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THE PHILIPPINES

AND

NEW POSSESSIONS

EDITED BY
WILLIAM JORDAN SEAWRIGHT

For Six Years a Resident of Manila.

This book also contains many photographs and much valuable information in regard to Spain, Cuba, Porto Rico and Hawaii.

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THE SPANISH ISLANDS ON THE OTHER SIDE OF THE WORLD—
THE ISLANDERS, THEIR NATURAL WEALTH AND THEIR INTENSE LOVE OF CRAPS AND COCK-FIGHTS—MANILA, ITS ANTIQUITIES, DIRTY STREETS AND IMMENSE VARIETY OF EVIL ODORS.

The Philippine Islands have belonged to Spain ever since their conquest in 1565, which was effected by a fleet bearing an armed force from the western coast of Mexico. The Spaniards did not accomplish their conquest without difficulty, for, although the natives were poorly armed, having only the weapons common to savage peoples throughout the world, they made a stout resistance, and all the military strength and strategy of the Spaniards were needed in order to subdue them. The islanders have since shown, by oft-repeated—indeed, almost continuous—insurrections, their objection to Spanish rule, and between 1565 and the insurrection of the present year it is said there has hardly been a decade in which Spanish troops have not been called upon to pacify, in Cuban fashion, one or another of the disturbed provinces.

The Philippine group lies so completely off the usual line of travel that, save in a general way, little is known of it or its people. Boys and girls at school learn the name of the cluster of islands, and, because these appear on the maps as mere dots, regard them as of no importance, and soon forget them and their location, so that among men and women of the present the question, Where are the Philippine Islands? is often heard, but not often answered. The last remaining Spanish possession in the East Indies comprises over 1200

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islands in the Philippine group alone, the greater number, however, being mere dots or islets, inhabited by only a few families. The most southern of the Philippines lies four degrees north of the equator, the most northern twenty-one degrees, so that the islands cover a very considerable portion of territory, nearly 1200 miles from north to south, and half this distance from east to west. Insignificant as most are in point of size, the leading islands are of very respectable dimensions. Mindoro and its accompanying islands have an area of 9000 square miles; Palawan, 5500; Samar, 5000; Panay, 4500; Negros, 4300; Leyte, 3000; Cebu and Bohol, each 1500; Masbate, 1200—the total area of the entire group being 116,000 square miles, or about equal in extent to that of Missouri and Arkansas combined.

The islands, like most others in that quarter of the world, are all of volcanic origin, and each has a mountain range as a backbone, generally terminating with a volcano at each end of the island, with two or three in the middle for good measure. Most of the volcanoes are lofty, but, situated as they are, almost under the equator, snow seldom appears on the summits of the highest mountains, although the uplands of all of the islands have a temperate climate, and during the summer are much frequented by the better classes of the population. Rivers of any considerable size are, of course, few, but small streams are very numerous, for there are two rainy seasons, and when it rains on the Philippines it rains in earnest, a precipitation of eight inches in twenty-four hours having been observed on more than one occasion. Such deluges as this might be expected to wash all the arable soil into the sea, and, in fact, this process of denudation is constantly going on, but as the crust of the earth is in volcanic regions in a process of upheaval, the damage done by the rain is counteracted by the gradual uplifting of the islands from the deep. They are, in fact, constantly growing in size very slowly but appreciably, for stone wharfs that were constructed by the Spaniards in the sixteenth century are now half a mile from the shore, and there are other evidences of the upheaval process.

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A torrid heat prevails all the year round. The mean annual temperature of Manila is about ninety degrees, which indicates that in summer the thermometer stands above 100 regularly every day, and hugs the century mark pretty closely during the night. Even in what is facetiously called the winter season a temperature of sixty-five to eighty-five degrees prevails, so that a Philippine winter would be deemed a tolerably warm American summer. The heat is rendered almost unendurable by the moisture in the atmosphere, for day and night, from year's end to year's end, the air is almost saturated; the perspiration of the body does not dry, but stands in large drops, which fall off on the slightest movement.

The group is rendered a valuable possession from the fertility of the soil and the variety and abundance of its products. Despite the fact that the natives work only under the most urgent provocation, and then only for so long a time as may be necessary to satisfy their simple wants, the plantations of the island produce an immense wealth. The government reports of 1894, the latest available, declared the exports of the islands to be \$32,000,000, while the imports were \$28,000,000, chiefly of rice, flour, wine, dry goods, petroleum and coal; the exports were of hemp and its manufactures, sugar, coffee, tobacco leaf, cigars and indigo. How greatly the amount of exports might be increased under a proper form of government which did not tax the energy and almost the life out of the people cannot be conjectured, but it is certain that with proper encouragement the Philippine Islanders would become an industrious and wealthy people.

The population of the Philippines is probably the worst mixed of any group of islands, even in that part of the world. The islands lie about midway between the continents of Asia and Australia. The Negritos, or aborigines, are closely analogous to the natives of New Guinea and Australia. But the Negritos, long before the coming of the Europeans, had become an unimportant factor in the population, having been driven back into the interior and mountainous portions of the islands by the Malays. When Magellan discovered the islands,

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in 1521, he found all the coasts settled by Malays. But the Malay Indians by no means monopolized the better parts of the islands, for among them there was a large admixture of Chinese, Japanese, Hindus, Siamese and other Asiatic coast races and tribes, so that the Malays themselves were a sort of composite race. To the present day the heterogeneousness of the population continues, and although the Spanish have political control of the islands, only about 5000 of these foreigners, and they chiefly officeholders, are to be found on the entire group. The fewness of the number of their conquerors naturally serves as a constant irritation to the natives; that 5000 strangers should rule, with despotic power, a population variously estimated at between 9,000,000 and 11,000,000 is not to be endured even by ignorant Indians, and in this fact is found an explanation of the restlessness of the people under the Spanish control.

The policy of the Spaniards in the Philippines is exactly the policy of the Chinese Empire—to exclude as far as possible all foreign commerce, all foreign ships and merchants. Only four ports, of which Manila, the capital, is the chief, are open to foreign shipping, and the restrictions thrown around trade by the selfish policy are extremely onerous and harassing. Spanish stupidity has, however, overreached itself; for, in spite of the restrictions upon foreign merchants, less than one-fourth of the business of the islands is done by Spaniards; considerably over one-half is in the hands of English merchants and the remainder is divided between the United States, the Netherlands, France and Germany.

The City of Manila is a typical Eastern metropolis. It is on the east side of a wide bay, which furnishes a tolerable anchorage, but not a secure place of refuge for shipping. The city itself is, as in most Eastern centers of trade, divided into a new and old town, the latter being fortified with walls in mediæval style, and containing warehouses, storehouses, offices and an enormous native population, while the new town, much better built, with edifices more modern in style and construction, lies without the walls. A small stream, which, dur-

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ing the rainy season, becomes a mighty torrent, runs through the heart of the town and divides the two sections. The old town has narrow streets, badly paved, reasonably filthy, as well provided with varieties of odors as Coleridge found the City of Cologne, teeming with East Indians of every age, color and previous condition of dirtiness, whose principal occupation seems to be keeping out of the sun, smoking cigarettes and chewing betel nut. Why they should smoke under a blazing sun, with steamy heat rising from every square foot of the ground on which they tread, is a mystery, but, probably, on the idea that they are already as hot as they can become, they puff incessantly at their cigarettes and take life as easily as the climate will permit. In the intervals of smoking they load and unload the vessels, most of the native population finding its employment about the shipping, while those not thus engaged have all the occupation they want at their homes, in the manufacture of the coarse goods known as manilla bagging or sacking and in the making of cigars, of which many millions are annually exported to China and India.

Of course, they have amusements. Man under every sky must have his fun, and the Malays are no exception to the rule. The principal amusement, from one end to the other of the Philippine Islands is gambling. Everybody gambles, and everybody devotes to gambling nearly all the time that he can spare from his meals and smoking. A game closely akin to craps is everywhere in progress. Wherever two or three Malays are gathered together, the dice are produced, and expressions similar to the well-worn "come seven," "come eleven," floating out upon the heavy atmosphere from behind the huts and the concealment of alleys, give notice to the passing stranger that the East Indian crap game is in progress. In the pursuit of his favorite amusement the East Indian is absolutely insensible to fatigue. It is said that in one native resort in Manila there is an "Everlasting Club," where the Malay craps have been going on for upward of 100 years without cessation day or night. When a player becomes so fatigued as to be compelled to withdraw, another takes his place, and

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thus the ivory shooting goes on unintermittingly. Men may come and men may go, but the dice-throwing and the gambling slang go on forever. Two or three times every month, however, the crap-shooting is momentarily forgotten in the excitement of a cock-fight. Cocking mains are common in Manila and the other towns, and every great feast day of the church owes part of its attraction in the popular mind to the fact that, after the religious services of the day are over, the cock-fighting begins, and is kept up as long as there are any cocks to continue the contest. The enthusiasm over the cock-fighting is of a more boisterous character than that displayed at crap-shooting, and the visitor at Manila on a church feast day has no difficulty in locating the building in which a cock-fight is going on by the shrieks and yells of the audience, who are encouraging their favorite birds. A Malay will bet his last copper on a cock-fight, and instances have been known of men who pawned every item of personal property in their possession and lost it when betting on a cock that they felt sure would win.

The vices of the seaports have penetrated the interior and demoralized the natives of the inland towns, so that the Malay, whether he lives on the coast or in the interior, is essentially the same. The villages consist of collections of huts made of wattles and reeds, thatched with grass; exceedingly primitive in character, they are suited to the climate, and quite good enough for the people who inhabit them, for why should a Malay take the time from crap-shooting and cock-fighting to build a house, when a double armful of reeds will make the walls and a load of grass the roof; so he lives in his grass hut, through which the breezes can blow, and when he is obliged to venture forth during the rainy season keeps himself dry by enveloping his body in a thatched covering, made of the same materials which compose his roof, and places over his head an umbrella-shaped hat, also of grass, which perfectly sheds the rain and keeps his cigarette from being extinguished by the falling drops.

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Of what use, he says, are houses of stone, brick, or even of wood, for the earthquake and typhoon are incidents of weekly occurrence in his life. His grass hut can stand the heaviest earthquake shock, and the tremors which bring down a stone building in ruins do not affect his slender structure. When an earthquake occurs, as it does in some portions of the islands two to seven times a week, he is amused to see the Europeans jump up and run en dishabille out of their houses for fear the walls will fall upon them, sits under his grass roof and enjoys the sensation, for even if his house does fall he crawls out from under his load of hay and with the assistance of his wife and neighbors sets up the poles and recommences housekeeping, as though nothing had happened.

The government of the Indians by the Spaniards is simple, but arbitrary. All the native provinces are divided into small districts, each with a petty magistrate, or *alcalde*, to whom the Indians go for the adjustment of all trifling matters; more serious affairs are referred to the Spanish magistrate, who settles them off-hand and from his decision there is no appeal. The Malays, however, always restive under any form of control, have learned of the civil freedom enjoyed by people of other nations, and, taxed beyond endurance, compelled to give forty days' labor each year to the government without compensation, they aspire to better things. The spirit of freedom has extended even to the country districts of the Philippines, and the rebellions against the Spanish Government are said to be so formidable as to defy the power of the Spaniards to suppress them. The last insurrection was put down, not by military force, but by bribing the leaders to leave the islands, but the natives have again risen, and, to judge from the accounts which have reached the press, the appearance of a hostile fleet off the harbor of Manila will inspire the population from one end of the Philippines to the other to rise in rebellion against the Spanish authority, and thus it is more than probable that the death knell of Castilian control in the Philippines will be sounded by the guns of the American fleet.

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MANILA AND MANILA BAY—DESCRIPTION OF THE PHILIPPINE CAPITAL—ITS MARITIME SURROUNDINGS AND DEFENCES.

Manila is not an ocean seaport, as is generally supposed. It lies nearly thirty miles back, at the end of a broad, nearly circular bay of the same name. This bay is on the west coast of the Isle of Luzon, which is the largest and most important of many hundreds of islands in the Malayan archipelago.

Before the American fleet could get at the city of Manila it had to make its way past two fortified islands at the entrance to the bay and past the fortified naval station of Cavite. Cavite is built upon a small peninsula in the bay, south along the shore from the capital, seven miles distant from Manila across the water, fifteen around the curve of the shore. Cavite lies somewhat on the inner side of the peninsula upon which it is built, thus affording a safe harbor from the terrible monsoons, which was more than could be said of Manila until a breakwater was built off shore in the bay a few years ago.

The two small islands at the entrance to the bay would be the chief stumbling-blocks in the way of Admiral Dewey, it was generally believed, for the Spaniards have been fortifying them in haste in the past few weeks, using both guns and torpedoes from the fleet at Cavite. They are small but rather precipitous islets, and with long-range guns would easily command the entrance to the bay. The larger one, Corregidor, sometimes called Berivales, is only two miles from the mainland at the north end. The other, Ceballos, is a few miles further out, and between them they divide the channel into three parts. It is said to be impracticable to plant mines in these channels, for the reason that the depth is great and the tides are heavy.

A recent traveler writes as follows: "No description can paint the magnificence of the scene one discovers when, after having made the channel and left behind the Isle of Corregidor, you sail out on a big blue sea, bordered almost in a circle by a chain of forest-covered mountains, while straight ahead of you lies the capital of the Philippines. Nothing else I

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have ever seen can compare with it, unless it be the harbor of Rio Janeiro."

Manila itself is not an attractive city. It is rather low-lying, though mountains rise immediately behind it. The city is divided by the river Pasig, which is fourteen miles long, and the outlet for a large inland lake. On the south bank is the old walled town, commonly called the Plaza de Manila, while on the north bank is Binondo, the business part of Manila, and San Miguel, its fashionable quarter. These are intersected with canals, much like Venice. Beyond are suburban villages containing pretty villas of European residents, including a fine country house for the governor-general, who also has two palaces in San Miguel and an old one in the walled portion. The population of the walled town is 12,000, and of the newer portion about 300,000.

The public buildings of Manila are divided between the two quarters. In Binondo is a famous cigar factory, covering six acres and giving employment to 10,000 women; a granero, or large military storehouse; the Escolta, or big Chinese bazar, and the hospital of St. Lazarus. In the old town, whose citadel or fort is called St. Iago, the governor's palace, the town hall and the cathedral are in a large square in the center of which is a statue of Charles IV of Spain, surrounded by a garden of flowers. The other buildings near are the mint and museum, civil and military hospitals, the University of St. Thomas, which has 500 students, an academy of arts, an arsenal, a prison and numerous barracks, monasteries and convents.

Beyond the walls is an esplanade, with a promenade facing the bay, where several military bands play twice a week to a large concourse of people. "This forms the chief outdoor attraction for the elite," says a recent visitor to Manila. "There are two theaters, occasionally visited by companies from Spain, but there is a want of the cafes and bull-fights so associated with Spanish life. Evening receptions are given by the Spaniards, where cards and music serve to while away the time, and the well-to-do Tagalo, or native, besides imitating his masters in all their amusements, has another to which he

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is passionately addicted—cock-fighting. This is under government control, and can only be held in licensed pits, which yield a revenue of nearly \$200,000 annually."

The foreign commerce of Manila is large, the exports being about \$30,000,000 annually. Chinese merchants largely control the trade, which is carried on in British and German steamers. Manila hemp, sugar, cigars and coffee are the chief articles of export. Mother of pearl, gum and sapan wood are also sent away in considerable quantities. The United States and Great Britain are the greatest buyers.

CONSUL WILLIAMS' REPORT.

The following report upon the Philippine Islands was made by Mr. Oscar F. Williams, Consul at Manila, and is dated February 28, 1898:

"Local and European authorities estimate the area of the Philippine Islands at 150,000 square miles, and their population at 8,000,000 to 10,000,000 people. The island of Luzon, on which the city of Manila is situated, is larger than New York and Massachusetts, and has a population of 5,000,000; and the island of Mindanao is nearly, if not quite, as large. There are scores of other islands, large and very populous. An idea of the extent of the Philippines may be formed when it is stated that the six New England States, New York, New Jersey, Maryland and Delaware have 10 per cent. less area. In addition to the Philippine Islands, the Caroline, Ladrone and Sooloo groups are considered under the jurisdiction of this consulate (Manila). I have received a petition requesting that a consular agency be established at Yap, in the Caroline group.

"In all, there are about 2000 islands in a land and sea area of about 1,200 miles of latitude and 2,400 miles of longitude.

EXPORTS.

"During the quarter ending December 31, 1897, there were exported from these islands to the United States and Great Britain 216,898 bales of hemp (280 pounds per bale), of which 138,792 bales went to the United States and only 78,106 bales to Great Britain. During the year 1897 there was an increase

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in the export of hemp from the Philippines to continental Europe of 19,741 bales; to Australia, 2192 bales; to China, 28 bales; to Japan, 2628 bales, and to the United States, 133,896 bales—a total increase of 158,485 bales, while to Great Britain there was a decrease of 22,348 bales.

"Thus, of increased shipments from the Philippines, those to the United States were 544 per cent. greater than to all other countries combined.

"Of the total exports of hemp from the Philippines for the ten years ended 1897, amounting to 6,528,965 bales (914,055 tons), 41 per cent. went to the United States.

"During the same years the Philippine Islands exported to the United States and to Europe 1,582,904 tons of sugar, of which 875,150 tons went to the United States, 606,391 tons to Great Britain, and 41,362 tons to continental Europe, showing that of the total exports more than 55 per cent. went to the United States.

"At the current values in New York of hemp (four cents per pound) and of raw sugar (three and three-eighths cents per pound), the exports of these two products alone from these islands to the United States, during the ten years under review, amounted to \$89,263,722.80, or an average of nearly \$8,926,372* per year.

"Data as to cigars, tobacco, copra, woods, hides, shells, indigo, coffee, etc., are not now obtainable; but a conservative estimate would so raise the above figures as to show United States imports from these islands to average about \$1,000,000 per month. Today I have authenticated invoices for export to United States amounting to \$138,066.12.

"The following statement of the general trade of the Philippine Islands is taken from Review of the World's Commerce, 1896-97, shortly to be published by the Bureau of Foreign Commerce.

*According to the returns of the Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department, the annual imports into the United States from the Philippine Islands amounted to \$74,150,284 during the ten years ended June 30, 1897, or \$7,415,028 per year. For the seven years ended with 1891 the imports averaged \$8,367,611 per year, but for the last three years the imports fell off nearly one-half, amounting to only \$4,731,366, \$4,982,857 and \$4,583,740, in 1895, 1896 and 1897 respectively.

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"According to a British Foreign Office report (No. 1932, annual series, 1897), the total imports into the islands in 1896 were valued at \$10,631,250, and the exports at \$20,175,000. The trade with several of the most important countries (compiled from the respective official statistics) was:

Country.	Imports.	Exports.
Great Britain.....	\$2,467,090	\$7,467,500
Germany	744,928	223,700
France	1,794,900	1,987,900
Belgium	272,240	45,660
United States.....	162,446	4,982,857
China	103,680	13,770
Japan*	98,782	1,387,009

*In 1897.

"About 13 per cent. of the imports, says the Statesman's Year Book, come from Spain. Three-fifths of the imports from Great Britain consist of cotton manufactures and yarn.

"Details of trade with the United States during the last two years are given by the United States Treasury as follows:

ARTICLES.	1896.		1897.	
	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.
Imports.				
Hemp, manilla..... tons..	35,584	\$2,499,434	38,533	\$4,701,681
Cane sugar (not above No. 16)..... lbs..	124,075,344	2,270,862	74,493,577	1,199,202
Fiber, vegetable, not hemp..... tons..	872	68,838	5,450	384,155
Fiber, vegetable, manufactures of.....		26,428		22,379
Straw, manufactures of.....		81,352		72,132
Tobacco..... lbs..	1,280	808	2,745	2,358
Miscellaneous.....		35,035		1,087
Total.....		\$1,962,897		\$4,376,799
Exports.				
Cotton, manufactures of.....		9,714		2,164
Oils, mineral, refined..... gallons..	1,130,769	89,958	600,837	45,908
Varnish..... gallons..	1,128	1,500	2,483	2,739
All other.....		61,274		44,280
Total.....		\$162,446		\$51,397

"It should be noted that our trade is really much larger (especially in the item of exports to the islands) than is indi-

cated by the above figures. Large quantities of provisions (flour, canned goods, etc.) are sent to Hong Kong or other ports for transshipment, and are credited to those ports instead of to Manila.

"In a report published in Highways of Commerce, Consul Elliott, of Manila, says that there is but one railway in the islands—from Manila to Dagupin—a distance of 123 miles. It is single track, and well built, steel rails being used its entire length, the bridges being of stone or iron and the station buildings substantial. English engines are used, which make forty-five miles per hour. The government assisted in the construction of the road by making valuable concessions of land with right of way its entire length and by guaranteeing 8 per cent. per year upon the stock of the road for a period of ninety-nine years, when it is to become state property. So far, adds the Consul, the road has paid more than 10 per cent. per annum to shareholders.

"Mr. Elliott also states that the Compania Transatlantica (Manila-Liverpool) maintains a monthly service to Europe; that there are four lines of steamers to Hong Kong and many local lines plying between Manila and the provinces, the largest having twenty-eight steamers of 25,000 tonnage.

