

CHOLERA—ITS HISTORY AND LOCALIZING CAUSES.

The pressure of other matter has hitherto prevented our referring to a carefully prepared pamphlet upon the subject of epidemic Cholera, issued by the Council of Hygiene of the Citizens' Association. Although the Association is so unhappy as to be called by Mr. Boole "an arrogant and self-constituted organization," the document in question is the work of physicians upon a subject within the province of their own profession; and, since the author of "Don Juan" was right in saying of physicians that "when sick we call them to attend us, without the least propensity to sneer," there is no sound reason why they should not be attentively heard when they do what they are not paid for doing—speak in warning. Cholera is not an attractive subject; and we are aware that any phase of even such a topic as Reconstruction would sooner fix the eyes of most readers; nevertheless, shutting one's eyes does not avert danger, and not because we are alarmists, but because we do not believe the newspapers can frighten anybody into having the Cholera, and because we want to see some efficient cleaning—with or without the passage of the pending Health Bill—done during the Winter months as a precaution against the appearance of the epidemic next Spring, we recur again to the matter.

Cholera and Commerce have this much connection, that the former follows the path of the latter and keeps most easily along water sides. At Alexandria, it began last May in a filthy suburb occupied by a dense crowd of Arabs, Maltese, and Greeks, and there strengthened itself until it killed 200 a day. It also traveled to Cairo and other places along the Nile. In our report on epidemic Cholera, it is shown that only one out of 795 persons, inmates of these model buildings, had been attacked by the disease, whereas among the population of London generally one person in 75 was attacked.

This country has had four visitations of Cholera. In June of 1832, it was found in an emigrant vessel in the St. Lawrence River; it reached Quebec a few days later, New-York two weeks later than Quebec, and soon afterward cases were found in Albany and other cities along the water line of the Middle States. In this city, it then killed 3,513. On the 2d of December, 1848, it again reached New-York in the emigrant ship New-York, having killed 14 passengers during the voyage of three weeks from Havre. About the same time, it arrived at New-Orleans, killing there 1,400 during January; in a fortnight it was at Memphis; another fortnight carried it to St. Louis; and another to Nashville and Cincinnati. On the 11th of May, it reappeared in New-York, finding a home awaiting it at the Five Points; and during that year 5,071 deaths occurred in the city by it; and in the Summer of 1854, it claimed 2,569 more.

Dr. Snow, the Superintendent of Health of the City of Providence—than whom a more careful and efficient health officer is not to be found—in a recent report to the Providence Board of Health, declares that he "can point out the precise localities in the city where the Cholera will prevail if it visits us again; can show the houses in which it will do its worst work; can name the families and almost the individuals who will have the disease; can show what there is in those localities, houses, families and individuals which will cause the disease; and can show that those causes might be removed and the disease prevented by the proper action of the authorities, of the owners of the houses, and of individuals." The General Board of Health of Great Britain declared that, as was anticipated, in 1849, the "Cholera returned to the same countries, and the same cities and towns, and even the same streets, and houses, and rooms, which it ravaged in 1832;" and furthermore, it is stated that "but very few indeed who suffered then have escaped now, except in those instances in which sanitary measures have in the mean time been effected." The city of Worcester, on the Severn, which had twice been scourged, having performed a thorough cleansing, escaped the following epidemic, which swept the neighboring cities. The Cholera of 1849, with insignificant exceptions, prevailed, out of 500 towns noted, in those previously known for their local impurities; in 68 towns where it raged severely, the Committee of the Royal College of Surgeons found the localizing causes of pestilence prevailing; and in 51 out of 53 quarters where it first appeared, in as many districts, the well-known and preventable causes were found. Thus the medical officers report that "in the town of Jewsbury the Cholera was first announced in an alley containing a slaughter-house, pig-styes, and a bone-deposit; and for more than a month it lingered there, spreading thence over the town. In the city of Hull, it was at first limited to the ill-drained localities. In St. Giles's Parish (London), it commenced in

