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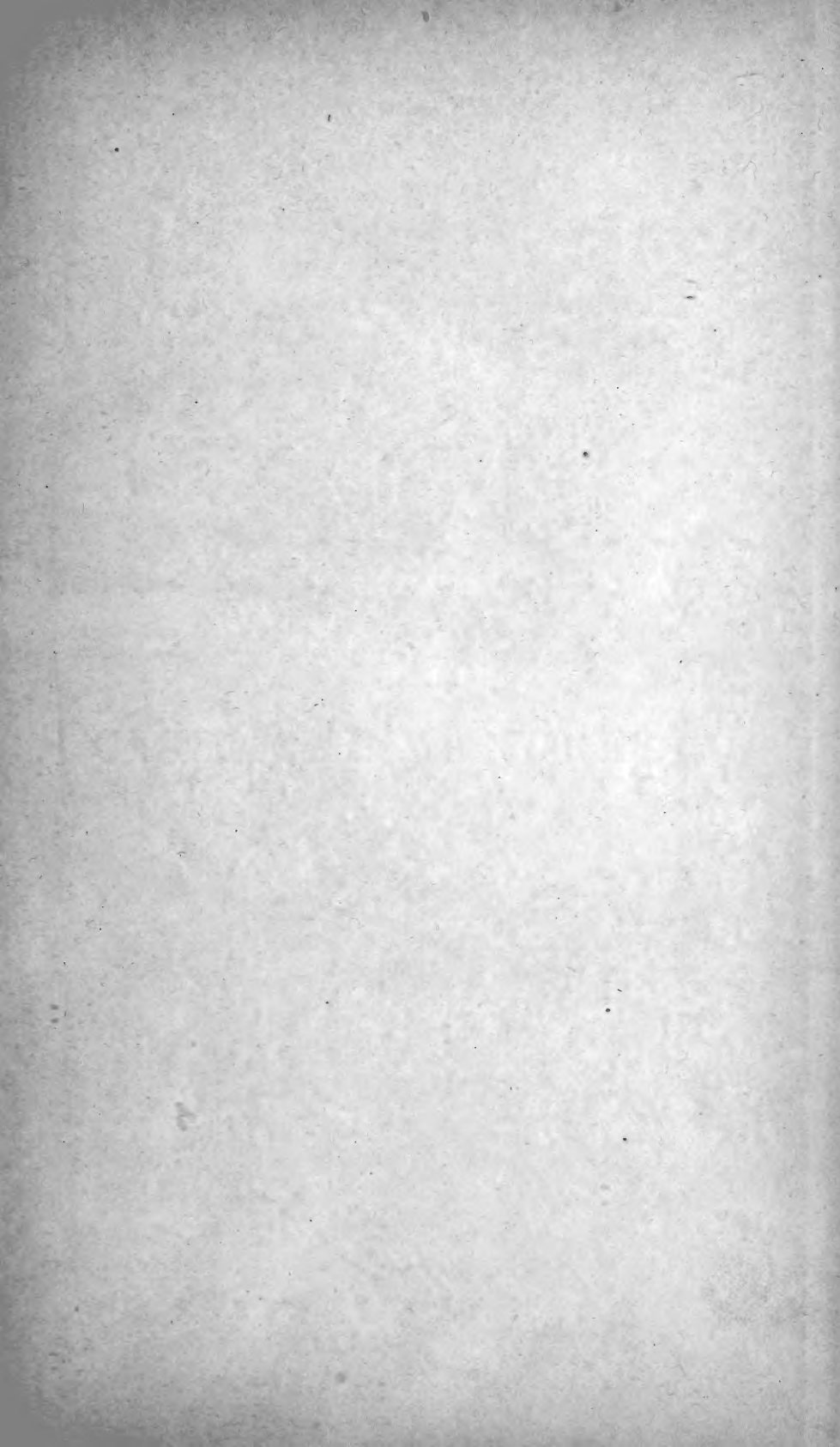
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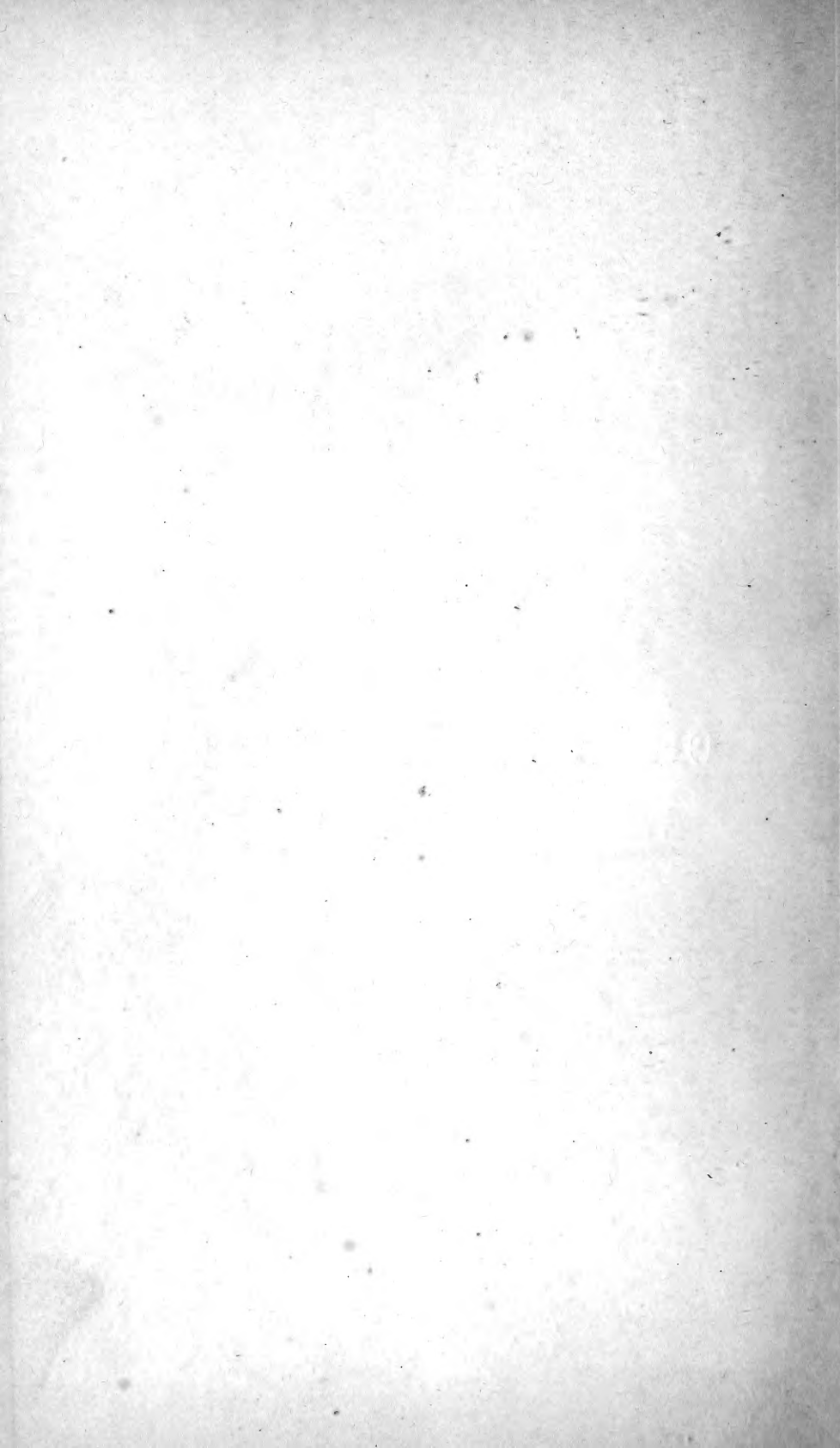
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CHEMICAL MUSEUM

SCHOOL
OF
CHEMICAL MANURES.



VINCENNES.

See PAGE 50.

AL MANURES.

MATTER.

GROUND WITHOUT MANURE.



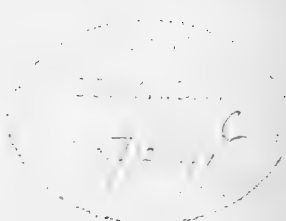
THE SCHOOL
OF
CHEMICAL MANURES;
OR
ELEMENTARY PRINCIPLES
IN THE
USE OF FERTILIZING AGENTS.

FROM THE FRENCH OF
M. GEORGE VILLE,

BY
A. A. FESQUET,
CHEMIST AND ENGINEER.

PHILADELPHIA:
HENRY CAREY BAIRD,
INDUSTRIAL PUBLISHER,
406 Walnut Street.
1872.

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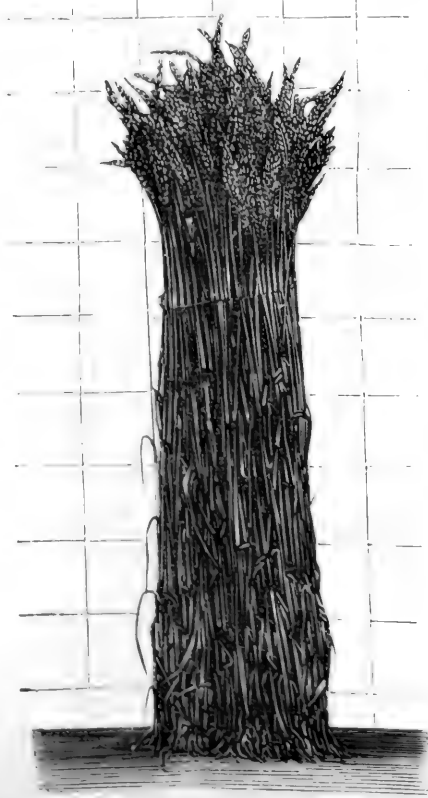


EXPERIMENTAL FIELDS OF VINCENNES.

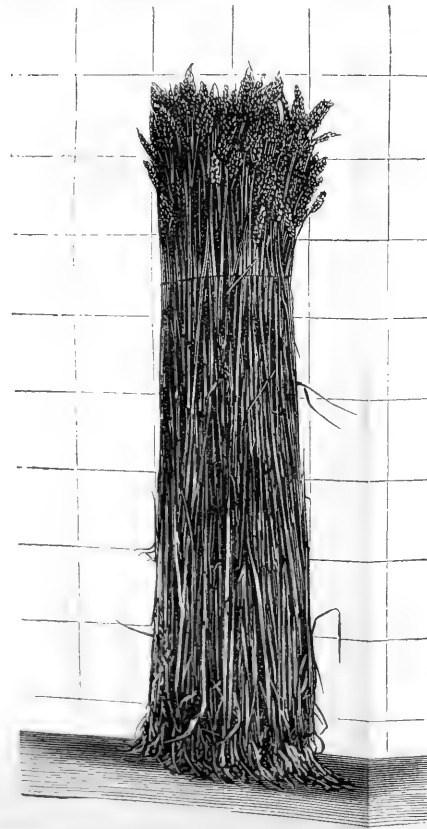
See PAGE 50.

CULTURE OF WHEAT WITH CHEMICAL MANURES.

NITROGENIZED MANURE WITHOUT MINERALS.



MINERAL MANURE WITHOUT NITROGENIZED MATTER.



GROUND WITHOUT MANURE.





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HENRY C. BAIRD,

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Collins, Printer, 705 Jayne St., Philada.

P R E F A C E .

AFTER the long controversies of the opposite schools of nitrogenized manures *versus* mineral ones, and conversely, it is refreshing to find that they may be agreed upon the common platform—that every plant needs nitrogen as well as mineral substances for its food. This important result, as well as the rational manner of determining the natural fertility of the soil and the dominant substances for the food of plants, has been demonstrated by Professor Geo. Ville after thirty years of comparative experiments conducted in the field and in the laboratory, and checking each other. Moreover, at the present time, several hundred farmers in Europe and in the colonies follow the advice of the learned professor of vegetable physiology, and by their correspondence confirm the truth of his teachings.

