

Whether the protective policy shall be finally abandoned, is now  
the question -

Discussion and experience already had, one question  
now in greater dispute than ever -

Has there not been some great error in the mode of discussion?

Propose a single issue of fact, namely -

"From 1816 to the present, have protected articles,  
as a rule, of labour, during the higher, than during  
the lower, duties upon them?"

Introduce the evidence -

analyze this issue, and try to show that it embraces the  
true and the whole question of the protective policy -

Intended as a test of experience -

The period selected, is fair, because it is a period of peace -  
a period sufficiently long to furnish a fair average under  
all other causes operating on prices - a period in  
which various modifications of higher and lower duties  
have occurred -

Protected articles, only are embraced - Show that these  
only, belong to the question -

The labour price, only is embraced - Show this to be correct -

watercolor etc

theatre and public service has increased  
and with every day is more  
and more used in every kind of work and  
from day to day every new and  
better and more perfect it becomes  
and more and more works well.

"Painted paper" will go

more and more all over the world

and this will be a great help to the  
industry and to the people who are

interested in it as it is a great

and good presentiment that

the world will be interested in

and interested in it

In the early days of the world, the Almighty gave to the first  
of our race "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread,"  
and since then, if we except the light and the love of heaven,  
no good thing has been or can be enjoyed by us on earth having  
first cost labour. And, was much <sup>more</sup> ~~all~~ good things produced  
by labour, it follows that all such things of right  
belong to those whose labour has produced them. But it has  
so happened in all ages of the world, that some have lab-  
oured, and others have, say without labour, enjoyed a large pro-  
portion of the fruits. This is wrong, and should not continue. It  
is to each labourer the whole product of his labour, or as nearly  
as possible, is a most worthy object of my good government—  
but then the question arises, how can a government best effect  
this? object? In our own country, in its present condition, will the  
procreative principle ~~and~~, <sup>advance</sup> ~~retard~~ th. object! That is the  
point upon this subject, our whole species fall into three great classes—  
useful labour, useless labour, and idleness. Of these, the first

labour is very heavy. It includes, not only the cost of the ~~labor~~<sup>active</sup> ~~and~~<sup>and</sup> carriage, but also the insurance of every kind, and the profits of the merchant, though whom hands it passes. All these create a heavy burthen, necessarily falling upon the useful labour connected with such articles, either depressing the price to the producers, or enhancing it to the consumer, or what is more probably, doing both in part. A supposed case will serve to illustrate several points now to the point. A in the interior of South Carolina, has one hundred pounds of cotton, which we suppose to be the precise product of one man's labour for twenty days; B in Manchester, England, has one hundred yards of cotton cloth, the precise product of the same amount of labour. This lot of cotton, and lot of cloth are precisely equal to each other in their intrinsic value. But A wishes to part with his cotton for the largest quantity of cloth he can get; B also wishes to part with his cloth for the greatest quantity of cotton he can get. An exchange is therefore necessary; but before this can be effected, the cotton must be carried to Manchester, and the cloth to South Carolina. The cotton starts to Manchester, the man that hauls it ~~to~~ to Charleston in his waggon, takes a little out to pay him for his trouble; the merchant, who stores it a while before the ship is ready to sail, takes a little out, for his trouble; the ship-owners, who carries it across the water, will take a little out for his trouble, still before it gets to Manchester, it is tollled two or three times, once for drayage, storage, commission, and so on; so that when it reaches B's hands, there are but seventy-five pounds of it left. The cloth, too, in its transit from Manchester to South Carolina goes through the same process of tolling, so that when it reaches A, there are but seventy-five yards of it. Now, in this case, A and B have each parted with twenty days labour, and each received but fifteen in return. But now let us suppose that B has removed to the side of A's farm, and has there made his lot of cloth. Is it not clear that he and A can then exchange the cloth & cotton each getting the whole of what the other party brings?

