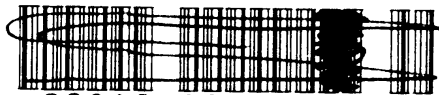


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THE FORESTS OF THE PHILIPPINES

PART I & II

FOREST TYPES AND PRODUCTS
THE PRINCIPAL FOREST TREES.

BY

H. N. WHITFORD, PH. D.

FORESTER, CHIEF OF DIVISION OF INVESTIGATION



DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF FORESTRY

BULLETIN No. 10

MAJOR GEORGE P. AHERN
DIRECTOR OF FORESTRY

MANILA
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1911

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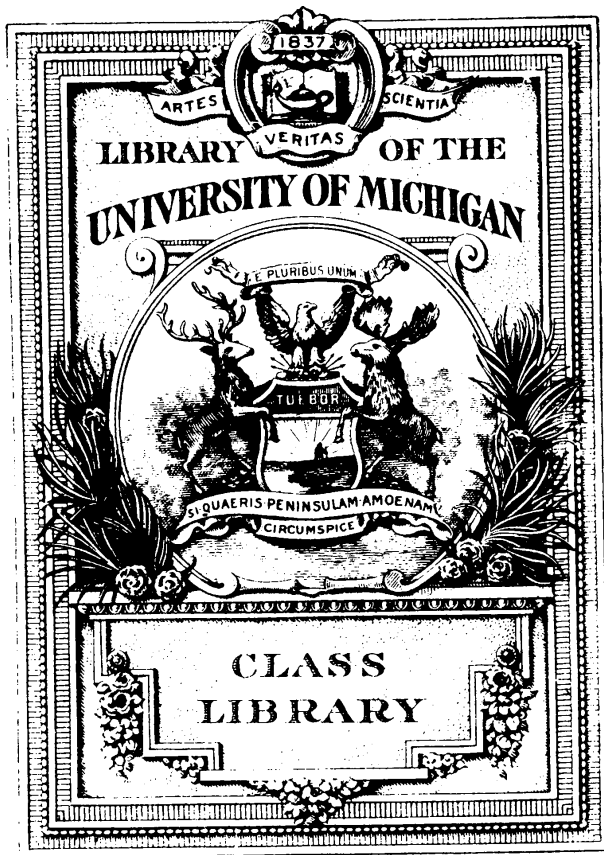
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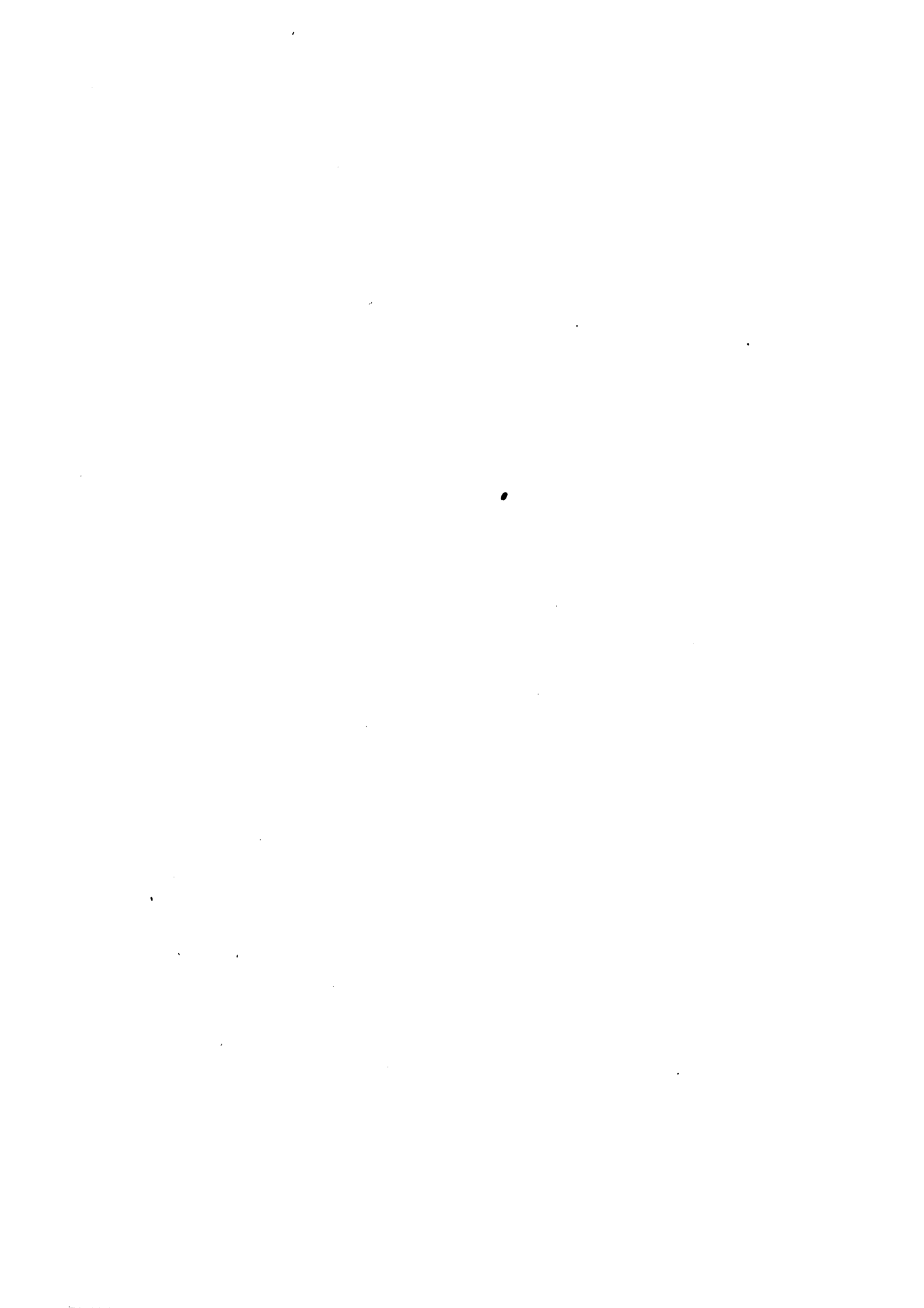
CONTENTS.

	Page.
Letter of transmittal	7
Equivalents of the metric and English systems of measurements used in this bulletin	8
Introduction	9
Classes of vegetation	12
1. General	12
2. Grass lands	13
3. Second-growth forests	14
4. Virgin forests	15
I.—Climate	15
II.—Topography and soil	16
III.—Types of forest	17
A.—Dipterocarp types	18
(a) General character	18
(b) Lauan type	19
(c) Lauan-hagachac type	21
(d) Yacal-lauan type	22
(e) Lauan-apitong type	24
(f) Tanguile-oak type	25
B.—Molave type	26
C.—Mangrove type	28
D.—Beach type	29
E.—Pine type	30
F.—Mossy-forest type	31
G.—Summary	32
Wood uses	32
1. Dipterocarps	32
Lauans	32
Apitongs	33
Yacals	33
2. Substitutes for mahogany	36
3. Durable timbers	37
4. Salt-water piling	38
5. Shipbuilding	38
6. A substitute for lignum-vitæ	39
7. Bridges	39
8. Railroad ties and mining timbers	39
9. House construction	39
10. Paving blocks	40
11. Furniture and cabinetmaking	40
12. Carving and engraving	40
13. Canes	40
14. Boxes and dry measures	40
15. Tool handles	41
16. Carriage building	41
17. Wooden shoes	41
18. Telegraph and telephone poles	41
19. Matchmaking	41
20. Musical instruments	41

	Page.
Weight and hardness	41
Lumbering in the Philippines	43
1. Markets	43
2. Logging operations	45
3. Milling operations	47
I.—Steam sawing	47
II.—Hand sawing	47
4. Transportation	48
5. Labor	49
6. Opportunities for lumbering	50
7. Conclusion	50
Minor forest products	51
1. Woods used for fuel	51
Firewood	51
Charcoal	52
2. Barks	52
Tan barks	52
Other barks	53
3. Dyewood	54
4. Resins and oils	54
Almaciga	55
Dipterocarp resins	55
Manila elemi	56
Other resins and oils	56
5. Gutta-percha and rubber	57
6. Vines	57
Rattan	58
Other vines	58
7. Bamboo	60
8. Erect palms	60
Relation of the Government to the forests and their products.....	60
1. Legal status of the public forests and forest reserves.....	60
2. Disposal of forest products	61
I.—Forest products obtained free of charge.....	61
II.—Forest products gathered with charge	62
3. Charge for forest products	62
I.—Lumber	62
II.—Minor forest products	63
4. Cutting regulations	64
5. How the Bureau of Forestry assists the lumbermen	64
APPENDIXES.	
APPENDIX I.—Mechanical tests of thirty-four Philippine woods.....	65
APPENDIX II.—Bibliography of the forests and forest products of the Philippines	85
1. Bureau of Forestry publications	85
2. Works in Spanish on the forestry, forest products, and forest botany of the Philippines	86
3. Systematic botanical publication since 1903	86
4. Other papers relating to the Philippine forests and their products.....	87
General index	89
Index to scientific names	93

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Plate.	Facing page—
I. General view of second-growth forest. In the foreground is a remnant of the original forest after being logged.....	16
II. View in second-growth forest; palosapis (1, 2, and 3) and cupang (4) are remnants of the original forest.....	16
III. Young second-growth forest; hamindang and anabion.....	16
IV. Outside view of a dipterocarp forest of the lauan type. This forest will yield 30,000 feet per acre, board measure, clear lumber, and consists of an almost pure stand of the lauans and apitongs	16
V. Interior view of the lauan forest shown in Plate IV. The trees are almon-lauan and red lauan.....	16
VI. Interior view of lauan type. The trees are almon-lauan, red lauan, and tanguile	16
VII. Interior view of the lauan-hagachac type.....	16
VIII. Exterior view of yacal-lauan type; also shows the method of logging with carabao	32
IX. Interior view of yacal-lauan forest after being partially logged. Black yacal in the center.....	32
X. General view of a lauan-apitong type on the edge of a clearing....	32
XI. General view of lauan-apitong forest. Original forest in the background; cut-over forest in the foreground.....	32
XII. Interior view of lauan-apitong forest. Apitong ridge.....	32
XIII. View in lauan-apitong forest. Tree of panao showing form of bole and crown	32
XIV. Interior view of tanguile-oak forest. The trees are tanguile and lauan	32
XV. Interior view of tanguile-oak type; tanguile and <i>Eugenia</i> sp.....	48
XVI. Interior view of mangrove swamp.....	48
XVII. Interior view of mangrove swamp.....	48
XVIII. View of the beach type.....	48
XIX. Pine forest of Benguet	48
XX. Exterior view of mossy-forest type and upper portion of tanguile-oak type	48
XXI. Interior view of the mossy-forest type.....	48
XXII. Logging sled	64
XXIII. Steam logging; donkey engines	64
XXIV. Logging railroad	64
XXV. Steam sawmill	64
XXVI. Steam sawmill	64
XXVII. Gutta-percha as it reaches the market.....	64
XXVIII. A bamboq forest	64



LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

MANILA, *November 11, 1910.*

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith the report entitled "The Forests of the Philippines," by H. N. Whitford, Ph. D., forester, chief division of investigation, and to recommend its publication as Bulletin No. 10 of this Bureau. It consists of two parts for separate publication, Part I, "Forest Types and Products," and Part II, "The Principal Forest Trees." It has been prepared in response to a strong and increasing demand for information concerning the forest resources of the Philippines.

Very respectfully,

GEORGE P. AHERN,
Director of Forestry.

The honorable,
The ACTING SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR, *Manila.*

EQUIVALENTS OF THE METRIC AND ENGLISH SYSTEMS OF MEASUREMENTS USED IN THIS BULLETIN.

1 inch equals 25.4+ millimeters (approximately 25).

1 foot equals 0.3048+ meter (approximately 0.3).

1 mile equals 1.609+ kilometers (approximately 1.6).

1 centimeter equals 0.3937+ inch (approximately 0.4).

1 meter equals 3.28+ feet (approximately 3.3).

1 kilometer equals 0.62+ mile (approximately 0.6).

1 acre equals 0.404+ hectare (approximately 0.4).

1 hectare equals 2.47+ acres (approximately 2.5).

1 square mile equals 259 hectares (approximately 260).

1 cubic foot equals 0.028+ cubic meter.

1 cubic meter equals 35.314+ cubic feet.

THE FORESTS OF THE PHILIPPINES: PART I.

THE FOREST TYPES AND PRODUCTS.

INTRODUCTION.

The object of this bulletin is to bring together the most important facts concerning the forests of the Philippines and the exploitation of their products. Nontechnical terms have been used whenever possible. The estimates of areas of the different types of vegetation are based upon rough reconnoissance work on a large scale. The estimates of standing timber are based upon the results of rough cruising over large areas, supplemented by intensive valuation surveys over certain small selected stands. The figures given for the total area covered by virgin forests are known to be conservative; and the division of this area into the different types or groups of types is a rough estimate which will be subject to revision when more data have been collected.

Throughout the work emphasis has been laid on the importance of the dipterocarp family; for in spite of the richness of the Philippines in fine furniture woods, the real wealth of their forests consists of construction timbers, such as are represented by the lauans, apitongs, and yacals—all belonging to the dipterocarp family. It is estimated that the dipterocarps include about 144 out of a total of the 200 billion board feet of standing timber in the Islands. Not only is the total amount great, but the members of this family occur in stands sufficiently heavy to be exploited by the use of machinery. The predominance of this family needs emphasis because it is the general belief that the Philippines and the Tropics in general produce only woods of the mahogany and teak grades.

In Part II of this bulletin popular descriptions are given of 106 trees, or all the principal timber trees whose lumber finds a place of some prominence in the markets. Brief mention is made of some 277 other trees that are found commonly in the forests or are cultivated for ornament or for fruit. While this is a very small proportion of the estimated 2,500 or more trees in the Islands, yet it includes practically all the large trees except those of a few families like the Sapotaceæ, Meliaceæ, and Myrtaceæ, whose wood, if it reaches the markets, will probably be classed with some which are already known. All the species, even of the dipterocarps, have not been described because of insufficient data. The unexplored portions of Mindanao will undoubtedly furnish some species that are not as yet known on the markets. It must be

remembered that a large number of the estimated 2,500 trees are small; many even in the mature state will not reach a size of 5 meters in height; others are not over 10 meters; and a large number of greater height have either ill-formed short trunks, or produce wood so soft that it will never occupy more than an inferior place in the markets.

Most of the descriptions of the species given in Part II were made in the woods from living trees; and the work was later supplemented and checked by wood and herbarium specimens. The description of the reproductive parts has been omitted altogether, and the form of the leaf can be found in the illustrations. A ranger, forester, or lumberman is called upon to pass judgment upon the trees of the forest that are not in flower and fruit, and if he is to have a working knowledge of the forest he must get it from bark, leaf, or wood characters. Many Filipino woodsmen are keen in distinguishing the forest trees, and to one who first enters the forest their aid is well-nigh indispensable. But it is nevertheless true that their determinations should be constantly subject to check. It should be borne in mind by those who wish to obtain some notion of the varieties and amount of each kind of timber on a given tract that while the forest as a whole is exceedingly complex, yet if the merchantable timber alone is considered, it is comparatively simple. The author has collected 80 different tree species on 1 acre which contained representatives of only two species that reach merchantable size when mature. This of course is an extreme case. The chances are great that for any given tract of forest there will not be more than 15 or 20 species of merchantable kinds. Thus, while the tract may contain 150 to 200 tree species, yet from the lumberman's point of view about nine-tenths of them may be discarded from further consideration by size alone.

In the descriptions, and throughout the text, a number of relative terms are used. For example, as regards size: "Very large" trees are those above 40 meters (134 feet) in height; "large," from 31 to 40 meters (100 to 134 feet); "medium," from 21 to 30 meters (68 to 98 feet); "small," from 11 to 20 meters (36 to 66 feet); "very small," 10 meters (32 feet) and under. While it is probable that there are trees in the Philippines that will reach a height of over 70 meters (230 feet), yet the largest tree measured to date shows 61 meters (200 feet). Very few species will reach a diameter of more than 180 centimeters (6 feet), measured above the root buttresses. The use of the relative terms "hardness" and "weight" is explained in another connection. (See p. 41, Part I.)

The terms "abundant" and "scattered," with qualifying adverbs, are used throughout the text to express the amounts of each kind of timber in the forests. The impression is apt to prevail that because a timber is abundant in the market it is abundant in the woods. Thus, during the fiscal year 1909-10, there were manifested 13,717 cubic meters of

ipil, and 20,764 cubic meters of apitong, yet the relative proportion of the amounts cut does not give anything like a true idea of the proportionate amounts of standing timber of the two kinds; for there is probably more than one hundred times as much standing timber of apitong in the Islands as of ipil. The word "abundant" in reference to a species indicates that there are at least four trees to the acre, and that the stand extends over large areas. This restricts its use only to certain members of the dipterocarp family. Thus, one large tract of approximately 40,000 acres, shows the following number of trees 16 inches and over in diameter, per acre, all belonging to the Dipterocarpaceæ:

Apitong	7.77
Almon-lauan	6.55
Tanguile	4.59
Red lauan	8.45

It is very doubtful that there is a single tract of timber in the Islands of 1,000 acres that will contain an average stand of even two trees of ipil to the acre. A yacal forest in Mindanao, covering an area of approximately 4,000 acres, shows a stand per acre of 2.9 trees of lumbayao (belonging to the Sterculiaceæ or dungon family) 16 inches and over in diameter; and a lauan-hagachac forest in Mindoro, comprising about 3,500 acres, contains an average per acre of 1.93 trees of narra. On certain small definite areas, however, these and similar species often are found in relative abundance.

Durability, another relative term, is the most important quality of timber for use in the Tropics. In a general way it is associated with hardness and weight, yet there are important exceptions. For instance, calantas is classified as a soft wood, yet it is durable; on the other hand, many woods classified as hard and heavy, decay rapidly when exposed to soil or weather. It has been found impossible to arrange a table showing the relative durability of the principal timbers, because of the lack of sufficient data. Available data are referred to in the discussion of the woods in Part II and on page 37 in Part I.

In Part II there is given all the available information on the silvicultural characteristics of each species, especially concerning the relation to light and to soil moisture. More or less ill-defined rings of growth are associated with those species which are wholly or partly deciduous and which are intolerant of shade. The two most important tree families in the Philippines, the narra and dipterocarp families, show remarkable contrasts as regards their light relations. The members of the former family are light loving, those of the latter are tolerant of shade. The quality of the dipterocarps, which permits them to bear shade, is thought to be the main cause of their success in occupying large areas in the better soils.

In the United States the contents of round logs are generally measured in board feet. This does not show the entire contents of the logs,

but an estimate of the amount of manufactured lumber that can be obtained from them. The logs are measured in the round, and from log rules the number of board feet a log of given dimensions will yield is estimated. Depending on the size of the log, these log rules show that for every cubic foot of timber in the round, approximately 4 to 8 board feet can be obtained. The average is usually taken as 6 board feet. In the Philippines the measurements and forest charges are based on the solid contents of the round logs in cubic meters. This can be expressed in board feet by using the following transposing factors: 1 cubic meter of round timber is taken as equivalent to 250 board feet, or 4 cubic meters as equivalent to 1,000 board feet. This is practically equivalent to stating that 1 cubic foot will yield 7 board feet, or 7.08, to be exact.

In this bulletin the stands of timber are expressed in cubic meters per hectare. To transpose this figure to an equivalent in board feet per acre, it is only necessary to multiply by 100. This factor is obtained by taking 250 board feet as equivalent to 1 cubic meter, and 2.5 acres as equal to 1 hectare. There are really 2.471 acres in 1 hectare, and if this exact figure were used, the transposing factor would be 101.17.

Special credit is due Mr. H. M. Curran, of this Bureau, for assistance in collecting data for the maps and wood specimens for the working museum; to Mr. E. E. Schneider, also of this Bureau, for aid in classifying the uses of the woods, determining their gross characteristics, and for revising the spelling of the common names; and to Mr. Elmer D. Merrill and other botanists of the Bureau of Science for aid in referring the tree species to their scientific names.

CLASSES OF VEGETATION.

1. GENERAL.

There is little question that practically the entire land area of the Philippines, from sea level to the highest mountains, was originally covered with unbroken forest growth of some kind. The following represents the present classes of vegetation, with the estimated area of each:

TABLE 1.

Classes of vegetation.	Area (square miles).	Percent- age.
Virgin forests	40,000	33 $\frac{1}{3}$
Second-growth forests	20,000	16 $\frac{2}{3}$
Grass lands	48,000	40
Cultivated lands*	12,000	10
Total	120,000	100

* It is difficult to estimate, even roughly, the area under cultivation. The above is probably not far from the total amount that has been cultivated some time within the last twenty years. Probably less than half of this is actually under cultivation at any one time.

Put in another way, the land area of the Philippines is about equal to that of the State of New Mexico, while the virgin forest area is approximately equal to the entire area of the State of Kentucky.

2. GRASS LANDS.

The large grass areas, called *cogonales*, are covered principally with two species—cogon grass (*Imperata exaltata*) and talahib (*Saccharum spontaneum*). Such areas are known as *cogonales*. They are mainly the result of a shifting system of agriculture, which is prevalent throughout the Tropics and known in the Philippines as caingin making.¹

Cogonales originate in the following manner, and remain as such so long as fires prevail. Usually a small portion of original or second-growth forest is cut during the dry season, the timber and brush are allowed to dry, and are then partially burned. The area thus prepared is planted with rice, sweet potatoes, corn, or other crops. Cultivation then practically ceases, and the jungle growth, consisting of grass, weeds, and tree species, quickly gains ascendancy over the planted crops, and at the end of the first, second, or third year the caingin maker abandons his clearing for a new one in another patch of forest. If the jungle growth is set on fire, as is frequently done, nearly all plants except the grasses are killed. In this way through many years vast areas of forest lands have been converted into *cogonales*, and repeated firings have prevented any change in their vegetation. Abandoned areas, formerly more intensively cultivated, have also become changed to grass lands in the same way. It is surprising how quickly this grass will become dry enough to burn. Three or four rainless days will permit it to burn with sufficient heat to kill nearly all the seedlings of woody species. Grass lands are prevalent on land of nearly all types of topography, from sea level to the tops of the mountains. In the pine region of central and northern Luzon other species of grasses frequently take the place of the cogon, although these grass lands originated in the same way.

The grass lands are a detriment rather than a help to agricultural development. They seem to be the favorite breeding places of grasshoppers which frequently destroy growing crops. It is very expensive to bring them under successful cultivation, for they form dense masses of roots and underground stems which several plowings will not entirely kill. Many Filipino farmers prefer to prepare for cultivation the land covered by virgin or second-growth forests. Indeed, in some instances they will first plant a grass area with seeds of some small rapid-growing trees, allow them to grow and shade out the grass, then cut and burn the wood, and plant their crops. The cogon grass is so coarse that it can not be considered a good forage crop unless it is kept closely cropped, in which case other grasses better for forage gain a foothold.

¹ Known in India as taungyas.

3. SECOND-GROWTH FORESTS.

The 20,000 square miles of second-growth forests in the Islands, like the grass lands, are due in the main to the *cañgin* system of agriculture. If fires are not started when the *cañgin* is abandoned, the woody species quickly gain the ascendancy and shade out the little grass that has obtained a foothold. Here, as in temperate regions, certain species of little value enter the freshly deforested regions, giving rise to subtypes of forest known under the Tagalog name of "*calaanan*," the Visayan name of "*late*," and the Moro name of "*boog*." On freshly exposed soil, the first stages of this reforestation process are remarkably similar throughout the Islands. At first, the composition is very simple, being made up principally of the following species: *Hamindang* (*Macaranga bicolor*), *binunga* (*Macaranga tanarius*), *hinlaumo* (*Mallotus ricinoides*), *alim* (*Mallotus moluccanus*), and *balanti* (*Homalanthus populneus*), all belonging to the Euphorbiacæ; *anabion* (*Trema amboinensis*), belonging to the Ulmaceæ; and *anilao* (*Columbia serratifolia*), belonging to the Tiliaceæ. For small areas, sometimes one—sometimes another—of these trees are found in almost pure stands. This is particularly true of *hamindang*, *binunga*, *anabion*, and *balanti*. All these trees are capable of producing seeds within a year or two after germination. Some are edible, and are thus quickly scattered by birds and animals; others have fruits adapted to wind distribution. Most of them mature early, are light loving, and are replaced by a more complex stand, composed of shade-enduring species. Ultimately, these second-growth forests may redevelop into forests whose composition is much like that originally destroyed.

In the natural reforestation of the grass lands, another set of species first gains entrance. In the high regions of central and northern Luzon, the Benguet pine (*Pinus insularis*) is the pioneer species. In the lowlands among those that first gain entrance are *binayuyu* (*Antidesma ghaesembilla*), *alibangbang* (*Bauhinia malabarica*), *duhat* (*Eugenia jambolana*), *acleng-parang* (*Albizzia procera*), and others. The first two of these are especially able to resist the effect of fires, and thus can occur as scattered trees through the grass lands. When fires are checked for several years, these trees often form the centers for closed stands, and eventually cover large areas. These subtypes become gradually more and more complex, the rapidity of the process depending on their distance from seed-bearing trees, and of course the composition varies according to the character of the species of the seed-bearing centers. Thus so many subtypes exist that it is difficult to make generalizations. Advance stages in the development of second-growth forests are so mixed with tangles of climbing bamboo and other vines that they are difficult to penetrate. Such forests often cover large areas, and are the

so-called jungle growths of the Philippines. They often alternate with patches of grass, with which they make the vegetation known as *parang*. Forest fires such as exist in drier portions of the Tropics and in temperate regions do not exist in the Philippines. Surface fires run through the pine forests, destroying young trees and injuring somewhat the older ones. Outside the pine regions there are practically no forest fires, only "prairie" fires and burnings of timber that has been felled previously. These may injure the edge of the original forests, but do not penetrate them and produce conflagrations such as are known in the coniferous forests of the temperate regions. The *parang* districts often show kaleidoscopic changes, due to the rapid development of jungle growth where the fires are checked and the entrance of grass or second-growth forests in newly abandoned caingins. In the more thickly settled portions of the Islands, and along well-traveled trails, practically all the original forests have disappeared, giving place to grass or second-growth forests. The second-growth forests are seen by the average traveler, and have conveyed the wholly wrong impression that the forests of the Philippines, and, it is believed, of the Tropics in general, are a densely overgrown mass of impenetrable jungle. Little is seen of the original forests of the interior, for the jungle growth on its borders tends to discourage efforts to penetrate within. Over one-half (approximately 68,000 square miles) of the area of the Islands is covered with grass or with second-growth forests. The prevention of further destruction of the virgin forest, and the reforestation of the grassy regions on nonagricultural lands, both by the prevention of fires and by planting, are the greatest forestry problems of the Philippine Islands.

4. VIRGIN FORESTS.

Virgin forests are those which either have been undisturbed by man, or have been so little exploited that their original character has not been materially changed. They form the source from which the inhabitants of the Islands may draw and are drawing their main supplies of timber, and also include the protective forests of the high mountain regions. They cover approximately one-third of the total area of the Islands.

I.—CLIMATE.

The average annual rainfall of the Philippines shows pronounced variations in different parts of the Archipelago, ranging from 900 millimeters (36 inches) to 4,000 millimeters (160 inches). The heaviest rains occur during the summer and autumn months (June to October), which is properly called the rainy season. The entire Islands are well watered during these months. During the winter months (November, December, January, and February) the northeast monsoon rains continue to water abundantly the eastern and northern coasts, thus giving the Pacific coasts

and the islands bordering the large inland seas a prolonged or second rainy season. The western half of central and northern Luzon, the western coasts of Mindoro and Panay, the Calamianes group, and small areas in other portions of the Islands receive little rainfall from this monsoon, because of intervening mountain masses. Thus a prolonged, comparatively dry season with only occasional showers prevails in these regions for the six months from November to May. In the other portions of the Islands, this dry season varies from two to four months and is more frequently interspersed with showers. In some places the showers are so frequent that there is an entire absence of a dry season. Thus, it will be seen that there are two distinct climates, one in which the dry season is long and pronounced and another in which the dry season is shorter and less pronounced and sometimes wanting. In the former region, the forests during this season shed a portion of their leaves, and some trees are even entirely defoliated for a short time; in the latter, the forests are generally evergreen. Though grass areas are found in both, they more quickly establish themselves in the drier belt. It is a general rule that throughout the Islands during the long or short dry seasons the amount of rainfall in local showers, and the relative humidity, is less in the lowlands than in the high altitudes; consequently, the forests of the low altitudes may show a much less evergreen appearance than the forests of higher altitudes of the adjacent interior mountain passes.

The monthly distribution of the rainfall should be considered, because some localities in the regions of a long dry season receive a greater annual rainfall than others in the region of a short dry season. Thus Balanga (Bataan), in the region of the long dry season, has an annual rainfall of 2,394 millimeters, of which 83.5 per cent falls from June to October; 5.3 per cent from November to February; and 11.2 per cent from March to May. On the other hand, Jolo, in the Sulu Archipelago, with no dry season at all, has an annual rainfall of only 1,666.8 millimeters, of which 49.2 per cent falls from June to October; 28.3 per cent from November to February; and 22.5 per cent from March to May.

Although the Philippines have a range of latitude from 4.5° to 22° north, the variation in the temperature is believed not to be great enough to have any pronounced direct effect on the vegetation below 500 to 600 meters in altitude.

II. TOPOGRAPHY AND SOIL.

As a general rule, the topography of the islands of the Archipelago consists of interior mountain ranges, with coastal plains of greater or less width. In some cases these ranges are nearer one side of the Islands than the other; in others, large river valleys separate two parallel mountain

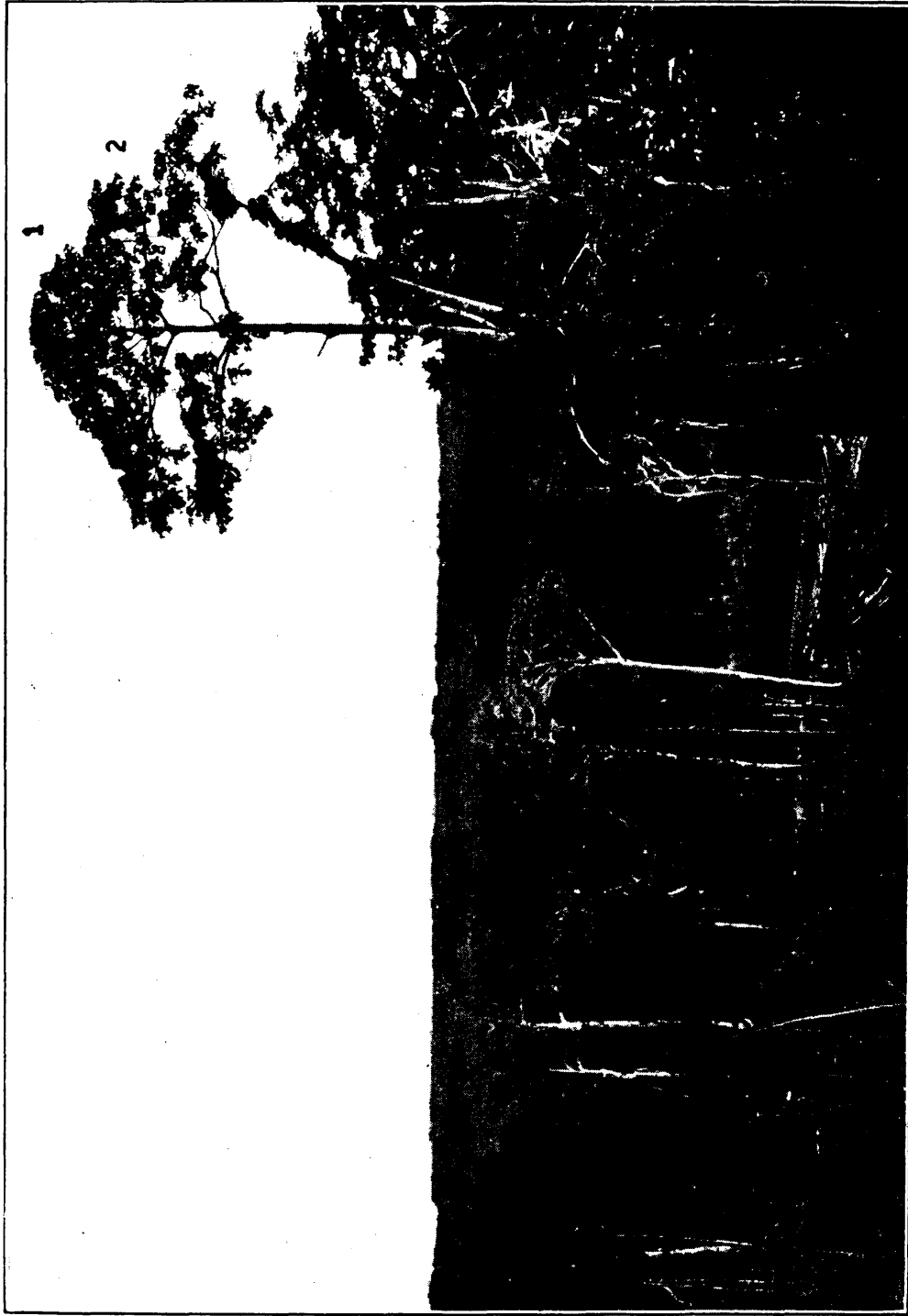


PLATE I.—GENERAL VIEW OF SECOND-GROWTH FOREST.

In the foreground is a remnant of the original forest after being logged.

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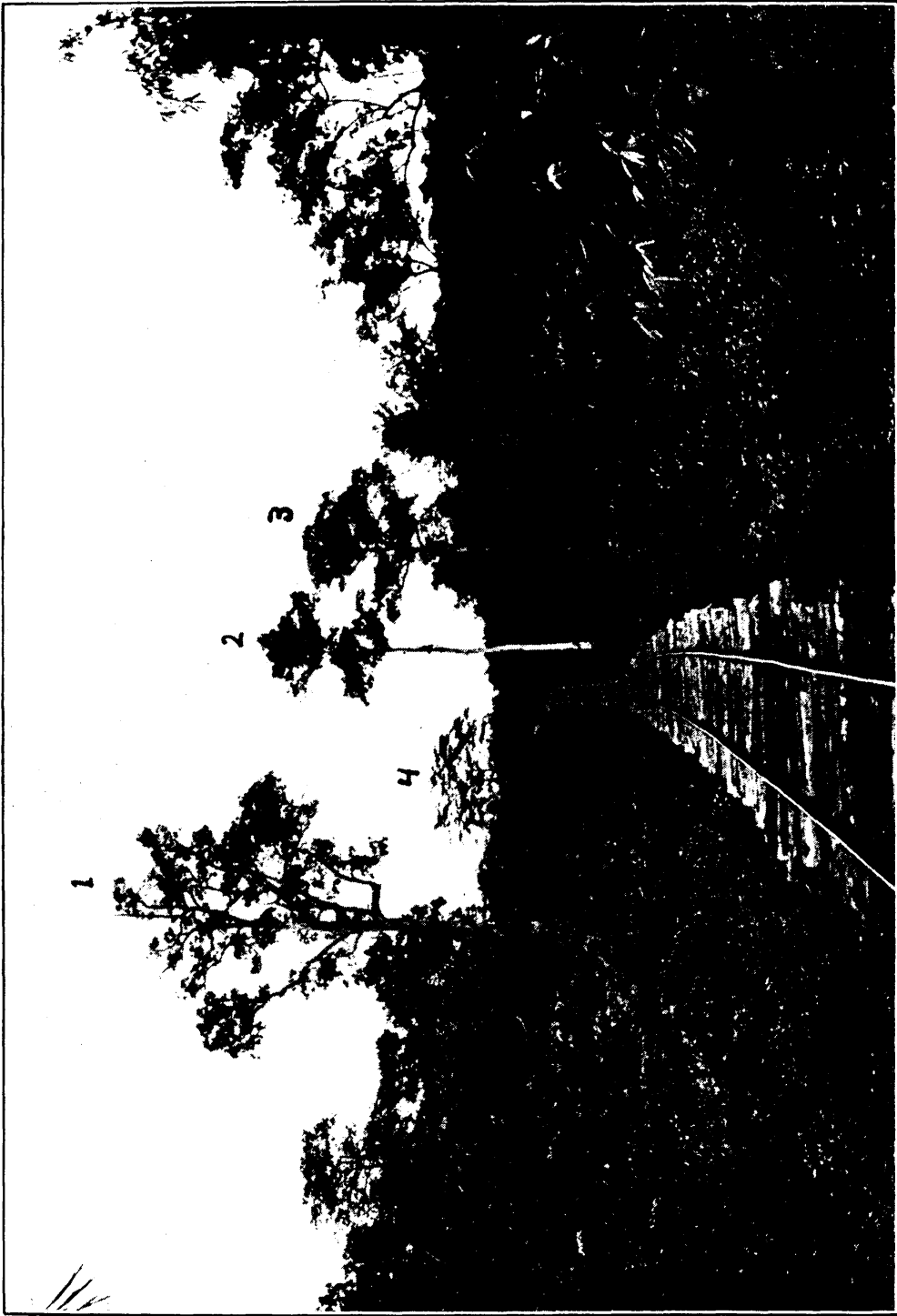


PLATE II.—VIEW IN SECOND-GROWTH FOREST.

Palosapis (1, 2, and 3) and cupang (4) are remnants of the original forest.



PLATE III.—YOUNG SECOND-GROWTH FOREST.

Hamindang and anabion.

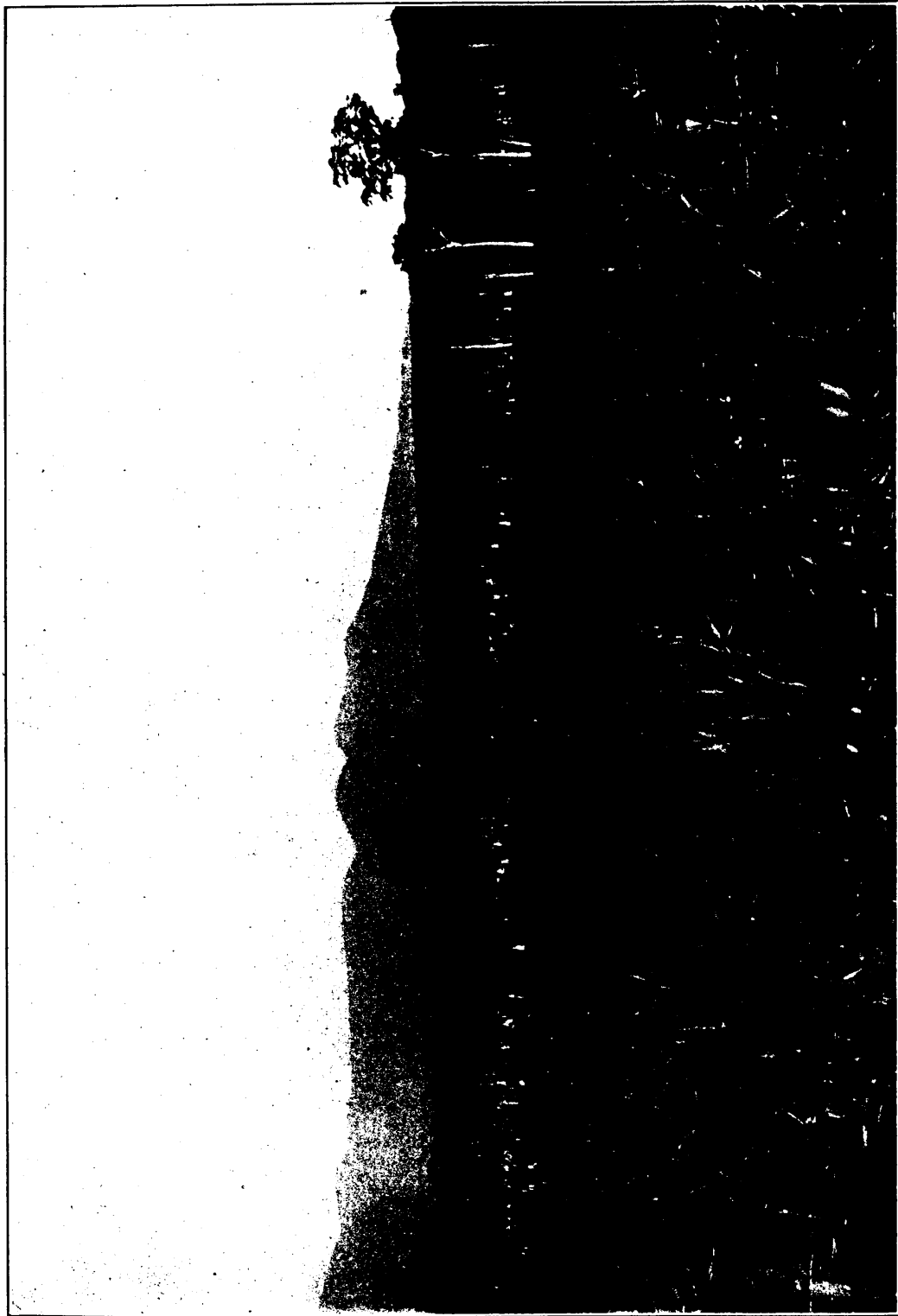


PLATE IV.—OUTSIDE VIEW OF A DIPTEROCARP FOREST OF THE LAUAN TYPE.

This forest will yield 30,000 feet per acre, board measure, clear lumber, and consists of an almost pure stand of the lauans and apitongs.



PLATE V.—INTERIOR VIEW OF THE LAUAN FOREST SHOWN IN PLATE IV.

The trees are almon-lauan and red lauan.



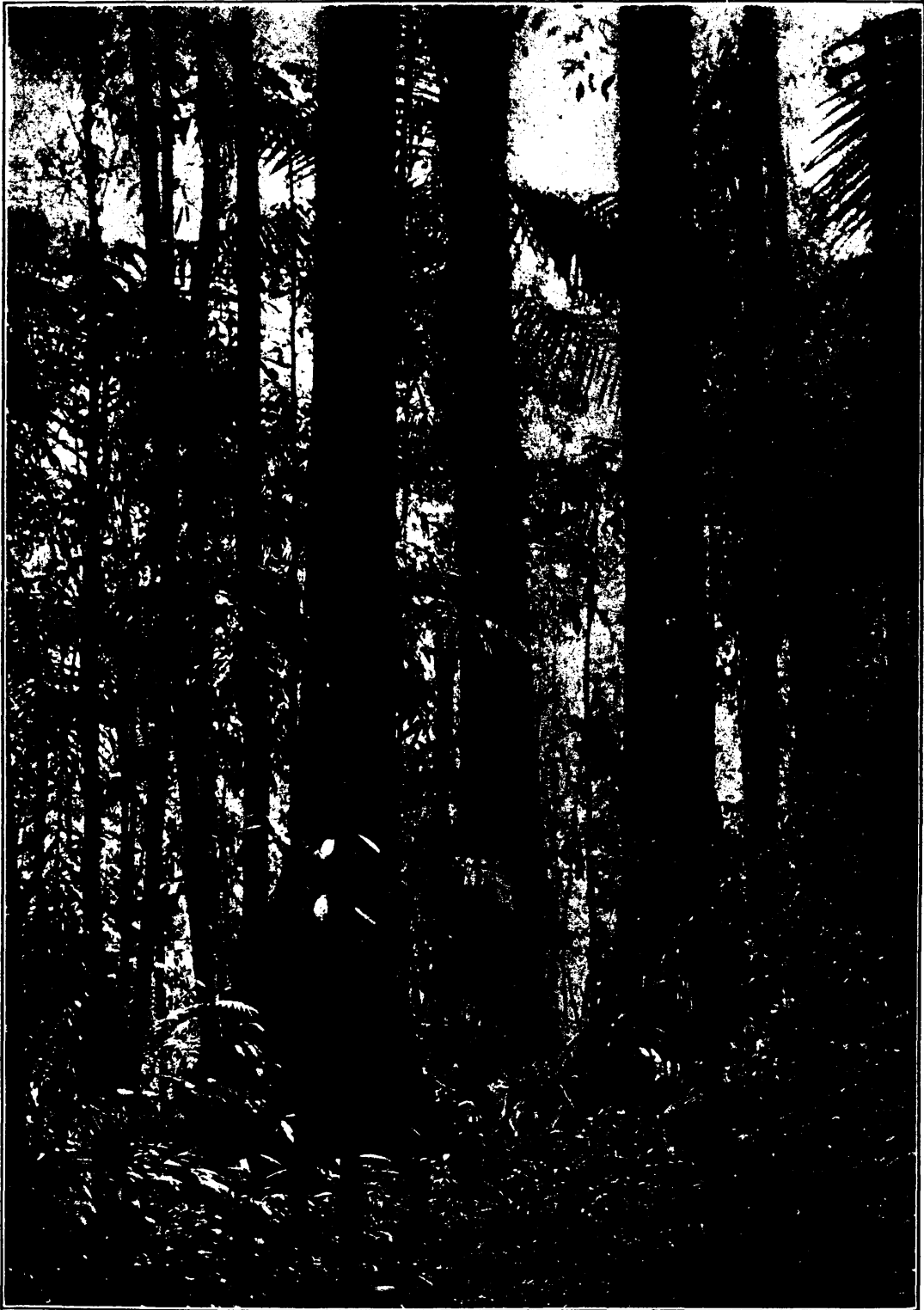


PLATE VI.—INTERIOR VIEW OF LAUAN TYPE.
The trees are almon-lauan, red lauan, and tanguile.

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PLATE VII.—INTERIOR VIEW OF THE LAUAN-HAGACHAC TYPE.

ranges. The mountains are volcanic in origin. Some isolated volcanic peaks rise abruptly from the surrounding lowlands. Limestone deposits, often crystallized by volcanic action, occur scattered throughout the Islands, especially along the coast. In some portions, large areas of stratified volcanic tuffs exist. These variations in the character of the rock and soils in a measure affect the character of the vegetation. Under a discussion of the forest types, attention will be called to certain pronounced variations due to this cause.

III.—TYPES OF FOREST.

The forest area of the Philippines may be divided into the following types:

1. Lauan type.....
 2. Lauan-hagachac type.....
 3. Yacal-lauan type.....
 4. Lauan-apitong type.....
 5. Tanguile-oak type.....
 6. Molave type.
 7. Pine type.
 8. Mangrove type.
 9. Beach type.
 10. Mossy type.
- } Dipterocarp types.

It is convenient to use the term "dipterocarp" to distinguish the first five of the above types, as the characteristic trees belong to the Dipterocarpaceæ, the principal tree family of the Philippines. It is impossible, without more careful study and with the aid of topographical and geological surveys, to delineate the types on the map; and therefore the exact area covered by each type can not be ascertained at present. But the following is a very rough estimate of the area occupied by certain types or groups of types, with an estimate of their volume in cubic meters and board feet:

TABLE 2.

Kinds.	Area.				Volume of standing timber—		Total volume.	
	Per cent.	Square miles.	Acres.	Hectares.	Per acre (board feet).	Per hectare (cubic meters). ^a	Million board feet.	Million cubic meters.
Dipterocarp	75	30,000	19,200,000	7,770,000	10,000	100	192,000	777.000
Molave	10	4,000	2,560,000	1,036,000	3,000	30	7,680	31.080
Pine	5	2,000	1,280,000	518,000	2,000	20	2,560	10.360
Mangrove	2	800	512,000	207,200	2,000	20	1,024	4.144
Mountain	8	3,200	2,048,000	828,800		Purely protective.		
Total	100	40,000	25,600,000	10,360,000	-----	-----	203,264	822.584

^a See page 12 for explanation of factor used in changing cubic meters to board feet.

A.—DIPTEROCARP TYPES.

(a) *General character.*—Covering 75 per cent of the virgin forest area, or 30,000 square miles, and containing approximately 95 per cent of the total amount of standing timber in the Islands, the dipterocarp types are preëminently the most important. They are found on nearly all types of topography, from immediately behind the frontal zone of the beach to an altitude of approximately 800 meters on the slopes of largest mountain masses. From the standpoint of the botanist, the composition of these forests is complex; but from the standpoint of lumbermen it is comparatively simple. As the name implies, the members of the dipterocarp family constitute the prevailing class of timber. Taking it as a whole, it is estimated that 75 per cent of the 192 billion board feet, or 144 billion board feet, are dipterocarps. The remaining 48 billion board feet in the dipterocarp forests are divided among a large number of species, representing many families.

Practically all the species of the dipterocarps are large trees, reaching heights of 40 to 50 meters and diameters of 100 to 150 centimeters or more, and it is not rare to find even these dimensions exceeded. They have straight, regular boles, resembling in size and shape the *Liriodendron tulipiferum* (yellow poplar or tulip tree) of the United States. Some species of other families have a size and form similar to and codominant with the dipterocarps, but by far a greater majority are subdominant species, many of which have ill-formed boles, much smaller in diameter and length. Underneath the dominant and subdominant species are a large number of undergrowth tree species which do not attain more than 10 centimeters in diameter when mature, and a height of 10 meters or less. From a botanical point of view, these add greatly to the complexity of the forests, but for commercial considerations they should be called undergrowth trees. Within the forests there are comparatively few shrubs, or bushes, and herbs.

All the types of dipterocarp forests contain climbing palms (rattans), but the number and size of other large vines (lianas) seem to diminish with the prominence of the dipterocarps. Artificial and natural openings in the forests are often covered with a jungle of climbing bamboos and other large lianas, and the edges of the forests, especially along the streams, present breastworks of twisted vines which are very difficult to penetrate; but as soon as the interior is reached it is easy to pass through the forest with only the occasional use of a bolo (machete).

Practically all the dipterocarps are evergreens, for the new leaves are formed before the old ones drop. In some of the types discussed below, a few of the dipterocarps and many of the other tree species are partially deciduous, dropping a portion of their leaves during the

dry season; some species, including one dipterocarp, may become entirely defoliated for a period varying from one day to two months.

As stated above, the dipterocarp forests show more or less distinct types (formations), which are here given the common names of the most numerous species found within them. These may be divided into subtypes (associations); but, except in limited regions where intensive work has been done, little or no attempt has been made to distinguish them. Many of them are only stages in successful movements of the forests. Such movements are either due to the recovery from artificial disturbances or to changes in the character of the topography.

As many of the regions of the Philippines have not yet been fully investigated, the following division of the dipterocarp forests into types is only provisional. It is believed, however, that these types, generally speaking, will hold good, and that if changes are made they will be in the nature of a division into subtypes.

(b) *Lauan type*.—To this type is given the name "lauan" because several species (see p. 20) producing similar woods having the name of lauan predominate. It represents the most successful commercial forest in the Philippines, and is confined to regions with a short or no dry season. It reaches its best development on the more gentle slopes near the base of the mountain masses, usually extending to altitudes of 300 to 400 meters, at which height it merges gradually into the tanguile-oak type. In regions of rougher topography it does not produce such heavy stands. In favorable soils it may occupy the low coastal hills, although usually near the sea it merges into the yacal-lauan type or the molave forest. The relative proportion of the dipterocarps is usually heavier in this than in any other type, and the total volume of timber is greater. An indication of the composition and stand of the forest can be best illustrated by the following table, which is based on the results of valuation surveys.

TABLE 3.—Volume of trees 40 centimeters and over in diameter in northern Negros (average of 54.65 hectares).

Scientific name.	Common name.	Volume per hectare (cubic meters).	Stand per acre (board feet).
Shorea sp.-----	Red lauan-----	185.18	18,518
Shorea furfuracea-----	Almon-lauan-----	92.02	9,202
Dipterocarpus grandiflorus-----	Apitong-----	66.63	6,663
Shorea polysperma-----	Tanguile-----	59.98	5,998
Pentacme contorta-----	White lauan-----	} 25.23	2,523
Parashorea plicata-----	Bagtican-lauan-----		
Total Dipterocarpaceæ-----	-----	428.99	42,899
All others (estimated)-----	-----	22.58	2,258
Total-----	-----	451.57	45,157

These figures are fairly representative of a portion of the lauan type, but, depending on the local conditions, the volume and other qualities will vary, and so give rise to the subtypes. Much closer study must be given to these subtypes before they can be accurately described. In parts of Luzon, especially in the Provinces of Tayabas and Camarines, the principal species of the family Dipterocarpaceæ occurring in the largest stands are as follows: Mayapis-lauan (*Shorea squamata*), almon-lauan (*Shorea furfuracea*), bagtican-lauan (*Parashorea plicata*), white lauan (*Pentacme contorta*), tanguile (*Shorea polysperma*), tiaong-lauan (*Shorea* sp.), the apitongs (*Dipterocarpus* spp.). The lauan types of Mindanao, especially in the Zamboanga district, contain mayapis-lauan, almon-lauan, bagtican-lauan, white lauan, kalunti-lauan (*Vatica* sp.), and *Dipterocarpus* spp.

Many other families are represented in this type, but the species which reach codominance with the dipterocarps are much less abundant than in other types in which the Dipterocarpaceæ predominate.

The lauan type is comparatively free from jungle undergrowth. It contains a very complex small-tree flora and a great many climbing palms. Erect palms, some of them reaching the height of subdominant trees, are everywhere present. Contrasted with other types, it presents a more closed canopy and consequently a regular profile. On its borders, and in natural or artificial openings, lianas grow in great profusion, but while lianas occur within the forest itself, yet they are reduced to a minimum in numbers, and especially in size, because of the dense prevalent shade. The forest floor contains a very scanty growth of herbaceous vegetation. The undergrowth of the forest is not an impenetrable jungle. One can pass through it in all directions, encountering difficulties in the way of obstructive vegetation only in artificial or natural openings where light permits the jungle growth. In short, the dominant trees, nearly all dipterocarps, form and maintain a successful forest of trees, which produce a shade so dense as to crowd out many light-demanding species. These are either forced to the edge of the forest, or else exist in the interior in a sickly condition, awaiting as it were the chance entrance of light to permit them luxuriously to fill up the opened space. Stripped of its ornaments of palms, lianas, epiphytic orchids, and ferns, whose importance is exaggerated in the eyes of the inhabitants of the temperate regions, the lauan type bears striking resemblance to the commercial forests of the temperate zone. In simplicity of composition of the dominant trees, and in volume of wood produced, it approaches in value the famous coniferous forests of the more northern latitudes.

It is not possible to estimate the area that this type of forest occupies. It covers a very large part of the entire forests, and probably formerly occupied extensive areas which are now in cogon or second-growth forests, or under cultivation.

(c) *Lauan-hagachac type*.—The lauan-hagachac, like the lauan type, is confined to the regions where the dry season is short or wanting. It is restricted to areas where the water level is near the surface of the ground. It reaches its most extensive development in river bottoms, especially on slightly raised river deltas. It extends in narrow strips along the smaller streams through the lauan type, where it resembles this in character, and often they can scarcely be distinguished.

In composition it differs mainly from the previous type in the presence of hagachac (*Dipterocarpus affinis*), and a much larger number of co-dominant species of other families. Where this forest has been analyzed carefully, it shows a large number of subtypes, which are often stages in succession, due to the unstable character of the habitat. Thus, in flood times, slight changes in the level of the soil due to deposits or the formation of new water channels alters the relative height of the ground-water level, which may be great enough to effect a decided change in the character of succeeding generations of trees. Thus, the type as a whole is a complex of many subtypes in various stages of development. Consequently the average hectare will show a greater number of species and fewer individual trees that have obtained maturity. Also, during the rainy season, the soil in large areas is too wet for the best development of many species. These factors reduce the volume of lumber per hectare as compared with forests growing in more stable areas.

In spite of the unstable and moist character of the soil, there is a constant tendency to produce a forest in which the dipterocarps predominate. The following is an estimation of the volume of such a forest:

TABLE 4.—Volume of trees 40 centimeters and over in diameter, on a delta plain in eastern Mindoro (average of 42.4 hectares).

Scientific name.	Common name.	Volume per hectare (cubic meters).	Stand per acre (board feet).
Dipterocarpaceæ:			
Pentacme contorta	White lauan.....	55.83	5,583
Shorea guiso	Guijo.....	14.5	1,450
Dipterocarpus sp.	Apitong	7.42	742
Dipterocarpus affinis.....	Hagachac	16.03	1,603
Total Dipterocarpaceæ.....	93.78	9,378
Leguminosæ:			
Pterocarpus indicus	Narra.....	8.76	876
Anacardiaceæ:			
Koordersiodendron pinnatum.....	Amuguis	10.69	1,069
Combretaceæ:			
Terminalia pellucida	Dalinsi	} 3.13	313
Terminalia nitens	Sacat		
Terminalia edulis	Calumpit		
All others (estimated)	46.67	4,667
Total.....	163.03	16,303

The principal other trees occurring in this type of forest that are dominant or subdominant with the dipterocarps are dao (*Dracontomelum dao*); malaikmo (*Celtis* sp.); *Canarium* spp.; ilang-ilang (*Canangium odoratum*); various species of the mahogany family (*Meliaceæ*), including very scattered specimens of calantas (*Toona calantas*); species of laurel family (*Lauraceæ*); dapdap (*Erythrina indica*); cupang (*Parkia timoriana*); several soft-wooded species of the dungon family (*Sterculiaceæ*); many species of the binunga family (*Euphorbiaceæ*), especially *Macaranga* and *Mallotus*; biluang (*Octomeles sumatrana*), a tree belonging to *Datis-caceæ* which reaches very large dimensions.

The portions of this type found along streams in the lauan type are somewhat more stable in character. Temporary flood plains may show pure stands of hagachac. Narra, dao, amuguis, aele (*Albizia aele*), guisocguisoc (*Hopea philippinensis*), malugay (*Pometia pinnata*), catmon (*Dillenia philippinensis*), and others are found scattered along the streams mixed with various species of lauan, which reach their best development on the adjacent higher and drier soils.

As one would naturally suppose, this forest is more open than the lauan type, consequently the jungle growth consists of tangles of rattan and other large vines. However, mature subtypes are comparatively free from jungle growth.

Erect palms are constantly present. The Mindoro portion of it, above described, shows 66.5 palms to the hectare (not including young ones without stems), composed of six different species. The lowlands near the mouths of rivers at the head of Davao Gulf (Mindanao) will show even a larger stand.

As the lauan-hagachac type occurs on land sought for agricultural purposes, especially the cultivation of rice, the area occupied by it is very limited in extent. In thickly settled agricultural regions it has been entirely destroyed.

(d) *Yacal-lauan type*.—This type finds its best development in regions where the dry season is short, on low coastal hills whose basal rock is volcanic in structure. It occurs on headlands projecting into the sea, especially those at the heads of embayments. These headlands usually have drier soils, lower relative humidity, and less rainfall than the region back of them. It also occurs on the hills bordering large river valleys that have approximately the same physical conditions.

This type, in contrast to the two dipterocarp types above mentioned, has a slight deciduous appearance during the driest portion of the year. As it has a large number of codominant species, it more nearly resembles the lauan-hagachac than the lauan type. Erect palms are scattered throughout the forest, although they are not nearly so numerous as in the previous mentioned dipterocarp type. Climbing palms and other lianas are present, but are not especially abundant except in open

places. The type can be divided into two subtypes—the ridge subtype which occurs on the tops and exposed slopes of the ridges, where yacal is most abundant, and a subtype found on protected slopes of ravines and along small streams. It is difficult to draw a sharp line between these subtypes, inasmuch as they merge into each other, and from the standpoint of the lumberman they are a unit. Hence they are treated as one. The following is an illustration of the volume of a fair sample of this type of forest in Mindanao.

TABLE 5.—Volume of trees 40 centimeters and over in diameter, in the Port Banga region, Mindanao (average of 51.17 hectares).

Scientific name.	Common name.	Volume per hectare (cubic meters).	Stand per acre (board feet).
Dipterocarpaceæ:			
<i>Hopea plagata</i>	Yacal	50.37	5,037
<i>Pentacme contorta</i>	White lauan	26.02	2,602
<i>Parashorea plicata</i>	Bagtican-lauan		
<i>Dipterocarpus</i> sp.	Apitong	12.05	1,205
<i>Shorea guiso</i>	Guijo	16.80	1,680
<i>Vatica</i> sp.	Kalunti-lauan	12.34	1,234
<i>Shorea squamata</i>	Mayapis-lauan	9.46	947
<i>Shorea furfuracea</i>	Almon-lauan		
<i>Vatica</i> sp.	Narig	6.14	614
<i>Hopea</i> sp.	Malayacal	2.83	283
Total dipterocarpaceæ	136.01	13,601
Sterculiaceæ:			
<i>Tarrietia javanica</i>	Lumbayao	21.35	2,135
Leguminosæ:			
<i>Kingiodendron alternifolium</i>	Batete	7.29	729
All others	124.35	12,435
Total	289.00	28,900

Other codominant species and the larger subdominant ones are as follows: Malaikmo; antipolo (*Artocarpus communis*); ilang-ilang; liusin (*Parinarium griffithianum*); *Canarium* spp.; kamatog (*Erythrophloeum densiflorum*); banawi (*Cylostemon grandifolius*); amuguis; malugay; alupag (*Euphoria cinerea*); balacat (*Zizyphus zonulatus*); taluto (*Pterocymbium tinctorium*); *Calophyllum* sp.; *Garcinia* spp.; *Anisoptera* sp. and *Hopea* sp. (*Dipterocarpaceæ*); batitinan (*Lagerstroemia piriformis*); sacat; *Eugenia* spp.; *Palaquium* spp.; lanete (*Wrightia calycina*); molave (*Vitex parviflora*); sasalit (*Vitex aherniana*); bancal (*Sarcocephalus cordatus*); calamansanay (*Nauclea* sp.). This list gives some idea of the complexity of the type.

Forests of the same type in Leyte and in various part of Luzon, especially the Provinces of Tayabas and Ambos Camarines, show so similar a composition that they may fairly be classed under this type. The actual area that this type occupies is not known at present, but it is not large, as it occurs in narrow belts along the coast, and in many cases has been cleared by caingin makers.

(e) *Lauan-apitong type*.—So far as altitude and topography are concerned, this corresponds to the lauan type, but differs from it in having a longer dry season, the effect of which is sufficient to justify its separation into a distinct type. During the dry season, this type shows a decided deciduous element. Except in places of favorable soil conditions, the forest cover is quite open, allowing the entrance of jungle undergrowth, lianas, erect bamboos, and the like. The composition of the dominant species is more complex than the lauan type, and resembles markedly in this respect the lauan-hagachac and yacal-lauan types. Here also the dipterocarps furnish the greatest bulk of timber. Many of the species found in the previous mentioned types are here not present, although all the species occurring in the lauan-apitong type are also found in the other dipterocarp types. This indicates that the distinction is a climatic one. While the dipterocarps show a decidedly less leaf surface during the dry season, only one of them, palosapis (*Anisoptera thurifera*), is wholly deciduous, but only for a day or two. This is true of a great majority of the trees belonging to other families, which contain only a few that become bare, even for a short time. On the clearing edge of this forest, there are good stands of almost pure erect bamboo; these extend into the virgin forests where the dipterocarps are mixed with cupang (*Parkia timoriana*) and other species. The bamboo undergrowth in such places, with the rather scattered trees, gives the forest the appearance of a park.

A typical stand of this forest is as follows:

TABLE 6.—Volume of trees 40 centimeters and over in diameter in Bataan Province, Luzon (average of 50 hectares).

Scientific name.	Common name.	Volume per hectare (cubic meters).	Stand per acre (board feet).
Dipterocarpaceæ:			
Dipterocarpus grandiflorus	Apitong	81.6	8,160
Dipterocarpus vernicifluus	Panao		
Pentacme contorta	White lauan	66.5	6,650
Anisoptera thurifera	Palosapis	28	2,800
Shorea polysperma	Tanguile	16	1,600
Shorea guiso	Guijo	4.1	410
Total Dipterocarpaceæ	196.2	19,620
All others	89	8,900
Total	285.2	28,520

Under "all others" are included the following species codominant with, or prominently subdominant to, the dipterocarps: Malaikmo; antipolo; tangisang-bayawak (*Ficus variegata*); tamayuan (*Strombosia philippinensis*); *Xylopiia dehiscens*; dalinas (*Cyathocalyx globobus*); duguan (*Myristica philippensis*); lago (*Pygeum glandulosum*); liusin; acle; tanglin (*Adenanthera intermedia*); cupang; tindalo (*Pahudia*

rhomboidea); pili and pagsahingin (*Canarium* spp.); kamingi (*Santiria nitida*); *Dysoxylum* spp.; malakamingi (*Reinwardtiodendron merrillii*); *Amoora* spp.; *Aglaia* spp.; tuai (*Bischofia javanica*); hamindang (*Macaranga bicolor*); binunga (*Macaranga tanarius*); gubas (*Endospermum peltatum*); pahutan (*Mangifera altissima*); lamio (*Dracontomelum cumingianum*); dao; amuguis; alupag; balacat; taluto; bitanhol (*Calophyllum blancoi*); mangachapuy (*Hopea acuminata*); biluang; banaba (*Lagerstroemia speciosa*); sacat, calumpit, and binggas (*Terminalia* spp.); nato (*Palaquium luzoniense*); manicnic (*Palaquium tenuipetiolatum*); bolongeta (*Diospyros pilosanthera*); dita (*Alstonia scholaris*).

(f) *Tanguile-oak type*.—The forests of this type cover the area extending from the upper limits of the lauan and lauan-apitong types to the lower limits of the mossy-forest type in the higher portion of the mountains. These forests have not been studied in great detail, and more extended investigations are necessary to determine whether more than one type exists or not. When such studies have been made in many parts of the Islands, it may be found that there are a number of distinct types instead of the one here considered. In the meantime, the provisional name of tanguile-oak type has been adopted. Its lower limits are from 400 to 500 meters above sea level, and it extends upward to a height of between 800 and 900 meters. The topography is such as is usually found on mountain sides, gentle to steep ridges and slopes alternating with deep ravines and gorges. The evergreen character of the forests and actual measurements show that rainfall is more evenly distributed throughout the year, and the relative humidity is constantly higher than in the adjacent forests of the lower altitudes.

As its name implies, the principal species represented in this type are tanguile and oak; of these, the former also occurs frequently in dipterocarp types of the lower altitudes. It is found nearer sea level in regions where the dry season is short than in those where the dry season is longer, but in both its numbers increase with the altitude until the mossy-forest type is reached. In the higher portions of the tanguile-oak type, it is the only dipterocarp of numerical importance. In the lower limits of the type occur, of course, scattered specimens of the dipterocarps of the bordering types below. This is especially true of the lauans and the apitongs, although the latter are not nearly so abundant as the former. Some species that usually are found along streams in the types of lower altitudes occur in deeper soils of the tanguile-oak type away from the streams. Thus, tuai, catmon, and pahutan (*Mangifera altissima*) are among those so distributed. Certain species of oak, which occur as scattered trees in the lower types, here become much more abundant, and in some places give a decided tone to the vegetation. Among other species that are numerically prominent in this type are mangachapuy

(*Hopea acuminata*), almaciga (*Agathis alba*), kalingag (*Cinnamomum mercadoi*), and other species of the laurel family, malabayabas (*Tristania decorticata*), *Gordonia luzonica*, and many species of *Eugenia*. Many of the species occurring in this type also occur much dwarfed in the mossy forests higher up. Indeed, the type is the meeting ground of a number of the species which are found in the types both above and below. So far as is known, there are no species of trees that reach large size that are peculiar to this zone, with the exception, perhaps, of certain species of oaks. A number of species, however, reach more successful development, both as regards numbers and size, than in the other types in which they are found. Open places occur in this as in other types, giving rise to many subtypes. The undergrowth trees are numerous, but the composition is not so complex as the types below. The closed portions of the type are comparatively free from large lianas other than rattans, so that the only difficulty in penetrating the forest in any direction is encountered in the tangled growth of the open places.

In high plateau regions, between 500 and 800 meters of altitude, this type attains heavy stands, but usually the topography is so rough that tall forests, covering large areas without a break, are wanting. Large epiphytic plants, like birds'-nest ferns, are more abundant here than lower down. In the upper limits, the trees gradually become more dwarfed, and the trunks are covered with mosses and liverworts, until the type gradually merges into the mossy forests above.

B.—MOLAVE TYPE.

Throughout this type, molave (*Vitex parviflora*) is fairly well distributed. The type occupies a topography similar to that on which the yacal-lauan type is found, except that in a great majority of cases the underlying rock is usually limestone rather than volcanic in nature. The low limestone hills, either coastal or bordering large uplifted river valleys, are usually composed of crystalline coral limestone with a honey-combed structure. These rocks are generally covered by shallow or very scanty soil, and this, together with their honeycombed nature, makes the habitat a very dry one. It is roughly estimated that the area covered by this type comprises some 4,000 square miles (1,036,000 hectares). The trees are the most valuable in the Philippines, and are easily accessible for exploitation. This has brought about the more or less complete destruction of the original forest, and so it is very difficult to analyze the true nature of the vegetation. From the study of virgin and nearly virgin areas, however, the following characteristics seem to be most general. The forest is open. Its large trees are few and far apart, with the intervening spaces filled with small trees, or by a jungle growth usually of sprawling, climbing, or small erect bamboos. With a few exceptions, the dominant trees are short boled, irregular to very irregular in form, and with wide-spreading crowns. The forest has a decidedly

deciduous foliage, almost entirely so on rough topography in regions where the dry season is pronounced. The composition of the type varies in different parts of the Islands.

In some expressions of the type, the following dominant trees are present: molave, dungon (*Tarrietia sylvatica*), tindalo, supa (*Sindora supa*), batete, ipil (*Intsia bijuga*), acle (*Albizzia acle*), banuyo (*Wallaceodendron celebicum*), balacat, alupag, bansalaguin (*Mimusops* sp.), calantas (*Toona calantas*), lanete (*Wrightia laniti*), mancono (*Xanthostemon verdugonianus*), batitinan (*Lagerstroemia piriformis*), spiny narra (*Pterocarpus echinatus*), narra, taluto, tukang-calao (*Aglaiä clarkii*), and liusin. Of the smaller species, the following may occur: ebony (*Maba burifolia*), camagon (*Diospyros discolor*), kuyus-kuyus (*Taxotrophis ilicifolia*), caña-fistula (*Cassia javanica*), bayok (*Pterospermum* spp.), and tulu-tulu (*Mallotus floribundus*). It must not be supposed, however, that all these species occur in any one locality. Indeed, the reverse is the case. Mancono, for instance, in merchantable quantities, is restricted to northeastern Mindanao and adjacent islands. Supa, likewise, is found in Tayabas and Ambos Camarines; narra, calantas, and acle are usually scattered along the hill streams. Distinct forms of the type are sometimes present on dry hills of hard volcanic rock—hills too dry to support any forest but members of this type. Often, such species as molave, batete, ebony, liusin, batitinan, and others, are found scattered throughout the open places of the yacal-lauan type. This is especially true of batete. Even in some limestone regions, the slopes of valleys often contain clearly defined expressions of the dipterocarp types, and in the very humid atmosphere of the Davao Gulf, the Island of Samal (mainly of a crystalline coral limestone formation) contains a dipterocarp forest of guiyo, white lauan, bagtican-lauan, and other species that causes it more nearly to approach a dipterocarp type than any other, with trees of the molave type scattered among the thinner portions of the forest. North of this is a small coral island which contains an almost pure stand of ipil. Indeed, so far as observations go, with the single exception of supa, all the trees mentioned above are found growing scattered in the various types of dipterocarps, and occupy positions either along the streams or in drier portions. Some of them reach better individual development in such situations than when growing on limestone hills. It will thus be seen that many of these species occupy limestone soils, not because they prefer them to any other, but because they are shaded out of the moister soils by the more successful development of the shade-enduring dipterocarps. The dipterocarps, on the other hand, have soil-moisture requirements that will not permit them to exist in the drier soils of the limestone regions. In a word, the limestone habitat is one that contains a mixture of certain species of the various types of dipterocarp forest.

As one would suppose, the volume of the molave type is much lower

than that of any of the dipterocarp types. This is due both to the thin stand and to the short boles of the trees. It is estimated that the type will average not more than 30 cubic meters per hectare of timber of merchantable size (3,000 board feet to the acre). However, the type is a valuable one, because it contains hard, durable timbers, many of which are very valuable cabinet and furniture woods.

C.—MANGROVE TYPE.

The mangrove type is in many respects the most peculiar one in existence. It is literally a forest of the sea. Where conditions are favorable, it occupies the beach washed by the tides. It is especially well developed on the mud flats at the mouths of rivers entering the sea at the heads of protected bays. Wherever wave action allows a fairly stable shore line, trees of the type are present. They occur on the quieter portions of the coral reefs, and are thinly scattered on many wave-made terraces that are exposed at low tide. A majority of the stand is composed of the members of one family, the Rhizophoraceæ, or bacauan family, comprising the following principal species: Bacauan (*Rhizophora mucronata*), bacauan-lalaki (*Rhizophora conjugata*), busain (*Bruguiera gymnorrhiza*), pototan (*Bruguiera eriopetala*), pototan-lalaki (*Bruguiera caryophylloides*), langarai (*Bruguiera parviflora*), and tangal (*Ceriops tagal*). The following principal species of other families are pagatpat (*Sonneratia pagatpat*), pedada (*Sonneratia* sp.), api-api (*Avicennia officinalis*), tabao (*Lumnitzera littorea*), tabigi (*Xylocarpus obovatus*), piagao (*Xylocarpus granatum*), *Excoecaria agallocha*, and dungon-late (*Heritiera littoralis*).

On the muddy flats at the mouths of large rivers in protected bays, the pioneer plant is bacauan. Back of this come the bacauans mixed with pototan and other species of *Bruguiera*, and then, usually covering large areas, is langarai, mixed in varying proportions with bacauan, pototan, busain, tangal, and pedada. In more open bays, where the soil is mixed with considerable sand or coral limestone, occurs a distinct frontal zone of pagatpat, with more or less api-api. Wave-cut coral terraces often contain nearly pure stands of pagatpat. The inner margins of the swamps usually have scattered specimens of dungon-late, tangal, piagao, tabigi, and tabao. In many instances, a distinct zone of the nipa palm (*Nipa fruticans*) is present near the upper limits of this type. This palm also forms thickets along the streams where the water is less brackish. Where the type is less distinct, all sorts of mixtures of the above species are present.

The capacity of this type to produce firewood and timber varies according to the degree in which it has been exploited. In thickly populated districts, the forest has been reduced to such an extent as to render it valueless for anything except firewood. Virgin areas show surprisingly

large stands of poles and trees, some of which are sufficiently large to produce lumber. In Mindanao, valuation surveys made on a very good stand show 149 trees per hectare of more than 25 centimeters in diameter, yielding 130 cubic meters of timber per hectare, or 13,000 board feet per acre. Pagatpat has been measured with a height of 31 meters, a diameter, breast-high, of 137 centimeters, and a merchantable length of 17.5 meters; bacauan, a height of 28 meters, a diameter above the stilt roots of 70 centimeters, and a merchantable length of 16.5 meters; pototan, a height of 28.8 meters, a diameter, breast-high, of 80 centimeters, and a merchantable length of 18.3 meters. It is estimated that the swamps of the Islands will show an average volume of 20 cubic meters per hectare of trees over 20 centimeters in diameter, and if, as is usually the case, the branches and large twigs are used, this amount will be exceeded.

The forest itself has rather an even top profile. The canopy is fairly well closed, and the forest is practically clear of undergrowth, except at its inner edge. The presence of a complex system of stilt roots, as high as 3 meters and wide spreading, of the two species of *Rhizophora* presents a tangle through which one can make his way with difficulty. A number of the species, such as pagatpat and api-api, show characteristic aërial roots. The leaves of all are hard and leathery in texture. The seeds of the Rhizophoraceæ begin to germinate on the trees, finally drop, and are distributed by the tides until they find a favorable lodging place, where they continue their development.

D.—BEACH TYPE.

Sandy beaches above high-tide limits are found throughout the Philippines. They are favorite places for settlements and so the original vegetation has been greatly modified. In those places where it has kept its original form, it presents a distinct type. Usually the frontal zone has a tangle of vegetation in which pandans (species of *Pandanus*) form a conspicuous part. The principal trees are as follows: Talisay (*Terminalia catappa*), dapdap, (*Erythrina indica*), botong (*Barringtonia speciosa*), malubago (*Hibiscus tiliaceus*), bani (*Pongamia glabra*), banalo (*Thespesia populnea*), dungon-late, palo maria (*Calophyllum inophyllum*), agoho (*Casuarina equisetifolia*), tawalis (*Osbornia octodonta*), and bantigi (*Pemphis acidula*). In some places ipil, narra, bansalaguin, and other valuable trees are encountered. Talisay often occurs in patches of pure stands in rich river bottoms. On sandy flood plains of large rivers, in various parts of the Islands, agoho often forms small pure forests.

Behind the frontal line, the vegetation partakes more of the nature of other types. Series of old beaches sometimes cover quite extensive areas, on which the lauan-hagachac type usually is found. This type is

especially well developed on old beaches where the dry season is wanting. In the Davao Gulf, for instance, are encountered heavy stands of very large trees of hagachac, guijo, and bagtican lauan that will scale as high as 100,000 board feet to the acre. It must be remembered that in such places the ground water level is not far below the surface, and the atmospheric moisture conditions are constantly humid. The humus accumulations of previous generations of vegetation enriches the well-drained soil. Altogether, these conditions make the habitat an exceedingly favorable one.

E.—PINE TYPE.

This type reaches its best development in the high plateau region of northern and central Luzon. The greater part of it, although at an altitude ranging from 900 to 1,500 meters, is in a region with a distinct dry season. The rain-bearing winds of the dry season deposit most of their moisture before they reach this rough plateau region. The pines are scattered as single individuals, or in open to nearly closed patches throughout a large grass area. In many ravines and along water courses are stands of broad-leaved trees. There is much evidence to show that formerly this area was covered with forest growth consisting principally of broad-leaved trees, and although pines were undoubtedly present, they were of little relative importance, being confined to the steeper and drier situations where the broad-leaved trees could not grow. Through the activities of man, however, in the centuries of occupation, the broad-leaved trees have been cleared off, and repeated fires have prevented their reproduction. The pine, however, is less sensitive to fires, and consequently at present there are broad areas of grass lands with many groves of pines. There is little doubt that if fires were kept off, the pine, in the absence of broad-leaved competition, would quickly seed up the entire area, for its reproduction is abundant and rapid; and gradually the pines themselves would be replaced by the original broad-leaved vegetation. This struggle between the pines and the broad-leaved trees is often shown in *cañigins* bordering situations where both types occur. The pines, because of their numerous winged seeds, will make their appearance first; the other vegetation comes more slowly, but will gradually prevent the starting of a new generation of the light-demanding pines. This last movement of vegetation is a much slower one. Not only are the pines found in regions where the dry season is pronounced, but at higher altitudes in the mossy-forest belt, where the humidity is greater and more evenly distributed throughout the year. Thus, pines occur in abandoned *cañigins* at an altitude above 1,500 meters, and even as high as 2,500 meters. Here they alternate with patches of grass or mossy forest. The rainfall of this region, as in many other portions of the Islands, is exceedingly heavy from June to October. Especially in the deforested regions, landslides occur frequently on the mountain slopes, making the natural reforesta-

tion of such places difficult. In the more level places, where fire lines have been established, grass patches become quickly covered with pine seedlings.

Benguet pine (*Pinus insularis*) is the only species in the highlands of central and northern Luzon. In some places, scattered pines are found in the grass lands, as low as 500 meters altitude, bordering on the upper limits of the lauan-apitong type. Pines are also found in Zambales and Mindoro. In Zambales, two species occur: *Pinus insularis* and *Pinus merkusii*. Their altitudinal range is usually from 500 to 1,500 meters, although scattered trees of *Pinus merkusii* are found at as low an altitude as 60 meters. In Mindoro, *Pinus merkusii* occurs in pure stands and in open groves scattered throughout the grass lands, southwest of a high mountain mass. It is found as low as 60 meters above sea level in one situation, although usually it is not found below 900 meters.

Measured groves of Benguet pine show a volume of 74 cubic meters per hectare (7,400 board feet per acre) of trees 25 centimeters and over in diameter. The trees will reach a height of 40 meters and a diameter of from 90 to 100 centimeters.

F.—THE MOSSY-FOREST TYPE.

Some 3,200 square miles (828,800 hectares), or 8 per cent of the land area of the Philippines, is the estimated amount of the high and very rough mountain region covered by virgin forests. They are essentially protective forests. Many such mountainous regions have already been cleared of their forests by cañgin makers and are now covered with grass. These regions show such a complex set of conditions, both as regards habitat and vegetation that as yet our knowledge is too incomplete to carefully distinguish the types. Perhaps, in a broad sense only, one type exists, with certain variations or subtypes. Because of the presence of moss and liverworts in great abundance, it has been designated as the mossy-forest type.

The topography is rough and constantly changing. It consists of steep main ridges, rising to exposed peaks, and whose sides are in turn cut into smaller ridges by the deep cañons. Land slips are frequent, and these in all stages of being reclothed with vegetation add to the difficulty of analysis. The soil is shallow or nearly absent. Rock exposures occur, often covering large areas; but except on very steep slopes or on fresh slides they are covered with vegetation. Some mountains have more rounded dome-shaped tops, and on these the topography is much more stable.

As a rule, the climatic conditions are exceedingly moist, both as regards rainfall and relative humidity. Opposed to this favorable climate is the very great exposure to winds. The former is the cause of the mossy condition; the latter, of the dwarfed habit of the trees. The temperature conditions are much lower than those of the coastal region.

The tree vegetation is complex, yet not so much so as the forests lower down. Especially on the highest mountains, owing to these very unstable conditions, or where volcanic action has not been long extinct, trees are absent or nearly so. On mountains above 1,200 meters, the mossy forest appears at its best. *Dacrydium* and *Podocarpus* spp., *Eugenia* spp., *Tristania decorticata*, *Leptospermum amboinense*, *Decaspermum* spp., *Quercus* spp., *Myrica* spp., *Englehardtia spicata*, *Acronychia laurifolia*, *Symplocos* sp., *Ternstroemia toquian*, are some of the principal trees, only a few of which are found lower down. All of these trees are usually dwarfed in appearance, seldom reaching a height of more than 20 meters, and usually not over 5 meters. The trunks and branches are generally covered with mosses, liverworts, filmy ferns, and epiphytic orchids. The open places are usually occupied with ferns, and sometimes with grass. Tree ferns occur on the slopes within the forests, and on some steep slopes give a decided character to the vegetation. Rattans and other climbers, especially Pandanaceæ, are common, as are also small erect palms. Few mountains in the Philippine Islands attain a height of more than 2,000 meters. In general, the vegetation at such altitudes is much more dwarfed; in some cases, good-sized trees are found, even at high elevations; on others, no tree vegetation occurs at all.

G.—SUMMARY.

The following is a tabular summary of the types of vegetation found in the Philippines. [See pp. 34, 35.]

WOOD USES.

It is estimated that the Philippines contain more than 2,500 tree species, of which probably 300 find their way into the Manila and provincial markets in the form of timber. Of this number, less than 100 are commonly encountered.

1. DIPTEROCARPS.

As stated previously, the dipterocarp family furnishes the main bulk of standing timber. These woods can be roughly divided into three groups, viz, the lauans, the apitongs, and the yacals.

LAUANS.

Among the lauan group are white lauan, kalunti-lauan, almon-lauan, bagtican-lauan, malaanonang-lauan, mangasinoro-lauan, tiaong-lauan, mayapis-lauan, red lauan, and tanguile. Many shades of brown and red are comprised in the different species. White lauan and mangasinoro-lauan are of a light creamy brown color; bagtican-lauan and almon-lauan show shades of pink, which becomes a clear red in the case of mayapis-lauan, tiaong-lauan, and some grades of tanguile, and even a dark red color in the case of red lauan. In hardness they grade from soft to moderately hard in the approximate order outlined above. Their weight is light to moderately heavy. They are all coarse but straight-

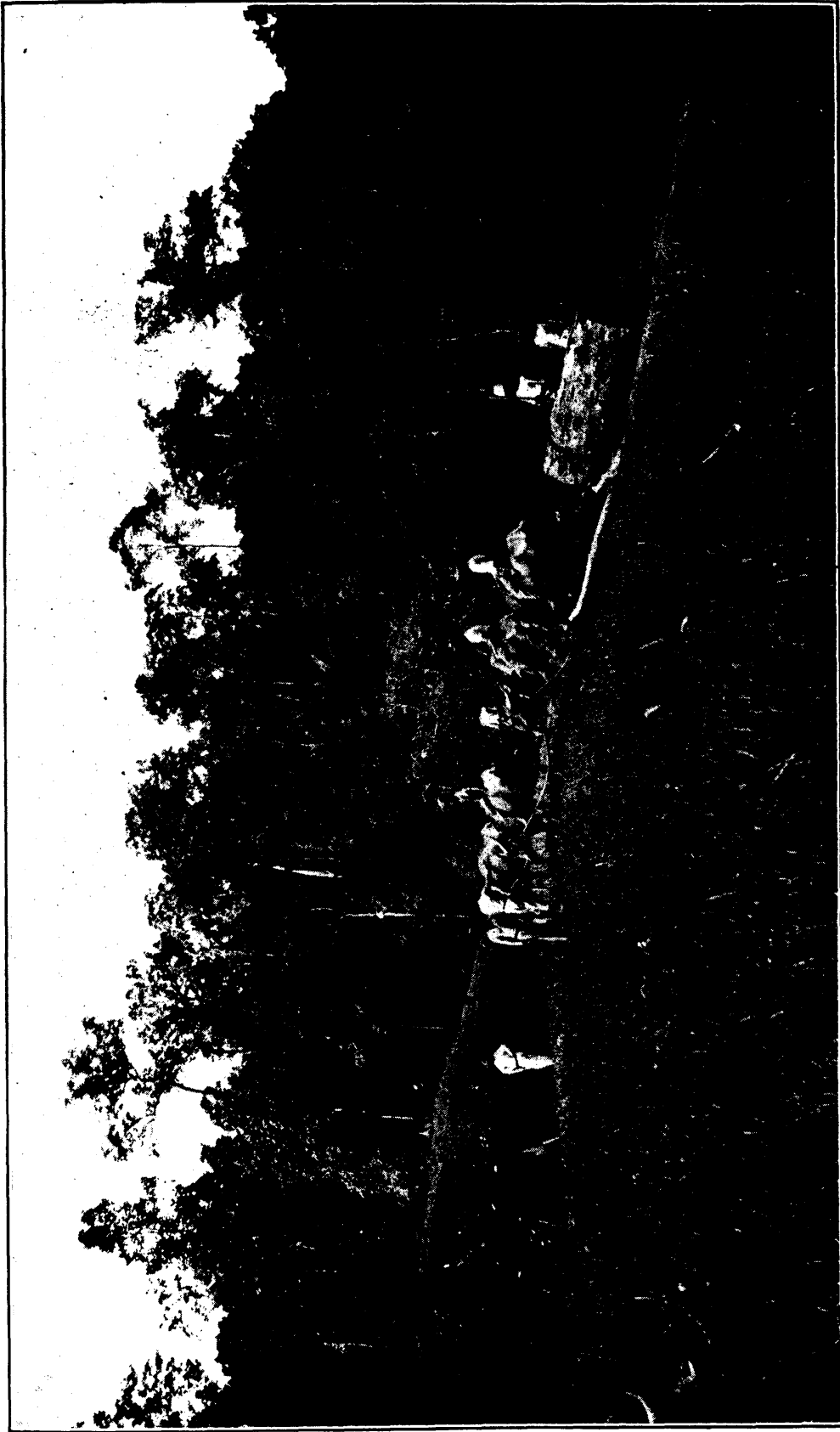


PLATE VIII.—EXTERIOR VIEW OF YACAL-LAUAN TYPE.

Also shows the method of logging with carabao.

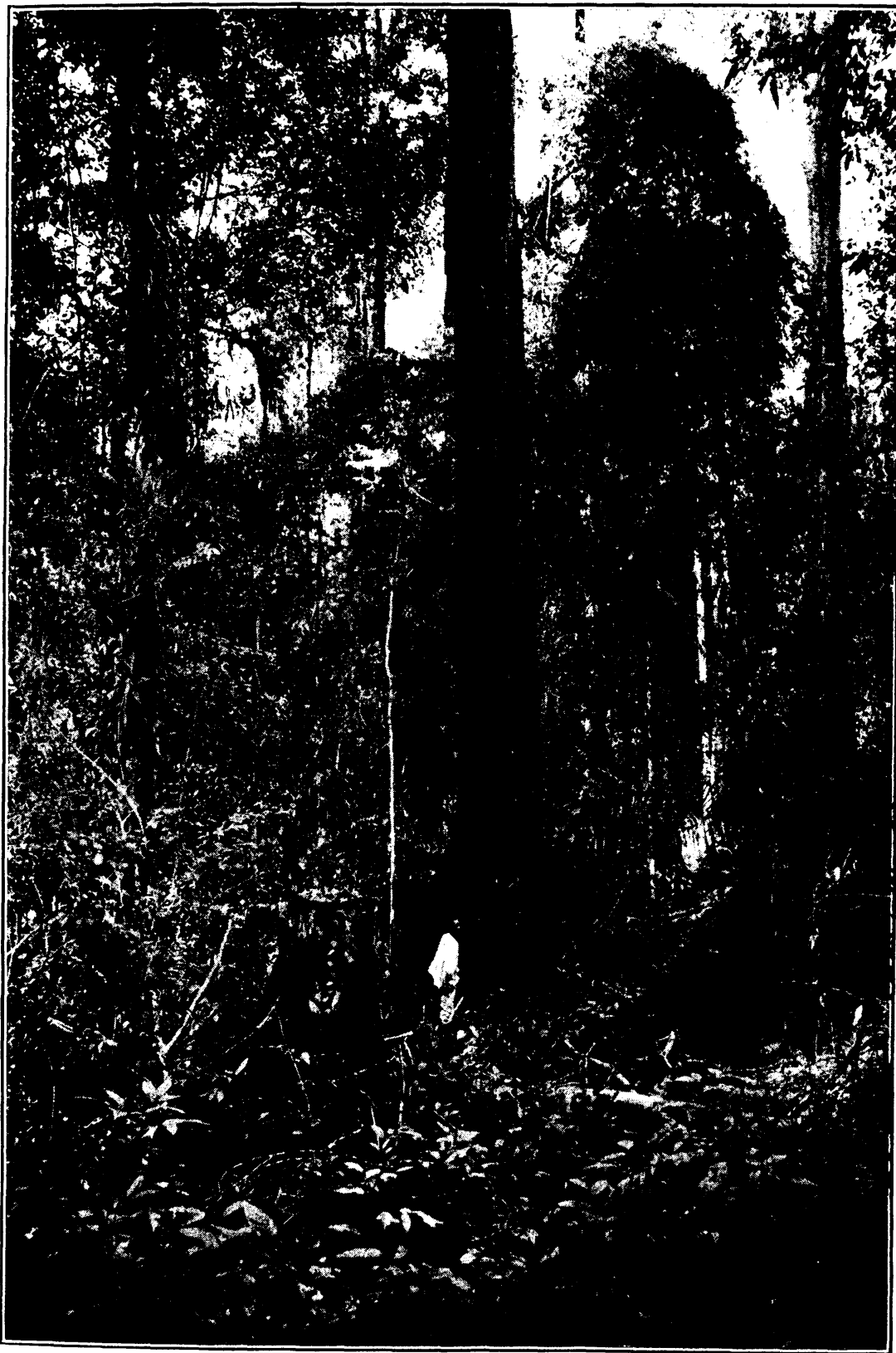


PLATE IX.—INTERIOR VIEW OF YACAL-LAUAN FOREST AFTER BEING
PARTIALLY LOGGED.

Black yacal in the center.





PLATE X.—GENERAL VIEW OF A LAUAN-APITONG TYPE ON THE EDGE OF A CLEARING.

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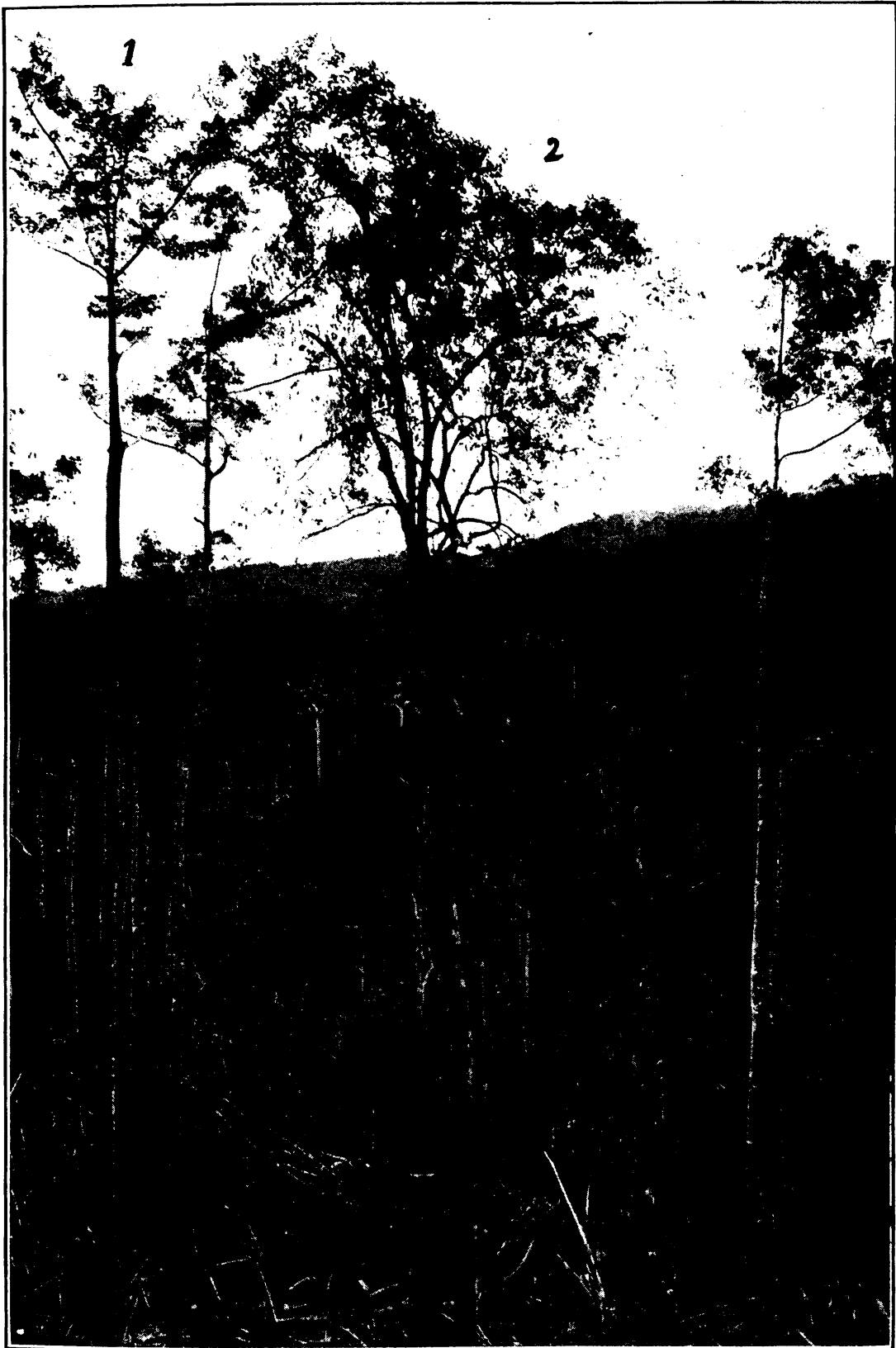


PLATE XI.—GENERAL VIEW OF LAUAN-APITONG FOREST.
Original forest in the background : cut-over forest in the foreground.



PLATE XII.—INTERIOR VIEW OF LAUAN-APITONG FOREST.

Apitong ridge.



PLATE XIII.—VIEW IN LAUAN-APITONG FOREST.

Tree of panao showing form of bole and crown.

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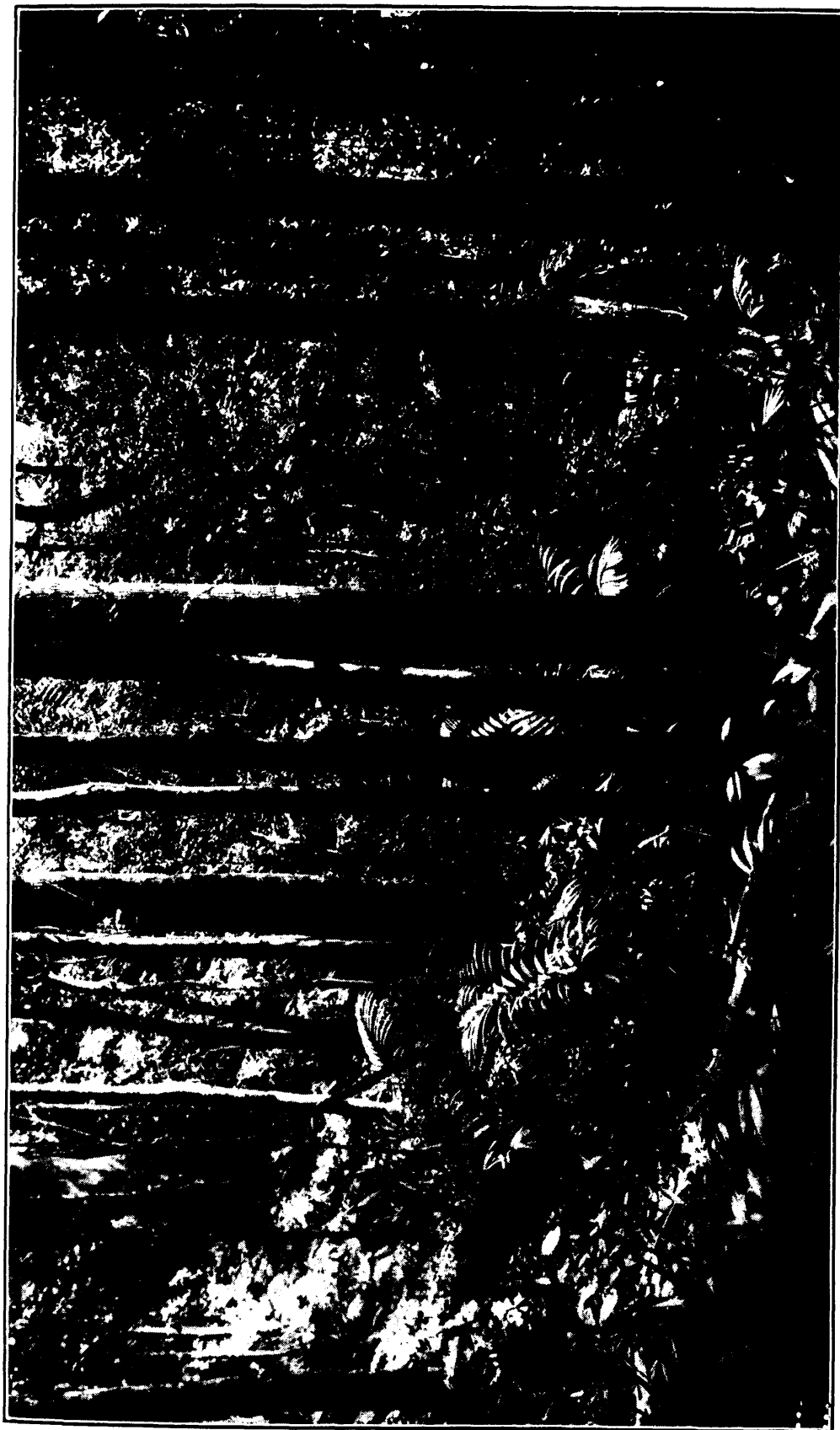


PLATE XIV.—INTERIOR VIEW OF TANGLE-OAK FOREST.

The trees are tangle and lauan.

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grained, free from knots, easily worked, and in general mechanical properties are not greatly dissimilar to the pines. When quarter-sawn or slash-sawn with a figure, they show a beautiful grain. The lauans, without exception, come from tall trees, 100 to 150 or more feet in height, 6 feet or less in diameter, and with straight, regular trunk up to 100 feet to the first limb.

The lauans are readily attacked by fungi and white ants, but not more so than is Oregon pine, their chief competitor. They can be divided into three groups, the white lauans, the red lauans and tanguile, which are the usual trade names.

Locally, they are used for a great variety of purposes. They are especially adapted for light and medium construction work, in which they will find their greatest usefulness. In this respect they are to the Tropics what the lighter grades of pines and their allies are to the temperate regions. Nevertheless, for many classes of construction, because of their color and beautiful grain, they are superior to the pines. This is especially true for interior finish of all classes. The better grades of lauan and tanguile are now being shipped to the United States under the trade name of "Philippine mahogany."

APITONGS.

The trees that furnish timbers of this group are apitong, hagachac, panao, and guiyo. They grade in color from a dirty brownish red to red. In hardness they are moderately hard to hard; in weight they are moderately heavy. The first three appear in the market under the trade name of apitong, the last as guiyo. The former are coarse but generally straight-grained; the latter has a somewhat finer grain.

They are used for many purposes, but are especially adapted for heavier construction where contact with the ground is not necessary. Guiyo is considered more valuable than apitong. They are not durable timbers, being susceptible to the attacks of white ants and fungi. Of the two, guiyo is somewhat the more resistant. The apitongs have general construction qualities comparable to the hard pines of the temperate regions. In abundance, they are next in importance to the lauans.

YACALS.

The trees that produce timber of this group are yacal, guisoc, guisoc-guisoc, malayacal, narig, karig, mangachapuy, and dalingdingan-isac. The woods as a whole are yellowish brown, becoming darker with old age. They are all considered very durable timbers. This is especially true of yacal, guisoc, and malayacal, which invariably appear under the market name of yacal. Narig is often mixed with and sold as yacal. Mangachapuy and dalingdingan-isak are sold as mangachapuy.¹

¹ Other trees, closely related botanically to these, yielding woods somewhat softer and less durable, are also found under the name of mangachapuy.

TABLE 7.—Comparative characteristics

CHARACTER OF

Types.	Lauan.	Lauan-hagachac.	Yacal-lauan.	Lauan-apitong.
Rainfall -----	Fairly well distributed throughout year; short or no dry season.	Fairly well distributed throughout year; short or no dry season.	Fairly well distributed throughout year; short or no dry season.	Pronounced dry season.
Relative humidity.	High and fairly well distributed throughout the year.	Medium during short dry season; high during rainy season.	Fairly low for short dry season; high during rainy season.	Fairly low throughout long dry season.
Altitudinal range.	From near sea level to 300 or 400 meters.	Near sea level ----	Near sea level ----	From near sea level to 300 or 400 meters.
Soil and underlying rock.	Medium shallow to fairly deep; rock volcanic; moist; sometimes fairly dry.	Usually alluvial; deep; alternatingly very moist and quite dry; underground water level near surface.	Shallow and fairly dry or very dry; volcanic rock.	Shallow to fairly deep; part of year very dry; volcanic rock.
Topography -----	Slight to steep slopes.	Level or nearly level.	Slight to steep slopes.	Slight to steep slopes.

CHARACTER OF

Merchantable timber per hectare.	50 to 450 cubic meters.	25 to 200 cubic meters.	50 to 300 cubic meters.	50 to 300 cubic meters.
Composition of dominant species.	Nearly pure stands of dipterocarps to complex.	Complex -----	Complex -----	Complex -----
Canopy of dominant species.	Closed or nearly closed; evergreen.	Open to closed; nearly evergreen.	Medium open; slightly deciduous.	Medium open; decidedly deciduous.
Profile of forest....	Fairly regular to regular.	Very irregular....	Irregular -----	Irregular -----
Erect palms -----	Abundant -----	Abundant -----	Fairly abundant..	Almost absent....
Erect bamboo ----	None or very few..	None or very few..	None or very few..	Usually abundant.
Large lianas.....	Not abundant ----	Abundant -----	Fairly abundant..	Fairly abundant..
Composition of small trees.	Very complex ----	Very complex ----	Very complex ----	Very complex ----

of the different forest types.

THE HABITAT.