Church-st., where the drainage and ventilation were bad, cleaning defective, and population dense. In Islington, malaria from bad drainage and ventilation was the general cause. In Chatham, the disease was chiefly confined to the narrow lanes and alleys which are crowded, deficient in cleanliness, and where fever is more or less prevalent. In Liverpool, the disease was confined for the most part to the worst-ventilated, low, and ill-drained courts. Lodging-houses of this character were sometimes alone attacked." That class of lodging-houses in England that has been brought under sanitary regulations, with an aggregate population of 80,000, was almost totally exempt from Cholera during the last epidemics. The report of the General Board of Health for 1849 states, that in the great tenement-house called the Metropolitan Buildings, in which health regulations were complete, with a population of 500, not a case occurred, although the epidemic was very fatal in that district. And the report of the same Board in 1851 states, that "in the Metropolis, every efficient sanitary improvement has been followed as directly as possible and effect by a corresponding decrease of sickness and mortality. There is no exception to this rule. It applies to the courts, alleys, and houses occupied by the industrious classes; it applies to public institutions of every kind; to prisons, to hospitals, to lunatic asylums, and, above all, to establishments specially erected, to test the value of sanitary principles—to the model lodging-houses of the Metropolis. In our report on epidemic Cholera, it is shown that only one out of 795 persons, inmates of these model buildings, had been attacked by the disease, whereas among the population of London generally one person in 75 was attacked."

THE TENURE OF LAND IN THE WEST INDIES AS AFFECTING THE FREEDMEN.

A few days since, *The New-York Times*, with reference to a report that some of the legislatures of the lately insurgent States have passed laws to prevent the freed Blacks from holding real estate, devoted an article to the subject of the right of the freedmen to own land, showing the impolicy of such a course of legislation, and pointing out the happy effects that might be expected to follow the possession of land by the Blacks of the South. There is much in that article with which we cordially agree; but the argument of *The Times* is materially weakened through the errors into which it has fallen with reference to the state of things existing in that part of the world from which it drew its illustration, viz.: the British West Indies. So far as the island of Jamaica is concerned, it is far from being the fact that "the freedmen are not in general landholders." Indeed, the very opposite of this is the real state of the case. It is true that the planter policy, by which that colony has been hitherto ruled, is not favorable to the negroes becoming owners of land. Legislation there has clogged the conveyance of land with heavy expense and endless trouble. But in spite of those difficulties the Blacks have been steadily acquiring real estate through their industry; and it is computed, on trustworthy statistics, that at the present time there cannot be fewer than 80,000 landholders among the negroes of that island. At an average of three acres for each holding, this will give an aggregate of 240,000 acres owned by the peasant proprietors of Jamaica. In this respect there is, contrary to the statement of *The Times*, quite a contrast between Jamaica and Barbadoes. In the latter island, there are very few peasant proprietors—very few homesteads answering to the "small settlements" so numerous in the former. Barbadoes is parcelled out into "sugar estates;" the majority of them over one hundred acres a piece, and almost every foot of ground in sugar cultivation belongs to these estates, the independent agricultural industry of the Blacks being confined entirely to the growing of corn, pulse and potatoes in garden patches rented from the large landed proprietors. Barbadoes is a small island with a dense population—quite as dense as the population of China; and being a purely agricultural country, and is very dear. Jamaica, on the contrary, is sparsely peopled, and land there is comparatively cheap, although, owing to the impediments which short-sighted and selfish legislation have thrown in the way of poor men becoming landholders, it is not by any means so easily obtained as some people have imagined.

The Times connects the poverty of Jamaica, the distress recently prevalent there, and the late "Slavery outbreak," with the tenure of land in that country; but fails to point out wherein lies the connection. It is not, however, so much in "the tenure of the land," strictly speaking, that the cause of the present deplorable state of things in Jamaica, especially as regards the antagonism between the planters and the Blacks, is to be found, as in the impolitic and unjust distinctions which legislation has made between the large landed proprietor and the small settler, in their capacity of landholders. This is seen in the way in which the two classes of agriculturists are respectively taxed. The owner of the sugar estate of several hundred acres enjoys immunities and privileges which are denied to the peasant with his five or ten-acre lot. The former is at liberty to work his heavy wagons on the public roads intersecting his plantation without paying any tax on wheels. The light cart of the latter is taxed \$5 a year. The agricultural stock of the former is taxed at the rate of 25 cents a head. The small settler has to pay \$2 for every horse and mule he owns, and \$1 for every ass. The former may pay his taxes by installments. The latter must pay them in full at once on a fixed day, under penalty of having his goods levied on and sold at auction. As an agriculturist, the small settler labors under these disadvantages as compared with the planter, simply because his poverty compels him to be a producer on a small scale. If, for example, he is a sugar-grower, not until he has succeeded in producing 40 barrels of sugar per annum does legislation recognize him as in the same class with the planter, and grant him the same privileges with his wealthy neighbor. Thus, instead of helping the poor and strug-

