Butler Citizen.

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Address, THE BUTLER CITIZEN, BUTLER, PA.

TRAVELERS' GUIDE.

[illegible] RAILROAD. Trains leave Butler for St. Joe, Millerstown, [illegible] Parker, etc., at 7.27 a. m., and 2.25 and 7.25 p. m.

Trains arrive at Butler from the above named points at 7.7 a. m., and 2.15, and 7.15 p. m. [illegible] with train on the West Penn road from Pittsburgh.

SHENANGO AND ALLEGHENY RAILROAD. Trains leave Hillard's Mill, Butler county, for Greenville, etc., at 7.50 a. m. and 2.25 p. m.

Trains arrive at Hillard's Mills at 12.45 A. M., and 5.55 P. M.

Hacks to and from Petrolia, Martinsburg, Fairview, Mount Chestnut, Fountman, connect at Hillard with all trains on the S. & A. road.

PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD. (Trains leave Butler (Butler or Pittsburgh Time.)

Market at 5.06 a. m., goes through to Allegheny, arriving at 9.01 a. m. This train connects at Freeport with Freeport Accommodation, which arrives at Allegheny at 8.20 a. m., railroad time.

Express at 7.21 a. m., connecting at Butler Junction, without change of cars, at 8.26 with Express west, arriving in Allegheny at 9.58 a. m., and Express east arriving at Blairsville at 11.40 a. m. railroad time.

Mail at 2.25 p. m., connecting at Butler Junction without change of cars, with Express west, arriving in Allegheny at 5.26 p. m., and Express east arriving at Blairsville Intersection at 8.40 p. m. railroad time, which connects with Philadelphia Express east, which is on time.

The 7.21 a. m. train connects at Blairsville at 11.45 a. m. with the Mail east, and the 2.25 p. m. train at 8.50 with the Philadelphia Express east.

Trains arrive at Butler on West Penn R. R. at 9.51 a. m., 5.07 and 7.20 p. m., Butler time. The 9.51 and 5.06 trains connect with trains on the Butler & Parker R. R. Sunday train arrives at Butler at 11.11 a. m., connecting with train for Parker.

Main Line.

Express trains leave Pittsburgh for the East at 2.50 and 8.05 a. m., and 12.51, 4.21 and 8.06 p. m., arriving at Philadelphia at 3.40 and 7.10 a. m., and 3.40 and 7.40 p. m. at Baltimore and Washington at New York three hours later.

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Letters of administration having been granted to the undersigned on the estate of George Vogan, dec'd, late of Worth township, Butler county, Pa., notice is hereby given to all those knowing themselves indebted to said estate, that immediate payment is required, and those having claims against the same to present them duly authenticated for payment. ADAM PISOR, Adm'r. sep29-6t Jacksville P. O., Butler, Pa.

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Time of Holding Courts.

The several Courts of the county of Butler commence on the first Monday of March, June, September and December, and continue two weeks, or so long as necessary to dispose of the business. No causes are put down for trial or traverse jurors summoned for the first week of the several terms.

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LONDON MARKETS.

Where John Bull Gets Beef—The History of those Celebrated Marts of Trade—Capacity of the Market—American Products on Sale there.

The following is a condensation of a London letter in the New York *Times*:

The bells of the Royal Exchange, in London, at noon, ring out merrily 'The Roast Beef of Old England.' The brokers, shipowners and underwriters within the sound of their chiming cease work and hasten to take a little 'snack of something,' possibly a glass of port and a beefsteak at the Bodega, near at hand. The wine is imported, but is it the roast beef of Old England or the meat of America which nourishes and sustains them? Let us see how the great English metropolis is fed, and what part Columbia plays in the feeding of 4,000,000 of British freemen. The principal markets of London are the Central (Smithfield) and Leadenhall for meat and poultry; Billingsgate for fish; Farringdon for vegetables, and Covent Garden for fruit. The Metropolitan Cattle Market is in Copenhagen Fields, and the Foreign Cattle Market is at Deptford.

Leadenhall Market is situated in a crowded part of the city, and with its row of coffee houses and outlying stands suggests Fulton Market in New York. It was the largest market up to the time of the building of the Central Markets, at Smithfield, and its glory paled when that grand depot opened its doors. For twelve years past Leadenhall has been content to lead in the retail of the city. There is a very large wholesale business in poultry carried on within its precincts, Norfolk, Surrey, Sussex, Lincoln and Cambridge contributing to the stock. Ireland sends a large proportion, and about Christmas time Canada and the Western States of America furnish a large quantity of turkeys. The meat sold at Leadenhall is bought at the Central Markets, Smithfield, and retailed to the families and small dealers about the city. Leadenhall Market is more than 500 years old.