Tanguile-oak.	Molave.	Pine.	Mangrove.	Beach.	Mossy forest.
Fairly well distributed throughout the year; short or no dry season.	Fairly well distributed throughout the year to a distinct dry season.	Usually a distinct dry season.	Long, short, or no dry season.	Long, short, or no dry season.	Usually well distributed throughout the year.
High to very high, except in dry season.	Fairly low during dry season; high during rainy season.	Low to high---	Fairly high, or low during dry season.	Usually low during dry season.	Daily range great, but high at night.
From 400 to 900 meters.	Usually near sea level to 150 meters.	Usually above 900 meters.	Between low and high tide.	Near sea level.	Above 900 meters.
Very shallow to fairly deep; sometimes fairly dry; volcanic rock.	Usually on limestone rock; shallow soil; dry.	On shallow soil above limestone, or in deep soils not limestone; dry to moist	Usually a muddy, deep, delta soil; also coral limestone and sandy soil; wet.	Sandy or pebbly soil; very dry during dry season.	Rock exposure near surface; soil shallow; volcanic rock.
Usually rough; some gentle slopes.	Usually steep slopes; some gentle.	Steep slope to level ground.	Gently shelving.	Gently shelving.	Very rough.

THE VEGETATION.

20 to 150 cubic meters.	50 cubic meters and under.	100 cubic meters and under.	130 cubic meters and under.	Under 25 cubic meters.	No estimate.
Medium complex.	Fairly complex.	1 or 2 species of pines.	About 10 species.	Simple -----	Simple to medium complex.
Open to closed; evergreen.	Open; decidedly deciduous.	Open; evergreen.	Open to closed; evergreen.	Open; decidedly deciduous.	Open to closed; evergreen.
Very irregular.	Very irregular.	Regular to irregular.	Fairly regular.	Irregular -----	Irregular.
Fairly abundant but small.	None -----	None -----	Almost stemless nipa palm.	Very few -----	Many small ones.
None -----	Abundant or none.	do -----	None -----	Very few, if any.	Practically none.
Fairly abundant.	Abundant climbing bamboo.	do -----	do -----	Very few -----	Fairly abundant.
Complex -----	Complex -----	Very few -----	Very few -----	Complex -----	Complex.

The yacals are usually hard and heavy. They are as free from the attacks of white ants and fungi as any so-called durable wood used for construction purpose. Yacal is a general all-round construction timber where contact with the ground is necessary, and because of this is much sought for railroad ties, paving blocks, and house posts. It is also used as bridge timber, in various parts of ships, and for construction of houses. It is estimated that there is more standing timber of the yacals in the Islands than all the other so-called standard durable timbers put together.

2. SUBSTITUTES FOR MAHOGANY.

The term "mahogany" is here used in its broadest sense. The true mahogany, the product of *Swietenia mahagoni*, does not occur in the Philippines. However, the narra family contains a group of woods of more or less brilliant color and beautiful grain which are capable of taking a high polish, and which can not be excelled as substitutes for mahogany. These are narra, tindalo, ipil, acle, and banuyo. Narra varies in color from a light yellow to a brilliant red. It is moderately heavy, moderately hard to hard, has a rather coarse more or less twisted grain, and is very durable. It is practically the same as the padouk of India, and is sometimes sold as Philippine mahogany. It is used principally for fine furniture, interior finish, doors, flooring, and windows. Large one-piece table tops come from the buttressed roots. Tindalo has a saffron red color, which becomes darker with age. It has a fine, more or less straight grain, and is heavy, hard, and durable. It is used in fine furniture and cabinetmaking, and is one of the best timbers for hardwood floors, stairways, and interior finishings, where beautiful expensive woods are required. Ipil, while used principally in the Philippines for construction work in contact with the ground, is nevertheless a wood of the mahogany grade. It is very durable, heavy, and very hard, has a fine, sometimes twisted, grain, and is one of the most satisfactory woods for fine furniture and cabinetmaking. Banuyo is moderately heavy and moderately hard, is golden brown in color, with a fine grain. It is used for fine furniture, cabinetmaking, carriage bodies, and carving. While none of the above are found in very large quantities, there is a sufficient supply to meet a small steady demand. All could probably be worked into veneers.

Besides the above, there are a number of other woods that are good substitutes for mahogany. Palo maria, sometimes called Borneo mahogany, is a hard and moderately heavy, reddish brown wood, with a fine twisted grain, that is capable of taking a good polish. Calantas is the only one of the true mahogany family that is sometimes sold under the name of Philippine mahogany. It is light and soft, reddish in color, and has a distinct odor resembling that of cedar. It is closely related to the West Indian cedar, and while making admirable furni-

ture, piano cases, etc., it is much sought after for cigar boxes. It, however, like the other fine woods, is not plentiful.

Because of their abundance, and therefore their ability to supply the demands for a steady product, the finer grades of red lauan and tanguile will no doubt be known to the outside world as Philippine mahogany. These woods have a beautiful grain and color, and are susceptible of a good polish. They have already found a place in the United States as a substitute for mahogany. Such a market can be steadily supplied with large quantities of these woods.

3. DURABLE TIMBERS.

Next to fine furniture and cabinetmaking woods, the Tropics are noted for their hard durable timbers. Because of the warm climate and continuous moisture conditions, fungous growths and white ants rapidly destroy those timbers that are not able to withstand their attacks. No timber is able to do so indefinitely, but some are much more durable than others. Teak is perhaps the best known of this class of woods. This timber, while not indigenous to the Philippines, occurs in plantations in Mindanao and the Sulu Islands, and it has been demonstrated that the tree can be grown here successfully. It will no doubt become one of the planted tree crops of the Philippines, and the Islands will thus be enabled to furnish their share of the world's supply of this timber.

Because of their excellent qualities and comparative abundance, three Philippine timbers may be classed with teak, or at least may be regarded as substitutes for it. These are molave, ipil, and yacal.

Molave is perhaps the best known hardwood in the Philippines, and more of it is extracted than of any other one kind of wood in proportion to the amount of standing timber. It is a member of the teak family. The wood is hard and heavy, pale yellow in color, and has a fine but usually twisted grain. It is especially valuable for house posts, hardwood floors, window sills, railway ties, bridge timbers, paving blocks, salt-water piling, carvings, and many parts of shipbuilding. Trees of molave occur scattered usually on the limestone coastal hills throughout the Philippines. They generally have short, irregular boles, and this renders the timber less valuable than it would otherwise be. It is in such demand locally that little is now exported.

Attention has already been called to ipil as a valuable wood of the mahogany grade. Nevertheless, the demand for hard durable timbers is so great that it is usually considered as one of the best construction timbers, exposed to soil and weather. Like molave, its principal uses are for house posts, hardwood flooring, railway ties, paving blocks, and telegraph poles.

Yacal has also been discussed elsewhere. Because of its abundance, it is probably the only one of the hard durable timbers that will find

much of a place in the markets outside of the Philippines. Prominence is given to the above-mentioned woods, not because they are the only hard durable timbers the Islands contain, but for the reason that they are the only ones in anything like sufficient quantity to supply the demands of the trade. Other principal timbers that resist well the attacks of fungi and white ants are narra, tindalo, acle, banuyo, calantas, palo maria, mancono, dungon, aranga, banaba, anubing, bansalaguin, batitinan, betis, the macaasims, pagatpat, supa, and agoho.

4. SALT-WATER PILING.

There is a strong demand for woods that will resist even fairly well the attacks of the shipworm (teredo), and few species are able to meet the necessary requirements. The woods most commonly sought for such purposes are molave, dungon, aranga, betis, liusin, and piagao.

Molave is one of the best woods for this purpose. The chief objection to it, however, is its irregular form, and the fact that it is difficult to find piles of sufficient length to meet the demands. Dungon has long been considered a valuable pile for salt water. The wood is very hard and heavy, tough, chocolate-brown in color, fine and cross grained, and difficult to saw. Besides piling, it is used for a large number of purposes, the principal ones being various kinds of naval construction, railway ties, and paving blocks. The amount that can be obtained is very limited. Aranga, formerly more plentiful but now very scarce, has long had the reputation of being one of the best woods for salt-water piling. It is very hard and heavy, ranging in color from yellow to chocolate brown. Betis, like the others, is a very hard and heavy wood, dark reddish brown in color. Liusin is one of the woods which has only recently come into use for this purpose. It is very hard and heavy, and pale red to red in color. Liusin piles, placed beside dungon, seem to last better than the latter. The part above water is more readily subject to fungous attacks. Piagao is said to resist the teredo well, but there is as yet no direct evidence to confirm this statement. None of the above woods are plentiful, especially in sizes suitable for piling.

5. SHIPBUILDING.

Teak, of course, is the standard shipbuilding wood. In the Philippines, the following are considered adapted to this purpose: Molave, dungon, yacal, mangachapuy, betis, ipil, guiyo, narra, batitinan, palo maria, banaba, aranga, liusin. The following seem to be those in most common use for the different parts of the ship: Keels—Dungon, ipil, aranga, banaba, bansalaguin, betis, guiyo, liusin, molave, narra, palo maria, yacal. Ribs—Molave, dungon, apitong, malugay. Sides—Yacal, guiyo, banaba, apitong, batitinan, mangachapuy. Rudders—Molave, yacal, dungon, guiyo. Spokes and handles of ships' wheels—Bansalaguin. Keelson—Batitinan. Masts—Palo maria, guiyo, mangachapuy,

and lauan. Decks—Mangachapuy, batitinan, palo maria. Rails—Yacal, guijo. Booms—Guijo, palo maria, mangachapuy.

6. A SUBSTITUTE FOR LIGNUM-VITÆ.

True lignum-vitæ does not occur in the Philippines. Mancono has been tried, and seems likely to find a place as one of the lignum-vitæs in the world's markets.¹

7. BRIDGES.

The following woods are most commonly sought for bridge building: Ipil, yacal, guijo, dungon, macaasim, and apitong.

8. RAILROAD TIES AND MINING TIMBERS.

The railroads are accepting the following woods for ties: Ipil, molave, yacal, tindalo, betis, acle, anubing. To these can be added narig, mangachapuy, sasalit, banaba, malaruhat, macaasim, palo maria, batete, supa, and perhaps guijo and pagatpat. If creosoted, it is believed that the apitongs and the lauans would make very desirable ties.

The above woods could also be used as mining timbers. The scarcity of durable woods in the vicinity of mines, however, compels the use of any wood near at hand. In the Benguet mines, pine is practically the only timber used. Arrangements are being made for the use of preservatives on this wood. Where near at hand, the bacauans are also commonly used.

9. HOUSE CONSTRUCTION.

The choice of woods in building houses depends very much on the taste and means of the owner. The list given below is arranged approximately in the order of the quality, regardless of cost. It is well to explain that houses in the Philippines are usually built on posts known as *harigues* (from the Tagalog word *haligi*). This method doubtless comes from the original custom of building houses on posts to raise them above water or swampy ground, especially along the seashore, or as a protection against enemies. The custom still prevails, because the health conditions are better when the houses are some distance from the ground, and besides, they resist better the effects of earthquakes. As a usual thing the base or stump of the *harigue* is made of a durable wood, on which are spliced woods of a less durable quality.

Stumps: Ipil, molave, sasalit, bansalaguin, betis, dungon, yacal, banaba, and anubing.

Posts above stumps: Ipil, yacal, tindalo, dungon, aranga, anubing, macaasim, guijo, palomaria, supa, apitong, palosapis.

Trusses, girders, joists, framing, etc.: Yacal, dungon, ipil, tindalo, aranga, guijo, macaasim, supa, apitong, palosapis, amuguis, tanguile, lumbayao, red and white lauans.

¹ See Hutchinson, W. F.: *A Philippine Substitute for Lignum-vitæ*. Bulletin No. 9, Bureau of Forestry, Manila, P. I.

Floors and stairs: Molave, ipil, tindalo, aranga, calamansanay, narra, pagatpat, palo maria, yacal, malacadios, supa, amuguis, mangachapuy, apitong, tanguile, palosapis, red and white lauans.

Interior trimming: Acle, narra, tindalo, molave, palo maria, malacadios, banuyo, calantas, malugay, supa, guiyo, amuguis, tanguile, lumbayao, palosapis, red and white lauans.

Interior sheathing, doors, sash, etc.: Narra, molave, ipil, palo maria, malacadios, malugay, supa, guiyo, tanguile, palosapis, lumbayao, red and white lauans.

Many houses are built cheaply now by using guiyo and apitong for the trusses, girders, etc., guiyo, amuguis, or tanguile for the flooring, and tanguile and red or white lauans for interior trim. These latter make a beautiful finish. Of course, all sorts of combinations of timbers are possible, depending upon the taste and means of the owner, and upon the local supply.

10. PAVING BLOCKS.

Molave is the favorite paving block. Ipil and yacal are also used extensively. Tests are being made of treated blocks of the cheaper and less durable kinds. Creosoted paving blocks of lauan and other nondurable timbers have been in use over two years and as yet show no signs of decay or wear. Pagatpat blocks have been laid recently and are expected to give good results.

11. FURNITURE AND CABINETMAKING.

The list of woods used for cabinetmaking and furniture is a long one. Of the durable woods, narra seems to be the favorite. Of the less durable ones, red lauan and tanguile are extensively used. Nearly all the woods of the narra family are used more or less for this purpose, especially tindalo, banuyo, ipil, acle, and supa. Other woods are ebony, camagon, bolongeta, palo maria, batitinan, baticulin, catmon, lanete, calamansanay, lumbayao, banaba, calantas, bancal, anubing, molave. (See under substitutes for mahogany, p. 36.)

12. CARVING AND ENGRAVING.

Lanete is the favorite wood for carving. Others principally used are ebony, molave, camagon, banuyo, narra, acle, acleng-parang, tindalo, bansalaguin, and baticulin.

13. CANES.

The favorite woods for canes are ebony, camagon, and bolongeta; others are kuyus-kuyus, camuning, mancono; woods of various palms are also used for canes.

14. BOXES AND DRY MEASURES.

The lauans and the natos are the favorite woods for these purposes. Narra is often used for the larger sizes of measures.

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15. TOOL HANDLES.

The following are the woods most suitable for tool handles: Dungon, dungon-late, kulis, bansalaguin, banaba, alupag, liusin, camagon, tindalo, narra.

16. CARRIAGE BUILDING.

For this purpose the common woods are: Shafts—Guijo, lanutan. Hubs—Palomaria, guijo, dungon, ipil. Spokes and felloes—Guijo, yacal, molave. Covering of the body—Banuyo, amuguis, white and red lauans, and the natos. Floor and back—Red lauan, guijo, apitong, narra, natos. Axles—Guijo.

17. WOODEN SHOES.

The following are used for the soles of wooden shoes and slippers: Tui, dita, anabion, bayabas, cupang, balacat, ligaa, lumbang, pinkapinkahan, white natos, daluru (air roots of pagatpat and api-api).

18. TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE POLES.

Here, as in many other instances, almost any available wood is used. Ipil seems to be the favorite, although pagatpat is now coming into use. Green poles of kapok (cotton tree) are placed in the ground, take root, and become trees. As such, they are extensively used in some parts of the Philippines.

19. MATCHMAKING.

The woods most commonly used for matchmaking are malapapaya and taluto. The following are also used: Pinkapinkahan, cupang, biluang, hamindang, binunga, lumbang, and gubas.

20. MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.

The following is a list of woods used for making musical instruments: Sides of guitars and mandolins—Lanutan, nangka, banuyo, acle. Bottoms—Banuyo, camagon, nangka. Necks—Lanete, kayutana, camagon. Tops of necks—Camagon. Sounding board—Imported and native pines. Pins—Dungon and camagon. Calantas is used for piano cases, and ebony for keys.

In Part II of this bulletin there is arranged, for the various species discussed, a list of the uses to which each wood is put.

WEIGHT AND HARDNESS.

Weight and hardness are relative terms. In the United States the woods of all broad-leaved trees are considered hard. In this sense, all the woods of the Philippines, except the pines, are classified as hard. Using the term "hard" in a more rational way, a number of Philippine woods could be classified as soft.

Weight in woods is a variable quality. It depends, for woods of the

same species, on the age of the tree; on the conditions in which it is grown; on the portion of the tree from which the sample weighed is taken; and on the amount of moisture contained. The latter variability is eliminated by basing the specific gravity on the dry wood, as is done in the following table. Taking everything into consideration, it would be misleading to apply a fixed specific gravity to each wood; therefore it is thought best to group the woods in such a way as to allow for a range in weight and hardness by using relative adjectives to designate these qualities.

The following tables are based mainly on the work of Gardner¹ and Foxworthy,² with some modifications and additions:

TABLE 8.—Table of weights of the principal Philippine woods.

Very heavy. Sp. gr. 0.90 or more; 900 kilos or more per cu- bic meter; 56 pounds or more per cubic foot.	Heavy. Sp. gr. 0.70-0.90; 700 to 900 kilos per cu- bic meter; 44 to 56 pounds per cubic foot.	Moderately heavy. Sp. gr. 0.50 to 0.70; 500 to 700 kilos per cu- bic meter; 31 to 44 pounds per cubic foot.	Light. Sp. gr. 0.50 or less; 500 kilos or less per cu- bic meter; 31 pounds or less per cubic foot.
Bacauans. Billian. Bolongeta. Camagon. Camuning. Ebony. Mancono. Pototans. Sasalit. Tangal.	Agoho (a). [*] Alupag (a). Aranga (a). Bansalaguin (a) Batete. Betis (a). Batitinan. Binggas. Calamansanay. Catmon. Dalindingan-isak. Dungon (a). Dungon-late (a). Guisoc (a). Guisoc-guisoc. Ipil (a). Lanutan. Liusin (a). Malayacal (a). Macaasim. Mangachapuy. Molave. Narig (a). Pagatpat. Tindalo. Tucang-calao. Yacal (a).	Acle. Acleng-parang. Amuguis (a). Anubing. Apitong (a). Banaba (a). Balacat. Balinghasay. Bancal. Banuyo. Batino. Benguet pine. Calumpit. Dalinsi. Dao. Guijo (a). Hagachac (a). Lanete. Lumbayao. Malasantol. Malacadios (a). Malacmalac. Manicnic. Malugay. Nangka. Narra. Nato. Palo maria. Piagao. Panao (a). Salinkugi. Santol. Sacat. Supa (a). Tabigi. Talisay. Talisay-gubat. Tamayuan (a). Tanguile. Teak. Toog. Tual.	Almon-lauan. Antipolo. Bagtican-lauan. Baticulins. Biluang. Calantas. Cupang. Dita. Duguan (a). Gubas. Kalunti-lauan. Lauan, red (a). Lauan, white. Malapapaya. Mayapis-lauan. Mangasinoro-lauan. Palosapis (a). Pinkapinkahan. Taluto. Tiaong-lauan.

^{*} The woods followed by (a) also have representatives in the class immediately higher than the one in which they are placed.

¹ Gardner, R.: Mechanical Tests, Properties, and Uses of Thirty-four Philippine Woods. Bulletin No. 4 (2d ed.), Bureau of Forestry, Manila, 1907.

² Foxworthy, F. W.: Philippine Woods, Phil. Jour. Sci., Sec. C, Vol. II (1907), pp. 351-404, and Indo-Malayan Woods, same Journal, Vol. IV (1909), pp. 412-415.

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TABLE 9.—Table of hardness of the principal Philippine woods.

Very hard.	Hard.	Moderately hard.	Soft.
Agoho.	Acle.	Anubing.	Almon-lauan.
Alupag.	Acleng-parang.	Apitong (a). ^a	Antipolo (a).
Aranga.	Amuguis.	Banuyo.	Bagtican-lauan.
Bacauans.	Batino.	Banaba (a).	Balacat (a).
Bansalaguin.	Batitinan.	Batete.	Bancal (a).
Betis.	Binggas.	Balinghasay.	Baticulins (a).
Billian.	Calamansanay.	Calumpit.	Binunga.
Bolongeta.	Catmon.	Dalinsi.	Calantas.
Camagon.	Guijo.	Dao.	Cupang.
Camuning.	Guisoc.	Hagachac (a).	Dita.
Dungon.	Guisoc-guisoc.	Malasantol.	Duguan.
Dungon-late.	Ipil.	Malacadios (a).	Gubas.
Ebony.	Macaasims.	Malacmalac.	Hamindang.
Liusin.	Mangachapuy.	Manicnic.	Kalunti-lauan.
Mancono.	Malayacal.	Nangka.	Lanete (a).
Narig.	Malugay.	Narra (a).	Lauan, red (a).
Pototans.	Molave.	Nato.	Lauan, white.
Sasalit.	Pagatpat.	Panao (a).	Lumbayao (a).
Tangal.	Palo maria.	Salinkugi.	Malapapaya.
	Piagao.	Talisay.	Mangasinoro-lauan.
	Supa.	Talisay-gubat.	Mayapis.
	Tabigi.	Tanguile.	Palosapis (a).
	Talisay.	Teak.	Benguet pine (a).
	Tamayuan.	Toog.	Santol (a).
	Tindalo.	Tuai.	Taluto.
	Tucang-calao.		Tiaong-lauan.
	Yacal.		

^a The woods followed by (a) also have representatives in the class immediately higher than the one in which they are placed.

LUMBERING IN THE PHILIPPINES.

1. MARKETS.

The demand for lumber in the Philippines is greater at the present time that the local lumbering operations can supply. The volume of native timbers that passed through the official channels for the fiscal year 1909-10 amounted to 176,758 cubic meters (44 million board feet). During the same time there were imported into the Islands approximately 20 million board feet, 12 millions of which was for the United States Army. Besides this, 798 gratuitous licenses were issued for both public and private use, and a large amount of timber was obtained without license under the free-use privilege. The quantity used without charge is estimated to be at least 25 million board feet. This makes the total consumption of timber in the Islands as follows:

	Million board feet.
Regular licenses	44
Free use	25
Imported	20
Total	89

This amount does not include 246,776 cubic meters of firewood upon which forest charges were paid but which can not be expressed in board feet; nor an unknown, but large, amount of firewood extracted and used free of charge.

The lumber markets in the principal centers of the Islands are unstable, although they are more satisfactory to-day than ever before. Previously a large number of the dealers handled a mixture of many kinds of timbers which were often unassorted even as to classes, to say nothing of grading within the classes. The lumber was often poorly sawed, and not trimmed or edged. This condition still exists among many dealers. The larger firms are putting on the market more perfectly sawed timber, edged and trimmed, and in many instances graded. They confine their efforts to handling a few kinds, and keep a supply on hand to satisfy demands up to a million or more board feet. As a rule, however, a great deal of the lumber reaches the market green, and is sawed, sold, and put to use at once, shortly after it is cut. As a result, it is poorly seasoned, and can not but give the timber a bad name. It is hoped that some time in the near future concerted action can be taken by dealers to establish a uniform system of grading.

The market with regard to prices of the principal kinds is becoming more and more stable. Previously, small cutters with little capital, who brought timber to market, were at the mercy of the commission merchants, and often had to sell at a sacrifice in order to continue operations. This is not so true to-day as it was three or four years ago.

The average Manila retail price of the cheaper grades of the lauans is ₱50 to ₱60 per thousand feet board measure; better grades of red lauan and tanguile sell for ₱60 to ₱80; apitong sells for ₱70 to ₱80; guijo, ₱80 to ₱90; yacal for ₱120 to ₱150; molave, ₱150 to ₱200; ipil, ₱150 to ₱200. Oregon pine, the chief foreign competitor of the cheaper construction timbers, retails for ₱50 to ₱70. With the present strong demands for timber, there is little inducement to handle native timbers to undersell the Oregon pine. When well seasoned, the lauans are as good as Oregon pine for certain classes of construction, and are much better for other purposes for which they are used.

The increased activity in all lines of business during the past year has created great demands for all classes of construction timber, especially dipterocarps (lauan, apitong, and yacal), ipil, and molave. At the present time, this demand is too great to warrant large shipments to America or foreign countries. Should the local market become overstocked—and with greatly increased exploitation it can easily become so—the China market alone could consume the surplus. Philippine timbers have an excellent reputation in China, where the better grades from Borneo and Singapore are often sold under the name of Philippine hardwoods. This being the case, it is all the more imperative that a good system of grading should be established, with Government inspection for exported lumber. During the fiscal year 1909–10, 1,300,000 feet of lumber were exported, which is twice the amount exported during any previous year since the American occupation.

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2. LOGGING OPERATIONS.

During the fiscal year 1909-10, there were issued 969 ordinary and exclusive licenses. Deducting 20 per cent for licenses which were not used, there are left 775 licensees, who extracted 44 million board feet of timber, an average of about 57,000 board feet for each licensee. During the fiscal year 1909-10 the largest licensee cut about 8 million board feet; the next largest cut and manufactured about 3 million board feet. A number reached over 250,000 board feet, but by far the majority of the licensees placed on the market much less than this amount.

From the above it will be seen that the majority of the licensees are small operators. They use human and animal motor power to get their timber to tide water. In a very few instances, hand labor is employed, but only when the timber is within a few hundred feet of the coast; in fact, in most instances, this method is utilized only on the slopes of hills fronting tide water. The animals used in hauling the logs are, almost without exception, carabaos (water buffaloes).

The method used in extracting timber by carabao is crude and wasteful at its best. This crudeness, coupled with the usual methods of financing the operation and getting the timber to market, is the main cause of the high price of lumber. As a general rule, the Filipino licensee is of the upper class, known as "ilustrados." He often controls a following of workmen who are practically under his power. He seldom, if ever, visits the woods. He furnishes a follower, or friend, with the carabao and other equipment, in consideration for which he receives a certain percentage of the value of the logs that are cut and hauled to the beach. This man in turn selects the woodsmen from his following, who are paid so much per cubic foot for the timber delivered on the beach. These men may or may not be advanced provisions and held responsible for the equipment and the health of the carabao. In some instances, the men who really do the work get no pay, except provisions, and usually are kept so deeply in debt that they become almost the slaves of their landlords and creditors. This is especially the case, as often occurs, when the licensee stakes the workmen with provisions direct, and holds them responsible for the condition of the carabao. Sometimes the licensee is the friend or relative of local native officials, who use their influence to help him get or control the labor. In return, political help is expected.

In the Moro country, the retainers of leading datos are used in the following way: A merchant in a coastal town, usually a Chinaman or American, who may or may not be a lumberman, gets on friendly terms with a leading dato who has a large following throughout a wooded district. The merchant obtains the license, and makes a bargain with the dato to furnish him with timber at so much per cubic foot. The dato issues orders to each of his henchmen, who are under his control,

to cut and remove a certain amount each month, for which they are paid so much a cubic foot, usually in provisions. In this way, the dato and the merchant both get their timber cheap at the expense of the man actually doing the work. In defense of such methods, it is only fair to state that they are usually in operation in the outlying districts, and the forest wealth can not at present be utilized in any other way. With the development of the lumber industry, such methods will go and are going out of use.

In many instances, the licensee is a lumberman himself, pays his workman a direct wage, and treats them fairly. The policy of the Bureau of Forestry is to favor such licensees. Too often, however, the licensee pays little attention to the actual cutting in the woods, leaving this to the ignorant workmen without adequate attention, confining his own efforts to the milling operations and to the disposal of the product. The result is that his men are not utilized to the best advantage. This makes the cost of extracting the timber abnormally high, and places the licensee at a disadvantage, as compared with those who use the system of logging by contract. This handicap, however, may be overcome by the better milling he secures.

In many instances, the trees are cut with rude, narrow-blade axes, although American axes and crosscut saws are coming more into use. The logs are cut into proper lengths; one, two, three—sometimes as many as fifteen—carabaos are hitched tandem fashion to each one; and with one man to control each carabao the log is drawn to its destination. Sometimes the logs are squared, and sometimes they are removed in the round. Frequently a rude sled is used, one end of the log resting on the ground; but two-wheeled carts are sometimes substituted. The harness is often a rude affair, consisting of a yoke, with ropes made of rattan. Occasionally good logging trails are constructed, over which the logs are dragged. The length of haul varies from a few meters up to 5 and 8 kilometers (3 to 5 miles).

The above description of the financing system usually in vogue, and of the rude methods of logging, is sufficient to show that both the system and methods are capable of improvement, and until they are improved the actual cost of logging will be proportionately higher than it ought to be. What is needed more than anything else is competent supervision of the logging operations. It is believed that with such supervision the cost of cutting and removing timber to tide water can, in many instances, be reduced at least one-half. The removing of logs by man force, in use to some extent in Borneo and other neighboring countries, can not be adopted to any extent in the Philippines, principally on account of the scarcity of labor.

Certain portions of our forests are adapted to logging by animal labor and no other. This is true of the molave type, that contains scattered

valuable trees too far apart to warrant the establishment of expensive steam logging. It is also true of isolated remnant patches of the dipterocarp types, where the amount of timber is limited.

Steam logging, with a railroad from the cuttings to the mills at tide water, is in successful operation by three companies. These companies have installed a logging system, patterned after the methods in use in the United States. The trees are cut by crosscut saws, bucked up into the proper lengths with saws, hitched to cables, pulled to landings by donkey engines, loaded on cars, and carried on a logging railway to the mill, 5 to 8 miles distant. These companies are exploiting forests covering large areas, that contain from 20,000 to 40,000 feet per acre of merchantable timber, composed principally of the lauans and the apitongs. With American foremen, they have been successful in accustoming their labor to the use of the crosscut saws and to the handling of the timber by machinery in all stages of the operations.

There are a number of locations in the Islands where equally good forests are found, but in some instances engineering obstacles will have to be overcome to obtain access to them. These difficulties, however, are no greater than those encountered in many parts of the United States where steam logging is in successful operation.

3. MILLING OPERATIONS.

I.—STEAM SAWING.

The number of saw mills in the Islands has grown from 31 in 1907 to 60 in 1910. This increase has been mostly in the installation of small mills in the provincial towns, or in or near the cutting areas. Manila contains 11 steam mills, and the provinces the remainder. Outside of Manila, there are three band-saw mills. These contain modern appliances to handle the logs, the finished product, and the waste.

A majority of the provincial sawmills do not cut more than 3,000 board feet daily when running at their full capacity. Nearly all the small sawmills are greatly handicapped by the lack of sufficient power. Some of them can not handle many of the large logs, except by first cutting them up by handsaws.

II.—HAND SAWING.

Hand sawing, known also as whipsawing, is still extensively used throughout the Islands, principally by Chinese lumbermen. There are several firms, located in Manila, Cebu, Iloilo, and other large towns, who can manufacture from 3,000 to 10,000 board feet per day. Nearly every town of any importance has its whip sawyers. In most towns, no other kind of sawed lumber is used at all, so that the merchants find no competition from steam-sawed material. The firms in places where there is

competition are able to hold their own because they utilize almost the full contents of the log. In the first place, the saw kerf is as low as 0.08 of an inch, as contrasted with 0.16 to 0.30 of the band and circular saws. As a rule, the lumber is neither edged nor trimmed, being sold in the full length and width of the portion of the log from which it is taken. Great care is taken to utilize all the waste; as much of the log as possible is converted into lumber, and the remainder is sold for firewood and other purposes. The hand sawyer is often able to manufacture from 9 to 10 board feet from each cubic foot of lumber, as against the steam mills' cut of 5, 6, or 7 board feet per cubic foot of the raw product. The Chinese and Filipino contractors demand a great deal of lumber $\frac{1}{2}$ inch or less in thickness, which they use mostly for partitions and boxes. Hand sawyers often buy 1-inch steam-sawed material, and whipsaw it into two boards that sell for $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch lumber. Chinese merchants often contract with steam mills to have their logs sawed. They are usually on the ground watching the process, and save every scrap of the so-called waste.

Sawmills that are located in the large cities, or in heavily populated centers, find a ready market for at least a portion of the waste. The merchants operating the smaller mills often carefully sort their timber into many grades, and find a ready sale for the slabs and edgings that are not used as fuel in the mill. In mills some distance from the centers of the population, the waste is usually burned, except that utilized for fuel or sold by the small boatload to any buyer who cares to come for it. The whipsawed material would become a more severe competitor of that from the steam sawmills if enough of it could be placed on the market to supply the demand, and were it not that large contractors will not handle it because it is not sized, edged, or trimmed. The lack of labor as cheap as that found in China will always limit the output of whipsawed lumber in the Philippines.

4. TRANSPORTATION.

The high cost of getting timber to market in the form of logs or manufactured lumber is at present the bugbear of the lumbering business. Few companies have as yet succeeded in successfully solving this problem. The product of no single company is sufficiently large to warrant its maintaining a steamer built especially to carry lumber. Until such time as a single company or a combination can manufacture enough lumber to warrant its shipment direct from the mill to the markets they can not hope to compete successfully with Oregon pine in the Chinese or other markets. At present all the lumber for foreign markets is transshipped at Manila or Singapore. This, with the necessary handling in transshipping, approximately doubles the cost of a direct shipment, as the local freight rates are excessively high. From remote districts, out of the regular lines of steamers, it often costs as high as ₱60 a thou-



PLATE XV.—INTERIOR VIEW OF TANGUILE-OAK TYPE.

Tanguile and *Eugenia* sp.

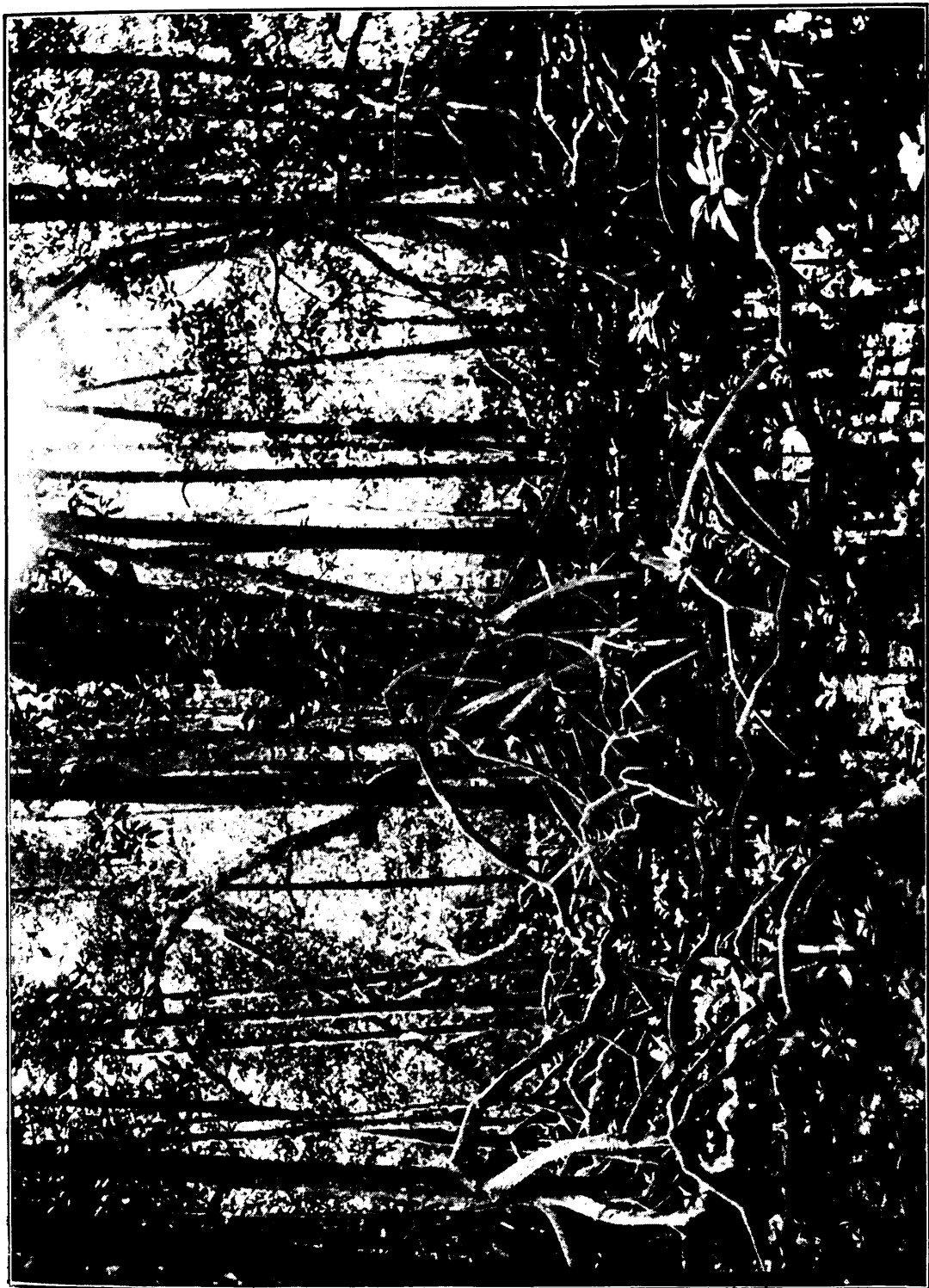


PLATE XVI.—INTERIOR VIEW OF MANGROVE SWAMP.

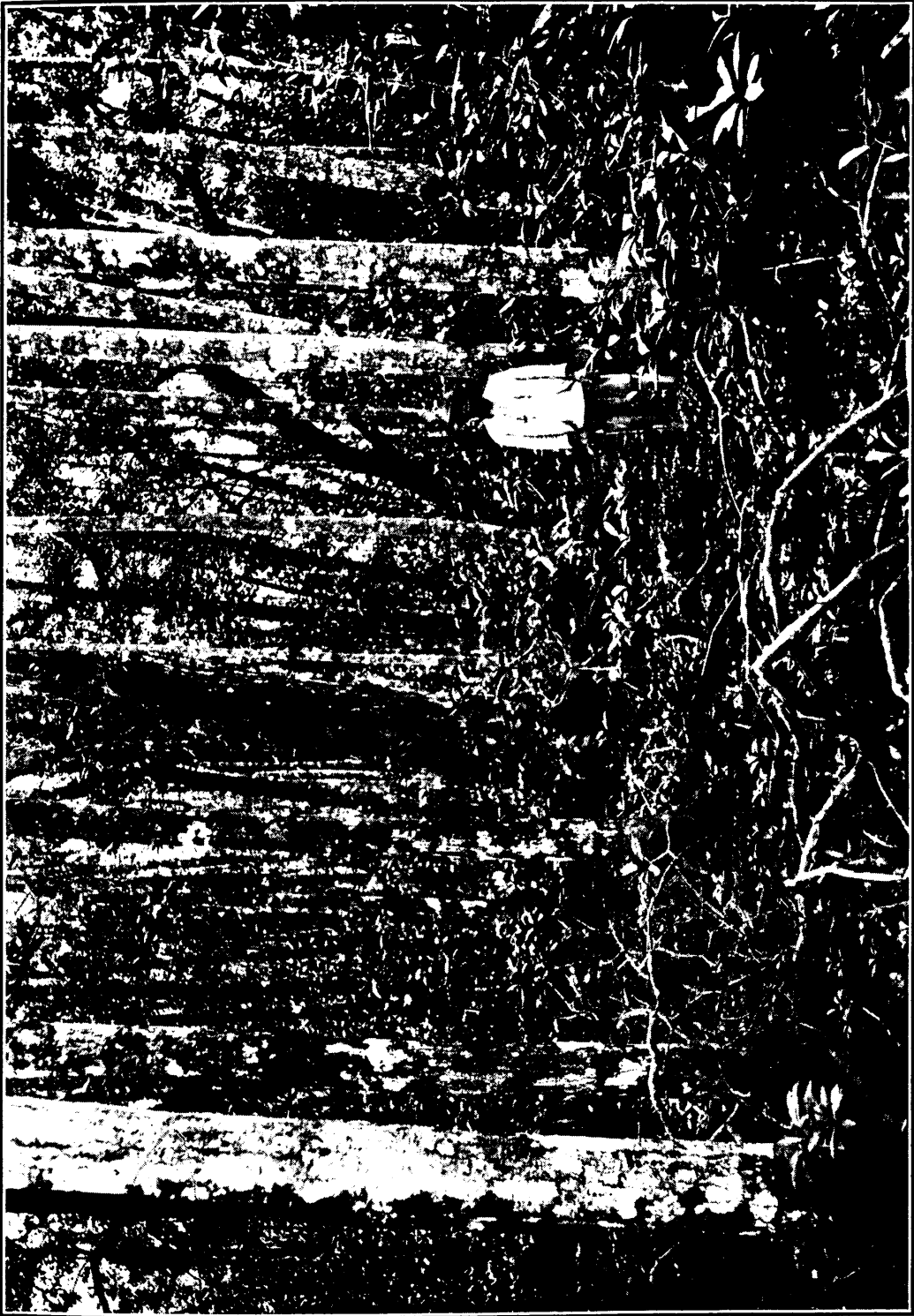


PLATE XVII.—INTERIOR VIEW OF MANGROVE SWAMP.



PLATE XVIII.—VIEW OF THE BEACH TYPE.



PLATE XIX.—PINE FOREST OF BENGUET.

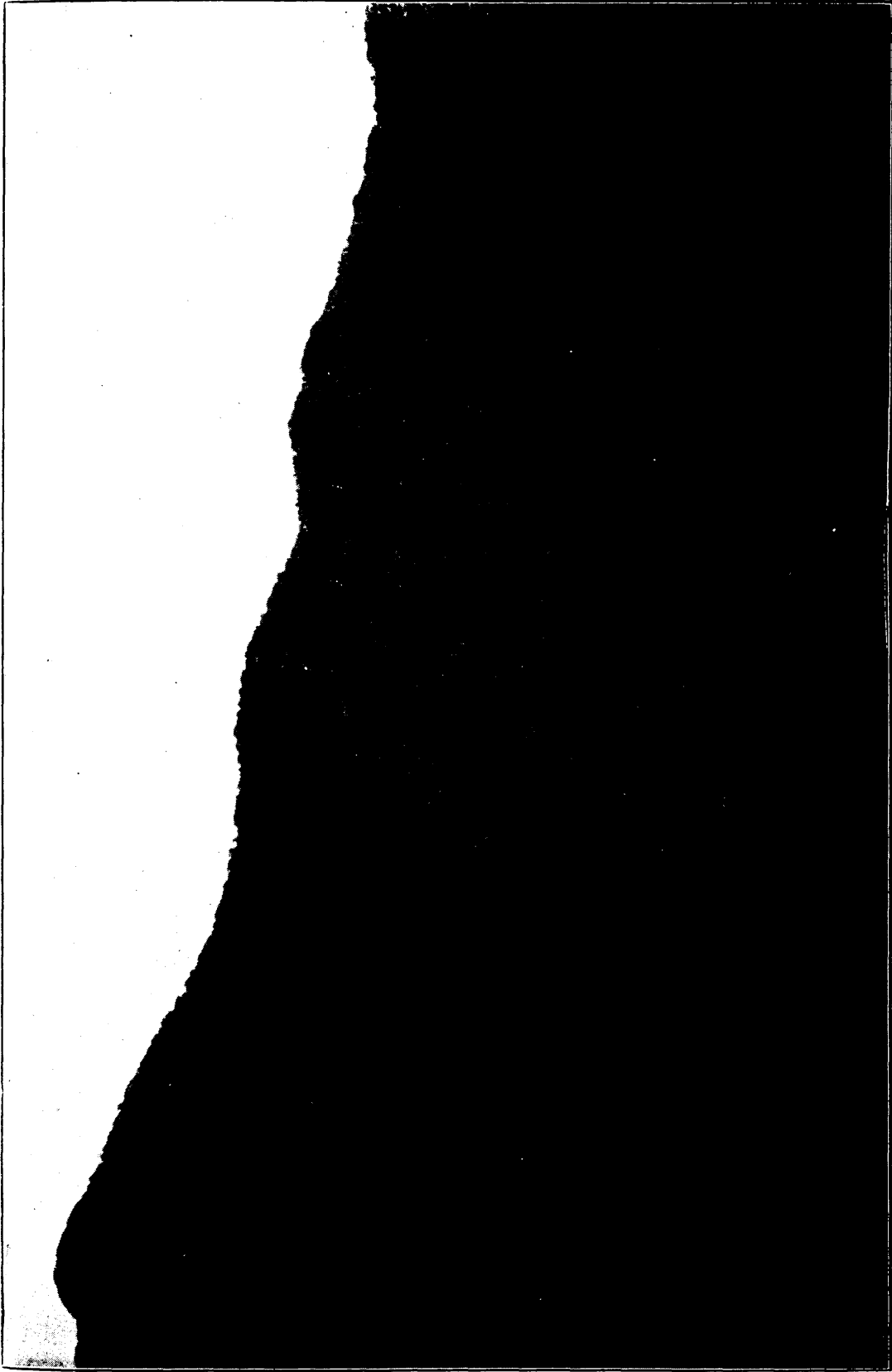


PLATE XX.—EXTERIOR VIEW OF MOSSY-FOREST TYPE AND UPPER PORTION OF TANGUILE-OAK TYPE.



PLATE XXI.—INTERIOR VIEW OF THE MOSSY-FOREST TYPE.

100

sand board feet to transport timber in the form of logs. From distances equally remote from Manila in the line of travel of the interisland steamers, the cost is ₱11 to ₱29 per thousand board feet of the manufactured product. These boats are ill adapted to carrying lumber or logs.

Logs are occasionally transported short distances by rafts. These rafts are usually rudely constructed affairs, with the logs tied together with rattan. Light logs are used for buoys, and heavy timbers can thus be transported. However, the principal forest regions are remote from the lumber centers, and no attempt has been made to raft timber from them to the markets. Some of the larger companies use barges to transport the finished product. The smaller concerns are dependent upon small sailing vessels.

To sum up, the high cost of placing the timber of the Philippines on the market is due to the following causes: (1) The high cost of logging, due principally to the crude methods employed and to lack of proper supervision; (2) the excessive cost of milling, due to (a) insufficient equipment and poor arrangement of the mill, (b) to the difficulty of getting competent men to manage the operations, and (c) to a consequent loss in sawing due to excessive waste and poorly manufactured material; (3) as yet no company has a capacity sufficient to warrant their owning or hiring vessels especially adapted to carrying lumber to the home or foreign markets. The conditions above described are distinctly pioneer in nature. A few companies have successfully met some of them, but none have as yet succeeded in meeting the entire situation. When they do, they will be able to compete with all other timbers of like grades in the foreign and home markets.

The scarcity of the high-grade timbers needed in construction work in contact with the ground can and will be overcome by artificially preserving timbers of the cheaper construction kinds. This is the solution of the problem, especially so far as concerns the timber used in railroad construction and mines.

5. LABOR.

Much has been written concerning the labor problem of the Philippines. That it is a serious one with many industries in the Philippines can not be denied; that it can be successfully solved is an established fact, so far as lumbering and logging are concerned. With good American foremen, crews of native laborers have been trained to conduct successfully the operations both in the woods and in the mill. Where the best results have been obtained, they are at least equal to and sometimes better than American labor, considering dollar for dollar of outlay. The wages vary from ₱0.50 to ₱1.50 per day. When properly treated, Filipinos make fairly steady workmen. In thinly settled forest regions, it is

necessary to import labor from the more thickly settled districts. Many difficulties naturally stand in the way of doing this, but with some patience it can be and has been successfully accomplished. Colonies must be established, schools and churches built, and amusements provided. Once the lumberman gains the confidence of the men working for him, he will find laborers coming of their own accord. Failures in getting labor in the Philippines are less frequent in the lumbering business than in other pursuits. The Filipino has a natural aptitude for running machinery, and it is the kind of labor that he likes. He must, however, be constantly supervised by Americans or other foreigners who understand their business and the men working under them.

6. OPPORTUNITIES FOR LUMBERING.

A reference to the description of types will show that certain of our forests produce heavy stands of timber of a few kinds, and are therefore adapted to lumbering on a large scale. This is especially true of the lauan and the lauan-apitong types; less so of the lauan-hagachac and yacal-lauan types only because these do not cover so large a territory. With sufficient capital and modern methods of logging and milling, these forests can be successfully exploited.

There are a number of desirable tracts suitable for large operations in the dipterocarp types that await capital for the utilization of the timber upon them.

As already stated, the entire area of some of the forest types, and isolated patches of others, are not adapted to large operations simply because the supply of timber is not great enough to warrant great expenditure in extracting it. Opportunities for the small investor in these are not lacking. Indeed, a large proportion of the most valuable timber placed on the market to-day comes from the tracts granted to small licensees.

7. CONCLUSION.

As shown above, the lumber business in the Philippines is at present a small one. The handling of 89,000,000 board feet annually can not be considered, comparatively speaking, a large business. Yet the possibilities are great. A number of large tracts of virgin timber are ready for the ax. To exploit them successfully capital is necessary.

It is estimated that the forests properly managed can be made to yield two billion board feet annually, without being damaged. This will allow a rotation of one hundred years. While there is no prospect of the full utilization of the forest wealth in the immediate future, with sufficient investment of capital there is little reason to doubt that within the next ten or fifteen years the annual output of timber in the Philippines will reach the 500-million mark.

MINOR FOREST PRODUCTS.

Minor forest products include everything derived from the forest with the exception of timber. Most of the forest plants are put to some practical use—either the entire plant or some portion of it, as the bark, leaves, fruit, etc.—and in general the dependence of the neighboring peoples upon the forest for the means of existence is in inverse proportion to their stage of civilization. As they become more and more civilized, commerce offers them a wider range of choice and they become less dependent upon the local supply. Thus it happens that savage or semisavage tribes have shown great ingenuity in discovering uses for the forest products within easy reach, and as they are gradually thrown in contact with neighboring tribes the uses are extended, until eventually many of the forest products find a permanent place for themselves in the markets of the world. At the present time, therefore, minor forest products may be divided into two classes: Those whose uses are widely recognized, and which have a market value sufficiently definite to permit them to be assessed for the forest charges; and, second, those whose use is so purely local, or the demand for which is so unsteady, that they are not sold in the market, or which for some other reason it is impracticable at present to bring under the Internal Revenue Law.

1. WOODS USED FOR FUEL.

FIREWOOD.

More wood is annually used for fuel in the Islands than for lumber. Records for the fiscal year 1909–10 show that 246,776 cubic meters of firewood were cut, and it is probable that an even greater amount was cut and used without record.

While all kinds of woods are used for firewood, the favorite source is the mangrove swamps, producing a group of woods which may be classed under the names of bacauans, pototans, and tangal. These woods have calorific power higher than that of oak,¹ and are among the best firewoods in the world. They constitute the principal value of the mangrove swamps which are found scattered along the seacoasts throughout the Islands, varying in width from a few feet to several miles. They probably cover about 2 per cent of the forest area of the Islands, or about 800 square miles.

There are other woods in the Philippines that have perhaps an even higher heating power than the mangroves. Among these is agoho (*Casuarina equisetifolia*), but because of its scarcity it can never take the place of the bacauans. Many species of trees found in the second-

¹ According to tests made by the Bureau of Science, Manila, the gram calories of bacauan is 8,161, of tangal 8,055, and of oak 7,965.

growth forests yield excellent firewood. Among these are bayabas (*Psidium guajava*), ipil-ipil (*Leucaena glauca*), and madre-cacao (*Gliricidia sepium*).

Firewood is sold under the name of *rajas* and *leñas*. The former are from 60 to 150 centimeters in length and from 7 to 15 centimeters in diameter. *Leñas* are of smaller dimensions. It is impossible to estimate the value of the firewood used annually in the Philippines. The average retail price of bacauan in the Manila market is about ₱25 a cord.

CHARCOAL.

The principal woods employed in the manufacture of charcoal, like those used for fuel, come from the mangrove swamps. They include the bacauans, the pototans, tangal, tabigi, and dungon-late. In places where mangrove woods are not available, agoho, binayuyu, bayabas, madre-cacao, and other species of the second-growth forest furnish the supply. Kilns for burning charcoal, as a rule, are rudely constructed. A number of Japanese licensees have introduced the methods employed in their own country; and if their kilns would find general acceptance the usual methods of burning charcoal would be improved.¹ The charcoal industry of the Philippines is not a large one and does not supply the full demand, for small quantities are annually imported. Official records for the fiscal year 1909-10 show that 4,315 cubic meters² were used. During the same time 50,538 kilos were imported.

2. BARKS.

Under the local name of cascalote, the barks of many trees are utilized for various purposes, principally for tanning and dyeing.

TAN BARKS.

The tanning industry in the Islands is not highly developed, and as there is no export trade in the barks or their products the amount utilized for this purpose is small. The principal source of tan bark is the bacauan family of the mangrove swamps. The crude product derived from the bark is known as mangrove catch, which has to be put through certain processes of refinement before it is ready for tanning. There are no catch factories in the Philippines, but some are in successful operation in Borneo, where the mangrove swamps are more extensive. However, the swamps in Mindanao, Palawan, and other islands in the southern portion of the Archipelago cover a sufficient area to justify the establishment of catch factories, and there seem to be

¹ For a description of the two types of kilns see Maule, Wm. M.: The charcoal industry of the Philippine Islands. Bull. 2, Bureau of Forestry, Manila, P. I., 1906.

² Approximately 1,000,000 kilos; 230 kilos equal 1 cubic meter.

excellent prospects for introducing the industry and for thus utilizing the bark from a large proportion of the swamp timber felled for firewood. Through certain chemical changes coloring matters begin to appear in the bark soon after felling, and for this reason it is considered necessary to work up the bark within forty-eight hours. This requires the factories to be located in or near compact mangrove areas. Four to 6 tons of bark are necessary to produce 2 or 2½ tons of cutch.

The barks of the following species of the mangrove trees contain tannin: Bacauan (*Rhizophora conjugata*), bacauan-lalaki (*Rhizophora mucronata*), pototan (*Bruguiera eriopetala*), busain (*Bruguiera gymnorhiza*), langarai (*Bruguiera parviflora*), pototan-lalaki (*Bruguiera caryophylloides*), tangal (*Ceriops tagal*).

Recent analyses of barks from Mindanao made in the laboratories of the Bureau of Plant Industry, Washington, D. C., show the following results:

Kind.	Total solids.	Soluble solids.	Reds.	Nontannins.	Tannins.
Tangal	58.58	49.02	9.56	13.19	35.83
Bacauan	53.91	51.03	2.88	11.64	39.39
Pototan	37.36	36.81	.55	10.15	26.66
Langarai	24.43	19.82	4.61	7.27	12.55

The proportion of tannin according to these analyses compares favorably with that of barks of the same species from Borneo. It is estimated that the swamp area of one bay in Mindanao contains 25,000 hectares and that it will yield approximately 25 tons of bark to the hectare, making a total of 625,000 tons of bark. With a rotation of twenty years this is a sufficient quantity to supply a large factory indefinitely.

While there are probably many other trees in the Philippines besides the mangroves whose bark produces tannin, camanchile (*Pithecolobium dulce*) and agoho (*Casuarina equisetifolia*) are the only ones utilized to any extent.

OTHER BARKS.

The bark in the Philippines used most extensively for dyeing purposes comes from tabigi or nigi (*Xylocarpus obovatus*), also a tree of the mangrove swamps.

The extract from the bark of tangal is employed for flavoring and coloring the sap of coconut and other palms used as alcoholic beverages. By far the largest proportion of the bark of this tree now gathered in the Philippines is used for this purpose.

A number of small trees contain barks used for tanning purposes. In some instances they are used direct; in others they are first made into ropes. Among these may be mentioned the following: Malubago (*Hi-*

biscus tiliaceus), anilao (*Columbia serratifolia*), tanag or taloktok (*Kleinhofia hospita*), danling-aso (*Helicteres hirsuta*).

The barks of a number of vines and trees produce materials suitable for soap. Gogo (*Entada scandens*), the principal one of these, is a large vine. Sections of the vine are pounded to a pulp, bound into small bales, and are used extensively for washing hair. Salinkugi or gogong-toko (*Albizzia saponaria*) is a tree containing a bark that is used for the same purposes as the gogo vine. While other vines and trees yield soapy barks, none are used to the same extent.

The total amount of tan bark officially manifested during the fiscal year 1909-10 was 3,302,939 kilos, two-thirds of which came from Mindanao. The amount of dye bark manifested amounted to 98,482 kilos.

3. DYEWOOD.

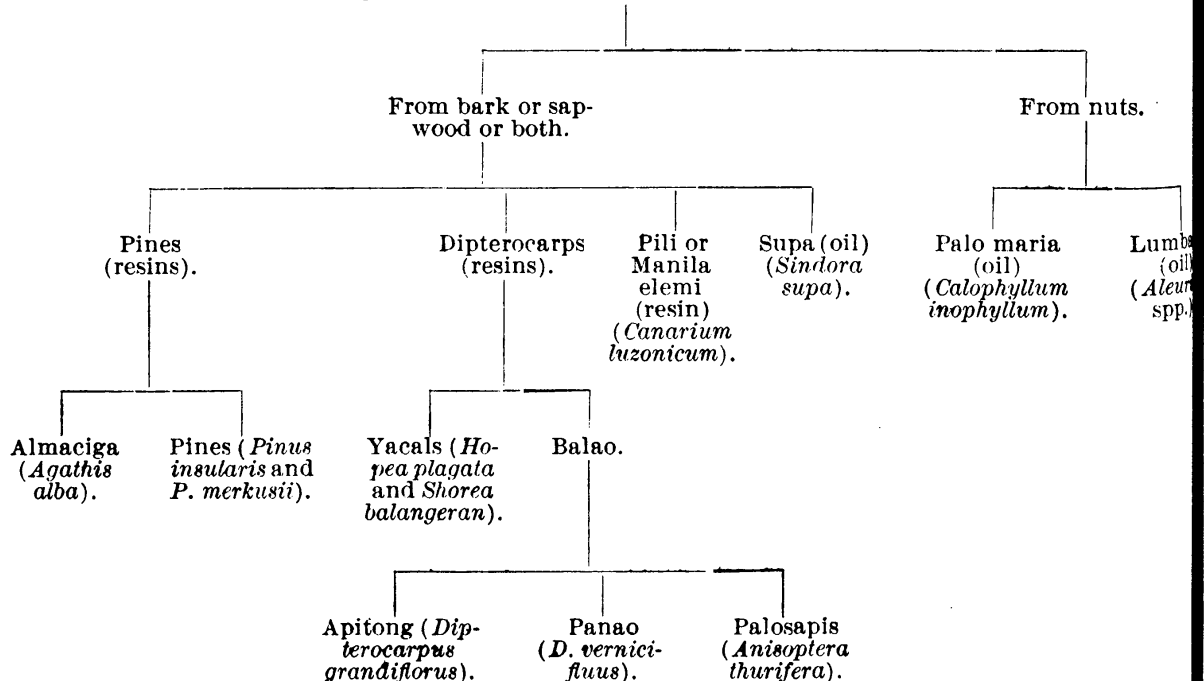
While a number of woods of the Philippines can be used for dyes, only one, sibucao (*Cæsalpinia sappan*), is so used to any extent. This is practically the equivalent of the Brazil wood (*Cæsalpinia echinata*). It is a small bushy tree and is semicultivated, especially in the Island of Guimaras, from which most of it comes. During the fiscal year 1909-10, 1,154,614 kilos of dyewood passed through official channels, practically all of which was sibucao.

4. RESINS AND OILS.

The following diagram shows the sources of the principal oil and resinous products of the Philippines:

TABLE 10.

PRINCIPAL SOURCES OF RESINS AND OILS.



ALMACIGA.

The local commercial name of the resin produced by *Agathis alba* is almaciga. This is a tree of the pine family, closely related to the species yielding the kauri resin of New Zealand. It grows in the mountainous regions of the Philippines usually between altitudes of 400 and 1,000 meters. The resin is gathered by the hill people. It accumulates as a hardened product on the trunk after incisions are made in the bark, or at the base of the trunk where it is deposited in the ground through ruptures made usually near the junction of the roots and the trunk. The latter deposits remain in the ground after the tree dies and decays and are discovered by the collector, who thrust a sharp pointed stick in the ground to determine their location. Almaciga to the amount of 1,092,398 kilos passed through official channels during the fiscal year 1909-10. Approximately four-fifths of this amount came from the Moro Province of Mindanao.

DIPTEROCARP RESINS.

While all the dipterocarps are resinous, only a few of them yield products that have reached the markets. Locally they are used extensively as torches, for calking small boats, etc. As explained in Part II, under a discussion of the dipterocarp family, these deposits are wood oils which quickly or slowly transform into a resin on exposure to the air. Some of these are encountered in a solid form, others are plastic, and still others harden so slowly that they are removed as fluids. The latter are known as wood oils and bear the local name of the tree from which they are collected. To the former class belongs the resin of yacal (*Hopea plagata*) and guisoc (*Shorea balangeran*). This is collected by making incisions through the bark. The oil hardens to a brittle brownish-black resin and is collected in this form. It is used locally for torches and is often mixed with softer resin for calking.

Apitong, panao, and palosapis are the principal dipterocarps that yield fluid resins, or wood oils. The resins of these trees are usually known as balao. The oil is allowed to collect in cup-shaped incisions made in the wood. As the flow ceases the surfaces are recut and fired, which greatly increases the deposit. It is used locally for lighting, and, when mixed with powdered charcoal, for calking boats. Other dipterocarps produce resins, but the amount that can be collected is much less than from those mentioned above.¹

The amount of wood oils that passed through official channels during the fiscal year 1909-10 was 131,377 liters, mainly from the Provinces of Leyte and Occidental Negros.

¹ For a discussion of the chemical nature of the oils of supa, balao, panao, and palosapis see Clover, A. M.: Philippine wood oils, Phil. Jour. Sci., 1 (1906), 191-202.

MANILA ELEMI.¹

The resin produced by pili (*Canarium luzonicum*), a tree growing wild or as a planted crop in the Philippines, is known commercially as Manila elemi and locally as brea or pili resin. Incisions are made in the bark usually at the beginning of the rainy season. About once a month the resin is collected and the bark recut. This keeps up till December, when the resin practically ceases to flow for that year. The resin is graded into two classes, viz, "brea blanca" and "brea negra," the principal difference being one of cleanliness. It is soft, sticky, and opaque, slightly yellow in color, has a very agreeable resinous odor, and burns with a smoky flame. It is used extensively for torches and with other resins is mixed with powdered charcoal, brick, and ashes for calking boats. During the fiscal year 1909-10, 57,629 kilos of Manila elemi were officially manifested. The resin came principally from the Province of Tayabas, where the tree is quite extensively cultivated.²

OTHER RESINS AND OILS.

The two pines (*Pinus insularis* and *P. merkusii*) of the Philippines are rich in turpentine. As yet however the resinous products of these trees are used only locally. Lumbang oil is the product of the nuts of two species of *Aleurites*. *A. moluccana* (lumbang) is an introduced, semicultivated tree confined principally to the provinces near Manila and to the Davao district of Mindanao. *Aleurites trisperma* (balukanad), is a closely related species that is found wild or semicultivated. The nut is about the size and shape of a hickory nut. The hard shell is removed, and the oil is extracted from the kernel. It is used in the Philippines for illuminating purposes, in the manufacture of soap (usually known as Chinese soap), for painting small boats, and for treating timbers intended for use in water. It seems to be closely related to the Chinese wood oil or tung (tung yu or Ningpo varnish), which is extracted from a nut coming from another species of the genus *Aleurites*.³ During the fiscal year 1907-8 some ₱22,000 worth of lumbang nuts were gathered in the Moro Province alone.

From the fruits of palo maria (*Calophyllum inophyllum*) an oil known as the "oil of palo maria" is extracted (known in India as domba

¹ For a full discussion of this see Clover, A. M.: The terpene oils of Manila elemi, Phil. Jour. Sci. 2 (1907), Gen. Sci., 1-40.

² Forms of *Canarium luzonicum* produce a much-prized edible nut that is rich in oil and has a flavor not unlike that of the almond. There seem to be three varieties of the nuts known locally in Tayabas as basiad, tugdugin, and pilauai. Basiad is said to have the best flavor, though pilauai attains the largest size.

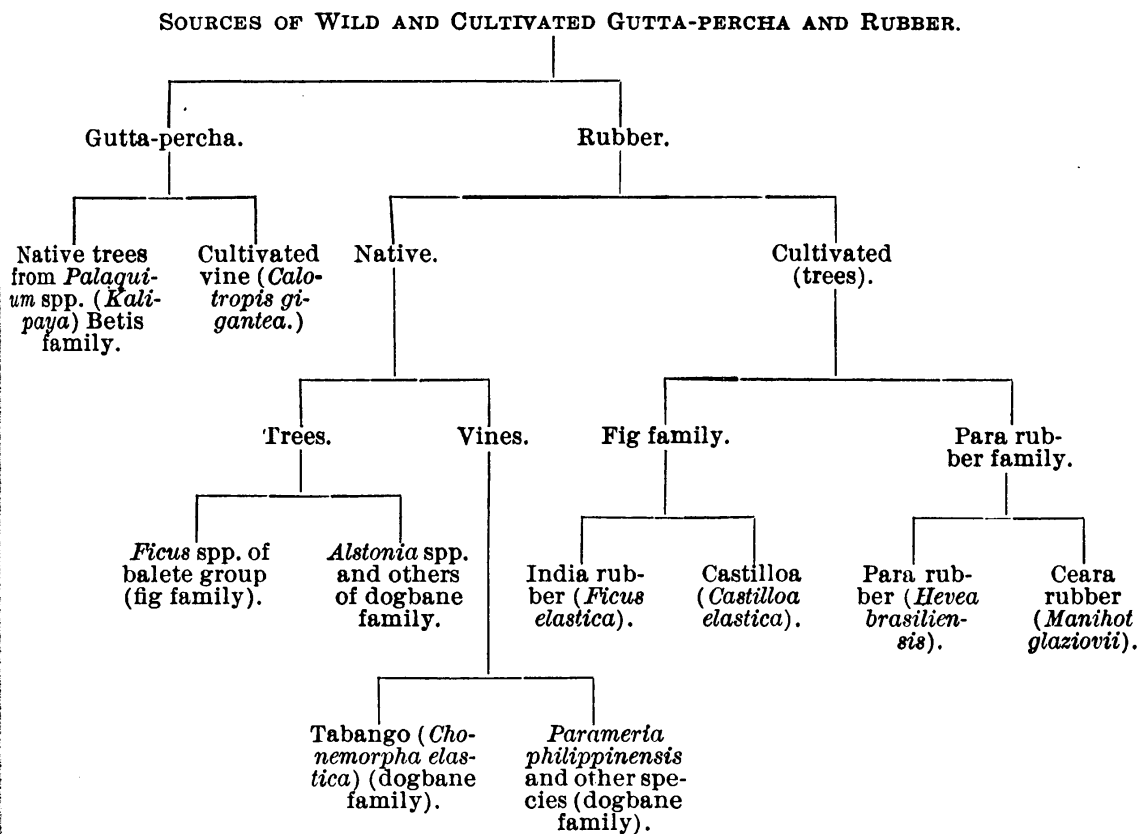
³ For a discussion of the chemical properties of this and other oil-bearing seeds see Richmond and Vivencio del Rosario: Commercial utilization of some Philippine oil-bearing seeds: preliminary paper, Phil. Jour. Sci. 2 (1907), Gen. Sci. 439-449.

oil). This oil is used in small quantities in the Philippines chiefly for illuminating purposes.

5. GUTTA-PERCHA AND RUBBER.

The following diagram shows the wild and cultivated sources of gutta-percha and rubber in the Philippines.

TABLE 11.



Gutta-percha is the product of certain species of *Palaequium* found in Mindanao and adjacent islands. The gutta-percha (kalipaya) trees are found scattered over a large area. The crude product is collected after felling the tree by ringing the bark at regular intervals. It is gathered by the wild tribes principally from the Cotabato Valley of Mindanao. No attempt has yet been made to cultivate trees producing gutta-percha. Official reports show that 96,169 kilos were collected during the fiscal year 1909-10. In Jolo and certain other ports it is rudely refined and eventually reaches the Singapore market. *Calotropis gigantea*, a vine belonging to the Asclepiadaceæ, yields a kind of gutta-percha. It is found in a few provinces in and about towns, and is undoubtedly an introduced plant in the Philippines. Only scattered specimens are to be found, and we have no information that it is utilized for any purpose locally.

Rubber is often confused with gutta-percha and for that reason the Philippines have gained the reputation of containing considerable quantities of wild rubber. It is probable that a small quantity of the product

known officially as gutta-percha is really wild rubber, but it is impossible to state the exact amount. Investigations to determine the source and amount of wild rubber in the Philippines indicate that certain vines and trees produce it, but not in large quantities. The diagram (Table 9) shows the native trees and vines that are known to yield rubber. Certain species of *Ficus* belonging to the balete group of the *Moraceæ* produce rubber, but little is known about the quality or amount. Species of *Alstonia* (dita, etc.) and other trees of the dogbane family yield rubber of a poor grade in small quantities. A large vine, known under the Moro name of tabango (*Chonemorpha elastica*), is probably the principal source of the wild rubber of the southern islands. It has been found in the Cotabato region of Mindanao and on the Islands of Jolo and Tawi Tawi of the Sulu Archipelago. Dugtung-ahas (*Parameria philippinensis* and other closely related species) is a large vine that contains rubber in small quantities. Both of these vines belong to the dogbane family (*Apocynaceæ*). It is not known whether they occur in sufficient quantities to warrant a systematic attempt to exploit them on a large scale.

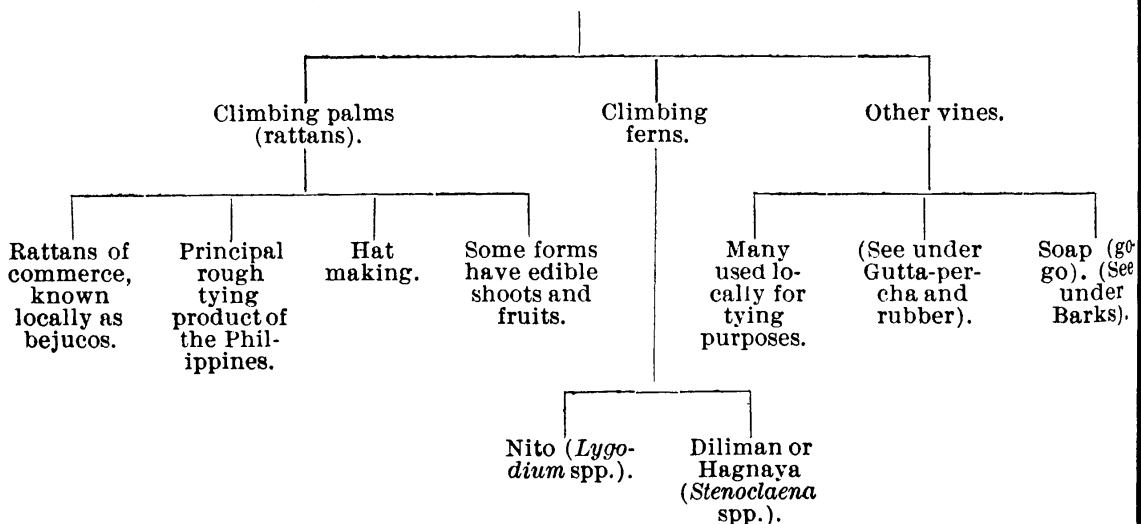
It has been demonstrated beyond doubt that the soil and climate of the Philippines are favorable to the growth of the standard cultivated rubber trees. One small plantation on the Island of Basilan is already successfully producing rubber, others have been started, and it is only a question of time when the Philippines will become one of the rubber-producing regions of the Tropics. At present Para rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*) and Castilloa (*C. elastica*) seem to be the favorites, but Ceara (*Manihot glaziovii*) and India rubber (*Ficus elastica*) are also cultivated.

6. VINES.

The following diagram shows the principal minor products produced by vines:

TABLE 12.

PRINCIPAL MINOR PRODUCTS FROM VINES OR LIANAS.



RATTAN.

This is the product of a large number of species of climbing palms (the genus *Calamus*), and is known locally as bejuco. The best qualities are found in the lauan, the lauan-apitong, the tanguile-oak, and the mossy-forest types. The hill people are the principal rattan collectors. Rattan palm starts as a rosette of leaves from the center of which a stem develops. At first this is covered with prickly leaf sheaths, but as it develops, the old leaves with their sheaths drop off leaving a smooth jointed stem usually about 4 centimeters or less in diameter and of great length. One has been measured with a length of 122 meters (about 400 feet), and others are said to be much longer. In many species the stout midrib of the leaf extends into a long whip-like projection armed with stiff recurved spines.

Rattan is brought to the market either in the round or split. It finds its greatest use in the Philippines for tying bales of hemp, sugar, tobacco, and other agricultural products. The better grades are used in furniture making and one kind is used for making hats. The best qualities of rattan come from the Island of Palawan, and go to the Singapore market. According to the specifications of a Singapore firm a good grade of split rattan should be mature, strong, not ribbed, 3.7 to 5 meters (12 to 16 feet) long, with a diameter of 4.5 to 9 millimeters (three-sixteenths to three-eighths inch). Bright color is desirable but not absolutely necessary except in the best quality.

During the fiscal year 1909-10 there passed through official channels a total of 3,069,212 kilos of rattan. The Province of Ambos Camarines produced 759,278 kilos, and Sorsogon 607,951; Occidental Negros stands third with 347,138 kilos, mostly used in baling sugar. The other provinces producing more than 100,000 kilos are as follows: Mindoro, Tayabas, Oriental Negros, and Cagayan. This is not the arrangement of provinces according to the actual amount they contain. It merely means that the exploitation is greater because these provinces lie nearer the centers of demand. Probably the Moro Province and Palawan contain a larger supply than any of those mentioned above.

OTHER VINES.

Diliman or hagnaya (*Stenoclaena* spp.) are climbing ferns used principally as a string to bind the parts of fish traps. Black and white nitos (*Lygodium* spp.) are also climbing ferns and are employed in making wickerwork and for the borders of hats. The forest abounds in many kinds of other vines used for tying purposes, generally without being made into ropes.

7. BAMBOO.

While wild bamboo of some kind is found scattered everywhere throughout the Islands, yet wild structural bamboo in commercial quantities is confined to regions with a pronounced dry season. Introduced bamboos are planted in all parts of the Philippines and with the wild forms play an important part in the domestic and economic life of the Islands.

The following is a list of the uses of bamboo: House construction (posts, beams, rafters, floors, siding, stairways, doors, windows, roofs); fencing; rafts, rude piling and decking for wharves; fish traps; bridges; parts of carts; parts of small boats; handles for tools and weapons; bows and arrows; musical instruments; hats; baskets; mats; sawali (a coarse kind of mat used principally for partitions and the siding of houses); picture frames; decorative arches and many kinds of ornaments; and temporary construction of all kinds.

8. ERECT PALMS.

In many places where bamboo is wanting or scarce the trunks of erect palms are extensively used as a substitute for many classes of construction. They are used in the round or split into narrow pieces and the pith removed. The following palms are most commonly used for structural purposes: *Livistona* spp. (anahao and palma brava), *Oncosperma* spp. (anibong), *Caryota* spp. (pugahan or fish-tail palm), *Heterospatha* sp. (sagasi), *Pinanga insignis* (sarawag), and many species of *Pinanga* under various local names.

The sap of the inflorescence of nipa palm (*Nipa fruticans*), a wild and semicultivated palm of the tide-water swamps, is the source of a large part of the alcohol and vinegar of the Philippines and its leaf is the principal roofing and thatching material of the Islands. The leaves of anahao and other palms are also used for this purpose, especially in places remote from nipa swamps. Next in importance to the nipa palm is the buri palm (*Corypha elata*). This grows wild and semicultivated. The sap of the inflorescence is fermented and used as an alcoholic drink (tuba).¹ The leaves are used for roofing, for making mats, sails, bags, hats, and ropes.

Many less important minor forest products are treated briefly in Part II of this bulletin.

RELATION OF THE GOVERNMENT TO THE FORESTS AND THEIR PRODUCTS.

1. LEGAL STATUS OF THE PUBLIC FORESTS AND FOREST RESERVES.

The public forests of the Philippines include all unreserved public lands covered with trees of any age. By the action of the Governor-

¹Tuba is the general term for the fermented sap of a number of palms. The principal source of this drink is the coconut palm.

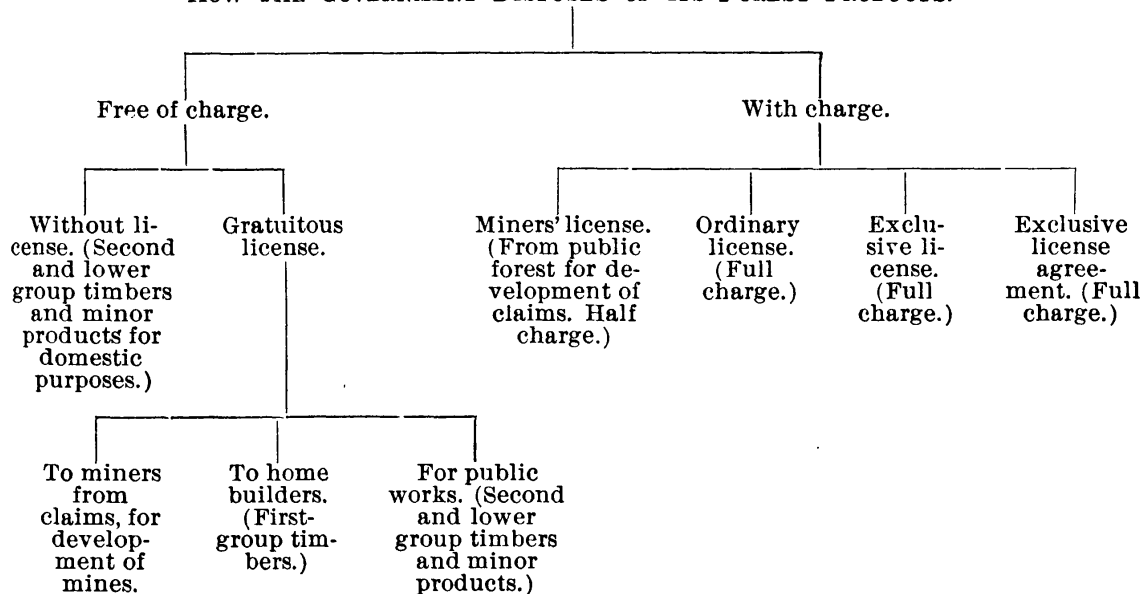
General of the Philippines any portion of the public domain may be set aside as a forest reserve. Both the public forests and the forest reserves are administered by the Bureau of Forestry "for the protection of the public interests, the utility and safety of the forests, and the perpetuation thereof in productive condition by wise use." No land containing public forests can pass out of the control of the Bureau of Forestry until the Director certifies that it is more valuable for agricultural than for forest purposes.

2. DISPOSAL OF FOREST PRODUCTS.

The following diagram illustrates the various ways of disposing of forest products:

TABLE 13.

HOW THE GOVERNMENT DISPOSES OF ITS FOREST PRODUCTS.



I.—FOREST PRODUCTS OBTAINED FREE OF CHARGE.

Certain forest products can be obtained without charge with or without license. The Free-use Act provides that until Oct. 25, 1915, inhabitants of the Philippine Islands can gather without license and free of charge all products to be used for domestic purposes except first-group timbers. Special areas of public forests, known as communal forests, are established for the use of certain settlements, from which the inhabitants are required to obtain all of their free-use products. Where such areas have not yet been set aside, the free-use products can be gathered in any portion of the public forests within the provinces in which the collector resides.

Gratuitous licenses may be issued (1) under certain conditions to inhabitants of the Philippines for first-group timbers to be used for the construction of homes; (2) to miners for all forest products from their claims used in the development of the mines; and (3) for minor products and second and other lower group timbers to be used in the construction of public works of all kinds.

II.—FOREST PRODUCTS GATHERED WITH CHARGE.

The following classes of licenses are issued for the cutting, collecting, and removal of products upon which forest charges are imposed: miners' licenses, ordinary licenses, exclusive licenses, and exclusive license agreements.

Miners' licenses provide for the gathering of products from areas outside of the claims, and that the products so collected be paid for at one-half the regular rates, and are to be used for the development of mines mentioned in the license. Ordinary licenses provide for the collecting of product upon which the full charges are made. The territory granted is restricted to definite areas, for which one or more licenses may be issued. Ordinary licenses are usually granted for terms of from one to three years and may be renewed at their expiration. Exclusive licenses grant to a single licensee the right to gather forest products in a particular area. Exclusive license agreements are granted for periods up to twenty years in large areas which can be extensively lumbered without permanent injury to the forest. Applications for such for an area of more than 1,000 hectares (approximately 2,500 acres) must secure the approval of the Secretary of the Interior. Thereupon proposal for competitive bids are published in the Official Gazette and other periodicals, and the license will be granted to the bidder who makes the most satisfactory offer, including a guaranty to install the most complete and efficient plant most promptly, and to do a sufficient amount of annual development work. A bond is required for the proper performance of all obligations.

The right to reject any and all bids is expressly reserved, and in general no proposal for an exclusive license agreement will be approved except upon a reasonable showing that the licensee will be able within the period fixed in his license actually to exploit the resources of the forest tract. The man who means business must show that he really intends to develop the tract for which he wishes to secure an exclusive license, and that he will protect the interests of the public in the concession.

3. CHARGES FOR FOREST PRODUCTS.

I.—LUMBER.

For the purpose of forest charges the present grouping of the timber is as follows:

TABLE 14.

Group I.	Group II.	Group III.
Acle. Baticulin. Betis. Camagon. Ebony. Ipil. Lanete. Mancóno. Molave. Narra. Tindalo. Yacal.	Alupag. Aranga. Banaba. Bansalaguin. Banuyo. Batitinan. Bolongeta. Calamansanay. Calantas. Dungon. Guijo. Macaasim. Malacadios. Mangachapuy. Palo maria. Supa. Teak. Tucang-calao.	Agoho. Amuguis. Anubing. Apitong. Batino. Bitanhol. Catmon. Calumpit. Cupang. Dalinsi. Dita. Dungon-late. Malacmalac. Malapapaya. Malasantol. Mayapis. Palosapis. Panao. Sacat. Santol. Tamayuan. Tanguile.

All other timbers are placed in Group IV.

The metric system of measurement has been officially adopted by the Philippine Government, and the charges are based on the volume of round timber. The forest charges of the different groups are as follows:

TABLE 15.

Group.	Charge per cubic meter.		Charge per 1,000 board foot.	
	Philippine currency.	United States currency.	Philippine currency. ^a	United States currency.
1.....	₱2.50	\$1.25	₱10.00	\$5.00
2.....	1.50	.75	6.00	3.00
3.....	1.00	.50	4.00	2.00
4.....	.50	.25	2.00	1.00

^a Assuming that 4 cubic meters will cut 1,000 feet board measure. (See p. 12.)

II.—MINOR PRODUCTS.

The charges on minor products is 10 per cent of the market value. This may change from time to time. The following is a list of the principal minor products, except firewood, with their respective forest charges:

Almaciga	per 100 kilos....	₱1.50
Manila elemi	do.....	1.50
Gutta-percha	do.....	7.00
Rubber	do.....	7.00
Rattan	do.....	1.00
Charcoal	per cubic meter....	.40
Dyewood	per 100 kilos....	1.50
Dyebark	do.....	.50
Tanbark	do.....	.30
Wood oils	per liter....	.01

The forest charges on all firewood is ₱1 for 1,000 pieces, each from 60 centimeters to 1½ meters in length and from 7 to 15 centimeters in diam-

eter; for all firewood of lesser dimensions the charge is 10 centavos per cubic meter.

No other charges are collected from the licensees. The land from which the timber is taken is free from all taxation, as it remains Government property. There are no export duties on forest products; all enter the United States free from duty, and logging and milling machinery and supplies can be imported from the United States without import charges.

4. CUTTING REGULATIONS.

The cutting regulations are simple and are devised merely to insure the wise use and perpetuity of the forest. On land that is more valuable for agriculture than for forest growth, clear cutting may be allowed. On trees cut from land suitable for forests and for no other more valuable purpose a minimum diameter limit is established. For the lower group timbers this is usually 40 centimeters (16 inches), measured breast-high outside of the bark. In some cases it is lower, depending upon the mature size of the species and on the silvicultural condition of the forest. For the higher group timbers the minimum diameter limit is usually 60 centimeters (24 inches). Where there is danger of the extinction of valuable species, the Government reserves the right to select the trees to be cut. The licensees are expected to utilize all merchantable timber that they cut; the stumps must not be unnecessarily high, and no timber must be abandoned in the forest. These rules are simple and no lumberman who has good control of his logging crew will find that he is hampered by carrying them out. On the other hand, he will generally be the principal gainer by doing so.

5. HOW THE BUREAU OF FORESTRY ASSISTS THE LUMBERMEN.

The Bureau of Forestry will furnish advice in all classes of forest work. Nearly all the Islands of the Archipelago have been explored, and while much yet remains to be done, the results already obtained enable the Bureau to suggest profitable areas to lumbermen who are considering applying for a concession. Foresters are available to investigate and report upon special timbered areas.

The museum of the Bureau of Forestry contains more than 1,000 species of Philippine woods. These have been carefully studied by the experts of the Bureau, who are now in a position to identify samples of most of the native timbers.

Coöperative work with companies to ascertain the ability and methods of preserving the different timbers have been taken up; and there is little doubt that cheap timbers, which are abundant but decay quickly in their natural state, can be made to take the place of the scarcer, high-priced timbers for many structural purposes where contact with the ground is necessary.



PLATE XXII.—LOGGING SLED.

825 1992



PLATE XXIII.—STEAM LOGGING; DONKEY ENGINES.

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PLATE XXIV.—LOGGING RAILROAD.

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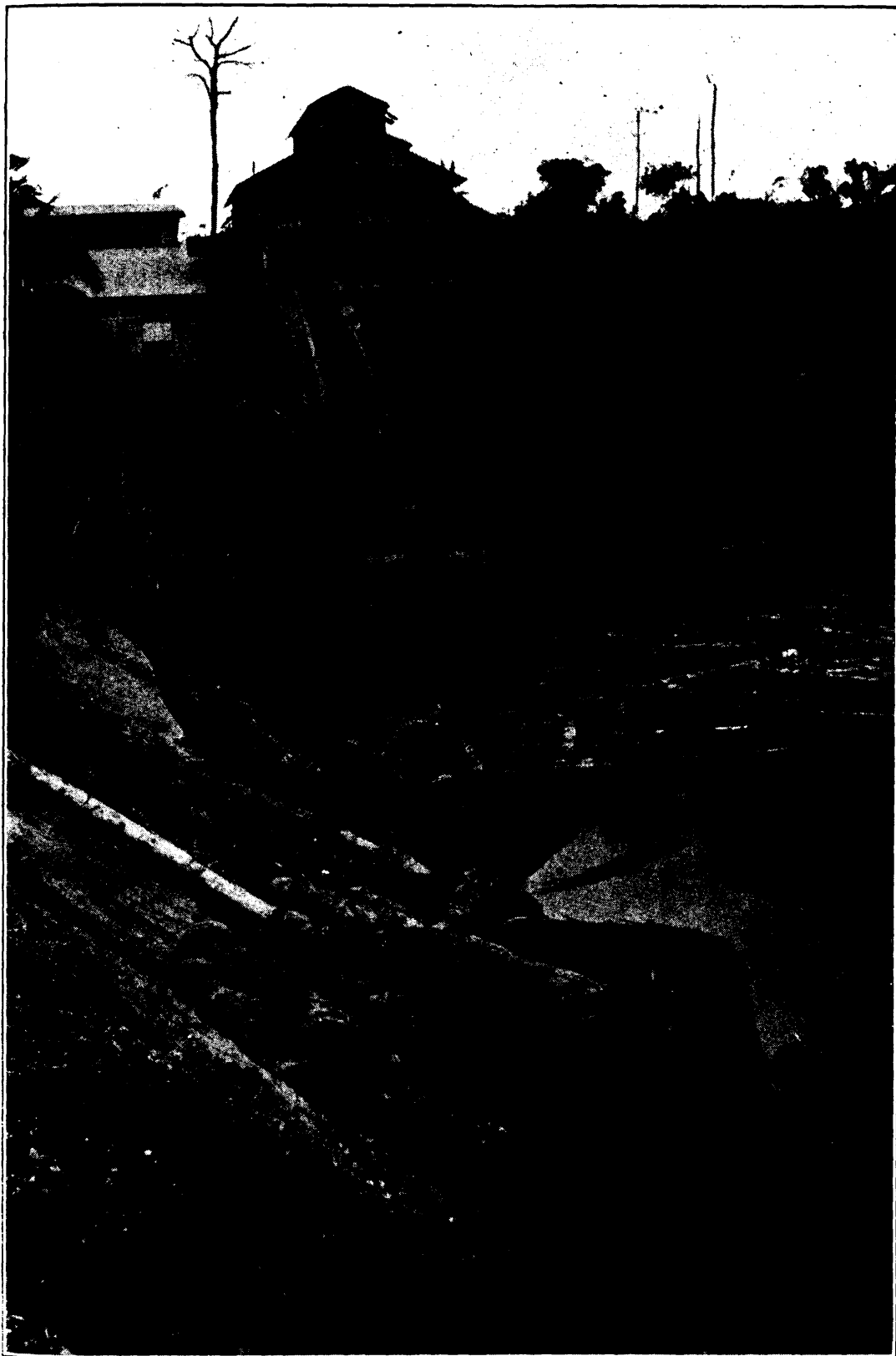


PLATE XXV.—STEAM SAWMILL.

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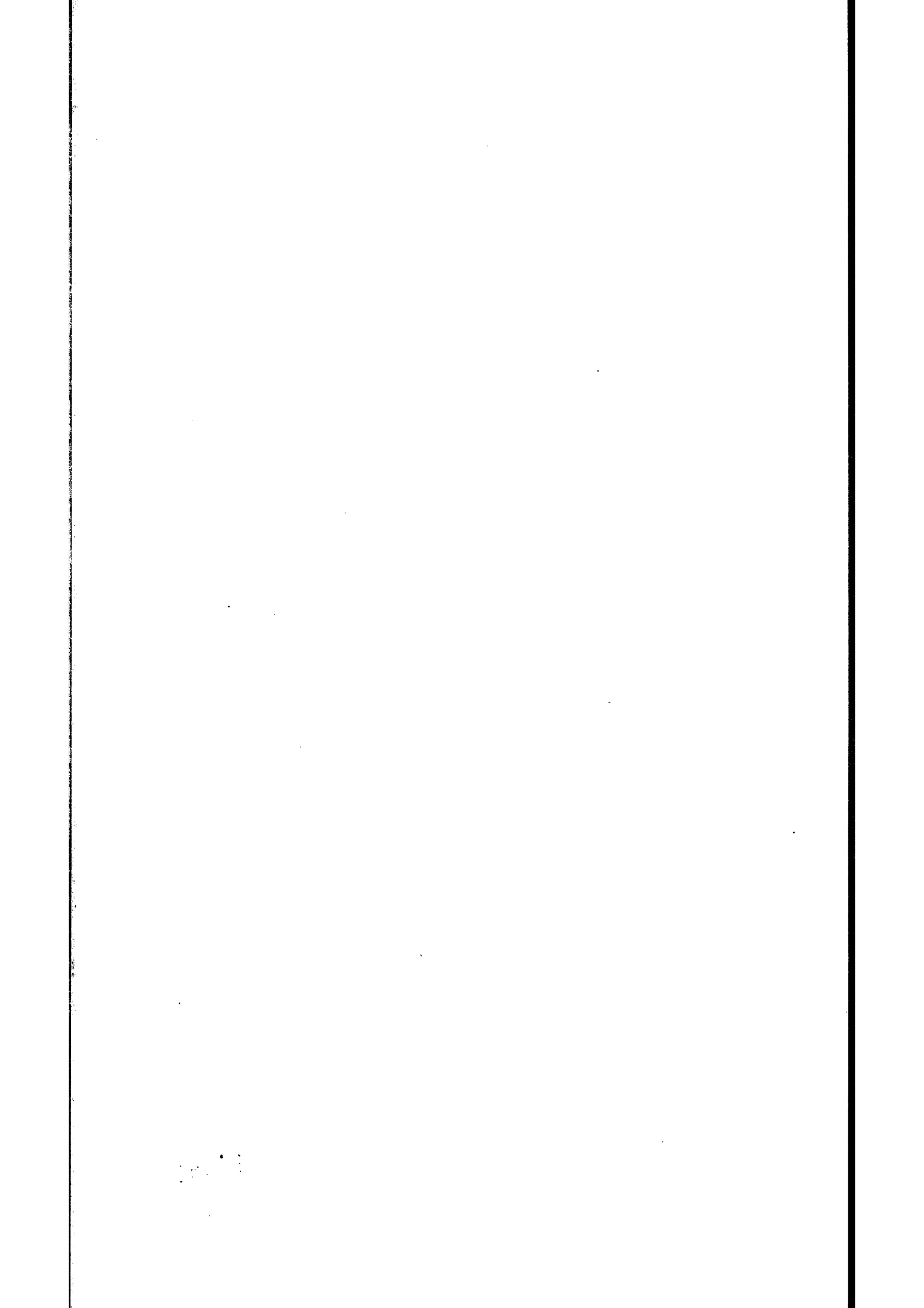
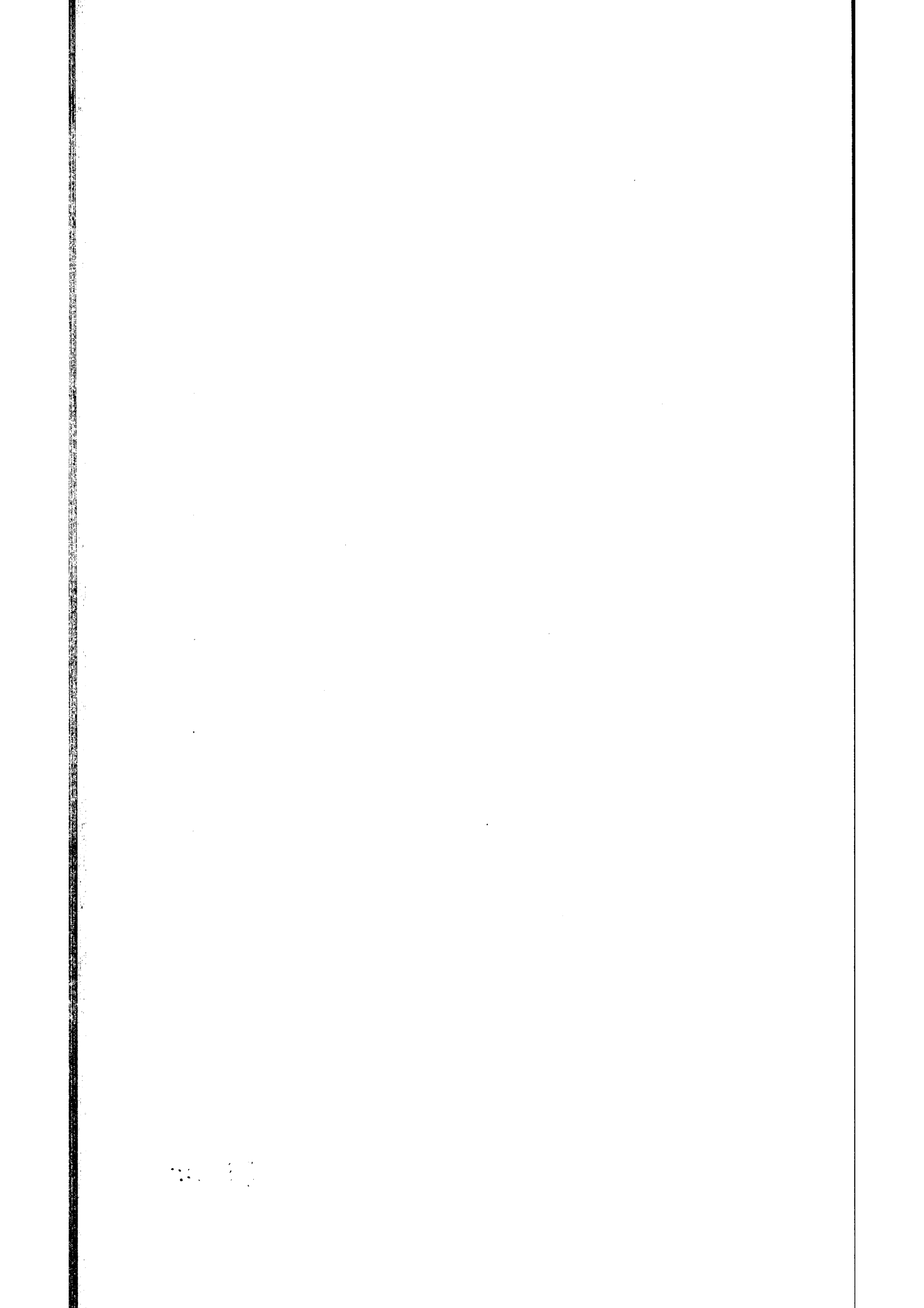




PLATE XXVI.—STEAM SAWMILL.

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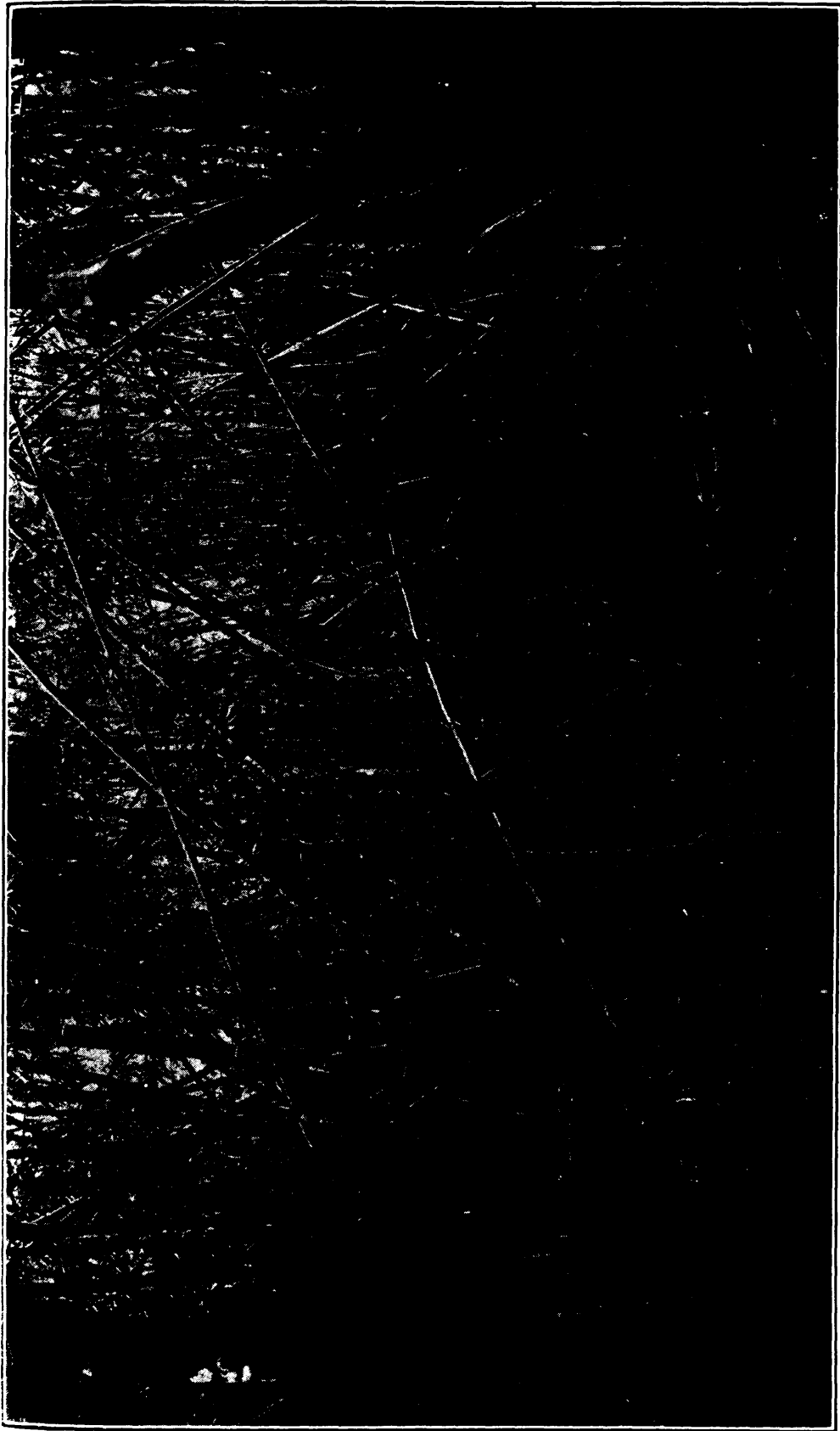
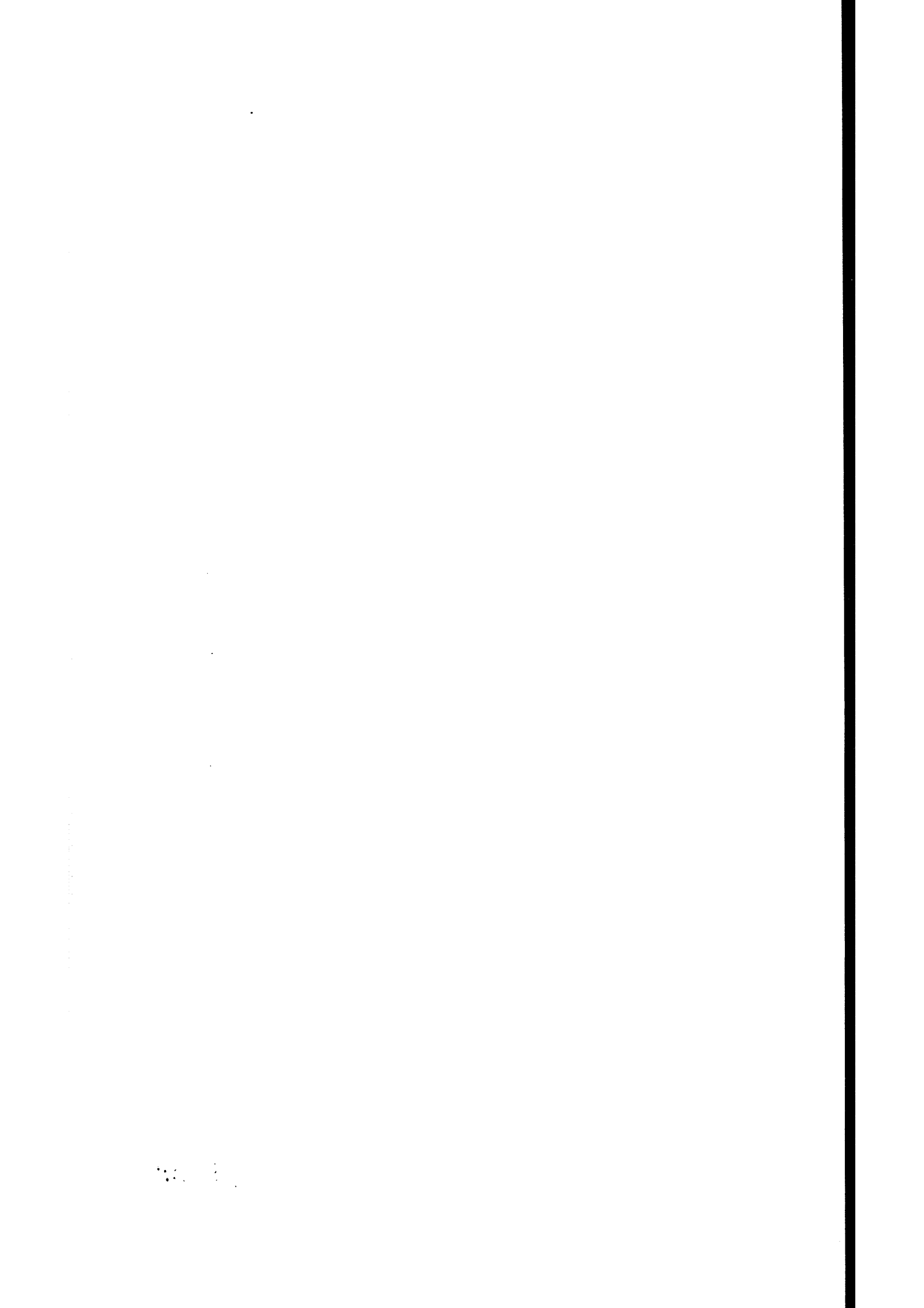


PLATE XXVIII.—A BAMBOO FOREST.



APPENDIXES.

APPENDIX I.

MECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF THIRTY-FOUR PHILIPPINE WOODS.