gling man, it burdens him with imposts calculated to depress his energies and to keep him always in the lower scale. In fact, it refuses to recognize the peasant proprietor as an agriculturist entitled in his avocation to the favorable consideration of the State; and, reserving its favors for those who can best afford to dispense with them, under the pretense of stimulating industry by holding out hopes of exemption from taxes, it most effectually prevents the healthy development of it among the people. Such being the state of things in Jamaica, it is not to be wondered at that the planters dreaded popular agitation for legislative reform, and that individuals like the late George William Gordon, who demanded justice for the Blacks, became marked men, who were to be silenced at any cost. The offense of Gordon and his compatriots was that they were, through the agency of the press and of public meetings, opening the eyes of the people to the gross and shameful inequalities of the laws, and the injury thereby inflicted upon the bulk of the population. With the Jamaica planter, popular agitation, by its forms never so legitimate, when employed to obtain the redress of grievances arising out of the mal-legislation of the dominant class in that country, is regarded as tantamount to sedition, treason, rebellion; and herein lies the whole secret of the late horrible massacre of the Blacks in that island. It was not that insurrection was really feared, but that it was felt to be a necessity, in the interest of the ruling class, to silence forever the voices that had been raised to demand justice for the masses.

As regards the industrial and, therefore, moral effect which the holding of land has on the peasantry of a country, alluded to by *The Times*, and the peculiar susceptibility of the negro to the wholesome conservative influence that the possession of land exercises on the owner thereof, the most striking illustrations, the most convincing proofs of the wisdom of the policy that encourages the freedmen to become landholders, are to be found in the history of Jamaica since emancipation. All accounts of the condition of the people in that island agree in this, that there is a marked contrast between the peasant proprietary of that country and the people of the same class entirely dependent for subsistence upon wages earned on the plantations. The former are in every respect superior to the latter; superior physically, mentally and morally, superior in all that constitutes civilization; more industrious, more thrifty, more sober, more intelligent. This is in effect the testimony of clergymen and missionaries of all denominations, and the criminal records of the colony show that there is far less crime in those districts where the people generally are settled on their own homesteads than in those where the Blacks are employed on the plantations as hired laborers. From facts like these, the Legislatures of the South, if they are wise, will learn a lesson of the utmost importance to them at the present juncture.

SEWAGE AND ITS UTILIZATION.

Our last article upon this topic closed with summing up the testimony of the Manager of the Craigentally Meadows, near Edinburgh, given last Spring before the Parliamentary Committee, to which was referred the Metropolitan Sewage and Essex Reclamation Bill. Following this Manager came several farmers. A dairyman, who rents 40 acres of the Craigentally meadows, testifies that he pays on the average £28 per acre, but that without the sewage it would not be worth more than six shillings. He keeps six cows upon an acre, and sells their milk at £20 each. Certain other lands rented by this witness, being light, sandy soils, and making "good garden ground," grow no more grass when irrigated (with sewage) than the Craigentally sands. The most curious part of this evidence is that the sewage of Edinburgh, which raises the rental of these lands from six shillings to £28 and £36 per acre, benefits only the owner and lessee, and is furnished by the city without any return.

The Chairman of the Local Board of Health of Croydon—a town of some 20,000 inhabitants—states that he had used the whole of the sewage of that place, 1,500,000 tons annually, for several years. Two or three years previous, there had been complaints of a nuisance arising, for "when the acreage of the meadows was very limited, and the sewage was applied to 15 or 20 acres only, the mechanically-suspended matter of the sewage became too thickly deposited on the land." The soil at Croydon is "a thin, black, sandy kind of soil, resting upon a deep gravel," and the sewage easily percolates through it. The witness states that "we have got about thirty acres now that has been converted into irrigated land upon pure clay, and it appears to be doing exceedingly well upon it; the water goes off, I am sure you will be pleased to hear, very pure. The system is upon the clay land; we find it ran too hilly over the surface, and the grass upon the surface throws out a quantity of fibrous roots which come to the surface, and, therefore, it purifies the sewage on the surface."

