

# The Middlebury People's Press.

In this Paper are published the Public Orders, Resolutions, Laws, Public Treaties, Bankrupt Notices Etc. of the United States, by Authority.

H. BELL, Editor and Proprietor.

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## MISCELLANEOUS.

### From the Burlington Free Press.

### EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION.

A State Convention of the friends of education was held at Middlebury, on the 13th and 24th of January, by which the various interests of Education were taken under consideration, and inquiries instituted into existing defects and the means of their removal. The time allotted being insufficient to accomplish the objects proposed, the convention adjourned to meet at Burlington on the last Tuesday in February, 1842.

According to adjournment the Convention met in Burlington on Tuesday the 23d of Feb. His Excellency Governor Paige, was called to the chair, Geo. B. Shaw was appointed Secretary, and John K. Converse, assistant Secretary.

The Convention was addressed by Prof. Geo. W. Benedict in relation to the legislation of this state on the subject of Education.

Prof. Benedict said that in Vermont there had been little legislation on this subject—the Legislature had chartered several Colleges and Academies, but had assumed no responsibility except in relation to common schools; and that even for these, there was nothing in the Statute Book to lead us to suppose that the Legislature intended to have any other care than merely to prescribe the mode of organizing school districts and provide, in part, funds for supporting the school,—that whether the schools lived or died, or whether the districts were faithful or not in the expenditure of the public money, was a matter in respect to which the Legislature took no responsibility. Mr B. proceeded to show by reference to facts that the interests of primary education were suffering very seriously for the want of some system of state supervision;—that the principle on which the public money is now drawn, operates, too often, as a bounty on inactivity, and is not (as it ought to be) a stimulus to induce people to get their children into the school;—that of a hundred scholars on whom money is drawn, forty not infrequently get the whole benefit. He also adduced facts showing that the power of taxation under the present law (Sec. 18.) may be so used as to shut out the children of the very poor from our schools altogether. Mr. B. commented upon the policy of the Legislature in borrowing and appropriating the School Fund, and also upon the manner of disposing of that portion of the U. S. Deposit, which fell to this State.

Rev. Mr. Peck of Poultony then delivered an address explaining the system of common schools in the state of N. Y.

Mr Peck said, that in New-York the Colleges, Academies and Common Schools, were all parts of one great and harmonious system under the supervision of a board of 21 Regents. They have a school fund, amounting to about \$1,500,000, the proceeds of which are distributed to the schools according to the number of scholars from 5 to 15 years of age. The balance of the requisite sum to sustain them is assessed upon the scholar according to the attendance of each. Each District, in order to receive its portion of the public money, must have maintained a school taught by an inspected teacher, at least for the term of three months. N. York not only bestows a direct and liberal patronage upon all her schools: She also assumes a responsible supervision over them; the Legislature not only provides the funds, but takes special care that these funds be faithfully and profitably applied. In order to do this a general superintendent of schools is appointed who devotes his whole time. He is aided by an assistant superintendent in each county, making 60 in all. These assistants are paid a salary of \$500 each,—so that the state pays yearly the sum of \$30,000 to mere officers of examination and inspection. By these officers, directly or indirectly, all teachers are examined. By them also all things else are done tending to the well being of the schools. A particular report is made to the superintendent of the condition of every school in the State. These reports are combined into a general report which is printed and laid upon the table of every legislator, and upon that of every judicial or executive officer of the state.

In N. York the academies are the nurseries for training teachers, and are patronized by the state with special reference to this end.

At the opening of the meeting in the afternoon, the convention was addressed in an interesting and able manner by Mr. Calvin Pease of Montpelier, "upon the prevailing system of Academic Education." It would be difficult to do justice to the address of Mr. Pease, by attempting an analysis.