Chemical manures do not mean strange and unknown substances, new to the farmer; they simply include phosphorus, lime, potassa, and

nitrogen, that is to say, the useful substances found in any serviceable manure, compost, etc., from time immemorial. They are in a condensed form, nearly constant in composition, and may be readily mixed in various proportions to suit the nature of the desired crop, or the degree of the natural fertility of the soil. Moreover, with them, the farmer will be less exposed to frauds than when he buys manures already mixed, which, too often, are but nondescript compounds.

Manuring with chemicals alone has been proved by Prof. Ville and his followers to be profitable; nevertheless, other manures and compounds may be used in connection with them, but their usefulness as plant food will be in the ratio of the phosphorus, lime, potassa, and nitrogen which they contain in the *soluble or available state*.

When once the farmer has arrived at a knowledge of the natural fertility of his farm by the aid of experimental fields, as explained in this work, he will be able to compound his manures for each desired crop, without expending money for what is already in the soil, or omitting what is wanting. How much more desirable to do so, and to work with certainty, than to buy already mixed manures from the manufacturer, who, supposing that he is honest, can certainly know little,

if anything, about the natural fertility of the soil, the previous manuring, or the rotation of crops on the farm of the purchaser.

This little book, written in a familiar dialogistic form, and intended for popular use, is a *résumé* of several larger works by the same author. We hope that it will be found interesting and useful, not only by farmers, but also by all those persons who have a fondness for agriculture.

A. A. F.

PHILADELPHIA, June, 1872.

NOTE.

The French metric decimal weights, measures, and values have been retained in this translation for the sake of clearness and facility in comparing together the various formulæ and results of experiments. Moreover, the money values given in this work, if translated into American currency, would not answer the American market prices of the various substances.

For those desirous of transforming into English the French weights, measures, and values mentioned in this work, we give the following tables:—

1 centimetre	= 0.3937 inch.
1 metre	= 3.2809 feet.
	= 1.0936 yard.
1 square metre	= 10.7643 square feet.
	= 1.196 square yard.
1 are	= 100 square metres.
	= 119.6033 square yards.
1 hectare	= 100 ares.
	= 2.4711 acres.

1 hectolitre	= 3.5316 cubic feet.
	= 2.8379 U. S. bushels of 2150.42 cubic inches.
1 kilogramme	= 2.2055 lbs. avoirdupois.
1 tonne (<i>ton</i>)	= 1000 kilogrammes.
	= 2205.486 lbs. avoirdupois.
1 franc	= about \$0.19 (gold).

As a means of converting quantities and values as applied to the *hectare* into the corresponding quantities and values per *acre*, the following table will be found useful:—

PER HECTARE.	PER ACRE.
100 kilogrammes	= 89.291 lbs. avoirdupois.
1 tonne (<i>ton</i>)	= 892.91 “ “
1 hectolitre	= 1.1489 U. S. bushel.
100 francs	= \$7.69 (gold).
1 franc per kilogramme	= 8.61 cents (gold) per lb. avoirdupois.
1 franc per 100 kilogrammes	= 8.61 cents (gold) per 100 lbs. avoirdupois.
10 francs per 100 kilogrammes	= \$0.861 (gold) per 100 lbs. avoirdupois.

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THE
SCHOOL OF CHEMICAL MANURES.

CHAPTER I.

Formation and composition of plants—Fertility or sterility of soils—Farm-yard manure and chemical manures—The complete chemical manure.

THE PROFESSOR. The objects of agriculture are to produce and multiply the useful plants and animals. Therefore, agriculture is of the first importance in social economy, since we rely upon it for food, raiment, and those animals which aid us in our daily labors.

We shall examine in the following pages only that which relates to the formation of plants, and to the processes by which they are profitably grown.

During the first period of their existence, plants find in the seed the substances necessary to their growth. Afterwards they borrow from other sources, and from that time we shall follow their development.

QUESTION. From whence come the substances necessary to the formation of plants?

ANSWER. We have already said that, during germination, the primary food is entirely derived from the seed. Later, the air, water, and soil furnish the nourishment. Plants extract that nourishment from the air by their leaves, and from the soil by their roots.

Q. Can plants extract from the air all that is necessary for their growth?

A. Never; they must also take from the soil certain substances which are found there only.

Q. Is the soil always provided with those substances necessary for vegetation?

A. Far from it; they are often wanting. Whereas the composition of the

air is constant everywhere, that of the earth is exceedingly variable, and therefore modifies its fertility and properties.

Q. Is it possible always to obtain fine crops from the same soil which is simply tilled, and mechanically prepared, according to practical routine?

A. No. Under such a regimen the crops rapidly diminish, and the soil grows poorer.

Q. Crops therefore exhaust the soil?

A. It is a fact demonstrated by universal experience.

Q. What is the difference between a soil naturally barren, and one exhausted by culture?

A. There is no difference. Both will produce bad crops, because they are equally wanting in those substances without which plants cannot thrive. A naturally barren soil has never possessed these substances, and the exhausted one has lost them in the crops grown upon it.

Q. What is then to be done to preserve the fertility of the soil?

A. Restore to it, under certain forms,

those elements which have been borrowed from it by successive crops, and without which, we repeat, there is no durable production.

Q. And for rendering fertile a soil which is naturally barren?

A. We must enrich it with the same substances which we restore to worn-out soils. To sum up, we must *manure*.

Q. How is soil generally manured?

A. By mixing with it the excretions and litter of animals, which are known under the name of farm-yard manure.

Q. How does such a manure act upon the soil?

A. It acts by its *nitrogenized matter, phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime*, which are the indispensable agents for keeping up the fertility of soils, and obtaining all kinds of crops.

Q. Does farm-yard manure contain but these four substances?

A. It contains at least ten more, which it is not necessary to consider, since plants always find them in the earth and in the air.

Q. Barren or exhausted soils are therefore wanting in nitrogenized matter, phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime?

A. Precisely so.

Q. With these four substances, is it always possible to render a soil fertile?

A. Yes, it is always possible to obtain fine crops.

Q. Is it necessary, for their efficacy, that these four substances should be in the shape of farm-yard manure?

A. It is not necessary. Their mixture in the form of chemical products possesses the same properties.

Practically, the chemical manure is more powerful than that of the farm-yard. This will be easily understood, since in the farm-yard manure the four substances are mixed with foreign matters which hinder their action. On the other hand, the chemical manure is composed only of substances which act directly, and the absorption of which by the plants is rapid and certain. Therefore, in order to remember the certainty of its action, we shall call it the *complete manure*,

There is the same difference between the complete manure exclusively formed of chemical products, and the farm-yard manure, as there is between a metal and its ore, or pure quinine and the bark from which it is extracted. The ore contains the metal mixed with earthy matters; and the cinchona bark holds quinine amid a quantity of worthless ligneous substances. The chemical manure is a manure without useless materials.

CHAPTER II.

The particular action of each of the substances of the complete manure—The suppression of one of these substances is sufficient to considerably diminish, and even annihilate, that of the three others.

QUESTION. In order to obtain fine crops, is it absolutely necessary that the soil should contain nitrogenized matter, phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime,

that is to say, the four substances of the complete manure?

ANSWER. It is absolutely necessary.

Q. What will happen, should the soil be wanting in one of these four substances?

A. Notwithstanding the presence of the other three, the vegetation remains languid, and the crops are poor.

Q. How can we ascertain that it is so?

A. It is very easily proven. In the experimental fields of Vincennes, for instance, a soil of inferior quality was chosen, and cultivated for several years, without any manure, until the crops had dwindled to next to nothing. Then the ground was subdivided into six parcels each equal to an *are* (about 119 square yards), and contiguous to each other.

The first parcel received no manure whatever, and there was scarcely any crop.

Potassa was added to the second, without better results.

The third parcel received phosphate of lime, and the crops were equally poor.

The same results were observed with the fourth and fifth parcels, one of which had received lime, and the other nitrogenized matter.

The sixth was provided with the mixture of nitrogenized matter, phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime, that is, the complete manure, resulting in a splendid growth, and a crop superior in quality and quantity.

But that was not all: a seventh parcel of the same ground was manured with phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime, that is to say, the complete manure without nitrogenized substance, and the results were as poor as if only one of the three substances had been employed.

The superiority of the complete manure proves that its results are essentially due to the collective action of the four associated substances. And in terminating this chapter, we would say that by the *mineral manure* we mean the reunion of phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime, that is, the complete manure less the nitrogenized matter.

CHAPTER III.

Aptitude of certain plants for extracting from the air the necessary nitrogen which, therefore, may be dispensed with in the chemical manure—
With these plants the mineral manure possesses as much efficacy as the complete manure.

QUESTION. If it be true that the complete manure is the only efficient one, because it contains all the substances required for the life of plants, does it not follow that the mineral manure, deprived of nitrogenized matter, will be of little value?

ANSWER. This is true, indeed, for the majority of vegetables; there are, however, certain plants which thrive as well with the mineral as with the complete manure.

Q. Which are these plants?

A. Peas, beans, lucern, clover (*trifolium*), sugar-cane, etc., are among the most important ones.

Q. These plants, then, do not contain nitrogen?

A. On the contrary, they hold a great deal of it. A crop of lucern, for instance, contains two or three times as much nitrogen as a wheat crop.

Q. Well, then, where does the nitrogen of these plants come from?

A. From the air, which consists of four-fifths nitrogen.

Q. Why is nitrogen made a part of manures, since the air holds so much of it?

A. Because most of the plants do not possess the property of extracting it from the air. In regard to this, plants may be divided into two groups: the first comprises those plants which draw their nitrogen from the air, and the second those which take it preferably from the soil. The organization of vegetables presents this contrast, and in the practice of manuring we are obliged to distinguish plants requiring the complete manure, from those the development of which is complete with the mineral manure.

Q. Will plants, requiring a nitrogenized manure, also draw nitrogen from the air?

A. Yes, but in smaller proportion, and provided that the soil be supplied with nitrogenized matter, which insures their first development.

Q. Is it known in what proportion the soil and air furnish nitrogen for the principal crops?

A. Here are the proportions indicated by carefully made experiments.

Nitrogen	From the air	From the soil.
Clover	The whole	none
Barley	80 p. c.	20 p. c.
Rye	80 “	20 “
Wheat	50 “	50 “
Beets	60 “	40 “
Rape or cole-seed (Colza)	70 “	30 “

Q. How can we prove that it is so, and that clover or peas, for instance, take no nitrogen from the earth, and draw it all from the air?

A. It may be proved in two different ways: by laboratory experiments, and by culture in the field. Let us speak first

of the laboratory experiments, because the results are simple and certain.

A sample of earth was calcined in a porcelain furnace, in order to destroy all nitrogenized substance which may have existed in it; this earth was then mixed with phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime, and watered with pure distilled water. Clover, sown in it, grew perfectly well, and the crop being analyzed demonstrated the presence of a large proportion of nitrogen, evidently due to the air, since there was none in the soil.

The practical proofs are not less certain. When a soil is cultivated without manuring, the crops become poor very rapidly. When wheat is grown every other year, the crop is better; if wheat alternates with horse-beans, which contain a great deal of nitrogen, the yield of wheat does not diminish. Indeed, the rotation with horse-beans is nearly as favorable to wheat as a year of fallow land. Why is it so? Because horse-beans draw their nitrogen from the air, whereas wheat extracts it from the soil.

CHAPTER IV.

Assimilability of manures in general.