The most comprehensive and recent work upon the whole subject of sewage utilization is the third report of the special Royal Commission appointed for that distinct inquiry. The report was presented in March last, and was printed as a Parliamentary document. The Commission was appointed at the beginning of 1857, and the present report gives the results of experiments continued during three years, these experiments not being confined to the mere application of sewage to land, but extending to the "consumption" by cattle, of the produce so obtained, and to the production of meat and milk, accompanied by a careful record of the quantities and market value of the products, and by numerous analyses of the sewage before and after irrigation, as also of the grass and the milk." Three portions of land were selected, of about five acres each, and each of these was again divided into four plots. Plot No. 1 was to be unsewaged; No. 2 to be sewaged at the rate of 3,000 tons per acre per annum; No. 3 at the rate of 6,000 tons, and No. 4 at the rate of 9,000 tons per acre per annum. The produce of the first portion of land, comprising the four plots, was to be given, in the green state, to fattening oxen;

that of the second (also in the green state) to milking cows, and that of the third was to be made into hay.

By the application of sewage to grass land during the Winter months, a very early cut of grass was obtained, although this increased product is small for the sewage employed. The period during which an abundance of green food was available was also extended considerably, at the end of the season as well as the beginning, and the more so in proportion to the sewage employed, up to the highest amount used—9,000 tons per acre. One of the experimental fields—the less fertile one—gave a smaller product than the other, when both were unsewaged; but under a liberal dressing with sewage, the less fertile one equaled the other. Taking the average for three years, and in the two fields, the amount of produce obtained without sewage was about 9½ tons of green grass per acre per annum, or about 3 tons of hay; and with 3,000, 6,000, and 9,000 tons of sewage per acre per annum, the amounts were, respectively, about 22½, 20½, and 22½ tons of green grass, equal respectively (reckoned according to the per centage of dry substance in each) to about 5½, 5½, and 6½ tons of hay. The largest quantities of produce per acre were obtained in the third year of the experiments, and with 9,000 tons of sewage per acre per annum; namely, in one field 35 tons, and in the other 37 tons of green grass, equal respectively to about 6½ and 7 tons of hay. The average increase obtained for each 1,000 tons of sewage was 5 tons of green grass, 3,000 tons per acre per annum were applied; when 6,000 tons per acre were applied, 4 tons, and when 9,000 tons were applied, 3 tons 3½ cwt. The amount of produce obtained per acre increases directly as the increase of sewage, up to 3,000 tons per acre; but when the amount applied exceeded that, the increase of produce was in a much smaller ratio than when smaller amounts were used. Experiments with rye grass were made, in one season only, and with far less thoroughness, but the general result indicated little variation from those obtained with meadow grass.

When cut and given green to fattening oxen fed up under cover, more sewage than unsewaged grass was both consumed by a given weight of animal within a given time, and was required to produce a given weight of increase; but when dry or solid substance was employed, these results were exactly reversed. When all grass alone was given, the result was very unsatisfactory; but with oil-cake added, the result, in point of increased weight, was not far short of the average result when oxen are fed under cover on a good mixed diet. The money return, whether reckoned per acre or for a given amount of sewage, was much less with fattening oxen than with milking cows.

When cows received all they wanted of unsewaged or unsewaged grass, a given weight of animal was more productive, both of milk and increase (but especially of milk), on the sewage than on the unsewaged grass. From a given weight of green, unsewaged grass, a greater amount of milk was produced than from an equal amount of unsewaged grass; but when both were used dry, the results were reversed. By the aid of sewage, the time that an acre would keep a cow, and the amount of milk obtained from the produce of an acre, were increased between three and four-fold; and it was estimated that, with an application of about 5,000 tons of sewage per acre per annum to meadow land, an average gross product of not less than 1,000 gallons of milk per acre per annum may be expected. In experiments with Italian rye grass—made for one season only—a given amount of sewage resulted in a greater return of milk than with meadow grass. With an application of about 5,000 tons of sewage per acre per annum, an average gross return of from £30 to £35 per acre may be obtained, taking milk at eight pence per gallon.

The tables of which the above statements are a partial summary are too minute and voluminous to be quoted in anything like an entire condition. At another time, however, we hope to present the essence of some of them at least.

