NATIVE LIFE IN MANILA.

Some of the Peculiarities of Dress and Queer Customs of the Filipinos.

ODD WAY OF DOING HOUSEWORK

There is not a great deal of fun in the Philippines, but one occasionally encounters a sight or an incident which brings a smile. Usually, these are of a type which must be seen to be appreciated. In wandering about Manila, particularly the new city, which is the centre of material life as the old city is of spiritual life, one should either have his nose at home or plug it up. The wear and tear exercised by the highways and byways upon the olfactory organs are quite severe. There is a fair measure of offense to the eye as well, but that instrument possesses a wider adaptability than does the nose. It resents less keenly. The novelty is ephemeral, but there is novelty for the outsider in the life of the chief city of the Philippines. The novelty gone, one rather shrinks from it all. It gets almost to border on the repulsive, so greatly is it lacking in inherent attractiveness.

A HIGH-BORN FILIPINA WEARING UPPER GARMENT OF COSTLY PINA—A TEXTURE OF PINEAPPLE LEAF, AS CHOICE AS THE FINEST LACE.

The native woman's shoe consists, usually, of a flat sole with a toe-cap. Sometimes the cap has room for all the toes, sometimes not. Often the sole is raised from the ground by wooden heels and sole—blocks like, but lower than those used by the Japanese. Stocking are not usually worn. The gait of the Filipina is a little outward curving swing from the knee, with a resultant side swing of the hip. There is, perhaps, a certain grace in the movement, but there is also a good deal of "scuffling," and a general appearance of being slipshod.

In fact, one gets an idea that the average Filipino, male or female, is only about half-dressed anyway, from our standpoint. The customary male body-covering is only an undershirt. Those of higher social rank and greater wealth wear also a cotton shirt, or a garment of gauzy texture of some locally made material. But the garment will be worn, like a coat, in the full measure of its beauty, outside the trousers. A higher step in the social scale brings the substitution of the coat for the shirt. A Filipino dude with a cane and a little "billy-cock" hat, a pair of black trousers, and a gauze shirt, worn outside of them, is a resplendent spectacle, and he has the air of being entirely conscious of it.

From our standpoint, there is the same half-dressed look about the women of the poorer classes. The Negrito woman of the mountains may use only a cloth extending from waist to knee. The Mangyan woman of Mindoro may wear a contrivance of braided rattan, which is even more abbreviated. These garments do not suggest the half-dressed. They are distinct. There is no suggestion of European costume. It is not so with the Filipino woman at Manila. Her garments are neither dress nor native costume. Pieces of cloth cover her from the waist downward. The shoulder and body covering varies in the number of articles and detail of construction. All are cut somewhat low in the neck, and on a plan which give them a "list to port or to starboard," which leaves a shoulder and an upper arm wholly bare. In the upper circles, there is exercised a greater care in adjustment, and a handkerchief, folded diagonally, is laid across the shoulders and pinned in front. This tends to steady the outfit and keep it in place. The sleeves are gathered at the shoulder and flare outward, broadly bell-mouthed to a little below the elbow.

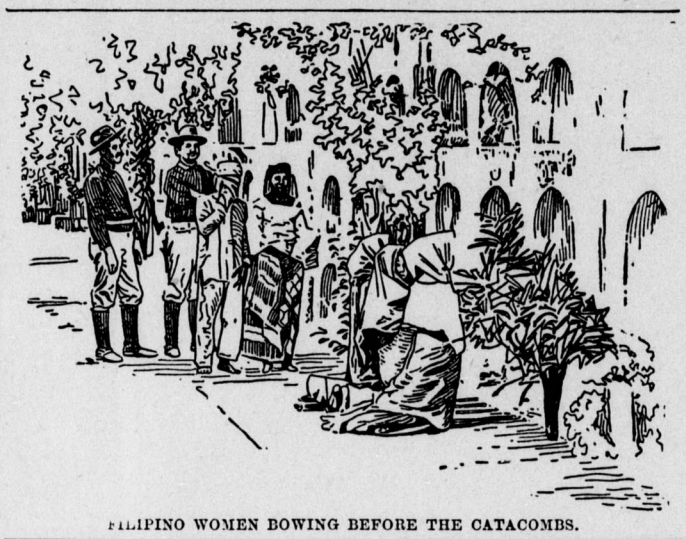
The Filipino may be said to work in driblets. Concentration for any length of time is not a national characteristic, there must be plenty of intermissions, and the work must never be of such a character as to preclude the smoking of the favorite cigarette. In house work it takes one native servant to accomplish each task of a different character. For instance, in a large house there is a "floor boy," whose duty it is to keep all the beautiful hardwood floors in a clean and shiny condition, and this is the way he does it: The dust is first carefully brushed up with a hemp arrangement which in its effects is a cross between a feather duster and a hearth brush. This is merely a preliminary to the act of polishing, a work of art which has been developed on original lines. Two large, soft cloths are laid on the floor, and the "boy," who may be a grandparent, firmly plants a foot on each. He next glides slowly back and forth on the floor, more like a man on snowshoes than anything else. Waddling along in his flimsy white clothes, casting an occasional look behind at his trail to see if it is sufficiently shiny, he presents a picture which is so amusing that you cannot help bursting into laughter when you see it for the first time.

