what may be termed the fallow, or preparation of the...
land, by raising Indian corn: and the case is the same with the turnip-crop in England, which does not clear the expence attending it; the following crops pay: but the crops of grain grown after Indian corn in America are so deficient as to cause the loss; therefore it plainly appears white men and horses would be starved; but they employ negroes to plough, with mules, who can support much greater hardships.

The above statement—in which the expences and profits arising from the cultivation of wheat are given from the regular proceedings of the farmers on the Bay of Chesapeake, the best land I saw in America, and managed with the greatest attention—will shew how, under the most favourable circumstances, the American farmer lives: the fact is, he barely exists;—and the produce of wheat is in general considerably below what is above stated, not more in Maryland than three bushels and a half on the average per acre. The prices stated in the
first year's account are what I paid myself, and are generally the same all over the country: nor do I think I tilled my land cheaper with my own horses and a white man, as I had to keep them a long time, during the winter, without receiving the benefit of their service. The man whom I employed for hire, with his horses, was a neighbour, an Irishman: having many opportunities of talking with him, he has frequently told me, that the manure from Baltimore cost him more yearly than the value of the produce which he raised on his farm. He had a small plantation of about forty acres, which he managed well: he kept a wagon and six horses, to work his own land at convenient times, and let out for hire. He had a son grown up: and, in the season for ploughing, they both went to plough, at three dollars, either per day or acre at the option of their employer.—Many people on small plantations have no horse or plough: to raise an acre or two
of Indian corn, and half an acre of potatoes, they hire for the ploughing, &c. : as the blades and tops of Indian corn are the only support they have for a cow in the winter, and the corn for themselves, a pig, fowls, &c. Mr. O’Donnel, of Canton, argued that he could buy Indian corn cheaper than he raised it, although the land was his own; and he bought large quantities for the support of his negroes, cattle, &c.—When this business was over, they then used the waggon and carts, bought timber in the woods, hired men for chopping it up and cording, and carried it to the city of Baltimore to sell; which kept them and their horses in continual work, and they were at liberty to lead for hire if any one wanted. They charged me four dollars per day for only four horses and the waggon, and three dollars for the cart. The wife and daughter milked the cows, managed a large garden, and kept market with truck, which is cabbages, peas, potatoes, &c.: and,
as they sold their own, were not liable to be cheated. Indeed, I never saw four such industrious people before,—all sober, and leading a much superior life for industry to most of the people of that or any other country I ever was in. They spun and knitted their own stockings: this I particularly know, because they bought the wool of me. They lived only two miles and a half from the city of Baltimore.—They had been twenty years and upwards in America, and had brought with them money sufficient to buy a waggon and horses, with which the man set up as carman in Baltimore; and all they were able to accomplish besides, since their first settling there, was the purchasing those forty acres of land on which they resided, in a small house, with a very indifferent stable, and no barn or cow-house. They frequently had nothing in the house to drink but water; which I knew from this circumstance, that, when they had a bottle of
whiskey, they would make me drink with them. I have been in the house many times, and never saw them have any other bread than that made of Indian corn. They paid their way very well, but not much more: for when they wanted bran for their horses, he generally came to me for money for the purpose. These people, being Irish, used to say, when they heard talk of their countrymen revolting, "Oh, send them here: it will teach them to know themselves!"

The statement and calculation in page 381 are made from what is supposed to be the best of land in America; there being thousands of acres producing Indian corn, that would produce neither rye, barley, wheat, oats, nor any thing else; and is suffered to remain fallow for two or three years. The Irishman's land, although so highly manured, would not bring either wheat or barley. An Englishman would naturally suppose he might sow such land
with clover or hay-seed. As for the latter, it would not produce a sprig; and clover, if set at all, would not grow long enough for a scythe to catch it. Indeed I never, during my residence in that country, saw an American (so far as his finances would allow, or land produce) more negligent than we are in England; but their principal methods of improvement are frequently impracticable for want of the means. It is impossible for the farming in America to return much money,—or what may be deemed necessary; for the cultivators and their horses will eat up the greater part of the produce.

I believe there are not four persons in the world who act their parts in a more proper manner to get money than the before-mentioned waggoner, his wife, son, and daughter; and I am not ashamed to confess, that the example of these people's industry, which was so poorly rewarded,—for they lived miserably compared to an
English cottager,—confirmed my resolution of leaving the country more early than I otherwise might have done.

I now proceed to make a short calculation of what an acre of land,—such as I occupied, at thirty shillings per acre,—will produce in Indian corn, as the reader will recollect what I lost by sowing five acres of barley on this sort of land after Indian corn. The process for Indian corn being always the same, we will take the aggregate sum.

_A Calculation of four Years with a Crop of Indian Corn; the Expences and Profits, Dr. and Cr._

Dr.  
To one acre of proper cultivation of Indian corn in all its stages,  
To four years' rent,  

\[ \text{£. } 7 \ 17 \ 6 \]
\[ \text{£. } 6 \ 0 \ 0 \]

\[ \text{£. } 13 \ 17 \ 6 \]
By twelve bushels of corn, at three shillings and nine pence, 2 5 0
By blades and tops, . . 2 10 0
By the herbage for three years, 0 15 0
By loss on one acre of land in four years, . . 8 7 6

£. 13 17 6

Now, from the last calculation, the reader may be surprised how any man could live on such a farm. The case was this: with purchased linseed-cakes, to the amount of three shillings and six pence, and Indian corn from the farm to the amount of three shillings, I fed each cow one week. We did not give our cows cakes during the summer: but the price of milk then being six pence per quart, and eight pence in the winter, it made little difference. From the sale of the milk, each cow, on an average, yielded three shillings and nine pence per day, or one pound six shillings
and three pence per week. Then twenty cows, at that rate, made twenty-six pounds five shillings per week: from which sum we must deduct six pounds ten shillings per week for the cows' keeping; and there remains a profit of nineteen pounds fifteen shillings per week, which makes for one year one thousand and twenty-seven pounds. The stock was kept up without loss by the sale of the fat cows and the calves.

To work the farm and manage the cows, would require six white men, at one dollar per day each, and one white woman at three shillings and nine pence; forming an annual total of seven hundred and thirty-six pounds two shillings and six pence: this, with three hundred pounds rent, will make a loss of nine pounds two shillings and six pence. Now, supposing a man and his two sons worked (which was my case), and kept no woman-servant, the account would stand thus:—for three men, for one year, four hundred and nine pounds ten shillings; and the rent, three hundred
pounds, makes seven hundred and nine pounds ten shillings; leaving a balance of profit of three hundred and eighteen pounds. By this a man might live, but not equally comfortable as an English farmer who pays the same rent. From every information I could procure, whilst in America, milking of cows and selling milk is the best business a farmer can follow: but I am certain he would live with more ease and comfort by keeping cows in a town, and buying every article for them, than by taking a farm for that use, because land is not worth the cultivation, and the produce is sold for less than it costs in raising. I will now make another calculation upon what is the best land, and such as produces clover.
A Calculation of four Years' Crops with Indian Corn, Wheat, and Clover; including the Expenses, with the Profits arising, Dr. and Cr.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dr.</th>
<th>First Year.</th>
<th>£.</th>
<th>s.</th>
<th>d.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To one acre of Indian corn, the cultivation in all its stages,</td>
<td>7 17 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To one year's rent,</td>
<td>0 12 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second Year.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To one acre of wheat, sowing, reaping, &amp;c.,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To clover seed,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To one year's rent,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Third Year.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To mowing,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To cocking and leading,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fourth Year.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To mowing,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To cocking,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To two years' rent,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To profit on one acre (four years),</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ £ 27 1 3 \]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>£</th>
<th>s</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By fifteen bushels of Indian corn, at three shillings and nine pence per</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bushel,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By blades and tops,</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By ten bushels of wheat, at eleven shillings per bushel,</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By the straw,</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By two tons of clover-hay, at four pounds ten shillings per ton,</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By one ton and a half of ditto, at ditto,</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>£2.27.1.3</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reader will observe that there is no expence of manure, which there ought to be in every four years; nor is the second crop of clover valued: therefore I lay the one against the other; and I know it is a good crop of hay made from clover, which, when dry, weighs two tons, and more than I ever saw stand on an acre of ground i
America. If a man sells his produce, he must buy manure; which would lessen his profits much; and if he consumes his clover, it will not make any such sum as I have given credit for.

There is, from the preceding calculation, two pounds fifteen shillings and nine pence half-penny per acre profit: and those men (who are chiefly Dutchmen) do their work themselves, and exist, having farms consisting of from forty to eighty acres each. If the farm be forty acres, and all the produce sold, the farmer will make a profit of one hundred and eleven pounds eleven shillings and eight pence; if eighty acres, one hundred and twenty-three pounds three shillings and four pence. His doing the work himself, and being thus paid for his labour, is the means of his gaining bread; or there are many expences to add—cows kept for the family, &c.—which would take off the profit: then part of his produce is flax for his own use, which he and his family manufacture in the winter: therefore, if the
farm be eighty acres, it may be supposed that not above forty are profitable: there wants wood for fire, fences, &c.

A Calculation of four Years' Crops with Indian Corn, Barley, and Clover; and the Expenses, with the Profits arising, Dr. and Cr.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dr.</th>
<th>First Year</th>
<th>£</th>
<th>s.</th>
<th>d.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To one acre of Indian corn, the calculation in all its stages,</td>
<td>7 17 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To one year's rent,</td>
<td>0 12 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Year.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To one acre of barley, sowing, reaping, &amp;c.,</td>
<td>2 5 11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To clover-seed,</td>
<td>1 10 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Year.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To one year's rent,</td>
<td>0 12 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To mowing, cocking, and leading,</td>
<td>0 15 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carried forward,</td>
<td>13 13 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fourth Year. | £ | s | d
--- | --- | --- | ---
Brought forward, | 13 | 13 | 9
To mowing, cocking, and leading, | 0 | 15 | 4
To two years' rent, | 1 | 5 | 0
To profit on one acre, four years, | 13 | 7 | 2

| £ | 29 | 1 | 3

Per Contra.

By fifteen bushels of Indian corn, at three shillings and nine pence per bushel, | 2 | 16 | 3
By blades and tops, | 2 | 10 | 0
By twenty bushels of barley, at seven shillings and six pence per bushel, | 7 | 10 | 0
By straw, | 0 | 10 | 0
By two tons of clover-hay, at four pounds ten shillings, | 9 | 0 | 0
By one ton and a half of ditto, at ditto, | 6 | 15 | 0

| £ | 29 | 1 | 3
A Calculation of four Years' Crops, with Indian Corn, Oats, and two Years' Rest; and the Expence, with the Profit and Loss arising, Dr. and Cr.

Dr. First Year. £ s. d.
To one acre of Indian corn, the calculation in all its stages, 7 17 6
To one year's rent, 0 12 6

Second Year.
To one acre of oats, sowing, reaping, &c., 2 2 5

Third and fourth Years.
To three years' rent, 1 17 6

£ 12 9 11

Per Contra.
By fifteen bushels of Indian corn, at three and nine pence per bushel, 2 16 3
By blades and tops, 2 10 0
By eight bushels of oats, at three shillings and six pence, 1 8 0
By loss in four years, 5 15 8

£ 12 9 11
A Calculation of one Acre of Potatoes, with the Dr. and Cr. Account; charging it with Manure, as being a Preparation of Fallow, the same as Indian Corn, for Wheat, Barley, or Oats.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>£</th>
<th>s</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To one acre of land, ploughing and harrowing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To opening drills</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To twenty loads of dung, leading and putting in</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To twenty-four bushels of potatoes, at five shillings per bushel, cutting, &amp;c.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To hoeing in</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To twice ploughing and hoeing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To taking up with the fork and hoe</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To one year's rent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>43</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
By one hundred bushels of potatoes, at three shillings and six pence per bushel, \( \text{£17 10 0} \)

By loss, \( \text{£25 10 0} \)

\[ \text{£43 0 0} \]

The calculation on the potatoe-crop may surprise the reader: but it is just: and, although I have spoken of my own crop, I will take the liberty of making an account of it Dr. and Cr.

*A Calculation of four Acres and a Half of Land set with Potatoes, at Orange-Hill, by the Author.*

Dr. \[ \text{£5 1 3} \]

To ploughing four acres and a half, \[ \text{£2 5 0} \]

To harrowing, \[ \text{£2 5 0} \]

To raking up refuse, and burning, \[ \text{£9 11 3} \]

Carried forward,
Brought forward, £ 9 11 3
To ploughing, . . . . 5 1 3
To harrowing, . . . . 2 5 0
To raking up refuse, and burning, . . . . 2 5 0
To picking, . . . . 1 2 6
To dragging, . . . . 1 17 6
To raking up refuse, and picking, . . . . 1 2 6
To one hundred loads of dung, leading, &c., . . . . 72 10 0
To one hundred and ten bushels of potatoes to set, at five shillings per bushel, . . 27 10 0
To ditto cutting, . . . . 3 0 0
To setting by the plough, . . . . 5 1 3
To dropping in the furrow, . . . . 7 4 0
To harrowing twice, . . . . 0 15 0
To ploughing up earth to them, . . . . 2 5 0
To ploughing them up, . . . . 5 1 3
To men to pick them up, . . . . 14 0 0

£ 160 11 6
Per Contra.  £.  s.  d.

By four hundred and fifty bushels of potatoes, at three and six pence per bushel,  78 15 0
By loss on this crop,  81 16 6

160 11 6

A Calculation on four Acres of Turnips in the same Field at Orange-Hill.

Dr.  £.  s.  d.

To mowing weeds, and raking off,  0 15 0
To twice ploughing,  9 0 0
Ditto harrowing,  4 10 0
Ditto raking up refuse-stuff, and burning,  4 10 0
To drilling,  4 10 0
To manure, (thirty-six loads,) putting in the drills, &c.,  21 0 0
To seed, eight pounds, at seven shillings and six pence per pound,  3 0 0

Carried forward,  47 5 0
Brought forward, $47 5 0$

To harrowing in, $1 2 6$

To plaster of Paris, eight bushels, at seven shillings and six pence per bushel, $3 0 0$

To hoeing, $2 8 0$

To pulling and preparing for market (the tops for the cows being worth the trouble), $0 0 0$

To profit on the turnips, $126 4 6$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>£</th>
<th>s.</th>
<th>d.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Per Contra.

By twelve hundred bushels of turnips, at three shillings per bushel, $180 0 0$

The reader in England may suppose the above calculations to be erroneous: but they are as nearly correct as they can be made as to the expenditure, except the omission of a charge for a man with a horse and
cart to sell the produce; which would add an expence of two dollars to every ten bushels sold in the market. Therefore, there are fifteen shillings to be deducted from every ten bushels; which is just half what the turnips are sold for. Although the turnip account appears to pay a great deal of money, it will take a man and horse one hundred and twenty days to sell them. I had one man and horse employed nine weeks, and he sold the produce of about two acres out of the four: the other part was given to the cows. I heard Mr. Bowley say, that he one year raised a large crop of turnips, and sent them to sell in Baltimore market, until he could not sell any at all. My turnip crop was allowed to be the best ever seen in America: I never saw a more complete one in England.

During the time I was preparing the land for potatoes and turnips, I had an Englishman working with me, who ploughed the ground, and was as good a ploughman as any country produces. He had lived twen-
ty-two years with General Ridgely and his uncle, having been sent over a convict. This man used to say, "that if General Ridgely were to do to all his land what I was doing to mine, and had wages to pay every Saturday night, as I had, it would ruin him in two years." The man was right: the American land will not pay for such management. I will venture to assert that I should have had in England, on very moderate land, with twenty-five loads of such dung per acre, five hundred bushels of potatoes per acre. Now, if the produce of five hundred bushels were sold at three shillings and six pence per bushel, the sum arising would be three hundred and ninety-three pounds fifteen shillings, instead of eighty-one pounds sixteen shillings and six pence: therefore the produce would pay the farmer, even at American prices of labour. This shews that it is not so much the price of labour, as the scanty produce of the soil, that prevents the American farmer from growing rich. The land that the tur-
nips and potatoes grew on, was nearly as good as any I saw in America: it was of such quality, that there were from ten to twelve acres on the farm, from which, I will take upon me to say, I could make more profit than any other man could from seventy acres in some other parts of the farm. It was allowed by every one, that there never had been seen such management in America. I did not do this with any expectation of profit: but as I was a publisher, and on a public road, I thought it my duty on those small pieces (called patches by the Americans) to set an example; and, as I had met with very uncommon encouragement in my publication, it would shew what might be done, and the method of doing it.

It may be worthy of remark, that, in the instance of my friend, Mr. Mills, of Wilmington, giving his man half what he made from his farm for conducting it, the payment seemed high; but, from my calculations, I believe he was not far wrong; and I think no set of men on earth know better
than Scotchmen how to manage a guinea for profit.

Now, from the observations I made on these two crops, if the dung which I used on the potatoes had been worked up into compost, with four loads of earth to each load of dung, I should, with one hundred loads of such compost, have had double the quantity of potatoes, and four hundred loads of compost to have put to some other use. I have every reason to believe that one of the most essential things in agriculture is in the preparation of dung, and that it will add more to the present produce than any thing in general use yet tried, in any part of the globe. I shall, however, forbear giving directions in this work for the making of compost, having done that in my EXPERIENCED FARMER, and thinking the method there prescribed to be the most proper I have seen either tried or practised.

In the calculation of the barley-crop, I have given twenty bushels. The manner
in which barley is delivered in America, and especially in Virginia, adds very much in measure: they never take the beard off; and frequently half an ear, or sometimes a whole one unbroken, is delivered; so I do not think that more than fifteen bushels ought to be estimated, and very great quantities of garlic amongst it. The Englishman told me, that, during the twenty-two years he had served General Ridgely and his uncle, they never but once had one hundred bushels of potatoes on an acre: fifty bushels was their general crop: wheat, rye, or oats, from four to six bushels; barley very little raised. Indeed General Ridgely told me himself at breakfast, a few mornings before I left the country, that he did not make the taxes of his estate, though it is accounted one of the best in America. I have been told the very same thing by several other gentlemen.
SECTION XXIV.


Tobacco is raised in the same manner as cabbages are in England, only planted at a greater distance. A bed is made as early in the spring as possible, generally in a wood, as no kind of animal will touch or eat the plant; they seem even to avoid treading upon it. The preparation is by felling the timber, and burning the tops on the place intended to be sown with seed; to raise the plants, the seed being small, the ground is hoed up, and the ashes and earth mingled together as fine as possible. New land is preferred, and treated in the same manner as that for the seed-bed: if old land, it is very highly dunged, or cow-penned, which is by folding the cattle
at night on a small piece, or patch, of ground, as sheep are folded in England; and the latter mode is preferred to the former. The ground is then ploughed, and made fine mould by the harrows, in the same manner as for turnips in England. That being done, the plants are set; after which it is very common, if the man has sheep, to keep them in the fields to eat the weeds; even cattle are kept in the field for that purpose. Before the plant is set, the earth is generally drawn up into hills with the hoe; at the distance of three feet asunder, and dung put in them. It is said, by the planters, that an industrious black man or woman will manage three acres. There is a caterpillar, or beautiful worm, more than an inch and half long, of such a devouring nature, that if it be not observed every day, it soon spoils a great number of plants. Therefore the plants are searched over every day; which is one cause of the three acres being set off to every planter. This is a very expensive crop, much condemned by the Americans, and said not to be pro-
fitable. An acre will, according to the price of tobacco, make from thirty to fifty pounds. Tobacco, cotton, Indian corn, and rice, which are the natural produce of the country, are said in America to have spoiled the land; but that is not the cause; it never was good for any thing, except for these crops, and a crop of wheat, rye, or oats, after them: after which some of it is never worth cropping again: nor is there a man who has made himself or family worth any thing except by planting. Sending convicts to America, enabled the farmers and planters to cultivate their land much cheaper than could be done in any other country, or than they now do by negroes. It was a very great emolument to them. The convicts were sold to them at from eight to sixteen pounds each, for six years; and now they give one hundred pounds a year to a white man, who is not so serviceable. He does nothing but ride a horse, and look after the negroes; and no white man is to be had for less, as a negro-driver, than from fifty to one hundred pounds per year. Only look.
back, and observe the difference in the calculation made on my farm at Orange-hill, in the allowance of myself, two sons, and wife, doing our own work, and not hiring for it. It is a plain demonstration betwixt the working farmer and the man of pleasure, and there is no horse charged. The overseer costs the planter two hundred pounds per year; and the tobacco bears the blame, in part, for its not being profitable. As to spoiling the land, it is the intended use of the greatest part of the land in America; tobacco first for two or three years, and either wheat or rye and Indian corn afterwards. Tobacco, at fifty pounds an acre; for twenty acres gives one thousand pounds. These employ seven or eight negro men or women. It is said to be a year's work to go through the process: so it is: the preparing the land in March and April; planting in May; hoeing and overlooking in June, July, August, and September; cutting and housing in October; the other months in moist weather to be pulling the leaves of the to-
bacco stalks and preparing them for market; in frosty weather clearing the wood off, to plant new land the next year, and cutting the wood for rails, fire, &c.—which shows plainly the intended use of the country;—giving employment for the whole of the year.

As there cannot be any thing done to tobacco during frost, the leaf all moulders away, although in a house. Now if we come to a calculation of the expences:—eight negroes, at eight hundred pounds, to begin with: add twelve pounds per cent each year on the first expence, which is ninety-six; thirty pounds each per year for board and clothing; amounting to the sum of three hundred and thirty-six: then, supposing the tobacco to make thirty-five pounds an acre on the average, the sum will be five hundred and four pounds clear of all expences. And as tobacco is a very fluctuating crop, "but not more so than hops in England," I imagine thirty-five pounds per acre to be a just calculation. Now, if the man looks after his own negroes, and works himself, there will be a deduction of a negro
man; which will be forty-two from the three hundred and thirty-six pounds. There will then be a balance of five hundred and forty-six pounds profit. This crop makes it appear that a man may live from the produce with care: but, from what is termed English farming, it would ruin any man in the world. General Washington persevered in it; the present president Mr. Jefferson, General Stone, Mr. Gibson, the governor of Maryland's son-in-law—I have heard all these gentlemen say they have tried it, and it will not do. But, as soon as I saw the land, I wanted no information on that head. It is a planting country, and will no more rival the English landed property, then the lands in the West Indies: nor is an English farmer any more calculated for the American soil and climate, than a racehorse to draw a stage-waggon; and when they get there they are the laughter of the inhabitants. When I first saw the country, I could not imagine what the land was good for; and, until I made this cal-
culation on tobacco, I could find no profit to rise from the cultivation of it. But knowing that God made all things for use, I thought some benefit was to be obtained from the land in America; and the general conversation of the gentlemen I became acquainted with being much against the tobacco crop, made it almost unnecessary for me to examine into it. I found however in conversation, that where a family had raised themselves to any eminence from the produce of land, it was by planting tobacco: and probably mere necessity obliged them to discontinue growing it, the land being worn out: but when I found this to be profitable, it was as foreign to me as clock-making. The curing of tobacco is a very nice process: and, for want of knowledge and care, there are every year many hogsheads spoiled, and worth nothing. And, besides all that, the management of negroes was a great obstacle: for, notwithstanding the great inhumanity so generally spoken of by those who are not acquainted with
them, they will not do without harsh treatment. Only take General Washington for an example: I have not the least reason to think it was his desire, but the necessity of the case: but it was the sense of all his neighbours that he treated them with more severity than any other man. He regularly delivered weekly to every working negro two or three pounds of pork, and some salt herring, often badly cured, and a small portion of Indian corn. They are so lazy by nature, that they would do little or nothing, but take pleasure in fine weather, cook victuals, and play on music and dance all winter, if they had no master. I think them as unfit to conduct themselves as a child—thoughtless in the extreme, and therefore requiring a severe master: and a man unused to them, and who is of a humane disposition, is unfit to employ negroes. I had much rather do the work myself, than have continually to force others to do it. During the time I have been in America, I have had experience
enough with them to know this to be true, both from my own employ and seeing them continually at work for others. The first time I walked with General Washington among his negroes, when he spoke to them, he amazed me by the utterance of his words. He spoke as differently as if he had been quite another man, or had been in anger. Though you have them slaves all the day, they are not so in the night. I compare them to cats. The men are lecherous and the women lewd. All the black men I employed used to be out all night, and return in the morning. It is a very common thing to have the apartments for the negroes at a small distance from the house: and it appears necessary, or the doors would be left open all night. Notwithstanding the many irregularities to which these negroes subject their master, it is allowed that they are the best servants in America, since the establishment of independence,—liberty and equality. There
are many reasons for it: they bear the heat of the sun much better than any white man, and are more dextrous with the hoe, and at all planting business. In pulling corn, I observed the black men to be much more expert than any white man, and so in every thing appertaining to planting; and there is no certainty of the white men in America. Therefore little can be done without slaves. Nor is it at all uncommon for persons with whom you are in the greatest intimacy, to offer wages, before your face, to induce white men who are working with you to go to them, which makes them very saucy. I experienced that at Orange-hill: a gentleman came to see us set potatoes; and he observed the man that was ploughing to plough to his liking; he asked him in my presence, to engage with him, offering him higher wages: and I was obliged to advance his wages from six shillings to seven shillings and sixpence per day, or he would leave me. And all the white men I employ-
ed would go frolicking, as it is called; it not being the custom to engage, except by the month; and the days that they absent themselves, they allow you for the time. There is no power given you, as a master, to confine a hired servant by law: that is one part of their liberty and equality: nor is there any compulsion but the whip; and the white or hired man, had masters the power to use it, would not submit to that. There is no such a thing as character asked for with a white servant. The slave is your own; like your horse, and you may whip him as you please; but you have no command over a white man or any hireling; nor would the tobacco pay a profit with white men to work it. Seven white men, at twelve dollars a month each, would be three hundred and seventy-eight pounds per year. If you employ another white man, as an overseer, as is usual with the planters, to do the business of the farm, there will be a great loss on the crop—one hundred pounds more will be four hundred and seventy-eight
pounds; and the eight men's board will be at least twenty pounds each; which will make the sum six hundred and thirty-eight pounds. By the negroes the work is to be done cheaper by having three women, who are allowed to be equally as good in raising tobacco. The women will be a saving of one hundred and fifty pounds in the first purchase; and they will wash and milk.