WOOL.

There are some errors, we notice, in the remarks made by different individuals at the recent Wool-growers' and Manufacturers' Association. The report may cover ideas different from what the speakers intended. Dr. Loring says, "High prices of labor, the price of gold, and speculation, give unusual values to our manufactures. Wool enjoys none of these advantages; it has followed the price of gold." Now, had the latter clause been true, we think Dr. Loring and his friends would have been without cause of complaint, since currency was made a legal tender. Had wool followed the price of gold, when the latter was worth \$280, wool would have been worth \$1.90 per pound, instead of which it was worth \$1.15. In 1860 the same kind of wool was worth from 92 to 70c, and now, with gold at \$130, it should be worth about 90c per pound. It is, on the contrary, only worth about 70c per pound. It is true that a pound of wool will discharge a greater amount of debt than it would before the war, and consequently is of greater value to the farmer, provided that indebtedness was incurred before the war. But if the debts have been contracted within a few months, then a pound of wool is not near the former value, compared with other articles of farm produce and these commodities which the farmer has to purchase.

There appears to be an error in the statement of the same speaker with reference to the price of wool in England. He says, "Donkoi wool is sold at 12c, Buenos Ayres at 9c, and Cape, washed, at 17c per pound, in the English market, which, even with exchange and the low tariffs of 3 and 5c per pound, stands lower than the price of our own wool." There may have been an error in reporting the price of these wools, using the term cents instead of pence, and also in the language of the gentleman; for if the price of wool is lower in England than here, then our farmers are reaping the benefit of the high price of gold and of tariffs, as well as the manufacturers. Donkoi wool is worth, in the English market, from 10 pence to 12 pence per pound; this is equal to 20 and 24c, per lb., for wool from 12 to 24c, per pound, gold, for, as wool from 12 to 24c, per pound at the port of exportation pays 3c, per pound, gold, then Donkoi wool would be worth here in gold 26 and 30c, and with gold at \$146, would be 38c, currency, and 44c, currency. Donkoi white wool is worth, in this market, from 35 to 45c, currency. Buenos Ayres unwashed is worth, in the English market, 5 pence and 9 pence per pound, making it 10 and 18c, gold, per pound. It to the first we add 3c, duty—for all wool under 13c, per pound at the port of exportation pays 3c, gold, per pound—we shall have 13c, and 6c, gold, added to the latter, and we shall have 19c, per pound, gold, which will be about 18c, currency, for the farmer, and for the

latter we shall have 36c, currency. Buenos Ayres, in this market, is worth from 16 to 45c, per pound, currency.

