

Instructional Case: Teaching Accounting Using an Historical Account Book

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Overview

Historical account books can be impressive for their format, clarity, and detail. Such books are valuable historical documents, telling a story in accounting transactions about the activities of individuals many years ago and shedding light on the way they lived--what they bought, what they sold to whom, and what they received in exchange.

An historical account book can be used to teach accounting. From our experience, such a book serves to motivate students to learn about the basic aspects of the accounting process. Using a book of this nature captures and holds the students' interest and enthusiasm. They are curious about how such a book was prepared, what specific purposes it served to the preparer, and how it is both similar to and different from modern account books.

Using this book can also foster interdisciplinary instruction – i.e., accounting and history. Both subject areas relate to an account book. Attempting to explain and understand transactions requires knowledge of the history of the period in which the book was prepared. Many college courses fail to integrate topics from one subject area to another. Using an historical account book to teach accounting can remedy this situation. However, for the student to adequately respond to the questions included in this paper, he/she would have to do some historical library research about this period in American business history. Therefore, considerable effort on the part of both the student and faculty member is required to use this approach.

Previous Literature

The Accounting Education Change Commission in *Position Statement No. 1*, "Objectives of Education for Accountants" (1990) asserts that the "history of the accounting profession and accounting thought" is part of accounting knowledge that students should acquire, which the Commission includes in its "composite profile of capabilities needed by accounting graduates."

Additionally, the Commission recommends:

Students must be active participants in the learning process, not passive recipients of information. They should identify and solve unstructured problems that require use of multiple information sources. Learning by doing should be emphasized. Working in groups should be encouraged. . . .

The case method applied to teaching accounting history promotes all of the foregoing objectives.

The Bedford Report (1986) previously included "history of accounting and its role as an information system in society" as part of the "knowledge of the accounting profession" that students should secure. Bloom and Collins (1988, 103) recommend that financial accounting concepts be covered in an historical context with a view to:

... explaining concepts that students often view as abstract, stressing interrelationships among concepts, and emphasizing how accounting changes reflect environmental changes.

Using an historical perspective can encourage students to consider the meaning of both historical and contemporary accounting practices – why they were developed and how change occurs in accounting. As the Bedford Report (1986, 92) asserts:

All professions change over time. They adapt to changes in cultural attitudes and mores, to shifting discoveries and technological innovations, and to a host of other developments that mark the evolution of societies

Coffman et al. (1993) assist educators in integrating accounting history into financial accounting courses by furnishing lists of historical articles, biographies of significant individuals in the evolution of accounting concepts and practice, and videotapes of interviews with such individuals. By using those media in the classroom, students can gain an appreciation of how changes have occurred in financial accounting and who has been instrumental in effectuating those changes.

Instructional Approach

This instructional approach could be integrated within the conventional financial accounting courses. Either taking the students on a field trip to an historical society or having them use the account books on computer disks provided with this case would be the approach we favor.

Account books provide a blend of accounting, history, and economics. Using such books as an instructional aid can lead to interdisciplinary teaching. The main problem or drawback associated with this approach is securing these books for teaching purposes from a local historical society. The books tend to be fragile, and thus have to be handled with special care.

If account books cannot be borrowed from historical societies in view of their frail condition to be used in the classroom, then perhaps the class can visit a society on a field trip and use the books or photocopies of selected accounts there. Moreover, historical account books could be acquired by university libraries as a source of knowledge about particular periods for use in teaching and research in accounting and history.

The teaching approach set forth here can capture and sustain students' interest in accounting mechanics, yet in a broader sense motivate them to pursue additional courses in accounting. Account books cannot be analyzed in a vacuum since the historical environment in which they were prepared reflects the way the books were kept. This paper includes seven "questions" for the students to ponder in order to evaluate their ability to understand what role account books served and how these books were prepared along with suggested answers to the questions in the teaching notes. The books can be used in teaching basic accounting techniques, including "debits" and "credits" and ledger accounting in introductory courses, as well as upper-level financial accounting courses. A contrast can be drawn between single- and double-entry accounting in terms of mechanics and significance.

The questions may be even used as a research case assignment for the class, depending on the sophistication of the students. That would be most appropriate, for example, for graduate courses in financial accounting. If the questions are used as a take-home research assignment, the students conceivably could work in pairs or groups and the instructor should limit the preview given to the students about the nature of the book

and its specific contents. If the questions are used as an in-class case, then the instructor may wish to cover more of the background about the account book and the nature of its accounts than otherwise. Whether this assignment is done in-class, at home, or on a field trip to an historical society, the students should work with photocopies of selected pages from one or more account books rather than handle the original books in view of their fragility. Copies of selected pages from this book, including the account kept by the merchant for Thomas Jefferson, appear in the Exhibits to this paper. Additionally, two computer disks are provided to instructors upon request containing the entire contents of this book.

Students should be given a list of references to examine in order to assist them in responding to the questions, including the following:

Chatfield, M. *A History of Accounting Thought*, rev. ed. Krieger, LI, 1977. This book examines the role of institutions and individuals in the development of the accounting in the U.S. and abroad.

Chatfield, M. and R. Vangermeersch, eds. *The History of Accounting: An International Encyclopedia*. Garland, New York, 1996. This book deals with the evolution of accounting thought, presenting short essays on a wide variety of topics and individuals.

Coffman, E., R. Tondkar, and G. Previts, eds. *Historical Perspectives of Selected Financial Accounting Topics*. Irwin, Homewood, IL, 1993. This book provides an anthology of previously published articles on the history of particular accounting subjects such as depreciation, LIFO, pensions, income taxes, and accounting under inflationary conditions.

Previts, G. and B. Merino. *A History of Accountancy in the United States*. Ohio State University Press, Columbus, OH, 1998. This is a comprehensive volume on the development of the accounting profession in America. The book takes a contextual and analytical approach to accounting history.

For specific suggestions on how to use this account book or a similar one in the classroom, see the **Teaching Notes**: “Lesson Plan for Using This Book.”

Background on this Historical Account Book

The Rare Manuscripts Division of our university library recently acquired an early Federalist book consisting of individual accounts receivable and accounts payable maintained by a general store owner in Lexington, Virginia. This book covers the period from right after the town burned to the ground on April 11, 1796 through December 1797. Accordingly, many of the transactions recorded in the accounts deal with hardware and rebuilding.

