

**Terms of the Watchman.**  
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### PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States:  
(CONCLUDED.)

The preservation of the constitution from invasion is the President's highest duty. He is bound to discharge that duty, at whatever hazard of incurring the displeasure of those who may differ with him in opinion. He is bound to discharge it, as well by his obligations to the people who have clothed him with his exalted trust, as by his oath of office, which he may not swear to perform unless he is prepared to perform it. Nor are the obligations of the President lessened by the prevalence of views different from his own in one or both houses of Congress. It is required to check; but if at any time Congress shall, after apparently full deliberation, resolve on measures which he deems subversive to the constitution, or of the vital interests of the country; it is his solemn duty to stand in the breach and resist them.

The President is bound to approve or disapprove every bill which passes Congress, and is presented to him for his signature. The constitution makes this his duty, and he cannot escape it if he would. He has no election. In deciding upon any bill presented to him, he must exercise his own best judgment. If he cannot approve, the constitution commands him to return the bill to the House in which it originated, with his objections; and if he fails to do this within ten days, (Sundays excepted,) it shall become a law without his signature. Right or wrong, he may be overruled by a vote of two-thirds of each House; and, in that event, the bill becomes a law without his sanction. If his objections be not thus overruled, the subject is only postponed, and is referred to the States and the people for their consideration and decision. The President's power is negative merely, and not affirmative. He can enact no law. The only effect, therefore, of his withholding his approval of a bill passed by Congress, is to suffer the existing laws to remain unchanged, and the delay occasioned is only that required to enable the States and the people to consider and act upon the subject, in the election of public agents who will carry out their wishes and instructions. Any attempt to coerce the President to yield his sanction to measures which he cannot approve, would be a violation of the spirit of the constitution, palpable and flagrant; and if successful, would break down the independence of the executive department, and make the President, elected by the people, and clothed by the constitution with power to defend their rights, the mere instrument of a majority of Congress. A surrender, on his part, of the powers with which the constitution has invested his office, would effect a practical alteration of that instrument, without resorting to the prescribed process of amendment.

With the motives or considerations which may induce Congress to pass any bill, the President can have nothing to do. He must presume them to be as pure as his own, and look only to the practical effect of their measures when compared with the constitution or the public good.

But it has been urged by those who object to the exercise of this undivided constitutional power, that it assails the representative principle, and the capacity of the people to govern themselves; that there is greater safety in a numerous representative body than in the single executive created by the constitution, and that the executive veto is a "one-man power," despotic in its character. To expose the fallacy of this objection, it is only necessary to consider the frame and true character of our system. Ours is not a consolidated empire, but a confederated Union. The States, before the adoption of the constitution, were coordinate, equal, and separate independent sovereignties, and by its adoption they did not lose that character. They clothed the federal government with certain powers, and reserved all others, including their own sovereignty to themselves. They guarded their own rights as States, and the rights of the people, by the very limitations which they incorporated into the federal constitution, whereby the different departments of the general government were checks upon each other. That the majority should govern, is a general principle, controverted by none; but they must govern according to the constitution, and not according to an undefined and unrestrained discretion, whereby they may oppress the minority.

The people of the United States are not blind to the fact that they may be temporarily misled, and that their representatives, legislative and executive, may be mistaken or influenced in their action by improper motives. They have therefore interposed between themselves and the laws which may be passed by their public agents, various representations, such as assemblies, senates, and Governors in their several States; a House of Representatives; a Senate and a President of the United States. The people can, by their own direct agency, make or unmake a law; nor can the House of Representatives immediately elected by them; nor can the Senate; nor can both together without the concurrence of the President, or a vote of two-thirds of both houses.

Happily for themselves, the people, in framing our admirable system of government, were conscious of the infirmities of their Representatives; and, in delegating to them the power of legislation, they have fenced them around with checks, to guard against the effects of hasty action, of error of combination, and of possible corruption. Error, selfishness and faction have often sought to rend asunder this web of checks and subject the government to the control of fanatic and sinister influences; but these efforts have only satisfied the people of the wisdom of the checks which they have imposed, and of the necessity of preserving them unimpaired.

The true theory of our system is not to be governed by the acts or decrees of any one set of representatives. The constitution interposes checks upon all branches of the government, in order to give time for error to be corrected, and deliberation to pass away; but if the people settle into a firm conviction different from that of our representatives, they give effect to their opinions by changing their public servants. The checks which the people imposed on the public servants in the adoption of the constitution, are the best evidences of their capacity for self-government. They know that the men whom they elect to public stations are of like passions and passions with themselves, and not to be trusted without being restricted by co-

# THE CAROLINA WATCHMAN.

BRUNER & JAMES,  
Editors & Proprietors.

