

USTAIN  
WY LOSSES

leadway in Effort  
re Albanian Rebel-  
re Fighting at  
Pass

OPLE, April 28.—The  
ave not yet succeeded  
Albanians, who hold  
position in the Kac-  
ket Pasha, command-  
troops, lost 200 men  
and in the battle of  
newed the attack on  
and the battle of  
at night and into  
Albanians contesting  
ground. The losses  
re heavy.

ed an important post-  
at the northern end  
It is hoped that the  
pletely cleared by to-  
absence of news from  
increase anxiety. There  
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is, the second hold-  
is, and the third hold-  
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whether the Turkish  
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hanik pass, which is  
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is held by 10,000 Al-  
though the Turks are  
in both ends, the Al-  
solving reinforcements  
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say that General Tor-  
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that the Albanians de-  
the suppression of the  
bragation of the state  
also easier to state  
any and to choose as  
Prince Mesiza, a pro-  
presumptive.

HECK IS  
WILL TO BE SEEN

re, April 29.—Coming  
bits of Magellan, the  
w of the German  
Capt. Schuler, ar-  
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sno Monday, got an  
what remains of the  
Utgard, wrecked in  
all while bound from  
United Kingdom with  
Her master and crew  
sared, and all that re-  
tered-up hull, which  
of the south side of  
ing the numerous  
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same marine grave-

completed the passage  
to San Pedro in 72  
by at Funchal Madeira  
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my weather during  
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were continuous rain  
are running high, sea  
board, but doing

ear broke down twice,  
two hours to make the  
repairs. When the first  
ed there was a big  
d the steamer drifted  
This was on the At-  
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nether was fairly good  
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ONSTER  
FOR CUNARD

Vessel of the Type of  
and Mauretania for  
the Atlantic.

April 29.—Alfred A.  
of the board of direc-  
and Steamship com-  
that the line is plan-  
great steamer to  
sides the Mauretania  
in the Liverpool-New  
and that tenders al-  
invited for the con-  
other vessel of the  
This is official con-  
sults reports regarding  
the subject of trans-  
Mr. Booth said:  
the New York trade  
10,000-ton cargo boat,  
10,000 and 50,000-ton  
anager and cargo  
warned Liverpool that  
to hurry up and make  
ations for such ves-  
sels stepped in and lur-  
vessel of the Franconia  
added to the Boston  
both said that the re-  
the North Atlantic  
is friendly.

BLE RUMOR

Laughney Takes Oc-  
ary Reports Con-  
His Intentions.

April 28.—A rumor has  
that Sir Thomas G.  
contemplating retir-  
ency of the C. P. R.  
entering the political  
use of Commons, Oc-  
today on the subject.  
This absurd rumor  
without the slightest  
re has any serious sug-  
character been made to  
ad been made, and if  
erous reasons to sim-  
me to consider it  
to come. This rumor is  
improbable that it is  
of a denial, especially  
time, when we are so  
an expansion and de-  
various important in-  
Canadian Pacific Rail-

Page was among the  
the steamer Charmer

RURAL AND SUBURBAN

THE CULTURE OF THE MELON FOR PROFIT

Four principal things have to be considered in order to assure success in the culture of the melon—the kind of soil, the best method, the best cut and the best care. A sandy loam soil is most favorable. Every means should be taken to render the ground suitable, whether by special manures or by peculiar improvements in order that the ground may contain all the best fertilizing principles.

Method of Culture

The best method of culture is that which makes the plant profit from the solar influence, which facilitates the free circulation of the air, and which makes the fruit absorb solar rays. This method exposes them to the influence of light. The culture of the melon upon knolls appeals to all these conditions in preference to any other method. I recommend, therefore, hotbeds and windows (sashes) in preference to the flat ground. This kind of culture assures a greater quantity of fruit and gives more strength to the plants. The ascending direction of the sap and the descending direction of the branches, are the two great factors in this method.

By this method one can get at least ten melons a mound and even more. This is the smallest number I raise from my mounds; generally I have more. If you cultivate only one plant on a mound, your melons will be bigger, but, if the fruit is to be sold, it is far better to leave two plants a mound which will give twenty melons. On an acre, at a distance of six feet from each other, you have 900 mounds. At twenty melons each mound this will yield 18,000 melons which, at ten cents each, will give a revenue of \$1,800.