The native is often barefooted; if not, he almost invariably wears the native slippers which are called "chinelas" or "zapatitos," and which consist of a sole and a toe. Many keep these on without fastening apparently by suction; others stick the little toe outside and hold the shoe on by this method. From long practice in this the little toe is bent in the form of a crescent, but the natives seem to have few ideas of physical perfection and do not object to such a trifle as a crooked toe. Filipinos at times seem much like monkeys. If they wish to pick anything up from the floor they do not find it necessary to stoop as we do; they grab it with their toes and convey it to their hand in that method. In sitting they are just as happy squatting on the floor or on the ground as on a chair.

Besides the natives in Manila, there is a large population of "Mestizos" and "Chinos." The former is the name for half-castes, the latter for Chinese. After being in Manila a week or two most foreigners find it more natural to use these native terms than the ones that they have been accustomed to. The "Chinos" are many of them well-to-do, being merchants or having some trade, such as tailoring. A great number of them, however, are coolies, and form a large element of the picturesque in Manila. If the Filipinos are satisfied with a few clothes, the coolies are quite content to wear almost none, and nobody thinks anything of it. They are to be seen on the street at any hour of the day, even at noontime, when the poorest native prefers a siesta to the most lucrative employment.

No "American" or "United States" express vans are to be seen rattling about the streets of Manila; the coolie in bulk represents the only express company there. Trunks, boxes and all sorts of merchandise, furniture from easy chairs and refrigerators to pianos are carried by the capable coolie by means of poles which he rests on his bony shoulders, and the tough bark of some native tree. If the burden is heavy it is carried by two or four men, being swung between them on the poles; if it is light and capable of division he places it in two pails or basket panniers which he balances at each end of his pole. When heavily loaded the coolie goes at a peculiar sort of dog trot, which consists of short stealthy steps and a movement of each shoulder with it. The coolie, like all his celestial brethren, cultivates the growth of his raven locks, though they seriously interfere with business. At home they never seem to adopt any kind of coiffure except the pigtail, but in Manila individual taste comes into play in this matter and the results are varied and interesting. Sometimes their tresses stream freely down their backs and no attempt is made to confine them in any style whatever.

One feature of the houses in Manila which is rather hard for the foreigner to get accustomed to is the presence of the great number of lizards which crawl around the ceilings and walls of the rooms at night. They are harmless, but the thought that they may occasionally lose their grip and drop down in one's face is not calculated to make them welcome members of the household. There are many scorpions about, but they keep exclusively in the dark corners of the house and yard and otherwise behave themselves well.



FILIPINO WOMEN BOWING BEFORE THE CATACOMBS.

MOVING IN MANILA—ALL HOUSEHOLD GOODS ARE HANDLED IN THIS WAY.

A FILIPINO COCKFIGHT.

THE STOCKS IN MANILA.
(A Filipino criminal and his jailer in a Manila house of correction.)

The Frilled Sheep of Africa.