KEEP A CHECK UPON ALL YOUR  
RULERS.



DO THIS, AND LIBERTY IS SAFE!  
Gen'l. Harrison.

NEW SERIES,  
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ordinate authorities and constitutional limitations. Who that has witnessed the legislation of Congress for the last thirty years will say that he knows of no instance in which measures not demanded by public good, have been carried? Who will deny that in the State governments, by combinations of individuals and sections, in derogation of the general interest, banks have been chartered, systems of internal improvement adopted, and debts entailed upon the people, repressing their growth, and impairing their energies for years to come?

After so much experience, it cannot be said that absolute unchecked power is safe in the hands of any one set of representatives, or that the capacity of the people for self-government, which is admitted in its broadest extent, is a conclusive argument to prove the prudence, wisdom and integrity of their representatives. The people, by the constitution, have commanded the President, as much as they have commanded the legislative branch of the government, to execute their will. They have said to him in the constitution, which they require he shall take a solemn oath to support, that if Congress pass any bill which he cannot approve, "he shall return it to the House in which it originated, with his objections." In withholding from it his approval and signature, he is executing the will of the people constitutionally expressed, as much as the Congress that passed it. No bill is presumed to be in accordance with the popular will until it shall have passed through all the branches of the government required by the constitution to make it a law. A bill which passes the House of Representatives may be rejected by the Senate; and a bill passed by the Senate may be rejected by the House. In each case the respective houses exercise the veto power on the other.

Congress, and each House of Congress, hold under the constitution a check upon the President, and he by the power of the qualified veto, a check upon Congress. When the President recommends measures to Congress, he avows in the most solemn form, his opinions, gives his voice in their favor, and pledges himself in advance to approve them if passed by Congress. If he acts without due consideration, or has been influenced by improper or corrupt motives—or if from any other cause Congress or either House of Congress shall differ with him in opinion, they exercise their veto upon his recommendations, and reject them; and there is no appeal from their decision, but to the people at the ballot-box. These are proper checks upon the executive, wisely interposed by the constitution. None will be found to object to them, or to wish them removed. It is equally important that the constitutional checks of the executive upon the legislative branch should be preserved.

If it be said that the representatives in the popular branch of Congress are chosen directly by the people, it is answered, the people elect the President. If both Houses represent the States and the people, so does the President. The President represents in the executive department the whole people of the United States, as each member of the legislative department represents portions of them.

The doctrine of restriction upon legislative and executive power, while a well settled public opinion is enabled within a reasonable time to accomplish its ends, has made our country what it is, and has opened to us a career of glory and happiness to which all other nations have been strangers. In the exercise of the power of the veto, the President is responsible not only to an enlightened public opinion, but to the people of the whole Union, who elected him, as the representatives in the legislative branches, who differ with him in opinion, are responsible to the people of particular States, or districts, who compose their respective constituencies. To deny to the President the exercise of this power, would be to repeal that provision of the constitution which confers it upon him. To charge that its exercise unduly controls the legislative will, is to complain of the constitution itself.

If the Presidential veto be objected to upon the ground that it checks and thwarts the public will, upon the same principle the equality of representation of the States in the Senate should be stricken out of the constitution. The vote of a Senator from Delaware has equal weight in deciding upon the most important measures with the vote of a Senator from New York; and yet the one represents a State containing, according to the existing apportionment of representatives in the House of Representatives, but one-thirty-fourth part of the population of the other. By the constitutional composition of the Senate, a majority of that body from the smaller States represent less than one-fourth of the people of the Union. There are thirty States; and under the existing apportionment of representatives, there are 330 members in the House of Representatives. Sixteen of the smaller States are represented in that house by fifty members; and yet the Senators from these States constitute a majority of the Senate. So that the President may recommend a measure to Congress, and it may receive the sanction or approval of more than three-fourths of the House of Representatives, and of all the Senators from the large States, containing more than three-fourths of the whole population of the United States; and yet the measure may be defeated by the votes of the Senators from the smaller States. None, it is presumed, can be found, ready to change the organization of the Senate on this account, or to strike that body practically out of existence, by requiring that its action shall be conformable to the will of the more numerous branches.