This supposition illustrates the utter uselessness of the carrying labour we see since it is ~~useless~~ ~~and~~ the direct burthen it imposes of useless labour. A man may well take up the train of reflections suggested by this case, and if he went to the full extent of its just application, will be compelled at the amount of useless labour. Will this answer to the reader's very way? I am mistaken, if it is not in fact many times, to suppose to all the real want in the world ~~there~~<sup>is</sup> ~~any~~<sup>more</sup> ~~useless~~ ~~and~~ ~~burthen~~ ~~than~~<sup>exists</sup>. This useless labour I would have prohibited, and allow no one to engage in it, save to the class of useful labour. If I became a dictator I would destroy all commerce law, ~~now~~ <sup>certainly not</sup> I would submit it where it is necessary, and discontinue it, where it is not. I would continue commerce so far as it is employed in buying & selling ~~useless~~<sup>articles</sup> I would discontinue it so far as it is employed in buying & selling cotton goods.



First, then, as to useless labour. But what is useless labour?

I suppose, then, that all labour done directly and incidentally in carrying articles from the place of their production to a different place for consumption, which articles could be produced of a good quality, and sufficient quantity, with as little labour at the place of consumption, as at the place carried from, is useless labour. Applying this principle to our own country let us example. Let us suppose that A and B are a Pennsylvania farmer, and a Pennsylvania iron-maker, whose lands are adjoining. Under the protective policy A is furnishing B with bread and meat, and vegetable, and fruit, and food for horses and oxen, and fresh supplies of horses and oxen themselves occasionally, and receiving, in exchange,铁  
iron, iron utensils, tools, and implements, he needs. In this process of exchange, each receives the whole of what the other parts with. But the change comes. The protective policy is abandoned (how, and under what expectation, I will hereafter try to show) and A determines, to for the future, to buy his supply of iron and iron-furnaces of C an iron-maker in England. This he can only do by a direct or an indirect exchange of the products of his farm for them. The direct exchange is supposed to be adopted. In a certain instance of this sort, A desires to exchange ten barrels of flour, the precise product of one hundred days labour, for the greatest quantity of iron he can get; C, also writes, to exchange the precise product of one hundred days labour, or more, for the greatest quantity of flour he can get. But before the exchange can take place, the flour must be <sup>from Penn.</sup> carried, to England and the <sup>from England</sup> iron, to Pennsylvania. The flour starts. The waggoner who hauls it to Philadelphia, takes a part of it to pay him for his labour, then a merchant there, takes a little more for storage and forwarding commissions, and another takes a little more for insurance, and thus the shipper comes to across the water, and takes a little more of it <sup>for his troubles;</sup> till before it reaches C it is taken two or three times more for storage, ~~dryage~~ <sup>68</sup> commission and so on, so that when he gets it <sup>it is</sup> broken <sup>in</sup> but seven barrels, and a half of it left. He now, too, in its transit

from England to Pennsylvania, goes through the same process of  
tolling; so that when it reaches A, there are but three quarters  
of it left. Now, this carrying labor, was generally useless in this,  
that it diminished the quantity, while it added nothing to the  
quality of the article carried; and it was useless to A, be-  
cause, by continuing to buy of B, it needed not to be done.

~~make the trades to a useless labour.~~ Before proceeding

however, it may be as well to give a specimen of what I can imagine to be useless labour. I say then, that all <sup>incidents of carriage,</sup> carrying of articles from the place of their production, to a distant place for consumption, which articles could be produced of a good quality, in sufficient quantity and with a little labour, at the place of consumption, at the place comes from, is useless labour. Applying this principle to our own country by an example, let us suppose that A and B, are a Pennsylvania farmer, and a Pennsylvania iron-ma<sup>n</sup>ufacturer, whose lands are adjoining. Under the protective policy A is furnishing B with bread and meat, and vegetables, and fruit, and food for horses, oxen, and fresh supplies of horses, and ourselves occasionally, and receiving, in exchange, all the iron, iron utensils, tools, and implements he needs. In this process of exchange, each receives the whole of that which the other parts with, and the reward of labour between them is perfect; each receiving the produce of just so much labour, as he has himself bestowed on what he parts with for it. But the change comes. The protective policy is abandoned, and A determines to buy his iron and iron manufactures, <sup>of C.</sup> in Europe. This he can only do by a direct or an indirect exchange of the produce of his farm for them. We will suppose the direct exchange is adopted. In this A desires to exchange ten barrels of flour, the precise product of one hundred days labour, for the largest quantity of iron <sup>in Europe</sup> that he can get; C, also wishes to exchange the precise product in iron, of one hundred days labour, for the greatest quantity of flour he can get. But before this exchange can take place, the flour must be carried from Pennsylvania to England, and the iron from England to Pennsylvania. The flour starts, the waggoner who has it to Philadelphia takes a part of it to pay him for his labour, then a merchant there takes a little more for storage and forwarding expenses, and another takes a little more for insurance; and then the ship主人 caries it across the water, and takes a little more of it for his trouble; still before it reaches B, it is taken two or three times more for storage, drayage, commission and so on, so that when C gets it there are but five barrels of it left. The iron too, meets transit from England to Penn<sup>a</sup> going through the same process taking, so that when it reaches A there is but <sup>three quarters</sup> of it left.