THE PROFESSOR. Manures are said to be assimilable, or available, when the plants are able to absorb them; and plants will absorb them only when the substances are soluble. It is generally acknowledged that farm-yard manure will produce all its effect only when sufficient dampness in the soil causes its decomposition.

QUESTION. It may then happen that substances holding nitrogen, phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime, in large proportions, will be without action upon vegetables?

ANSWER. We will demonstrate it by an example relating to nitrogenized matters. Agriculture has, for a long time, utilized the waste of horn and woollen rags; but it has been ascertained that large pieces of horn have scarcely any

effect, because they are too slow of decomposition, and their nitrogen does not become soluble. Only finely divided horn is now employed, which is rapidly decomposed.

Another striking instance is leather, that is to say, skin rendered insoluble and durable by the tanning process. The nitrogen of the skin is available, while that in leather is not. Skin is a good manure, and leather is a poor one.

Q. Is it the same in regard to phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime?

A. The good effects of these three products are subordinated to their solution. There are a great many substances, holding phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime, and which however do not act as manures, because they are not assimilated by the plants. For instance, there are large natural deposits of phosphate of lime, which cannot be used, unless it has been rendered assimilable by treatment with sulphuric acid. The same observation may be applied to granite and porphyry, with which whole mountain ranges are

formed, and which cannot be employed as manures, notwithstanding their large percentage of potassa and lime, since these substances are in an insoluble state, and, therefore, without action upon plants.

Q. We may then go so far as to conceive a soil rich in nitrogen, phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime, and still be sterile however?

A. There is a great deal of correctness in this supposition, because natural soils hold a great portion of their elements of fertility in the insoluble state, and without any more effect upon crops than sand, clay, and gravel.

Q. Shall we, however, consider as entirely useless these natural elements of fertility which are not assimilable?

A. No, because by the combined action of light, heat, air, dryness, frost, etc., these elements are slowly decomposed and become soluble, but not sufficiently so to produce good crops. This explains the usefulness of fallow lands. The elements of the soil which have become soluble, during the fallow year, are ab-

sorbed by the plants grown the year after.

Q. Which are the commercial products holding assimilable nitrogen, and which may be used in agriculture?

A. The sulphate of ammonia, nitrate of soda, nitrate of potassa, and substances of animal origin, such as poudrette, blood and flesh dried, horn, woollen rags, etc.

Q. What is the percentage of nitrogen in these various products?

A. Sulphate of ammonia holds about twenty per cent. of nitrogen, nitrate of soda fifteen, and nitrate of potassa fourteen. We shall not mention the animal substances, because they have been subject to so many frauds that their yield is exceedingly variable.

Q. Is it indifferent whether we employ the sulphate of ammonia, or the nitrates, as nitrogen compounds?

A. We may, as a rule, employ either; but agricultural practice teaches us to prefer the nitrates for beets and potatoes,

and the sulphate of ammonia for rape-seed and the cerealia.

Q. May we indifferently employ nitrate of soda, or nitrate of potassa?

A. No, because soda is without action upon the plants, whereas potassa is very important. The nitrate of soda is useful as far as the nitrogen it contains, while the nitrate of potassa is also valuable on account of its potassa.

Q. With an equal amount of nitrogen, are animal substances as valuable as the sulphate of ammonia and the nitrate of soda?

A. No, because during their decomposition a certain proportion of their nitrogen escapes in the air in the form of nitrogen gas, with which the atmosphere is already abundantly provided.

Q. That portion of nitrogen from animal substances, which acts upon plants, —in what form is it absorbed?

A. In the form of a nitrate or of some ammoniacal salt.

Q. What is the proportion of lost ni-

trogen during the decomposition of animal substances?

A. About 30 per cent. of the whole of the nitrogen.

Q. What are the chemical products holding phosphate of lime?

A. Bone dust, bone black from sugar-houses; and the superphosphate, or acid phosphate, of lime.

Q. What is the percentage of phosphate of lime in bone dust?

A. About 60 per cent.

Q. Where does the bone black come from?

A. From sugar-refineries, which employ it for decolorizing raw sugar.

Q. What is its origin?

A. The bones of animals which have been calcined in closed vessels.

Q. How much phosphate of lime is there in bone black from sugar-houses?

A. Its yield varies between 45 and 60 per cent.

Q. What is the meaning of acid phosphate of lime (superphosphate)?

A. Any kind of phosphate which has

become soluble by treatment with sulphuric acid.

Q. What is the proportion of soluble phosphate in the commercial acid phosphates?

A. *About* 40 per cent.

Q. In what form does phosphate of lime produce the best effects?

A. In that of acid phosphate, which is also called superphosphate of lime.

Q. Which are the commercial products holding potassa, and which may enter into the composition of chemical manures?

A. The nitrate of potassa, also known under the names of nitre and saltpetre, and which is preferable to all others.

Q. Have you not already mentioned this product as one of the best nitrogen compounds?

A. Yes, because it contains 14 per cent. of nitrogen and 47 per cent. of potassa, either of which is assimilable, and their union increases their mutual efficacy.

Q. Are there no other potassa materials but saltpetre?

A. We have the potassa of wood-ashes, and the refined potassas of various origins.

Q. What are the characteristics of refined potassa?

A. It is a white substance, very soluble in water, attracting the dampness of the air, and absorbing it in large proportions.

Q. What is the yield of refined potassa?

A. About 52 per cent. of real potassa.

Q. Which is to be preferred, nitrate of potassa or refined potassa?

A. Nitrate of potassa is preferable, because its potassa costs 0.75 franc per kilogramme, whereas that of the refined potassa amounts to 1.50 franc per kilogramme.

Q. Is not the nitrogen of the nitrate of potassa sometimes objectionable?

A. Practically, never.

Q. Have you not already said that there are vegetables which thrive just as well upon the mineral as upon the complete manure?

A. It is true; but even with these

vegetables, it is preferable to employ nitrate of potassa instead of refined potassa, because its price is lower, and its proportion of nitrogen too small to be objectionable.

Q. Which are the substances containing lime in an assimilable state, and which may enter into the composition of the complete manure?

A. The sulphate and carbonate of lime, that is, plaster of Paris and chalk.

Q. Which of the two is preferable?

A. Plaster of Paris (sulphate of lime).

Q. How so?

A. Because it is more soluble.

Q. Are the good effects of commercial manures due to the four substances of the complete manure?

A. They are due to these substances.

Q. Why should we prefer chemical manures to them?

A. We have already given the reason. They are entirely soluble, and, consequently, more certainly and rapidly absorbed by the vegetables. To this advantage we shall add that, their com-

position being fixed and invariable, they cannot be falsified without risk of judicial proceedings, which is a guarantee for the farmer.

CHAPTER V.

Each of the four constituent parts of the complete manure has in its turn a preponderating or subordinated action.

QUESTION. Each of the constituent parts of the manure is equally important for every kind of plant, is it not?

ANSWER. Far from it: each constituent part has such a predominating action over the other three, in regard to certain plants, that it will regulate the production.

Q. Does this regulating and predominating action continue even in the absence of the other constituent parts of the manure?

A. Yes and no. Yes, if the soil be naturally provided with the substance

which is wanting in the manure; and no, if the soil itself does not contain it.

Q. In other words, may we not say that the predominating action ceases when the other constituent parts of the manure are absent?

A. Precisely so.

Q. The degree of importance of each substance of the complete manure is therefore subordinated to the nature of the plants to which it is applied, is it not?

A. Yes, and in order to remember this remarkable effect, we shall call *Dominant* that of the four substances, the action of which predominates over the other three for a given plant.

Q. What are the plants upon which nitrogenized matter has a predominating action?

A. Wheat, and generally all the cerealia, such as barley, oats, rye, to which we add rapeseed (colza), beets, hemp, etc.

Q. What are the plants most influenced by potassa?

A. Peas, beans, horse-beans, clover, sainfoin, vetches, lucern, flax, potatoes, etc.

Q. What are the vegetables upon which the action of phosphate of lime is greatest?

A. Maize, Jerusalem artichokes, rutabagas, turnips, radishes, sugar-cane, etc.

Q. And lime?

A. It does not appear to possess a marked preponderating action upon plants, although it is necessary everywhere.

Q. What conclusion do you draw from these indications?

A. That, in practice, we should reduce to their minimum the proportions of the subordinated substances, and increase that of the dominant substance.

Q. Could you give more weight to these indications by some example of agricultural practice?

A. We are able to do so. We have been taught by experience that with the following manure:—

	Per hectare.
Acid phosphate of lime	400 kilogrammes
Nitrate of potassa	200 “
Nitrate of soda	300 “
Sulphate of lime	400 “

in which the nitrogen, represented by the nitrates of potassa and soda, amounts to 73 kilogrammes, we were able to obtain 47,323 kilogrammes (47.323 tons) of beets per hectare.

If the proportions of phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime be increased, the yield remains the same, no more, no less. On the other hand, by raising the proportion of nitrogen from 73 to 100 kilogrammes, the crop is increased from 47.323 to 51 tons. Should the proportion of nitrogen be still greater, 130 kilogrammes for instance, we gather 59.660 tons of beets.

Q. But, in balancing accounts, is there any profit in so increasing the proportion of nitrogen?

A. The advantage is great.

Q. Could you prove it by means of figures?

A. With the manure holding 73 kilogrammes of nitrogen we obtain 47.323 tons of beets, and 59.660 tons with a proportion of 130 kilogrammes of nitrogen. Therefore, with an increase of about 60 kilogrammes of nitrogen, value 120

francs, we obtain an overplus of 12.337 tons of beets, the value of which is 247 francs.

Q. What you have said about beets is also true in regard to other plants, is it not?

A. It is perfectly true, and here is another proof; with the following manure:—

	Per hectare.
Acid phosphate of lime	400 kilo.
Nitrate of potassa (nitrogen 28 kilo.)	200 “
Sulphate of lime	400 “

in which the nitrogen amounts to 28 kilogrammes, there has been obtained at the Guadeloupe 40 tons of sugar-cane (without the leaves).

By raising the proportion of phosphate of lime from 400 to 600 kilogrammes, the yield went up from 40 to 84.782 tons of sugar-cane. Therefore, with an additional quantity of 200 kilogrammes of phosphate of lime, price 32 francs, the overplus of the crop was such as to amount to 800 francs.

Q. The nitrogenous matter being the dominant substance in manures for cerea-

lia, there should be great advantage in applying large doses of it?

A. The advantage is evident, provided, however, that we should remain within certain limits, otherwise it may cause real injury.

Q. How can large proportions of nitrogen be injurious?

A. By causing such a luxurious growth that, should the season be a rainy one, the cerealia will be lodged, and the result will be a great deal of straw and little grain.

Q. It becomes evident that it is highly important that the proportions of chemical manures should be accurately determined. Therefore, what should be the manure for wheat?

A. The complete manure No. 1, the composition of which is as follows:—

	Per hectare.
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400 kilogrammes.
Nitrate of potassa	200 “
Sulphate of ammonia	250 “
Sulphate of lime	350 “

Q. Is this manure equally suitable for beets?

A. A good crop would certainly be obtained with it. However, it is preferable to replace the 250 kilogrammes of sulphate of ammonia by 300 kilogrammes of nitrate of soda, and we then have the complete manure No. 2:—

	Per hectare.	
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	kilogrammes.
Nitrate of potassa	200	“
Nitrate of soda	300	“
Sulphate of lime	300	“

Q. And for potatoes?

A. We should suppress the nitrate of soda of the preceding manure, and increase one-half the proportion of nitrate of potassa. We then have:—

	Per hectare.	
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	kilogrammes.
Nitrate of potassa	300	“
Sulphate of lime	300	“

Q. And for maize, which is such an important crop for the south of France?

A. We should employ more phosphate of lime than with the potato crop, and reduce the proportion of nitrate of potassa to 200 kilogrammes. Thus:—

	Per hectare.
Acid phosphate of lime	600 kilogrammes.
Nitrate of potassa	200 “
Sulphate of lime	400 “

But, as it is difficult to set down figures during a conversation, we would suggest that all similar questions on manure should be referred to the appendix of this work, which contains a special chapter where we have gathered all the formulæ from our own experience, and where the chemical manures are considered either alone or in connection with stable manure.