It may be asked by the reader, why tobacco-planting is not more followed, if one of the most profitable things on the American soils. There are many causes: negroes are, in the first price, a very heavy expence; and, as I observe in myself, men are afraid to engage in it. The curing of tobacco is an art; the management of negroes a trouble that an emigrant probably does not choose to engage in: and the tobacco requires more money, as a smaller number of hands will do in the farming way. Nor is all the land proper for tobacco, only fresh or rich land: for example, General Washington,
who formerly had been a planter, but lately a farmer, had no land left that would bring a crop of tobacco, except the appropriating some of the wood land; and that is wanted for fire: four hundred people want a deal of wood for fire. And there is another inconvenience which arises while the planter is running over the fresh land, and raising tobacco, and what is termed destroying his estates, as the tobacco takes all the manure he can procure: and, on such poor lands as those of America, the manure is soon exhausted, and the tobacco brings nothing to the dung-hill, but resembles the boy in the fable killing his goose that laid golden eggs. And although manure will raise a plentiful crop of tobacco for one year, in those hot climates it has a very short duration. Therefore the corn and grain crops are light, and make little addition to the dung-hill; and the land becomes so poor, that the crops do little more than supply food for the negroes, and dung for the garden. It is well known that General Washington did
not in some seasons raise so much from his land as would keep his people, with the addition of a very numerous fishery. And although the reader may think my calculations low on the American produce, he may see, in the letters published by Arthur Young, Esq. and Sir J. Sinclair, that General Washington's calculation on the average of the crops in Virginia is no more than eight bushels per acre: and it is not to be supposed that General Washington would state them at the lowest; as he frequently sent proposals to England, to let his farms to English or Scotch farmers: his own opinion on the American soils was, that the small produce was in consequence of a want of cultivation. And his information from this country was very erroneous: for he told me that he had sent a fleece of wool to Arthur Young, Esq. who sent it to some manufacturing town in England, and wrote him back that it was found equal in quantity and quality to the average of the wool in England, with many
other remarks of a similar tendency. I 
surprised the General very much: and 
Colonel Lear was present, who had been 
in England; and he mentioned his having 
been with Mr. Young, who, he said, 
called him a fool for being in trade with 
so much land. The Colonel replied, that 
if he had his land to till, it would 
make a fool of him. I told the General 
my father's wool on his farm, part of it 
poor land, averaged nine pounds a fleece 
of eleven hundred sheep upon five 
hundred acres of land—and some part of 
it two shillings and six-pence per acre; 
and his would not average more than 
three pounds a fleece, on three thousand 
acres with one hundred sheep. I have 
heard say, that Colonel Lear remarked, 
that he never knew any man speak with 
so much candor to the General as I did. 
The General's opinion of his own land, 
cattle, sheep, &c., was not at all like that 
of a man of information. His sheep were 
very shabby ones: the wool from his sheep
at the time of clipping, would not average more than three pounds a fleece. He told me his sheep were much better before the war, and pleaded want of care. But the General, at his death, shewed his great partiality to his property. In his will, he valued himself, I think, at ten times more than he was worth. I was at Philadelphia at the time his will was published: there was the value of his personal and real estates; and the company present remarked what great wealth he had acquired. I then said that he had valued himself at ten times more than he was worth, knowing Mount-Vernon well, and the number of acres, and likewise his stock: and as there was to be a sale of his stock on the farm, it would be seen. The proposed sale was made in the spring; and a gentleman who had heard me make the observation, and who went to the sale, afterwards told me that he was sure I was right in my judgment. There was nothing cold but the Malta ass; and he was valued
by the General at five hundred dollars, and sold for one hundred. The General died as great a friend to his country as he lived: such a will makes a great rumour. I have heard it repeatedly said that he died richer than any monarch upon earth. When I have been saying in company that there was no farming to any advantage in America, it would be observed what a fortune General Washington had acquired by farming. If land and negroes make a man rich, he was so: but I do not think them good property. Being in company one day, it was said that General Ridgely and Mr. Carrol of Annapolis were two of the richest men in Maryland. There was a young gentleman in company, an American, who made an observation which I thought right: he asked what did their riches consist in?—land and negroes?—he compared them to dust and ashes. Now, from the planting tobacco, there must be expected to be a numerous progeny of negroes; and in a series of
years there will be a great number of mouths to fill, and bodies to clothe; and part of them will not be able to do anything towards their support, either from infirmity or childhood. General Washington had four hundred negroes, and only seventy working on the farm. The General neither bought nor sold negroes; which causes his to be a fair case for comparison. Now the reader may judge of the case: but I look upon the four hundred negroes as an encumbrance on the estate for ever, as I always understood that no man could emancipate his negroes without a general emancipation. But, be that as it may, if I had General Washington's estate at Mount-Vernon, I should be very glad to get rid of the four hundred, and buy again, for this reason:—four hundred at five pounds per year each, feeding and clothing, come to two thousand pounds per year: and seventy negroes, men and women, bought at seventy-five pounds per head, will cost five thousand two hundred and fifty
pounds; then their feeding and clothing, at five pounds each, will be three hundred and fifty pounds per year; here is a saving of one thousand six hundred and fifty pounds per year. But, whatever General Washington might do with the advantages he had, each negro would cost me ten pounds per year at least, with the advantage of the fish, for feeding and clothing; therefore the sum would be four thousand pounds a year: then the seventy negroes would cost, at ten pounds each, seven hundred pounds per year clothing and feeding: then there will be a saving of three thousand three hundred pounds per year. The interest of money will be the same as before, when there were seventy negroes working, and free the planter of three hundred and thirty infirm with age and children, incapable of earning any thing towards their support: so that from this calculation, in ten years, there would be a saving equal to thirty-three thousand, three hundred pounds: whence it clearly appears
to me that the female negroes and children are a real tax, besides the taxes paid to the state for each working negro. And, from every just calculation which I can make, I cannot find that the cultivation of tobacco is equal to that of wheat, barley, &c., in England, or the increase of negroes equal to the breeding of sheep in England for profit: the sheep clothe themselves. I have thought that the removal of these negroes from one part to another to raise tobacco, as the woad growers in England do, might answer, as it is very clear that it is hard labour to maintain the people on the worn-out land, after the tobacco produce is over. But as the giving over cultivation of that plant is but of late standing, the inhabitants may not yet be perfectly aware of the value of that crop. Time, however, will tell. Those planters who sell negroes, encourage their increase; it is said to be a profitable traffic: to sell a boy of eighteen years old, at eighty or one hundred pounds; a girl at seventy or seventy-
five pounds, does appear advantageous, but the infirm are always a great burthen.

Now the reader will observe that the calculations are made at different proportions, at thirty, ten, and five pounds, viz. supposing those who are used to negroes to maintain them much cheaper than an Englishman, who is unused to set victuals out in a sparing manner—which with negroes is very necessary, for they are wasteful beyond description, and keep dogs which they feed to excess:—and in the four hundred there are many children who will not cost so much for clothing, in proportion as the seventy working negroes. The idea of the negroes is, that as they work and raise all, they have a right to consume all. As I have travelled on the road, I have made it my business to converse with them, and they say, "Massa, as we work and raise all, we ought to consume all;" and to a person who does not contradict them, they will declare their mind very freely. They say, "Massa does
not work; therefore he has not equal right: overseer does not work; he has no right to eat as we do." They all have a very great respect for the Deity: and you cannot give them so great a pleasure as to say at parting with them, "May God bless you!" in a fervent manner. They will from that expression take off their hats, and in a very solemn manner say, "Thank you, massa!—I thank you, massa! I thank you more for that than if you had given me a dollar." But though they have so great a veneration for their Maker, all the negroes that I employed were the greatest cheats I ever saw. They are good marketmen; and the cause why they can sell more, and frequently at a higher price, than a white man, is this:—in the towns and cities in America, the gentlemen and merchants have negro servants; and as the markets are so early in the morning, they are sent to make purchases: and those negroes resort together: and from that circumstance, the black servant or marketman
has ten customers to the white man's one, and both buyer and seller have a share in the produce. I have stood to watch a negro who was selling potatoes for me; and he has taken seven and sixpence per bushel for them, and accounted with me for six shillings per bushel. The negroes are very much employed in the sale of hay, and all farming produce in America; and they are all fond of liquor, and generally return drunk from market. I observed the stable-keepers, when they bought a load of hay, to take the negro to some distance from company. I have watched or listened; and the negro always agreed for a bottle of rum or whisky for himself. When I first went into the country, it astonished me how these negroes got so drunk, or how they got money as slaves; for they seemed to live as freely as any other set of men in the farmer's house, or where they are kept. They are fond of their victuals hot, and will seldom eat any thing cold, if they can avoid it, but lay it on the fire to
broil; which is very extravagant. It is customary, on plantations and farms, to keep a number of dogs for the preservation of the fruit, &c. which is very expensive, as the negroes throw to the dogs all such food as they do not choose to eat: they do not like fat meat of any kind. And there is a very unpleasant thing in having the young negroes to raise, where a man has a young family of his own. The first remark I heard of that, was by the lady of Colonel Norwood. I called at the Colonel's house one day: he not being at home, I sat talking with his lady; and she asked me if I meant to employ negroes. I told her, no. She said there was no doing without them in their country, although they were a very unpleasant set of people. The Colonel had made several trials of white men; but they were still worse: they were next to nobody; they would only just do as they chose: which I afterwards found to be true. The greatest dislike she had to negroes, and what could
not be avoided, was, that the negro women whom they had for cooks had generally many children, who, besides being costly to bring up, were troublesome in the kitchen, by frequently taking things they ought not, and making dirt: but what was much worse than all this, from her own children playing with the young negroes, who by nature appeared to be given to vice, her children unavoidably contracted the habits of the negroes, and had their morals much corrupted. I think a large number of negroes to require as severe discipline as a company of soldiers: and that may be one and the great cause why General Washington managed his negroes better than any other man, he being brought up to the army, and by nature industrious beyond any description, and in regularity the same. There are several anecdotes related of him, for being methodical. I was told by General Stone that he was travelling with his family in his carriage across the country, and ar-
riving at a ferry belonging to General Washington, he offered the ferryman a moidore. The man said, "I cannot take it." The General asked, "Why, John?" He replied, "I am only a servant to General Washington; and I have no weights to weigh it with: and the General will weigh it; and if it should not be weight, he will not only make me the loser, but he will be angry with me."—"Well, John, you must take it; and I will lose three pence in its value:" the ferryman did so; and he carried it to General Washington on the Saturday night following. The General weighed it; and it was not weight: it wanted three half-pence; General Washington carefully lapped up the three half-pence in a piece of paper, and directed it to General Stone, which he received from the ferryman, on his return. General Stone told me another of his regularities, that, during the time he was engaged in the army in the America war, and from home, he had a plasterer from Baltimore,
to plaster a room for him; and the room was measured, and the plasterer's demand paid by the steward. When the General returned home, he measured the room, and found the work to come to less by fifteen shillings than the man had received. Some time after the plasterer died; and the widow married another man, who advertised in the newspapers to receive all and pay all due to or by her former husband. The General, seeing the paper, made a demand of the fifteen shillings, and received them. Another time, a man came to Mount-Vernon to pay rent; and he had not the exact balance due to the General: when the money was counted, the General said "There wants four pence." The man offered him a dollar, and desired him to put it to the next year's account. No, he must get the change, and leave the money on the table until he had got it. The man rode to Alexandria, which is nine miles from Mount-Vernon; and then
the General settled the account. It was always his custom, when he travelled, to pay as much for his servant's breakfast, dinner, or supper, as for his own. I was told this by the keeper of a tavern, where the General breakfasted; and he made the bill three shillings and nine pence for the master's breakfast, and three shillings the servant's. The General sent for the tavern-keeper into the room, and desired he would make the same charge for his servants as for himself, for he doubted not that they had eaten as much. This shews he was as correct in paying as in receiving.—It is said that he never had any thing bought for his use that was by weight, but he weighed it, or any thing by tale, but he had it counted: and if he did not find the due weight or number, he sent the articles back again to be regulated. There is a striking instance related of his condescendency: he sent to a shoe-maker in Alexandria to come to measure him for a pair of shoes; the shoe-maker
answered by the servant that it was not
his custom to go to any one's house to
take measure for shoes. The General,
being told that, mounted his horse, and
went to the shoe-maker to be measured.

It may be worthy the reader's notice to
observe what regularity does; since there
cannot be any other particular reason given
for General Washington's superior powers,
than his correctness, that made him able to
govern that wild country: for it was the opi-
nion of many of his most intimate friends,
that his intellects were not brighter than
those of many other men. To me he ap-
peared a mild friendly man, in company ra-
ther reserved, in private speaking with can-
dor. His behaviour to me was such, that I
shall ever revere his name. Before he died,
General Washington himself, with his
own hands, closed his eyes and mouth.

General Washington lived a great man,
and died the same. He rode into his plan-
tation in the fore part of the day, came
home, and died about eleven o'clock at
night, of a putrid sore throat, an inflammatory complaint frequent in America. I conceive it to be occasioned by a poisonous insect received in with the breath. I am of opinion that the General never knowingly did any thing wrong, but did to all men as he would they should do to him. Therefore, it is not to be supposed that he would injure the negro. Cowards only act cruelly to those beneath them. There was an instance of his giving encouragement to duelling, which much surprised military men: two officers had fought a duel; and, according to the laws and regulations of the army, one of them was broken: but in four days afterwards the General promoted him to a much higher rank. The officers I heard speak of it, said it was done with an intention of making the inferior officers obey their superiors. There is a remark frequently made of the General’s exposing his old white horse to sale which he rode during the war; which shows that he treated every
creature according to its nature—a horse as a horse, a negro as a negro.

The negroes are not an innocent race; as some suppose; they commit theft as daringly, and with as much cunning, as any set of men. I will relate a robbery done by one in my own knowledge at Philadelphia, which equals any committed in London or any part of the world. Mr. Boadley, being very infirm, his usual time of rising or coming to the parlour is eleven o'clock. A black fellow, who is a known thief, opened the front door, betwixt nine and eleven o'clock in the morning, went up a passage, opened the door of the apartment where Mr. Boadley sits during the day, took thence a pair of plated sconces, and went out of the house, unheard by any of the family, although Mrs. Boadley and her daughter were sitting in the room adjoining, and many servants in the kitchen below; and this about the time of the ladies being at breakfast, when the
servants were likely to come along the passage every minute. The black fellow, having got clear off unheard, happened to be met by one of the police of the town, who seeing the fellow carry a bundle, says to him, "Well, John, where have you been?"—"I am just come from New-York, massa."—"And what have you there in your bundle?"—"A cloak for my wife, and a few duds of my own."—"Well, John," the policeman taking hold of the bundle, "let us see what you have." The policeman opening the bundle, found in it a black silk cloak, and some other suspicious things, such as were not likely to be his; upon which he asked, "What have you in the other bundle?"—"A few duds of my own."—There tumbled out this pair of sconces, and some other things as unlikely to belong to such a man as those in the other bundle. The policeman asked him where he had got the sconces. The black fellow replied he had bought them at a sale at New York, seeing
them cheap, &c. "Well, John, you must go with me before the Mayor." When brought before him, the Mayor ordered the man into custody, and the several things to be advertised in the newspapers. The newspaper came into the room when I was present; and the old gentleman took it up to read, and there saw his sconces advertised. He sent his servant to the place: they were immediately brought by the police. Mr. Boadley called the servants into the room, to prove them to be his; wrote a note to the mayor, and made the policeman a present for his trouble: and so the thief got off for that act of theft. If he got off for all the others in the same manner, he would escape the proper punishment to which criminals of that sort are liable in England. After the people were gone, I took the liberty to expostulate with Mr. Boadley, and ask him whether he did not think that sort of lenity improper in a gentleman. As he had held thirteen pub-
lic offices at one time under the government of the United States, and one of them as a judge in courts of justice, I thought him a very proper man to give information on the subject. He acknowledged that offences of that kind were so lightly looked at in the American courts, that it was not worth any man's while to bring the thief to justice. And he observed, that he did not mean to say that Congress were rogues themselves; but he must confess, that they countenanced a great many men who were. For the highest of crimes, these sort of men were condemned to the wheel-barrow, to work on the highways, as a punishment: but that is no real punishment to a negro, who is a slave, and brought up to such bondage; it is his customary way of life in the farmer's or planter's employ, where they are under the control of an overseer, who makes them do it. And although persons who are not accustomed to the employ of slaves, think it a cruelty for those negroes to be under
such bondage, they, either by nature or custom, are no more fit to conduct themselves than children. They appear to be idle by nature, the greater part of them are thieves; so that, when they are free, instead of working, they employ themselves in shooting squirrels, opossums, birds of different descriptions, and in trapping partridges, &c. To do this, they keep a number of dogs, which are a very great expense; and the chief part of their time is devoted to actual theft. Thus they do little or nothing towards tilling the land, to raise the necessaries of life for themselves. Some of them have a little patch of land, and raise truck; which gives them a sanction to sit in the market, and renders them less liable to be suspected for what they steal. From this practice, when free, they are liable to become plunderers, and worthless upon earth. It is well known that these free negroes are stealing poultry and fruit in the season in the night, to sell in the market in the towns and
cities: for they are very fond of marketing, which is one of their highest pleasures. I know a number of gentlemen in America, who say they should be very glad to set their whole number of slaves at liberty, but that they do not know how to do it, as they are afraid of their ravaging the country, being much more numerous in the southern parts of America than the white men; and it is a paradox to me to conceive how they can be profitable to the owner.

Observe, General Washington's number at Mount-Vernon was four hundred—men, women, and children; and out of that number only seventy were able to work. And although the General was said both to feed and clothe them in a more scanty manner than any other man, I do not know how it was effected in that poor barren soil; nor could it be done at all but from the herring fishery adjoining to his estate in the Potowmac, which is the greatest part of their food, with bread of Indian corn, of which they are the best of cul
vators, as it requires the use of the hoe. It has been observed by the authors of America, that there were no robberies committed: but I did not find it so: several highway robberies were committed even in the streets of Philadelphia, which I look upon to be one of the best-regulated towns in America. And it is an usual practice for the negroes to go to see their wives on the Saturday night; and as they are at some distance from the negro men's place of abode, in their road these men will take a horse of any person's, and ride him from ten to fourteen miles, and sometimes leave him, at other times bring him back. This is looked upon as so slight an offence, that I never heard of an instance of any of them being brought to justice for it. During my stay in Philadelphia, there were two women who murdered their children in the most daring manner. The one got out of bed in the night, delivered herself in the necessary, and murdered the child by putting it down in the
soil, and went to bed to her husband again. This woman having married the man, and being with child at the time, did this to cover her shame. I mention these instances, as a proof of the falsity of those authors who have said, that from the enjoyment of liberty, mankind become more obedient to the laws of nature, and less subject to commit crimes.

I have heard it observed by some of the American gentlemen that the English farmers had done a great deal of harm in their country: and I do not know but they have, or are at least the authors; as all the Americans are taught to believe their land is superior to any in the world; and hearing of the riches of England, they think they must be right in following the example. It is said that the English have introduced a great deal of luxury and extravagance into the country, or at least the foreigners: the English farmers have not; for I never saw one who did not make a most miserable appearance in
America. But it may be believed that the morals of the Americans have not been mended, as there certainly have been a set of the most complete rascals sent to America as convicts, that any nation ever produced; and many others have emigrated of very little better description. For instance, there was an Englishman who lived within half a mile of me: he had a sow and four pigs; those pigs were continually coming to me. At that time I did not know whose they were: I took them into my fold-yard, and kept them with my own on mown clover for three weeks; and as the man passed my house every day, he must see them. After that time, continually seeing them, he came to own them. I charged him one dollar and a half for them. He cheerfully paid the money, and took the pigs, requesting that, if they came again, I would let him know, and promising to pay for any damage that they might do. They came again; and, as he was a neighbour, we set
them off. But he made me a recompence, as follows. One Saturday night late, we put a blind horse out into the pasture adjoining to the house: in the morning he was gone. We made every search and inquiry about the place for the horse: but he was not to be found. At last this man told me he had heard of him,—that two of the wheel-barrow men, having run away from Baltimore, had ridden my horse; and they were taken up, he told me, at or near General Ridgely's works; and the horse was turned loose on a common there. Not doubting the truth of this information, I rode to the place, about fourteen miles off, in quest of my blind horse: but I could not hear a word of such a horse: and the man's house being in my way home, I called to tell him my story. I discovered a smile in his countenance, and found he was making fun of me. I began to think of the pigs. I rode away, not without suspecting that he knew where the horse was. Some
days after, I made application to this man about the horse. He said I had offered no reward for the finder; I replied, I would give a reward of three dollars. Oh! he said, he would bring him to me. This was on Saturday night at five o'clock; and he brought me my horse by four o'clock on Monday morning. I asked him where he found him. He said fourteen miles off. I paid him three dollars reward, and one for the expences, gave him a glass of brandy and water; and we parted. I then was clearly of opinion that he had stolen and secreted him, to swindle money from me. I went into the house, told my wife the tale, and said I would make him prove where he had found the horse. My wife very properly replied, “Let him alone: you may think yourself well off, that you have got your horse. He is above your hand.” I readily agreed with her: and the man and I lived in a neighbourly manner ever after. This was done to get the dollar and a half he had paid for the
pigs. He had been a convict from England, and if his tale be true, that he was transported for stealing a bundle of hay, he probably was not of the first-rate rascals when sent. When we met, he would put out his hand, and say, "Well, countryman, how do you do?" This is one of the pleasant things that a man of respectability must expect to meet with in America, and one of the comforts of liberty and equality. I breakfasted one morning with the lady of Doctor Logan, who is a very sensible woman: and she remarked, that since the revolution the people had daily increased in vice; for as no laws were put in force to punish men for fraud, from time to time the lower class of people became so hardened, that they cared not what they did. She said, that, before the war, the country people had some honour, but that was now looked upon as foolishness; which appears to be too true. I heard an Englishman in company very justly observe, what was termed a clever fellow in
America, would be called a complete swindler in England.

Young negroes are reckoned to pay for raising: but I cannot make that appear. If a boy, he must be eighteen years old before he can be sold, or made to earn his living: and if sold for one hundred pounds, that is but five pounds eleven shillings and one penny per year; if a girl, fifty pounds; which will make the chance but seventy-five pounds, and will lower the sum to four pounds three shillings and four pence per year. Now I think no man can raise a negro for the like sum. General Washington weighed the food for all his negroes young and old; and as he was a man of minute calculation, he probably knew what they cost, to a fraction. It is said that he never clothed them until they were of a certain age. This number of negroes would do something, besides raising the tobacco; but not to much profit for the farmers: it is allowed that a planter cannot be a farmer. There is wood to chop; In-
dian-corn to raise, for the use of the family, and for the cows; the hogs to feed; and a garden to manage; there will consequently be little to send to market, to raise money on. None of those tobacco plantations have more than about five acres of wheat, which, if a good crop, will be forty bushels, at eleven shillings per bushel. Supposing five bushels for seed the next year, there will be thirty-five bushels to sell: which will produce nineteen pounds five shillings. Now this business may be carried to any extent that the reader pleases. I only give this as a comparison; and the more it is extended, the less it will pay per acre. By this proceeding, there will be the following crops: twenty acres of tobacco, five acres of wheat, twenty acres of Indian corn, and twenty acres of oats or rye; and those corn and grain crops will not pay more than expenses, as the land will be exhausted; and all the dung that can be spared from the garden, must be applied to the tobacco land. This will cause sixty-five
acres to be managed by the plough, and will leave five acres of land every year, not worth the taxes, or at all to be reckoned on. There are hundreds of acres between Queen Ann and Alexandria, which have produced the finest tobacco in America, but which I should not choose to accept as a gift. The English reader may suppose that the land will bear something after: but it will produce no useful plant whatever. There is here and there a sort of sedge, of which they make besoms; it is very indifferent even for that: and as there are no live fences, I think such lands will all go wild again. In every calculation made of the cultivation and produce it appears plainly, that, if there be any thing got, it is pinched out of the negro. From tobacco there is a chance, if the crop be good, and the market high, for a man to put a few hundred pounds into his pocket; which has been the case; but it never will be done by English farming.
SECTION XXV.

Religion. The many Inconveniences from not having an established Church. Some Anecdotes of a Conjuror being brought to Justice, proving the Disadvantages arising from the Want of Education: great Expence and Difficulty of obtaining it in America.

There are in some cities and towns churches of all descriptions;—the Romish church, the church of England, Dutch church, quaker meeting-house, anabaptist meeting-house, and every description of dissenters, but no established church. I know all these sects may be found in Baltimore, but am uncertain of their existence at New-York or Philadelphia. In Alexandria there are churches of the English communion: I had the pleasure of being acquainted with Mr. Davis, the officiating clergyman.

When I first settled at Orange-Hill, I had a desire to attend divine service at Baltimore, with my family: for which purpose I called upon Mr. Bailey, a justice
of the peace, who lived within a mile of me, and nearer to Baltimore; judging him a proper person to give me all the information necessary on the subject,—having some small acquaintance with him, and knowing him to be a very worthy man. I was greatly surprised, however, when he informed me of the several different charges to which I should, of consequence, become liable: there was first the rent of a pew per year, then the parson’s due (which he agrees for in the same manner as we should for a farm in England), the clerk’s fees, &c. &c. When Mr. Bailey had enumerated all the different articles, I observed to his worship, "That I was desirous of the privilege of taking my wife and family to church, having a great number of children. I had, therefore, applied to him, that I might know the terms; but, as they were so very high, I should give up all hopes of enjoying that gratification, as I really could not afford the expence." Mr. Bailey said the charge was so great, he had no pew, nor could he afford to pay for one.
I imagine there is neither parson nor church from five to five hundred miles together in the surrounding country; and many people who never were christened, or in a church in their lives: how they were married I do not know. I judge in this manner from having travelled through the best-regulated and civilised parts of America; where I do not remember seeing a church that was not either in city or town, except two; which, although built for that purpose, were both tumbling down, and not used.

There are a great many negro priests; but where they preach I cannot tell. The lower class of people, such as worked for me, said, that they had known a black fellow give a better sermon than they ever heard from a white man.

The only time I ever went to hear a dissenter preach was at Baltimore, where General Ridgley's lady, Mr. Gough, and several other genteel families, went regularly,—generally twice on a Sunday; and, seeing a great many carriages stand at the
door, I was induced to go in, with a party of gentlemen. The man was just beginning to preach. His action was somewhat singular. I thought he was bowing to us, as we went in: but, on the contrary, he continued to dance and jump about in the pulpit; to turn himself round; to make a great noise, and beat the cushion. His language was extremely vulgar and profane, as I thought. As to his discourse, I could not understand its meaning; one reason of which might be that I was not used to such lecturing—for he preached extempore. He shewed his fondness for some particular expressions (which I have now forgotten), by repeating them very frequently. He often mentioned our Saviour; and we, the congregation, (or brethren, as he continually called us,) were to be damned. I thought he meant to explain that we did not humble ourselves enough: but to whom I really could not tell. The word "damned" was a very familiar phrase, as much so as if we had been in a cock-pit. I have heard the gentlemen of the church in Eng-
land complain of being tired with preaching: but I am sure this man must be so; for he worked like a blacksmith with his hands and arms; and with his head and tongue, like an auctioneer selling razors and cutlery-ware in a market, or a mountebank-doctor on the stage.

I have heard say there are three preachers at this meeting-house, and they are paid by subscription, which is an usual way of satisfying the pastor in every other religious society. I frequently saw this place on a Sunday. It resembles an auction-room, from their ministers doing duty nearly all day, and very late at night. They sing a great deal; which must be very proper, to give the preacher time to recover his breath: for I really think that Humphreys, when they fought their third-contested battle at Doncaster, did not fatigue themselves more; nor could they, except their condition gave them more breath; for, at every time the singing act came on, the preacher panted and ble like a race-horse when he comes in at a jour-
mile heat, and required as much wiping and rubbing. My curiosity was almost as fully gratified at that place, as in farming on American land.