But the greatest mistake is where the Doctor says that the price of washed Cape is 17c, in the English market. The price of washed Cape, in the English market, is as follows: Good fleece, 1s. 6d. or 18d., and 1s. 10d. or 22d.; Middling, 16d. and 17d.; Low, 13d. and 15d.; Lambs, 13d. and 14d. Now, according to this, Good fleece is worth, in the English market, 26 and 45c, gold, and all good costing 35c, and upwards, at the port of exportation, pays 12c, and 10 per cent, ad valorem, gold. This would make 54 and 69c, per pound, gold, making about 76 and 85c, currency. As we know of no washed Cape in this market, we can only compare it with the good Saxony fleece produced in this country, the very best of which has never sold for more than 85c, currency, during the present season. Middling is worth, in the English market, 22 and 34c, gold. To this we add duty of 12c, per pound—for all wool which 12c, and less than 36c, is paid, pays 12c, duty—and we shall have 44 and 46c, gold. This would be 65 and 70c, currency—falling higher than good medium grades of American fleece. Low, or coarse, is worth, in the English market, 26 and 30c, gold, to which, when the duty is added, we shall have 38 and 42c, gold. This, reduced to currency, would be 56 and 62c, currency, a price which American fleece of the same grade would not bring. Lambs worth 24 and 30c, gold, to which add duty and we have 28 and 50c, gold. Reduced to currency, they would be 32 and 70c. But unwashed Cape, in the English market, is worth from 7 to 16d, per pound, which is 14 and 32c, per pound, gold. If to this we add duty, we shall have 20 and 36c, gold, which would be 29 and 52c, currency. Unwashed Cape, of which we have an abundance in this market, is worth from 25 to 45c, currency. This is higher than the English prices quoted; but as in England there is no duty paid on foreign wools, they import largely of the washed wools, to the neglect of the unwashed. The English manufacturer does not care to pay for the transportation of dirt and grease from Australia, Cape of Good Hope, and South America. There is a reason why the American manufacturer should prefer paying for the transportation of grease rather than import clean wool. Men generally prefer doing that which is most to their interest, and it will be found that under the existing tariff the interest of the American manufacturer is to pay for the transportation of grease and dirt. Although in connection with the wool we buy and sell so much dirt, yet the duty we pay is really upon the scoured wool, made ready for the cards, upon which we pay the duty. The tariff does not increase the value of the dirt one particle, but it does increase the value of the wool, and ought to enhance the value of our own American wool just in proportion to the amount of duty paid. We have already shown that the duties on wool are 3, 6, 12c, and 10 per cent ad valorem per pound. These two latter and higher figures were imposed for the purpose of protecting the American farmer in the production of fine wool; but these higher figures are rendered entirely impoperative by the manner in which the wool is imported. The lower duties of 3 and 6c, per pound were imposed to protect the farmer in the production of coarse and medium wool. But the great bulk of the wool imported pays but 6c, per pound—a great portion of it the finest wool produced in the world. The finest wools produced at the Cape of Good Hope, in Australia, and South America, are all imported under the 6c, duty because of their bad condition. They are all unwashed, and some are so dirty that they only pay 3c, per pound duty. Now, in order to understand how this operates, we must consider the amount which this dirty wool shrinks, and also what the clean washed wool shrinks, and see what the duty will be upon the scoured wool when ready for the cards. The great bulk of the wool which pays a duty of 6c, per pound will shrink in scouring from 60 to 70 per cent, say, average about two-thirds. This would give for every 3 pounds in the grease, at importation, 1 pound of scoured wool, the duty on which would be 18c, per pound. But 3 pounds of the washed wool, such as the English manufacturer so largely imports, would shrink in scouring about 33 per cent, or 3 pounds, as imported, would yield 2 pounds ready for the cards. We have already shown that the best Cape wools are worth from 36 to 45c, gold, in England; that on these we should have to pay a duty of 12c, per pound, and 10 per cent ad valorem. This would, on the first, be 13c, and on the second, 16c, per pound, which multiplied by 2, would be 26 and 32c, on the two scoured pounds ready for the cards, or 24 and 34c, on one pound—being from 5 to 6c, per pound more than on the greasy wool of the same quality imported at a duty of 6c, per pound. This pays well for the transportation of dirt. While the medium and fine wools, paying 12c, per pound duty, and 3 pounds yielding 2 pounds clean wool, the duty would be just 18c, per pound; but wool of this quality will not shrink two-thirds, and consequently, though 6c, per pound duty might be paid for it in the grease, yet the scoured pound could pay less than 18c, duty, and should be very greedy, it would not pay more than 3c, per pound duty, and would probably not give more than 1 pound for 4 pounds in the grease; the reason why we import so much wool in the grease and so little washed wool, and not, as Mr. Howard says, because unwashed wools better on the cards, for, were that so, the English, who are just as much interested as we are in having that kind of wool which works the best on the cards, would also import greasy wool. The very opposite of this is the fact. If wool is not scoured clean it works badly, and any one would understand that the dirtier the wool the worse it would be to clean, and if not properly cleaned, the color would not be so bright nor the finish so good. One great cause why the English and Germans beat us in the brightness of color and beauty of finish is because they use more washed wool and less of the greasy than we do.