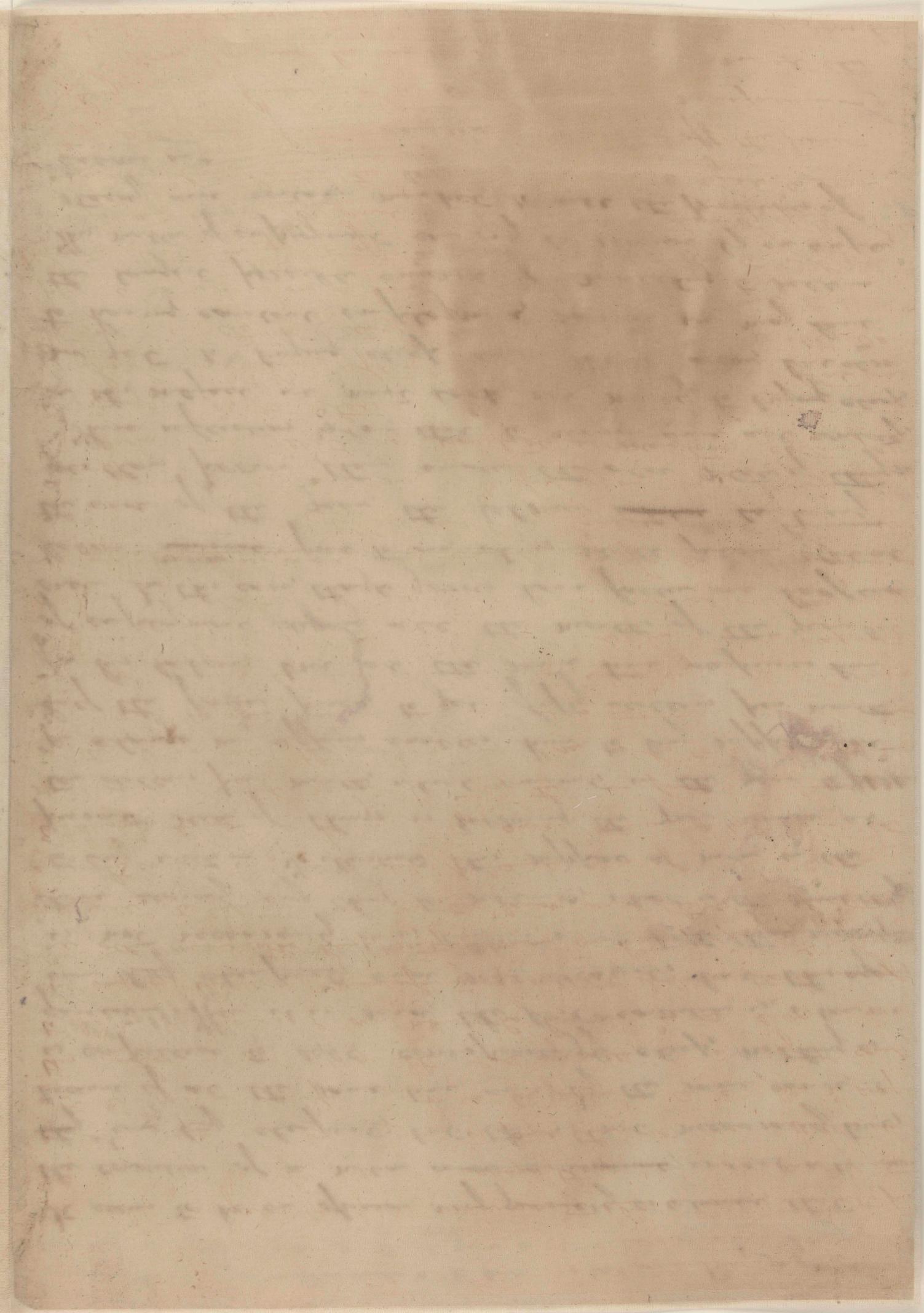
The result of this case is, that A and B have each parted with one hundred  
days laboring and each received but seventy-five in return. That the carrying  
in this case, was introduced by A ceasing to buy of B and turning to; that it  
was utterly useless, now that it is known, in its effects, upon A as all little  
less than self evident. But as you "find A is now only getting three  
quarters as much iron from C as he used to get of B, why does he not turn  
back to B?" The answer is, B has quit making iron, ever so long ago,  
to sell - But why did B quit making? - Because A quit buying  
of him, and he had no other customer to sell to. But surely A did  
not cease buying of B, with the expectation of buying of C, last  
term,?" Certainly not - Let me tell you how that was - When B was  
making iron as well as C, B had but one customer, this farmer A - he  
had four customers in Europe.