Now, if the reader will observe the tailor's charges for wearing-apparel, as specified in Section XXII., he will find that the maintenance of a priest in America is a very heavy expense. The clothing for himself only will cost from one hundred to one hundred and fifty pounds per year, to go neat, and dignify himself in a proper manner, which is as necessary as any one thing I know. He ought to have where-with to live the life of a private gentleman, to give him due respect amongst his congregation. If any man will peruse one of Geral Washington's letters to congress during the American war—in which he remæd, that if the officers were not paid me liberally, that they might support themselves as gentlemen, they would not be abl to command (although the General had no other allowance but his expences during the war)—it will fully convince
him of the necessity that officers in the army, and all orders of the church,—indeed all such men as are to take any share in administering religion, or sitting in courts to give directions for the government of a country or nation,—should be supported accordingly, from the king down to the town-constable, from the bishop to the clerk of the parish-church. Any person who lives in America will see the necessity of aggrandising the people of higher orders in all stations. It is for the real happiness and welfare of the people. The government in America at the present moment is like a school improperly governed by the master. The produce of the land is too small, and in consequence the pay too little, to empower men in office to govern the country, and keep the people in proper subordination; so much so, that the judges themselves receive insults when in court.

During the time I was there, in court, the judge refused a man's security as bail for another, in the sum of thirty pounds.
the man in open court told the judge that he owed him the like sum.

On another occasion, a female fortune-teller being brought before the judge, for her manner of getting her living; and being asked how she dared to deceive the people, said she did not deceive them; that, to convince him, she would tell him what he had had for breakfast that morning, and the name of each person in company; which she did, to the astonishment of the judge and the whole court: this was not easy to guess; for it is usual to have fish, flesh of different kinds, cold and hot, &c. Being asked by one of the counsellors, how she had got the money, and how she had built so many houses, she said by telling lies as he did. This woman continues to live in the same manner, and laughs at the court: all these insults naturally arise from the want of a proper provision for the judges, sufficient to give them dignity, and power to enforce the laws. The preceding story was told one day where I was, and the judge was in company: I laugh-
ed at what was said; and a gentleman laid me a bottle of wine that she would tell me my name, if I went into her house. I did not think that a fair trial of her conjuring, as I frequently was in Baltimore; therefore, she might know me. But I went to the house where she resided, jumped off my horse, and entered her apartment without any one apprising her of my intention. She could not tell my name; said she was neither witch nor wizard,—but often guessed very well; that, if she did not succeed in guessing, she sometimes desired the person who had lost horse, cow, or any other property, to come again at an appointed time, and she would play the deuce with the holder of the stolen goods, if they were not delivered. If that happened, she then wrote a charm, which was a strange bugbear or fright to the people, especially to the negroes. By some deception she has surprised very genteel people. The reason why this was proposed to me, was, that, a short time before this, Mrs. Latimer, the lady of a merchant (and, like
myself, an unbeliever), to try Betty Fisher's conjuring, applied to her to have her fortune told, passing herself on the woman as an unmarried young lady. The fortune-teller said she was married, told the number and names of her children, as well as her own, &c.

The reason that those impositions and insults are borne from people of such low description is, in part, the judges' fault, not any want of sense: but it is the equality which America first set out with,—that all men are alike, except they steal, murder, or commit an act of treason. There are no other things thought offensive to the subjects' right, or worthy punishment: and even then, the courts are fearful to punish; or, at least, they seem to be so.

During the time I was in Philadelphia, there were some men tried for refusing to pay the land-tax, or sum usual on taking up lands,—a party of Dutchmen, who had settled themselves in some distant back part; and, when called on for the tax, they pleaded they had nothing to do with any government. A distraint against
their goods was ordered agreeably to the laws of congress, under the president’s writ: but they embodied themselves, and gave the officers battle. A party of soldiers was afterwards sent; and the offenders were taken by force, as rebels to their government. The consequence was, that the ringleader or general of this banditti was found guilty, and condemned to be hanged. But, by some means, there were only eleven jurymen present at the time when the verdict was given; therefore he got clear; and it is publicly said that it was the wish of Mr. Adams, the president, that it should be done so, only to shew him and the rest of them the power and lenity of the government. I happened to be in company where the officer who took them was at dinner, and this business being talked over, it appeared that he was a lawyer, and had pleaded in court for those offenders, after being employed to apprehend them!

I have every reason to think that a conjuror or fortune-teller has more influence
over the people given to vice in America, than either courts of justice, or places of worship, and acts as a more powerful incentive to moral rectitude.

Amidst a variety of reports, equally ridiculous, respecting Betty Fisher, of Baltimore (already mentioned), a belief prevails that she possesses the extraordinary power of torturing the offender neglecting to restore stolen goods to the lawful owner; so that the thief cannot sleep by night, and that something comes into his room and draws off the bed-clothes, with many tales of a similar kind. I have to thank her, however, for her name and cunning. I had an Englishman who worked with me, formerly a convict: he frequently stole small things from me; but I dared not to mention it, because he would be offended, and, of consequence, leave me. Therefore I put up with it: at that time I did not know of Betty Fisher, or I readily could have stopped this man from these thefts. As a proof:—having hired several English—
men, there was one of them who had some very good wearing-apparel: one evening he had left a coat in the barn—for they slept there. During the time he was at supper, the coat was gone. Knowing the convict's pilfering disposition, I desired the owner of the coat to say, when the men were all together, and I present, that I had told him of a conjuror at Baltimore, and that he would go to her the next day, to know who had got his coat. He did as I had directed him; the coat was brought to the barn the next morning, and put into the same place it was taken from.

Some time after, this man, in the night, stole a pig from me. I went to the barn where this man was thrashing, and said—"John, they tell me there is a pig stolen."

"Yes, Sir," says John: "and, as you are going from the place, you must take care; or, there are such a set of rascals in this country, they will steal every thing you have."

"Oh," said I, "I will be up to them!
I will go to Betty Fisher to-day; and she will tell me the thief."

But, behold! without my going to Betty, the pig was at my house before I returned. My family perceived the flail not to be going: and the man had slipt out of the barn, to fetch the pig: so that I have just cause to say that a conjuror is before all the laws in America to give a man his right; for all their law would not have brought back my pig; but the conjuror effected it without trouble. It is evident that such criminals as I have described stand in greater awe of the devil than of the Almighty; and, if they pray to or worship either, it is, in effect, the former; since the woman, as I have already mentioned, assures them the devil will torment them: and I doubt not its being so; but it is their own devil.

The credulity of many individuals in other occurrences appeared to me equally surprising.—I had two joiners at work at Orange-Hill, when there came a man into the place where they were working, who
informed them the place was unhealthy, on account of the badness of the water there; for a horse had been drowned in the well from which he got the water that they drank the day following. These men went to the well to draw up water; when they found in the bucket some hair, the mane of a horse; and immediately supposing that it was the hair of the horse that was drowned, they were taken sick, and vomited to a very great degree: one of them was so ill that he was carried home in a cart; the other walked thither with some difficulty, and remained indisposed several days. The case was, there had been a horse drowned; but it was in a well that had been filled up, fifteen yards from the other: the hair which they discovered, had been taken from a horse of mine, and accidentally blown into the well. Now, from this and other events of the same nature, I do not wonder at the conjurors having that persuasory power over thieves.

There was a gentleman of my acquaint-
ance, who had lost two coach-horses. He sent his servant to Betty Fisher, who told the servant where he might find them; which was fourteen miles from the place. The servant accordingly went, and found them as described. From many similar instances, it is less surprising that the lower order of people should be so terrified, since the higher classes of the community are puzzled to account for such extraordinary cunning; these deceptions, in a young country like America, not being so common as they are in England.

At Philadelphia I went to see a learned pig that had been imported from England. There was an Italian in the place where the animal was exhibited: and being desirous to know the time of the day, the pig readily informed him. The Italian immediately exclaimed, "Were that creature in my country, they would burn the pig and hang the showman!"

The education of children is both expensive and difficult to be acquired at any
price out of towns and cities. Education and clothing will cost in the proportion of from five to one in England. When I first got to America, in travelling from Baltimore to Annapolis, I called at a tavern, to feed my horse. I was ushered into a room where there were several young gentlemen; and they were swearing, and making use of such language as I had never before heard from young men of their appearance. I walked out, and asked who they were. The waiter told me they were a set of young gentlemen going to college at Annapolis. I went into the room, and sat there while my horse was eating his corn. I never saw greater confusion: they put into their pockets sugar, preserves, or any other thing they fancied. When the bill was brought in, they used every device to cheat the waiter. I thought they were going on in a way that would make them very complete for the character of the country.

It is usual for men who have families of children, either to take into their houses
teachers, or to subscribe a sum of money towards the building of a house for a teacher, according to the number of children of each person, and his ability. I have been applied to, to join an association of this kind; and the applicant for the office of tutor was generally an outlaw, a man from Ireland, as shabby in his appearance, and equally so in his manners, as you would find a bully in a house of bad fame in England. I have remonstrated with some of the better sort of people on the occasion: they for answer would say, "What can we do?—those are the only men to be got." To which I have replied, "Children are better without instructors, than, from the employment of improper ones, probably to render abortive every attempt of intellectual improvement."

I one day called on a gentleman, of the name of Benj. Delany, Esq., at Shooter's-Hill, near Alexandria; and when I was introduced to him, it was in a place at a distance from the house, in the garden, which he called his office. He was in-
structing his children. He requested me to dine with him; with which I complied: I spent the afternoon there, and was treated very genteelly. He is a sensible, well-informed man, and of an extensive property. His mother was an English woman, and a relation of Lord Hawke in England. He told me he had been so troubled to get his children educated, that at last he had found more satisfaction in doing it himself than pursuing any other method. He told me his eldest son was at Annapolis college; and, when he came home in the holidays, his manners were such, that he was disagreeable to him: and as for the boys he had at home, he had an intention of sending them to England. —Now, if a gentleman of such large property, and only one mile distant from the town of Alexandria, finds it so difficult to get his young family instructed, what can a man expect when he is situated some miles from a town, and even hard set to procure them food and clothing? which is the case
with thousands in America. And, for want of the infant mind being properly impregnated with a sense of morality, the weeds of vice obstruct the growth of virtue; the youth becomes selfish, and never knows, or forgets, the duty necessary to the parent: for although the latter pays the child the compliment of education for his own good, it is equally so for the parent's comfort; it excites and promotes those necessary sensibilities of affection, which direct more effectually the duty of a child towards a parent, who naturally enjoys part of the blessing.

Mr. Delany keeps many race-horses. During my visit he took me to his stud; where, among a variety of choice animals, he shewed me a pair of excellent coach-horses he had just bought from Mr. Hardy, at Philadelphia, the man spoken of in this work. He gave four hundred dollars for them, which is one hundred and fifty pounds currency.

I am persuaded that there are thousands
of Americans who, for want of education and attending divine worship, think that man a fool who pays any attention to those duties, believing that cunning is the most necessary qualification for mankind to possess. From their unfortunate independency being obtained by artifice, it strengthens their mind much in the practice: the reader may conceive this to be more likely, when it is known that their chief teachers are Tom Paine, Doctor Priestley, and others of the same description. Mr. Jefferson, the president, is by many gentlemen in America believed to be an atheist; though, from my own knowledge in being in his company, I have no reason to say so. There are in his writings some allusions to it; and I saw a paragraph in the newspaper, of his having given Tom Paine a pressing invitation to return to America. If so, I should think the report to be true. I remark that paragraph more particularly, because I have said in this work that the Americans disliked Tom
Paine: but the chief of the company I kept being federalists, I may have formed too general an opinion; for I never heard Tom Paine well spoken of in any company in America. The great dislike to him arose from his abusive writings relative to General Washington.

I was invited to dine at a gentleman's house one day, where two of the judges were in company. There was one of them an elderly man, who had a family. When I went into the room, there were many gentlemen sitting round the fire, as it is customary in America to go early to the place where you are to dine, and drink apple-toddy, or spirits and water, before dinner. The conversation turned on some lady who was very rich, but old and ugly; and the old judge was advising the young one to marry her. The young judge asked whether he would have him marry a woman so much older than himself, and ugly too?

"Oh!" exclaimed the old judge, "I
should not mind that: I would, after marriage, allow her a separate maintenance, and keep a nice girl."

I found afterwards that this old judge, when he was a young man, made a tour to England, and in London got into the company of a celebrated popular leader and his party. I suppose he was desirous of marrying some woman for money at that time: Mr. F— and his party contrived to introduce to this young American a lady he had in keeping as his mistress, under the idea of her being a rich widow. This amorous hero was so fearful of missing the chance, that, having got the lady in humour, he married her the next morning. But as soon as he was sensible of his folly, he deserted her without ceremony, and returned home to his native country. His spouse, however, followed him thither. She still lives with him, and is highly esteemed as a dutiful affectionate wife, and tender mother, having now a very fine young family.—
Thus their acquaintance relate the story. Therefore it appears that an English kept mistress makes an American gentleman a good wife.—When I had seen this gentleman, and heard the tale, it instantly reminded me of the character of Cunning Isaac, in the "Duenna."—I imagine that the judge is inclined to impress strongly on the minds of his sons the policy of marrying rich women, which occasions such conversation in company; yet it must be particularly improper to come from the mouth of a judge: and, although the Americans deal so much in cunning, it appears they sometimes outwit themselves; hence the truth of the old adage is in this instance exemplified—"A cock fights best on his own dunghill."
SECTION XXVI.

Observations on the Soil and Climate. Reasons why Canals, and Improvements in Draining, will not succeed in America. The Difficulty of making Division Fences, planting Quicks, &c. Some Remarks on Diseases.

The soil is in general very thin; in many places, not more than from one inch to an inch and a half thick. The under stratum is of a loose sandy nature, and so light, that, after the frosts are over, the pavement in the streets will not bear even the weight of a man; and the fields are so like a quagmire, that a man on horseback would be endangered in attempting to pass over them. From such lightness, the soil is apt, when rain comes, to form into small channels, that afterwards constitute what are termed gullies, which, as I have before observed, are holes like quarries or marl-pits; and which, in the
course of six or eight weeks, become from eight to ten feet deep, and the same in width. The loose earth, thus detached from its primary bed, covers the contiguous surface, for an acre or two together, where the best soil is, and even spoils that. This may account for their not having ditches cut, for division-fences or drains. I apprehend, that, if ditches were cut and quicks set, as is done in England, the fences would fall down, by the water washing away the soil that composes the bank. In this sort of earth, I imagine that there cannot be canals cut, or even drains. The land is indeed materially injured in many parts, for want of drains; but I think the expence would exceed the profit: they would soon lodge up, and consequently want jettying on the sides. I do not remember I ever saw five yards of earth, in any space at all, thus excavated, with the sides standing as they do in England; since no grass will grow on the banks of the canals or rivers, the soil being too poor to
produce grass; and of so light a nature, as to keep continually crumbling down.

Those swamps or bottoms which the Americans term rich, are light and crumbly. Lands of this kind are said to be so fertile, as not to bear wheat when first cleared; this, however, is not owing to their richness, but to a sort of vegetable manure, composed of leaves of trees, small sticks, rotten wood, &c., with which they are covered, and which is too light and loose for wheat, as wheat delights in a stiff soil. This land is very fine for Indian corn, which thrives best in a soil that freely admits the sun to its roots. The manner of raising it shews that it is impossible to plough too much, or keep the soil too light. I am of opinion, that, if the earth were moved every day, the crop would be the better for it. Instead of this sort of land being firm, as in England, it is here like chaff, and light under foot. If timothy be sown in it, and the water run so as to leave any sort of weight upon it, it will succeed; but
otherwise, it will not, from its being open to the sun, whose power over the land is such, as to penetrate much deeper than the surface, or the roots of the grass. The heat is frequently so great that, if sand get into your shoes, it will compel you to take them off, otherwise your toes will become excoriated. By working, ploughing, harrowing, sowing, &c. I have had my feet in that state, and which the working-people call the cow-itch. I suppose the sun's intense heat is the reason why English grasses will not thrive in America: and I have planted some Indian corn since I landed in England; but none of it has prospered. Then the winter in America is very severe, and sets in so suddenly, as to find those plants in a very porous state; consequently the cold penetrates so quickly into them that they are killed. Indeed the effect of extremes is as great as it would be to any plant reared in a hot-house being taken, in its warm state, and exposed to the most severe frost. I do not
know the customary heat of a hot-house—believe it to be sixty-three degrees:—but the sun in America is often, for several days in summer, at one hundred and eleven degrees, and at 0 in winter.

It is from such extremes that the climate of America is so unhealthy: and it appears to me that the yellow fever is occasioned by the exhalation of noxious vapours from stagnant waters, which, impregnating the air, are inhaled into the human frame, and remain there until the stomach is almost putrid. The disorder is contagious; it is even communicable by the breath of a diseased person to a healthy individual. The yellow spots observed on the patient, which are signs of death, arise from the blood being affected; and a general corruption is soon the natural consequence of the infection. The person attacked by the fever first begins to be in a sleepy state, then delirious, frequently sneezes, and forces a bloody matter out at the nose and mouth,
and sometimes dies in four hours. It is not at all uncommon for four out of five in a family to die; and it is said there are many buried alive. The cause is this, that, when a family is seized with the fever, the greater part probably are delirious; and it is sometimes hard to tell whether they are dead or alive. In this state perhaps a contractor is employed to bury them. The contractor keeps a cart and a horse for that use: he has three dollars for each corpse. The man who filled that office at Baltimore, kept two horses and carts for the purpose. I have frequently conversed with him on the subject. He says it may be that some are buried alive; for, having many to bury in the night, he begins at one part of the town, and takes all before him. It is usual to have the coffins in the room ready by the bed-side. Nor is it uncommon to be provided with a coffin, and yet survive the disorder. There is a man in Philadelphia, who was put into his coffin by one of these contractors: the
coffin being not long enough, the lid pressed on his knees, and, in nailing down, the man kicked it off, and jumped out. About eleven hundred died in Baltimore in a year; and a very inconsiderable number of healthy or convalescent persons appeared in the city, as almost every one that was able had left it: the poor were removed, and lodged in temporary huts, erected for that purpose by the benevolent donations of the public.

The yellow fever is, to my imagination, more dreadful than the horrors of war. On account of the heat, mutton, beef, &c. killed in the morning, is not eatable the next day, though hung up in the most airy cool place you can choose. Fish are very much eaten in large towns and cities, as well as fowls, ducks, geese, &c. ; and the offal of those animals being cast into common sewers, or other confined places, it there becomes very offensive, and contributes to aid the common calamity, which exceeds all other dangers I ever witnessed.

The soil of America is such, that, either
from exhalation, or some other cause, there is no certainty of manure being serviceable for more than one crop or two at the furthest. There were two gardeners near Baltimore, both very clever men; the one from French Flanders,—the other an Englishman, who had been gardener to the Duke of Leeds. I have seen finer lettuces raised by those men in the depth of winter than I ever saw in any other place. The Frenchman was superior in skill: his frames or glasses were well managed, and were very beautiful. I have heard him say he never set a crop in his garden without putting on the ground one hundred cart-loads of manure to an acre, for each crop; which is a proof of my several assertions. From this the reader may judge of the American soil: since it is natural to conclude that a gardener would not choose an unfavourable spot of ground for his purpose, as the price is no object to him, and no set of men are more likely to know the difference of soil.

I am of opinion that the manure leaves
these soils in two ways: the one, by exhalation; the other, by the very great sudden falls of rain, and the severe frosts in winter, which make that poor soil so light, that the manure gets quickly to the top, and the rain carries it away. I have seen in my own drill crops as much as a peck of potatoes together, and lumps of dung along with them, in a few days after they were planted: I have taken them up, and given them to the pigs by basket-fulls: they were washed out by quick falls of rain.

Upon the whole, America appears to me to be a most proper place for the use to which it was first appropriated, namely, the reception of convicts.
SECTION XXVII.

Account of Waggons, Carts, Ploughs, Harrows: the Price, &c.

The price of a waggon in America is one hundred dollars. It is nearly as light made as a coach, and particularly the wheels; for which reason the iron work is not heavy or expensive. The body is generally high on the sides, upright, tilted with bows all over it, and covered with white linen cloth, as they are chiefly intended for marketing. The cover keeps the sun off in summer, the frost out in winter, and furnishes the farmer with a place of abode during the time he is on his journey to market; or, when in town, to breakfast, dine, sup, and sleep in. There are generally pumps for water, near to the place where the stands of waggons are;
and as the farmer and his horses both drink and sleep in the streets, it is a very necessary duty for the mayor of a town to place pumps for their accommodation. The horses draw double, by a pole, in the same manner as the stage-coaches are drawn in England. There is a trough fixed upon the pole, behind the waggon, from which the horses feed, two on each side, when in cities and towns, as the farmer is usually two or three days doing his business. —The driver rides on the near-side hind horse, and has lines to the two leaders: I much approve both of the waggons, and the management of the horses, as the driver has good opportunity to keep every horse to his work. It is as common to see the driver ride on an ox as on a horse.

A one-horse cart costs from thirty-four to forty dollars: it is made light, and tilted in the same manner as the waggon. The driver sits in the cart to drive. A two-horse cart costs from fifty-four to sixty dollars.
A plough of the bar-share sort costs forty-three dollars, without any iron work. The share of this plough has a bar of iron, which comes to the land handle, or still; a bolt from the share, or bar, through the beam; another bolt through the land-still; and through the other still, and mould-board, there is a sheath, but no head. The coulter has a hole at the back; the share-point is made round, and goes into it; the end of the coulter is flat, and lies on the ground like the point of our English share. Many of the ploughs in make resemble a glut-wedge, being narrow before and wider behind; and if the sod were tough, as the English sward, it would scarcely set it on its edge, much less turn it over: but there being no sod, the plough roots up the soil, and leaves it on its edge, having no breast or turn in the upper part of the mould-board. The horses draw double, as in England. There is what they call a shovel-plough, something like a paring-spade, that I do not think
worth describing. A few of the swing or Rotherham ploughs are used, which cost four dollars for the wood-work.

Their harrows, which are made in a triangular form, with a pair of stilts behind, as a plough, do their work well, and I think them worthy attention. The man who follows the harrow takes equal pains to direct it as the plough. These harrows answer very well among stumps of trees, &c. They generally leave their land in a rough manner after sowing, compared to what we do in England; and, although I disapproved of it much at first, I do not know but it may be proper and necessary there: for, in many situations, were they to pulverise it, and make it so fine as we are wont to do, the heavy rains would carry great part of the soil away, from its lightness; and where it is of a clayey nature, it would be like a floor. In some of my lands, which I made fine mould, I found the whole of the soil to move, for an acre together, when a heavy rain fell, from the current in
some places cutting gullies, and carrying part of the manure away; and the soil seemed to press in or slip after it.

I invented a scarifier to run in the spaces betwixt the corn—a most excellent thing in light lands for a number of uses—to cut three feet clear, with seven teeth of a triangular form, and a pair of stilts with a holder. For raising Indian corn, the roots of which cannot be too much disturbed, provided they are not cut, it was a most useful invention, as the root extends to a prodigious distance, if the land be of a light nature. The make of this scarifier is as follows: the sides of the triangle four feet each; the hind cap or head three feet; a beam, for the horses to draw by, six feet and a half long, bolted upon the top of the triangle; a slit through the middle part of the triangle, to strengthen it: the teeth sixteen inches long from the bull to the ground, and to fix in the bulls with screws at the top, to make them stand fast; the bottom part made like a horse-fleam, quite sharp, and to lie flat on
the ground, so as to cut clear and regular; these were put into the sides, two and two; seven in number, three on each side, and one in the middle of the hind cap; and bent in such a manner, that bindweed or refuse-stuff could hang upon them, as on the tooth of the swarth-rake,—what may be termed *racked*, which causes all refuse-stuff to rise to the top. To the beam was affixed a wheel-coulter, to steady the movement.
SECTION XXVIII.

Particular Explanations on the Subject of the Author's Opinion respecting Salt Marshes.

Although I did not travel into the back lands, I can with safety say, that I have travelled sufficiently in the inhabited parts of America, to take a fair view of as much land as the half of England contains; after which, I hope the reader will allow me to have seen enough to judge of the country. And it was not by riding along the highways, as some travellers and authors do: nay, I believe, some have written from hearsay. A man, although a good judge of land, may be very much deceived by journeying along the beaten roads; even in crops when growing, unless he goes into them; and much more so in travelling through woods. But the remarks which I have given in this
work, were made in going over the land. I have seen some tracts between Baltimore and Philadelphia, from Newark to Derby, which make a much better appearance, as grazing land, than others I have surveyed. Observing, however, that no sod was formed, I can safely say they are not at all equal to the lands in England.

There is a neck of land near Philadelphia, the best I saw in America, for meadow: but so small a part is not worth general observation. There are tracts about Newcastle, which, as tillage land, make a better appearance than some others, from quicks being set, and having raised thorn hedges; which are a very great advantage to the appearance of a country: and the case is the same about Wilmington. But in riding over the grounds about Wilmington, I found them very barren, except for Indian corn: and I conclude the lands from Newark to Derby to be the same, since I never saw any fine crops of grain grown thereon, as I rode through, but very fine Indian corn;
and there were small numbers of fat cattle, and tolerably good pastures in the spring.

There are large salt marshes between New-York and Philadelphia. These marshes produce a kind of reed or flag, such as those in the fens in England of which besoms are made. That sort of stuff is mown for hay, brought up to the high land, and laid before cattle, during the winter: but not much of it is eaten. The inhabitants deem it a sort of manure for their land: and I make no doubt it is so, from the salt it imbibes, which causes a moisture, and must be valuable on such hot dry soil. Nay, the bare spreading it over the land, I am persuaded, is good; as I have an idea that if straw or stubble were laid on land during the winter, taken off in the spring, and crops sown thereon, it would be of service. I am from experience convinced, that the more land is kept from the rays of the sun in summer, and the severity of winter, the better. The frost, in the winter, seems to meliorate the land: but I still retain an opinion that the
land so covered would imbibe a richness, and become equally mellow, if not more so, especially in wet winters, without frost. As to the summer season, all doubts are out of my mind. It may be said by the reader that what is here proposed cannot be done without an enormous expence. I should not wish to have it understood, that this can be made general: but in such instances as it can be put in execution, it may prove worth observation; and it is a convincing proof that the Americans make the best of their mite.

There is a farm, twelve miles from Philadelphia, in the road to New-York, which belonged to a reputed rich merchant, an Englishman, Mr. William Bell. He built a barn and stables, and inclosed a fold-yard, perhaps in as proper a manner as can be imagined. It is a square fold, surrounded with buildings; the lower part for the cattle to eat their fodder under, with racks, mangers, partitions proper for their quietude and composure; a fold-
yard to let them take the air in, in the day-time: all is so formed that the grain may be put in at the back part; and the floors are laid in such a manner, that the corn may be carried to the barn without the loss of one grain, or a single straw. This saves the thatching of stacks at the time when harvest is got in, or cellars to put turnips and potatoes in, to preserve them from frost. The stables for horses are so situated that, from the intended thrashing-floor, there is no occasion to go out into the wet or cold. The fences round the farm are made of cedar-posts and chesnut-rails, which, it is said, will last a hundred years. The land is rented at twenty shillings per acre, per year, as I remember; and is as good land for tillage as the greatest part of America. The stumps of trees are all taken out of the land, &c.