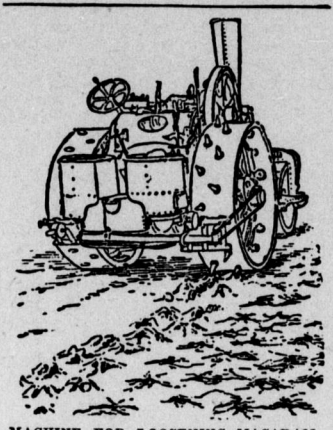
The sheep that inhabit the mountainous regions of Northern Africa up to Nubia is a kind of wild sheep which has received its specific name from the long mane which covers the fore part of the body. Captured young, it can easily be tamed and trained. The old bucks, however, are very vicious. These animals attain an average height of thirty-seven and a half inches, and the length of the body is from sixty to sixty-five inches, without measuring the tail. The illustration represents a specimen of these sheep living at the zoological garden in Berlin, Germany. It is not known whether the frilled sheep had any relation with the domestic animals of Africa. Skeletons of these sheep are found in the Egyptian museums, and these quadrupeds are represented in different old Egyptian designs. It seems that these animals have to be considered as tamed, but not as domesticated.

AN AFRICAN FRILLED SHEEP.

DRAINAGE OF ROADS.

Their Durability Depends on the Speedy Removal of Water.

In road building the chief effort should be toward securing the best drainage, as water and dirt are bound to make mud. A dry road is usually a good road or will become a good road in time by constant usage. The exception which proves the rule is the sandy road. A sandy road is a dry road, but not a good road.



MACHINE FOR LOOSENING MACADAM.

To assist the drainage the road should be first crowned and then about four to six inches of crushed stone, depending upon the amount of travel, put on, gradually decreasing a little in thickness as it approaches the gutters; then a heavy steam roller passed over it two or three times to set it; upon this about three or four inches of finer crushed stone should be placed and a steam roller passed over it again. A great deal of care should be taken not to have the road flat on top. This hard stone dressing forms almost a waterproof covering that will last for years if properly taken care of each spring by putting on some fine crushed stone.

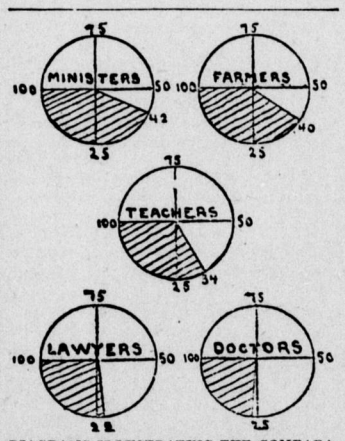
This covering will let the water drain freely to the gutters and leave a comparatively dry road in a few minutes after a heavy rain. This is very important in another way, as it keeps the ground underneath the road free from saturation and thereby makes a strong foundation. It is the natural earth underneath the covering that must bear the weight of the road. It really sustains in addition the weight of stone, etc., as well.

If this natural soil, or foundation of the road, is permitted to become saturated with water, either by water percolating down into it from the surface or from water rising into it from below, it has not strength to resist the wheels which at once sink into it, and ruts are formed. But if this soil foundation is kept dry or nearly so it is strong and will support any load likely to pass over it. If the water is shed from the road to the gutters and there remains, the water works its way into the earth at the foundation of the road and causes the injury above spoken of.

Speaking of the great importance of keeping a road in repair, let a wagon track, scarcely perceptible at first, after a shower stand full of water and soften the road at that spot, another wagon passing along later sinks further into the softened track, here is a deeper hole to hold water, soon it becomes a rut, then the rut develops into a pitch hole. The soil underneath is brought up and mixed with surface covering, the surface covering is broken down and forced into the soil.

Ministers Are Long Lived.

Clergymen have long been regarded by insurance men as much more desirable "risks" than are members of other professions. In the accompanying diagrams comparison has been made of the average age at the time of death of clergymen, farmers, teachers and physicians.



DIAGRAMS ILLUSTRATING THE COMPARATIVE LONGEVITY OF MINISTERS.

Out of the hundred in these classes it is shown that forty-two clergymen, forty farmers, thirty-four teachers and twenty-four doctors live the "three score and ten years" prescribed by the psalmist. Several reasons for the longevity of clergymen are poteut. As a class such men are likely to be temperate in their habits, and to have something like a system for the management of their work. Most of them are able to get more or less outdoor exercise and the large majority have vacations ranging from a month to six weeks, during which period they do practically nothing in the way of work.