In spring as soon as the ground is in order and the weather favorable, I place my hotbeds six feet apart on the ground, which was well prepared in the fall. I then dig only the ground where the hotbed should be placed. I fill the hotbed with the best mould containing twenty per cent of pigeons' dung thoroughly mixed with the mould, leaving two or three inches between the hotbed and the ground. The front part of the hotbed should be nine inches high while the back twelve inches. The width of the base of the hotbed should be twenty-six inches and at the top twenty inches. Each pane of glass should measure fifteen by sixteen inches. The size of the hotbed can vary in size as one wishes, and consequently that of the frames. My frames are made of one-inch spruce boards.

Sowing the Seeds

Now, having made the surface of the mould even in the hotbed, I sow from ten to fifteen melon seeds with proper spacing. When the plant has sufficiently grown, I sort the plants, keeping the best ones. Then, gradually, I clear the ground so as to leave one or two a mound.

Ventilation

As soon as the seeds begin to grow I move the window somewhat to allow the air to circulate through the corners of the box. I move the window thus between seven and eight o'clock in the morning. According as the sun gives more heat and as the plant grows, I move the window more and more.

At night I push the window back into its place about an hour before sunset so as to keep the heat inside the box. I then cover the hotbed with a heavy covering. The hotbed should be surrounded by dirt at least six inches thick and two-thirds of the height of the hotbed frame. The covering made with empty salt-bags should be thick enough so as to preserve mounds from low temperature, and should be put on the frame every evening, as soon as the melon seeds are sown, and then taken off after sunrise.

Watering

We should never water nor warm melon plants at night, when the nights are cold, but in the morning. On the contrary, when nights are warm, we should water them an hour at least before sunrise, then close the frame and cover it. Rain water heated by the sun is preferable to all waters, because it contains more fertilizing principles. For want of rain water, we can use other waters—but waters which have been heated by the sun.

I water the melon plants with "purin" (French word)—a liquid manure—and common water; then, I warm with one-quarter of purin mixed with three-fourths of water. My melons are very aromatic and juicy. During the period of the culture of the melon, the watering should be made so that it may reach the interior of the mound three or four times, according to the dryness of the mound, and to the temperature of the weather. The watering should be done every night or every morning, according to moisture of the night, because leaves are the soul of the plant, or in other words, its pulmonary surface.

Cutting and Pinching

When the melon plant has four leaves and the fourth one is big like the nail of a thumb, I cut the stem under the third; and I put dust-land on the wound; yet one is not obliged to do that. We should never cut cotyledons (the seed leaves). I never touch branches that come out from the armpit of cotyledons, because from these, appear the first female flowers; but if they do not give any female flowers I pinch them without trenching them.

When the fourth leaf appears on new branches I again cut the stem under the third leaf. This is the second cut.

Ne branches appear, and when they have four leaves, that is to say, when the fourth one appears, this time I cut above the third. This is the third cut. By this cut male and female flowers appear.

I make a fourth cut, also a fifth cut. If the female flowers do not appear at the fifth leaf, I then pinch the branches just after the fifth leaf. It is necessary to see and to know how, and when, we should pinch. When the female flowers appear we should not pinch branches immediately, because you would destroy the coming fruit in bringing the plethora of the sap to the branch before the vessels of the peduncle (stalk) of the female flower have taken enough development to receive it with profit. Likewise too great dryness at the interior of the mound brings a considerable diminution of the sap; consequently, the death of the plant and of the female flower. Therefore we have to wait three or four days before the female flower opens in order to pinch the extremity of the branch. Then you fold slowly the extremity of the branch while having it form an acute angle on the right of the insertion of the peduncle in such a manner that the latter may appear to form the lengthening of the branch and we fix it thus by means of two small branches. This is the best way to have the fruit knotted. If on the mound there are no male flowers but only female flowers, and though draughts, bees, etc., would favor the transportation of the pollen; yet it is prudent to gather flowers from the nearest mound—also to shake the stems on the pistil of the female flower, in order to assure fertility.

When the fruit is knotted, that is to say, when it has acquired the size of an egg, we cut the branch about two or three inches above the melon. If other branches come forth in the armpit it is better to take them off. If there are branches not bearing fruit we should take out some of their wood with great precaution.

We should not forget that, if we wish to get excellent melons, the solar rays have to reach them entirely and continually. This is the reason why we should prevent branches from forming bushes and regretful confusion that cause a great harm to the circulation of the air. This is why we should not leave more than one or two plants a mound.