Q. One word more. With the employment of chemical manures, what are the expenses and profits?

A. Taking as an average a rotation of crops of four years' duration, and composed of the following cultures:—

1st year,	potatoes.
2d “	wheat,
3d “	clover,
4th “	wheat.

The annual expense in manures varies from 180 to 200 francs per hectare, and the profit from 200 to 300 francs,

Q. Can these formulæ be applied to all kinds of soils indifferently?

A. It is possible, as a general rule. Indeed, we should not deviate from them at the beginning. But, later, when we have become conversant with the laws of the production of vegetables, it is preferable to take into consideration the natural richness of the soil in phosphate of lime, potassa, lime, and nitrogenized substances; for, should one or several of these elements be in abundance already, it is evident that their proportion may be reduced, and even dispensed with, in the chemical manures, without decreasing the yield of the crop.

Q. How can we ascertain what is already in a soil, or what is wanting?

A. Nothing is more easy. It has often been thought that chemical analysis would furnish the proper indications, but we are now obliged to give up this hope. The four substances, to which a soil owes its fertility, are there found in various states: soluble and active, insoluble and inactive. As chemistry has not yet suc-

ceeded in making these necessary distinctions, its testimony is not a sufficient guide for agricultural practice. Therefore, we do not recommend chemical analyses, but shall refer to the testimony of simple trials of culture made in small experimental fields, and which every one may perform.

Is it desired to know whether a soil is already provided with nitrogenized materials? Remembering what we have said of plants getting their supply of nitrogen from the air, and of plants drawing theirs from the soil, it is sufficient to sow a handful of wheat upon a small square of ground, which has been manured with the mineral substances only. Without the aid of nitrogenized matter, the mineral manure has scarcely any effect upon wheat. Therefore, if this small square of ground gives a rapid and healthy vegetation and a good crop, we have the proof that the earth had a sufficient supply of nitrogen. Indeed, it cannot be otherwise, since the manure had no nitrogen.

On the other hand, have we to ascertain whether the soil contains the three elements of the mineral manure, phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime? A small plot sown with peas or horse-beans, and without any manure, will give the desired answer. We know the great influence of the mineral manure upon leguminous plants; therefore, if the peas flourish, we may be sure that the soil is provided with phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime.

Two experiments, requiring but a small area of ground, are then sufficient to obtain the indications necessary to a judicious system of culture.

Q. The preceding indications refer only to the case of mineral substances employed together; and there may be lands possessing phosphate of lime, and wanting in available potassa. How shall we ascertain these facts?

A. We may arrive at that knowledge by other similar experiments. For instance, we shall grow wheat in five small

plots of ground, contiguous one to the other.

The first plot will receive the complete manure ;

The second, the same manure without nitrogen ;

The third, a manure without phosphate of lime ;

The fourth, a manure without potassa ;

The fifth, a manure without sulphate of lime.

The comparison of the five crops will immediately indicate what is wanting in the soil.

Since we have demonstrated that the complete manure is alone able to realize all the conditions necessary to the life of plants, such manures as contain but a portion of the substances of the complete manure, will not give the same results, unless the soil supplies the substance which was wanting.

The variable yield of the different crops, compared with that obtained from the complete manure, will measure the richness of the soil.

We shall here point out how decisive the testimony is, and how absolute the indication. No better example can be taken than the following results obtained in the experimental fields of Vincennes:—

Yield per hectare in 1864	Hectolitres of wheat.
Complete manure	39
“ “ without lime	37
“ “ without potassa	28
“ “ without phosphate.	24
“ “ without nitrogen	13
Land without manure	11

The correlativeness is evident, although the soil in 1864 had not been brought to the same degree of exhaustion to which it has since been purposely reduced; mineral, and especially nitrogenized, substances were already wanting.

Q. This process is ingenious and practical; nevertheless it seems long and complicated, and it is doubtful whether farmers will make such experiments, which, in order to be useful, ought to be made by series of six or seven at a time, and will give indications only after five or six months, or even a year.

A. A moment of consideration will bring a more correct appreciation of the real state of things. Is this method of investigation objectionable by reason of its slowness? All the preceding notions and data permit us readily to foresee the results from all we may observe around us.

For instance, lucern succeeds in one field, and does not thrive in another. From what we have said about the predominating action of potassa in regard to lucern, we have the proof that the deeper layers of the first soil contain potassa, which is wanting in the second.

Peas and horse-beans thrive in another field, whereas lucern is but half successful. This contrast teaches us that the superficial layers, beyond which the roots of peas and beans do not go, are provided with potassa, whereas the subsoil reached by the roots of lucern is without it.

Upon a fourth piece of ground, and with slight manures, wheat has a tendency to become lodged; we know therefore that the soil contains nitrogen. These primary indications greatly sim-

plify the experimental culture, and reduce the series to two or three combinations of manuring substances.

But, notwithstanding their usefulness, these primary indications are not sufficiently precise to be entirely relied upon in practice.

As for the experiments necessary to complete them, he who is afraid of them must possess a religious faith in routine. How is it possible that three or four plots of ground, each with an area of a few square metres (a few square yards), will be in the way of the regular work on a farm?

Agriculture requires decision coupled with judgment, and a constant attention to the smallest details. What would be thought of a mariner who should neglect to consult every day his compass and barometer, and to determine the position of his ship by astronomical observation?

Such a man would be thought little of, and rightly so. Indeed, the more thoroughly we examine agricultural ques-

tions, and endeavor to unravel the mysteries of the science, the more we become satisfied that experimental fields will decide the agricultural revolution which has already begun.

The appearance of an experimental field cannot be resisted; in the sight of the contrasts it presents, practical men instinctively feel that there is a power which has been underrated or misapplied. They understand that, instead of unclean manures which are so often without the expected effect, it is infinitely more advantageous to employ less complex substances, having a constant composition, and the proportions of which may be regulated to suit the wants of their fields.

Those who avoid labor, should leave agriculture alone. Husbandry has been called the first of the arts because it is a perpetual combat. It is influenced by everything; rain, sunshine, wind, drought, the nature of the soil, local customs, etc.

In agriculture, common sense is better than wit; and common sense says that, in order to obtain good crops with economy,

we must know in advance the natural riches of our lands. No labor should be spared to arrive at this knowledge, which is of the first importance, since without it we proceed only by guesswork, always ending in failure. We should still consider ourselves fortunate, if we were enabled to repair our mistakes by a dearly bought experience.

As a last proof, we refer to the frontispiece, and ask if nature ever spoke to agriculturists in a more striking language.

CHAPTER VI.

The bases for profit in agriculture—Manures are the raw material of the crops—Yields obtained with an expense of 150 to 200 francs of chemical manures per hectare.

QUESTION. Where does the profit in agriculture come from?

ANSWER. From an abundance of manures.

Q. Why?

A. Because manure is the raw material of crops: no manure, no crops; little manure, small crops.

Q. It is true that manure acts upon the yield of crops, but how is it that manure is the cause of profit, since, if the crops are larger, the expenses are also increased?

A. In order to make this truth more apparant, let us figure the cost of a culture of wheat, yielding 14 hectolitres per hectare, which is the average in France.

The expenses of culture are of two kinds, those which are constant and those which are variable.

The *constant expenses* are, the rent of the land, tillage, general expenses, and the seed. Whether the yield be great or small the crop will have to bear all these expenses, since we must always pay for the rent of the land, the taxes, the labor, and the seed.

Therefore, these expenses being constant, the more hectolitres we gather the

smaller will be the cost for each hecto-
litre.

Q. We begin to understand; but be-
fore proceeding further, what is the mean-
ing of *general expenses*?

A. They are the expenses of adminis-
tration, the interest on the capital repre-
sented by the buildings on the farm, the
taxes, and all such expenses which can-
not be classified otherwise, such as the
board of the men, fuel, light, repairs, etc.,
etc.

Q. This is understood. It has been
said that the more hectolitres or bushels
of wheat per hectare or acre, the less is
the cost of production for each hectolitre
or bushel. Is it convenient to figure
these expenses?

A. We may do so. The following
figures correspond to the average culture
in France:—

	Per hectare.
Rent	45 francs.
General expenses	52 “
Ploughing and tilling	43 “
Seed	46 “
	—
	186

Q. 186 francs for what productions?

A. 14 hectolitres of grain and 2000 kilogrammes (2 tons) of straw.

Q. What is then the cost of the hectolitre of wheat?

A. 9.70 francs, without calculating the other expenses.

Q. What are these other expenses?

A. They are the cost of manuring and harvesting, which we call *variable expenses*, because, in regard to manures, every one manures as he is able or willing to do, and because the cost of harvesting, transporting, and threshing the grain is variable with the yield of the crop.

Q. We understand this; but how is the account completed?

A. To the 186 francs of constant expenses we should add:—

Per hectare.	
Stable manure	74 francs.
Harvesting, threshing, etc.	34 “

Or,

Constant expenses	186 francs.
Variable expenses	108 “
	294

We should, however, deduct 50 francs from the 294, for the value of the straw, and the total expenses become 244 francs, or 17.43 francs per hectolitre of wheat.

Q. We understand more and more clearly; nevertheless, it seems curious that, by expending more money on manures, the cost of the hectolitre is diminished.

A. We have already said that the crops result from the manures; and it is evident that a field receiving twenty cart loads of stable manure will produce more than if it had received ten only. Let us now put down a few figures:—

With 74 francs of farm-yard manure, the yield is 14 hectolitres of wheat; with 194 francs of the same manure, the yield becomes 31 hectolitres.

In order to produce 31 hectolitres, the taxes are the same; the rent of the ground is not changed; the labor for ploughing and tilling is not increased; and we employ the same amount of seeds. The question may then be summed up as follows:—

Overplus of wheat produced	17 hectolitres.
Increase in expense for manure	120 francs.

The cost of each additional hectolitre of wheat is 7.05 francs, and that of the hectolitre for the whole crop is 11.74 instead of 17.43 francs.

Q. How is it that no account has been taken of the greater expenses of harvesting and threshing, caused by the overplus of 17 hectolitres?

A. Because the overplus of straw covers these expenses, and over, leaving a profit of 29 francs. Therefore the cost of the hectolitre of wheat is reduced to 11.12 francs, as may be seen by a comparison of the two accounts:—

With an expense of 74 francs for stable manure per hectare, we find:—

		Francs.	
Constant expenses	{	Rent	45
		General expenses	52
		Ploughing, etc.	43
		Seeds	46
		— 186	
Variable expenses	{	Manure	74
		Harvesting and threshing	34
		— 108	
Total expense		294	
From which we deduct for straw		50	
		—	
It remains		244	

Or, 17.43 francs per hectolitre for a production of 14 hectolitres.

On the other hand, with an expense of 194 francs for stable manure, per hectare, the expenses of production become:—

		Francs.	
Constant expenses:	The same as before	186	
Variable expenses	{	Manure	194
		Harvesting and threshing	60
		— 254	
Total expenses		440	
From which we deduct for straw		95	
		—	
It remains		345	

Or, 11.12 francs per hectolitre for a production of 31 hectolitres of wheat.