This account book is in good condition, having a sturdy leather binding with seven real spines, containing heavy paper adorned with T Stains and Britannia English watermarks. The papermaker Thomas Stains of Rochester at Fooks Cray, Kent produced and sold such paper (Gravell 1983, 261) for export to the United States during the time period in which this book was written (Gravell, 20). The pages are well-preserved, revealing a detailed legible account for each customer or creditor. The calligraphy is impressive as copies of selected pages included in the Appendix to this paper should reveal.

Some historians regard account books of the late 18th century as “casual” and “cryptic,” (Jensen, 194) when, in fact, they are meticulous and presented in simplified format. Typical of the period (Baxter 1965, 12), the Lexington account book is denominated in pounds, shillings, and pence. Although sufficient hard currency was

unavailable in the economy to adequately handle transactions, the pound system was used as the primary standard or unit of value. (Baxter, 12) Most transactions occurred on a barter basis; that is, debts were most often settled with goods, labor, or services rendered. Monetary settlement was the exception rather than the rule. (McColley 1964, 31) Often various commodities such as wheat acted as stores of value in barter transactions. Such commodities could often be sold subsequently at higher prices. Between merchants and farmers, a two-way flow of goods existed, which is clearly shown throughout the Lexington account book. Also, common to the period, this account book has a number of third-party, triangular transfers of goods and credit in which other persons are named, with the merchant acting as the intermediary banker. The preparer of this account book appeared to buy and sell whatever the "market" desired. If he could not sell particular items directly to individuals, he served as an agent in transactions. Account books of the period were prepared strictly for stewardship and chronological documentation.

Typical of account books at the time, this book consists of double-page T accounts, side-by-side--one page for the debits or left-hand side of the account, and the opposite page for the credits or right-hand side. While debits and credits suggest double-entry bookkeeping, only single entries are made in this account book. As Krooss and Gilbert observe (1972, 68):

... [A]s the Colonial Period wore on, more and more merchants adopted double entry bookkeeping. But even by the end of the eighteenth century, the practice was not prevalent. Many of the successful and far-sighted merchants kept sophisticated books, but many other successful merchants did not bother. After all, their business was small enough so that they knew where it had been and where it was going. Then too, there were no external forces, such as government and shareholders, to whom a report had to be submitted. Finally, in a period when non-money sales were so common, precise accounting was difficult if not impossible and in any case many merchants could see little to be gained from it.

Even though single entries are used, the equation underlying every T account applies, which is the most fundamental equation in accounting: beginning balance plus additions minus deductions equals the ending balance. No calculators were available in this time period, so all computations were manual. Moreover, very few individuals were instructed in mathematics. (Kulikoff 1986, 277) The sons of prosperous merchants and substantial individuals were usually the only individuals to whom such formal education was given, their fathers realizing that the ability to "cast Accompts" (Kulikoff, 195) would be fundamental to their achieving success in trade and commerce.

We have no separate general journal or single chronological record of all transactions. Instead, each account constitutes a separate chronological record of transactions with the party in question. For each debit entry, the date and a description of the transaction is given, preceded by the word "to," unlike what is done in contemporary ledger accounts. In similar fashion, the date and description of the transaction is given for "credit" entries as well, except that each entry is preceded by the word "by." Debits in this book signify that a customer owes the merchant or storeowner for a product sold, a loan, or service provided as well as the settlement of an account payable and the transfer of an account payable balance to the next ledger. Credits reflect the settlement of receivable accounts, the incurrence of accounts payable, and the transfer of an account receivable balance to a subsequent ledger.

Trial balances are not prepared, and the books are never closed. However, account balances are transferred to subsequent books. No separate expense and revenue accounts are used, and therefore income is not measured. Apart from the particular accounts in the

book, which are not identified as receivables or payables, there are no other balance sheet accounts; and thus no balance sheet is prepared at the end of the period. The following questions we suggest for coverage of this case in the classroom.

Questions

1. What were the objectives of this account book?
2. Describe the nature of the entries in the account book. Compare such entries with what appears in contemporary ledgers.
3. What is “international” about this book?
4. How are accounts typically settled?
5. What particularly interesting transactions do you find in this book?
6. From this account book, could you prepare an income statement, a balance sheet, and a statement of cash flows?
7. How does this account book reflect its environment?

Teaching Notes

This historical account book provides an instant motivator for the students to study the accounting cycle. Students ask all kinds of questions about the book (who, what, when, where, why, and how). Moreover, the students do not soon forget their learning experience with the historical account book. When they revisit the university as alumni, they often ask questions regarding the account book.

Lesson Plan for Using This Book

What follows is a lesson plan for presenting historical account books in the classroom. Using the computer disks for this book containing all the accounts and all the transactions included in each account, which are available from the authors free of charge, or using another historical account book:

1. Allow the class to examine the book with you as the instructor holding it while standing at a table in front of the room, or instead use photocopies of selected accounts from the book, with the students surrounding you in either a semicircle or circle. If you do not have the book, use the computer disks for overhead display.
2. Show them sample pages from the book, and ask them to describe the anatomy of a typical account in this book. Ask them to compare this account with contemporary ledger accounts.
3. Let the students look at sample transactions and explain to the students how they were recorded. Use illustrative transactions dealing with products and services furnished to other parties by the merchant for whom this book was prepared. Additionally, permit the students to look at transaction settlements involving barter of products or services. Furthermore, allow them to consider transactions in accounts payable as well as accounts receivable.
4. Ask the students to choose typical transactions for sales and purchases along with subsequent settlements of these transactions. Request the students to consider journal entries for such transactions in double-entry contemporary accounting versus single-entry as in this account book.
5. Using computer software, you can develop, for example, a list of all purchase transactions in the book dealing with various types of nails and other building materials. The same could be done, for example, for all sales transactions by the merchant involving books or clothing. Students would then get an idea of the magnitude of transactions in which this merchant was involved.
6. Ask the students to examine selected purchase transactions of particular items along with sales of those items to compare the cost and corresponding selling prices. In this manner, students can achieve an understanding of the markup percentages used by this merchant.
7. Request the students to describe all the transactions in selected accounts – for instance, those accounts that began as payables and later reverted to receivables (such as Thomas Jefferson's account) or vice versa.