Making the Mound

I come back to the making of the mound: when the leaves touch the glass I raise the box a little; then when branches reach the edge of the window I remove the hotbed. I dig the ground around the hotbed, stir the land, and with a rake again fill up the land a little towards the melon plants. I again put some mould on the top of the mound and on the melon plant as far as the seed leaves.

I make a circular mound with depression in the centre where the plant is in such a manner so as to form a basin, in order to obtain the quantity of water needed. Afterward I put a thickness of one inch or one and one-half inches of a black substance (like dung) all around the mound, in a manner so as to mask all the surface of the mound. This is done to have all the heat possible penetrate the depth of the mound. In fact, of all colors, black absorbs most heat, and the more a mound will absorb of solar heat the more melon plants will develop; the fruit then will be juicy and delicious. Therefore, the whole plant absorbs an excessive heat which is an advantage over flat layers.

My mounds finished, I put four shingles (about middle size) in each, leaving them a little larger than the branches of the melon, then I put on my hotbed with the frame entirely closed. I open it only to water or to warm the plants. I take off the hotbeds in June only when the heat of the temperature is strong. When the fruits are half grown, I gradually take them away from the leaves, or rather, if the weather is cloudy, I place them on a large shingle which I sharpen at one end and which I put in the mound; at the other extremity I put a support.

The height of my mounds is eighteen or twenty inches, having a circumference at the base of two inches at least, and at the top, a circumference of seventy or seventy-five inches.

Varieties and Seed Selection

I have cultivated a great variety of melons with seed coming from Los Angeles, California, but the best ones that I have found are those of Montreal and Cantaloupe. Select those varieties that are known to give the best results.

We should always select the seed. The best seed is that which is taken from the middle part of the slice of the melon. This is the first one formed, and it reaches always its full development. A melon seed, well cultivated, requires four months to cover the period of vegetation. —Canadian Horticulturist.

A FEW FACTS ABOUT POTATOES

Although everybody grows potatoes there are a few interesting facts about them that are not generally known. To obtain an early crop of potatoes, not only should an early variety be chosen, but the tubers should be exposed to the sun under glass until they have turned green, and until the sprouts on them are an inch or more long. The longer these sprouts are, the better, if the sets are carefully handled so that they are not broken off. This sprouting has the effect of developing a number of short joints on the young shoots, and, as the young potatoes form at the joints, it stands to reason that the more joints we have underground, the heavier the crop will be. If after planting, the potatoes are earthed up, more young tubers will form, but as these do not develop until the plant has made considerable growth, the ensuing crop though heavier is later than if the plants had not earthed.

Potato Culture in Ireland

In Ireland, where the labor is not grudging, I have seen very fine crops of potatoes grown in wet boggy land by the following method: After being plowed, the land is marked out

in strips alternately four feet and two feet wide. Straw manure is spread on the four-foot strips, and on this manure, the freshly cut potato sets are evenly distributed, at from twelve to eighteen inches apart, according to the variety of potato used.

The soil from the two-foot strips is then shovelled all over the four-foot beds, covering the potatoes to a depth of three to four inches. When the potato tops have grown a few inches above the soil, the bed is given another top-dressing of the soil from the two-foot strips, which are by this time converted into deep trenches.

Good crops are obtained in this way, and a second crop is obtained from the land at the same time by inserting cabbage plants two feet apart along the edge of the trenches at about the level of the manure. These generally also yield a fine crop. By further deepening these trenches can be converted into drains, whereby the land can be easily reclaimed. This hint may be worth nothing, although I doubt if the method would become popular in this labor-saving country.

Growing Early Potatoes in Cellar

New potatoes in small quantities can be produced early in the year, when they will fetch fancy prices, by the following method:

Fit up a number of wide shelves in a dark cellar and on these place two inches of almost dry soil. Select good-sized tubers and half immerse these in the soil, setting them two and a half to three inches apart. Sprouts will shortly form with small potatoes at their base. The tops of these sprouts should be nipped off with scissors. The small potatoes can be gathered and marketed when about the size of a large walnut. Several crops will be borne before the bed is exhausted. The cellar must be perfectly dark. A very slight sprinkling of water may be given carefully from time to time, though too much does harm.

In fertilizing potatoes, sulphate of potash and not muriate of potash should be used, as the latter tends to make the potatoes waxy. If nitrogen has to be supplied, nitrate of soda is preferable to ammonia salts. As a rule, however, this is not needed, especially if potatoes are planted on a turned under clover sod, which gives nitrogen equal to about fifteen loads of barnyard manure per acre. As potatoes like a strawy manure, this clover particularly suits them, and it has another beneficial effect in that its fermentation produces a slight acid reaction in the soil which has a tendency to check potato scab. —Canadian Horticulturist.