"Consular Reports No. 203 (August, 1897.) quotes from a report published in the Bulletin de la Societe de Geographie Commerciale (Paris, 1897. Vol. XIX, No. 4) the following description of the industrial condition of the Philippine Islands:

"There are about 25,000 Europeans resident in the islands (the total population is nearly 8,000,000), of course, not counting the troops. Some 12,000 are established in the capital, Manila, the center of the colonial government. English, Spanish and German houses are engaged in trade, advancing money to the natives on their crops. Such business methods involve risks and necessitate large capital in the beginning, but the profits are immense. The land is fertile and productive, and lacks only intelligent cultivation. Abaca (Manila hemp) is one of the chief sources of wealth of the country. Sugar-cane does not give as satisfactory returns, owing largely

to the ignorance of planters. The average production is 178,000,000 kilograms (178,186.96 tons), while that of Cuba is equal to 720,000,000 kilograms. The sugar goes almost entirely to Japan, England and the United States. It is of poor quality and very cheap. The cultivation of tobacco is one of the most important industries, although it is capable of much greater development. The native coffee, although not equal to the Mocha or Bourbon varieties, has a fine aroma. It goes chiefly to Spain. Cocoa trees grow in abundance, and the oil is used for lighting houses and streets. The indigo is famous for its superior qualities. The inhabitants are apathetic to a degree that is noticeable, even in these countries, where everyone is averse to exertion. The women have long and slender fingers, remarkably fine and sensitive, and well adapted to their work. The hats and cigarette-holders they make and the articles they embroider are models of delicacy. Cotton-spinning and work in bamboo are among the chief industries."



THE RIVER MANILA.

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INTERESTING FACTS FROM AN AMERICAN RESIDENT ON THE ISLANDS.

[Manley R. Sherman is one of the most thoroughly posted young Americans concerning the resources of the Philippine Islands. He lived in Manila two years, and on the Island of *Mindanao*. His business took him almost everywhere in the industrial regions of the Philippine archipelago, and he has naturally a mass of facts and observations that few people other than the Spanish lords in the Philippines have been able to get.—EDITOR.]

"The American people generally have no idea of the marvelous resources of the Philippine archipelago," said Mr. Sherman. "Indeed, those who have posted themselves concerning these fertile acquisitions to Uncle Sam's domain have an inadequate idea of the great possibilities that there are in those islands for ambitious, pushing and enterprising Americans. I shall go back to Manila to remain just as soon as General Merritt establishes peace there and the natives settle down to business under the Stars and Stripes. Some enormous fortunes are going to be made in those islands during the next generation. The wealth production of Claus Spreckles, the Bishops, Alexanders, Smiths and the dozen other Americans in the development of the Hawaiian Islands in the last three decades will be easily duplicated in the Philippines in a similar period.

"People do not realize yet how large the Philippine archipelago is. There are about 1800 islands in all. Luzon itself is the size of Illinois, and has a population of 3,000,000. Mindanao has an area of 33,000 square miles and a population of 2,000,000. About 8,000,000 more people are scattered among the other 1800-odd islands, some of which are only half an acre in area and have only a few families of savages living on

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them. The climatic conditions in the Philippines will be something the United States soldiers have never before experienced. The tropical archipelago reaches within four degrees of the equator on the south, and is in the same latitude as Venezuela. Some 200 of the islands, varying in area from fifty to 600 square miles, have never been explored, and contain the fiercest and most barbarous races on this globe. A dozen distinct and different tongues are spoken in the Philippines. Spain has never tried to govern any of the group of islands outside of Luzon, Mindanao, Sulu, Samar and Negros.

"Hemp is the greatest article of export in the Philippines, and the official documents in Manila show that in the last decade about 40 per cent. of all the hemp grown on the islands has been sent to the United States. One firm in Boston paid an average of three cents a pound in Manila for 79,000 tons of hemp in the ten years previous to last January. During the same period the total quantity of hemp exported from the Philippines amounted to exactly 914,100 tons. For a dozen years the importations of hemp into the United States from the Philippines have averaged \$2,400,000 a year. There are immense possibilities in hemp culture in the Philippines, now that the grip of Spain on every legitimate industry has been shaken off. What the Yankee sugar planters have done in the fertile valleys of Hawaii in the last generation may be duplicated in hemp in Luzon, Mindanao and Samar.

"Then there are some great possibilities also in the line of fortune-making in the sugar industry in the Philippines. The annual imports of raw sugar into the United States from the Philippines during the last few years have averaged \$2,150,000. The total annual exports of raw sugar from the Philippines have averaged \$4,500,000 for some time. Sugar-cane grows like magic in the well-watered valleys of the five chief islands of the group. The decomposed lava soil from the extinct volcanoes that run north and south through the larger Philippine Islands, side by side with the active earthquake-making volcanoes, has exactly the qualities for growing sugar-cane. The cane comes to maturity from seed in one year. The plantations on Samar hold the world's record for high production



NATIVE SHARPSHOOTERS—LA TRINIDAD, PHILIPPINES.

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of rich cane to the acre. I have known Spanish planters on Samar and Luzon to make a clear profit of \$300 an acre in one year. The Negritos laborers get from five to ten cents a day for cultivation. Nature does the rest. With American invention and energy many a man can become a millionaire in sugar-growing in the Philippines. All the agricultural methods in the Philippines are 300 years behind the times. Ox carts are used for transportation, and oxen for plowing. I have seen planters using a bent stick or a prod with an iron point for a plow. In crushing the cane and extracting the saccharine juice methods 500 years old are still employed.

"Indigo plants grow in incredible luxuriance throughout the Philippines. The soil is so fertile that the least labor gives surprising results. Indigo plants yield double the capital used. Many of the richest families in Manila—people who live in Madrid and Paris about one-third of the time and keep up royal establishments—have made their wealth in the indigo trade. The Alvarado family owns an indigo plantation of about 25,000 acres and an indigo works on Samar, and it derives a revenue of fully \$40,000 a year. An American with half an eye can see many improvements and economies, but he would not be thanked for suggesting them to any Philippine or Spaniard.

"Cocoanut trees are a bigger resource than one might suppose. The fruit is demanded in the markets of the world as much as oranges and lemons. Every part of the tree is useful. The juices make oil and wine, the fiber of the plant is woven into cloth, and the husks of the nuts are shipped by the boat-load to England for doormats and other household articles. Profits of \$250 an acre from a grove of cocoanuts are common, but in this land of idleness and procrastination the people are so thriftless that they never rise to meet the market by extensive plantings of cocoanut trees. To the native the cocoanut tree is a veritable staff of life. It will furnish his food, intoxicant, oil, vinegar, vessels, brushes, fish lines, ropes, fuel and water. A cocoanut produces fruit when six years old in the Philippines. I know a young Englishman who spent about \$5000 in starting a cocoanut grove seventeen miles from

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Cavite, on Luzon. The Spanish were so afraid he would induce other enterprising British to come and do like him that they ruined him in a few years by all manner of imposts and exactions. For instance, he had to pay about \$100 to the government at Manila before he picked his first crop, and he had to pay an export duty of 10 per cent. extra because he was not a native.

"To illustrate how marvelously fertile is the soil in the Philippines let me tell about the coffee plants. About seventy years ago several Spaniards began the cultivation of coffee in a little valley away at the north of Luzon. They were the first coffee plants ever known on the island. A little wild animal resembling the civet of Africa (a cross between a weasel and a fox) began eating and scattering the growing coffee berries. In a few years the plants growing from the scattered coffee berries were over all that part of Luzon. For years past there have been wild coffee bushes all over the island, and all came from the civets' scattering of the coffee seeds. Thousands of pounds are gathered by the natives from these wild bushes.

"Nowhere else does rice grow so prolifically as in the Philippines. The Chinese control the rice industry of the island, but the Negritos do the work. There are a dozen Chinese millionaires in Manila, and they have made their wealth chiefly in the rice and sugar trade. Under American management the profits of rice-growing could be easily enlarged. I think I am conservative in saying that by the crude, lazy ways of harvesting 30 per cent. of the yield is wasted.

"Tobacco grows on all the principal islands. Vanilla, pepper and cassia, which are cultivated elsewhere in the world, grow wild and in great clumps on the Philippine Islands. Wheat and corn may be grown at the extreme north of the archipelago. Oranges, lemons and guavas flourish in the forests and back hills; not the least horticultural science has been exerted toward making superior varieties of these fruits. I have seen in the dense, tropical forests of Mindanao thousands of the trees of costly woods, as logwood, ebony, mahogany and ironwood. Great fortunes await the men who shall get a concession to go and operate there. Sailors who have ventured



MAIN STREET, MANILA.

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far into these forests tell me that the ebony and mahogany trees there are the finest they have ever seen. Pineapples and bananas abound in damp spots, and are a source of revenue on some islands, but the Central American products have kept these fruits out of the American markets.

"I doubt if any islands have such a countless variety of animals and flying and creeping things as the Philippines. A stubby variety of horses, fat and furry ponies, are used in Manila and towns. Oxen and a species of buffalo are used for heavy draught purposes. The mountains teem with deer. Goats, swine, rabbits and sheep abound in the mountains and forests in all degrees of wildness. The wild hogs on Samar have sometimes killed natives. There are several hundred varieties of birds, and about twenty that are not known elsewhere. Parrots are more common in the backwoods than robins are here. Among the forests close to the coasts are found peculiar birds of the swallow tribe. They make the strange food that Chinese are so fond of—the bird's nest. Hundreds of natives earn their sole livelihood by hunting at certain seasons for these birds' nests and selling them to the Chinese. Of monkeys there are a dozen varieties. Bats are simply enormous. They are of the vampire variety.

"The seacoast is rich in many forms of fish. The natives, like the Hawaiians, know how to catch them, too. All the natives in the Philippines that I ever knew about (except the rich and aristocratic people in Manila) are fishers. They catch a species of mullet there that is delicious. When these fish come up the coast from the China Sea in schools the natives will abandon any occupation and even leave a sick hammock to go out and angle off the coast.

"A long and interesting chapter might be written about the snakes in the Philippines. I never heard how many varieties there are there. A few are poisonous, but most are water snakes, and are harmless. The most dreaded variety is a reddish-brown, long, slim fellow, known as the manapo. It is as deadly as the moccasin of the Southern swamps, and more venomous than the rattlesnake. Its bitten victims die in fifteen and twenty minutes. In the densest forests of the backwoods

PHILIPPINE POSSIBILITIES.

of the islands, boa constrictors are frequently found. I have heard of some on Mindanao that were twenty-five feet long, but their usual length is twelve feet. They have been known to crush people to death.

"The natives, who have never been away from their respective islands, and have seen less than a dozen white people in a lifetime, know the art of making an intoxicant as well as the most scientific man. In the backwoods of the smaller and unfrequented Philippine Islands the natives make brandy from sugar-cane.

"Fortunately for their drinking habits, the process of making the intoxicant is slow and laborious. The lazy and slovenly native would never spend so much time and energy in producing anything else but an intoxicant. Local brandy is made from the juice of the sugar-cane, fermented and distilled. The juice is extracted by pounding the cane over a piece of log and allowing the juice to fall into a trough. When the cane is broken into fine pieces, water is poured over it, and it is allowed to stand in the sun until it ferments. Then it is ready for the ingenious native process of distillation. Four-gallon water jugs are set on the ground as close as their bulging sides will permit. Earth is covered over the upper part and falls down part way, where it is stopped by the bulging jugs, thus leaving an open space underneath around the bottom of the jugs. The heat from the furnace passes through this opening and boils the fermented juice with which the jugs are filled. The steam passes out through pieces of hollow bamboo, and still in bamboo pipes it is introduced into a hollow log standing on end. Water from the creek flows through this log over the cells of bamboo which contain the steam, which quickly condenses and falls into a large jug set to catch it, while the thirsty natives wait around and fume at the slow process. Certainly the stuff is pure, and the Catholic missionaries say it is *healthful*, and, *queerly enough*, do not object to the natives' use of it. They probably consider it wise to consent to what they cannot prevent. On account of its purity the whisky never deranges the stomach, but a quart of it intoxicates quickly.



CAMP OF LIGHT BATTERY M, NEAR PONCE.



SECOND INFANTRY TRENCH.

PHILIPPINE POSSIBILITIES.

"The greater part of the natives—probably 75 per cent.—on the Island of Luzon, in and about Manila, are of several race mixtures. Their original ancestors were the Tagals and Spanish. Sometimes there is a strain of Malay in these people. They are known in Manila society as Mestizos. A few Mestizos are rich. The Mestizo women from fifteen to twenty-five are positively about the most bewitchingly attractive in the world. They age early and are blase at thirty. The English call them human butterflies. I have heard visitors in Manila for the first time go wild over the striking beauty of the Mestizo girls that one sees on the promenade of the Luneta. The eyes of the Filipinos are great, languishing, dreamy, shaded by long lashes and set off by a profusion of the blackest hair that ever grew. Hair is the chief glory of the Filipino beauty. It is long, rich, thick, made glossy by the care bestowed upon it. Often it is cleaned and washed with lemon juice and oil made fragrant with perfume. Some of the women wear their hair hanging down their backs, entirely unadorned, while others, especially the matrons, build it up in a coil or knot held by a golden comb and ornamented by pins, or adorned by a bright, fragrant flower.

"The Mestizo young women are graceful and coquettish. They love music, and I never knew one not lame who could not dance beautifully. The Mestizo women dress in bright colors and go bareheaded. Their garb includes a little shirt made of the famous pina cloth, having wide, short sleeves. This is worn loose, quite unbound to the figure. Around it at the waist is girt a petticoat, called saya, made of silk, either striped or checked, but always of gay colors. Sometimes it is also pina cloth, the quality of coloring frequently very beautiful and sometimes cheap and common. Out of doors another article of dress, a tapiz, or shawl, is wrapped tightly around the loins and waist above the saya, and generally it is black or dark blue with narrow white stripes. A profusion of bracelets and chains and earrings, all of beautifully worked gold or silver, usually completes the toilet of a Tagal beauty. The more opulent frequently possess valuable jewels, and are seen with necklaces and bracelets of diamonds and pearls.

PHILIPPINE POSSIBILITIES.

"The greatest manufacturing industry in the Philippines is cigarmaking at Binando. The industry has been monopolized by the Spanish, and severe penalties are imposed upon anyone who encroaches upon the monopoly. It yields great revenues to the government. Tobacco grows everywhere on the islands. On Samar some of the finest wrapper-leaf tobacco in the world is grown. One field there covers nearly 7000 acres. At Binando nearly 35,000 men, women and boys are employed in the cigar and tobacco shops. Under one roof and on one floor are 2000 workers. Their pay averages about fifteen cents a day. They leave the shops at sundown in droves. A good share of them go for a swim in Manila Bay before going home to eat. All the people in the Philippines love the water. Many times I have glanced along the waterfront at Binando at early evening and have seen hundreds, yes, thousands, of the tobacco factory employes, men and women, old and young, married and single, laughing, shouting, plunging and rolling in the surf with no more clothing than when they were born.

"I have never seen a Manila man smoking in church. It's about the only place where he does not smoke. He smokes in the street cars, he smokes at the public dining table, he smokes everywhere. The presence of women is not considered at all. When coffee is brought on the table the Spaniard or Filipino lights his cigar or cigarette and begins to send up clouds of smoke. He never even thinks of saying to the ladies, 'By your leave,' for the custom of the country is to smoke everywhere. If he is not smoking his neighbor will offer him a cigarette. The driver of your coach will smoke, and very likely offer you a cheroot. At the opera the men will walk and smoke between the acts in the spaces behind the boxes or balconies. You will see finely dressed, seemingly well-bred men with ladies in full evening dress entering the theater and smoking as they go. In the privacy of their home men and women smoke from the same box of cigars or cigarettes. You never see a pipe in Manila. It is the country of the cigar and cigarette. One of the odd sights to a stranger is that afforded by a balcony in front of an aristocratic residence, filled with fashionably gowned Spanish women, the mother



THE CATHEDRAL, MANILA.

PHILIPPINE POSSIBILITIES.

and her daughters and nieces all smoking cigarillos or small cigars.

"Some of the Spanish managers of big cigar factories have plantations of their own and options on the product of other plantations famed for the quality of their leaf. One cannot get a very pleasant impression from a visit to a cigar factory. In the large factories the plumbing and sanitary arrangements are unusually bad, and the buildings are filled with bad odors, which, mingling with that of the tobacco, have anything but a pleasant effect. Two or three hundred men will be at work in a poorly ventilated room that does not afford proper breathing space for more than 100. Neatness and cleanliness are not conspicuous characteristics either of the men at work rolling the cigars or of the hundreds of girls and children stripping the tobacco. If one wants to enjoy a Manila cigar after visiting one of the factories he will have to obliterate the memory of his visit from his mind."

A TOUR OF LUZON—EXPLORATIONS IN THE PHILIPPINES BY OFFICERS OF DEWEY'S FLEET.

An interesting picture of conditions in the interior of the Island of Luzon, the largest of the Philippine group, with an area equaling that of the State of Virginia, is presented in a report made to the Navy Department by two young American naval officers—Paymaster W. B. Wilcox and Cadet R. L. Sargent, of Admiral Dewey's fleet. These officers made a tour of exploration of the hitherto unknown characteristics of the island, overcoming almost insurmountable obstacles.

Being granted leave of absence last October, Paymaster Wilcox and Cadet Sargent started on a journey into the interior of the island. At the outset they were warned that they could not pass the lines of the Philippine forces without permission from Aginaldo.

NO PASSPORT FROM AGINALDO.

Upon application to this leader at Malolos, his headquarters, he first required a formal sanction of their request by Admiral

PHILIPPINE POSSIBILITIES.

Dewey, General Otis or General McArthur, and later, when this was produced, declined altogether to issue a passport, although he assured the officers that they were free to proceed without molestation from his forces. Accordingly, a start was made on October 5, with five servants, eight horses and between 300 and 400 pounds of baggage, including a camp outfit, two rifles and a shotgun, with ammunition.

At the town of Bayambang, where they took horses, they met two Americans who had been turned back to Manila because they had no passports from Aginaldo. A squad of Philippine soldiers was at the station, but through the influence of an English resident Wilcox and Sargent were enabled to proceed toward Rosales, the next town on their route. They say:

"Near Rosales the roads were deep in mud and covered with water in places. We were forced to go on foot the greater part of the distance, men and horses having great difficulty in making their way. About eleven o'clock in the morning we passed through the small town of Alcala. There were twelve soldiers stationed in this town in charge of a sergeant. They were armed with Remington rifles. No passports were mentioned and the soldiers did not assert themselves in any way."

The travelers were treated courteously at Rosales, where twenty soldiers were stationed, though surprise was expressed at their lack of passports.

THROUGH THE RICE REGIONS.

From Rosales to Humingaa and thence to San Jose their experiences of travel were much the same as those already described. The road led through the low rice region of the Province of Nueva Icaja. It rained almost constantly, and the roads were nearly impassable. The pack horses were unable to carry their loads and the officers were forced to engage natives to relieve them. Labor was cheap. Ten men could usually be engaged for a day for the sum of \$2 in silver, or less than ten cents in gold per man.



MALAY SAILORS, PHILIPPINES.

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"We traveled slowly over this distance," they state, "the labor of walking through the mud frequently over our knees being excessive. The horses grew poor rapidly, and we were forced to husband their strength. They were occasionally prostrated in the road, and our progress was delayed until they could recover their strength. Moreover, we could seldom find proper food for them at night."

Throughout this part of the Province of Nueva Icaja almost the only form of agriculture encouraged at present by the natives is rice-growing. A little sugar is also raised. The land is very rich. The fields at this season of the year are several inches deep in water. There are very few forests and practically no cattle. There are a great number of buffalo, and these are of extreme utility.

The principal labor of the natives at this season of the year is the threshing of rice. This is done very primitively with implements that resemble on a large scale the pestle and mortar of a chemist. The mortar is replaced by a section of a log of hardwood, hollowed out to receive the grains; the pestle is a hard club from four to five feet long and about six inches in diameter at each end.

SPANISH PRISONERS.

In the villages of Humingan and Lupao there are a few Spanish prisoners—priests, soldiers and civil officials. The officers saw representatives of each of these three classes in these towns, and could detect no signs of ill-treatment nor of undue restriction. On the contrary, they appeared to possess the freedom of the towns in which they lived.

The *presidente local* and other officials are native Filipinos. Most of them have received a certain amount of education at religious schools in Manila. They are intelligent men and are extremely eager to learn news from the outside world. One or two of them had heard of the congress at Paris, but no one had any idea as to its object nor as to its relation to themselves. They were well grounded on only three points—the destruction of the Spanish squadron in Manila harbor, the

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surrender of Manila and the declaration by the Philippine government at Malolos of the independence of the islands and the establishment of a republican form of government, with Aguinaldo as President.

TRAIL ALMOST IMPASSABLE.

"We had been warned by the officials of the last town," continues the report, "that San Jose must inevitably prove the end of our journey. There is no road for thirty miles beyond this point, and in this season the natives consider the trail impassable to white men. A few of the natives at San Jose, however, were willing to accompany us as packbearers, and with these we started. The trail proved to be a little better than represented. It is, however, extremely intricate. It leads for half a mile along a shoal in a small river and follows the beds of mountain streams for many times that distance. Rushing water, frequently knee-deep on the horses, covered these stretches of the trail at the time we passed. On land, grass and underbrush grew thickly over the trail and concealed it for considerable distances.

"During the insurrection a company of Spanish soldiers had been sent over this trail. Our guide pointed out many spots where numbers of them had been ambushed and slain. According to the statements of our guide, very few of this Spanish force lived to reach the town of Carranglan. It is undoubtedly a trail that a few men could hold against heavy odds. It is very hilly, and the ascents are steep, crooked and surrounded by heavy trees and underbrush.

CROSSING A SWOLLEN RIVER.

"The river Barat was swollen to such an extent that our horses were carried off their feet before the bed of the stream was reached. Not being able to get our freight across the stream with the means at hand, we attracted the attention of a native on the other bank by discharging our firearms, and



HAULING LUMBER.—PHILIPPINES.
PLOWING.—PHILIPPINES.

HAULING SUGAR.—PHILIPPINES.
COCK FIGHTING.—PHILIPPINES.

PHILIPPINE POSSIBILITIES.

sent him to the town of Carranglan to procure buffalo for our assistance. With their help we crossed in safety, with all our freight."

The American officers were received coolly by the Philippine military officers at this town owing to their lack of passports, but were permitted to proceed after drying their moldy baggage, in the face of the predictions that they had worse rivers to cross and other obstacles as well.