The reasons for the long life of the farmer are equally obvious. Nature will do a great deal toward lengthening a man's days if he will only so live that he may see more of her. Teachers, as a class, on the other hand, are not likeiy to take much exercise, and do a good deal of their work under circumstances which make severe drains on their nervous strength. And, of course, the work and worry of the conscientious doctor is never at an end.

FOR FARM AND GARDEN.

Packing Eggs in Oats.

Eggs have been packed in oats for years, but the practice has gradually fallen off, as eggs stored in cases from the best storage houses have been improved in quality from year to year. Oats, if dry, will absorb moisture from the egg quite rapidly and are objectionable on this score. If the oats are not dry, the germs of mold are developed rapidly, and as the moisture is given off by the eggs the mold will grow, causing the eggs to become musty. In using oats they should be at the correct degree of dryness.

Growth on Newly Cleared Land.

The growth of young trees and weeds on land newly cleared is not readily explained, but the United States division of forestry offers the following: Sunlight is necessary in order that most plants germinate and grow. Plants like the poplar and the Canada thistle seed profusely and the floor of forests, in regions where these plants grow, is annually covered with countless numbers of seeds, largely brought there by the wind. The dense growth of the forest prevents the seed from growing. When the trees are cut down, the sunlight enables the seeds on the ground to germinate and grow into thrifty plants. The ripe fruits of cherry and elder are eaten by birds, and the hard seeds are scattered over large arrears. As the young plants are unable to grow in dense shade, they do not appear until after the forest has been cut down or otherwise destroyed.

Cultivation of Corn.

A Tennessee farmer asks when should one stop cultivating corn. If the cultivator teeth are not allowed to go more than about two inches deep, and as the corn gets large they do not go too close to the stalks, cultivation may be continued to advantage as long as a horse can get through the crop without doing material injury. Of course, this is on the supposition that the crop is cultivated regularly about once a week, when the land is dry enough. If one should fail to stir the ground for two or three weeks, and then should go in and cultivate, some damage might be done to roots that had grown up near the surface. But a regular, frequent shallow stirring of the surface can do no harm, no matter how long continued, and much good may result.

Weeds are kept down, much water is saved from evaporation, the air can get into the soil better and thus help the growth of the crop, and some plant food may be made available for that and the following crop that would not be of use if cultivation was stopped earlier in the season. There are tons of nitrogen, phosphoric acid and potash in an acre of almost any soil that you cultivate. But nature has locked up these elements for plants to feed on, and each year only makes a small amount available. If you want more you have only to work for it understandingly, and you can get a reasonable amount. And you can get it usually for much less than it would cost in purchased fertilizers.

It is only within a few years that learned professors have begun to understand how much plant food, in an unavailable form, there was in the soil, and to advise farmers to manage so as to get more of it. Short rotation, with its frequent plowing of the soil, and then long continued cultivation of the corn, potatoes, etc., will help about making plant food available for wheat, rye, crimson clover, or whatever crop may follow to occupy the ground as soon as corn, etc., die.—T. B. Terry in Practical Farmer.

The Causes of Chicken Diseases.

Nearly all of the diseases of chickens, summer or winter, can be put under one or two classes: inherited or caused by unnatural conditions of food. If we classify them thus broadly it may simplify matters for some so they can more intelligently stamp them out.

The first class some time in the remote past must have been under the second class; that is, all of the diseases that could be traced back to unnatural or unfavorable conditions of food. But that was so long ago that we must take cognizance of the inherited diseases. These are quite numerous, and it is difficult to stamp them out. The only sure way to do it is to breed from chickens that have no taint of inherited disease about them. The time must soon come when poultry raisers will pay more attention to this subject. At present we raise chickens with little regard to the health of their ancestors. Often the eggs are obtained from sources that are not well known. That is, the chickens will be cracked up as being first class so far as pedigree and breed go, but little is said about the diseases that have been acquired and are now hereditary. We must inquire into this question in purchasing breeding hens or eggs.

A disease that is transmitted down through one generation to another of chickens is just as apt to become epidemic as any which attack cattle or human beings. The best and about the only way to stamp out contagious or inherited disease is to destroy all the creatures that show symptoms of it, and then breed carefully from those that do not have it.