Gardner¹ has published the mechanical tests of thirty-four Philippine woods. The results of this work are given in the following tables:

¹Gardner R.: I. Mechanical tests, properties, and uses of thirty-four Philippine woods. II. Philippine sawmills, lumber market, and prices. Bull. 4 (1907). Second edition revised.

TABLE I.—Cross-bending

Name.	Locality.	Moisture over 35 per cent.						
		Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Fiber stress at true elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Fiber stress at apparent elastic limit (pounds per square inch).*	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch.)
Lauan	Mindanao	Average	51.8	0.444	2,630	4,570	6,870	1,464
		Maximum	75	.485	5,340	5,840	7,950	1,820
		Minimum	35.5	.405	1,410	3,160	5,340	975
Do	Zambales	Average	63	.478	5,260	6,410	8,040	1,438
		Maximum	86.4	.529	7,450	7,880	9,770	1,740
		Minimum	41.6	.412	2,810	4,510	4,510	1,050
Almon	Occidental Negros.	Average	59.2	.464	5,400	6,380	8,260	1,377
		Maximum	70	.52	6,750	7,310	9,430	1,500
		Minimum	49	.378	3,800	4,360	5,980	1,120
Apitong	Mindanao	Average	53.9	.62	3,750	5,550	7,350	1,754
		Maximum	81	.715	6,330	8,720	10,550	2,580
		Minimum	36	.56	1,970	3,730	5,540	1,320
Do	Zambales	Average	55.8	.679	5,220	6,790	8,910	1,428
		Maximum	84.6	.721	7,030	8,430	10,470	1,740
		Minimum	48.8	.588	2,530	3,230	3,910	900
Do	Negros	Average	95.5	.564	5,960	7,060	9,470	1,565
		Maximum	107	.581	7,040	8,300	10,960	1,740
		Minimum	76.8	.55	4,920	6,050	8,040	1,370
Guijo	Ambos Camarines.	Average	43.7	.677	6,330	8,660	12,050	1,915
		Maximum	56	.735	8,150	10,200	13,820	2,240
		Minimum	37.2	.629	4,920	7,180	10,380	1,635
Do	Mindoro	Average	57.8	.696	6,420	8,780	11,350	1,825
		Maximum	89.8	.806	9,140	11,450	14,200	2,210
		Minimum	41	.596	2,110	4,570	6,210	1,190
Molave	Near Laguna de Bay.	Average	45.5	.772	4,870	8,380	10,610	1,503
		Maximum	62	.858	9,150	13,600	14,600	2,000
		Minimum	36.4	.69	1,410	4,360	5,200	895
Do	Ambos Camarines.	Average	54.4	.782	6,840	8,640	10,380	1,381
		Maximum	72.5	.825	9,850	11,950	14,380	3,090
		Minimum	43.8	.712	2,100	2,460	3,820	1,050
Yacal	do	Average	43.3	.823	7,270	10,160	13,070	2,079
		Maximum	54.2	.906	9,850	11,600	15,350	2,650
		Minimum	35.3	.76	4,920	7,750	10,260	1,680
Narra	Near Laguna de Bay.	Average	79	.563	3,000	6,300	8,390	1,509
		Maximum	93	.59	4,500	8,100	11,300	1,850
		Minimum	65	.535	2,110	4,500	5,300	1,130
Do	Cagayan	Average	51.8	.63	6,020	7,960	10,220	1,352
		Maximum	81.7	.77	7,730	10,830	13,500	1,630
		Minimum	35.5	.475	4,360	6,050	7,190	1,050
Tanguile	Unknown	Average	39.9	.536	5,180	6,780	9,160	1,576
		Maximum	45.4	.565	5,900	7,600	10,210	1,685
		Minimum	35.5	.51	4,640	5,760	7,030	1,380
Do	Zambales	Average	47.7	.457	4,010	4,980	6,380	1,241
		Maximum	80	.54	5,620	7,170	9,450	1,660
		Minimum	38.9	.405	2,110	2,110	3,040	950
Tanguile-balacbacan	Occidental Negros.	Average	58.1	.509	5,030	6,280	8,670	1,348
		Maximum	62.5	.53	5,900	6,900	9,330	1,530
		Minimum	53	.479	2,950	5,350	7,920	1,180
Sacat	Lamao Forest Reserve, Bataan.	Average	48.5	.561	3,340	5,030	6,960	1,584
		Maximum	54.4	.585	4,220	5,380	7,670	1,710
		Minimum	45.2	.54	2,110	4,120	4,840	1,340

* The apparent elastic limit was used in order to compare tests of native woods with similar tests of American woods. See table of tests, pp. 83, 84.

TABLE I.—Cross-bending strength

Name.	Locality.	Moisture over 35 per cent.												
		Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Fiber stress at true elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Fiber stress at apparent elastic limit (pounds per square inch). ^a	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch).						
Sacat	Tarlac	{ Average	42	55.2	0.60	5,800	7,050	9,300	1,569					
		{ Maximum		82.6						.657	7,740	9,000	12,450	1,920
		{ Minimum		35.3						.478	2,250	2,810	3,120	920
Ipil	{ Ambos Camarines.	{ Average	19	52.7	.79	4,360	6,690	7,960	1,295					
		{ Maximum		76.1						.872	5,620	9,420	11,680	1,680
		{ Minimum		36.1						.68	2,670	5,620	5,620	1,000
Do	Mindoro	{ Average	44	63.1	.67	5,450	7,430	9,410	1,226					
		{ Maximum		106						.77	9,150	10,820	13,640	1,840
		{ Minimum		35.6						.56	1,480	2,050	2,050	550
Do	Palawan	{ Average	41	52.2	.807	9,170	11,210	13,520	1,953					
		{ Maximum		60.1						.867	12,220	13,750	17,000	2,210
		{ Minimum		46.6						.75	2,110	2,810	6,330	1,420
Dungon	{ Ambos Camarines.	{ Average	6	42.2	.824	5,660	7,400	11,770	1,680					
		{ Maximum		66.4						.895	7,880	9,570	14,980	2,080
		{ Minimum		35.2						.723	1,410	2,540	4,370	1,050
Do	Masbate	{ Average	3	36.3	.827	4,730	6,420	10,250	1,598					
		{ Maximum		37.2						.845	4,920	7,030	11,400	1,790
		{ Minimum		35.5						.816	4,360	5,620	8,640	1,470
Do. ^b	Mindanao	{ Average	21	49.4	.668	4,520	5,740	7,870	1,317					
		{ Maximum		81.6						.707	5,900	6,890	9,520	1,690
		{ Minimum		35.5						.636	2,810	4,150	5,510	920
Malasantol	Unknown	{ Average	21	66.2	.633	4,500	6,480	8,690	1,518					
		{ Maximum		84.5						.689	6,330	7,380	10,040	1,670
		{ Minimum		35.4						.608	2,810	5,280	5,870	1,420
Supa	do	{ Average	5	37.3	.673	6,410	8,180	10,050	1,435					
		{ Maximum		40.8						.692	8,440	8,870	11,450	1,530
		{ Minimum		35.6						.61	4,920	7,180	8,630	1,370
Do	Tayabas	{ Average	12	38.7	.755	4,890	7,170	8,700	1,415					
		{ Maximum		46.7						.843	6,720	8,920	10,500	1,650
		{ Minimum		35.1						.70	2,810	4,920	6,490	1,160
Balacat	{ Lamo Forest Reserve, Bataan.	{ Average	9	56.1	.517	5,120	6,280	8,540	1,298					
		{ Maximum		86						.57	6,190	6,750	9,200	1,450
		{ Minimum		45.7						.478	4,220	5,780	7,730	1,105
Do	Tarlac	{ Average	21	45.4	.56	5,210	6,200	7,780	1,221					
		{ Maximum		59.8						.62	6,330	7,390	9,370	1,420
		{ Minimum		36.5						.515	3,520	3,940	4,790	870
Macaasim	Unknown	{ Average	35	68.4	.695	4,370	6,120	8,660	1,416					
		{ Maximum		87.9						.734	8,440	8,790	10,880	1,750
		{ Minimum		36.3						.667	1,546	3,550	5,180	1,070
Calantas	Albay	{ Average	15	75.4	.357	3,000	4,240	5,650	961					
		{ Maximum		94						.379	3,949	4,920	6,600	1,185
		{ Minimum		61						.336	1,970	3,100	4,400	738
Do	Mindoro	{ Average	10	57.3	.511	3,560	4,900	6,250	940					
		{ Maximum		67						.54	5,620	6,180	7,950	1,160
		{ Minimum		38						.492	2,110	3,020	3,060	580
Tindalo	Unknown	{ Average	6	40.4	.747	8,090	10,770	15,000	2,225					
		{ Maximum		44.6						.77	9,140	11,940	16,980	2,340
		{ Minimum		35.8						.734	6,330	8,430	12,300	2,050
Do	{ Ambos Camarines.	{ Average	12	44.7	.808	7,070	9,005	11,330	1,588					
		{ Maximum		55						.86	10,400	12,400	14,200	1,750
		{ Minimum		37.7						.757	5,350	5,350	8,600	1,130

^a The apparent elastic limit was used in order to compare tests of native woods with similar tests of American woods. See table of tests, pp. 83, 84.

^b This is not the wood commonly known as dungon, but is often sold under that name.

of Philippine timber—Continued.

Moisture 20 to 35 per cent.							Moisture under 20 per cent.							Total number of tests.	Specific gravity of dry wood, all tests.
Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Fiber stress at true elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Fiber stress at apparent elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch).	Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Fiber stress at true elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Fiber stress at apparent elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch).		
10	24.2	.606	5,930	7,290	9,050	1,637	16	12.8	.664	8,350	9,610	11,440	1,886	68	.616
	35	.677	7,600	9,140	12,470	1,900		19.3	.70	10,540	12,230	15,600	2,080		.70
	20.2	.485	2,110	2,390	4,220	1,160		4.2	.622	4,220	4,500	4,920	1,710		.478
14	25.8	.783	5,580	6,640	7,900	1,470	8	18.1	.816	6,000	6,440	6,980	1,388	41	.792
	34.6	.83	7,730	9,420	12,600	1,730		19.6	.99	7,580	7,740	9,040	1,630		.99
	21	.685	3,520	5,070	5,620	1,260		16	.713	4,780	4,780	4,780	1,180		.68
2	34.5	.743	7,530	9,520	13,040	1,750	}							46	.673
	34.5	.77	7,740	9,700	13,520	1,840									.77
	34.4	.717	7,320	9,350	12,560	1,660									.56
40	26.4	.878	6,870	8,940	13,510	1,947	26	11.6	.845	10,160	13,460	17,110	2,209	72	.857
	33.9	.924	9,850	11,400	16,900	2,260		17.6	.985	14,760	18,300	22,700	2,500		.985
	20	.788	3,800	5,910	7,900	1,240		6.5	.796	5,770	7,180	9,770	1,500		.723
21	30.1	.854	4,960	6,910	10,600	1,442	}							24	.85
	34.5	.89	6,330	8,440	13,150	1,900									.89
	26.3	.822	3,520	4,220	7,260	1,050									.816
2	30.7	.685	5,060	6,540	9,070	1,525	}							23	.669
	31.9	.69	5,200	7,040	9,200	1,530									.707
	29.5	.68	4,920	6,050	8,940	1,520									.636
2	26.3	.663	5,840	7,180	10,310	1,595	5	12.1	.694	5,760	7,630	10,880	1,754	23	.646
	27.1	.68	6,330	7,600	10,550	1,610		18.2	.712	7,730	9,000	13,540	2,290		.712
	25.6	.646	5,350	6,760	10,080	1,580		5.3	.66	3,520	4,220	4,800	1,320		.608
23	29.3	.711	7,360	10,070	12,390	1,907	18	14.5	.722	10,060	11,670	13,100	1,863	46	.711
	34.4	.835	11,250	12,660	16,450	2,870		19.7	.808	15,500	15,800	16,850	2,280		.835
	20	.644	4,220	7,450	9,140	1,370		10.2	.625	7,040	7,730	7,810	1,475		.61
49	30.1	.827	5,280	7,520	9,050	1,510	}							61	.813
	34	.955	9,250	11,010	13,220	1,930									.955
	26.6	.712	1,680	2,410	3,230	750									.70
7	26.6	.579	5,710	6,060	7,010	1,204	32	10.4	.589	6,050	7,600	8,270	1,271	60	.578
	30	.602	6,330	8,090	10,000	1,310		18.7	.66	8,440	11,250	11,720	1,520		.66
	24.1	.561	3,800	4,220	4,690	1,110		2.6	.54	4,220	4,670	4,670	1,080		.515
8	26.7	.77	5,200	8,130	10,560	1,778	4	15.7	.79	6,260	9,650	11,010	1,825	47	.717
	30.4	.81	5,910	10,400	13,130	1,950		19.1	.82	8,450	11,980	13,240	2,030		.82
	23	.734	3,870	6,330	8,940	1,630		12.3	.76	3,240	6,690	7,750	1,530		.667
4							4	11.1	.363	5,300	7,260	8,980	1,255	19	.358
								14.6	.87	6,320	8,160	9,300	1,340		.379
								8.6	.355	4,220	6,320	8,670	1,160		.336
8	28.9	.547	3,460	4,500	5,210	801	}							18	.527
	34.5	.583	4,920	6,330	7,200	1,050									.583
	28.7	.505	1,410	1,410	1,610	580									.492
4	28.9	.787	9,496	12,750	16,570	2,182	}							10	.768
	35.5	.864	11,250	14,340	17,650	2,230									.864
	23.3	.756	8,440	11,380	15,100	2,160									.734
16	26.6	.802	5,800	7,470	8,680	1,445	1	19.5	.808	7,180	9,140	11,200	1,570	29	.805
	33.4	.866	9,710	11,250	12,830	1,580		19.5	.808	7,180	9,140	11,200	1,570		.866
	20.6	.72	2,890	2,890	3,030	1,180		19.5	.808	7,180	9,140	11,200	1,570		.72

TABLE I.—Cross-bending strength

Name.	Locality.	Number of tests.	Moisture over 35 per cent.						
			Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Fiber stress at true elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Fiber stress at apparent elastic limit (pounds per square inch).*	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch).	
Tindalo	Masbate	10	Average	59	0.77	5,290	7,690	11,200	1,536
			Maximum	71.8	.813	7,460	9,480	13,240	1,710
			Minimum	50.7	.70	2,950	4,500	8,420	1,160
Amuguis	Mindoro	31	Average	46.1	.692	4,490	6,800	9,780	1,697
			Maximum	61.1	.76	9,110	9,300	12,670	2,160
			Minimum	35.7	.621	1,548	3,520	5,630	1,160
Do	Palawan	8	Average	53.9	.675	6,730	8,020	11,040	1,735
			Maximum	64.1	.753	8,000	8,850	11,680	1,840
			Minimum	49.5	.613	6,320	6,880	9,620	1,530
Acle	Tarlac	41	Average	92.5	.632	3,920	6,000	7,270	1,069
			Maximum	103	.707	5,280	7,730	8,920	1,395
			Minimum	77	.598	2,460	4,780	5,250	895
Do	Zambales	6	Average	96.8	.579	5,900	7,010	9,080	1,213
			Maximum	111	.604	7,030	8,720	11,560	1,360
			Minimum	83.6	.553	4,080	4,570	5,810	1,080
Betis	Tayabas	7	Average	38.1	.849	5,780	8,460	11,910	1,768
			Maximum	42.5	.882	7,380	10,130	13,680	2,055
			Minimum	35.1	.82	3,160	6,330	10,010	1,293
Do	Ambos Camarines.	30	Average	61.6	.725	3,670	5,620	7,450	2,035
			Maximum	100	.798	5,240	7,750	9,340	2,400
			Minimum	45	.615	2,090	2,830	3,660	1,050
Bansalaguin	Unknown	18	Average	46.2	.841	6,820	9,420	11,740	1,702
			Maximum	57.8	.883	8,440	10,550	14,150	2,050
			Minimum	40	.784	3,800	7,310	9,510	1,480
Palo Maria	Zambales	24	Average	56	.623	5,840	7,040	8,930	1,461
			Maximum	105	.708	8,790	9,500	12,450	1,680
			Minimum	36.6	.488	2,950	4,080	5,500	810
Batitinan	Unknown	10	Average	54.4	.777	4,540	6,350	9,320	1,427
			Maximum	61.2	.795	5,620	7,600	10,600	1,630
			Minimum	49.1	.76	2,540	4,080	5,900	1,200
Aranga	Ambos Camarines.								
Banuyo	Masbate	16	Average	82	.522	2,900	4,170	5,140	881
			Maximum	115	.572	5,070	6,880	7,390	1,120
			Minimum	47.7	.455	1,400	2,860	4,080	575
Red Lauan	Occidental Negros.	15	Average	75.8	.406	4,040	4,690	7,100	1,201
			Maximum	84	.43	4,920	5,620	7,900	1,370
			Minimum	65	.371	2,110	2,250	2,610	870
Mayapis	Laguna	20	Average	67.7	.399	4,070	5,320	6,760	1,133
			Maximum	91	.456	4,920	6,330	8,300	1,420
			Minimum	48	.343	3,510	3,510	3,510	870
Malugay	Mindoro	18	Average	57.2	.635	4,780	6,930	10,280	1,627
			Maximum	72	.713	6,680	8,570	12,700	1,920
			Minimum	48.2	.553	2,810	5,200	6,900	1,290
Sasalit	Zambales								
Liusin	Bataan	14	Average	60.9	.71	5,430	8,120	11,360	1,896
			Maximum	63	.73	7,720	10,200	14,150	2,180
			Minimum	57.6	.70	2,390	5,900	7,160	1,340

* The apparent elastic limit was used in order to compare tests of native woods with similar tests of American woods. See table of tests, pp. 83, 84.

of Philippine timber—Continued.

Moisture 20 to 35 per cent.							Moisture under 20 per cent.							Total number of tests.	Specific gravity of dry wood, all tests.
Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Fiber stress at true elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Fiber stress at apparent elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch).	Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Fiber stress at true elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Fiber stress at apparent elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch).		
3	22.5	.785	6,370	8,160	9,050	1,273	5	18.9	.766	5,990	8,220	8,920	1,180		
	24.6	.788	7,020	8,300	10,000	1,320		19.9	.808	7,450	9,770	11,020	1,370		
	20.3	.784	5,340	8,080	8,080	1,180		17.7	.68	4,920	7,170	7,680	950		
1	33.6	.75	5,620	8,590	12,050	1,760	32							.694	
	33.6	.75	5,620	8,590	12,050	1,760								.76	
	33.6	.75	5,620	8,590	12,050	1,760								.621	
5	27.9	.635	5,630	6,830	7,550	1,138	1	15.7	.684	3,660	4,920	5,400	880		
	34.5	.67	6,330	8,870	9,750	1,210		15.7	.684	3,660	4,920	5,400	880		
	21	.607	4,640	5,340	5,980	1,060		15.7	.684	3,660	4,920	5,400	880		
13	31.8	.86	4,930	8,090	10,850	1,593	20							.579	
	34.4	.886	7,380	10,550	14,060	1,950								.604	
	27.1	.82	2,110	5,380	7,030	1,080								.553	
1	34	.806	4,190	5,660	7,580	2,020	31							.728	
	34	.806	4,190	5,660	7,580	2,020								.806	
	34	.806	4,190	5,660	7,580	2,020								.615	
1	33.3	.88	6,750	7,030	7,740	1,740	6	15.5	.87	8,670	11,870	14,480	2,311		
	33.3	.88	6,750	7,030	7,740	1,740		17	.905	10,250	13,350	18,200	2,530		
	33.3	.88	6,750	7,030	7,740	1,740		14.3	.85	6,330	8,780	12,400	2,100		
4							14	5	.836	6,850	8,400	9,630	1,655		
								6.2	.85	8,860	11,100	12,300	1,910		
								4.1	.821	4,920	5,770	7,030	1,450		
19	31.4	.826	7,970	11,070	13,440	2,061	26	5.6	.882	12,530	16,230	17,920	2,419		
	34.8	.86	10,200	12,660	16,900	2,350		7.5	.942	16,880	21,350	24,450	2,800		
	29.3	.796	4,790	8,860	10,300	1,740		2.9	.832	7,740	9,850	11,630	2,000		
1	29.3	.52	4,220	5,340	5,940	1,105	3	17	.538	4,030	5,530	6,000	1,070		
	29.3	.52	4,220	5,340	5,940	1,105		18.9	.546	5,200	6,040	6,270	1,105		
	29.3	.52	4,220	5,340	5,940	1,105		13.4	.523	2,810	5,200	5,800	1,000		
7	22.4	.656	5,790	7,530	10,530	1,732	15	12	.686	7,730	11,220	13,980	1,788		
	26.4	.693	6,900	8,080	11,740	2,150		19.8	.75	9,850	14,900	19,830	2,180		
	21	.625	3,800	6,900	8,850	1,530		7.5	.62	4,090	6,810	10,040	1,480		
21	26.4	.901	9,990	11,420	14,050	2,120	18	12.4	.839	8,010	10,260	11,310	1,837		
	30.2	.995	13,350	15,480	18,720	2,480		19.2	.87	12,650	13,980	15,820	2,270		
	22	.742	7,030	7,460	8,770	1,240		9	.807	4,080	4,220	5,310	1,120		
14							14							.71	
														.78	
														.70	

TABLE I.—Cross-bending strength

Name.	Locality.	Moisture over 35 per cent.												
		Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Fiber stress at true elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Fiber stress at apparent elastic limit (pounds per square inch).*	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch).						
Lumbayao-----	Basilan Is- land, Moro Province.	Average ----	} 2 {	37.1	0.545	5,620	6,460	7,790	1,160					
		Maximum ----		38.7						.56	6,740	6,890	8,060	1,210
		Minimum ----		35.5						.53	4,500	6,040	7,520	1,110
Agoho-----	Tarlac-----	Average ----	} 28 {	45.9	.704	8,400	9,730	11,920	1,696					
		Maximum ----		57.4						.762	11,820	13,220	15,950	2,050
		Minimum ----		35.4						.62	1,970	2,670	3,160	870
Do-----	do-----	Average ----	} -----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----					
Do-----	do-----	Maximum ----		-----										
Do-----	do-----	Minimum ----		-----										
Mangachapuy-----	Albay-----	Average ----	} 5 {	51.3	.59	6,070	7,430	8,600	1,528					
		Maximum ----		69						.622	7,880	8,290	10,320	1,710
		Minimum ----		36.2						.55	3,240	5,620	7,020	1,260
Do-----	do-----	Average ----	} -----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----					
Do-----	do-----	Maximum ----		-----										
Do-----	do-----	Minimum ----		-----										
Dao-----	Mindoro-----	Average ----	} -----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----					
Dao-----	Mindoro-----	Maximum ----		-----										
Dao-----	Mindoro-----	Minimum ----		-----										
Cupang-----	Palawan-----	Average ----	} 14 {	96.2	.285	2,460	3,090	3,580	779					
		Maximum ----		129						.368	3,380	3,940	4,530	1,100
		Minimum ----		69						.259	1,410	2,250	2,550	160

* The apparent elastic limit was used in order to compare tests of native woods with similar tests of American woods. See table of tests, pp. 83, 84.

of Philippine timber—Continued.

Moisture 20 to 35 per cent.							Moisture under 20 per cent.							Total number of tests.	Specific gravity of dry wood, all tests.
Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Fiber stress at true elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Fiber stress at apparent elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch).	Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Fiber stress at true elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Fiber stress at apparent elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch).		
30	26.1	0.552	6,550	7,620	10,090	1,416	22	12.7	0.584	7,800	9,110	11,390	1,570		
	33.9	.603	8,870	10,000	12,180	1,630		19.5	.671	10,140	12,380	14,920	1,870		
	20.5	.483	3,510	4,150	4,430	950		5.3	.53	4,220	4,220	7,810	1,840		
15	26	.854	6,620	8,240	11,730	1,775	4	17.6	.942	8,620	11,290	14,660	1,970		
	34.2	.905	9,000	10,980	16,100	2,130		19.7	.954	9,150	12,670	15,420	2,160		
	20	.80	4,080	5,630	8,370	1,420		16	.93	7,740	10,280	14,250	1,630		
14	30.8	.725	9,030	10,780	14,190	1,715	5								
	34.8	.75	10,400	11,960	16,450	2,030									
	23.5	.708	3,240	4,220	5,830	920									
2	32.5	.631	6,390	7,230	8,550	1,740	14								
	34	.633	6,600	8,150	9,440	1,740									
	31	.63	6,190	6,320	7,660	1,740									
														14	.285 .368 .259
														54	0.565 .671 .483
														28	.704 .762 .62
														15	.854 .905 .80
														4	.942 .954 .93
														5	.59 .622 .55
														14	.725 .75 .708
														2	.631 .633 .63

TABLE II.—*Compressive strength along*

Name.	Locality.	Moisture over 35 per cent.			
		Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).
Lauan	Mindanao	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 52.4 73 38.4 }	{ 0.444 .485 .408 }	{ 3,840 5,490 3,262 }
Do	Zambales	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 59.5 76 35.2 }	{ .478 .529 .412 }	{ 4,180 4,980 3,220 }
Almon	Occidental Negros	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 57.6 71.6 46.1 }	{ .464 .52 .378 }	{ 4,500 5,170 3,140 }
Apitong	Mindanao	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 53 71.8 36 }	{ .617 .715 .56 }	{ 4,350 5,740 3,350 }
Do	Zambales	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 53.4 93 46.4 }	{ .679 .721 .588 }	{ 5,010 5,710 2,810 }
Do	Occidental Negros	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 93.2 102 83 }	{ .564 .581 .55 }	{ 4,750 5,400 3,550 }
Guijo	Ambos Camarines	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 41.8 59.6 36 }	{ .675 .73 .629 }	{ 6,070 6,610 5,180 }
Do	Mindoro	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 55.7 79.6 40.9 }	{ .697 .806 .596 }	{ 6,070 7,300 3,660 }
Molave	Near Laguna de Bay	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 46.4 66 37 }	{ .772 .85 .69 }	{ 6,680 8,470 4,770 }
Do	Ambos Camarines	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 50.5 61.5 40.3 }	{ .784 .822 .712 }	{ 6,530 8,300 3,900 }
Yacal	do	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 46.7 75 38.6 }	{ .828 .85 .77 }	{ 7,490 8,400 6,200 }
Narra	Near Laguna de Bay	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 77.7 93 66.5 }	{ .563 .69 .535 }	{ 5,780 6,900 4,180 }
Do	Cagayan	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 55.9 75.5 35.5 }	{ .619 .68 .482 }	{ 5,300 6,530 3,770 }
Tanguile	Unknown	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 40.5 47.4 35.2 }	{ .53 .565 .47 }	{ 4,750 5,270 3,650 }
Do	Zambales	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 44.1 58.6 35.6 }	{ .46 .54 .405 }	{ 3,980 4,780 3,050 }
Tanguile-balaabacan	Occidental Negros	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 56.4 59.5 49.3 }	{ .509 .53 .479 }	{ 4,620 4,960 3,910 }
Sacat	Bataan	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 49.8 53.8 46.2 }	{ .561 .585 .54 }	{ 4,530 4,740 4,280 }
Do	Tarlac	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 53.1 89.7 35.2 }	{ .60 .657 .478 }	{ 5,260 9,150 3,140 }
Ipil	Ambos Camarines	{ Average Maximum Minimum }	{ 52.9 78.7 43.5 }	{ .796 .872 .714 }	{ 5,650 6,390 4,980 }

the grain of Philippine timber.

Moisture 20 to 35 per cent.				Moisture under 20 per cent.				Total number of tests.	Specific gravity of dry wood, all tests.
Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).	Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).		
40	30.5	0.44	4,040	32	12.4	0.458	6,180	139	0.448
	35	.47	4,550		19.4	.488	9,270		.488
	25	.40	3,470		3.3	.404	4,730		.40
								70	.470
									.529
									.412
								34	.464
									.52
									.378
24	27.2	.711	5,740	28	14.4	.688	7,250	150	.645
	34	.825	6,770		19.4	.735	9,400		.825
	20	.664	4,740		7.8	.618	5,270		.56
				2	15.2	.93	4,190	62	.687
					15.2	.93	4,220		.93
					15.2	.93	4,160		.588
								20	.564
									.581
									.55
24	28.8	.719	6,160	36	14.6	.748	7,940	110	.708
	35	.76	7,220		19.8	.82	11,400		.82
	23.2	.673	4,900		7.5	.68	3,980		.629
								98	.697
									.806
									.596
20	29.7	.794	7,080	17	12.7	.818	8,330	115	.783
	34.6	.858	8,800		18.8	.88	10,300		.88
	20.2	.725	6,100		5.2	.728	6,800		.69
								50	.784
									.822
									.712
94	29.5	.832	8,340	29	13.4	.849	9,220	157	.843
	35	.94	9,510		18.1	.90	11,280		.94
	21.8	.76	6,250		10.7	.814	7,580		.76
								20	.563
									.59
									.535
18	28.5	.534	5,290	24	7.5	.484	6,740	60	.54
	34.2	.77	7,060		9.7	.531	8,600		.77
	21.1	.438	4,160		4.8	.384	4,540		.384
22	30.6	.485	5,030	32	13.7	.424	5,230	72	.469
	35	.52	5,450		19.9	.58	6,521		.58
	27.2	.355	3,752		8.8	.376	3,825		.355
				38	9.6	.535	6,900	92	.491
					19.2	.606	8,670		.606
					1.7	.478	4,150		.405
								28	.509
									.53
									.479
								14	.561
									.585
									.54
22	26.6	.592	5,500	38	12.4	.661	7,140	134	.616
	34.8	.677	5,910		19.7	.70	9,020		.70
	20	.485	3,990		4.2	.601	4,970		.478
30	25.9	.779	6,250	16	17.7	.807	6,570	82	.792
	31.7	.855	7,600		19.9	.99	8,020		.99
	21.6	.68	4,280		14.8	.713	3,650		.68

TABLE II.—Compressive strength along the

Name.	Locality.	Moisture over 85 per cent.			
		Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).
Ipil	Mindoro	{ Average	60.4	0.666	5,450
		{ Maximum	89	.75	7,150
		{ Minimum	37.5	.56	2,390
Do	Palawan	{ Average	51.4	.807	8,090
		{ Maximum	61.2	.867	9,470
		{ Minimum	44.8	.75	5,350
Dungon	Ambos Camarines	{ Average	44.1	.803	6,160
		{ Maximum	58	.846	6,520
		{ Minimum	37.1	.723	5,900
Do	Masbate	{ Average	36.9	.825	4,540
		{ Maximum	37.5	.84	5,030
		{ Minimum	36.2	.816	3,830
Do ^a	Mindanao	{ Average	50.7	.669	4,000
		{ Maximum	82	.707	4,740
		{ Minimum	35.5	.636	3,080
Malasantol	Unknown	{ Average	64.4	.631	4,660
		{ Maximum	86	.68	5,410
		{ Minimum	37.4	.608	3,390
Supa	do	{ Average	36.1	.677	6,480
		{ Maximum	36.3	.692	7,030
		{ Minimum	36	.644	5,750
Do	Tayabas	{ Average	37.2	.746	5,090
		{ Maximum	41.6	.855	6,090
		{ Minimum	35.1	.70	3,770
Balacat	{ Lamao Forest Re-serve, Bataan.	{ Average	52.6	.517	4,020
		{ Maximum	61.6	.57	4,510
		{ Minimum	39.5	.478	3,540
Do	Tarlac	{ Average	44.7	.56	4,150
		{ Maximum	63	.62	4,710
		{ Minimum	36.8	.515	2,920
Macaasim	Unknown	{ Average	63.9	.703	4,350
		{ Maximum	81.5	.81	6,260
		{ Minimum	35.2	.667	2,610
Calantas	Albay	{ Average	77.3	.357	2,960
		{ Maximum	89.6	.379	3,450
		{ Minimum	62.9	.336	2,330
Do	Mindoro	{ Average	57.3	.51	3,810
		{ Maximum	64.7	.54	4,960
		{ Minimum	46	.492	3,230
Tindalo	Unknown	{ Average	41.9	.747	7,400
		{ Maximum	44.8	.77	9,150
		{ Minimum	38.3	.734	5,620
Do	Ambos Camarines	{ Average	43.9	.80	7,140
		{ Maximum	58.1	.86	8,960
		{ Minimum	37	.72	5,850
Do	Masbate	{ Average	56.7	.77	5,930
		{ Maximum	70.1	.813	7,030
		{ Minimum	50.7	.70	4,270
Amuguis	Mindoro	{ Average	45.2	.692	5,210
		{ Maximum	57.8	.76	6,490
		{ Minimum	36	.621	2,660
Do	Palawan	{ Average	54.1	.675	5,640
		{ Maximum	61.6	.753	6,150
		{ Minimum	48.1	.613	4,660
Acle	Tarlac	{ Average	84.5	.631	4,550
		{ Maximum	101	.707	5,440
		{ Minimum	39.2	.598	3,970

^a This is not the wood commonly known as dungon, but is often sold under that name.

grain of Philippine timber—Continued.

Moisture 20 to 35 per cent.				Moisture under 20 per cent.				Total number of tests.	Specific gravity of dry wood, all tests.
Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).	Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).		
4	32.5	0.77	6,030	2	19.8	0.77	6,540	90	0.673
	33.4	.77	6,470		19.8	.77	6,570		.77
	31.5	.77	5,530		19.8	.77	6,510		.56

54	25.2	.88	6,440	48	10.7	.839	9,420	108	.807
	34	.985	7,970		16.4	.882	11,970		.867
	20	.788	4,050		8	.796	6,410		.75
40	29.5	.854	4,690	-----				46	.858
	34.8	.89	6,670	-----					.985
	25.1	.822	3,460	-----					.723
6	32.6	.67	4,600	-----				44	.85
	35	.69	5,200	-----					.89
	29	.657	4,090	-----					.816
4	30.7	.684	4,840	10	13.5	.694	6,580	54	.669
	34.3	.689	5,040		17.1	.712	8,040		.712
	27.2	.679	4,660		10	.66	5,140		.608
42	30.2	.711	7,100	42	14.5	.713	8,700	92	.711
	33.4	.835	8,510		19.5	.808	10,340		.895
	26	.61	5,790		8.3	.625	7,046		.61
112	28.3	.819	5,980	-----				122	.818
	34.7	.955	7,700	-----					.955
	22.5	.712	4,000	-----					.70

12	24.9	.588	4,650	66	9.8	.587	5,530	118	.517
	30.7	.66	5,320		19.2	.638	7,590		.57
	20	.561	3,770		2.2	.54	4,020		.478
10	26.2	.776	5,880	6	17.1	.793	6,860	92	.578
	30.5	.78	6,600		18	.82	7,650		.66
	20	.774	4,960		15.7	.76	5,980		.515
-	-----			8	9.7	.363	4,420	36	.717
	-----				12.8	.37	4,830		.82
	-----				7.1	.355	3,230		.667
12	26.3	.537	3,820	6	12.5	.557	3,520	36	.358
	32.2	.533	4,320		19.1	.573	4,360		.379
	23.8	.505	3,360		9.1	.531	2,890		.336
8	28.8	.787	8,770	-----				20	.763
	32.4	.864	9,680	-----					.864
	23.6	.756	6,890	-----					.734
26	27.4	.806	7,310	6	16.9	.819	7,710	55	.805
	32.7	.866	9,040		17.6	.83	8,650		.866
	22.5	.742	3,530		15.7	.802	7,040		.72
8	22	.753	6,340	8	18.6	.794	6,780	36	.772
	23	.788	7,350		19.4	.808	7,660		.813
	20.1	.68	5,150		16.9	.784	5,950		.68
6	32.9	.707	4,920	-----				60	.693
	34.8	.75	6,140	-----					.76
	30	.641	3,980	-----					.621

10	30.2	.647	5,050	-----				87	.675
	34	.684	5,820	-----					.753
	25	.607	4,400	-----					.613

10	30.2	.647	5,050	-----				87	.635
	34	.684	5,820	-----					.707
	25	.607	4,400	-----					.598

TABLE II.—Compressive strength along the

Name.	Locality.	Moisture over 35 per cent.			
		Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).
Acle	Zambales	Average	94.9	.579	5,330
		Maximum	106	.604	5,880
		Minimum	81	.553	4,900
Betis	Tayabas	Average	38.2	.854	6,540
		Maximum	42.7	.882	7,540
		Minimum	31.6	.82	5,640
Do	Ambos Camarines	Average	59.5	.725	4,330
		Maximum	79.3	.798	4,930
		Minimum	42.8	.615	3,380
Bansalaguin	Unknown	Average	43	.841	6,960
		Maximum	53.6	.83	8,140
		Minimum	35.1	.784	5,410
Palo maria	Zambales	Average	50.2	.618	4,770
		Maximum	103	.704	6,220
		Minimum	35.1	.488	3,150
Batitinan	Unknown	Average	54.9	.777	4,650
		Maximum	61.6	.795	5,180
		Minimum	48.5	.76	3,950
Aranga	Ambos Camarines	Average			
		Maximum			
		Minimum			
Banuyo	Masbate	Average	77.9	.527	3,290
		Maximum	110	.572	4,470
		Minimum	35.3	.46	2,550
Red lauan	Occidental Negros	Average	76.9	.406	3,850
		Maximum	92.3	.43	4,270
		Minimum	63	.371	3,040
Mayapis	Laguna	Average	63.5	.899	3,530
		Maximum	85.4	.456	4,080
		Minimum	44.1	.343	2,780
Malugay	Mindoro	Average	55.8	.635	5,120
		Maximum	70.8	.713	6,040
		Minimum	46.6	.553	3,960
Sasalit	Zambales	Average			
		Maximum			
		Minimum			
Liusin	Bataan	Average	60.9	.71	5,220
		Maximum	63	.73	5,640
		Minimum	57.6	.70	4,860
Lumbayao	Basilan Island, Moro Province.	Average			
		Maximum			
		Minimum			
Agoho	Tarlac	Average	44.2	.725	7,220
		Maximum	56.4	.762	8,760
		Minimum	35.3	.62	4,390
Do	do	Average			
		Maximum			
		Minimum			
Do	do	Average			
		Maximum			
		Minimum			
Mangachapuy	Albay	Average			
		Maximum			
		Minimum			
Dao	Mindoro	Average	46.2	.602	5,070
		Maximum	62.7	.633	5,710
		Minimum	35.4	.55	3,770
Cupang	Palawan	Average	93	.285	2,070
		Maximum	128	.368	2,380
		Minimum	59.8	.259	1,630

grain of Philippine timber—Continued.

Moisture 20 to 35 per cent.				Moisture under 20 per cent.				Total number of tests.	Specific gravity of dry wood, all tests.
Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).	Number of tests.	Moisture (per cent).	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).		
								12	.579 .604 .553
24	{ 31.5 34.8 28.3	{ .857 .886 .82	{ 6,410 7,330 5,000					38	{ .856 .886 .82
2	{ 84 34 34	{ .806 .806 .806	{ 4,410 4,540 4,290					62	{ .728 .806 .615
2	{ 32.8 32.8 32.8	{ .883 .883 .883	{ 7,140 7,310 6,980	12	{ 14.5 16.5 12.1	{ 0.87 .905 .85	{ 8,630 9,560 7,800	48	{ .85 .905 .784
2	{ 34.2 35 33.4	{ .674 .708 .64	{ 5,720 6,240 5,340					42	{ .623 .708 .488
				8	{ 5 5.6 4.4	{ .836 .85 .821	{ 9,290 10,640 7,190	26	{ .795 .85 .76
36	{ 31.2 34.5 27.7	{ .826 .86 .796	{ 8,020 8,730 6,840	52	{ 4.9 6.4 3.4	{ .882 .942 .832	{ 12,420 14,920 9,290	88	{ .859 .942 .796
4	{ 24.2 28 20.5	{ .50 .546 .455	{ 3,990 4,470 3,400	4	{ 15.5 17.8 13.3	{ .534 .545 .523	{ 4,150 4,470 3,530	38	{ .525 .672 .455
								28	{ .406 .43 .371
								40	{ .399 .456 .343
18	{ 22.1 35.9 20	{ .666 .71 .625	{ 5,740 7,270 5,160	26	{ 11.2 18.8 7.4	{ .683 .75 .62	{ 8,080 10,930 4,830	8	{ .658 .75 .658
42	{ 25.7 31.1 21.5	{ .89 .984 .742	{ 9,290 11,890 6,600	34	{ 11.3 15.8 8.7	{ .849 .995 .815	{ 9,100 11,180 6,400	76	{ .872 .995 .742
								8	{ .71 .73 .70
54	{ 25.2 31.5 20.1	{ .551 .603 .483	{ 5,480 6,390 4,520	52	{ 12.5 19.7 5.3	{ .58 .671 .53	{ 6,410 8,100 3,550	106	{ .565 .671 .483
								56	{ .725 .762 .62
36	{ 27 34.8 20.4	{ .858 .94 .78	{ 5,770 7,770 4,330					36	{ .858 .94 .78
				8	{ 18.3 19.6 17.6	{ .909 .954 .93	{ 7,370 8,580 5,010	8	{ .909 .954 .93
26	{ 29.6 33.1 24.9	{ .726 .75 .51	{ 7,730 8,280 6,950					26	{ .726 .75 .51
								14	{ .602 .633 .55
								26	{ .285 .368 .259

TABLE III.—*Shearing strength along the grain of Philippine timber.*

[Results averaged regardless of moisture content.]

Name.	Locality.	Number of tests.	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).	
Lauan	Mindanao	142	Average .446	557	Ipil
			Maximum .488	934	
			Minimum .40	326	
Do	Zambales	69	Average .478	525	Do
			Maximum .529	873	
			Minimum .412	292	
Almon	Occidental Negros	34	Average .464	506	Dungo
			Maximum .52	737	
			Minimum .378	324	
Apitong	Mindanao	150	Average .645	669	Do
			Maximum .825	1,203	
			Minimum .56	240	
Do	Zambales	62	Average .687	757	Do
			Maximum .93	1,217	
			Minimum .588	293	
Do	Occidental Negros	20	Average .564	733	Malas
			Maximum .581	997	
			Minimum .55	523	
Guijo	Ambos Camarines	110	Average .708	915	Supa
			Maximum .82	1,324	
			Minimum .629	366	
Do	Mindoro	98	Average .697	824	Do
			Maximum .806	1,500	
			Minimum .596	561	
Molave	Near Laguna de Bay	129	Average .784	914	Balac
			Maximum .88	1,362	
			Minimum .69	357	
Do	Ambos Camarines	51	Average .784	839	Do
			Maximum .825	1,323	
			Minimum .716	403	
Yacal	do	150	Average .843	849	Macau
			Maximum .94	1,665	
			Minimum .76	427	
Narra	Near Laguna de Bay	20	Average .563	673	Calan
			Maximum .59	844	
			Minimum .535	456	
Do	Cagayan	59	Average .54	660	Do
			Maximum .77	1,225	
			Minimum .384	291	
Tanguile	Unknown	70	Average 0.471	647	Tinda
			Maximum .58	926	
			Minimum .355	326	
Do	Zambales	86	Average .491	555	Do
			Maximum .606	1,068	
			Minimum .405	286	
Tanguile-balacbacan	Occidental Negros	26	Average .509	602	Do
			Maximum .53	873	
			Minimum .479	350	
Sacat	Lamao Forest Reserve, Bataan.	14	Average .561	776	Amug
			Maximum .585	1,055	
			Minimum .54	550	
Do	Tarlac	132	Average .616	850	Do
			Maximum .70	1,584	
			Minimum .478	466	
Ipil	Ambos Camarines	79	Average .793	904	Do
			Maximum .99	1,810	
			Minimum .68	458	

TABLE III.—*Shearing strength along the grain of Philippine timber*—Continued.

[Results averaged regardless of moisture content.]

Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).	Name.	Locality.	Number of tests.	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).	
557 934 328	Ipil	Mindoro	90	Average .673 Maximum .77 Minimum .56	948 1,445 410	
525 873 292	Do	Palawan		80	Average .807 Maximum .867 Minimum .75	753 1,226 525
508 737 324	Dungon	Ambos Camarines			98	Average .852 Maximum .985 Minimum .723
669 1,203 240	Do	Masbate	46			Average .85 Maximum .89 Minimum .816
757 1,212 238	Do. ^a	Mindanao		44		Average .669 Maximum .707 Minimum .636
733 997 528	Malasantol	Unknown			54	Average .646 Maximum .712 Minimum .608
915 1,324 366	Supa	do	86			Average .71 Maximum .835 Minimum .61
824 1,500 561	Do	Tayabas		118		Average .813 Maximum .955 Minimum .70
914 1,362 357	Balacat	Lamao Forest Reserve, Bataan.			16	Average .517 Maximum .57 Minimum .478
833 1,323 403	Do	Tarlac	117			Average .578 Maximum .66 Minimum .515
849 1,665 427	Macaasim	Unknown		92		Average .717 Maximum .82 Minimum .667
673 844 456	Calantas	Albay			34	Average .358 Maximum .379 Minimum .336
660 1,225 291	Do	Mindoro	35			Average .527 Maximum .583 Minimum .492
647 928 326	Tindalo	Unknown		20		Average .763 Maximum .864 Minimum .734
555 1,063 288	Do	Ambos Camarines			56	Average 0.805 Maximum .866 Minimum .72
602 873 380	Do	Masbate	36			Average .772 Maximum .813 Minimum .68
776 1,055 550	Amuguis	Mindoro		60		Average .692 Maximum .75 Minimum .621
850 1,584 468	Do	Palawan			14	Average .675 Maximum .753 Minimum .613

^a This is not the wood commonly known as dungon but is often sold under that name.

TABLE III.—*Shearing strength along the grain of Philippine timber*—Continued.

[Results averaged regardless of moisture content.]

Name.	Locality.	Number of tests.	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).	
Acle	Tarlac	36	Average	.63	686
			Maximum	.707	1,270
			Minimum	.598	420
Do.	Zambales	11	Average	.579	778
			Maximum	.604	1,190
			Minimum	.553	443
Betis	Tayabas	38	Average	.856	1,168
			Maximum	.886	1,555
			Minimum	.82	598
Do.	Ambos Camarines	61	Average	.728	819
			Maximum	.806	1,243
			Minimum	.615	474
Bansalaguin	Unknown	48	Average	.85	1,098
			Maximum	.905	1,865
			Minimum	.784	695
Palo maria	Zambales	46	Average	.623	856
			Maximum	.708	1,581
			Minimum	.488	523
Batitinan	Unknown	26	Average	.795	859
			Maximum	.85	2,195
			Minimum	.76	535
Aranga	Ambos Camarines	82	Average	.863	1,038
			Maximum	.942	2,324
			Minimum	.796	355
Banuyo	Masbate	38	Average	.525	596
			Maximum	.572	1,065
			Minimum	.455	287
Red lauan	Occidental Negros	28	Average	.406	502
			Maximum	.43	761
			Minimum	.371	332
Mayapis	Laguna	40	Average	.399	472
			Maximum	.456	790
			Minimum	.343	288
Malugay	Mindoro	78	Average	.658	980
			Maximum	.75	1,885
			Minimum	.553	464
Sasalit	Zambales	75	Average	.872	1,176
			Maximum	.995	1,938
			Minimum	.742	708
Llusin	Bataan	8	Average	.71	886
			Maximum	.73	1,388
			Minimum	.70	543
Lumbayao	Basilan Island, Moro Province.	104	Average	.565	827
			Maximum	.671	1,306
			Minimum	.483	353

TABLE

[From

Red

Longlea
Cuban p
hortlea
lobolly

Red

White p
Red pin
pruce pald cy
White c
Douglas
White oOvercup
Post oak
Cov oak
Red oakTexan o
Yellow c
Water o
Willow cpanish
hagbar.
Mockern
Water hiBitternu
Nutmeg
Pecan hi
Pignut hWhite el
Cedar el
White as
Green as
sweet gu

TABLE IV.—*Summary of mechanical tests on thirty-two species of American woods.*

[From Tables, I, II, IV, V, and VI, Circular No. 15, Division of Forestry, United States Department of Agriculture.]

Kind of wood.	Specific gravity of dry wood.	Fiber stress at relative (apparent) elastic limit (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch).	Stress at rupture compression along the grain (pounds per square inch).	Stress at rupture shearing along the grain; not reduced for moisture (pounds per square inch).
<i>Reduced to 15 per cent moisture.</i>						
Longleaf pine	0.61	8,500	10,900	1,890	6,900	700
Cuban pine63	9,500	11,900	2,300	7,900	700
Shortleaf pine51	7,200	9,200	1,600	5,900	700
Loblolly pine53	8,200	10,100	1,950	6,500	700
<i>Reduced to 12 per cent moisture.</i>						
White pine38	6,400	7,900	1,390	5,400	400
Red pine50	7,700	9,100	1,620	6,700	500
Spruce pine44	8,400	10,000	1,640	7,300	800
Bald cypress46	6,600	7,900	1,290	6,000	500
White cedar37	5,800	6,300	910	5,200	400
Douglas spruce* (Oregon pine)51	6,400	7,900	1,680	5,700	500
White oak80	9,600	13,100	2,090	8,500	1,000
Overcup oak74	7,500	11,300	1,620	7,300	1,000
Post oak80	8,400	12,300	2,030	7,100	1,100
Cow oak74	7,600	11,500	1,610	7,400	900
Red oak73	9,200	11,400	1,970	7,200	1,100
Texan oak73	9,400	13,100	1,860	8,100	900
Yellow oak72	8,100	10,800	1,740	7,300	1,100
Water oak73	8,800	12,400	2,000	7,800	1,100
Willow oak72	7,400	10,400	1,750	7,200	900
Spanish oak73	8,600	12,000	1,930	7,700	900
Shagbark hickory81	11,200	16,000	2,390	9,500	1,100
Mockernut hickory85	11,700	15,200	2,320	10,100	1,100
Water hickory73	9,800	12,500	2,080	8,400	1,000
Bitternut hickory77	11,100	15,000	2,280	9,600	1,000
Nutmeg hickory78	9,300	12,500	1,940	8,800	1,100
Pecan hickory78	11,500	15,300	2,530	9,100	1,200
Pignut hickory89	12,600	18,700	2,730	10,900	1,200
White elm54	7,300	10,300	1,540	6,500	800
Cedar elm74	8,000	13,500	1,700	8,000	1,300
White ash62	7,900	10,800	1,640	7,200	1,100
Green ash62	8,900	11,600	2,050	8,000	1,000
Sweet gum59	7,800	9,500	1,700	7,100	800

* Actual tests on "dry" material not reduced for moisture.

TABLE V.*—Comparison of selected Philippine, Borneo, and American woods.

Name.	Locality	Compression along the grain.		Cross-bending.			
		Average per cent moisture.	Average stress at rupture (pounds per square inch).	Average per cent moisture.	Average modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch).	Average modulus of elasticity (1,000 pounds per square inch).	Average specific gravity of dry wood.
Aranga	Philippine Islands	4.9	12,420	5.6	17,920	2,419	0.83
Billian (Borneo iron-wood).	Borneo	22.5	11,290	22.5	19,660	2,384	.96
Pignut hickory	United States	12	10,900	12	18,700	2,730	.78
Dungon	Philippine Islands	10.7	9,420	11.6	17,110	2,209	.85
Yacal	do	13.4	9,220	15.6	15,690	2,583	.84
Merabau (Borneo ipil)	Borneo	21	9,035	21	18,830	2,505	.96
White oak	United States	12	8,500	12	13,100	2,090	.80
Molave	Philippine Islands	12.7	8,330	10.4	8,580	1,614	.76
Guijo	do	14.6	7,940	13.7	15,150	2,158	.76
Selangan batu (Borneo yacal).	Borneo	27.6	7,420	27.6	12,325	2,027	.68
Apitong	Philippine Islands	14.4	7,250	14	11,620	2,144	.66
Longleaf pine	United States	15	6,900	15	10,900	1,890	.61
Ipil	Philippine Islands	17.7	6,570	18.1	6,980	1,383	.72
Lauan	do	12.4	6,180	10.4	9,760	1,653	.48
Oregon pine	United States	12	5,700	12	7,900	1,680	.51
California redwood	do	13.3	5,560	12.3	9,110	1,320	.45

* Table VI of the original report.

APPENDIX II.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE FORESTS AND FOREST PRODUCTS OF THE PHILIPPINES.

1. BUREAU OF FORESTRY PUBLICATIONS.

- Appendix K. K. Report of the Military Governor in the Philippines. (1900.)
(This appendix contains the first annual report of Capt. Geo. P. Ahern, who on April 14, 1900, was assigned the task of organizing a forest service for the Philippines.)
- Appendix II. Report of the Military Governor in the Philippines. (1901.)
(This appendix contains the report of the operations of the Forestry Bureau from July 1, 1900, to May 16, 1901.)
- Special report of Capt. George P. Ahern, in charge of the Forestry Bureau of the Philippine Islands, covering the period from April 1, 1900, to July 30, 1901.
- Report of the Bureau of Forestry of the Philippine Islands from July 1, 1901, to September 1, 1902. Report of the Philippine Commission, 1902. Appendix J, pp. 451-527.
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GENERAL INDEX.

	Page.		Page.
Agoho (firewood)	51	Borneo timber sold in China as	
Agoho (tanbark)	53	Philippine	44
Agreements, exclusive license.....	62	Borneo woods, strength of.....	84
Alcohol, nipa	60	Botanical publications	86
Almaciga	55	Boxes and dry measures.....	40
American woods, mechanical tests of..	83, 84	Brazil wood	54
Anahao	60	Brea	56
Analysis of tanbarks.....	53	Bridges	39
Anibong	60	Bureau of Forestry publications.....	85
Anilao (bast)	54	Buri	60
Apitong oil	55	Busain (tanbark)	53
Apitongs, uses of	33	Cabinetwork, furniture and.....	40
Appendix I, Mechanical tests.....	65	Caiñgin making	13
Appendix II, Bibliography	85	Calaanan	13
Application for exclusive license		Calorific power of mangrove woods....	51
agreement	62	Camachile (tanbark)	53
Arqa of dipterocarp types.....	18	Canes	40
Area of mangrove swamps.....	51	Carabaos used for logging.....	45, 46
Area of types, table of.....	17	Carriage building	41
Areas of forest, total.....	12	Carving and engraving.....	40
Axles (<i>see also</i> Carriage building)....	41	Cascalote (<i>see also</i> Barks).....	52
Bacauans (firewood)	51	Castilloa	57
Bacauan (tanbark)	53	Ceara rubber	57
Balao (<i>see also</i> Dipterocarp resins)....	55	Cedar, West Indian.....	36
Bale ties (<i>see also</i> Rattan).....	59	Characteristics of forest types, table	
Balete (<i>see also</i> Gutta-percha and		of	34
Rubber)	57	Charcoal	52
Balukanad	56	Charges for forest products.....	62
Bamboos	60	Charges for minor products.....	63
Barks	52	China market for timber.....	44
Barks for tying.....	53	Chinese wood oil	56
Barks, percentage of tannin in man-		Classes of vegetation.....	12
grove	53	Climate	15
Barks (tanning), analysis of.....	53	Climbing ferns	58
Barks used for making ropes.....	53	Climbing palms	58, 59
Barks used for soap.....	54	Cross-bending strength, tests of.....	66-73
Basts for tying (<i>see also</i> Other		Cogon	13
barks)	53	Compressive strength along grain,	
Bataan, volume of trees in.....	24	tests of	74-79
Bayabas (firewood)	52	Consumption of timber, total, 1909-10	43
Beach type	29	Cost of transportation.....	49
Bejucos (<i>see also</i> Rattans).....	58, 59	Cutch	52
Benguet pine	31	Cutch manufacture, opportunities for..	52
Betis family (<i>see also</i> Gutta-percha		Cutting regulations	64
and Rubber)	57	Dalingdingan-isak sold as Mangacha-	
Bibliography	85	puy	33
Blocks, paving	40	Danling-aso (bast)	54
Board feet, equivalent in cubic		Davao Gulf, volume of trees.....	30
meters	12	Decks	39
Boog	13	Diameter limit, minimum.....	64
Booms	39	Diameter of Philippine trees.....	10
Borneo mahogany	36	Dlliman	58, 59

	Page.		Page.	
Dipterocarp family :		Gums (<i>see also</i> Resins and oils).....	54	Man
Abundance of	11	Gutta-percha and rubber.....	57	Man
Importance of	9	Hagnaya	58, 59	ur
Dipterocarp resins	55	Hand sawing.....	47	Man
Dipterocarp types	18	Handles	41	ty
Dipterocarps, uses of.....	32	Hardness :		Man
Disposal of forest products.....	61	Table of	43	Man
Dita, yields rubber.....	58	Weight and	41	Man
Dogbane family (<i>see also</i> Gutta-percha and Rubber).....	57, 58	Harigues (<i>see also</i> House construction)	39	Man
Domba oil	56	Hat materials	58	Marl
Doors	40	Hats, rattan used for.....	59	Mast
Dry season	16	Heating power of agoho.....	51	Matc
Dugtung-ahas, rubber vine.....	58	Heating power of mangrove woods.....	51	Meas
Durable timbers	37	Height of Philippine trees.....	10	Meas
Dyebarks	53	House construction	39	Mecl
Total production, 1909-10.....	54	Hubs (<i>see also</i> Carriage building).....	41	Meth
Dyeing (<i>see also</i> Barks).....	52	Illuminating oils (<i>see also</i> Other resins and oils).....	56	Metr
Dyewood	54	Imports of timber, 1909-10.....	43	fe
Edible rattans	58	India rubber	57	Milli
Elemi, Manila	56	Instruments, musical	41	Minc
Engraving, carving and.....	40	Interior trim	40	
Exclusive licenses	62	Ipil a substitute for teak	37	
Exports of timber, 1909-10.....	44	Ipil-ipil (firewood)	52	Minc
Felloes (<i>see also</i> Carriage building).....	41	Joists (<i>see also</i> House construction).....	39	Minc
Ferns, climbing	58	Jungle	15	Mini
Fig family (<i>see also</i> Gutta-percha and Rubber)	57	Kalipaya	57	Mini
Finish, interior (<i>see also</i> Interior trim)	40	Kauri resin (<i>see also</i> Almaciga).....	55	Minc
Fires, prairie and forest.....	15	Keels	38	Minc
Firewood	51	Keelson	38	Minc
Amount cut, 1909-10.....	43	Kilns, charcoal	52	Mois
Price of	52	Labor	49	Ap
Fishtail palm	60	Langarai (tanbark)	53	Mola
Floors	40	Late	13	Mola
Forest fires	15	Lauan-apitong type	24	Moss
Forest products :		Lauan-hagachac type	21	Mou
Charges for	62	Lauan type	19	Muse
Disposal of	61	Lauans, uses of.....	32	Musi
Gathered with charge.....	62	Leñas	52	Nari
Obtained free of charge.....	61	Lianas in dipterocarp type.....	18	Nigi
Forest reserves, legal status of.....	60	Lianas, minor products from.....	58	Ning
Forest, types of.....	17	License agreements, exclusive.....	62	Nipa
Forest types, table of characteristics of	34	Licenses	62	Nito
Forests :		Licenses issued, 1909-10.....	45	Oil :
Second-growth	14	Lignum-vitæ, substitute for.....	39	
Virgin	15	Logging operations	44	
Virgin, area of	12	Logging railroads	47	Oils,
Framing (<i>see also</i> House construction)	39	Logging, steam	47	Ordi
Fuel :		Lumbang nuts, crop of, Mindanao, 1907-08	56	Oper
Total cut, 1909-10.....	51	Lumbang oil	56	
Woods used for	51	Lumbayao, stand of, in Mindanao.....	11	Oppc
Furniture and cabinet making.....	40	Lumber, forest charges on.....	62	Oppc
Furniture, rattan used for.....	59	Lumbering in the Philippines.....	43	Padc
Girders (<i>see also</i> House construction)	39	Lumbering, opportunities for.....	50	Pain
Gogo (soap bark).....	54	Madre-cacao (firewood).....	52	Paln
Gogong-toko (soap bark).....	54	Mahogany, Borneo	36	Paln
Grass lands	13	Mahogany, Philippine	33, 36	Paln
Groups of timber	63	Mahogany, substitutes for.....	36	Paln
Guava (<i>see also</i> Bayabas).....	52	Malayacal sold as yacal.....	33	
Guisoc resin	55	Malubago (bast).....	53	
Guisoc sold as yacal.....	33	Mangrove barks, percentage of tannin in	53	Palo
		Mangrove cutch	52	Palo
				Panc

Page.		Page.		Page.
54	Mangrove swamps, area of.....	51	Para rubber	57
57	Mangrove swamp in Mindanao, vol- ume of trees in	29	Parang	15
58, 59	Mangrove swamps (<i>see also</i> Mangrove type)	28	Paving blocks	40
47		28	Philippine mahogany	33, 36
41	Mangrove type	28	Philippine woods, strength of (<i>see</i> <i>also</i> Appendix I).....	65
	Mangrove woods	51	Pili resin	56
43	Mangrove woods, calorific power of....	51	Piling, salt-water	38
41	Manila elemi	56	Pine resin	56
	Manila, prices of lumber in.....	44	Pine, stands of	31
39	Markets for timber.....	44	Pine type	30
58	Masts	38	Poles, telegraph and telephone.....	41
59	Match making	41	Posts (<i>see also</i> House construction)..	39
51	Measurement of logs in Philippines....	12	Pototan (tanbark).....	53
51	Measurement of logs in United States..	11	Pototans (firewood)	51
10	Measures, boxes and dry.....	40	Prairie fires	15
39	Mechanical tests, tables of.....	65	Prices of lumber in Manila.....	44
41	Methods of logging	45	Protective forests (<i>see also</i> Mossy- forest type)	31
	Metric system, equivalent in board feet	12	Public forest, legal status of.....	60
56		47	Publications :	
43	Milling operations		Bureau of Forestry.....	85
57	Mindanao, volume of trees :		Systematic botanical	86
41	In mangrove swamp.....	29	Pugahan	60
40	In Port Banga region.....	23	Rafting	49
37	On delta plain in eastern.....	21	Railroads, logging	47
52	Mine props (<i>see also</i> Mining timbers)..	39	Railroad ties	39
39	Miner's licenses	62	Rails, ship's	39
15	Minimum diameter limit.....	64	Rainfall, average annual.....	15; 16
57	Mining timbers	39	Rainy season	15
55	Minor forest products	51	Rajas	52
38	Minor products, forest charges on....	63	Rattan, total product, 1909-10.....	59
38	Minor products from vines.....	58	Rattans	58, 59
52	Moisture content of timber (<i>see also</i> Appendix I).....	65	Edible	58
49		37	In dipterocarp type.....	18
53	Molave a substitute for teak.....	26	Regulations for cutting.....	64
13	Molave type	31	Resin, pine	56
24	Mossy-forest type	31	Resins and oils	54
21	Mountain forests	64	Resins, dipterocarp	55
19	Museum of Bureau of Forestry.....	41	Ribs of ships	38
32	Musical instruments	33	Roofing, nipa	60
52	Narig sold as yacal	53	Rope made of barks.....	53
18	Nigi (dyebark)	56	Rubber, gutta-percha and.....	57
58	Ningpo varnish	60	Rubber vines	57, 58
62	Nipa	58, 59	Rudders	38
62	Nito		Sagasi	60
45	Oil :		Salingkugi (soap bark).....	54
39	Lumbang	56	Salt-water piling	38
44	Palo maria	54	Samal, dipterocarp forest in Island of	27
47	Oils, resins and	62	Sarawag	60
47	Ordinary licenses		Sash	40
	Operations :		Sawing, hand and steam.....	47
56	Tracts suitable for large.....	50	Sawkerf of hand and steam saws.....	48
56	Tracts suitable for small.....	52	Seasons, dry and rainy.....	15, 16
11	Opportunities for catch manufacture..	50	Seaworm	38
62	Opportunities for lumbering.....	36	Second-growth forests.....	14
43	Padouk	56	Shafts (<i>see also</i> Carriage building)..	41
50	Paints, lumbang oil used for.....	60	Shearing strength, tests of.....	80-82
52	Palma brava	60	Shipbuilding	38
36	Palm cider (<i>see also</i> Erect palms)....	60	Shipworm, woods that resist.....	38
33, 36	Palm vinegar (<i>see also</i> Erect palms)..	60	Shoes, wooden	41
36	Palms :	58, 59	Sibucao (dyewood)	54
33	Climbing	60	Sides of ships.....	38
53	Erect	56	Singapore timber sold in China as	
	Palo maria oil	55	Philippine	44
53	Palosapis oil	55	Size of timber trees	10
52	Panao oil			

	Page.		Page.
Soap barks	54	Topography and soil.....	16
Soap manufactured from lumbang oil	56	Torches (<i>see also</i> Dipterocarp resins)	55
Soil, topography and.....	16	Torches (<i>see also</i> Manila Elemi).....	56
Spanish cedar (West Indian cedar)..	36	Tracts suitable for:	
Spokes and felloes (<i>see also</i> Carriage		Large operations	50
building)	41	Small operations	50
Stairs	40	Transportation	48
Stand of lumbayao, Mindanao.....	11	Transverse strength, tests of.....	66-73
Stands of pine	31	Tree species, number of.....	32
Stand of timber:		Trim, interior	40
Bataan	24	Trusses (<i>see also</i> House construction)	39
Davao Gulf	30	Tuba (palm cider).....	60
Delta plain, eastern Mindoro.....	21	Turpentine	56
Mangrove swamp, Mindanao.....	29	Tying:	
Port Banga region, Mindanao....	23	Barks used for.....	53
Steam logging	47	Vines used for	58
Steam sawing	47	Types of forest.....	17
Strength of American woods.....	83	Types, table of area of.....	17
Strength of Philippine, Borneo, and		Uses of apitongs.....	33
American woods	84	Uses of dipterocarps	32
Strength of Philippine woods (<i>see</i>		Uses of lauans	32
<i>also</i> Appendix I).....	65	Uses of woods	32
Stumpage charges	63	Uses of yacals	33
Stumps of posts (<i>see also</i> House con-		Varnish, Ningpo	56
struction)	39	Vehicles (<i>see also</i> Carriage building)	41
Substitutes for:		Vinegar, nipa	60
Lignum-vitæ	39	Vines or lianas, minor products from	58
Mahogany	36	Vines producing rubber.....	57, 58
Teak	37	Vines used for tying	58
Tabango, rubber vine.....	57, 58	Virgin forests	15
Tabigi (dye bark).....	53	Volume of timber:	
Talahib	13	Cut, 1909-10	43
Taloktok (bast)	54	Imported, 1909-10	43
Tanag (bast)	54	Volume of trees:	
Tanbarks	52	Bataan	24
Total production, 1909-10.....	54	Delta plain in eastern Mindoro...	21
Analysis of	53	Port Banga region, Mindanao....	23
Tangal:		Wagons (<i>see also</i> Carriage building)..	41
Dye bark	53	Walking sticks (<i>see also</i> Canes).....	40
Firewood	51	Wheels, ship's	38
Tanbark	53	Weight and hardness	41
Tanguile-oak type	25	Weights, table of.....	42
Tannin	53	Whip sawing (<i>see also</i> Hand sawing)	47
Percentage of, in mangrove barks	53	White ants, woods that resist (<i>see</i>	
Taxes, timber land exempt from.....	64	<i>also</i> Durable timbers).....	37
Teak, substitutes for.....	37	Wood oil, Chinese	56
Telegraph and telephone poles.....	41	Wood oils (<i>see also</i> Resins and oils)..	54
Teredo, woods that resist.....	38	Wood oils, total production 1909-10..	55
Termites, woods that resist (<i>see also</i>		Wood, uses	32
Durable timbers)	37	Woods:	
Tests, mechanical	65	Commercial, number of species....	32
Thatching, nipa	60	Used for charcoal	52
Ties, railroad	39	Used for dyeing	54
Ties for bales (<i>see also</i> Rattan).....	59	Wooden shoes	41
Timber:		Yacal a substitute for teak.....	37
Commercial, number of species....	32	Yacal-lauan type	22
Exported, 1909-10	44	Yacal resin	55
Groups of	63	Yacals:	
Trees, size of	10	Uses of	33
Tool handles	41	Woods sold as	33

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 Ade
 Aga
 Agl
 Agl
 Alb
 Alb
 Albi
 Ale
 Ale
 Alst
 Alst
 Am
 Ant
 Ani
 Ani
 Apo
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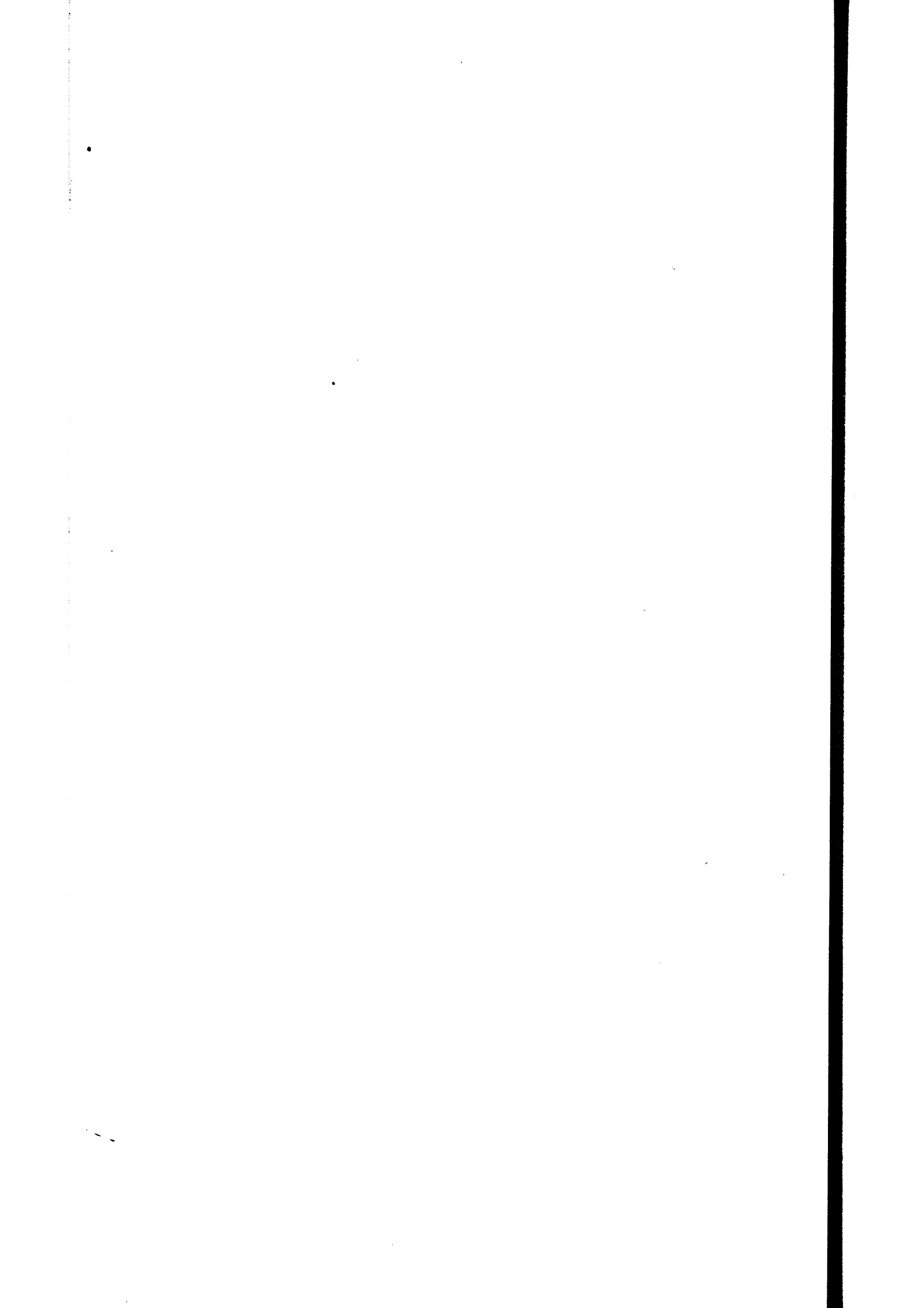
INDEX TO SCIENTIFIC NAMES.

	Page.		Page.
Acronychia laurifolia	32	Dipterocarpus grandiflorus	54
Adenantha intermedia	24	Dipterocarpus vernicifluus	54
Agathis alba	26, 54, 55	Dipterocarpus spp.	20
Aglaiia clarkii	27	Dracontomelum cumingianum	25
Aglaiia spp.	25	Dracontomelum dao	22
Albizzia acle	22, 27	Dysoxylum spp.	25
Albizzia procera	14	Endospermum peltatum	25
Albizzia saponaria	54	Englehardtia spicata	32
Aleurites moluccana	56	Entada scandens	54
Aleurites trisperma	56	Erythrina indica	22, 29
Alstonia scholaris	25	Erythrophloeum densiflorum	23
Alstonia spp.	54, 57, 58	Euphorbiaceae	22
Amoora spp.	25	Eugenia jambolana	14
Antidesma ghaesembilla	14	Eugenia spp.	23, 26, 32
Anisoptera thurifera	24, 54	Euphoria cinerea	23
Anisoptera sp.	23	Excoecaria agallocha	28
Apocynaceae	58	Ficus elastica	57, 58
Artocarpus communis	23	Ficus variegata	24
Avicennia officinalis	28	Ficus spp.	57, 58
Barringtonia speciosa	29	Garcinia spp.	23
Bauhinia malabarica	14	Gliricidia sepium	52
Bischofia javanica	25	Gordonia luzonica	26
Bruguiera caryophylloides	28, 53	Heritiera littoralis	28
Bruguiera eriopetala	28, 53	Heterospatha sp.	60
Bruguiera gymnorrhiza	28, 53	Hevea brasiliensis	57, 58
Bruguiera parviflora	28, 53	Hibiscus tiliaceus	29, 53
Caesalpinia echinata	54	Helicteres hirsuta	54
Caesalpinia sappan	54	Homalanthus populneus	14
Calamus spp.	59	Hopea acuminata	25, 26
Calophyllum blancoi	25	Hopea philippinensis	22
Calophyllum inophyllum	29, 54, 56	Hopea plagata	54, 55
Calophyllum sp.	23	Hopea sp.	23
Calotropis gigantea	57	Imperata exaltata	13
Canangium odoratum	22	Intsia bijuga	27
Canarium luzonicum	54, 56	Kalipaya sp.	57
Canarium spp.	22, 23, 25	Kleinhofia hospita	52
Cassia javanica	27	Lagerstroemia piriformis	23, 27
Castilloa elastica	57, 58	Lagerstroemia speciosa	25
Casuarina equisetifolia	29, 51, 53	Lauraceae	22
Caryota spp.	60	Leptospermum amboinense	32
Celtis sp.	22	Leucaena glauca	52
Cerriops tagal	28, 53	Liriodendron tulipiferum	18
Chonemorpha elastica	57, 58	Livistona spp.	60
Cinnamomum mercadoi	26	Lumnitzera littorea	28
Columbia serratifolia	14, 54	Lygodium spp.	58, 59
Corypha elata	60	Maba buxifolia	27
Cyathocalyx globosus	24	Macaranga	22
Cyclostemon grandifolius	23	Macaranga bicolor	14, 25
Dacrydium spp.	32	Macaranga tanarius	14, 25
Decaspermum spp.	32	Manihot glaziovii	57, 58
Dillenia philippinensis	22	Mallotus	22
Diospyros pilosanthera	25	Mallotus floribundus	27
Dipterocarpaceae	23	Mallotus moluccanus	14
Dipterocarpus affinis	21	Mallotus ricinoides	14

	Page.		Page.
Mangifera altissima	25	Saccharum spontaneum	13
Meliaceae	22	Santiria nitida	25
Mimusops sp.	27	Sarcocephalus cordatus	23
Myrica spp.	32	Shorea balangeran	54, 55
Myristica philippinensis	24	Shorea furfuracea	20
Nauclea sp.	23	Shorea polysperma	20
Nipa fruticans	26, 60	Shorea squamata	20
Octomeles sumatrana	22	Shorea sp.	20
Oncosperma spp.	60	Sindora supa	27, 54
Osbornia octodonta	29	Sonneratia pagatpat	28
Pahudia rhomboidea	24	Sonneratia sp.	28
Palaquium luzoniense	25	Stenoclaena spp.	58, 59
Palaquium tenuipetiolatum	25	Sterculiaceae	22
Palaquium spp.	23, 57	Strombosia philippinensis	24
Pandanus	29	Swietenia mahagoni	36
Parameria philippinensis	57, 58	Symplocos sp.	32
Parashorea plicata	20	Tarrietia sylvatica	27
Parinarium griffithianum	23	Taxotrophis ilicifolia	27
Parkia timoriana	23, 24	Terminalia catappa	29
Pemphis acidula	29	Terminalia spp.	25
Pentacme contorta	20	Ternstroemia toquian	32
Pinanga insignis	60	Thespesia populnea	29
Pinus insularis	14, 31, 54, 56	Trema amboinensis	14
Pinus merkusii	31, 54, 56	Tristania decorticata	26, 32
Pithecolobium dulce	53	Toona calantas	22, 27
Podocarpus spp.	32	Vatica sp.	20
Pometia pinnata	22	Vitex aherniana	23
Pongamia glabra	29	Vitex parviflora	23, 26
Pterocarpus echinatus	27	Wallaceodendron celebicum	27
Pterocymbium tinctorium	23	Wrightia calycina	23
Pterospermum spp.	27	Wrightia laniti	27
Psidium guajava	52	Xanthostemon verdugonianus	27
Pygeum glandulosum	24	Xylocarpus granatum	28
Quercus spp.	32	Xylocarpus obovatus	28, 53
Reinwardtiendendron merrillii	25	Xylophia dehiscens	24
Rhizophora conjugata	28, 53	Zizyphus zonulatus	23
Rhizophora mucronata	28, 53		

Page.

13
25
23
1, 55
20
20
20
20
7, 54
28
28
3, 59
22
24
36
32
27
27
29
25
32
29
14
1, 32
1, 27
20
23
1, 26
27
23
27
27
28
1, 53
24
23



THE FORESTS OF THE PHILIPPINES

PART II

THE PRINCIPAL FOREST TREES

BY

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FORESTER, CHIEF OF DIVISION OF INVESTIGATION



DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF FORESTRY

BULLETIN No. 10

MAJOR GEORGE P. AHERN
DIRECTOR OF FORESTRY

MANILA
BUREAU OF PRINTING
1911

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Yew
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Agoh

Oak
Elm
Fig

Tama

Magr
Pawp
Nutn

Cinna

Mam

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T

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I

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Letter of transmittal.....	11
Families, species, official common names, and usual trade names of the principal trees	13
Key to the principal timber trees of the Philippines.....	18
Abbreviations used for provinces, subprovinces, islands, and dialects.....	22
Notes on the common names of trees.....	23
Pine or Saleng family	25
Almaciga	25
Benguet pine	26
Yew family	26
Palm family	27
Agoho or Casuarina family	27
Agoho	27
Oak or Katabang family	28
Elm or Malaikmo family	28
Fig or Antipolo family	28
Anubing	28
Antipolo	29
Nangka	29
Tamayuan family	30
Tamayuan	30
Magnolia or Champaca family	31
Pawpaw or Ilang-ilang family	31
Nutmeg or Duguan family	31
Duguan	31
Cinnamon or Baticulin family	32
Mamalis family	34
Rose or Liusin family	34
Liusin	34
Locust or Narra family	35
Narra	35
Batete	36
Supa	37
Ipil	38
Tindalo	39
Cupang	39
Acleng-parang	40
Salinkugi	41
Banuyo	41
Acle	42
Lemon or Camuning family	44
Canary or Pili family	44

	Page.	Dipte
Mahogany or Calantas family	44	J
Calantas	45	
Santol	46	
Malasantol	46	
Tucang-calao	46	
Tabigi	47	
Piagao	47	
Rubber or Binunga family	48	
Sumac or Mango family	49	I
Amuguis	50	
Dao	50	Arang
Balinghasay	51	I
Buckthorn or Balacat family	52	Binua
Balacat	52	Banal
Soap-berry or Alupag family	53	E
Alupag	53	E
Malugay	54	Pagat
Bladdernut or Anongo family	54	P
Linden or Anilao family	55	Putat
Mallow or Malubago family	55	Mang
Cotton tree or Malabulak family	55	I
Cacao or Dungon family	55	T
Dungon	55	T
Dungon-late	56	
Lumbayao	57	
Taluto	57	Talisa
Catmon family	58	C
Catmon	58	D
Tea or Bikag family	59	T
Mangosteen or Palo-maria family	59	S
Palo-maria	59	T
Dipterocarp or Lauan family	60	B
The lauan group	61	T
White lauan	61	Eucal
Almon-lauan	62	T
Bagtican-lauan	63	M
Malaanonang-lauan	64	Kulis
Kalunti-lauan	64	Ginsei
Mangasinoro-lauan	65	M
Mayapis-lauan	65	Dogwo
Red lauan	66	Gutta
Tanguile	67	B
Tiaong-lauan	68	B
The apitong group	68	N
Apitong	68	M
Panao	69	M
Hagachac	70	Persir
Guijo	70	E
The yacal group	70	C
Yacal	72	B
Guisoc	73	A

Dipterocarp or Lauan family—Continued.

Page.	The yacal group—Continued.	Page.
44	Black yacal	73
45	Malayacal	74
46	Guisoc-guisoc	74
46	Mangachapuy	75
46	Dalingdingan-isak	76
47	Narig	76
47	Karig	76
48	Yacal blanco	77
49	The palosapis group	77
50	Palosapis	77
50	Aranga family	78
51	The arangas	78
52	Binuang family	79
52	Banaba family	79
53	Batitinan	79
53	Banaba	80
54	Pagatpat family	81
54	Pagatpat	81
55	Putat family	81
55	Mangrove or Bacauan family	81
55	The bacauans	82
55	The pototans	82
55	Tangal	82
56	Key to the principal trees of the mangrove swamps.....	83
57	Talisay family	83
57	Calumpit	83
58	Dalinsi	84
58	Talisay-gubat	84
59	Sacat	85
59	Talisay	85
59	Binggas	86
60	Toog	86
61	Eucalypt or Macaasim family	87
61	The macaasims	87
62	Mancono	88
63	Kulis family	88
64	Ginseng or Malapapaya family	89
64	Malapapaya	89
65	Dogwood or Malatapai family	89
65	Gutta-percha or Betis family	89
66	Betis	89
67	Bansalaguin	90
68	Nato	91
68	Malacmalac	91
68	Manicnic	92
69	Persimmon or Ebony family	92
70	Ebony	92
70	Camagon	93
70	Bolongeta	93
72	Ata-ata	94
73		

	Page.
Strychnine or Urung family	94
Dogbane or Dita family	94
Dita	95
Batino	95
Lanete	96
Anonang family	96
Teak or Molave family	97
Molave	97
Sasalit	98
Teak	98
Catalpa or Banai-banai family	99
Coffee or Bancal family	99
Bancal	99
Calamansanay	100
General index	101
Index to scientific names	111

:

X

:

X

X

:

X

Page.
 94
 94
 95
 95
 96
 96
 97
 97
 98
 98
 99
 99
 99
 100
 101
 111

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Plate.	Facing page—
I. Almaciga (<i>Agathis alba</i>)	16
II. Benguet pine (<i>Pinus insularis</i>): <i>a</i> , Cluster of leaves; <i>b</i> , un- opened cone; <i>c</i> , opened cone.....	16
III. Benguet pine (<i>Pinus insularis</i>).....	16
IV. Agoho (<i>Casuarina equisetifolia</i>): <i>a</i> , Branchlet showing reduced leaves	16
V. Grove of agoho trees.....	16
VI. Anubing (<i>Artocarpus cumingiana</i>): <i>a</i> , Young fruit; <i>b</i> , mature fruit	16
VII. Cultivated form of antipolo (<i>Artocarpus communis</i>): <i>a</i> , Fruit	16
VIII. Balete (<i>Ficus</i> sp.)	16
IX. Tamayuan (<i>Strombosia philippinensis</i>): <i>a</i> , Fruit.....	16
X. Duguan (<i>Myristica philippensis</i>): <i>a</i> , Flowers; <i>b</i> , fruit.....	16
XI. Tambalao (<i>Knema heterophylla</i>): <i>a</i> , Fruit; <i>b</i> , different forms of leaves.....	16
XII. Marang (<i>Litsea perrottetii</i>): <i>a</i> , Cluster of flowers and young fruits; <i>b</i> , mature fruits.....	16
XIII. Malacadios (<i>Beilschmiedia cairocan</i>): <i>a</i> , Fruit; <i>b</i> , flower cluster	16
XIV. Liusin (<i>Parinarium griffithianum</i>): <i>a</i> , Flower cluster; <i>b</i> , fruits	16
XV. Leaves and lower portion of the trunk of liusin (<i>Parinarium griffithianum</i>)	16
XVI. The narra: <i>a</i> , Spiny narra (<i>Pterocarpus echinatus</i>); <i>b</i> , fruit of Blanco's narra (<i>Pterocarpus blancoi</i>); <i>c</i> , fruit of narra (<i>Pterocarpus indicus</i>).....	16
XVII. Lower portion of the trunk of a large narra (<i>Pterocarpus indicus</i>) showing root buttress.....	16
XVIII. Batete (<i>Kingiodendron alternifolium</i>): <i>a</i> , Flower cluster; <i>b</i> , fruit	16
XIX. Lower portion of the trunk of batete (<i>Kingiodendron alterni- folium</i>)	32
XX. Supa (<i>Sindora supa</i>): <i>a</i> , Flower; <i>b</i> , fruit.....	32
XXI. Ipil (<i>Intsia bijuga</i>): <i>a</i> , Flower; <i>b</i> , partially open fruit pod....	32
XXII. Lower portion of the trunk of Merrill's ipil (<i>Intsia acuminata</i>)	32
XXIII. Tindalo (<i>Pahudia rhomboidea</i>): <i>a</i> , Seed; <i>b</i> , fruit.....	32
XXIV. Cupang (<i>Parkia timoriana</i>): <i>a</i> , Pinnæ; <i>b</i> , fruit pod.....	32
XXV. Lower portion of the trunk of cupang (<i>Parkia timoriana</i>) showing character of bark; leaves attached to the trunk.....	32
XXVI. Acleng-parang (<i>Albizzia procera</i>): <i>a</i> , Fruit pod; <i>b</i> , cluster of young flowers	32

Plate.	Facing page	
XXVII. Portion of the bark of acleng-parang (<i>Albizzia procera</i>); leaves attached	32	I L
XXVIII. Salinkugi (<i>Albizzia saponaria</i>): a, Fruit pod; b, cluster of flowers	32	
XXIX. Banuyo (<i>Wallaceodendron celebicum</i>): a, Fruit pod; b, flower cluster	32	I
XXX. Acle (<i>Albizzia acle</i>): a, Fruit pod.....	32	L
XXXI. Portion of trunk of acle (<i>Albizzia acle</i>); cluster of leaves and fruit attached	32	I
XXXII. Calantas (<i>Toona calantas</i>): a, Closed fruit; b, opened fruit; c, seed	32	I L
XXXIII. Young trees of calantas (<i>Toona calantas</i>).....	32	LX
XXXIV. Santol (<i>Sandoricum indicum</i>): a, Fruit; b, cross section of fruit	32	I
XXXV. Malasantol (<i>Sandoricum vidalii</i>).....	32	I
XXXVI. Tucang-calao (<i>Aglaia clarkii</i>): a, Fruit.....	48	L
XXXVII. Amuguis (<i>Koordersiodendron pinnatum</i>): a, Fruit.....	48	LX
XXXVIII. Lower trunk of amuguis (<i>Koordersiodendron pinnatum</i>); with leaves attached	48	L2
XXXIX. Dao (<i>Dracontomelum dao</i>): a, Flower cluster; b, fruit cluster..	48	L
XL. Lower portion of the trunk of dao (<i>Dracontomelum dao</i>).....	48	L2
XLI. Lamio (<i>Dracontomelum cumingianum</i>): a, Flower cluster; b, fruit	48	LX
XLII. Balacat (<i>Zizyphus zonulatus</i>): a, Fruit cluster.....	48	
XLIII. Balacat (<i>Zizyphus zonulatus</i>).....	48	LX2
XLIV. Alupag (<i>Euphoria cinerea</i>): a, Flower cluster; b, fruit.....	48	L2
XLV. Malugay (<i>Pometia pinnata</i>): a, Flower cluster; b, flower; c, fruit	48	
XLVI. Dungon (<i>Tarrietia sylvatica</i>): a, Fruit.....	48	
XLVII. Bark characters of dungon (<i>Tarrietia sylvatica</i>).....	48	
XLVIII. Dungon-late (<i>Heritiera littoralis</i>): a, Fruit.....	48	
XLIX. Dungon-late (<i>Heritiera littoralis</i>); bark and leaves.....	48	
L. Lumbayao (<i>Tarrietia javanica</i>); bark characters.....	48	
LI. Lumbayao (<i>Tarrietia javanica</i>).....	48	
LII. Lumbayao (<i>Tarrietia javanica</i>): a, Fruit; b, flower cluster...	48	
LIII. Taluto (<i>Pterocymbium tinctorium</i>): a, Flower cluster; b, fruit cluster	64	
LIV. Palo-maria (<i>Calophyllum inophyllum</i>): a, Flower cluster; b, fruit	64	
LV. Small tree of bitanhol (<i>Calophyllum blancoi</i>); leaves attached to the bark.....	64	
LVI. White lauan (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>): a, Fruit.....	64	
LVII. Bark and leaves of white lauan (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>).....	64	
LVIII. Almon-lauan (<i>Shorea furfuracea</i>).....	64	
LIX. Bark and leaves of almon-lauan (<i>Shorea furfuracea</i>).....	64	
LX. Bagtican-lauan (<i>Parashorea plicata</i>): a, Fruit.....	64	
LXI. Bark of bagtican-lauan (<i>Parashorea plicata</i>).....	64	
LXII. Kalunti-lauan (<i>Vatica</i> sp.)	64	
LXIII. Mayapis-lauan (<i>Shorea squamata</i>)	64	
LXIV. Red lauan (<i>Shorea</i> sp.): a, Flower cluster.....	64	
LXV. Bark and leaves of red lauan (<i>Shorea</i> sp.).....	64	
LXVI. Tanguile (<i>Shorea polysperma</i>): a, Flower cluster; b, fruit...	64	

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF FORESTRY,
Manila, November 29, 1910.

SIR: I have the honor to submit herewith a report entitled, "The Forests of the Philippines: Part II. The Principal Forest Trees," by H. N. Whitford, Ph. D., forester, chief division of investigation, and to recommend its publication as Part II of Bulletin No. 10.

Part I of this bulletin, dealing with The Forest Types and Products, was submitted for publication on November 11.

Very respectfully,

GEORGE P. AHERN,
Director of Forestry.

The honorable,
The ACTING SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR, *Manila.*

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THE FORESTS OF THE PHILIPPINES: PART II.

THE PRINCIPAL FOREST TREES.

FAMILIES, SPECIES, OFFICIAL COMMON NAMES, AND USUAL TRADE NAMES OF THE PRINCIPAL TREES.

Family.	Species.	Official name.	Usual trade name.
Pinaceæ	<i>Agathis alba</i> (Lam.) F. W. Foxw. (<i>Agathis philippinensis</i> Warb.).	Almáciga	Almaciga.
	<i>Pinus insularis</i> Endl.	Benguét pine	Benguet pine, saleng.
	<i>Pinus merkusii</i> J. & de V.	Tapúlao	
Casuarinaceæ	<i>Casuarina equisetifolia</i> Forst.	Agohó	Agoho.
Fagaceæ	<i>Quercus</i> spp.	Oaks	
Ulmaceæ	<i>Celtis philippensis</i> Blanco	Malaíkmo	
	<i>Trema amboinensis</i> Bl.	Anabión	
Moraceæ	<i>Allæanthus glaber</i> Warb.	Malambíngan	
	<i>Artocarpus communis</i> Forst.	Antipólo	Antipolo.
	<i>Artocarpus cumingiana</i> Trec.	Anubíng	Anubing, cubi.
	<i>Artocarpus integrifolia</i> L. f.	Nángka	Nangka.
	<i>Castilloa elastica</i> Cerv.	Castilloa	Castilloa.
	<i>Ficus elastica</i> L.		India rubber.
	<i>Ficus minahassae</i> Miq.	Hagímit	
	<i>Ficus variegata</i> Bl.	Tangísang-bayá-wak.	
	<i>Streblus asper</i> Lour.	Kaliós	
	<i>Taxotrophis ilicifolia</i> Vid.	Kúyus-kúyus	Kuyus-kuyus.
Olacaceæ	<i>Strombosia philippinensis</i> (Baill.) Rolfe	Tamayúan	Tamayuan.
Magnoliaceæ	<i>Michelia champaca</i> L.	Champáca	
	<i>Talauma villariana</i> Rolfe	Patángis	
Anonaceæ	<i>Anona muricata</i> L.	Guanábano	
	<i>Anona reticulata</i> L.	Anónas	
	<i>Anona squamosa</i> L.	Átis	
	<i>Canangium odoratum</i> Baill.	Ílang-ílang	Ílang-ilang.
	<i>Cyathocalyx globosus</i> Merr.	Dalínas	
Myristicaceæ	<i>Knema heterophylla</i> Warb.	Tambaláo	Duguan.
	<i>Myristica philippensis</i> Lam.	Dugúan	Duguan.
Lauraceæ	<i>Beilschmiedia calrocan</i> Vid.	Malacadiós	Malacadios, cubi.
	<i>Cinnamomun mercadoi</i> Vid.	Kalíngag	
	<i>Cinnamomum mindanaense</i> Elm.	Cinnamon	
	<i>Cryptocarya bicolor</i> Merr.	Dugkátan	Malacadios?
	<i>Dehaasia triandra</i> Merr.	Basláyan	Baticulin.
	<i>Eusideroxylon zwageri</i> T. & B.	Tambúlian	Billian or Borneo iron- wood.
	<i>Litsea perrottetii</i> (Bl.) F.-Vill.	Maráng	Baticulin.
	<i>Litsea</i> spp.		Do.
	<i>Neolitsea vidalii</i> Merr.	Puso-púso	Do.
	<i>Phoebe sterculioides</i> (Elm.) Merr.	Maláya	Do.
Pittosporaceæ	<i>Pittosporum pentandrum</i> (Blanco) Merr.	Mamalis	
Rosaceæ	<i>Parinarium griffithianum</i> Benth.	Liúsín	Liusin.
	<i>Pygeum preslii</i> Merr.	Lágo	

Families, species, official common names, etc.—Continued.

Family.	Species.	Official name.	Usual trade name.	
Leguminosæ	<i>Acacia farnesiana</i> (L.) Willd.	Aróma		Eup
	<i>Adenantha intermedia</i> Merr.	Tanglin	Ipil.	
	<i>Albizzia acle</i> (Blanco) Merr. (<i>Pithecolobium acle</i> Vid.)	Acle	Acle.	
	<i>Albizzia procera</i> (Roxb.) Benth.	Acleng-párang	Acleng-parang.	
	<i>Albizzia retusa</i> Benth.	Kásai		Ana
	<i>Albizzia saponaria</i> (Lour.) Blume	Salinkúgi	Salinkugi.	
	<i>Bauhinia malabarica</i> Roxb.	Alibangbáng		
	<i>Caesalpinia sappan</i> L.	Sibucáo	Sibucáo.	
	<i>Cassia javanica</i> L.	Caña-fistula		
	<i>Cassia siamea</i> Lam.			
	<i>Delonix regia</i> Raf. (<i>Poinciana regia</i> Boj.)	Fire tree		
	<i>Enterolobium saman</i> (Jacq.) Prain (<i>Pithecolobium saman</i> Benth.)	Rain tree	Acacia.	
	<i>Erythrina indica</i> Lam.	Dapdáp		
	<i>Erythrophloeum densiflorum</i> (Elm.) Merr.	Kamátog		
	<i>Gliricidia sepium</i> (Jacq.) Steud.	Madre cacáo		
	<i>Intsia acuminata</i> Merr.	Merrill's ipil	Ipil.	Rha
	<i>Intsia bijuga</i> (Colebr.) O. Ktze. (<i>Azzeria bijuga</i> A. Gray).	Ipil	Do.	
	<i>Kingiodendron alternifolium</i> (Elm.) M. & R.	Batéte	Batete.	Sapi
	<i>Leucaena glauca</i> (L.) Benth.	Ipil-ípil	Santa elena.	
	<i>Ormosia calavensis</i> Azaola	Báhai		
	<i>Pahudia rhomboidea</i> (Blanco) Prain	Tíndalo	Tindalo.	
	<i>Parkia timoriana</i> (DC.) Merr. (<i>Parkia roxburghii</i> G. Don)	Cúpang	Cupang.	
	<i>Peltophorum inerme</i> (Roxb.) Naves			Stap
	<i>Pithecolobium dulce</i> (Roxb.) Benth.	Camanchile	Camanchile.	Tilia
	<i>Pithecolobium scutiferum</i> (Blanco) Benth.	Anagáp		
	<i>Pongamia mitis</i> (L.) Merr.	Bani		
	<i>Prosopis vidaliana</i> Naves	Philippine mesquite.	Aroma.	Malv
	<i>Pterocarpus blancoi</i> Merr.	Blanco's narra	Narra.	
	<i>Pterocarpus echinatus</i> Pers.	Prickly narra	Do.	
	<i>Pterocarpus indicus</i> Willd.	Narra	Do.	
	<i>Sesbania grandiflora</i> (L.) Pers.	Katúrai		Bom
	<i>Sindora supa</i> Merr. (<i>Sindora wallichii</i> F.-Vill. non Benth.)	Supá	Supa.	
<i>Tamarindus indica</i> L.	Sampálok		Sterc	
<i>Wallaceodendron celebicum</i> Koord.	Banúyo	Banuyo.		
Rutaceæ	<i>Citrus hystrix</i> DC.	Kabúyao		
	<i>Fagara integrifoliola</i> Merr.	Kayutána		
	<i>Murraya exotica</i> L.	Camuning	Camuning.	
Bursaceæ	<i>Canarium luzonicum</i> A. Gray	Pili		
	<i>Canarium villosum</i> F.-Vill.	Pagsahingín		
	<i>Garuga abilo</i> (Blanco) Merr.	Bogó		
	<i>Santiria nitida</i> Merr.	Kamíngi		Dille
Meliaceæ	<i>Aglaiá clarkii</i> Merr.	Tucang-cálo	Tucang-calao.	
	<i>Aglaiá harmsiana</i> Perk.	Malaságing		
	<i>Dysoxylum</i> sp.?	Agarú		Thea
	<i>Lansium domesticum</i> Jack	Lansones		
	<i>Sandoricum indicum</i> Cav.	Santól	Santol.	
	<i>Sandoricum vidalii</i> Merr.	Malasantól	Malasantol.	
	<i>Toona calantas</i> M. & R.	Calántas	Calantas.	
	<i>Xylocarpus granatum</i> Koen.	Piagáo		
<i>Xylocarpus obovatus</i> A. Juss.	Tabígi		Gutti	
Euphorbiaceæ	<i>Aleurites moluccana</i> Willd.	Lumbáng	Lumbang.	
	<i>Aleurites trisperma</i> Blanco	Balukánad	Do.	
	<i>Antidesma bunius</i> Spr.	Bignái		
	<i>Antidesma edule</i> Merr.	Tanigi		
	<i>Antidesma ghaesembilla</i> Gaertn.	Binayúyu		
	<i>Aporosa sphaeridophora</i> Merr.	Bignái laláki		
	<i>Aporosa symplocosifolia</i> Merr.	Malabignái		
	<i>Baccaurea tetrandra</i> Muell.-Arg.	Dílak		
	<i>Bischofia javanica</i> Bl.	Túai		
	<i>Cyclostemon bordenii</i> Merr.	Tinán-pantái	Tinaan-pantai.	
	<i>Cyclostemon grandifolius</i> C. B. Rob.	Banáwi		
	<i>Cyclostemon microphyllus</i> Merr.	Butong-manúk		
	<i>Endospermum peltatum</i> Merr.	Gúbas	Gubas.	
	<i>Hevea brasiliensis</i> Muell.-Arg.	Para rubber	Para rubber.	
	<i>Homalanthus populneus</i> Pax	Balantí		
<i>Jatropha curcas</i> L.	Túba			

Families, species, official common names, etc.—Continued.

Family.	Species.	Official name.	Usual trade name.
Euphorbiaceæ	<i>Macaranga bicolor</i> Muell.-Arg.	Hamindáng	
	<i>Macaranga tanarius</i> Muell.-Arg.	Binúnga	
	<i>Mallotus moluccanus</i> Muell.-Arg.	Alim	
	<i>Mallotus philippinensis</i> Muell.-Arg.	Banáto	
	<i>Mallotus ricinoides</i> Muell.-Arg.	Hinlaúmo	
	<i>Manihot glaziovii</i> Muell.-Arg.	Ceara rubber	Ceara rubber.
Anacardiaceæ	<i>Anacardium occidentale</i> L.	Kasói	
	<i>Buchanania arborescens</i> Blume	Balinghásay	Balinghasay.
	<i>Dracontomelum cumingianum</i> Baill.	Lamió	Dao.
	<i>Dracontomelum dao</i> M. & R.	Daó	Do.
	<i>Koordersiodendron pinnatum</i> (Blanco) Merr.	Amúguis	Amuguis.
	<i>Mangifera altissima</i> Blanco	Pahútan	
	<i>Mangifera indica</i> L.	Mango	Mango.
	<i>Semecarpus perrottetii</i> March.	Ligás	
Rhamnaceæ	<i>Spondias lutea</i> L.	Ciruélas	
	<i>Spondias pinnata</i> Kurz.	Libás	
Sapindaceæ	<i>Zizyphus trinervia</i> Poir.	Ligáa	
	<i>Zizyphus zonulatus</i> Blanco	Balácat	Balacat or ligaa.
Staphyleaceæ	<i>Arytera littoralis</i> Bl.	Alásin	
	<i>Euphoria cinerea</i> Radlk.	Alúpag	Alupag.
	<i>Harpullia arborea</i> (Blanco) Radlk.	Uás	Do.
	<i>Litchi philippinensis</i> Radlk.	Malúgay	Malugay.
Tiliaceæ	<i>Pometia pinnata</i> Forst.		
	<i>Turpinia pomifera</i> DC.	Anongo	
Malvaceæ	<i>Columbia serratifolia</i> (Cav.) DC.	Aniláo	
	<i>Diplodiscus paniculatus</i> Turcz.	Balobó	
	<i>Grewia stylocarpa</i> Warb.	Susumbík	
Bombacaceæ	<i>Bombycidendron vidalianum</i> (Naves) M. & R.	Lanútan	Lanutan.
	<i>Hibiscus tiliaceus</i> L.	Malubágo	
	<i>Thespesia populnea</i> Corr.	Banálo	Lanutan or banalo.
Sterculiaceæ	<i>Bombax malabaricum</i> DC.	Malabúlak	
	<i>Ceiba pentandra</i> (L.) Gaertn.	Kápok	
	<i>Heritiera littoralis</i> Dry.	Dúngon-láte	Dungon-late or dungon.
	<i>Kleinhofia hospita</i> L.	Tanág	
	<i>Pterocymbium tinctorium</i> (Blanco) Merr.	Talúto	Taluto.
	<i>Pterospermum</i> spp.	Bayók	
	<i>Sterculia blancoi</i> Rolfe	Magalípak	
	<i>Tarrietia javanica</i> Bl.	Lumbayáo	Lumbayao.
Dilleniaceæ	<i>Tarrietia sylvatica</i> (Vid.) Merr.	Dúngon	Dungon.
	<i>Dillenia luzoniensis</i> (Vid.) Merr.	Malacatmón	Catmon.
	<i>Dillenia philippinensis</i> Rolfe	Catmón	Do.
Theaceæ	<i>Dillenia speciosa</i> Gilg	Catmón-carabáo	Do.
	<i>Adinandra luzonica</i> Merr.		
	<i>Eurya</i> spp.		
	<i>Gordonia luzonica</i> Vid.		
	<i>Ternstroemia toquian</i> (Blanco) F.-Vill.	Bikag	
Guttiferæ	<i>Thea montana</i> (Blanco) Merr.		
	<i>Calophyllum blancoi</i> Pl. & Tr.	Bitánhol	Palomaria.
	<i>Calophyllum inophyllum</i> L.	Palo maria	Do.
	<i>Cratoxylon celebicum</i> Blume	Gúyong-gúyong	
	<i>Garcinia benthami</i> Pierre	Bunóg	
	<i>Garcinia binucao</i> Choisy	Binúkao	
	<i>Garcinia mangostana</i> L.	Mangosteen	Mangosteen.
Dipterocarpaceæ	<i>Kayea paniculata</i> (Blanco) Merr.	Kaliwas	
	<i>Anisoptera curtisii</i> Dyer	Malapáho	Palosapis, mayapis.
	<i>Anisoptera thurifera</i> Blanco	Palosápis	Do.
	<i>Anisoptera</i> sp.	Afu	Do.
	<i>Dipterocarpus affinis</i> Brandis	Hagachác	Apitong.
	<i>Dipterocarpus grandiflorus</i> Blanco	Apitong	Do.
	<i>Dipterocarpus vernicifluus</i> Blanco	Pánao	Do.
	<i>Hopea acuminata</i> Merr.	Mangachapúy	Mangachapuy, dalingdingan.