I was introduced to the tenant, who is the son of a gentleman in the corporation in Philadelphia; and, therefore, one might imagine, not destitute of money to execute
his farming business in a proper manner. He told me of most extraordinary crops he had raised. He seemed to be doing great things: he took in horses from Philadelphia, as a stable-keeper, for the winter, to eat the summer's produce, and in the summer to eat his clover or pasture: in fact, every thing seemed to be done to the best advantage. He became a subscriber to my books. But he left this farm, after cultivating it some years, in distressed circumstances, even so much so as to pay me only two dollars when I delivered the books. I called on him several times for the remainder; but he never was able to pay it. I expected this result when I first saw the farm. It was in the beginning of January: there were none of those fine crops visible: the barn contained the produce; which did not appear very close stowed at that time: these fine offices had nothing in them. I had an offer of the farm: the gentleman told me that three hundred pounds a year
was the rent, and that was not interest for the money laid out upon the estate, exclusive of the first purchase-money. I believed it to be true: and it plainly shews that there is no land which will bear these expensive improvements: nor is there any occasion for them; the produce is so small, it lies in a little compass. From the erections, on many improved estates in America, one might imagine that the Americans thought the buildings would raise produce: but that is not the case. I could enumerate many instances similar to that above mentioned: but I shall forbear; thinking it unnecessary, as I have given sufficient examples to convince the reader of the intention of this work, which is to shew the real value of those cheap lands in America.
SECTION XXIX.

On Emigration; and its Consequences. Anecdotes of a most important Nature, respecting the Impositions and fraudulent Practices connected with this Subject.

It would be easy for me, as a speculator in lands, to have enriched myself if I chose, by accepting those lands of General Stone, purchasing others of him, returning to England, reporting up and down this country that I had two thousand acres, the best in the world, and there were more to sell; and thus, deluding as many families over into America as I possibly could, pocket all the money that I had obtained from them: for, whatever money I might receive for the land, would have been more than it was worth. There are often emigrants in America, who, having got into a very distressed situation, and not knowing how to release themselves, write to their
relations and friends, stating that great advantages will accrue, if they will come over to them. This is to get hold of some property from those people, to relieve their own embarrassments. I know of one instance, where the elder brother wrote to a younger, who was possessed of six thousand pounds sterling, accepting this young man into partnership as a merchant; and, in less than twelve months after, they became bankrupts; and the younger brother lost every shilling of his property.

In the number of men in America from England, I do not know a single instance of an English farmer having prospered: but they live generally in the most uncomfortable manner, or what would be called in England distress. Some men in trade have succeeded, and are persons of real property: but I made an observation, during the time I was there, that, from the tales which they themselves tell, their riches were not obtained by fair dealing.

It is usual with men who have risen
from nothing, to begin at their first entry into life, and give you a journal of it. This was the case with Mr. Bell, of Philadelphia. He asked me to dine with him; when he gave me the history of his progress: and at that time, not knowing but I should settle in the country, I made a point to take great notice of these men’s stories, that I might acquire the knowledge of growing rich, as I could clearly see it was not to be accomplished by farming. I found that the first money Mr. Bell acquired (what is called fortunate money, since all his great riches arose from it) was by buying damaged hats, that had been imported, and were rotten—a pretty large quantity of them for a very small sum of money. He used to sit up, and in the night, for fear any one should see him, to trim them for sale: had they been seen before dressing, the market would have been over. The method he adopted to make them saleable was a singular one: it was by oiling, and afterwards pressing them with a
hot iron. He likewise told me several other stories similar to the preceding. It is a common saying in England, that "Cheating never thrives:" but, in America, with honest trading you cannot succeed.

Another merchant,—a distant relation of mine,—the son of a very worthy and respectable farmer in England, who makes a considerable figure in life, tells me that he left England with fifteen guineas in his pocket: and when he arrived in America he got into a merchant's office, where they kept clerks, and carried on an extensive business. He soon discovered that they were not worth a guinea; but all they did was on credit. "Oh!" thought he, "if this be the case, I will be a merchant myself." To effect this, he wrote to his father in England, that, if he would send him two hundred pounds sterling, he could do very well. Accordingly, his father sent the desired sum. Instead of buying goods with the money, as he might be expected to have done, he bought two horses, kept
a servant, rode about the country, and got into company, taking care to talk of a rich uncle he had in England who was his godfather, that his relations were wealthy, and that he had great expectations from them. By these means he formed connections, bought large quantities of goods on credit, took a proper place in a town, and fixed himself as a merchant; and, from every appearance, was doing very well. He said the Americans were the easiest to cheat of any men in the world; only it must be done in their own way,—by outward show and deception. Since my return to England, I have been informed, from very good authority, that this man is become a bankrupt; and, at the close of his career, he allured a young friend from this country to consign four hundred pounds to him, which were, of course, totally lost.

I made one general remark whilst there, that when a merchant is sure his affairs are in such a state that he must be insolvent,
the only way is to make a venture of large shipments to some part of the world. If attended with profit, he goes on; if with loss, it being his last effort, he takes care to purchase a large plantation, during the time the real state of his finances is hid from the public. The expectancies of profit, and the rumour of the large trade he carries on, give him credit. He says he is going to keep his country-house, and intends to retire from business: observing, he has got as much money as he would wish to have; the perplexities of trade are unpleasant to him as a man of property, and dangerous: he is, therefore, determined to act the prudent part:—and so he does; for lands in some parts of America cannot be seized by the creditors; and he thinks it is one way of securing a home for himself and family.

Another way is to assign all, or as much as a man can raise, to some friend, to set out with again when his affairs are settled.
When these and other similar fraudulent practices are mentioned, the general observation is, "Oh, that is a tight hand!"

Another deception is, when an American merchant expects his creditors from England, to engage in building a large ship or two, to make it appear that he is at that time in great want of his cash, and he endeavours to get rid of his visitors in that way. The merchant keeps his carriage: he, if possible, gets the Englishman to step into it, jolts him about with his wife and daughters, and makes his life as pleasant as the country and circumstances will admit. As the person sent from England on commercial affairs is generally a young man, the good dinners, agreeable chit-chat of the American ladies, &c. soften his resolution, and give the American merchant an opportunity to have another order from England, by making some small remittances; and thus he contrives to spend three or four years more in the same manner.

Both before I went to America, and since
I returned home I have observed Englishmen when asked concerning their relations in America, how they are doing, or have done, say, "That they were a little unfortunate at last; but that they have retired to an estate in the country, and turned farmers." I used to think that was a very good thing: it is, however, a deception worth notice; for it appears in England, to those who never saw America, a pretty establishment; but there are many individuals, possessing thousands of acres, who cannot raise a dollar. The real comforts of this class of men are few, and their miseries many. In fact, I would prefer the humble state of a shepherd in some parts of England to that of one of these sort of farmers in America.

I have, in conversation, in the city of Baltimore, heard it observed that a gentleman of my acquaintance was no merchant. I used to wonder what they meant. He is a man of landed property in Ireland and America, appears remarkably attentive and industrious, and makes shipments
as other merchants do. I found out that he did not dash beyond his capital. Another man was highly spoken of, deemed one of the best merchants in the city of Baltimore, and allowed to be a man who knew his business better than any other person. This man broke: I went to his sale; and, during the little time I was in the place, they were selling some paintings of the most extravagant nature, a silver bread-basket, silver waiters, &c. He kept his carriage and pair of horses; though, from the best enquiry I could make, he and his wife together were not worth at their beginning five hundred pounds sterling: yet such a character is called the real merchant in America. The former gentleman is termed no merchant, notwithstanding, from General Washington’s table to that of the lowest person I had an opportunity to call on, I found his family to be the most hospitable, and his people the most liberal in all small reckonings, of any persons with whom I have been acquainted: they seem to feel
pleasure in entertaining you: I met with the most kind reception.

Since my return to England, I was in a large company, at a place not far from Liverpool, when a gentleman was saying he had shipped many persons to America; and they all had made large fortunes. I, knowing that to be impossible, enquired where they lived, who they were, their names, &c. The gentleman named one, whose residence I knew very well: he is a Cheshire man, and for some time made what is termed Cheshire cheese in America: there is a poor living to be acquired by that means. Had I not been previously acquainted with the person spoken of, I should have been unable to contradict the gentleman's report. I have not any stronger proof of the man's real property, or his great success, than that he has given over making it, and now sells milk in Philadelphia, at the distance of fourteen miles: therefore he travels fifty-six miles a day in summer, as he must then go
twice; and twenty-eight miles a day in winter, going and returning, along as bad roads as any in America. Had the cheese-making been so profitable as for the man to have got a rapid fortune by it, he would likely have turned his farm to some more snug business than either. But the man's situation appears a distressed one. I called there one cold frosty evening.—There was a little boy, who appeared to be about nine years old, very ragged, with a hat which wanted great part of the crown, chopping a piece of rail into two pieces about four feet long: and I saw little or no more to chop: wood is very scarce about the place. This boy proved to be Mr. S——'s son. I asked him, if Mr. S—— was at home. He said "No: his daddy was not at home; but his grand-daddy was in the house." I got off my horse, and went in. There the old man was sitting over a few embers, as dirty and ragged as any pauper in England: such are the boasted riches and comforts of
the English farmer who goes to America! The gentleman further said, that Mr. S—— took nine thousand pounds sterling to America with him. I need only observe that it is not usual in England for men with these thousands to live in that manner. Care in England produces comfort: but want often attends the utmost care in America. I have found out that the above friend to emigration was a captain of a ship; and the reason why all those favourable accounts are given of America, is, that the interest of such a town as Liverpool is to support the trade of the place. There is a more cruel traffic carried on for white slaves from thence to America than the African slave-trade to the West-Indies, of which I received the following proofs.

I by chance had some business in a public-house in Liverpool; where there were two captains of ships, both Englishmen: and they had been saying the most favourable things of America. There happened to be a gentleman present who knew me;
and, from what he had heard from me, was debating with them. He asked me to sit down, and, in conversation with these captains, I, from their defence, discovered their forte. The fact is this: these captains receive twenty-five guineas a man for passage; and they can carry them for less than five pounds in provision; so that they get twenty guineas by each passenger. Five pounds will maintain a man from thirty to sixty days very well on salt pork, potatoes, and coarse biscuit, with water to drink. The greatest number of residents in Liverpool are benefited by this business: for the captain buys meat of one person, bread of a second, porter of a third, ropes of a fourth, butter of a fifth, &c. I have been amazed how those abominable lies come to be told of the general prosperity of America, knowing it to be much to the contrary: but the cause is plain. Most men will say something for the sake of gain, especially captains of those sort of ships. They advertise in the newspapers good accommo-
dation for passengers, go into the public-houses to swagger, and extol America above all places in the world. The abuse is very great indeed. Of those individuals who are deluded away from this country, some pay all they can raise for their passage; others probably have no money to pay; and it is of no consequence to the captain of the ship, whether the men have money or not, provided he can persuade them to go. I have heard the captains relate fine tales in America, of bringing men from England without money. This conduct appeared very generous on their part: but the evident fact is, that there are plenty of buyers to be found when they arrive at America. A negro sells for one hundred pounds: a white man will surely sell for twenty guineas; therefore he sells these people for all he can, or probably under commission, before he comes, with some tavern-keeper. The emigrant is kept like a horse for sale, in America.

I remember to have been informed when
there were about two hundred Welsh people landed at Baltimore; and I rode down, it being the time when I wanted hands to get potatoes, pull corn, &c. There are a Welshman and woman who keep a tavern at the Point at Baltimore: and when I went into the house, I saw something I did not understand. These tavern-keepers had the disposal of them all:—such a one, with so many children, must be so much; and another so much. I did not go there with an intention to buy these people as slaves. I did not know at that time what it meant; nor should I have understood it at all, if I had not met with these captains. I had supposed that those people had wanted to hire themselves by the day or week. I heard afterwards that these people were soon swept off to the back woods, about three hundred miles distant from the place of sale. It astonished me till now, how they accomplished such a long journey. The people from the back settlements, with their waggons, who bring flour to Baltimore,
buy these people to sell again, or something of that kind. Three or four hundred miles are not so quickly travelled; and the expence is very considerable, even in the cheapest possible mode that can be adopted. These captains, tavern-keepers, and, perhaps, farmers, thus gain large sums of money, in an abusive traffic, much more reprehensible than highway-robbery. The buyer of these men agrees to provide them with food for a certain time for their labour. He likewise clothes them, on trust; and when the time agreed upon for the payment of the ship's freight, tavern expences, &c. is expired, then the slave is to be set free. But he and family, perhaps, have had some clothes and a little money, on which account the unfortunate man is detained till he has worked out the best of his days before he is liberated. Now, as to the negro, the master is compelled to keep him when he is old and past work, and to pay a tax for him; so that there is every encouragement to the American farmer for forcing the trade
in white men. The man from England has been accustomed to eat wheat or rye bread, drink beer, and to live in a favourable climate: but he goes to a country where there is no such thing as either bread or beer; his labour is with a hoe and pick-axe, instead of a plough, harrows, and horses. The negro, transported from Africa to the West-Indies, is not half so ill off; for he lives better in the latter place than in his native country; the climate is such as he has been used to, and his labour the same. It is easy to conceive that this tavern-keeper from Wales will write favourable letters to his country-men; and perhaps some of those poor creatures are friends of the Welsh tavern-keeper. It is something like Piper Gang, in the horse-trade. The captains of those ships appear, in the eyes of such emigrants, to be liberal-minded men. When one of them is applied to for these deluded wretches' passage, he is ready to receive all that present themselves, without any pay, and to afford them every accommo-
dation. This apparent generosity of the captain is further confirmed by the repeated assurances he artfully amuses them with during the voyage:—that his conduct was dictated by the purest friendship; which originated, he pretends, either from the acquaintance he has with the before-mentioned Welsh tavern-keeper in America, or out of humanity to these poor creatures, who are so burthened with taxes in England,—although many of them pay little or none,—and so distressed by the dearness of provision, &c. He will, out of charity, take them to this free land of plenty!

Every necessary of life, however, is equally dear to the poor man in America as in England, but much worse in its kind, beef excepted; and beef is nearly so to the poor, although not to the rich, for the following reason.—In the shambles, it is seldom lower than from eight to ten pence per pound; in the waggons, from four to five pence. The cause is, that, out of the shambles, no man is permitted to sell less
than a quarter of any animal; and as the poor man is very unlikely to have it in his power to buy a quarter, he is deprived of that market. At the time I quitted Baltimore, bread, when bought of the baker, cost me on the average, for seven persons in family, three shillings currency, a day; and when I arrived at Liverpool, one shilling sterling: wheat-flour, per barrel, at Baltimore, four pounds seven shillings and six pence currency; and at Liverpool, three pounds ten shillings sterling. I do not recollect the weight of the loaf of bread; but I remember Mr. Brydon's (who keeps a tavern) brother (who is the captain of a ship trading to London) arrived at Baltimore a few days before I left the country; and, being asked the price of beef and bread in London, he gave the weight and price of the loaf there; when a calculation was made, by which it appeared that bread was a half-penny in the shilling cheaper in London than at Baltimore; and barreled beef about the same price. But the poor
emigrant need not trouble himself respecting either, as his constant food will be Indian flour, salt herrings, or pork,—of the latter very little,—and water to drink.

Now, from the statements above, if it be the wish of the government of this free country to abolish such commerce, I, from my own knowledge, will undertake to say, it would be as necessary to keep a watchful eye towards those deluded people, as for a mother over her child to prevent its running into fire or water: for these poor emigrants are not capable of taking care of themselves; and they get into a trap, from which they cannot afterwards by any means escape: since, when they are removed from three hundred to eight hundred miles from the cities, it is expensive to return to them, much more to find money to pay for their passage back to England. It will cost a man and his family from one hundred to two hundred pounds in the most careful way that he can contrive. If it were not for the abuse committed on these people,
my countrymen,—for whom I feel much,—I should not suffer half the anxiety on the occasion that I do; because as only the great, or better order of people, can be expected to read this work, I shall not acquire money from that description of mankind whom I wish to render service, if these observations answer that end. But I think it my duty as a Christian, as it is the duty of a judge in a court of justice, or of a priest in the church, to labour for the good order, preservation, and happiness, of the people.

I am of opinion that great numbers of the captains of ships, who are Englishmen, do not know any better than what they say; but they care as little: for they take goods into the American ports; and, although there be great want in those cities and towns, there is little or no visible appearance of it at the taverns:—fine dinners; fruits of many sorts after the cloth is taken away; wine in plenty, at seven shillings and six pence per bottle; segars to smoke,
at five pence for four; dinner, with one expence or other, about twelve shillings; breakfast, three shillings and nine pence; supper, the same; a glass or two of brandy and water, eleven pence each. In all, the expence is about one pound two shillings and six pence per day. Now these captains know, that in Liverpool they live, as to eating, at one guinea per week, and have malt liquor; or allowing for smoking, wine, and brandy, two shillings and eight pence, it will be five shillings and eight pence per day: whereas in America, it costs fifteen shillings sterling, without any malt liquor. If they have a bottle of porter, it will be one shilling and ten pence more; and a bottle of porter is only three half-pints wine-measure. These are the regular expences of the two countries; and they will enable the reader to judge. To corroborate the above statements, however, the following bill is added.
Mr. Parkinson to James Brydon, Dr.

1800.—

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>£.</th>
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| June 14    | Punch, 1s.—hay and oats, 2s. 10d. | 0  | 3  | 10  
|            | Breakfast, 3s. 9d.—punch, 3s. 9d. |    |    |     |
|            | dinner, 5s. 7½d.—club, 1s. 10½d. |    |    |     |
|            | —hay and oats, 2s. 10½d.         | 0  | 17 | 10  
| 18         | Breakfast,                      |    |    | 3   |
| July 9     | Dinner, 5s. 7½d.—club, 9s. 4½d. | 0  | 15 | 0    |
| 20         | Punch, 1s. 10½d.—segars, 1s. 10½d.|    |    |     |
|            | —hay and oats, 2s. 10½d.         | 0  | 6  | 7½  
| Aug. 3     | Hay and oats,                   | 0  | 2  | 10½ |
| 4          | Ditto,                         | 0  | 2  | 10½ |
| 15         | Breakfast,                      |    |    | 3   |
| Oct. 6     | Dinner, 5s. 7½d.—porter, 3s. 9d.| 0  | 9  | 4½  |
| 17         | Lodgings,                      | 0  | 1  | 10½ |
| 31         | Dinner, 5s. 7½d.—club, 1s. 10½d.| 0  | 7  | 6    |
| Dec. 11    | Dinner for two, 11s. 3d.—porter,|    |    |     |
|            | 3s. 9d.—port wine, 7s. 6d.      | 1  | 2  | 6    |
| 12         | Hay and oats,                   | 0  | 2  | 10½ |
| 19         | Madeira,                       | 0  | 5  | 7½  |
| 22         | Hay and oats,                   | 0  | 2  | 10½ |
| 30         | Repast for two, 3s. 9d.—brandy, |    |    |     |
|            | 3s. 9d.—dinner for two, 11s. 3d.|    |    |     |
|            | —Madeira, 16s. 10½d.—segars, 6d. | 1  | 16 | 1½  |
| 1801.—     | Hay and oats,                   | 0  | 2  | 10½ |
| Jan. 1     | Dinner, 5s. 7½d.—brandy, 6d.   | 0  | 6  | 1½  |
| 3          | Ditto for two, 11s. 3d.—brandy, | 0  | 12 | 3    |

£. 8 6 7½
I met with great indulgence at Mr. Brydon's. It is customary when you put your horse up and lodge in a tavern to pay a regular price, dine or not, for every meal, which is called boarding in the house, you occupying a bed: as to a room you cannot obtain one, it being general to have from two to twelve beds in each apartment.

The poverty of America has been proved to me in many instances. I will relate one. I was in habits of friendship with a regular attorney at Baltimore, who professed a respect for me, and was continually inviting me to dine with him. He was a man of family: a town, in which he held a large property, bore his name; he had fifteen hundred acres of land in it, besides several other plantations. He kept his servant and a good horse or two in town. I became acquainted with him at General Ridgely's table. I was walking in company with him one day in Baltimore streets, when he met an English gentleman, whom he asked for the loan of twenty
dollars. The sum being so small, I made him an offer of it: this he accepted, saying, I must call on him the next day, and he would repay the money. He then owed me thirty dollars besides for a pig. Some little time after I dined with him, and wanted to send two hundred dollars to Philadelphia. Seeing reason to think I should have evidence that the money was safely transmitted, I wrote a letter, putting one hundred and fifty dollars into his hands, requesting, as a proof of friendship, that he would add the fifty dollars he stood indebted to me, enclose the whole sum in the letter, and then put them into the post-office. I saw him the next day: he told me he had conformed to my directions, and remarked the number of the banker's notes, &c. Never doubting but this was true, I went to Philadelphia fourteen days after, and found that my correspondent had received only one hundred dollars: the attorney had withheld the remainder.—Much amazed at this, I repeatedly wrote to
my supposed friend at Baltimore, but never received an answer, though I remained there seven weeks. When I returned to Baltimore, and saw the gentleman, he made me many apologies; saying he had got married, and had been very busy. He settled the matter, with much seeming displeasure to himself, by giving me a cheque on a bank for the money, which he knew would not be paid: the copy is as follows:

"N° 157. Baltimore, March 7th, 1801. Cashier of the Bank of Maryland, Pay to R. Parkinson, Esq. or Bearer, One Hundred Dollars, and _______ Cents. T. B. R________.

100 Dolls. ½₇₆₇."

He then entreated I would dine with him and his lady: said they were going to their country-seat for a few days; and requested me to accompany them; if not to go to see them, which I did, more with an intention to return the cheque, and recover my money, than any desire to see my inviters.
A few days after, he sent me fifty dollars by his servant. His place was in good order; and showed, for America, a degree of neatness which inspired me with hopes of success. I pressed the gentleman very much for cash, saying I was going to leave the country. He expressed great uneasiness at not being able to pay the money, but said he would raise it by the sale of his negro servant. I went with him to General Ridgely, who agreed to purchase the negro. My expectations of payment appeared confirmed, when I was again balked—for the General was to have the slave on liking. Thus I was amused from time to time with one evasion or other, but never received the fifty dollars due to me, nor do I believe ever shall. I suppose, however, that these and similar transactions are rather the result of necessity than inclination. A stranger would have thought this friend of mine worth thousands, by his manner of living: he bore the title of esquire, was an attorney, possessed much landed property, paid taxes

M M
to the amount of many thousand dollars, &c. And, what may appear strange, if I had made this story public there, it would rather have encreased my debtor's credit than otherwise; and the laugh would in all companies have gone against me. I mention this circumstance, as an excuse for the captains from England thinking America a rich place, and to shew the great encouragement there is for a man to act in a rascally manner. There is no transaction that I know of in America which does a man any discredit, except he loses money by it.—These captains, who are constantly going backwards and forwards between America and England, have it in their power to say a great deal in favour of the former country in ale-houses, where there seldom are persons to contradict them.

I have observed myself to be less popular at Liverpool, than at any place I ever was in. But I do not wonder at this, since it was known there that I intended to publish a work of this kind, which will more or
less affect every one in the town: for these captains have occasion to purchase almost every thing the place has in it, except flour. Bread they do buy. From this cause, they praise America; and a man must have strong lungs, and great resolution, to contradict them: nor is the doing so pleasant; for they accustom themselves to swear, and speak loud: having been used on board of ship to be absolute, they endeavour to be the same on shore: so that if there be a gentleman in company with these men, who wishes to contradict them, the business not concerning him, he chooses to let it alone: and, not knowing America except from hearsay, he is not able to make a proper defence, but perhaps gets the laugh of the company against him; as in such parties the individual who makes most noise wins the day. When these captains come to America, they industriously propagate the most unfavourable tales of their own country that can possibly be imagined. I have heard them declare, both in Phila-
delphia and Baltimore, that there was such a scarcity of provision in England, that they with their own eyes saw the poor dying in the open streets for want, and they made hundreds believe it. While I was there, knowing better, I used to contradict them, by saying it was impossible, as the English poor are provided, by the laws of their country, with food and clothing: but I really think the major part of the Americans believe their representations to be true.

It is one of the easiest things possible entirely to prevent the emigration of mechanics, as there is an act already existing for that purpose: only let a clause be added, obliging each mechanic to produce, to the collector in every port, a certificate, signed by the clergyman and officers of the parish he comes from; and let this obligation extend to every one that emigrates: for, although they are forbidden, there are greater numbers of that class of people leave England than of any other, and they are more distressed than other men, because
there are no manufactures in America to give them employment.

I was prompted to give the above idea to government by the following occurrence. Being on business in the custom-house at Liverpool, when there were some men present who intended to emigrate to America, Mr. Onslow, the collector, requested me to speak with them, before him. I found some of them were weavers, whom the law prohibits from leaving the country. It is probable, however, they would, by some deception, get over at a future time; but the certificate above mentioned would be a great prevention. There was one man with them, a methodist preacher, whom I recommended to go, as many of those people, under pretence of preaching the gospel, are a nuisance in this country; they live an idle life, and are, generally speaking, disturbers of the peace.
SECTION XXX.

Striking and interesting Proofs of the Advantages that England has over America. Lamentable Anecdotes of some Emigrants.

My opinion of the land in England is not lowered by going on this tour to America: and if those men who seemed to doubt the validity of the statements given in my former publication live, they may probably see the time when my words will be substantiated, in many instances, by an increased price and produce of the English lands; and, as to one thing which has been thought so extraordinary, viz. to keep ten cows, ten hogs, and get ten acres of wheat on twenty acres of land, every year, I could not have a greater pleasure than in doing it; and hope I shall: but I do not expect to grow rich by that. A man who cultivates soils so correctly, does not enrich himself very
quickly; but he is of infinite service to the public. The mode of rendering farming profitable is to procure as much produce from the land, and at as little expence, as possible; to rob the land, and leave it for some other person or generation to improve, whilst you live on the interest of the money. But, were that the general spirit of mankind, the whole country at large must in the end suffer by it.

Although the acquirement of riches is the primary desire of mankind, and they frequently barter every thing to obtain them, yet there are men in the world who thirst for something more than money; for instance, the great Mr. Bakewell. He pursued his object in the breed of animals, until it deranged his circumstances: at the same time that, in his expences, there was not a more economic man probably in the world, or one more industrious. I believe that the whole of his time and thoughts was employed in his most valuable pursuits; and there is no record of such a man existing
upon earth, in any age whatever. He threw such ideas before mankind, that the most prejudiced must ultimately acquiesce with him in opinion: for, send his breed of animals into what part of the world you please, they clearly prove the sagacity and truth of his practice and observations.

Some of Mr. Bakewell's cattle were imported by Mr. Lloyd, at Why-House, in America: Mr. Boadley, who was then living at Why-Island, says that Mr. Lloyd was quite displeased with the cattle when they arrived, being small, as he thought: and he almost starved them; so that it was wonderful to me they lived. This is the most striking instance of their being able to bear hardships I ever knew. He even neglected answering Mr. Bakewell's letter: Mr. Boadley undertook that office,—much to his credit, as shewing his better judgment; for the offspring of those cattle are superior to any I saw in that country.

That Mr. Bakewell pursued his experiments and speculations with the cheering
expectation of gain, there is not the least doubt: but, to succeed in his plan, required a great deal of time and money; and if he had had a sufficient sum to last him through life, in all probability the public would not have been so quickly benefited by it: but his failure, and the exposure of his affairs, by his valuable stock being offered to public sale, and more so the subscription given him by the noblemen and gentlemen in the country, led the curious to see his cattle; and he and his stock became generally known. There are many similar instances of public-spirited men not enriching themselves. It is frequently called a hobby-horse; but it is of considerable utility to the community at large: and perhaps there was never a donation better bestowed than that given to Mr. Bakewell, to enable him to keep such valuable stock together, by which means they will become universal over all the three united kingdoms.