How to Use the Account Book in Specific Financial Accounting Courses

This book can be used in the financial accounting courses from introductory to advanced as well as accounting theory at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. In the *introductory courses*, emphasis should be placed on the use of ledger T accounts, all of which have the same fundamental equation -- beginning balance plus additions minus deductions equals the ending balances. (One of the authors uses the account book in the second of two introductory courses at the undergraduate level to illustrate the use and balancing of ledger accounts.) Additionally, the types of ledger accounts used --

accounts receivable and accounts payable accounts -- should be stressed. The instructor could relate accounts receivable and accounts payable to contemporary accounting. For instance accounts receivable are valued on the balance sheet at a current cash equivalent, an estimated realizable value -- the gross receivable minus a valuation account "allowances for estimated uncollectibles" -- in modern accounting. At the time this account book was prepared, balance sheets were not used. There was no such thing as external financial reporting, nor were there external investors. The account book was kept to provide chronological documentation for the benefit of the proprietor of the enterprise, so that he would know his assets and liabilities. The account book provides a system of financial control, enabling the merchant to determine his financial status at any point in time in terms of the assets he has as reported in the debtors' accounts and the debts he owes from the creditors' accounts. There was no such thing then as external audits, in which accounts receivable and accounts payable are independently confirmed.

In the *intermediate course*, this book can be used to demonstrate the differences between single-entry and double-entry accounting. By the time students take intermediate accounting, they should be familiar with all aspects of the double-entry accounting cycle. This book can be used to illustrate how a single-entry accounting system operates. For instance, sales of products and services generate debits to individual accounts receivable without credits in this account book whereas in double-entry accounting the credits would be to sales or service revenue accounts. Neither cash sales nor purchases were recorded in this account book. With the purchases of products or supplies, individual accounts payable were credited without corresponding debits. In double-entry, the debits are to inventory or purchase accounts. . The instructor can develop the following table with the students:

	Contemporary Accounting (Double Entry)	Historical Account Book (Single Entry)
Sales on Account	Dr. Accounts Receivable Cr. Sales	Dr. Accounts Receivable
Purchases of Inventory	Dr. Inventory Cr. Accounts Payable	Cr. Accounts Payable
Cash Settlement of Sales	Dr. Cash Cr. Accounts Receivable	Cr. Accounts Receivable
Barter Settlement of Purchase	Dr. Accounts Payable Cr. Product	Dr. Accounts Payable

There are no expense, revenue, or other nominal accounts in this book. In fact, there were no accounts other than receivables and payables. The instructor should ask the students why that was so. The reason is that there was no compelling need for other accounts. Income was not measured. However, the proprietor of the firm did indeed "mark up" the cost of his inventory items to fair values prior to selling them. Students

could be requested to sample sales and purchase transactions in order to determine the markups used for different items sold. Also, in contemporary accounting, control accounts are used in the accounting books and the balance sheet for the total accounts receivable and accounts payable. In this account book, there were no control accounts.

What is also interesting about this book is that the individual accounts receivable and payable are not labeled as such. The students should be asked to determine which accounts are receivables and which are payables based on their balances, debit or credit. Then the instructor ought to ask them to rationalize why these accounts were not so labeled. The answer is that at different points in time, the same accounts conceivably could be either receivables or payables, depending on the transactions in the accounts.

In *advanced accounting or accounting theory*, students could be requested to differentiate the accounting cycle in historical account books of this time period from its counterpart in contemporary accounting. To start with the latter, transactions are first journalized in a general or specialized journal. Then the debits and credits are posted to ledger accounts. A trial balance is taken towards the end of the reporting period. Next adjusting entries are made in the general journal and posted to the ledger accounts. An adjusted trial balance is taken. The financial statements are prepared. Closing entries are made in the general journal and then posted to the ledger accounts. Finally, a post-closing trial balance is taken.

The accounting cycle for this account book was far less complex than its contemporary counterpart. Transactions were probably first entered into a "wastebok" in memorandum form, without using debits or credits. Then general journal entries were made in single-entry form, affecting only accounts receivable and payable, and posted to ledger accounts. The postings were cross-referenced by number to the wastebok or general journal, just as postings are cross-referenced today to general and specialized journals. Balances are next reflected in each account. There were no specialized journals, no trial balances, no adjusting and closing entries, and no financial statements.

Another point to emphasize in the upper-level courses, perhaps in *advanced accounting or accounting theory*, is the nature of account settlements. As is true today, accounts receivable were settled with credits, accounts payable were debits. But those settlements were usually not in the form of cash or notes. Instead, the settlements were generally in barter, including products, supplies, and services.

Using the disk for this account book, the students could be requested to determine the percentage of account settlements in the form of barter. Also using the disk, they might be asked to list the variety of products and services acquired by the merchant/proprietor for subsequent sale. Finally, with the disk, the students could be asked to develop an income statement from the data in the account book. However, such an income statement would not contain cash sales, purchases, and expenses incurred because those transactions were not recorded in the account book, and therefore the income statement would be incomplete. To find such transactions, if they were recorded at all, one would have to examine what was called at the time a "wastebok," a memorandum analysis of every transaction without debits and credits.

Unlike contemporary accounting books, this account book was never closed as such. There was no need for closure because financial statements were not prepared from these books. When accounts became filled with debits or credits, their balances were transferred to new accounts, either in the same or new account books.

Another interesting observation which the students could observe in the *advanced or theory* course -- particularly if the instructor takes them on a field trip to a local historical society that has a collection of account books from the late 1700s to early 1800s -- is the similarity in account book preparation, structure, and organization from one book to another. Why was that the case? The instructor should pose this question. Two reasons can be cited. One is the existence of uniform arithmetic and bookkeeping manuals, providing a how-to-do-it approach to preparing account books. Second is the apparent existence of bookkeepers who prepared account books for many different merchants in the same region.

Finally, in the *advanced or theory* course, students could be asked how to attempt to determine the identity of the merchant for whom this Lexington, Virginia account book was prepared. This question can be used to integrate accounting and historical research. The students might suggest tracing particular transactions from this account book to other account books or legal documents. For examples, tracing transactions from Thomas Jefferson's account in this book (p. 249, included in the Exhibits to this paper) to Jefferson's own account books (see pp. 20 and 32-33 of this paper); or from Cornelis Dorman's account in this book (p. 166 on the disks), which was partly settled in a local court (see p. 21 of this paper) by examining the court records.

Two appendices on the historical background and the history of Rockbridge County are furnished in the teaching notes for the benefit of the instructor, who may wish to provide his/her students with an historical perspective prior to analyzing the accounting aspects of this book.