Families, species, official common names, etc.—Continued.

Family.	Species.	Official name.	Usual trade name.
Dipterocarpaceæ	<i>Hopea philippinensis</i> Dyer	Guísoc-guísoc	Dalingdingan, mang-chapuy.
	<i>Hopea pierrei</i> Hance	Dalingdinganisák.	Yacal.
	<i>Hopea plagata</i> Vid.	Yacál	Do.
	<i>Hopea</i> sp.	Black yacál	Do.
	do	Malayacál	Do.
	<i>Parashorea plicata</i> Brandis	Bagtican-lauan	Almon, white lauan.
	<i>Pentacme contorta</i> (Vid.) M. & R. (<i>Shorea contorta</i> Vid.)	White lauan	Lauan, white lauan.
	<i>Shorea balangeran</i> Burck	Guísoc	Yacal.
	<i>Shorea furfuracea</i> Miq.	Almón-lauan	Almon, white lauan.
	<i>Shorea guiso</i> (Blanco) Blume	Guijo	Guijo.
	<i>Shorea malaanonan</i> (Blanco) Blume	Malaa n ó n a n g-lauan.	Lauan, malaanonang.
	<i>Shorea polysperma</i> (Blanco) Merr.	Tanguile	Tanguile, mayapis, balak-bakan.
	<i>Shorea</i> sp.	Mangasinórolauan.	Lauan, mangasinoro.
	do	Red lauan	Red lauan, red almon, tanguile, balak-bakan.
	do	Tiaong-lauan	Tiaong-lauan, red lauan.
	<i>Shorea squamata</i> (Tcz.) Dyer	Mayápis-lauan	Mayapis, red lauan.
	<i>Vatica</i> sp.	Kalúnti-lauan	Yacal.
do	Nárig	Yacal blanco.	
do	Yacal blanco		
Flacourtiaceæ	<i>Flacourtia inermis</i> Roxb. <i>Homalium luzoniense</i> F.-Vill.	Aránga	Aranga.
Datisceæ	<i>Octomeles sumatrana</i> Miq.	Bilúang	Biluang.
Lythraceæ	<i>Lagerstroemia piriformis</i> Koehne (<i>Lagerstroemia batitinan</i> Vid.). <i>Lagerstroemia speciosa</i> (L.) Pers.	Batitinan Banabá	Batitinan, Philippine teak. Banaba.
Sonneratiaceæ	<i>Sonneratia pagatpat</i> Blanco <i>Sonneratia</i> sp.	Pagatpát Pedadá	Pagatpat, montol. Pagatpat.
Lecythidaceæ	<i>Barringtonia racemosa</i> Roxb. <i>Barringtonia speciosa</i> Forst. <i>Planchonia spectabilis</i> Merr.	Pútat Bótong Lamóg	
Rhizophoraceæ	<i>Bruguiera caryophylloides</i> Bl. <i>Bruguiera eriopetala</i> W. & A. <i>Bruguiera gymnorrhiza</i> Lam. <i>Bruguiera parviflora</i> W. & A. <i>Carallia integerrima</i> DC. <i>Ceriops tagal</i> (Perr.) C. B. Rob.	Potótan-laláki Potótan Busáin Langárai Bacáuan-gubat Tangál	Bacauan. Do. Do. Do. Tangal, bacauan. Bacauan. Do.
	<i>Rhizophora conjugata</i> L. <i>Rhizophora mucronata</i> Lam.	Bacáuan Bacáuan-laláki	
	<i>Lumnitzera littorea</i> (Jack) Voigt <i>Lumnitzera racemosa</i> Willd.	Tabáo	Tabao.
	<i>Terminalia calamansanai</i> (Blanco) Rolfe <i>Terminalia catappa</i> L. <i>Terminalia comintana</i> (Blanco) Merr.	Malacalumpít Talisay Binggás	Talisay. Bunglas, binggas, molave, batitinan. Calumpit. Sacat. Talisay. Dalinsi.
	<i>Terminalia edulis</i> Blanco <i>Terminalia nitens</i> Presl <i>Terminalia oöcarpa</i> Merr. <i>Terminalia pellucida</i> Presl	Calumpít Sácat Talisay-gúbat Dalinsi	
	Combretaceæ		

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PLATE I.—ALMACIGA (*Agathis alba*).

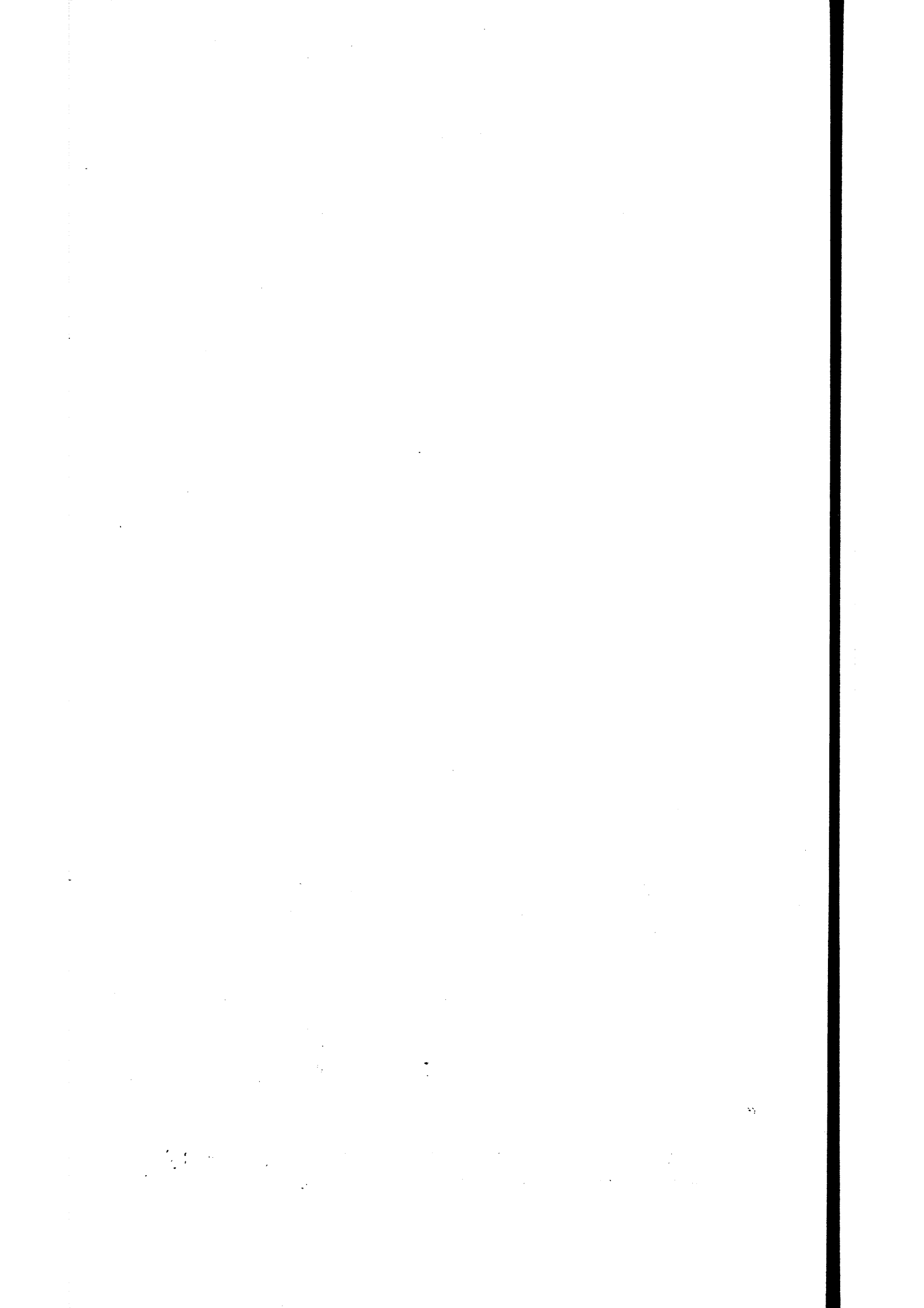




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PLATE II.—BENGUET PINE (*Pinus insularis*).

a, Cluster of leaves ; b, unopened cone ; c, opened cone.



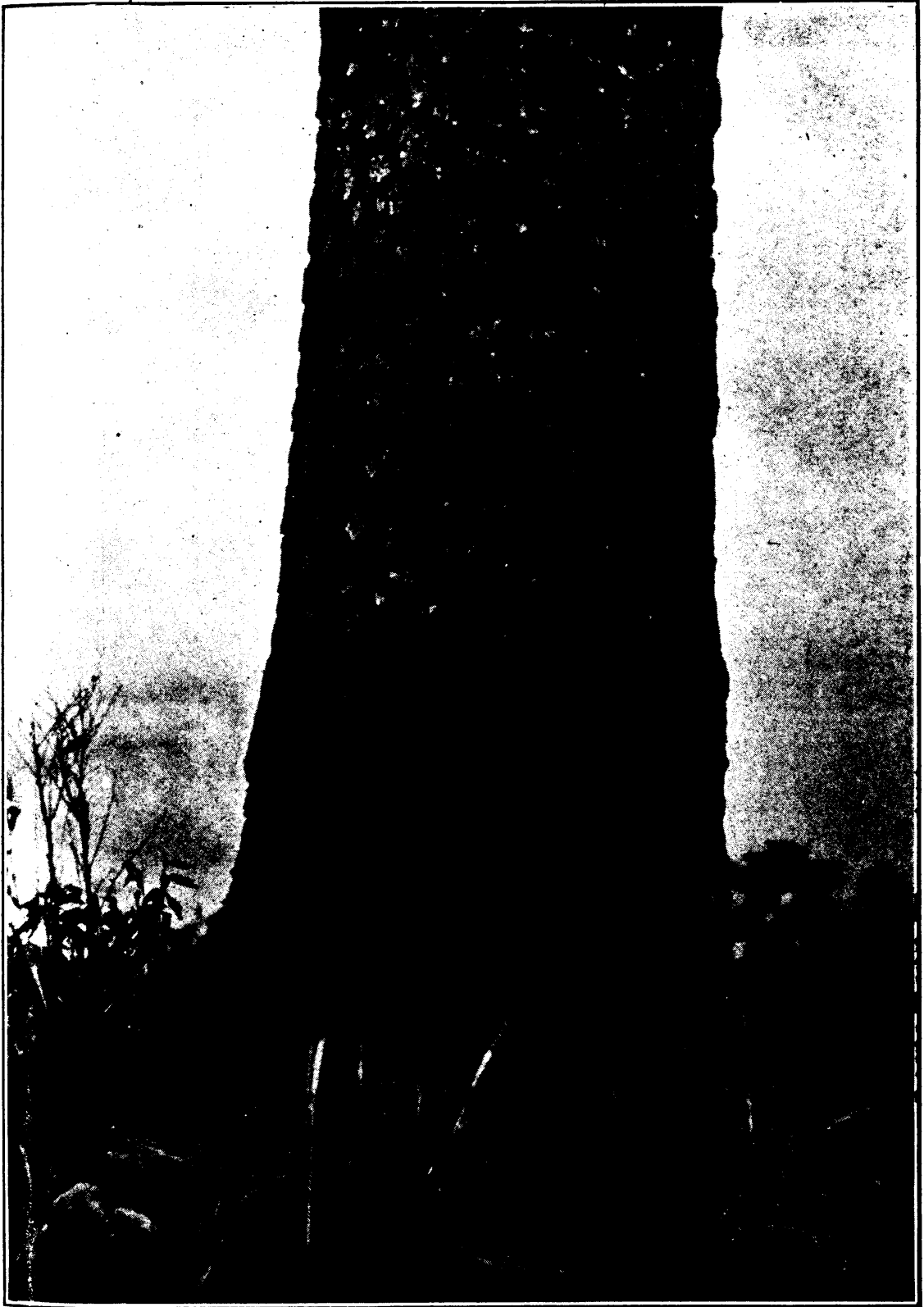
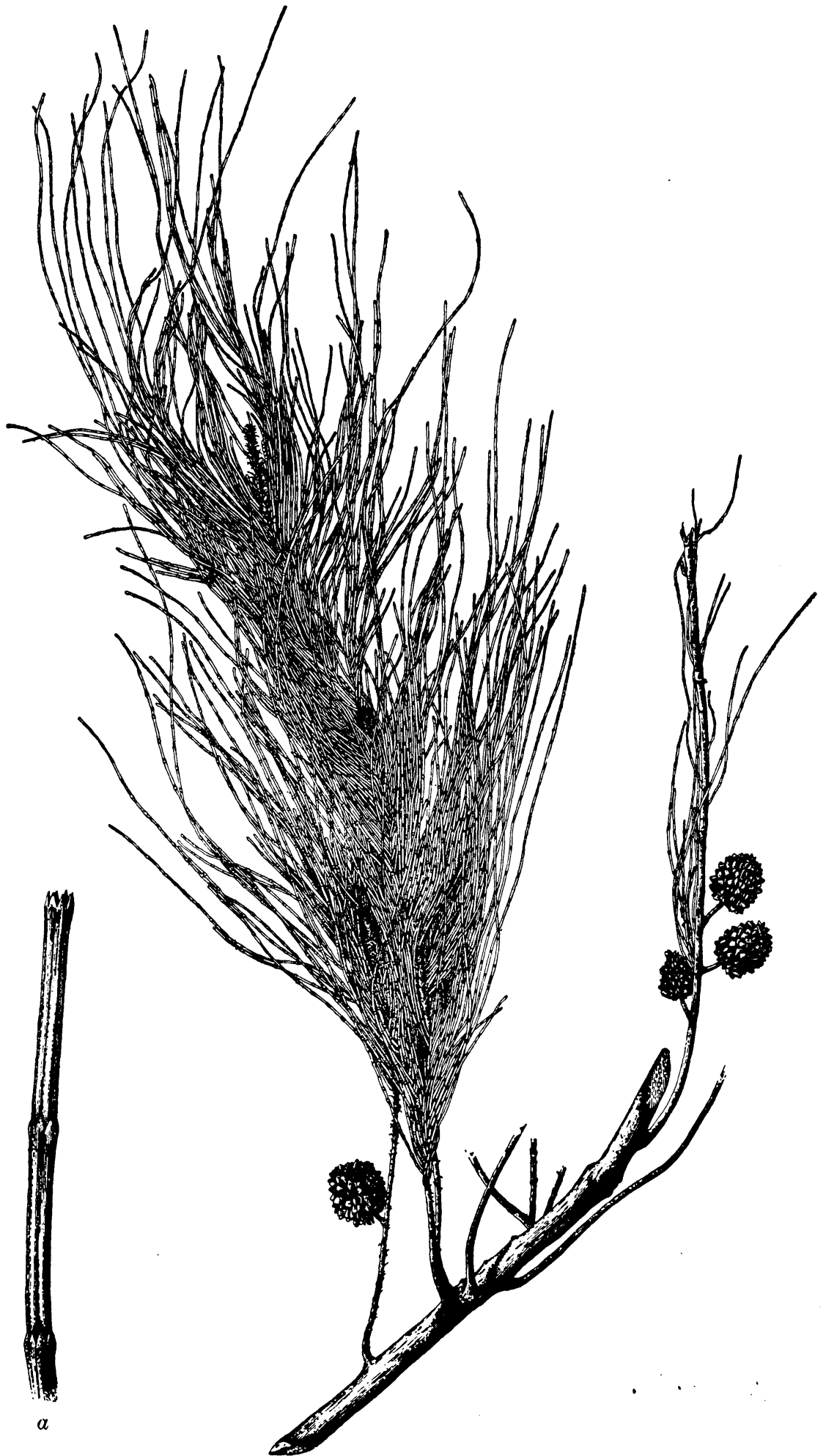


PLATE III.—BENGUET PINE (*Pinus insularis*).



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PLATE IV.—AGOHO (*Casuarina equisetifolia*).

a, Branchlet showing reduced leaves.

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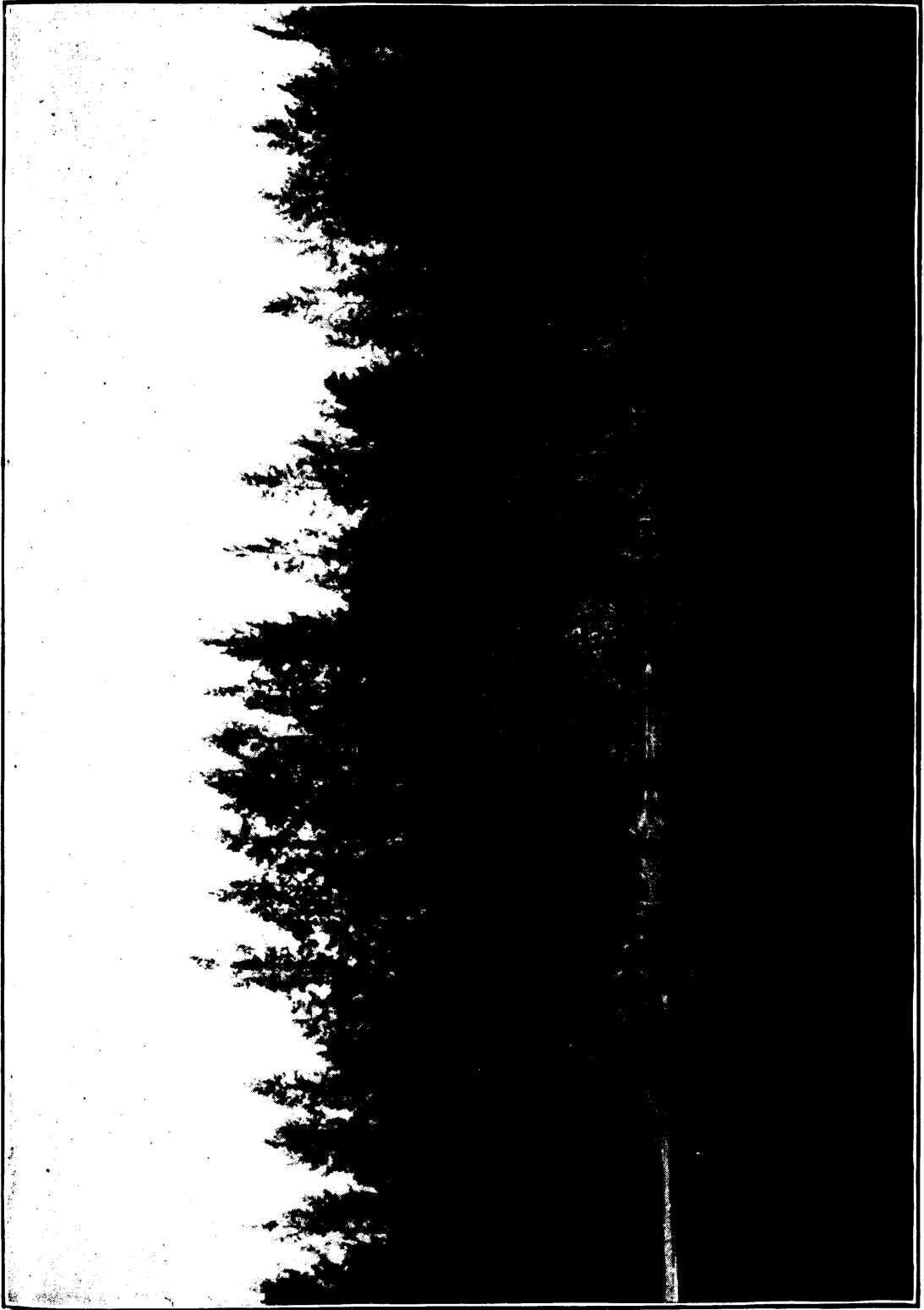


PLATE V.—GROVE OF AGOHO TREES.

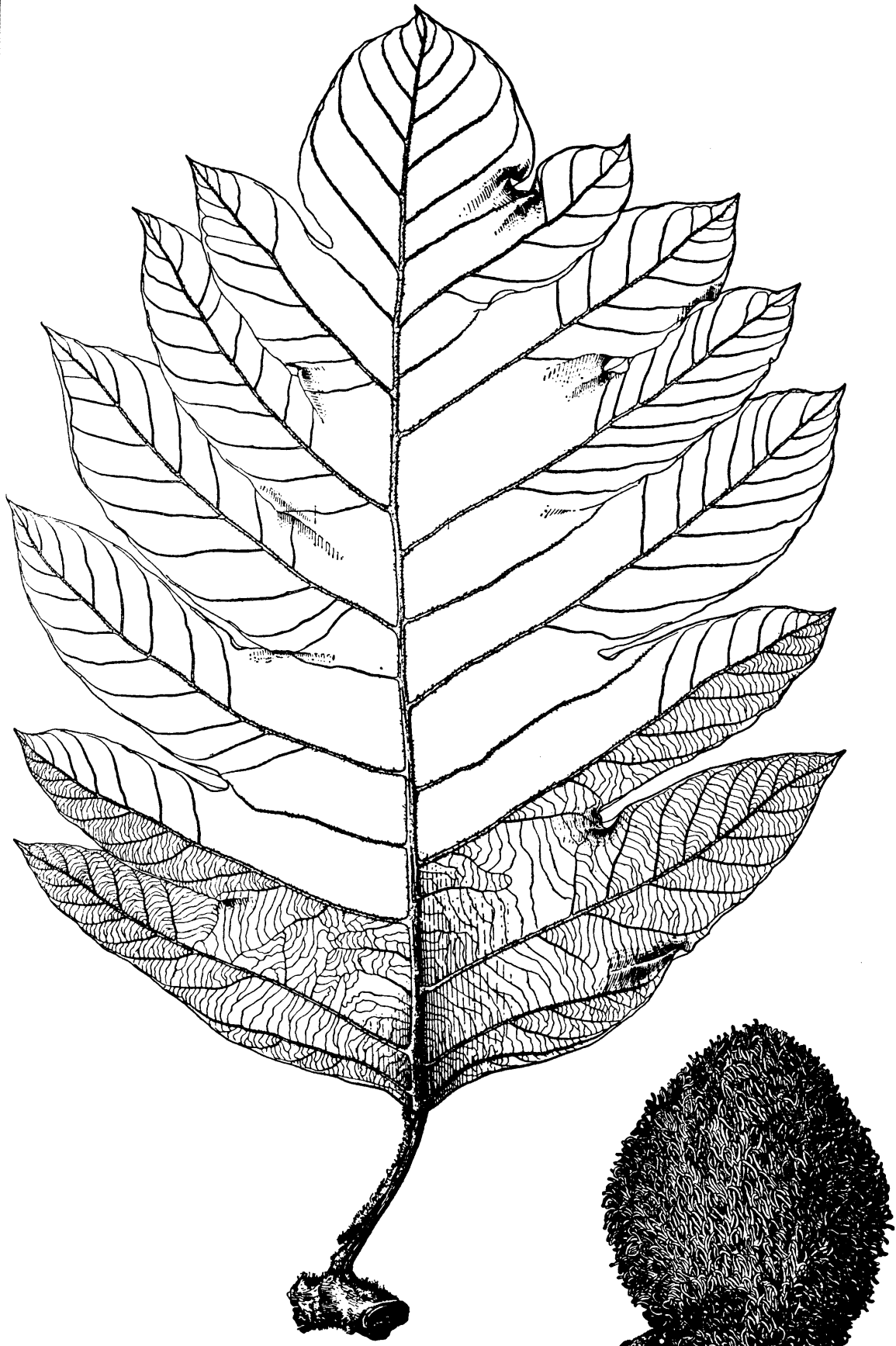
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PLATE VI.—ANUBING (*Artocarpus cumingiana*),
a, Young fruit; b, mature fruit.

U. S. N.



J.Vitan del.

PLATE VII.—CULTIVATED FORM OF ANTIPOLO (*Artocarpus communis*).

a, Fruit.

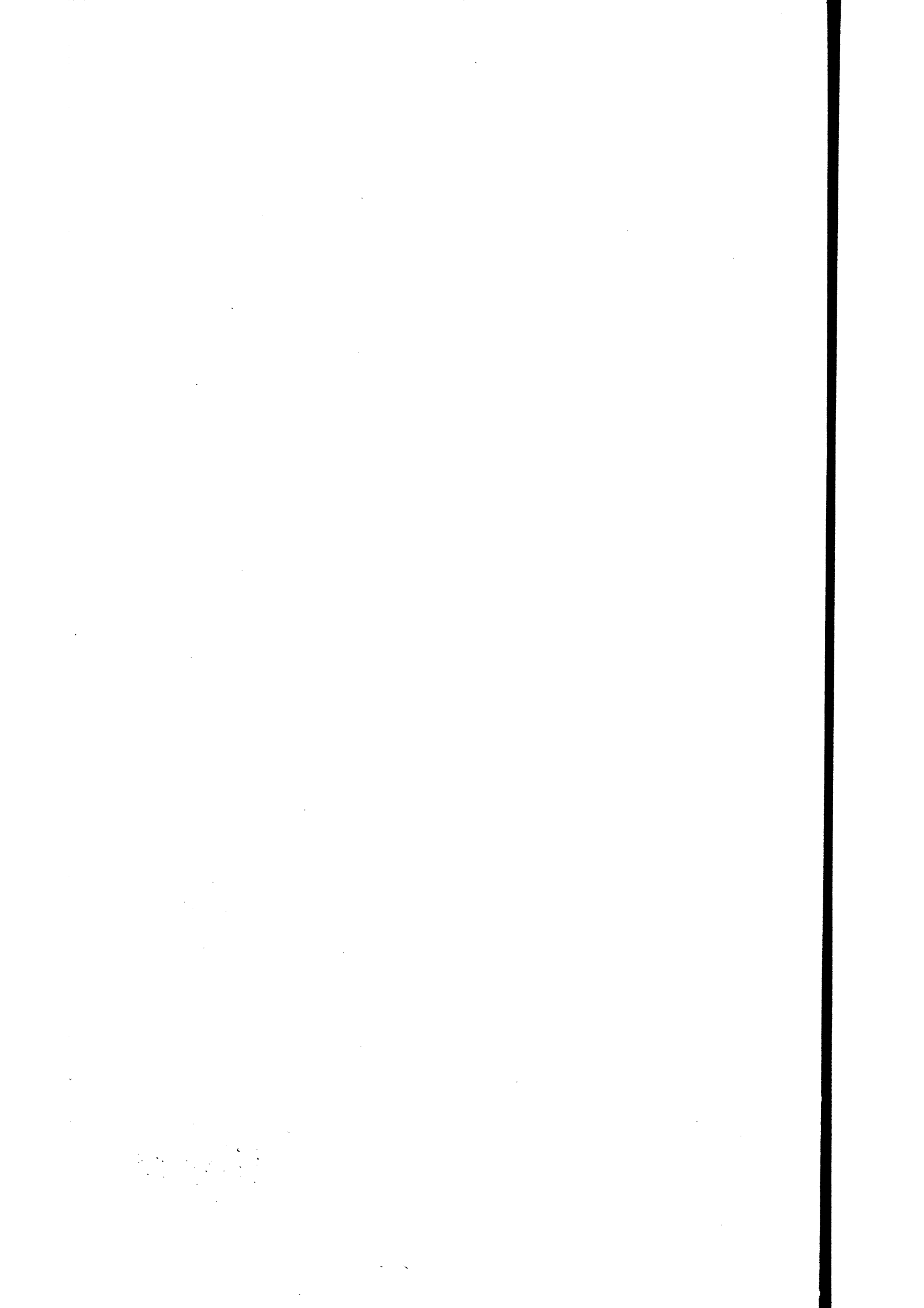
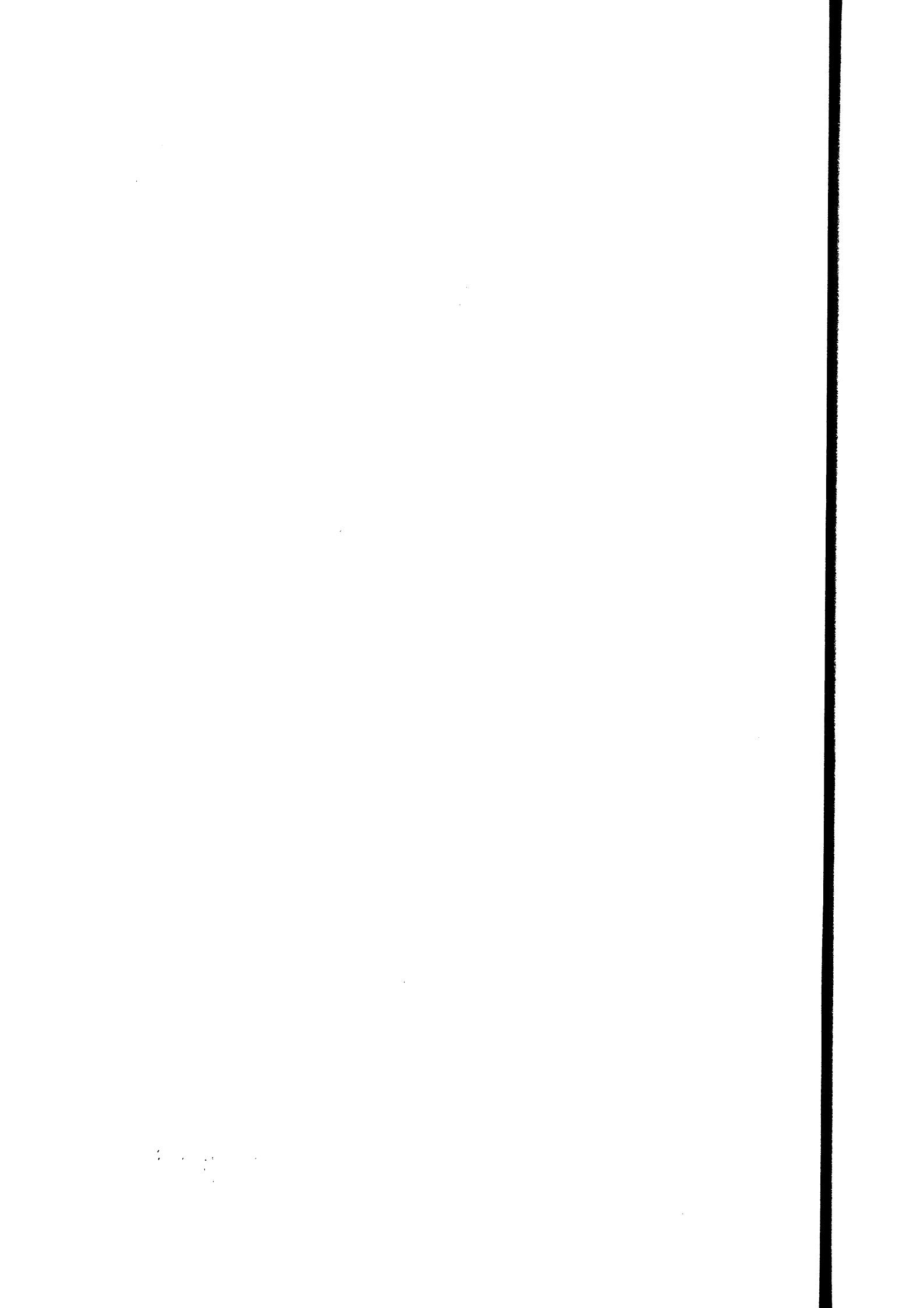
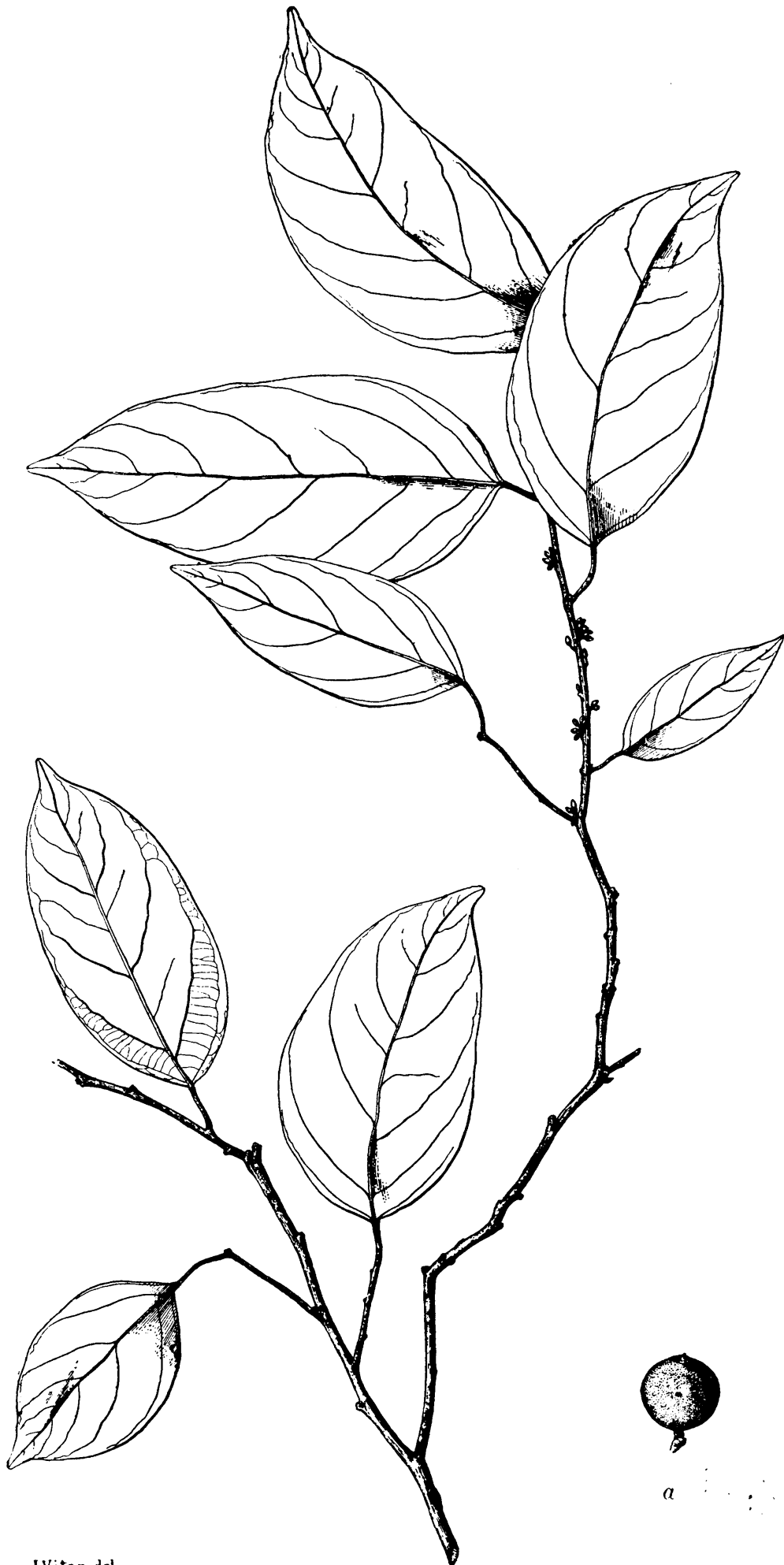




PLATE VIII.—BALETE (*Ficus* sp.).

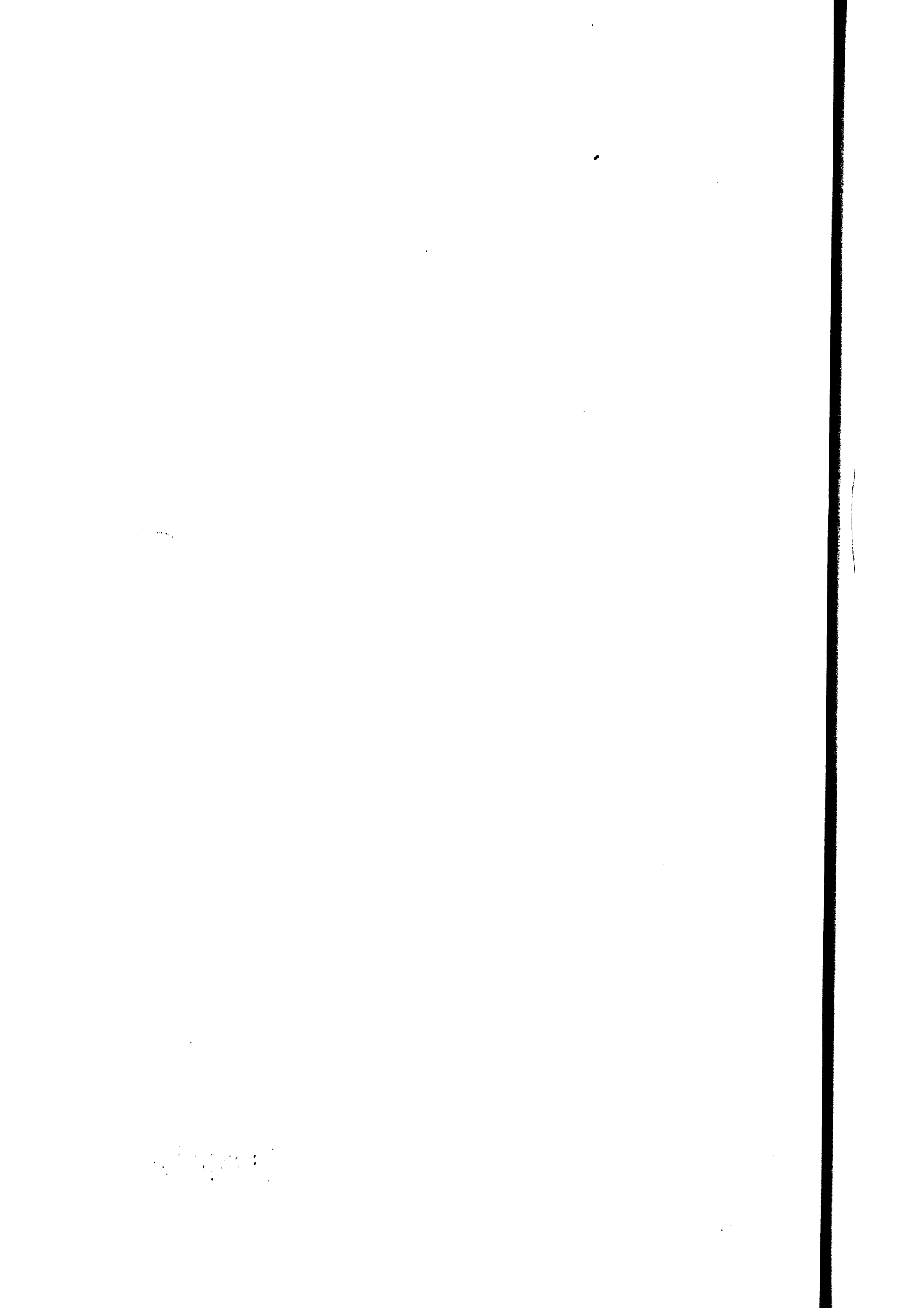


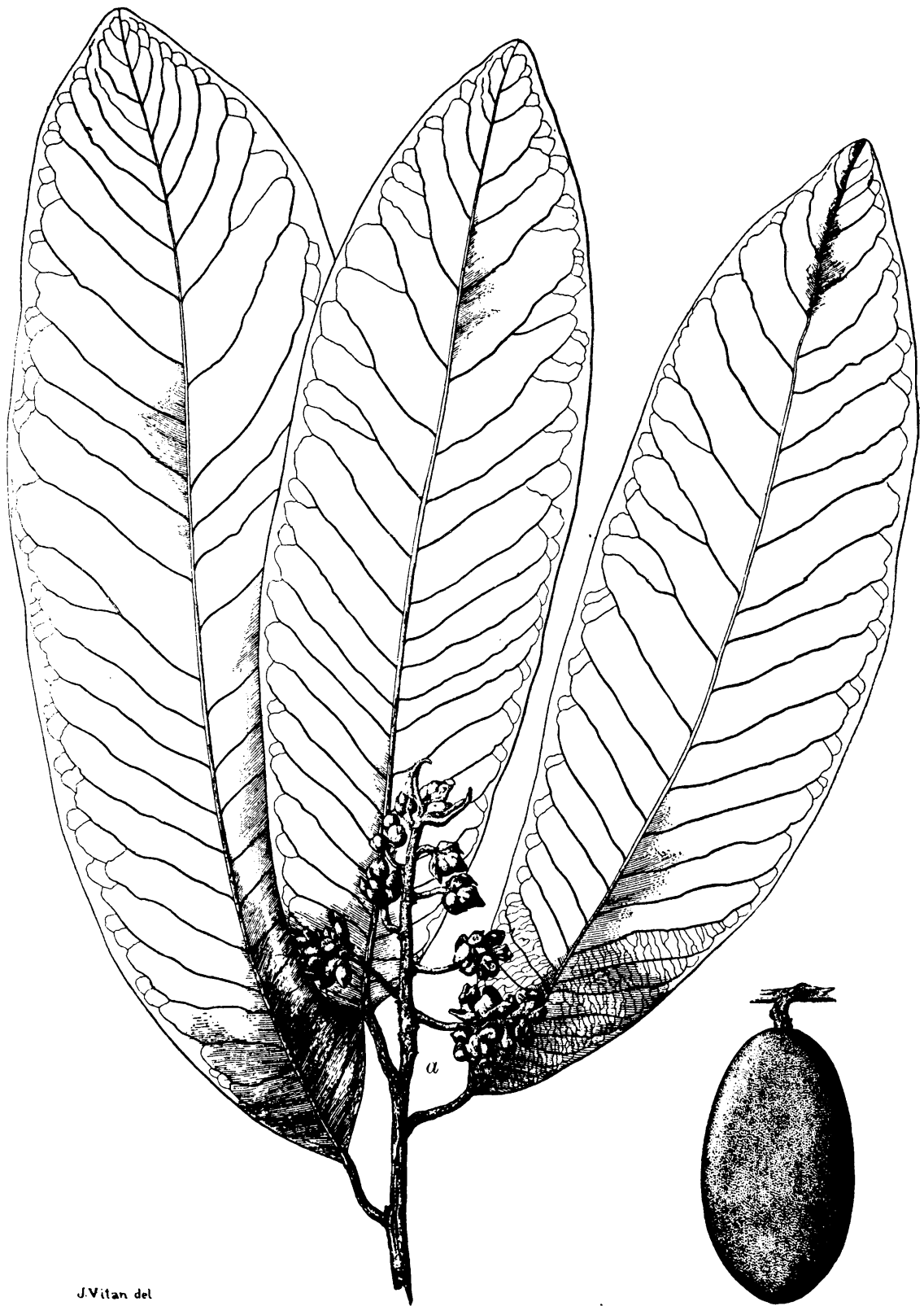


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PLATE IX.—TAMAYUAN (*Strombosia philippinensis*).

a, Fruit.





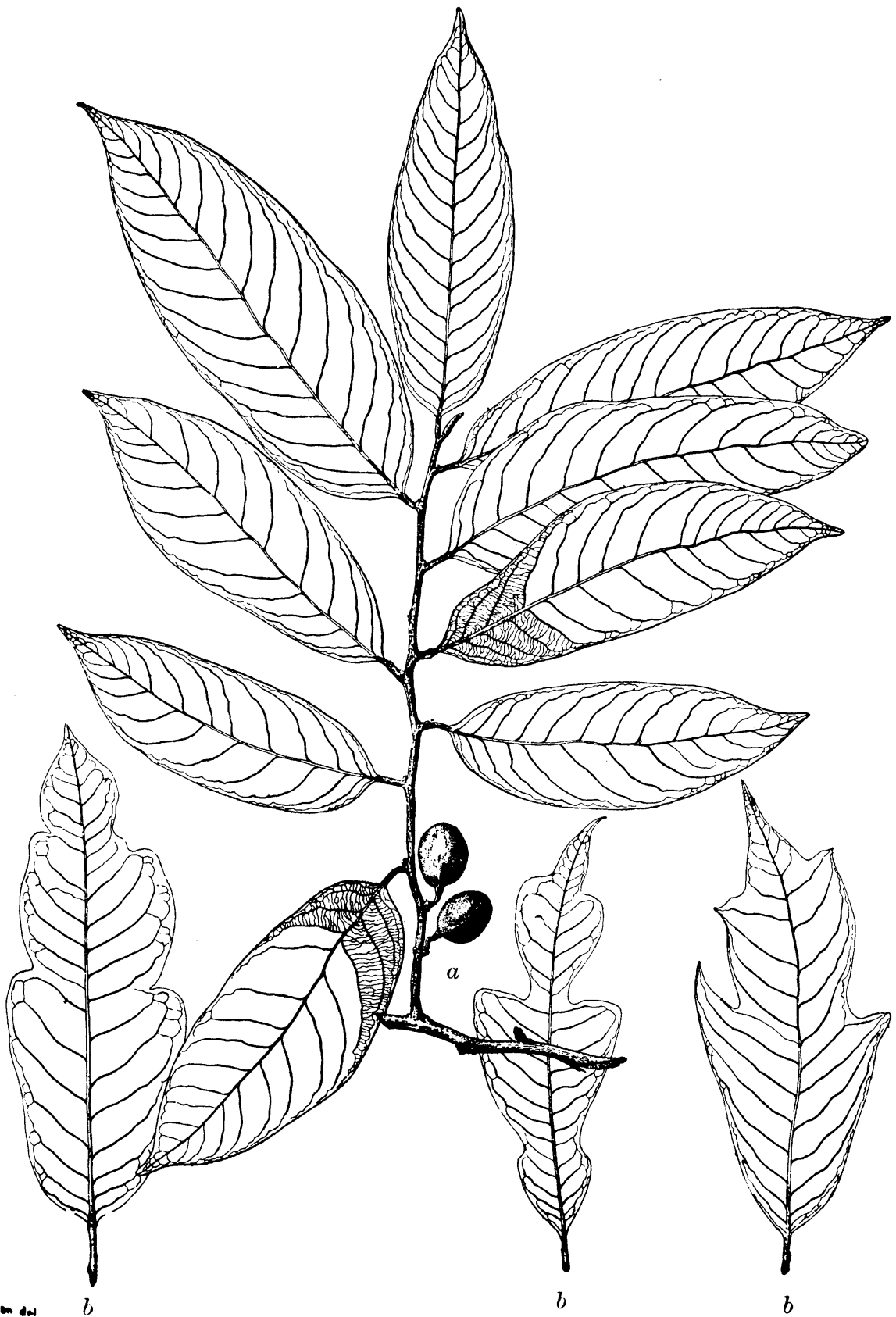
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PLATE X.—DUGUAN (*Myristica philippensis*).

a, Flowers; *b*, fruit.

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PLATE XI.—TAMBALAO (*Knema heterophylla*).

a, Fruit; *b*, different forms of leaves.

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PLATE XII.—MARANG (*Litsea perrottetii*).

a, Cluster of flowers and young fruits; b, mature fruits.



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PLATE XIII.—MALACADIOS (*Beilschmiedia cairocan*).

a, Fruit; *b*, flower cluster.

Handwritten scribbles or marks in the upper left quadrant.

Vertical handwritten marks or scribbles on the right edge of the page.

Handwritten scribbles or marks in the lower center of the page.



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PLATE XIV.—LIUSIN (*Parinarium griffithianum*).

a, Flower cluster; *b*, fruits.

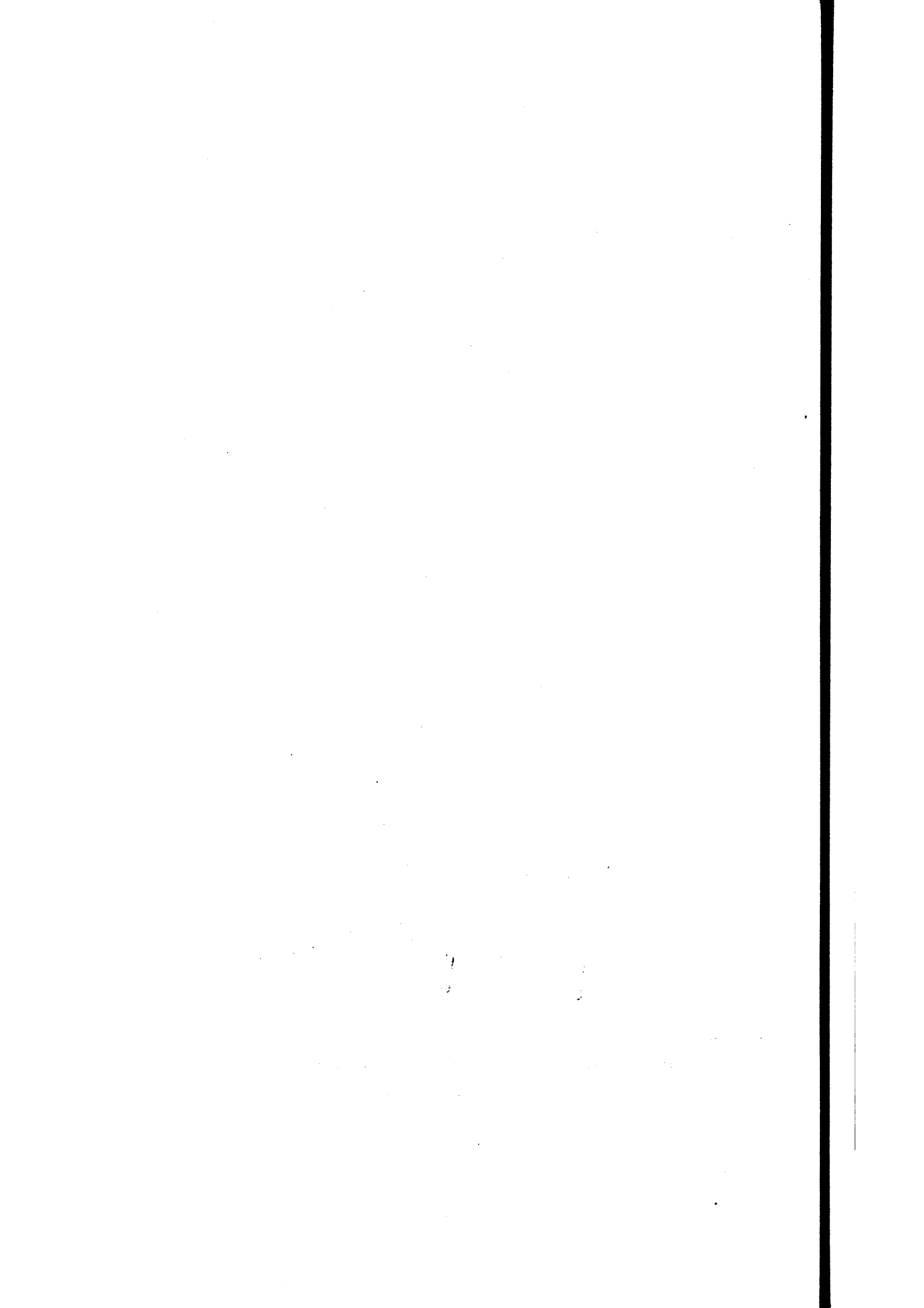




PLATE XV.—LEAVES AND LOWER PORTION OF THE TRUNK OF LIUSIN
(*Parinarium griffithianum*).

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PLATE XVI.—THE NARRAS.

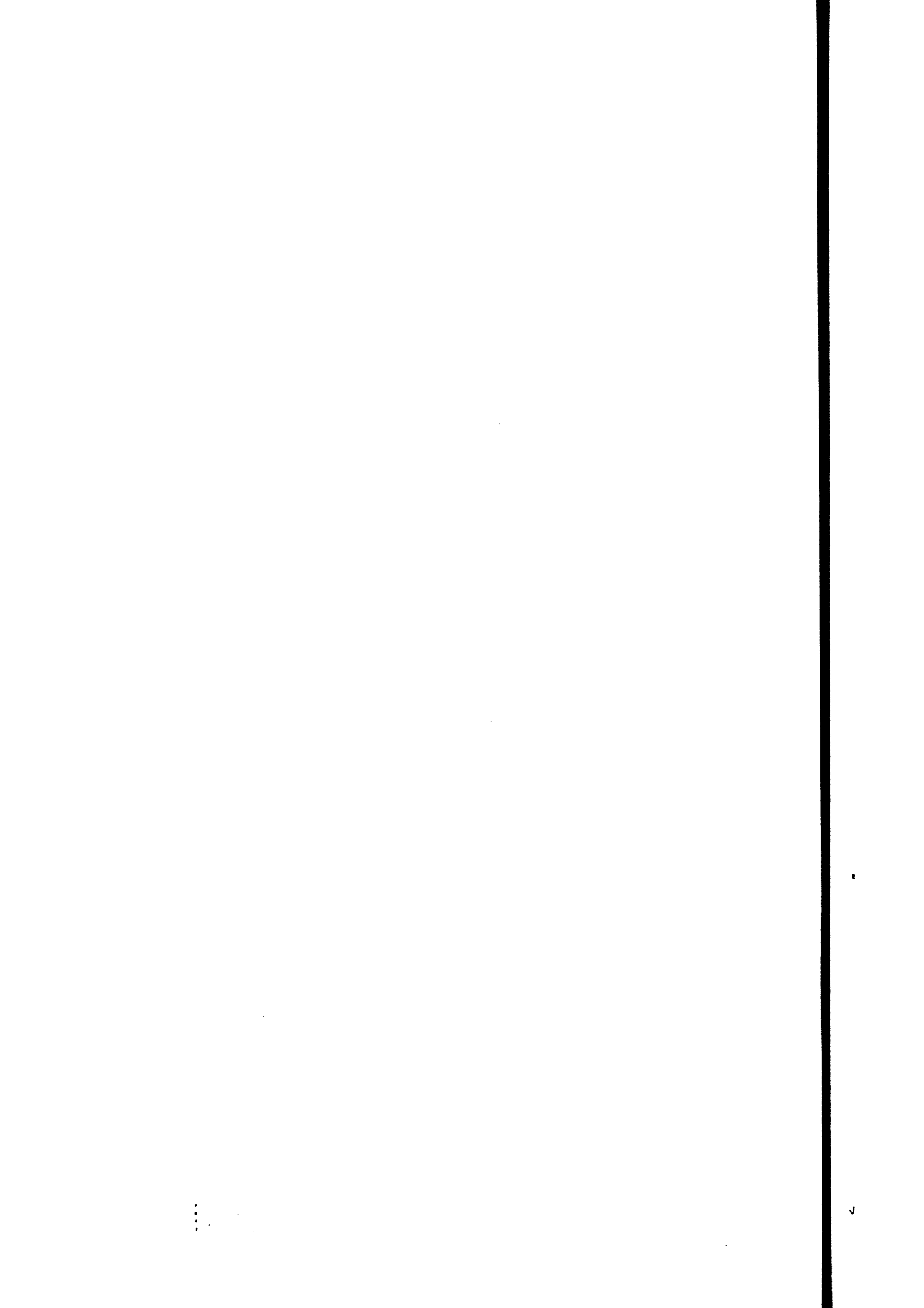
a, Spiny narra (*Pterocarpus echinatus*); b, fruit of Blanco's narra (*Pterocarpus blancoi*); c, fruit of narra (*Pterocarpus indicus*).

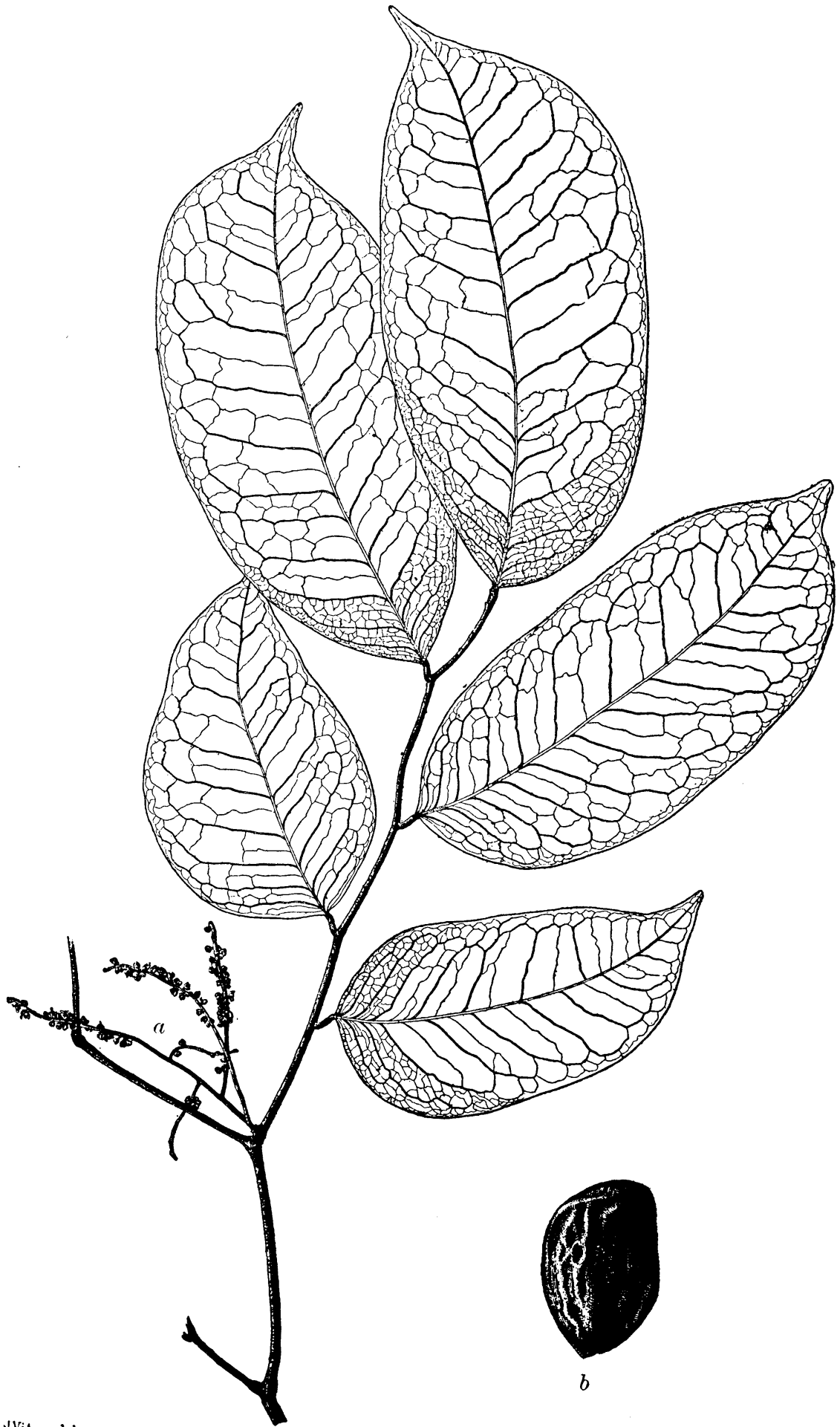
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PLATE XVII.—LOWER PORTION OF THE TRUNK OF A LARGE NARRA (*Pterocarpus indicus*).
Showing root buttress.

U. S. G. O.





JVitan del.

PLATE XVIII.—BATETE (*Kingiodendron alternifolium*).

a, Flower cluster; b, fruit.

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Families, species, official common names, etc.—Continued.

Family.	Species.	Official name.	Usual trade name.	
Myrtaceæ	<i>Decaspermum blancoi</i> Vid.		M a c a a s i m, malaruh at, binolo.	
	<i>Decaspermum paniculatum</i> Kurz			
	<i>Eucalyptus naudiniana</i> F. Muell.		M a l a r u h a t, macaasim.	
	<i>Eugenia bordenii</i> Merr.	M a l a r ú h a t n a pulá.		
	<i>Eugenia calubcob</i> C. B. Rob.	Kalubkób		
	<i>Eugenia jambolana</i> Lam.	Dúhat	M a l a r u h a t, macaasim. Do.	
	<i>Eugenia jambos</i> L.	Tampói		
	<i>Eugenia javanica</i> Lam.	Makópa		
	<i>Eugenia luzoniensis</i> Merr.	M a l a r ú h a t n a pulá.		
	<i>Eugenia</i> spp.	Macaásim, mala- rúhat.	Bayabas.	
	<i>Leptospermum flavescens</i> Smith	Malasulási		
<i>Osbornia octodonta</i> F. Muell.	Tawális			
<i>Psidium guajava</i> L.	Bayábas			
<i>Tristania decorticata</i> Merr.	Malabayábas			
<i>Xanthostemon verdugonianus</i> Naves	Manconó	M a n c o n o, p a l o de hierro.		
Melastomataceæ	<i>Memecylon edule</i> Roxb.	Kúlis		
Araliaceæ	<i>Polyscias nodosa</i> Seem.	Malapapáya	M a l a p a p a y a, malasapsap.	
Cornaceæ	<i>Alangium longiflorum</i> Merr.	Malatápai	M a l a t a p a i, guntapai.	
Sapotaceæ	<i>Achras sapota</i> L.	Chico	Betis.	
	<i>Illipe betis</i> (Blanco) Merr.	Bétis		
	<i>Illipe ramiflora</i> Merr.	Banítí	M a n i c n i c, mayapis.	
	<i>Mimusops</i> sp.	Bansaláguin	Bansalaguin.	
	<i>Palaquium luzoniense</i> (F. Vill.) Vid.	Náto	Malac-malac.	
	<i>Palaquium philippense</i> (Perr.) C. B. Rob.	Malacmálac	M a n i c n i c, nato.	
	<i>Palaquium tenuipetiolatum</i> Merr.	Manicníc	M a n i c n i c, m a y a p i s, amuguis.	
	<i>Sideroxylon</i> spp.	White nátos		
	Ebenaceæ	<i>Diospyros discolor</i> Willd.	Camagón	C a m a g o n, e b o- ny.
		<i>Diospyros mindanaensis</i> Merr.	Ata-áta	B o l o n g e t a, c a- magon.
<i>Diospyros pilosantha</i> Blanco		Bolongéta	B o l o n g e t a, c a- magon.	
<i>Maba buxifolia</i> Pers.		Ebony	E b o n y, é b a n o.	
Lagoniaceæ	<i>Fagraea fragrans</i> Roxb.	Urung	D o l o, t e c a.	
Apocynaceæ	<i>Alstonia macrophylla</i> Wall.	Batino	B a t i n o.	
	<i>Alstonia scholaris</i> (L.) R. Br.	Ditá	D i t a.	
	<i>Wrightia calycina</i> R. Br. <i>Wrightia laniti</i> (Blanco) Merr.	Lanéte	L a n e t e. Do.	
Borraginaceæ	<i>Cordia blancoi</i> Vid.	Anonang		
Verbenaceæ	<i>Premna nauseosa</i> Blanco	Alagao	M u l a w i n - a s o.	
	<i>Tectona grandis</i> L. f.	Teak	T e a k.	
	<i>Vitex aherniana</i> Merr.	Sasalít	S a s a l i t, m o l a- ve.	
	<i>Vitex parviflora</i> Juss. (<i>Vitex littoralis</i> Decne.)	Molave	M o l a v e.	
	<i>Vitex pentaphylla</i> Merr.	Kalipápa aso	M u l a w i n - a s o.	
	<i>Vitex pubescens</i> Vahl.	Hairy-leaf mola- ve.	M o l a v e.	
	<i>Vitex turczaninowii</i> Merr.	Lingo-lingo	M u l a w i n - a s o.	
	Bignoniaceæ	<i>Dolichandrone spathacea</i> (L. f.) K. Sch.	Túi	
		<i>Oroxylum indicum</i> Benth	Pinkapinkáhan	
		<i>Radermachera pinnata</i> (Blanco) Seem.	Bánaibánaí	
Rubiaceæ	<i>Nauclea</i> spp.		C a l a m a n s a- nay.	
	<i>Sarcocephalus cordatus</i> Miq.	Bancál	B a n c a l.	
	<i>Sarcocephalus junghuhnii</i> Miq.	Mambóg	D o.	

KEY TO THE PRINCIPAL TIMBER TREES OF THE PHILIPPINES.

1. Wook or bark, or both, resinous.
 2. Leaves needle-like **Benguet pine** (p. 26)
 2. Leaves not needle-like.
 3. Leaves simple, opposite or nearly so..... **Almaciga** (p. 25)
 3. Leaves simple, alternate (Dipterocarpaceæ).
 4. Bark ridged.
 5. Bark black, less than 5 millimeters in thickness; axils of basal veins of leaves with glands..... **Black yacal** (p. 73)
 5. Bark brown to black, more than 10 millimeters in thickness; axils of veins with or without glands.
 6. Glands only in axils of basal veins or wanting; leaves 4.5 to 8 centimeters long, 2 to 2.5 centimeters wide.. **Mangachapuy** (p. 75)
 6. Glands in axils of all secondary veins; leaves 3 to 8.5 centimeters long 1 to 3.5 centimeters wide..... **Dalingdingan-isak** (p. 76)
 5. Bark brown, cinnamon brown to nearly black; more than 10 millimeters thick; leaves without glands.
 6. Leaves hairy beneath.
 7. Hairs coarse, star shaped; stipules large; leaves 10 to 30 centimeters long; wood light red..... **Mayapis-lauan** (p. 65)
 7. Hairs not so coarse, star shaped; stipules smaller than preceding; leaves 9 to 17 centimeters long, wood with a very light red color **Almon-lauan** (p. 62)
 7. Hairs fine; bark with reddish tinge; wood dark red.
 - **Red lauan** (p. 66)
 7. Hairs fine and scattered, giving leaves a slightly rusty brown appearance; wood light brown with a reddish to yellowish tinge **Malaanonang-lauan** (p. 64)
 6. Leaves without hairs.
 7. Leaves with a white glaucous bloom beneath.
 - **Bagtican-lauan** (p. 63)
 7. Leaves without glaucous bloom.
 8. Leaves 7.5 to 23 centimeters long; 3.5 to 10 centimeters wide; widely distributed **White lauan** (p. 61)
 8. Leaves 7 to 12 centimeters long, 3 to 6 centimeters wide, reported only from Mindanao..... **Kalunti-lauan** (p. 64)
4. Bark not ridged.
 5. Bark brown, cinnamon red, to nearly black; inner bark stringy.
 6. Bark brown to cinnamon red, inner bark tan red; less than 10 millimeters thick; leaves without glands.
 7. Leaves 5 to 14 centimeters long, 3 to 6 centimeters wide, bluntly wedge shaped at the base..... **Tanguile** (p. 67)
 7. Leaves 8 to 19 centimeters long, 3 to 8 centimeters wide, rounded at base **Guijo** (p. 70)
 6. Bark brown to black, less than 6 millimeters thick; inner bark brown with pinkish tinge; leaves with prominent glands in axils; sharp-pointed stipules **Guisoc-guisoc** (p. 74)
 6. Bark gray-brown, cinnamon brown to nearly black; inner bark yellow; 10 millimeters or more in thickness.
 7. Bark gray-brown to cinnamon brown; some leaves with glands in axils of veins **Yacal** (p. 72)
 7. Bark darker than preceding; no glands; leaves slightly rusty brown beneath **Guisoc** (p. 73)

7. Bark like yacal; tree shorter and stockier; no glands; leaves like guijo and larger than guisoc and yacal.... **Malayacal** (p. 74)
5. Bark light gray, 8 millimeters or less in thickness; inner bark very brittle and red.
6. Leaf blade smooth; petiole 5.5 to 7 centimeters long.
Apitong (p. 68)
6. Leaf blade finely hairy beneath; petiole 2.5 to 3 centimeters long.
Panao (p. 69)
6. Petiole and midrib of underside of leaf coarsely hairy; leaves larger than apitong and panao (18 to 53 centimeters long, 7 to 22 centimeters wide) **Hagachac** (p. 70)
6. Tree smaller than preceding; resin scanty; leaves smooth, smaller than apitong, panao, hagachac (4.5 to 10 centimeters long, 3 to 5.5 centimeters wide)..... **Narig and Karig** (p. 76)
5. Bark yellowish gray, 15 to 25 millimeters thick; inner bark granular yellow **Palosapis** (p. 77)
3. Leaves compound, alternate; bark resinous.
The pilis, kamingi, and bogo (p. 44)
1. Wood and bark not resinous or at least not prominently so.
2. Bark with white sap.
3. Leaves opposite or whorled. (Apocynaceæ.)
4. Leaves in whorls of 4 to 7; each 5 to 20 centimeters long, 1 to 6.5 centimeters wide; wood soft..... **Dita** (p. 95)
4. Leaves in whorls of 3 to 4; 10 to 20 centimeters long, 3 to 7.5 centimeters wide; wood moderately hard **Batino** (p. 95)
4. Leaves opposite **The lanetes** (p. 96)
3. Leaves simple, alternate; sap flows sparingly when bark is cut from layer next the sapwood; woods lather readily when rubbed with saliva or water. (Sapotaceæ.)
4. Wood light brown or creamy white **The white natos** (p. 92)
4. Woods reddish.
5. Leaves with dense mat of golden-brown hairs beneath.
6. Bark 10 millimeters or less in thickness; brown to reddish brown in color; wood very hard and heavy **Betis** (p. 89)
6. Bark more than 10 millimeters in thickness, grayish brown in color; wood moderately hard and moderately heavy.
Malacmalac (p. 91)
5. Leaves smooth or nearly so.
6. Bark nearly black, ridged; leaves 4 to 12 centimeters long, 2 to 4 centimeters wide; wood very hard and heavy.
Bansalaguin (p. 90)
6. Bark gray to brown; leaves 9 to 17 centimeters long, 4 to 7 centimeters wide; wood moderately hard and moderately heavy.
Nato (p. 91)
6. Bark dark gray to dark brown; leaves 6 to 12 centimeters long, 2.5 to 4.5 centimeters wide; wood moderately hard and moderately heavy **Manicnic** (p. 92)
3. Leaves simple, alternate; sap flows freely when bark is cut. (Moraceæ.)
4. Fruit a fig.
5. Trees entrapping other trees **The baletes** (p. 30)
5. The trees not entrapping other trees; trees usually small; fruit often growing on the trunk or limbs Many species of **Ficus** (p. 30)

5. Tree not entrapping other trees; tree large, with smooth yellow bark.
Tangisang-bayawak (p. 30)
4. Fruit very large, not a fig.
5. Leaves very large (up to 90 centimeters in length), usually deeply lobed, hairy beneath and on veins above **Antipolo** (p. 29)
5. Leaves 18 to 35 centimeters long, hairy beneath and on veins above.
Anubing (p. 28)
5. Leaves small, entire, less than 18 centimeters long, smooth.
Nangka (p. 29)
2. Bark with yellow sap; leaves opposite. (Guttiferæ.)
3. Leaves yellowish green in color; bark yellow, ridged.
4. Leaves 9 to 16 centimeters long, 5.5 to 10 centimeters wide; wood with twisted grain; tree of seacoast **Palo maria** (p. 59)
4. Leaves longer and narrower than the preceding; wood straighter in grain; tree of the forests **Bitanhol** (p. 60)
2. Bark with red sap.
3. Sap very thin; bark dark colored; leaves simple.
4. Leaves 13 to 36 centimeters long, 6 to 13 centimeters wide, rusty hairy beneath; tree larger than the following **Duguan** (p. 31)
4. Leaves 14 to 24 centimeters long, 5 to 8 centimeters wide, white beneath.
Tambalao (p. 32)
3. Sap rather sticky, flows freely from tubes and hardens quickly; bark gray; leaves compound, 6 to 11 leaflets..... **The narras** (p. 35)
3. Sap flows sparingly; leaves compound.
4. Leaves trifoliate **Tuai** (p. 49)
4. Leaves pinnately compound **Malugay** (p. 54)
2. Bark with black sap which flows sparingly; leaves simple, alternate.
Ligas (p. 52)
2. Bark without resin or black, white or colored sap.
3. Leaves reduced to bracts **Agoho** (p. 27)
3. Leaves simple.
4. Leaves opposite; bark without purplish layer next to sapwood.
5. Trees of the mangrove swamps.
6. Trees with prominent stilt roots **The bacauans** (p. 82)
6. Trees without stilt roots.
7. Bark black **The pototans** (p. 82)
7. Bark dark red **Tangal** (p. 82)
6. Trees with aerial roots.
7. Leaves white beneath **Api-api** (p. 98)
7. Leaves orbicular, not white beneath **Pagatpat** (p. 81)
5. Trees not of the mangrove swamps.
6. Leaves with interpetiolar stipules **Rubiaceae** (p. 99)
7. Wood yellow with greasy feeling **The bancals** (p. 99)
7. Wood deep red when fresh cut, changing to rose color.
Calamansanay (p. 100)
6. Leaves very large (19 to 33 centimeters long, 13.5 to 22 centimeters wide), hairy beneath, without interpetiolar stipules.. **Teak** (p. 98)
6. Leaves smaller than the preceding, smooth, without interpetiolar stipules **The macasims** (p. 87)
4. Leaves opposite, sometimes alternate; inner bark with purplish layer next to the sapwood. (Lythraceæ.)
5. Leaves 6 to 12 centimeters long, 2 to 5 centimeters wide.
Batitinan (p. 79)

5. Leaves 7.5 to 24 centimeters long, 3.5 to 11 centimeters wide.
Banaba (p. 80)
4. Leaves alternate; bark without purplish layer next to the sapwood.
5. Leaves with serrate margin..... **Catmon** (p. 58)
5. Leaves with wavy margin..... **The arangas** (p. 78)
5. Leaves with entire margin.
6. Leaves silvery white beneath.
7. Tree of the beach and mangrove swamp..... **Dungon-late** (p. 56)
7. Tree not of the beach..... **Dungon** (p. 55)
6. Leaves white beneath.
7. Leaves heart shaped..... **Hamindang and binunga** (p. 48)
7. Leaves not heart shaped..... **Malacadios** (p. 33)
6. Leaves not white nor silvery white beneath.
7. Leaves large, usually more than 18 centimeters long.
8. Trees with branches in horizontal planes..... **Talisay** (p. 85)
8. Trees with branches not in horizontal planes.
9. Bark inclined to be ridged..... **Talisay-gubat** (p. 84)
9. Bark not ridged **Toog** (p. 86)
7. Leaves less than 18 centimeters long.
8. Bark 5 millimeters or less in thickness..... **Binggas** (p. 86)
8. Bark more than 5 millimeters thick.
9. Leaves with two prominent glands at base of blade.
Liusin (p. 34)
9. Leaves without glands.
10. Leaves obovate.
11. Heartwood reddish brown **Dalinsi** (p. 84)
11. Heartwood gray to brownish yellow..... **Sacat** (p. 85)
10. Leaves not obovate. Inner bark yellow with white concentric rings **Tamayuan** (p. 30)
10. Inner bark yellow without white concentric rings.
Calumpit (p. 83)
3. Leaves compound.
4. Leaves opposite, palmately compound.
5. Leaflets smooth.
6. Leaflets usually 3; wood very hard **Molave** (p. 97)
6. Leaflets 3 to 7 (usually 5); wood very hard..... **Sasalit** (p. 98)
6. Leaflets 5, wood soft or moderately hard..... **Mulawin-aso** (p. 98)
5. Leaflets hairy, usually 3 **Hairy molave** (p. 98)
4. Leaves alternate.
5. Leaves palmately compound.
6. Leaves trifoliate.
7. Fine velvety hairs beneath **Santol** (p. 46)
7. Smooth or nearly so **Malasantol** (p. 46)
6. Leaflets 3 to 5 **Lumbayao** (p. 57)
5. Leaves simply compound, pinnate.
6. Leaves more than 1 meter in length **Malapapaya** (p. 89)
6. Leaves less than 1 meter in length.
7. Leaflets with white hairs beneath; more than 10 pairs.
Tucang-calao (p. 46)
7. Leaflets with white bloom beneath; less than 10 pairs.
8. Bark more than 8 millimeters thick..... **Tindalo** (p. 39)
8. Bark less than 8 millimeters thick **Alupag** (p. 53)
7. Leaflets neither hairy nor white beneath.

NOTES ON THE COMMON NAMES OF TREES.

The matter of establishing a uniform common name for a given species is a difficult one even in the United States where there is one universal language. It may be easily imagined how much more complicated this becomes where there are, as in the Philippines, languages and dialects numbering, according to various authorities, from thirty to eighty. The confusion arising from this source leaves the average man helpless, in so far as recognizing a given tree by its local name is concerned.

The variations in local names fall principally into three classes: First, the case where various forms of a single name are applied to one species, or often to two or more species within one genus. The most familiar instance occurs in the case of *molave*, such widely varying forms as *muláwin*, *amugáuan*, *hamuráuan*, etc., being found in different regions for the two or three species of *Vitex* that produce a hard, durable wood. Second, where radically different names are applied to one and the same species. A familiar instance of this is furnished by *tindalo* (*Pahudia rhomboidea*); the official name is Tagalog, but in northern Luzon it is known as *magaláyao*, in southern Luzon and the Visayas as *baráyong* or *baláyung*. Third, where one name, instead of being confined to one species or even genus, is transferred to a different genus or even to plants of different families. Besides these, there are a number of cases where several names are applied to all or several of the species within one or two genera of a given family, but are rarely found outside that family. Two of the most striking instances of this are in the Gutta-percha and Talisay families. The names *sácat*, *calumpít*, *dalínsi*, and *talísay* are applied almost indifferently to half a dozen species of the genus *Terminalia*, of the latter family, but very rarely to other trees, unless with some distinguishing prefix or suffix. Similarly, the names *palacpálac*, *malaemálac*, *alacáac*, *dulítan*, *tagátoi*, and *manicnic* are found associated with a number of species of *Palaquium*, and certain species of *Illipe* and *Sideroxylon*, of the Gutta-percha family.

When we consider, in addition to this, that most of the names (obscure even to the Filipino as soon as he leaves his own province) are meaningless to the foreigner, and that there is as yet no uniform system of orthography for the Philippine languages, it is easy to see that any attempt to bring uniformity out of this chaos will be as difficult as it is desirable.

Nevertheless, the attempt has been made in the following pages. The following principles have been used as guides: To select, from the various names used for a given species, one either already well established in literature or in commerce, or if none such exists, the most widely known name as recorded in botanical collections, etc.; to select in cases where the meaning is known, such a name as would apply well to the species in question; and, finally, to adopt as nearly as possible, a uniform,

phonetic system of spelling. In regard to the last rule, it has been necessary to make one considerable exception; it has not been considered advisable to change radically the spelling of those names that are included in the classification of the four groups as given in the Forest Manual.

A matter that would be of interest and even an appreciable aid to the botanist or forester is that of the meanings of common names, but, valuable as it might be, the average collector has little time to devote to this point. Aside from the fact that our knowledge on this side of the subject is still far from extensive, there is no place in a work of this kind for detailed linguistic studies. However, a few notes on some of the words commonly occurring in plant names would not be out of place.

The words recurring most frequently are color adjectives, among which the following are common: *putí*, *púlaw* or *púrau*, *mitlá* (white); *pulá* (red); *diláw* or *duláw* (yellow); an obscure and very variable, but frequently occurring word *ngísit*, *ngítit*, *ngitngít*, *innítit* (black); *ítim* or *ítóm* (black); *ágtá*, *áta*, *éta* or *íta* (all related to *Aéta*, "Negrito," and meaning "black"). *Laláki* (male) and *babáe* (female) are frequently used to indicate great or less size, or, in other cases, greater or less hardness and durability. *Malakí* and *maliít* mean "large" and "small," respectively. *Dágat* and *láut* (sea), *pantái* (beach), *baibái* and *buhángin* (sand) are often used in names of plants growing on the beach or even on low coastal hills. *Búnduk*, *búkid*, and *gúbat* (forest or mountain) are used either to indicate that a plant grows only in the mountains or, sometimes, to distinguish a wild species from a cultivated one. *Túbig* *sálog*, *ílog*, etc., mean "water" or "river." *Sáhing*, *sáleng*, etc., mean "resin," "pitch," "gum." *Dugú* is "blood." *Párang*, found in various compounds, means land covered with the open second growth on abandoned clearings. The very common element *bolóng*, *balíng*, etc., found in many compounds, equals "leaf" and has, in Bicol at least, the derived meaning "medicine." The name *taluto* is derived from *lutu*, "red," "clotted blood." Various names come from the root *tína*, "to dye." *Macaásim* is from Tag. *ásim*, "acid," "sourness." Many names of animals are used, such as *áso* and *áyam* (dog); *usá* (deer); *bayáwak* and *butikí* (lizard); *núang*, *kalabáw*, and *damúlag* (carabao); *kambíng* (goat); *púsa*, *ikús*, *kutíng* (cat); *kabáyo* (from Sp. caballo, "horse"); *alibang-báng* (butterfly); *manúk* (chicken). *Bató* ("stone, rock") is generally used for trees producing very hard woods; *tigás*, *tugás*, *tigá*, *tras* mean "hard." Many prefixes are used, of which the commonest and the one of most constant signification is *mala*, which means "resembling" and is used as are the English words "false" or "bastard;" names compounded with this prefix generally signify that the plant so named resembles another either in general habit or in some particular feature, as leaves,

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flowers, fruit or bark, color, taste or odor, etc. In the case of timber trees, it sometimes refers to similarity of the wood.

In the matter of spelling, the most important changes made are the substitution of *k* for *c* or *qu*, *c* being retained as a rule only in the combination *ch* and at the beginning of certain names, like *camuning*, that are already well known; and the substitution of *i* for *y*, unless the latter is consonantal as in *yacal*. Also the Spanish orthographic *u* has been omitted between *g* and *i*, except, as above stated, in names found in the classified list of the Forest Manual.

PINE OR SALENG FAMILY.

(Pinaceæ.)

This family, while the most important in temperate regions, where it furnishes the greatest bulk of lumber, is comparatively unimportant in the Philippines. Generally speaking, few representatives are found below 400 meters elevation. The members of the family can be readily distinguished by the resinous woods, combined with the character of the fruits, which are of the familiar type of the pine cone.

ALMACIGA. (Pl. I.)

Almaciga reaches a height of 40 to 45 meters and a diameter of 180 to 200 centimeters. It has a straight, regularly cylindrical bole without buttresses, which reaches a length of one-half to two-thirds the height of the tree. It is found scattered throughout the mountain regions from Cagayan to Davao. While usually above an altitude of 400 meters, scattered specimens sometimes occur as low as 200 meters. It requires fairly deep soil and somewhat protected situations. It seldom, if ever, occurs on exposed peaks or ridges, and is found associated with tanguile and the oaks. It is fairly tolerant of shade.

The bark is 10 to 15 millimeters in thickness, brittle in texture, light greenish to brownish gray in color, sheds in scroll-shaped patterns, and is thickly set with corky pustules; the inner bark is brown streaked with red, grading into a creamy color near the sapwood. The leaves are simple, opposite or nearly so, of a leathery texture, from 3 to 9.5 centimeters long and from 1 to 2.5 centimeters wide.

The sapwood has a light brownish creamy color; the heartwood is light brown, straight grained, soft in texture and light in weight. The wood, probably because of the comparative inaccessibility of the trees, is not found in the markets. The tree is valuable because it yields a resin known locally as almaciga and commercially as dammar. A closely related species yields the kauri resin and lumber of New Zealand. Almaciga resin is either gathered from the trunk, where it hardens after the bark of the tree has been cut, or from the ground at the base of the tree

where it has accumulated, or more commonly is mined where trees have stood previously and have long since died and decayed, leaving only large masses of resin in the ground.

The following regions are credited with having almaciga: Luzon (Cagayan, Abra, Benguet, Zambales, Bataan, Tayabas, Camarines, Albay, Sorsogon); Mindoro; Negros; Palawan; Mindanao (Davao and Zamboanga).

Almaciga has the scientific name of *Agathis alba*. Besides almaciga, this tree has the following common names: Adiangao (T., B.); baltik (Pal.); bidiangao (Neg.); bunsog (Ben.); dadiangao (T., B.); galagala (Pal.); litao (Ab.); makao (Mis.); saleng (Il., Tay.); titao (Ab.).

BENGUET PINE. (Pls. II and III.)

Benguet pine reaches a height of 30 meters and diameter of 140 centimeters. The bole is straight and clear; the crown is narrow with the lateral branches weakly developed. It is found in the high mountain region of central and northern Luzon. It reaches an altitude of 3,000 meters. It does best in deep rich soils, is intolerant of shade, and is found in patches sometimes of considerable size scattered throughout extensive grass areas.

The bark is 10 to 25 millimeters in thickness, yellowish or reddish brown in color, and broken into sections by vertical and horizontal fissures. The needle-like leaves, grouped in bunches of three or sometimes two, are 8 to 30 centimeters in length. The sapwood is yellowish white; the heartwood is light reddish brown with alternate light and dark rings, and very resinous. The wood is moderately hard and moderately heavy, resembling the yellow pines of the United States. It is used locally for house construction, mine props, and coffins.

Benguet pine has been reported from the following regions of Luzon: Ilocos Sur; Abra; Lepanto-Bontoc; Benguet; Pangasinan; Zambales.

The scientific name is *Pinus insularis*. It has the general Ilocano common name of saleng. Other names prevailing are bel-bel (Ig.); boo-boo (Ig.); ol-ol (Ig.); palanpino (Cag.); parna (Il.); talanpino (L.-B.); tapulao (Z.).

Under the name of tapulao or salit another species of pine (*Pinus merkusii*) is found in the mountain regions of Zambales and western Mindoro. This differs mainly from Benguet pine in having two needles instead of three.

YEW FAMILY.

(Taxaceæ.)

Species of *Podocarpus*, *Dacrydium*, and *Taxus* are found on the mountain tops throughout the Philippines. On some mountains the former two genera form almost pure stands on exposed ridges and peaks. The trees are usually low with short stocky trunks. The woods, though hard, are little if at all used in the Philippines.

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PALM FAMILY.

(Palmæ.)

The members of this family reach their best development in the dipterocarp forests where the dry season is not pronounced. The trees are more valuable for their by-products than for their wood. The leaves of nipa (*Nipa fruticans*), a mangrove swamp product, is a universal thatching material, and the fermented sap of the inflorescence is the chief source of vinegar and alcohol. In regions where bamboo is scarce, split trunks of the anahao palm and palma brava (*Livistona* spp.), anibong (*Oncosperma* spp.), and others replace that product for general house construction, and other domestic uses. Climbing palms (*Calamus* spp.) also furnishes the rattans of commerce which are known locally as "bejuco." (See Part I, p. 59.)

AGOHO OR CASUARINA FAMILY.

(Casuarinaceæ.)

While this family produces several species, agoho is the only one of commercial importance.

AGOHO. (Pls. IV and V.)

Agoho is a tree reaching a height of 20 to 25 meters, and 50 to 60 centimeters in diameter, though it is usually much smaller. The bole is variable, being sometimes cylindrical and sometimes irregular. The crown is conical in shape and open. It is found scattered throughout the Philippines, where it usually occurs in groups on newly formed sand beaches or sand bars of the large rivers. It is distinctly an intolerant species.

The bark is 5 to 10 millimeters in thickness, brown to dark brown in color, smooth when young, roughening in old trees into fine ridges of greater or less length; the inner bark is bright rose in color and has a bitter taste. The leaves are reduced to small scales; in their place are thickly set jointed branchlets, which give the tree the general appearance of a pine.

The wood of agoho is very hard, very heavy, difficult to work and is considered durable. The sapwood is slightly lighter in color than the reddish brown to dark brown heartwood. It has large pith rays resembling those of oak. It has the following uses: Posts; railway ties; firewood.

Agoho has been collected from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Abra, Benguet, Pangasinan, Nueva Ecija, Tarlac, Pampanga, Zambales, Laguna, Baler, Infanta, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon, Albay); Palani Island; Camiguin Island; Polillo Island; Ticao Island; Masbate; Mindoro; Palawan.

The scientific name of agoho is *Casuarina equisetifolia*. It has the general Tagalog name of agoho. Various forms of this name are agoso, agoo, and aroo. Karamutan (Moro) and malabohok (V.) are other local names.

Other species of *Casuarina* are present in the Philippines, principally in the mountains. These can be readily distinguished from agoho by their finer pith rays.

OAK OR KATABANG FAMILY.

(Fagaceæ.)

About twenty-five species of oak have been described as belonging to the Philippines. Trees of this genus occur at low altitudes, but are more abundant at 500 meters or more above sea level, where they often form a quite prominent feature of the forest. The wood is little used and can be readily distinguished by the prominent pith rays. The following common names are recorded for the various species of oak: Bangai (Ley.); basakan (Cam.); bultiok (Cag.); diraan (Pan.); kataban (Batn.); kotilik (Ben.); makabingao (N. V.); manaring (N. V.); olayan (Al.); pangnan (Batn.); palaien (Ab.); palonapoy (Z.); tiklik (Cag.); ulian (Cag.).

ELM OR MALAIKMO FAMILY.

(Ulmaceæ.)

The wood of malaikmo or malagibuyo (*Celtis philippinensis*) comes from a medium-sized tree scattered throughout the dipterocarp forests. This tree can be readily distinguished by its prominently three-veined leaves and by the black flecks of the inner bark. The wood is soft and light in weight and is used locally for various classes of light constructions. To this family belongs anabion or hanagdon (*Trema amboinensis*), a very small rapidly growing tree that sometimes forms almost pure stands in places where caiñgins have been abandoned. The wood is used only locally.

FIG OR ANTIPOLLO FAMILY.

(Moraceæ.)

While the number of species and individuals of this family is large, only a few produce wood of any great value. The members can be readily recognized by the fact that the bark when cut exudes freely a thin milky sap. This character combined with alternate leaves distinguishes the family from all others. (See Betis family, p. 89.)

ANUBING. (Pl. VI.)

Anubing is a tree of medium height with a straight regular unbuttressed bole. It is found scattered on the edges of the dipterocarp type and on the moister slopes of the molave type.

The bark is 5 to 8 millimeters in thickness, light orange to dark orange red in color, in young trees papery in texture, in older ones harder and shedding in small patches. The inner bark is pink in color. On being cut, it exudes freely a milky sap which thickens rapidly on coming in contact with the air. The leaves are from 18 to 35 centimeters long and from 9 to 16 centimeters wide, hairy beneath and on the veins above.

The sapwood is a creamy white; the heartwood bright yellow when fresh cut, turning on ageing to a chocolate brown or greenish black. It is straight grained, moderately hard, moderately heavy, very durable, and

the pores generally contain white deposits. It has a disagreeable odor and taste, especially when fresh. It has the following uses: House construction (especially posts and rafters); railroad ties; canoes; naval construction.

Anubing has been found in the following regions: Luzon (Ilocos Sur, Abra, Bontoc, Rizal, Zambales, Bataan, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines, Albay, and Sorsogon); Ticao Island; Masbate Island; Mindoro; Marinduque Island; Negros Occidental; and Surigao.

The scientific name of anubing is *Artocarpus cumingiana*, though some other species of *Artocarpus* produce the wood which passes for anubing. This tree has the general Tagalog name of anubing and the Visayan name of cubi. This latter name must not be confused with the cubi of Zamboanga, which is malacadios. (See p. 33.) Other names for anubing are bayuko (V.); kalulot (M.); nerek (N. Luz.); panganamaen (Il.); ubien (Il.).

ANTIPOLO. (Pl. VII.)

Antipolo is a tree reaching a height of 20 to 30 meters and a diameter of 60 to 100 centimeters. The bole is regular and gives lengths up to 15 meters. It has a dense crown, $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{2}{3}$ the height of the tree. The tree is found scattered throughout the dipterocarp forests, growing best in deep soils. It is slightly tolerant of shade.

The bark is 10 to 15 millimeters in thickness, very dark in color tinged with red, and with obscure irregularly broken ridges; the inner bark is salmon red, yielding when cut a milky sap. The leaves are alternate, usually deeply lobed and very large, sometimes reaching 90 centimeters in length.

The sapwood is light creamy and the heartwood is bright yellow in color. The wood is softer than anubing and less durable. It has the following uses: Bancas; flooring; keels and planks of ships; ordinary furniture.

The tree is widely distributed throughout the Philippines from Cagayan to Mindanao. The scientific name of antipolo is *Artocarpus communis*. A cultivated form of it produces the bread fruit. Besides antipolo it has the following names: Pakak (Il.); tipolo (B.). Cultivated forms are known under the names of bread fruit, kamangsi (T.); rima (T.); ugob (B.).

NANGKA.

Nangka (*Artocarpus integrifolia*) is a small to medium-sized tree cultivated for the jack fruit. It has roundish leaves from 6.5 to 10 centimeters long and from 4 to 9 centimeters wide. The wood is softer and more even in texture than anubing; golden yellow in color, turning dark brown with age. It is used principally for the back and sides of stringed instruments and for furniture.

Besides the above named the forests contain many species of the genus *Ficus*. A number of these under the common name of "balete" start upon other trees and finally entrap them entirely. Some of the baletes produce an inferior quality of rubber. Some of the species like tangisang-bayawak (*Ficus variegata*) are large and can probably be utilized for match woods. Hagimit (*Ficus minahassæ*), with its long pendulous fruit stalks, is a conspicuous tree of the river bottoms, especially in second-growth forests. The woods of species of *Ficus* are soft, light, and of inferior quality, and the trees usually have ill-formed, short boles. The India rubber tree (*Ficus elastica*) and castilloa (*Castilloa elastica*) are cultivated to some extent for rubber.

Kuyus-kuyus (*Taxotrophis ilicifolia*) is a small tree with prickly leaves, whose wood is used extensively in making walking sticks. It is hard and heavy; the heartwood is streaked or mottled with green or dark brown and is sometimes almost black. Malambingan (*Allæanthus glaber*) is a medium-sized tree with a nearly white sapwood subject to the attacks of beetles; the outside heartwood is brilliant red, which grades into a light grayish brown; light in weight to moderately heavy and soft to moderately hard. Closely related species have the common names of himbabau (T.) and aplit (Pam.). Kalios (*Streblus asper*) is a small tree common in second-growth forests.

TAMAYUAN FAMILY.

(Olacaceæ.)

This family is represented in the Philippines by one commercial species.

TAMAYUAN. (Pl. IX.)

Tamayuan is a small to medium-size tree reaching a height of 20 to 25 meters and a diameter of 50 centimeters. The bole is short and usually somewhat irregular in shape. The crown is dense and rather elongated. It has a prominent place as a second-story tree in some dipterocarp forests. It does best on slopes with a fairly deep soil and is distinctly tolerant of shade.

The bark is 5 to 12 millimeters in thickness, smooth, dark brown to nearly black in color, and is thickly set with corky pustules. It is shed in large irregular patterns, the freshly exposed portions being cinnamon brown in color. The inner bark is yellowish with whitish rings. The leaves are simple, alternate, smooth, from 5 to 16 centimeters long and from 2 to 8 centimeters wide.

The sapwood has a light gray color and is sharply distinguished from the reddish brown heartwood. The wood is moderately heavy to heavy, hard, very fine and straight grained, and durable. It has the following uses: House building (especially posts, joists and rafters); ax handles; mining props; railway ties.

The tree has been found in the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Isabela, Bulacan, Bataan, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon); Catanduanes Islands; Masbate; Mindoro; Leyte; Mindanao (Lanao and Zamboanga). The scientific name of tamayuan is *Strombosia philippinensis*. It has the general common names of tamayuan and kamayuan or some forms of these.

MAGNOLIA OR CHAMPACA FAMILY.

(Magnoliaceæ.)

Among others this family is represented by the champaca (*Michelia champaca*), cultivated for ornament, and patangis (*Talauma villariana*), a small tree occurring occasionally in the dipterocarp forests.

PAWPAW OR ILANG-ILANG FAMILY.

(Anonaceæ.)

With some practise the species of this family can be distinguished by the prominent pith rays in the bark and woods. They have alternate, simple leaves. The trees are usually small to very small and occur as undergrowth in the dipterocarp forests. A number of the species have the common name of lanutan. Among the more prominent is ilang-ilang (*Canangium odoratum*) whose blossoms are the source of the famous ilang-ilang perfume. It occurs in the dipterocarp forests and is cultivated to some extent. Dalinas or latuan (*Cyathocalyx globosus*) is a medium-sized tree whose small heartwood is purplish brown in color, hard, and heavy. So far as is known it is used only locally.

This family also contains the following introduced species cultivated for their fruits: Anonas or custard apple (*Anona reticulata*); atis or sweetsop (*Anona squamosa*); guanabano or soursop (*Anona muricata*).

NUTMEG OR DUGUAN FAMILY.

(Myristicaceæ.)

The trees of this family can be readily distinguished from all others by the abundant flow of a thin red sap when the bark is slashed. The leaves are simple and alternate. Two species seem to furnish timber that reaches the markets in small quantities at least and is used rather more extensively locally. A number of species of this family have the common name of duguan, but this name is most commonly applied to *Myristica philippensis*.

DUGUAN. (Pl. X.)

Duguan is a small to medium-sized tree reaching a height of 15 to 25 meters and a diameter of 60 or more centimeters. The bole is usually somewhat irregular, slightly buttressed and yields lengths up to 12 meters. The crown is irregular and somewhat dense, about one-third the height of the tree. This species is found scattered throughout the dipterocarp forests. It requires good soil and is fairly tolerant of shade.

The bark is 4 to 6 millimeters in thickness, nearly black in color with light brown patches where freshly shed; the inner bark is brown to reddish brown in color, and when cut exudes a thin red sap. The leaves are alternate, simple, rusty hairy beneath, from 13 to 36 centimeters long and from 6 to 13 centimeters wide. The sapwood is very light creamy pink in color; the heartwood is slightly darker in color, soft, moderately heavy, not durable, and somewhat spongy in texture. It is used locally for light and temporary construction, boxes, and dry measures.

Duguan has been reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Abra, Benguet, Pangasinan, Baler, Rizal, Bataan, Laguna, Batangas, Tayabas, Camarines); Camiguin Island; Mindoro; Leyte; Palawan; Culion; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Lanao); Basilan Island.

The scientific name of duguan is *Myristica philippensis*. Tambalao (*Knema heterophylla*) also furnishes some of the wood known as duguan. This tree is somewhat smaller than *Myristica philippensis*, with small leaves (from 14 to 24 centimeters long and from 5 to 8 centimeters wide) white underneath. Besides duguan (T.) and tambalao (Z. and Batn.) species of this family have the following common names: Anapias (Pang.); anis-kahoi (T.); anis-moscada (T.); balintua (Z.); dumadara (Cag.); durugo (Lag.); hindang-atian (Ley.); lanot (Cag.); malamabolo (Pang.); palong (Il.); pao (Il.); saging-kahoi (T.); talang-talang (T.); taliagan (Cag.). (Pl. XI.)

CINNAMON OR BATICULIN FAMILY.

(Lauraceæ.)

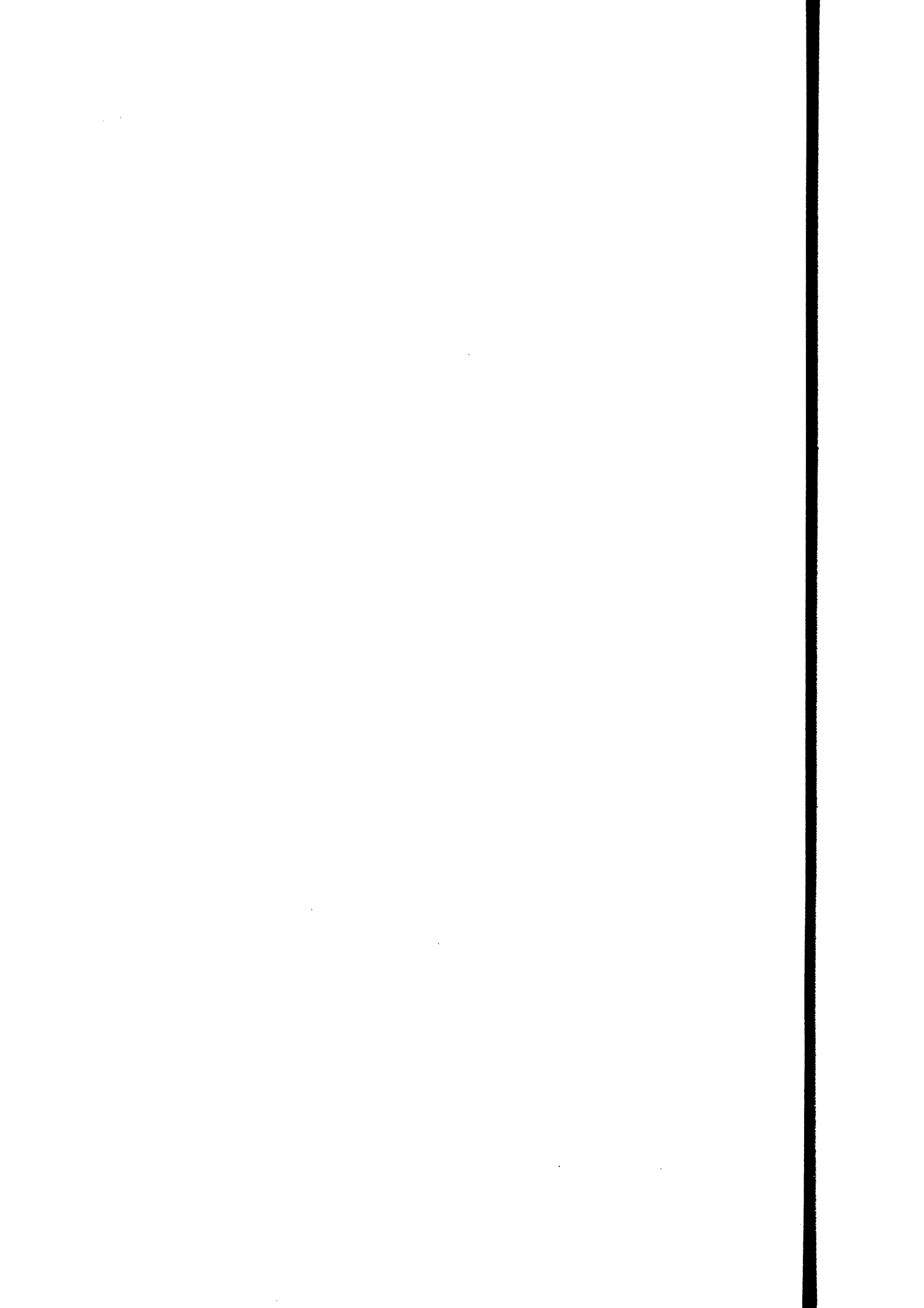
This family, while it contains a large number of tree species, yet yields only a few of little value, principally because the species are small or are so scattered that quantities can not be obtained in any one place. The members of the family (at least the species mentioned here) have simple alternate leaves. The principal woods are known as baticulin and malacadios. Except in a few cases it is impossible with our present knowledge to refer a number of similar woods to definite species. There seem to be three grades with transition forms between them.

Marang or white baticulin: This is a medium sized-tree with a straight cylindrical bole. Though scattered, it is widely distributed. The wood is very pale yellow fading to a dirty white. It is soft, light in weight, coarse grained, and not as resistant to the attacks of insects as the yellow baticulins. The species that produces this wood is *Litsea perrottetii*. While formerly thought to be the tree that produces baticulin of commerce it is now known that little if any of the baticulin of the sculptors comes from this species. (Pl. XII.)

Yellow baticulin: The woods known as baticulin to the cabinetmakers, carvers, sculptors, etc., are soft to moderately hard, light in weight to moderately heavy; pale straw color to deep yellow with reddish or greenish tints; generally with a distinct odor similar to camphor, and rarely attacked by insects. Certain species referred to the genera *Litsea*, *Phoebe*, *Dehaasia*, and perhaps *Neolitsea* and others produce yellow baticulin. Baslayan (*Dehaasia triandra*) is a medium-sized tree producing a wood



PLATE XIX.—LOWER PORTION OF THE TRUNK OF BATETE (*Kingiodendron alternifolium*).