Q. Then, we may grow rich by agriculture?

A. Yes, by thoroughly manuring the soil.

Q. What is to be done when there is not a sufficiency of stable manure?

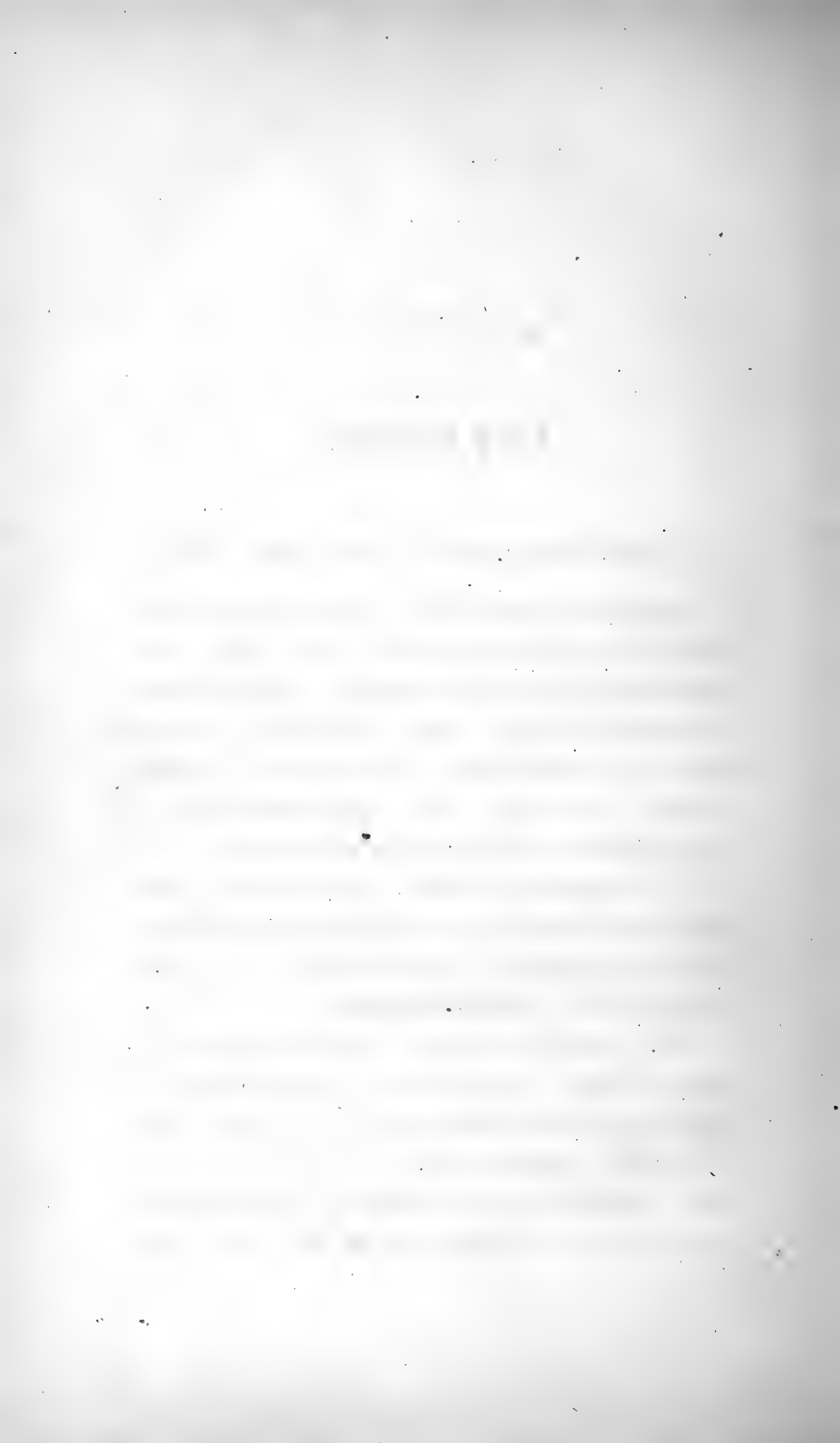
A. Employ chemical manures. There is the same difference between chemical and stable manures, as between quinine and the bark from which it is extracted.

Q. What is the profit to be derived from the employment of chemical manures alone, or associated with stable manure?

A. From 200 to 300 francs per hectare.

Q. Then it is an entire revolution?

A. Certainly, and one which ought to double the income of France, and allow of the gradual reduction of taxes, at the same time that the people live better. This generation will be the first to profit by it.



APPENDIX.

Ploughing and Preparing the Soil.

IN order that stable and chemical manures should produce all their effect, the soil should be well prepared. It has been ascertained that deep ploughing is an essential condition for success in agriculture, and that the mere scraping of the ground is highly objectionable.

We cannot do better, in order to point out the advantages of deep ploughing, than to reproduce the excellent observations of Mr. Schattenmann.

“In the Bas Rhin, and doubtless in many other departments, ploughing is but superficial, and not deeper than from 8 to 12 centimetres (3 to 5 inches). This thickness is evidently insufficient, and should be increased to 30 or 40 cen-

timetres (12 to 16 inches), in order that the plants may thrive. The proportion of mineral substances in the soil is in the ratio of the thickness of the tillable layer, and will be doubled or trebled by deep ploughing. A system of rotation of crops becomes at the same time more easy. The great majority of agriculturists who persist in superficial ploughing, do so for fear of bringing to the surface sterile soils. It is a mistake, since a good subsoil plough allows of the simple stirring and gradual incorporation of the under layers, without bringing them to the surface. Experience has, however, demonstrated that deep ploughing is always advantageous and without the fancied inconveniences. We should fight such prejudices.

“The arable layer, when its thickness is no greater than from 8 to 15 centimetres (3 to 6 inches), is insufficient for the development of the roots of plants, and does not protect them against the influence of an excess of dryness or dampness. As the tendency of plants is to grow as

much below as above the surface, it is evident that they cannot expand properly in a thin layer. Therefore, the principal condition of a deeply tilled ground is seldom met with, principally for tobacco, rape-seed (colza), horse-beans, lucern, beets, carrots, and other plants sending their roots deeply into the ground. Even cerealia, which are believed to vegetate at the surface of the soil, will have deep roots in properly prepared ground.

“ With an arable layer of 8 to 15 centimetres (3 to 6 inches) thickness, the roots of plants will not acquire their natural growth, and will greatly suffer by the inclemency of the weather. An abundant rain will flood the plants, and when the water escapes over the surface of the field, it will carry away the soluble and more fertilizing substances. By drying, the damp earth will become compact, and will compress the roots, the development of which will thus be hindered. After a long drought, the plants which have their roots near the

surface of the soil, finding no dampness, remain stationary, or even perish.

“On the other hand, and in arable layers 30 to 40 centimetres (12 to 16 inches) thick, plants are able to penetrate and to grow properly, and are protected against drought and the inclemency of the weather. An arable layer of this thickness easily absorbs water; during an abundant rain, water penetrates and is drained through the bottom, without carrying away any earth or manure. When the rain ceases, the surface of the soil is quickly dried, and does not become compact, as is the case with too wet grounds. Should a drought take place, the roots of plants which have penetrated sufficiently deep, find there enough dampness to continue to thrive.”

Methods of using Chemical Manures.

The employment of chemical manures requires special care. The same as with improved weapons, they show the full measure of their power only to those who understand their use.

Chemical manures should be distributed as regularly as possible, immediately after the last ploughing. The operation resembles broadcast sowing, and is followed by a careful harrowing, which mixes the substances with the soil.

A misty and not windy day is to be preferred. A strong wind is objectionable by causing the loss of part of the manure. When the spreading is performed by hand, it will be more uniform if the manure be mixed with its own volume of fine and dry earth. The mixture is first deposited on the ground, in the shape of small heaps regularly distributed.

In large farms it is preferable to employ the excellent machines at our disposal for spreading pulverulent manures. A good distribution of manures is sufficient to increase the yield of the crop from two to three hectolitres per hectare.

We operate differently for grape-vines : half of the manure is spread in a band 30 centimetres (12 inches) wide, and 20

centimetres (8 inches) distant from the rows of vines. This manure is then buried deep with a spade; and the remainder of the manure is spread at the surface of the ploughed ground.

We may also, by means of the plough, and at the same distance from the rows of vines, dig two parallel trenches 30 centimetres (12 inches) deep, and fill them with one-half of the manure. After covering these trenches, the other half of the manure is distributed over the surface.

Grape-vines should be manured in the fall.

Without repeating what has already been said about the great efficacy of chemical manures, we shall, however, point out how powerful they are for contending against the effects of an unfavorable year.

After a severe and protracted winter, wheat, and, in general, all gramineous plants, are very much enfeebled. With from 100 to 200 kilogrammes of sulphate of ammonia, or 150 to 250 kilogrammes

of nitrate of soda mixed with 200 kilogrammes of plaster of Paris, employed as a top dressing at the beginning of March (latitude of Paris), we are enabled to change in a few days the sickly state of the plants, and to insure the crop. The effect of top dressing with chemical manures is extraordinary.

We should, however, be careful, not to wait longer than the latter part of March. Applied in April or May, these top dressings hasten the vegetation so much that straw preponderates, and the grains are small and few.

When, from a rainy fall, the sowing is late, a top dressing of manures may be made immediately after the complete shooting forth of the grain. A windy day should be avoided. With the ordinary stable manure such top dressings are nearly impossible. In the spring, sulphate of ammonia or nitrate of soda is generally sufficient. Nevertheless, we prefer mixing them with 200 kilogrammes of acid phosphate of lime, and 200 kilogrammes of plaster of Paris.

We shall now examine the formulæ of manures adapted to systems of rotation of the principal crops, and shall consider two cases: first, when the chemical manures are employed alone; second, when they are associated with farm-yard manure.

The prices of the substances employed in chemical manures, are on an average (France, 1869):—

Acid phosphate of lime	16 francs per 100 kilog.
Nitrate of potassa . . .	62 “ “
Nitrate of soda . . .	35 “ “
Sulphate of ammonia . .	45 “ “
Sulphate of lime . . .	2 “ “

FORMULÆ OF MANURES.

Wheat.

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 1	. . .	1200	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	250	112.50
Sulphate of lime	. . .	350	7.00
		<hr/>	<hr/>
Total		1200	307.50

Barley, Oats, Rye, Natural Pastures.

		<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Complete Manure No. 1	. . .	600	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	200	32.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	100	62.00
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	125	56.25
Sulphate of lime	. . .	175	3.50
		<hr/>	<hr/>
Total		600	153.75

In the case of natural pastures, the manures may be employed in two different ways, that is, spread entirely in the fall, or 300 kilogrammes (one-half) in the fall, and 300 kilogrammes in the spring after the first cutting.

Hemp, Rape-seed (Colza).

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 1	1200	
And should the rape-seed (colza) be followed by wheat:		

	<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Complete Manure No. 6	1300	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa . . .	120	74.40
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	400	180.00
Sulphate of lime . . .	380	7.60
Total . . .	1300	326.00

Beets, Carrots, Cabbages, Hops, Gardening.

	<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Complete Manure No. 2	1200	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa . . .	200	124.00
Nitrate of soda . . .	300	105.00
Sulphate of lime . . .	300	6.00
Total . . .	1200	299.00

When it is desired to have the greatest yield of beets, it is preferable to substitute for the complete manure No. 2, the complete manure No. 2 *bis*, and still better, the *intense* complete manure No. 2.

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 2 bis	1300	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	200	124.00
Nitrate of soda	400	140.00
Sulphate of lime	300	6.00
		<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	1300	334.00

		<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Complete Manure (<i>intense</i>) No. 2	. . .	1600	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	600	96.00
Nitrate of potassa	400	248.00
Nitrate of soda	300	105.00
Sulphate of lime	300	6.00
		<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	1600	455.00

Potatoes.