Answers to Questions

1. What were the objectives of this account book?

Account books during this time furnished stewardship and accountability information for the merchant's own business. The individual accounts receivable and payable provided a record showing who owed how much to the merchant for which sales and how much the merchant owed other individuals for purchases. As a general storeowner, our account book preparer also served as a banker, cashing notes and providing cash loans as evident from entries in the accounts. Hence, this book was used for the exclusive needs of the proprietor--i.e., the merchant or general storeowner. Accordingly, no external financial statements, such as income statements and balance sheets, were needed in this time period, and so none were prepared. No external use was made of these books. There are, however, indications of taxes being paid.

2. Describe the nature of the entries in the account book. Compare such entries with what appears in contemporary ledgers.

This meticulous book consists of full-fledged, two-sided T accounts for debtors and creditors. An index of all the accounts appears at the beginning of the book. While single entries are recorded, there is no reflection of the other aspects of each transaction. Inventory accounts do not exist. The same goes for cash receipts and disbursements journals. The accounts contain chronological descriptions of all transactions with interested external parties. For each transaction, a separate description is provided, starting with the word "to" for each debit entry and the word "by" for each credit entry. The description of each transaction in such account books stands in marked contrast to the contents of contemporary ledger accounts. The debit entries in this account book usually reflect various kinds of products, services, food,

clothing, books, liquor, building materials, weapons, and cash loans. The credit entries show mostly barter transactions, including goods and services, but also cash, notes, returns, errors, as well as settlements by other parties as agents for the customers in question. Both debit and credit entries also reflect transfers to and from other ledger books. Sometimes it is noted either who “made” a good or a third party for whom a product was purchased. Additionally, in each account there are numbered cross references to detailed descriptions of each transaction.

Invariably, account books today are double-entry in nature. Descriptions of transactions are usually not provided in ledgers today. If descriptions are provided, they tend to be very briefly stated in a general journal.

Essentially an accounts receivable and payable subsidiary ledger without a control account, this account book, similar to others from the same time period, is single-entry in nature, but double-entry in format. Each transaction entry is given in terms of either the debit or credit, but not both. In discussing this question with the students, it is important that they realize that this account book is single-entry. Too many students and some faculty assume that the account book is double-entry because it contains debits and credits.

Accordingly, the debit or credit entries in the individual accounts receivable or payable in this book are observable. However, the rest of the transaction is not, though in most cases we can readily infer what it was. For instance, when the merchant sold merchandise to a customer, he debited an account receivable. The account to be credited was non-existent at the time, which would be a revenue in contemporary accounting. When he made a cash loan to a client, he debited an account receivable. The corresponding credit to cash was not made. When an account receivable was settled, the preparer credited the account in question without debiting any corresponding account. In similar fashion, when he purchased inventory on account, he credited the account payable, but did not debit an inventory account or any other account for that matter. When an account payable was settled, the preparer debited the account, but did not credit any other account.

In discussing the answers to the case questions in class, the students should be asked “what the number next to the figure for each debit and credit entry means.” This number apparently reflects a chronological file, if not a general journal, maintained for all transactions on a particular date or closely related dates. For all the transactions on one date, whether settled in barter or cash, a separate file number is used. Thus, the merchant kept a general journal of sorts for all recorded transactions, presumably with invoices and other supporting documents. If we were to use the computer to sort the transaction numbers in order, we would then have such a day-by-day record of all recorded transactions in each year.

Also, in discussing the case questions, students should be asked: “When were account balances transferred to subsequent ledgers?” The answer is when the merchant ran out of space with either the debits or credits in the current ledger book, not necessarily at the end of the calendar year.

3. What is “international” about this book?

This account book uses the British pound (£) along with shillings(s) and pence(p) as its money unit whereas some other account books prepared in the same period use both pounds and dollars. Students can learn about foreign currency conversion at the time: $1\text{£} = 20\text{s}$; $12\text{p} = 1\text{ s}$. The national American dollar was worth 6 shillings.

(McColley, 25) (A discussion of currency conversion for this historical period is provided in Appendix III.) At the time various foreign coinage circulated throughout the United States (Walsh 1800, 146-219) brought in by immigrants and through trade. The account of James Grigsby in this book shows a small debit charge “To change of money.” Also the merchant sold a wide variety of imported products including: molasses and brown sugar from the French West-Indies; brandy from France; opium from Smyrna or East-India; rum from the English West-Indies; Malaga wine from Spain; port from Lisbon; lutestring, ‘a glossy silk fabric’ gingham and blue-violet cotton indigos from East-India; dinnerware, green tea, silks, and natural yellow Nankeen cotton from China; and *lais* (lace) from Holland. Hemp (a heavy-duty cloth and rope) as well as wheat later were “waggoned” to Richmond for export to England and other ports of the Commonwealth.

During this period, for example, a very confusing interrelationship developed between the domestic and foreign textile markets, which is often difficult to understand. Certain fabrics, though of different qualities, were both imported as well as exported and sometimes, at different stages of production. This book, through its accounting format, provides neatly sorted out transaction (purchase and sale) and service (dyeing, carding, etc.) entries in abundance, which can shed light on this as well as other complex import/export markets.

4. How are accounts typically settled?

Since hard currency was difficult to secure, barter was the typical means of account settlement. While cash and notes were also used to pay account balances, checks were not yet used. Additionally, hard U.S. currency was new, and its value was uncertain in contrast to staple commodities such as wheat, which also represented a store of value. Even for most of the subsequent ante-bellum period (1820-1860), Lexington, Virginia had a combined barter-cash economy. (Swayze 1990, 131)

The retail-wholesale merchant in the barter-trade system used in the southern Shenandoah Valley evidently played a pivotal role. The merchant provided a market for farmers’ harvests, and was the primary source of imported goods. Most importantly, he provided liquidity and credit to the farming community. This is evidenced throughout this and other ledgers of the Shenandoah Valley. The merchants were able to provide easy credit and trade liquidity because British trading houses offered similar terms to American merchants. (Low, 309) Also, over the long run merchants received their payment in full usually through land transfers and estate settlements. In fact (Low, 312),

...It was a practice of the merchant to give good prices and easy credit terms until the planter was so involved that his debt could not be liquidated unless the planter sold some of his land or slaves. ...

5. What particularly interesting transactions do you find in this book?

Here is a sample of such transactions:

- a. *In the account payable maintained for Thomas Jefferson, Jefferson provided the preparer of the book with “saltpetre.” The merchant paid only a small amount of the account balance in cash “for tax of your land,” which Jefferson owned in Rockbridge county. Most of the payable balance was transferred to a new ledger book. With a view to integrating history with accounting, students should be asked how to determine whether this is the account for the famous American patriot -- i.e., what specific steps they would take to verify that. They might suggest examination of the land tax records maintained in either Lexington or Richmond, Virginia to observe whether taxes were*

paid by Jefferson on land in Rockbridge County. They also might suggest going to Jefferson's library in Monticello, Virginia to examine his records pertaining to this account. Jefferson kept detailed, copious records and notes on everything he did. (A complete analysis of this account in order to verify the identity of the creditor appears in Appendix IV. See the Exhibits of this paper for this account provided from p. 249 of the book.)