The other wide class of chicken diseases, which includes many of the inherited and epidemic ones, comes from causes that can generally be remedied. Filth, dirt, unnatural food and surroundings generally, especially in winter, are the primary causes of these diseases. Help may often be inherited, but it is also acquired by exposure to dampness and unsanitary pens. Leg weakness is characteristic of some breeds of fowls, but it is also due to overfeeding and a lack of lime-forming food. Bowel trouble comes from improper food, although this may in time be transmitted by inheritance. Lice come from poor winter quarters, and they may in time start up numerous diseases that will greatly increase the mortality of the chickens. So it is possible to go through the whole list and show that all of them are due to one or the other of these two causes. —Anne C. Webster in American Cultivator.

Form and Construction of Silo.

The round silo seems to be the ideal form. In this the entire absence of corners reduces the waste very materially, and the space contained in the silo is most economically used. After the round, the square silo is the next most desirable form, while the rectangular is the least desirable. The nearer the rectangular silo approaches the square, the better it will be. The smaller the proportion of silage exposed to the outside walls, the smaller will be the loss, hence large silos are more desirable than small ones. It has been found that the loss of food constituents is much greater near the exterior of the mass, while at considerable distance from the outside walls, the loss is greatly reduced. In all cases the silo should be deep in order that the pressure caused by the weight of the silage may be heavy, an important condition to aid in the exclusion of the air.

The first silos constructed in this country were made almost entirely of masonry. It was thought that solidly built and cemented walls of stone or brick were essential to the preservation of the fodder. It soon became evident, however, that wood silos when carefully constructed would make as perfect a silo, as far as the preservation of the fodder was concerned, as those made of masonry. There is one very material advantage found in the more solid form of silo. A well made silo of stone or brick is practically indestructible. On the other hand, the wood silo is more or less attacked by the acids of the silage, and this, together with the extreme changes of moisture between the empty and filled condition of the silo, causes a somewhat rapid decay. In all cases the silo should be firmly and substantially constructed. The pressure on the walls is so great that much care needs to be exercised in having the studding sufficiently heavy and close to prevent any tendency toward bulging. When building of wood, the interior should be covered with at least two thicknesses of boards, with one or two coverings of tarred paper between. A wood preservative made from gas tar, applied while hot, has been very successfully used. The more completely all of the woodwork is protected by some preservative the more will it resist decay.

A round silo made of staves is a new form which has come into use within a few years, and seems to have many desirable features. It is built on the same plan as the large water tanks commonly seen along railroads. The staves can be bought all cut and sawed to the proper length and bevel, and by the use of heavy hoops can be easily and firmly put together. Common steam piping, which has been drawn down and threaded to take a nut, may be used in place of the strap hoops. By passing the threaded hoops or steam pipes through a solid piece of oak about four inches square on opposite sides, and by using heavy nuts and washers, the structure may be quite easily and firmly bound together. If it is found that shortly after filling, the pressure is becoming very great upon the sides of the silo, the nuts may be unscrewed, and the whole structure slightly loosened. The staves will frequently so shrink as to leave air spaces between them, while the silo is empty, but there is no great disadvantage if a ready means for tightening and loosening the hoops is provided. With this form of silo there is some danger of the silage freezing in a cold climate, unless a cheap covering with a lining of leaves or sawdust is added.

In the construction of the silo one of the most important parts to be especially well made is the bottom. This should in all cases be first well stoned, then grouted with a mixture of coarse gravel and cement, and finally covered with a smooth covering of Portland cement. The essential points in the construction of the bottom of the silo are to provide thorough drainage and to make it a proof against rats.—C. S. Phelps of the Connecticut Experiment Station.

Stable Hints.

Have the stable well drained and sufficiently lighted.

A wet and foul stable predisposes to grease and cracked heels.

Dampness is very pernicious to horses, and induces rheumatism, coughs and colds.

Never have your horse's heels closely trimmed, nor the hair cut from the inside of his ears.

No more nails than are absolutely necessary should be employed to attach the shoe. Nails weaken the hoof by breaking and splitting its fibres.

Horses should not be fed directly they leave work. Then the stomach is fatigued with exercise, and they can not relish or digest their food till recovered.

Every stall should be at least six feet wide and nine feet long. This will enable the horse to turn around without bruising himself and to lie down and stretch himself with comfort.