It will also be seen that were all wool washed which is imported, then the higher duties of 12c, and 10 per cent ad valorem would become operative, and would afford the farmer much more protection than he receives at the present time. But we would have it distinctly understood that we do not charge the manufacturers with attempting any fraud either upon Government or upon the farmer, but that they simply take advantage of a condition of things which tends to their benefit, and which is at all times perfectly fair and legitimate; and it certainly would not be unfair on the part of the farmer if he saw that those duties upon which he relied most for protection were rendered inefficient through circumstances which he did not understand at the time of the passing of the law, should he seek to make such changes in the tariff as should best protect his interests. But on account of the large importations which took place in 1864, before the present tariff came into effect, has been so operative in depressing the price of wool, that it will become time before we shall have such a full and practical working as to be able to speak with certainty of it in all its bearings upon the interests of the farmers. To what extent these heavy importations have effected the price of domestic fleeces may be inferred from the great loss of supply and demand, and the fact that 30,000,000 pounds of wool were imported in 1864, while not over 20,000,000 were required to make up the deficiency caused by our own farmers failing to produce all our manufacturers required; and it must also be remembered that this large amount of wool was imported at a low duty, which enabled the importer to sell it at a much lower price than he could under the present tariff. We think that it would be exceedingly impolitic for the farmer to demand a much higher duty. There is certainly no reason why the duties of 12c, and 10 per cent ad valorem, should be interfered with. If to the lower duties of 3 and 6c, 1 and 3c, should be added, we think it would be found that a protection sufficient was afforded. This would be 4 and 8c, per pound duty, which some might suppose, in view of other heavy duties, was but a slight protection. When we consider that three pounds of this greasy wool only yields one pound of clean wool, we should have 24c, duty upon the clean pound—about as much as the washed wool pays with the duty at 12c, and 10 per cent ad valorem. The importer would then import the washed wool, which would be a saving of 1 and 2c, upon the scoured pound, and, as a consequence, we should find our colors would be brighter and our cloths better finished.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Official Notice of Her condition.

Murders, Swindling and Lashing of Freedmen and Freedwomen.

Bully Brooks's Soul is Marching Out

From Our Special Correspondent. HOSE AGAIN, Jan. 10, 1866.

I continue the annals of the Freedmen's Bureau in South Carolina, where "the people are as loyal as could be expected," it is stated in high quarters, and stated truly—"I sincerely think so myself. For what ought we to expect from them—these recent Rebels—after a generation of teachings of Calvary's? Nothing. And we have got it—

"Just so much, and nothing more."

Let us take a glance at the condition of this State as pictured by the affidavits and official reports on file in the Freedmen's Bureau for the last month.

ARBEVILLE DISTRICT—SWINDLING THE FREEDMEN. In this district a planter worked nearly one hundred negroes near Colesburg—ten of them on the South Carolina Railroad for six months. He received their wages and pocketed it. The remainder, some ninety, worked on the plantation, and raised a crop of corn, wheat, rice, and cotton. After the crop was harvested, the laborers were sent to Charleston, utterly destitute. Of course they had to be rationed by the Government or starve. Rations were furnished them. It is that that the list of dependents on Government bounty is increased. Rebels can point to these negroes as illustrations of their accusations that the race is "stupid," "work not," and "prefers to flock to cities rather than stay on the plantations."

The planter, on their arrival in the city, distributed \$50 among them. The largest amount that any one of them received for his six months work was \$1.25, and from that amount he had to pay for his clothing.

The ration furnished to these people during the season was lower than the minimum allowance of the day of Slavery—*one peck of dry corn, per week!*

BEAUFORT DISTRICT—PROVOKED COURT JUSTICE. Complaints are made of the character and conduct of a Magistrate of the Court in this District. It is alleged that it is "outrageously unjust toward freedmen and Northern whites wherever they are opposed by ex-Rebels; that he has been in court, and has adjudged against the freedman, although the negro brought full proof that it came into his possession a long time previous to the date given by the soldier as the time he lost him."

In another case the defendant lost his horse, and was kept in jail ten days in default of payment of costs, being finally released on the protest of the Agent of the Freedmen's Bureau. Since the protest of the agent was sufficient to release the defendant, it would seem that the courts have been conscious of injustice done to the freedmen.

PLANTERS DRIVING OFF AND DEBAUCHING THE FREEDMEN. A great many freedmen are in the district who have been laboring for planters in the interior of the State, and who are being driven off to the coast, where they are either to money or provisions, for their Summer work. As, under existing orders, the agents cannot help them, universal thieving is already a first consequence of their departure from the interior.

BARRETT DISTRICT—MURDERS. A grocer is charged with murdering a freedman. He has not yet been arrested. His store and property have been taken possession of by the Bureau. A soldier is reported for wounding a negro for refusing him. What caused the soldier and for interfering with the negro is not stated. The case is under examination.