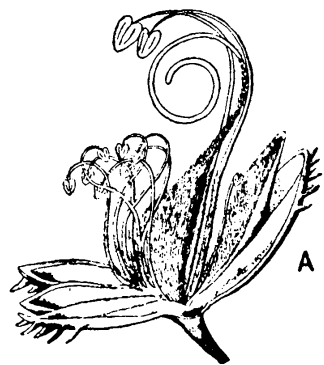
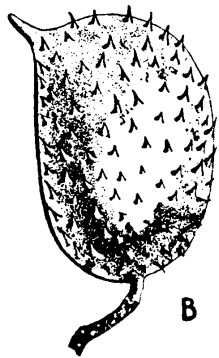


PLATE XX.—SUPA (*Sindora supa*).

a, Flower ; b, fruit.

J. Castro Del.



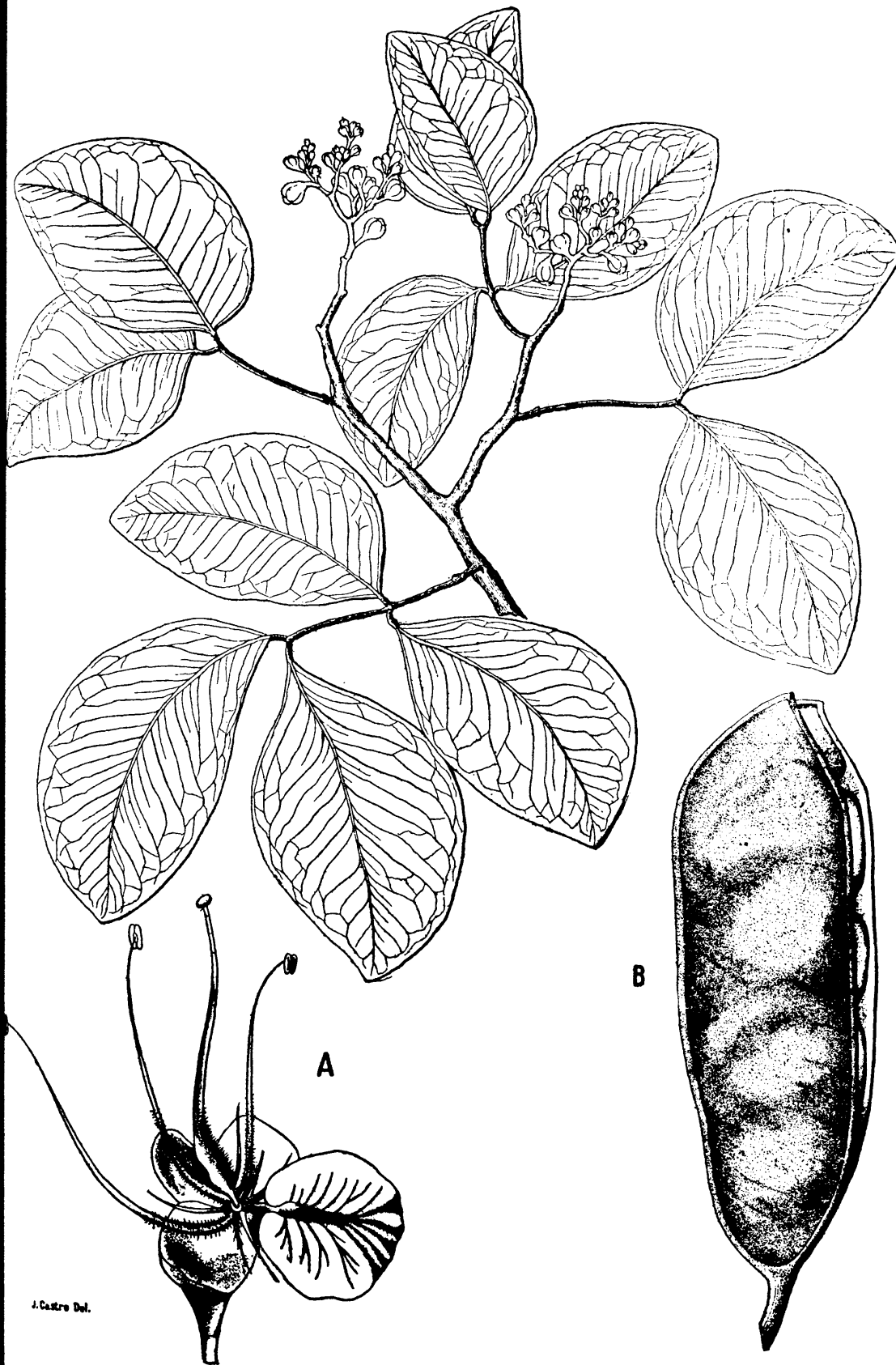


PLATE XXI.—IPIL (*Intsia bijuga*).
a, Flower; b, partially open fruit pod.



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J. V. Harms del.

PLATE XXIII.—TINDALO (*Pahudia rhomboidea*).

a, Seed; *b*, fruit.



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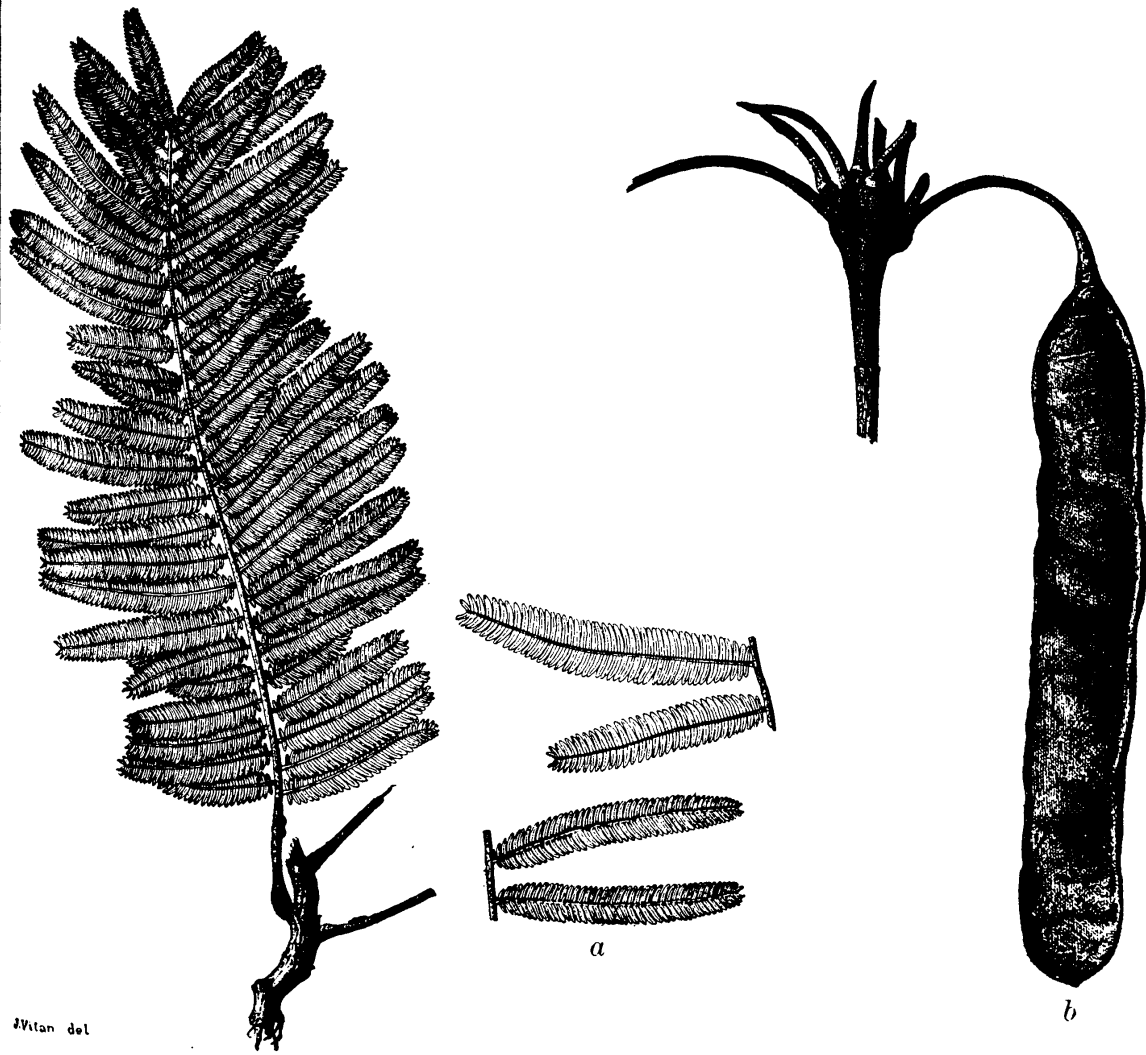


PLATE XXIV.—CUPANG (*Parkia timoriana*).

a, Pinnæ; *b*, fruit pod.

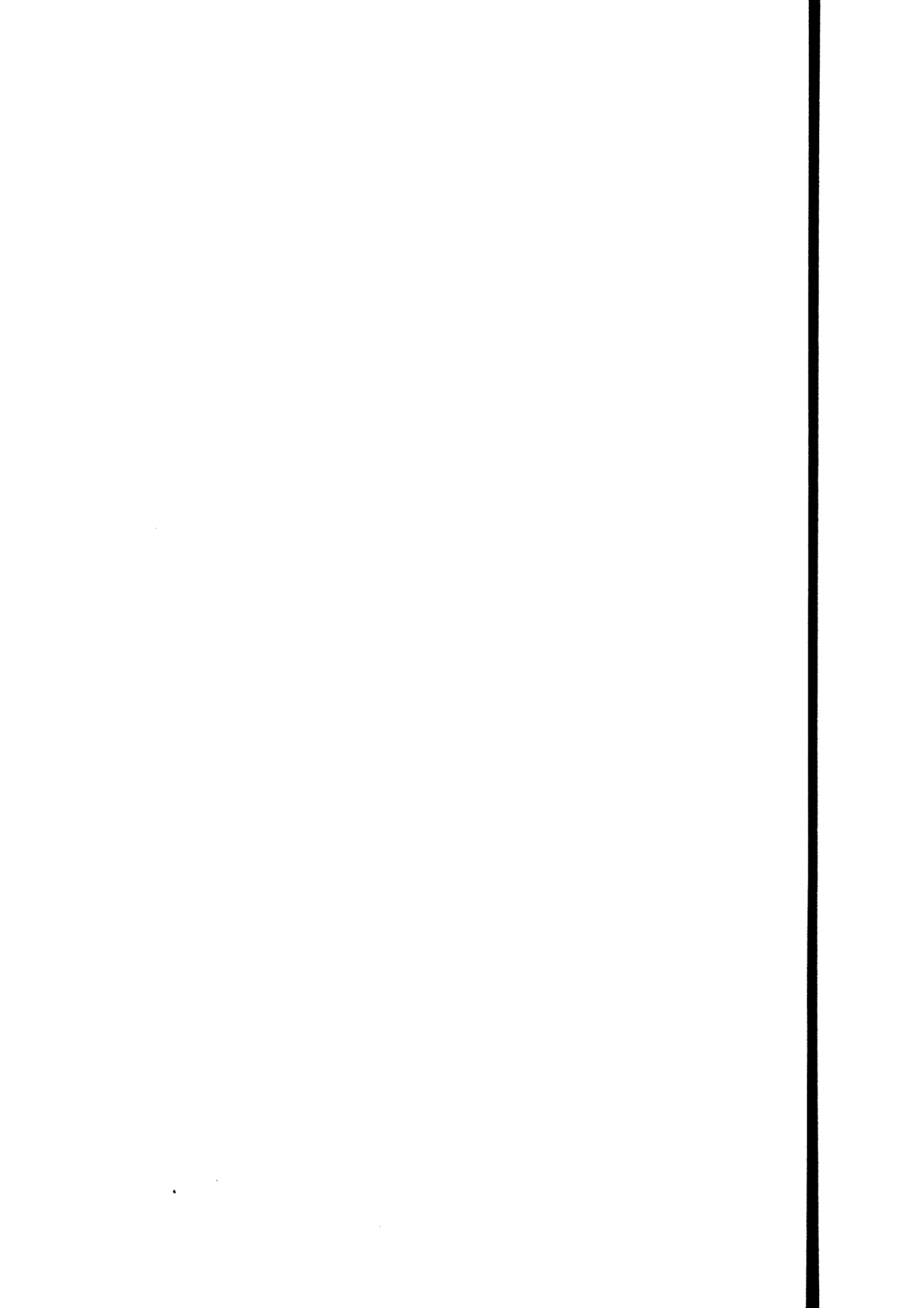
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PLATE XXV.—LOWER PORTION OF THE TRUNK OF CUPANG (*Parkia timoriana*).

Showing character of bark; leaves attached to the trunk.

PLATE XXV.—LOWER PORTION OF THE TRUNK OF CUPANG (*Parkia timoriana*).



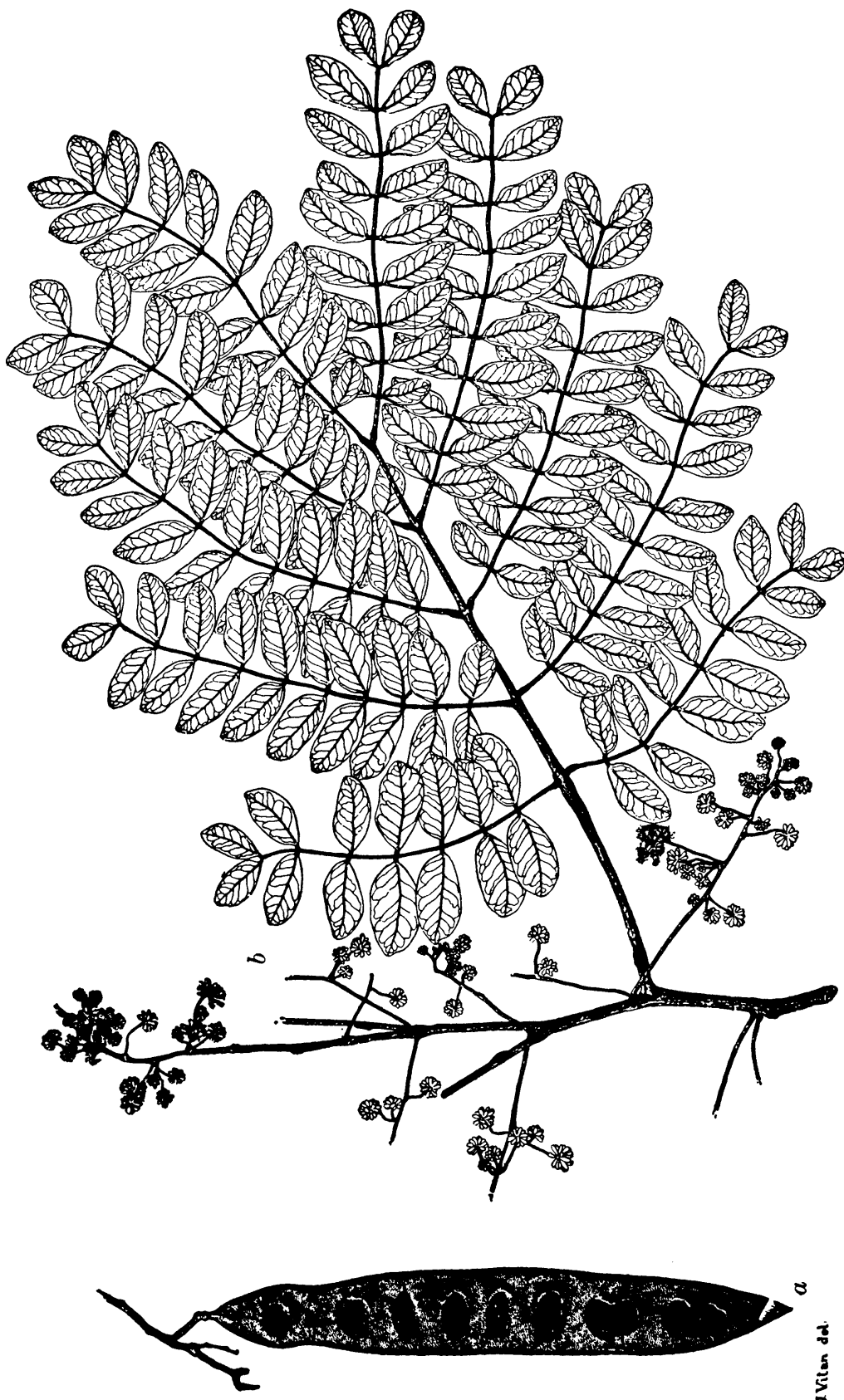


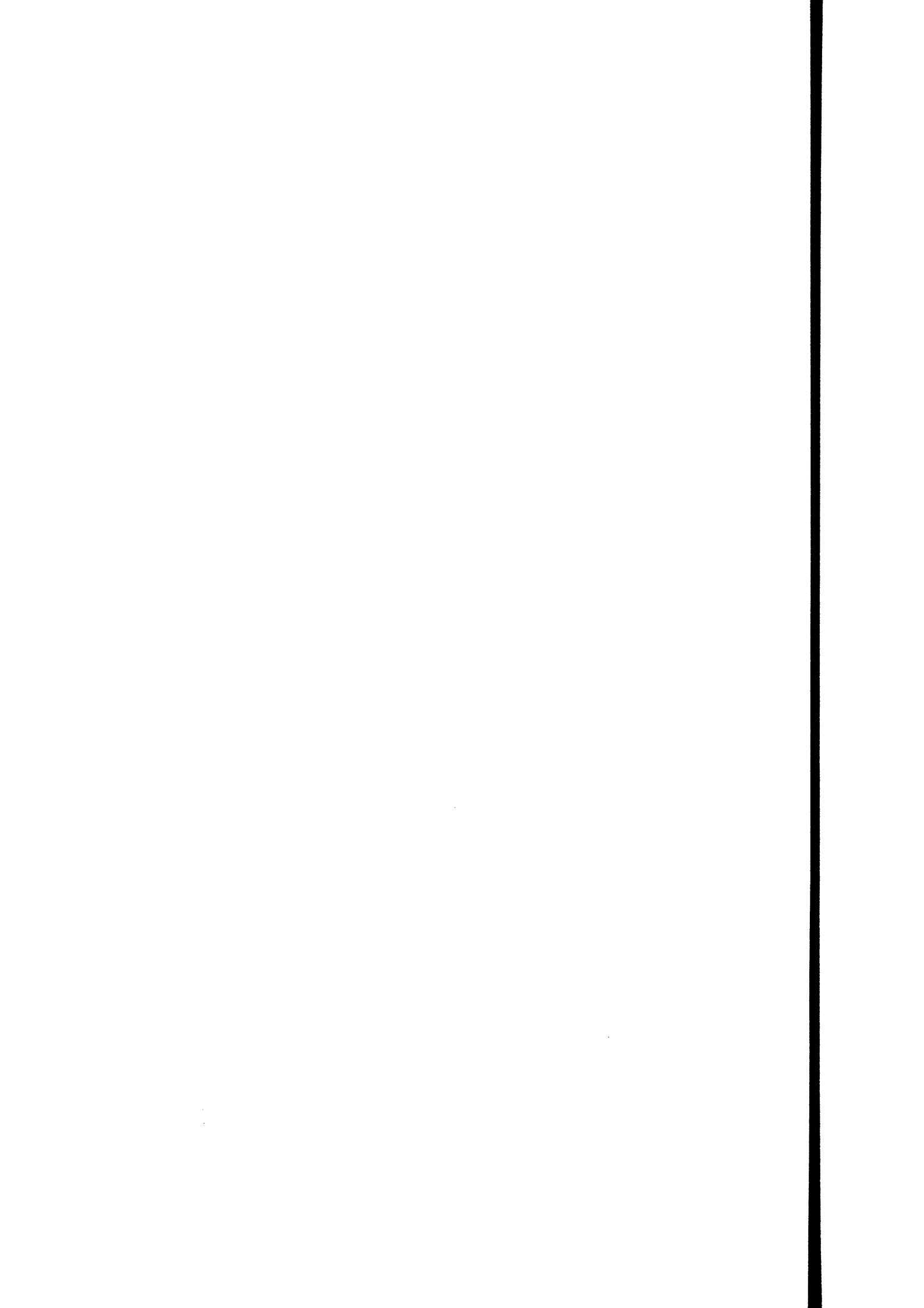
PLATE XXVI.—ACLENG-PARANG (*Albizzia procera*).

a, Fruit pod; b, cluster of young flowers.

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PLATE XXVII.—PORTION OF THE BARK OF ALENG-PARANG (*Albizzia procera*).
Leaves attached.





J.Watson del.

PLATE XXVIII.—SALINKUGI (*Albizzia saponaria*).

a, Fruit pod; b, cluster of flowers.

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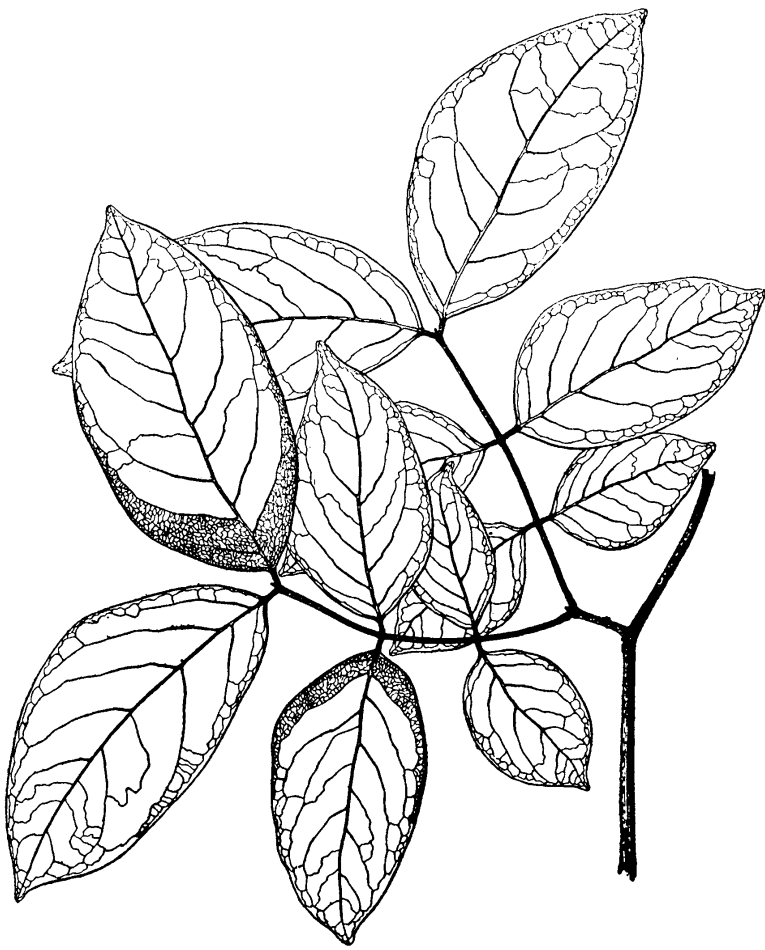
PLATE XXIX.—BANUYO (*Wallaceodendron celebicum*).

a, Fruit pod; b, flower cluster.

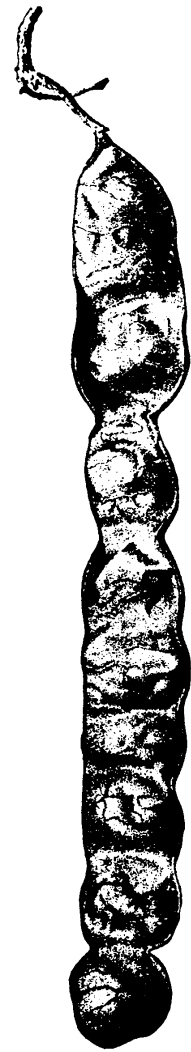


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W. H. S. del.



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PLATE XXX.—ACLE (*Albizzia acle*).

a, Fruit pod.

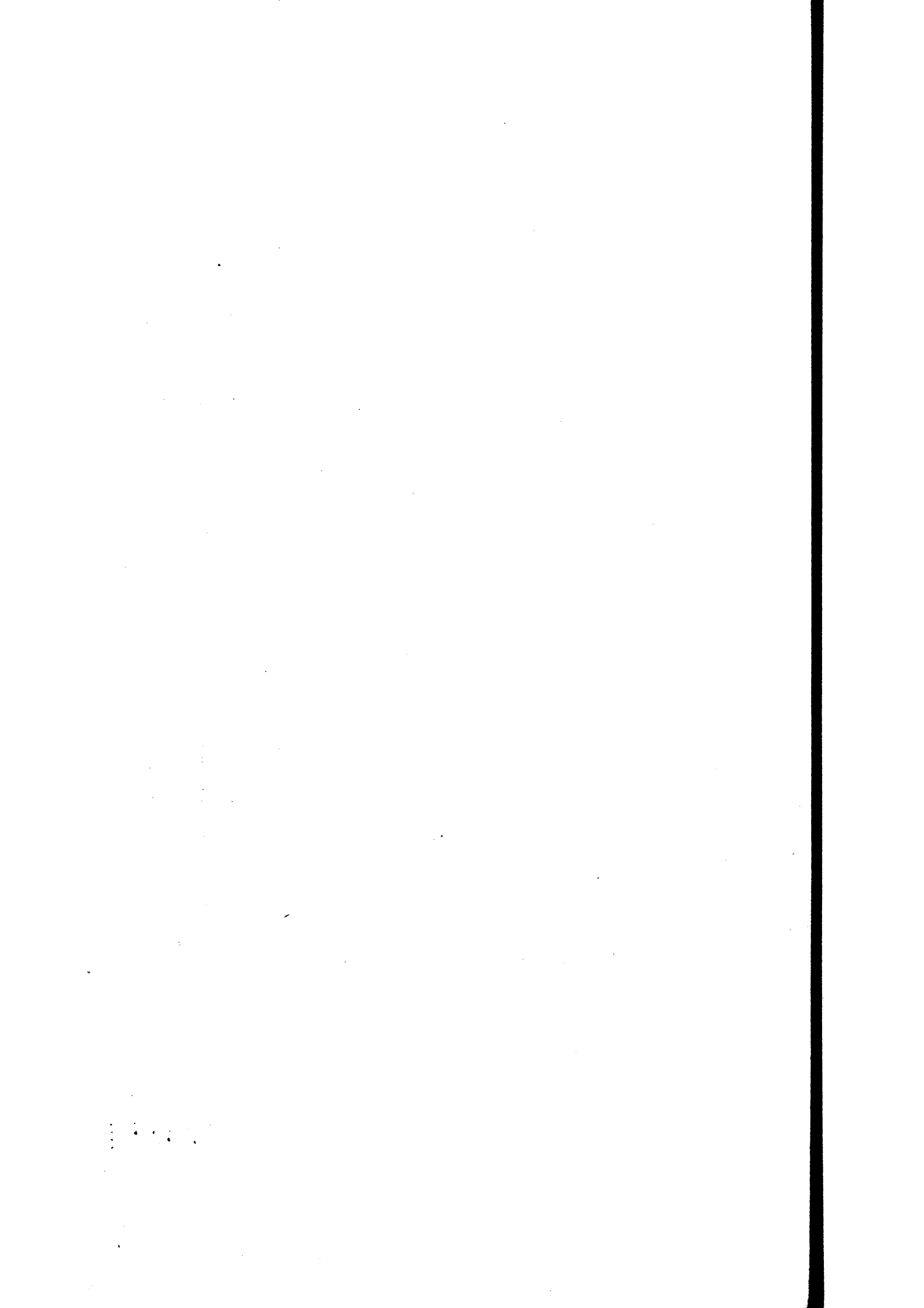
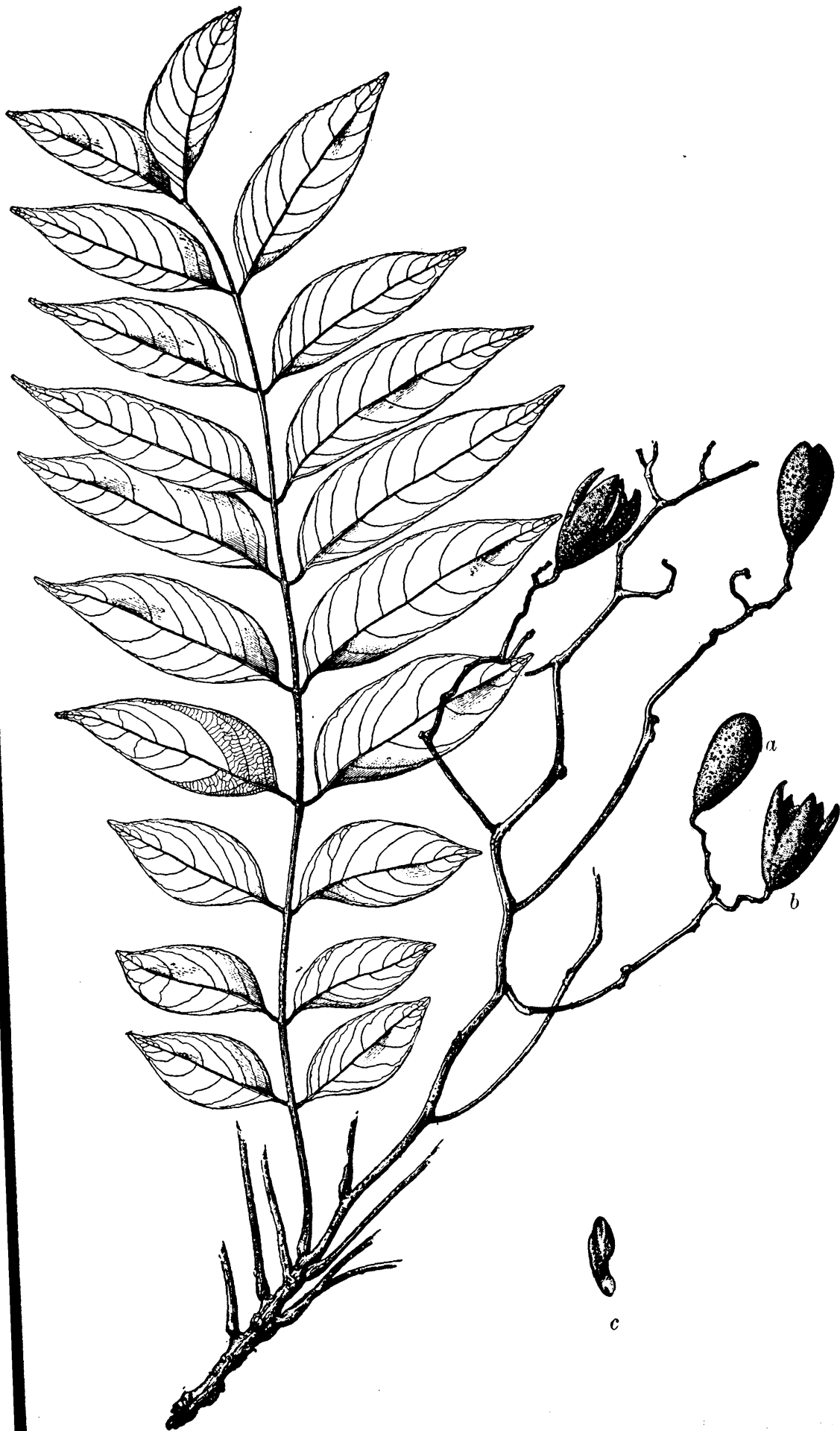




PLATE XXXI.—PORTION OF TRUNK OF ACLE (*Albizzia acle*).

Cluster of leaves and fruit attached.

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PLATE XXXII.—CALANTAS (*Toona calantas*).
a, Closed fruit; b, opened fruit; c, seed.

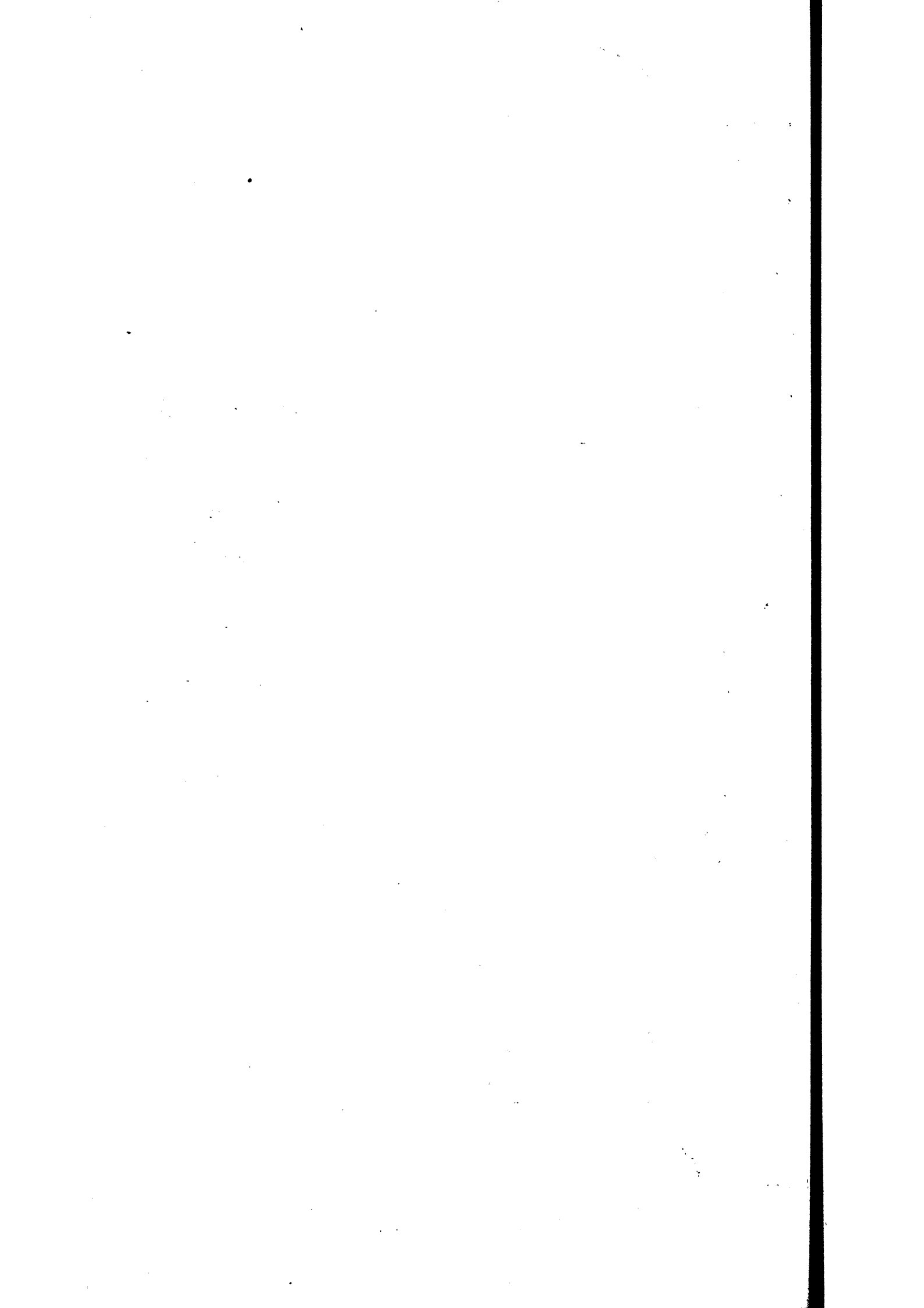
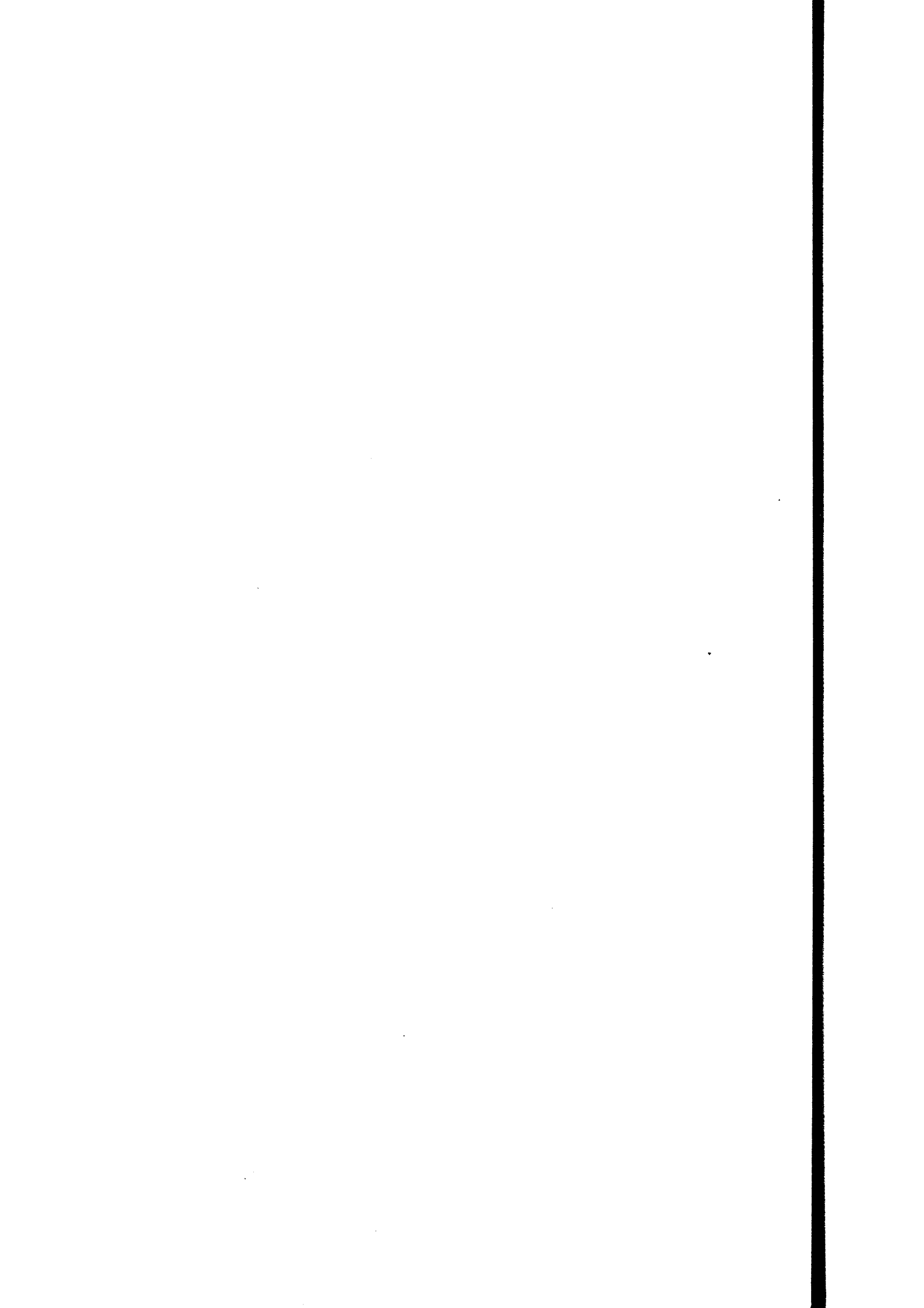




PLATE XXXIII.—YOUNG TREES OF CALANTAS (*Toona calantas*).





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PLATE XXXIV.—SANTOL (*Sandoricum indicum*).

a, Fruit; *b*, cross section of fruit.

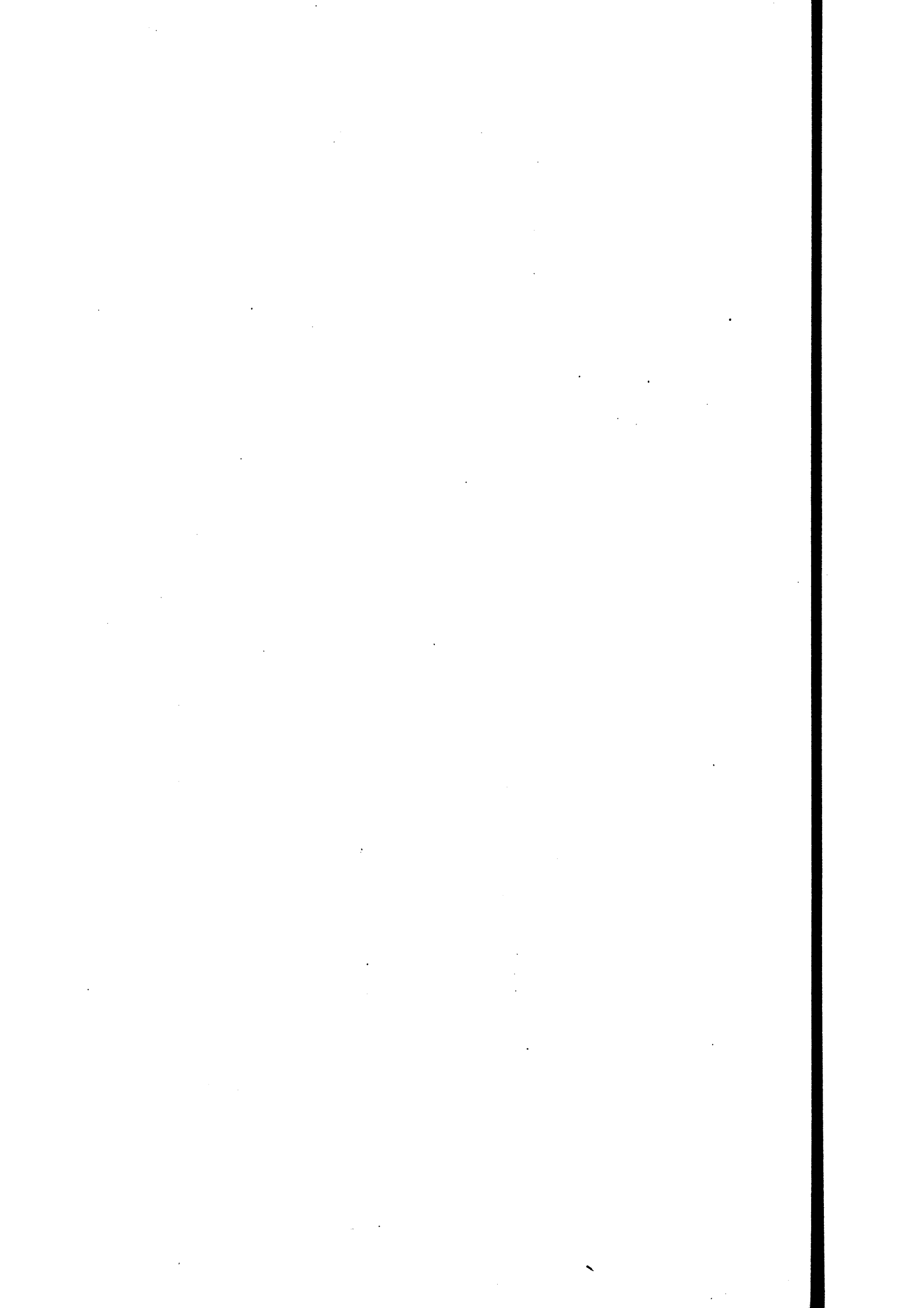




PLATE XXXV.—MALASANTOL (*Sandoricum vidalii*.)

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deep yellow in color, soft, light to moderately heavy that is undoubtedly accepted by sculptors as baticulin. Malaya (*Phoebe sterculioides*) has a somewhat heavier and slightly darker wood than the average baticulin. Pusopuso (*Neolitsea vidalii*) produces a wood that is greenish yellow, streaked and mottled with brown, moderately heavy and moderately hard. It would perhaps be accepted as baticulin. Some species of *Litsea* produce wood so similar to the description given above that they will undoubtedly pass for baticulin.

Dugkatan (*Cryptocarya bicolor*) has a dark brown heartwood sharply marked off from the dull yellowish sapwood; it is hard, moderately heavy, rather fine and straight grained and has a good reputation for durability. It is known only from Mindanao. It is used for house posts. In mechanical properties and durability this wood might be classed with malacadios.

Malacadios (*Beilschmiedia cairocan*) is a tree that reaches a height of 30 meters and a diameter of 70 or more centimeters, with a bole 16 to 20 meters long. The bark is 15 to 20 millimeters in thickness, is gray to a dirty brown in color and distinctly ridged. Beneath the cork is a white spongy layer, very thin and pitted; this grades into a brown or dark brown color near the sapwood. The leaves are simple, alternate, whitish beneath, from 9 to 20 centimeters long and 3 to 8 centimeters wide. The wood is yellow, moderately heavy to heavy, moderately hard to hard, rather fine grained, when fresh has an odor much like aromatic vinegar and is said to be difficult to burn. The wood has the following uses: House construction (flooring, posts); furniture; shipbuilding. This tree has the following known distribution: Luzon (Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Tayabas, Camarines); Ticao Island; Masbate; Panay; Zamboanga. Besides malacadios, a name that is used in the northern islands, it has the local name of cubi in the Zamboanga region. (Pl. XIII.)

Tambulian (*Eusideroxylon zwageri*) is the Tawi Tawi name for the ironwood or billian of Borneo. The wood is yellow, on exposure turning to a glossy brown; very hard and very heavy and generally straight grained. It is difficult to saw, but is not hard to finish. It is said to be the best wood in the world for piling and is used for heavy construction, bridges, telegraph and telephone poles, and railway ties. In the Philippines it is known only from the Island of Tawi Tawi.

Kalingag (*Cinnamomum mercadoi*) is a medium-sized tree usually found in the tanguile-oak type. The wood is dull reddish brown, with dark mottlings and streaks; soft to moderately hard; moderately heavy; both bark and wood have a strong taste and odor of sassafras. The camphor wood (*Cinnamomum camphora*) is not native to the Philippines and has only recently been introduced. Cinnamon is gathered and used locally in Mindanao from *Cinnamomum mindanaense*.

MAMALIS FAMILY.

(Pittosporaceæ.)

Mamalis (*Pittosporum pentandrum*) is a small tree growing in open places with the common names of basuit (Il.); darayao (Pal.); dili (N. V.); mamalis (T.). It yields a light colored wood, moderately hard, that is used only locally.

ROSE OR LIUSIN FAMILY.

(Rosaceæ.)

This family yields only one timber tree of commercial importance.

LIUSIN. (Pls. XIV and XV.)

Liusin is a medium-sized tree reaching a height of 25 to 30 meters and a diameter of 70 to 100 centimeters or larger. The bole is usually regular and straight, slightly buttressed. The crown is irregularly conical and dense. It is very scattered throughout the dipterocarp forests, found both on moist and dry soils and is intolerant of shade.

The bark is 5 to 8 millimeters in thickness, light brown or slightly gray in color; smooth and, where freshly shed, often very light gray with a tinge of green. In Mindanao, at least, the bark is shed in large elongated plates turned out below. This gives the tree a striking appearance. The inner bark is tan red in color, very brittle, and when cut exudes a sweetish watery sap. The leaves are simple, alternate, free from hairs, with two more or less prominent glands at the base of the leaf blade. They are somewhat leathery in texture, from 9 to 15 centimeters long and from 3 to 7 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is creamy brown in color; the heartwood is light reddish brown, heavy, very hard, extremely difficult to saw, fine and usually straight grained. It is very durable in contact with salt water. Liusin is especially valuable for piling, and also used for shipbuilding and house posts.

The following regions contain liusin: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Sur, Abra, Nueva Ecija, Pangasinan, Rizal, Zambales, Bataan, Tayabas, Camarines); Mindoro; Samar; Leyte; Guimaras Island; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Lanao and Davao).

The scientific name of liusin is *Parinarium griffithianum*. Other species of the genus produce wood indistinguishable from liusin. Until recently the tree seemed to be little used and was first known under the name of liusin from Bataan and Zambales. The following local names are known: Aningat (Cag.); bakayo (Pang.); bingao (Il.); binggas (Pang.); dungon-dungonan (Tay.); kankangan (Dav.); kapgangan (M.); kulatingan (Tar.); malafuga (Tay.); maluktuk (Moro); mantalingan (Zam.); matamata (Ley.); olayan (Sam.); pasak; sabongkaag (Il.); sampinit (Guim.); sarangan (Sam.); tabun-tabun (Al.); tadian-manuk (Riz., Ab.); tiga (Sam.).

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Lago or liusin-gubat (*Pygeum preslii*) and other species of *Pygeum* are sometimes used as lumber. An extract from the bark of lago is employed locally to dye cloth.

LOCUST OR NARRA FAMILY.

(Leguminosæ.)

The Narra family is, next to the dipterocarp family, the most important one from a lumber standpoint in the Philippine Islands. With the exception of cupang, it is preëminently the family of fine and durable furniture woods. A group of six of these, viz: narra, tindalo, banuyo, supa, aele, and ipil, have a beautiful grain and color, and for furniture and cabinetmaking will compare with any six other woods in the markets of the world. Nowhere appearing in any considerable quantity, the members of this family are encountered isolated here and there in situations with dry or sandy soils (tindalo, supa, ipil, and banuyo) or occupy places on moist flats or along streams (aele, ipil, and narra). Cupang, salinkugi, and acleng-parang are usually confined to the open parang country. All of the species mentioned are intolerant of shade, and associated with this they are found destitute or nearly destitute of leaves during a portion of the dry season. All of them also show seasonal rings of growth. The members of the Narra family mentioned here have simply or doubly compound leaves. The fruit is a one-seeded pod (batete), a winged pod with or without spines (various kinds of narra); a pod with oily spines (supa), or the usually long pod so characteristic of the family. The trees are usually medium size with short thick trunks, often large buttresses (narra and cupang) and broad spreading, open, vase-shaped crowns. They often give character to the vegetation, because they overtop the surrounding low growth and during the dry season their bare, or nearly bare, branches stand out in sharp contrast.

NARRA. (Pls. XVI and XVII.)

Narra is a medium-sized tree, 20 to 30 meters in height with an average diameter of 70 to 80 centimeters, though exceptional trees will reach a diameter of 150 to 200 centimeters. The bole has a merchantable length up to 15 meters, is usually angular and irregular and has flat buttresses, from which one-piece table tops 1.5 to 2 meters in diameter are made. It has a low-branching, wide-spreading, vase-shaped crown which is about one-half the total height of the tree.

Narra is found throughout the Philippines, principally in the forest regions where the dry season is not pronounced, nearly always occupying places on flat coastal plains behind mangrove swamps, or very scattered along streams in the low hills near the coast. In the former situation, for small areas, as high as four or five trees to the hectare may be found. While it prefers low, damp soils, occasional trees may be found on drier

slopes. It is decidedly a light-loving tree and is nearly deciduous for a short time during the dry season.

The bark is 3 to 5 millimeters in thickness, soft to the touch, grayish yellow to brownish yellow in color, with fine longitudinal lines about a centimeter apart. It is often shed in small thin flakes. The inner bark is light red, streaked with darker red short tubes united in vertical rows. These, when cut, exude a crimson liquid which on solidification becomes a very dark reddish brown. This liquid is said to have medicinal and dyeing properties. The leaves are simply compound, alternate, with 6 to 11 leaflets, which are smooth, from 5 to 13 centimeters long and from 2 to 8 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is nearly creamy white. The heartwood is yellow, red, or nearly white. It has a faint, sweet cedary odor, and chips soaked in water turn it fluorescent blue. The wood is moderately heavy, moderately hard to hard, with coarse and sometimes twisted grain, and durable, the heart being rarely attacked by insects. It has fine parallel cross lines ("ripple marks") in longitudinal sections.

Narra has the following uses: Bancas; bridge construction; cabinet-making; carabao yokes; carriage making; carving; doors; door panels; finishing of houses; floors; furniture; posts; railway ties; store fronts; table tops; walls; window sills.

The scientific name of narra is *Pterocarpus indicus*. Closely related species are prickly narra (*Pterocarpus echinatus*) and Blanco's narra (*Pterocarpus blancoi*) which are much like narra in all particulars except character of the fruits.

The distribution of the narras is as follows: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Abra, Union, Benguet, Pangasinan, Nueva Ecija, Tarlac, Zambales, Bulacan, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Baler, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon, Albay); Palani Island; Marinduque; Mindoro; Masbate; Samar; Leyte; Negros Occidental; Palawan; Balabac Island; Camiguin Island; Mindanao (Surigao, Misamis, Lanao, Zamboanga, Davao).

Narra is the most common commercial name for the wood in the Philippines. It is also known as Philippine mahogany, and is practically the same as the *padouk* of India and Andaman rosewood. The following local names are also known: Agana (T.); antagan (Ib.); apalit (Tar.); asana (T., Il.); daitanag (Pam.); dungon (Kalinga Ig.); magalayao (Il., Ib.); naga (B., V.); nala (Moro); naya (Z.); odiao (Pam.); sagat (Cag.); sangki (Il., V.); tagga (Ib.); urian (Pam.).

BATETE. (Pls. XVIII and XIX.)

Batete is a tree which reaches a height of 30 to 35 meters and a diameter of 80 to 100 centimeters. It has a regularly cylindrical unbuttressed bole which has a clear length of 18 to 20 meters. The crown is globular and quite dense and is about one-third the height of the tree.

Batete is confined to the drier soils of the regions where the dry season is not pronounced. It is usually associated with molave or supa on limestone ridges, or with yacal on volcanic hills near the sea. It is slightly tolerant of shade, more so than any other member of this family, and occupies shallow soils usually on the top of ridges.

The bark is 7 to 10 millimeters in thickness; gray to gray-brown in color, with a yellowish tinge; sheds in large scroll-shaped patches. The inner bark is red. The leaves are alternate, simply-compound with from 3 to 7 usually alternate leaflets, which are smooth from 8 to 19 centimeters long and 4 to 9 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is light red, exuding a dirty, dark green, oily sap. The heartwood is reddish brown in color, streaked with black which is due to a dark colored oil. The wood soaked in water produces a brown color, tinged with purple. It is moderately hard and moderately heavy, easy to work and fairly durable. Batete is used for furniture, flooring, interior finish, and siding.

It is known from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Tayabas, Camarines, Albay); Ticao Island; Masbate; Samar; Leyte; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Davao):

Batete has the scientific name of *Kingiodendron alternifolium*. The following local names are known: Danggai (B., V.); duka (Ley.); magbalago (Sam.); palo maria (Zam.); palina (Dav.); salalangin (Al.); talabangon (Sor.).

SUPA. (Pl. XX.)

Supa is a tree reaching a height of 20 to 30 meters, and in exceptional cases a diameter of 150 to 180 centimeters. The bole is regular, straight, and unbuttressed. The crown is very large, usually flattened vase-shaped, open, and with heavy limbs having a diameter of 25 to 40 centimeters. Supa seems to be confined to a limited part of regions without a distinct dry season. Here it occurs on the low limestone ridges near the seashore. It is intolerant of shade.

The bark is 7 to 10 millimeters in thickness, brown to nearly black in color, and sheds in large scales. Where freshly shed, pink colored patches are exposed. The leaves are alternate and simply compound, with usually three pair of leaflets, each smooth, leathery in texture, from 3.5 to 9 centimeters long and from 2.5 to 5 centimeters wide. The fruit is a pod, covered with straight, stiff spines, on the ends of which sticky drops of oil accumulate.

The sapwood is cream colored or pinkish; the heartwood is yellow when fresh, changing on exposure to a yellowish brown, often having a reddish tinge. It colors water a dark-reddish brown, and has a faint peppery odor. The wood is heavy, hard, fairly durable, slightly cross-grained, and rather difficult to work. It has the following uses: House construction (flooring, interior trim, door frames, posts); baseball bats;

bridge construction; naval construction; railroad ties; furniture; cabinet-making. (For a discussion of supa oil see Part I, p. 54.)

Supa has been found in the following regions: Luzon (Baler, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon, Albay); and Mindoro.

The scientific name of supa is *Sindora supa*. Besides supa, the following names for this tree are known: Malapaho (T., V.); manapo (Bal.); parina (B.); yacal dilao (Tay.).

IPIL. (Pls. XXI and XXII.)

Ipil is a tree reaching a height of 30 to 45 meters and a diameter of 150 to 180 centimeters, though usually it is between 60 and 120 centimeters. The usually unbuttressed bole is sometimes straight and regular, though more often crooked and deformed. The tree often forks a short distance above the ground. Exceptionally large trees will have a clear length of 15 to 18 meters. The crown is large, and irregularly vase shaped. Ipil is found scattered throughout the Philippines along the coast, on flood plains near the mouths of large rivers, and occasionally on low hills. It seems to prefer a sandy soil with the ground water level not far below the surface. It is intolerant of shade.

The bark is 5 to 8 millimeters in thickness, gray with an orange tinge in color. The shallow saucer-like depressions made where bark is shed show a tan gray color until exposed for some time. The inner bark is light brown, mottled with pinkish brown specks. The leaves are alternate, simply-compound, composed usually of two pairs of leaflets; these are smooth, from 8 to 12 centimeters long and from 5.5 to 8.5 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is creamy in color, the heartwood is yellow when freshly cut, but turns reddish brown on exposure, and in old well-seasoned pieces it is chocolate colored. The pores frequently contain sulphur-colored deposits. The wood is heavy, hard, stiff, and not difficult to work.

It is one of the most desirable of the common hardwoods because of its great durability. It is used principally for house construction (doors, posts, flooring); railroad ties; paving blocks; telegraph poles; bridge construction; shipbuilding; high class furniture and cabinet work.

The following is the distribution of ipil: Luzon (Cagayan, Baler, Zambales, Bataan, Tayabas, Camarines, Albay, Sorsogon); Camiguin Island; Ticao Island; Masbate; Mindoro; Leyte; Guimaras Island; Dinagat Island; Panay; Negros; Palawan, Mindanao (Zamboanga, Davao, Cotabato, Surigao); Basilan Island; Tawi Tawi.

The scientific name of ipil is *Intsia bijuga*. Another closely related species, with usually three pairs of leaflets instead of two, is Merrill's ipil (*Intsia acuminata*). Ipil is the widespread common name for this wood in the Philippines; others recorded are: Labing (Tay.); sangai (Il.); tanglangao (Cam.). Equivalentents of this wood are known in

Samoa as ifi-lele, in Guam as ifil, in Borneo as mirabow, and in the Federated Malay States, as merbou.

TINDALO. (Pl. XXIII.)

Tindalo is a tree reaching a height of 25 to 30 meters and a diameter of 60 to 80 centimeters, occasionally up to 120 centimeters. It is usually without buttresses and has a somewhat regular bole 12 to 15 meters in length. The crown, one-half the height of the tree, is broad spreading, vase shaped, semiopen, and partly deciduous during the dry season. Tindalo has a wide distribution throughout the Islands, but is not abundant. It is found scattered usually on dry, shallow, or rocky soils on the low ridges and hills along the coast. Less frequently it is scattered in the edges of the dipterocarp forests.

The bark is about 10 millimeters in thickness, creamy yellow in color, and has an uneven surface due to the saucerlike depressions made by the shedding of the outer layers. It is covered with numerous corky pustules, and sheds in scroll-shaped patterns. The inner bark is brownish yellow in color. The leaves are alternate, simply compound, with 3 (sometimes 4) pairs of leaflets. These are smooth with a white bloom beneath, from 3.5 to 10 centimeters long and from 3 to 5 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is white to creamy brown; the heartwood is yellowish red, becoming very dark with age. It is heavy, hard, durable, not difficult to work, has a fine, usually straight grain, takes a beautiful finish, and is almost free of the defect of warping.

Tindalo has the following uses: Fine furniture; cabinetmaking; fine interior finish (doors, floors, stairways, panels, etc.); railway ties; ship-building; general construction purposes.

The following regions are known to contain tindalo: Luzon (Cagayan, Isabela, Ilocos Norte, Pangasinan, Zambales, Rizal, Bataan, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon); Palani Island; Polillo Island; Ticao; Masbate; Marinduque; Mindoro; Culion; Leyte; Cebu; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Cotabato, Surigao).

The scientific name of tindalo is *Pahudia rhomboidea*. Besides tindalo the most common names are as follows: Apalit (Pang.); Balayong or some form of it (V.); barayong (B.); magalayao (N. Luz.); pintok (Z.); uris (Il.).

CUPANG. (Pls. XXIV and XXV.)

Cupang reaches a height of 35 to 40 meters, and a diameter of 150 to 180 centimeters. The bole is 15 to 20 meters in length, strongly buttressed, but otherwise fairly regular. The crown, about one-half the height of the tree, is large, vase shaped, widespreading, and open. Cupang is preeminently a tree of the rather open and second-growth forests where the dry season is pronounced, and is very scarce or entirely absent

in those parts where a pronounced dry season is wanting. It prefers good soils, requires a great deal of light, and therefore is found in the parang or on edges of untouched forests, or in open places of dipterocarp forests.

The bark is 6 to 12 millimeters in thickness, brown to russet-brown in color, often gray where exposed to sunlight. It has a roughened appearance due to shallow vertical broken lines, and is covered with small brown corky pustules. The inner bark is dark brownish red in color. The leaves are alternate, doubly compound, large and fern-like in appearance; the leaflets about 0.5 centimeter in length, and whitish beneath. The tree is bare of leaves from one to six weeks during the dry season.

The large sapwood is creamy white when fresh and then has a very disagreeable odor. On exposure it discolors rapidly. The heartwood is light brown, but is found only in trees 60 centimeters or more in diameter. The wood is light and soft, and decays rapidly.

Cupang has the following uses: Light and temporary construction; packing boxes; wooden soles of shoes; matches. It is known to be good for paper pulp.

The scientific name of cupang is *Parkia timoriana*. Besides cupang and some forms of it, the only known other name in use is butarik (N. Luz.).

Cupang is known to occur in the following regions, though no collections have been made in some of them: Luzon (Cagayan, Isabela, Ilocos Sur, Abra, Benguet, Pangasinan, Tarlac, Nueva Ecija, Pampanga, Bulacan, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines); Mindoro, Marinduque; Palawan.

ACLENG-PARANG. (Pls. XXVI and XXVII.)

Acleng-parang is a medium-sized tree reaching a height of 20 to 22 meters and a diameter of 60 to 90 centimeters. It has a straight, unbuttressed, regular bole about one-half the height of the tree. The crown is vase shaped, rather broad spreading and open. The tree is usually confined to the regions where the dry season is pronounced. Here it is found on the edge of the forest or in the more or less open parang type of forest. It resists fire well, and is intolerant of shade. It will grow in shallow or deep soil, but is seldom found in the latter. It is usually destitute of leaves from two to six weeks during the dry season.

The bark is 5 to 10 millimeters in thickness, smooth, and light gray when young, but on ageing it becomes slightly roughened and brownish gray to yellowish in color. The inner bark is pink, streaked with radiating lighter colored lines. The leaves are alternate and doubly compound with about 3 to 5 pairs of pinnæ, each with 6 to 10 pairs of leaflets; these are whitish beneath, from 2 to 6 centimeters long and from 1 to 2.5 centimeter wide.

The sapwood is large, creamy white; the heartwood is chocolate colored, shining, with alternate belts of darker and lighter color. The wood is

hard, moderately heavy, fairly durable, and sometimes substituted for acle. It is used for sugar-cane crushers, rice pounders, wheels, agricultural implements, carving, railroad ties, and house construction.

The tree is known from the following regions: Luzon (Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Abra, Benguet, Union, Pangasinan, Tarlac, Pampanga, Rizal, Zambales, Bataan, Camarines); Mindoro.

The scientific name of acleng-parang is *Albizzia procera*. The following local names are known: Adaan (Il.); alalangad (T.); aninapla (T.); kalai (Ig.); karial (Z.); palatangan (Il.).

SALINKUGI. (Pl. XXVIII.)

This is a small to medium sized tree attaining a diameter of 80 centimeters and a height of 25 meters, especially in the southern islands. The bole is one-half the height of the tree, usually somewhat irregular, but without buttresses. The crown is broadly vase shaped to globular and is open. It is found throughout the Philippine Islands generally in the parang or open forest.

The bark is about 5 millimeters in thickness, light gray to dark gray in color and densely covered with corky pustules; the inner bark is slightly pink in color and somewhat spongy in texture. The leaves are alternate, doubly compound, consisting usually of 2 pairs of pinnae, each with 2 to 4 pairs of leaflets; these are from 5 to 14 centimeters long, and from 2.5 to 8 centimeters wide, and are covered beneath with fine velvety hairs.

The sapwood is creamy white; the heartwood is dark brown to nearly black streaked with lighter and darker belts and resembles that of acleng-parang. It is moderately hard and moderately heavy. The wood is used locally for general house construction, and, especially in the southern islands, for furniture and fine interior finish.

Salinkugi has the following distribution: Luzon (Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Benguet, Pangasinan, Pampanga, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines, Albay); Mindoro; Ticao Island; Masbate; Guimaras Island; Samar; Negros; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Surigao); Basilan.

The scientific name of salinkugi is *Albizzia saponaria*. Besides the Visayan name of salinkugi, or some form of it, and the Tagalog one of gogong-toko, the following local names are known: Gogo (T.); gogokasai (Tay.); malatoko (Riz.); maratika (Il.); pipi (Neg.); tignan (V.).

BANUYO. (Pl. XXIX.)

Banuyo is a medium to large sized tree with a short, often irregular bole and an open crown. It is scattered throughout the molave type of forest on the dry coastal hills. It is intolerant of shade and seems to thrive best in dry places.

The bark is 5 to 8 millimeters in thickness, gray to brownish-gray in color, not ridged but roughened somewhat by irregularly shaped shallow pits, due to the depressions left where it is shed; the inner bark is dark reddish brown. The leaves are doubly compound with 3 pairs of pinnae each having about 5 pair of leaflets; these are smooth, from 3.5 to 8 centimeters long and from 1.5 to 4 centimeters wide.

The wood is golden brown in color and resembles acle, but is coarser grained, lighter in color and somewhat softer. It is moderately heavy, moderately hard, durable and is easily worked. Banuyo is used for furniture, cabinetmaking, carving, carriage bodies, picture frames, and fine interior finish. It is also employed for various classes of house construction work, especially flooring and siding.

The tree has been reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Isabela, Benguet, Tayabas, Camarines); Camiguin Island; Masbate; Burias Island; Ticao Island; Samar; Negros.

The scientific name of banuyo is *Wallaceodendron celebicum*. Besides the Tagalog name of banuyo the following names are used: Balayong (V.); dauer (Cag.); lupigi (N. Luz.) molina (Cag.).

ACLE. (Pls. XXX and XXXI.)

Acle is a tree of medium height with usually a somewhat irregular bole, 70 to 100 centimeters in diameter and one-half or less than one-half the height of the tree. The trunk has root swells, but no buttresses. The crown is broad spreading, open, and is decidedly thinner during the dry than the wet season. It is a very scattered tree, and is usually found along streams where its roots can easily reach the ground-water level. It is intolerant of shade.

The bark is 8 to 12 millimeters in thickness; is dark brown to almost-black, and is covered with thick small scales giving it a very characteristic appearance. When rubbed with saliva or water the bark produces a lather. The inner bark is reddish brown in color, and brittle in texture. The leaves are doubly compound, usually with one pair of pinnae, each with 3 to 6 pair of leaflets, the terminal pair being much larger than the others. The leaflets are from 4.5 to 18 centimeters long and from 2 to 7 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is creamy white and perishable; the heartwood is a rich dark brown color, fine and curly grained, moderately heavy and hard, and gives water a dark brown color. It has a decided peppery odor. Acle is highly valued for fine furniture and cabinet making, and also has the following uses: House construction (posts, flooring, siding, interior finish); naval construction; ties; sides of guitars; carving.

Acle has been collected from the following regions: Luzon (Ilocos Sur,

Union, Pangasinan, Nueva Ecija, Rizal, Zambales, Bataan, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon); Masbate; Mindoro; Negros; Palawan.

The scientific name of acle is *Albizzia acle*. The wood resembles somewhat the pyngadu of India (*Xylia dolabriformis* Benth.). Besides the Tagalog name of acle, the wood is known under the following names: Kita-kita or quita-quita (Il., Pam., Pang.); langip (V.); tabalangi (V.).

Besides the above the following members of this family need mention:

The raintree (*Enterolobium saman*) is extensively cultivated for ornament and shade throughout the Philippines. It is also known as acacia or monkey pod. Camanchile (*Pithecolobium dulce*) is a small to medium sized tree introduced from tropical America, whose bark is used for tanning leather, and the fleshy aril around the seeds is eaten. Anagap or bansilak (*Pithecolobium scutiferum*) is a small to medium sized tree, with large red, deeply lobed and curved pods, whose wood is used to some extent. Kasai (*Albizzia retusa*) is a small tree usually found in the beach type. Aroma (*Acacia farnesiana*) is a small bushy introduced tree found in the second-growth forests or scattered in the grass lands. Ipil-ipil or santa elena (*Leucaena glauca*), introduced from tropical America, is widely distributed in the second-growth forests and is sometimes planted to kill out the cogon grass. It is a small shrubby tree used extensively for firewood. Philippine mesquite or aroma (*Prosopis vidaliana*) is a small prickly tree, introduced from Mexico, that often forms thickets in the beach type. Tanglin (*Adenanthera intermedia*) is a medium-sized tree found scattered in the forests. Its wood is much like ipil and is often sold for it. Kamatog (*Erythrophloeum densiflorum*) is a medium-sized to large tree very scattered in the dipterocarp forests. The wood is not well known. Alibangbang (*Bauhinia malabarica*) is a small-sized tree very common in the parang. The common name signifies butterfly, from the shape of the leaves. Caña-fistula (*Cassia javanica*) is a small to medium sized tree usually found in the molave type. Its wood resembles banuyo in color, but has a structure similar to tindalo. The foreign name, caña-fistula is applied to the introduced *Cassia fistula* L. but most of the wood that reaches the market probably comes from *Cassia javanica*. The following native names also occur: Anahuhan (Tay.); bagiroro (Bur., Sor.); balayong (V.); dulaueng (Is.); tualing (Z). *Cassia siamea* and *Peltophorum inerme* are introduced trees extensively cultivated for ornament and shade. Both have brilliant yellow flowers. Fire tree (*Delonix regia*) is a small to medium sized cultivated tree introduced from Madagascar. Sibucan or sappan (*Caesalpinia sappan*) is a small shrubby tree semicultivated as a dyewood. (See Part I, p. 54.) Bahai (*Ormosia calavensis*) is a medium-sized tree found very scattered in the dipterocarp forests. The wood is red, but is little known on the markets. Madre-cacao or kakawati (*Gliricidia sepium*) is a small bushy tree introduced from tropical America. It occurs in the parang and is one of the principal woods used for fuel. Katurai or katudai (*Sesbania grandiflora*) is a small tree with large white flowers used as salad or vegetable. It has probably been introduced into the Philippines. Sampalok or tamarind (*Tamarindus indica*) is a medium-sized tree growing in or near towns, probably introduced from Africa. The fruit is eaten raw or cooked with meat to flavor it. Bani (*Pongamia mitis*) is a small tree usually growing on the sandy beaches. The wood is used locally. Dapdap (*Erythrina indica*) is a medium-sized tree with a white, very soft wood, growing along the seashore. The tree is cultivated for its large red flowers and as a shade tree in hemp plantations. It is sometimes erroneously called the fire tree.

LEMON OR CAMUNING FAMILY.

(Rutaceæ.)

This is a family of small trees, representatives of which are found throughout the Philippines. The species usually have compound leaves which are full of oily droplets (pellucid dots). Camuning (*Murraya exotica* L.), the principal one worthy of mention, is a small tree, furnishing a very hard, very heavy, yellowish wood, used for canes, kris handles, and carvings. It is said to be a good substitute for boxwood. It is also known as banasi or banati. Species of the genus *Citrus* furnish the native cultivated orange (dalandan or cajel), the native cultivated grape fruit (suha or lukban) and two varieties of lime (dayap and kalamansi.) *Citrus hystrix* (kabuyao) is a wild species whose fruit is used for washing hair and bleaching clothes. Kayutana (*Fagara* sp.) is a small to medium sized tree whose wood is pale yellow, hard, and heavy.

CANARY OR PILI FAMILY.

(Burseraceæ.)

The trees of this family have alternate compound leaves and resinous barks. Pili (*Canarium luzonicum*) is the tree that produces the resin that is known as the Manila elemi of commerce (known locally as pili resin, brea, or brea blanca). A form of this tree (perhaps a different species) produces the pili nut, an edible nut with a rich oily flavor resembling the almond. (See Part I, p. 56.) Pagsahingin (*Canarium villosum*) produces a resin similar to that of pili. The wood of both these *Canariums* and that of twenty or more other species is usually moderately hard, light to moderately heavy, and light grayish brown, sometimes pinkish, in color, fairly fine and straight grained; not very durable, but said to make good house posts if the portion in the ground is charred. The wood of kamingi (*Santiria nitida*) is pale brown, heavy, hard, rather tough, does not check much, but warps considerably, and is somewhat difficult to work. Bogo or bagulibas (*Garuga abilo*), another tree of this family, is usually found growing with molave. It has a short bole, large in diameter, and wide spreading branches. The sapwood has a pale dull brown color; the heartwood dark reddish brown with almost black streaks and mottlings, moderately heavy, moderately hard, rather coarse irregular grain, and not difficult to work.

MAHOGANY OR CALANTAS FAMILY.

(Meliaceæ.)

While this family has many representatives in the Philippines, the wood of only four species are commonly found in the lumber market. The woods of a large number of species are used, but the identifications are so obscure that it is impossible to discuss them at this time. Outside the Philippines this family furnishes to the lumber market the West Indian cedar (*Cedrela odorata* L.), the toon tree of India (*Toona* spp.), the true mahogany (*Swietenia mahagoni* L.), the satinwood of India (*Chloroxylon swietenia* DC.¹) and the African mahogany (*Khaya senegalensis*).

With some practise the members of the Calantas family can be distinguished by the large compound alternate leaves, grouped at the ends

¹ Placed in Rutaceæ by Engler.

of short, stout branchlets. The trees are small, medium sized, and sometimes large in diameter, though usually short boled. The wood of many species have a faint to distinct odor.

CALANTAS. (Pls. XXXII and XXXIII.)

Calantas is a tree that will reach a height of 40 to 50 meters and a diameter of over 150 centimeters, though the trees are usually much smaller. The bole is straight and cylindrical and about one-half the height of the tree in length. The crown is wide spreading and rather open. This tree is found scattered throughout the Philippines and can not be said to be abundant in any place. It occurs along small streams in the molave type, on flood plains in the lauan-hagachac type and sometimes in drier situations. It is not tolerant of shade.

The bark is 5 to 10 millimeters in thickness, brown to reddish brown in color and breaks into rough rectangular scales, the ends of which turn slightly outward. In small trees the bark often has longitudinal lines. The inner bark is reddish brown, slightly streaked with lighter bands, and has a distinct cedary odor. The leaves are compound, alternate, bunched at the ends of the twigs. There are 7 to 11 pairs of leaflets, each smooth or nearly so except when young, from 5 to 13 centimeters long and from 3.5 to 6 centimeters wide.

The sapwood of calantas is very light red; the heartwood is pale to dark red in color. The wood usually has a strong cedary odor. It is soft in texture and light in weight, and is coarse and straight grained. It is durable and resists the attacks of white ants and fungi very well. A form of calantas (probably a distinct botanical species) is found in Mindanao and Palawan. The wood of this, while in other respects like calantas, has no distinct odor except when fresh, and some of it has the bird's-eye grain, when it is known as bird's-eye or curly calantas.

Calantas is closely related to the West Indian cedar and like it is especially valuable for fine furniture, cabinetmaking, and cigar boxes. It is sometimes sold as Philippine mahogany. It is also used for pattern making, carvings, ceilings, doors, partitions, sides of guitars, and for bancas.

The present knowledge of the distribution of calantas is as follows: Luzon (Cagayan, Isabela, Bontoc, Pangasinan, Zambales, Bataan, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon); Mindoro; Samar; Leyte; Negros; Palawan; Mindanao (Zamboanga and Basilan).

The scientific name of calantas is *Toona calantas*. Other species of *Toona* probably occur. Besides the general Tagalog name of calantas the following local names are known: Balongkavit (B.); bantinon (N. V.); danga (Is.); danigga (N. Luz.) danupra (Il.); kalantad (Pang.); Kantingen (Z., Il.); lanigda (V., B.); lanipga or some form of it (V., B.); porak (Il.); sagged (Pal.); sandana (V.); taratara (T.).

SANTOL. (Pl. XXXIV.)

Santol is a medium-sized tree reaching a height of 20 meters and a diameter of 70 centimeters. The tree has a straight, regular, but short bole. The crown is fairly dense and compact.

The bark is 4 to 7 millimeters in thickness, gray to grayish brown in color, rather smooth with fine longitudinal lines, and covered with corky pustules. Just beneath the surface the color is mottled green; the inner bark is pinkish red nearest the surface, but shades into a very light pink next to the sapwood. The leaves are compound and alternate. There are three leaflets, each from 13 to 16 centimeters long and from 6 to 9.5 centimeters wide, and covered below with fine velvety hairs.

The sapwood and heartwood are brownish pink in color. The wood is moderately heavy and moderately hard and has a very faint aromatic odor. When soaked in water it gives a reddish tinge. It is straight grained and easily worked. Santol is used for light construction purposes, especially house building, also for carving, sacred images, blocks for shaping hats, and furniture.

The scientific name of santol is *Sandoricum indicum*. It has the general common name of santol and besides growing wild is cultivated throughout the Philippines for its edible fruit.

MALASANTOL. (Pl. XXXV.)

Malasantol is a medium-sized tree reaching a height of at least 20 to 25 meters and a diameter of 80 centimeters. The bark is 4 to 7 millimeters in thickness and gray to grayish-brown in color; the inner bark is tan red in color. The leaves are alternate and trifoliate. The leaflets are from 6 to 18.5 centimeters long and from 4 to 9 centimeters wide and smooth or nearly smooth.

The sapwood is creamy white to salmon pink in color; the heartwood is reddish brown with a violet tinge. The wood is somewhat harder and heavier than santol and is straight and coarse grained. It has an odor similar to santol.

It has been recorded from the following provinces: Luzon (Nueva Vizcaya, Tarlac, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Tayabas); Mindoro; Samar; Negros; Zamboanga.

The scientific name of malasantol is *Sandoricum vidalii*. It has the following local names: Biot (N. V.); bok-bok (Tay.); magsantol (Z.); malabobonao (Sam.); santol (Neg., Riz.).

TUCANG-CALAO. (Pl. XXXVI.)

Tucang-calao is a tree usually reaching a height of 20 to 25 meters and a diameter of 60 to 80 centimeters. The bole is regular and about one-half the height of the tree. The tree grows on the dry coastal hills, usually scattered through the forests in which bansalaguin and dungon occur.

The bark is 5 to 10 millimeters in thickness, light gray to gray in color, distinctly ridged. The inner bark is tan red in color. The leaves are alternately compound, composed of about 12 pairs of leaflets, each from 10 to 24 centimeters long and 2.5 to 8 centimeters wide, densely covered with whitish to rusty-brown hairs beneath.

The sapwood is grayish in color; the heartwood is brownish red with a fine and curly grain and a pungent cedary odor. The wood is heavy and hard. For beautiful color and grain this wood is of a mahogany grade. It is used for furniture, flooring, general house construction (especially interior finish), and shipbuilding.

This tree has been reported from the following regions: Luzon (Pangasinan, Batangas, Tayabas, Camarines, Albay); Masbate; Burias; and Cebu.

The scientific name of tukang-calao is *Aglaia clarkii*. The general commercial name is tukang-calao. Other local names are as follows: Alamog (Al.); balui (Pang.); kansuyod (Al., Bur.); makopa (Bat.); saldana (Cebu).

TABIGI.

This is a medium-sized tree with a short, thick, irregular bole and a spreading semiopen crown. It is found scattered throughout the mangrove swamps of the Philippines. The bark is 2 to 4 millimeters in thickness, smooth, cinnamon brown in color, sometimes with parallel curved lines of corky pustules. The inner bark is pink. The leaves are alternately compound; the leaflets are obovate, smooth, from 8 to 12 centimeters long and from 3.5 to 6 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is light brownish red. The heartwood is dark red in color, moderately hard, moderately heavy, and with fine ripple marks. It is very fine grained, durable, and shrinks but little in drying. It is used for furniture, sandals, and locally for construction of small houses and as firewood. The bark is used extensively for dyeing. (See Part I, p. 53.)

The scientific name of tabigi is *Xylocarpus obovatus*. It has the following local names: Lubanayong (Cag.); nigi (T.); tawigi (Mind.).

PIAGAO.

This is a medium-sized to tall tree with a fairly regular bole that will yield poles up to 18 meters in length and 60 to 80 centimeters in diameter. It is found throughout the mangrove swamps of the Philippines and seems to do best in the Davao region of Mindanao, where for very small areas it forms almost pure stands.

The bark is 3 to 7 millimeters in thickness, gray to dark brown with a reddish tinge, often with vertical bands of gray alternating with reddish brown, and inclined to be irregularly ridged or at least much roughened; the inner bark is red. The leaves are alternately compound;

the leaflets are smooth, leathery, from 9.5 to 12 centimeters long and from 3 to 7 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is brown, lightly tinged with red; the heartwood is dark red, with ripple marks. It is moderately hard, moderately heavy, durable, and said to last well as salt-water piling. It makes fine furniture and is of a mahogany grade.

The scientific name of piagao is *Xylocarpus granatum*. A third species of *Xylocarpus* is found in the Philippines.

A number of species of the genera of *Aglaia*, *Amoora*, *Chisocheton*, and *Dysoxylum* are scattered throughout the Islands, especially in the dipterocarp forests. It is impossible at the present time to describe these trees so that they be referred to definite species. Agarú (a species of *Dysoxylum*?) yields a light-colored, golden-yellow, fine-grained, hard, and moderately heavy wood, found in small quantities on the Manila market. It takes a beautiful finish like that of satinwood. Woods similar to this in hardness and other characteristics are known under the Tagalog name of kuling-manuk and the Visayan name of miao. Malatumbaga is the Bataan name usually applied to *Aglaia harmsiana*. A wood similar to this, known as malasaging, and possibly the same species, comes from Tayabas and Camarines. It is dark red in color (resembling somewhat tucang-calao) and very durable. While the harder species of the genera mentioned above are valuable woods, they will never find much of a place in the markets because they are scattered and usually have ill-formed short boles. Lansones (*Lansium domesticum*) is a tree cultivated for its fruit.

RUBBER OR BINUNGA FAMILY.

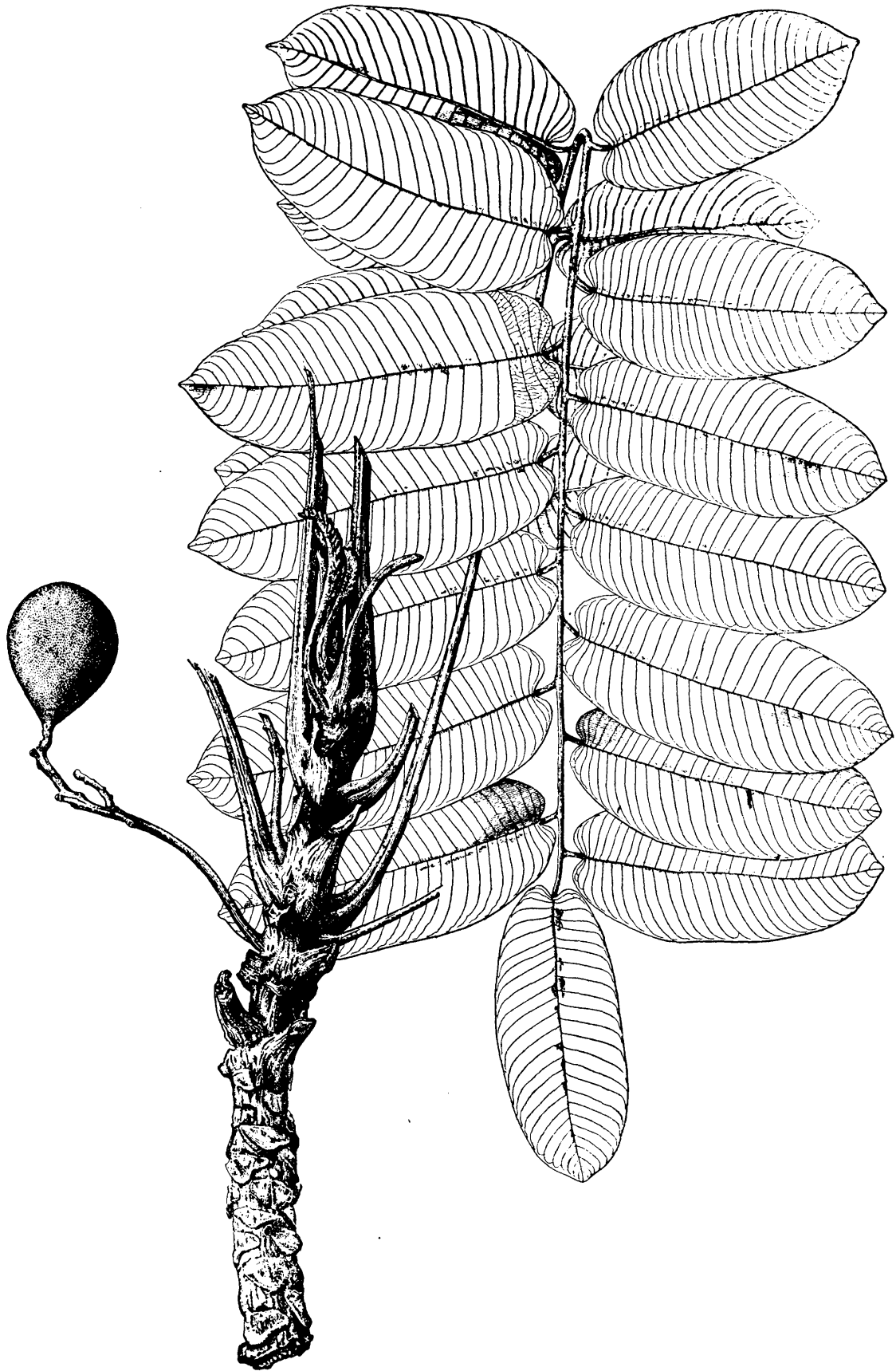
(Euphorbiaceæ.)

While not of much importance from the standpoint of producing lumber, yet this family contains a large number of tree species, nearly all of which are small. These usually occupy a conspicuous place in the undergrowth of the dipterocarp forests, or are the "weed" trees of the second-growth forests.

The leaves are usually alternate and simple, but *Hevea brasiliensis* and *Bischofia javanica* are trifoliolate and *Manihot glaziovii* has deeply three to seven palmately parted leaves.

Undergrowth species: A number of species occupy a conspicuous place in the undergrowth of some of the dipterocarp forests. Among the most important of these are bignai lalaki (*Aporosa sphæridophora*), malabignai or kaping-gubat (*Aporosa symplocosifolia*), butong-manuk or talimorung (*Cyclostemon microphyllum*), dilak (*Baccaurea tetrandra*). These are all strictly undergrowth trees, seldom reaching a diameter of over 15 centimeters and a height of 10 meters. They are all tolerant of shade.

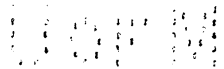
Caiñgin species: Hamindang (*Macaranga bicolor*) and binunga (*Macaranga tanarius*) are among the first trees to enter newly made clearings, forming with *Homalanthus* species (especially balanti, *H. populneus*) almost pure stands. The *Macaranga*s reach as scattered trees in some dipterocarp forests the dimensions of dominant or subdominant trees. They have peltate leaves. Balanti, with heart-shaped leaves, is a small spindly tree. All of these, with hinlaumo, (*Mallotus ricinoides*) and alim (*M. moluccanus*) are rapid growing trees, producing seeds at a very early age. Binayuyu or inyam (*Antidesma ghaesembilla*), tanigi (*Antidesma edule*), and bignai (*Antidesma bunius*) and other species of *Antidesma* are small trees found in the open grass lands. A special characteristic

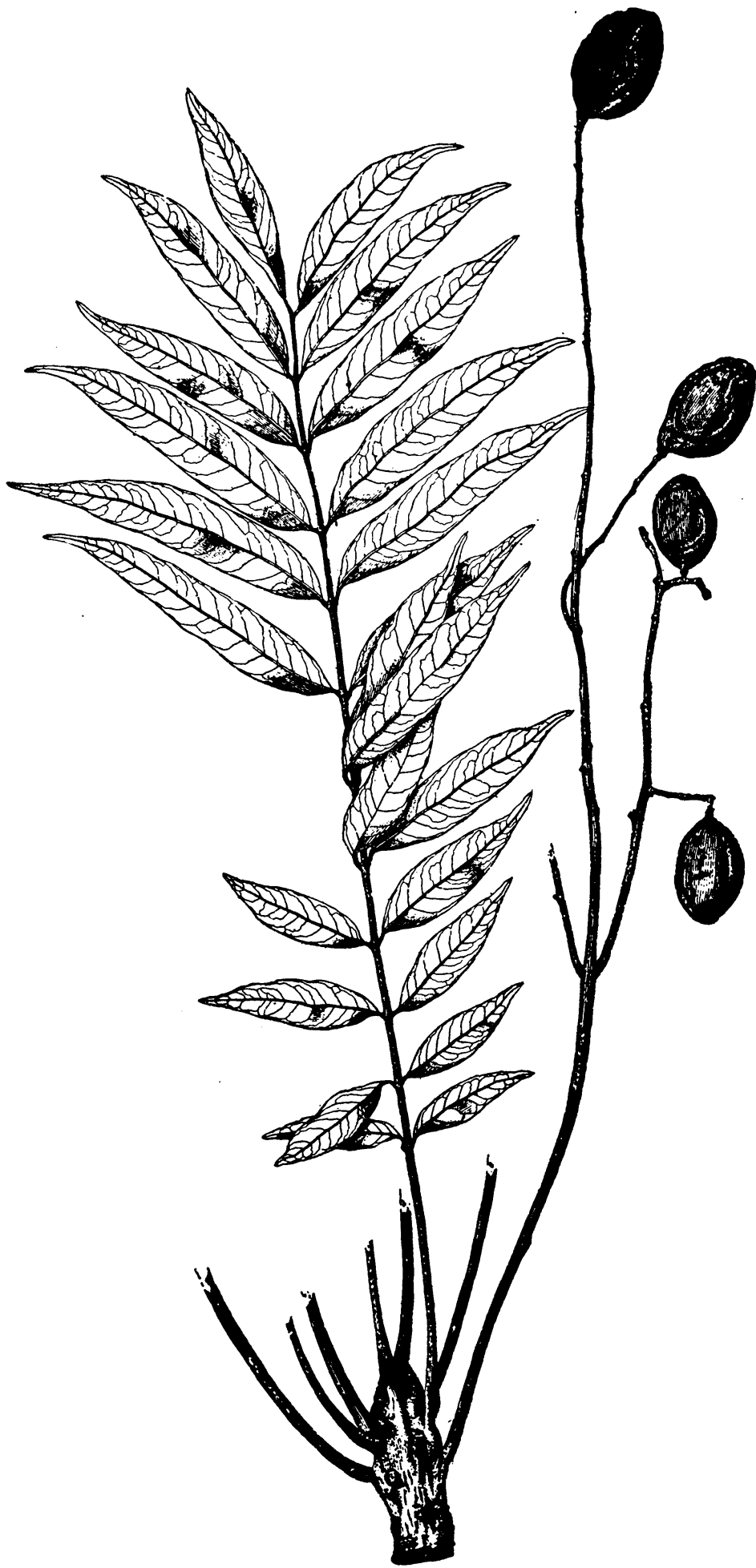


J. Vitan del

PLATE XXXVI.—TUCANG-CALAO (*Aglia clarkii*).

a, Fruit.





J. Vitan del

PLATE XXXVII.—AMUGUIS (*Koordersiodendron pinnatum*).

a, Fruit.

1001

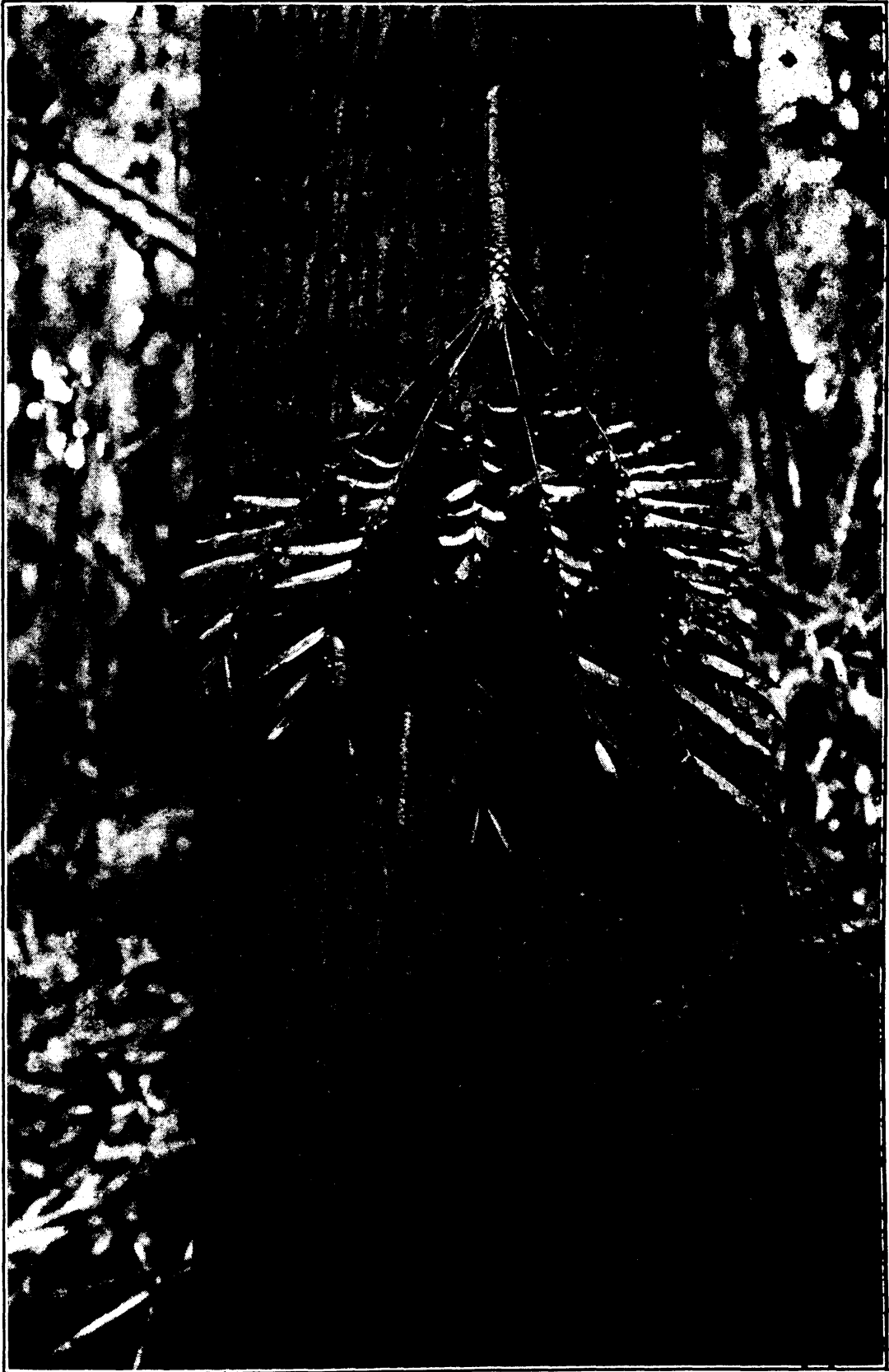
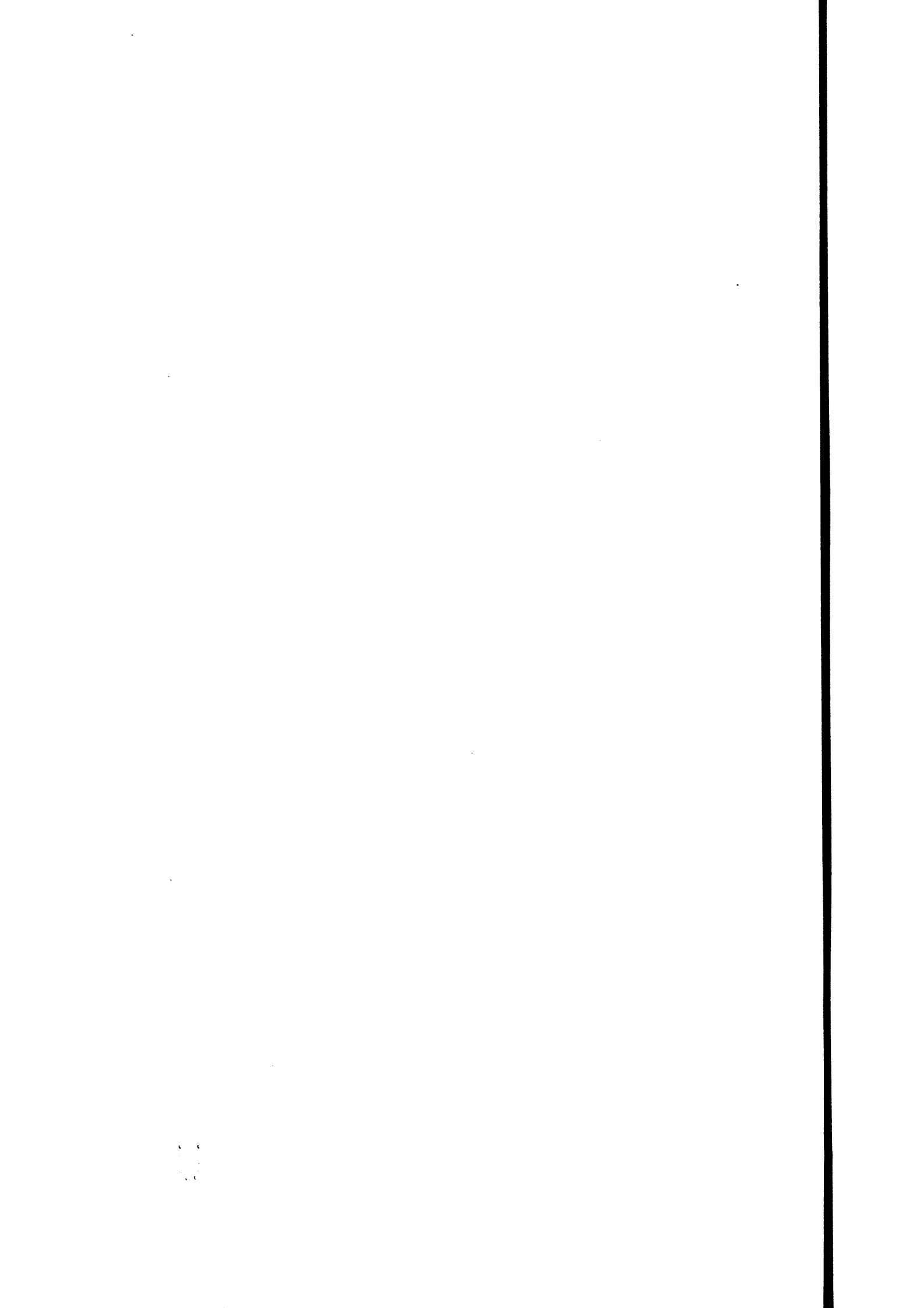


PLATE XXXVIII.—LOWER TRUNK OF AMUGUIS (*Koordersiodendron pinnatum*).
With leaves attached.





J. Vitan del.

PLATE XXXIX.—DAO (*Dracontomelum dao*).

a, Flower cluster; *b*, fruit cluster.

U. S. G. P. O.

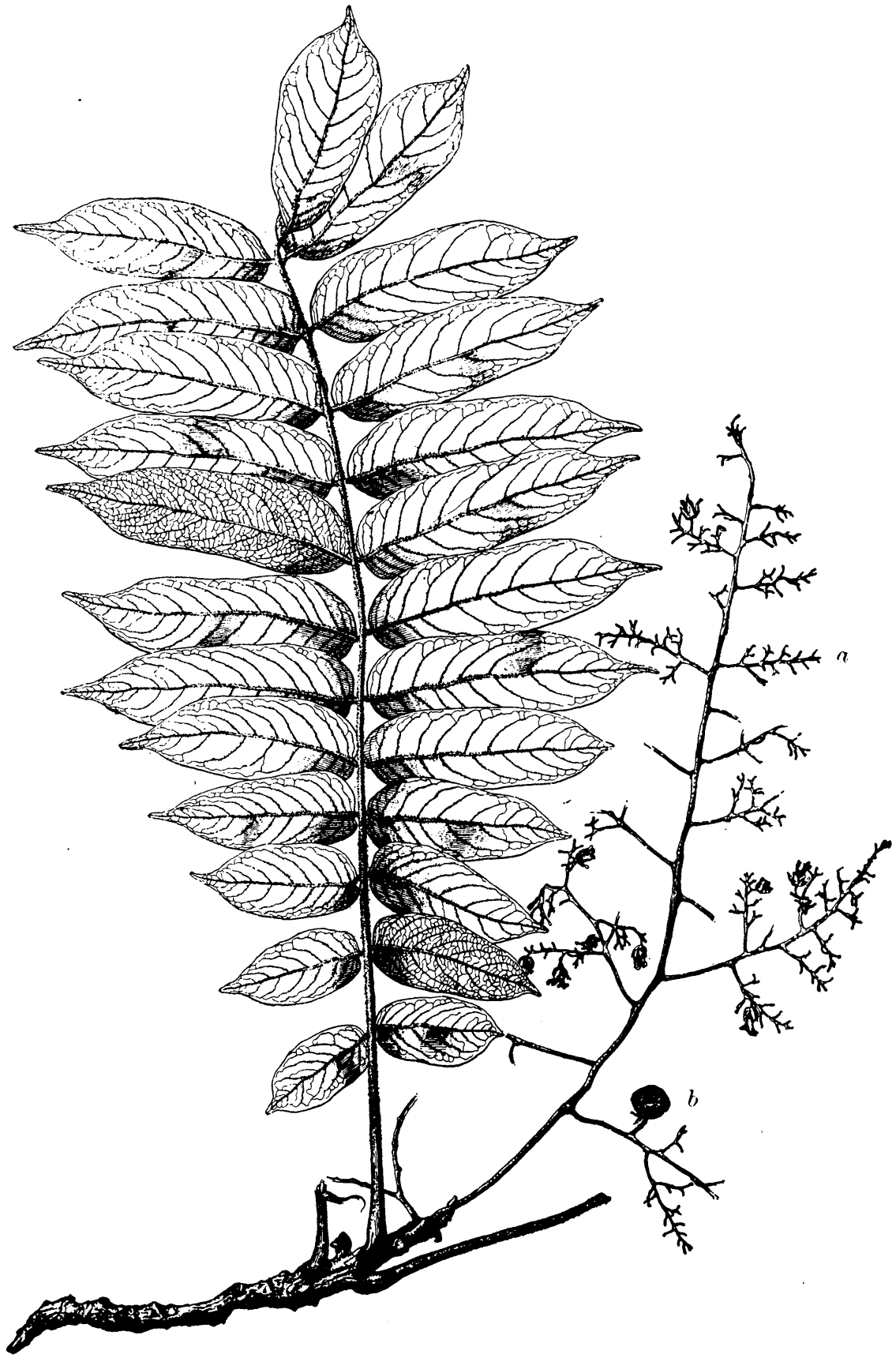
4701



PLATE XL.—LOWER PORTION OF THE TRUNK OF DAO (*Dracontomelum dao*).

004

47011



J. Vitan del.

PLATE XLI.—LAMIO (*Dracontomelum cumingianum*).

a, Flower cluster; b, fruit.

47011



J. Vitan del.

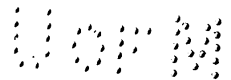
PLATE XLII.—BALACAT (*Zizyphus zonulatus*).