- b. In the account payable for John Adams (see the Exhibits, p. 80), Adams provided butter to the merchant for 3 shillings and 11 pence on April 20, 1796, who in turn paid Adams with a pair of shoes in the amount of 7 shillings and 6 pence on July 28, 1796. On April 2, 1797, Adams' account, now a receivable, was settled by a third party, William Alexander, who assumed the debt. We were unable to verify whether this was John Adams, then vice president of the United States. However, another John Adams was briefly employed with John Wise in 1796-97 as a printer in Staunton, Virginia, only a short distance north from Lexington (Evans, 399).*
- c. At least one account in the book deals with an estate, reflecting a wide variety of transactions, presumably in accordance with the estate agreement--including purchase of merchandise and payment for schooling and books. See the Exhibits for the account from p. 71 of the book.*
- d. There is evidence of slave labor and slave products used to settle various accounts, e.g., account receivable of George Egar, who settled his account in part by bartering a "Negro Bed Stead," which is a bed frame. See the disks (p. 2) for this account. Slaves were a valuable "commodity," not only as a source of labor (e.g., in raising crops), but also for their use in barter transactions. (Mitchell, 228) In the account receivable of James Bailey (p. 213), the customer received from the merchant a "calico" made by Negroes, among many other items. In the account receivable of John Findley (p. 214), the customer received "Negro cotton" from the merchant. See the disks for the accounts of James Bailey, from p. 213 and John Findley from p. 214 of the book. Also there is evidence of loans charged to other parties, but given to slaves -- e.g., the account of Jacob Lemon. Our merchant gave a "Negro man...Robertson" presumably cash as a loan, which was debited to the account receivable of Jacob Lemon, most likely the slave's master. See the disks for p. 192 from the book.*
- e. At least one account--Cornelis Dorman--was partly settled "[b]y public claim on Commonwealth," which means that the settlement was the result of a court order. See the disks for the account of Cornelis Dorman from p. 166 of the book. This event should hold the key to ascertaining who prepared the account book since the court records, which are still available, would reflect the name of the individual who instituted the court proceedings. Apart from following up on the partial court settlement of the Dorman account, it may be possible to trace transactions from other accounts to additional account books kept in the Washington and Lee University library.*
- f. Out of 610 accounts in this book, 24 accounts receivable or 3.9 percent were maintained for women, one of whom -- Mary Andren -- purchased not just household items but also tobacco from our merchant, and settled her account in part by providing "waggoning" services. See the disks for p. 75 in the Account book.*

6. From this account book, could an income statement, a balance sheet, and a statement of cash flows be prepared?

The accounts in this book have been inputted to computer disks to facilitate further analysis. Students can examine the disks and analyze the contents of the account book. Afterwards, since there is no cash receipts or disbursements journal, software could be used to select the cash receipts and payables transactions from the individual accounts. However, it would not be possible to prepare complete financial statements from this account book because a

significant number of transactions are not recorded -- those events involving purchases and sales that are immediately paid for in full with cash or barter. However, it should be noted that sales and purchases settled in part on the initial transaction date are recorded along with the settlements. Even if we had access to the previous and succeeding account books prepared by this merchant, we would be unable to prepare the complete financial statements from these account books. Software also can be used to highlight inventory acquisitions and classify such purchases by specific type (e.g., a particular nail). (See the Exhibits for the account of Matthew Houston from p.29 of the book.) Sales to individual accounts by type of item could be segregated, and the purchase cost and sales price compared to find the gross margin. Additionally, students can actually observe how low or high certain prices and costs were during this time period.

7. How does this account book reflect its environment?

The account book illuminates the historical and economic conditions at the time it was prepared. The merchant whose transactions were recorded in this book was a jack-of-all trades, buying and selling goods and services of all kinds as the book reflects. This account book uses British currency, typical of the manner in which transactions were initiated and settled. Barter was used primarily to settle accounts, essentially in view of the shortage of currency, as reflected in the book. Some international trade also occurred, indicated by sales of rum, opium, and other products. Products generated by slaves were traded as we have observed in various accounts. Account books of this nature furnished stewardship information for the individual merchant. The accounts show who owed the merchant for particular sales and whom the merchant owed for purchases. The books are for the use of the merchant, not for the preparation of external financial statements.

At the time of this account book, the Lexington area was characterized as an open, monetized barter system. It was open in that funds and products flow in and out of the market. The external markets were at work establishing all import prices and the export prices of agricultural commodities in an almost entirely agrarian economy. It was largely a barter system since goods and services were "traded." It was monetized since all transactions were numerated in terms of money, however scarce specie actually was. Individuals were multifaceted in enterprise, assuming usually several economic roles to take advantage of, and adapt to, constantly changing markets. (Lemire 1991, 68) With little real cash flow, the merchant and his customers adjusted through the use of credit and barter as cash substitutes to function and prosper in the Lexington market arena. By and large, this credit/barter system allowed for increased capacity utilization, which helped equate supply and demand sources, bringing the economy closer to true equilibrium by furthering agricultural production and providing the means to obtain desired goods from other states and abroad. Also interesting is that a sizable number of customer purchases in the account book reflect the same popular consumerism that swept England during this period. (Lemire, 67) This account book is replete with customers purchasing a wide array of little niceties and tokens of a genteel life in a setting only one step and one generation removed from the rugged frontier.

Conclusion

Opportunities for using historical account books in the instructional process should be pursued. From our experience, the students become highly motivated when they see such records, and are eager to tackle the case questions. Analyzing a case of this nature encourages them to think about the role of accounting and the rationale for account books of this nature. Moreover, using such books in the classroom can promote interdisciplinary teaching in accounting, history, and economics inasmuch as an analysis of these books should be done in historical context.

Using an historical account book in introductory accounting can be beneficial to both prospective accounting majors and other business majors alike because students will be motivated to think about the rationale for single-entry versus double-entry accounting and how accounting reflects the economic environment in which it is prepared. Accounting should be evaluated in terms of its context. The nature of accounting techniques and records vary according to the specific environment in which they are used. What is appropriate in accounting for one environment may not be for another.