President Wheeler next addressed the convention upon the system of Education in Mass. Mr. Wheeler said, that the systems of Education in N. England and New York originated in Mass.—that it was there we must look for the germ and principle of them all. The system of Mass. did not spring from the feeling of ignorance—it was commenced by men of the widest education, whose minds had been disciplined in the best institutions of the old world;—by men, such as never existed in the commencement of any other nation. They were men who united the highest learning with the piety and zeal of martyrs. In about fifteen years after landing at Plymouth, these men

set about founding an University. They also instituted primary schools. The education of the youth was one of the first subjects that engaged the attention of the Legislature. As early as 1642, a law was enacted requiring the select men of every town "not to suffer such barbarism in any family, as that the parents and masters should not endeavor to teach, by themselves and others, their children and servants to read the English tongue and to know the capital laws." The penalty for every such neglect was twenty shillings.

Previous to 1768 the schools of Massachusetts were sustained by towns acting in their municipal capacity. The present district system under state patronage, began about 1789, since which time it has been so perfected, that the primary schools of Mass. are now the best schools in the state. They are supported by money derived 1st from the income of school funds, 2d from direct taxation. The state has a fund of about \$500,000, arising from the sale of lands in Maine and from money due from the U. States for military services and from other sources. The income of this fund is distributed in such a way as to induce the people to have their children in the school.—Each town is also required to raise \$1.25 for each individual residing in the town, between 4 and 16 years of age. If any town, raises a less sum it forfeits its portion of the public fund. The amount actually raised by each town, yearly, by tax, is about \$2.50 to each scholar, instead of \$1.25.

The state has also assumed a strict supervision over the schools. The Legislature appoints a Board of Education, that collects and diffuses information in respect to schools, and that yearly lays before the Legislature a report, showing minutely the condition of every school in the commonwealth.

Professor Twining of Middlebury was then listened to in an address on the means of exciting interest and action on the subject of education, among the people. Prof. Twining, in a very forcible manner set forth the fact that the people undervalue education and are not willing to spend that time, property and effort, that are requisite. That facts and light must be diffused until the public mind shall be brought to reflect—that to secure wise and efficient legislation in behalf of our schools, we must apply to the people, who are the source of power. Mr. Twining, at the close of his address, offered a series of resolutions which were laid on the table for consideration.

On Wednesday evening Dr. Leonard Marsh, delivered an address on the subject of Physical Education, which was listened to with great interest.

Adjourned till 3 o'clock P. M. Thursday.—The convention met according to adjournment. The Committee reported the following resolutions, which were discussed and unanimously adopted.

**I. Resolved,** That the action of the people of Vermont from the earliest history of the State to the present time, on the subject of education, whether that action be contemplated in reference to either legislative or individual conduct, shews four things:

**1.** That that there has prevailed at all times an unwavering conviction in their minds that the promotion of useful knowledge among the citizens of the State is all essential to the preservation of their individual, civil and political liberties.

**2.** That in conformity to such a standard of excellence as they either legislatively or individually have deemed from time to time the highest, there has been a strong desire to bring the means of attaining to this standard within the reach of every inhabitant of the State, on as easy and equal terms as possible.

**3.** That for the accomplishment of this object there has ever been a readiness to raise money by direct taxation—to appropriate means from other sources placed in the hands of the Legislature, and by individual contribution—to be expended for the purposes of education, which deserves high praise.

**4.** That the system of education now recognized in the laws of this State, and which has remained substantially unchanged from its first institution, has been productive of incalculable good to the people of this State, and to the cause of education and true liberty; and though it has defects, there is good reason to believe that if they are brought fairly to the knowledge of the people, they will be prompt to take any apparently judicious measures to remedy them.

**II. Resolved,** That, as in other States, an examination, under legislative authority, of their systems of education, and the practices under them, not only has shown important defects to exist, but has pointed the way to their removal, so we believe that like benefits may arise from a similar examination in this State.—and the Resolution of the Senate and House of Representatives at their last session, that the Governor be requested to appoint a committee to make an investigation and report on the subject to the next session of the Legislature, meets our highest approbation.

**III. Resolved,** That the want of Legislative and other provisions for the diffusion of general information respecting the actual working of our system from year to year, is a palpable defect in it, and calls for a prompt and full remedy.