The first customer was a blacksmith in B whose name was John Black.  
He came from London and brought with him the whole year's work of the  
blacksmiths shop in B. He had no other business in B, and he had  
no place to work in the blacksmiths shop. So John Black offered  
to make any kind of blacksmith work in B, for any one in B, who wanted  
it. This offered to John Black, was the beginning of the whole iron  
trade in B. John Black made iron articles for the whole year, and then  
he sent them over the water to A, and got the money for them back. John  
Black had two sons, John and James. John got into the iron trade, but James  
got into the tailor trade. John Black had two sons, John and James. John got  
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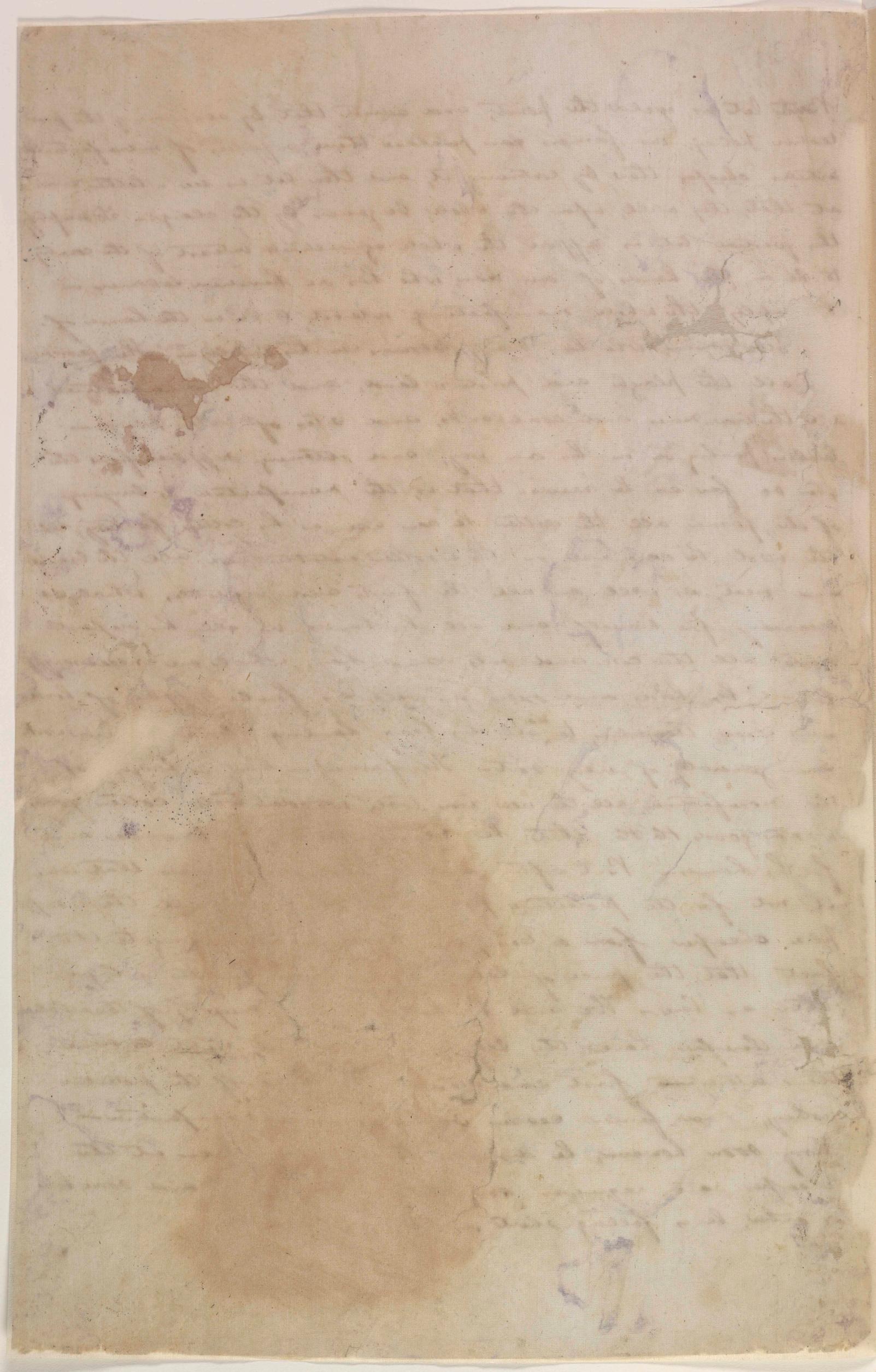
It seems to be an opinion, very generally entertained, that the condition of a nation ~~as an individual~~, is best, when we buy cheapest; but this is not necessarily true, because if, at the same time, and by the same cause, it is compelled to sell correspondingly cheap, nothing is gained— Then, it is said, the best condition is, when we can buy cheapest, and sell dearest; but this again, is not necessarily true; because, with both these, we might have scarcely any thing to sell—a, which is the same thing to buy with— To illustrate this, suppose a man in the present state of things is labouring the year round, at ten dollars, per month, which amounts in the year to \$120. a change in affairs enables him to buy supplies at half the former price, to get fifty dollars per month for his labour; but at the same time deprives him of employment during all the months, of the year but one— In this case, though goods have fallen one half, and labor ~~now~~ <sup>now</sup> five to one, it is still plain, that at the end of the year, the labourer ~~will~~ <sup>is</sup> be twenty dollars poorer, than under the older state of things.