Upon the same principle that the veto of the President should be practically abolished, the power of the Vice President to give the casting vote upon an equal division of the Senate should be abolished also. The Vice President exercises the veto power quite as effectually, by rejecting a bill by his casting vote, as the President does by refusing to approve or sign it. This power has been exercised by the Vice President in a few instances, the most important of which was the rejection of the bill to recharter the bank of the United States in 1811. It may happen that a bill may be passed by a large majority of the House of Representatives, and may be supported by the Senators from the

larger States, and the Vice President may reject it, by giving his vote with the Senators from the smaller States; and yet none, it is presumed, are prepared to deny to him the exercise of this power under the constitution.

But it is, in point of fact, untrue that an act passed by Congress is conclusive evidence that it is an emanation of the popular will. A majority of the whole number elected to each House of Congress constitutes a quorum, is competent to pass laws. It might happen, that a quorum of the House of Representatives, consisting of a single member more than half of the whole number elected to that house, might pass a bill by a majority of a single vote, and in that case a fraction more than one-fourth of the people of the United States would be represented by those who voted for it. It might happen that the same bill might be passed by a majority of one, of a quorum of a Senate, composed of Senators from the fifteen smaller States, and a single Senator from a sixteenth State, and if the Senators voting for it happened to be from the eight of the smallest of these States, it would be passed by the votes of Senators from States, having but 24 Representatives in the House of Representatives, and containing less than one-sixteenth of the whole population of the United States.

This extreme case is stated to illustrate the fact, that the mere passage of a bill by Congress is no conclusive evidence that those who passed it represent the majority of the people of the United States, or truly reflect their will. If such an extreme case is not likely to happen, cases that approximate it are of constant occurrence. It is believed that not a single law has been passed since the adoption of the constitution, upon which all the members elected to both houses have been present and voted. Many of the most important acts which have passed Congress have been carried by a close vote in this house. Many instances of this might be given. Indeed, our experience proves that many of the most important acts of Congress are postponed to the last days, and often the last hours, of a session, when they are disposed of in haste, and by houses but little exceeding the number necessary to form a quorum.

Besides, in most of the States the members of the House of Representatives are chosen by pluralities, and not by majorities of all the voters in their respective districts, and it may happen that a majority of that house may be returned by a less aggregate vote of the people than that received by the minority.

If the principle insisted on be sound, then the constitution should be so changed that no bill should become a law unless it is voted for by members representing in each house a majority of the whole people of the United States. We must remodel our whole system, strike down and abolish not only the salutary checks lodged in the executive branch, but must strike out and abolish those lodged in the Senate also, and thus practically invest the whole power of the government in a majority of a single assembly—a majority uncontrolled and absolute, and which may become despotic. To conform to this doctrine of the right of majorities to rule, independent of the checks and limitations of the constitution, we must revolutionize our whole system. We must destroy the constitutional compact by which the several States agreed to form a federal Union, and rush into consolidation, which must end in monarchy or despotism. No one advocates such a proposition; and yet the doctrine maintained, if carried out must lead to this result.

One great object of the constitution in conferring upon the President a qualified negative upon the legislation of Congress, was to protect minorities from injustice and oppression by majorities. The equality of their representation in the Senate, and the veto power of the President, are the constitutional guarantees which the smaller States have that their rights will be respected. Without these guarantees, all their interests would be at the mercy of majorities in Congress representing the larger States. To the smaller and weaker States, therefore, the preservation of this power, and its exercise upon proper occasions demanding it, is of vital importance. They ratified the constitution, and entered into the Union, securing to themselves an equal representation with the larger States in the Senate; and they agreed to be bound by all laws passed by Congress upon the express condition, and none other, that they should be approved by the President, or passed, by a vote of two-thirds of both houses. Upon this condition they have a right to insist, as a part of the compact to which they gave their assent.

A bill might be passed by Congress against the will of the whole people of a particular State and against the vote of its Senators and Representatives. However prejudicial it might be to the interest of such State, it would be bound by it if the President shall approve it, or it should be passed by a vote of two-thirds of both houses; but it has a right to demand that the President shall exercise his constitutional power and arrest it, if his judgment is against it. If he surrenders this power, or fails to exercise it in a case where he cannot approve, it would make his formal approval a mere mockery, and would be itself a violation of the constitution, and the dissenting State would become bound by a law which had not been passed according to the sanctions of the constitution.