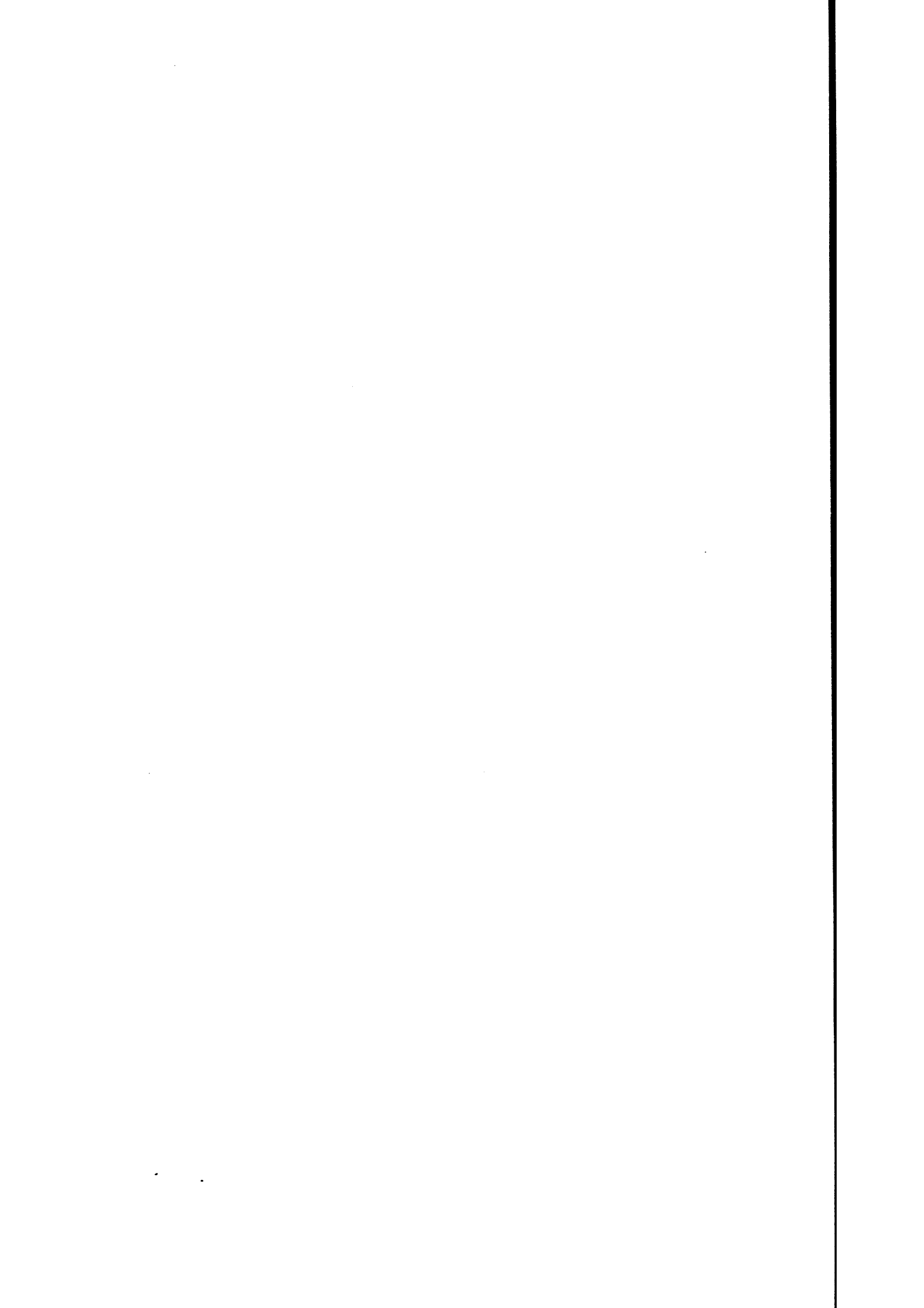
a, Fruit cluster.

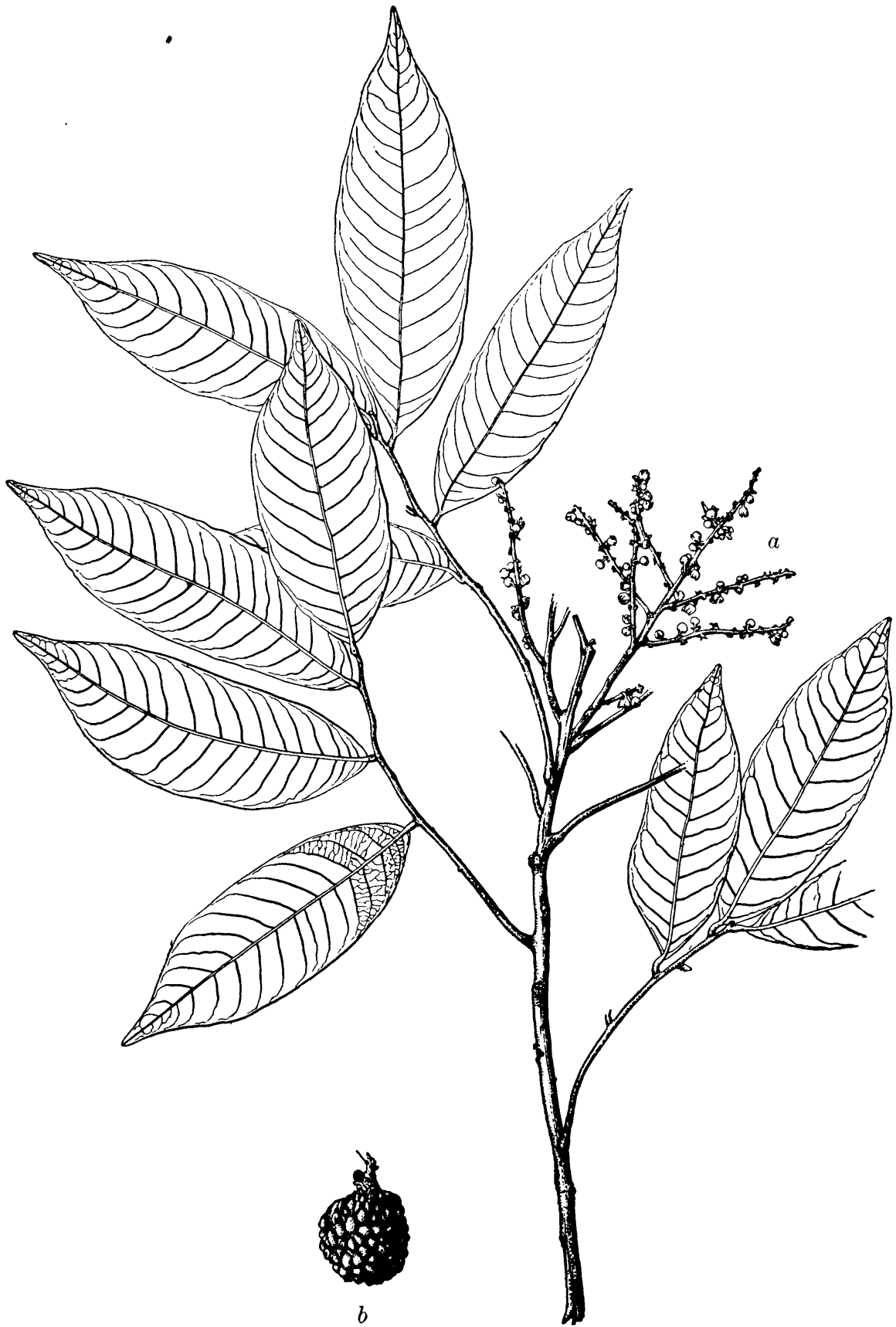
0701



PLATE XLIII.—BALACAT (*Zizyphus sonulatus*).





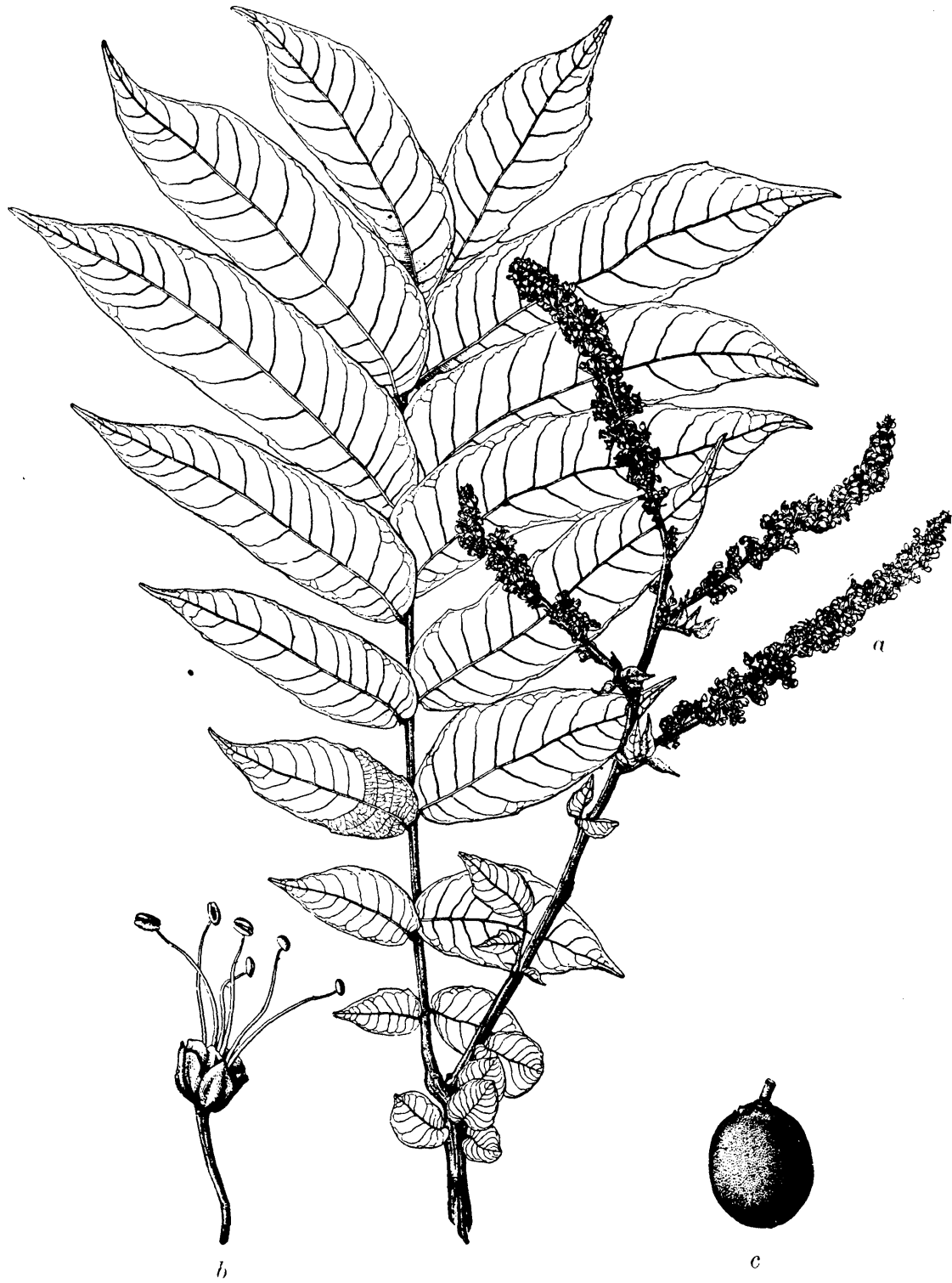


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PLATE XLIV.—ALUPAG (*Euphoria cinerea*).

a, Flower cluster; *b*, fruit.

100

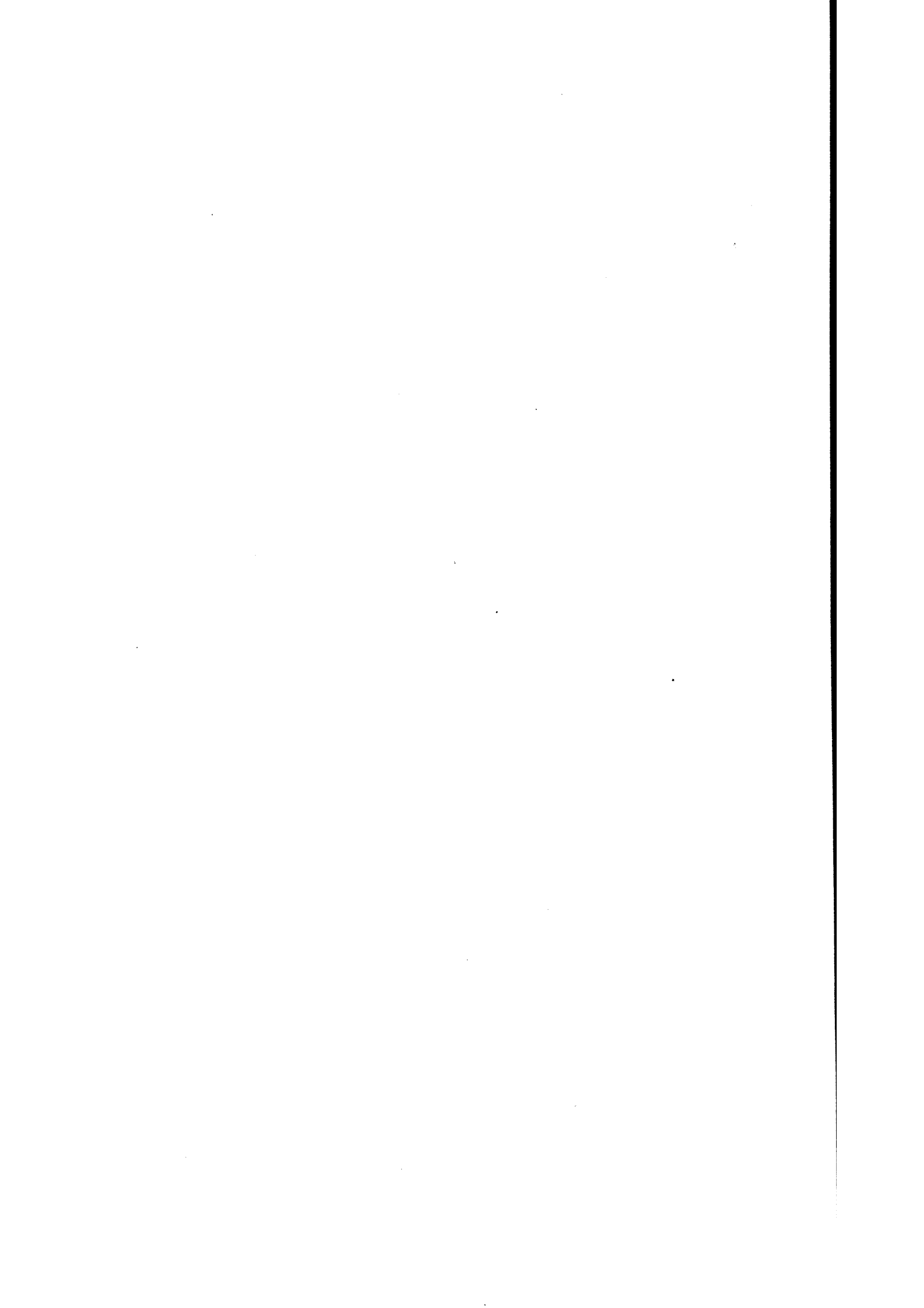


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PLATE XLV.—MALUGAY (*Pometia pinnata*).

a, Flower cluster; b, flower; c, fruit.

U. S. G. O.





J. Van der

PLATE XLVI.—DUNGON (*Tarrhetia sylvatica*).

a, Fruit.

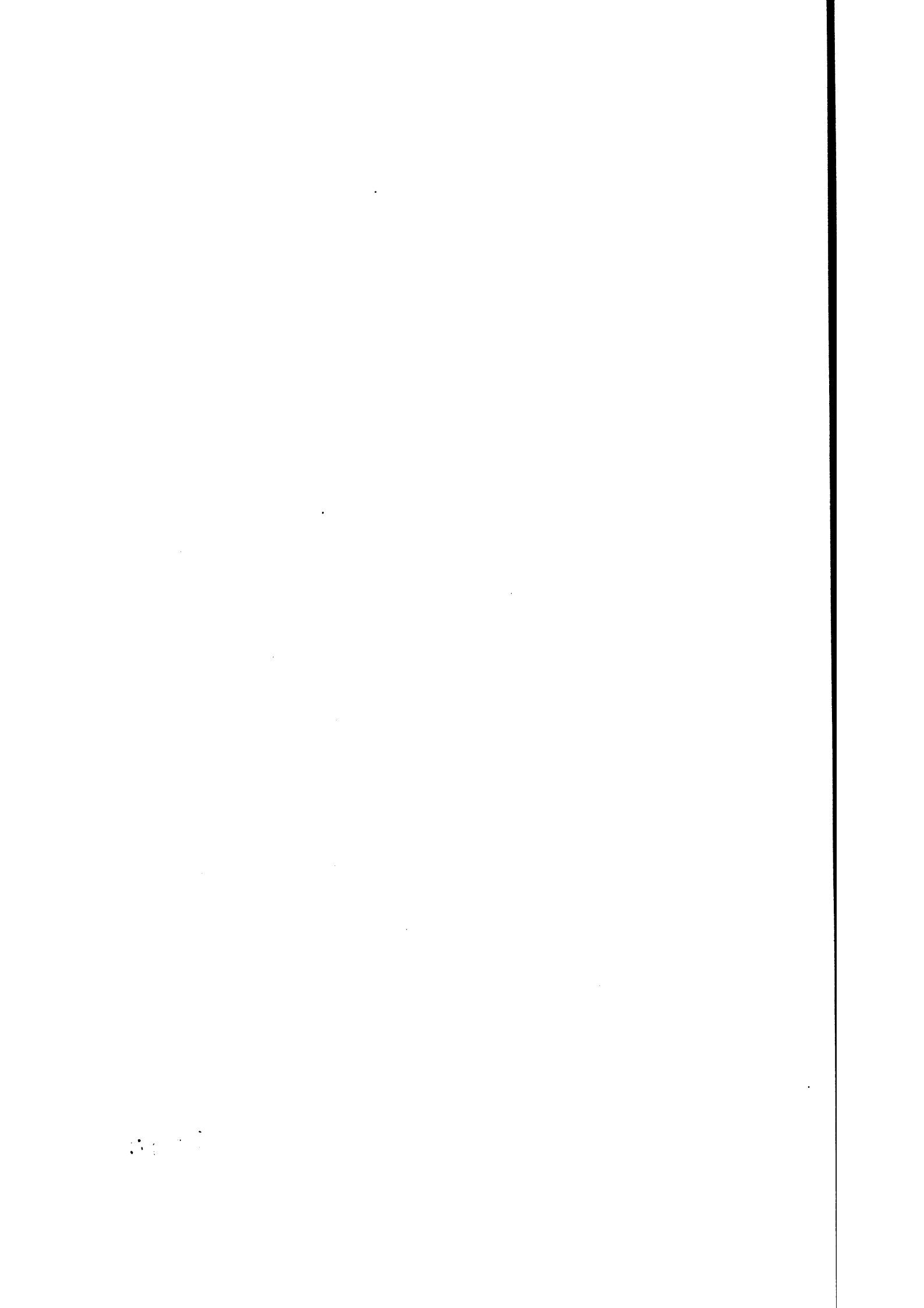
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1901



PLATE XLVII.—BARK CHARACTERS OF DUNGON (*Tarrietia sylvatica*).







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PLATE XLVIII.—DUNGON-LATE (*Heritiera littoralis*).

a, Fruit.

1000



PLATE XLIX.—DUNGON-LATE (*Heritiera littoralis*).

Bark and leaves.

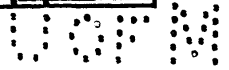




PLATE L.—LUMBAYAO (*Tarrietia javanica*).

Bark characters.

1901

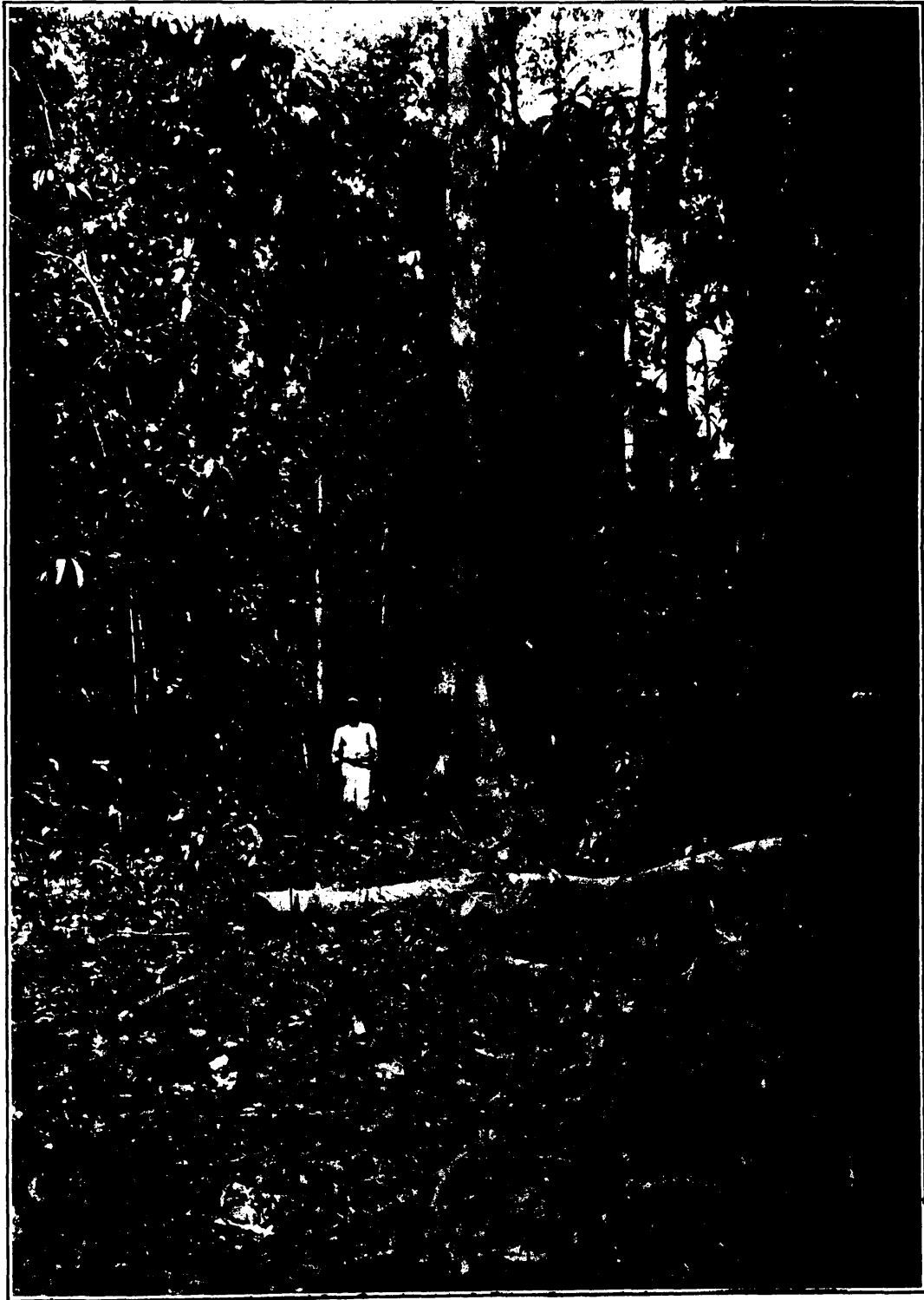
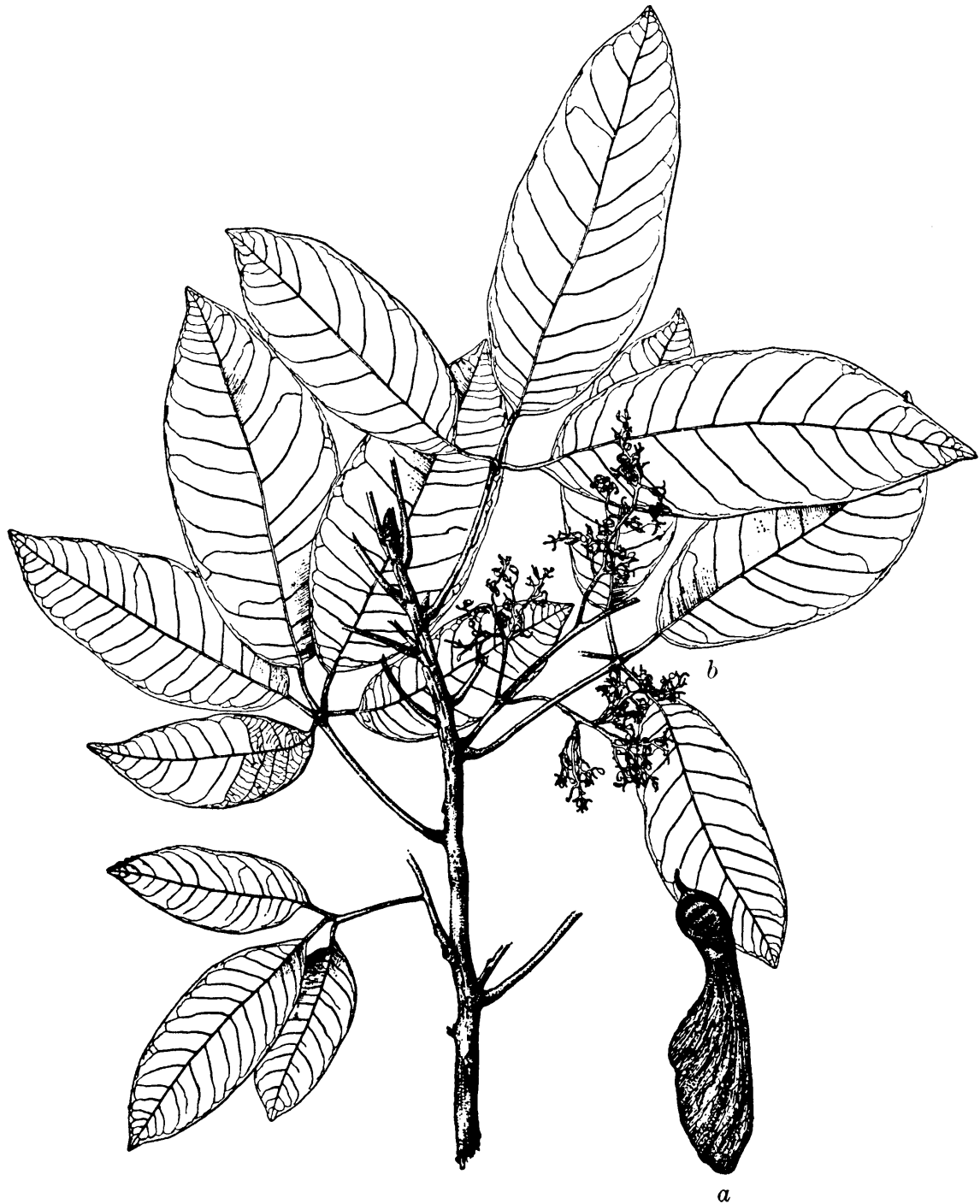


PLATE LI.—LUMBAYAO (*Tarrietia javanica*).

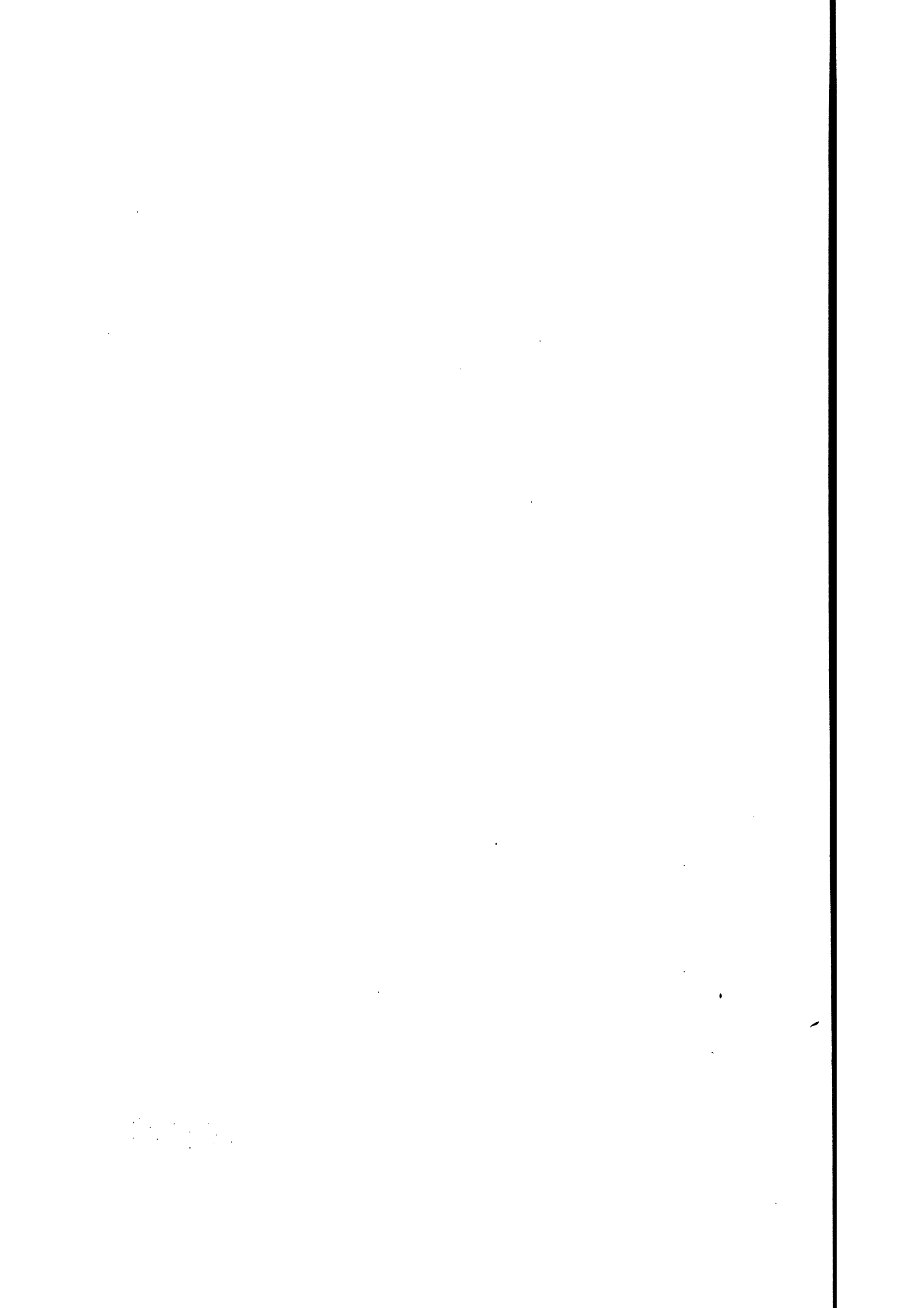




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PLATE LII.—LUMBAYAO (*Tarrietia javanica*).

a, Fruit; *b*, flower cluster.



of binayuyu is its power to resist fires. Fire-swept cogonales often show scattered specimens of this tree nearly to the exclusion of all others.

Rubber-producing species: Para rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*) and ceara rubber (*Manihot glaziovii*) of this family have recently been introduced into the Philippines. (See Part I, pp. 57, 58.)

Lumber species: Tuai or toog (*Bischofia javanica*) is a tall tree found scattered throughout the Philippines, usually isolated along streams. The tree has a fairly regular, unbuttressed, short bole with a wide-spreading crown. It is intolerant of shade. The bark is dark brown, soft to the touch, shedding in large thin scales. The inner bark is red with a thin, dark-red latex. The leaves are alternate, trifoliolate and smooth, with the edges of the leaflets toothed. The sapwood is light creamy color; the heartwood is red, moderately hard, and moderately heavy.

Gubas or binuang (*Endospermum peltatum*) is found very scattered in some of the dipterocarp forests of Luzon and Mindoro especially. It is a tall tree, codominant with the dipterocarps and has a straight regular bole without prominent buttresses. The bark is 4 to 10 millimeters in thickness, light gray, with a tinge of orange. The inner bark has a golden yellow color with a disagreeable odor. The leaves are alternate, peltate, and hairy. The sap and heart woods are light yellow in color. The wood is soft and light in weight and used principally for making matches or for light boxing material.

Hamindang and binunga, usually small trees in second-growth forests, sometimes attain the size of subdominant trees in virgin forests. They both have smooth, alternate, peltate leaves, white beneath. The bark is brown to light brown in color. The wood is light colored, light in weight, and sometimes used in making matches.

Some species of *Cyclostemon*, especially tinaan-pantai or dila-dila (*C. bordenii*) of the northern provinces and banawi (*C. grandifolius*) of Mindanao, attain the size of subdominant species in the dipterocarp forests. Banawi has a straight regular bole, strongly buttressed. The bark is about 10 millimeters in thickness, brown or slightly yellowish brown in color; thickly set with corky pustules, otherwise smooth. The inner bark is mottled yellow, with concentric lines of white, and is very brittle. The sapwood is slightly lighter in color than the heartwood, which is a rich creamy yellow when fresh cut and changes on drying to a brown streaked with black. The wood is moderately heavy and moderately hard. It is used locally for general construction purposes. Tinaan-pantai is a somewhat smaller tree than banawi, but in other respects similar to it.

Other species: The seeds of lumbang or biao (*Aleurites moluccana*) and balukanad or lumbang (*Aleurites trisperma*) produce the candle-nut oil of commerce. (See Part I, pp. 54, 56.) Under the name of bignai several species of *Antidesma* (principally *A. bunius*) produce edible fruits. Tuba or physic nut tree (*Jatropha curcas*) is an introduced species, extensively planted for hedges, whose nut is used in medicine and for bleaching clothes. Banato (*Mallotus philippensis*), whose fruit yields a powder used for dyeing and medicine, is a small tree growing in the virgin and second-growth forests.

SUMAC OR MANGO FAMILY.

(Anacardiaceæ.)

This family contains a few prominent timber trees, and some cultivated for their edible fruits. The members of the family have simple or compound alternate leaves.

AMUGUIS. (Pls. XXXVII and XXXVIII.)

Amuguis is a medium to large sized tree reaching a height of 30 to 40 meters and a diameter of 120 centimeters. It has a merchantable length of 18 to 20 meters. The bole is usually quite straight and cylindrical, though sometimes slightly crooked and irregularly cylindrical. It is strongly buttressed, especially in old trees. The crown is about one-half the height of the tree and is quite dense. Amuguis reaches its best development in the lauan-hagachac type, though it is scattered through the lauan-apatong type, especially near the streams. It requires considerable ground moisture and can be classified as an intolerant species.

The bark is 8 to 15 millimeters in thickness, dark brown to nearly black in color, and rather strongly ridged. The inside bark is pink to red, with vertical bands of very light color beneath the furrows.

The leaves of amuguis are compound, closely alternate, and bunched at the ends of twigs. There are 13 to 16 pairs of leaflets, each from 7 to 16 centimeters long and from 2 to 5 centimeters wide. These are smooth and glossy green above, yellowish green below, with the veins usually light red in color. The main leaf stalk is hairy. The tree is evergreen, though during the dry season the canopy is considerably thinner.

The sapwood is pale red; the heartwood red, moderately heavy, hard, and durable where not in contact with ground or much exposed. This wood ranks among the first for general house construction. It is especially desired for flooring. Other uses are furniture, partitions, naval construction, carriage making.

Amuguis is found scattered everywhere throughout the Philippines. The scientific name is *Koordersiodendron pinnatum*. Besides the general Tagalog name of amuguis the following names occur: Ambogis (V.); amopot (Cag.); bankahasi (Il.); bankalari (Il.); dangilo (T.); gagil (Moro); karogkog (B.); lako-lako (Vis.); magalibas (Moro); marsantog (Cag.); palosanto (T.); sambulauan (V., B.); urisan (Cag.).

DAO. (Pls. XXXIX and XL.)

Dao is a tree reaching a height of 35 to 40 meters and a diameter of 100 centimeters or more. It has a bole 18 to 20 meters in length and is strongly buttressed. The bole above the buttresses is usually regular, but often fluted near their attachment and that of the larger branches. The crown is about one-half the height of the tree. It is wide spreading, open, and with heavy branches. Dao is a widely distributed tree and is usually associated with amuguis, occupying a position in flats and along streams, though found on moist slopes. It thrives best in damp soils and is intolerant of shade.

The bark is 8 to 10 millimeters in thickness, nearly smooth, light steel gray in color on the older bark and light brown where freshly shed. It scales in scroll-shaped pieces either large or small. Just beneath the

cork is a thin red layer, under this is a very light pink spongy layer, which becomes red in color next to the sapwood. The inner bark is stringy in texture.

The leaves are alternate and compound, closely bunched at ends of stout twigs. There are usually 5 to 7 pairs of leaflets, each from 5 to 15 centimeters long and from 3 to 4.5 centimeters wide, glossy, light green in color, and smooth.

The sapwood is very light in color and large. The heartwood is brownish gray, streaked with black. The wood is moderately heavy and moderately hard. It is used locally for light construction work, bancas, rafters, and flooring. The small heartwood takes a beautiful polish and is used to some extent for furniture.

Dao is found throughout the Philippines, probably occurring in every province. It has the scientific name of *Dracontomelum dao*. It is well known everywhere under the Tagalog name of dao. Other local names are as follows: Batuan (V.); kamarak (N. Luz.); lamio (T.); malaiyao (T.); mamakao (Davao).

BALINGHASAY.

Balinghasay is a tree of medium height, reaching in exceptional cases 25 to 30 meters. It has a straight, fairly regular bole 15 to 18 meters in length. It has a fairly open crown, which is partly deciduous in the dry season. It occurs usually with amuguis and dao and is intolerant of shade.

The bark is 8 to 10 millimeters in thickness, quite smooth, but sometimes roughened with many small knobs; it is brownish in color with grayish yellow tinge. The inner bark is red. The leaves are simple and alternately bunched at the ends of rather stout twigs. They are from 10 to 30 centimeters long and from 3 to 9 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is light in color and large. The heartwood is reddish brown in color, moderately heavy, soft to moderately hard, rather fine, straight grained, often with numerous very small knots, and very easy to work. It is used for boxes, light construction purposes, cheap furniture, cigar boxes, dry measures, and is sometimes substituted for amuguis, but is lighter in weight and color, softer, and coarser grained.

Balinghasay is widely distributed throughout the Philippines in the lowlands. It has the scientific name of *Buchanania arborescens*. Besides the common name of balinghasay or some form of it the following names are known: Anam (V.); aranges (Cag.); bagulibas (M.); balanga (Guim.); balayohot (T.); baligohot (Cam.); bankalauan (T.); beobayano (Sur.); boroan (Pang.); dilaan (Z.); ganga (Cag.); huponghupong (Tay.); kaming (Z., Pang.); kanteng (Ab.); ligas (Cam.); lingabunu (Bas.); malabalunu (M.); malaligas (Tay.); paleng (Cag.); pusopuso (M.); tangantang (Tic., Mas., Tay.).

Besides the above, the family contains the following species worthy of mention: Lamio (*Dracontomelum cumingianum*) is a large tree very much resembling dao, but with much larger leaflets that are very hairy below on the midrib. Pahutan (*Mangifera altissima*) is a large tree, usually found in the river bottoms, with alternate, simple leaves and a wood much like that of balinghasay except for its small dark brown heartwood. Libas (*Spondias pinnata*) yields a soft wood used for making matches. Ligas (*Semecarpus perrottetii*) is a medium-sized tree with alternate, simple leaves and yields a wood much like amuguis. The leaves of this tree are poisonous to the touch and act much like those of the poison ivy. Kasoi, balubad, or cashew nut (*Anacardium occidentale*) is cultivated for its fruit. *Mangifera indica* yields the well-known mango or manga. Ciruelas (*Spondias lutea*) is cultivated for its fruits.

BUCKTHORN OR BALACAT FAMILY.

(Rhamnaceæ.)

This family contains trees with alternate (sometimes opposite) leaves, with (those mentioned here) three prominent veins.

BALACAT. (Pls. XLII and XLIII.)

Balacat reaches a height of 30 to 35 meters and a diameter up to 100 centimeters or over. It has a straight regular bole up to 20 meters in length, which is strongly buttressed. The crown is open, and for a short time during the dry season is sometimes destitute of leaves or nearly so. It is intolerant of shade. It is found scattered in the lauan-apitong, yacal-lauan, and sometimes the molave types; it occurs also in the moister soils of river valleys.

The bark is grayish brown in color, where freshly shed of a lighter color, and is ridged. In young trees it has sharp spines. In older trees, especially at the base between the buttresses, there are occasionally present large, thick and short spines. The inner bark is brownish red with white vertical lines beneath the furrows. The leaves are simple and alternate, usually smooth, sometimes hairy, especially when young, from 7 to 15 centimeters long and from 4 to 9 centimeters wide, prominently three veined.

- The wood is creamy white to light brown in color, soft, light to moderately heavy in weight, and not durable. The heartwood is usually slightly darker than the sap, but in very large trees is red. It is coarse and straight grained. It is used for light and temporary construction, cheap furniture, and boxes.

The following are the regions from which this tree is reported. No doubt further explorations will extend its range. Luzon (Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Cagayan, Nueva Ecija, Pangasinan, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Tayabas, Camarines); Masbate; Mindoro; Leyte; Mindanao (Surigao, Zamboanga, Davao); Palawan.

It has the scientific name of *Zizyphus zonulatus*, though a hairy leaved form may be considered a distinct species. The commercial name is

balacat. Other names collected are as follows: Agguk (Cag.); aligamen (Il.); bigaa (T., V.); dagaa (Pal.); danlik (Tay.); diraan (Il.); duplak (Pang.); ligaa (T., V.); lumangud (Ley.); maglanka (Pal.).

Ligaa (*Zizyphus trinervia*) is the name of a small tree common in certain subtypes of the parang. It has spines or spiny warts arranged in circular rows around the tree.

SOAPBERRY OR ALUPAG FAMILY.

(Sapindaceæ.)

This is a family of trees with alternate compound leaves; the boles are usually irregular in shape; the barks are smooth. While there are a number of small trees, only two are commonly known in the lumber markets.

ALUPAG. (Pl. XLIV.)

Alupag is a medium-sized tree reaching exceptionally a height of 25 meters, though usually much smaller, and a diameter of 80 centimeters. The bole is 10 to 12 meters in length and is usually irregular in cross section and crooked. The crown, about one-half the height of the tree, is broad spreading and semiopen. It is found scattered throughout the Philippines, especially in the molave type and in the drier portions of the dipterocarp types. It is intolerant of shade.

The bark is 3 to 5 millimeters in thickness, ashy gray in color, and sheds in scroll-shaped scales; the inner bark is brownish red with alternate rings of light and dark colors. The leaves are compound and alternate; the leaflets (3 to 4 pairs) are whitish beneath, from 7 to 16 centimeters long and from 2 to 6 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is very light red in color; the heartwood is darker red to dark brown, heavy, very hard, durable, fine and straight grained, and very difficult to work. It has the following uses: House construction (flooring, rafters, posts); tool handles; carriage making; parts of ship; piling; cogwheels; carabao yokes.

Alupag has the following distribution: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Benguet, Pangasinan, Baler, Pampanga, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Batangas, Tayabas and Camarines); Marinduque; Masbate; Mindoro; Samar; Leyte; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Cotabato, Davao).

The scientific name is *Euphoria cinerea*. Besides the Tagalog name of alupag, or some form of it, the following names have been recorded: Alupay (T., Z.); apalong (Cag.); bagiles (Pang.); bait (Tay.); bakalao (Il.); bolik (Zam.); buanubai (Cot.); bulala (B.); dagindigan (Sam.); halupag (T.); himlaloang (Pam.); kandongisal (Mas.); lasilasan (Il.); malaresa (Pam.); marutong (Cag.); moling (Pang.); pamito (Mas.); ulayan (Ley.); usao (Ley.).

MALUGAY. (Pl. XLV.)

Malugay is a tree reaching a height of 25 to 35 meters and a diameter of 90 to 100 centimeters. The bole is 18 to 22 meters in length, usually somewhat fluted and sometimes slightly crooked. The crown is about one-third the height of the tree and semiopen. The tree is slightly intolerant of shade. It is found scattered throughout the drier portions of the dipterocarp types and reaches its best development on the Island of Mindoro; also found in the lauan-hagachac type.

The bark is 6 to 8 millimeters in thickness, and sheds in circular patches; the old bark is reddish brown in color with a purplish tinge; the new is brown to khaki color. The inner bark is reddish brown with rings of lighter color alternating with the darker. At certain seasons of the year the bark and sapwood exude sparingly a red sap. The leaves are compound, closely alternate, bunched at the ends of twigs, with 5 to 10 pairs of leaflets, each slightly serrate, from 8 to 24 centimeters long and from 3.5 to 8.5 centimeters wide, the basal ones reduced to bracts.

The sapwood is creamy red; the heartwood is pale red, moderately heavy, moderately hard, fine and straight grained, and tough. It has the following uses: General construction; cabinetwork; interior finish; ribs and planking of small boats; tool handles.

The tree is lumbered principally from Mindoro. It is recorded from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Bataan, Laguna, Camarines, Albay); Camiguin Island; Masbate; Mindoro; Ticao Island; Samar; Leyte; Negros; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Agusan, and Lanao); Palawan, and probably occurs in many other provinces. The scientific name is *Pometia pinnata*. Besides the common Mindoro name of malugay, the following have been recorded: Agupanga (M.); alaiuhai (Sam.); balambanan (Il.); bantangali (Ag.); ibu (Neg.); kabakabat (Il.); karunyan (M.); kogik (Al.); madalo (Cag.); mansanab (Neg.); quia-quia or kia-kia (Ley., Sam.); sidao (Cam., Is.); takugan (Mas.); tigawi (Tic., Cam., Mas.); tugoran (Mas.).

Besides the above-mentioned species the family furnishes a number of smaller trees, among the most important of which are alasin (*Arytera littoralis*), alahan (*Guioa perrottetii*), uas (*Harpullia arborea*), and *Litchi philippinensis*. The wood of the latter resembles very closely that of alupag.

BLADDERNUT OR ANONGO FAMILY.

(Staphyleaceæ.)

This family furnishes but one tree, anongo (*Turpinia pomifera*). It is a medium-sized tree in the undergrowth of dipterocarp forests. It has opposite, compound leaves, a light and soft wood, and is said to be used for household utensils.

LINDEN OR ANILAO FAMILY.

(Tiliaceæ.)

This is a family of small or medium sized trees with simple, alternate leaves, whose woods are used locally for fuel and light construction work. Anilao (*Columbia serratifolia*) is a small quick-growing tree common in second-growth forests. Its bark is used for tying purposes. Susumbik or kamuling (*Grewia stylocarpa*) and other species of *Grewia* are small to medium sized trees found as undergrowth in the dipterocarp types. Balobo (*Diplodiscus paniculatus*) is a small to medium sized tree fairly abundant in some dipterocarp forests. The wood is grayish or pale reddish brown, moderately hard, moderately heavy, and is used locally.

MALLOW OR MALUBAGO FAMILY.

(Malvaceæ.)

This is a family containing few trees of commercial importance. The leaves are simple, alternate, usually palmately nerved, at least those mentioned here.

Lanutan (*Bombycidendron vidalianum*) furnishes a heavy wood that is purplish in color and is used for carriage shafts and backs and sides of guitars and mandolins. Malubago (*Hibiscus tiliaceus*) is a tree of the sandy beaches and has a brown wood with a purplish tinge, very light in weight, used for floats for fish nets. The bark is used for making rope and cloth. Banalo or Portia tree (*Thespesia populnea*) is a medium-sized tree of the sandy beaches and yields a hard, moderately heavy, dark red heartwood that is used for backs, sides, and necks of musical instruments. This is the rosewood of the Seychelles Islands.

COTTON-TREE OR MALABULAK FAMILY.

(Bombacaceæ.)

The species mentioned in this family have alternate, palmately compound leaves. Malabulak (*Bombax malabaricum*) is a very large tree with light-colored, very soft wood. It is found scattered principally in the dry regions, where it is entirely deciduous for a short time. Kapok, doldol, or the cotton tree (*Ceiba pentandra*) is cultivated throughout the Philippines for the cotton it produces. It is used extensively for telephone or telegraph poles. Fresh cut poles of it placed in the ground take root and become trees. The wood is very soft, light colored, and is little used.

CACAO OR DUNGON FAMILY.

(Sterculiaceæ.)

The species mentioned in this family have alternate and simple leaves (except lumbayao), and yield a variety of woods. While a large number of species are present, only a few produce lumber found in the general market.

DUNGON. (Pls. XLVI and XLVII.)

This tree reaches a height of 30 to 35 meters and a diameter of 100 or more centimeters. It has a regular to irregular, strongly buttressed bole, in exceptional cases reaching 18 meters in length, but usually much shorter. The crown is one-third to one-half the height of the tree and

open. The tree is scattered throughout the molave type, sometimes in drier situations of the dipterocarp types. It is intolerant of shade.

The bark is 6 to 10 millimeters in thickness, ashy gray to cinnamon brown in color, sheds in irregular small flakes, and has small tan-colored pustules. The inner bark is pink in color with fine lighter concentric rings. The leaves are simple, alternate, from 7 to 20 centimeters long and from 3 to 9 centimeters wide, silvery white beneath.

The sapwood is pinkish; the heartwood is dark chocolate brown, very hard, heavy, tough, fine and cross grained, and very difficult to saw. It often contains white stony deposits in old knots and heart cracks. It is used for all sorts of construction purposes where great durability is desired. It is especially valuable for salt-water piling. Other uses are as follows: Naval construction (anchors, boat ribs, keels of ships, hoists); railroad ties; telegraph poles; wheels; cogwheels; bridge building; house construction (posts, beams, pillars); hemp presses.

The following regions are reported to contain dungon: Luzon (Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Pangasinan, Tarlac, Nueva Ecija, Bulacan, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Batangas, Tayabas, Camarines, Albay); Masbate; Marinduque; Mindoro. The scientific name of dungon is *Tarrietia sylvatica*. The local names are as follows: Malarungon (T.); palmegapoy (Il.); palogapig (Il.); palonapin (Il.); palonapoy (Z.).

DUNGON-LATE. (Pls. XLVIII and XLIX.)

Dungon-late is a tree reaching a height of 20 meters and a diameter of 80 to 90 centimeters. It has an irregular bole, strongly buttressed. It has an open crown and is confined to the beach and the upper limits of the mangrove types. It is intolerant of shade.

The bark of dungon-late is 5 to 8 millimeters in thickness and is gray in color; in old trees it splits into rectangular patches, otherwise it is smooth; the inner bark is tan red in color and stringy in texture. The leaves are simple and alternate, from 9 to 25 centimeters in length and from 4 to 12 centimeters wide, silvery white beneath.

The wood in nearly all respects is like that of dungon, and it is difficult to tell them apart. Dungon has winged fruits, is found usually on the coastal hills some distance from tide water and is a larger tree. Dungon-late usually has a larger amount of sapwood, a large woody fruit strongly keeled and adapted for floating, and is found in or close to tide water. Dungon-late has much the same uses as dungon, and is no doubt substituted for it in many instances. The relative merits of the durability of the two woods is in doubt. Good specimens of both woods, free from sap, will probably withstand the attacks of teredo, white ants, and fungi equally well. Besides those given for dungon it has the following uses: Canoes (outrigger supports); firewood; charcoal.

Dungon-late is found in every province in the Philippines bordering on

tide water. It has the scientific name of *Heritiera littoralis*. Besides dungon-late it has the common names of dungon, especially in regions where dungon is unknown, paronapin or some form of it, and magayao (Cag.).

LUMBAYAO. (Pls. L, LI, and LII.)

This is a tree that reaches a height of 40 to 50 meters and a diameter of 80 to 120 centimeters. The bole, 20 to 25 meters in length, is regular and straight, though strongly buttressed. The crown is open, evergreen (slightly thinner during the dry season). It is slightly tolerant of shade. The tree is reported only from the southern islands, where it forms an important element of the yacal-lauan type, occupying with yacal the ridges and drier slopes.

The bark is 5 to 7 millimeters in thickness; in young trees gray in color, mottled with different shades; in older trees light gray, with brown patches where freshly shed; sheds in more or less regular, square, oblong, and rhomboidal pieces. The inner bark is reddish brown in color. The leaves are alternate, palmately compound, with 3 to 5 leaflets, each smooth, from 6 to 16 centimeters long and from 3 to 7 centimeters wide. The fruit is winged.

The sapwood is very pale red merging gradually into the red to reddish brown heartwood. The wood is moderately heavy, soft to moderately hard, coarse and straight grained, fairly durable, and is easy to work. It has the following uses: House construction (partitions, siding, doors, interior finish); furniture; canoes; boxes. It is one of the woods now being sold for Philippine mahogany in the United States.

The tree is reported from Mindanao (Zamboanga, Cotabato) and Basilan. The scientific name is *Tarrietia javanica*. So far only the common Moro name of lumbayao has been reported. Another species (*Tarrietia riedeliana*) resembling this one in general respects is reported from the Lanao district of Mindanao.

TALUTO. (Pl. LIII.)

Taluto is a very tall tree reaching a height of 45 to 50 meters and a very large diameter. It has a straight, regular, unbuttressed bole up to 25 or 30 meters in length. It usually has surface roots extending as much as 8 or more meters from the base of the trunk. The crown is open and deciduous for a short period during the dry season. It usually occupies the drier soils, and is found in the apitong-lauan, yacal-lauan, and molave types.

The bark is 25 to 30 millimeters in thickness, brittle in texture, brown in color, fissured with short vertical lines, otherwise smooth; the inner bark is bright red, streaked with white vertical plates arranged radially. The leaves are simple, alternate, heart shaped, prominently 5-nerved,

usually hairy beneath, from 10 to 14 centimeters long and from 9 to 13 centimeters wide.

Both the sapwood and heartwood are creamy white in color, light, soft, and with prominent pith rays. It is used principally as a match wood, also for boxes and as buoys for rafts.

While it probably occurs well scattered throughout the Philippines, it is recorded at present only in the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Pampanga, Nueva Ecija, Zambales, Rizal, Bataan, Laguna, Tayabas, and Camarines); Mindoro; Leyte; Mindanao (Surigao, Zamboanga); Palawan. It has the scientific name of *Pterocymbium tinctorium*. Besides the common Tagalog name of taluto or some form of it (taoto, teluto), the following names occur: Bangat (Z.); fanginhan (Riz.); huligano (N., E.); libtuk (Cag.); malasapsap (Pamp.); takung (Surigao).

Besides the above the following trees deserve mention. Tanag or taloktok (*Kleinhofia hospita*) occurs in open places, yields a light yellow wood little used and a bark used as rope. Kalumpang (*Sterculia foetida*) has palmately compound leaves (7 to 9 leaflets), and a gray, soft wood little used. The tree is cultivated for its seeds, which yield a valuable oil. A number of species of *Pterospermum* under the general name of bayok are small to medium sized trees occurring throughout the dipterocarp and molave types. They yield woods light in weight and moderately hard that are used locally. Magalipak (*Sterculia blancoi*) is often quite prominent in the molave type and some portions of the dipterocarp type. It yields a soft wood that is easily attacked by insects and fungus.

CATMON FAMILY.

(Dilleniaceæ.)

The forest trees of this family are confined to one genus (*Dillenia*). The leaves are simple and alternate. The wood has prominently twisted pith rays.

CATMON.

This is a small to medium sized tree with a short bole and dense crown. It is found along streams or on moist slopes and ridges. The bark is 6 to 10 millimeters in thickness, irregularly blotched with gray to brown patches, the latter color occurring in the shallow depressions where freshly shed; the inner bark is light reddish brown. The leaves are simple, alternate, smooth, with edges coarsely toothed, from 13 to 18 centimeters long and from 5 to 8 centimeters wide. The leaf stalks of young leaves are winged. The sapwood is pale reddish; the heartwood dark red to dark brown, hard, heavy, brittle, with a coarse and twisted grain. The wood stains water a pale reddish color. The pith rays are broad and crooked. The vessels contain white deposits. The wood is used for furniture and general construction work.

The tree occurs throughout the Philippines. The scientific name of catmon is *Dillenia philippinensis*. Catmon carabao (*Dillenia speciosa*) has a larger leaf. Both the above have white flowers. Malacatmon

(*Dillenia luzoniensis*) is a large tree with yellow flowers. The following local names are known for the species of *Dillenia*: Alato (N. Luz.); anagao (Sur.); calocatmon (Tay.); magalapalali (N. Luz.); magatli (Cag.); palali (V., B., N. Luz.); pamalalian (Pang.).

TEA OR BIKAG FAMILY.

(Theaceæ.)

This a family of small to medium sized trees common in the tanguile-oak and mossy-forest types. None are important from the lumberman's standpoint. Bikag (*Ternstroemia toquian*) furnishes a bark commonly used for poisoning fish. *Adinandra luzonica*, *Gordonia luzonica*, *Thea montana* and *Eurya* spp. are common in the higher mountain regions.

MANGOSTEEN OR PALO-MARIA FAMILY.

(Guttiferæ.)

This family of trees contains a yellowish sap in the bark. It has opposite leaves, usually with fine, closely set veins. The family can be readily distinguished from others by these characters.

PALO-MARIA. (Pl. LIV.)

This is usually a medium-sized, scraggly tree with a very short bole and a wide-spreading rather dense crown. It is found on the sandy beaches throughout the Islands.

The bark is 12 to 20 millimeters thick, brown in color with a decided yellowish tinge, and has a tendency to divide into distinct ridges, which are often broken into irregularly rectangular plates by cross fissures; the inner bark is pink to yellowish with concentric lines of darker color. When cut the bark exudes a yellowish sticky sap. A valuable oil known as oil of palo-maria is extracted from the seed. (See Part I, p. 56.) The leaves are simple, opposite, yellowish green in color with a very yellow midrib, and vary from 9 to 16 centimeters long and from 6.5 to 10 centimeters wide.

The wood is reddish brown in color, hard, moderately heavy, easy to saw, but difficult to finish on account of the twisted grain. It has the following uses: Fine furniture; turnery; general construction; house construction (flooring, interior finish, posts); bridge building; naval construction (masts, spars, decks, futtock timbers, oars, ships' booms, bowsprits, spars, and keels); carriage making (hubs and wagon shafts).

While probably nearly all provinces, especially those bordering the coast, have palo-maria, the records show it from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Abra, Infanta, Pangasinan, Nueva Ecija, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Tayabas, Camarines, Albay); Palani Island; Batanes Island; Camiguin Island; Polillo Island; Masbate Island; Burias Island; Mindoro; Culion Island; Cebu; Bohol; Negros; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Davao); Basilan; Palawan; Balabac

Island. The scientific name is *Calophyllum inophyllum*. Besides the common Spanish name of palo-maria, the following are recorded: Bansangal (Il.); biroi (Il.); bitangol (V.); bitaog (Il., V., Pam., T.); bitaoi (Z., Pam., Il., V.); dankalan (T.); pamitlaten (Il.); pamitaogan or some form of it (V., Il.); Zarumayen (Il.). It is sometimes known on the markets from Borneo as Borneo mahogany.

The dipterocarp types contain a number of other species of *Calophyllum* with about the same common names, whose wood passes for palo-maria. As a rule, however, these trees are small to medium sized, though one, bitanhol or palo-maria del monte (*Calophyllum blancoi*), attains in some cases the size of a dominant tree. The tree can be told from palo-maria by the straight grain of the wood, the narrower leaves (2 to 6 centimeters wide), and by the fact that it does not grow on the beach. All *Calophyllums* can be easily recognized by their distinctly yellow bark. A number of species of *Garcinia* are small to medium sized trees scattered through the dipterocarp types and produce woods used locally. The wood of bunog (*Garcinia benthami*) is reddish brown and hard and durable. It is lumbered and used locally on the Island of Palawan. The fruits of binukao (*Garcinia binuciao*) and other wild *Garcinias* are edible. The mangosteen (*Garcinia mangostana*) is cultivated in the southern islands for its edible fruit. Guyung-guyung (*Cratoxylon celebicum*) and other species of *Cratoxylon*, usually under the same common name, are small to medium sized trees that yield reddish woods used locally. Kaliwas (*Kayea paniculata*) is a small tree scattered along water courses.

DIPTEROCARP OR LAUAN FAMILY.

(Dipterocarpaceæ.)

This is by far the most prominent family of trees in the Philippines. It not only produces the largest trees containing the greatest bulk, but, counting all trees in the virgin forests from seedlings up, there are probably more dipterocarps than all other individual trees. Our knowledge concerning the number of species is still far from complete. So far there are recognized about 40 distinct species. This number will probably reach more than 50. About 12 species produce the bulk of the lumber found on the market, and are considered the most successful ones because they compose the largest stands.

The leaves are simple, alternate, and hairy or smooth. The wood is conspicuously oily (except *Vatica* spp. where it is obscurely so.) These oils, known as wood oils, harden into resin on exposure to the air. Deposits of resin often visible to the naked eye are arranged irregularly in incomplete concentric lines having the appearance of growth-rings, but they do not represent periods of growth. When the bark and sapwood are cut, the oil exudes more or less freely and usually hardens into forms having the appearance of candle drippings. While other families in the Philippines have resinous or oily woods, yet in none is this character so prominent as in the dipterocarps. The only other trees that approach the dipterocarps in this respect are members of the pili family (*Burseraceæ*), whose resin is usually in the inner portion of the bark (the

bast). The members of the pili family can readily be distinguished from the dipterocarps by their compound leaves. The dipterocarp fruits are usually globose or ovoid in shape and have, attached above or below, two or more longitudinally veined wings.

As a rule the trees are tall, many of the species reaching a height of 50 meters or over, though generally mature trees are between 40 and 50 meters. The boles are straight and regular, and usually have a merchantable length of 20 to 30 meters. They are generally strongly buttressed, though this is not always the case, especially in species of the genus *Dipterocarpus*.

From the lumberman's standpoint the woods can be divided into four groups as follows: The lauans, the apitongs, the yacals and palosapis. (See Part I, p. 32, for the distinction of these groups.)

THE LAUAN GROUP.

The principal trees that furnish the woods belonging to the lauan group are as follows: Almon-lauan; bagtican-lauan; kalunti-lauan; ma-laanonang-lauan; mangasinoro-lauan; mayapis-lauan; red lauan; tanguille; tiaong-lauan; white lauan.

WHITE LAUAN. (Pls. LVI and LVII.)

White lauan is a tree usually reaching a height of 40 to 45 meters and a diameter of 150 centimeters. It has a regular bole which reaches a length of 25 to 30 meters. Old trees are strongly buttressed. The crown is fairly dense and irregularly dome shaped. It is tolerant of shade, but seedlings do best in semiopen situations. It is widely scattered throughout the Islands in flats and on hills up to 700 meters, but reaches its best and most abundant development in the lauan-apitong and lauan-hagachac types. In many places it forms the principal tree of the dipterocarp forests.

The bark is 10 to 20 millimeters in thickness, brown to nearly black, or when exposed to sunlight is gray. There are distinct longitudinal ridges, especially in the upper part of the bole, which connect diagonally with each other. The ridges are 3 to 5 centimeters in width; the grooves are about 1 centimeter wide, lighter brown in color, and sometimes filled with corky pustules, especially in the young trees. In very old trees the bark at the base of the tree loses its ridged appearance and becomes more or less scaly. The inner bark is brown to slightly pinkish in color and stringy in texture. Beneath the grooves there are vertical cream-colored bands. The leaves are simple, alternate, and entirely free from hairs. They vary in size from 7.5 to 23 centimeters long and from 3.5 to 10 centimeters wide.

Both sapwood and heartwood are grayish white in color. The wood is light in weight, soft, with a straight and coarse grain, not durable, and easy to work. It is used for all purposes where cheapness and easy work-

ing are more important than strength and durability. It has the following uses: Cheap furniture; shipbuilding (canoes, lighters, masts, planks for ships); house construction (panels for doors, partitions, siding); boxes; concrete forms.

It is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Abra, Bontoc, Benguet, Isabela, Nueva Vizcaya, Pangasinan, Bulacan, Rizal, Zambales, Bataan, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon, and Albay); Polillo Island; Marinduque Island; Mindoro; Masbate; Samar; Negros; Mindanao (Agusan, Zamboanga, Lanao, Davao); Basilan Island. It is probably present in all provinces.

The scientific name is *Pentacme contorta*. The most common name is lauan (white lauan, lauan blanco, lauan puti). The following local names are the most common: Apnit (Ib., B.); balabak (Cag.); bayukan (Lag., Z.); bugis (Davao); danlog or some form of it (V.); diraan (Ig.); hapnit (B.); lauaan (T., V.); malaanonang (Riz., Cam.); malakayan (Moro); mangasinoro (S. Luz., Mas.); sandana.

ALMON-LAUAN. (Pls. LVIII and LIX.)

This is a very large tree, reaching a height of 45 to 50 meters and a diameter of 150 centimeters. The bole is usually regular in shape and of even taper, in old trees is rather strongly buttressed, and has a maximum length of about 30 meters.

The crown is about one-third to one-half the length of the bole. It is wide spreading, flattened cone shaped to irregular and rather dense. The tree is found on gentle to medium steep slopes, usually requiring a good well-drained soil, and is confined to the regions where there is no pronounced dry season. It is tolerant of shade, and to this is attributed its success in holding its own in dense forests. It occurs associated with other lauans and the apitongs, with which it forms almost pure stands in some places.

The bark is 15 to 20 millimeters in thickness. In young and medium-sized trees it is cinnamon brown in color, in older trees it is darker, and when weathered in strong light it becomes lighter in color. In medium-sized trees it has long furrows between which are flat ridges 3 to 4 centimeters wide. These are checkered into irregular rectangular patches by cross lines connecting the furrows. The ridges are not usually prominent in the lower part of the tree, where the furrows are merely shallow fissures of the bark; in older trees, especially near the top, the furrows are deeper and then contain lines of corky pustules. The middle bark is very thin and has a pitted dark purple layer. The inner bark is light brown to slightly yellowish beneath the ridges, alternating with vertical creamy bands beneath the furrows, and is stringy in texture.

The leaves are simple, alternate, from 9 to 17 centimeters long and 4.5 to 9 centimeters wide, smooth above, with a dense mat of hairs beneath.

The petioles and young twigs are covered with hairs like those on the leaves.

The fresh sapwood is creamy in color, when exposed becoming light brown; the heartwood is light creamy brown to a pale red. The wood is light in weight and soft. It is used in all sorts of light and temporary construction and is especially valuable for interior finish. It has the same uses as white lauan.

It is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon, Albay); Negros, Mindanao (Surigao, Zamboanga); Basilan Island.

The scientific name is *Shorea furfuracea*. The wood is sold in the Manila market under the names of almon and white lauan. The following are the most common local names: Danlig (Tay.); lauan (T.); malakayan (Moro); mangasinoro (Sor., Al., Cam.); mayapis (Tay.).

BAGTICAN-LAUAN. (Pls. LX and LXI.)

This is a very large tree reaching a height of 40 to 45 meters and a diameter of 150 to 180 centimeters. The bole is regular, usually strongly buttressed, and 20 to 30 meters in length. The crown is irregularly vase shaped, one-fourth to one-third the length of the bole, and somewhat dense.

This tree is found throughout the regions of the Philippines where the dry season is not pronounced and is probably more abundant than any other species. It extends from the subprovince of Baler to Davao, Mindanao. While doing best in deep soils on gentle slopes it occurs on fairly shallow soils from near sea level to 500 meters in altitude. It is found principally in the lauan type. It is a tree tolerant of shade, but will reproduce best in partially open places. Seedlings having become well established in such places during the wet season will be able to flourish in fully opened places during the short period of dry weather.

The bark is 10 to 20 millimeters in thickness. In young trees it has longitudinal cracks; in older trees it is distinctly divided into ridges which are long or short, finally connecting diagonally with each other, making a network. The grooves between the ridges usually contain rows of brown corky pustules. The bark is brown to nearly black in color, and in trees exposed to strong light is much lighter. The thin middle bark beneath the ridges is purplish red. The inner bark is tan colored with whitish vertical bands beneath the grooves, and is fibrous in texture. The leaves are simple and alternate and usually covered with a white glaucous bloom beneath. They are from 9 to 21 centimeters in length and from 4.5 to 11 centimeters in width.

The sapwood is grayish; the heartwood is dirty brown in color when fresh, but on exposure may change to a pale reddish brown. It is soft, light in weight, and not durable, but like the other lauans when quarter

sawn shows a fine figure. It has the same uses as the other light-colored lauans.

Bagtican-lauan is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Baler, Bulacan, Rizal, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon, Albay); Catanduanes Islands; Polillo Island; Masbate; Leyte; Negros; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Davao).

The scientific name of this species is *Parashorea plicata*. Bagtican-lauan is marketed usually under the names of lauan or almon. The following local names are reported: Apnit (S. Luz.); bagtican-lauan (Neg.); bayukan (Lag.); danlig (Tay.); hapnit (S. Luz.); lauan (T., Ley., Mas., Sur.); lauan puti (Riz.); malaanonang (Riz.); mangasinoro (Mas.); mayapis (Bal.).

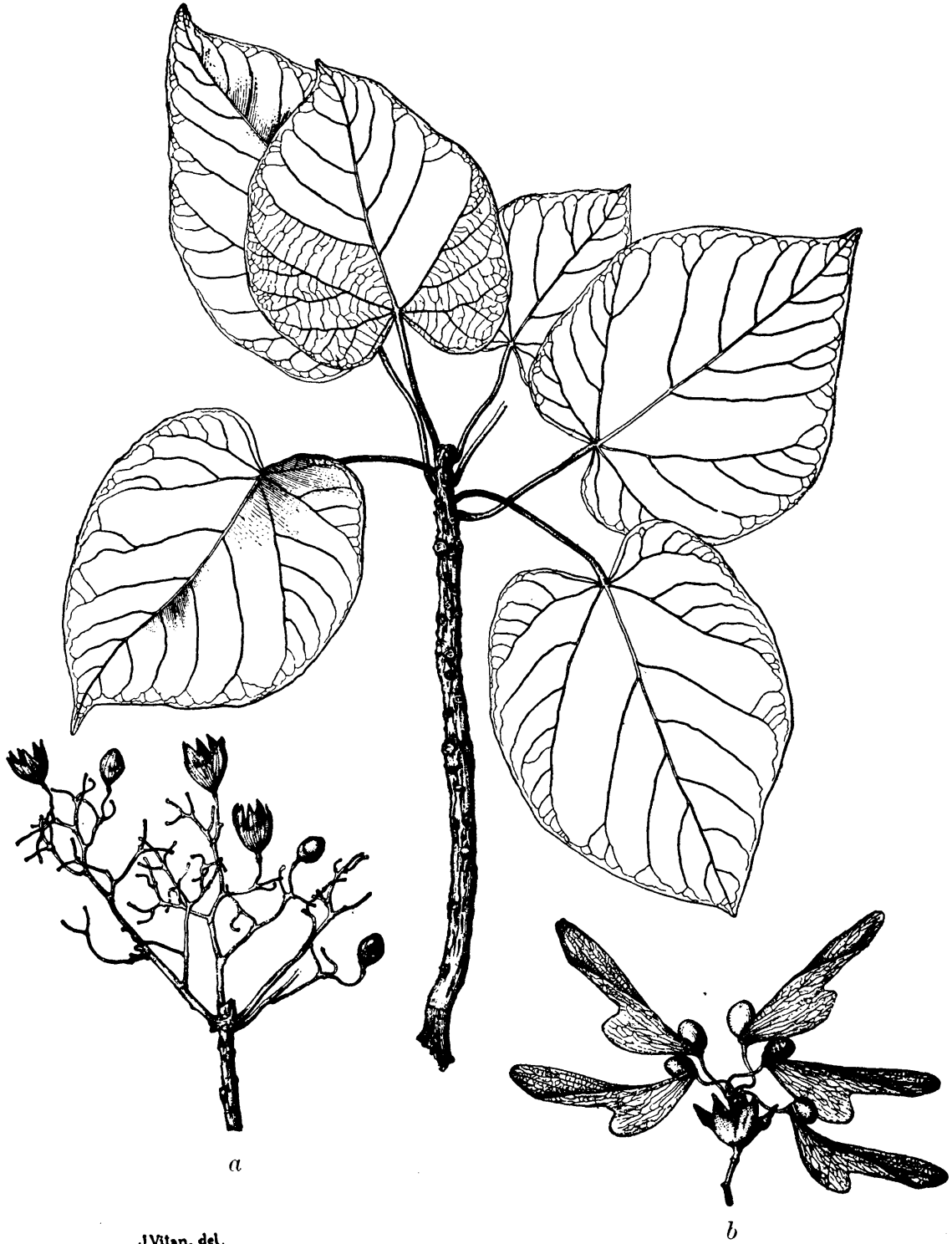
MALAA NONANG-LAUAN.

This name is applied to a tree that strongly resembles white lauan in general appearance. Herbarium specimens show that the tree is confined to central and northern Luzon and extends as far south as Tayabas Province. The bark is 10 to 20 millimeters in thickness and is prominently ridged. The wood is light brown with a yellowish and sometimes reddish tinge. It is moderately hard and light to moderately heavy. It is used for all purposes to which lauan is put. The leaves are from 5 to 12 centimeters long and from 4 to 7.5 centimeters wide, and when dry are slightly rusty brown beneath, due to scattered fine hairs. Malaanonang-lauan is reported from the following provinces: Luzon (Pangasinan, Nueva Ecija, Rizal, and Tayabas).

This tree is referred to *Shorea malaanonan*. The usual market name is lauan. The following local names are most common: Danlig (Tay.); Lauan puti (N. E.); malaanonang (Riz.); lauan (Riz., Tay.); pamayawasan (Pang.).

KALUNTI-LAUAN. (Pl. LXII.)

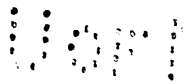
Kalunti-lauan is a tree reaching a height of 50 to 55 meters and a diameter of 180 centimeters. It has been reported only from the Zamboanga district of Mindanao, where it grows associated with yacal on the ridges and upper slopes. In silvicultural habits it closely resembles yacal. The bole is fairly regular, 30 to 40 meters in length, and strongly buttressed in old trees. The crown is narrow to fairly wide spreading and semiopen. The bark is 10 to 25 millimeters in thickness. In young trees it has a fairly uniformly smooth, brown color with short gray vertical lines; this characteristic sometimes holds in trees up to 75 centimeters in diameter in places. Trees from 20 centimeters up in diameter usually have a bark breaking into ridges 3 to 8 centimeters broad; horizontal cracks divide these into fairly regular pieces six to eight times as long as wide. In young trees the middle bark is green;

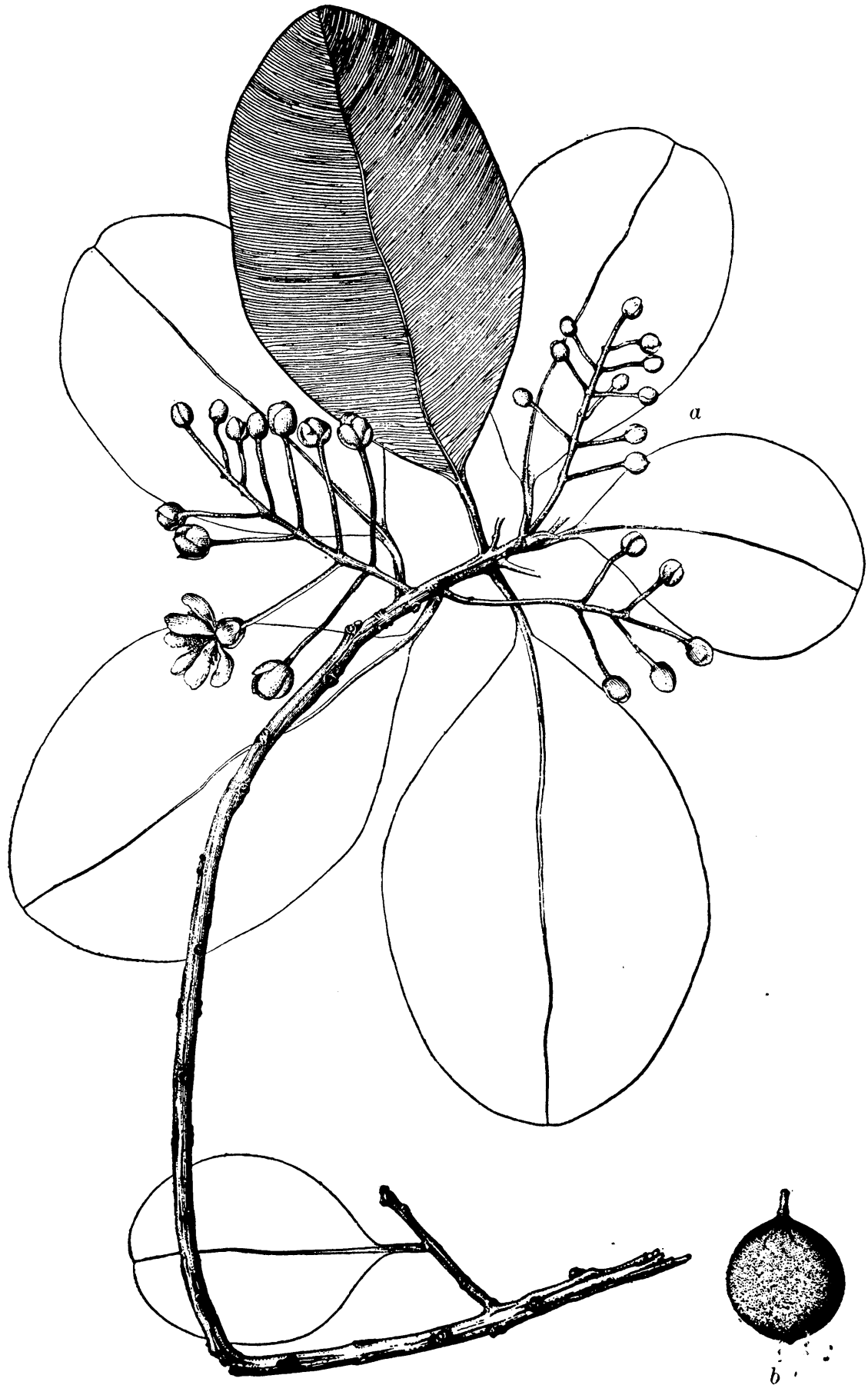


J. Vitan, del.

PLATE LIII.—TALUTO (*Pterocymbium tinctorium*).

a, Flower cluster; *b*, fruit cluster.





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PLATE LIV.—PALO-MARIA (*Calophyllum inophyllum*).

a, Flower cluster; b, fruit.

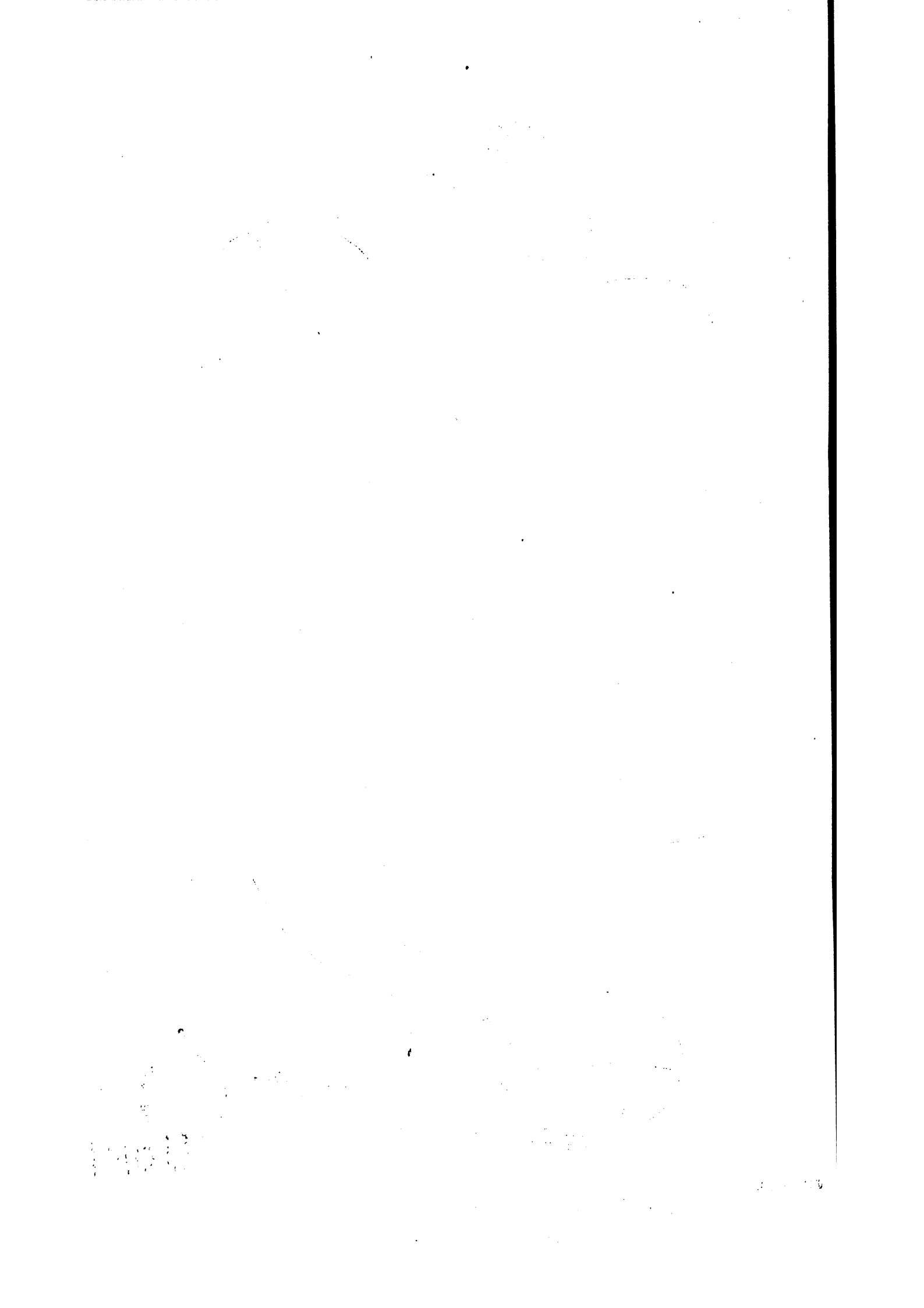
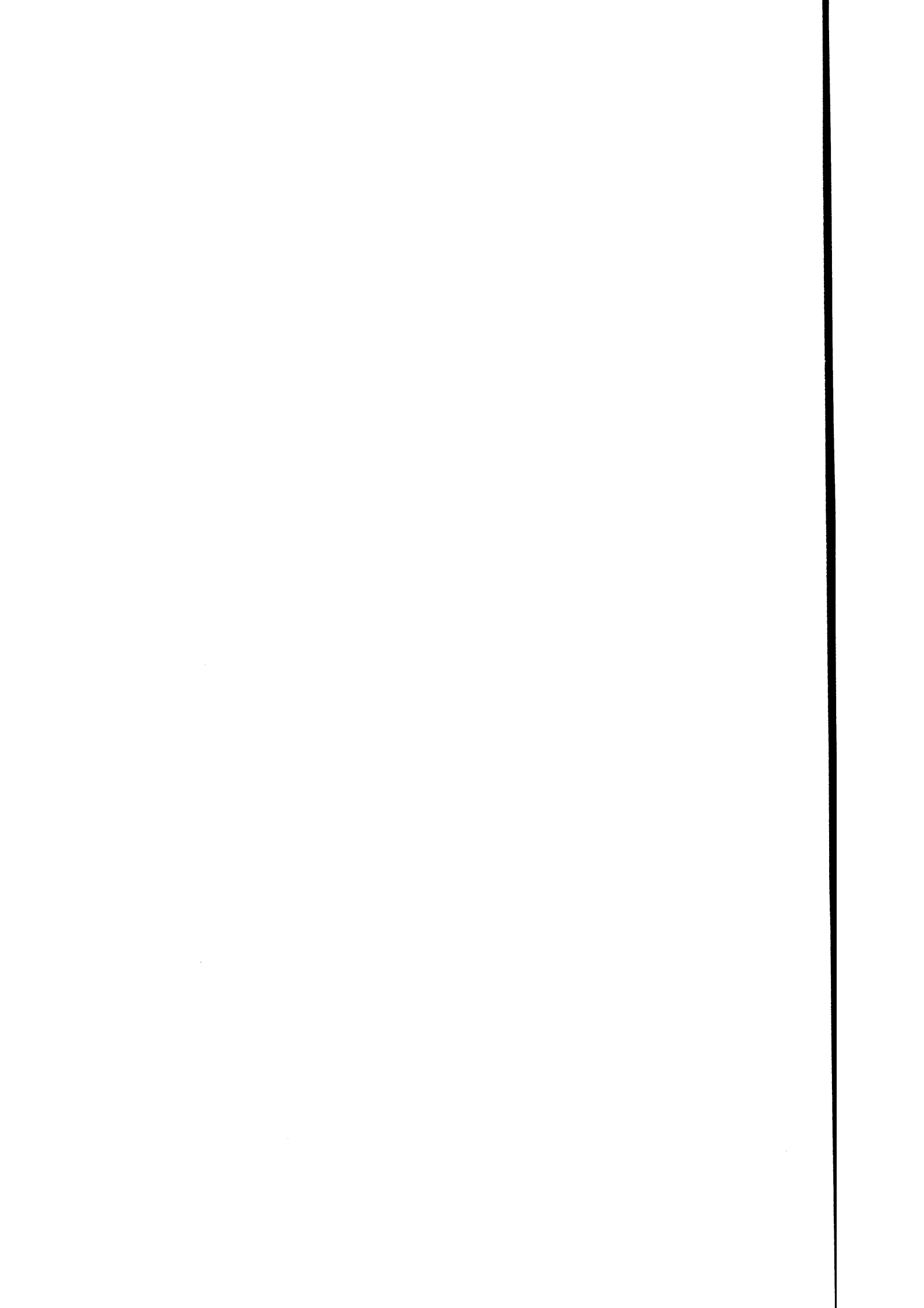


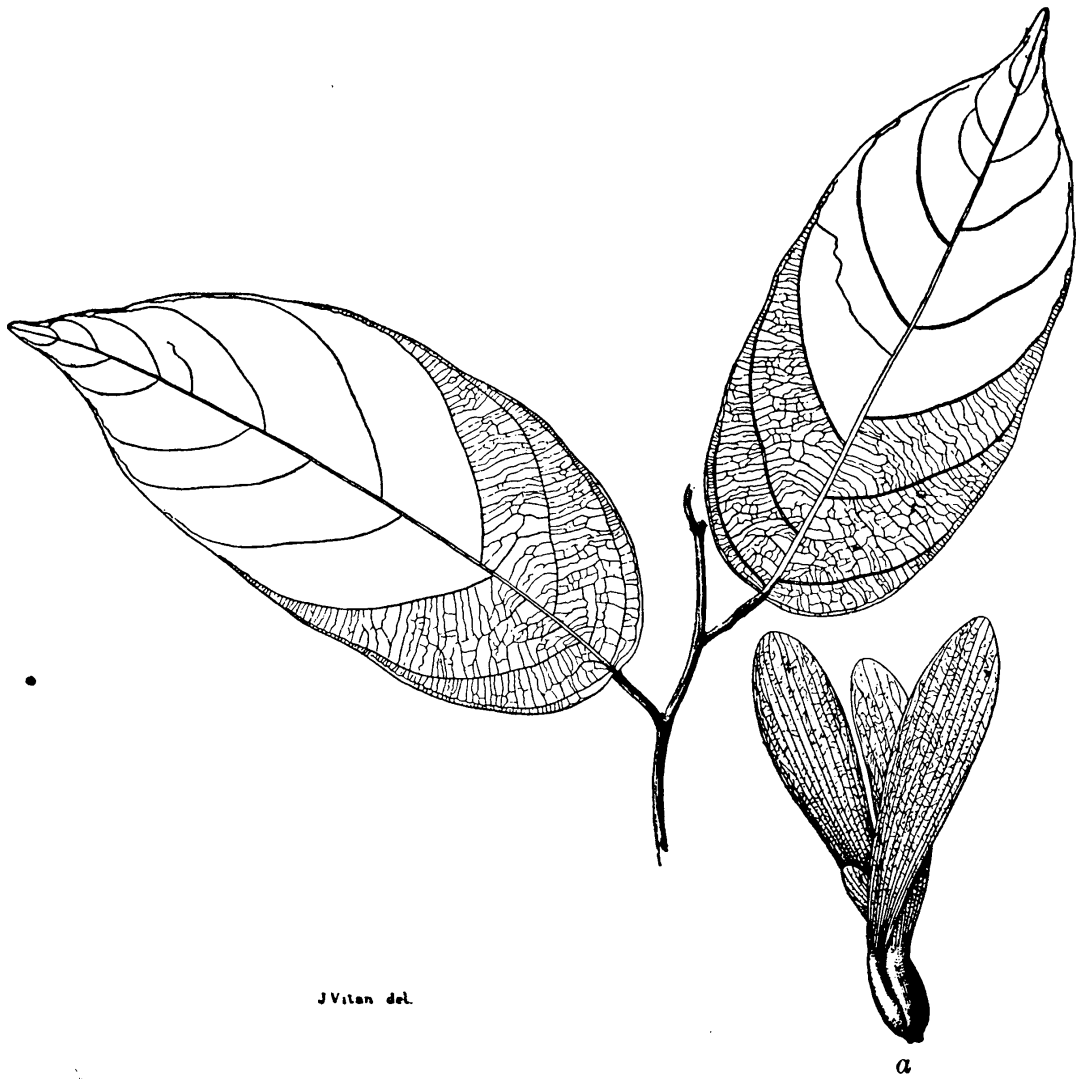


PLATE LV.—SMALL TREE OF BITANHOL (*Calophyllum blancoi*).

Leaves attached to the bark.







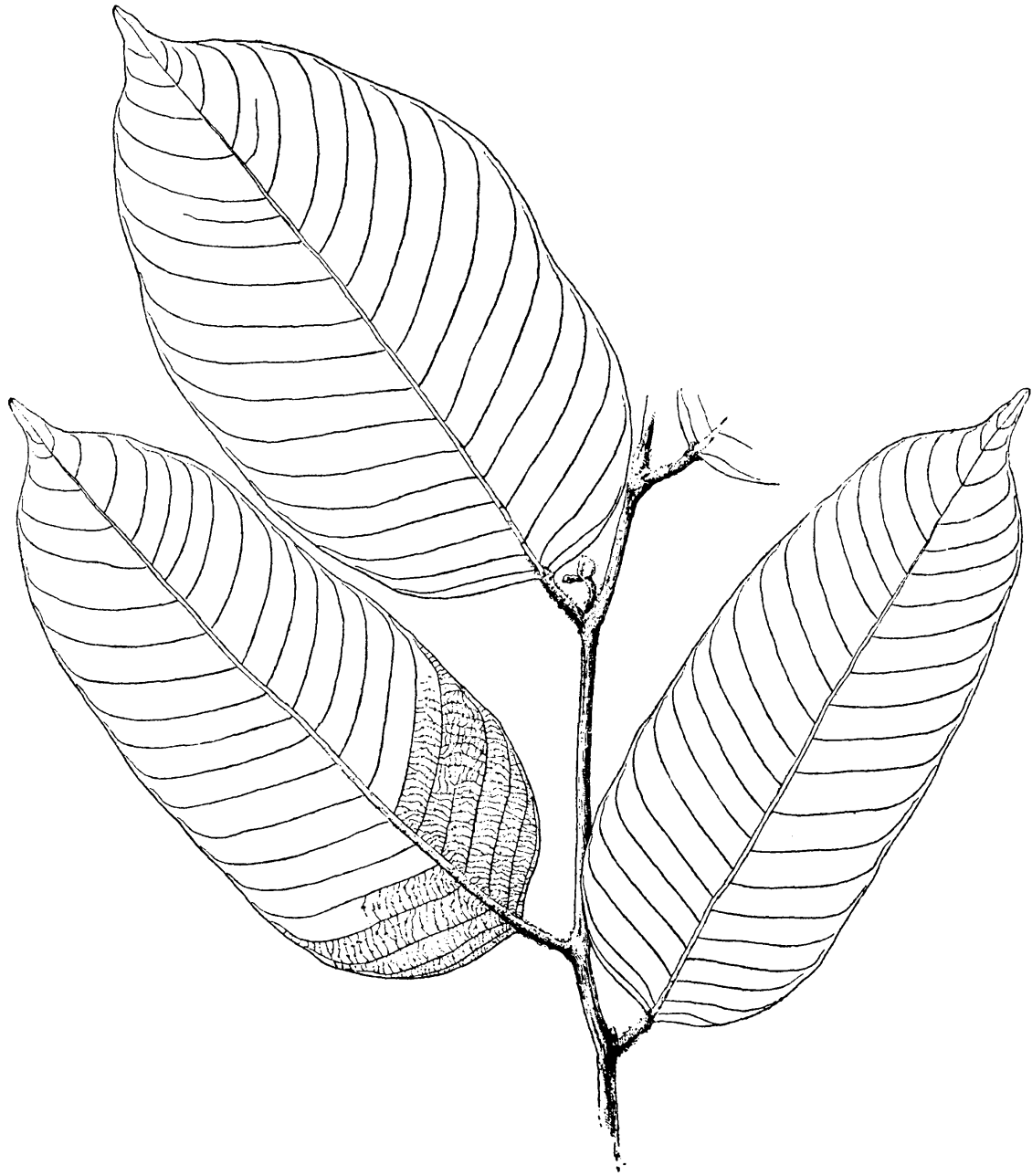
J. Vitan del.

PLATE LVI.—WHITE LAUAN (*Pentacme contorta*).
a, Fruit.

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PLATE LVII.—BARK AND LEAVES OF WHITE LAUAN (*Pentacme contorta*).



J.Vitan del.

PLATE LVIII.—ALMON-LAUAN (*Shorea furfuracea*).

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1901



PLATE LIX.—BARK AND LEAVES OF ALMON-LAUAN (*Shorea furfuracea*).



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J. Vitan del.

PLATE LX.—BAGTICAN-LAUAN (*Parashorea plicata*).

a, Fruit.

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PLATE LXI.—BARK OF BAGTICAN-LAUAN (*Parashorea plicata*).

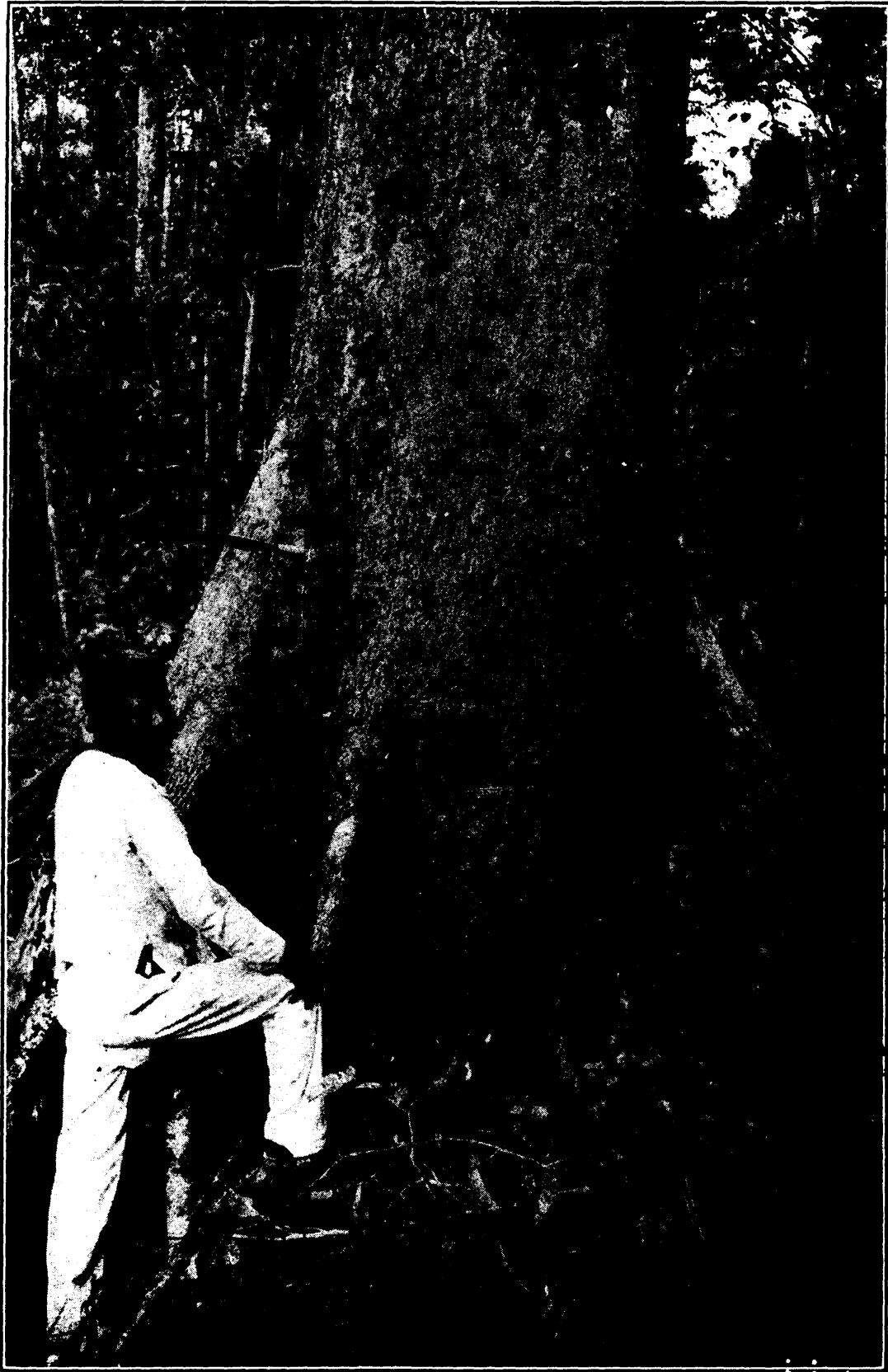
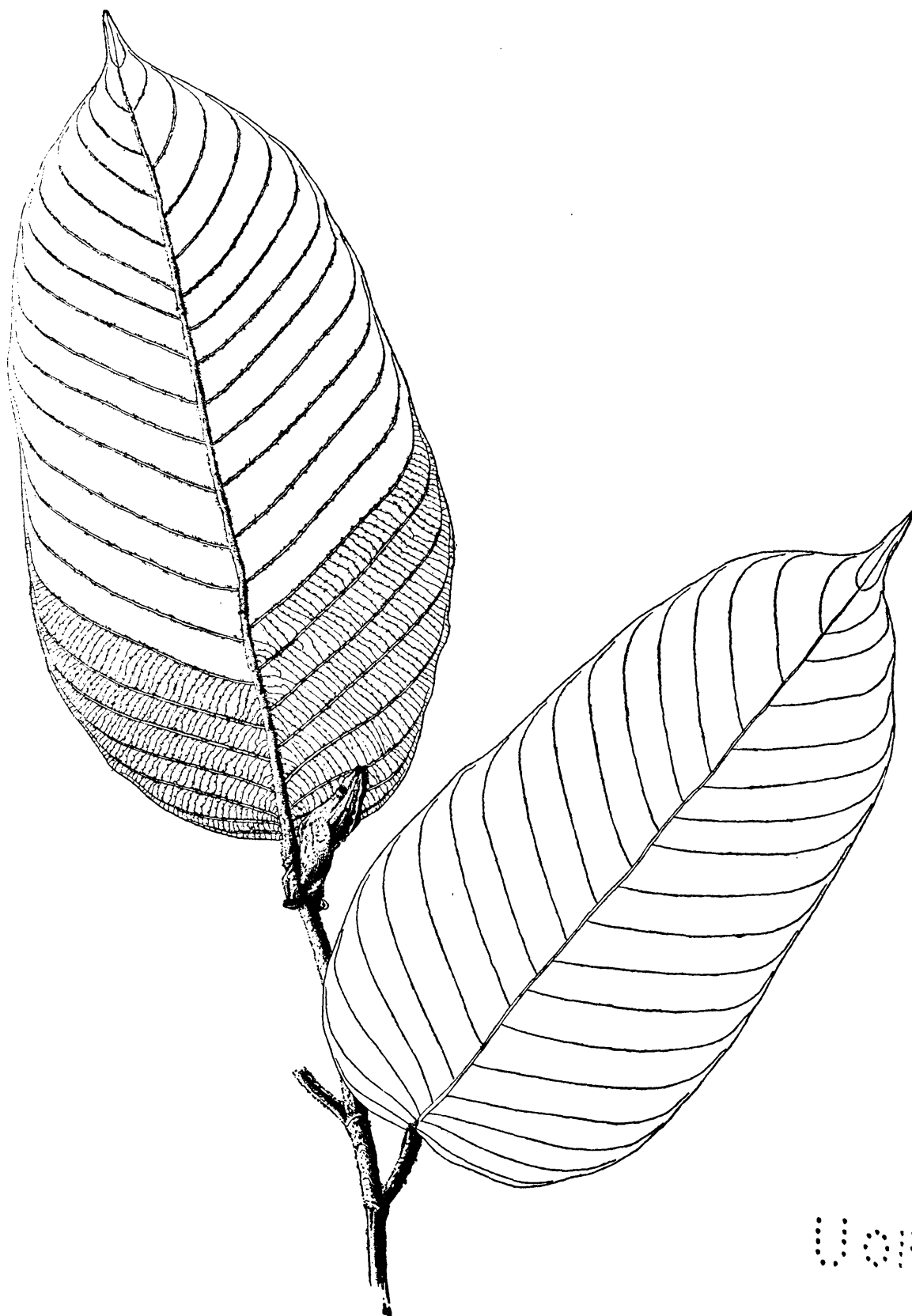


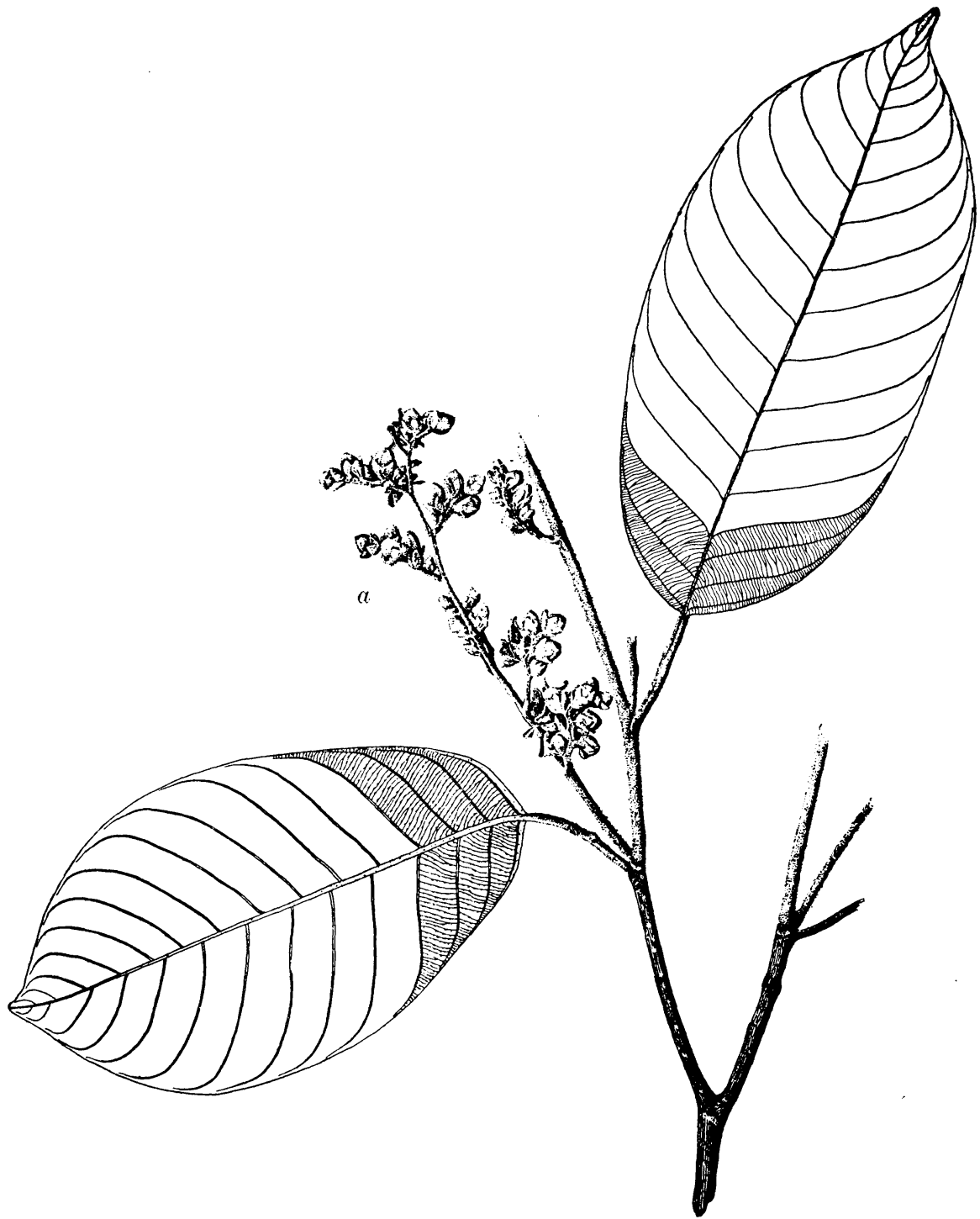
PLATE LXII.—KALUNTI-LAUAN (*Vatica* sp.).