These reflections show, that to reason and act correctly on this subject, we must look not merely to buying cheap, nor yet to buying cheap, and selling dear, but also to having constant employment, so that we may have the largest possible amount of something to sell— This matter of employment can only be secured by an ample, steady, and certain market, to sell the produce of labour in—



MARY O.  
1812

But let us yield the point, and admit that, by abandoning the protective policy, our farmers can purchase their supplies of manufactured articles cheaper than by continuing it; and then let us see whether, even at that, they will, upon the whole, be gainers by the change. To simplify this question, let us suppose the whole agricultural interest of the country to be in the hands of one man, who has one hundred labourers in his employ. The whole manufacturing interest, to be in the hands of another man, who has twenty labourers in his employ. The farmer has all the ploughs and pasture land, and the manufacturer, all the iron-mines, and coal-banks, and sites of water-power. Each is pushing on in his own way, and obtaining supplies from the other so far as he needs. That is, the manufacturer is buying of the farmer all the cotton he can use in his cotton factory, all the wool he can use in his woollen establishment, all the bread and meat, as well as all the fruits and vegetables, which are necessary for himself and all his labourers in all his departments; all the corn, and oats, and hay, which are necessary for all his horses, and oxen, as well as fresh supplies of horses and oxen themselves, to do his heavy labouring about his work, and generally of every sort. The farmer, in turn, is buying of the manufacturer, all the iron, iron tools, wooden tools, cotton goods, woollen goods &c &c. that he needs for his business and for his hands. But after such a farmer-bueller that were it not for the protective policy, he could buy all these supplies cheaper from a European manufacturer, owing to the fact that the price of labour is only one quarter as high there as here. He and his labourers, the majority of the whole, and therefore have the legal and moral right to have their interests first consulted. They throw off the protective policy, and farmer ceases buying of home manufacturers. Very soon, however, he discovers that to buy, even at the cheaper rate, requires something to buy with, and somehow or other, he is falling short in this particular.