The objection to the exercise of the veto power is founded upon an idea respecting the popular will, which if carried out, would annihilate State sovereignty, and substitute for the present federal government a consolidation, directed by a supposed numerical majority. A revolution of the government would be slightly effected, and the States would be subjected to laws to which they had never given their constitutional consent.

The Supreme Court of the United States is invested with the power to declare, and has declared, acts of Congress passed with the concurrence of the Senate, the House of Representatives, and the approval of the President to be unconstitutional and void; and yet none, it is presumed, can be found, who will be disposed to strip this highest judicial tribunal under the constitution, of this acknowledged power—a

power necessary alike to its independence and the rights of individuals.

For the same reason that the executive veto, should, according to the doctrine maintained, be rendered nugatory, and be practically expunged from the constitution, this power of the Court should also be rendered nugatory and be expunged because it restrains the legislative and executive will, and because the exercise of such a power by the Court may be regarded as being in conflict with the capacity of the people to govern themselves. Indeed, there is more reason for striking this power of the Court from the constitution, than there is that of the qualified veto of the President; because the decision of the Court is final, and can never be reversed, even though both Houses of Congress and the President should be unanimous in opposition to it; whereas the veto of the President may be overruled by a vote of two-thirds of both Houses of Congress, or by the people at the polls.

It is obvious that to preserve the system established by the constitution, each of the coordinate branches of the government—the executive, legislative, and judicial—must be left in the exercise of its appropriate powers. If the executive or the judicial branch be deprived of powers conferred upon either as checks on the legislative, the preponderance of the latter will become disproportionate and absorbing, and the other important for which they were established, organized as they are by the constitution, they work together harmoniously for the public good. If the executive and the judiciary shall be deprived of the constitutional powers invested in them, and of their due proportions, the equilibrium of the system must be destroyed, and consolidation, with the most pernicious results, must ensue—a consolidation of unchecked, despotic power, exercised by majorities of the legislative branch.

The executive, legislative, and judicial, each constitutes a separate co-ordinate department of the government; and each is independent of the others. In the performance of their respective duties under the constitution, neither can, in its legitimate action, control the others. They each act upon their several responsibilities in their respective spheres; but if these doctrines now maintained be correct, the executive must become practically subordinate to the legislative, and the judiciary must become subordinate to both the legislative and the executive; and thus the whole power of the government would be merged in a single department. Whenever, if ever, this shall occur, our glorious system of well regulated self-government will crumble into ruins—to be succeeded, first by anarchy, and finally by monarchy or despotism. I am far from believing that this doctrine is the sentiment of the American people; and during the short period which remains, in which it will be my duty to administer the executive department, it will be my aim to maintain its independence, and discharge its duties, without infringing upon the powers or duties, of either of the other departments of the government.

The power of the executive veto was exercised by the first and most illustrious of my predecessors, and by four of his successors who preceded me in the administration of the government, and it is believed, in no instance prejudicially to the public interests. It has never been abused, and there is but little danger that it ever can be abused. No President will ever desire, unnecessarily, to place his opinion in opposition to that of Congress. He must always exercise the power reluctantly, and only in cases where his convictions make it a matter of stern duty, which he cannot escape. Indeed, there is more danger that the President, from the reluctance he must always feel to come in collision with Congress, may fail to exercise it in cases where the preservation of the constitution from infraction, or the public good, may demand it, than that he will ever exercise it unnecessarily or wantonly.

During the period I have administered the executive department of the Government, great and important questions of public policy; foreign and domestic, have arisen, upon which it was my duty to act. It may indeed be truly said that my administration has fallen upon eventful times. I have felt most sensibly the weight of the high responsibilities devolved upon me. With no other object than the public good, the enduring fame, and permanent prosperity of my country, I have pursued the convictions of my own best judgment. The impartial arbitration of enlightened public opinion, present and future, will determine how far the public policy I have maintained, and the measures I have from time to time recommended, may have tended to advance or retard the public prosperity at home, and to elevate or depress the estimate of our national character abroad.

Inoking the blessings of the Almighty upon your deliberations at your present important session, my ardent hope is, that in a spirit of harmony and concord you may be guided to wise results, and such as may redound to the happiness, the honor, and the glory of our beloved country.

JAMES K. POLK.  
WASHINGTON, Dec. 3, 1845.