The London Central Market, or as it is better known, Smithfield Market, is the principal market of London, and its glass domes, red brick walls and towers, and white trimmings, reminds the visitor of that costly experiment, the late Manhattan Market, at New York. The business at the Central Market is simply enormous. It is estimated that 24,000 quarters of beef are sold here every week day between 3 and 6 o'clock in the morning. In this market and about it are to be found the principal dealers in American beef, and it is here that they have their offices and stalls. There are a dozen firms now actively engaged in this business where heretofore there was but one. The demand for meat from the United States is largely on the increase. The cattle districts upon which the English butcher relied in times past are falling far short of an adequate supply now. Surrey, Lincoln, Cambridge, Suffolk and Norfolk, and the grazing districts about Aberdeen, in Scotland, however, still send many thousand beeves to London. The Scotch "season" for beef is confined to the months of January, February, March and December. Smithfield is the only wholesale dead meat market in London.

Like every prison, palace, church or court in London, Smithfield has its history and traditions. Oliver Twist came to grief at Smithfield. Wat Tyler was killed on its site by the then Lord Mayor. It was formerly the place of public executions. William Wallace and Sir Simon Frazer were brutally executed there by Edward I. Many persons were burned there for witchcraft. Two men were boiled alive for poisoning. Latimer was burned at the stake there in 1556 and John Rodgers the year before. The slaughter is more innocent now. St. Bartholomew Hospital, of which Miss Betsey Prig was an attache, is but a stone's throw from Smithfield Market, and Charter House Square runs along by the eastern side of the market, and is the locality where Steele, Addison and John Wesley, Leech and Thackeray (to say nothing of Olive Newcome) were educated.

Covent Garden was one of the gardens of the Convent of Westminster before the year 1250, and during all the changes it has undergone has never lost its reputation for flowers and fruits. On market mornings—Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday—it is brilliant in color and glorious in perfume. Among the wits and players of a century ago Covent Garden was famous. The Beefsteak Club sprang into juicy existence there; Lely and Kneller lived and painted there, and Lely is buried there. In the adjoining streets were 'Will's' Coffee House, 'Tom's' and 'Button's' the favorite haunts of such men as Addison, Johnson, Garrick, Pope, Dryden, and Sir Joshua Reynolds. The Church of St. Paul, in Convent Garden, ugly enough in architecture, is famous, nevertheless, as being the first important Protestant church in England, and for the remarkable persons whose bodies are buried in its yard and vaults—Wycherly, Mrs. Centlivre, Kynaston, the player of female parts in the time of Charles II., who kept the stage waiting 'while the King was getting shaved;' Robert Wilkes, Macklin, Samuel Butler, Dr. John Walcott and Peter Pindar.

The term Billingsgate has been proverbial for years, and Billingsgate today, morally, oratorically, and literally does credit to its ancient name. One Belin, King of the Britons, is said to have built a water-gate here 400 years before Christ. It has been a market since the middle of the thirteenth century. There is a little retail trade done here, but the wholesale business is enormous. It is situated in Thames street, a few hundred yards from London Bridge, and adjoins the west side of the Custom House. It is the only fish market in London. The scene at this market in the early morning beggars description. The landing of the fish by the North Sea steamers at the wharf, the hurrying porters with their loads of fish upon their heads, the deep tanks underneath the markets where the scaly sole and herring swim, the unintelligible cries, the filth which everywhere prevails, the 'coster's' oath, the 'cadger's growl, makes a visit to Billingsgate Market at once a never-to-be-forgotten event.

The first American cattle for the butcher were brought over in 1863 by the Glasgow agents of the firm of John Bell & Sons, London, and in June of that year they commenced bringing over two steers a week to see if the American animal could stand the sea voyage. On discovering that they could do so the firm began gradually to increase their importations, until now their trade has reached millions of dollars annually and thousands of heads of American cattle. Illinois is best known in Great Britain as a meat-producing district, and, therefore, a great deal of the cattle coming from other States are represented as being corn-fed Illinois. Pennsylvania and Kentucky stable-fed stock furnish splendid specimens of American meat. At the start great prejudice existed against the introduction of meat from the United States, and many efforts, Parliamentary and otherwise, were resorted to in order to curtail its rapid growth. Stories were manufactured as to plagues existing in American cattle regions, but the demand increased constantly.