A VASE OF FLOWERS TO LIGHT A ROOM

Most wonderful is the promise just made by Mr. Edward Weston, the well-known engineer, says Science Sitings. It is the invention of light without heat. "It is not practicable yet," he says, "it is merely strange: In a little laboratory behind heavy shades objects are gleaming with the new pale light that is spoken of as the light of the future." The light comes from a substance that can be painted on any object, causing it to glow in its own colors and giving out a luminous mist of light by which it is easy to read. To have instead of a lamp or electric drop or chandelier a vase of tall flowers in the corner glowing with light sufficient to illuminate not only themselves but the whole room would be a wonderful turn in the magic wheel of modern life." Mr. Nikola Tesla is the wizard behind this invention.

CRADLE OF THE SHORTHORN

Be the origin what it may, there is no doubt that the Holderness and Teeswater districts were the cradle of the Shorthorn. In fact, the breed has at different times been known as Holderness, Teeswater, and Durham cattle, and the last named title is still used by many people. That the old type were good milkers there is little doubt, but when fabulous prices were being paid for beautiful beef-type animals inbreeding with the object of producing such was carried out regardless of every other consideration. The result was that milking qualities and constitution were both so neglected that they suffered very severely. Then the usual collapse, characteristic of booms, came, and the corresponding reaction. Cattle, however fine their pedigree or fine their lines, were not wanted by the beef-grower, unless accompanied by a vigorous constitution. In other directions the dairymen began building up from selected animals the shrunken milk qualifications. The result was the formation of two types, the beef Shorthorn and the milking Shorthorn, both of which have also several sub-branches.

Bakewell, who was born in 1725 and died in 1794, showed with his Leicester sheep and Shorthorn cattle how, by judicious selection and inbreeding improved types could be established, and from that time the improvement of all domestic animals has developed. Charles and Robert Colling applied Bakewell's principles to Shorthorns, and may be said to have established the breed as we at present know it. While attending Darlington, market they noticed that calves from one district were particularly good, and on inquiry learned they were the progeny of a parish bull called Hubback, which was serving cows at 1s. a head. Colling bought Hubback for eight guineas, and many of the most distinguished Shorthorns seen in the world show today trace descent from him. Without following the details of the pedigree breeding it may be said that Thomas Booth, who acquired two bulls from the Collings, was the first breeder of historic note. He expended twenty years in working a concentration of the blood of Favorite, Pusch

Foljambe, and Hubback in his herd. His great aim was the perfect beef animal. Thomas Bates, who also founded his strain on animals of Collings' breeding, sought to get milking qualities as well as a fine beef type, and great rivalry grew up between the Booth and Bates factions.

POINTS OF THE SHORTHORN

The type of Shorthorn we are dealing with here is that for the production of beef, as distinct from the purely milking strains, and the aim of the breeders is to get an animal with a good constitution, well covered with nicely-marbled flesh, and carrying as much as possible on those parts which fetch the highest prices in the butchers' shops.

Mr. John Thornton, who for years was the chief salesman of stud Shorthorns in England, thus sets forth their points: "The breed is distinguished by its symmetrical proportions, and by its great bulk on a comparatively small frame, the ofal being very light and the limbs small and fine. The head is expressive, being rather hard across the forehead, tapering gracefully below the eyes to an open nostril, and fine flesh-colored muzzle. The eyes are bright, prominent, and of a particularly placid, sweet expression, the countenance being remarkably gentle. The horns are by comparison with other breeds unusually short. They spring well from the head with a graceful downward curl and are of a creamy white or yellowish color, the ears being fine, erect and hairy. The neck should be moderately thick (muscular in the male), and set straight and well into the shoulders. These when viewed in front are wide, showing thickness through the heart, the breast coming well forward, and the forelegs stranding short and wide apart. The back among the higher bred animals is remarkably broad and flat, the ribs barrel like, springing well out of it and with little space between them and the hip bones, which should be soft and well covered. The hind-quarters are long and well filled in, the tail being cut square upon them. The thighs meet low down, forming the full and deep twist. The flank should be deep so as partially to cover the udder, which should not be too large, but placed forward, the teats being well formed, square set, and of a medium size. The hind legs should be very short, and stand wide and quite square to the ground. The general appearance should show outlines. The whole body is well covered with long soft hair, there frequently being a fine undercoat, and this hair is of a most pleasing variety of color, from a soft creamy white to a full, deep red. Occasionally the animal is red and white, the white being found principally on the forehead, underneath the belly, and a few spots on the hindquarters and legs. In another group the body is nearly white, with the neck and head partially covered with hair, whilst in a third type the entire body is most beautifully variegated, of a rich deep purple or plum-colored hue. On touching the beef-points the skin is found to be soft and mellow, as if lying on a soft cushion. In animals thin in condition a kind of inner skin is felt, which is the 'quality' or handling of the great fattening propensities for which the breed is famous."