Leaving Carranglan, the presidente local insisted upon their taking a guard of twelve soldiers, with a sergeant, "to protect us against the Igorrotes, or savages, that are said to infest the hills between this town and Aritao. We arrived at Aritao shortly before sundown. In the mountains and highlands through which we passed there are extensive forests, not homogenous, but containing many different classes of trees, the timber of which is in many cases valueless.

THE TIMBER MOST VALUED.

"Of the timber which we have seen the most valued on the island is the 'mulawe.' This is a tall, straight tree with very few branches; the bark is very light in color, but the wood is dark and close-grained and resists water and weather. It is much used for boats and for the floors and exposed uprights of houses. We saw no signs of savages nor of poisonous snakes, against which we had been warned by the natives of the district. In going from Carranglan to Aritao we went from the Province of Nueva Icaja to that of Nueva Vizcaya.

"From Bamboang to the next town, Cordon (called Estella on the map), there is only a mountain trail. This trail is infested at certain seasons by Igorrotes, who waylay and murder persons traveling in small and unarmed parties. In passing over these mountains our escorts used their rifles very freely, firing into every thick bush that might conceal a savage, and frequently into the air as well, in order, they said, that the Igorrotes might know that our party carried firearms.

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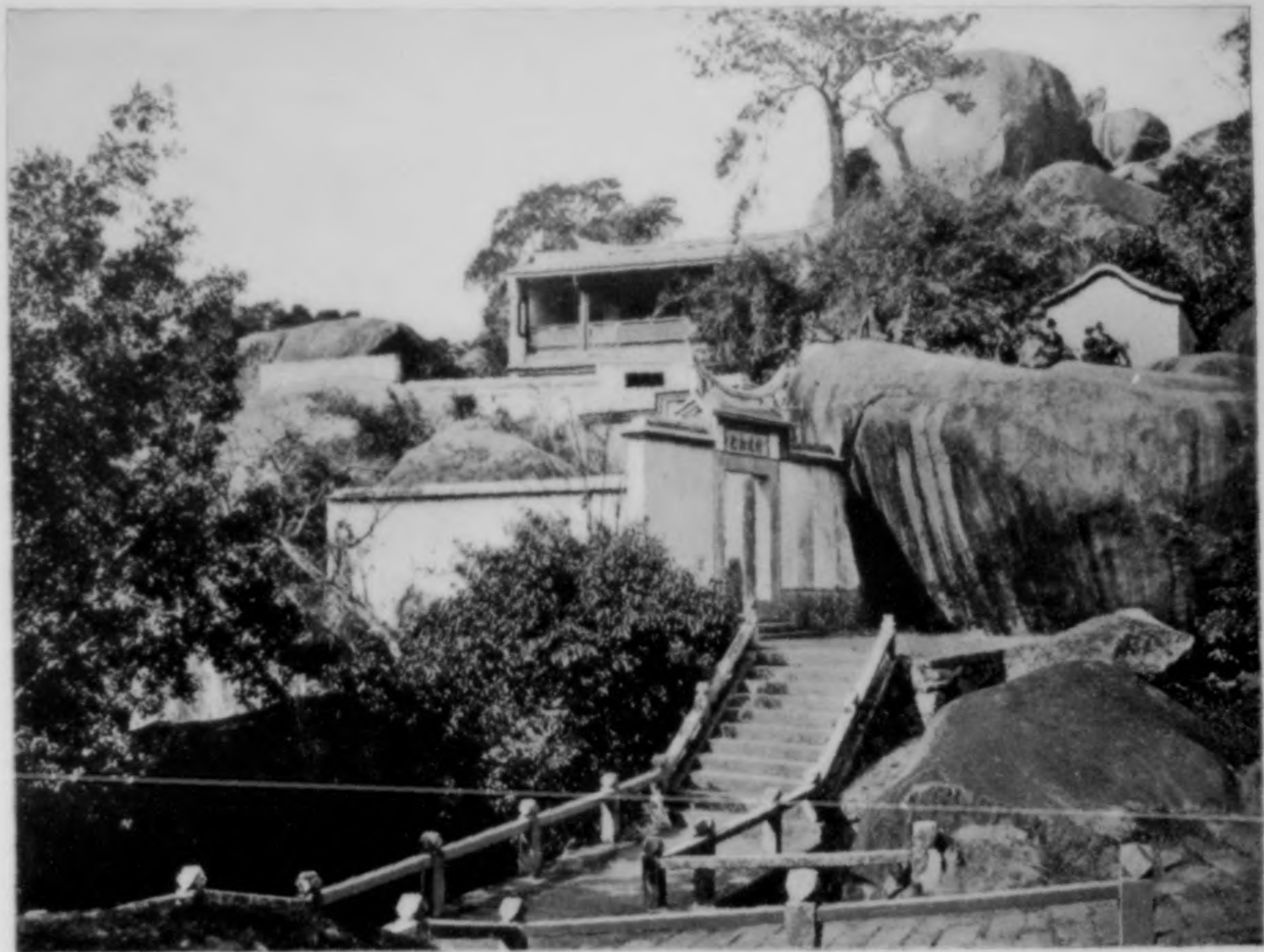
DETAINED AT CARIG.

"We left next morning, October 24, for Carig, intending to reach Echague that night. We were escorted by six soldiers and the lieutenant. Our delay in this town lasted seven days. During our detention at Carig we were not treated as prisoners. We were informed that if we wished to return to Manila by the same road we had followed in leaving it, we were at liberty to do so. Within the village itself we had, of course, entire liberty. Senor Villa, of the Philippine Republic, was extremely suspicious of us, particularly of the diary that we kept from day to day and of a camera that formed part of our equipment. He became slowly convinced, however, that we were not seeking for military information. After he had assured himself of this he told us that the colonel feared that we were making maps of the country. During the rest of our journey we were entirely free from the taint of this suspicion.

NATIVES FEAR THE ALLIGATORS.

"It had rained almost constantly during the last week, and the two rivers between Carig and Echague were greatly swollen. We lost a horse in the river Carig, but crossed without further accident. In these streams, and particularly in the river Magat and the Rio Grande de Cagayan, there are many alligators, of which the natives are in great fear. No native will venture into the water nor into the grass along the bank until he has first thrown stones in front of him to frighten away any alligators which may be in the neighborhood.

"Echague is somewhat larger and more pretentious than Carig. It has a guard of twenty soldiers. From this town we went by boat to Ilagan, sending the servants with the horses by the road. The boat was a dugout twenty-five feet long and three feet wide, with a grass canopy amidships eight feet long. It was rowed by six natives. There are many eddies and whirlpools in the river, rendering it for some distance below Echague almost unnavigable, even for bancas. We shipped water repeatedly and were twice nearly swamped.



JOSS ROCK TEMPLE, SULU, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

PHILIPPINE POSSIBILITIES.

"We arrived at Ilagan that evening, November 10. This town is the capital city of the Province of Isabella. It has a population of between 10,000 and 15,000 inhabitants, and has many large wooden houses, roofed with corrugated iron, giving it rather a European appearance. It is well situated for defense, being at the junction of the Pinananuan river with the Rio Grande. It is protected by these wide streams from all points except the south. To attack the city by land from the south it would be necessary to bring troops up the eastern side of the Rio Grande, where there are no roads.

A BALL AND THEATRICALS.

"In this town we were entertained at the house of a wealthy citizen. The first night after our arrival a ball was given in our honor, at which there were over fifty young ladies and an equal number of well-dressed and gentlemanly men. The ball was well conducted; the dances were Spanish. The next evening we were invited to the theater to see two one-act Spanish comedies presented by the society people of the town. They were both excellently given and spoke well for the intelligence of the players.

"There are many Spanish prisoners in Aparri—civil officers, priests, soldiers. Eighty-four priests were paraded in the street for inspection, only four or five of them wearing robes of their office. Nearly all of them wore long hair and beards. They appeared in good health, and we could detect no evidence of maltreatment. These priests had been assembled from different parts of the province and are kept under stricter guard than either of the two other classes of prisoners, for the reason that the native officials fear that if permitted to go among the people they will use the influence they possess through their position in the church to incite them against the Philippine government.

IN THE TOBACCO PROVINCES.

"In the next two days we passed out of the Province of Isabella, and entirely through the Province of Cagayan. These

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are the leading tobacco provinces in the island. An idea of their wealth can be obtained from the fact that before the Philippine insurrection tobacco valued at \$3,000,000 came yearly from the one Province of Isabella. The tobacco of this province is preferred for exportation to that of Cagayan. Both provinces raise also sugar, rice, cocoa and coffee. Cattle are shipped from Aparri.

THE JOURNEY TO VIGAN.

"We left Aparri on November 9 on the steamer Oslo. Before leaving Colonel Tirona provided us with a letter directed to Colonel Tino at Vigan, in the Province of Ilocos Sur, or, in the event of his absence from that town, to the comandante. This letter was sealed. The Oslo remained outside the breakers, while we were put ashore in a ship's boat. We landed on the beach and immediately sent the boat back to the ship. A few minutes later two officials from the town of Cabujao rode up. Our arrival had been reported to them, and they had come immediately to refuse us permission to disembark. The Oslo was already under way, however, and they were not able to carry out their intention.

"We explained our position and showed the letter to Colonel Tino, or, in case of his absence, to the comandante at Vigan. They permitted us to proceed to Magsingal, where they could communicate with their superior. They very politely insisted on our taking their carriage, while they followed in our cart. We were delayed at Magsingal until the early evening waiting for an answer from the comandante. He brought the answer himself in a handsome carriage drawn by four horses.

DEPRIVED OF THEIR ARMS.

"He had with him a copy of the order he had just received from the Philippine secretary of war. This order granted liberty to persons of any nation except Spain to travel at will through the islands, under certain restrictions, viz., that they



CONVENT, INTERIOR ISLAND OF LUZON, PHILIPPINES.

PHILIPPINE POSSIBILITIES.

could not carry arms nor approach within 200 meters of a fortification, nor make any plans or take photographs of them. In compliance with this order we were allowed to proceed, but were requested to give up all our arms, including our revolvers. We went on to Vigan that night, accompanied by the comandante and five other officers who had assembled at Magsingal.

"We remained at Vigan all next day, November 12. We walked through the town and visited the houses of several tradespeople. At one of these houses we heard the first and only definite complaint which came to our ears during the entire journey on the part of the natives against the present Filipino government. These people complained of the taxes imposed upon them, and even went so far as to state that they preferred the Spanish government.

PROVINCES OF ILOCUS SUR AND UNION.

"In going from Tagudin to Bangar we passed from the Province of Ilocus Sur into that of Union. The Province of Ilocus Sur raises principally rice, tobacco, sugar, cattle and sheep. The tobacco is of an inferior quality, being coarser and stronger than that raised in Isabella and Cagayan. The cultivation of cocoanuts is profitable and is increasing. Goats and pigs are raised in great numbers. Many of the people are engaged in the weaving of cotton, from which they make cloth, towels, etc. In the mountains there are mines of copper, sulphur and gold, but these we have not seen.

"At San Fernando we met Colonel Tino, a commander of the military district embracing the Provinces of North and South Ilocus, Union, Abra, Lepanto, Bontoc and Benguet. This officer had received his commission as brigadier-general three days before our arrival. He is twenty-one years old.

"We arrived at Dagupan that night and at Manila on November 20."

A PROMINENT FILIPINO'S VIEWS.

A PROMINENT FILIPINO'S VIEWS.

BY RAMON REYES LALA, AUTHOR AND LECTURER.

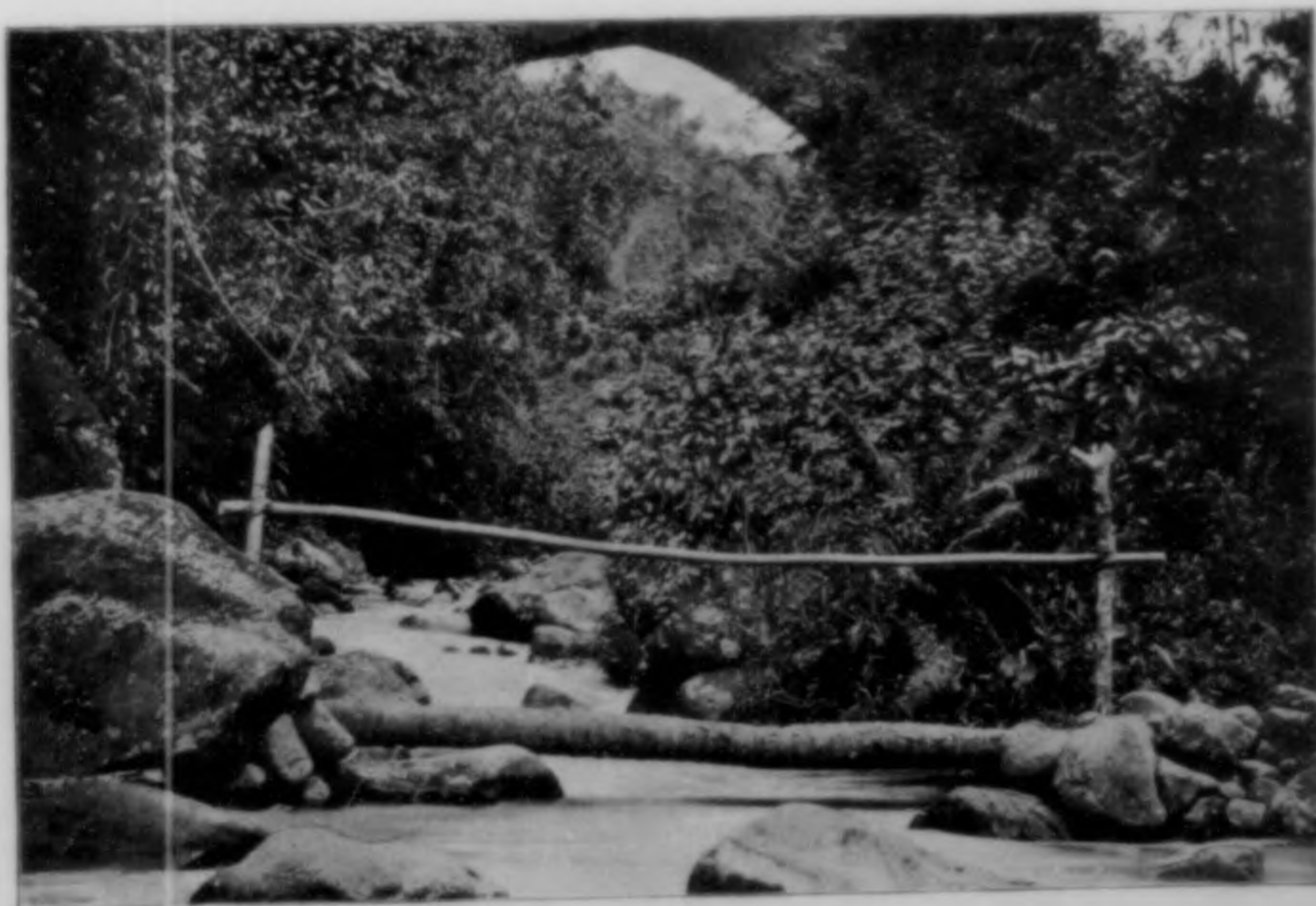
[The annual banquet of the Wellesley Club was attended January 21, 1899, by 300 members and a number of distinguished guests. The special topic of discussion was territorial expansion, and among the more prominent speakers were Prof. Bliss Perry, Dr. Henry Van Dyke, Hon. Edmund Wetmore, Richard Hovey and Ramon Reyes Lala. Mr. Lala, author of "The Philippine Islands," is a native of Manila, of a high-class family there, but for some years an American citizen, resident of New York. He is tall, handsome, animated, and speaks English fluently, having been educated at St. John's College, London. In New York and vicinity he is in demand as an authentic and interesting lecturer and writer on the Philippine Islands. What Mr. Lala had to say this afternoon is so timely, and of so much value—coming from a representative of the best element of the Filipinos—that his remarks are here quoted in full.—EDITOR.]

I have been asked to say a few words about the much-discussed and little-known Filipinos, of which long-suffering and much-maligned race I am, I believe, the only one that is also an American citizen. So you will understand that I am not here this afternoon to crave admission to the glories and opportunities of American citizenship. I am already annexed! And whatever limitations the Republic may find necessary to put upon the exuberant ardor of those savages of Luzon, of which you have heard so much, there is at least one Filipino that refuses to be limited: who is here today to have his little say.

And, I would add further, I am not here to ask you to colonize my native land. I myself have taken the initiative, and have come to colonize America. And when my countrymen



CAPITAL PUNISHMENT OF THE PHILIPPINES (GARROTING).



NATIVE VEGETATION, PHILIPPINES.

A PROMINENT FILIPINO'S VIEWS.

hear of my good fortune, and how the Americans have rewarded my attempts to enlighten them, I am persuaded that many will come over to assist me in the good work so auspiciously begun.

Naturally, I am pleased at the interest manifested in my country, and I appreciate, indeed, the many gracious invitations I have received to lecture on the Philippine Islands. Most of them I have accepted; for I am eager to correct the prevailing misconception regarding my countrymen.

I am a Filipino, and I am proud of it! I claim the distinction, too, of being a fair representative of that remote people; therefore, I hope you will infer that we are not as black as we have been painted. We have, at best, some of the attributes of humanity: the faculty of intellect, some of the graces of civilization. We do not claim all!

The Filipinos are not a race of irrepressible savages, a noisy horde of Asiatic cut-throats, unversed in the ways of the Occident, demanding the boon of American citizenship. They are, rather, in many respects, a gentle, ductile race, gifted, yet possessed of well-defined limitations. They are Christians, and, as such, ask for Christian forbearance. They are men, and, as such, ask for humane treatment.

I have seen it stated that in the interior of some of the Philippine provinces are many tribes of irresponsible savages—pagans and cannibals all—who, if the islands were annexed, would be a perpetual menace to the integrity of the republic; a persistent problem in the body politic.

There are a few such tribes, but they are not the Filipinos; they are the degenerate remnants of the negro aborigines, and are fast dying out. It is not with these you have to deal.

The Filipinos are all of Malay origin, with a sprinkling of half-breeds, of Spanish or Chinese descent, called *Mestizos*. They are Catholics, and have, for centuries, had the benefits of Christian civilization. When, therefore, you consider how we have been oppressed by generations of priestcraft, and by ages of Spanish tyranny, the fact that we are what we are is truly remarkable.

And what can we show?

A PROMINENT FILIPINO'S VIEWS.

We have our own lawyers and doctors, and other professional men by the hundreds, educated, as I was, abroad, in Europe, or in America or in the universities of Manila. We have our poets, artists, musicians, who have awakened the wonders of travelers, the admiration of Europe. We have our merchant princes and our large planters. We have our native customs, our large cities, our own architecture; in brief, our own civilization.

If this is not so grand as yours, my fellow Americans, remember we have not had the same advantages, the same fostering forces. On the contrary, we have been oppressed as no other nation under the sun, and we have longed for liberty and pined for freedom! We were in the world; we wanted to become part of it. This divine aspiration for the expression of our nationality, in the form of statehood, found vent in many rebellions. The last, by your help, was successful; the hated Spaniard has been driven back to his European lair; at last we feel we are free to work out our own destiny along the line of our own God-given individuality.

Now, the question is, How can this be done? By annexation? By a protectorate? By independence?

Although I believe we have a great future, I cannot disguise to myself the conviction that we are not yet ready for independence. More especially because the Filipinos have not had the preparation for self-government possessed by the founders of the American republic. And I apprehend that, intoxicated with their new-found liberty, the Filipinos might perpetrate excesses that would prove fatal to the race. I feel this all the more when I consider that the revolutionary leaders—Aguinaldo and his companions—though fervent patriots, do not represent the best classes of my countrymen, who, almost without exception, are for a protectorate, or for annexation. And it is this that I, too, a Filipino, desire most ardently. Give us an American protectorate: a territorial government; the judiciary, the customs, and the executive in the hands of Federal officials; the interior and domestic administration in the hands of the Filipinos themselves. And their self-selected officials will rule understandingly and well, without friction,



NATIVE FISHING, MANILA.



NATIVE HOUSES, MANILA.

A PROMINENT FILIPINO'S VIEWS.

which would be wholly impossible for alien functionaries, begotten of a western civilization.

O! you, Americans, I, a Filipino, therefore, beg, to not leave my countrymen as you found them! You cannot, in humanity, give them back into Spanish bondage. You cannot, in justice, sell them to some European or Asiatic power, to become subject, most likely, to another tyranny. They feel that they have fought for, and won, their own freedom, though acknowledging that you have facilitated it. They would, therefore, oppose such disposition to the bitter death. And a Filipino knows how to die! Let a thousand martyrs attest!

You must help them, you who have so nobly assisted in freeing them; you must make it possible for them to attain their destiny—the realization of the national self.

Naturally, some are not yet ready for all the duties of citizenship, all the functions of statehood. But under an American protectorate you can educate them to a proper appreciation of this dignity, and thus become self-supporting, self-respecting, self-governing. Then let the Filipinos decide for themselves the question of annexation.

This, it seems to me, is the only solution. One, too, in perfect agreement with the dictates of prudence and common-sense, and in nowise at variance with the established traditions of the American republic and the principles of its Constitution.

So far, I have spoken as a Filipino. Now I wish to speak as an American citizen. I believe—doubtless with many others—we should, so far as possible, keep out of diplomatic entanglements, and avoid Old World methods. We should, therefore, never seek to become a colonizing power; but, inasmuch as the Filipinos have been virtually thrust upon us, and inasmuch as our duty to them demands some kind of government for their benefit, we are forced to make a temporary departure from the policy of the Fathers, and take the islands under our protection. Humanity dictates this procedure, and humanity is the paramount law. A precedent, too, based upon justice, can never be untimely.