From the various calculations made in the course of this work from facts, it appears
very plainly that American land is not worth cultivating as English farming; particularly from the produce being so small, and the expense so high. The land-owner is not enriched by large tracts of land: instead of cultivated lands being improved by agriculture, they, generally speaking, grow poorer; and it is evident they must, from such produce. The dunghill will consequently be the same: and I do not know whether a sufficient quantity of the compost which I so much recommend can be obtained in America, to cover the land in a proper manner, for want of good soil, and to pay for labour; as every thing that takes either man or horse, or both, to work it, is consumed by the process: and in some instances labour is not to be had even for money. I am indeed of opinion that there are many thousands of acres which, in their natural state, with the timber upon them, would keep more cattle, and pay more money, acre for acre, than after they are cleared; and for the following reasons:—There are
in the woods different sorts of shrubs, upon which the cattle browse early in the spring: and, during the summer, the trees keep the sun from the soil; and the weeds and a small quantity of bad grass grow in those places (though, after it is cleared, the land produces little or none); and, at the same time, the timber keeps the sun from the cattle, likewise the flies, which are more numerous than any man who has not been there will readily suppose. Then in the winter time the woods are warmer than can well be conceived. These observations make it plainly appear that the land in its natural state is of much more value for pasturing, and of more even temperature, than when it is cleared: and the falling of the leaves on the roots of grass, where there is any, is like covering grass-beds, or any other tender plants, in the winter, to preserve them from frost. In England, I know of very little or no land that does not by nature produce something, and will support sheep or rabbits: the former are one
cause (perhaps the only principal reason) of the greatness and riches enjoyed by Great Britain; whose inhabitants are thus provided, at the same time, with both food and clothing. For want of sheep in the greatest part of Cheshire and Lancashire, there is more waste committed than any like number of acres in America are worth. How many thousands of fleeces are clipped off the sheep in the county of Lincoln, and sent into Yorkshire!—and as the animal arrives there at the same time, the man who is working up the wool is perhaps fed with the carcase. During the winter, many thousands of these sheep are dunging the land in turnip-fields, and preparing it in such a manner for its crop as nothing else could effect; for it is out of the power of man to do it without them. The farmer's men and horses are employed in cultivating and preparing the land for its intended crop; which adds to the profit of the land and health of the cultivator.

But there are none of those advantages.
in America. As to sheep, they are out of the question. At present, if a man clips wool, there is no market for it: and if he has eighty pounds of wool, he may expect forty customers for it. Turnips will not stand the winter: and if they did, they would be of no use: for the frost is so intense that turnips are rendered extremely hard, and the frozen ground appears like a solid rock.

I met with one farmer from the south of England, who bought an estate in Hertford county, and began farming, as in Britain: he raised a crop of turnips, and prepared sheep-pens or trays for the folding of his sheep upon them; but, alas! in November he found the ground so hard that it was impossible to make any incision in it for his trays; and the turnips, in consequence of their hardness, could not be eaten: he therefore lost his crop. After this, he sowed barley and clover; and finding that they would not do, he supposed grazing was the best. He thought to feed sheep and cattle
in summer on clover, as no grass would grow: in the winter on clover-hay. He then raised one hundred acres of clover; but when the part meadowed was ready to cut, there could not be found a sufficient number of mowers for the purpose: the men he had got would not get the work forward: he was then compelled to assist in mowing, and all his family in making the hay; his eldest daughter, who in England had learnt to play on the harpsichord, &c. was a hay-maker. He became tired of this sort of sport, left his estate to manage itself, and set up as a soap-boiler in the city of Baltimore: now it is to be considered that he has this business to learn, and is subject to great loss or waste. His two sons are making soap: the eldest daughter is gone to service as tutor to a gentleman's daughters: some part of the family remains at the farm; but, instead of cultivating it, which they found so unprofitable, they buy eggs, butter, geese, ducks, turkeys, fowls, &c. send them to Baltimore, and keep a wagon continually going backwards and for-
wards on this business; the wife remaining in the market to sell them.

These are the general comforts which an English farmer enjoys in America. As soon as I landed there, the pleasures I had were those of hearing my countrymen, as a mark of esteem, tell me these uncomfortable stories, until, I must confess, I was afraid to meet an Englishman. If I asked my family, one by one, how they liked America, the answer uniformly was, "Not at all." I very soon considered myself as a fool, or like a man in deep water, who would swim out if he could; which I have done, and sincerely thank God for it.

There is an English farmer, from the neighbourhood of London, living only three miles from Baltimore. The last time I saw him, he was stripped to his shirt, making a milk-cart. He told me, that he brought six thousand guineas in hard cash; but he has got rid of all that sum by buying cheap land, farming, &c. and he says he is not worth one shilling, being so much em-
barrassed as to apply to congress for a bill of insolvency.  
Districting spirits from the different fruits appears to me to be the most profitable mode of making great part of the lands in America of any value. As a proof of this, General Washington, before his death, had erected a still, though he was only nine miles from market.  

From the different observations I have made, the reader may easily conclude how unfit an English farmer is to cultivate the soils of America. The Americans have an usual phrase, that English farmers can do nothing in that country. I feel particularly for the poor souls who have left Wales. I have had a great number of them at my house at Orange-Hill, wanting employ; but they were unaccustomed to the work I wanted men for at that time,—topping and blading of corn, &c. I can compare them to nothing but an old horse turned out on a common to pine and starve to death; as there are no poor-laws in that
country, nor provision for the old and indigent. Indeed, I know no situation of life a man can be subjected to in England which can be much bettered in America: and it is ten times worse for ladies; for all the servants I saw whilst I lived there, were more troublesome in their attendance than they were worth. I have been at a gentleman’s house, near Philadelphia, for fourteen days together, when he has not had less than eight servants in and about his residence, and yet cleaned his own boots every morning. His reason was, he could not get them cleaned in a manner fit to be seen. His wife prepared breakfast, and cooked dinner. He was an Englishman, employing in shipments, when he first went over, a property of sixty thousand pounds. This gentleman, hearing of the advantages to be found in America, had quitted London with two brothers: but he told me that he had reduced this large sum to two thousand pounds, by trade in Philadelphia, in a few years. His first misfortune was occasioned
by the yellow fever, which made its appearance in the city, and all trade ceased: his goods lay on hand, all his people were idle—he had milliners, fancy-dress makers, &c. from London. The regular orders came as usual from England; therefore, having a partner in London, he thought it advisable to send to him to determine what was to be done. They resolved to begin shipping; and I have heard him say, they never had but one venture that paid more than the freight.

I was told by a man in Philadelphia, that he and many others, to the number of seventy families, were decoyed from their homes to go to America, by a religionist of this country. This person, on a plan or map, bought lands, along with others, in Alleghany county, from this highly pious man, who left England on the principle of devotion: and his religion was, to sell these poor fellows the barren rocks and keep the valleys to himself. Some of these people attempted to cultivate them: but the man above mentioned, more wise, left
the land, and lost the money. He never
made any use of the land at all; and those
who did are actually starving. The son of
this impostor, I am told, has been in this
country, and speaks highly of their pro-
spects;—in all probability with an inten-
tion to cheat some more of these sort of
people. I was with these gentlemen in
America: by their conversation, I believe
they may not be judges of land; and that
is the best excuse that can be allowed for
them: but let them go on in cultivating
their valleys; and I dare to say it will
teach them something about the matter.
A dissenting-preacher in England is more
likely to obtain followers to lasciviousness,
than to become American farmers. This
man said it had brought him to the greatest
distress. I have been told there was one
man who took many emigrants over, got
their money for land, though he had none
to dispose of, and, after they landed, ran
away; so that they never saw him again.
There are several instances of the kind.
Keeping a tavern is looked upon as advantageous. But, to my great surprise, I found only three Englishmen in that way of life, and all dissatisfied. One of them lives at Philadelphia, keeps one of the first taverns, and deals very largely in horses. He told me that he did not like his situation: but knowing the art of cropping and nicking horses, and breaking them for carriages, which is not much known in America, he is resorted to by many gentlemen from great distances. I was acquainted with some persons who have gone from two to three hundred miles, to buy coach-horses of him. He told me, notwithstanding he appeared to have the best business in the country, that there was nothing to be done: he had sold forty-five horses in England in one day, which was more than he had ever disposed of in America in a year: where, for want of a return, they were rather a loss; the feeding of, and attendance upon, horses, consuming the profit.
I am ignorant of the business of a merchant: but I know more who have been unsuccessful than otherwise. As to those persons termed store-keepers, British goods are often sold by them for as little, at their auctions, at Baltimore, as they cost in England. But this answers their purpose: for it raises what is wanted to purchase sugar, rum, &c. from the West-Indies:—it is absolutely borrowing the money of the English merchant, to buy West-India produce with. I consider the business of a store-keeper in America as dangerous. It is common to give twelve months' credit for goods to the planters and farmers: and as the land is so poor, and the crops precarious, both as to tobacco and grain, if the crop fail, the payment likewise must of course. These two crops are the chief: all others, in the parts I was in, were of only a very small assistance.

As to sheep, I never heard any man mention them with an idea of profit: they are
kept as one of the necessaries of life, the same as a garden in England.

Down on the Eastern shore, there is a very large tract of land, already mentioned, from which the inhabitants obtain all or the chief part of their coffee, tea, sugar, salt, &c. with their own and their negroes' clothing.

It was a general report that the people of this tract experienced a failure in the wheat-crops, owing, as is said, to the Hessian fly; but rather, in my opinion, to the poverty of the soil: and how can it be otherwise, since the greater part of the land has borne wheat and other corn ever since it was cleared, and was never dunged? And it is not the fault of the farmer in laying the dung upon the land, but the light produce which makes a dunghill sufficient only to cover a very small space every year; so that the land is continually in a declining state. From this cause, those farmers were regularly two years behind-hand in their payments to the store-keepers: and it seems
providential that England should give them such enormous prices as it does for their wheat and flour; which may probably fetch them up again: for the average price of wheat was eleven shillings per bushel, but is now seventeen shillings; which must give them great assistance towards paying the store-keepers, as it appears to have been a custom for many years past to pay them annually. Notwithstanding this, however, the natural poverty of the soil is a misfortune never to be remedied.

I have heard a lady in Baltimore, who is now the wife of a merchant, say, she was the daughter of one of the first planters in Maryland, and that after the wheat and tobacco were sold, when the store-keeper's bill was discharged, the overseer paid, &c. her father would not have above two or three hundred dollars left, which were soon spent; and he was perhaps the whole year after without a dollar in his pocket.—The lady further observed, that she had three sisters, and they kept a carriage, had
servants, and plenty of every thing but money; so that if a post-letter only came to the house, there would be hunting of pockets to pay for it.

It is very customary for these farmers to give orders on the store-keepers for such payments as they cannot avoid during the year; which in general is British money, raised from the sale of British goods: and I should think that, if the English merchants were to stop sending those goods, there would be almost a total stagnation of business for want of money in America; and the West-India trade is carried on by the Americans with British credit. At horse-races in America, it is usual to hear a suit of clothes, a hat, or a pair of boots, &c. offered as a bet, which staggered me at first; but the reason is, the store-keeper pays all with British property.

House-builders and masons are numerous in America—more than find employment; and there are very great inconveniences attending these two trades: the
Winters are so severe as sometimes to prevent them working for several months: the case is the same with the day-labourer in agriculture: and, from these natural causes, in travelling through any part of America, there is more distress met with in a day than is seen in England in forty years.

As you ride along the road, in very severe weather indeed, you will see the greatest part of the children nearly naked; and as to shoes and stockings, they are very rare. With respect to the farmer's horses in the waggons, all the accoutrements on four horses are not worth five shillings: they constantly work without shoes.—You may go into a very respectable man's house: the windows are broken; and you will find an old hat in one square, and an old waistcoat in another. In all probability this gentleman keeps his carriage; which is exposed to the weather, even on very snowy days; for he has no carriage-house. Yet, in company, talking of their carriages
and their carriage-horses appears to be the greatest pleasure those sort of gentry enjoy.

A tradesman is to consider another very unpleasant circumstance in towns and cities in America, namely, the yellow fever; in consequence of which, it has, lately, been usual, during three months in the year, for all trades to be stopped; and he is compelled not only to lose the profits of his business for that space of time, but also to incur a certain expence, if a merchant, by providing himself with a country-house for the year, or by taking lodgings for himself and family at twenty dollars per month; three months' rent will be twenty-two pounds ten shillings, besides the danger to his own life, and the lives of all his family—a great expence for a small tradesman!
SECTION XXXI.

Calculations of the greatest Produce from an Acre of Indian Corn; proving the Statements published by Mr. Cooper, Mr. Imly, and Others, to be erroneous. Anecdote of an Irish Doctor.

Indian corn is said to produce one hundred bushels per acre in the back countries: but this assertion is false. Indian corn is indeed the most useful crop in America, although not said to be beneficial; neither is it: for there can only be one thousand hills on an acre, with four plants to one hill; and supposing it a thing possible for every plant to have two ears, and every ear to have six hundred grains, that would be four thousand eight hundred grains on each hill; which would be four millions eight hundred thousand on an acre. Now I have accurately counted a bushel of Indian corn, and find it to contain eighty-three
thousand two hundred grains: therefore that would be no more than fifty-seven bushels and three quarters. But the usual growth is two plants on a hill, and there are sometimes twelve hundred hills, which would be two thousand four hundred grains on each hill, or thirty-four bushels and three quarters per acre. But the most certain crop is allowed by the oldest corn growers, to be this: two plants on a hill will, on an average, produce more corn than any greater number: though four are preferred for blades and tops: and, on a fair statement, three ears on each hill, with five hundred corns to an ear, and one thousand hills to the acre, will yield twenty-one bushels and a half. But, as the new-cleared land will have one-third of it covered with stumps of trees, that will make it equal to Mr. Boadley's calculations in his Sketches—about fifteen bushels per acre; which is allowed by all old corn growers to be a good crop. Now, in grain, as no more seed is sown, from the highest state-
ment, than four bushels to one acre, fifteen bushels produce will be as great as any in England, from one bushel. Supposing this to be wheat, as three bushels are sown on one acre in England, a proportion, in the produce, of fifteen bushels to the American acre, will be forty-five bushels to the English acre; which I dare say an English farmer will allow a very great produce. Now in barley, one bushel per American acre, and four bushels to the English acre, in a regular proportion, allowing in England forty-eight bushels to the acre, the acre of barley will be twelve bushels in America. And on land improper for oats, which is allowed to be the case with the American land, if five bushels of oats be sown on an English acre, the produce will be thirty-two bushels; the American acre, in the like proportion, will be one-fifth, which will be six bushels and two-fifths per acre from one bushel sown on an American acre. Now this will prove that the author
who published these statements of one hundred bushels of Indian corn, forty bushels of wheat, forty bushels of barley, is without either knowledge or calculation, which I know to be the case. But all calculation overruns produce, in a general way; and all crops in America are more liable to misfortune than the crops in England, for many reasons:—the shortness of the season to sow the spring crop; the little time it remains on the land, only from May to the latter end of June, to grow and ripen; and in wheat, the Hessian fly, which often totally destroys the crop; the rust and scab, so as to prevent any produce at all, in Indian corn. There is a worm which destroys the seed; and the blackbirds often peck it out of the ground; which is soon effected, the grains being so few in number on each hill. I have heard old corn growers say, that they sometimes have to plant three times in a season. When I saw the fine Indian corn at Mr. Lloyd's, he said there was in some places a great deal de-
stroyed by the grub: and in those back countries, to which the emigrants attempted to go, from five to eight hundred miles from market, he cannot calculate on more then one half the price for his produce; and, if the reader will observe those accounts, not near so much as half what it would fetch at New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, or Alexandria: and every thing he has to buy is much dearer. His clothing, coffee, tea, sugar, &c. having that distance to go, and by land carriage, these articles come very high. And if he want a blacksmith to do any thing, he will perhaps have several miles to ride or walk, from ten to thirty miles; a taylor the same. If he have any windows in his house, which are rare—it is usual to have two doors to the house, one on each side; they shut that on the side the wind blows, and open the other for light; which was the case with my kitchen at Orange-Hill—and they happen to be broken, they must remain so: he will not find either glass or glazier: for, i
general, the glass is ready cut when imported; and sometimes, even in cities, there is not the size to be got which he will want. Therefore a man who goes into these countries, must prepare himself for all inconveniences. If he raise a crop of corn or grain, and he or his family be sick, which too frequently happens, there is no help to be got for either love or money. In fact, a man must be all trades, even down to a cobbler. If a man would employ such industry in England, as he is compelled to do in those countries, he would be rich indeed. He must make his own ploughs, harrows, waggons, carts, in fact do every thing that can be imagined. His wife makes her husband's coat, and every other part of his clothing, and all the children's clothing. Even in towns and cities, on account of expence, the ladies of merchants, &c. make their husband's waistcoats and pantaloons.

As to money, there is none. I observed one day a strange man at Baltimore, who seemed, by his appearance, as if he
had not been in society for some years. I wished to get into his company; which I at last effected. He proved to be an Irish doctor, out of the Gennesee country; and was come there to buy drugs: to enable him to do which, he was obliged to bring horses to sell, as he had no other means of raising money; and he told me, he should lose at least half what the horses had cost him in price and expences, before he got them sold. He had six horses, and had been at Alexandria, and the federal city, several days, and sold but one. As there are no fairs in those countries, you are not sure of a purchaser, as in England. At Baltimore he exposed them to auction: he told me, he had sold one horse for forty-five dollars, which had cost him one hundred and fifty dollars before he set out. He had come six hundred miles: but the expences were so great, that he must part with them, lose what he might.—It should be understood, the prices the Doctor
allowed for his horses were much higher than are usually demanded in the back country, but he took them in payment for his professional attendance, and therefore was compelled to buy them at his patients' own price.—He said he could get no money as a Doctor, and therefore took produce. He told me his brother was a farmer; and I asked him the produce of their crops. Wheat and Indian corn were the only things his brother raised: he obtained about fifteen bushels of wheat per acre, and about twenty-five of corn; but he could not be correct in the Indian corn, it being used for the horses, cattle, &c.; he was more certain with respect to the wheat, as they tread it all out at one time. This Doctor's apparel was an old black coat and waistcoat, a large fan-tailed cocked hat, with a cockade on it, (for he held a commission, and said they were all soldiers where he lived,) a pair of old boots with many holes in them; all
as weather-beaten as if they had been exposed for some time on a manikin, to frighten crows in a field; and few labouring men in England would have put them on. This was the cause of my curiosity, as I saw him different from other human beings. I have very much to thank my friend Mr. Woods, who gave me information at the time when Judge Turner made me the offer of two hundred acres of land, which prevented me from taking so ruinous a step for myself and family. And although they persuade you there is no money wanted, you have a tax to pay; and, small as it is, or may be, you will find more trouble to raise that from nothing, than to pay rents for farms in England, where the markets are regular, and produce nearly so: and these people are often very much distressed to pay their taxes.—As to clothing, they go almost without: for there is a very heavy tax on it, and on every other article they buy. And al-
though authors describe wheat, Indian corn, beef, pork, fowls, &c. as so cheap in those parts, it is so much the worse for the landed property: as the farmer sells every thing he produces cheap, and buys every necessary dear, it requires no consideration to conceive his uncomfortable situation.
SECTION XXXII.


In my enquiries and searches in America, I had great opportunities of hearing the produce and improvements made in all countries, there being men from all parts in America, and every man from the different countries endeavouring to extol his native soil. But, to speak in the most independent manner, England is as much superior to all other countries, for the comfort and happiness of mankind, as the head is to the body, not only in regard to soil, but to climate, and government; and I am persuaded, that any man, who has been brought up in a country governed and regulated as England is, can never feel equal satisfaction under a republican govern-
ment. I can only speak of two governments, America and England. And as to America, although held up as a free country, there is more slavery endured there in one day, then there has been in England for ages. There are more impositions practised against the honest subject's rights, setting aside real slavery in the great number of negroes kept; and they are bought and sold in America in the same manner as horses and cattle are in England. I know Frenchmen in America, who, in all probability, hold out republican ideas respecting the liberty of the subject, and yet make it their trade to buy and sell negroes! A young stout healthy negro sells for one hundred pounds and upwards; which is a very heavy expence on the cultivation of American soils, and requires a further sum of money than is generally mentioned as to capital to begin with: and as they frequently abscond, you are liable to suffer great losses by them. I know an English emigrant who bought
six of those negroes; and they all went away in one night; and after the lapse of nearly two years, when I left America, he had not found one of them. From the different inferences I could draw from the information I received, Holland seems to be one of the best countries in point of useful produce, both as to animals and other necessaries of life. The sheep and cattle that have been brought from Holland, are much superior even to the English, except the cattle of Mr. Lloyd and Mr. O'Donnel from Dishley. The rat-tailed sheep which come from Holland are very beautiful. The lower class of Dutchmen far exceed all others in the cultivation of the American soils. Genteel people, as merchants, from Holland, are, on the contrary, much more extravagant than any other set of men, except the Americans themselves, who, I think, exceed all nations. Scotchmen are allowed to be the best merchants. As to the French, I had little opportunity to judge of them; as
they do not mix in company like other men, nor do they resort to taverns; and when you meet with them at those places in travelling, they generally converse in their own language: therefore, as I could not speak French, I had no opportunity of learning any thing from them. They are remarkably rude as travelling companions: I have seen them seat themselves, at a tavern, by the fire, and suffer all the rest of the company, ladies as well as gentlemen, to sit round them. The French tradesmen are very steady to their shops, and mindful of their business: and I am of opinion that they have brought large sums of money into America, with which they have built fine houses; very few of them have laid it out in land, as I do not know a single instance of a Frenchman being a farmer. Many of them are gardeners; and they appear to me to be the best judges of gardening in America, perhaps because their own climate and soil are more nearly similar to those of America,
than either the English or Scotch. I obtained the fullest and best information about France from Mr. Jefferson, who seems to be a great lover of that country, and is a man of great research, and very well informed. He described to me the natural plants in France, which are, generally speaking, what are cultivated in English gardens; from which he seems to draw a conclusion that France is superior to England: he calls France an absolute garden. He likewise extolled the openness of the country by its not being enclosed, speaking of the freeness of air, the fine flavour the mutton has from the plants and air, &c. But during his conversation he did not tell me of the natural grasses and fine fertile meadows that England is blessed with, or the hard oak to build ships, or the fine fat cattle, the large long-woolled sheep, or the extensive manufactories that England possesses. Neither did I think all he said of France to be in its favour, as the openness of the coun-

try is much against its improvement in cultivation and produce. It must be well known to every English farmer, that, if England were all open fields, instead of being inclosed in the manner it is, the produce would not be nearly so great, probably not one half; nor could the sheep be kept in so orderly a manner, or cattle, horses, &c. be so cheaply, or regularly, fed. Indeed, from every inference I can draw of the produce of countries, where luxuries abound, useful articles are not so congenial: and, from my own observation, I find the Frenchmen will buy the worst shambles meat; which shews they have been used to it: at the same time the butchers allow that the English will purchase only the best. There is a remark, common with the butchers in America, that Englishmen always buy the best meat, Frenchmen the worst, and Dutchmen the cheapest. I therefore conclude it is of much less consequence that some art and pains should be necessary to raise the luxuries, than the
necessaries of life. America has many luxuries, but very few comforts. The irregularities of America as to orderly government are numerous. With respect even to their militia, I one day heard General Ridgely speaking at his table to an officer on the subject of his going to review the soldiers; he said that they sat down during the time he was reviewing them: the officer told him it was impossible to make them do otherwise; but I think to the contrary. They did not act so before General Washington; but, by nature, he was a great monarch, and (as it is termed in general conversation) infringed more on the liberties of the subject than any other man ever did, as is well known from several instances in his life. A foot-path would not be broken, if all men of power were like him. I have been told by more than one of his stewards, that if any man were ever seen on his extensive plantations, out of the path or road, he would send some person to ask his business, and order
him off, if he could not give a satisfactory reason for his being there. And since he could preserve such an authority in that rude unsettled country, as to the regulations respecting the taking of fruit in what they term a friendly manner, without any leave or permission, it shewed him to have superior power to the rest of mankind. His laws were peremptory in all his family concerns; and doubtless that was the most proper method for the comfort and happiness of his people. I have always found those men who argue the most strenuously for liberty for themselves, are the most absolute to others. There never was known an instance of any man taking fruit from his orchards or gardens.—To demonstrate to the reader, from my own experience, what is the general custom of the people in regard to the orchards and fruit planted in fields in America, as it is not at all unusual to plant fields with fruit to the extent of from four to twenty acres: —my orchard contained about six acres,
three of which were planted with apples, the other three with peaches of various sorts, chiefly distinguished by the names of clink stones and open stones. They are chiefly yellow, white, or scarlet: some are red and white. The best apple is called the new town pippin, which is said to grow the finest in the northern states. Apples will not come to perfection in the southern states, nor will peaches in the northern: the melons are not nearly so good in the northern as in the southern states. They grow luxuriously in Virginia, and excel all the fruit I ever tasted. Great abundance of pine-apples are sold in Baltimore market, which come from the West Indies, and are retailed at a quarter of a dollar each, but are not so good as the pine-apples raised in gentlemen's hot-houses in England. To return to my own orchard at Orange hill: it being at some distance from the house, (which is the usual manner of planting them the first year,) as soon as the fruit were nearly ripe, having a few
forward peaches, about six trees, I observed, on the Sunday, great numbers of people walking towards the orchard; being only three miles from Baltimore, these gentry had probably taken the journey for amusement. I went immediately to them to enquire their business: but there was no necessity to ask; for, before I got there, they were in the orchard, pulling peaches; and they seemed to know the forward trees better than I did. As my unwelcome visitors pulled the peaches, they bit them; and such as they did not like they threw away. When I enquired what they wanted, their answer, given in a very mild manner, was, that they were only come to see if the peaches were ripe, and to get some of them. I then asked them if they supposed there was any owner to that orchard. They replied, "Yes, they supposed I was the tenant:" and some of them said, that Mr. Smith would not find fault with them for taking the fruit. I soon let them know that the
orchard was mine, and not Mr. Smith's: and I insisted on their quitting the place, and not coming there again. I expostulated with them, saying, "You seem to be sailors: probably I shall be in want of ropes and canvas; if I come to your ship and take what I have occasion for, will you not be offended?" In return, they used the most insulting language, such as calling me an English convict, with every angry expression they could invent: but, after many words, I got rid of them. Having a great number of visitors of the same kind, and frequently some difficulty to prevent them from pulling the fruit in my presence, and carrying it away, I applied to a justice of the peace, to know if it would be worth my while to make an example of a few of them. He behaved very politely, kindly asked me to drink a glass of wine, &c. and told me that their laws were the very same as the laws in England, but said he would not advise me to endeavour to bring offenders to
justice for so small crimes; for it being a customary thing in their country, for people to take a little fruit, they were sure not to be punished, if they did not behave ill in any other respect: and he observed, they would be likely to do me some mischief, such as by killing some of my horses or cattle, or setting my house on fire, &c. In short, I began to understand, that, if they only filled their pockets and handkerchiefs, I was not to mind it. From this information I soon found the orchard would be of no real use to me, but rather the contrary. Therefore I considered what was to be done, and determined in my own mind that I would take an oak-stick in my hand when I saw any one trespassing in the orchard; and, the first insult I received, I would try the courage of those gentry. I did so: a stout-looking Irishman was in a tree gathering fruit. I enquired what right he had there: and, at first, he behaved very roughly. He had left a gun a little di-
stance, which I took up, and found it was loaded. I then told him, that if he did not come down immediately, I would fire at him. Accordingly he descended: and I discharged the piece. When he came to receive his gun, I seized him by the collar, and beat him in the same manner as I should an English spaniel dog. The fellow attempted to resist; but he soon began to cry out for mercy. I still kept laying on, until he was glad to beg pardon. I then led him some distance to where the gun lay, which I told him he might take, if he would walk away quietly, first taking from him all the fruit he had got. This circumstance occurring near to the public highway, and there being many beholders of the transaction, it was soon circulated in the neighbourhood: however, the visitors to the orchard did not quite desist from their usual depredations: none came but such as were nimble, chiefly negroes, and they kept a strict eye, and, when they saw me coming, would run away laughing.
I then took my gun, and fired it off several times, threatening to shoot them. By these means I got completely rid of my day visitors, except now and then a captain of a ship, and such as did not know my character; but, in consequence of the insult, as they called it, they gave over paying me their further respects: I however preserved my fruit, and sold as many peaches as came to seventeen pounds, and apples to about thirty pounds. The man who held the orchard before I went, never had any fruit to pull; all being destroyed, before they were ripe, by those friendly visitors. But what was the consequence? I received such abuse from the lower sort of people as was very unpleasant to bear; they called me a mean English rascal, who would not suffer any one to get a little fruit in the orchard, &c. and it was frequently hinted that I must take care, or I should be shot. About this time the hogs began to be very troublesome and mischievous: therefore I secured some, and
fed them as my own, (there being no regular pounds, as in England,) supposing that the owners would readily pay me for their keep. But, on the contrary, they threatened to replevin. I then went to the justice of the peace again: he repeated the old story—better to let them alone. I found, however, there was an act of assembly to prevent pigs being suffered to range for five miles distance round Baltimore: therefore, I had a legal right to shoot them; which I soon set about; and the next day I killed five large hogs near to the road, where every one who passed saw them. This made me better known than ever. The people then told me to my face, that I must mind myself, for if I shot their hogs, they would shoot me, or some of my horses or cattle: and I had every reason to believe they would: for a little time before I went there, there was a Dutchman who lived half a mile from my house, a very industrious farmer, who had a dispute with a man of whom he had
bought an estate; and this man shot him, as he went along the highway, near to my house. The farmer was wounded in the back of his neck, and died a short time afterwards; in consequence, as was supposed, of the wound. The man was not punished, although brought to trial: for it was considered an act of lunacy, which one man shooting another at any time undoubtedly is; but this affair would not have passed off in that way in England, before an English judge and jury.