**IV. Resolved,** That the public system of education in this State ought to be such, in its idea and its practical working, that the public schools shall be more desirable places of resort for pupils than any private schools of the same grade.

**V. Resolved,** That committee of five be appointed, who shall be empowered to call another Convention on the subject of education, at such time and place as they shall deem advisable.

The resolutions presented yesterday by Rev. Mr. Peck, were called up, and after consideration and amendment, were adopted, and are as follows:

**Resolved, 1st,** That the defects in our present system of Education cannot be remedied without enlightened Legislative action, by which all our seminaries of learning shall be brought under the supervision of the State, and receive that patronage from the Government which they so highly deserve.

**Resolved, 2d,** That immediate, determined and decided action, for the production of these results, is the imperative duty of all the friends of Education in the State.

The following gentlemen, were appointed to call another meeting and prepare business for the same, viz. Messrs. E. Fairbanks, J. Wheeler, E. C. Tracy, D. P. Thompson, and N. Williams, which nomination was adopted by the Convention. Mr. Fairbanks declined acting as chairman of said committee, when, on motion, Pres. Wheeler was appointed in his place.

Whereupon the Convention adjourned without day.

**GEN. JAMES HAMILTON, OF S. C.** Accustomed, for a long time, to look in common with the whole country, upon this gentleman as every thing that was unstained in point of personal honor and public integrity, we could not see the facts lately published to his disadvantage, without a lingering persuasion that he would yet vindicate his conduct from reproach, and make it appear that the facts upon which he was condemned were susceptible of a better, perhaps an innocent interpretation.

A document, just placed before the Virginia Legislature, goes far, we think, to exculpate Gen. Hamilton from any branch of personal probity, in the matter in question. Apparently, he has committed an imprudence and an impropriety; but not for any individual gain. We rejoice, therefore, in once more placing him before the country in that honorable light in which a very large body of friends have always delighted in regarding him.—Wash. Independent.

**THEORY OF STORMS.** They in Washington who have any love for Scientific Discoveries, or any sympathy with the inventive genius that has so boldly struck them out, will we trust, attend the elucidations of Professor Espy's Meteorological discoveries, which he began to give last night, in a series of Lectures at the Apollo Hall.

If we may judge of the importance of Dr. Espy's new system by the admiration with which it has been received among the learned Societies of Europe, or of the interest of his Discourses from that which attends his conversation, the public cannot fail to be greatly instructed and gratified, by his Lectures.

Independent.

## SEED WHEAT.

As some varieties of Wheat are preferable to others, the best should be obtained. By the use of sieves which will not allow all grains to pass thro', the large plump berries may be selected for sowing—which will make a great improvement. If a person has grain enough to select from, it is best to have a sieve that will retain only about one fourth, fifth, or sixth of the grain, that it may be the best.

There are various methods of preparing seed wheat to prevent smut, which have been attended with good success. We published one in our last number. Seed wheat should be thoroughly washed, to remove all dirt or minute seeds that may adhere to the grain. And all light seeds such as oats and the like, that will swim, should be skimmed off.

The following method of preparation is extensively practised and with success. After thoroughly washing the seed, make a strong brine of common salt, using as much salt as the water will dissolve; in this put the wheat and stir it well, this will cause imperfect grain, seeds, &c. to rise which are too heavy to float on water. Remove these and let the grain remain sometime in a cool place, if it remains long in this state.

In several instances wheat has remained in brine two or three weeks without injury to its vegetative powers. A few cases have occurred of wheat not vegetating after soaking long in brine, but the most of these occur with the Italian wheat, which is supposed to be more liable to injury in this way. If the grain soaks long in the brine, it should be in a cool place, and the brine should be strong, then it will preserve it in a sound state, and prevent its vegetation in the brine.

After the above preparation, mix fresh slacked lime with the grain, sufficient to dry it for sowing conveniently. Let it remain in the lime several hours before sowing, but not a long time. In case of a long storm or any other cause of delay in sowing after the grain is in the brine, let it remain in that state, and no lime till shortly before sowing. The salt and lime are both useful in promoting the growth of wheat.