One of the principle sources of competition to American live cattle heretofore, has been the Schleswig-Holstein cattle trade. In previous years it averaged about 1,500 animals weekly, to London. This year, notwithstanding the freight has been reduced to 5s. a head, the trade is almost extinguished. In 1876, the demand for American beef increased so much that it was dealt in by one or two firms beside the Messrs. Bell, but still the trade met with considerable prejudice, although during the year there had been received at Smithfield Market 5,513 tons, which showed an increase of 37⅞ per cent over previous years. The new trade, however, increased rapidly. Steamship lines to London, Glasgow and Liverpool began to see a business that they had hitherto neglected growing at a great rate, and as it increased in tonnage it grew in popularity. The following statistics of the receipts of dead meat at Smithfield will more fully show the increase of the demand for American beef:

Year.	Tons.	Year.	Tons.
1876	5,513	1878	19,370
1877	14,641	1878	20,751

And it here may be said of the American trade that while the American meat is welcomed at the table of the aristocratic and wealthy in London, as well as at humbler boards, the cheese of the United States finds its way to the homes of the poor. For a mid-day meal the farm hand has a pot of beer, a rasher of bacon, some bread, and a bit of American cheese.

The well known partiality for the American oyster by the Prince of Wales may have something to do with the growth of this trade, now increased from a few bushels a year to thousands of barrels annually. The foreign oyster is replanted in the Medway, and there, after a brief rest from the fatigue of the ocean voyage, taken up after a few months, and found to have thrived on a foreign shore. They are in great demand in London, and are eaten in preference to the native oyster, which has a coppery taste.

OPEN AIR FOR CONSUMPTIVES.

Dr. J. Henry Bennet, in a communication to the *British Medical Journal*, on the influence of mountain air in the treatment of pulmonary consumption, asserts that the temperature which exerts the most favorable influence in the treatment of phthisis is a day temperature ranging from 55° to 62° or 70° Fah., and a night temperature ranging between 45° and 50°; in other words, that the climate and temperature which are the most conducive to the physiological well being of the Caucasian race are also the most favorable to the treatment of phthisis. He draws attention to the fact that phthisis is rare among the people inhabiting the high air of Central and South America, although common in the neighboring seacoast towns. Dr. Comes, with whom Dr. Bennet has lately been a correspondent, states that during a residence of four years in Quito, where he was one of the professors at the medical school, physician to the hospital, and engaged in active private practice, he only saw two or three cases of spontaneous phthisis among the natives, and in all the cases of imported phthisis from the seacoast that he met with the progress of the disease soon appeared to be arrested. He also states that in a large room, without fire, and with the doors and windows open day and night, he found the temperature to oscillate all the year round between 57° and 65° Fah.

Dr. Bennet relates the case of a young married lady, aged 26, whom he attended for two winters at Mentone. She was a native of Guayaquil, but educated and married in France, where she became a consumptive; and finding that her recovery at Mentone was only a partial one, she returned to her native country. She has now been two years at Quito, and has become quite well and robust. But then, at Mentone, she lived shut up, while at Quito she has lived in the open air constantly. He therefore thinks that the immunity, or comparative immunity, from phthises enjoyed by the inhabitants of the elevated mountain plains of tropical and sub-tropical America, from Mexico to the Argentine Republic, cannot be owing to mere elevation—to barometic conditions—inasmuch as phthisis reigns at all elevations, even above 5,000 feet, on the mountains of Switzerland. It cannot, either, be attributed to mere dry cold, as the mortality from phthisis is greater in Norway, Sweden, and Northern Russia than in London or Paris. It must, then, be owing to the ideal physiological climate, which enables the entire population to live, as it were, out of doors, in the open air, night and day. Why should not the Andes, with a delightfully mild, dry, and equable climate, which is unequaled in any part of the world, become the health resort of the future?

WHAT WE BUY AND SELL ABROAD.