I had understood there were no beggars in America; but, on the contrary, I found there were a great many, and what are termed sturdy beggars; for they rather demand than beg. I lived on the great road betwixt Baltimore and Philadelphia; and they troubled me at all hours. It frequently happened, in the night, that these sort of people came to ask for lodging. Their request was rather humble—only to sleep by your kitchen fire-side: but as I had not been used to such-like requests in
England, and was quiet from beggars in the night, I have told them that the family were all in bed, and therefore requested them to go away. They would frequently be so importunate that I have been obliged to get up, and drive them from the door, sometimes to take a stick and beat them. In the day time they beg victuals; in towns, money, &c.: and if a man be charitably inclined, there is greater reason to give alms in America than in England, as in the former country there is little or no provision made for the poor. I am persuaded, that those who say there are no beggars, live in the midst of the woods, and seldom see any one but their own family.

From these and other causes, I do not think a man's person and property so well defended by the laws in America as by those in England, either by day or by night. From what I see of liberty and equality, if you do not submit to every low and bad subject's insult, you will be disliked in such countries by nineteen out
of twenty, or perhaps by more than that. I found the lower class of people very bad indeed: but how can it be expected to be otherwise, when the first beginning of them were culprits sent from England? and since that time thousands of the low Irish, and great numbers of the same description out of every country, have either emigrated thither, or have been sent over for some offence against the laws of their respective countries.

Though I have paid great attention to truth, and kept myself free from prejudice, my memoirs and narratives may prove a stumbling-block to other writers respecting America: but I have done that country more than justice, with regard to the benefits that it either does or is like to present. The Americans are continually reminding Englishmen of the comforts they enjoy, by way of extolling their country; saying, that in time they shall be the richest and most powerful nation in the world, and will consequently give laws
both by sea and land. They have little to boast of at present:—laws, they have none; religion, none; produce on an acre, about one in five compared with ours; one to three on all necessaries on the average: but two kinds of fruit worth mentioning, apples and peaches; all the others are but trash, and proper only for hogs: melons are remarkably fine. Their inveteracy against England must arise from the superiority of fame and wealth that England enjoys above them; their ideas of liberty and equality, which are such, that every one may do what his inclinations lead him to; and from the English obstructing the American ships, so as to keep them under subordination, which they particularly dislike of all other things. The pressing of English sailors from on board American ships is another high offence; though it must be generally known in America, that an emigrant from England can for a glass of grog get an American to swear that he was born in some part of America, when the
perjurer is certain that the man he takes
the oath for has not been from England
three months. To my own knowledge,
there were two men from England, who
worked for me during my short residence
in America, who got their protections to
go to sea in that way. The argument the
American makes use of, is to ask, "Why
should not a man go where he will, or as
he will, to get his bread, or to satisfy his
pleasures, and not be compelled to stay in
an arbitrary nation, to work for and be a
slave to a set of great men, who lay what
taxes they please on his labour, and spend
the money themselves in the most extrava-
gant manner, while the poor subject is
even forbidden to speak of it?—and they
will transport a man for killing a hare or
partridge or pheasant, which is as much
the property of the poor man as of the rich." I
understand that at the time when the
convicts were sent to America, they ge-
nerally invented some tale, making their
crimes appear of a light nature, such as
shooting or snaring of game, fishing, &c. There were none who had stolen a horse, or broken into a house, when they got to America; and their sentence would of course appear very hard to an American. I believe the natives of America would shudder to live in England: as they are so habituated to taking fruit in a friendly manner, riding horses away, &c. they could not readily refrain from so doing. I am well acquainted with a very respectable merchant, who tells a tale of his visiting England; and in his way from Bristol to London in company with another American merchant, they saw a tree of fine ripe cherries. They ordered the driver to stop, got out of the chaise, went and climbed into the cherry-tree, and began to pull the fruit. The owner soon came, exclaiming, "Oh, gentlemen! I have caught you, have I?" He called two men servants to his assistance, and commanded the two young merchants to come down; which they did. They were immediately seized by the
men; the owner saying, "I have been so frequently robbed of cherries, that I am determined to make an example of you; and you are proper objects. I suppose the chaise was to carry the cherries away in," &c. The young men, being frightened to death, begged for mercy, saying they were Americans. "Yes," exclaimed the farmer, "you are two very hopeful youths indeed! you have found out a very pretty story: I will answer for it, this is not the first time you have robbed my orchard. I have repeatedly declared lately, that the first thief I caught, I would prosecute him as far as the law extended; and you are just the objects I wanted:— in a post chaise too!" They again protested that they were Americans, and that it was a custom in their country to take fruit wherever they saw it. "What! to rob orchards!" replied the man: "you must be a fine set of people, to do those things. There is one of you may be an American; he is a white-looking devil: but as to the
other, he is an Englishman, I am sure." This encouraged the pale young man, a Mr. Gittings, son of the Mr. Gittings mentioned in this work, to offer the man five guineas to let them go. After many words, the five guineas were accepted; and the two merchants set off, pleased enough. Mr. Gittings says, that he never paid away five guineas with so much pleasure in his life: for his mind was filled with horror, thinking they should be transported, as he had heard the convicts, his father used to buy, mention the law was transportation for robbing orchards. He relates the story, and laughs at the fun: but there are frequently American men in company, who exclaim "D——n such a country! I wonder all the people do not leave it. What! transport a man for getting a little fruit! at the same time that they are taxed for every thing they have or use! Ah! such arbitrary work!—thank God, we have no such doings here. Give me liberty
and equality, my boys! none of your John Bulls or Billy Pitts for us. We Americans are men of greater spirit: we could not bear such oppression: ourselves, and our fathers, have shewn them that. Give me a republican country! Such cruelty cannot last long: I hope there will be a time when not a king will remain in the world. The time is approaching, when those poor creatures under the despots will be set at liberty."

I wish the reader to observe, that I have expressed myself, in regard to irregularities, with the utmost candor. The comforts of America I have equally respected. My greatest desire is, to act with such independence in this publication, as entirely to free my conscience of partiality.
SECTION XXXIII.


The reader of this work will be at a loss to conceive where all the wheat, rye, flour, and Indian corn, comes from.—The cause is not the great produce on each acre, but the extent of country.—I suppose there must be one thousand square miles of cultivated, or inhabited, land. It is necessary to observe, in America there are no manufactories, a very small number of men employed in military affairs, an infant navy, and few or no persons in clerical orders. The population of that country is mostly employed in agriculture; tradesmen are so few as hardly to merit notice. The chief drink used by the mass of the people is water.
In England, on the contrary, there are numerous soldiers, sailors, manufacturers, religious orders of men, &c. together with the government, and all attendants of the many ladies and gentlemen who keep servants that do nothing towards raising the necessaries of life, and are very luxurious consumers: it is wonderful that so small a proportion of men employed in agriculture can so nearly provide for all those and themselves. This is in a great measure to be attributed to the fertility of the soil, the mildness of the climate, and the regularity of the government,—not particularly to the industry or ingenuity of the farmer: for I have seen fields of Indian corn in America exceed any farming I ever saw in England, though industry were equal.

The reader must be informed, in order to account for this superiority on the part of the Americans, that they are at work with both the hoe and plough all the summer. The field of one hundred acres, belonging to Mr. Lloyd,—which I have before
noticed in this volume,—is an instance of the justice of the observation. I did not see any thing green in it, except the corn; but never beheld a more beautiful sight: it would have staggered my belief, had I not seen the country, and the manner in which these people live.

The Americans, from the nature of the country, consume very little either of wheat or rye flour; Indian corn flour being more congenial for their use. Yeast is only to be had in winter, and that in a few towns: country places possess none at any time. The baker’s bread is raised, therefore, by means of the following substitute: bran and water, boiled with a small quantity of hops, molasses, or sugar, worked up with flour and salt, and a kind of yeast made in the same manner, first beginning with yeast from malt liquor, and keeping a small quantity to work the preparation; consequently, it is of a very weak nature, and the bread made with it is sour in twelve hours after baking in the heat of summer, ex-
tremely disagreeable to the taste, and is wasteful: in fact, they cannot make bread as in England. I would rather eat what is termed Johnny cake, which is made from Indian flour and water, than the bread in cities and towns, during the summer months. General Washington had so habituated himself to eating the Indian corn bread, that I know some instances of tavern-keepers having to send several miles for it, for his breakfast. I have reason to believe that there are respectable farmers in America who do not use more than three barrels of wheat flour in twelve months, which are only fifteen bushels of flour. There are few or no puddings made: I do not recollect to have observed one in a private family during the time I was in that country, but have occasionally seen some pancakes there. The Indian flour is in use on every occasion. Rye is little used for bread, and mostly given to horses. Wheat flour is generally more than three times the expence of Indian flour; so that, as the grower has little to
sell except that article, this may be the reason why he is more sparing of it; as the confectioner, from a motive of gain, consumes little pastry in his own family, and the gardener is economical of his fruit at home. No man dislikes bakers’ bread more than myself: therefore, the first year, I baked my own; but the inconveniences being great, I grew tired, and bought my bread. Wheat flour mixed with water without yeast, from the unpleasantness of its being clotty, and soon mouldy, is not so good as Indian flour. Bread purchased of the baker is very expensive: one penny in Indian flour will satisfy as many people as eleven pence in wheat flour bought from the baker in bread.

The reader will recollect, that, in the former part of this work, I mentioned the Englishmen coming to inform me of the miseries of America. The better sort of Americans may likewise be aptly denominat-ed “Job’s comforters.” I once thought it impossible that every thing could be so
unpleasant; and imagined I could shun some of the uncomfortable things. But as I was informed, so it happened: I met nearly all. However, in regard to friendship, which I was told would be offered, but not given—that I had continually by the hand, and I believe, to the best of my comprehension, it was sincere. Therefore, my intention, through this work, is to speak of America, as a nation, very differently from individuals: for I will beg leave to repeat, without egotism, that, had I been one of the princes of this nation, I could not have met with more disinterested friendship than I experienced in that country, with some few exceptions; and I do assure the reader, for my own sake I frequently wished circumstances to have been different. Although it is said, and generally understood, to be a desirable place for a man who has a family, I am of a contrary opinion: for I do not think I should have been so determined in my resolution of returning home, but on their account. To take a wife and her off-
spring,—all ready to sacrifice their own happiness for mine,—into a country like that, and confine them to the greatest slavery that the body can bear, or the mind suppose, appears to me a crime of the most unpardonable nature. The necessary attention to our cows, &c. is a striking proof. Such exertions in England, as those I have so repeatedly enumerated, must enable a man to live, if not thrive; and the climate is more agreeable. When I had traversed the country, the fable of Hercules and the carter occurred to me. There was no way but one; and that was, to set my shoulder to the wheel, and whip the horses. By so doing, I extricated myself. Any man who goes to America will find it like England in only one thing, that is—the lower kind of people extolling it much: the natives of America particularly boast of their liberty and equality. But those persons who have anything to do with the cultivation of land, will say as I have written. In Great Britain, the men in general who are riotous are
such as pay no taxes; but have an inclination to plunder. As they are prevented, they find fault. Now in America men of that disposition have a far better chance, as they may act with impunity: therefore, they have equally cogent reasons to praise America and to condemn England.

To conclude with a few just estimates and comparisons.—I think the expences in America are three to one compared with those in England, of which the reader may, by observations in this volume, judge as well as myself, having endeavoured to write without prejudice to either country. But if a man wish to obtain property to any great extent, he cannot do it with comfort or satisfaction. He may purchase a considerable portion of land for a small sum of money, but he will derive little or no income from it. As he cannot let it out to rent, he must cultivate it himself with a great number of negroes, for white men are not only expensive, but ungovernable; and the conduct and behaviour of the negroes
are irritating beyond all idea. The government is of such a nature that they are a continual torment. To prevent their offences, some of them must be whipped; and, after that, they will endeavour to retaliate, by perhaps setting fire to the house.

A few days before I left America, Colonel Rogers, of Baltimore, whipped a negro for some fault, and at night put him into a cellar. He got out while the family were asleep in their beds, set fire to the house, by putting fire under the stair-case (the way usually practised by these nefarious miscreants): and the family, excepting one child that was burnt, with difficulty saved their lives; but were not able to reserve any part of their clothes. Every article in the house was consumed: the Colonel's pocket-book, containing a great number of bank-notes, likewise became a prey to the flames. —Mr. Lloyd told me he had built a very superb place for cattle; but, having whipped a black boy, in the night his mother set fire to it, and it was burnt down.
After all these vexations, there is little or no profit. If a man would live on income from property in towns, which is as certain as similar property in England, he is necessitated to employ negroes; which was the case with Colonel Rogers. But if a man, as a farmer, buys land, and expects to raise himself to a higher degree in life than the labourer in England, he will miss his aim: and as to his family, every one must be continually employed in the same way. The produce of the soil will do little more than find clothes and food for the man who cultivates it.

With respect to the mechanic, he is in the same situation. I knew a master-builder at Baltimore to be so perplexed by his men, at the fall of the year, when he had raised a large building up to a great height, as to be compelled to carry bricks and mortar up to the scaffold himself. He generally had from twenty to fifty men at work, some very good teams of horses, &c.

The only chance for success which I can
see there, is the mercantile profession; especially if the merchant be a young aspiring man, and possess a sufficiency of cunning: he may then carry on more business with less money than is usual in England. The credit given by the English merchant being of so long date, and more general than in England, enables the merchant in America to improve his finances, by the use of the money: for, from every information I ever could gain on that subject, the American merchant may be said to sell goods, under commission, for the English merchant, without limitation.

In regard to land, one thousand pounds, or a much smaller sum, laid out upon it, is as good as fifty thousand: for more than a man can cultivate with ease is useless.

There are many things, in themselves neither comfortable nor useful, which necessity has obliged the inhabitants to adopt, having little or no money at the time to buy with. During the American war, sugar was obtained from the Indian corn stalk; and
some experiments have lately been made on
the maple or sugar-tree, so much spoken of
by the writers on America. I had two of
them growing on my farm: but it appear-
ed to me, that, if a man had no sugar but
what he made from the maple-tree, and he
knew no more of making that sort of sugar
than I do, if his wife were not a very patient
woman, her calmness would be tried; or
she must learn to drink her tea without sugar.
From the best information I ever could get
on the subject, the making of sugar from that
tree is attended with more expence than it is
worth. I thought, from the representation,
that it was a very easy process; but I was
mistaken: a man ought to serve an appren-
ticeship to a sugar-refiner and baker, to know
how to go about it. I doubt not that there
are trees in England, the juice of which
might produce sugar. But in the parts where
these trees are plentiful, it is cheaper to buy
sugar than to make it, even in those dear
countries. It is worthy of remark, that, in
every part of America where grain is cheap,
clothing, coffee, tea, sugar, &c. are very dear;—a bad thing for the farmer.

A man need not emigrate, however, on account of the dearness of sugar. I would recommend the use of an agreeable substitute—honey. Let him procure some honey-bees, and they will supply him with a sweetening for his tea, apple-pye, &c. easily obtained, and more palatable; for I am told that sugar extracted from the maple-tree is unpleasant to the taste, at the best; and the people in those back woods have plenty of business on their hands, without manufactories of any kind. Mr. Waldman's treatise on bees contains ample directions for the management of those industrious little insects.

I have met with men of understanding in the inhabited parts of America, who have gone into the back countries to buy lands, and returned, saying they could not meet with any to their advantage: nor is it to be supposed possible; for none can be under greater necessity than the present inhabit-
ants in the old cultivated countries. During the time my son lodged with Messrs. Ricketts, the millers, he heard them frequently say the produce of wheat brought to the market of Alexandria was so scanty, that they must leave their mill, and go to some part where wheat was more plentiful.—Those authors who have represented America as possessing peculiar advantages, are all men who have left this kingdom in anger, and described the plausible benefits likely to be obtained by adventurous speculators, before they knew any more of the country than those who have never seen it: they write with a determination to do all the harm they can to their mother-country, out of boast to their friends. Thus, for instance, Tom Paine, Cooper, Imly, Priestley, and others, who have no judgment in land, say, that one tree naturally produces sugar, another cabbages; and that potatoes grow spontaneously: having been said to come originally from America, the emigrant supposes all those things grow there by nature;
but, on the contrary, they are more difficult to raise there than in England, and much worse.

Tom Paine, by his book entitled Common Sense being dispersed through the country, during the war in America, spirited the people to fight with more resolution for their independence than all that great character General Washington could do: and it is believed, that, had not that publication appeared, the object of the war would have been given up: it is acknowledged as a fact, by many well-informed men, that the Americans were previously very much dejected. But Tom Paine, with all his own sense and reason, lost his temper, and behaved in such a manner, that, had he returned to America during the influence of the federal party, before the appointment of Mr. Jefferson to the presidency, he would have been treated like a mad dog. The evil effects, perhaps, of this bad man's counsel were not lessened by his absence.
The independency of America may, in all probability, be one of the greatest misfortunes that ever befel it. The future success of America must arise from trade, rather than from the fertility of the soil, and will require a considerable navy to defend it. Where is that force to be found but in England? If so, the Americans' dependence is on the mother-country, since they are unable to raise a navy equal to their trade, and a very great number of their merchant-ships are employed as carriers to Great-Britain: therefore England builds the houses in the cities, paves the streets, &c.: and the greater part of what are termed American vessels belong to merchants in England; so that, should there be peace, the American ships would not be wanted, and then there would be a great stagnation of trade. Every thing in towns is taxed very high; which is an absolute impost on British manufactures sold in America. The land is already taxed higher than it is capable of paying. I have heard several respectable men say, that
they do not make sufficient profit on their land to pay the taxes. The negro tax is likewise very heavy upon landed property; and, as these accumulated burthens encrease daily, cultivation cannot, except by extension, furnish the means of payment. Then, look to the aggrandisement of their government;—the president's salary of twenty-five thousand dollars per year; the various representatives in assembly, congress, or senate, each man six dollars per day.—There are many public buildings to erect in the new city: congress-hall and the president's house, both magnificent structures; the navy, war, and treasury-offices; and various others, which the Americans pay yearly tribute to. And, although it is said there is no tax to pay, it is a mistake: for there is a stamp-duty on all bonds and notes, &c. But if not in the hat, there is a tax on it: the hat that is bought at Liverpool at five shillings and six pence, is sold at Baltimore for thirty-seven shillings and six pence, which is twenty-five shillings sterling; and
every thing else in proportion. Cloth (as may be seen in p. 381) that can be purchased for fifteen shillings per yard at Liverpool, is sold at Baltimore at forty-five shillings, which equals thirty shillings sterling: the making a coat, at Baltimore, costs twenty-one shillings, equal to fourteen shillings sterling; and at Liverpool seven shillings: surely, these are severe taxations! The Americans affirm they can make their own cloth, and carry on manufactories of different kinds. I assert they cannot: they have neither men, money, nor materials, for such purposes. Should they quarrel with England, and have a fleet to raise, whence is the money to come? British goods pay the taxes at present, or a very great proportion; but they will not raise a navy: and, although it is supposed that ship-building is cheap in America, the building of ships of war is not; for live oak is both scarce and costly.—Then the sailors, from liberty and equality, are paid, the same as merchantmen, from
twenty to twenty-three dollars a month, and are to be hired at every port: the expence is very high—equal to eighty-one pounds and six pence per year for each sailor. I can prove, from my own knowledge, that there is nothing wanted or used in America that the English manufacture, but they will send there cheaper than the Americans can make it, even to a gun-flint. The Americans boast of their combination with other maritime nations to form a respectable naval force: but foreign powers have business enough of their own to mind. Besides, what have those allies to sell that America wants to buy; or, on the contrary, what has the latter to sell that those powers stand in need of? Little or nothing: therefore, they have little or no interest in the association: consequently, the Americans have not much to expect from them.

Mr. Cooper before mentioned, in his publication pointing out the many advantages to emigrants, thought to make himself of importance, and acquire the esteem
of the Americans, by his falsities. No; they know better: every old woman can inform you that the land in America is poor. Then the reader may judge of Mr. Cooper's conduct. He represented it, on paper, easy for others to grow rich; but he has missed the mark himself, has been much distressed and confined in gaol! No man of any respectability will now speak to him: for, although the Americans play some dishonest tricks themselves, they avoid dealing with those who are known to do so, the same as in all other places.

It is possible that a man may live in America, but not with the same ease and satisfaction as he can in England. Before I went thither, I understood, from public conversation, that the Americans were an indolent set of people: but I found them the reverse: as a nation, probably, none are equal to them in cunning. They have presented to the world a remarkable proof of it:—for their independence was not obtained by force of arms.
There are but few Englishmen that have taken money to America who can keep it. I know no one who will have it in his power to bring back so much as he carried out. Some few, indeed, who have gone thither without cash, have acquired it there; but none have increased property they before possessed. In consequence, I do not see the least encouragement for a man to go amongst them, except it be to try his skill. I think it an extraordinarily good place for a young person to go to on his outset in life: or if a man should be so unfortunate as to have married a wife of a capricious disposition, let him take her to America, and keep her there three or four years in a country-place at some distance from a town, and afterwards bring her back to England; if she do not then act with propriety, he may be sure there is no remedy. But I am of opinion that it would be a certain corrective.

The Americans have as good opportunities to learn as any people; for there are
men from all countries residing among them; and they probably can readily judge of a stranger's merit and character. A man cannot do himself so much discredit, as by speaking against the people he has left, let him come from what country he may. It happened I did not find it troublesome to gain their respect, and to keep it: for my conversation was to defend old England; and I am convinced that the most violent republican in America would dislike a man for speaking against his own country. I had a proof of that in General Stone, who offered me one thousand acres of land. He is so decided a republican, that having sent him two pigs, for which I charged thirty-five dollars, at seven weeks old, without his seeing them; when I afterwards asked him if he approved of them, his answer was, that he liked them for every thing, except their being English: yet he was pleased to say "I like you." I very frequently used to contradict him; but we scarcely ever met without his in-
viting me to go to see him. Therefore, I shall take the liberty of concluding with this remark, that the principal fault the Americans have is their manner of getting money. But I think few of them will become rich, as I cannot see whence the money is to arise; for, as individuals, in agriculture each man's labour does little more than feed and clothe him; manufactories they have none; mines none that are worked, except iron; and it is certain that their exports will not pay their imports. What is their flour, grain, corn, &c. compared in value with the ships loaded with British manufactured goods? They have no other resource, except being carriers at sea, which may bring some money into the country: and that business would be over, if a peace were to be made. To look at America in the most favourable way you can, as a nation, there is nothing but extent of territory to entitle it to the consequence it assumes.

The most cunning man I ever met with was the person from whom I took my
farm;—his whole life was deception: and although my friend General Washington was not, by those who knew him, thought a man of great ability, yet I am of opinion, that, from his mode of conducting of business, he would have been more than this cunning man's match. From these observations, and many others in this work, the reader may conclude, that if money be his object, he must not go to America to get it: all men there make it their pursuit. The Jew in London being asked why there were not more of his persuasion in America, answered, that there the people were all Jews. I do not know how other Englishmen feel themselves in America; but I was perfectly ashamed of myself, leading more the life of a horse than a man, both in my labours and habitation; as in England my horses always had a stable to rest in, superior to the house in America in which I lived. I was as much confused during my time in America, as if I had had concerns in law
where the points necessary to be decided were doubted by the best lawyers in England. If I may be allowed to give my opinion, if the Americans citizens want any thing as a nation, it is honour.—I made a remark in General Washington's life, in that part where he was sent by the British to settle contracts with the Indians. The Indians mention Englishmen as their fathers, and say, that, when they came to obtain lands from them, they acted with honour: they always paid them for what they took. But the French seized what they wanted, and said it was their own, and gave them no reward. When I noticed this to my friend Mr. Boadley, he said it was very true; that England had always, in every concern of business as a nation, kept her honour, and was the only nation that had done so: nor did he know any people more able to judge than the Indians. The Indians in their features have the marks of sensible and warlike men. The reader will perhaps be pleased with the remark which an Indian made to a
merchant in Philadelphia, on the occasion of selling his beaver-skins. It happening to be on a Sunday, when they had conversed some time about the price, the bell rang to give notice of divine service. The merchant told the Indian that he must go to church. The Indian asked, "What is that?" The merchant said, "That large house." "What," continued the Indian, "do you go there for?" The merchant told him, "To learn good things." The Indian asked him how long he had gone there. He replied, "Many years." "Then," said the Indian, "you must have learned many good things in all that time." They parted: and the Indian called on the merchant in the evening, by agreement, to barter for the skins. The merchant, in the fore part of the day, had offered the Indian four shillings a piece for his beaver-skins; but now he would give him only three shillings and sixpence. "Oh! Oh!" says the Indian, "I see what you go to that great house for: it is to learn to cheat us poor Indians out of our beaver-skins."
SECTION XXXIV.