SWINDLING AND DRIVING OFF THE NEGROES. The disposition shown by the planters to take off the freedmen from the interior of the State, and to drive them to the coast, as mentioned in the October reports, still continues. It is thought that the troops cannot be withdrawn with safety from this section, and that to preserve peace and order after New-Year's day more force will be needed.

CHARLESTON DISTRICT—THE LABOR QUESTION. Many difficulties exist here in the matter of new contracts. The planters say that they are desirous to contract, but they do not offer sufficient pay to induce the freedmen to come to terms with them.

CHARLESTON DISTRICT—WHITE NEGROES. The colored troops in this district are principally employed in the distribution of the crops in their district. There are no schools as yet, but there are three about to be established, and soldiers will be detailed as teachers. There are about 200 white refugees who need teachers. In the District of Beaufort, the Labor Question, no provisions have yet been made for the next year, but arrangements for them are being perfected which it is hoped will result favorably. There are no schools as yet, but efforts are being made to procure suitable buildings and to detail soldiers as teachers.

INGOLD DISTRICT—CHIVALRY—THIEFS AND MURDERS. In this district a freedman was threatened with a whipping because he did not run fast enough. He most protested against such threats. The "maister" threatened to whip him, and the freedman, in a fit of anger, seized a board, which cut his severely. The two women who left the place, but they were not allowed to take with them even their own personal property.

Certain freedmen and reports that a negro was shot dead in the District of Beaufort, and in many places men have been found lying dead.

GREENEVILLE DISTRICT—ENCOURAGING REPORTS. The reports from this district are encouraging both in regard to the present condition of the negroes, and in respect to the future. A number of satisfactory arrangements being made for the ensuing year. A portion of the planters favor the system of hiring by the year, paying according to the number of tasks performed, while others are dissatisfied with the present system. The planters are better satisfied with the Bureau than heretofore, and many individual articles are favorable to its continuance.

Small-pox prevails to some extent, and hospital facilities are of the utmost importance. A hospital is now being established under the supervision of a surgeon of the Bureau.

The freedmen are procuring a suitable lot for a school building, and, as relating to schools, everything is progressing favorably.

HOLLY DISTRICT—THE COGNATE UNDERSTANDING. The officer in charge of this district is a new comer. He has not been long in the office, but he reports that there is a good understanding existing between the white and black folk.

KERSHAW DISTRICT—KIDNAPING. A freedwoman is stated that on leaving her late "maister," she was accompanied by her two children, a boy and a girl, and that they are now kept there against her own will and their will.

ORANGEBURG DISTRICT—SCHOOLS, TROOPS AND CONTRACTS. A school-house and small building for the use of the freedmen has been built, at a cost of \$300 for material, and the freedmen are being educated. The troops are being discharged, and the government. It is thought that the troops could not be withdrawn from here with safety. Garrison for head-quarters are now at Aiken, Barnwell, Baraburg and Broadwindsor, and believed that the freedmen will trace contracts for the next year.

MURKINS DISTRICT—CONTRACTS—WADE HAMPTON. The officer in this District reports that the contracts will be made for the ensuing year, and that several have been already made. He has effected with Rebel Gen. Wade Hampton, who takes the freedmen to Mississippi. He gives full rations 80¢ per month, and 3¢ of meat and a peck of meal a week.

MURKINS AND BOBBLENS. There is no end to the complaints of brutal treatment and injuries toward the freedmen in the upper country, but their authorities cannot be reached without mounted men, of which at present there are but few available.

There are gangs of bushwhackers in the upper country who rob and beat the colored people generally. Two mounted men have been killed, and one of a Laurens District. Where the authors of these outrages can be reached the cases are referred to the Process courts for action. A citizen of Lexington who murdered a freedman, has been sentenced to imprisonment for life at Alcatraz, N. Y. The military aid the Bureau as much as they can.

[By the way, just one query here. Not long ago three negroes were hanged by the military in South Carolina for attempting or committing a crime. No one could claim that they were guilty as grave a crime as hanging the licentious negroes, and send the white murderer to jail only!

The health of the freedmen is improving, and crops are being divided promptly. The Freedmen's Bureau Association are doing well in this district. The public relations are going well in their attendance, neat and clean in their appearance, and manifest great interest in their situation.

Schools have been established at Winesborough.

SUMTER DISTRICT—WEEKLY DEPENDENTS DISBURSED. No attempts have been made to renew contracts yet.