As there are several cheap preparations of seed wheat that are complete preventives of smut, as has been abundantly proved, and as some of these can be attended to with convenience, every farmer should guard against an evil to which this valuable crop is very liable. "Prevention is the better cure."

Merely washing wheat, and then mixing with it fresh slacked lime, about half a peck to a bushel, and letting it remain half a day, or a day, smut is generally prevented. This method is practised to a great extent, and with good success. Some farmers have followed this way for thirty years, and have never had smutty wheat.

As there are various ways of preventing smut in wheat, no farmer should run the risk of sowing seed without some preparation that has proved effectual.

## Importance of the quality of the Salt used in Making Butter.

At a late agricultural meeting in Augusta, Me., Dr. Bates stated the Quakers of Fairfield were in the habit of buying the best description of coarse salt, and cleansing it, and having it ground, and this salt they used in the manufacture of butter. The consequence was, the butter made by the Quakers of Fairfield, had a better reputation and bore a higher price than the butter made in other towns.—He held them up as worthy of imitation. He stated that the loss of butter manufactured in this State was greater in amount every year than the sum raised for the State tax—more than two hundred thousand dollars. He believed that, if this fact was generally under-

stood, if the people could be made aware of the loss incurred by bad manufacture, we should at once see an improvement in this article of which so much is produced and which enter into our daily consumption.—Maine Far.

**BUCKWHEAT CAKES.**—A gentleman, in whose family this delicious article is prepared *secundum artem*, has furnished us with the following recipe, which we publish for the good of the whole:

"Have ready two cups; put one tea-spoonful of tartaric acid in one cup, one tea-spoonful of soda in the other cup, add to each about two table-spoonfuls of cold water; stir it well. Make one quart of buckwheat meal into a thick batter, with moderately warm water. Add the contents of one of the cups; stir it well; then pour in the contents of the other cup; stir that well also; add to the whole one table spoonful of melted butter, and bake on a griddle nicely cleaned and greased with good lard. The batter is ready to use as soon as mixed."

## MR. SLADE'S SPEECH.

### CONTINUED.

I pass without comment from this to the annual message of President Jackson, of the 7th of Dec. 1830, to which I have already alluded, as containing a statement of the argument in support of a protective tariff drawn from the transfer, by the States, of their whole power over imports to the General Government. And here is the argument, in the language of the President:

"The power to impose duties on imports originally belonged to the several States. The right to adjust these duties, with a view to the encouragement of domestic branches of industry, is so completely incidental to that power, that it is difficult to suppose the existence of the one without the other. The States have delegated their whole authority over imports to the General Government, without limitation or restriction, saving the very inconsiderable reservation relating to their inspection laws. This authority having thus entirely passed from the States, the right to exercise it for the purpose of protection does not exist in them; and, consequently, if it be not possessed by the General Government, it must be extinct. Our political system would thus present the anomaly of a people stripped of the right to foster their own industry, and to counteract the most selfish and destructive policy which might be adopted by foreign nations. This surely cannot be the case. This indispensable power, thus surrendered by the States, must be within the scope of the authority on the subject expressly delegated to Congress. In this connection, as well as the opinions of Presidents Washington, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, who have each repeatedly recommended the exercise of this right under the constitution, as by the uniform practice of Congress, the continued acquiescence of the States, and the general understanding of the people."

We now come to an eventful period in the history of the protecting policy. Though it had, as we have seen, become the settled policy of the country; though its constitutionality had been confirmed by an unwavering current of executive authority, by the uniform practice of Congress, by the continued acquiescence of the States, and by the general understanding of the people; yet it was now to be met by a determined spirit of resistance. Nullification reared its brazen front, and bid defiance to the power of the government thus constitutionally exercised.

A state convention assembled at Columbia, in South Carolina, in November, 1832, and passing an ordinance declaring the tariff laws to be null and void within the limits of that state, and making it the duty of the legislature to pass such laws as should be necessary to carry the ordinance into effect. How promptly the legislature obeyed this mandate, I need not say.