The official statement of United States exports and imports, in which the returns from all the custom houses are corrected to August 23, gives the total exports of domestic merchandise at $823,946,353, for the year ending June 30, while the merchandise imports for the same time were $667,954,746, showing, as compared with the previous year, an increase in exports amounting to $125,605,563, and increased imports of $222,176,971. Of the imports, $459,652,883 were of dutiable goods and $208,301,863 were free of duty. In the latter class the framers of our tariff intended, in a general way, to include many articles not produced at all here, as well as raw materials used in manufactures, makmaking goods which were largely the product of foreign cheap labor pay a high rate of duty, in order to encourage our manufacturing industries. A large proportion of the value of the imports free of duty is covered in the two items of coffee and tea, which we received last year to the value of $80,143,390, as compared with similar receipts amounting to $61,934,437 for the year preceding. Of chemicals, drugs, dyes and medicines, about half our imports are free and half dutiable, the latter ammounting last year to $5,764, 698, and the former to $6,738,862, the free goods showing an increase of 50 and the dutiable of 25 per cent., as compared with the imports of the year preceding. But the most remarkable showing in the increased imports of free goods is found in the item of hides and skins, other than furs. These constitute a raw material, the bringing of which here from abroad to be manufactured involves the use of a large amount of capital and the employment of a great number of hands, whether the maunfacture be only so far carried out as to produce leather, or whether, as with the great proportion, it is carred forward into the making of boots and shoes. In 1878–9 we had a full average import, amounting to $15, 959, 017, but for 1879–80 our receipts were far greater than ever before in the history of the country, footing up $30,002, 254. In the other articles free of duty which enter most largely into our manufactures, we find that the imports of India-rubber and gutta percha have increased from $6,068,088 to $9,606,239, rags for paper-makers from $2,402,457 to $5,474,737, raw silk from $8,371,025 to $12,024,699, and block, bar or pig tin from $2,312,297 to $6,223,176. The large capital and increased employment of of labor necessitated by this larger use of raw material requiring so much work to fit it for the requirements of the public will at once be evident.

When we come to the imports of dutiable goods, however, such as are generally brought here in competition with the productions of our own manufactures, we find in most branches an increase quite as great as that noticed in our imports of free raw materials, a fact which would tend to discredit our general industrial prosperity were it not that we have such cumulative evidence to the contrary, and can see that these increased imports, bought from the superabundant proceeds of two bountiful crops, are but supplementing demands upon our own manufacturers which the latter find themselves unable to fill. Thus, in cotton manufactures, although the mills at Fall River, Lowell, and other places, have been producing more goods than ever before, our imports for 1879–80 were $29,929,366, as against $19,928,310 for the year preceding. So, too, in manufactures of wool, although our imports have increased from $24,355,801 in 1878–9, to $33,921,093 in 1879–80, the home industries in this line have been remarkably prosperous. In iron and steel and their manufactures the business has not been so steadily prosperous as in some other branches, because of the intense speculative fever which dominated that market during a great portion of the year, but there was a great improvement in the many industries embraced in this line as compared with the condition of the trade for the year preceding. It is to be particularly noted also, in this connection, that while our increased imports of this class were enormous, by far the largest items were of pig and old and scrap iron, which, considering the work necessary to turn them into marketable products as finished goods may properly be considered as raw material. In fact these two items alone constitute more than half our imports of iron and steel and its manufactures for the past year, figuring for $27,956,144, as against $2,054,885 in 1878–9, while all our other imports in this class, such as casting, steel and iron rails, machinery, cutlery, files, saws and tools, foot up to about $26,757,844 in 1879–80, as against $7,392,363 in 1878–9.

When we turn to the other side of the account, however, and look at the items which make up our increased exports, it is not at all surprising to find that in the shipment of manufactured goods we have only just about held our own, and that our larger shipments are almost entirely in grain, cotton and provisions. Of the latter we had an unprecedented abundance, and the marketing thereof furnished the people with the abundant means which has enabled them to purchase so freely of manufactures. On this account the ambition to build up a trade in our manufactured goods in foreign markets has been, this year, to a great extent, held in abeyance, in the presence of an active and generally more remunerative home trade. Of course this has been only a temporary condition, to be probably followed by more earnest efforts than have ever before been made to enlarge the sale of our manufactures abroad, for, aside from the fact that we can hardly expect a continuance of such magnificent harvests, the great enlargement of our manufacturing facilities during the past year will compel those interested in such lines to seek wider markets, if they would place their trade on a permanently prosperous footing. There never has been a time more propitious than the present for the putting forth of the most zealous efforts in this direction. Labor is comparatively cheap, but at the same time all the necessities of life are sold at such reasonable rates that the condition of the workman is much better than in former years, when we had a vitiated currency and wages were much higher; American manufacturers, too, have now won such a position in most of the markets of the world that they will not have to encounter the prejudices which were formerly a chief obstacle in developing foreign trade, but they will find customers everywhere not only willing but desirous to meet them on grounds which cannot fail to be mutually advantageous.—*Scientific American.*

HOW TO TREAT A WATCH.