		<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Complete Manure No. 3	1000	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	300	186.00
Sulphate of lime	300	6.00
		<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	1000	256.00

With worn-out soils, it is preferable to employ 1200 kilogrammes of the complete manure No. 2.

Grape-Vines and Small Trees.

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 4	. . .	1500	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	600	96.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	500	310.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	400	8.00
		<hr/>	<hr/>
Total		1500	414.00

The complete manure No. 2 gives very good results with grape-vines, and we recommend its use for vineyards giving products of ordinary quality.

*Turnips, Rutabagas, Jerusalem Artichokes,
Sorgho, Sugar-Cane, Maize.*

		<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Complete Manure No. 5	. . .	1200	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	600	96.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	400	8.00
		<hr/>	<hr/>
Total		1200	228.00

*Beans, Horse-Beans, Peas, Clover, Sainfoin,
Vetches, Lucern.*

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2	. . .	1000	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	400	8.00
		<hr/>	<hr/>
Total		1000	196.00

Theoretically, this manure should not contain any nitrogen, and the potassa should be in the form of carbonate. The nitrate has been substituted because it is notably cheaper. Moreover, the proportion of nitrogen in the nitrate of potassa amounts only to 28 kilogrammes per hectare, which quantity is entirely too small to be injurious.

When the chemical manures are associated with those from the farm-yard, the preceding formulæ may be reduced one-half.

The farm-yard manure is deeply buried, and the chemical manures are spread over the surface of the soil after the last ploughing.

ROTATION OF CROPS.

FIRST CASE.

The chemical manures are employed alone, without admixture of stable manure.

EXCLUSIVE CULTURE OF WHEAT.

FIRST YEAR.

Wheat.

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 1	1200	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	200	124.00
Sulphate of ammonia	250	112.50
Sulphate of lime	350	7.00
Total	1200	307.50

SECOND YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	300	135.00

THIRD YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 1	1200	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	200	124.00
Sulphate of ammonia	250	112.50
Sulphate of lime	350	7.00
Total	1200	307.50

FOURTH YEAR.

Wheat.

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	300	135.00
Expense for four years . . .		885.00
Expense for one year . . .		221.25

The exclusive culture of wheat unavoidably results in a multiplication of weeds, and to such an extent that, in order to maintain the yield of the crops, it is necessary to go every year to the expense of several hoeings. This inconvenience is avoided by replacing the third crop of wheat by a culture of potatoes or clover. If we decide on the potatoes, we should employ the following manure:—

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	64
Nitrate of potassa . . .	300	186
Sulphate of lime . . .	300	6.
Total . . .	1000	256

This change reduces the expenses of the third year 51.50 francs, and the yearly expenses become 208.37 instead of 221.25 francs.

Should clover be preferred, we reduce the proportion of nitrate of potassa down to 200 kilogrammes, and the expense of the third year becomes 196 francs.

ALTERNATE CULTURE OF RAPE-SEED
(COLZA) AND WHEAT.

FIRST YEAR.

Rape-Seed (Colza).

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 6 . . .	1300	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	120	74.40
Sulphate of ammonia	400	180.00
Sulphate of lime	380	7.60
Total	<u>1300</u>	<u>326.00</u>

SECOND YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	300	135.00
Total expense		<u>461.00</u>
Expense per year		230.50

The straws and capsules of the rape-seed (colza) are burned upon the field, and their ashes are spread upon the soil after the first ploughing. The sulphate of ammonia is distributed after the second ploughing. Instead of burning the straws and capsules of the rape-seed (colza), it is more advantageous to decompose them in the manner indicated in our *Entretiens Agricoles*, vol. i. p. 148.

ROTATION OF FOUR YEARS, COMPRISING :

Potatoes, Wheat, Clover, Wheat.

FIRST YEAR.

Potatoes.

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 3	. . .	1000	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	300	186.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	300	6.00
			<hr/>
			256.00

SECOND YEAR.

Wheat.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	300	135.00

THIRD YEAR.

Clover.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2	. . .	1000	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	400	8.00
			<hr/>
			196.00

FOURTH YEAR.

Wheat.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	300	135.00
			<hr/>
Total expense	. . .		722.00
Expense per year	. . .		180.50

76 SCHOOL OF CHEMICAL MANURES.

ROTATION OF FOUR YEARS, COMPRISING:
Beets, Wheat, Clover, Wheat.

FIRST YEAR.

Beets.

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 2 bis . . .	1300	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	200	124.00
Nitrate of soda	400	140.00
Sulphate of lime	300	6.00
		<hr/>
		334.00

SECOND YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	300	135.00

THIRD YEAR.

Clover.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2 . . .	1000	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	400	8.00
		<hr/>
		196.00

FOURTH YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	300	135.00
		<hr/>
Total expense		800.00
Expense per year		200.00

ROTATION OF FIVE YEARS, COMPRISING:

Potatoes, Wheat, Clover, Colza, Wheat.

FIRST YEAR.

Potatoes.

		PER HECTARE:	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 3	. . .	1000	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	300	186.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	300	6.00
			<hr/>
			256.00

SECOND YEAR.

Wheat.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	300	135.00

THIRD YEAR.

Clover.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2	. . .	1000	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	400	8.00
			<hr/>
			196.00

FOURTH YEAR.

Colza.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	400	180.00

FIFTH YEAR.

Wheat.

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	300	135.00
Total expense		902.00
Expense per year		180.40

ROTATION OF TWO YEARS, COMPRISING :

Maize, Wheat.

FIRST YEAR.

Maize.

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 5 . . .	1200	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	600	96.00
Nitrate of potassa	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	400	8.00
		<hr/>
		228.00

SECOND YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Sulphate of ammonia	300	135.00
Total expense		363.00
Expense per year		181.50

ROTATION OF SIX YEARS, COMPRISING:
Flax, Beets, Wheat, Colza, Wheat, and Oats,
Rye, or Barley.

FIRST YEAR.

Flax.

		PER HECTARE:	
		Quantities.	Price.
		Kilogrammes.	Francs.
Incomplete Manure No. 2	. . .	1000	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	400	8.00
			<hr/>
			196.00

SECOND YEAR.

Beets.

		Kilogrammes. Francs.	
Complete Manure No. 2	. . .	1200	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Nitrate of soda	. . .	300	105.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	300	6.00
			<hr/>
			299.00

THIRD YEAR.

Wheat.

		Kilogrammes. Francs.	
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	300	135.00

FOURTH YEAR.

Colza.

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 6	. . .	1300	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	120	74.40
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	400	180.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	380	7.60
			<hr/>
			326.00

FIFTH YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	300	135.00

SIXTH YEAR.

Oats, Rye, or Barley.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	200	90.00
		<hr/>
Total expense		1181.00
Expense per year		196.83

ROTATION WITH FODDER PLANTS.

FIRST YEAR.

Wheat.

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 1	. . .	1200	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	250	112.50
Sulphate of lime	. . .	350	7.00
			<hr/>
			307.50

SECOND YEAR.

Clover.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2	. . .	1000	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	400	8.00
			<hr/>
			196.00

THIRD YEAR.

Wheat.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	300	135.00

FOURTH YEAR.

Vetches, Horse-Beans, Maize mixed.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2	. . .	1000	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	400	8.00
			<hr/>
			196.00

82 SCHOOL OF CHEMICAL MANURES.

FIFTH YEAR.

Wheat.

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	300	135.00

SIXTH YEAR.

Vetches, Horse-Beans, Maize mixed.

	<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Incomplete Manure No. 2 . . .	1000	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa . . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime . . .	400	8.00
		<hr/>
		196.00
		<hr/>
Total expense . . .		1165.50
Expense per year . . .		194.25

MANURES FOR PASTURE (FORAGES).

FIRST YEAR.

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2 . . .	1000	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa . . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime . . .	400	8.00
		<hr/>
		196.00

SECOND YEAR.

	<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	300	135.00
		<hr/>
Total expense . . .		331.00
Expense per year . . .		165.50

SECOND CASE.

The chemical manures are employed as auxiliary to farm-yard manure.

When chemical manures are used as adjuncts to the farm-yard manure, the latter should be considered as equivalent to a certain amount of richness acquired by the soil. Therefore, the chemical manure should be composed principally of those substances which act the more favorably upon the culture of the year.

It then becomes of the highest importance to know the dominant substance for each plant, and the following table will furnish this precious indication:—

Nature of the Cultures.	Dominant.	Corresponding Substances.				
Beets Colza Wheat Barley Oats Rye Natural grasses	Nitrogen.	Sulphate of ammonia. Nitrate of soda. Nitrate of potassa.				
Peas Beans Horse-beans Clover Sainfoin Vetches Lucern Flax Potatoes			Potassa.	Nitrate of potassa. Purified potassa. Silicate of potassa.		
Turnips Rutabagas Jerusalem artichokes Maize Sorghum Sugar-cane					Phosphate.	Bone-black from sugar-houses. Bone-dust. Superphosphates (acid phosphates).

On the supposition that 50,000 kilogrammes (50 tons) of stable manure are employed per hectare every five years, we now indicate the chemical manures which should be used conjointly.

ROTATION, COMPRISING:

Potatoes, Wheat, Clover, Wheat, Oats.

FIRST YEAR.

Potatoes.

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Stable Manure	50,000	

COMPLEMENTARY CHEMICAL MANURES.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2	500	

That is:

Acid phosphate of lime	200	32.00
Nitrate of potassa	100	62.00
Sulphate of lime	200	4.00
		<hr/>
		98.00

SECOND YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	200	90.00

THIRD YEAR.

Clover.

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2	. . .	1,000	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	400	8.00
			<hr/>
			196.00

FOURTH YEAR.

Wheat.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	200	90.00

FIFTH YEAR.

Oats.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	300	135.00
			<hr/>
Total expense	. . .		609.00
Expense per year	. . .		121.80

ROTATION COMPRISING:

Beets, Wheat, Clover, Wheat, Oats.

FIRST YEAR.

Beets.

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Stable Manure	50,000	

COMPLEMENTARY CHEMICAL MANURES.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 2	600	

That is:

Acid phosphate of lime	200	32.00
Nitrate of potassa	100	62.00
Nitrate of soda	150	52.50
Sulphate of lime	150	3.00
		<hr/>
		149.50

SECOND YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	200	90.00

THIRD YEAR.

Clover.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2	1,000	

That is:

Acid phosphate of lime	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	400	8.00
		<hr/>
		196.00

FOURTH YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	200	90.00

FIFTH YEAR.

Oats.

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	300	135.00
Total expense	. . .		660.50
Expense per year	. . .		132.10

ROTATION COMPRISING :

Colza, Beets, Wheat, Clover, Wheat.

FIRST YEAR.

Colza.

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Stable Manure	50,000	

COMPLEMENTARY CHEMICAL MANURES.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	300	135.00

SECOND YEAR.

Beets.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2	<i>(intense)</i>	800	

That is:

Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	300	48.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Nitrate of soda	. . .	150	52.50
Sulphate of lime	. . .	150	3.00
			<hr/>
			227.50

THIRD YEAR.

Wheat.

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	200	90.00

FOURTH YEAR.

Clover.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2 . . .	1,000	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	400	8.00
		<hr/>
		196.00

FIFTH YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	200	90.00
		<hr/>
Total expense		738.50
Expense per year		147.70

ROTATION OF SIX YEARS, COMPRISING:
Flax, Beets, Wheat, Colza, Wheat, and Oats,
Rye or Barley.

FIRST YEAR.

Flax.

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Incomplete Manure No. 2	1,000	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	200	124.00
Sulphate of lime	400	8.00
		<hr/>
		196.00

SECOND YEAR.