The convention having nullified the revenue laws, put forth an address to the people of the United States, in which they said:

"It remains for us to submit a plan of taxation in which we would be willing to acquiesce, in a liberal spirit of concession, provided we are met in due time, and in a becoming spirit, by the States interested in manufactures. In the opinion of the convention, an equitable plan would be that the whole list of protected articles should be imported free of all duty, and that the revenue derived from import duties should be raised exclusively from the unprotected articles; or that whenever a duty is imposed upon protected articles imported, an excise duty of the same rate shall be imposed upon all similar articles manufactured in the United States."

Such was the plan, submitted in a liberal spirit of concession! The convention proceeded to say:

"They are willing to make a large offering to preserve the Union; and, with a distinct declaration that it is a concession on their part, they will consent that the same rate of duties may be imposed upon the protected articles, that shall be imposed upon the unprotected, provided that no more revenue be raised than is necessary to meet the demands of the Government for constitutional purposes; and provided, also, that a duty substantially uniform, be imposed upon all foreign imports."

Thus, as a matter of concession, was a large offering to preserve the Union—a principle of revenue was proposed which utterly abolished all discrimination for purposes of protection, and proscribed as the only alternative to civil war, what has, in this debate been denominated a "horizontal tariff"; that is, a tariff of duties substantially uniform upon all foreign imports. And here is the origin of the "compromise law" of the 21 March, 1833. That law was so far a compliance with the demand of South Carolina, as to fix a "horizontal tariff" of 20 per cent, to take effect on the 1st day of July, 1842.

And now, Mr. Speaker, upon the near approach of that period, we are called on to consider whether we shall leave the compromise law to its "horizontal" operation, or whether we shall still maintain the policy which has for more than fifty years, protected by discriminating duties, our domestic industry.

As well as the amount, necessarily and properly placed. Otherwise, the Government would be obliged in the condition of having to levy the same duties upon all articles, the productive as well as the unproductive. The slightest duty upon some might have the effect of causing their importation to cease; whereas others entering extensively into the consumption of the country, might bear the heaviest, without any sensible diminution in the amount imported.

So also the government may be justified in so discriminating policy connected with other considerations of domestic policy connected with our manufactures. So long as the duties shall be laid with distinct reference to the wants of the Treasury, no well founded objection can be raised against them.

Here is discrimination for two purposes. First for revenue. For that purpose, it may be deemed expedient to impose on some articles high, on others moderate duties, and on others, none at all. But there are other considerations besides the mere purpose of revenue, which may rightfully control discrimination, and constitute a rule for its application. And what are they? "Considerations of domestic policy connected with our manufactures." Mark! The President speaks of our manufactures; not the manufactures of New England or New York, or Pennsylvania, but our manufactures; thus nationalizing this great interest.

So, then, the policy which protects our manufactures may form the ground of discrimination, and, of course, may justify the imposition of high duties on some articles, moderate duties on others, and on others not needing protection, no duties at all.

But, asks some opponents of protection, Does not the President say that the duties must be laid with a distinct reference to the wants of the Treasury? and yet you make him say that they may be laid with a distinct reference to the protection of manufactures. Do you not make him inconsistent with himself? By no means. The duties may be laid with a distinct reference to both these objects. A reference to the mere wants of the Treasury will involve considerations only as to the aggregate amount of duties to be levied, and such discrimination as shall have respect to the best means of raising that amount. The Government may not, for example, levy forty millions, when the wants of the Treasury require but twenty. But, in levying these twenty millions, it may look distinctly at the other object, and so apportion the amount among the various articles of importation, as to discourage the importation of some which come in competition with our own manufactures, while the importation of others is left comparatively free.

Thus the leading purpose may be revenue—a purpose which exclusively controls as to the amount to be raised, while there may be another purpose—that of discriminating for protection—apportioned among the several articles of importation. This is plainly the sentiment of the message; and this is discrimination for protection, involving the great principle for which the friends of the protecting policy have ever contended.