Observations relative to the Americans by a Canadian Gentleman, corroborating the Author's Remarks.

During the time my work was in the press, a gentleman of Canada published, in one of the London papers, an account of a tour he had taken of three months in the United States of America. His ideas appearing to corroborate my sentiments respecting that country, a friend sent me the article to read. To shew that other men see America with the same eyes as myself, I shall therefore take the liberty to draw a few extracts from what he wrote:—

He says, "It was the first time he visited this pretended land of liberty and liberality; he knew it only from the description which he had read, and of course was much prejudiced in its favour. Being accustomed to
civil behaviour, even from the lower class of people amongst his own countrymen, in Canada, the first remark that struck him in the United States, was the uncommon brutality or rudeness he experienced in conversing with its citizens, from the governors and magistrates, down to the lowest mechanics and petty farmers: except in the large towns, even the fair sex seemed to want that softness of temper; delicacy of expressions, and gentleness of behaviour, which, in pleasing, commands respect, and excites admiration. Every where he observed selfishness and avarice the predominant passions of the one sex, and want of education and hypocrisy the faults of the other; the men only calculating how to accumulate, and the women only studying, not how to please, but how to rule, to be applauded as political oracles, or reverenced as religious saints. The political as well as the religious fanaticism prevails in all the provinces of the United States, where sects and parties are equally tolerant; there being
hardly an example of a federalist or an anti-federalist, of a presbyterian or of a church of England man, visiting, much less permitting their families to intermarry.—They are as much at variance as Bonaparte and Louis XVIII.; more so than Pius VII. and the archbishop of Canterbury. The present president, Jefferson, does not by his conduct evince or inspire more liberal sentiments. He declares as openly his partiality for France now, when it is enslaved by Napoleon the First, as he did ten years ago, when Robespierre the First was her tyrant. All his servants are Frenchmen, and his most familiar associates and friends are of the same nation. He prides himself, however, upon the appellation of a friend of universal liberty, of religious toleration, and of philanthropy. Most of the persons appointed to offices by him, are as great Gallo-men as himself, and do every thing in their power to humiliate, to harass, and to persecute their oppressors. They are so much the more
obstinate in their vengeance, as, with few exceptions, they are generally very ignorant, confounding their own narrow and selfish notions with the rights of their offices and the laws of their country. To travel, therefore, in a republic governed by such chiefs, and inhabited by such a people, cannot but be disagreeable to a foreigner of a benevolent disposition, of an independent fortune, and of generous principles. When this must be the case, what have not those unfortunate emigrants from England, Scotland, and Ireland, to suffer, who land in the American republic as indebted vagabonds, and whose first acts in this land of liberty are to sell their persons to pay their passages; to present themselves before upstart, and of course insolent, magistrates; to submit to fetters, and a transfer to oppressive masters, who often treat them worse than their beasts of burden, and to whom the negroes on our West-India plantations are comparatively speaking free men? The numerous examples of
misery and despair which he has witnessed among the emigrant British subjects, pierce his very heart. He says, he has seen, on landing, husbands and wives disposed of to different proprietors, and their children to others. Their prayers and lamentations to remain together availed nothing. They separate, not seldom, never to meet again, or if to meet, to bewail their shame or folly, their dishonour or ruin. He says, he heard many shocking anecdotes hardly credible in civilised Europe, where the liberty and happiness of the American citizens are so often the topics of the praise of the discontented, of the envy of the disaffected, and of the desire of the misled. He says, he has heard of families of individuals, who sixteen years ago sold their liberty for five years, and who continue still, and probably will for life, in bondage, their cruel masters taking advantage to keep them in debt, either by giving them trifling sums to support sickness, want, or extravagance. He says, he has heard of others,
who, in despair, for such or worse treatment, and not seeing an end to their sufferings, have committed the most terrible suicides, destroying at the same time themselves, their wives, and children. Others have run away, been taken, flogged, and worked in chains during the day, and are shut up in chains during the night, as the most culpable of criminals. Famine, besides, often forces them to commit petty thefts, and when discovered, to avoid publicity and dishonour, or to escape punishment, subscribe new bonds of slavery, and, for the value of a dollar, condemn themselves to hard labour for years. They are universally despised as outcasts of society, having renounced the privileges of British subjects without obtaining the rights of American citizens. A British minister cannot listen to their complaints and relieve their misery, regarded by the American laws as the consequence of their voluntary renunciation of their freedom."

This gentleman's observations are cer-
tainly founded on facts: generally speaking, as a body of people, the Americans are bad; though, like all other communities, there are individually some very good men amongst them: however, they allow their countrymen degenerate daily,—probably since General Washington resigned the presidency;—and the conduct of their present president may, from example, be their excuse for growing worse. I have remarked, even in cities and towns in England, that any person of opulence, as a leading man, commonly influences the manners and conduct of the people. I could mention many instances in corroboration of this remark. In the town of Boston, the leading man was old Mr. Fydell, who was as polite and benevolent a man as any country ever produced. After his death, he was succeeded in popularity by a Mr. Pacey, who was very far from being a bad character; but of a close, frugal disposition: the manners and conduct of that town immediately became the same—what is termed
Jewish. Since my return from America, I happened, in Ireland, to spend an evening with a gentleman whose brother was executed for treason, and he was said to have imbibed the same principles at that time. He afterwards left Ireland, and came to England, where he took a farm, and remained a few years: he had then returned to Ireland, and bought an estate for the purpose of farming. From the conversation I had with him that evening, he appeared to me to have totally altered his ideas: and he made this observation—"If you take a bad man into a country where the people are good, it will make him better; take a good man into a country where the mass of the people is bad, and he will gradually change for the worse." This reasoning struck me very forcibly.

As I have been in different countries to carry on the business of a farmer, I know, from my own experience, it requires great resolution and strength of mind in a man of that profession to get his work done in a
manner agreeable to his own inclinations, in a strange country, for several reasons:—as he cannot do the business himself, he has all his people to learn; and, if he have not been accustomed to the practical part of farming, he will not be able to instruct others: should he have the necessary qualifications, the people he employs are, generally speaking, so prejudiced, that whatever management he may want to carry on different from the custom of their country, they will, under a persuasion that it cannot succeed, act continually contrary to his directions. In America, the people are right; but in Ireland a great deal of the farming business would be conducted with greater advantage by English management, the soil being fertile, and the climate generally more favourable: America is exactly the reverse—the soil being poor, and the climate unfavourable for all farming business, and breeding of cattle and sheep; it is, therefore, evidently a planting country. Although large quantities of wheat are
grown in some parts, the land is always previously prepared by planting, which cannot be effected by any regular process of English farming. An English farmer has all to learn, except holding a plough; for even the feeding of horses, cattle, &c. cannot be attended to by any emigrant with so little expense as by the natives. The emigrant is an absolute stranger to the necessary methods of treating sheep, the precaution of regularly feeding them with salt, and the housing them in the winter months. An European will naturally feel the same astonishment which I did, on seeing the poor starved American hogs, that live in the woods during winter; he will wonder how they subsist at all, in the manner these animals are reared. The character and conduct of the American people are such as an Englishman is ignorant of.

During the time of my residence in America, I spent a few evenings with the family of Colonel Lyle (a real American). On taking my leave, his lady informed me
her husband said, I was the most unfit man for their country he had ever met with, as I meant to pay every one, and they would not act in the same manner to me. The Colonel, when I dined with him, observed to me, he had bought an estate; and—as, in general conversation, he spoke much against their land—I was somewhat surprised at it, and remonstrated with him: he allowed it a bad property; but asked, if he acquired a little money, what could he do with it, as there was no security in trusting any one with cash in their country? The Colonel was a planter, not a farmer; indeed, sometimes, he did not even raise wheat for his own use. He made a jest of Mrs. Lyle's crop of wheat, (which had been raised with her carriage-horses and negro servant), by saying, if she paid him any rent for the land, he was afraid she would be debtor to cash. I could not, at that time, comprehend his meaning, being then unacquainted with the calcula-
tions of many American crops; but when I began farming, I experienced that to be the case; for I had many acres in my farm on which I would not have sown three pecks of wheat per acre, if any man would have prepared it for the seed, as it in some parts would not have produced any, and at the best not more than one or two bushels per acre.

I cannot help admiring the acuteness of the gentleman from Canada, in finding out so readily the sufferings of the emigrants, and discovering the dispositions and manners of the Americans. I know many persons who have been there for years, and are not so capable of describing the situation of the lower class of emigrants: as to those in a more elevated sphere, a man will not be many hours landed before they make him acquainted with their grievances. It seems to be a relief to them when they see others who have got into the same snare, and been deceived in the same manner as
themselves. That appeared to be a consolation to them. The better sort of American citizens themselves admit that they have the greatest reason to complain of their government, as their laws are not sufficiently enforced to protect a man's property.
APPENDIX,
CONTAINING
Extracts from "SKETCHES" published by

TO WHICH ARE ADDED
Observations on the above, by the Author.

Of the English old Rotation of Crops.

Until about the middle of the present century one of the best common courses of farming in England consisted of a fallow, which broke up and cleaned the ground, but left the soil exposed to the scorching sun during the hottest season, without any shading crop: on this wheat was sown; peas or beans followed the wheat crop; then barley or oats (or both) in rotation, on one moiety of the farm, during ten or even twenty years: the other moiety during that time being in common pasture grasses. When a change was to be made, the moiety in grass was plough-
ed and prepared; and then thrown into the rotation of crops as above; and that which had been in crops, was sown with mixed grass seeds (not clover), to lay as before ten or twenty years. The whole arable or ploughable part of the farm, was thus divided into moieties, or nearly so, exclusive of the homestead and standing meadow. So that a farm of 300 acres (besides homestead and meadow) admitted of 150 acres in grass, lay or old field, and 150 in crops. Their fields bearing crops were seldom equal in quantity: but in the following design, I have considered them so.

No. I.

37 a. fallow, naked, yields nothing—exh.
37 - wheat, 15 bushels 555 exhausting.
37 - peas or beans, - 555 ameliorating.
37 - barley, 20 bushels 740 exhausting.

150 a. in crops, 4 fields, 1850 bushels,
150 in grass or lay.

300 acres.
The dung added, improves; yet the hot sun shining on the *naked* soil, is thought to exhale much of the valuable contents of it, and of the ground.

The above is of the crops of one field during four years; or of the four fields in one year. The following is a plan of the whole farm (homestead and meadow excepted), with the rotation of its crops in those four fields, during four years, and the moiety in grass or lay old field, during the ten or twenty years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Fields</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1791</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1792</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>P.</td>
<td>B.</td>
<td>F.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1793</td>
<td>P.</td>
<td>B.</td>
<td>F.</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1794</td>
<td>B.</td>
<td>F.</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>P.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grass-Lay.
The medium produce of these fields might be more than is above stated. But it is well to suppose the quantity they produce per acre is as in this and the following statements: nor is it material what the quantity is, when how much the English soil or how much the American gives, is not under consideration.

**English new Rotation of Crops.**

The better course of husbandry now well experienced and approved of in England is founded on these principles: to *fallow*, and to have growing on the fallow while it is yet under the plough or hoe, a *shading* and ameliorating crop; never to sow any sort of corn immediately after corn of any kind; to sow *clover* on every field of grain; and with a course of well-chosen crops and the *shaded* fallows, prevent the soil from resting, hardening, and running into weeds and common grasses. Thus entire farms are continued in a constant rotation under five to six or eight
divisions; so as with the clean mellow state of the whole arable, to give a pleasing system of business, which improves the soil and procures a considerably larger income.

No. II.

60 a. barley 20 bs. 1200 — exhausting.
60 - clover - - — ameliorating.
60 - wheat 15 900 — exhausting.
60 - clover - - — ameliorating.
60 - peas or beans 900 — ameliorating.

300 a. in 5 fields. 3000 bushels.

In their sandy light lands, turnips in a well-prepared soil are a common fallow crop instead of peas or beans; the turnips being thinned greatly, and frequently handhoed, or, if in rows, horsehoed so as to keep the ground clean and well stirred, and they are always on manured ground.
Here the crops are the same as the preceding—but the course is different. In that the clover is annual; in this it continues two years. When it is continued two or more years, it lets in weeds and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Ba.</th>
<th>Cl.</th>
<th>Wh.</th>
<th>Cl.</th>
<th>Pe.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1791</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1792</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>P.</td>
<td>B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1793</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>P.</td>
<td>B.</td>
<td>C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1794</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>P.</td>
<td>B.</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1795</td>
<td>P.</td>
<td>B.</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>C.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
: some binding of the
1794. Wh. ground, to a degree that
: probably occasioned the
1795. Pe. saying, in England, of the
ground becoming, in that
country, "clover sick." But
yearly renewing the clover, in the rotation
of crops, neither admits of weeds nor a binding of the ground. The clover in this case, being sufficiently thick and well sown, effectually shades and mellows the soil, without having time allowed it, or the soil, to decline.

Comparison between the English old and new
Rotations of Crops.

Upon comparing the new with the old courses of crops in England, it occurs that the 120 acres in clover may be considerably superior to the 150 acres of common grasses on the hidebound soil of the lay or old field; and that the grain and straw is superior as 300 to 185. Peas and beans are allowed to be inoffensive, as is clover, and
even ameliorating. They all shade the ground during the hottest time of the year. All corns impoverish; and withal, the small kinds let in weeds; which, with rest, bind and foul the soil. But they check the washing away of soil; which maize culture greatly promotes, by repeated ploughings or scratchings given whilst the maize is growing.

No I. has two fields stirred and cleaned, namely, the fallow (a naked one), and the pea or bean field, if in rows; the growing crop of the last shelters the soil from extreme exhalation. This is the only ameliorating crop against the two exhausting crops, wheat and barley. No II. has one horse-hoed or ploughed field, in a fallow crop of peas or beans; and three fields of ameliorating productions, which are peas, clover, clover, against two exhausters, wheat and barley. It is to be observed, that the field-bean in England, though small, is of the nature of the garden or Windsor bean. It grows upright, and, giving but a partial shade, is
not fully an ameliorating crop, unless cultivated and well horse-hoed in the intervals between the rows. Neither are turnips or potatoes good fallow crops, unless they are cultivated in the like manner. They always are on manured ground. English field-peas, soon covering and shading the ground, even when sown broad-cast, and not horse-hoed, are good fallow crops.

Of the American old Rotation of Crops.

When in America a farm is divided into three fields, the common course is maize, wheat (or rye), and spontaneous rubbish pasture. When in four fields, it is maize, naked fallow, wheat, and the like mean pasture: or maize, wheat, lay or poor pasture during two years. And whilst in some parts of America the fields are four or five, in other parts the divisions are as low as two. Although five are better than four; and four better than three; yet the best of these admit not of a proper course or rotation of crops, especially when maize is one
of them. So mean are the productions of the three and four field divisions, when maize has been continued a crop, that they will not allow of being rated by the acre near so high as the present statements allow to either mode of the English husbandry, or, as we may believe, to the American husbandry, when it shall be practised according to the improved principles of cropping, with or without maize. Two exhausting corn-crops, perpetually taken from three or four fields, after some years, will scarcely admit of eight bushels of wheat an acre on common land, one year with another: but, suppose,

N° III.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>100 a. maize, at 12 bushels,</th>
<th>1200</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100 - wheat, - 8 - - - -</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 - lay or mean pasture, - - -</td>
<td>- - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300 a. in three fields, - - -</td>
<td>2000 bs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
No IV.

75 a. maize,
75 - wheat,
75 - lay,
75 - lay.

300 a. in 4 fields.

No III. and IV. give light crops, mostly of a cheap corn, very poor pasture, and but little hay (if any), for the emolument of the farmer, the comfort of a stock of hide-bound beasts, and the preservation of a soil, which is in an obvious consumption. Under such severe treatment, land is continually losing strength; and it may be, greater productions are here allowed than the old settled maize farms yield, and than new ones can long continue to yield under the old habits of a less rational mode of farming, if it may be called farming.

We almost universally cultivate one field in maize, whatever may be in the other fields. The maize, being frequently plough-
ed (horse-hoed), the ground is thereby kept light and clean, and gives a fallow with a crop: but it is an ill-chosen crop for a fallow, because of its giving only a trifle of shade to the fresh exposed soil, and because it is corn, to be succeeded by another crop of corn; both terrible exhausters. Some farmers sow wheat on this maize-field, before the maize is ripe, on a clean and light soil. Others delay sowing it till the ensuing autumn, when, the soil being somewhat settled and in weeds, they plough, harrow, and sow it with wheat. Of the two evils, farmers differ in their choice. I have known some of them, who had practised both methods, return to the former, because the latter was, as they judged, more injurious to the soil than the former method.

American Fallow-Crop new Methods; with and without Maize.

Maize, taken into a rotation under the new system of crops, according to the new
principles of husbandry, occasions some difficulties, which seem best overcome by increasing the number of fields. Our husbandmen are so used to maize, that scarcely any appear disposed to give up the culture of it for productions which are much milder, in their effects on land. It is the best of corns. In food to man it is remarkably wholesome, and admits of the greatest variety in its preparation for the stomach. It is food for most animals, and yields a great increase. Seasons or plagues, that injure other corns, do not affect maize. In cultivating it, the soil is cleaned and lightened, preparative to other crops; but it is far inferior to preparations by mild or ameliorating shading crops, as maize culture exposes the soil, naked, to exhalation and the washing away of the soil, more or less by every sudden and heavy rain. Soils liable to be washed away may have other crops applied to them—small corns, &c.
**A Maize-Course.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N° V.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50 a. maize,</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 - wheat (or spring barley)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 - clover,</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 - rye (or winter barley),</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 - clover,</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 - clover,</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300 a. in 6 fields.</td>
<td>2400</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The great fault in this system is in wheat succeeding maize, that is corn on corn. Rye or barley might have been in the place of wheat; but these also are corns which exhaust the soil. Clover after maize is not likely to succeed, especially when sown without a *sheltering* crop; and this sheltering crop being from grain, would introduce the mischief incident to corn on corn. But even this faulty system is far preferable to any of our old courses.
Had there been only five fields, it would have been worse for the soil; because a course of only two fields in ameliorating crops to three in corn, must in time render the ground weak, and comparatively unproductive.

**Better Maize-Courses.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field Type</th>
<th>Acres</th>
<th>Yield</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beans</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barley</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clover</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clover</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>....</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

300 a. in 6 fields. 3000
Here the corn crops are interposed by clover and beans; both of them ameliorating to soil; especially when the beans grow in rows so near as to shade the well-ploughed and cleaned intervals: and these crops give three or four amelioraters to three exhausters.

**Bean-Courses.**

Those who having washy soils would exclude maize from their crops, may adopt the system No. II. in five fields; or one of the following in six or seven fields; ob-
serving that the beans must be the American sorts, not the European.

N° VIII.

50 a. beans, - - - - 500 bushels.
50 - barley, - - - 1000
50 - clover, - - - ... ... ...
50 - wheat, - - - 750
50 - clover, - - - ... ... ...
50 - rye (or clover), - - - 750
300 a. in 6 fields. 3000

N° IX.

43 a. beans, - - - - 430 bushels.
43 - barley, - - - 860
43 - clover, - - - ... ... ...
43 - wheat, - - - 645
43 - clover, - - - ... ... ...
43 - rye, - - - 645
43 - clover, - - - ... ... ...
300 a. in 7 fields. 2580

Beans, following clover, are drilled on
one deep ploughing in June. Barley is sown in October, on one ploughing, the ground having been left clean and mellow after inn ing the beans. Wheat is sown in September on one ploughing of the clover. What a saving of work! Three crops on only one ploughing for each, and performed at leisure! on ground in the mellowest condition. The beans are ploughed for in June; the wheat in September; the barley in October; or, if preferred, in March. One of them, a cleaning crop, is horse-hoed or shimmed without any interference with the ploughings, and other work, in sowing the wheat or barley. The clover, which is to be ploughed in for beans, may be pastured till June: or it may be kept up and mowed for hay: this may be especially advantageous on farms deficient in meadow; as there will then be two clover-fields for grass and hay; and moreover the ground of that mown, will be preserved in a light and mellow state, to receive the bean-seed on the one ploughing.
The following are plans of all the fields in the two farms, N° VI. a *maize system*, and N° VIII. a *bean system*; shewing the whole of their rotations during six years.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1791</td>
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<tr>
<td>1792</td>
<td>Be.</td>
<td>Ba.</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1793</td>
<td>Ba.</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>Be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1794</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>Be.</td>
<td>Ba.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1795</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>Be.</td>
<td>Ba.</td>
<td>C.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1796</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>Be.</td>
<td>Ba.</td>
<td>C.</td>
<td>W.</td>
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</table>
The greatest quantity of grain produced in a rotation is not alone a proof of its be-
ing the best system. A large quantity of good meadow will yield much hay. It is a sin against good husbandry to sell off the hay of a farm. Numbers of cattle well fed and well littered, give the manure requisite for invigorating the soil: but numbers of cattle cannot be kept in good condition, through the year, unless clover or grass as well as hay abound. The summer food and that of the winter are to bear a due proportion to each other.

It is reasonable to expect that the better courses, N⁰ VI. VII. VIII. and IX. will yield, by the acre, more of every article of produce than the inferior course, N⁰ V. But they are here stated alike. Of the several sorts of white beans I have only cultivated the white dwarf or bush bean in my fields, in rows eighteen inches apart. They considerably shaded the ground, but not so fully as I wished. I therefore intended to have tried white beans that would run and shelter the ground entirely, after being horse-hoed with a shim repeatedly,
as long as that instrument could be admitted to pass between the rows to advantage. Parting with my farm prevented this experiment. It is said that white beans are generally in great demand in Madeira and the southern countries of Europe. I have seen letters from Barcelona, stating the price of "white beans" higher than of wheat. Other sorts of American beans, as well as several sorts of American peas, I have cultivated; and the crops of all sorts were rather precarious; peas generally more so than beans. Until some other plant shall be introduced that will answer the purposes better than beans, for a fallow crop, the farmer ought to think nothing of six or eight shillings a bushel for them to be applied to produce a shading ameliorating article of fallow, although not a seed should ever be gained from them: preserving the system being so very important! But a worthy person assured me, she used to cultivate country peas or beans (I am not certain which) till the pods were well filled, and
the fruit partly ripe, and then she pulled up or cut and cured the haulm or vines, with the pods on, and these were stacked or stored and given to milch-cows in the course of the winter; and they were preferable, she added, to other food, for increasing the quantity of milk and butter, and for improving their quality.

**Sowing Wheat on Clover.**

The language of English farmers on this head is, that wheat on clover is to be sown on "one earth"—one ploughing. To conform to this idea, I conducted this business, on fifteen acres, in this manner:

1. The clover, having been cut once and then pastured, was turned in deep, by a plough.

2. The wheat was sown, broadcast.

3. The harrow followed twice, in the same direction in which the clover was ploughed in.

4. The sown wheat was then rolled.

The crop stood well, and yielded satis-
factorily. It grew near two miles from my other field—wheat, on a soil not quite similar, so that a just comparison could not be made between them. The operations immediately followed each other, without any pause. The plough, the harrow, the seed, &c. were all ready on the spot, before the plough proceeded.

Fodder-House.

A fodder-house (a hollow rick, made of maize-tops in the way of thatch) was set up in a field, as is usual; it was fenced in: at the south front of it the maize was husked, and the husks were sheltered in this fodder-house; they were fed out in the course of the winter to cattle in front of the rick; in April, the rick or fodder-house, being then empty, was pulled down, and the covering given to the cattle. The soil thus sheltered by the fodder-house for six months (October to April) shewed marks of richness greatly superior to the ground on which the cattle were foddered during.
the same time: grass, weeds, and crops, during the four or five following years of my remaining on the farm, shewed this in their great growth: where the fodder-house, three hundred feet in length and twenty in breadth, stood and sheltered the ground, the richness of the soil was strongly marked; when but a faint superiority, over the common field, appeared where the cattle were fed.

Timothy-Grass.

Timothy-grass, when cut not before milk is in the seeds, [after the milky quality is gone from the seed], makes a brownish and seemingly harsh hay: but horses, the best of judges, prefer it to early cut green hay. On some accounts orchard-grass may be preferred, for standing meadows. It comes early in the spring, lasts till winter, is hardy and gives large crops. The seeds of it shatter out before the heads are all turned from the green colour.—Watch the moment for saving the seed.
Ice-Houses.

Ice is applicable to economical purposes in hot weather, especially in country families.

In 1771, I built an ice-house in the peninsula of Chesapeake, where the ground is flat, and the surface only seventeen feet above the high-water mark of a salt-water river, and eighty yards from it. It was constructed with great care to prevent entrance of air, according to the then universal practice; and it was filled with 1700 solid feet of ice, the pit being twelve feet square and twelve feet deep: but it failed of keeping the ice till summer, because of its moisture and closeness. When the pit was dug it shewed some appearance of moisture near the bottom: the least moisture is too much for an ice-house. Moisture at the sides or bottom of an ice-pit, is raised to the inside surface of the dome by a heat which, in the deepest pits that can be dug, is much above the freezing
degree, and if the pit be close it recoils on the ice for want of a vent. If the close pit is not frequently opened it becomes very warm, and the ice is soft and pappy at the top. The deepest and coolest pits are about twenty degrees warmer than the freezing point: so that no depth of a pit can preserve ice from melting. It is from a greediness for depth that we too often meet with damp earth.

Some years afterwards, I made another ice-house, 150 yards from the above-mentioned, on the principles and in the manner following: Vent was an essential object; and dryness with coolness led me to the design of insulating the mass with a bed of straw surrounding a pen of logs which was to contain the ice. The pit was dug on a spot open to wind and sun, for the sake of dryness. It was nine feet deep. Within it was the pen of logs, of that depth, and nine feet square in the clear. It contained but a little more than 700 solid feet —only half the quantity stored in common
ice-pits. A house was over the whole; rather for excluding rain than air. The sides of the house were five or six feet high. The eaves were boarded up, but not close, and the principal vent was at the top of a pavilion roof.

*Straw* is a considerable resister or non-conductor of heat. Let it be clean, sound, and dry. Tread it down close between the logs and bank. Lay an abundance of it upon the ice. The small mass of ice stored in the above insulated pen, 700 feet, was daily used of very freely, and lasted near as long as double the quantity stored in a close ice-pit as commonly constructed, and which is on the hill in Union-street, Philadelphia; the earth whereof is dry and gravelly from near the surface down to the bottom.

Below is a section, drawn of an insulated ice-pit, differing from the one above-mentioned only in size. The pen or cell inside of the logs, is twelve feet square, ten deep, and contains 1440 solid feet. The space
between the logs and the bank, at bottom is one foot; the same at top is near three feet. The sink for receiving water from the melting ice need be only five or six inches deep, and seven or eight feet square. Logs are laid across it. An ice-pit of 1400 solid feet, if insulated, would keep more ice than any private family could want; supposing the pit is not deeper than ten feet, and the ground is dry. A pit eleven feet square and ten deep contains 1200 feet. If this should not be sufficient, in another year heap on it a foot more in thickness: it will then be 1320 solid feet. Another foot makes 1440; and another foot 1560. These additions are above ground. Ice, in ice-houses, melts more at the bottom and sides than on the top; unless it may be otherwise in very close pits seldom opened. A pen of ten feet cube, and three feet height of ice added at the top, gives 1300 solid or cubic feet; and the house over it need be but seventeen or eighteen feet square.
The winds most injurious to ice are from the south to the east. The door being on the north side, needs no passage. Rats are to be guarded against. The eaves are to be closed against them: but openings are to be left on the north side, at the eaves, for admitting the steam to pass out there, as well as at the common vent on the top of the roof. These openings may be from lattice-work in wood or wire: or a plank may be projected below the opening, and beyond the reach of rats.