Beets.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Stable Manure (in the fall)	50,000	
In the spring:		
Complete Manure No. 2, bis	650	
That is:		
Acid phosphate of lime	200	32.00
Nitrate of potassa	100	62.00
Nitrate of soda	200	70.00
Sulphate of lime	150	3.00
		<hr/>
		167.00

THIRD YEAR.

Wheat.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	300	135.00

FOURTH YEAR.

Colza.

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Complete Manure No. 6	.	1,300	
That is:			
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	120	74.40
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	400	180.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	380	7.60
			<hr/>
			326.00

FIFTH YEAR.

Wheat.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	300	135.00

SIXTH YEAR.

Oats, Rye, or Barley.

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	200	90.00
			<hr/>
Total expense	. . .		1049.00
Expense per year	. . .		174.83

Instead of beginning by experiments on a large scale, we prefer trying the chemical manures on small experimental fields, at an expense of from 20 to 25 francs (4 to 5 dollars). We will gain by them positive data on the nature of the fertilizing agents which are especially wanting in the soil. We will know, at the same time, the maximum yield which may be obtained.

EXPERIMENTAL FIELDS.

AN experimental field may furnish the demonstration of the fundamental data upon which the doctrine of chemical manures is based. It will also indicate the fertilizing substances which are in a soil, and those which are missing.

According to the object in view, its mode of working should be different.

An experimental field for a school, being intended especially for explaining the laws of the production of vegetables, should be worked so as to explain the fundamental data of the doctrine of chemical manures.

For one culture, and three or four combinations of manures, one *are* (about 119.6 square yards) is sufficient. But, if it were possible to set apart three or four *ares* for experiments, it would be proper to repeat the same combinations of manures upon two or three different plants.

EXPERIMENTAL FIELD
FOR A PRIMARY SCHOOL.

Culture of Wheat.

The field will be disposed as follows:

N^o. 1.
—
Complete
manure.

N^o. 2.
—
Mineral
manure.

N^o. 4.
—
Soil without
any manure.

N^o. 3.
—
Nitrogenized
manure.

The area of each plot is about 25 square yards.

What is the meaning of these four plots?

Plot No. 1 will demonstrate that splendid crops are obtained with the complete manure.

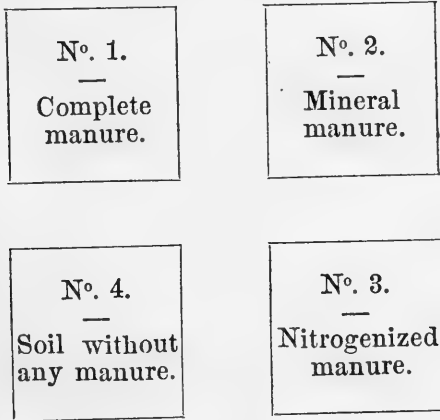
Plot No. 2 will show that the mixture of the three mineral substances, phosphate of lime, potassa, and lime, gives but meagre results, unless the soil be naturally provided with nitrogen.

Plot No. 3 will prove that nitrogenized matters alone are more powerful than the three

mineral substances of No. 2, without being equal in yield to that obtained with the complete manure.

Plot No. 4, without any manure, will determine the natural fertility of the soil.

With another *are* of ground, divided as follows, we may cultivate peas or horse-beans:—



In this case, the crop obtained upon the plot No. 2, which has received only mineral substances, will be at least equal to that of No. 1 with its complete manure, holding nitrogen. It will be a proof that nitrogenized substances are without action upon peas or horse-beans, and that we were perfectly right in separating the plants drawing their nitrogen from the air, from those which extract it from the soil.

This conclusion will be still more fully cor-

roborated by the inferior crop of the plot No. 3, which contains only nitrogenized materials.

Lastly, if it were possible to devote one *are* more of ground to the culture of potatoes, we might demonstrate that the sickness of these tubers may be diminished, if not entirely prevented, by the choice of manures.

This third *are* is disposed as the other two.

N ^o . 1. — Complete manure.	N ^o . 2. — Mineral manure.
N ^o . 4. — Soil without any manure.	N ^o . 3. — Nitrogenized manure.

Upon the plot No. 1, the crop will be abundant and healthy.

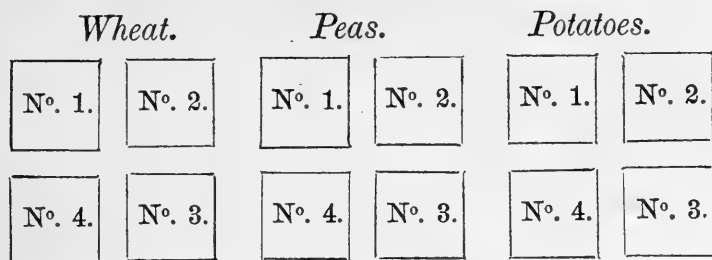
Upon No. 2, satisfactory and healthy crop.

Upon No. 3, small and sickly crop.

Upon No. 4, small and sickly crop.

These results will prove that the mineral manure contains the dominant substance, and that the wearing out of a soil in mineral elements predisposes, if it does not determine, the sickness.

With an experimental field for three cultures, the following disposition is advantageous:—



Each plot is separated from the others by an alley way 1 to 2 metres (1 to 2 yards) wide.

COMPOSITION OF THE MANURES INTENDED FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL FIELDS OF A PRIMARY SCHOOL.

Each plot containing 25 square metres, that is to say, the fourth part of an are, here are the composition and proportions of manure for them:—

(Plot No. 1.)

Complete Manure.*

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>
Acid phosphate of lime	1.000
Nitrate of potassa	0.500
Sulphate of ammonia	0.625
Sulphate of lime	0.875
Total	3.000

* By doubling the figures of these formulæ, the result will be reckoned in pounds avoirdupois and decimal fractions, which will answer for experimental plots holding each 25 square yards.—*Trans.*

(Plot No. 2.)

Mineral Manure.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>
Acid phosphate of lime	1.000
Carbonate of potassa	0.500
Sulphate of lime	0.875
	<hr/>
Total	2.375

(Plot No. 3.)

Nitrogenized Manure.

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>
Sulphate of ammonia	1.375

The above manures will be employed during the first year. During the second year, the plots Nos. 1 and 3 will receive a top dressing of 0.750 kilogramme of sulphate of ammonia; Nos. 2 and 4 will receive nothing. The regular quantities will be employed for the third year.

EXPERIMENTAL FIELD

FOR THE ANALYSIS OF THE SOIL.

When an experimental field is intended for the analysis of the useful substances contained in a soil, it should be subdivided into a greater number of plots.

On a large farm it will be wise to have several such fields, and one of them, the principal one, should contain all the plants of a rotation.

The position of the experimental field is very important, and we should, as far as practicable, choose a piece of ground which, by its exposure, degree of fertility, and nature, is a good average of that portion of the farm. The principal field should contain ten plots of one are each, and separated by alleys 1 metre wide.

We have said that all, or at least the principal, cultures of the rotation should be made, and this requires at least two or three parallel series of culture. Among the plants which are to be preferred, if all cannot be tried, we shall state wheat, colza or beets, and peas or beans. Wheat and peas will indicate the nature of the superficial layers of the soil, and that of the subsoil or deeper layers will be demonstrated by colza or beets. These two

data are of the greatest importance when we desire to cultivate with intelligence and profit.

We have also said that each plant should be submitted to ten different modes of manuring upon ten separated plots; we now give these manures:—

- WHEAT No. 1. Stable manure, 60 tons per hectare.
- No. 2. Stable manure, 30 tons per hectare.
- No. 3. Complete chemical manure (*intense.*)
- No. 4. Complete chemical manure.
- No. 5. Chemical manure without nitrogen.
- No. 6. Chemical manure without phosphate of lime.
- No. 7. Chemical manure without potassa.
- No. 8. Chemical manure without lime.
- No. 9. Nitrogenized manure without mineral substances.
- No. 10. Natural soil without any manure.

On large farms, one field is not sufficient, because there may be great variations in the composition of the soil of different parts of the property. We should therefore multiply the trials, but on a smaller scale. One *are*, divided into four parts, is sufficient for these auxiliary

fields, each part receiving one of the following manures:—

No. 1. Complete chemical manure.

No. 2. Chemical manure without nitrogen.

No. 3. Nitrogen manure without mineral substances.

No. 4. The natural soil without any manure.

A few plots of ground, set apart for these experiments, will not interfere with the regular farming operations, and they will point out, for each subdivision of the property, the precise time when nitrogenized or mineral manures are needed.

There may be persons who will feel alarmed at the prospect of so many trials; we shall answer them that, in every farm where the chemical manures are employed, the owner, tenant, or manager is always proud of his experimental fields, delights in showing them to his visitors, and, after a little hesitation, finishes by regulating the composition and proportion of chemical manures from their teachings.

Let us now consider the preparation of the manures intended for the analysis of the soil in experimental fields. The proportions indicated are intended for one *hectare*; but we have found out by practice that plots of one *are* are convenient and sufficient.

100 SCHOOL OF CHEMICAL MANURES.

SERIES FOR WHEAT.

(Plot No. 1.)

Kilogrammes.

Farm-yard Manure . . . 60,000 (60 tons.)

(Plot No. 2.)

Kilogrammes.

Farm-yard Manure . . . 30,000 (30 tons.)

Complete Manure, intense.

(Plot No. 3.)

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	600	96.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	400	248.00
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	250	112.50
Sulphate of lime	. . .	350	7.00
			463.50

Complete Manure.

(Plot No. 4.)

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of ammonia	. . .	250	112.50
Sulphate of lime	. . .	350	7.00
			307.50

Manure without Nitrogen.

(Plot No. 5.)

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Carbonate of potassa	. . .	150	120.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	350	7.00
			191.00

Manure without Phosphate.

(Plot No. 6.)

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Nitrate of potassa . . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	250	112.50
Sulphate of lime . . .	350	7.00
		<hr/>
		243.50

Manure without Potassa.

(Plot No. 7.)

	<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Acid phosphate of lime . . .	400	64.00
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	400	180.00
Sulphate of lime . . .	200	4.00
		<hr/>
		248.00

Manure without Lime.

(Plot No. 8.)

	<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Precipitated phosphate of lime	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa . . .	200	124.00
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	250	112.50
		<hr/>
		300.50

Manure without Minerals.

(Plot No. 9.)

	<i>Kilogrammes. Francs.</i>	
Sulphate of ammonia . . .	400	180

102 SCHOOL OF CHEMICAL MANURES.

SERIES FOR BEETS.

(Plot No. 1.)

Kilogrammes.

Farm-yard Manure . . . 60,000 (60 tons.)

(Plot No. 2.)

Kilogrammes.

Farm-yard Manure . . . 30,000 (30 tons.)

Complete Manure, intense.

(Plot No. 3.)

		PER HECTARE.	
		Quantities.	Price.
		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	600	96.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	400	248.00
Nitrate of soda	. . .	300	105.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	300	6.00
			455.00

Complete Manure.

(Plot No. 4.)

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa	. . .	200	124.00
Nitrate of soda	. . .	300	105.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	300	6.00
			299.00

Manure without Nitrogen.

(Plot No. 5.)

		<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Acid phosphate of lime	. . .	400	64.00
Carbonate of potassa	. . .	150	120.00
Sulphate of lime	. . .	350	7.00
			191.00

Manure without Phosphate.

(Plot No. 6.)

	PER HECTARE.	
	Quantities.	Price.
	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Nitrate of potassa . . .	200	124.00
Nitrate of soda . . .	300	105.00
Sulphate of lime . . .	300	6.00
		<hr/>
		235.00

Manure without Potassa.

(Plot No. 7.)