What need now to talk of annexation, when it is plainly impossible for generations to come? Let us, rather, meet pres-

A PROMINENT FILIPINO'S VIEWS.

ent conditions with the solution of expediency, based upon right. The future—let it solve its own problems! Other and unforeseen conditions may arise that will make the solution easy. The honorable expedients of today become the lauded precedents of tomorrow. We have found it expedient, in the past, to annex territory; and in various ways—by joint resolution, by discovery and occupation, by purchase, by war and by treaty, and today we are the fear and wonder of the rest of the world.

If it should some time be found expedient to annex my native land, I, for one, do not believe it would sound the death-knell of the republic and proclaim the birth of imperialism. All these calamities were prophesied at the time of the purchase of Florida and Louisiana, the admission of Texas and the territories of the virgin West, the purchase of Alaska, the annexation of Hawaii. And the Union still lives!

If England and Holland, with their insignificant domestic territory, are able to rule ten times their own population in their colonies, to their own enrichment and to the betterment of the natives, why shouldn't we be able to rule a few islands containing one-tenth of ours? Especially when we consider the enormous extent of our home territory, which will ever prevent the disintegration of the republic. If one Englishman rules ten Hindoos to his own profit, can't ten Americans rule one Malay for his salvation?

As I have said, the question of annexation should rightly be settled by the Filipinos themselves, and will in time. Yet we should first gradually help them to all the precious incidentals of our American civilization. Nor should we forget our duty to ourselves and to succeeding generations of Americans. The day when we shall usurp England's place as mistress of the seas is but a few generations distant. War will soon strangle himself with his own hand. The battle of the future will be the fierce rivalry of commerce, and we should prepare for it.

The Philippines are the keys to the Orient; with them we can unlock not only riches incalculable, but make them a means of livelihood for millions yet unborn. We should take steps to improve this prize, that is the rightful spoil of a just



DRYING SUGAR, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.
The dark patches represent sugar drying on Manila mats.



REFRESHMENT VENDER, PHILIPPINES.

A PROMINENT FILIPINO'S VIEWS.

war—a war for humanity, in which justice triumphed. There comes, indeed, a tide in the affairs of nations, as well as of men, when opportunity must be taken at the flood. This is a crucial hour, an hour that demands the display of the highest virtue. Today is the crisis in our national life. Be true to the past, just to the present, and faithful to the future. This is the problem we must solve.

In giving my fellow-countrymen the boon of freedom and the benefit of American civilization, be charitable. For their crude intelligence, face to face with freedom, will doubtless abuse the gift so generously given. Their eyes, used to the superstitious gloom of Spanish tyranny, will be dazzled by the sudden sunrise of American liberty, and, in their gropings for truth, they may stumble into error. Let us be helpful. It takes a vigorous manhood to keep step with the pace of the century.

Our national progress is full of the episodes of failure. This you know. We should, therefore, expect a few false steps in the Filipinos' tentative, groping efforts.

But I believe that Time's index-finger points onward and upward, and America follows, keeping step with the heart-beats of God.

We have heard much lately about the manifest destiny of the republic. There is much discussion, too, concerning the sphere of our duty. The path we have entered has not been entirely of our own choosing. We entered upon a war partly for vengeance, partly to bring the blessings of liberty to those who appealed to us to save them from political slavery.

The magnificent results of the war have placed us in a bewildering maze of new problems, that must be met with an immediate solution. Shall we solve them with an eye to our own gain, or for the advantage of those who hail us as their deliverer? There is only one way—we must proceed along the line of duty, and that is also the line of right. For I believe it to be our mission to save, and, by saving others, we shall save ourselves.

We must accord to our new possessions all that we ourselves enjoy. We must know no other destiny but freedom, no

A PROMINENT FILIPINO'S VIEWS.

other law but love. We cannot now shirk the tremendous responsibility that the success of our adventure has brought upon us. We would be cowards to attempt to shift the burden of our duty upon those not responsible for the present state of affairs. We have chosen, we have acted, and we must abide by the results.

It would be a short-sighted policy, indeed, that would augment the responsibilities of the next generation by the blind exploitation of new possibilities for private or public gain. There are good men and true who should be chosen to see that justice is done.

Let religion, with love and peace, speak words of hope to the millions so long bound in chains of darkness. Let her succor the unfortunate, while her kindly eyes beam mercy on the erring. Let art, with her message of beauty, and science, with her passion for truth, invade the inmost haunts of ignorance, teaching those to know that have never known; helping those to think that have never thought, thus making manhood, not being, the criterion of American citizenship.

AGUINALDO A MAN OF THE HOUR.

Emilio Aguinaldo, though only twenty-nine years old, is one of the leading figures in the eyes of the world. His friends say he is one of the great men of the age; his enemies, that he is at least a wonderful man.

He comes of a good family in the Province of Cavite, near Manila, where he was educated and where he entered the bar. He joined the insurgents soon after the outbreak of the rebellion, in the latter part of 1896, but it was not until after the hanging of Dr. Rizal, the Filipino patriot, that he became one of the leaders of the revolt.

The blockade maintained by the Spanish squadron in Philippine waters against the importation of arms for the insurgents gradually drove the Filipinos to the wall, and in December, 1897, the celebrated "pacification" of the islands was negotiated, the go-between being Senor Pedro Paterno, director



FILIPPINO DOCTOR AND TEACHER.

AGUINALDO.

of the Manila Museum, a Filipino who had remained at least passively loyal to the Spaniards. The Filipino junta at that time was composed of Emilio Aguinaldo, who exercised such executive powers as were possible to so feeble an organization; Senor Artacho, home secretary; Senor Montenogro, foreign secretary; Vito Bilarmino, war secretary, and Baldomero Aguinaldo, a cousin of Emilio, secretary of the treasury.

The so-called "pacification" consisted in a purchase of the insurgent leaders for \$800,000 in Mexican silver, equal to about \$400,000 in gold. Aguinaldo and his associates agreed to surrender all the arms in the possession of the natives and to quit the archipelago, remaining away at the pleasure of the Spanish government, and to use their utmost influence to disband and disarm all the insurgent forces.

Aguinaldo was to go to Hong Kong to receive the first instalment of the Spanish money, amounting to \$400,000, and he was then to cable to Artacho, who had surrendered to the Spanish Captain-General as a hostage. On receiving Aguinaldo's cable message that the money had been paid, Artacho was to dissolve the insurgent organization, disband the troops and give up their arms. This part of the programme was carried out in December, 1897, and the early part of January, 1898.

The cash payment was divided among the junta, and Aguinaldo started for Paris. He had gone no farther than Singapore, when the destruction of the *Maine* in Havana harbor brought on an acute tension of the relations between the United States and Spain, and he remained in Singapore to see whether the Filipinos might not profit by Spain's difficulties. It was then that occurred the negotiations with Consul Pratt, which, Aguinaldo now says, in part justify his assertion that the United States made an alliance with him by which he was to assist in expelling the Spaniards from the Philippines, and in return the United States was to recognize the independence of the Filipino republic.

He was taken to Manila from Hong Kong on one of Dewey's auxiliary vessels and soon armed and equipped a large force. This force, as is well known, co-operated at first with the Americans, but gradually grew distrustful and hostile.

AGUINALDO.

Aguinaldo is admitted to have great executive ability and is an ardent student of history. He is of the Japanese type in appearance, having a broad, square forehead, rather large eyes, set wide apart, and a straight nose. His height is about five feet four inches, and he carries himself erect. His color is a light chocolate. He speaks and writes Spanish and Tagalog, the native language of the island of Luzon, and understands English fairly well.

When Aguinaldo became President of the Filipino republic he continued the tribal system in the provinces and villages, laid down a rough code of official etiquette, and closed the State paper with directions as to insignia of office. In this he prescribed for himself a collar of gold, a triangle badge of gold, a whistle of gold and a cane with head and tassels of gold.

This barbaric style of ornamentation may seem funny to the American reader, but it is quiet when compared with some of the official court dresses abroad. A simple uniform would have but little meaning to an Eastern mind. The addition of silver and gold, of collars, badges, whistles and tassels would satisfy the artistic or barbaric instinct.



THE DRIVE, MANILA.



NATIVE CAB SERVICE, MANILA.

FIGHT WITH THE FILIPINOS.

FIGHT WITH THE FILIPINOS.

AMERICANS CHARGED DASHINGLY—SOME OF THE FILIPINOS FOUGHT WITH BOWS AND ARROWS.

The long-expected battle between the Americans and the Filipinos occurred February 4 and 5.

The clash came when three daring Filipinos darted past the Nebraska regiment's pickets at Santa Mesa, but retired when challenged.

They repeated the experiment without drawing the sentries' fire. But the third time Corporal Greeley challenged the Filipinos and then fired, killing one of them and wounding another.

Almost immediately afterward the Filipino line, from Calvotan to Santa Mesa, began a insalade. The Nebraska, Montana and North Dakota outposts replied vigorously and held their ground until reinforcements arrived.

The Filipinos in the meantime concentrated at Calvotan, Gagalangin and Santa Mesa.

HOT FIGHTING AT 1 A. M.

About 1 o'clock in the morning the Filipinos opened a hot fire from all three places simultaneously. This was supplemented by the fire of two siege guns at Balik-Balik and by advancing their skirmishers at Paco and Pandacan.

The Americans responded with a terrific fire, but owing to the darkness they were unable for a time to determine its effect.

The Utah Light Artillery finally succeeded in silencing the native battery. The Third Artillery also did good work on the extreme left.

WARSHIPS BOMBARD FILIPINOS.

The United States cruiser Charleston and the gunboat Concord, stationed off Malabon, opened fire from their secondary batteries on the Filipinos' position at Calvotan, and kept it up vigorously.

At 2:45 A. M. there was another insalade along the entire line, and the United States double-turreted monitor Monadnock opened fire on the enemy with her 10-inch guns from off Malate.

FIGHT WITH THE FILIPINOS.

AMERICANS ADVANCE BRAVELY.

With daylight the Americans advanced.

The California and Washington regiments made a splendid charge and drove the Filipinos from the villages of Paco and Santa Mesa.

The Nebraska regiment also distinguished itself, capturing several prisoners and one howitzer, also capturing a position at the reservoir, which is connected with the water works.

The Kansas and Dakota regiments compelled the enemy's right flank to retire to Calvotan.

There was intermittent firing at various places all the day.

SLAUGHTER WAS SICKENING—BODIES OF SOME OF THE FILIPINOS WERE TORN INTO SHREDS BY SHELLS FROM WARSHIPS.

The following account of the manner in which the Filipinos were slaughtered and of other details of the battle was given in a special cablegram which appeared in the New York Sun:

There is no denying the fact that the Filipinos will stand fire. The ground in every direction bore evidence of this. On all sides were lying dead natives, their bodies, in some instances, being full of bullet holes. A majority of the dead were lying with their heads toward the line of the American advance, showing that they had fallen fighting desperately.

To the north and south of the city, where the shells of the Charleston, Callao and Monadnock reached the flanks of the Filipinos, the slaughter was sickening. I saw a number of bodies which had been literally torn into shreds by the fire from the warships. In some places the shells had torn great holes in the earth, and around these were scattered dead bodies.

On all sides the scene was one of terrible desolation, and what on Saturday had been a smiling landscape was now marked and pitted by the ravages of war. I went to Santa Mesa, San Juan del Monte, Santa Ana, San Pedro Macati, Loma and other places from which our troops had driven the enemy, and the scene in and around each was identical. The great number of the dead showed that the little natives were not lacking in courage, but no courage could have withstood the terrible scourge that fell upon the Filipinos as the Americans approached their positions.

In the district between Tondo and Malabon, to the north of the city, great slaughter was done by the gunboat Callao, Lieut. Benjamin Tappan, which Admiral Dewey captured from the Spaniards. This little vessel is a terror. She mounts more guns proportionately than any other vessel in the American navy, being full of one, two and three-pounders and machine guns. She duplicated her performance of August 13.



TROPICAL HOUSE.

FIGHT WITH THE FILIPINOS.

when she covered General Merritt's advance on Manila. Then she steamed close to the breakers and moved along the shore as the troops advanced, pouring a deadly fire into the Spaniards.

On Sunday she again ran close in to the beach, and getting the range of the enemy she began to spit fire from her bow guns. Then, maneuvering, she brought her starboard battery to bear, and the rattle and din were terrific. Soon she came about and brought her port battery into action, and these maneuvers were repeated until she was ordered to cease firing.

The Concord's six-inch and the Charleston's eight-inch guns did awful execution. General Otis' brigade had driven a large body of the enemy from their positions, and the Filipinos ran at top speed for the beach, a disorganized and panic-stricken mob. When they reached the shore they were met by the devastating fire from the warships and mowed down score upon score.

The sight was a sickening one; but this was war.

The Olympia, Admiral Dewey's flagship, took no part in the bombardment. With the fine strategy for which the American naval commander is noted, he placed his vessel in a position directly in front of the city, between the Spanish gunboat General Alava and the German cruiser Irene and the troops ashore.

The significance of this move will be readily grasped. This was a fight between Americans and Filipinos, and no outsiders could be permitted to enter the ring, so Admiral Dewey constituted himself a sort of referee to say "hands off" if it became necessary.

The enemy were totally unprepared for the vigorous punishment that was administered to them, and from which they will require a long time to recover. The moral effect of the drubbing given to them will be great.

The Filipinos apparently thought they could massacre the Americans in a night attack, as they easily and frequently did the Spanish troops sent against them, making the fatal error of not weighing the difference between the morale and discipline of the American and Spanish troops. This difference resulted in thousands of them losing their lives in a hopeless cause.

Aguinaldo, so far as can be learned, did not risk his precious skin with his troops, and is still able and willing to make further trouble.

ARMIES COMPARED.

General Otis' command, as shown by the records of the adjutant-general's office December 10, the date of his last re-

FIGHT WITH THE FILIPINOS.

port, were 21,640 troops. Of these there were present for duty 19,516 men, included in the following organizations:

Company A, United States Engineer Battalion; Companies C, E, G, I, K and L, Fourth Cavalry; troop of Nevada cavalry; Companies G, H, K and L of the Third Artillery; Troops D and G of the Sixth Artillery; Companies A and D of the California Artillery; Companies A and B of the Utah Artillery; First Wyoming Battery; Third, Fourth and Fourteenth Infantry; Companies B, D, F, H, I, K, L and M of the Seventeenth Infantry; Eighteenth, Twentieth and Twenty-third Infantry; First California Volunteers; First Colorado Volunteers; First Idaho Volunteers; Fifty-first Iowa Volunteers; Twentieth Kansas Volunteers; Thirteenth Minnesota Volunteers; First Montana Volunteers; First Nebraska Volunteers; First North Dakota Volunteers; Second Oregon Volunteers; Tenth Pennsylvania Volunteers; First South Dakota Volunteers; First Tennessee Volunteers; First Washington Volunteers; First Wyoming Volunteers.

SIX THOUSAND ON THE WAY.

Approximately 6000 men are on their way to join General Otis, though none of these is expected to reach Manila for three weeks or a month. They are as follows:

The Fourth and four companies of the Seventeenth Infantry, 1728 men, under General Lawton; the Twentieth Infantry, comprising thirty-seven officers and 1268 men, under General Wheaton; the Twenty-second Infantry, in command of Colonel Egbert; 2000 officers and men of the Third and Seventeenth Infantry.

There is a big transport, the Sheridan, now making ready in New York to carry the Twelfth Infantry and a battalion of the Seventeenth, 1820 men in all.

FILIPINO ARMY ABOUT THIRTY THOUSAND.

No one here knows the real strength of the insurgents opposed to General Otis. The accounts of their number are conflicting. The best belief of the authorities at the War Department is that the Filipino army numbers about 30,000 men, but they are not comparable to the American forces in personnel, discipline or quality of arms.

It is known that they have some Mausers, some Remingtons and a variety of other firearms, and it is suspected that they have been plentifully supplied with ammunition from outside sources.

Their strong point is their knowledge of the country and a certain fanatical bravery in onslaught that would be formidable to a volunteer force not well trained to stand fire. Like



WEDDING PROCESSION, PHILIPPINES.

FIGHT WITH THE FILIPINOS

the Cubans, they rely much on a swordlike weapon corresponding to the machete, a weapon of little value against long-range rifles.

DEWEY HAS A GREAT FLEET.

Besides his soldiers General Otis has at his back in Manila bay, commanding the city, a Rock of Gibraltar in Dewey's fleet. With the vessels he now has and those about to join him Dewey will have twenty-one ships of various types. Of full-fledged warships he now has the following:

Flagship Olympia, cruiser Baltimore, cruiser Boston, cruiser Charleston, gunboat Concord, monitor Monadnock, monitor Monterey, gunboat Petrel, cruiser Buffalo.

Dewey also has three armed supply ships which are as effective as a warship almost in attacking troops outside of fortifications and in maintaining a blockade. They are the *Culgoa*, the *Nanshan* and the *Zafiro*.

The vessels on the way to join Dewey are:

The gunboat Helena, gunboat Castine, gunboat Princeton, cruiser Yorktown, gunboat Bennington, collier Brutus and battleship Oregon.

The Solace is about to start from Norfolk for Manila. This leaves out of account the army transports under Otis' command, which could be made of great service.

GENERAL OTIS A. MARYLANDER.

Maj.-Gen. Stephen Elwell Otis was born in Frederick county, Maryland, March 25, 1838. Otis was graduated at the University of Rochester, N. Y., in 1858, and was admitted to the bar in New York.

He entered the volunteer service in 1862 as captain of a New York infantry company, and on December 23 of the following year was promoted to lieutenant-colonel. He was made colonel in 1864, participating in all the principal engagements of the Army of the Potomac, after Antietam, in the capacity of field officer and brigade commander.

In 1864 he commanded a regular brigade in the Army of the Potomac, and was severely wounded near Petersburg, Va., in consequence of which he was discharged on January 24, 1865, and brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers. He was appointed lieutenant-colonel of the Twenty-second Infantry in the regular army in February, 1867. From that time until 1886 he served on the frontiers against the Indians, and then organized the United States Military School at Leavenworth, Kan., which he conducted until 1885.

After that he served with his regiment in the Northwest for a number of years. He was made brigadier-general in the regular army on November 28, 1893.



SCENE OF THE FIGHTING AT MANILA

noted that around the city limits the American soldiers, the ones named like those the English soldiers, were not as



ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH, MANILA.

SPAIN OF TODAY.

SPAIN OF TODAY.

A CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY—COLONIAL POSSESSIONS—THEORETICAL MILITARY STRENGTH.

The present constitution of Spain was proclaimed in 1876. It proclaims the government to be a constitutional monarchy, the executive resting in the King, the power to make laws "in the Cortes with the King." The Cortes are composed of a Senate and Congress, equal in authority. There are three classes of Senators—first, Senators by their own right; secondly, Senators nominated by the Crown, and, thirdly, Senators elected by the corporations of State, that is, the communal and provincial States, the church, the universities, academies and by the largest payers of contributions. Senators by their own right are the graduates of the kingdom, whose titles and possessions entitle them to the privilege.

The Congress is formed by Deputies in the proportion of one to every 50,000 population. In 1878 Cuba secured the right to send Deputies to the Cortes in the proportion of one to every 40,000 free inhabitants paying 125 pesetas in taxes yearly. The constitution further enacted that the King is inviolable, but his ministers are responsible, and all his decrees must be countersigned by one of them. The Cortes must approve his marriage before he can contract it, and he cannot marry any one excluded by law from succession to the Crown. If all the lines become extinct, the King would be elected by a "vote of the nation." After the King the reins of government are guided by a president of the council and ministers of foreign affairs, justice, finance, the interior, war, marine, agriculture, commerce and public works, and a minister of the colonies.

SPAIN OF TODAY.

AREA AND POPULATION.

Spain's area and population, as they are at the present time, are interesting, in view of the fact that once her possessions were greater than those of any other European power. Her present area, including the Balearic and Canary Islands, each of which is considered a province, is 197,670 square miles. New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and all of the New England States combined have an area of 162,065 square miles. Spain is, therefore, a trifle larger than these States. On the other hand, Texas has an area of 262,290 square miles, so that Texas is 74,620 square miles larger than Spain. The population of Spain is estimated to be 17,650,234, about the same as that of the New England and Middle States named.

COLONIES.

Besides the Canary and Balearic Islands, Spain holds the colonies of Cuba, area 41,655 miles, population before the war, 1,631,687; Porto Rico, area 3500 square miles, population 806,708. Total area and population in America, 45,205 square miles and 2,438,395 persons, respectively.

Her possessions in Asia are: The Philippine Islands, area 114,326 square miles, population 7,000,000; the Sulu Islands, area 950 square miles, population 75,000; the Caroline Islands and Palaos, area 560 square miles, population 36,000; the Marianne Islands, area 420 square miles, population 10,172. Total area and population in Asia 116,256 square miles and 7,121,172 persons.

Her possessions in Africa are Rio de Oro and Adrar, area 243,000 square miles, population 100,000; Imit (near Cape Nun), area 27 square miles, population 6000; Fernando Po, Annabon, Corisco, Elobey and San Juan, area 850 square miles, population 30,000. Total area and population in Africa, 243,877 square miles and 136,000 persons.

The total area of Spain's foreign possessions is 405,338 square miles. The total population is 9,695,567 persons. So that her foreign possessions have an area more than twice as



THE PALACE AT MADRID.

SPAIN OF TODAY.

large as her own and a foreign population nearly half the size of her own. Of course, when she loses Cuba her foreign area will be reduced one-ninth, and her foreign population, if the loss of garrison is considered, reduced nearly one-sixth.

ILLITERACY.

Census returns show that a very large proportion of the inhabitants of Spain are illiterate. Nearly 12,000,000 in the kingdom can neither read nor write. In the whole of Spain it was found that but 5,004,460 persons could read and write, 608,005 persons could read only, and yet Spain supports 24,529 public and 5576 private schools. A law making education compulsory was passed in 1857, but it was never enforced, partly for political reasons and partly because of the wretched pay of the teachers—\$50 to \$100 a year being a usual fee. In higher education Spain is not behindhand. She has ten large universities, carrying an enrollment of 16,000 students.

REVENUE.