Ironically, it is well recognized that most historians seldom use these account books (Perkins 1991, 488), although they provide rich sources of historical information. How many future historians are studying introductory accounting? They could be doing so to their advantage. These books can complement their other sources. Sociological, archeological, and anthropological studies as well as art history research could also make beneficial use of historical account books (Bowen, 1983).

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Appendix I: Historical Background

Driven largely by agriculture, mercantile trade, and merchant shipping, America during the early Federalist period experienced one of the greatest economic expansions in the history of the country. (Elkins and McKittrick 1993, 441) Since colonial times, American trade and, more importantly, property rights (Goldin 1995, 201) had been governed by rules and conditions set forth by Great Britain, which retained the position of being our major trading partner after the American Revolution. (Low 1953, 311) Additionally, the American merchant ship-building boom of the 1780s and the continued post-revolutionary strength of shipping privileges and partnerships between American and British merchants led to the stabilizing effects of the Jay Treaty in 1795. Once enacted, that agreement and the Treaty of San Lorenzo in 1795 proved to be of immense value to the newly formed Republic. The latter treaty resolved the issue of shipping for the United States from the Ohio River down the Mississippi to Louisiana and the critical port of New Orleans. These circumstances set the stage for unbridled western expansion (Jensen 1958, 234) for wider use of a mostly untapped natural resource base. (Nevins 1924, 423) By the middle of the 1790s, the new Republic was well-positioned to reap the rewards of independence. (Elkins and McKittrick, 440)

America moved from economic boom/bust cycles experienced throughout the period of the Confederation into a full-employment economy (Elkins and McKittrick, 441), practically without parallel in its history. Demand for American agricultural exports soared. (Jensen, 234) In 1796 alone, both output and prices paid for U.S. goods grew at approximately a 50% rate. (Elkins and McKittrick, 441) Manufacturing output grew at a slower rate than agricultural exports because it was more capital-intensive and required more highly-skilled labor. (Jensen, 219)

In February 1797, at about the mid-point of the period covered by the Lexington account book, issues pertaining to war forced Great Britain to go off the gold standard until 1820. (O Grada 1993, 148) In America, the use of Continental currency ended in the 1780s. (Jensen, 235) State bank issues of currency had limited success at best. (Jensen, 322) Barter prevailed. (Jensen, 325) On an aggregate basis, there were substantial flows of funds, but significant differences existed between the merchant/industrial and farmer/plantation classes. (Jensen, 234) Merchants held hard currency or specie, and the agricultural industry had the problem of transacting business on a day-to-day basis. Nevertheless, the two groups came together in equilibrium to accomplish a great expansionist era in which both parties profited very well. (Jensen, 240)

Appendix II: History of Rockbridge County

By the time of the Revolutionary War, the Shenandoah Valley was no longer a frontier of America, but a rapidly growing, highly productive, agricultural economy. Situated between the Blue Ridge and the Appalachians, the valley developed into the primary source of wheat and flour in the entire South through the last quarter of the century (Mitchell, 234). At the same time, the valley became a key migration corridor to the interior of the Carolinas to the south, and Kentucky and Tennessee to the west. (Mitchell, 17) The southern half of the valley was largely developed during this period as Scotch-Irish and to a lesser extent English and German immigrants settled there (Mitchess, 43), extending the Great Wagon Road, originating in Philadelphia, through the remainder of the southern valley. Rockbridge County and its seat, Lexington, occupied the critical southern end of the valley through which the migration flow to the south and west funneled. The primary driving factor of this socioeconomic expansion and consequent development was that frontier land throughout the Colonial, Confederation, and early Federalist periods was practically free and abundantly available to anyone who wanted it. Commonwealth land offices begun after the Revolution provided generous land grants and purchasing rights to all. At the inception of its land act, Virginia offered up to 1400 acres of land on its western boundaries for no more than \$20.00. (Nevins, 672) This together with the Treaty of San Lorenzo set the stage for settlement of the Middle West during the first half of the nineteenth century and solidified the continued importance of the Shenandoah Valley. (Mitchell, 58).

Farms in the southern valley were initially mostly formed from the division of the Beverley and Borden estates from the 1730s onward through the early 1790s (Mitchell, 32) These land grants were for tracts of land mostly under 500 acres each. Thus, from the frontier inception in the 1730s through the end of the century, the Lexington area was comprised primarily of small, independent farms. (Mitchell, 86) As quickly as possible, the settlers became yeoman planter farmers, and thus progressed from subsistence to commercial specialized farming, emphasizing hemp to 1783 and wheat thereafter. By 1800, roughly half of these farmers' crops were produced for sale and trade, and by far the dominant crop the southern valley was wheat. (Mitchell, 234) Also, trade routes to and from Rockbridge County during the last quarter of the eighteenth century improved dramatically, providing alternative routes that were more economically efficient to Richmond and the Tidewater, Virginia area than did the Great Wagon road, which was the only available route prior to the Revolution. (Mitchell, 191)

Rockbridge County and its centrally located main town, Lexington, were chartered in 1778, completing the formal boundaries of the Shenandoah Valley. At the time, approximately 4000 settlers lived in the area, and were almost entirely engaged in farming. By 1790 the census of Rockbridge listed 6548 inhabitants, and, by 1800, this count grew to 8945 individuals. (Mitchell, 99) Lexington had a layout by statute as a rectangle of 900 feet by 1300 feet divided into 36 lots. These lots sold off quickly, and a small community of log and limestone walled houses and buildings gradually took shape. By 1796 there were fifty male heads of households residing in the town (Morton 1920, 462). Although the population of Lexington was probably only 250 to 300 people, the town and county were an integral part of the Shenandoah Valley economy.

Unfortunately, on April 11, 1796 Lexington was virtually destroyed by an accidental fire. Fortunately, Lexington was rebuilt right after the fire. The Lexington ledger covers the period from the date of the fire through December of the following year. Thus, many of its entries reflect this rebuilding process and the overall economic momentum and strength so quickly established by the frontier settlers only one generation before.

Appendix III: Currency Conversion

McColley (1964, 25) indicates that “throughout the Jeffersonian period the dollar was worth six shillings or very close to it...” He uses this conversion rate to translate a bill into dollars occurring in Virginia in 1786. We know that by 1807 (Walsh 1807, 146) the dollar was worth four shillings, six pence. Is the 1786 conversion rate applicable to the period covered by this Lexington account book?