Having obtained a really serviceable article you should, in order to produce satisfactory results, follow out these rules: Wind up your watch every day at the same hour. This is generally done at the hour we retire to rest, or perhaps better still the hour we rise. Avoid putting a watch on a marble slab or near anything excessively cold. The sudden transition from heat to cold contracting the metal may sometimes cause the main spring to break. Indeed, the cold coagulates the oil, and the wheel work and pivots working less freely affect the regularity of the time-keeper. When we lay our watch aside we ought to slope it on a watch-case, so as to keep it nearly in the same position as it has in the pocket. In laying aside your watch be sure that it rests on its case, as by suspending it free the action of the balance may cause oscillation, which may considerably interfere with its going. If you would keep your watch clean you must be quite sure that the case fits firmly, and never put it into any pocket but one made of leather. Those pockets which are lined with cloth, cotton or calico give, by the constant friction, a certain quantity of fluff which enters most watches, even those the cases of which shut firmly. If the watch is not a "keyless" one, the key should be small, in order that we may feel the resistance of the stop-work; then we can stop in time without forcing anything. It is also necessary that the square of the key should correspond with that of the watch. If it be too large, it may in a short time cause the wind-up square to suffer from under wear and tear; the rectifying of which is rather expensive. The hands of an ordinary watch can be turned backward without much risk. It is, however, always better to move the hands forward to adjust your watch to correct time.

A skilful watchmaker one day thus reasoned with a customer who complained of his watch: "You complained," said he, "that your watch gains a minute a month. Well, then, you will congratulate yourself when you have heard me. You are aware that in your watch the balance, which is the regulator, makes five oscillations every second, which is four hundred and thirty-two thousasd a day; so that your watch, exposed to all the vicissitudes which heat and cold occasion it, the varying weight of the air and the shaking to which it is subjected, has not varied more than a minute a month or two seconds a day. It is only acquired with each vibration of the balance a variation of the two hundred and sixteen thousandth part of a second. Judge, then, what must be the extreme perfection of the mechanism of this watch!"

A watch cannot go for an indefinite period without being repaired or cleaned. At the expiration of a certain time the oil dries up, dust accumulates and wear and tear are inevitable results to the whole machinery, the functions becoming irregular and frequently ceasing to act altogether. A person possessing a watch of good quality and desirous of preserving it as such should have it cleaned every two years at least. But care should be taken to confide this cleaning or repairing to careful hands; an incapable workman may do great injury to a watch even of the simplest construction.

HOW DIAMOND MINES ARE WORKED.

The system of working the diamond mines is described by an operator as follows:

The ground being picked loose by natives and broken up, is hauled out of the mines in tubs running on inclined wires; from these tubs it is transferred to a sifting cylinder, which removes the coarser stones, the remaining soil being mixed with water and slowly stirred in a flat pan of circular form, by means of arms fitted with teeth, this pan varying from 6 to 15 feet in diameter, according to the amount of work to be done. The effect of this is to leave the diamonds, which are heaviest, at the bottom; the lighter soil escaping over the edge of the pan, to be taken up by a dredger and trucked away. At the end of a day's work the contents of the circular pan are cleaned out and washed up in hand-sives, when in turning over the sieve on the table the diamonds can be at once seen from their brillance, some being of most perfect octahedron shape and as clear as crystal.

The rough diamonds are almost invariably below 10 carats in weight, the average being about the size of a pea; indeed, in the Bultfontein mine, a 10 carat stone is looked upon as a curiosity, though specimens exceeding 100 carats in weight have on rare occasions been secured. The vaule of a stone depends entirely on its color, shape, and freedom from spots or flaws; those of faultless shape and perfect whiteness taking the precedence of all others. The diamonds exceeding 20 carats in weight are mostly of various shades of yellow, a large white diamond being a comparative rarity.

"How came these holes in your elbows?" said a widowed mother to her only son. "Oh, mother, I hid behind the sofa when Col. Gobler was saying to Maria that he'd take her even if you had to be thrown in; and he didn't know I was there; and so I held my tongue and laughed in my sleeves till I burst 'em."—*Littel's Living Age.*

ADVERTISING RATES.