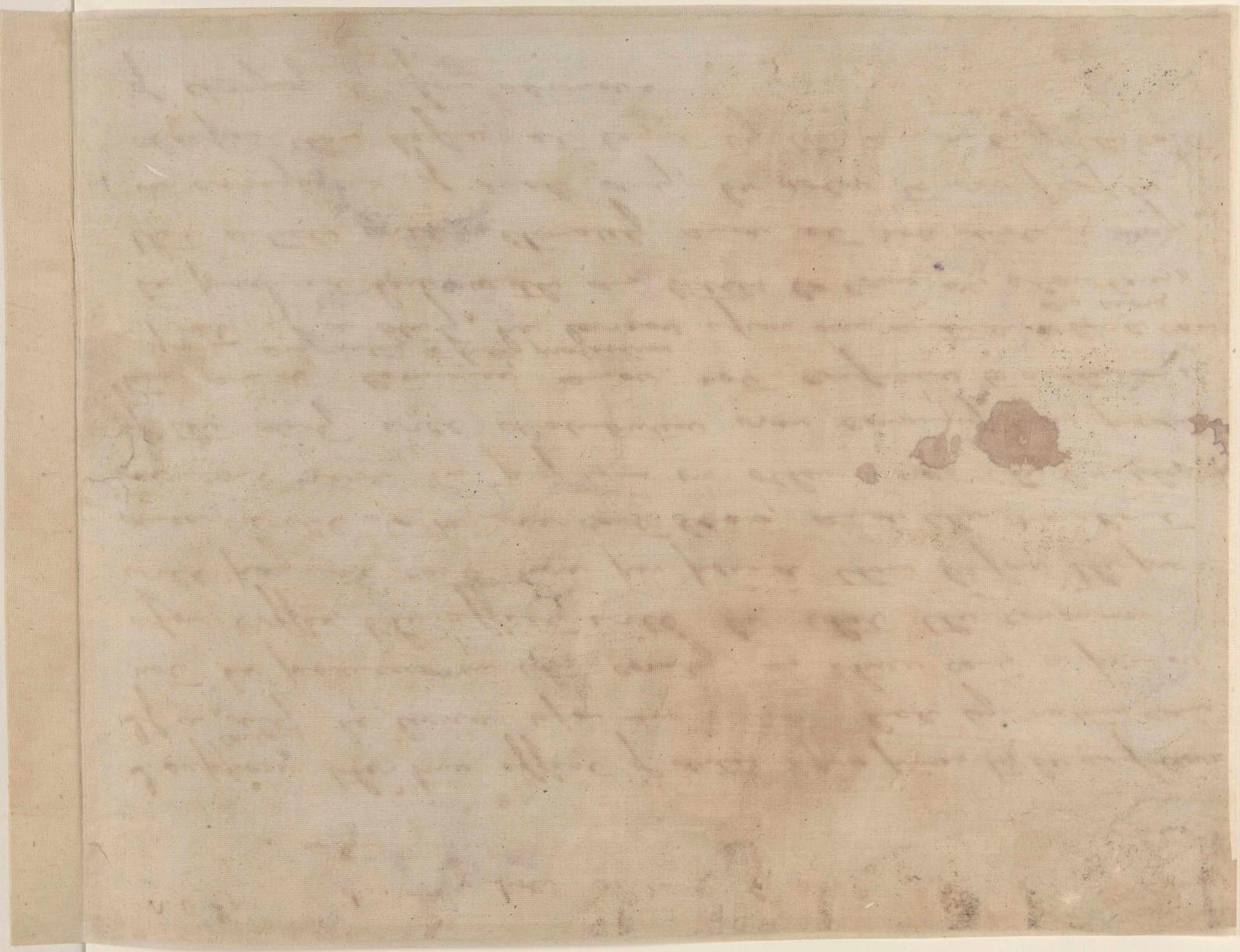
But let us yield the point, and admit that, by abandoning to protective policy, our farmers can purchase their supplies of manufactured articles ~~cheaper~~ than before; and then let us see what, even at that, the farmers will, upon the whole, be gains; by the change - To simplify this question, let us suppose our whole population to consist of but twenty men - Under the prevalence of the protective policy, fifteen of these are farmers, one is a miller, one manufacturer know, one, implements from iron, one cotton goods, and one woollen goods. The farmers discover, that, owing to labour only costing one quarter as much in Europe as here, they can buy iron, iron implements, cotton goods & woollen goods cheaper, when brought from Europe, when made by their neighbours - They are the majority, and so far have both the legal and moral right to have them and a first concern - They throw off the protective policy, & cease buying these articles of their neighbours - But, they discover that to buy, even at the cheaper rate, requires something to buy with. Falling short in this particular, one of the farmers, it takes a load of wheat to the miller, since it made into flour, and says, as had been his custom, to the iron furnace; he approaches the well known spot, it strange to say, all is calm and still as death - no smoke rises, no furnace roars, no snarlings - After some search, he finds the owner of the desolate place, and calls out to him, "Come Vulcan, don't you want to buy a load of flour?" - "Why" says Vulcan "I am hungry enough, to be said - have I not eaten bread for a week - but then you see my works are stopped, and I have nothing to give for your flour - But, Vulcan, why don't you go to work and get something? I am ready to do so; will you hire me, farmer? Oh, you would only set me to raising wheat, and you don't know more of that already than I can get any thing for - But there is no employment, and send you flour to Europe - You know the market - Why, Vulcan, how silly you talk - Don't you know we raise wheat in Europe as well as here, and that flour is so cheap there as to fix the price of flour there as low as ~~several~~ scarcely to pay the long carriage of it possibly leaving nothing whatever to me - But, farmer, couldn't you pay to raise and prepare garden stuffs, and fruits, such as radishes, cabbages, turnips and sweet potatoes, cucumbers, water melons and muskmelons, plums, pears, peaches, apples, &c &c the like; all these are good things and used to sell well - So they deserve to sell well, but it was to you we sold them, and you