Since all transactions in our account book are denominated in pounds, it is necessary to use an additional outside source that applies this rate of exchange. The land tax lists of 1796 and 1797 for Lexington and Rockbridge county together provide the figures we can use. For 1796, the list is compiled in pounds; for 1797, in dollars.

Thomas Jefferson, the future president of the United States, is listed in 1796 as owning a parcel of land in Rockbridge with a value assessed at 50L (or 1000 shillings).

Since \$1 = 6 shillings

and 50£ = 1000 shillings

1000 s. / \$166.67 = 5.99880 or 6 shillings

This rate rounds to 6 shillings to the dollar. Also, all other accounts checked in this tax assessment list reveal this same rate of exchange and same degree of accuracy. Students may be asked to provide examples of financial documents that of necessity would use both dollars and pounds. Answers would include other account books and papers of merchants directly engaged in British trade as well as various public court and tax records. The land tax lists and several other historical public records are available through the Library of Virginia at Richmond. County records are also available at each county seat.

Appendix IV: Account of Thomas Jefferson

The Lexington ledger contains two entries, the payment of a land tax and a credit on the purchase by the merchant of saltpetre, from the account of a "Col. Thomas Jefferson." Now, is this our Thomas Jefferson of the American Revolution and the presidency of the United States?

The account is unusual in itself. It is one of the very few accounts in which a customer has a credit balance at the end of 1797. After the small deduction of the tax payment handled by the merchant on behalf of the customer at the end of August, the large amount of £ 21.s 16.p 6 is unused or collected by the customer, and is carried to the following ledger. The customer would have had to be of considerable means to let such a sum remain idle, and also would have had to have the intention of returning to this Lexington merchant in the future for the purpose of settlement. Thomas Jefferson at this time was a man of substantial means, and had every reason to think he would return to Lexington. In fact, throughout his life, he was a regular traveler through the town.

One of the most beautiful sights in Virginia is the limestone Natural Bridge at the lower tip of the Shenandoah Valley. Jefferson was awed by it as a young man. The fissure cut through by Cedar Creek is over 200 feet deep and 90 feet wide at its top. This natural arch is affectionately referred to often in Jefferson's writings, and he often took guests at Monticello by horseback or carriage to view this natural wonder. (Brodie 1974, 115) The only feasible way to the bridge from Monticello, where Jefferson lived, during this period was the road from Charlottesville through Rockfish Gap into the valley to Staunton. Jefferson would have then had to travel the Wagon Road through Lexington and then only 14 miles further southwest to the Natural Bridge. (Mitchell, p. 191)

Our ledger's entry for the tax on his land means that Thomas Jefferson would have had to own land in Rockbridge County. He did. So taken was he by the beauty of Natural Bridge that in July 1774, he purchased 157 acres in Rockbridge County which includes the Natural Bridge site. (Malone, 440, Vol. 1) He continued to hold this property into the 1800s. (Malone, 87, Vol. 3)

We subsequently traced these transaction records from the merchant's account book to Jefferson's papers in the Library of Congress. (See Bear et al. 1997) These papers reveal the name of the merchant -- William Caruthers -- for whom the Account book was prepared. In the papers are two letters, one from Caruthers to Jefferson, dated July 25, 1809 and the other from Jefferson to Caruthers, dated September 7, 1809. In the first letter, Caruthers asks Jefferson if the credit balance in his account book can be used in whole or part as a charitable contribution to Ann Smith Academy for the education of young ladies. In Jefferson's letter to Caruthers, he agreed to make a donation. Jefferson did not include the 1797 transactions in his own day account book until 1811.

As to Thomas Jefferson being a militia colonel, as war governor of Virginia elected in June 1779, Jefferson was directly in charge of the Virginia militia. (Beeman 1986, 45) He continued in this capacity until he resigned the governorship in June 1781 by not seeking reelection. (Brodie, 146) However, he actually held no official officer's commission. To preface his name with "Colonel" is technically incorrect. On the other hand, no other Jefferson is listed in the ranks of the Virginia militia from 1774 to 1787 (Sanchez-Saavedra, 1978), and no Thomas Jefferson is listed in records of Revolutionary War service at all. (White, 1995) Therefore, by 1797 with memories faded, it may have been for a country merchant only a slight mistake to have accorded the now Vice President Jefferson the rank of colonel, especially given the positive social status usually associated with being a member of the militia, particularly by frontier and settlement communities (Wertenbaker 1958, p. 55)

The date of the purchase of the quantity of saltpetre by the merchant, August 14, 1797, is also important. It implies that Jefferson or an agent acting on his behalf would have had to be in Lexington to negotiate the transaction. Jefferson left Monticello May 5 to attend a session of Congress in Philadelphia. He returned July 6 after much work and his attendance at a dinner party

July 1 set for James Monroe who had just returned from France a few days earlier. Jefferson then stayed at Monticello until December 4 when he left to attend the next session of Congress. (Malone, p. xxvi, Vol. 3)

By looking very closely at all of the elements of information contained in the account together, it is reasonable to speculate that the Jefferson of our ledger is the Thomas Jefferson of American history.

Exhibits: Graphic Images of Historical Account Books

Attached are six (6) excerpts from an historical account book.

249 Dr Levi

1797	Aug 12 To 1 House Bill	394	1	10	0
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Dr Joseph

1797	Aug 1 To Balance Brought from Feb	70	3	14	7
	12 To 2 papers pasted	394	0	2	6
	14 To Sundries as per Lt. and B. ch.	395	7	17	8 1/2
	17 To Ditto - doft - Ditto	397	0	2	1
	18 To Ditto per C. ch.	398	0	1	1
	19 To Ditto as per Ditto	399	0	4	3
	Oct 2 To 1 Packet Handf	454	0	2	9
	13 To Sundries	488	1	19	6
	21 To 2 pts Lf. fishy	474	0	0	0
	Dec 19 To 1/2 bush Linnen 25 1/2 bush	530	8	4	1 1/2
	20 To 1/2 bush Corn for 1/2 of Mr. Tompkins Ac	196	0	6	0
			23	10	8

Dr Col Thomas

1797	Aug 30 To Cash per Tax of 1/2 year Lond	408	2	6	0
	Dec 20 To Balance Brought from Feb	164	2	14	5
			21	16	6

Dunn O^m 249

1897	Aug 12	By Cash	—	344	15
	Dec 31	By Balance Transferred to L ^{ts}	—	164	15
				<u>508</u>	<u>30</u>

Crisby O^m

1897	Dec 31	By Balance Transferred to L ^{ts}	—	165	23 10 8
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£23 10 8