### CULTIVATION OF INDIGO.

Among dyers and color makers, the Bengal indigo is highly prized. It is far superior to any other kind. The Guatimala or South American is the next in quality, and then the various grades of Spanish float, &c. The best Bengal sells for 82 per pound and it is a great source of revenue to the British Government. As this is at present the most valuable of all the dye drugs, selling for more than cochineal, the U. States must consume more and more of it, as we increase in manufactures. The cultivation of the indigo plant should therefore arrest the attention of our Southern planters, as there can be no doubt of an open and ready sale at all times, if the quality is good. We say this because some may say that "there is not a good market for what is now

made in the States," that which is raised in Louisiana and S. Carolina. But the reason of the American indigo being unsaleable in the market, is owing to its inferior quality. It is far easier to work, as it is called, a good than a bad quality of indigo. In making the sulphate of indigo, the inferior requires more sulphuric acid than the superior quality, while it does not yield one fourth the amount of coloring matter, and the labor to use them both is the same. It is therefore of the utmost consequence to pay attention and particular attention to the quality. Lenzel exports more than eight million of pounds every year and the quality has been steadily increasing. Indigo succeeds best near the tropics, where the mean temperature reaches 75 and 80 deg. Fahrenheit. The soil should be light and rich. Sow in April 12 lbs. to the acre, in drills 15 to 20 inches apart. Moisture is requisite but undrained soil should be avoided—to be kept free from weeds and grass and thinned by hoeing. Cut with a reaping hook near the ground, when about the flower, or so soon as the lower leaves begin to turn; this period will be in July in South Carolina. A second crop is cut at the end of August, and a third in Guatimala and India. The first crop is the best. The excellence of indigo depends upon the brightness of the season—wet weather produces large plants, but a small quantity of coloring matter.

The culture is very precarious, both as regards the growth of the plant from year to year and the quantity and quality of the drug, even in the same season. Good indigo is known by its lightness or small specific gravity, indicating the absence of earthy impurities—but not readily parting with its coloring matter when a mass is drawn over a white surface; but above all, by the purity of the color itself. In the Delta of the Ganges, where the best and largest quantity of indigo is produced, the plant lasts for only a single season, being destroyed by the periodical inundations; but in the dry central and western provinces, one or two ratoon crops are obtained. In South Carolina the following method is employed to extract the indigo from the plant, which answers well enough for domestic purposes, but it is time that greater attention was paid to the manufacture of a better article. When the underbearers begin to dry, they are cut down and put into a barrel filled with rain water with boards and weights placed on them to keep them under water. When bubbles begin to form on the top and the water begins to look of a reddish color, it is soaked enough, and must be taken out, taking care to wring and squeeze the leaves well, so as to obtain all the strength of the plant; it must then be churned (which may be done by means of a tolerable open basket, with a handle to raise it up and down) until the liquor is quite in a foam. To ascertain whether it is done enough a spoonful is taken out on a plate, and a small quantity of very strong lye put into it. If the liquor curdles, it is a sign that it is churned enough, when potash lye of considerable strength is added by small quantities and the churning continued until it is all sufficiently curdled; care must be taken not to put in too much lye, as that will spoil it. When it curdles freely with the lye, it must be sprinkled well over the top with oil, which immediately causes the foam to subside, after which it must stand till the indigo settles to the bottom of the barrel. This may be discovered by the appearance of water, which must be let off gradually by boring holes first near the top, and afterwards lower, as it continues to settle. When the water is all let off, and nothing remains but the mud, it is taken and put into a funnel bag, and hung up to drip, afterwards spreading it to dry on large dishes. Some of the foam, which is the strength of the weed, should escape.—Scientific Am.

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### The City of Bombay East Indies.

Bombay contains a population of above three hundred thousand inhabitants, a large proportion of whom are Hindoos—the remainder are Mahomedans, Armenians, Jews, and about 8000 Parsees, or fire worshippers. The houses of the Parsees, many of whom are wealthy, are often of great extent, because, if a man has many sons, they continue to live under the same roof, even when married—with their families, and uncles, aunts, brothers, sisters, sons, daughters, and grandchildren, and remain together till the increase of numbers actually compels a portion of the family to remove, and to erect new dwellings for their own accommodation. The lower classes content themselves with small huts, mostly of clay, with the roofs made of the leaves of Palmyra or cocconut trees. Many people will be surprised to learn that the worshippers of fire still exist in the East, but they are still numerous in the Indian Archipelago, where many of them found refuge from the relentless Mahomedan.—Scientific American.

Councillors of State.—The following gentlemen, all whigs, have been elected Councillors of State, viz: Lewis Bond, Joshua Tagley, Nathaniel T. Green, Charles L. Payne, Thomas A. Allison, Adolphus L. Erwin, and John Winslow, Esquires.—Raleigh Star.