you tell us you have nothing to buy with. Of course I can  
not sell such things to the other farmer, because each of  
them costs enough for himself, and, in fact, rather worse,  
to sell them to buy - Neither can I send <sup>these</sup> to Europe for a  
market; because, to say nothing of European market being studded  
with such articles at lower price, than I can afford, they  
are of such a nature as to rot before they could reach there.  
The truth is, Vulcan, I am compelled to quit raising these things  
altogether, except a few for my own use, and this leaves part  
of my own time idle on my hands, instead of my finding em-  
ployment for you.



I suppose the true effect of duties upon prices to be as follows:  
If a <sup>certain</sup> duty be levied upon an article which, by nature can  
not be produced in this country, as, three cents a pound  
upon coffee, the effect will be, that the consumer  
will pay one cent more per pound than before, the pro-  
ducer will take one cent less, and the merchant  
one cent less in profits — in other words, the burden  
of the duty will be distributed over consumption, produc-  
tion, and commerce and not confined to either —

But if a duty be levied upon an article which can  
be produced here with as little labor, as elsewhere,<sup>as now</sup>,  
that article will ultimately, and at no distant day,  
in consequence of such duty, be sold to our people  
cheaper than before, at least by the amount of the cost  
of carrying it from abroad.



If at any time all labour should cease, and all existing provisions be equally divided among the people, at the end of a single year there could scarcely be one human being left alive—all would have perished by want of subsistence—

So again, if upon such division, all that sort of labour, which produces provisions, should cease, and each individual should take up so much of his share as he could, and carry it continually around his habitation, although in this carrying, the amount of labour going on might be as great as ever, so long as it could last, at the end of the year the result would be precisely the same—that is, none would be left living—

The first of these propositions, then, that universal idleness would speedily result in universal ruin; and the second shows, that useless labour is, in this respect, the same as idleness.

I submit, then, whether it does not follow, that partial idleness, and partial useless labour, would, in the proportion of their extent, in like manner, result, in partial ruin—whether, if all should submit upon the labour that one half should perform, it would not result in very scanty allowance to the whole—

Believing that these propositions, and the I draw from them can not be successfully controverted, I, for the present, assume their correctness, and proceed to try to show, that the abandonment of the protective policy by the American government, must result in the increase of both useless labour, and idleness; and so, in proportion, must produce want and ruin among our people—

{ The foregoing scrap was written  
by Lincoln, before his election to Congress  
in 1846, and taken up by him on Dec. 1847 }