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Acid phosphate of lime : . .	400	64.00
Nitrate of soda . . .	450	157.50
Sulphate of lime . . .	350	7.00
		<hr/>
		228.50

Manure without Lime.

(Plot No. 8.)

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Precipitated phosphate of lime	400	64.00
Nitrate of potassa . . .	200	124.00
Nitrate of soda . . .	300	105.00
		<hr/>
		293.00

Manure without Minerals.

(Plot No. 9.)

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Nitrate of soda . . .	450	157.50

In order that the indications given by experimental fields should be thoroughly useful, in regard to the real nature of a soil, the ground should not have been manured for several years, otherwise the yields of the different plots will present no marked differences. The con-

trasts obtained at Vincennes are produced only after two or three years of culture. But such an occurrence is none the less instructive, since it demonstrates that the soil is provided with the elements of the complete manure.

This indication is capital in practice, because we are sure that, with such a soil, we may temporarily use incomplete manures, or simply the dominant substances for a given culture. It is the manner of obtaining the greatest yield with the minimum of expense.

NOTE.—In large experimental fields the nitrate of potassa will be cheaper than the carbonate, and the proportions of the former will be found in previous formulæ for a given crop. But, for small experimental plots of a few square yards, it is preferable to use carbonate of potassa.

Manure without lime means a manure without sulphate of lime, or any other lime compound, else than the tribasic phosphate of lime (precipitated phosphate), which is obtained by adding to the solution of soluble acid phosphate of lime, just enough lime to saturate the excess of phosphoric acid.

The other phosphates without lime are too expensive.—*Trans.*

VOCABULARY
OF
CHEMICAL MANURES.

NITROGENIZED SUBSTANCES.

WE designate under this head the products of vegetable or animal origin which contain nitrogen.

Blood, albumen, horn-waste, woollen-waste, excrements, litters, seed-cakes, etc., are nitrogenized materials. In order to act upon the vegetation, such substances should be decomposed in the soil; and without this previous decomposition they possess no action upon plants.

When nitrogenized substances become decomposed, a part of their nitrogen is transformed into ammonia or a nitrate. On this account, we classify among the nitrogenized products convenient for agricultural purposes:—

Sulphate of ammonia,

Nitrate of potassa,

And nitrate of soda.

These substances are chemical salts, holding nitrogen as a constituent part. In the sulphate of ammonia the nitrogen belongs to the ammonia. In the nitrates of potassa and soda, the nitrogen is found in the acid of the salt.

SULPHATE OF AMMONIA.

This salt is composed of sulphuric acid and ammonia, as follows:—

Sulphuric acid	60.60
Ammonia	25.76
Water	13.64
		100.00

And, as the composition of ammonia is

Nitrogen	14
Hydrogen	3
		17

It follows that chemically pure sulphate of ammonia contains 21.21 per cent. of nitrogen. The commercial salts yield at most 20 per cent. of nitrogen.

Ammonia is extracted from the liquors of cesspools, and from the watery liquid condensed during the distillation of bituminous coal in gas works. But it appears that eventually the most important supply of ammonia will be derived from volcanoes, when they

have reached that stage of quietness when steam only is disengaged.

In 1866 (in France) the sulphate of ammonia was worth 35 francs per 100 kilogrammes. At the present time (1869) its value is 45 francs; but there is every reason to believe that it will be lowered in price.

NITRATE OF SODA.

Nitrate of soda is formed of nitric acid and soda. Its exact composition is:—

Nitric acid	63.53
Soda	36.47
	100.00

And, as nitric acid itself is formed of

Nitrogen	14
Oxygen	40
	54

It follows that chemically pure nitrate of soda contains 16.4 per cent. of nitrogen. The commercial article holds only from 14 to 15 per cent. of nitrogen. Nitrate of soda comes from Peru, where it exists in the form of compact masses, mixed with sand and common salt.

The earthquakes which took place this year (1869) on the coast of Peru, have reduced the exportation of this product, and its price rose to 40 francs per 100 kilogrammes, instead of

35 francs which was its cost the preceding year.

NITRATE OF POTASSA.

This salt, also known under the names of *nitre* or *saltpetre*, is formed of nitric acid and potassa. Its composition is:—

Nitric acid	53.41
Potassa	46.59
							100.00

And, with the ratio of 14 parts of nitrogen to 54 parts of nitric acid, it results that the proportion of nitrogen is 13.8 per cent. of the chemically pure nitrate of potassa. That in the commercial salt varies from 12 to 13 per cent.

Nitrate of potassa is obtained by the decomposition, under large open sheds, of materials of animal origin mixed with earths holding clay and limestone, and which are afterwards lixiviated in order to extract the nitre. This salt, for a long time, was produced from old building materials. It is now manufactured by decomposing chloride of potassium with nitrate of soda, and the resulting products are chloride of sodium (common salt) and nitrate of potassa, which are easily separated one from the other by crystallization.

Nitrate of potassa, of all potassic compounds, is that which should be preferred for agricultural purposes. Its price, at the present time (1869, in France), is 62 francs per 100 kilogrammes.

PHOSPHATE OF LIME.

Quite a number of different products are known under the denomination of phosphate of lime. For a long time the only phosphate of lime used in agriculture was that of bones, which is combined with a certain proportion of carbonate of lime. Now the greater portion of the phosphates for manures comes from the mineral kingdom, where inexhaustible deposits are found.

All the phosphates are formed of phosphoric acid and lime, and the phosphoric acid itself is composed of phosphorus and oxygen, as follows:—

Phosphorus	31
Oxygen	40
	71

In phosphates, phosphoric acid is the active compound. Chemists represent phosphoric acid by the symbol PhO^5 or PO^5 .

PhO^5 or 71 of phosphoric acid being con-

stant in composition, we know three principal combinations of phosphate of lime.

The *First* is $\text{PhO}^5 \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{CaO} \\ 2\text{HO} \end{array} \right.$ which is composed of—

Phosphoric acid	60.68
Lime (CaO)	23.93
Water (2HO)	15.39
	100.00

This product is the acid phosphate of lime. In the arts, it is prepared by the reaction of sulphuric acid upon bones, or mineral phosphates. The acid phosphate is therefore mixed with sulphate of lime, and, in that shape, is called superphosphate of lime.

It contains from 15 to 18 per cent. of phosphoric acid, and is sold at 16 francs per 100 kilogrammes (France, 1869).

The *Second* phosphate is represented by the formula $\text{PhO}^5 \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2\text{CaO} \\ \text{HO} \end{array} \right.$ or

Phosphoric acid	52.20
Lime (2CaO)	41.18
Water (HO)	6.62
	100.00

It differs from the former in the proportion of lime, which is greater. This phosphate possesses remarkable properties, which it is useless to mention, since it is not found in the trade.

The *Third* phosphate has for symbol PhO^5 , 3CaO , and its composition is:—

Phosphoric acid	45.81
Lime	54.19
						100.00

We see that the proportion of phosphoric acid, in these three phosphates, is represented by—

1	60.68 per cent.
2	52.20 “
3	45.81 “

The last, and poorest in phosphoric acid, is the bone phosphate. It is also naturally found in the form of nodules, and of apatite.

In the nodular state, the phosphate is mixed with from 40 to 50 per cent. of foreign matters, and is sold, powdered, at 6 francs per 100 kilogrammes.

Calcined and powdered bones are worth 16 francs. In regard to apatite, it is so compact that it cannot be employed in the natural state, and is reserved for the manufacture of acid phosphate of lime.

SULPHATE OF LIME.

Sulphate of lime is nothing else but plaster of Paris, that is, a combination of sulphuric acid and lime, which is naturally found in the

hydrated state, and forms large deposits. Its composition is:—

Sulphuric acid	46.51
Lime	32.56
Water	20.93
	<hr/>
	100.00

Heated at a temperature of 120° to 130° C., it loses its water and becomes anhydrous, or plaster.

We advise the employment of the anhydrous sulphate of lime, which, in that state, is worth 2 francs per 100 kilogrammes.

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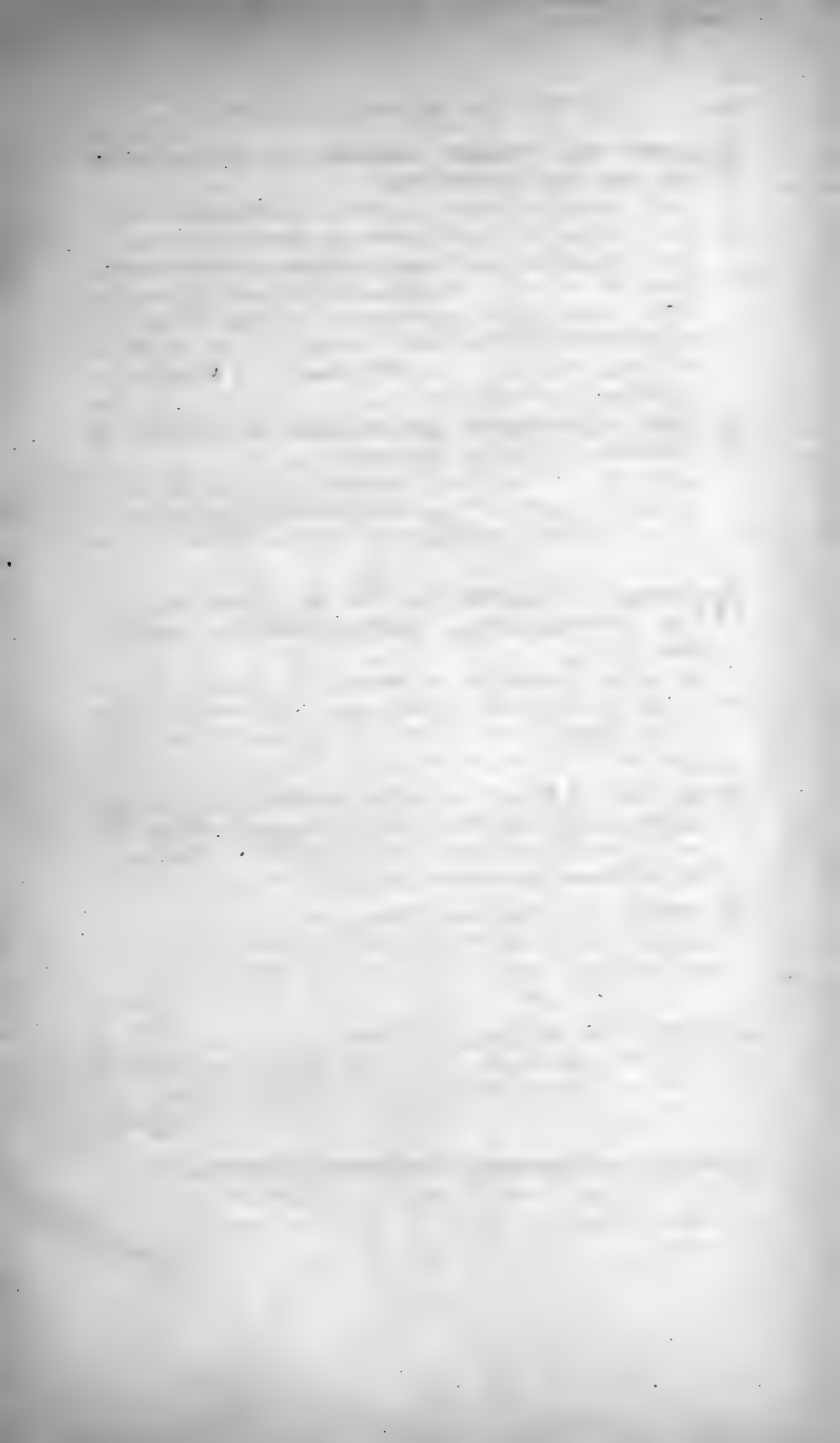
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