Spain gets its revenues by a system of direct and indirect taxation, stamp duties, government monopolies, etc. Direct taxes are imposed on landed properties, houses, live stock, commerce, registration acts, titles of nobility, mortgages, etc.; the indirect taxes come from foreign imports, articles of consumption, tolls, bridge and ferry dues. Her revenue for 1896 and 1897 was £30,771,450; her expenditures, £30,456,584. She had beside this, however, an extraordinary expenditure of £9,360,000. Her public debt is now over \$1,700,000,000, including over \$350,000,000 incurred in Cuba.

AGRICULTURE.

It is an agricultural country. In the early part of the century the country was owned by landed proprietors who had acquired great tracts of land, but in recent years these tracts have been divided and have passed into the hands of small

SPAIN OF TODAY.

farmers and fruit-growers. The grape is the most important culture, but large quantities of oranges, raisins, nuts and olives are exported every year. Spain is rich in minerals, the annual value of her mineral exports being about £6,640,000. She also manufactures cotton goods. She has nearly 70,000 looms. Her imports for 1896-97 amounted to £29,366,906. Her exports brought her in £34,890,400. The most primitive conditions prevail in many parts of Spain, and in some parts life is almost as it was when Columbus traveled the country roads on foot, leading his little son by the hand. This is due to the meagre means of communication, there being only 7548 miles of railroads in the whole country. This is only 3.9 linear miles of road for every 100 square miles of territory. New England alone has as many miles of railroad as has Spain, and her territory is not nearly as great. The same area as Spain picked out of the upper Eastern United States has nearly 30,000 miles of road. But the people of Spain still adhere to their gayly caparisoned mules, which, perhaps, make up in wornout romance what they lack in speed.

DEFENSES.

The country is well defended from invasion by a cordon of forts and fortified towns drawn completely around her frontier. On the north there is Fuenterrabia, the fortified port of Passages and the military ports of Santona, Santander, Ferrol, Coruna and Vigo. In the Basque provinces are Bilbao and Vitoria. To the left of the Ebro are Pamplona, Tafalla, Jaca, Venasqua, Monzon, Puycerda, Seo de Urzel, Balaquer and Lerida. Nearer the Mediterranean are Cardona, Hostalrich, Campredon, Ripoll, Gerona, Olot, Cartellolit and Figueras. On the Mediterranean are Palamos, Barcelona, Tarragona, Malaga, Almeria, Carthagea and Alicante. Logrono, Tudela, Zaragoza, Mequinenza and Tortosa are in the Ebro. Burgos and Morella lie to the south of it. Toro, Rodrigo, Valencia de Alcantara, Albuquerque and Badajoz lie along the Portuguese frontier. Tarifa and Algeciras are in the Strait of Gibraltar and Cadiz is at its entrance. Not all of these could



STREET SCENE, MADRID.

SPAIN OF TODAY.

withstand the projectiles of modern great guns, but quite the best methods prevail, and an army of invasion would have some difficulty in breaking through the barrier.

ARMY.

Spain maintains a permanent army. She also has what is known as an active reserve and a sedentary reserve, each of which could be relied upon for support in time of war. Any Spaniard above the age of nineteen is liable to be called upon to serve in the permanent army for three years. From this part of the army the soldier passes to the active reserve for three years' service, and from thence to the sedentary reserve for six years' service. By paying 1500 pesetas anyone may escape service. The colonial army requires every able-bodied subject to serve eight years in the various reserves. Thus most of the King's subjects are militiamen, and it is estimated that in time of need Spain could easily mobilize an efficient army of 1,083,595 men. The standing army numbers about 70,000 men, although recent levies make this number nearer 100,000.

A ROMANTIC PEOPLE.

Spain is not, after all, a modernized nation in the sense that other nations are modernized. Her people are governed by the spirit of Quixotism that caused Isabella to pledge her jewels so that Columbus might start westward; that caused Ferdinand and his consort to move their throne chairs up to the very walls of the Moorish strongholds that the example might incite the chivalrous bravery of their followers; that caused the houses of Urena and De Leon to pledge their estates that the Moors might be driven from the Alhambra. The memory of that period, the most romantic and brilliant in Spanish history, when half the world was theirs, never dies in their breasts, and it more than anything else would sustain them in a war of nations. This pride of race, however, is not what they would fight for. Out of the ruins of their past greatness have risen beautiful monuments—Madrid, the cap-

SPAIN OF TODAY.

ital city, with its palaces and its 470,000 worshippers of the ancient throne; Barcelona, with its quarter of a million, mostly eager for war, and blind to all but its romance; Malaga, with its 100,000, who daily have the remains of Moors to teach them what manner of fighters were their ancestors; Carthagena, Cadiz, Valencia, Seville and Grenada, where memory stops, and the grotesques and arabesques of the great Moorish temple lift one out of the nineteenth century and carry one back to the time when war in Spain meant honor, valor and glory.

WHAT SPAIN STILL HAS.

Spain's vulnerable point in the war was her possessions outside the peninsula itself. On the peninsula the war was carried on for us, better than we could have conducted it ourselves, by internal dissensions. And these dissensions were aggravated by each disturbance of the Spanish colonial possessions, while they would be stilled by an attack on the mother country itself. It is interesting, therefore, to note the widely distributed possessions of Spain in all quarters of the globe, generally small and scattered, and badly protected or not protected at all.

Being nearest the peninsula, there are several possessions of Spain which are counted as integral parts of the government; though not on the peninsula, the Balearic Islands and the Canaries form politically each a province of Spain, and send representatives to the Cortes, while the possessions on the Mediterranean coast of Africa are counted in with Cadiz. The last are small, but would be of great strategic importance if they had better ports and more fresh water. The best and most important is Ceuta, at the eastern entrance of the Straits and directly opposite Gibraltar, from which it is about thirty miles distant. It is a small town of about 10,000 inhabitants, strongly fortified, with a poor and artificial port, and is in Spanish eyes a sort of offset to the great fortress of Gibraltar, which is "loaned" for the present to Great Britain.

The other possessions or presidios on the Moroccan coast are Penon de Velez, Mellila, small rocky peninsulas, with



PUBLIC SQUARE—CADIZ.

SPAIN OF TODAY.

very poor harbors, and two small rocky islet groups, with no harbors at all. All are devoid of fresh water except as rain is collected in cisterns, and are of no importance except for strategic reasons.

The Balearic Islands are five in number, lying opposite Valencia, from fifty to 300 miles from the central Mediterranean coast of Spain. They are about midway in the course of French vessels plying between Marseilles and Algiers, and are of high importance for any nation needing to control the commerce of the Western Mediterranean. They are rich and populous, have some fair ports and are fortified. They have a total area of 1860 square miles and a population of about 315,000.

Along the Atlantic coast of Africa Spain has several possessions, the most of them small, some of precarious existence or contested title, and all of very little value. Ifni is a port and town north of Cape Nun, on the Moroccan coast, of value because of the commerce between Spain and the Canaries.

About in the middle of the Saharan coast is a small gulf or large bay, called Rio de Oro. This means golden river, but there is no river there and no gold. On this bay Spain has one factory or trading station, the existence of which is precarious. Indeed, she claims large territory, aggregating 243,000 square miles, and embracing the oasis region to the southwest which is called Adrar. The population of the whole district is estimated at 100,000, but Spain's control over them, or influence over them, is of the flimsiest sort. Probably a large percentage of these people have never heard of Spain, and the possession is only a paper convention with France, which Spain may make effective in time, if she can.

On the Guinea coast Spain has several small islands and a considerable coast area, the possessions of the latter being contested by France. The largest uncontested possession here is the island of Fernando Po, in the angle of the Gulf of Guinea, with an area of 800 square miles and a population of about 15,000. It is a beautiful island, but very unhealthy and far away from all strategic use to the Americans. The other islands have in the aggregate but a few square miles

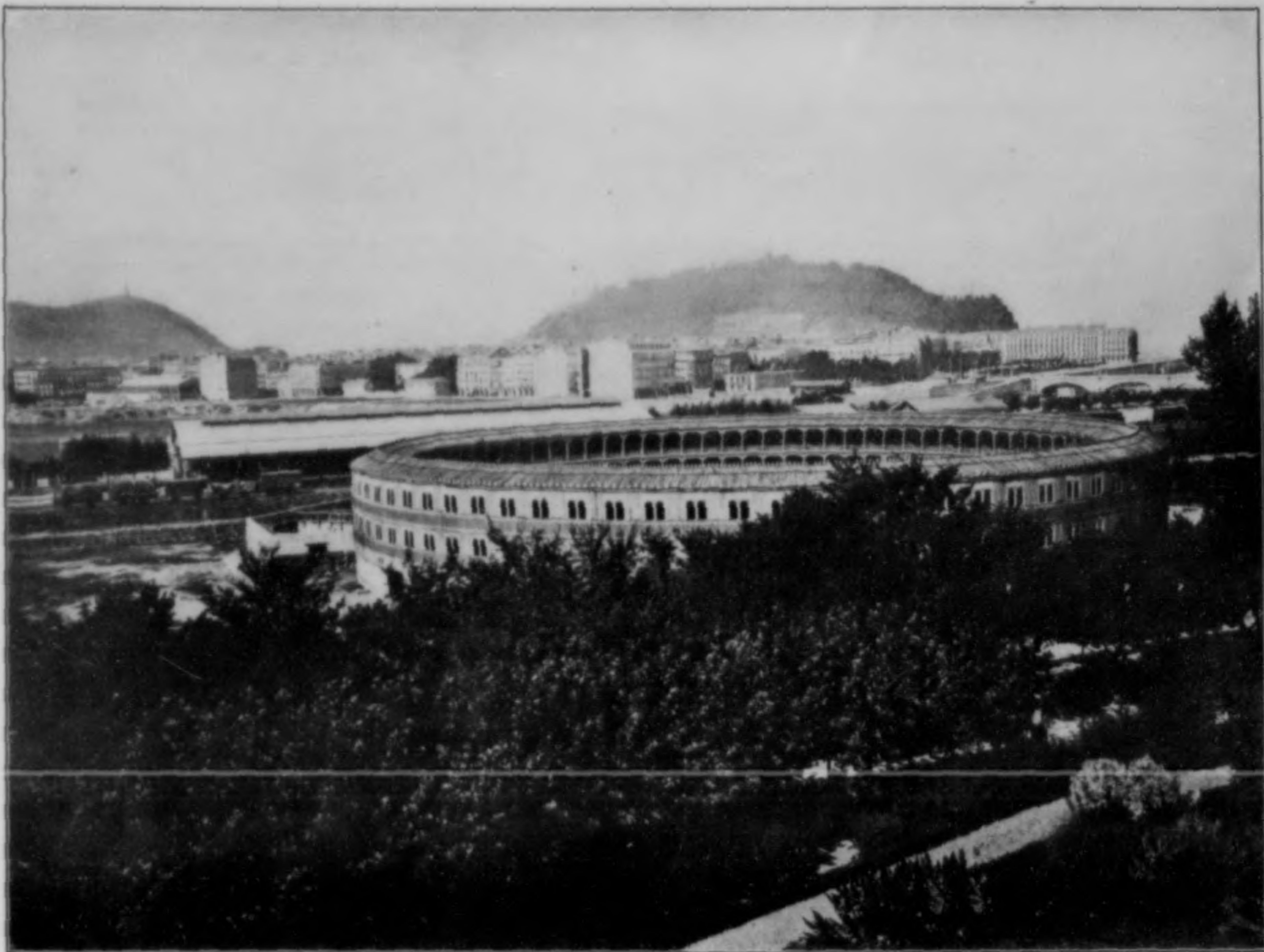
SPAIN OF TODAY.

of territory, small population, a few trading stations, mostly in hands other than Spanish, and one has an American missionary station. This is Corisco, a small island in a bay of the same name. Anyone of these could be taken with the simple effort to possess them, but their value is not likely to justify even this.

The Asiatic possessions comprise the Philippines and the Sulu Islands. The latter is geographically a part of the former, but politically it is a small sultanate, of which Spain is suzerain.

The oceanic possessions of Spain are three Pacific groups of small islands named the Pelew, or Palaos, the Caroline and the Marianne, or Ladrone. They all lie immediately to the east of the Philippines and adjoin each other. Their waters are dangerous, the good and accessible ports few and they appear to be undefended. The Pelew Islands are immediately east of Mindanao and have the Carolines on the north and east. They are volcanic coral islands, imbedded in coral reefs, and are eleven in number. The individual islands vary in size from one to 100 square miles. Together they aggregate 200 square miles. The population now numbers only 10,000 or less, and there is evidence that it was four or five times as great a century ago. Not more than two women in five bear children, and a family of three children is unusually large. The products are unimportant, except a tobacco of superior quality, produced in the largest of the islands and on one of the smaller ones.

The Marianne or Ladrone Islands lie to the north of the western end of the Caroline band. They are physically located with the Japanese Islands, and along the submarine plateau connecting them lies a series of small coral islets strung along a distance of 1500 miles, some of which are now in the possession of Japan. Doubtless this government would be glad to possess at least the Mariannes of the tropical archipelagos. This group has fifteen islands large enough to note. They aggregate about 440 square miles and have about 10,000 inhabitants. The ten northern islands are mountainous and



SAN SEBASTIAN BULL-RING.

SPAIN OF TODAY.

mostly unoccupied. The five southern are generally low. The largest is Guani, with 200 square miles and 7000 inhabitants.

The total possessions of Spain outside the peninsula, excluding a large area on the Guinea coast, also claimed by France, but including the Philippines and Cuba, have an area of 410,000 square miles and a population of about 10,000,000. This is twice as large as the peninsula itself, but the population is less than three-quarters that of Spain proper. Of the seven colonizing European nations, Spain stands sixth in area and fourth in population of colonies. Great Britain has nearly as much colonial area as all the rest combined, and over three times as much colonial population as the rest. Spain and France claim a large part of the Sahara and so swell their colonial area amazingly. Three-fifths of Spain's colonial area is Sahara. With the loss of the Philippines and Cuba Spain will sink to the last place in the series.

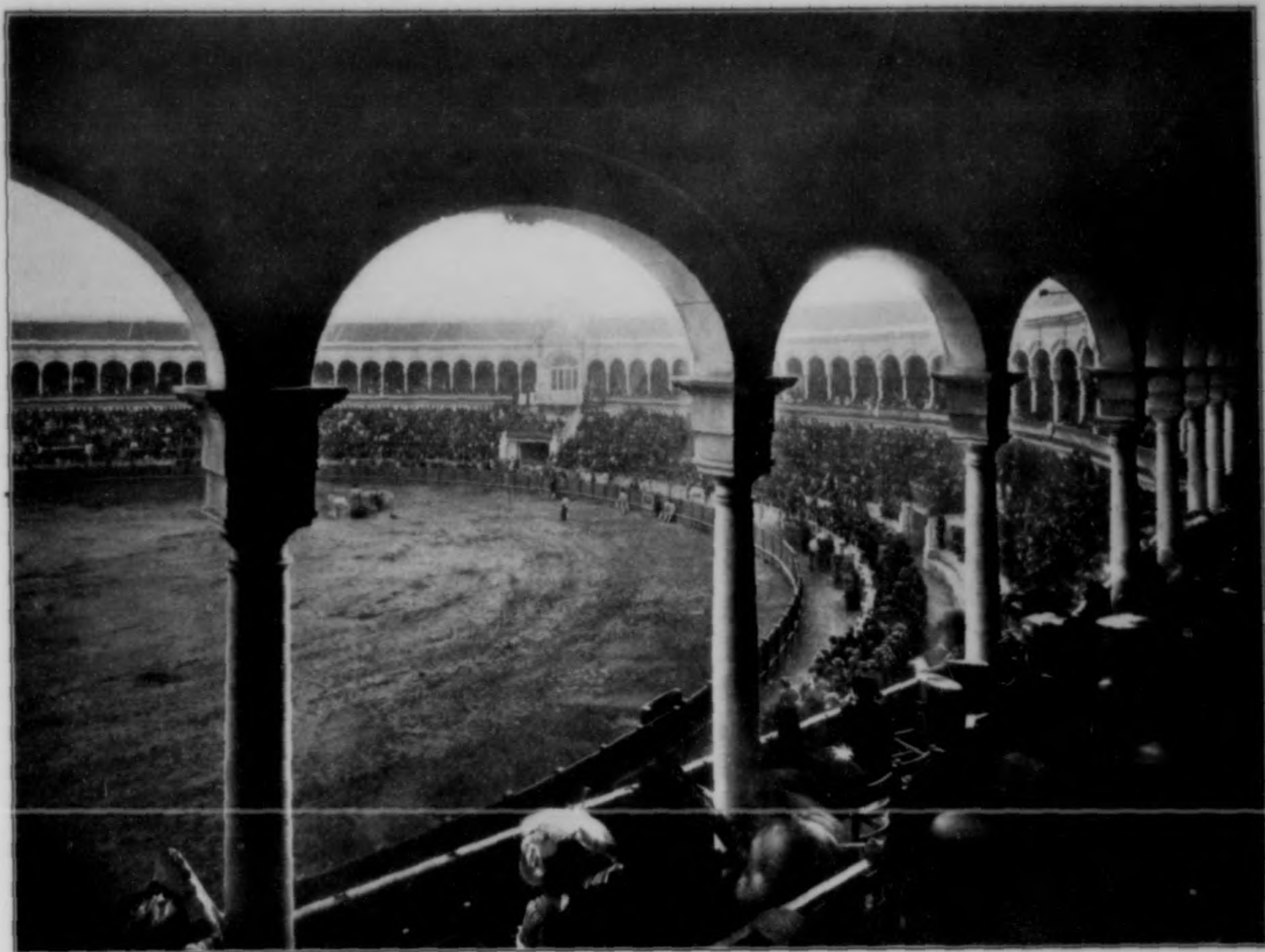
PASSING OF SPANISH RULE.

Spain held sway in the Americas for 148,203 actual days before agreeing to finally abandon all that Columbus gave her. That means 405 years, nine months and seventeen days, allowing for the difference between the old and new style of reckoning.

The Spanish flag was first raised on this continent by Columbus on San Salvador—now British territory—on Friday morning, October 12..... 1492
It disappeared from Guiana, which finally went into the hands of the English, Dutch and French..... 1613
Brazil and Uruguay went to Portugal, who claimed them under treaty..... 1634
Jamaica taken by Great Britain..... 1655
The Bahamas taken by Great Britain..... 1680
Hayti went to France and was called Saint Dominique.... 1795
Chile became independent..... 1817
Florida ceded to the United States..... 1819
Mexico became independent..... 1821

SPAIN OF TODAY.

Colombia, New Granada, Peru, Paraguay, Ecuador and Bolivia, under the leadership of Simon Bolivar, threw off the Spanish yoke..... 1824
Argentina attained independence..... 1842
Venezuela attained independence..... 1845
Spain agreed with the United States to relinquish all claim of sovereignty over the last of her possessions on the Western Continent August 9..... 1898



INTERIOR VIEW OF BULL RING, SEVILLE.

FACTS ABOUT PORTO RICO.

FACTS ABOUT PORTO RICO.

LOCATION, POPULATION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS AND CLIMATE.

Porto Rico is the most eastern island of the Greater Antilles in the West Indies. The population in 1887 numbered 798,565, of whom 474,933 were white, 246,647 mulattoes and 76,985 negroes. Slavery was abolished in 1873, three years after the colony was declared to be a representative province of Spain and divided into seven departments.

Cape San Juan is the northeastern corner of the island. Porto Rico is traversed from east to west by a mountain range, dividing the island into two unequal portions, by far the longest slope being on the northern, so that the rivers on that coast are much the longer. From this chain several branches diverge toward the north coast, giving it a rugged appearance. Part of the main range is called Sierra Grande or Barros; its northeast spur is known as the Sierra de Loquilla, that on the northwest is the Sierra Laree.

The most of the population is located on the lowlands at the sea front of the hill. For lack of roads the interior is accessible only by mule trails or saddle paths, and it is covered with vast forests.

The principal minerals found in Porto Rico are gold, carbonates and sulphides of copper, magnetic oxide of iron in large quantities. Lignite is found at Utuado and Moca, and also yellow amber. A large variety of marbles, limestones and other building stones are deposited on the island, but these resources are very undeveloped. There are salt works at Guanica and Salinas, on the south coast, and at Cape Rojo on the west, and this constitutes the principal mineral industry in Porto Rico. Hot springs and mineral waters are found at Juan Diaz, San Sebastian, San Lorenzo and Ponce, but the

FACTS ABOUT PORTO RICO.

most famous is at Coamo, near the town of Santa Isabel.

The climate is hot, but much alleviated by the prevailing northeast winds. The range is from 97 to 69 degrees Fahrenheit. The rainy season is from August to December.

The prevailing diseases are yellow fever, elephantiasis, tetanus, marsh fever and dysentery.

Porto Rico is unusually fertile, and its dominant industries are agricultural and lumbering. There are more than 500 varieties of trees found in the forests, and the plains are full of palms, orange and other trees. The principal crops are sugar, coffee, tobacco, cotton and maize, but bananas, rice, pineapples and many other fruits are important.

The wild dog is the most predacious quadruped on the island, and he chiefly attacks pigs and calves. Mice are a pest, but they are kept down by their natural enemies, the snakes, which reach a length of from six to nine feet. Numerous species of ants and bees are found, as well as fire-flies or cucuvus. They fly at times in great masses, producing weird and splendid effects in the tropical nights. Poultry is abundant, and the seas and rivers are full of the finest fish.

Railways are in their infancy and cart roads are deficient. Telegraph lines connect the principal towns, while submarine cables run from San Juan to St. Thomas and Jamaica.

According to the latest Spanish statistics, obtained at the bureau of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum, the importation into Porto Rico during 1896 amounted to \$18,945,793 and the exports to \$17,295,535.