We have, Mr. Speaker, arrived at a momentous crisis, in reference to the protecting policy. The great interests which that policy has long cherished, have not, as yet, felt the heaviest blows aimed at them by the compromise act of the 21 March, 1833. Under that act, four tenths only of the excess of duties over 20 per cent, have hitherto been abated, and that by the gradual process of biennial reductions of one tenth, leaving the remaining six tenths to be taken off on the 1st day of January, 1842, and the remaining three tenths on the 1st of July next. Thus, within a little more than six months from this time, a reduction is to be made greater by one half than the whole reduction which has taken place since the 24 of March, 1833.

And now, sir, when under the operation of this experiment upon the power of endurance of the interests hitherto deemed worthy the guardian and fostering care of the Government, these tremendous turns of the screw are about to be made, what is it proposed to do? Why, sir, to take away the whole subject from the Committee on Manufactures—the natural guardian of these interests—and send it to the committee, the natural range of whose inquiries involves no investigation into the claims of those interests, and which has been constituted with no view whatever to their protection. To do this would be, in effect, to say that we will have no such investigation. And are we prepared for this? Shall the present session pass without an examination of this subject? Are we to sit down and quietly submit to the operation of the act of the 21st Congress, which struck in advance the blow under which, without the interfering arm of Congress, many of the protected interests will reel and stagger on the 1st of July next? May not this Congress be supposed better to know with how heavy a hand these interests will now bear to be pressed, than the Congress which sat here nine years ago? Did that Congress enjoy the exclusive privilege of legislating in regard to these great and vital interests for all future time? Was that one stroke of nullification to inflict a perpetual paralysis upon the American system? No, sir; no. There is no such power in that compromise. This 27th Congress is to legislate with no such shackles. The people have sent us here to consider the present condition of the country; to inquire into the operation of existing laws upon all its great interests—agricultural, commercial, and manufacturing—and to adapt our legislation to the protection of these interests. To abandon former legislation, is to abandon our duty—to betray the trust which the Constitution and the country have confided to us. Especially is this true with the interest involved in the question now before us. For half a century, it has been our policy to cherish it as among the cardinal interests of the country. The second act passed by the Congress of the United States expressly asserted its claim to "encouragement and protection."

To foster and sustain this interest was deemed by the men of the Revolution, whose wise and patriotic counsels infused its spirit so largely into our early legislation, to be essential to the maintenance of our independence, and the full development of the resources of our expanding country. I have sketched the history of that policy through successive administrations of the government, and shown how steadily they have acted on the principle that it was to be the settled and enduring policy of the country. A just government will not treat lightly the pledge implied in such a course of policy, especially when it is considered how extensively the skill, and industry, and capital of the country have adapted themselves to this policy. If I could avail myself of the statistics obtained in the process of taking the late census, (which are not yet published) I might show what extensive investments have, upon faith of continuing the protective policy, been made in manufacturing establishments, and in various departments of productive industry dependent on them. The results even of the imperfect examinations which have been made, will, I doubt not, astonish the country, when they shall have been fully spread out before it.

[Since this speech was delivered, I have ascertained, from an examination at the Department of State, that the total capital invested directly in manufactures, (not including the dependent

interests) in the United States, as returned by the marshals, amounted in 1840, to the sum of two hundred and sixty-seven millions seven hundred and twenty-six thousand five hundred and seventy-nine dollars, distributed among the States and Territories as follows:

Maine	\$7,105,920
New Hampshire	3,252,448
Massachusetts	41,774,446
Rhode Island	10,696,136
Connecticut	13,669,139
Vermont	4,826,440
New York	55,252,779
New Jersey	11,517,928
Pennsylvania	31,815,105
Delaware	1,589,215
Maryland	6,450,284
Virginia	11,360,861
North Carolina	3,838,900
South Carolina	3,216,970
Georgia	2,899,565
Alabama	3,130,064
Mississippi	1,797,827
Louisiana	6,430,669
Tennessee	3,731,350
Kentucky	5,043,359
Ohio	18,905,357
Indiana	4,133,043
Illinois	3,136,372
Missouri	2,704,405
Arkansas	424,407
Michigan	3,112,240
Florida	669,490
Wisconsin	635,926
Iowa	199,645
District of Columbia	1,065,775
Total	\$267,736,579

There is one of these results in a branch of investment in which my constituents are especially interested, which I am enabled, by an examination of the returns in the Department of State, to present to the House, and which furnishes an argument for a continuance of the protective policy, which I am sure must strongly commend itself to the judgments of all who learn me. I allude to the wool-growing interest.