### HINDOO CAVERN TEMPLE.

At Bombay, in the East Indies, there are interesting excavations named the Elephanta a name given by the Portuguese from a huge stone elephant found at the landing place. It is carved out of the solid rock on which it stands, but is now much broken and mutilated. The hewn entrance to the cave is from forty to fifty feet wide, and its height about twenty feet. It is supported by large columns carved from the solid rock. The sides of the cavern are ornamented with numerous figures, but the lower end of the cavern, opposite the entrance, is the most remarkable. In the centre is a God of colossal size, with three heads, representing the Destroyer, Giver and Preserver—these are decked with various ornaments. The features are all very good, with the exception of the under lip, which is amazingly thick. The length from the chin to the top of the head is about seven feet.

The parts of the figures are all perfect, with the exception of the two hands which are destroyed. On each side of the tri-headed god are two statues, about fifteen feet high, leaning on a dwarf; these are much defaced. To the right is a sculptured group, embracing a variety of figures, the largest of which is 16 feet high. It is a double statue, half male and half female, with four hands. Another portion of this design is filled with small figures in attitudes of worship, well executed. The columns and various portions of the sculpture have been much defaced by the Portuguese, in former times, when they made war upon the gods and temples, as well as upon the native inhabitants. No trace of the history of these caverns remains; their origin is unknown. They are supposed to be about two thousand years old, and must have been the work of a people far advanced in the arts. [Scientific American.]

### HOSPITAL FOR THE INSANE.

It will gladden the heart of every patriot and philanthropist in the State, to learn, that the Bill making a liberal appropriation \* (see House proceedings) for the erection of so noble an Institution, has passed the House by a very large majority, and will, doubtless, pass the Senate likewise. In what more fitting and beautiful manner, could our Legislators terminate their labors for the year—a year of political turmoil and agitation—than by this work of humanity and Christian charity! The dawning of a new Year opens bright prospects to our unfortunate, indigent insane—may its close find the mental darkness of many dissipated by the morning of reason!

The speech of Mr. Dobbin, in favor of the Bill, on Friday morning last, was one of the most touching, beautiful efforts that we have ever heard.—His noble and eloquent conception, impressive delivery, and the circumstances which prompted and attended it—all combined to render it truly worthy of the occasion. We shall, in all probability, have the pleasure of laying Mr. D's remarks before our readers, and if so, we commend them (and the other speeches upon this subject) to the perusal of all good and humane men. The speeches of Messrs. Rayner and Dobbin are, we learn, to be published in Pamphlet form.

### HOUSE OF COMMONS.

The Speaker announced the arrival of the hour for taking up the order of the day, viz: the establishment of an Asylum for the Insane, when Mr. Dobbin moved to amend the bill by inserting 17 cents on every \$100 worth of property, and 51 cents on every Poll, for four years leaving the County Courts the liberty to reduce the Poor Tax, if found onerous. Mr. Dobbin then went into a most able and eloquent defence of the bill and its objects; at the close of which, the amendment proposed by him was adopted, and the bill passed its second reading.—Ayes 101; Noes 10. Mr. Sturdy then moved the suspension of the Rules in order that the bill might be put upon its third reading; which was carried, and it passed its third reading.—Ayes 91; Noes 91. On motion, the House then adjourned.

### THE FRUIT OF THE VINE.

A Missionary at Constantinople gives an account of the various uses of the products of the vine in the East at the present day; and as that is called by ten different words in the Bible, all translated wine, it is the object of the writer to show that wine in our sense of the term, is probably intended in but few of the many passages of the Bible where the article is spoken of with commendation, and as an emblem of temporal blessings, see Deut. 7, 13. Neh. 10, 39, and also, Num. 6, 3, 4. We shall give a mere abstract of the author. He says "that in Asia Minor and Syria, the largest part of the produce of the vine is used for other purposes than making intoxicating liquor."

Another man says in reference to Syria "wine is not the most important, but rather the least so, of all the objects for which the vine is cultivated." And of another place, "the wine made is an item of no consideration." What then do they raise the grapes for? The author then in answer states the multiplied uses made of the product of the vine.

1. The green grape is used fresh in food; the juice is expressed and preserved in bottles for use; or they are dried in the sun like raisins and kept for tarts; or when dried are ground to powder, and that put up for future use. They supply the place of lemons.
2. The fresh ripe grapes are eaten from