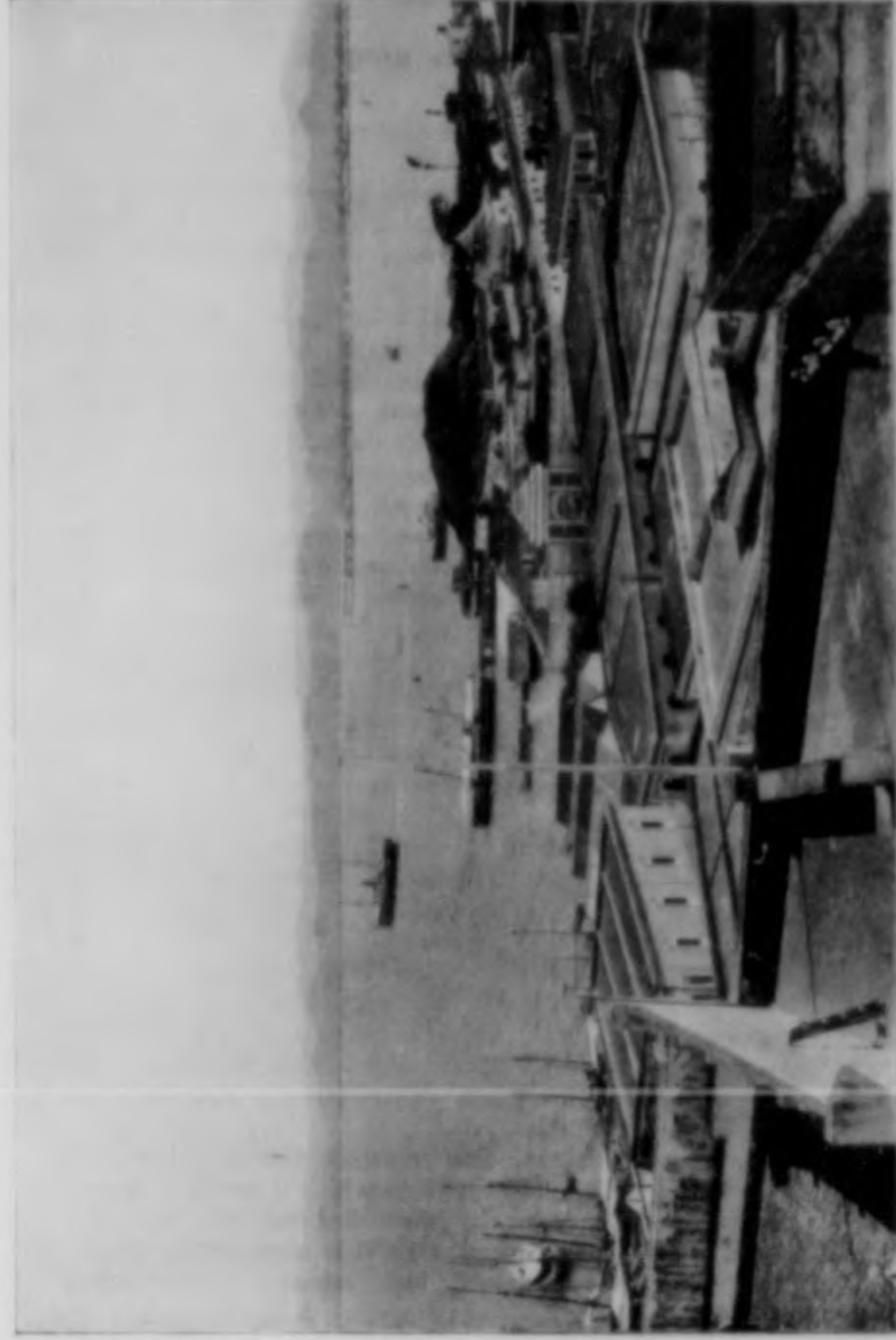
The trade with the United States during the last five years has been as follows:

	Exports to U. S.	Imports from U. S.
1893	\$4,008,623	\$2,510,007
1894	3,135,634	2,720,508
1895	1,506,512	1,833,544
1896	2,296,653	2,102,094
1897	2,181,024	1,988,888

The principal exports from the United States are flour, pork, lard, lumber and shooks.



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS' STATUE, IN THE PLAZA, SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.



PANORAMA OF HARBOR FROM HOTEL, SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.

PORTO RICO.

ADDITIONAL FACTS ABOUT PORTO RICO.

Porto Rico is divided into seven provinces for purposes of administration, remarkably equal in extent. They are Aguadilla, Mayaguez, Arecibo, Ponce, Bayamon, Guayama and Humacao.

Notwithstanding the remarkable fertility and natural healthfulness of Porto Rico, the poverty in variety of the island flora and fauna is excessive, there being few flowers, birds or wild animals. Nevertheless, the entire domain is one of the loveliest to which man is heir, and there is such an irresistible fascination about it that one who has lived there finds it tears his heart-strings to be transplanted. It grows upon one, and though at one's first coming there seems to be much disappointment, after a time this gives way to admiration, which is gradually superseded by affection. Something about the environment—or it may be many things—conspire to make one, not speedily, but gradually, reverse the first impression, and lo, and behold! you out-Herod Herod in your infelt, if not outspoken, admiration. Gazing upon the unbroken forests which cover the tropical hills, you feel that the world is, indeed, well lost while your lines are cast in such pleasant places.

San Juan, principal city and capital of the island, and seat of the Governor-General, was founded by Ponce de Leon, the seeker after eternal youth, in 1511. It lies upon an island connected with the mainland by a bridge. A Morro Castle crowns a rugged promontory, many hundreds of feet in height, guarding entrance to the harbor which fronts San Juan. This entrance, though deep enough for the largest ship, is so narrow that from the deck of a passing vessel one might leap ashore. As a consequence, only pilots intimately acquainted with the channel dare sail through it. This harbor is considered the best in the West Indies.

San Juan is today the finest representation of a mediaeval town in the world. The island on which it stands is shaped like a hand. The entire city is a walled one, with portcullis, moats, gates and battlements, all still in good repair. Inside, the old city is very compactly built, stucco in various colors

PORTO RICO.

prevailing. Here dwells a population of 20,000. Outside are 10,000 more. The upper floors throughout this anachronism of a city are occupied by the better elements, the ground floors being given up to the poor. No water system exists, and, indeed, in the commonest matters, San Juan is hundreds of years behind its day. The suburbs and vicinage are so lovely that, if a man were but taught how to appreciate his advantages, San Juan could be called the emporium of the Isles of the Blessed. Its climate, though warm, is for half a year not disagreeably so, but in the remainder, through sudden changes, pulmonic affections are to be dreaded. Epidemics, though frequent, would never disturb San Juan under improved sanitation. Its industries are so slight they scarcely deserve mention.

Ponce, on the south coast, about two miles inland, is far more modern, and not a whit less picturesque. Its 15,000 inhabitants are of a mercantile character, their chief industry being the cultivation of tobacco, sugar, cocoa and oranges, and cattle-breeding. Its port, Playa, with 5000 population, contains the custom-house and consular offices. The harbor, a commodious one, will float large ships. The climate, though warm, is tempered by sea breezes, and these make Ponce and Playa the healthiest towns of Porto Rico.

Mayaguez, third city in importance, faces the west, the Mona Channel. Nearly 20,000 people dwell here, mostly white. This climate, too, is considered excellent, the temperature never rising beyond 90°. Mayaguez exports coffee, sugar, oranges, pineapples and cocoanuts.

The remaining prominent cities, Arecibo, Aguadilla, Fajardo, Maguabo and Arroyo, have developed very slowly under Spanish misrule. But now, freed from maleficent influences, there should be phenomenal progress.



ON THE ROAD FROM PONCE TO PORT PONCE, PORTO RICO.



RANCH ON THE ROAD FROM MAYAGUEZ TO SAN GERMAN, PORTO RICO.

HAWAII.

HAWAII.

GLIMPSES OF DREAMY HAWAII, AN EARTHLY PARADISE, WHERE NATURE IS EVER GENEROUS—A HAPPY AND PROSPEROUS PEOPLE.

On the morning of the seventh day out from San Francisco the passenger on the steamer between the United States and Hawaii gets his first glimpse of these lovely and fertile islands in the South seas. If the air is clear, as it generally is, he may see for 100 miles. The ship is plowing through the bluest of sapphire seas, the sky above is a dark cerulean, and the breezes in these Southern latitudes come cool and soft as a caress to one's cheeks. The steamer is headed toward the Island of Oahu and the harbor of Honolulu.

The earliest objects one sees as the boat nears the Hawaiian Islands are the tall, serrated, black volcanic mountains that rear themselves several miles in the air. Presently one discerns a dozen distant waterfalls, amid the deep and tropical verdure, looking like silver threads on a curtain of green velvet. Then fringes of cocoanut trees and towering palms along the sea-shore come into view. The strange iridescent hues of vapors that overhang the active volcanoes attract enthusiasm. Sailing past the windward side of the Island of Molokai, one has a glimpse of the famous leper settlement close about the base of a ragged mountain, where about 1500 miserable and diseased people are dying while they live. A half hour later the Bay of Honolulu is straight ahead. The scene is one of the most beautiful that may come into any traveler's experiences. Robert Louis Stevenson said it was the most charming marine view he ever saw. The water is so clear and blue that one can look down into it for many feet. The atmosphere is soft and

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pungent. The landscape slopes smoothly down to the water, and serrated volcanoes are a picturesque background. The city of Honolulu lies ahead, with its clean white spires and domes projecting amid a mass of heavy foliage. To the right are tufted palms and cocoanut trees along a beach of white sand. Further back one gets a vista of green valleys, roads bordered by white cottages set among strange tropical trees, beds of gay flowers and orchards of ripening fruit. As the steamer moves along the bay shore the song of birds among the foliage is heard, and often there is a rainbow of unusual brilliance spanning the bay. Surely there can be no scene like this anywhere else.

The Hawaiian groups of islands are more generally known as the Sandwich Islands. The latter name was given them by their discoverer, Capt. James Cook, 1778, in honor of the first Lord of Admiralty at that time, Earl of Sandwich. There are eight islands in the group. The distance from the north to the south end of the chain is 386 miles, and the area of the islands is 7000 square miles, or about the size of Massachusetts or New Jersey. Hawaii is the largest island in the group. It is a little smaller than Connecticut. Oahu is the most populous and has an area of 600 square miles. Maui is the most generally fertile island. Millions of dollars in sugar plantations and mills are invested there. Kauai is famous for its forests of valuable woods and its rice and banana fields. The whole Hawaiian group could be put in California eight times. The surface of the three larger islands is made up of volcanic peaks and their valleys, formed by the decomposition of lava, and partly, perhaps, by upheavals, too. Thus by the elements and cycles of time have been formed the many beautiful valleys—the Manoe, back of Honolulu, with its fine waterfall and natural bath; Palolo, next beyond, the botanist's paradise, where, in a circle of 100 feet, twenty-five different varieties of ferns were found; Kalihi, the wild and picturesque, and the historic Nuanu Valley. There is also the famous Iao Valley on Maui—called the Yosemite of the islands; the Waipio and Waimaun Valleys of Hawaii are wildly beautiful, but seldom visited on account of the difficulty of reaching them. On the



FIELD OF SUGAR CANE, HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

HAWAII.

windward side of the islands the coasts are abrupt and steep, with deep ravines, while the leeward sides are fringed with more or less level belt along the seashore, which is protected in some places by coral reefs. What a sight to remember! The spray breaking on the barrier reefs that span the bay, then trailing into the coral surf as long, white veils!

One can find almost any kind of climate here. There is the soft, balmy air of the seas and valleys. It is said that the waters here are 10 degrees cooler than any other place in the same latitude. Then there is the fresh, invigorating atmosphere of 4000 feet, and, finally, the frost and snow limit of 14,000 feet. The lowest the thermometer has reached in ten years is 54 degrees, and the highest 89 degrees. This otherwise hothouse climate is tempered by the trade winds for three-fourths of the year. Although one needs a slight covering at night, there are no fireplaces in Honolulu, unless a few for ornament.

A delicious languor pervades the whole place, people and plants alike. At any moment the sky may become overcast and an unexpected shower come down. Then as quickly it passes away, and one's clothes are left steaming in the sun. Oftentimes the showers beat in on one side of your carriage and the sun shines on the other. With the greatest varieties of elevation and temperature is a like variety of vegetation. There are said to be about 1000 different species of flowering plants and 155 ferns. It is said 600 of all these species are found only on the islands. However, most all of the fruits and vegetables are not indigenous. The bean, palm and fern families are the commonest varieties of vegetation.

One looks with awe and wonder from the emerald and sapphire waters, so clear that in some places fish may be seen swimming at a depth of sixty feet, to the great plantations and forests of tropical vegetation, with their luxuriant fruits and foliage festooned in fantastic shapes by graceful trailing vines, where every conceivable shade and tint of green, gray and brown are blended with the splendid coloring of the flowers, from the most delicate to the most gorgeous tints; from this to the rainbowed valleys beyond, where almost con-

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tinually may be seen the brilliant bow of promise, arching from one precipitous wall to the other, with repeated double reflections, until they disappear in the mist-shrouded peaks above, and over all this scene a canopy of soft opal lights.

The city of Honolulu has a population of 28,000, and there are few more cosmopolitan communities anywhere. The native Hawaiians comprise about two-fifths of this population, the Americans one-fourth. The remainder of the population is made up of Japanese, Chinese, English, Portuguese and Germans. There are sprinklings, also, of the Norwegians, Polynesians, French, Javanese and Chilians. So far as modern improvements go, Honolulu is a thoroughly up-to-date city. It has elaborate telephone and electric-lighting systems, the best of macadamized roads, a public library of 15,000 volumes, numerous little and finely-kept parks, handsome public buildings, hospitals and a public-school system that is the pride of President Dole's administration. One of the first things that the visitor in the city notices is the large number of barefoot men and women. The natives and Chinese go shoeless most of the year, and the poorer white people lapse into the same custom. When Robert Louis Stevenson and his family were at Waikiki in the years 1888 and 1889 they went barefoot commonly about their home, and even received formal callers barefooted. Then the prevalence of cotton clothing is noticeable. Everyone wears loose cotton garments here to some extent, and the majority of residents all the time. Another fact by which Honolulu differs from all other cities is the abundance of horses and carriages. It is a very poor family here that does not keep an equipage of some sort. People who would have to constantly count their pennies to make ends meet in other countries and conditions here keep a team and a big, stylish carriage. Single horses and a low victoria style of vehicles are here by the hundreds. In the afternoons and early evenings, when Dame Fashion in Honolulu rides abroad, the smooth, hard roads made of lava are crowded with equipages of all descriptions, from the elegant clarence, with dignified coachman and footman atop in gorgeous uniform, down to basket phaetons drawn by a jaded



FORMER RESIDENCE OF HAWAII'S QUEEN.

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mule. This is the land of cheap things, and servants, horses and fodder are the monuments of cheapness. The natives are fine horseback riders. The women ride their steeds astride, and they are superior in horsemanship.

The visitor to Honolulu is daily impressed with a curious mixture of a primitive condition of affairs with the outward signs of an advanced civilization. Here may be seen the crude grass-hut homes of a native, having one glassless window, a dirt floor, no door, and beds of leaves, and a rifle-shot away is the stone administration building (formerly the queen's palace), built of cut stone, iron, plate glass and planned and furnished under the eye of one of the famous Chicago architects. One sees every hour on the streets American and English, in the latest and most elaborate styles of equipages, alongside of natives trudging on foot, barely dressed in ti leaves, so as to conceal their nakedness, and bearing great pots of the aboriginal poi on their black-haired heads. At the tourist hotels and in the beautiful residences of Americans and English, who came here a generation ago and got rich by growing sugar for the American market, one may partake of the most up-to-date menu. Scarcely a rifle-shot away are natives in their grass huts, squatted on the floor, devouring raw fish or uncooked herbs.

The children of the present generation are a kind of conglomerate of eleven distinct nationalities. The native Hawaiian, descended from the Polynesian family from the southwestern part of Asia, the Portuguese, the English and the Chinese predominate. The cleverest and shrewdest are the Hawaiians and Chinese, the most beautiful the Hawaiians and English—the best—well, perhaps, it would be better not to be too inquisitive. No doubt by searching one might find absurd and pernicious customs, but happily that is not the duty of a visitor.

The so-called half-whites are surely sensually the most beautiful people in the world—up to a certain age. They have healthy brown skins, fluffy dark hair and magnificent physiques. Their eyes, like the stars in the firmament, are unusually large and brilliant. They beam and scintillate with a

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bewitching radiance peculiarly their own. On Sunday morning everyone seems beautiful. From all over the city are people coming to church, the gentlemen in their white suits, and most all of the ladies, young and old, in dainty white muslin frocks—and many with white hats, parasols and gloves. When one looks at the somber, magnificent statue in front of the government building of Kamehameha I, in the costume of a warrior chief, draped in his royal feather robe, it brings to mind the time when this fierce conqueror fought for mastery and won it.

Honolulu was laid out by some one who must have had a map of Boston in his mind's eye. A few avenues are broad and comely, but many of the streets go winding aimlessly through the town, as if of a mind to double on their course and return for a better start. It is a mere matter of courtesy to call them streets. In point of fact, they are lanes, hardly wider than passing teams require, and with sidewalks where but two people can walk abreast. Narrow-gauge tracks for horse cars traverse the main thoroughfares, but the nickel travel is mainly Hawaiians and Chinese. However much the inhabitants may have begrudged the land needed for thoroughfares, they have saved plenty of it for their dooryards. He is a poor provider who has less than an acre about his homestead, and many families occupy three or four times that area. Surrounded as the city homes are by the trees of the tropics, they give Honolulu the appearance of a land of country villas. Even some of the Chinese and Japanese have dwellings that appeal to the artistic taste. And why not? Land is cheap; airy, graceful, pagoda-like structures suit the climate and do not rob the purse, while nature's landscape gardening cannot be surpassed.

The business part of Honolulu is not striking in an artistic sense, but it is made interesting to the stranger by its odd street scenes. White duck suits and Panama hats, the latter ribboned with delicate shades of silk, and muslin dresses with wide-brimmed Leghorn hats, are common among the upper classes, and give an equatorial glamor to the passing show. The prevalent native male is picturesque in a straw hat bound



NATIVE CANOES—HAWAII.

HAWAII.

with flowers or peacock feathers, a negligé suit with floral circlets hung about the shoulders, his feet unshod and his attitude supremely restful. The female native wears a Mother Hubbard gown, a wreath of flowers called leis, and she, too, goes barefooted. No one accuses her of prudishness, and she is likely to have an unappeasable appetite for poi, raw fish and the hula dance. Quite often she eats so much poi and so little of anything else that she becomes afflicted with incurable sores and dies before her time. Death, in truth, has held high carnival in these islands since Captain Cook's men landed. The Hawaiian had enough of his own ways of dying, but Christendom gave him many more. Because of gin, licentiousness and the kahuna doctors, his race is fast passing off the stage.

Besides the natives, the streets show a swarm of Orientals in their native dress, Portuguese merchants, Chinese firemen, native police, Japanese, British and American men-of-war's men and tourists from every civilized country. There are hundreds whose nativity it is hard to place. Not infrequently intermarriage occurs between Chinese and Kanakas, Japanese and Portuguese, Americans and half-caste native women, and the issue is a sort of composite which, it must be confessed, is often an improvement on the mated types.

Most strangers who visit the islands are given a chance to see the surviving forms of savage life which once abounded here. The hula dance is one of these, and it is the most complete display of barbarism which this quarter of the world affords. The motive of the dance is grossly sensual. Sometimes it is performed to the music of an orchestra, but the primitive accompaniment is the thumping of calabashes and a song in the Hawaiian dialect, which, it is said, could not bear the exposure of civilized print. At the outset of the dance the hula girls appear in the middle of a ring or square. Seated on the ground behind them are the musicians. The ballet wears cotton frocks with leis on the head and shoulders. Their legs are bare to the knee; around their ankles are circles of wool, and as they move the dancers exhale the odor of coconut oil. A strident chant from some toothless hag among the squatted orchestra starts the hula, and as it proceeds the music

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grows louder and more discordant. Each hula last from ten to fifteen minutes, and then the performers pause to refresh themselves with gin. This beverage costs about twenty cents a quart, and but for the use of poi, which coats the inflamed walls of the drinker's stomach with a soothing lotion, it would prove a speedy exterminator of the hula dancers.

The Hawaiians are a particularly bland and cheerful race. A crabbed, sour, unhappy old Hawaiian is a rarity. A scheming, grasping Hawaiian is unknown. The sunshine of youth animates even the oldest among them, and except for their white hairs and very wrinkled swart faces one would not believe the Hawaiians feel the touches of time when sixty and seventy years of life have passed over them. It is common to see gray-haired people rolling and tumbling on the sward in play with their grandchildren. An aged grandparent and his dozen boy grandchildren will go on a fishing excursion with a common enthusiasm, and all come home together like a pack of hilarious schoolboys. Hawaiian parents and their children will dance, play simple games and plague one another without thought of a difference in ages for a half-day at a time. The natives are as improvident for the morrow as little children. Not one of them in fifty has food provided a week ahead. And why should they? There is the sea and bays all about the islands teeming with delicious fish, the fields have never been known through countless ages to be tardy in producing succulent taro tubers for the national poi. Besides, there are a dozen varieties of fruits always hanging on the trees for some one to come and eat. Sorrows that would crush the average person of the Caucasian race fall lightly upon the Hawaiians. They love their children and parents as devotedly as anyone can, but death leaves traces of sadness behind for only a few days. A Hawaiian home may be plunged in the deepest of genuine woe for a day or two at the death of a child, and the following week it will ring with gay Kanaka songs, and there will mayhap be a dance there.

Among any people but the Hawaiians the horrible blight of leprosy would create a serious and saddened race. Hundreds of homes in the islands have a representative or two



HULA DANCERS AND TOM-TOM BAND, HONOLULU.