There were in the United States, in 1840, according to the returns of the marshals, 19,211,374 sheep. The present number may be computed at not less than twenty millions. It probably exceeds that. Indeed, the number returned by the marshals was probably below the true number in 1840. The capital invested, estimating the sheep at two dollars a head, and the land necessary for their subsistence—being at the rate of one acre for three sheep—at twelve dollars per acre, would amount to \$120,000,000; to which should be added the investments necessary for the support of those engaged in the care of the sheep, the clipping of the wool, and its transportation to market, amounting probably to \$10,000,000 more.

The annual product of wool, at an average of two and a half pounds a head, is fifty millions of pounds.

Of these 20,000,000 of sheep, Vermont, with a population of but 292,000 souls, has 1,681,819—being an average of five and three quarters to every man, woman, and child, in the State. The capital invested, upon the basis of the estimate of \$130,000,000 for the whole country, is about \$11,000,000—equivalent to \$35 to every soul in the state.

Of the 20,000,000 of sheep, New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, have over 13,000,000.

The owners of this amount of capital are cultivators of the soil. The evils which have been supposed, by some to be inseparably connected with labor in manufacturing establishments, it will not be pretended to attach the employment of the shepherd. All the influences connected with this employment are the most favorable to moral purity and genuine independence; and I may proudly point to the well-known character of the people of my own state, as evidence of the truth of this assertion.

The claim on the score of justice, of the people who have made such large investments, to a legislation which shall not abandon them, is too obvious to need comment. I pass to the broader view of the subject, which regards the wool-growing interest as a national concern.

Wool is a raw material of vast importance in a national point of view. It is a leading object in the protecting policy, to render our country independent of foreign countries in time of war, as to articles of indispensable necessity and comfort to the people at large, as to the troops engaged in our defence. In these respects, the various forms of woollen manufactures are second to none which our soil and our industry can produce. It is a fact which ought to be remembered, that at the commencement of the last war, we found ourselves dependent on our enemy for millions of yards of cloth for our armies—supplies of which were to a considerable extent obtained through an illicit commerce with that enemy. The price of wool rose during the war to two and three dollars a pound, and of woollen cloths to ten, twelve, fifteen, and eighteen dollars a yard.

Can any wise statesman, in this view of the subject, be indifferent to the great woollen interest, both manufacturing and agricultural, which has come into being under the combined influences of the last war and the protecting legislation which followed it? Shall we learn no wisdom by the things we have suffered? Can we shut our eyes to the possibility—the probability even of war? In other respects we do not; and why should we in this? We expend millions annually upon fortifications, ships of war, the procuring of ordnance and ordinance stores, and in the manufacture of various descriptions of arms suited to our defence. In this we act wisely—at least in accordance with the maxims which have hitherto governed the world. We regard these preparations as indispensable; and yet have we no wisdom to see that the fostering and sustaining of this interest to which I have referred, as well as the iron and other interests, are also indispensable? We have committed to us the power to make war; and we may be involved in war with the most powerful nations in the world; and yet the opponents of the protecting policy would disarm us of the power possessed by every other nation upon the face of the earth—of that of developing and maturing all the resources necessary to the putting forth of their utmost strength in the conflicts we may have with them.

Let us then carry out the policy which has not only brought into existence manufacturing establishments connected with the wool growing interest, which need continued protection, but which has produced large investments in the production of the raw material, which it would be unjust to abandon, and which cannot be abandoned without the hazard of our being again placed in a state of humiliating dependence, in the event of another war.

And, sir, we ought to protect wool and its manufactures, not only to save from sacrifice present investments, but with a view to an increased production in these departments of in-