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U. S. G. P. A.

PLATE LXIII.—MAYAPIS-LAUAN (*Shorea squamata*).



J. Vitan del

PLATE LXIV.—RED LAUAN (*Shorea* sp.)

a, Flower cluster.



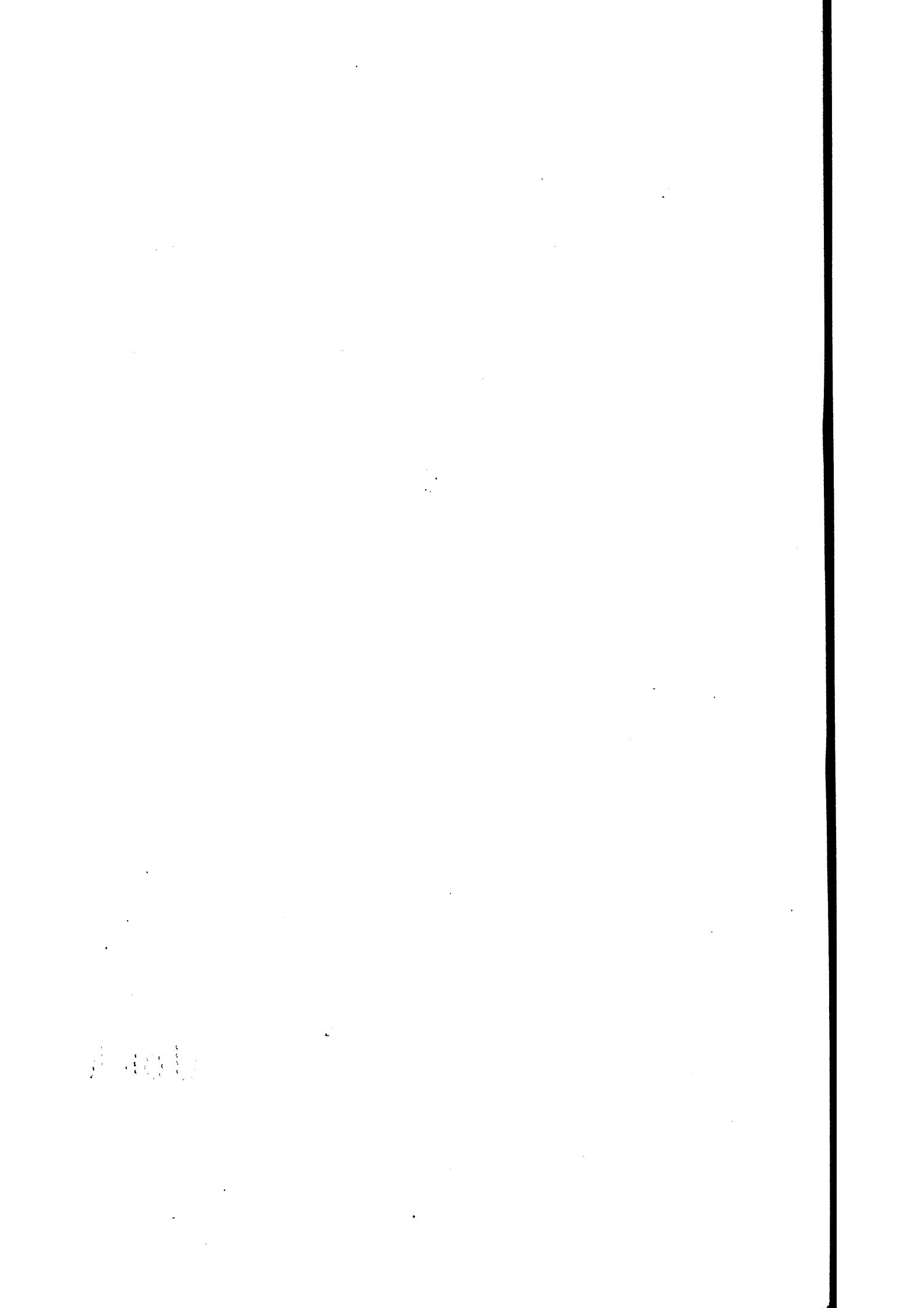




PLATE LXV.—BARK AND LEAVES OF RED LAUAN (*Shorea* sp.).



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J. Vitan del

PLATE LXVI.—TANGUILE (*Shorea polysperma*).

a, Flower cluster; b, fruit.



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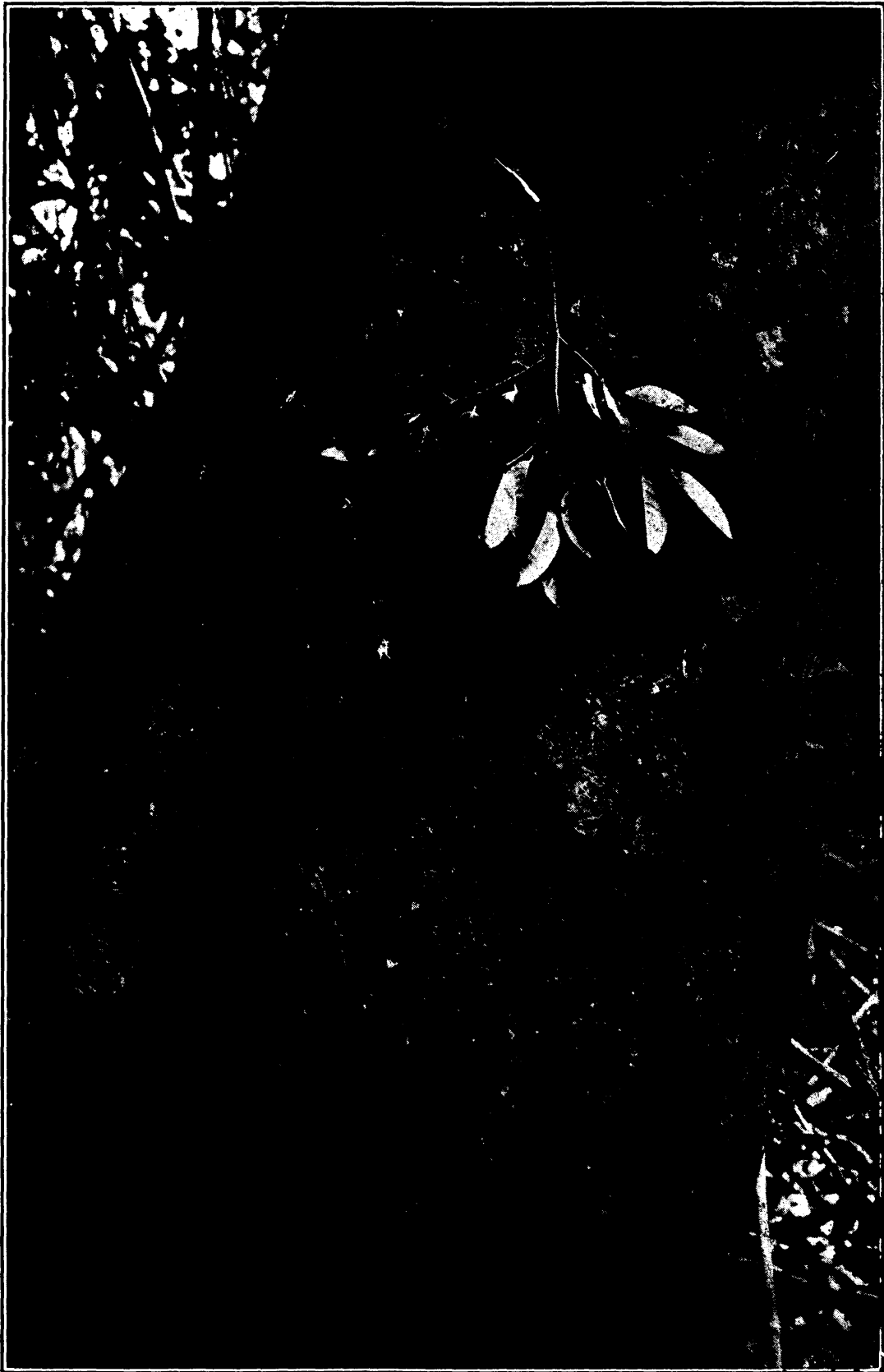
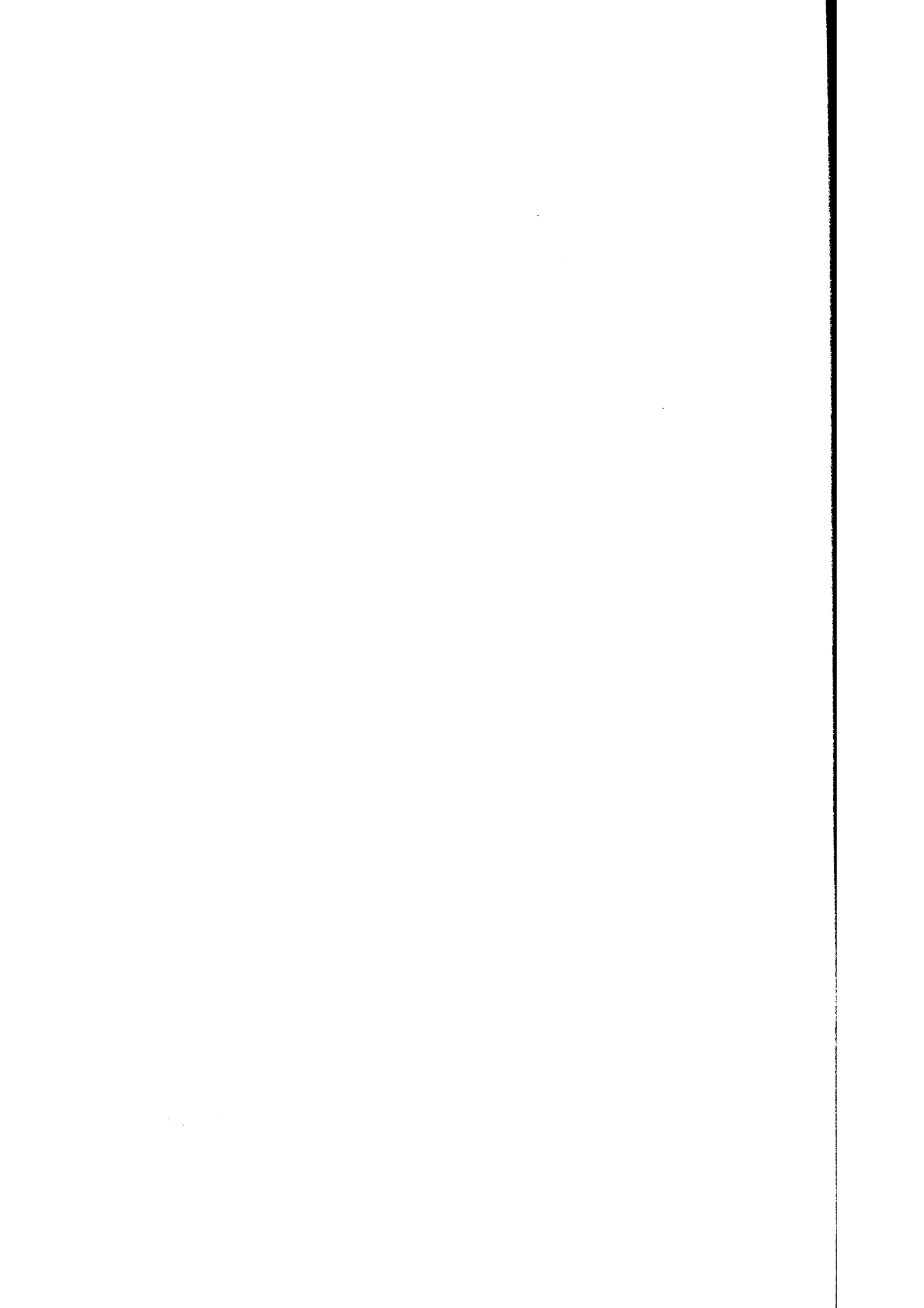
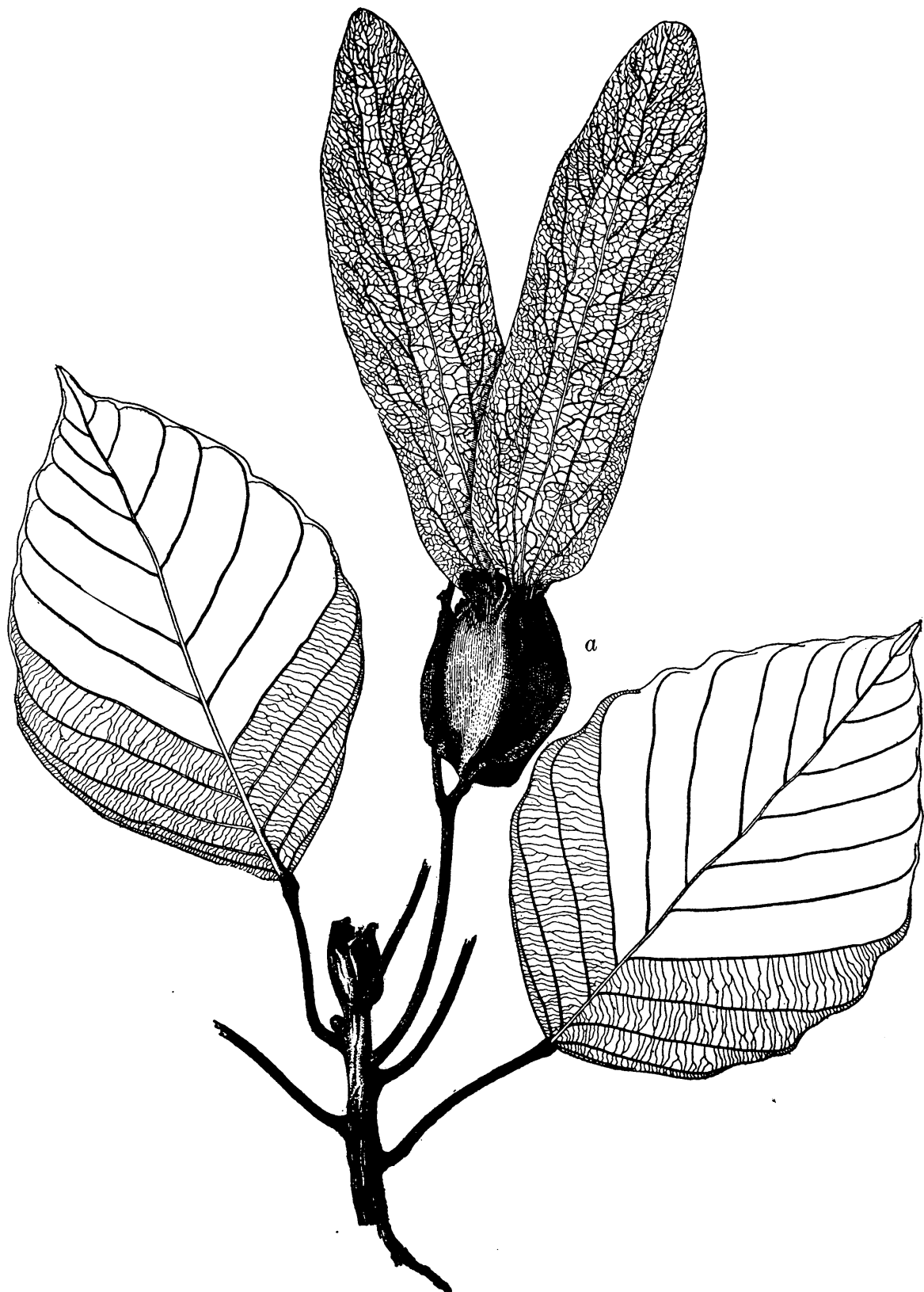


PLATE LXVII.—BARK AND LEAVES OF TANGUILE (*Shorea polysperma*).





J. V. Van der ...

PLATE LXVIII.—APITONG (*Dipterocarpus grandiflorus*).

a, Fruit.



1000



PLATE LXIX.—BARK AND LEAVES OF APITONG (*Dipterocarpus grandiflorus*).

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Small cluster of characters or artifacts at the bottom left of the page.

in older ones it is a thickened brown layer. The inner bark is yellow to brownish yellow, diagonally fibrous, and very stringy.

The leaves are simple, alternate, and leathery in texture, from 7 to 12 centimeters long and from 3 to 6 centimeters wide, dark green above, lighter green below, smooth.

The sapwood is dirty creamy color when freshly cut, soon turning to a light brown; the heartwood is light yellow in color. The tree exudes a brown oil, which quickly hardens into jet black brittle resin.

The wood is light in weight, soft, coarse, and straight grained. At present it is little used, but will undoubtedly find its way into the market in some quantities and be sold for lauan.

It is reported only from the district of Zamboanga, Mindanao, but probably occurs in other parts of Mindanao and neighboring islands.

From the character of the leaves the tree is provisionally referred to *Vatica* sp. The only local name reported for this wood is kalunti (calunti).

MANGASINORO-LAUAN.

While the name mangasinoro is applied to several kinds of lauan, there is a species of *Shorea* found in southern Luzon that produces a yellowish white, soft, and light wood that has a structure different from the other lauans. From a lumberman's standpoint the timber would be classed as a white lauan. There are not sufficient data to describe the tree. It is probably not abundant nor widely distributed.

MAYAPIS-LAUAN. (Pl. LXIII.)

This is a tree which reaches a height of 40 to 45 meters or more and a diameter of 150 centimeters. The tree is strongly buttressed and has a regular bole with a length up to 25 or 30 meters. The crown is spreading, flatly conical in shape, and dense.

The tree is one of the constituents of the lauan and lauan-hagachac types. It is found more or less abundantly from the northern part of Luzon to the southern part of Mindanao. It does best on rich, deep, but fairly well-drained soils in the lowlands, and seldom reaches an altitude of over 300 meters. It is distinctly a tolerant tree. It grows with the other lauans, apitong, and sometimes hagachac. It is confined to regions where the dry season is not pronounced.

The bark is from 8 to 16 millimeters in thickness; it is brown to dark brown or cinnamon brown in color, gray when exposed to strong light and black when wet. It is rather prominently ridged, especially above. The inner bark is stringy in texture and brown to slightly pink in color, especially a distinct vertical band beneath the furrows.

The leaves are simple and alternate, from 12 to 30 centimeters in length and from 6 to 11 centimeters wide. They are coarsely hairy

beneath, especially along the midrib and veins. These hairs are set in bunches and to the naked eye appear star shaped. The leaf is coarse in texture and has large prominent stipules which are for a time persistent.

This tree resembles closely almon-lauan, but can be distinguished from it by its darker colored bark and much coarser, larger leaves and more prominent hairs. The wood, also, is redder in color.

The sapwood is creamy brown to pinkish in color; the heartwood is light red to red. It is slightly resinous, has a straight regular grain, and is light to moderately hard and soft. It is used in all classes of light and temporary construction purposes, especially where contact with the ground is not necessary. It is valuable for interior finish and light furniture and shows a good figure. Locally it is used for bancas and all classes of house building.

It is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Isabela, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines, and Sorsogon); Polillo Island; Marinduque Island; Mindoro; Samar; Mindanao (Misamis, Lanao, Agusan, Zamboanga); Basilan Island.

Mayapis-lauan has the scientific name of *Shorea squamata*. The wood is sold in the Manila market under the name of mayapis, lauan, red lauan, and tanguile.

The following local names are the most common: Alam (Mangyan name of M.); balabak (Ib.); danlig (Tay.); lauan (T.); malacacao (Tay.); malakayan (Moro); malasinoro (Sam.); mayapis (T.); oghayan (Sam.); tabak (Tay.); ubanan (Manobo name of Ag.).

RED LAUAN. (Pls. LXIV and LXV.)

Red lauan is a tree reaching a height of 40 to 50 meters and a maximum diameter of 200 centimeters. It has a straight cylindrical bole with a slight taper and is strongly buttressed. The bole reaches a maximum length of 33 meters. The crown is one-fourth to one-third the length of the bole, and is irregularly dome shaped.

The tree is much like almon-lauan in all its requirements and is associated with it, apitong, tanguile, and bagtican-lauan in forming the dipterocarp forest of Negros. It is found on very gentle to fairly steep slopes in good soil. It is tolerant of shade, but develops best in young stages in partially open places.

The bark is 10 to 20 millimeters in thickness, dark brown to nearly black with a reddish tinge, and has ridges with shallow furrows, more prominent in the upper portions of the trunk. The bark is shed in rectangular plates, 10 to 20 centimeters long; freshly exposed patches are purplish black, brownish tan, or even gray in color and covered with thickly set corky pustules. At the base of large trees between buttresses there are often large irregular, very thin flakes. The inner bark is dull

tan or reddish in color with white fibers and stringy in texture. The leaves are simple and alternate, from 5 to 19 centimeters long and from 4 to 8 centimeters wide, and somewhat leathery in texture. The midrib above, the entire surface of the underside of the leaves, the petioles, and young twigs are covered with whitish velvety hairs.

The fresh sapwood is creamy in color near the bark, and gradually grades through a tan to the dark red color of the heartwood. The wood is light to moderately heavy and soft to moderately hard. It is used in all classes of temporary construction. Fine grades of it (with tanguile and other lauans) are used for interior finish and furniture and are shipped to the United States under the name of Philippine mahogany, where it is sold in competition with quarter-sawn oak. There it is finding great favor as a fine interior finish wood. Locally the wood of this tree is used for bancas and for all grades of house construction.

It is reported only from Occidental Negros and Agusan, but is probably present in other neighboring provinces. It is an undescribed species of *Shorea*. It has the local names of balakbakan, mangachapuy, and red lauan in Negros, and the wood is sold in the Manila market under the names of balakbakan, tanguile, red almon, and red lauan.

TANGUILE. (Pls. LXVI and LXVII.)

Tanguile is a tree that reaches a height of 45 to 50 meters and a diameter of 160 centimeters. The bole is regular, little to strongly buttressed, and reaches lengths of 25 to 30 meters. The crown is wide spreading, irregularly dome shaped and dense, and from one-third to one-half the length of the bole. This is one of the principal trees of the tanguile-oak and lauan types, but reaches its best development in the former type.

The bark is 5 to 6 millimeters in thickness, light red in color, and sheds in small to medium sized flakes. In old trees fresh bark for a time is nearly smooth or free from scales, when it is soft to the touch. The inner bark is red and stringy in texture.

The leaves are simple and alternate, from 5 to 14 centimeters long and from 3 to 6 centimeters wide, usually thin in texture, dark green above, a lighter green below, and smooth.

The sapwood is creamy in color, on exposure turning to a dirty brown. The heartwood is light red to reddish brown in color. The wood of trees grown in dry shallow soils is moderately hard and moderately heavy; that grown in the deeper soils is softer in texture and lighter in weight. The former is known as tanguile in Bataan and Zambales; the latter as balakbakan in Negros, and mayapis in Tayabas. The trees in dry exposed situations are shorter boled than those grown in moister places.

Tanguile resembles guijo in general character of the bark and leaves. Usually, however, they are not found growing together. The shape of the

leaves is slightly different. The wood of tanguile is red in color, soft to moderately hard, and light to moderately heavy. The softer grades of tanguile resemble red lauan, and for most purposes there is little or no difference, but the harder grades are superior to it. It has the following uses: House construction (flooring, doors, interior finish); furniture; shipbuilding; canoes; boxes. With red lauan, it is the chief export material known as Philippine mahogany.

Tanguile is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Pangasinan, Zambales, Bataan, Tayabas, Camarines, Albay); Polillo Island; Marinduque Island; Mindoro; Cebu; Negros. It is the equivalent of the wood known as klapak in Dutch East Borneo and obar suluk of British North Borneo.

It has the scientific name of *Shorea polysperma*. The following local names for tanguile are the most common: Abuhungan (Al.); adamui (B.); araka (Il.); balakbakan (Neg.); balagayan (Mangyan name of M.); damilang (Ib.); manaog (Cebu); mayapis (Tay.); pata (Pang.).

TIAONG-LAUAN.

This name is applied to a species of *Shorea* yielding a soft red wood which will pass on the market as red lauan or mayapis lauan. The tree resembles red lauan in general character, but has leaves something like tanguile. It is reported from the lauan forests of portions of the Tayabas and Laguna region, where it is very abundant. There is not sufficient information concerning it to warrant a detailed description. It has the same uses as red lauan.

THE APITONG GROUP.

The woods that belong to this group are as follows: Apitong, panao, hagachac and other species of *Dipterocarpus*, and guiyo. (See Part I, p. 33.)

APITONG. (Pls. LXVIII and LXIX.)

Apitong is a tree that reaches a height of from 40 to 45 meters and a diameter of 180 centimeters. It has a straight regular bole with a length of from 25 to 30 meters. The crown is roughly flat-conical or irregular and semiopen. The tree is found throughout the Visayas and the northern islands and is especially abundant in the region where the dry season is pronounced. Here it occurs on ridges from near sea level to an altitude of 300 to 350 meters. It occupies somewhat drier situations than panao, and although tolerant of shade it does better in slightly open places.

The bark is 6 to 8 centimeters in thickness and brittle in texture. It varies from a brown-gray color in dense shade to a light gray color where exposed to strong light. It sheds in large scroll-shaped plates and has many corky pustules. The inner bark is reddish in color. The leaves vary in size from 19 to 30 centimeters in length and from 9.5 to 17

centimeters in width, are leathery in texture, and smooth. The petioles are from 5.5 to 7 centimeters in length. The tree resembles panao greatly in appearance, but can be readily distinguished from it by the character of the leaves, a somewhat shorter bole, longer bark scales, and longer leaf stalk. (See Panao.)

The heartwood is dark with a reddish tinge, the sapwood grayish brown. On cutting, the wood exudes abundant quantities of oil, which changes rapidly to a thick fluid resin on exposure to the air. This resin is known locally as balao, and is used principally in calking small boats. (See Part I, p. 55.) The wood is moderately heavy, moderately hard, with a straight but coarse grain. It is the most abundant heavy construction timber in the Islands, but can not be classed as a durable timber. It has the following uses: House building (interior finish, rafters, doors and windows, joists, sills, flooring, and sometimes parts of house posts spliced on top of more durable timbers); ship building (bancas, planks, bottoms, sides); piling; ordinary furniture; wagon beds; bridge timbers; charcoal.

Apitong is known to exist in the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Isabela, Ilocos Sur, Abra, Benguet, Pangasinan, Pampanga, Nueva Ecija, Bulacan, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines, Albay); Mindoro; Masbate; Leyte; Negros; Palawan. It probably occurs in a number of other provinces.

The scientific name of apitong is *Dipterocarpus grandiflorus*. The following local names have been recorded: Anahauon (B.); balao (T.); damalalian (Cag.); duko (N. Luz.); hagachac (Cam.); kamuyao (V., Il.); malapaho (T.); pagsahingin (Lag.); pamalalian (Cag.); paman-tuling (Pang., Il.); panao (T.).

PANAO. (Pls. LXX and LXXI.)

Panao is a tree that reaches a height of 40 to 45 meters and a diameter of 160 to 180 centimeters. It has a straight regular bole attaining a length of 28 to 32 meters, usually with very prominent buttresses. Panao is especially abundant in the regions where the dry season is pronounced. Here it occurs in slightly more moist situations than apitong, usually occupying the slopes of the ridges up to an altitude of 600 meters. It is a medium tolerant species; seedlings, however, thrive best in fairly open situations.

The bark is 5 to 8 millimeters in thickness. It is light brown to gray in color, scaling off in large patches, and is covered with very numerous corky pustules; the inner bark is brown to reddish brown, stringy in texture. The leaves are from 10 to 23 centimeters long and from 6 to 13 centimeters wide with velvety hairs beneath. The petioles are 2.5 to 3 centimeters long and hairy. (For the difference between this tree and apitong see apitong.)

The sapwood is pale brown in color; the heartwood reddish brown,

and the grain coarse. Both sapwood and heartwood are very resinous. (See Apitong for further description.)

Panao is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Pangasinan, Pampanga, Bulacan, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines); Polillo Island; Marinduque; Mindoro; Leyte; Negros. It probably occurs in many other provinces.

It has the scientific name of *Dipterocarpus vernicifluus*. The following local names are recorded: Afu (Il.); apitong (T.); kamuyao (Cag.); malapaho (Polillo); pagsahingin (Lag.).

HAGACHAC. (Pls. LXXII and LXXIII.)

Hagachac is a tree of the apitong group that reaches a height of 45 to 50 meters and a diameter of 150 to 170 centimeters. It has a straight, regular bole upward of 30 meters in length, usually without buttresses. The crown is broadly conical, medium compact. This tree is uniformly distributed throughout the Philippines where the dry season is not pronounced, on flood plains of the large and small rivers, and occasionally occurs on the low hills bordering these.

The bark is 6 to 8 millimeters in thickness. It is light gray and smooth in young trees; in older trees it sheds in thin, irregular flakes about three times as long as wide. The inner bark is reddish brown, about the same color as the heartwood.

The leaves are variable in size and shape, running from 18 to 53 centimeters in length and from 7 to 22 centimeters in width. The petioles are covered with coarse hairs, which also occur on the midrib of the underside of the leaves.

The wood resembles closely that of apitong, for which it is sold on the market. It also has the same uses.

It is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines); Marinduque Island; Mindoro; Masbate; Samar; Leyte; Mindanao (Surigao, Zamboanga, Davao).

This tree is usually referred to *Dipterocarpus affinis*, though there may be more than one species. Besides the common name of hagachac, the following local names have been collected: Anahauon (B.); apitong (Mas., Ley., Sam.); bayu (Sur.); kamuyao (Cag.); liput (Sur.).

Other species of the apitong group, usually referred to *Dipterocarpus hasseltii* and *Dipterocarpus speciosus*, and unknown species occur in many regions throughout the lauan types. These have the general habits of apitong and panao and yield woods much like them. Our information concerning them is not sufficient to warrant detailed descriptions.

GUIJO. (Pls. LXXIV and LXXV.)

Guijo is a tree that will reach a height of 40 to 55 meters and a diameter up to 180 centimeters. It has a straight, regular bole, strongly buttressed, that is from three-fifths to two-thirds the height of the tree.

The crown is irregularly globular in shape, somewhat open, especially in the dry season. Guijo is found in all the dipterocarp types. While it is tolerant of shade it does better in slightly open places.

The bark of guijo is 5 to 6 millimeters in thickness. Long exposed bark is light brown in color with corky pustules and sheds in scroll-shaped or nearly rectangular patches. Freshly exposed bark is cinnamon brown in color. The inner bark is light reddish brown in color and stringy in texture.

The leaves are simple, alternate, from 8 to 19 centimeters long and from 3 to 8 centimeters wide, and usually smooth. They closely resemble those of tanguile, though they are more rounded at the base.

The sapwood is very light in color; the heartwood is ashy red to brownish red. It is fairly straight grained and inclined to warp when not well seasoned. Better grades of apitong closely resemble guijo and are often sold for it. It is moderately heavy and hard, and is one of the most useful timbers in the Islands. It is more durable than apitong, but considerably less so than yacal. It has the following uses: House construction (flooring, joists, rafters, posts joined above durable timbers, partitions, doors, sills, window frames, and interior finish of all kinds); shipbuilding (beams, booms, decking, keels, masts, outrigger supports, oars and paddles, side planking); carriage making (hubs, wheels, especially rims and spokes, and all other parts); furniture; docks; telegraph poles; piling; agricultural implements; vats; barrels.

Guijo is recorded from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Isabela, Abra, Nueva Vizcaya, Bontoc, Pangasinan, Pampanga, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Batangas, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon, Albay); Marinduque Island; Mindoro; Masbate Island; Ticao Island; Samar; Leyte; Occidental Negros; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Cotabato, Davao); Basilan.

The scientific name of guijo is *Shorea guiso*. Besides the common name of guijo (or guiso) the following local names are recorded: Betik (Lag.); guisoc (V., Moro); katapang (N. V.); litan (Cag.); niquet or niket (Il.); sarai (Il.); yamban (Il.); zitan or some form of it (Il.).

THE YACAL GROUP.

A great deal of confusion yet exists concerning the correct determination of the species of trees that produce the woods of this group. Some of these are described here, in others there are not sufficient data to warrant description. As a rule the woods can be divided into two groups—the yacals proper and the mangachapuy group. Two grades of the mangachapuy are known on the market—the one hard and only slightly less durable than yacal, the other much less hard and durable. These latter are sometimes sold as mangachapuy, and have resulted in giving the harder varieties of the woods of the same name a bad repu-

tation. As yet there is insufficient information to warrant a full description of the trees of the softer varieties. (See Part I, p. 33.)

YACAL. (Pls. LXXVI and LXXVII.)

Yacal is a large tree with a height of 45 to 55 meters, though often mature trees are less than 45 meters. They will measure from 80 to 180 centimeters in diameter. The bole of yacal is regular, free from knots, and mature trees are usually strongly buttressed. The crown is semi-open, broad, with a few heavy branches, and is one-fourth to one-third the height of the tree. It is evergreen, but during the dry season there is a period when there are fewer leaves than during the wet season. It is found growing on the low coastal hills, usually of volcanic rock, and is especially abundant on headlands projecting into the sea. In these situations it occurs almost exclusively on the ridges and upper slopes where the soil is well drained and fairly shallow. Occasional trees are found scattered in the deeper soils of the more gentle slopes, though they do not occur in moist soils. It is partially tolerant of shade. Young trees develop best in open places, provided they can survive exceptionally dry periods. The altitudinal range is from near sea level to about 200 meters.

The bark is 10 to 15 millimeters in thickness. It is gray brown, cinnamon brown, to brown in color and is shed in small or large plates; weathered bark is somewhat lighter in color. The fresh bark of old trees is sometimes seamed; in young trees the bark is dark brown, smooth, and sometimes seamed. The inner bark is yellowish brown when freshly cut, but changes rapidly to brown on exposure.

The leaves of yacal are simple, alternate, from 6.5 to 12 centimeters long and from 3 to 6 centimeters wide. In some leaves the axils of the secondary veins contain glands, which are absent in mature leaves of old trees. The old leaves are leathery and smooth.

The sapwood is light yellowish brown, changing rapidly to a color slightly lighter than the yellowish brown to brown heartwood. Old wood becomes dark brown. The wood is rather coarse grained and crossed fibrous, and splits quite easily tangentially, but with difficulty radially. It is hard and heavy and is very durable. When cut the tree yields an oil which quickly hardens into a brittle dirty black resin. (See Part I, pp. 54 and 55.)

Yacal is the most abundant of the heavy, hard, and very durable timbers. It is especially valuable in all classes of construction work where contact with the ground is necessary, but it is readily destroyed by teredo. It is used for the following purposes: House construction (posts, joists, rafters, flooring, doors, walls, sills); shipbuilding (keels, decking, sides, masts, rudders); bridge construction; railway ties; cabinetmaking; furniture; carriage making (especially spokes and fellies).

This species (probably including others closely allied in leaf and wood character) is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Nueva Vizcaya, Pangasinan, Nueva Ecija, Zambales, Camarines, Tayabas, Sorsogon); Mindoro; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Cotabato).

The species described above is referred to *Hopea plagata*. Besides the name of yacal it has the following local names: Betik (Il.); guisoc (B., V., Moro); papolongan or some form of it (T.); sapolongan (T.); siggai (Il.); taggai (Il.).

GUISOC. (Pl. LXXVIII.)

Guisoc, with yacal, furnishes most of the lumber known on the market as yacal. The habits of the tree are very similar to yacal. It attains a height of 35 to 45 meters and reaches a diameter of 150 to 170 centimeters. The bole, compared with trees of the same diameter of yacal, is usually shorter, the tree being consequently more stocky in appearance. The bark is reddish brown to brown where freshly shed, changing on weathering to dark brown or nearly black. It sheds in usually much larger irregular patterns. The fresh bark and that of young trees becomes seamed. The leaves are simple and alternate, from 8.5 to 15 centimeters long and from 2 to 6 centimeters wide. They, with the twigs and petioles, are covered beneath with fine brown hairs, which become rusty brown as the leaves age, so that the crown of the tree looked at beneath has a rusty brown appearance. During the dry season the canopy is much thinner between the time of the beginning of the shedding of the leaves and before the new leaves begin to develop. The tree, however, is not wholly deciduous, probably not losing more than a third of its foliage at any one time.

The wood is much like yacal in general appearance, and furnishes a considerable part of the yacal of commerce. The specimens examined have a slightly finer texture than that of yacal, but are equally hard and heavy. It has the same uses as yacal.

The tree has been reported from Tayabas, Camarines, Albay, Masbate, Samar, and Leyte, though it doubtless occurs elsewhere. From incomplete botanical specimens this tree has been referred to *Shorea balangeran*. It has the common names of guisoc, guisoc-amarillo, guisoc-guisoc, and yacal. It may be that the species from Pangasinan and Zambales furnishing wood under the names of guisoc colorado and yamban that are classed as yacal belong to this species.

BLACK YACAL.

Black yacal is a tree reaching a height of 30 or more meters and a diameter of 60 to 90 centimeters. The bole is usually irregular and spirally twisted. The bark is thin (3 to 4 millimeters) and nearly black with a reddish tinge. It is distinctly ridged. The inner bark is light brown in color. The sapwood is one-fourth the radius in thickness,

turning to the color of the heartwood on exposure. The heartwood is chocolate brown in color. The wood is similar to yacal, but harder. This tree is found scattered singly or in groups on low, dry coastal ridges in the Zamboanga district of Mindanao. So far it has not been reported from any other region. It belongs to the yacal group and is sold as yacal. As yet, no fruiting and flowering specimens have been collected from it, and it has provisionally been referred to the genus *Hopea*.

MALAYACAL.

Malayacal is a tree reaching an average height of 30 to 40 meters, and a diameter of 60 to 80 centimeters or more. This tree resembles yacal so closely in characters of bark that it at first sight is easily mistaken for it. It differs from yacal in being shorter boled, and less inclined to be buttressed. The crown is denser and more compact, in contrast with the open crown of yacal. The bark is usually thinner (6 to 10 millimeters). The leaves are larger, thinner, and of a different shape. While yacal is found on the upper slopes and ridges (on the lower slopes in rocky dry soils), malayacal is confined to the lower slopes, coves, and on flood plains along streams or arroyos of the low-hill region bordering on salt water. It is distinctly a tolerant species.

The wood of malayacal resembles closely that of yacal and is used for it. It is reported so far only from the Zamboanga district of Mindanao. From leaf specimens it has been referred provisionally to a species of *Shorea*.

GUISOC-GUISOC. (Pl. LXXIX.)

Guisoc-guisoc is a medium-sized tree reaching a height of 20 to 25 meters and a diameter of not more than 50 centimeters. The bole is fairly regular, usually slightly buttressed, and is apt to have persistent dead twigs near the base. The crown is semiopen and fairly wide spreading. It is distributed throughout the Philippines in the region where the dry season is not pronounced, usually very scattered on lower slopes and streams. It is a tolerant species and grows in dense dipterocarp forests. The weathered bark is dark brown to black, when fresh it is light brown. It is 3 to 5 millimeters in thickness, and sheds in large scaly patches; the inner bark is brown with pinkish tinge. The leaves are simple, alternate, from 10 to 26 centimeters long and from 4 to 7 centimeters wide, with very hairy glands in the axils of the secondary veins and with sharp-pointed stipules.

The sapwood is creamy when fresh cut, soon changing to brown. The heartwood is brown to chocolate brown and in places has dark brown streaks. Because of its small size and consequently large proportion of sap to heart the tree is infrequently cut because the sapwood is not durable. The heartwood is hard and probably as durable as yacal, and could be substituted for it. The tree has the following distribution: Luzon

(Tayabas, Camarines, Albay); Leyte; Occidental Negros; Mindanao (Agusan). The scientific name of guisoc-guisoc is *Hopea philippinensis*. Other common names reported are barakbakan (Ag.); makitarim or some form of it (B., V.); paina (B.).

An undescribed species of *Hopea*, under the common Moro name of mangasusu, occurs on the Zamboanga Peninsula of Mindanao. In habit, color, and character of the bark, in shape of leaves and presence of glands, and in fruit it is similar to guisoc-guisoc. The tree is uniformly larger, however, reaching a height of at least 35 meters and a diameter of 60 centimeters. The leaves vary in size from those of guisoc-guisoc to some two to three times their size. The wood shows irregularly concentric bands of nearly black, otherwise it is like guisoc-guisoc.

MANGACHAPUY. (Pl. LXXX.)

Mangachapuy is a tree that reaches a height of 30 meters and a diameter of 80 to 100 centimeters. It has a regular bole reaching 20 meters in length and a dense crown of small leaves. It is found on slopes associated with tanguile, more abundant above altitudes of 300 meters. It is a tolerant tree.

The bark is 10 to 15 millimeters in thickness. It is distinctly divided into ridges, but these are short and join diagonally, forming a more or less regular network. The furrows are usually filled with lines of corky pustules. The ridges are brown to nearly black in color, the furrows light brown and yellowish. The middle bark is brown; the inner bark is a light yellowish cream color, very stringy in texture and resinous. The leaves are simple and alternate, smooth above and below, thin in texture, usually with glands in the axils of the secondary veins; these are more prominent near the base of the leaf. The leaf blade is from 4.5 to 8 centimeters long and from 2 to 3.5 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is light creamy in color when fresh, changing to dirty brown on exposure. The heartwood is light yellowish brown when fresh, darkening on weathering. The wood is hard and heavy, and is considered nearly as durable as yacal. It has a straight and moderately fine grain.

It has the following uses: House construction (partitions, ceilings, moldings, rafters, posts, joists, flooring, sills, doors); shipbuilding (masts, decks, sides); piles; railway ties; wharves.

This tree is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Bataan, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon, Albay); Mindoro; Leyte; Negros; Basilan.

Mangachapuy has the scientific name of *Hopea acuminata*. Besides the common name given above it also goes under the name of daling-dingan, under which it is very often sold.

DALINGDINGAN-ISAK.

This is a tree resembling mangachapuy in most particulars. It can be distinguished from it by the fine and closely set veins and the prominent hairy glands in the axils of the veins. The leaves are from 3 to 8.5 centimeters long and from 1 to 3.5 centimeters wide. The wood of this tree is much like that of mangachapuy. It is usually found scattered through certain subtypes of the lauan type and is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Pangasinan, Laguna, Infanta, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon, and Albay); Polillo Island; Mindoro; Negros.

It is referred to *Hopea pierrei*. Besides the common name of dalingdingan-isak this species has the following local names: Dalingdingan (T.); lito (Sor.); makitarem (Sor.); mangachapuy (T., V.); pisak (Cag.).

NARIG.

Narig is a medium-sized tree between 20 and 30 meters in height. It reaches a diameter of 70 centimeters. The bole is quite regular, usually moderately or little buttressed, about two-thirds the height of the tree. The crown is semiopen. It is found on dry coastal ridges and is a constant associate of yacal in the yacal-lauan type of certain parts of Mindanao.

The bark is 5 to 7 millimeters in thickness. The outer bark is light gray in color when weathered; the fresh bark is brown to brownish-gray. It sheds in scroll-shaped patterns; the inner bark is very light pink with dark brown flecks, and is hard and brittle. The leaves are simple, alternate, and leathery in texture. They vary in size from 4.5 to 10 centimeters long and from 3 to 5.5 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is creamy to light brown in color and not durable. The fresh heartwood is pale yellow in color and when weathered becomes dark brown with a reddish tinge and often dark greenish streaks or mottlings. It is finer grained than yacal. The chief objection to narig is its small size and comparatively large proportion of sapwood.

The tree is reported only from the Zamboanga and Davao districts of Mindanao and from Basilan Island. Doubtless it occurs elsewhere in Mindanao and adjacent islands. A wood, probably narig, comes from Palawan under the name of atpai.

This tree is referred to a species of *Vatica* and may be the same as karig (*Vatica mangachapoi*), which it resembles in many respects.

KARIG. (Pl. LXXXI.)

This is a tree resembling narig in many respects. It seems to be confined to western Luzon where it is usually found at altitudes of from 350 to 700 meters. The tree differs mainly from narig in having smaller

leaves and a pale-yellow wood without the greenish mottling. Like narig it turns to a dull reddish brown on exposure.

This species has been collected from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Benguet, Bataan, Rizal). It is referred to *Vatica mangachapoi* and seems to be the species that produces the wood that was formerly known as mangachapuy. It has not, however, been collected under that name. Besides karig the following common names are recorded for it: Aniga (Ben.); aningat (Pang.); dangi (Riz.); labang (Il.).

YACAL BLANCO.

Yacal blanco is the name applied to a tree that resembles closely narig and karig. It occupies a place usually in the yacal-lauan type of Luzon and Leyte, that is, on the low coastal hills in the regions where the dry season is wanting or not pronounced. It is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Baler, Tayabas, Camarines, Albay); Polillo Island; Leyte. Besides the common name of yacal blanco the following local names are recorded: Bani (Cag.); bibit (Bal.); durog (Ley.); sionsiongangan (Ley.); tapurao (Al.); yacal (Polillo).

The heartwood of narig, karig, and yacal blanco are hard and heavy timbers probably equal to yacal and are often substituted for it. The general characters of the trees are so nearly alike that they can scarcely be distinguished from each other. They have a smoother and finer grain than yacal.

THE PALOSAPIS GROUP.

The genus *Anisoptera* produces woods quite distinct from any of the above.

PALOSAPIS. (Pls. LXXXII and LXXXIII.)

This tree reaches a height of 40 to 45 meters and a diameter of 120 to 180 centimeters. It has a straight, regular, unbuttressed bole that is three-fifths to two-thirds the height of the tree. The canopy is dense in the rainy season and open in the dry, when it changes leaves. Trees in very dry situations may become entirely destitute of leaves for a few days. It is slightly tolerant of shade. Palosapis reaches its best development in the lauan-apitong type of regions where the dry season is pronounced, though it is scattered in various types of the other dipterocarp forests.

The bark is 15 to 25 millimeters in thickness, in young trees smooth with a yellowish tinge; in older trees, especially at the base, it is broken into choppy pieces, dirty brown in color. The bark just beneath the surface is a reddish brown color; the inner bark is granular brownish yellow, the granular appearance being due to broken concentric rings of yellow. The leaves are from 7.5 to 16 centimeters long and from 3

to 7 centimeters wide, often yellowish in color and usually free from hairs.

The sapwood is light creamy in color, staining on exposure to dirty gray; the heartwood pale yellow, often with rose streaks, changing on exposure to uniform yellowish brown. It has a coarse and fairly straight grain and is moderately heavy and soft to moderately hard. When fresh cut it has an unpleasant odor and yields abundant resin. The following are the uses of the wood: General construction; house construction (joists, rafters, flooring, siding); bancas; boxes; rice mortars; furniture; dry measures.

Palosapis is recorded from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Abra, Nueva Vizcaya, Pangasinan, Tarlac, Nueva Ecija, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Camarines, Sorsogon, Albay); Masbate Islands; Mindoro; Cebu.

The scientific name of this species is *Anisoptera thurifera*. Besides the common name of palosapis the local names recorded are as follows: Dagang or dagum (Lag., Riz., Al.); duyong (Il.); letis (Mas.); mayapis (T.); paihapi (Z.).

A number of other species of *Anisoptera* yield wood that will pass on the market as palosapis. Malapaho or dagang (*Anisoptera curtisii*), with leaves very yellow beneath, is reported from Tayabas, Camarines, and Laguna. An undescribed species of *Anisoptera* (afu) from Cagayan and Ilocos Norte is much like palosapis, but with larger fruits. Another species (probably undescribed) occurs in the Zamboanga district of Mindanao.

ARANGA FAMILY.

(Flacourtiaceæ.)

THE ARANGAS.

Several species of the genus *Homalium* produce the wood known as aranga. The following description applies to *Homalium luzoniense*.

This tree reaches a height of 30 to 40 meters and a diameter of 80 to 90 centimeters. It has a fairly straight and regular bole that is strongly buttressed. It is a very scattered tree which is found principally in the Provinces of Tayabas and Camarines. The bark is 8 to 12 millimeters in thickness, gray to brown in color, and has a slightly uneven surface, sometimes with vertical lines. The leaves are simple and alternate, smooth, with slightly wavy margins, varying from 7 to 20 centimeters long and from 3.5 to 12.5 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is yellow, merging gradually into a yellowish or reddish brown heartwood, which in large trees has often irregular streaks of chocolate color. It is very hard, heavy, and fine grained. It is one of the most durable timbers in salt water and in the ground and is consequently much valued for piling and naval construction. It is also used for house construction (flooring, interior finish, posts, rafters); cabinetwork; railway ties.

It is impossible at the present time to give the gross characteristics of the following species, which also produce the wood known as aranga: *Homalium bracteatum*, *barandæ*, *panayanum*, and *villarrianum*. Besides the general name of aranga for the woods that come from these species the following local names are recorded: Ampupuyot (V.); arangan, kamagahai (Cam.); kamuyon (Ab.); laing (Riz.); matangbokal (Il.); puyot (V.). One or more of the species above mentioned are reported from the following provinces: Luzon (Ilocos Sur, Pampanga, Bulacan, Bataan, Tayabas, Camarines); Guimaras Islands.

Flacourtia inermis is known as calamansanay in Zambales Province, but it seems that the wood of this species is not found in the Manila market and that the market calamansanay comes from another species in a different family. (See p. 100.)

BINUANG FAMILY.

(Datisceæ.)

This family is credited with one very large timber tree, binuang or biluang (*Octomeles sumatrana*). This reaches its best development along streams, and where the main body of the virgin forest has been removed it often occurs in groups. The bark is 12 to 18 millimeters in thickness, and grayish brown to reddish brown in color. The wood is light in weight and soft. It is used as buoys for rafts and sometimes for making matches.

BANABA FAMILY.

(Lythraceæ.)

The species of this family have opposite or nearly opposite leaves. The inner bark when cut and thus exposed to the air turns rapidly to a purplish color. This enables one to distinguish the timber trees of the family from those of others.

BATITINAN. (Pl. LXXXIV.)

This is a large tree that reaches a height of 30 to 40 meters, with a diameter of 80 to 90 centimeters. The bole is crooked to fairly straight and usually angular in cross-section. It is very strongly buttressed. The crown is about two-fifths the height of the tree, irregular, wide spreading, often flattened in one plane, and open. It is intolerant of shade and occurs very scattered on dry hills, in the yacal-lauan and molave types, and on coastal plains in certain portions of the lauan-hagachac type.

The bark is 4 to 5 millimeters in thickness, ashy gray in color, splitting into long obscure ridges about 5 millimeters in width. The newly formed bark is brown, covered with curling papery flakes, either square, rhomboidal, or rectangular. The inner bark has concentric rings of yellow alternating with gray; next the sapwood it quickly turns to a very dark purple on exposure to the air. The leaves are opposite or

nearly so, smooth, from 6 to 12 centimeters long and from 2 to 5 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is grayish, the heartwood greenish gray to dark brown. It is hard, heavy, very durable, and has a fine straight grain; seasonal rings are distinct. It has the following uses: House construction (posts, flooring, joists, rafters, interior finish); shipbuilding (keelson, masts, sides, decks); ties; piles; telegraph poles; furniture; tool handles.

Batitinan is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Rizal, Batangas, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon, Albay); Samar; Leyte; Occidental Negros; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Davao); Basilan.

The scientific name is *Lagerstroemia piriformis*. Besides the name batitinan, the following local names are recorded: Bagunaum (Dav.); bugaron (Sam.); dinglas (Tay.); linan (Sor.); mantalinga (Zam.); tinaan (Cam.). The names binggas and lasila from northern Luzon, often credited to batitinan, apply to the wood of *Terminalia comintana*, which sometimes passes for batitinan. (See p. 86.) Batitinan is also known as Philippine teak.

BANABA. (Pl. LXXXV.)

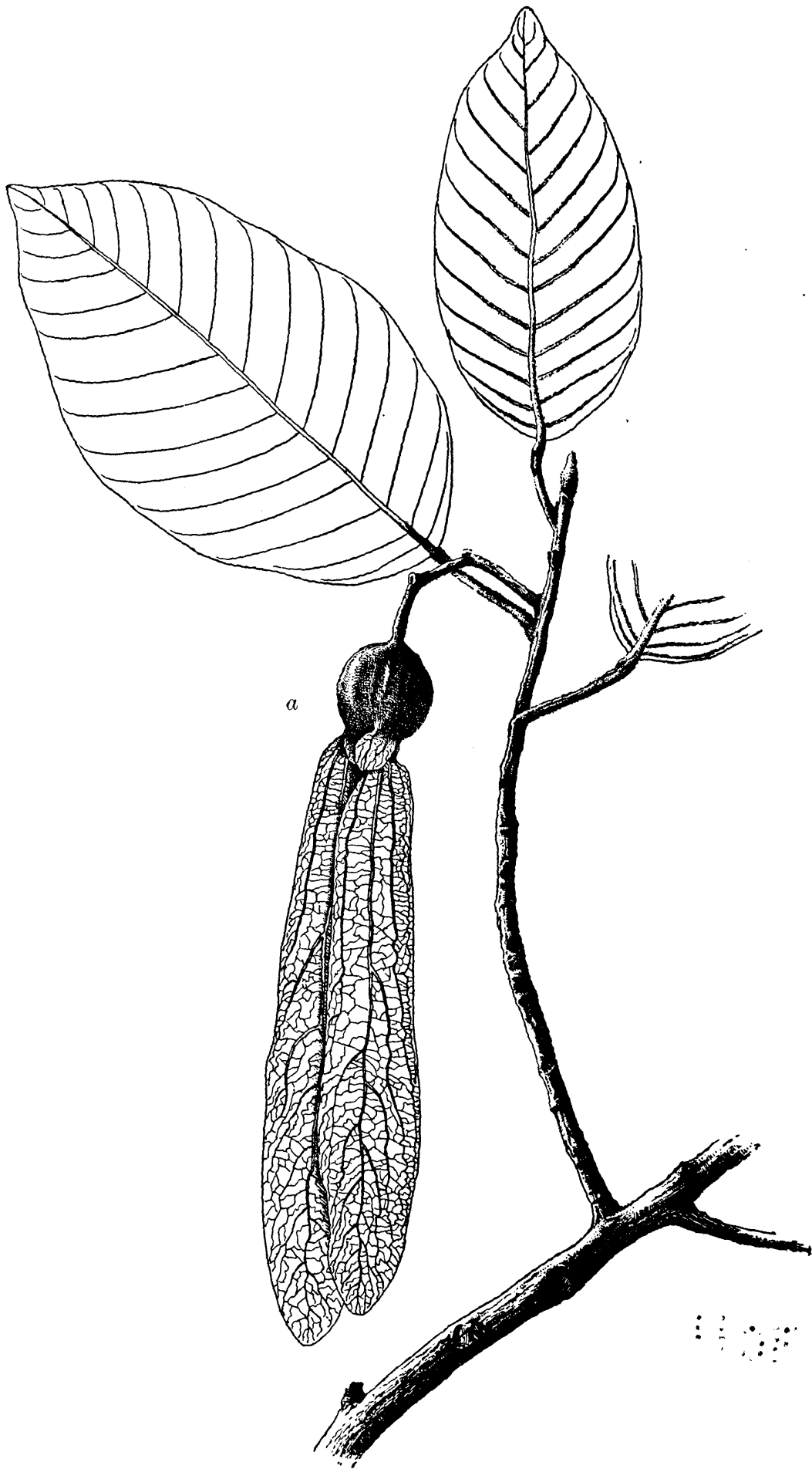
This a medium-sized tree reaching a height of 25 to 28 meters and a diameter up to 80 centimeters. It has a short, usually irregular bole, with a wide-spreading, semiopen crown which is deciduous, or nearly so, during the dry season. It is intolerant of shade and is scattered along streams in open places in the forest, and often occurs in the second-growth forests.

The bark is 2 to 4 millimeters thick, gray to brown in color, with a yellowish tint, has fine vertical lines and is sometimes scaly. The bark next to the sapwood quickly turns to a purple color on exposure to the air. The leaves vary in size from 7.5 to 24 centimeters long and from 3.5 to 11 centimeters wide. They are smooth and opposite or nearly so.

The sapwood is light pink in color; the heartwood reddish brown. The wood is hard, moderately heavy, straight grained, and durable. It has the following uses: House building (posts, rafters, joists, flooring, sills, partitions, interior finish); boat construction; wharves; piling; furniture; carabao yokes; barrels; railroad ties; tool handles.

It has been reported from the following regions: Batanes Islands; Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Abra, Benguet, Pangasinan, Nueva Ecija, Baler, Zambales, Pampanga, Bulacan, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Batangas, Tayabas, Camarines); Mindoro; Samar; Leyte; Guimaras; Occidental Negros; Mindanao (Misamis); Palawan.

The scientific name is *Lagerstroemia speciosa*. Besides banaba, the following local names are recorded: Danioura (N. Luz.); kanilan (Guim.); makabalo (Pang.); mitla (Pam.); pamarauagon (Sam.); parasabuking (Mis.); tabangao (Il.); tanaganan (Cag.).



J. Vitan del.

PLATE LXX.—PANAQ (*Dipterocarpus vernicifluus*).

a, Fruit.

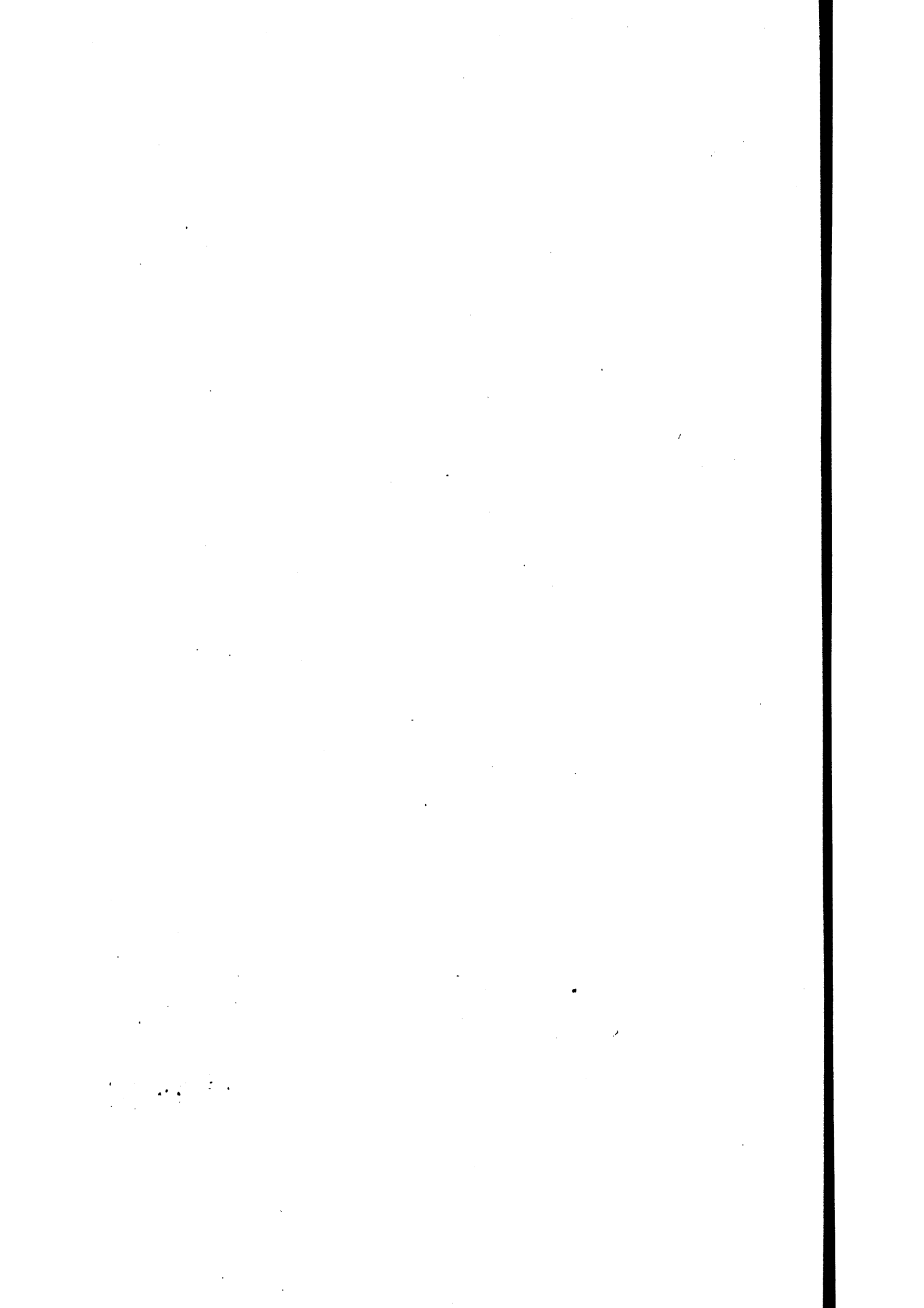
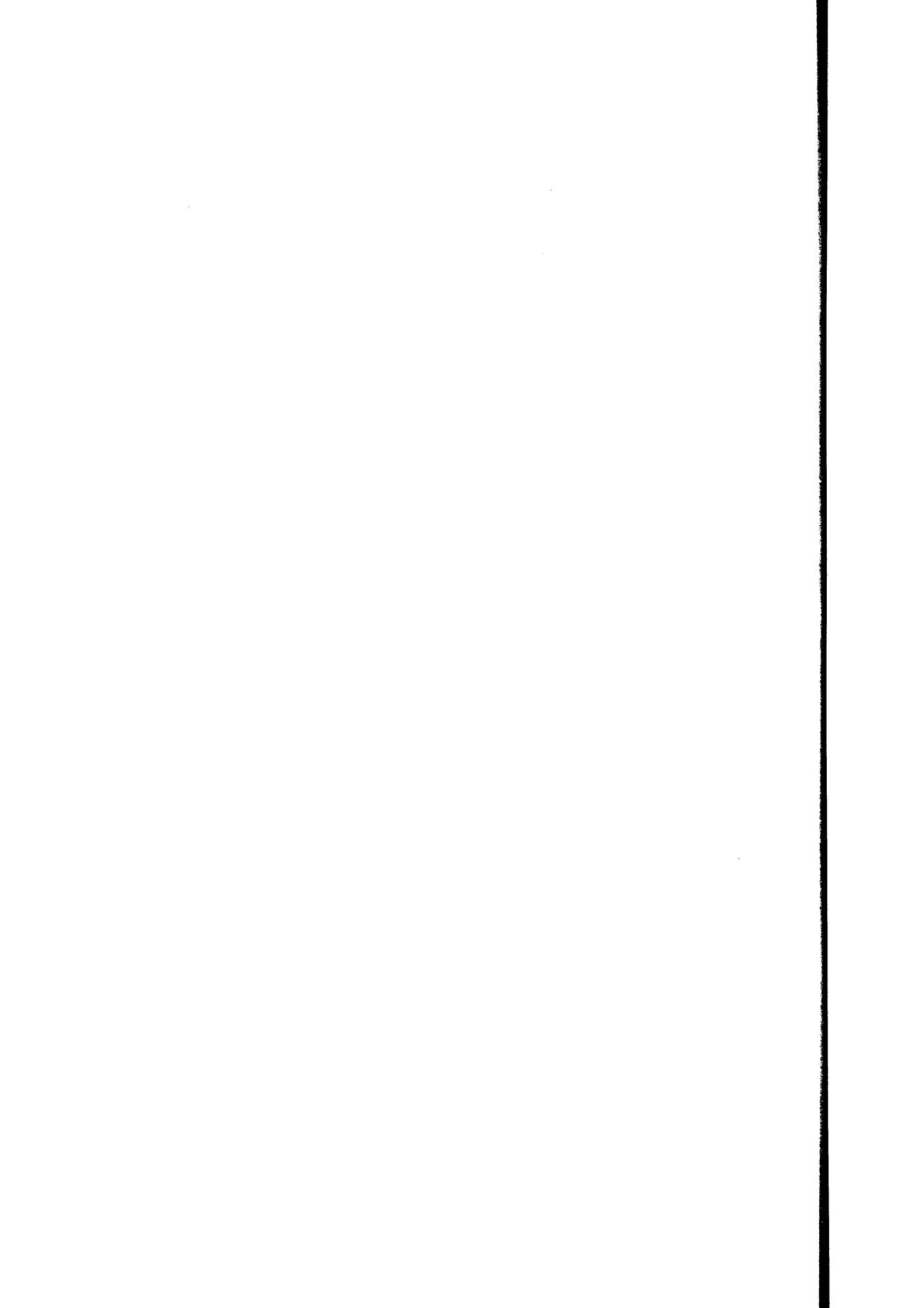




PLATE LXXI.—BARK AND LEAVES OF PANAQ (*Dipterocarpus vernicifluus*).

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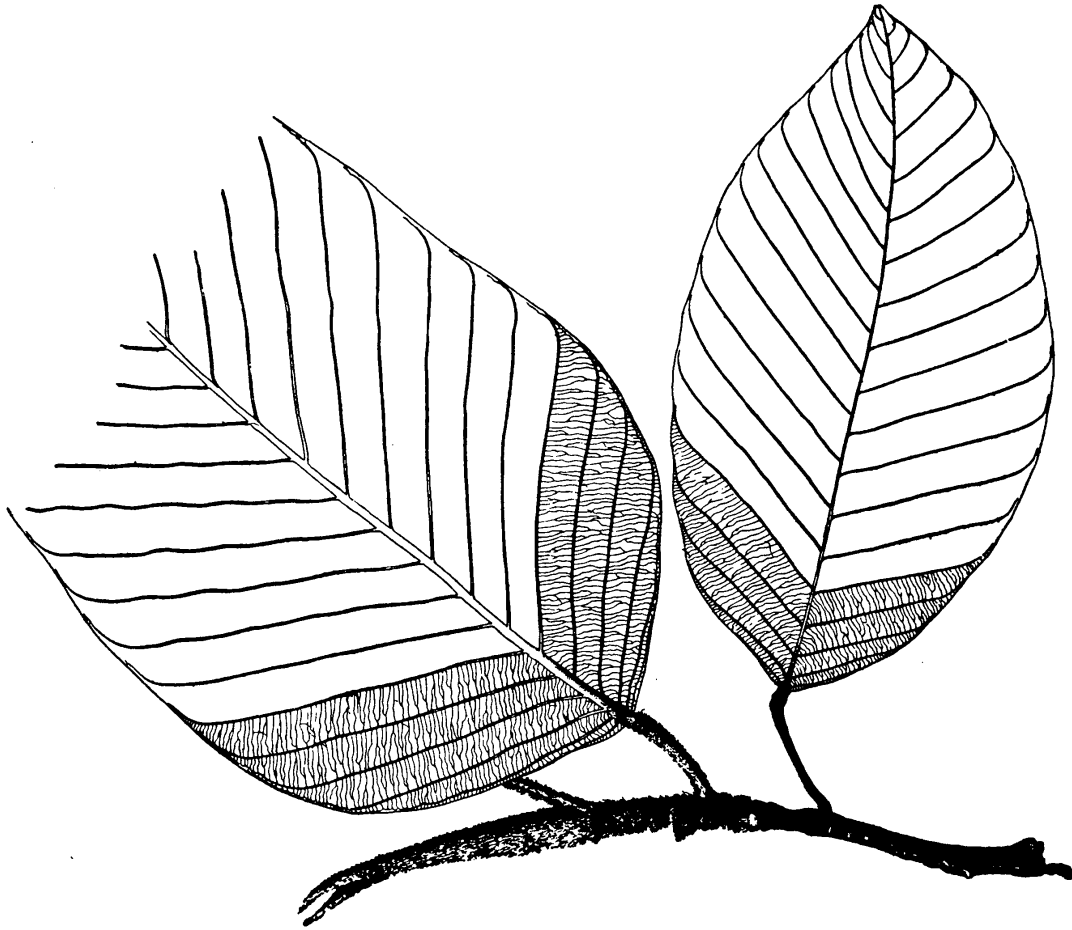
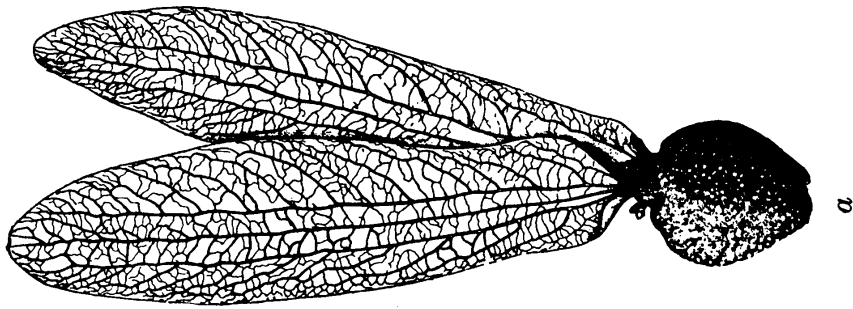


PLATE LXXII.—HAGACHAC (*Dipterocarpus affinis*).

a, Fruit.



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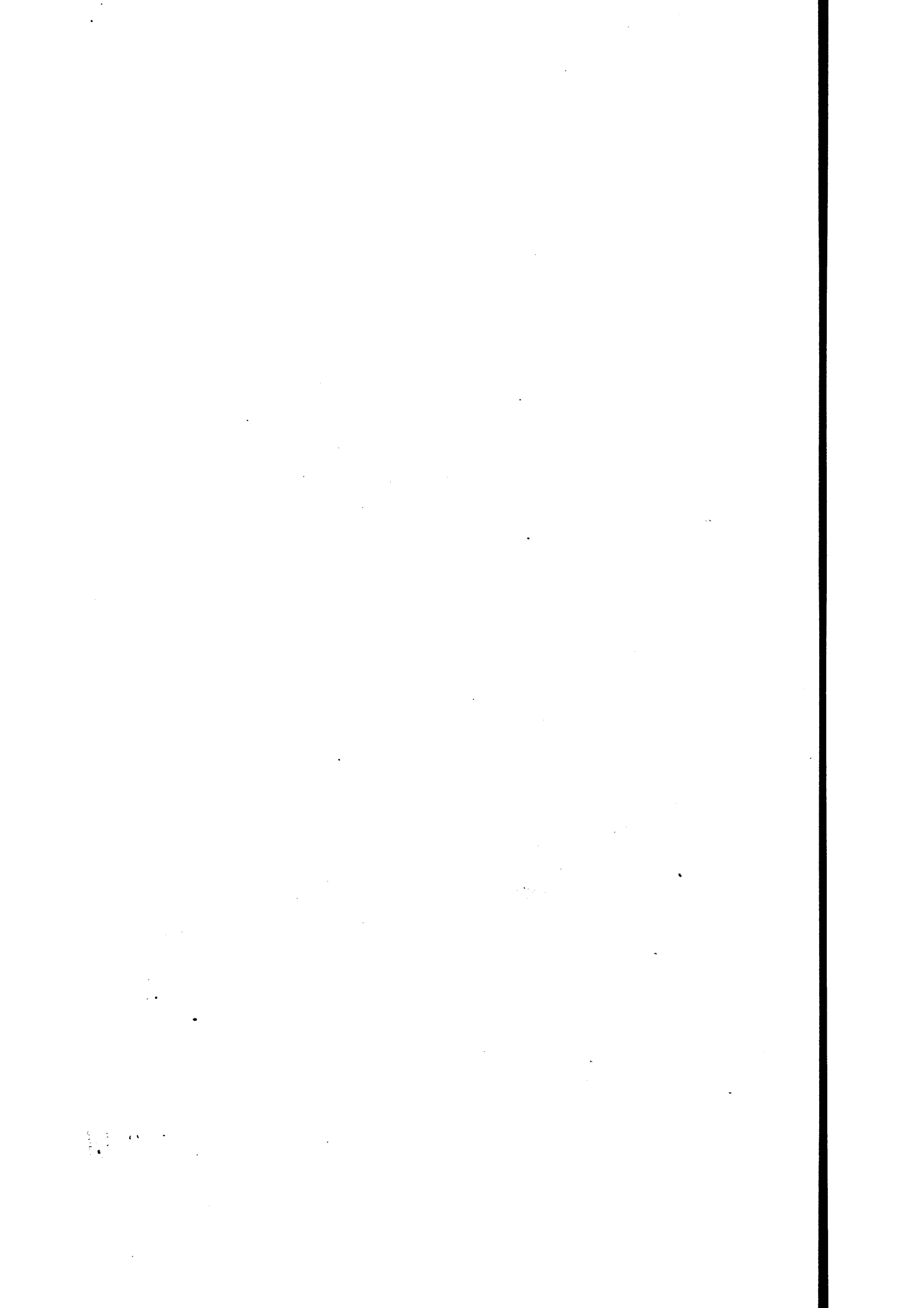




PLATE LXXIII.—BARK OF HAGACHAC (*Dipterocarpus affinis*).

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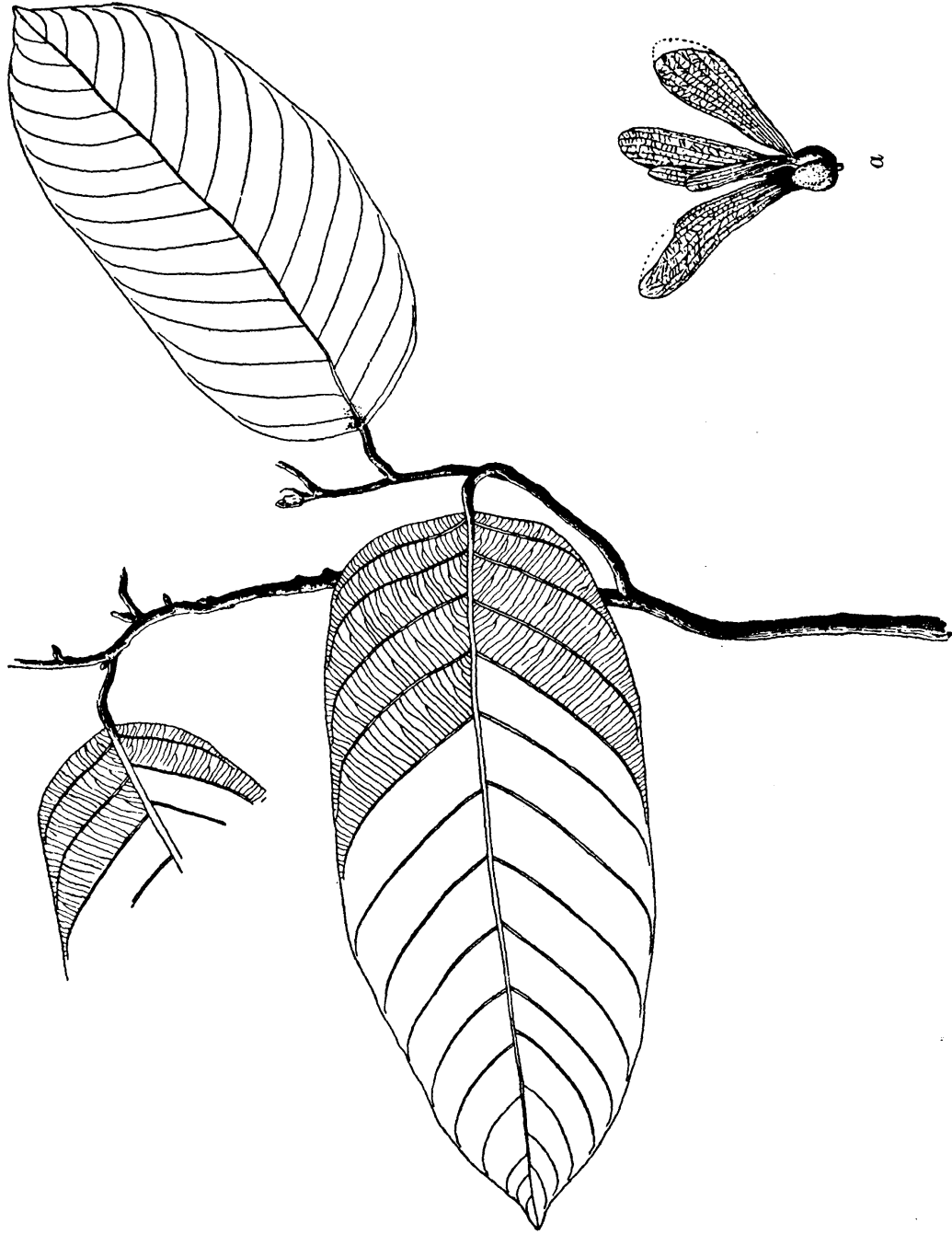


PLATE LXXIV.—GUIJO (*Shorea guiso*).

a, Fruit.

J.Vitan del.

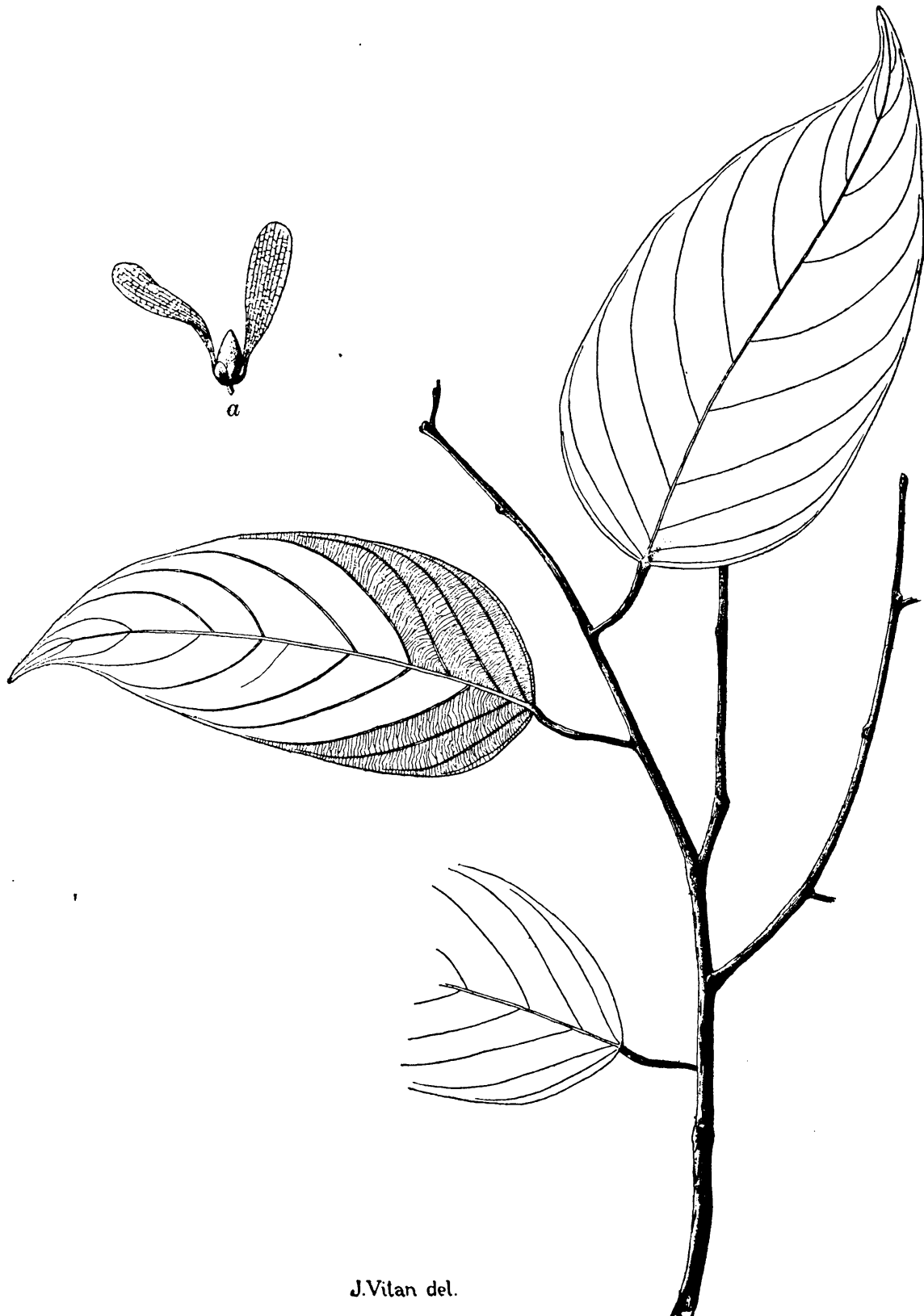


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PLATE LXXV.—BARK AND LEAVES OF GUIJO (*Shorea guiso*).

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PLATE LXXVI.—YACAL (*Hopea plagata*).

a, Fruit.



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PLATE LXXVII.—BARK OF YACAL (*Hopea plagata*).

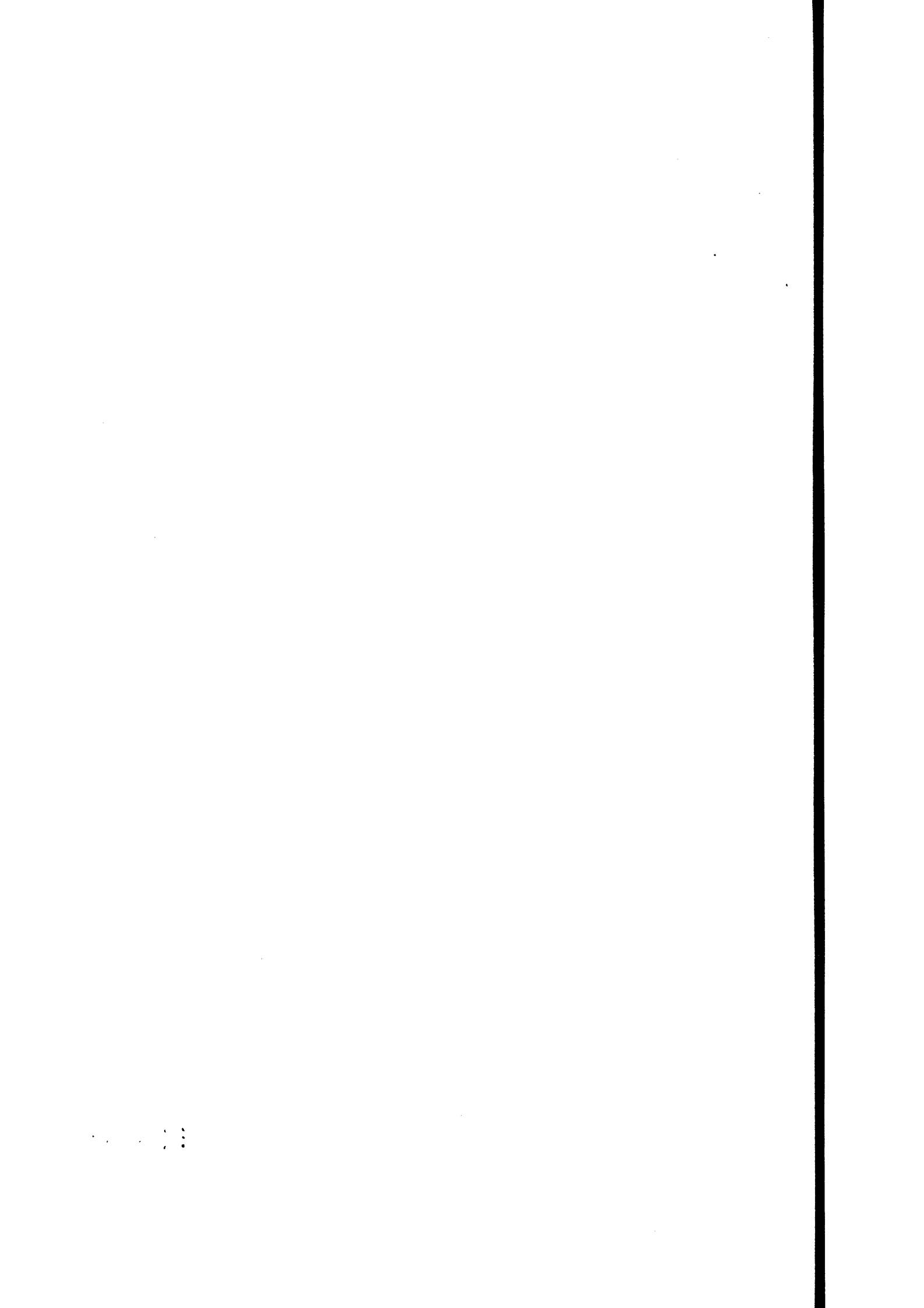
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PLATE LXXVIII.—GUISOC (*Shorea balangeran*).

a, Flower cluster.





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PLATE LXXIX.—GUISOC-GUISOC (*Hopea philippinensis*).

a, Fruit.

1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3
4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4
5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5

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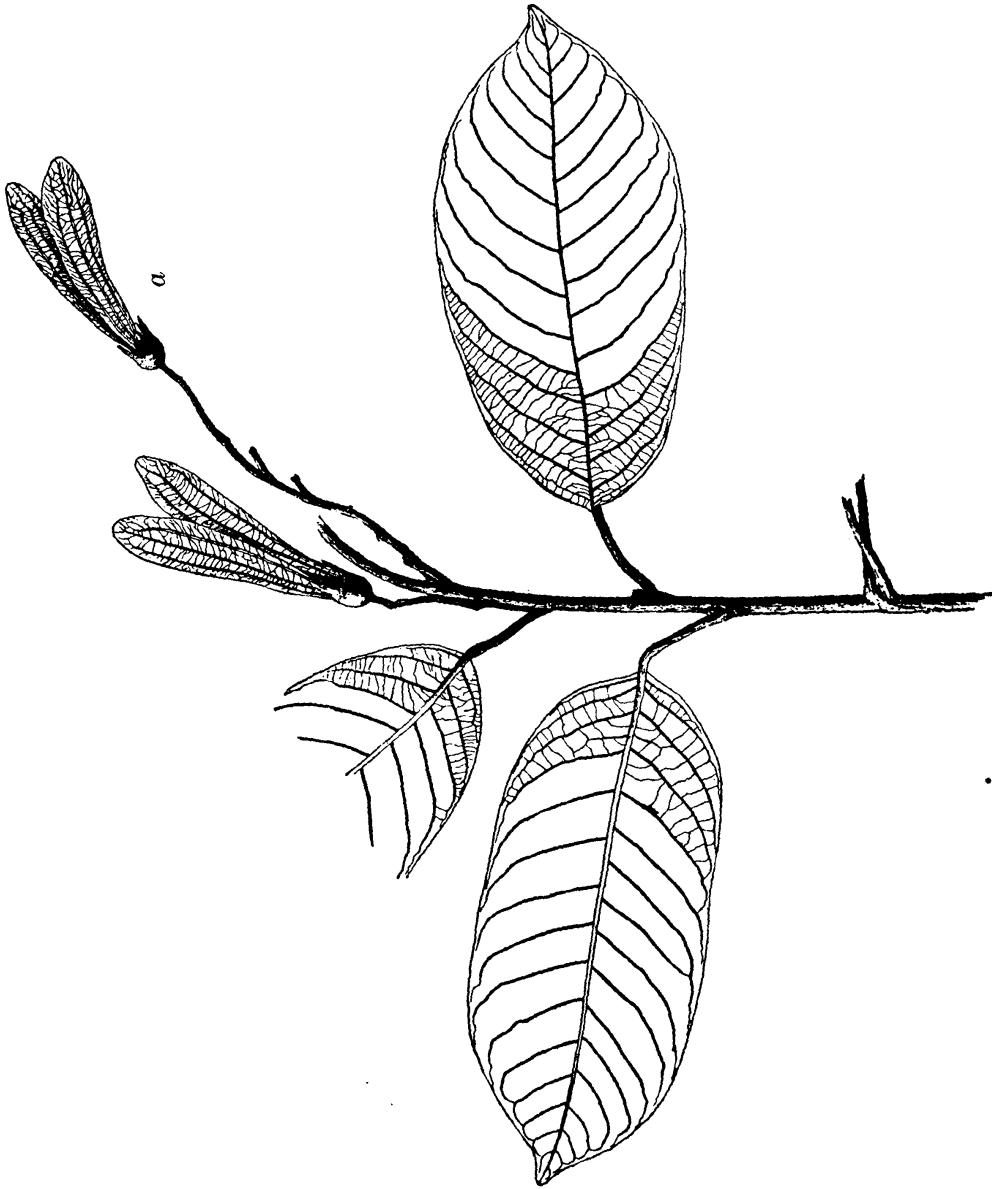


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PLATE LXXXI.—KARIG (*Vatica mangachapoi*).

a, Fruit.

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PLATE LXXXII.—PALOSAPIS (*Anisoptera thurifera*).

a, Fruit.

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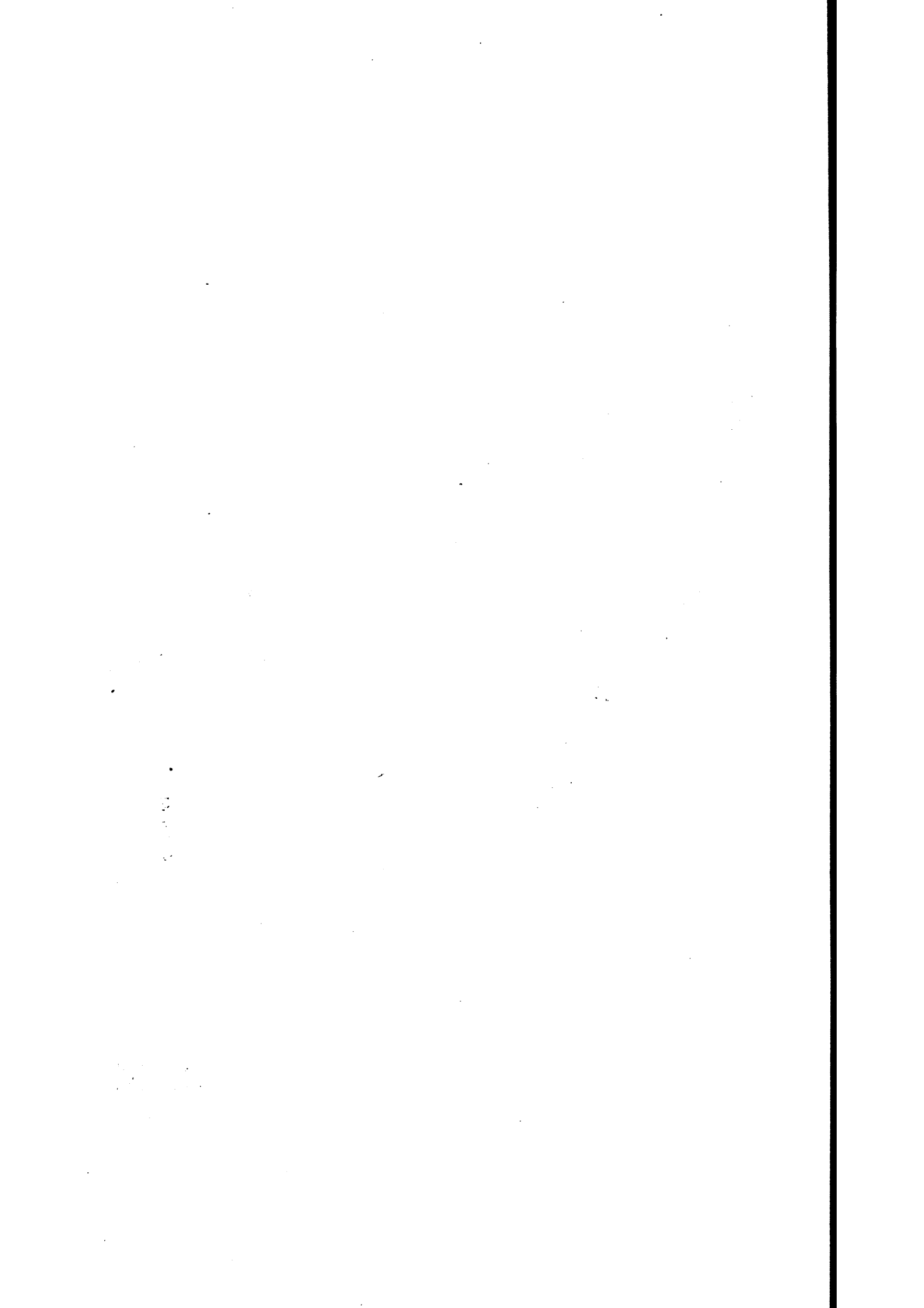
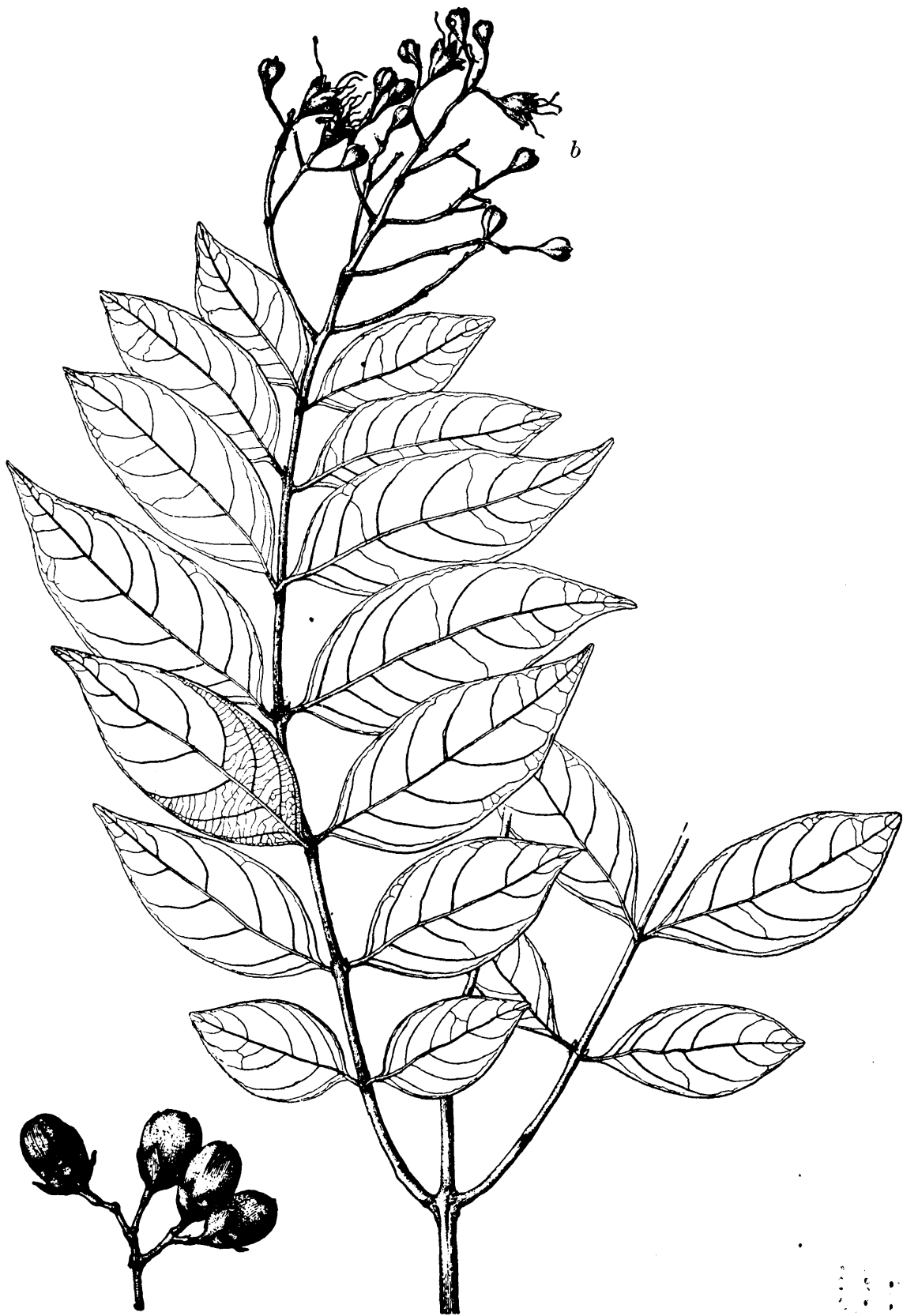




PLATE LXXXIII.—BARK AND LEAVES OF PALOSAPIS (*Anisoptera thurifera*).



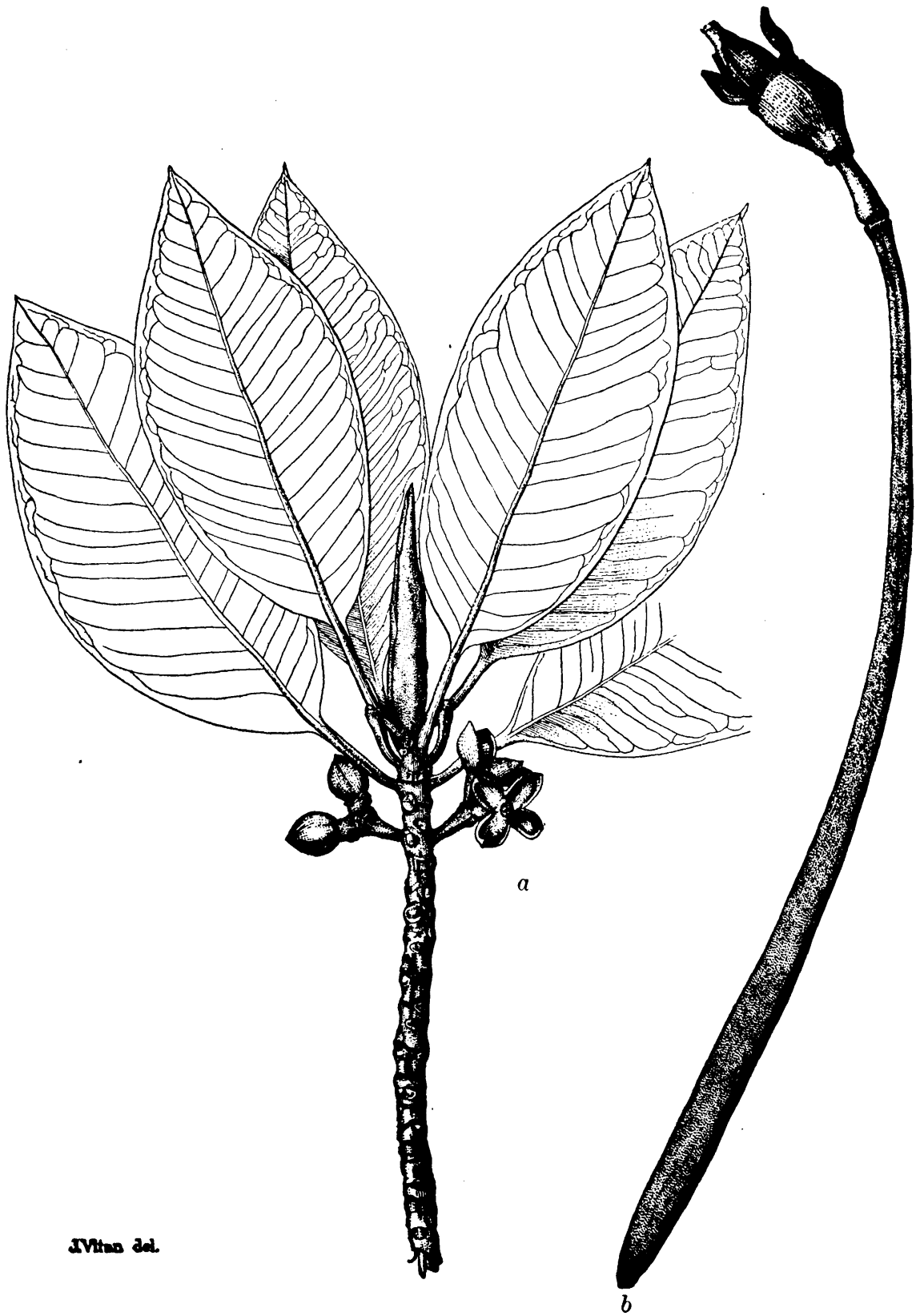
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PLATE LXXXIV.—BATITINAN (*Lagerstroemia piriformis*).

a, Fruit cluster; b, flower cluster.



PLATE LXXXV.—BARK, LEAVES, AND FLOWERS OF BANABA (*Lagerstroemia speciosa*).



J. Vitis del.

PLATE LXXXVI.—BACAUAN (*Rhizophora conjugata*).

a, Flower cluster; *b*, seedling, with fruit attached.

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PAGATPAT FAMILY.

(Sonneratiaceæ.)

PAGATPAT.

Pagatpat is a medium-sized to tall tree, usually with a straight regular bole. It is found throughout the Islands in the mangrove swamps. It is the largest of the species growing in the mangrove swamps. It coppices well, yielding good-sized logs in this way. The bark is 8 to 12 centimeters in thickness, brown to gray in color, inclined to be ridged and scaly; the inner bark is reddish brown with lighter colored fibers. The leaves are opposite, varying in size from 6 to 12 centimeters long and from 4 to 8 centimeters wide, sometimes nearly circular, thick, and leathery in texture.

The sapwood is light brown; the heartwood dark brown, heavy, durable and fine grained. It contains a large amount of salt and will rust nails, discoloring the wood in contact with them. It has the following uses: House building (flooring, siding, interior finish); bridge building; telegraph poles; planking for boats; furniture; ties, musical instruments. The air roots, known as daluru, are used for razor hones.

Pagatpat is found in all tidal swamps in the Philippines, where it usually occupies the outer zone; it reaches its best development in size and numbers in the southern islands. The scientific name of pagatpat is *Sonneratia pagatpat*. It is sometimes sold under the copyrighted name of montol.

Another species (*Sonneratia* sp.), has the common name in the Mindanao region of pedada. This tree has narrower leaves than pagatpat and occurs usually in the interior of the swamps.

PUTAT FAMILY.

(Lecythidaceæ.)

This family, with alternate simple leaves, has a number of species of trees, but none of very great importance from a commercial standpoint.

Botong (*Barringtonia speciosa*) is a medium-sized tree with large leaves, flowers, and fruits (the latter adapted for floating) that occupies a conspicuous place on the sandy beaches throughout the Philippines. *Barringtonia racemosa* and other closely allied species have the common name of putat. They are usually found back of the mangrove swamps or along streams where the ground-water level is very near the surface. The woods are light colored, very soft, and porous and are used only locally. Lamog or apalang (*Planchonia spectabilis*) is a medium-sized to tall tree found very scattered in some portions of the dipterocarp forests. Its wood is dark reddish brown, fine grained, hard, and moderately heavy to heavy.

THE MANGROVE OR BACAUAN FAMILY.

(Rhizophoraceæ.)

This in many respects is the most remarkable tree family in the world. With a few exceptions it is confined to the tidal-swamp regions, where its members form the principal elements of the mangrove swamps. The

trees all have simple, opposite, and leathery leaves; the seeds (those of the tidal-swamp species) germinate on the trees, developing seedlings without leaves, which drop, and are carried by the tides until they reach a lodging place, where they rapidly develop into trees. The woods of the trees are hard and heavy with prominent pith rays. The mangrove trees are the principal source of firewood and tan barks of the Philippines.

The principal trees of the swamps may be divided into three groups: The bacauans, the pototans, and tangal.

THE BACAUANS. (Pl. LXXXVI.)

These trees can be distinguished from the others by the prominent stilt roots. There are two species, bacauan (*Rhizophora conjugata*), and bacauan lalaki (*R. mucronata*).