Dealing with the qualities requisite for high-class animals, Professor Curtis, Director of Iowa Experimental Station, United States, discussed the subject as follows: "The first thing that should be looked to is the general beef form—low, broad, deep, smooth and even, with parallel lines. No wedge shape is wanted for the block. Next in importance is a thick, even covering of the right kind of meat in the parts that give the high-priced cuts. This is a very important factor in beef cattle that is often overlooked. The high-priced cuts are the ribs and loins, and on an average they sell for about three times as much per lb. as other parts. Good, broad, well-covered backs and ribs are absolutely necessary to a good carcass of beef, and no other excellencies, however great, will compensate for the lack of these essentials. It is necessary to both breed and feed for thickness in these parts, and mere thickness and substance here are not all. Animals that are soft and patchy, or hard and rolled on the back are sure to give defective and objectionable carcasses, even though they are thick; and they also cut up with correspondingly greater waste. Then, in addition to seeing the general beef form, and make up, together with good backs, ribs and loins, there is a certain quality, character, style and finish that constitute an important factor in determining the value of beef cattle. One of the first indications of this is to be found in the skin and coat. A good feeding animal should have a soft, mellow touch, and a fine but thick and heavy coat. A harsh, unyielding skin is an indication of a sluggish circulation, and low digestive powers. The character and finish exemplified by a clear, prominent, yet placid eye, clean-cut features, fine horn and clean, firm bone, all go to indicate good feeding quality, and a capacity to take on a finish of the highest excellence, and, consequently, to command top prices. Cross-boned, rough animals are almost invariably slow feeders, and hard to finish properly. Above all it is necessary to have vigor and constitution. We find evidences of these in a wide forehead, a prominent brisket, broad chest, full head, girth, and general robust appearance; and without them the other excellence will not have its highest significance."

POINTS ON POULTRY

Provide plenty of shade for your stock during the summer months. Place the water fountain in a cool, secluded spot, and replenish the supply twice daily.

A few grains of permanganate of potash placed in the water will act most beneficially on the health of the stock, for it purifies and keeps the drinking fountain sweet and clear.

Use plenty of disinfectants. Insect prey are specially vigorous during the hot weather, and need all the repressive measures that can possibly be taken to keep them in check, otherwise they take a considerable time to get rid of.

Never feed on inferior or damaged foods because they are obtainable at a cheap figure. If you want good results from your stock, feed on the best, it is really the cheapest in the long run. This applies equally to fowls, pigeons, cage birds, or dogs; they are none of them equal to the task of converting bad food into good eggs, flesh, or stamina.

It will often be noticed that after the first feather growth on a chicken, they appear to flag, which is merely the rest that the system is called upon to undertake after the severe effort of throwing out the first plumage, and need not be taken as an indication of disease. However, a little more stimulating food at this period will assist materially in aiding the youngsters to recoup their strength.

Many poultry fanciers are not acquainted with the fact that if an egg is set on overnight and removed the next day, the germ succumbs and the egg becomes rotten. This is often put down to infertility.

WINGLESS CHICKEN EVOLVED

Chicken wings will disappear from bills of fare when the new wingless chicken, raised by Mr. W. A. Bertram, of Illinois, became common, says Science Sitings. He has found that wings decrease the value of chickens in cities and towns by making their confinement in yards more difficult. He conceived the idea of crossing common breeds with Wyandottes and the barred Rocks, whose wings are smaller in proportion to their weight than those of other chickens. After several seasons he has produced a fowl which has only a few pinfeathers where Nature meant wings to be, and which cannot jump a fence higher than two feet. It will be easier, Mr. Bertram says, to fatten chickens which do not reduce their weight by the exertion of flying. This will compensate, by putting more flesh on drumsticks and wishbones, for the ultimate atrophy and disappearance of the wings.