Jeperson O^m

1897	Aug 14	By 291 ^{1/2} Saltpetre	—	395	21 16 6
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80 D^m Joseph

1796	July 23 To 5/12 To a linen	33	10	-
Aug 3 To 1/2 coffee	60	2	3	
10 To bank bank	62	6	3	
9/11 May 4 To per lion	322	3	6	
June 9 To sundries	342	7	14	
Oct 30 To Ditto	283	1	10	
Dec 26 To Ditto as per Ditto	277		2	
			53	5

D^m John

1796	July 23 To 1 pair shoes	33	7	6
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D^m David

1797	Dec 22 To 1 Do Wholen Matt 6/2	544	3	1
	28 To 4 Quice paper	520	2	1
	30 To 1 Black Bottle	553	1	11
	To Balance transferred to L.B.	46		
			14	11

D^m James

1796	July 23 To Sundries	33	3	2
	Sept 23 To Ditto	110	3	15
	9/11 July 27 To 1 Riding Whip	379	1	1
			7	10

D^m Aber Archibald

1797	Oct 5 To 1 pen Knife	462	4	6
	10 To Sundries	466	16	10
	11 To Ditto	467	3	9
	17 To 1 fine Hat	490	1	16
			6	11

Coughlin Dr 20

1797				
Mar	9	By Cash	269	6
Dec	11	By Shovel Tongs & Coaster	523	19
	14	By 1 Cr	528	11
	30	By Centale of David Poff	534	7
		By Balance Transferred to A/B	116	2
				5
				10
				35

Adams Dr

1798				
April	20	By 5/2 Crutter	110	3
1798	2	By William Alcott Agent	288	3
				6

Dusk Dr

1797				
Dec		By Balance Paid from Job	44	14
				11

Milson Dr

1798				
Sept	21	By 25% Cash Pender	100	3
June	24	By sundries	35 1/2	1
Dec	20	By Balance Transferred to A/B	47	1
				12
				18

Alexander Dr

1797				
Oct	17	By Cash	170	6
				6
				11 1/2

171 Dr^m John

1790
July 19 To Balance of Num ————— 26 — 6

Dr^m The Estate of

1790	July 19	To Sundries	26	2	6	27
	April 20	To payments Made Oppen Fire	41	25	10	—
	Aug ^t 10	To Quire paper pt ^r L ^a	62	—	1	6
	18	To Cash paid Woodward Lawyer Duties	71	—	7	6
	20	To Sundries pt ^r Oatsy	173	7	4	17
	22	To Ditto — pt ^r D ^o 4	174	4	5	17
	26	To Ditto — pt ^r D ^o 4	173	—	5	3
	27	To Ditto — pt ^r D ^o Refuse Fire	70	4	14	47
	Sept 3	To 2 pair Stockings pt ^r Betsy	87	—	13	—
	6	To Sundries	90	2	8	—
	7	To payments To James Brown	04	—	10	—
	10	To 1 Bitter Guinea Cups & Saucers	99	—	12	—
	22	To 1 Blackm. Book for A ^c to	111	—	8	—
	Oct 5	To Schooling paid Mr Mullin	125	2	16	—
	5	To 1 Quire Paper for Boys at School	136	—	1	6
	Dec ^r 21	To 1 Ditto D ^o pt ^r Andrew	209	—	1	6
	Jan ^y 31	To payments to Mielcher of prov en A ^c	239	2	12	6
	Feb ^r 4	To payments Abraham Roads	243	—	19	—
	April 13	To 1 Shelling Book pt ^r Sally	298	—	1	6
	15	To A ^c paid Genl ^r Sawyer	299	2	14	6
	18	To payments To French An prov en A ^c	301	—	2	6
	24	To buying Handus	307	6	4	—
	28	To Sundries	310	—	—	—
	June 18	To 1 Shelling B. sh. pt ^r Andrew	344	—	1	6
	25	To a Bond paid Elizabeth Henry	352	5	8	3
	27	To payments Made John Datter	354	50	—	—
	July 17	To Sundries	362	—	5	—
	18	To a Bill for Schooling pt ^r Mr Mullin	417	3	1	4
	Oct 3	To Wending Rents of the om ^s pt ^r Cooper	458	—	6	—
	24	To Sundries	477	5	13	—
	Dec ^r 30	To Sundries as pt ^r Warte Book	554	20	12	10
				744	74	

Bailey & Co

1797
 Dec-30 By Balance transferred to P.D. ——— 40 — 6 —

Jacob Poff Jones Co

1798
 Aug-13 By Cash Rec^d of James Blair ——— 66 — 5 6
 23 By Cash Rec^d of Sam^l Muelly ——— 75 — 1 7 1/2
 Sept-20 By Joseph McCulloch ——— 107 — 1 1 3/4
 24 By Cash Rec^d of Philip Selan ——— 49 — 2 9 1/2
 Nov-4 By Cash Rec^d of Lambert for Rents ——— 168 — 2 8 1/2
 1797
 10 By Cash Rec^d of Mrs Hamilton ——— 173 — 3 5
 Jan-10 By to Cornelis Dormanys Apmt ——— 226 — 1 2 6
 11 By Cash Rec^d of Thomas Thompson ——— 227 — 6 11
 18 By Cash Rec^d of Capt Wendol ——— 232 — 6 —
 26 By Cash Rec^d of John Hoffman ——— 235 — 3 10 3/4
 March 24 By Alexander Trumbull ——— 304 — 6 4 —
 24 By Cash Rec^d of John Miller ——— 310 — 3 —
 28 By Dr Rec^d of Ephaim Lewis ——— 310 — 11 4 1/2
 June 24 By John Dutton ——— 385 — 4 1/2 —
 Aug-2 By Apamt of Hop ——— 386 — 3 1/2 —
 3 By Cash Rec^d for Rents of Little ——— 384 — 11 —
 4 By Cash Rec^d of Muelly & Co ——— 384 — 2 2 9
 Oct-3 By Estate of Ephaim Lewis ——— 158 — 5 —
 3 By Joseph Watson ——— 447 — 22 14 9
 24 By Sundries as per W. Bush ——— 505 — 7 2 1/2
 Nov-17 By Cash Rec^d of Rynthannans Executors ——— 516 — 10 6 —
 Dec-15 By Cash Rec^d of Mr Alexander ——— 524 — 4 10 —
 30 By Joseph Coughlin ——— 34 — 4 7 1/2
 By Balance transferred to P.D. ———

= 144 7 4