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among the miserable beings who have been transported to the leper settlement at Molokai, to remain there until death relieves them from isolation, pain and disease. But one would hardly know, unless he examined into the subject, concerning the prevalence of leprosy in the Hawaiian Islands. The natives never speak of the disease themselves, no matter how much their hearts may be breaking for banished and diseased members of their families, and they will merely shrug their shoulders and change the subject when conversation veers toward the topic of leprosy. The Hawaiians love music more than any race in the South Seas. The strumming of a banjo or guitar or the clarion notes of a cornet will draw a throng of natives at any time. If the music is gay the feet of the crowd will presently begin to move in time to the music. Four out of five of the natives are able to play some musical instrument, and as one rides along the roads in the outskirts of Honolulu at evening, when the day's work is done, a continuous strain of string music may be heard from the grass huts and lowly cabins of the natives. At the Claus Spreckels great sugar plantation of Mani it is one of the articles of agreement with the 1500 native laborers that they shall be provided by the employers with musical instruments and a place to dance. A dozen years ago a hand-organ man invaded Honolulu, and it is said he set the natives about crazy with delight at his novel and wonderful music. Native men and women could not be induced to work for days at a time, and thousands of them followed the hand-organ man about all day long. At last the sugar and rice planters rose in their anger and secretly paid the organ-grinder ten times the value of his musical apparatus to smash the instrument and quit the islands. The Hawaiians have melodious voices, and their many songs are of a highly romantic order. They have choruses that tell of the love of the soft zephyrs and the goodness of the mother earth. The roaring of the sea and the music of the waterfall abound in their lore and songs.

The Hawaiian is not fond of amusements as his pale-faced brother knows them. He is not much of a card-player. Gambling is less general in Hawaii than anywhere else among the

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Pacific archipelagoes. Violent sports are naturally distasteful to these people of the tropics, and dramas have no charm for them. They love to bathe above everything else, and they are the most natural swimmers on earth. Every native learns to swim almost from infancy. The man or woman who cannot go a mile or two out in the tossing blue of the Pacific is pitied by the brothers and sisters. The Hawaiians have swimming boards, six feet long and a foot wide, upon which they ride the breakers off shore. When the wind blows hardest and the coconut trees bend and sway most, and when the waves roll highest, thousands of the natives will go hastening down to the coast, each with a swimming board under his or her arm. For hours, often for a whole day long, the natives enjoy themselves like little boys in the foaming, roaring surf. Lying prone on a board, each swimmer will ride as easily as a duck over the waves. The higher and mightier the surf so much the better.

Feasting has uncommon attractions for the Hawaiians. The average native will be homeless rather than forego a great meal, where he can eat without stint once a week. The luan, an enormous feast, accompanied by lascivious music of guitars and violins, is an institution in the Hawaiian Islands. It is a feast, or, more correctly speaking, a grand feed. It is served on the ground. Ti leaves—like mammoth lily leaves—are spread in lieu of tablecloths, and the food is heaped and spread on the leaves. The diners sit Turkish or tailor fashion on grass mats about the edge of the area of ti leaves and food. The natives can sit with their legs thus folded up beneath them for almost any period, but many an American or English guest at a luan has felt such pains in his legs, when the feasting has been prolonged several hours, as if he would never again be able to walk. The chief article of diet at a luan is the universal Hawaiian poi—a pungent compound of taro tubers that has the appearance, smell and consistency of hill-poster's paste. A Hawaiian will eat several gallons of this compound—vile to the American—in a day. Meat is not eaten by the average Hawaiian once a month. There may be a half dozen great wooden bowls, known as calabashes, of poi



A BUSINESS CENTRE IN HONOLULU.

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served at the luau. Everyone dips a hand in the bowl of poi, and, withdrawing his hand, will lick up the watery poi as it trickles from his fingers. It is wonderful how expert the Hawaiians are in feeding themselves in this unique manner. Another native delicacy is raw fish. It takes strong nerves to sit and see a native woman reach into an aquarian, pull out a writhing mullet and bite off its head. Yet that is what she is apt to do. Some of the more dainty ones, who are well brought up, select a live minnow and roll it under the tongue, finally swallowing it as we do an oyster. Sometimes there is roast dog, with which inquisitive tourists are served under the name of young sucking pig. Those who have been deceived in this way say that unidentified dog is a luxury only second to pheasant and soft-shell crab.

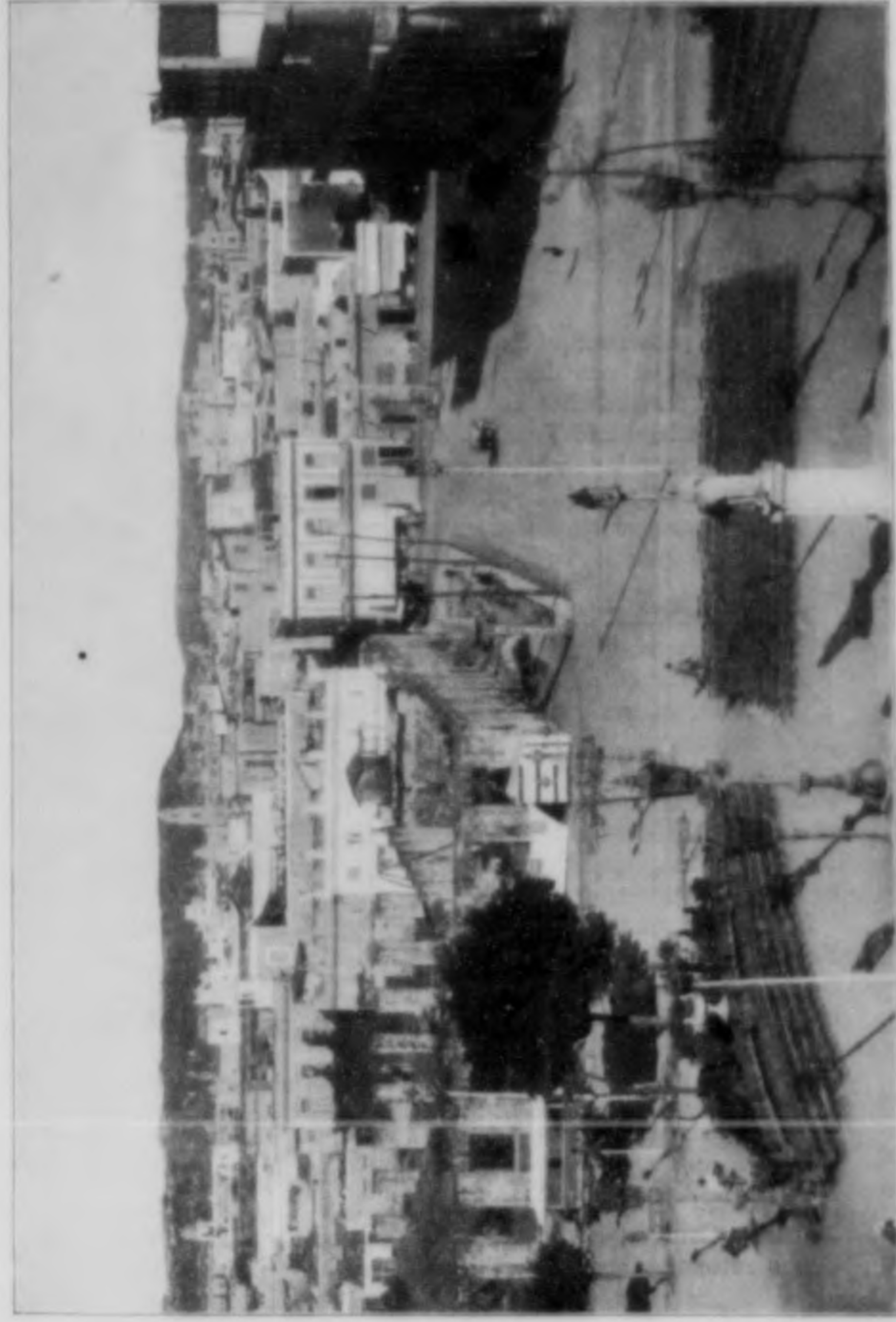
Among the entrees the live squid has an honored place. It is a dank, slimy, squirming thing with an evil swell and an eye that stares unhappily about, but, to use the Hawaiian for it, it is all that *pate de foie gras* ever was to the Parisian diner. At a luau your next friend, a muslined girl, with a wreath of flowers, is quite apt to reach over and break off a toothsome tentacle. The wounded squid shrinks with pain, and the wounded part exudes a viscid paste, which, when it touches the Hawaiian's palate, makes the native belle feel that, in spite of the white man's contumely, the great shark god has not withheld his chiefest blessing from her lowly self. Raw shrimps, salted seaweed, a batter of sweet squash and the inevitable gin for those whom the feast has left unsatisfied are on the luau list of creature comforts. The invitation is to eat, drink and be merry, with even chances that on the morrow you will die; that is, unless you have an Hawaiian interior.

The uppermost thought in the minds of a larger part of the tourists in the islands upon arrival here is the curiosity to see a leper, and the fear that they may be unconsciously exposed to the disease. When, however, days pass and the subject of leprosy is not mentioned, and all inquiries about the disease are met by the residents with a certain glumness, one begins to believe that the stories of leprosy and the transportation of lepers to Molokai are sensational fabrications. Neverthe-

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less, there are lepers in Hawaii, and many in Honolulu. The disease claims from ninety to 100 victims for transportation every year, and one undoubtedly passes almost hourly in the streets and public places men, women and children in whose veins the germs of loathsome leprosy are slowly developing, and will soon manifest themselves so that the victim will be laid hold of by the public health authorities for banishment to Molokai. Thousands of tourists have spent seasons here and never knowingly seen a case of leprosy, and have believed that the touching stories that have been whispered to them of the banishment of happy and prosperous people because of the leprosy taint are romances.

The Hawaiian Republic has kept the leprosy in check more rigidly than was ever done in the days of the kingdom. The work is performed as silently as possible. Much of it is done in secret, for the residents of the islands are mortally sensitive that so frightful a malady should be so common here. The government board of health is thoroughly organized. It has its spies out constantly for people suspected of being incipient victims of leprosy. In the suburbs of Honolulu there are buildings where suspects are kept in isolation until their cases are decided beyond a shadow of doubt. Often a suspect will be detained there two or three months. Meanwhile examinations and tests for leprosy germs are made every few days. Sometimes a person who feels the manifestation of leprosy in his blood will even come and give himself up for examination, knowing that he will be doomed to banishment to the leprosy colony if the tests are against him. The ability to hold hot things in the hands and peculiar, sickening headaches day after day are generally the first signs that a leper has of his horrible condition. A leper generally lives about five years after the disease first asserts itself. There are instances of lepers living twenty years at Molokai. Women die soonest with the disease. It is now thoroughly proven that leprosy is not inherited, but contracted by inoculation. It may be communicated by a handshake, but the most general modes of communicating the disease is by the national habit of Hawaiians of a dozen or score of people dipping with bare hands



PANORAMA OF HAVANA. FROM THE INGLATERRA HOTEL.



INTERIOR OF CAPTAIN-GENERAL'S PALACE, HAVANA.

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since 1886. Then the total average exports each year were valued at \$30,500. Last year these exports were valued at \$67,000, and this year they will be fully \$7000 more. Coconuts are grown abundantly in the more sheltered valleys of Hawaii, and the exports of these have increased fast every year of the republic. The annual wool and hide exports are valued at \$21,000, and in the days of free wool in the United States the industries went forward by leaps in the remote and backwoods regions of the islands. In the line of fruits there is a great abundance everywhere in Hawaii. Many delicious fruits have never been shipped away from the islands. Tamarinds, guavas, figs, papaios, oranges, lemons, limes, vi apples, pears, blue mangoes, Ohios, or mountain grapes of peculiar sweetness, and pineapples grow in profusion.

CUBA.

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Cuba is a possession of Spain, and is the largest of the West India islands; it was discovered by Christopher Columbus October, 1492, and first colonized by his son Diego, who founded Santiago and Trinidad in 1514, and Havana in 1519.

In forty years the aborigines, who numbered 300,000, were blotted out by Spain. Havana quickly grew into importance, and was destroyed by a French privateer in 1538, and again in 1554, and in 1624 the Dutch captured it, but gave it back to Spain.

In 1762 a British force captured Havana, under Lord Albemarle, and restored it to Spain under the Treaty of Paris of 1763. The French deposed the reigning family in Spain in 1808; Cuba declared war against Napoleon. Spain lost all her American possessions, but kept Cuba. Because of government by a foreign captain-general as far back as 1810, and also of the heavy taxation, a discontent was breeding, which gradually hardened into opposition, hatred and defiance after 1836, when Cuba was denied a share in the benefits of the new constitution granted the mother country.

In 1873 occurred the tragic Virginius incident, when Captain Fry, of that ill-fated vessel, and fifty-two other Americans were shot at Santiago as "pirates." In 1889 Premier Sagasta told the United States Minister there was not gold enough in the world to buy Cuba.

The year 1868 inaugurated an effort for Cuban independence, under the leadership of Maximo Gomez, a native West Indian. The war lasted for ten years, being limited to the eastern third of the island. It was finally terminated by the treaty of El Zanjón, between Gomez and Captain-General Martinez Campos, providing for important concessions of Cuban autonomy and the early abolishment of slavery. This



MORRO CASTLE, HAVANA.

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war cost Spain 100,000 men and about \$60,000,000, and this expense was taxed on the Cubans. Taxation without the knowledge of the Cubans themselves was, as ever, the core of the whole fiscal system, and every native Cuban was excluded from every office which could give him influence in public affairs and to make the most out of the colonists' labor for the benefit of Spain. The government at Madrid continually issued decrees, whose effect would be to cheapen sugar and tobacco, the two great Cuban products. Spain practically confiscated the product of the Cubans' labor without giving them in return either safety, prosperity or education. She systematically impoverished Cuba, while demoralizing its people by condemning them to political inferiority. The Cuban deputies were never able to accomplish anything in the Cortes at Madrid, the majority owing their places to distinctly Spanish influence. The vast sums amassed by taxes, multitudinous, searching, grasping, were raised and spent, not for roads, schools, improvements or for developing internal resources, but for the enrichment and indulgence of a swarm of overbearing foreigners. Spain had fastened a debt on Cuba of \$200,000,000, in addition to a system of taxation which wrung annually \$30,000,000 from them.

The present disturbance, which has given rise to a difference between Spain and the United States, has already called forth Marshal Campos in 1895, General Weyler in 1896 and General Blanco in October, 1897, and about 200,000 Spanish troops. The uprising began on February 24, 1895.

Cuba is divided into six provinces, each with a capital of the same name, viz.:

PROVINCE.	CAPITAL.	POPULATION.
Havana	Havana.....	451,928
Matanzas	Matanzas.....	225,891
Pinar del Rio.....	Pinar del Rio.....	259,570
Puerto Principe.....	Puerto Principe.....	354,122
Santa Clara.....	Santa Clara.....	67,789
Santiago de Cuba.....	Santiago de Cuba.....	272,319
Total		1,631,619

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Cuba is long and narrow, 750 miles long and an average breadth of 60 to 70 miles; the area is 41,655 square miles. The population is now estimated at 1,723,000, composed of Spaniards, creoles and mulattoes and negroes.

The Governor-General is assisted by a Council of Administration, and the island is represented in the Spanish Cortes by 16 Senators and 30 Deputies.

Havana has an estimated population of 250,000. The other important towns are: Matanzas, 87,760; Santiago de Cuba, 71,307; Cienfuegos, 65,067; Puerto Principe, 46,641; Holguin, 34,767; Santa Clara, 34,635; Sancti Spiritus, 32,608; Cardenas, 20,505; Guanabacoa, 16,402. There are 843 public schools and a university at Havana.

The revenue is about \$22,632,143; expenditures, \$24,061,505; total debt about \$341,737,333; total exports, \$82,018,228; imports, \$52,101,862. The principal products are sugar, coffee and tobacco. There are 1000 miles of railway in operation, and the larger sugar estates have private lines connecting with the main lines, making a total of 1200 miles. There are 2300 miles of telegraph lines.

SANTIAGO DE CUBA.

The city of Santiago de Cuba, capital of the province of the same name in the eastern part of the Island of Cuba, is probably the oldest town of any size in this hemisphere, it having been founded by Velasquez in the year 1514. The city was for many years the capital of the island. It now has a population of about 45,000, being surpassed in size by no other Cuban city, except Havana. The town is well built, many of the buildings being of stone. The principal structures are the cathedral, several smaller churches, a college, numerous convents and schools and a well-equipped and scientifically conducted military hospital. Being the capital of the province of Santiago de Cuba, the city is the residence of the provincial governor. It is also an archbishop's see. The mean temperature in the city is 88 degrees in summer and 82 degrees in winter. The sanitary arrangements are very poor, however.

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and the town is regarded as very unhealthy, yellow fever being prevalent throughout the year and smallpox epidemic at frequent intervals. The number of deaths in 1895 was 2176 civilians and 634 soldiers, and in 1896 there were 3574 deaths among the civilians and 423 among the soldiers. Taking the population of the city, exclusive of the soldiers, at 42,500, an average estimate, the death-rate for 1895 would be 5.12 per cent., and for 1896, 8.42 per cent. During the two years in question the greatest mortality was in July and August, while the healthiest months were February and March, in 1895, and January and December in 1896.

The city is situated on the eastern shore and near the head of a bay of irregular shape about six miles long and varying in width from a few hundred feet to nearly a mile. This mouth of the harbor is very narrow, there being but a few hundred feet between the high hills on either side. On the eastern side of this entrance stands the old Morro Castle, a quaint structure of heavy masonry. It is surrounded by a waterless moat crossed by bridges. The entrances are provided with the mediaeval drawbridge and portcullis. Lower down the hill excavations have been made in recent years, and it is thought that in these lower works modern batteries have been installed. Other forts and batteries of unknown strength located on either side of the entrance protect the harbor.

An interesting feature of Santiago is the public drive or paseo running along the water-front. This alameda was, until a few years ago, in a deplorable state of ruin. But through the efforts of a German resident, Mr. Michaelson, and of the German Consul, Mr. Schumann, the drive has been restored to a very attractive condition, and the Sunday and Thursday band concerts, with the accompanying promenades on the paseo, are now an important feature of the social life of the people of Santiago de Cuba.

In the year 1893 a number of Americans and Englishmen living in Santiago de Cuba, recognizing the wretched condition of the hotels of the city, formed what is known as the Anglo-American Club, for the purpose of affording to foreign travelers a cheap and respectable place in which to stop while

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in the city. The clubrooms are supplied with newspapers and periodicals from various parts of the world, and the establishment has become a recognized headquarters for English-speaking business men temporarily in the city.

A railroad, called the Sabanilla & Maroto, runs from the city to San Luis, twenty-five miles distant, with a branch to Alto Songo, twelve miles in length. It is owned and controlled by the Ponupo Transportation & Mining Co., which is composed largely of Americans, and is engaged in developing the manganese deposits which lie to the north of the city.

Santiago is the headquarters for three large iron-mining plants owned by United States citizens, viz., the Juragua, the Spanish-American and the Sigua, together representing the investment of about \$12,000,000, in addition to the amount invested in ships for transporting the ore. The Juragua company is the oldest and largest of the three, and it was the only one which was in active operation at the time the war began. The mines of this company lie about fifteen miles to the east of Santiago de Cuba, being connected with the city by means of a private narrow-gauge railway. The ore of these mines is of excellent quality, yielding from 62 to 67 per cent. pure iron, and it is unusually free from sulphur and phosphorus.

Aside from mining, the only industry of importance in the province of Santiago de Cuba is agriculture. Sugar is grown in ordinary times quite extensively, and coffee and cocoa are produced in sufficient quantity, not only to supply the local demand, but to provide a considerable surplus for export to other parts of the island. The city of Santiago de Cuba is naturally the commercial center of the province, although considerable shipments are also made through Guantanamo, a city of about 7000 inhabitants, situated on the coast of the Caribbean sea, a few miles east of Santiago de Cuba; Manzanillo, a city of 12,000, some distance to the west; Baiquiri and other ports.

The manufacturing interests of the province are few and small. Aside from the sugar-making plants scattered over the district, there are in the city of Santiago de Cuba several small tobacco-working establishments, and in 1894 there were five

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distilling plants engaged in the manufacture of rum and other liquids from the raw spirits secured from sugar-cane. Of these firms, one has been in operation since 1862 and has acquired a very wide reputation. These five establishments had an annual capacity of 500,000 gallons of rum. Of this amount a large percentage was consumed in the province and the remainder was exported to South and Central America, Spain, Philippine Islands, and a small quantity to France and the United States. The price of this article fell so low in the year 1894 that the industry was practically brought to a standstill before the insurrection commenced, and little has been done in this line since that time.

THE PALMS OF CUBA.

THERE ARE TWENTY-SIX VARIETIES—BEAUTY AND USES OF THE ROYAL PALM.

Not only is the climate of Cuba favorable to the planting of crops whenever the farmer chooses to plant them, and the lands so rich that no fertilization is ever required, but Nature seems to have, with a beneficent hand, reared many strange trees and plants to supply the wants of man without the necessity of his planting them himself. First among these are the palms, some twenty-six varieties of which adorn the fields of Cuba, giving shade, food and life. At the head of these stands the royal palm. This majestic tree consists of a tall, straight trunk of fibrous wood, supporting a cluster of penated leaves, like a bunch of plumes on a long stick. It is a marvel of beauty and utility, yet it is the most common of all trees in Cuba. It is met with most everywhere; in the center of broad pasture lands it often stands alone, tall and straight; while bordering the cultivated fields of the rich planter it forms shady avenues to his dwelling. Again, its seeds find root amid the gloom of the somber forest, sending the tall shaft high up to find room for its fairy-like cluster of plumes in the free air above. On the plains it often forms delicious groves of shade, and on the distant mountain it may be seen rearing its plumed crest against the sky, and in the valley below its dark green

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leaves murmur softly in sweet cadence with the winding river.