great difference in the rate of gain or the number of lbs. of increase in weight from a given quantity of feed that will be made by a representative of the best beef breeds and a genuine scrub, Jersey, or Holstein steer. This is a fact that practical breeders and improvers of live stock were slow to accept at first. In fact, they did not accept it until it was repeatedly demonstrated, and some will not concede it yet; but the evidence is constantly accumulating, and it is useless to ignore the facts. Take, as an illustration, two steers fed at the Iowa Experimental Station; one is a Jersey and the other a Hereford. While they were in the feed lot the Jersey made a gain of 2 lb. a day for nine months, and the Hereford 2.03 for fourteen months. There was practically no difference in the rate and cost of gain. But, the interesting part of the comparison came later. The Jersey took on flesh rapidly, and was exceedingly neat and well finished, and was as good as it is possible to make a Jersey steer. Yet, when he went to market he had to sell for \$2.12 1-2 cents per 100 lbs. below the top quotations, while the Hereford went 10 cents per 100 lb. above the top prices for any other cattle on the market. But you may say that this was partly prejudice, and I used to think so, but since I have followed the cattle through and carefully ascertained all the facts for several years, I have changed my mind. I will show you where the difference was in those two steers. The Jersey belongs to a breed that has been developed for centuries for the specific purpose of making butter—that is putting the producer of its feed into the milk pail. They are rough, angular and bony, and when you fatten them, as you can do, they do not put the fat into the tissues of high-priced cuts of steaks and roasts on their backs. This Jersey steer had 100 lb. of what is termed loose or internal tallow, and 55 lb. of suet on a 763 lb. carcass; that is 32.1 per cent of that steer's carcass was tallow. Tallow was at that time worth 4 cents a lb., while the best loin cuts were worth 19 cents wholesale. And besides that, since I have followed dressed 57.5 per cent of beef, while the Hereford dressed 67.5 per cent. Then the Hereford only had 95 lb. of tallow and 38 lb. of suet on an 888 lb. carcass—equivalent to 15 per cent. And besides the striking difference in percentage of meat in high-priced cuts, the meat of the Jersey was very much inferior to that of the Hereford. The Jersey steer went on accumulating fat around his paunch and internal organs to the extent of nearly one-third of his body weight, while he had not enough meat on his back to decently cover his bones. There is reason why rough cattle do not sell. When a steer is put into the feed lot to fatten it is all right to know whether he is making a 4 per cent product or a 19 per cent product. If he has not the beef type, and has not the characteristics of a beef animal bred into him he will fall short of the mark. Feed alone does not make the high selling product.

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PRACTICAL POINTS FOR BEEF

Dealing with the qualities requisite for high-class animals, Professor Curtis, Director of Iowa Experimental Station, United States, discussed the subject as follows:

"The first thing that should be looked to is the general beef form—low, broad, deep, smooth and even, with parallel lines. No wedge shape is wanted for the block. Next in importance is a thick, even covering of the right kind of meat in the parts that give the high-priced cuts. This is a very important factor in beef cattle that is often overlooked. The high-priced cuts are the ribs and loins, and on an average they sell for about three times as much per lb. as other parts. Good, broad, well-covered backs and ribs are absolutely necessary to a good carcass of beef, and no other excellencies, however great, will compensate for the lack of these essentials. It is necessary to both breed and feed for thickness in these parts, and mere thickness and substance here are not all. Animals that are soft and patchy, or hard and rolled on the back are sure to give defective and objectionable carcasses, even though they are thick; and they also cut up with correspondingly greater waste. Then, in addition to seeing the general beef form, and make up, together with good backs, ribs and loins, there is a certain quality, character, style and finish that constitute an important factor in determining the value of beef cattle. One of the first indications of this is to be found in the skin and coat. A good feeding animal should have a soft, mellow touch, and a fine but thick and heavy coat. A harsh, unyielding skin is an indication of a sluggish circulation, and low digestive powers. The character and finish exemplified by a clear, prominent, yet placid eye, clean-cut features, fine horn and clean, firm bone, all go to indicate good feeding quality, and a capacity to take on a finish of the highest excellence, and, consequently, to command top prices. Cross-boned, rough animals are almost invariably slow feeders, and hard to finish properly. Above all it is necessary to have vigor and constitution. We find evidences of these in a wide forehead, a prominent brisket, broad chest, full head, girth, and general robust appearance; and without them the other excellence will not have its highest significance."

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"I wish to call attention by way of emphasis to the necessity of having the right kind of cattle to ensure a profit. There is not a very