All the building-materials are to be on the spot, ready to be put up as soon as the pit is dug, lest rain damage the pit before the house can be covered.

Beat the ice small, and prefer to store it in keen weather. In such weather a neighbour dashed water on the pounded ice, a pailful or two to each cart-load, as soon as it was stored and pounded, load by load: and he informed me it answered well, in closing and cementing the mass.

Ice beat small, and heaped on a floor of
rough logs on a dry spot of ground sloping every way, to the amount of 1200 solid feet, and then well covered with dry straw, six or eight feet thick over the ice, so as to exclude heat and rain from the ice—how would it keep?—or how a mass of ice half in the ground, half above ground, in a pen of logs built up and covered with straw?

Section of an ice-pit, with its log-cell insulated with straw on all sides; and a house covering the whole.
Intimations on Manufactures,—on the Fruits of Agriculture;—and on new Sources of Trade, interfering with Products of the United States of America in Foreign Markets.

The countries of Europe abounding in manufacturers and sailors, and superabounding in soldiers and ministers of religion, buy bread from other countries; chiefly from Poland, America and Barbary; and, generally, the countries that sell some, buy more than they sell. The great bread country, England, buys more than she sells; and, at the same time, it is a happiness to her that she is superior in the number and the excellency of her manufacturers; who, with her sailors, are the more desirable mere consumers of bread, giving support to a constant good market, at home, for the corn, the meat, the wool, and generally all the productions of her land; so that England abounds in the necessaries and comforts of life, within herself, from a well proportioned employment
of her farmers and tradesmen, who mutually supply each other's wants; and she furnishes foreign countries with a prodigious overplus of the fruits of her manufactories and commerce; which has rendered her rich, powerful, and less dependent than other nations. The fifty or sixty ship loads of wheat which she buys more than she sells, are inconsiderable when compared with the great profits of her immense commerce and manufactures. The yearly buying more bread from abroad than she sells, assures to her husbandmen a constant demand and full price for the corn produced by their lands; and this is a great encouragement to a vigorous cultivation of them; as it gives an income to the industrious countryman, independent of uncertain demand by foreign countries.

A statute of the Parliament of Great Britain, of no long standing, compels the most minute entry to be made in the British custom-house, of every sort of corn, as well what is imported as exported.
The first report made to the Parliament, under that statute, was of the first eight years after it was in force; by which it appears, on a medium of the eight years, that there were imported into England about six hundred thousand bushels of wheat, yearly, more than were exported—near 60 ship loads.

Poland and America import no bread. For want of numerous manufacturers and sailors, the most useful consumers of bread who make none, they have not a demand at home for one half of the produce of their lands: they therefore export great quantities; America, especially, depending thereon for supplies of clothing and other comforts: which she might soon, in a great measure, manufacture within herself. Ought she not, therefore, to prefer it to a dependence altogether on foreign countries?

Somewhat has been said, in public, of manufactories in America; whether it be advisable to promote them in this early stage of her political existence, or to de-
pend on procuring them from other countries, with the produce merely of her own lands? have we not "room for looms and the various arts?" Why then should not this nation, in its present youthful vigour, begin to apportion her employment between husbandry and manufactories? which in experience prove to be so coincident, so promotive of wealth and independence, as to have rendered Britain rich in all comforts, with a purse powerful in war; but which some on both sides of the Atlantic think has unwarily admitted of a degree of pride in her, that, according to what is common to that vice, bodes an approaching reverse in the current of her affairs. Besides, in the course of a great influx of emigrants to América, many, if not the greater number, are mechanics. When these land on the sea-coast, and find little or no employment for them in the way of their profession, will they generally go to country labour? Past experience says they will recross the Atlantic, or travel farther
westward, and sit down on lands easier obtained, and where they can live on less labour than they could among the old settlements in the hither country. But if manufactories were on foot among us, it would be natural that they should generally prefer the employment they had been used to; and by sitting down to their trades, they would gradually advance the arts in America, whilst the more rapid increase of husbandry would be the means of supplying them with bread in payment for their goods, and leave an overplus to be exported to foreign markets. "It however is material to the vigour and worth of manufactories, that they be not dispersed." They are more or less advantageous, according as they are carried on in towns, or in detached habitations in the country. In general, the manufacturer in the country has his farm, or a lot of ground, which divides his attention with that of his shop, whereby both crafts suffer; and, certain it is, says Mr. Young, "their
husbandry is always execrable—the shop and the field are conducted with little spirit: both are mean in the quantity and the quality of the productions; and the living of the farmer tradesman is according to it. But in towns the trade is alone depended on, and the productions are more and better: so of the thorough-farmer, from whom he buys his bread, and to whom he sells his goods."

When our employment shall be duly apportioned between husbandry and manufactories, the comforts of life will be certain; as they will be procured within our country, independent of the caprice of foreign countries: with the overplus of these we are to obtain exotic delicacies, luxuries, and bullion.

"From a well chosen employment are derived the riches, the strength, the independency, and the happiness of nations." If the employment be in things necessary and convenient, it is infinitely better than when applied in producing luxuries. With
necessaries plentifully produced at home, we may be independent of other nations. An absolute independency, which shuts out commercial and in effect social intercourse, is not meant. Nations do not all yield the same productions; and few, if any, properly divide their employment between husbandry and manufactories. Britain is the nearest to it. Even where the best proportion prevails, luxuries and trifles will have some share of attention among the artists, although common sense directs that, especially for the interests of a young country, the first and principal application should be to procure necessaries as well for staples of commerce as for domestic uses; such as food, clothing, ammunition, &c. Yet legislators will not over busily warp employment against its natural bent. They may invite and gently incline it; avoiding dogmatical inhibition or command, unless, it may be on very extraordinary national occasions. Nor will they erect monopolies, directly or in-
directly, or give undue preferences. Temporary patent rights for inventions are not meant. To set about making fine goods before we are full of necessary comforts, seems a beginning at the wrong end.

The manufactures wished to be first promoted are especially of plain clothing and blankets, arms and ammunition. Manufactures of woollen goods are full in our view—In promoting these, we increase the quantity of meat and skins as well as wool. They are not exotic; but precious materials furnished by our husbandmen. A bounty on the exportation of arms and ammunition made within the nation, would soon cause those essentials to abound in the country for its necessary defence. Yet it is in a spirited and flourishing husbandry that the soundest health and comfort of nations is found. It is a plenty of food and clothing, that are plain and good, rather than fine things, which gives content and cheerfulness to a people; and it is the great mass of the people that are industri-
ous, rather than the idle poor or the luxurious few, who are principally considered by legislatures.

What if to the bread wanted by some countries, which is at present supplied by Poland, America and Barbary, one or two great additional sources of it should be opened? How would the husbandry and the income of our country be affected by it? Would there not be then felt a want of manufacturers, consumers of bread who make none, yet who would preserve the value of the produce of our husbandry by such consumption, and furnish other necessaries and comforts from their various occupations? There is reason to believe that yet a little while, and the productions of the countries on the Nieper and the Danube will rush through the Straits of Constantine into the Mediterranean, and thence into all Europe. The wheat of the Ukrain, hitherto shut up by the Turk, sells at 1s. to 2s. sterling a bushel. The countries so shut up also abound in cattle,
hemp, tobacco, &c. which are to be conveyed through these straits to a market new and important to those countries; which articles will greatly interfere with and cheapen the produce of our country. The Banat is said to be by far the cheapest country in Europe, in all necessary productions, meat, bread, wine, fruits, &c. The culture of Rice was introduced there by the late Emperor with great and increasing success. Prices in the vicinity of Tybiscus river are in sterling, as follow: wheat at 17d. an English bushel; rye, 12d.; barley, 7d. 1/2; hay in towns, 10s. a ton; in the country, 3s.; a lean ox 40s. to 50s.; a cow 30s. to 45s. (cattle are dearer than grain, because they are readily driven to market: they are driven by thousands annually, from the Ukrain, through Poland into Silesia and Germany); mutton, 1d. a lb.; beef, from 1d. to 1d. 1/2; pork, 1d. 1/2 to 2d.; wine, 45 gallons new, in a good vintage, 7s. to 42s. according to quality; rent, 2s. 6d. to 4s. the English acre; and all this
cheapness we presume is owing to the want of a passage through the straits of Constantinople, to foreign markets—the very markets hitherto supplied by Poland, America and Barbary. The Turk is to be forced by the Czarina and the Emperor to suffer a passage through those straits: it already has been of late nearly accomplished.

You say the above events are problematical, or at a great distance of time: but there is one of a different nature and very influential in the argument which is more certain and nearer at hand. With the improvements in government, which the philosophical spirit of modern times is producing, the condition of mankind will be bettered, and in no circumstance will it be more perceptible than in their greater skill in all the arts, as well in agriculture as others. Then will France be fully equal to supply her own demands for wheat, and Spain and Portugal will be so in no long time.
Another new source may be in India. Sugar has not become a common article from that quarter till lately. When in 1792, it sold there 15s. or 18s. near four Spanish dollars a hundred, it was sold 50s. to 60s. in London. A sudden and till then unknown demand for sugars by Europe and America occasioned an increased price in India: and the demand having continued and increased, has stimulated the Indostans to increase the culture of sugar canes with great spirit, for supplying Europe and America with sugar. The Calcutta gazettes are full of the designs of planting and cultivating the sugar cane: and now we are assured by some of our countrymen, who have been lately in India, that the wheat of that country is very fine, and is sold at 11d. sterling for an English bushel. If then their sugar makes a freight and a profit when carried to Europe, so may their wheat; provided it should bear so long a voyage. It would sell at above 500 per cent. when their sugars would
scarcely obtain 300. But will the bulk and price of wheat admit of a freight and profit sufficient for the adventurer? Mr. Law, in his sketches of arrangements in Bengal, for the year 1789, says it would clear 50 per cent. "I saw," he says, "much extended cultivation and increasing population through Bengal: but there is some apprehension of a want of consumption; grain selling in some places 100 lbs. and upwards for 12d. sterling, (equal to 7d. a bushel of 60 lbs.) Wheat might certainly be exported from Bengal with great success. —It would be shipped for 7s. 3d. sterling, the English quarter, which is under 11d. a bushel. At 58s. a quarter in London, it would yield 50 per cent. profit on cost and charges of freight," &c.

Although wheat from India should not always bear the voyage, yet the flour of it, which is very fine, might. Flour carried from the Delaware to the Ganges, proved perfectly good when returned from thence to Philadelphia in a late voyage. But if
neither their wheat nor their flour could be carried to Europe in good condition, yet their rice, the common bread of the country, could. It usually is very cheap; and whilst their labour is but 2d. a day, all the fruits of that labour will continue to be cheap.

Whether the great sources of the countries on the Nieper and the Danube shall soon be opened or shall not, there is at present such an apparent probability of it as may induce us farmers to consider in time how we are to avert the threatened ill effects of a change that must be as sudden as important. The farmer of flashy ostentation may especially think of retrenching wasteful habits: and whilst legislators may wish that labour be apportioned between husbandry and manufactories, and gently promote it, they will be cautious how they favour the one at the expense of the other.

In the Ukrain and Poland, and on the Danube, labour is cheap, whilst with us it is the highest in the world. When we
shall have driven the Indians from their country, what will be the condition of the people of the hither states, respecting labour which already is so much drained from them by the ultra-montane country? This will not immediately affect all the states; but it soon may, and who can say how soon it will not?

It may be necessary to observe to the reader, there is but one rotation which Mr. Boadley has struck out in his Sketches that is in use; which is $N^3 III.$: and there he varies from the general mode, in letting the field lay out but one year, as two years are the practice: all the other numbers are what he guesses at, both as to system and produce. The ice-house is adopted, and answers very well. I was at Colonel Mercer’s, who had one constructed from a log-house, with a pit sunk in the middle
of it, copied from that in Mr. Boadley's Sketches. In the month of June, the ice was as perfect as when put in, and the Colonel said it answered very well. He had one constructed on the old plan, which cost him a great deal of money; but it never would keep ice in perfection. He told me that the expense of constructing an ice-house, according to Mr. Boadley's directions, would not exceed five pounds.

Mr. Boadley acknowledges himself a theorist in the new system of farming, by saying, Mr. Tull's book first excited his attention to agriculture. But he is obliged to Mr. Young for most of what he knows of its principles, and of the practice in Europe;—and that must be expected, as he held thirteen public offices during the time he farmed his plantation on Why Island. Mr. Boadley was remarkably fond of the science; and supposed, from reading English authors, that the English system of farming would suit American soil, and increase the produce; but I know, from
It will not answer in America, which may easily be conceived, as even in England various parts require different management.

Notwithstanding Mr. Boadley's good intention to his countrymen, in pointing out those rotations, I am certain from experiment and observation that none of them will succeed: where he has tried the American bean and pea as a meliorating crop, he justly remarks that it is precarious, or they would be more generally grown. I had a neighbour who was at a considerable expence in planting twelve acres of the white beans, and raised what appeared to be a very good crop: a fall of rain came on at the time they were ready to harvest; and, as they cannot be reaped, from the shortness of stem, but must be pulled up by the roots, and laid on the ground for some time before they can be thrashed, they were entirely lost from the dirt hanging to the roots: they cannot be housed or stacked up, as field beans are in England.
Mr. Boadley's ideas of meliorating crops very much agree with my own: could these crops be obtained in America, like all other countries, they would be a great advantage to the fertility of the soil; but the English cultivation and rotation of crops on land cannot be adopted in America. The best meliorating crops I ever saw grow in that country, to any large extent, are Indian corn and tobacco, where the land is fertile enough for them; as turnip crops, which are the making of most of the tillage lands in England, cannot be raised to advantage in America. The winter there is so very severe, that turnips, rape, cabbages, winter-vetches, &c., are totally out of the question; therefore I conclude, from the nature of the soil and climate, the sort of cropping now made use of to be the best. I approve of the management of the four fields mentioned by Mr. Boadley; I think it proper: Indian corn as a preparation for wheat, rye, barley, or oats; and then two years' laying out (as he calls it) waste, puts
the land in a fit state to receive those two crops again; as, although the land in many places grows nothing but weeds, the cattle, from habit, partly live upon them; and, browsing in the woods in the day-time, they are folded at night on some part of those lands, which used to be termed lea land in the open fields in England, particularly on clay lands, where wheat and beans were the produce. Thus the reader may observe the mode of cultivation or rotation adopted in America was nearly similar to the English method, excepting the lea land of the Americans laying out two years instead of one; and, from their soil being so very thin in the first stratum, or live earth, and chiefly of a light sandy nature, the laying out the two years, with the treading of the cattle, horses, and some few sheep, cause it to acquire a firmness again: otherwise, were great part of the land to be cropped every year, it would be so light, from the winter's frost and the summer's sun, as to bear no useful plant; the
rains in summer would wash all the earth away: for, although the Indian corn requires light land and a hot sun to make it produce, it also requires a sufficient quantity of moisture, like all other plants, or it would turn yellow and die away. It has long been an established method in America to raise hills, six feet asunder, by drawing the earth together in a heap, to the size of a large ant-hill—[I never saw ant-hills in America, notwithstanding ants are somewhat numerous there]—for the two Indian corn plants to grow on, which I think is the best method to raise Indian corn; but it leaves the land in a most unpleasant state for any other crop, as it is well known the deeper the soil the longer it will retain its moisture, as there is no other use in deep ploughing. Although those hills are supposed by many to cast off the rain, I am of a different opinion; for the hill which Indian corn grows on is made hollow like a basin in the middle, where the corn stands, and the shovelful of dung laid in that hill, where
there is any applied, is closely covered by the earth gathered to form the hill: the depth of soil is a great advantage. I cannot point out any crop that may be raised to so much advantage, with so little dung, the acre of land only taking twelve hundred shovelfuls to raise that crop: but then the reader will observe there is a very great disadvantage in dunging land in that way—the grain sown afterwards will grow in bunches. Where the land is fertile enough to plant corn in drills, it is preferable, if wheat, rye, or oats, are intended to be sown after; as the ridges are all six feet wide by that process: but there are thousands of acres in America that will bear no other crop but Indian corn, and are left in this state in some places to remain for ever, and are worth little or nothing.

Among the many reasons to be given why Indian corn is generally used in America, the one is, thousands of acres will produce nothing besides that plant that they can make bread with; and were the inha-
bitants of those countries not to make use of Indian corn in the way they do, they would want something to supply its place for bread.

Although I have given several reasons why the Americans export so large a quantity of wheat, I think it necessary further to observe, in reply to a question frequently asked me in company, since I came to England—If the land be barren, how comes the exports to be so great?—that nearly all the wheat grown in America is exported. Indian corn generally supplies its place; the preference given to which may arise from custom. For instance, in regard to myself, I was born in the county of Lincoln, where the produce of the land was chiefly wheat, barley, and oats: I was accustomed to eat what may be termed black bread, for which the small wheat, called hinder ends, or light wheat, taken out of the best sent to market, is used, and kept for family use; which, being ground, was afterwards passed through a wide sieve,
with the small bran seared out of the best wheat-flour, and put amongst the bread-meal; altogether making a sort of coarse or black bread: and the fine flour used for puddings, pies, &c. Yeast not being then in general use, a piece of dough was kept out of the last baking, and salted; which, before the time of using it for the next batch, becoming sour, this sort of bread acquired the same quality, and would keep a long time before it became mouldy. It seldom was used before it was three or four days old, and it was thought extravagant to use it sooner: generally fourteen days elapsed before it was eaten. Now, from being accustomed to that sort of bread in the early part of my life, it would be a great treat to me, although perhaps not a young person in my family would think it eatable. Very fat bacon was the chief of our diet, garden-stuff not being in such general use as at this time, excepting the large Windsor beans in summer, and potatoes occasionally in the winter, with pease-puddings. I
know no greater dainty to me than these beans and fat bacon, or pease-pudding to the offal of pig’s flesh in the winter, or some of the black bread and fat bacon.

At five years old, I was moved to a place where rye and oats were the natural produce of the land; there I remained four years, and became reconcile to sour rye-bread, and pudding made of oatmeal, which I still relish. At the age of nine years, I was sent to school, where I ate baker’s bread, and disliked it more than any of the three, probably from early prejudice. At the age of eighteen, I made a tour in Craven and Lancashire: there oat-bread was in general use, sour, and brittle as glass; it was baked once in three months, dried in a sort of cratch in the kitchen, and at the time of eating was as hard as nut-shells. Though so unpleasant to my taste, the inhabitants liked it. In the west of Yorkshire, they have bread made of oatmeal, called havre-cake, sour and unpleasant to those who are not accustomed to it, but very agreeable to the natives of that part.
I am now able to give an opinion respecting America. An American is like Boniface, in the play, with his ale;—he ate his ale, drank his ale, and slept on his ale: so do the Americans the produce of Indian corn; they have it for all purposes, except sleeping: and they sleep on what they call cat-tails, feathers being both scarce and dear. Cat-tails grow on the top of a reed, which when ripe are rubbed off, gathered by the negroes in large quantities, brought to market for sale, and are in general use for beds, instead of feathers. As prejudices take place in different counties in England, why may not the Americans, from custom, prefer Indian bread? It is natural for them to consider the bread made from Indian corn as congenial.—Wheat-flour is necessary for an Englishman, oat-meal for a Scotchman, potatoes for an Irishman; so is Johnny-cake for an American.

Mr. Boadley's Sketches being written with an intention to improve and spirit the American cultivator, I have selected such parts of them as substantiate my own
observations: and it is necessary for the reader to observe, the quantities given by Mr. Boadley are not meant as real or even estimated quantities, but noted at random; the land that Mr. Boadley draws his comparisons from, and the old rotation, being by far the best part of America I saw. He supposes maize to produce only twelve bushels per acre, and wheat eight bushels per acre. This statement is from his own experience, and therefore I make no doubt of its being fair and candid; especially as I should have supposed, but for such information, the best crops at more per acre. The land within the peninsula of Chesapeake has a much superior appearance to any other I saw: since, then, the best crops of wheat produce only eight bushels, it is reasonable to imagine many crops must fall greatly beneath the quantity here stated.

As Mr. Boadley wrote the Sketches solely with a view to spirit the American cultivator to try experiments, and point out a better rotation, without a desire of profit,
as he gave his manuscript to the printer, he thought he should render an essential service to his countrymen. It is very common for the American cultivator to enquire if those statements set forth by authors of English produce be true; as, they observe, they have made a patch of land as rich as it could be by dunging, but they had not any such-like produce, therefore conclude the English statements to be false.

The American beans, mentioned by Mr. Boadley, are all of the nature of French beans, and the peas the same; only fit for the table. What is termed the Indian pea is very palatable when nearly ripe; but will not shell when green, as our garden peas and beans do: nor would many people in England deem them eatable, as they are somewhat inferior to the English field-pea when ready to harvest. No bird or beast will eat them at any time; therefore no extent of that crop can be grown to any advantage, as they can only be made use of for pickling, or when green for the table.
I carried a quantity of the roota baga seed to America; but I found it stood the winter no better than the Norfolk turnip, or at least so indifferently as to be of little value. I raised seed from both kinds; but the produce was very small, as may be believed from my being obliged to put them in a cellar, or pye them, in the winter.

Mr. Boadley's observations on his fodder-house, or hollow rick, are worthy of remark, and ought to be regarded by cultivators in every part of the world, as they shew the beneficial effects which may arise, in the extremes of cold and heat, by adopting that or similar improvements. Covering land, and keeping the winter's frost from it, where it can be done, will render it more fertile; the same in summer: therefore it is certain that all such green crops as smother the land in summer, and keep the sun from it, and the turnip crop in the winter, are of essential use. I have established the same principle in my former publication, the Experienced Farmer.

Mr. Boadley recommends an infant ma-
nufactory of coarse goods. Undoubtedly he is right; and his observations on this subject may probably stimulate the Americans to have a home market for their own produce, which would be highly advantageous to the landed property of that country. But how will it pay the manufactories, since every thing they do manufacture is to be obtained cheaper and better from England? At present they manufacture a kind of coarse earthen-ware, but of so inferior a quality, that it has been found cheaper for the consumers to purchase earthen-ware imported from England. I know this from experience; for having occasion, in the dairy line, to make use of both sorts, I had the American pots frequently broken with their own weight, when put one into another, which I was previously apprised of by the manufacturers, who were quakers. When I went to buy them—"Friend," said one of the partners, "thou wilt not like my pots: thou art an Englishman; and English pots are so much more durable, I shall not be
able to give thee satisfaction: our clay is of a sandy nature, and no method of tempering or burning it, will make it equal to the English earthenware." Mr. Boadley recommends manufacturing coarse woollen goods, which appears to be right; but Mr. Jefferson, in his notes on Virginia, says:—"They never had an interior trade of any importance; and their exterior commerce has suffered very much from the beginning of their contest. During the time they manufactured within their own families the most necessary articles of clothing, those of cotton bore some comparison with the same kinds of manufacture in Europe; but those of wool, flax, and hemp, were very coarse, unsightly, and unpleasant: and such is their attachment to agriculture, and such their preference for foreign manufactures, that, be it wise or unwise, the people will return, as soon as they can, to the raising raw materials, and exchange them for finer manufactures than they are able to execute themselves.
The political economists of Europe have established as a principle that every state should endeavour to manufacture for itself; and this principle, like many others, we apply to America, without calculating the difference of circumstances, which often produce a difference of result. In Europe, the lands are either cultivated or locked up against the cultivator. Manufacture must be resorted to of necessity—not from choice—to support the surplus of their people. But they have an immensity of land, courting the industry of the husbandman. Is it best, then, that all their citizens should be employed in its improvement, or that one half should be called off from that to exercise manufactures and handicraft arts for the other? Those who labour in the earth are the chosen people of God, if ever he had a chosen people; whose breasts he has made his peculiar deposit for substantial and genuine virtue. It is the focus in which he keeps up that sacred fire, which otherwise might escape
from the face of the earth. Corruption of morals in the mass of cultivators, is a phenomenon of which no age or nation has furnished an example: it is a mark set on those who, instead of looking up to Heaven, to their own soil and industry, as does the husbandman for his substance, depend for it on the casualities and caprice of customers. Dependance begets subservience and venality, suffocates the germ of virtue, and prepares fit tools for the designs of ambition. This, the natural progress and consequence of arts, has sometimes, perhaps, been retarded by accidental circumstances; but, generally speaking, the proportion which the aggregate of the other class of citizens bears in any state to that of its husbandmen, is in the proportion its unsound bears to its healthy parts, and is good enough barometer whereby to measure its degree of corruption. While we have land to labour, then, let us never wish to see our citizens occupied at the work-bench, or twirling a distaff. Car-
penters, masons, smiths, are wanting in husbandry; but, for the general operations of manufacture, let our work-shops remain in Europe. It is better to carry provisions and materials to workmen there, than bring them to the provisions and materials, and with them their manners and principles. The loss by the transportation of commodities across the Atlantic will be made up in happiness and preeminence of government: the mobs of great cities add just so much to the support of pure government, as sores do to the strength of the human body. It is the manners and spirit of the people which preserve a republic in vigour: a degeneracy in these is a canker which soon eats to the heart of its laws and constitution."

These notes of Mr. Jefferson were written at the conclusion of the war; and, from the liberty and equality of the people, the country is becoming lawless: and what can be expected otherwise? The English laws are only to check insults and to
protect the rights of the subject. Where he recommends carrying their produce to the manufacturers in preference to having those markets at home, I will only ask the English reader, what would be the case were the manufactures all moved out of England, and the people to receive all their necessaries of life from a country three thousand miles distant? Therefore I must conclude with saying, the Americans are like the fox in the fable, saying the grapes were sour when he could not reach them.

From the plausibility of liberty and equality, according to the representations of writers on America, many people not conversant on the subject, or who have not experienced the numerous inconveniences arising from such government, may suppose the difficulties pointed out by the author are surmountable; but the reader may judge. Let him observe any family where there are servants, and he will find the difficulty of managing them so great, and their behaviour so unpleasant, as
to make what is termed the master the most miserable person in the family. If you engage a man to perform a certain business, and he obtain payment beforehand, which is sometimes unavoidable, should he choose to leave you before the work is completed, you have no means of redress, nor can you oblige him to finish his contract.

Liberty and equality may truly be said to destroy all civil magistracy, and to take away all the graces so well spoken of by Lord Chesterfield.—The following fact will establish the truth of the above remark. It is customary in America for a magistrate to go to a tavern, to do the business of the country: When on my travels, having put up my horse at Bush, betwixt Philadelphia and Baltimore, I heard a great noise in one room in the house; curiosity led me to look in, and I observed a rabble as if assembled to a cock-fight. I stood some time to hear the conversation, which to my surprise consisted of cases in law, and a great many opinions were given. When I left the room, I asked the tavern-keeper, what the
people were doing? He said, it was a justice of the peace sitting, who had made choice of his house, where he came once a-week to transact business, and he most heartily wished he could get rid of him, for he caused such a confusion, there was no bearing it. The reader will therefore see, since equality prevented even proper order being kept during the time a justice was acting in his official capacity, how far laws that are established can be carried into effect to redress the wrongs or grievances of the subject.

FINIS.
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