The palm has been called the blessed tree, for every part of it has its usefulness in mankind. Certain medicinal qualities are claimed for its roots, and its trunk is easily split into strips, making excellent boards for the siding of houses, benches and even tables. As the trunk is without any bark, and its center is very porous, increasing in density toward the outer surface, which is nearly as hard as glass, it is only the outside hard shell of the trunk which furnishes these boards. From this hard, fibrous wood some very pretty canes are made, which take a most beautiful polish. The leaves of the palm grow from the center of the trunk, first in the form of a delicate spire shooting up, which, gradually unfolding itself, forms a new leaf.

These leaves continue to grow from the center spire to a great length, forming the cluster, which, in the case of the royal palm, resembles so much a bunch of enormous plumes. The leaves, when they cannot grow any more, drop to the ground from the bottom of the cluster, thus making room for the new ones which are always coming out of the center. The bud or root of the center spire, from which the leaves grow, consist of a tender substance buried deep down within the cluster of green leaves, and forms a very palatable food, either in the raw state or cooked as a vegetable, or made into preserve with sugar.

One of the peculiarities of the royal palm is the stem of its long leaves. It is a semi-circular stem, which embraces the trunk of the tree and holds the leaf in place until it withers and drops to the ground. The stem is called the "yagua." It resembles a thin board, often as long as a man is tall, and the Cuban insurgent makes it serve him a variety of purposes. For example, while I was in the field it frequently served me as a plate by simply cutting off a section of it. By soaking in water it is rendered pliable, so that it may be folded almost as readily as a piece of stiff paper. Thus softened, it is folded at the ends something after the fashion of a baker's paper hat, and fastened with wooden pins. In this shape it is called a "catarro," and serves the Cuban farmer as a water bucket, or

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a wash basin, or a receptacle for milk, lard, cheese, eggs or whenever a receptacle of any kind may be needed. I have seen a group of rebels using a "yagua" thus folded as a kettle in which to cook their breakfast of beef and yams. The water kept the fibrous wood from burning, and I was assured that the food thus cooked required no salt other than that which was extracted from the "yagua" in the process of cooking.

ADDITIONAL FACTS ABOUT CUBA.

More than half of the coast consists of wonderfully picturesque reefs of rocks, and shallows scarcely less so; notwithstanding, there are numerous ideal havens, providentially placed on the busiest thoroughfares of the western seas. Cuba is extremely mountainous in parts, one range penetrating a large section of the western end towards its center, and another forming a bastion of rock along much of the southeastern coast. Most of the remaining center is ruggedly hilly, the remainder consisting of undulating plains, well watered and extremely fertile. Thus an elevated watershed crosses almost entire Cuba, in the direction of its length. There are any number of waterways—no less than 250 rivers—but these are short, since they rise in the hills, run at right angles to them, and discharge into the seas. Along the southeast coast at one section there is a swamp 160 miles in continuous length, the only district not favored by nature. Quoting the National Geographic Magazine: "The surface of the island is clad in a voluptuous floral mantle, which, from its abundance and beauty, first caused Cuba to be designated the Pearl of the Antilles."

Cuba has two seasons—the dry, November till May, the dew is abundant throughout this. The other season—the rainy, from May to November—has showers almost every day and occasional violent thunder-storms, yet the rainfall does not exceed that of our own country. Despite controversial views, Cuba is a healthy country, the epidemic yellow fever which afflicts it never extending to the interior. Indeed, were sanitary conditions at all good, as they promise to become under

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our benign administration, even the coast towns should be largely immune. Equability is the word which best describes the climate in the region of Havana. Fireplaces are not to be seen anywhere on the island, and, indeed, are unknown, their necessity not existing. Glass windows are very rare, even in Havana. Instead, they employ two sets of curtains or of shutters.

The temperature of the entire island is ideal during our winter. The average for the year is 77°; it rarely rises beyond 100°, nor falls below 50°. The hottest month averages 82°, the coldest 72°. Thirteen million acres—about one-half the island (think of it)—are still primeval forests! They abound in the best of hardwoods—cedar, redwood, ebony, lignum-vitæ, mahogany and caiguran. The chief products of Cuba are sugar, tobacco, maize, rice, yams, bananas and coffee. Of course, their production has been diminished, if not destroyed, by the conditions existing during the past four years. Immense herds of cattle found magnificent pasture in the undeveloped districts—wonderfully luxuriant mesas—but, alas! war has changed all that. Formerly, too, throughout the western districts sugar-cane fields and factories and tobacco plantations dotted the charming landscape. Let us trust that, under the beneficent protection of lasting peace, fostered by the desire to take advantage of God-given opportunities vouchsafed to few peoples upon this earth, these may soon again blossom into increased prosperity!

Gold, silver, iron, copper, quicksilver, lead, antimony, arsenic, magnesia and copperas are the existing minerals, but the mining of them has not, as yet, been characterized by vigor. Marble and jasper, too, are plentifully deposited, and both north and south coasts yield rock salt.

Cuba's fruits are those indigenous to the tropics, pineapples and bananas especially, and several varieties of sweet potatoes. Wild beasts are few; there are 200 varieties of birds and more than 600 of fish. Turtles abound, oysters are poor, alligators common, snakes few, some tarantulas and scorpions, a dozen varieties of sand flies, 300 kinds of butterflies and as many of flies. Let these skeleton, dry-as-dust data suffice and serve as

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an introduction to a land, the sight of which to our Northern eyes, accustomed to bleak and harsh winters, is as a vision of Arcadia.

The events of the past few years have riveted such bonds between our broad and generous land and the bleeding island which we have so chivalrously freed, that we—notably the greatest land of travelers the world has ever seen—are drawn to her shores as by hawsers. Havana, the self-named "Key of the New World," is a world-city, cosmopolitan and broad beyond general acceptance. It lies on a peninsula, at the narrowest part of the island, fronting a magnificent harbor. Here, in the midst of a population of over one quarter of a million is the seat of government and the center of all kinds of interest. Havana has been considered a strongly fortified point, though, in the light of recent events, appearances may be deceptive. Still, the gloomy fortress of Morro Castle, and its various attendant batteries, look sufficiently formidable. The old town, enclosed in walls, a survival of the days of citadels, contains narrow and gloomy streets. Outside these walls, however, are many impressive wide avenues.

The cathedral, once a Jesuit convent, contained the ashes of Columbus. The government palace, residence of the Captain-General, many statues and some parks, not to mention the numbers of theaters and equally so of clubs, water-works, which would be a source of credit to any city, a number of educational institutions of every degree, tempting markets, hospitals, galleries, museums, noble private residences, all combine to make Havana a stately metropolis and delightful to the eyes of the impressionable stranger. Circumjacent are lovely suburbs, conjoined by modern methods of transit, stretches of beach resorts, a most picturesque cemetery, and factories of all kinds in great number. These impress you with the fact that here is no provincial town. Over all is the languorous witchery of a climate that is never otherwise than balmy; luxuriant vegetation, which trails and festoons over every harsh line, subduing it into grace of outline and harmony of color, and of pleasure and ease-loving people, always inclined to be merry and to join in revelry. Surely the leis-

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ureful can nowhere enjoy the pleasant side of tropical life as here, where it is conjoined with culture and refinement! Mariel, Cabanas, Marianoa, Bahia Honda and Guanabacoa, although distinct corporations, are yet near enough to be known as suburbs—and charming suburbs they become.

Havana has been called the Paris of the West. Just what significance this bears must be estimated by the sightseer who has seen them both. Havana certainly has that glitter and flash to a certain degree that Paris prides itself in. There is a great love of the artistic displayed in Havana in the style of architecture and the interior finish of public halls, churches, etc. There is also that vain rush after the "pomp and glory" of the world clearly in evidence here as it is in gay Paris.

Seventy miles east of Havana lies Matanzas, on a lovely bay of its own name. It is cut into three parts by rivers, one of them deep enough to float lighters and barges. Its population of 57,000 claim the healthiest city of the island, and that the climate is the finest in this land of fine climates. With improved sanitation Matanzas would be ideal from a tropical point of view. Rum distilling, molasses, sugar refining, car and machine shops and guava-jelly factories are the industries of this community.

On the bay of Iagua, which draws twenty-seven feet of water and fifteen feet at the wharves, six miles inland, is Cienfuegos, a city of 41,000 population, connected by rail with Havana, less than 200 miles away. It is on the south coast. Tobacco and sugar are exported, and ice and soap are manufactured. When Cienfuegos has proper sanitary provisions, which it is expected will be soon, it will be a splendid place of residence, for the climate is dry and moderately warm throughout winter, averaging 69°. Summer sends the mercury up to an average of 84°.

About the same population is granted to Cardenas, on the north coast, 135 miles eastward from Havana. Its only export of moment is sugar. It must be conceded that the winter is delightful here, as everywhere. Summer, with its mean temperature of 94° by day, 80° by night, would be trying to Americans, and, too, contagious diseases are frequent. These,

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as is always the case everywhere, are created by man-permitted filth.

Trinidad de Cuba is about fifty miles east of Cienfuegos. It is 900 feet above sea level, on a mountain slope, and about three miles inland from its port, Casilda, a poor one, save for light-draught vessels. But four miles east is Masio Bay, accommodating sea-going ships. Trinidad's population is about 20,000. The climate is ideal in every way, and its healthfulness is incomparable, even though sanitation and hygiene are unknown. Its natural drainage keeps the town wholesome and pure. Trinidad exports sugar and a little honey.

Sagua la Grande, on the north coast, between Cienfuegos and Trinidad, is eleven miles inland from the port of the same name, and contains 18,000 souls. Its sanitary conditions are superior, consequently it is rather a healthful community, especially as its climate is also a fine one. Its export trade is almost exclusively devoted to sugar.

On the extreme easterly end of the island, on its northerly side, lies Baracca, a town of about 8000, whose chief industry is the grinding of cocoanuts for their oil. It also has a chocolate factory and a petroleum refinery, and exports bananas and cocoanuts. Its climate, too, is salubrious, the yearly average temperature being 78°. During the summer months the heat, which otherwise might be difficult to bear, is moderated and tempered by the almost continuous breezes from the southeast.

Other centers of population, scattered throughout the island, and all claiming beauties and advantages, and requiring but the magic touch of American enlightenment and energy to transform them into radiant and idyllic communities—for nature has been so lavish, if not prodigal—are Manzanillo, Guantánamo, Santa Cruz del Sur, Tunas de Zaza, Sancti Spiritus, Pinar del Rio, Bayamo, Puerto Principe, Alto Songa, Holguín, Esperanza and Bolondron.

Santa Clara is an especially lovely town, and this, with the remaining interior villages, are most truly representative of Cuba. Its population, Creoles—descendants of the Latin races, and the purest strain to be found in the West Indies—

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are most distinctively characteristic of those Spanish qualities which are admirable wherever found—sincerity, urbanity and hospitality—and enforce the conviction that not all Spaniards are miscreants. Santa Clara was one of the least disturbed provinces during the war.

SOME TIMELY INFORMATION FOR AMERICANS GOING TO CUBA.

With the military occupation of Central and Western Cuba by American troops will begin also its occupation by American civilians. A large number of small capitalists, prospectors and others who are seeking for business chances are going with the troops. They have chosen the season wisely, and many of them have apparently little notion of what is before them. For the benefit of these and of others who are planning the trip later a few words of advice, drawn from experience, may be given.

The first and most essential thing for the American who is going to Cuba is to put money in his purse. Cuban hospitality is unstinted, but an impoverished people in a devastated country have not the means to entertain strangers, however strong may be their desire. In the present conditions there will be no opportunity for the man who has a knack of turning his hand at anything to turn it to account in Cuba. That may come within two or three years, but at present it will be foolhardy for anybody to go to the island with the notion that he can work his way after he gets there.

It is also necessary to state that there will be no immediate opening for young professional men. They cannot hang out signs as in new and growing settlements of the Western States and wait for their practice to grow with the growth of the country. The law will naturally be closed to Americans unless they have been educated in the Code Napoleon and are able to speak Spanish. Medicine presents a bar to immediate practice by Americans. Cuba has a large number of physicians educated in the United States. They talk English and they understand the diseases incident to the country better than a stranger. There are also many dentists, graduates of the

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dental colleges in Philadelphia and elsewhere. They are likely to monopolize their profession for some time to come. There is likewise a considerable number of civil engineers educated in the United States. The Cubans who have entered these professions are men of education who were excluded by the policy of the Spanish government from taking part in public affairs. With the new order many of them will undoubtedly find government employment, yet it will not be safe to assume that the professional ranks will be thinned sufficiently to offer openings for lawyers, doctors, dentists or civil engineers from the United States until there has been a large increase in the American population.

Coming back to the question of money in the purse, its necessity will be seen after arrival in Havana when a railroad journey into the country is undertaken. First-class fares average between seven cents and eight cents a mile in gold. The rates were even higher till a year ago, when Captain-General Blanco arbitrarily reduced them and earned the goodwill of the people who had to travel. The Cuban railroads, some owned by English capital and some by Spanish capital, are managed on the theory of taking all that the passenger traffic will bear and a little more. Second and third-class fares are lower, but except for the experience nobody is apt to make more than one trip second or third class. There is, however, one railroad leading out of Matanzas in which it is possible to travel first class on a second-class ticket. A single passenger coach is used, the only difference being that the first-class passengers have better seats than those who travel second class. A Cuban Marquis, whose sugar plantation had been rendered unproductive first by the insurgents and then by the Spanish troops, explained the plan to me. His own finances had reached that state where the difference between a first-class fare and a second-class fare was important to him, so he bought a second-class ticket, and after the conductor had come around transferred himself to the first-class section of the coach. Americans can do the same thing without loss of prestige. The steamboat companies which run vessels along the coast towns also charge very high. They are no worse,

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however, than the American lines which charge \$11 for passage from Key West to Havana, a distance of ninety miles, which is made in seven hours. Reduction in railroad and steamboat rates is one of the earliest reforms that is needed in Cuba.

Most of the railroad systems begin in Havana and end nowhere. The town of Pinar del Rio, in the province of the same name, may be called the western terminus, and Santa Clara, in the province of that name, the eastern terminus. All trains leave Havana at daybreak, or in the winter season a little earlier. As a rule, there is one train a day each way on all the different lines. Trains return to Havana at night. The farthest journey that can be made by leaving in the morning and returning in the evening is seventy-five miles. There are no sleepers and no night trains; for one reason, because the distances are not long enough. Another reason is the uncertainty which would heretofore have attended night railroading in Cuba. As a rule, the trains on the main line make some pretension to connections with the branches or with other lines. It is, however, an untrustworthy reliance. A not-uncommon experience is to miss the connection by five or ten minutes at some little station in the country, and, in consequence, have to remain there twenty-four hours. Most of the railroads have good eating-houses, where a meal can be had for seventy-five cents or \$1.

Nearly all the Cuban towns have fairly good hotels. They are not kept after the American fashion, and are not to be judged by the same standard, yet they have some pretensions toward accommodating guests. The prices are a little higher than would be the case in towns of the same size in the United States. Four dollars a day in silver is a common charge, and not unusually it is more. Measured on a gold basis, the traveler will have to allow at least \$3.50 a day for hotel expenses. In the villages off from the railroad it is not so great, though the entertainment is passable. In Matanzas, Cardenas, Santa Clara, Sagua la Grande, Cienfuegos and other cities a higher price must be paid. There are some stage lines off from the railroad, and the fares on these are pretty stiff. Anybody who contemplates leaving the railroads would probably

save money by buying a Cuban horse and saddle. The animals feed on the native grasses and their keep is not expensive.

The matter of looking after comfort and health begins with the clothing. The chance to wear out summer garments instead of casting them off can be improved. A light overcoat will be sufficient from the severest weather that will be encountered. As a matter of fact, most Americans would not miss an overcoat at all if they left it behind them, although Cubans and Spaniards don extra coats when the northern winds sweep over the island in January. Summer underwear, with a change or two of medium weight, will answer for the entire season. Americans, as a rule, have trouble in adapting themselves to the underwear which suit the natives of the island, and for a single season it is not worth while for them to bother to make the change. Pajamas are, of course, handy garments, as in all tropical countries. A light mackintosh, or, if in the country, a poncho, will not come amiss, while an umbrella is also useful. While the rainy season ends with October, there are occasional heavy showers during the winter months.

While physicians and medical experts may quarrel about the quinine habit, the verdict of those who have spent many months in Cuba will unquestionably be in favor of quinine. The drug need not be taken as a diet, but a few grains of it at night or in the morning are useful both as a tonic and as a preventive of malaria. In traveling throughout the country Cognac brandy is also a good thing to have along, but to be taken as a medicine rather than as a beverage. Everyone can make the distinction for himself. The night air is to be avoided as much as possible, but the common experience is that the early morning air is worse. Gen. Fitzhugh Lee had a theory that malaria in Cuba did not differ from malaria in Virginia, and in both places, he declared, the worst hours for it were between four and seven o'clock in the morning. So he advised everybody who came to Havana to stay in bed till eight o'clock in the morning, taking the additional hour as an extra precaution. The General's advice, however, cannot al-

ways be followed, especially in traveling, and for those who have to rise early quinine is an excellent substitute for lying in bed. With the care that is being taken in locating the camps for the American military garrisons, and with the freedom from the heavy rains and the burning sun, it is a safe assumption that the sickness which was incident to the Santiago campaign will not be repeated in Central and Western Cuba. Yet with all the safeguards that are established, and notwithstanding the difference in season, after a few months it will probably be found that a percentage of the soldiers in the garrisons are sick with fever. Civilians, or a certain portion of them, will come under the same rule. Nevertheless, they need not on this account fear that their lives are in danger. Ordinary medical attendance will be sufficient for their wants. The Cuban fever is fearfully depressing during its first stage, but it is not likely to prove fatal.

What to eat is one of the problems which confronts every American who visits Cuba. A simple solution is to eat what the people there eat. Nevertheless, it is not always possible within a few months to change the habits of a lifetime, or to accustom the palate to strange tastes. It is not an absolute necessity to fall in with the Spanish and Cuban custom of taking coffee in the early morning, and nothing else till towards midday, when a heavy meal is eaten. In addition to rolls, with coffee, it is always possible to procure fresh eggs and fruit. The virtues of the Cuban coffee are great, but the American business man can hardly do as the Havana business man does. He takes a small cup of black coffee and a cigar early in the morning, then goes to his office and conducts his business for half a day. Nor are the American soldiers likely to adopt the custom which both the insurgents and Spaniards followed of taking a little coffee at daybreak and then marching till noon without further sustenance. Whether in Havana or elsewhere, the American, by a little persistence and by stipulating in advance, can secure eggs and fruit and toasted rolls with his morning coffee. Meat, however, will not be supplied him. Instead of taking all the courses in the regular breakfast, which is served any time after ten o'clock, he will find it

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to advantage to confine himself to fish and rice and the simpler dishes, unless he has been accustomed to a heavy midday meal.

The matter of drinking is even more serious than that of eating. The life insurance companies in giving permission for temporary residence or travel in the West Indies, quite generally require a stipulation not to indulge in alcoholic beverages. It takes a middle-age toper several seasons to learn that the people of the tropics are wise in their temperance, and by that time his liver is sure to be hopelessly diseased. But for younger men, who can get along without an eye-opener or a nightcap, it is not difficult to adapt themselves to the customs of the country. Moreover, it is not easy to get good whisky in Cuba. Scotch or Canadian is given the preference over Kentucky brands, possibly because the Kentucky whisky which is imported is not the real article. Englishmen in Cuba commonly take their brandy and soda, but with moderation. The native cane rum and the *aguardiente*, or native brandy, are safe drinks when taken moderately, but to the American palate they are almost tasteless. The gin fizz is a popular drink, and is not harmful. It is largely ordered by newcomers for the sake of hearing the wonderful pronunciation which the Cuban and Spanish barkeepers give it. When this novelty is worn off, they content themselves with limes, tamarinos, refrescos and other mild drinks. Usually these have acid enough in them to be beneficial, though the complaint is that they are too sweet. The *refresco* is a concoction of pure water and the whites of eggs and sugar beaten together into a kind of honeycomb, which is called a "panale." At first every American despises the *refresco*, but after awhile he finds that it is really refreshing. There is a lager beer brewery in Havana, and beer is also imported from New Orleans. It is not, however a good beverage in the tropics, especially to those of a bilious temperament. English ales can always be had. The water-drinker can get along all right in Havana, which has a supply of pure water not excelled by any city in the world. Most of the larger towns also have good systems of water works, but in the smaller villages, and especially along the south coast, in the marshy lands, the water is not good.

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Spanish clarets and other light wines can always be had as a substitute. For those who have scruples against the use of wine there is usually a chance to procure a mineral water of some sort at the village drug store. The druggist, as a rule, does not know what he has in stock, but when urged he can usually find somewhere in his store a bottle of mineral water.

The impetus which has been given to the study of Spanish since the results of the war with Spain became understood has caused many persons to study that language. Lack of knowledge of it, however, need not prevent anyone from traveling over the island. In most of the towns somebody can always be found who talks English. The return of a large number of Cuban refugees who have been in the United States during the last three years has largely increased the number of people spread over the island who talk English, so the American who wants to travel about, while he will be at a disadvantage, need not let his ignorance of the language keep him in Havana. He will find both Spaniards and Cubans invariably civil and courteous. For those who have gained some knowledge of the language, advice is, of course, unnecessary; but a hint may not be out of place. Spanish is like all foreign tongues, in that those who speak it do not always understand their own language when spoken by strangers. Moreover, they themselves talk it in a way that the learner despises, for his ear does not accustom itself to the strange sounds as readily as he imagines. Naturally, the fault is not with his ear, but with the people who talk so rapidly and indistinctly. For the purpose of travel in Cuba, it is not worth while for the American who proposes to talk Spanish to observe the nice distinctions in pronunciation laid down by the Spanish academy. He need not vary the pronunciation in the way he thinks pleasing to the Spaniard and the Cuban, respectively. The Spaniard will understand him, and will not be offended if he fails to give the consonant "c" the sound of "th." Likewise, the Cuban will not be affronted if he undertakes classic Spanish pronunciation.