One square, one insertion, $1; each subsequent insertion, 50 cents. Yearly advertisements exceeding one-fourth of a column, $5 per inch. Figure work double these rates; additional charges where weekly or monthly changes are made. Local advertisements 10 cents per line for first insertion, and 5 cents per line for each additional insertion. Marriages and deaths published free of charge. Obituary notices charged as advertisements, and payable when handed in. Auditors' Notices, $4; Executors' and Administrators' Notices, $3 each; Estray, Caution and Dissolution Notices, not exceeding ten lines, each.

From the fact that the CITIZEN is the oldest established and most extensively circulated Republican newspaper in Butler county, (a Republican county) it must be apparent to business men that it is the medium they should use in advertising their business.

AMERICAN WEALTH.

It is a stock remark that Americans love the dollar. The saying, like most stock sayings, misses the point; the real point is, not that Americans love money more than any other people, but that they love comparatively few things besides money. We have fewer objects of serious pursuit than other Western nations have; we do not, as a people, pursue the fine arts, or literature, or scholarship, or society, with the zeal or the fruitfulness that we find in European communities, and so we are regarded as being still somewhat deficient in our duties as a civilized nation. We love these things less than the Old World communities love them. We do not love money more than they—probably, indeed, not so much as they. It is the exclusiveness, not the zeal, of our pursuit of money that is the thing to be regretted. Some day, perhaps, we shall try to do better than this; meanwhile, most of us pursue the dollar, without thinking of stopping much for rest until we take rest where no work is. No community thinks so little about rest from work as ours.

We seek money, and we find it; yet do we love it either well or intelligently enough to use it fruitfully, to keep it safely, or to bequeath it wisely? First, let us glance at the wealth we possess as a nation. Let us see what place a century of money-making has given us. We call ourselves a rich people: how rich a people are we? A very little comparison of figures will show. And first, where do we stand as to the total valuation of the national wealth?

We stand near the head of the list—third on the list of the Western nations. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland heads the list with a capital valuation of 44,000 millions of dollars; then come France with 36,700 millions, the United States with 32,000 millions, Germany with 22,000 millions, Russia with 15,000 millions, and the Low Countries with 11,140 million dollars of capital collectively. These are the valuations made by those countries of their entire resources. What is the average annual income per inhabitant in various countries? We come to the front in this comparison. The average annual income in the United Kinkdom is $165; in the United States, $165 also; in the Low Countries, $130; in France, $125; in the British Colonies, $90; in Germany, and also in Scandinavia, $85. In this reckoning, Russia, with her ninety millions of people, is out of sight as yet: she will not be very long.

Once more: taking the question from another point of view, let us ask, What is our annual accumulation of wealth, as compared with the annual accumulation of other nations? And here we step far in advance of any community which gives us full estimates; it should be borne in mind, however, that the rate of interest for agricultural capital, with us, is double the average rate for Europe.

The annual accumulation of wealth, then, in Germany, is 200 millions of dollars; it is 325 millions in the United Kingdom, 375 millions in France; in the United States it is 825 millions! Our increase of national wealth since 1850, says a good English authority, would be enough to purchase "the whole German Empire, with its farms, cities, banks, shipping, manufactures, etc. The annual accumulation has been 825 millions of dollars, and therefore each decade adds more to the wealth of the United States than the capital value of Italy or Spain. Every day that the sun rises upon the American people it sees an addition of $2,300,000 to the wealth of the republic."

These are figures to make a poor man expect wealth; but let us hasten to say that they do not prove us any happier, or wiser, or more estimable in the sight of the world, than many another poorer nation is. What these figures do prove is a different thing: they prove the bounty of nature toward an energetic race; they do not prove what we sometimes take for granted on the strength of them, that our nation is great or admirable in the greatest and most admirable things. No: we have been busied with necessary things; in great and admirable things our record is still, for the most part, to be made.—T. M. COAN, in *Harper's Magazine for November.*

A CHEAP WELL.

Dig down to a depth of five or six feet a hole four feet in diameter; brick it up—using water-lime mortar. Below this dig your well in diameter a little less than the bricked top, and as you go down plaster the dirt or sand on the sides with water-lime mortar. A well dug and plastered in this way costs one-half the price of an ordinary well of the same depth and diameter, and is proof against all kinds of vermin, nor can any dirt wash down from the sides. I have a well made in this way, that has done excellent service for eleven years, and in that time it has been cleaned out only once. There is no need of cleaning such a well, as there is no accumulation of filth in it. The bricking at the top is done to avoid injury from frost, as the plaster peels off where the ground behind it has frozen. G. W. T.

"In pursuing my theme I should like to cover more ground, but—" "Bu