Bacauan is a tree reaching a height of 20 to 22 meters and a diameter of 40 to 45 centimeters, though usually much smaller. The bark is 20 to 30 millimeters thick, nearly black, rough and usually scaly. The leaves vary in size from 11 to 14 centimeters long and from 3 to 7 centimeters wide. The flower stalk is 5 millimeters long or nearly sessile, and usually two-flowered.

Bacauan lalaki is a tree slightly larger than bacauan. It differs from it in having a flower stalk 2.5 centimeters long, usually three flowers, and larger leaves, varying in size from 11 to 18 centimeters long and from 5 to 12 centimeters wide.

THE POTOTANS. (Pl. LXXXVII.)

These reach a height of 20 to 25 meters and differ from the bacauans in having smaller leaves and no stilt roots. Their bark is dark colored, nearly black; the inner bark thick and yellowish brown in color.

The following are the species: Busain (*Bruguiera gymnorrhiza*); langarai (*Bruguiera parviflora*); pototan (*Bruguiera eriopetala*); pototan lalaki (*Bruguiera caryophylloides*).

TANGAL.

Tangal (*Ceriops tagal*) is a much smaller tree than the others and has a brown to nearly black smooth bark, except the large, scattering, nearly round pustules. The inner bark is reddish in color and thick. The leaves are from 4.5 to 9 centimeters long and from 2 to 4.5 centimeters wide.

Bacauan-gubat (*Carallia integerrima*) is found very scattered in the forests outside the swamps.

The following is a key to the principal trees of the mangrove swamps, including species of the other families.

KEY TO THE PRINCIPAL TREES OF THE MANGROVE SWAMPS.

I. Trees with prop roots.

- A. Leaves 11 to 14 centimeters long by 3 to 7 centimeters wide; flower stalk 5 millimeters or less in length, usually two-flowered..... 1. **Bacauan.**
 B. Leaves somewhat larger, 11 to 18 centimeters long, 5 to 12 centimeters wide; flower stalk 2.5 centimeters long, usually three-flowered.
 2. **Bacauan lalaki.**

II. Trees without prop roots.

A. Leaves simple, opposite, not white beneath.

1. Apex of leaf acute.

Flowers 2.5 centimeters long or more.

Leaves 7 to 14 centimeters long, 2.5 to 5.5 centimeters wide, flowers usually red 3. **Pototan.**

Leaves 7 to 15 centimeters long, 3 to 6 centimeters wide, flowers usually yellow 4. **Busain.**

Flowers less than 1.25 centimeters long.

Leaves 5 to 9 centimeters long, 1.5 to 2.5 centimeters wide; flowers usually yellowish green to white 5. **Langarai.**

Leaves 7 to 11 centimeters long, 3 to 5.5 centimeters wide; flowers usually yellow 6. **Pototan lalaki.**

2. Apex of leaf obtuse or rounded.

Leaves 7.5 to 10.5 centimeters long, 3 to 5.5 centimeters wide; small tree with red bark, with prominent corky pustules.
 7. **Tangal.**

Leaves 6 to 12 centimeters long; 4 to 8 centimeters wide; medium sized to large tree with flaky bark and many short air roots springing from underground roots.
 8. **Pagatpat.** (See p. 81.)

B. Leaves simple, opposite, white beneath..... 9. **Api-api.** (See p. 98.)

C. Leaves simple, alternate.

Leaves white beneath 10. **Dungon-late.** (See p. 36.)

Leaves not white beneath 11. **Tabao.** (See p. 87.)

D. Leaves compound, alternate.

Leaflets ovate 12. **Tabigi.** (See p. 47.)

Leaflets obovate 13. **Piagao.** (See p. 47.)

TALISAY FAMILY.

(Combretaceæ.)

This is a family of alternate simple leaves. The genus *Terminalia* has eight species that produce wood known in the markets. Five of these are so nearly alike that they are undoubtedly mixed and sold under the name that happens to be known by the dealers. The leaves of the *Terminalias* are usually obovate and more or less closely bunched at the ends of the twigs.

CALUMPIT. (Pl. LXXXVIII.)

This is a medium-sized to tall tree that reaches a height of 25 to 30 meters. The bole is usually regular, straight, and about one-half the height of the tree. It is very slightly if at all buttressed. The crown is

widespreading and semiopen. The tree is tolerant of shade and is very scattered.

The bark is 10 to 12 millimeters in thickness, dirty brownish black in color, irregularly but obscurely ridged, and in old trees scaly. The inner bark is yellowish with a thin watery sap. The leaves are simple, alternate, smooth, loosely bunched at ends of twigs, varying in size from 5 to 15 centimeters long and from 2.5 to 6 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is pale yellowish brown to yellow; the heartwood is pale reddish brown. The wood is moderately heavy to moderately hard, with a fairly straight to twisted grain, and takes a glossy finish. It colors water a pale dirty straw color. It has the following uses: House construction (pillars, rafters, siding, interior finish); cabinetwork; ship knees.

It is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Sur, Lepanto-Bontoc, Nueva Vizcaya, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Tayabas, Camarines); Polillo Island; Masbate; Mindoro; Guimaras Island; Palawan; Zamboanga.

It has the scientific name of *Terminalia edulis*. Besides calumpit or some form of it, the following local names are recorded: Barasus (Pal.); gayumayen (Z.); gisit (N. Y.); kalautit (N. V.); kalumanog (Mas.); magtalisay (Mas.); tayataya (Guim.).

DALINSI.

This is a tree reaching a height of 25 to 30 meters and a diameter of 80 to 100 centimeters. The bark is gray to brown, with an inclination to be ridged. It resembles closely talisay-gubat, with which it is often confused. It, however, has smaller fruit and leaves; the latter vary in size from 5 to 9 centimeters long and from 3 to 6 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is yellowish gray to yellow; the heartwood reddish brown. The wood is moderately hard, moderately heavy, coarse and straight grained. It colors water a pale yellow. It has the same uses as calumpit.

It is recorded from the following regions: Luzon (Pangasinan, Tarlac, Zambales, Tayabas); Palawan.

The scientific name of dalinsi is *Terminalia pellucida*. The following local names are recorded: Aritongtong (Il.); hakit (Z.); kalautit (Tar.); Manaong (Pang.); subosubo (Z.); and many of the names applied to talisay-gubat.

TALISAY-GUBAT. (Pl. LXXXIX.)

This is a medium-sized tree reaching a height of 25 to 30 meters, and a diameter of 80 to 90 centimeters. The bole is unbuttressed, fairly straight and regular. The crown is irregular in shape, somewhat compact and semiopen. It occurs very scattered in the dipterocarp forests, usually in river bottoms or on lower slopes. The bark is 8 to

10 millimeters in thickness, brown, inclined to be obscurely ridged, and in old trees sheds in long flakes; the inner bark is brown with wedge-shaped pink patches near the outer surface. The leaves are simple, alternate, obovate, smooth, varying in size from 10 to 20 centimeters long and 6 to 10 centimeters wide.

The wood is a dull reddish brown, moderately hard, moderately heavy, and fairly straight grained. It has the same uses as calumpit.

It has the following distribution: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Rizal, Laguna, Tayabas, Infanta, Camarines); Mindoro; and probably many other provinces.

The scientific name is *Terminalia oöcarpa*. Besides talisay-gubat, the following local names are known: Balinsil (In.); calumpit (Tay.); dalinsi (Cam., Tay., Cag.); kalautit (Il.); malagabi (M.); malaputat (Riz.); sacat (Cag.); talisay del monte (Batn.).

SACAT.

This is a tree that reaches a height of 25 to 30 meters and a diameter of 70 to 90 centimeters. It is intolerant of shade, and is scattered through the lighter portions of the dipterocarp forests.

The bark is 5 to 8 millimeters in thickness, gray to brown in color, sometimes with a yellowish tinge, and has fine longitudinal lines, sometimes with scattered corky pustules. The inner bark is brown with red tinge and yellow next to the sapwood. The leaves are simple, smooth, bunched alternately at the ends of the twigs, varying in size from 7 to 15 centimeters long and from 3 to 8 centimeters wide. The sapwood is light brown; the heartwood gray to brownish yellow, moderately heavy, moderately hard, coarse and straight grained, and colors water a pale yellow. It is used for all classes of light construction.

The following is the recorded distribution: Luzon (Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Pangasinan, Tarlac, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Batangas, Tayabas); Masbate; Mindoro; Zamboanga.

The scientific name is *Terminalia nitens*. The following local names are recorded: Calumpit (Batn.); dalinsi (Tay.); kalautit, (Il.); mag-talisay (Mas.); subosubo (Z.).

It will be seen from the common names given above that calumpit, dalinsi, talisay-gubat, and sacat are confused and often mistaken for each other. It is sometimes difficult to separate them even with botanical specimens.

TALISAY.

This tree has two forms, the beach form and the river-bottom form. The beach form is a medium-sized tree seldom over 20 meters in height and often much less. It has a knotty bole, dirty gray in color. The river-bottom form is a tall tree with a grayish brown bark, 10 milli-

meters in thickness, which splits in longitudinal ridges, the furrows filled with corky pustules. The inner bark is pink, streaked with green-colored longitudinal lines. Both forms have the branches whorled in horizontal planes, with a flat, very broad crown. The leaves are large and coarse, varying in size from 14 to 33 centimeters long and from 10 to 20 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is light brown, sometimes with yellowish tints; the heartwood is reddish brown, moderately heavy, moderately hard, with a glossy, usually somewhat crossed grain (straight in river-bottom form). It colors water a pale yellow.

The tree is found distributed along sandy beaches everywhere; in deforested flood plains it often forms groups characterized by the whorled branches.

The scientific name is *Terminalia catappa*. The coast form has the common name of talisay; the river-bottom form, talisay, and lumanog or lanipao.

BINGGAS. (Pls. XC and XCI.)

This is a tall tree reaching a height of 35 to 40 meters and a diameter of 80 to 100 centimeters or more. It is found very scattered through the drier portions of the dipterocarp types.

The bark is 3 to 5 millimeters in thickness, light gray, and smooth; beneath the outer bark there is a papery layer, ashy gray in color; the inner bark is brown. The leaves are simple, alternate, smooth (young leaves downy), varying in size from 6 to 15.5 centimeters and in width from 3 to 6.5 centimeters.

The sapwood is yellow to very pale brown; the heartwood brown to dark gray with purplish streaks. The wood is hard, heavy, fine, and straight grained, and probably durable. It often passes for molave and batitinan and has the same uses as these.

It has been recorded from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Sur, Pangasinan, Nueva Ecija, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Camarines); Ticao Island; Mindoro; Leyte, Zamboanga.

The scientific name is *Terminalia comintana*. Besides the name of binggas, the following are recorded: Batitinan babaye (Ticao); dinglas or some form of it (T., V.); hinabusi (M.); lasila (Il.); maglalopoi (Pang.); malatagum (Zam.); naghubo (Riz.); palang (Riz.); saplungan (Riz.); tiroron (Cam.).

TOOG. (Pl. XCII.)

This is a tall tree reaching a height of 35 to 40 meters and a diameter of 80 to 100 centimeters. It has a straight regular bole usually without buttresses. The crown is semiopen, the tree is semitolerant of shade. It occupies a conspicuous place in the dipterocarp forests of some regions.

The bark is 10 to 12 millimeters thick, dark red, nearly black when wet, with irregular lines of corky pustules. It is scalloped with irregular shallow depressions as large as saucers which mark the places of newly shed bark. The inner bark is tan red in color and very stringy. The leaves are simple, closely alternate at the ends of the twigs, smooth, varying in size from 15 to 25 centimeters long and from 4 to 10 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is grayish to very pale red in color; the heartwood bright reddish brown, moderately heavy, moderately hard, rough in texture, fairly straight grained, but warping badly when green.

The tree seems to be confined to a definite region, being reported only from Sorsogon, Masbate, Samar, and Leyte. The scientific name of it is *Terminalia quadrialata*. Only the local name of toog is recorded for it. It should not be confused with *Bischofia javanica* (tuai) which also has the name of toog and whose wood is very similar to it.

Malacalumpit or calamansanay (*Terminalia calamansanai*) was supposed to furnish some of the wood on the market known as calamansanay, but it is practically certain that the wood of this species is not the calamansanay of commerce. Tabao (*Lumnitzera littorea*) is a small to medium sized tree found in the mangrove swamps. The wood is yellowish or brownish gray, sometimes with a reddish tinge, hard, heavy, fine grained, strong and durable. It has the following uses: House construction; posts; piling; axles. In Borneo it is considered second only to billian for piling. This species has red flowers with inflorescence axillary. Another species, *L. racemosa* Willd., has white flowers with inflorescence terminal.

EUCALYPT OR MACAASIM FAMILY.

(Myrtaceæ.)

This is a family that produces a large number of small, medium-sized, and tall trees. The leaves are usually opposite and often contain more or less distinct oil glands (pellucid dots). Tree descriptions have not been collected and only a brief mention will be made of the species important to the lumber trade.

THE MACAASIMS.

From local names the following species are credited with producing the wood known as macaasim: *Eugenia benthamii*; *E. mimica*; *E. philippensis*; *E. bordenii*; *E. vidaliana*; and *Decaspermum paniculatum*. Of these, malaruhut (*E. bordenii*) seems to be the most abundant.

The wood of the macaasims is generally grayish brown, occasionally with yellowish, greenish or reddish tinge, and rather fine grained, hard, heavy and durable. The wood has the following uses: House construction (beams, posts, flooring, window sills); cabinetwork and furniture; boat building (rudders, decks, sides); telegraph poles; tool handles; wash-bowls; ties; piling.

The species of *Eugenia* are a constant element in all types of the dipterocarp forests, where they occur very scattered, occasionally as codominant trees, more usually as subdominant or undergrowth trees.

MANCONO. (Pl. XCIII.)

This is a medium-sized tree with an irregular bole reaching a diameter of 80 to 100 centimeters. The leaves vary in size from 5 to 8.5 centimeters long and from 3 to 6 centimeters wide, smooth and slightly whitish beneath. The sapwood is light reddish; the heartwood is yellowish brown turning to chocolate brown on exposure. The grain is fine and twisted. It is very hard and very heavy and exceedingly durable. It is undoubtedly the hardest and heaviest wood in the Philippines and is probably a good substitute for lignum-vitæ.¹ It has the following uses: Posts; piling; wooden tools; tool handles; pulleys; bearings.

Mancono reaches its most successful development in the northeastern part of Mindanao and the adjacent islands. It is recorded from the following regions: Ticao Island, Romblon; Leyte; Culion Islands; Palawan: Dinagat Island; Tinago Island. The scientific name is *Xanthostemon verdugonianus*. Besides the local name of mancono or magkono, it is called palo de hierro (Sp.), and tugas (V.).

Besides the above, the following deserve mention: Sudyang is a very hard, very heavy, and durable wood found in Surigao and islands adjacent which has provisionally been placed in this family. Malabayabas or tiga (*Tristania decorticata*) is a tree growing on dry coastal hills, and in the tanguile-oak type, where it sometimes occurs gregarious over small areas on very dry ridges or tops of low mountains. Its bark sheds frequently leaving a smooth gray surface like that of bayabas, whence the name malabayabas. It has a hard and heavy, dark reddish brown wood resembling mancono. Bayabas or guava (*Psidium guajava*) is introduced and escaped from cultivation. It produces an edible fruit and a good firewood. In many places it gives a decided tone to the second-growth forests. One species of eucalyptus (*E. naudiniana*) is reported from Zamboanga. It may have been introduced there. Malasulasi (*Leptospermum flavescens*) occurs gregarious on many mountain tops. Two species of *Decaspermum*, *D. blancoi* and *D. paniculatum*, are found, usually near the tops of the mountains, where the latter is nearly gregarious. Tawalis or sagasa (*Osbornia octodonta*) is a small tree with a hard durable wood, occurring on the edge of the mangrove swamps and on sandy beaches. The following species of *Eugenia* produce edible fruits: kalubkob (*E. calubcob*); duhat or lumboi (*E. jambolana*); makopa (*E. javanica*); tampoi (*E. jambos*) and others.

KULIS FAMILY.

(Melastomataceæ.)

This family contains a number of undergrowth trees and some small ones. Kulis (*Memecylon edule*) is a small or undergrowth tree occurring in certain regions of the dipterocarp types. It yields a hard durable wood that has been suggested as a substitute for boxwood.

¹ Hutchinson, W. I. A substitute for Lignum-vitæ. Bull. 9, Bureau of Forestry, 1908.

GINSENG OR MALAPAPAYA FAMILY.

(Araliaceæ.)

MALAPAPAYA.

This is a tree that reaches a height of 25 to 30 meters and a diameter of 50 to 60 centimeters. It has a straight bole 15 to 18 meters in height. Young trees are usually crowned with one group of large compound leaves, older ones have several branches, each similarly crowned. The bark is 12 to 15 millimeters in thickness, light gray to brown in color, with vertical lines; the inner bark is white with yellow rays and very brittle. The leaves are closely alternate, compound, 1 meter or more in length, with many leaflets, each with margins serrate and varying in size from 12 to 25 centimeters long and from 5 to 10 centimeters wide. The wood is yellowish white in color, light and very soft, straight grained, and easy to work. It is considered one of the best match woods, and is also used for very light construction purposes, match boxes, packing cases, and rafts.

It is recorded from the following provinces: Luzon (Pampanga, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Tayabas); Surigao; Basilan Island. It doubtless occurs in almost every province. It is usually a tree of the second-growth type, but occurs scattered in dipterocarp forests, especially the apitong-lauan type.

The scientific name is *Polyscias nodosa*. Besides malapapaya it has the following local names: Bias-bias (T., V.); bongling or some form of it (T., V.); malasapsap (Pam. and neighboring provinces); manomano (Bas.); tukud-langit (Batn.).

DOGWOOD OR MALATAPAI FAMILY.

(Cornaceæ.)

Only one tree, malatapai or guntapai (*Alangium longiflorum*) is of any importance to the lumberman. The sapwood is clear light yellow, very sharply distinguished from the dark coffee-colored heartwood. The wood is moderately hard, moderately heavy, very fine grained, and easy to work. It is used locally for construction purposes and is occasionally made into furniture and canes.

GUTTA-PERCHA OR BETIS FAMILY.

(Sapotaceæ.)

This is a family of large trees with alternate leaves and inner barks that contain a sticky milky sap which exudes sparingly when the bark is cut. The woods make a lather when rubbed with water or saliva.

BETIS. (Pls. XCIV and XCV.)

This is a large tree reaching a height of 35 to 40 meters and a diameter of 80 to 100 centimeters. It seems to be confined to the Island of Luzon, where it occurs as very scattered trees.

The bark is 5 to 8 millimeters in thickness, brown to reddish brown in color and is nearly smooth with light-colored vertical lines in young trees, but in older trees ridged; the inner bark is brownish red in color. The leaves are simple, alternate, closely bunched at ends of twigs, covered with dense brown hairs beneath and usually on the veins above, varying in size from 10 to 33 centimeters long and from 5 to 10 centimeters wide.

The wood is dark red in color, very hard, heavy, has a bitter taste, and is clear and straight grained. It is very durable and is especially valuable for piling. It also has the following uses: Shipbuilding (keels, stern posts); house building (posts, flooring, doors, rafters); railroad ties; wooden tools; tool handles; wharf building.

It is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Rizal, Tayabas, and Camarines); Samar. The scientific name of betis is *Illipe betis*. Besides betis or some forms of it, the following common names have been recorded: Bakayao (Il., Pang., T.); duyog-duyog (V.); lamigien (N. Luz.); pappagai; pasak (T., Z.); pianga (Cag.); talipopo (V.); urien (Cag.). A wood under the name of manilig from Cotabato seems to be betis, but may be a closely related species.

BANSALAGUIN.

This is a medium-sized tree reaching a height of 25 to 30 meters and a diameter of 80 to 90 centimeters, and usually has a straight, unbuttressed, regular bole less than half the height of the tree in length. The tree is intolerant of shade and is found in the dry soils of the coastal hills, where it is usually a constituent of the molave type.

The bark is 8 to 10 millimeters in thickness, black or nearly so, with prominent ridges broken by cross fissures into rectangular or rhomboidal patterns; the inner bark is red with white vertical lines beneath the furrows, brittle in texture, and next the sapwood exudes sparingly a thick milky sap. The leaves are simple, alternate, smooth, usually varying in size from 4 to 12 centimeters long, and from 2 to 4 centimeters wide, bunched at ends of twigs. The fruit is yellowish red in color.

The sapwood is light red in color; the heartwood dark red. The wood is very hard, heavy to very heavy, has a very fine grain and a bitter taste, and produces lather when rubbed with water or saliva. It is very much like betis, but takes a glossier finish and is finer, darker, heavier, and harder than betis. It is a first-class construction timber, and is especially valuable for salt-water piling. It also has the following uses: Tool handles; house construction (posts, beams, flooring); turnery; shipbuilding (keels, treenails, marlin spikes, belaying pins; spokes and handles of ships' wheels).

It has the following distribution: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Sur, Nueva Ecija, Zambales, Bataan, Batangas, Tayabas, Sorsogon); Polillo, Ticao Island; Masbate; Mindoro; Culion Island; Samar; Mindanao (Zamboanga, Cotabato,) Tawi Tawi Island; Palawan.

Bansalaguin is a species of *Mimusops*. It has the following common names: Anak-batu (Tawi Tawi); duyog-duyog (V.); gatasan (N. E., Il.); cabiqui or kabiki (T.); ligayan (Moro); pappagan (Cag.); pat-saragon (Sam.); pisek (Il.); talipopo (V.).

NATO.

Nato is a large to very large tree reaching a height of 35 to 45 meters, with a diameter of 90 to 120 centimeters. It has a fairly straight, but usually rather strongly buttressed, bole that is one-fourth to one-half the height of the tree. The crown is irregular and semiopen. The tree is partially tolerant of shade. It is found scattered throughout certain portions of the dipterocarp types.

The bark is 15 to 25 millimeters thick, gray to brown in color, split by vertical fissures, usually filled with raised lines of corky pustules, giving it the appearance of being ridged. The inner bark is granular, salmon red in color, brittle in texture, and exudes a milky juice on being cut. The leaves are simple, alternate, smooth or nearly so, varying from 9 to 17 centimeters long and from 4 to 7 centimeters wide.

The wood is a pale dull red in color, moderately hard, moderately heavy and with fine, often wavy grain. It is used for about the same purposes as the red lauans and tanguile, which it resembles in color and general properties.

Nato is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Ilocos Sur, Abra, Pangasinan, Zambales, Rizal, Bataan, Laguna, Tayabas); Mindoro; Guimaras Island.

The scientific name of nato is *Palaquium luzoniense*. Besides nato the following local names are recorded: Bitanhol (Guim.); dulitan (Tay.); gatasan (Il.); palok-palok (Batn.); tagatoi (Batn.); takaran (Pang.); uakatan (M.).

MALACMALAC. (Pl. XCVI.)

This is a tree which in size and general characteristics is much like nato. The bark is 15 to 20 millimeters thick, grayish brown in color, with disconnected vertical lines, or furrows, and inclined to be ridged. The inner bark is red with lighter streaks beneath the furrows and next the sapwood exudes a thick milky sap. The leaves are simple, alternate, densely covered below with soft, golden brown hairs and vary in size from 14 to 28 centimeters long and 6 to 14 centimeters wide. The wood is much like that of nato and has the same uses.

Malacmalac is credited to the following regions: Luzon (Tarlac, Nueva Ecija, Zambales, Pampanga, Bulacan, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Batangas, Tayabas, Albay); Mindoro; Palawan.

It has the scientific name of *Palaquium philippense*. Besides malacmalac, it has the following local names: Alakaak (T.); baniti (Batn.); tayogong (Z.).

MANICNIC. (Pl. XCVII.)

Manicnic is a large-sized tree reaching a height of 33 to 35 meters and a diameter of 80 to 90 centimeters. It has a straight, regular, but medium buttressed, bole that reaches a length of 20 meters. The crown is flatly irregular. The bark is 18 to 25 millimeters thick, dark gray to dark brown, with longitudinal furrows about 3 centimeters or less apart; the inner bark is red, and when cut, exudes a milky sap. The leaves are simple, alternate, smooth, varying in size from 6 to 12 centimeters long and 2.5 to 4.5 centimeters wide. The wood is red in color, fine grained, moderately heavy, and moderately hard. It has the uses of the other *Palaquiums*.

The distribution of this tree is as follows: Luzon (Cagayan, Bataan, Laguna, Tayabas); Masbate; Mindoro. The scientific name is *Palaquium tenuipetiolatum*. Besides manicnic the following local names are known: Betis (Mas. and Tay.); mayusip (M.); pango (Cag.).

Besides the above, there are a large number of species of *Palaquium* about which there is not sufficient information to warrant description. Some species of this genus produce the gutta-percha of Mindanao. (See Part I, p. 57.)

Baniti (*Illipe ramiflora*), sometimes known as tanguile, is a medium-sized tree with wood much like the *Palaquiums*. Several species of *Sideroxylon* (*Natoputi*, or white nato) yield wood of much the same texture as the *Palaquiums* but not red in color. Information concerning these is too meager to permit their description.

PERSIMMON OR EBONY FAMILY.

(Ebenaceæ.)

This family is important because it produces the ebony of commerce. The leaves are simple and alternate, usually leathery in texture. The trees are small to medium-sized, with rough black bark. The sapwood is grayish white or red; the heartwood in many species sometimes of the same color, but more often the color of the sap streaked with black, or black streaked with red or grayish white, or jet black. Species with a jet-black heartwood are known as the true ebony in the Philippines, those with black streaked with another color are called camagon or bolongeta. Many species of *Diospyros* with or without black hearts are not described below because there are not sufficient data at present to do so. It is said that streaked black ebony can be changed to wholly black by burying them in the salt mud of the mangrove swamps.

The ebony is used in the Philippines principally for musical instruments, fine furniture, cabinetmaking, and canes. The supply is limited and so far as known little or none is exported. Locally the species with little or no black heart are used for all sorts of purposes.

EBONY.

This is a small tree occurring on dry coastal hills and sometimes on the edge of mangrove swamps. It seldom reaches a height of over 20

meters and a diameter of more than 40 centimeters. The bark is 4 to 10 millimeters thick, shiny black, with steel gray patches where recently shed. The inner bark is brownish red. The leaves are simple, alternate, smooth, leathery, varying in size from 2 to 6.5 centimeters long and 1 to 4 centimeters wide. The sapwood is grayish or creamy white, large, sharply distinguished from the small jet-black heartwood. It is used in the Philippines for canes, inlaying, frames, hilts, tool handles, fine furniture. It is not at all abundant.

The distribution is as follows: Luzon (Cagayan, Baler, Pangasinan, Zambales, Tayabas, Camarines); Batanes Islands; Mindoro; Masbate; Leyte; Panay; Mindanao (Surigao, Zamboanga, Davao); Tinago Island; Dinagat Island. The scientific name is *Maba burifolia*. The Spanish name, "ebano," seems to be widespread. The principal Philippine name is bantulinao or some form of it; others are galarigal (T.); kaloyanan (Pam.); luyong (T.); malatalang (T.); tangintin (Sur.).

CAMAGON.

Camagon is usually a medium-sized to large tree reaching a height of 25 to 32 meters and a diameter of 60 to 80 centimeters. It is extensively cultivated for its fruit, which is usually known as mabolo. It occurs, however, scattered on coastal hills and sometimes in the deeper soils of the dipterocarp types.

The bark is 3 to 5 millimeters thick, brown to nearly black in color, with a rough surface; the middle bark is black, the inner light pink. The leaves are simple, alternate, leathery in texture, densely covered with fine white hairs beneath, and vary in size from 10 to 22 centimeters long and 4 to 9 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is large, grayish to pale red in color; the heartwood is black with brown, ashy gray, or red streaks. The wood is very hard, very heavy, and very fine grained. It is used for the same purposes as ebony and is much more abundant.

As previously stated, camagon is cultivated; probably almost every province in the Islands contains it. The scientific name is *Diospyros discolor*. Besides camagon and mabolo (the name of the fruit), the following local names occur: Amaga or some form of it (T., V.); bantulinao or some form of it (T.); ituman (Ley.); kalangtapai (T.); kaloyanan (Pam.); talang (Riz.).

BOLONGETA. (Pl. XCVIII.)

Bolongeta is a tree resembling camagon in many respects, except it is smaller in size and forms a conspicuous part of the undergrowth of some of the dipterocarp types. The bark is 3 to 5 millimeters thick, nearly black in color, with an uneven surface, having jagged, short spinous projections. The middle bark is black, the inner light red. The leaves

are alternate, simple, nearly smooth, or with a few scattered white hairs beneath, hardly visible to the naked eye; they vary in size from 9 to 17 centimeters long and 2.5 to 8 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is light red in color, the heartwood often has the same color, but may be black with reddish streaks. When large it is practically indistinguishable from camagon. It is used for the same purposes as camagon, but both sapwood and heartwood are locally used as structural timber. It is very heavy, very hard, and fine-grained.

The tree is reported from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Nueva Ecija, Pangasinan, Baler, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Batangas, Tayabas, Camarines); Camiguin Islands; Masbate; Mindoro; Samar; Tinago Island.

The scientific name is *Diospyros pilosanthera*. Besides the common name of bolongeta, or some form of it, the following local names are recorded: Alintatao or some form of it (T.); anam (B.); ata-ata (V.); bantulinao or some form of it (T.); camagon (T.); dambuhala (Riz.); ebano (Sp.); galangan (Pang.); malatalang (T.).

ATA-ATA.

This is a tree that in size, form, and bark characters closely resembles bolongeta. It seems to be more abundant in the Visayan Islands and Mindanao, and there replaces bolongeta as a medium-sized tree in the dipterocarp types. The leaves are nearly smooth with a whitish bloom beneath and vary in size from 10 to 17 centimeters long and 2.5 to 5 centimeters wide. The sapwood is grayish white, the heartwood sometimes of the same color but often black with or without whitish streaks.

This tree is referred to *Diospyros mindanaensis*. Besides ata-ata, it has the local names of bolongeta; anang (Tay.); and tapilak (Moro). The heartwood of the above and many other species may be sold as ebony, camagon, or bolongeta, depending on the color; if black, ebony; if black, slightly streaked, camagon; if much streaked, as bolongeta.

STRYCHNINE OR URUNG FAMILY.

(Loganiaceæ.)

The only representative of this family is urung (*Fagraea fragrans*). The wood is yellow when fresh and on exposure turns to a light brown. It is heavy, hard, fine grained, and very durable. It has the following uses: Posts; ship-building; piling; house construction. It is found principally in Palawan and has the common names of dolo and teca.

DOGBANE OR DITA FAMILY.

(Apocynaceæ.)

This family can usually be distinguished by the abundant milky sap in the bark and the opposite or whorled leaves.

DITA.

This is a medium to large tree reaching a height of 25 to 35 meters and a diameter of 80 to 100 centimeters. It has a fluted bole, weakly if at all buttressed. It is found very scattered in the dipterocarp forests, especially in the regions where the dry season is pronounced. It frequently occurs in the parang type as a small tree. It is intolerant of shade.

The bark is 8 to 10 millimeters thick, grayish to brownish yellow in color and sometimes covered with fine corky pustules; the inner bark is granular yellow in color, brittle, and exudes when cut an abundant thin milky white latex which has the taste of quinine. The leaves are smooth with glaucous bloom beneath, are usually arranged in whorls of 4 to 7, and vary in size from 5 to 20 centimeters long and 1.5 to 6.5 centimeters wide.

The wood is creamy white, light, soft, has a very bitter taste and discolors easily. It is used for light construction work, furniture, wooden soles for shoes, musical instruments, scabbards, and floats for fish nets.

The following is the distribution: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Isabela, Abra, Bontoc, Union, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines, Sorsogon, Albay); Mindoro; Samar; Leyte; Zamboanga; Palawan; Balabac Island. The scientific name is *Alstonia scholaris*. Besides dita or ditaa, it has the following local names: Alipauin (N. Luz.); andarayan (N. Luz.); dilupaon or some form of it (N. Luz.); lanitan (V.); oplai (Cag.); polai (Pang.); tanitan (V.).

BATINO.

Batino is a medium-sized tree resembling dita in many respects, but somewhat smaller. It usually occurs on dry hills and is tolerant of shade. The bark is 6 to 8 millimeters thick, gray in color, with slightly yellowish lines of corky pustules; the inner bark is yellowish brown in color with a milky sap. The leaves are simple in whorls of 4 (sometimes 3), sparingly hairy below, and varying in size from 10 to 20 centimeters long and 3 to 7.5 centimeters wide.

The wood is creamy white, moderately heavy and moderately hard, with a fine grain, has a bitter taste and disagreeable odor. It is used for house building (posts, rafters, siding, etc.); ties.

The following is the recorded distribution: Luzon (Cagayan, Ilocos Sur, Pangasinan, Baler, Rizal, Laguna, Batangas, Tayabas, Camarines); Mindoro; Guimaras Island; Lanao.

The scientific name is *Alstonia macrophylla*. Besides batino the following names are recorded: Itang-itang (Guim.); kalatuchi (Pang.); Pangolakloen (N. Luz.); tangitan (V.); ughayan (V.).

THE LANETES.

A number of species with similar characteristics as regards bark, size, and form of the tree, but with differences in character of the leaves, flowers, and fruits have the general name of lanete.

LANETE.

This is a tree that will reach the height of 20 to 25 meters and a diameter of 60 centimeters or more. It has usually a fluted and sometimes crooked bole and a rather open and irregular crown. It is found very scattered in semiopen portions of the dipterocarp types.

The bark is 4 to 8 millimeters in thickness, light gray to yellowish brown in color, and rather smooth; the inner bark is granular yellow in color, and when cut exudes rather freely a milky sap. The leaves are simple, opposite, with a more or less distinctly toothed margin, with velvety hairs beneath and sometimes above, and vary in size from 7 to 12 centimeters long and 2.5 to 5.5 centimeters wide. The wood is a pale cream color to that of old ivory, with no distinction between heartwood and sapwood. It varies in hardness from soft to moderately hard, and is moderately heavy.

It is one of the favorite carving woods of the Philippines. Other uses are as follows: Light construction purposes; furniture; soles of wooden shoes; kitchen utensils; chairs; parts of musical instruments; chests; turnery; window sills; scabbards.

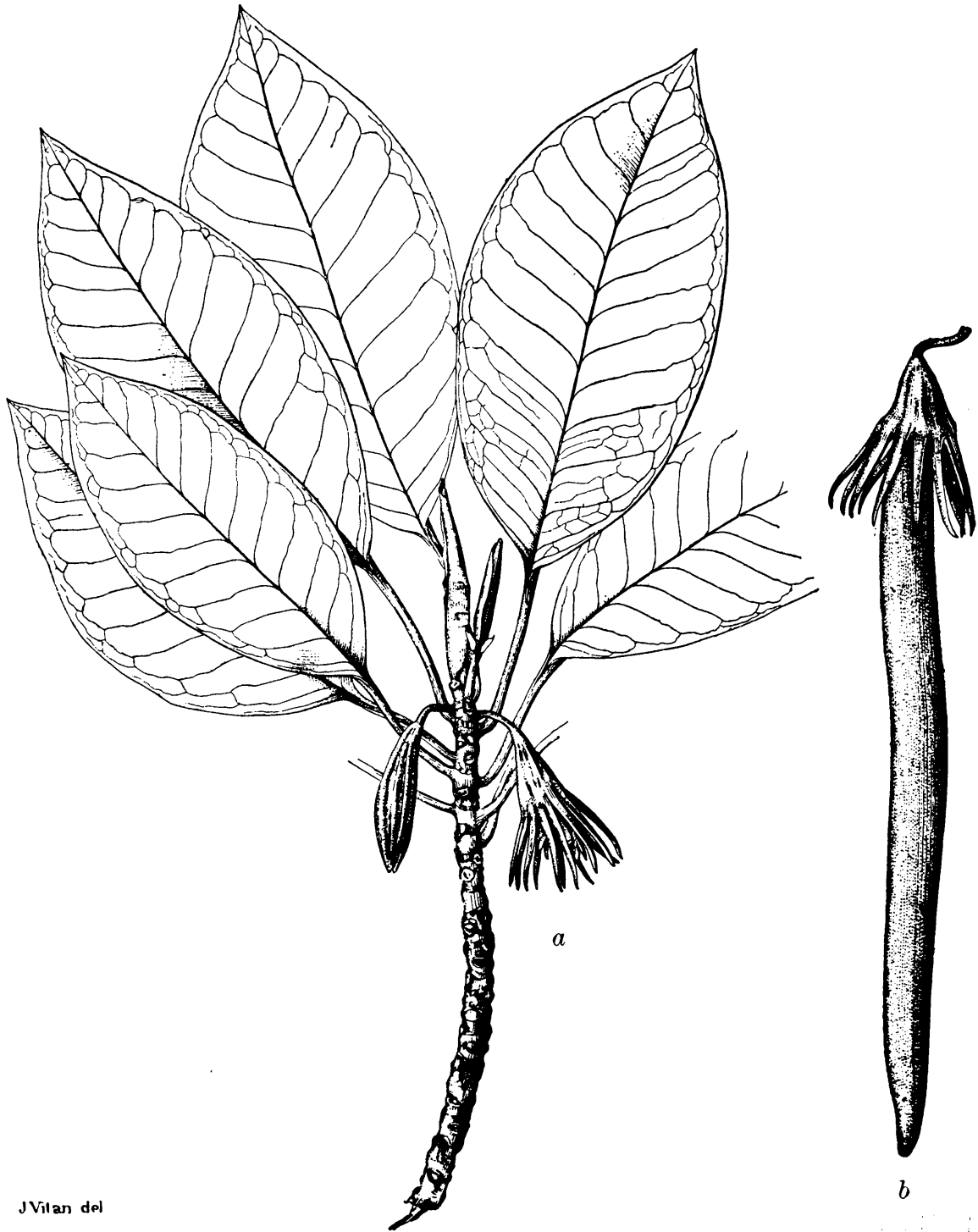
The following is the recorded distribution of lanete: Luzon (Cagayan, Abra, Ilocos Sur, Lepanto, Union, Benguet, Nueva Ecija, Pangasinan, Zambales, Bataan, Rizal, Laguna); Mindoro; Culion Island. The scientific name is *Wrightia laniti*. Besides the Tagalog name of lanete or laniti, the following are recorded: Anotong (Z.) balubat (N. Luz.); lamisi or lamusi (Il.); laniteng (Riz.); lanoti (Il.); tanghas (V.); tigig (V.).

Wrightia calycina differs from the above species in having leaves with few, if any, hairs, varying in size from 5 to 16.5 centimeters long and 1.5 to 6.5 centimeters wide. This tree in Mindanao attains a much larger size than *Wrightia laniti*. No common name except lanete is recorded for it. It seems to be confined to the regions where the dry season is not pronounced, and is recorded from Tayabas, Masbate, Leyte, Guimaras, Occidental Negros, Palawan, Zamboanga, Lanao.

ANONANG FAMILY.

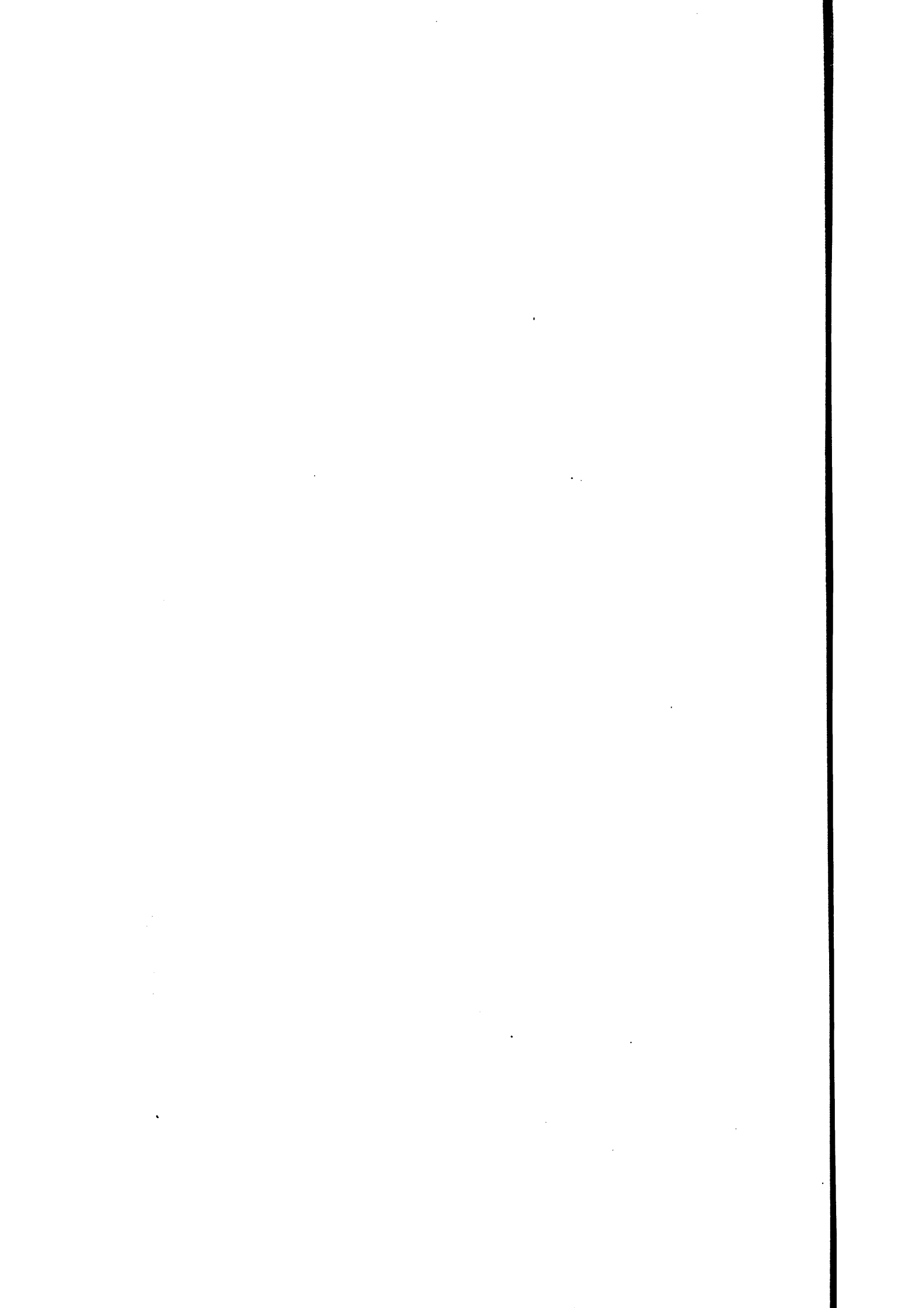
(Borraginaceæ.)

No trees of this family are of any importance from the lumberman's standpoint. Anonang (*Cordia blancoi*) deserves mention because it occupies a prominent place in the second-growth type and often occurs as isolated trees in grass patches, which position is due to the fact that it resists fairly well the effects of fires.



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PLATE LXXXVII.—BUSAIN (*Bruguiera gymnorrhiza*).
a, Flower; *b*, young seedling with remains of the fruit attached.

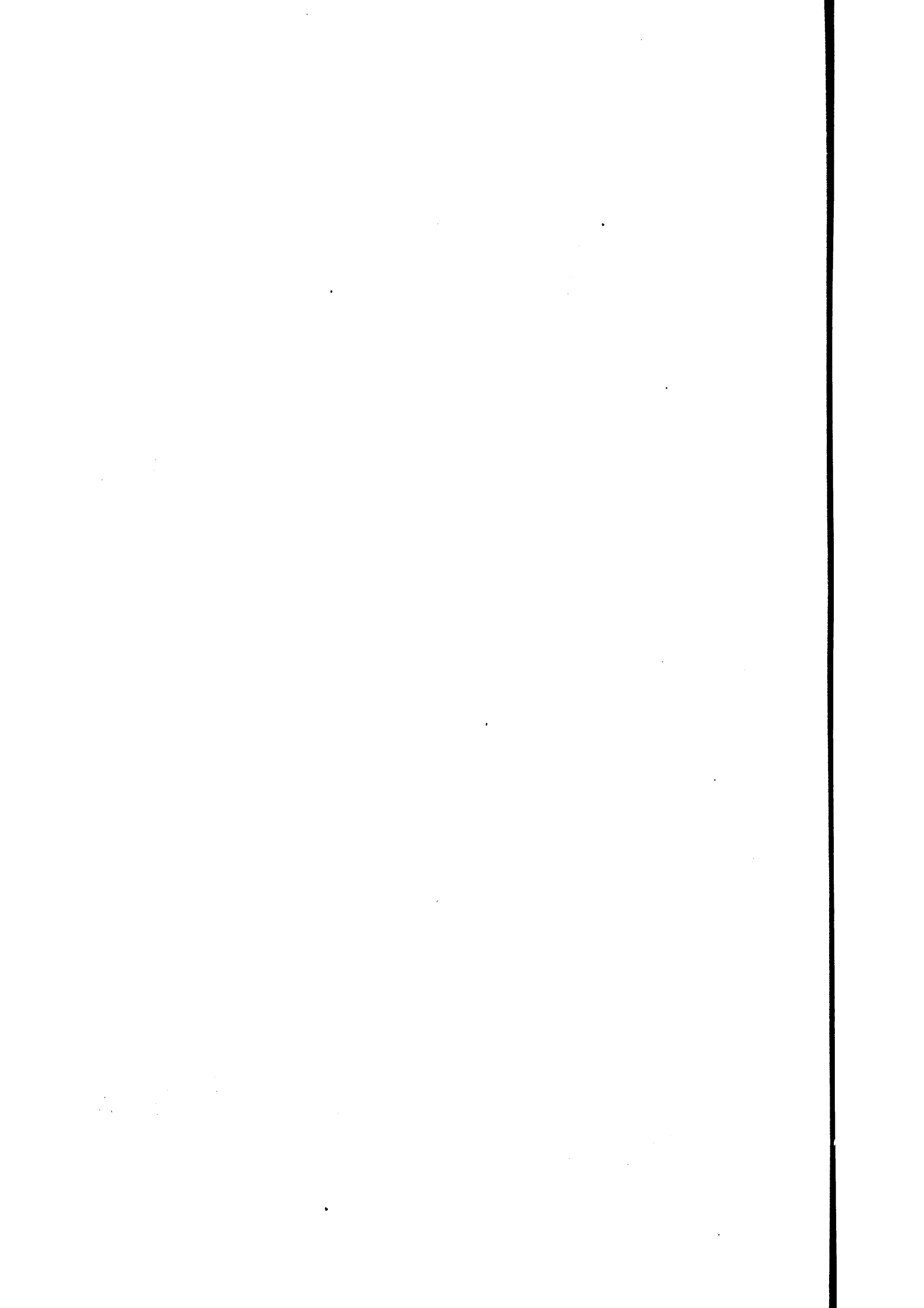


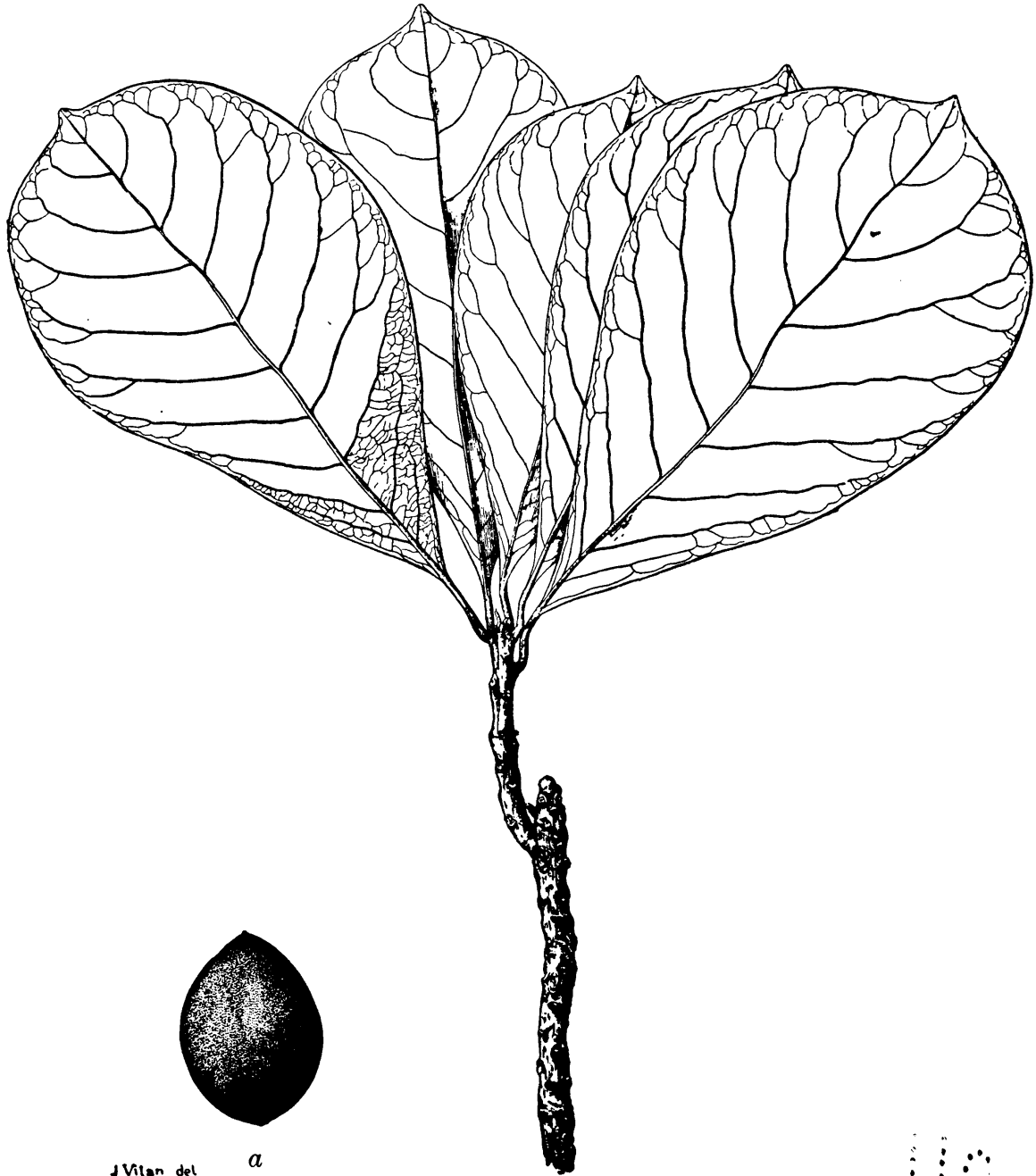


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PLATE LXXXVIII.—CALUMPIT (*Terminalia edulis*).

a, Fruit.



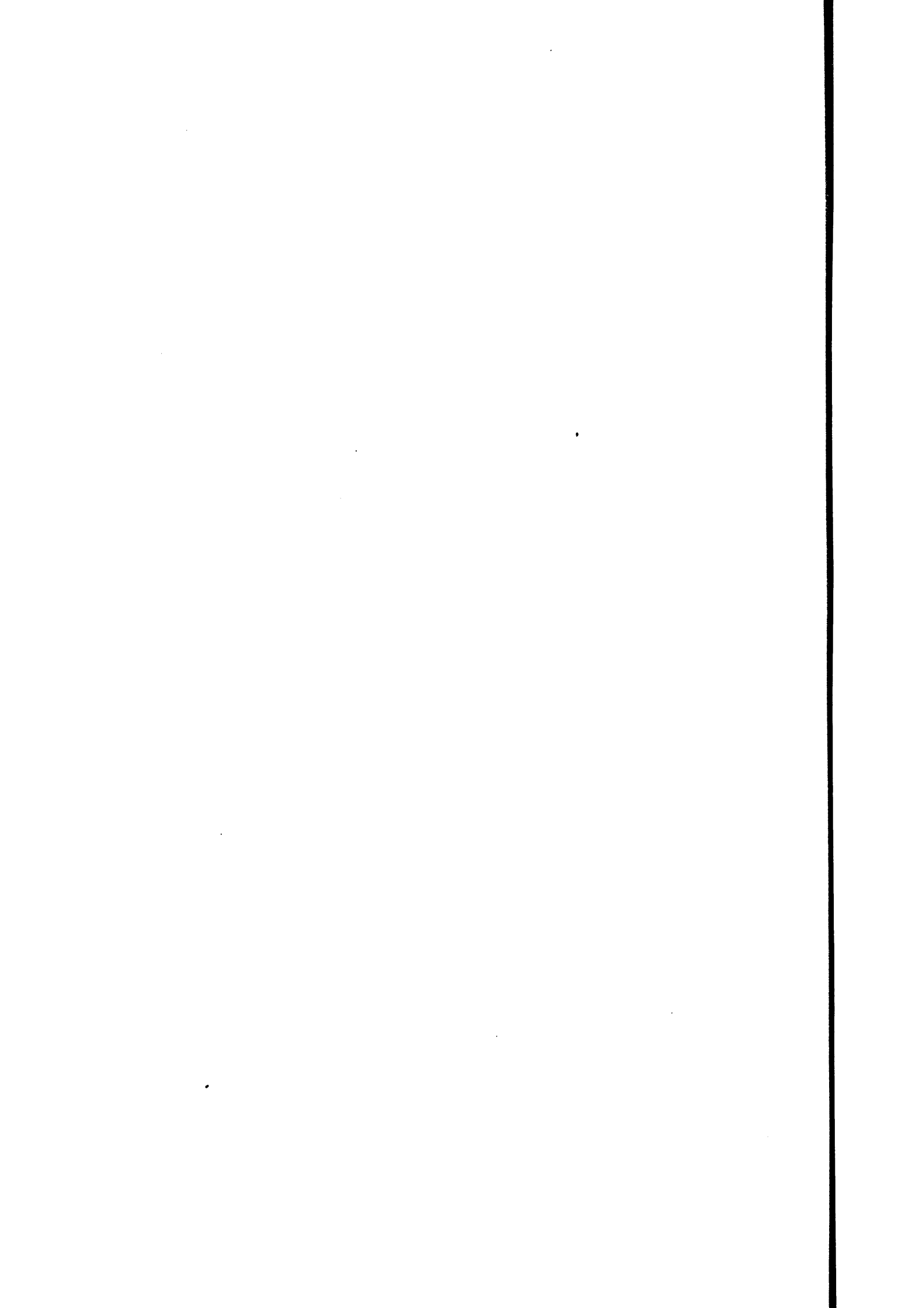


J. Vitan del

a

PLATE LXXXIX.—TALISAY-GUBAT (*Terminalia oöcarpa*).

a, Fruit.

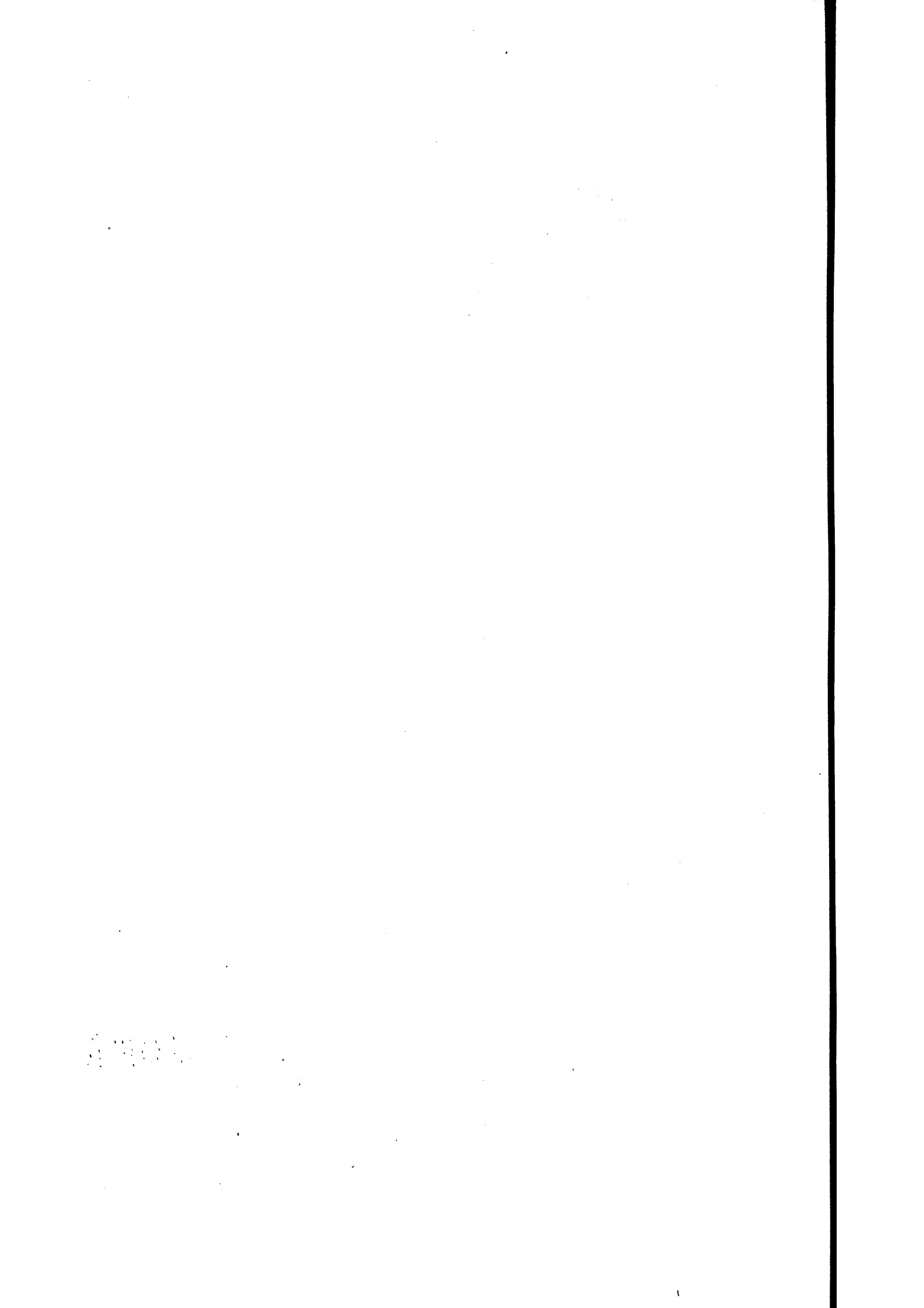




J. Vilar del.

PLATE XC.—BINGGÁS (*Terminalia comintana*).

a, Flower cluster ; b, fruit.



100

100

100

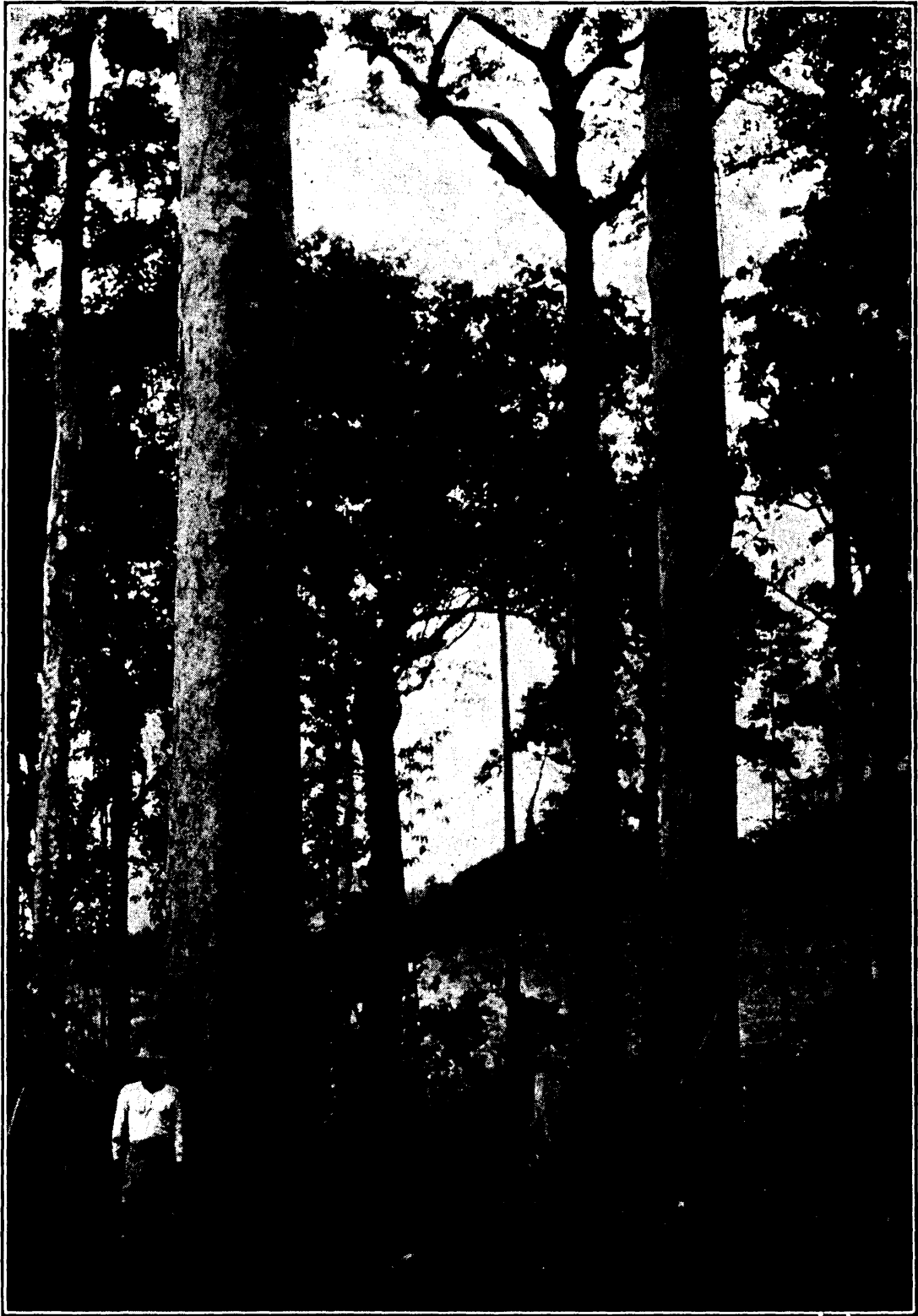
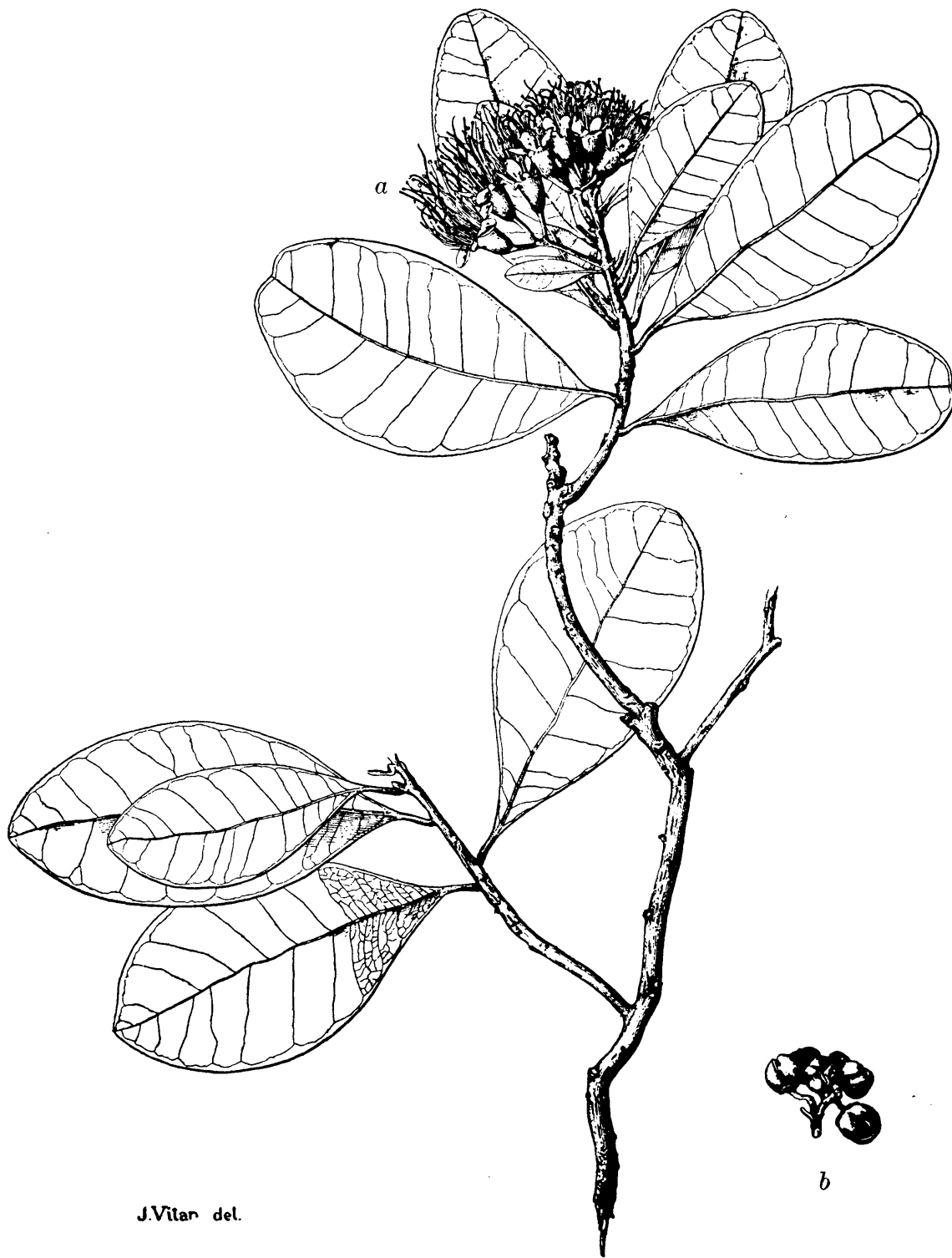


PLATE XCII.—TOOG (*Terminalia quadrialata*).

Large tree on the left.

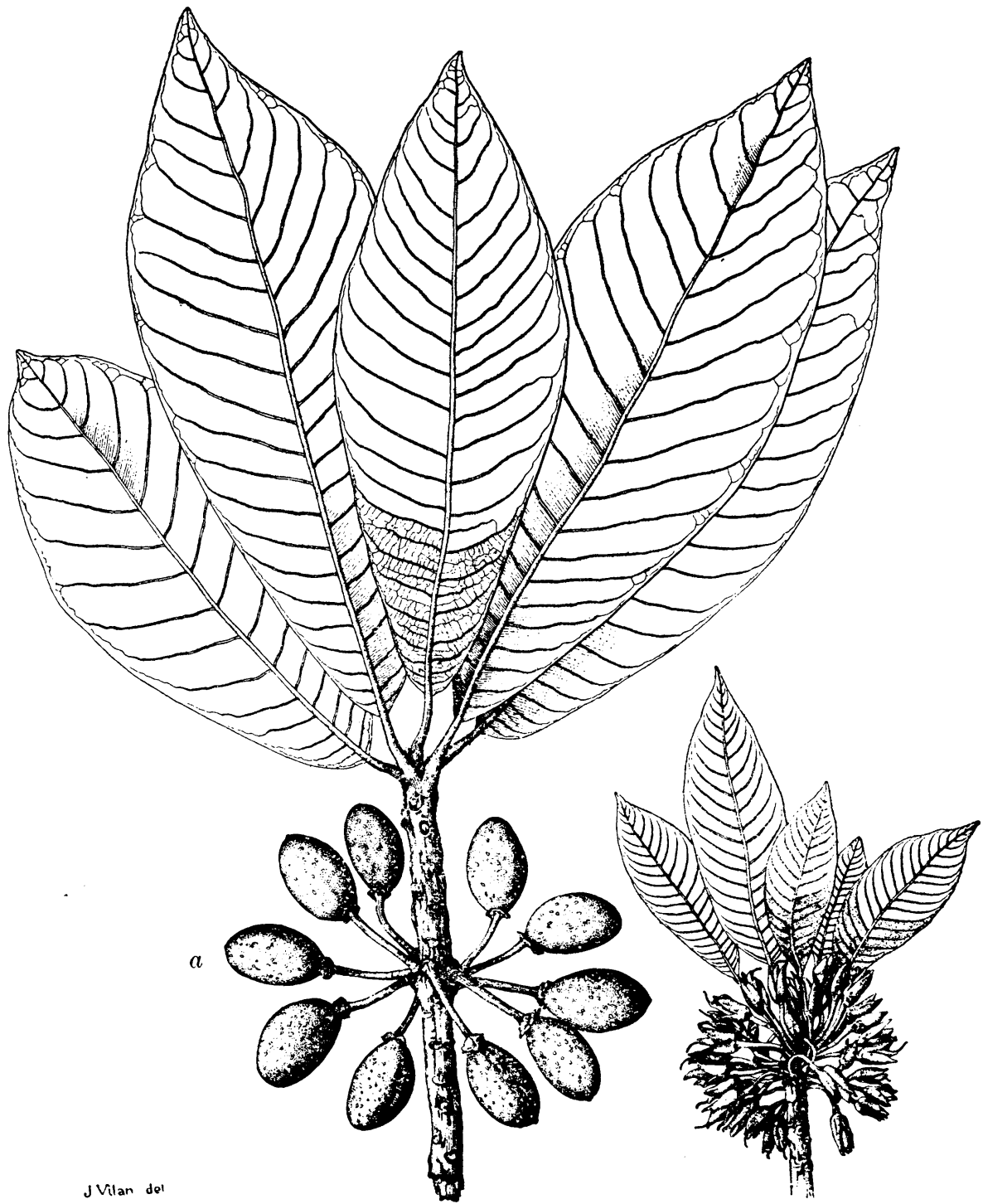
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J.Vitar del.

PLATE XCIII.—MANCONO (*Xanthostemon verdugonianus*).

a, Flower cluster; *b*, fruit cluster.



J. Vilar del

PLATE XCIV.—BETIS (*Illipe betis*).

a, Fruit cluster; b, flower cluster with young leaves.



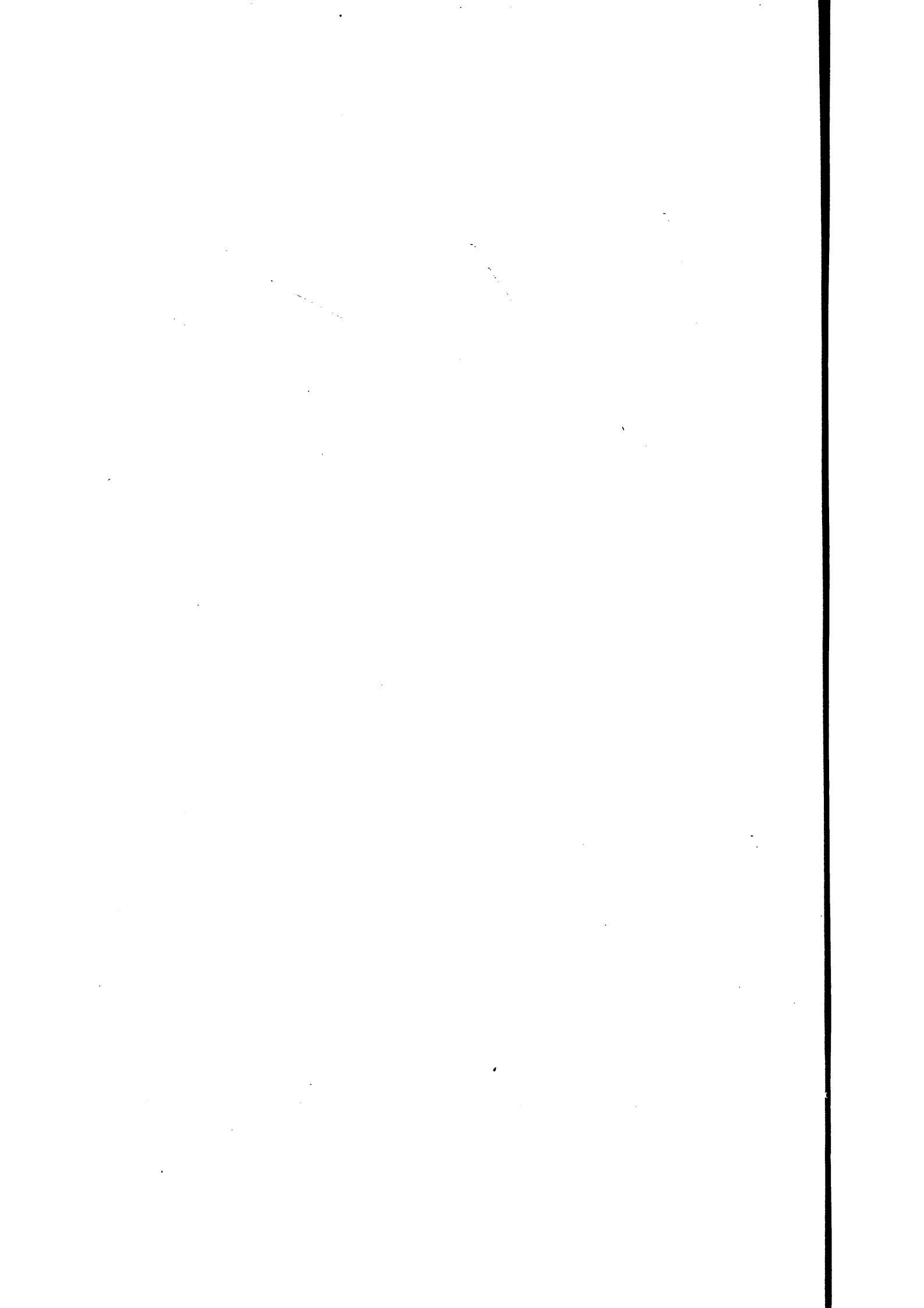




PLATE XCV.—BARK OF BETIS (*Illipe betis*).

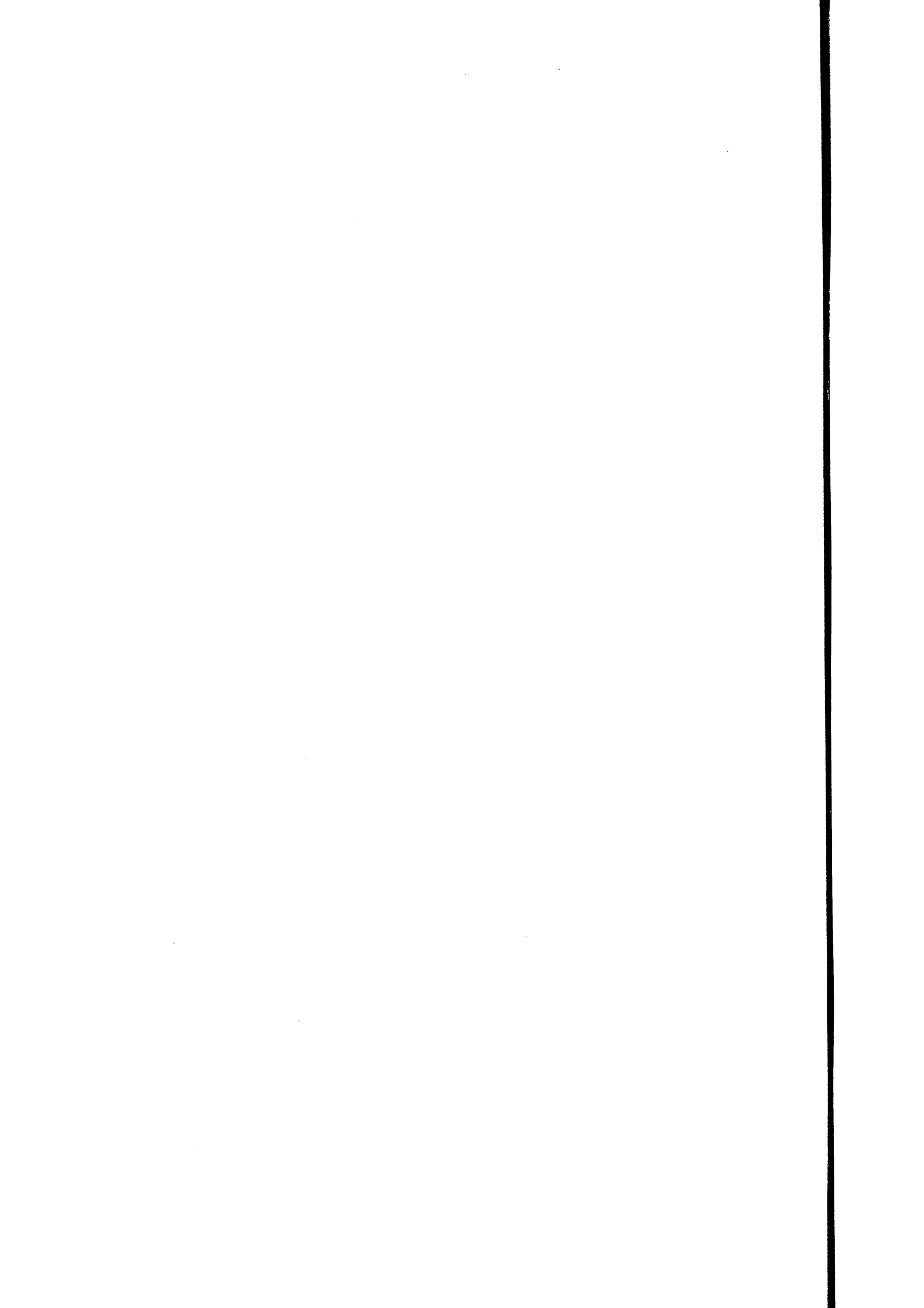




PLATE XCVI.—BARK AND LEAVES OF MALACMALAC (*Palaquium philippense*).

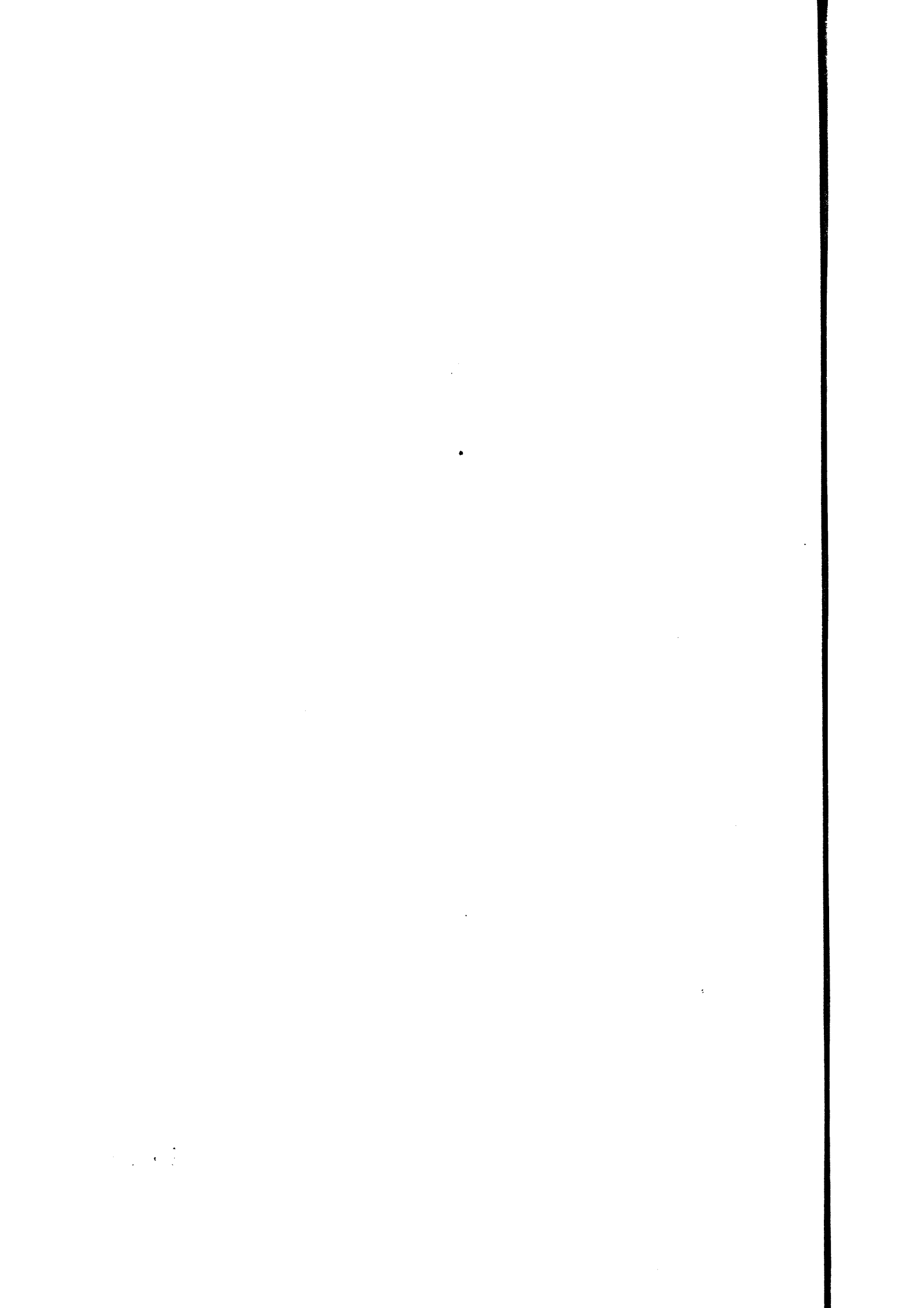
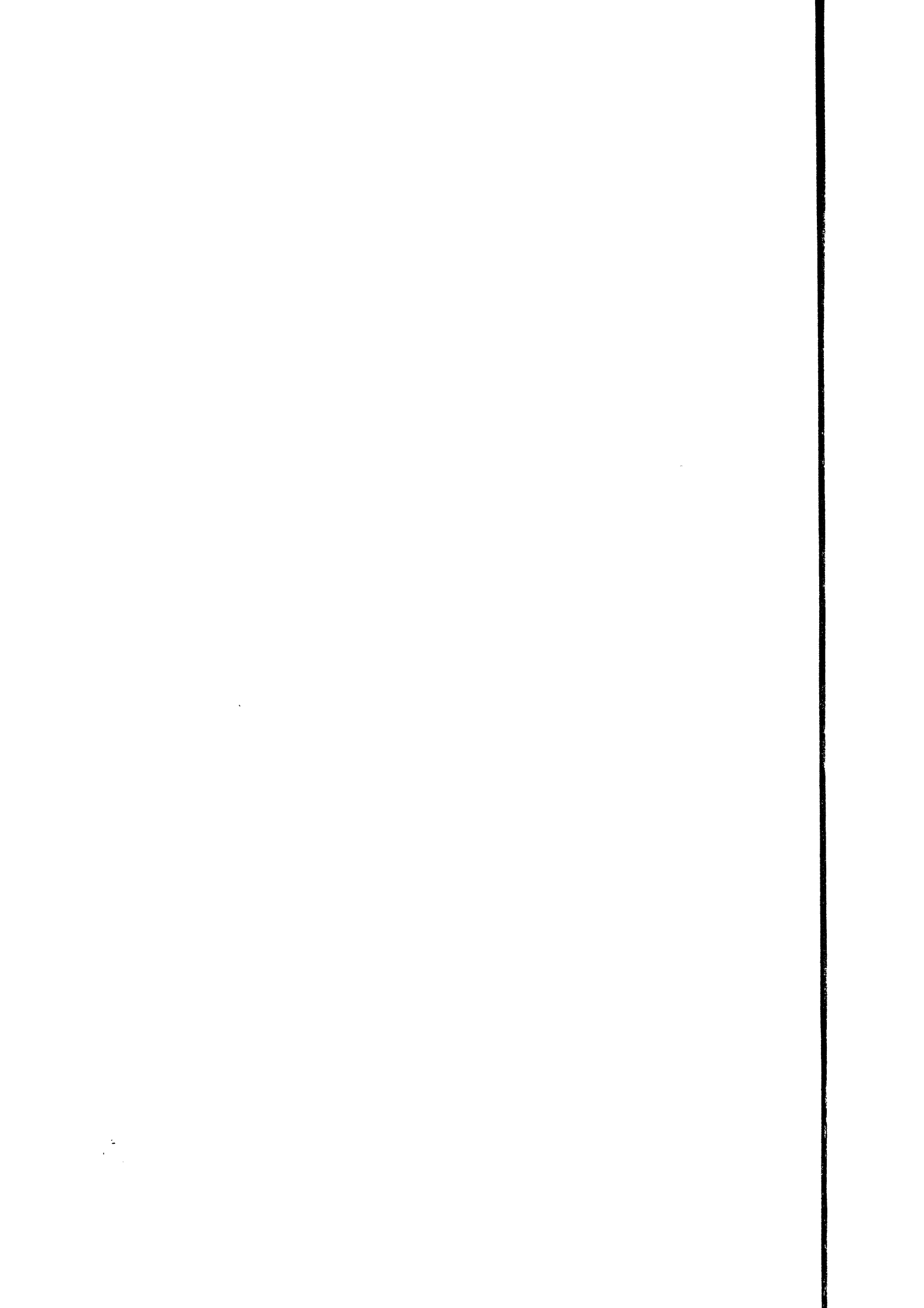
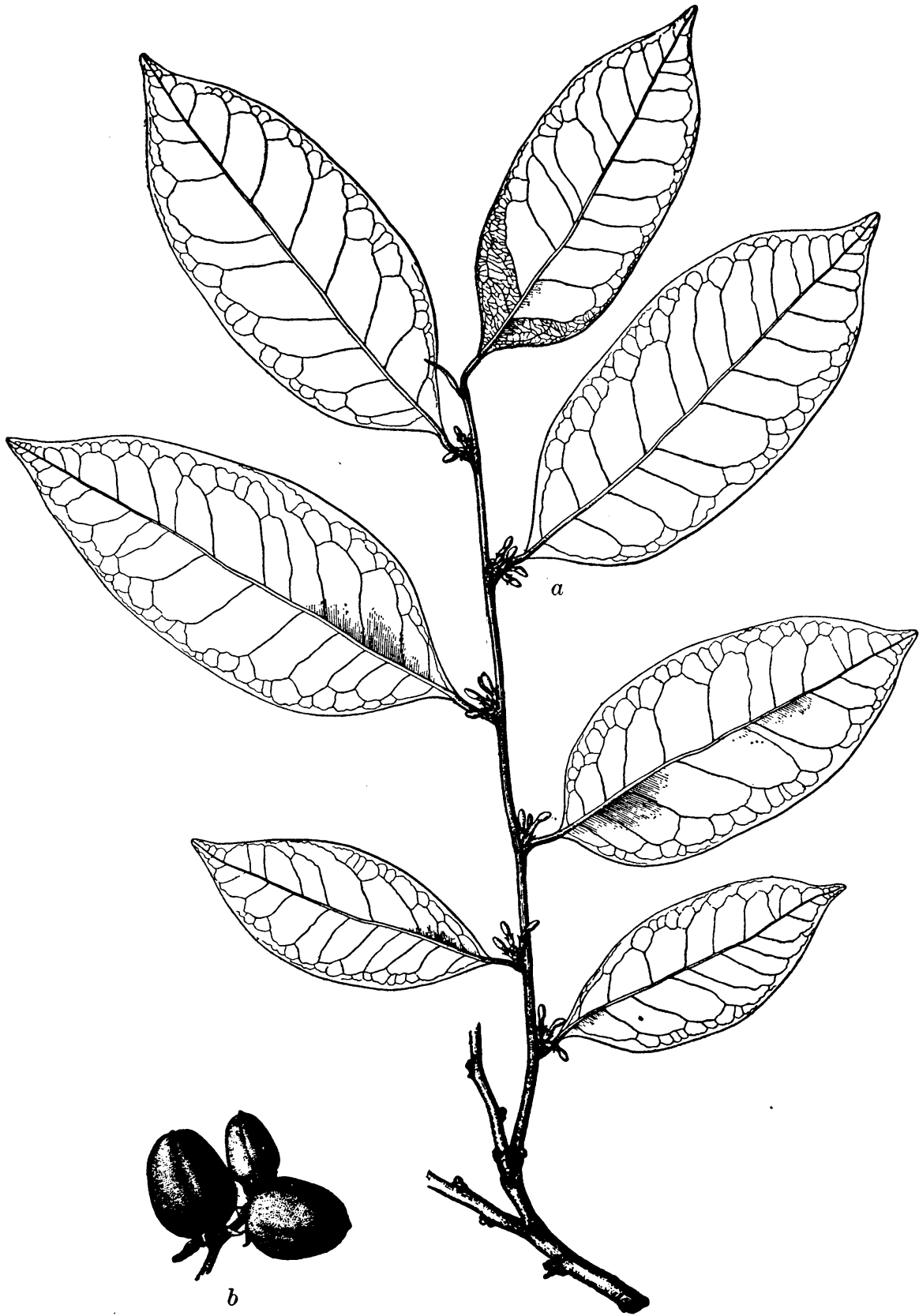




PLATE XCVII.—BARK AND LEAVES OF MANICNIC (*Palaquium tenuipetiolatum*).

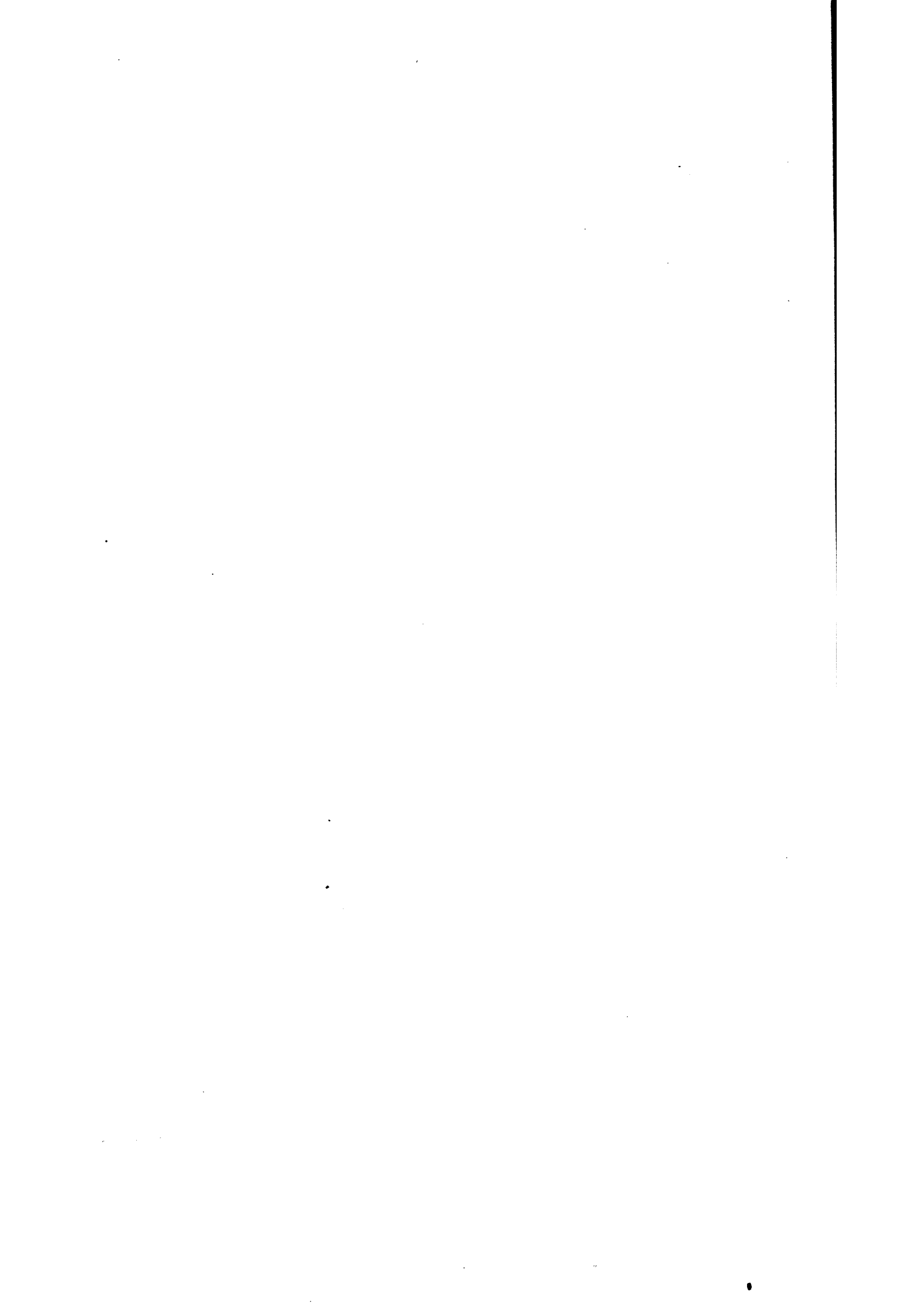




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PLATE XCVIII.—BOLONGETA (*Diospyros pilosanthera*).

a, Flower cluster; *b*, fruit cluster.





J. Vitan del.

b

c

PLATE XCIX.—MOLAVE (*Vitex parviflora*).
a, Flower cluster; b, flower; c, fruit cluster.



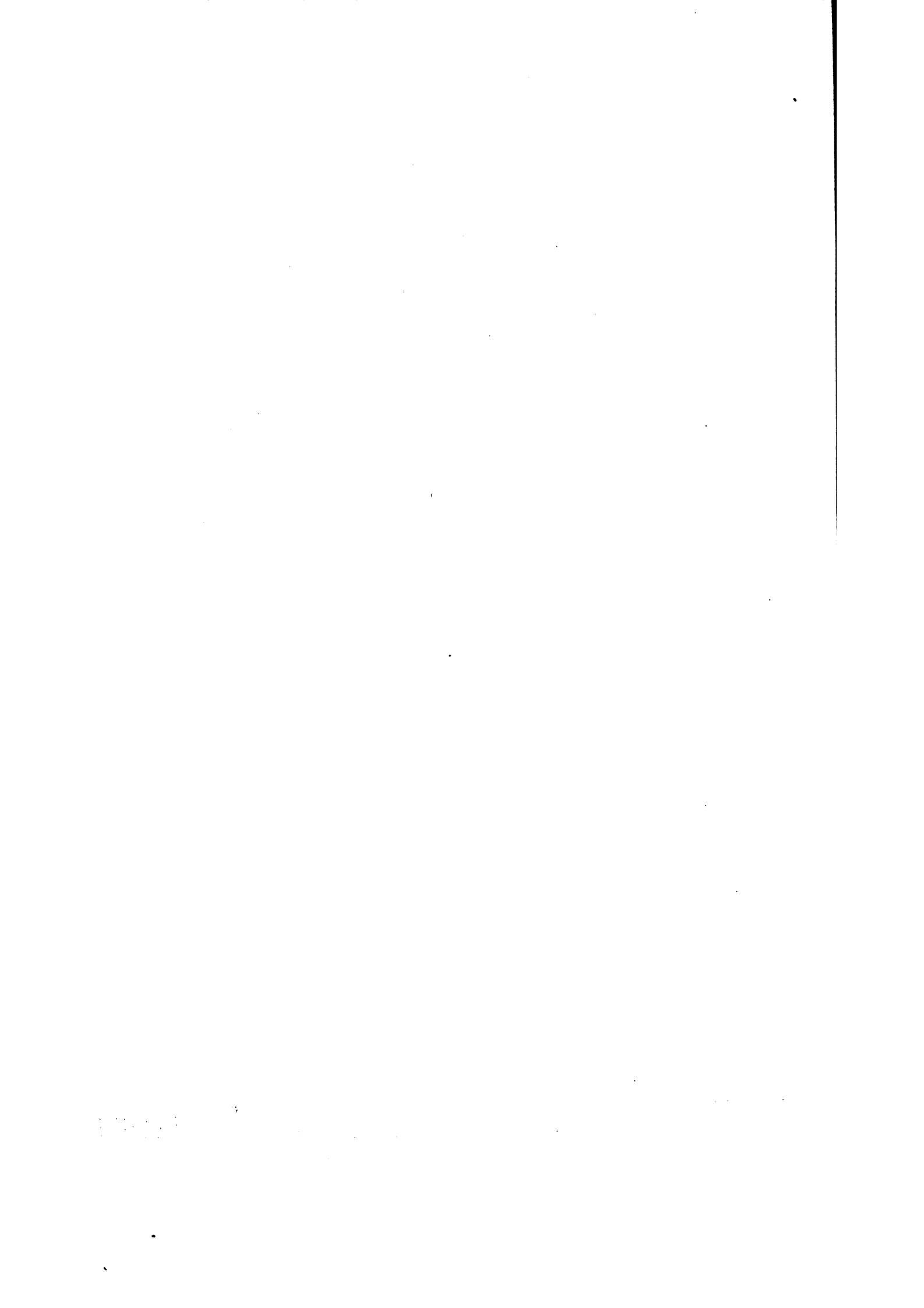
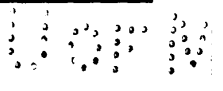
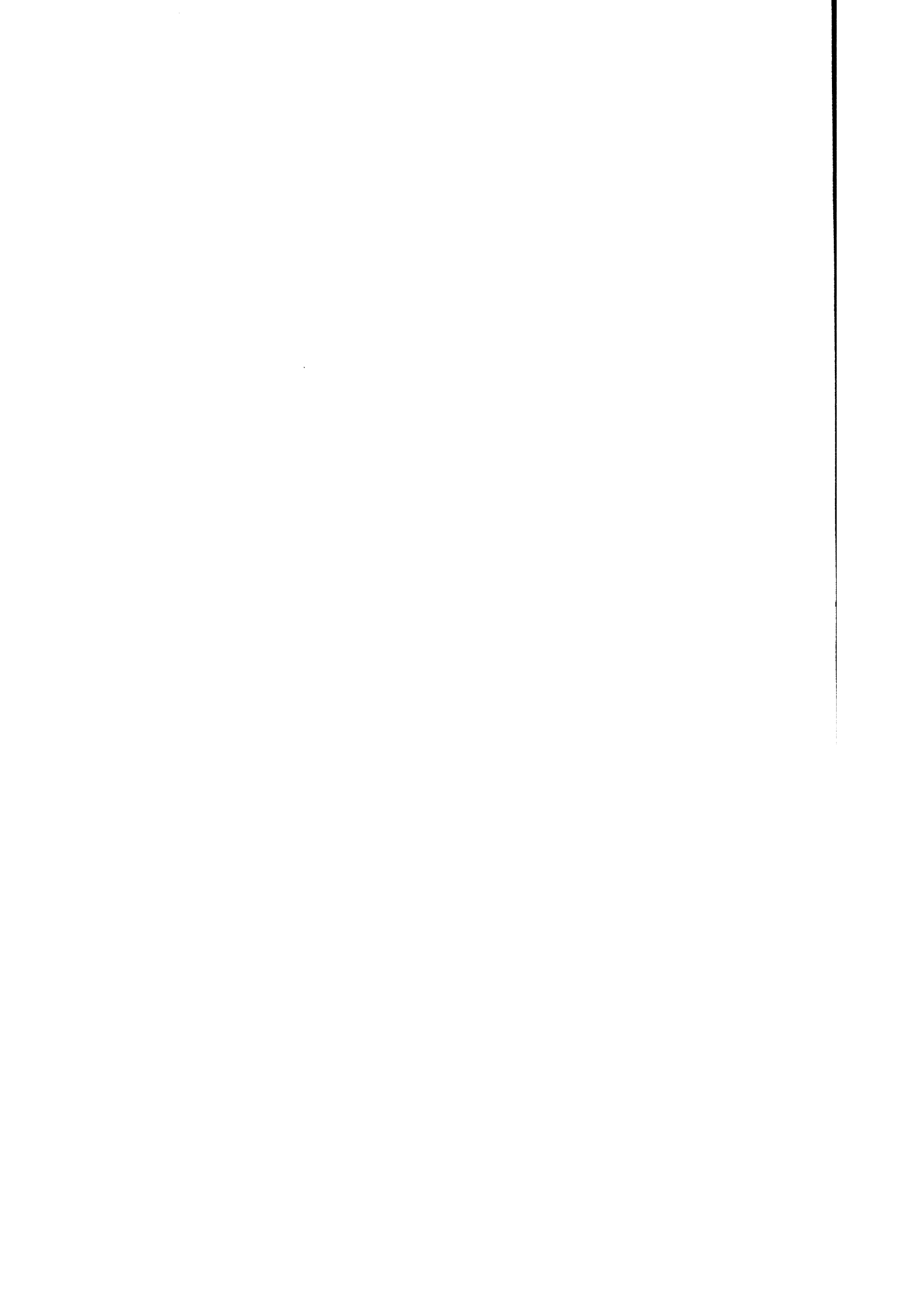




PLATE C.—BARK OF MOLAVE (*Vitex parviflora*).

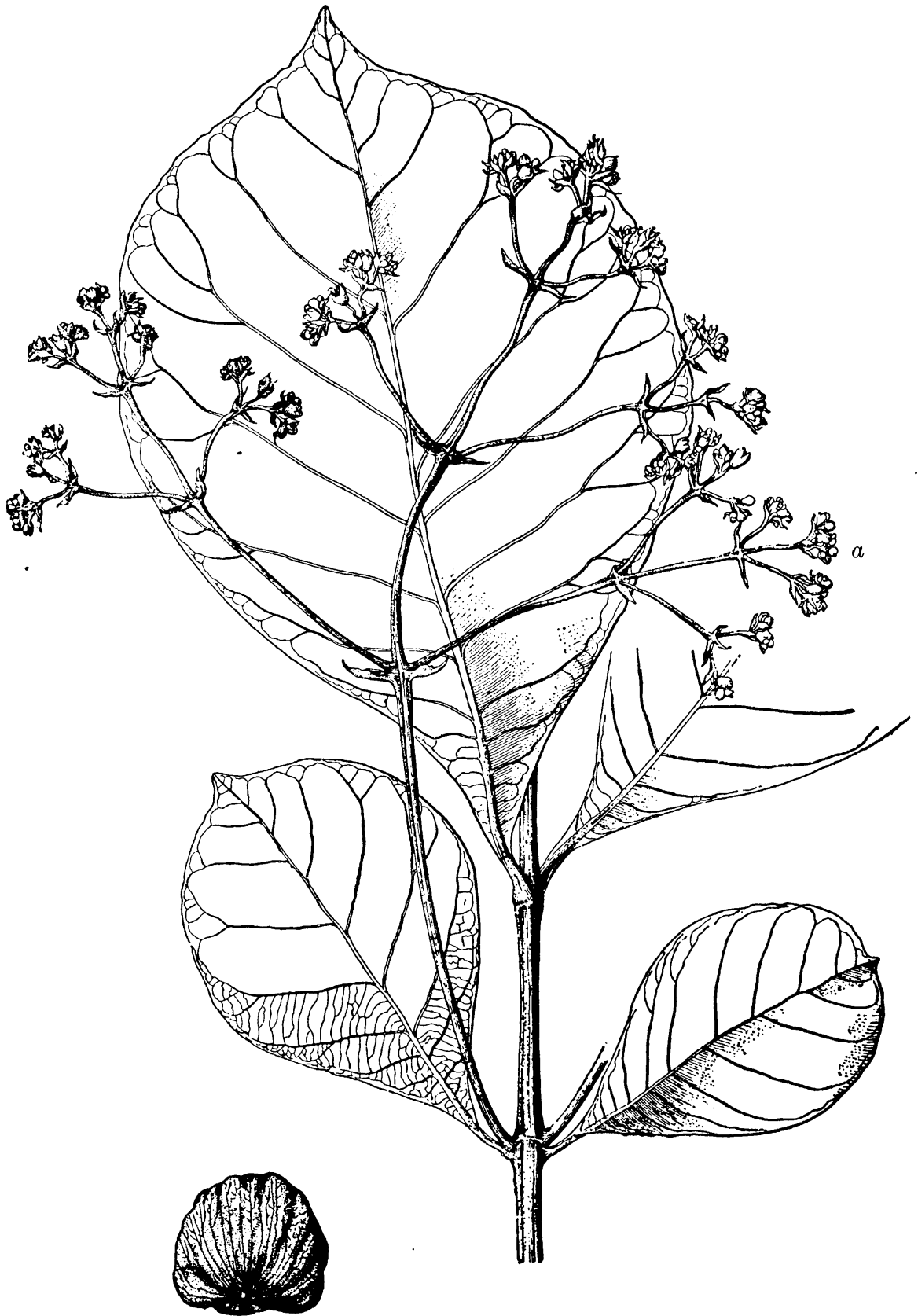






J. V. Van der

PLATE CI.—SASALIT (*Vitex aherniana*).

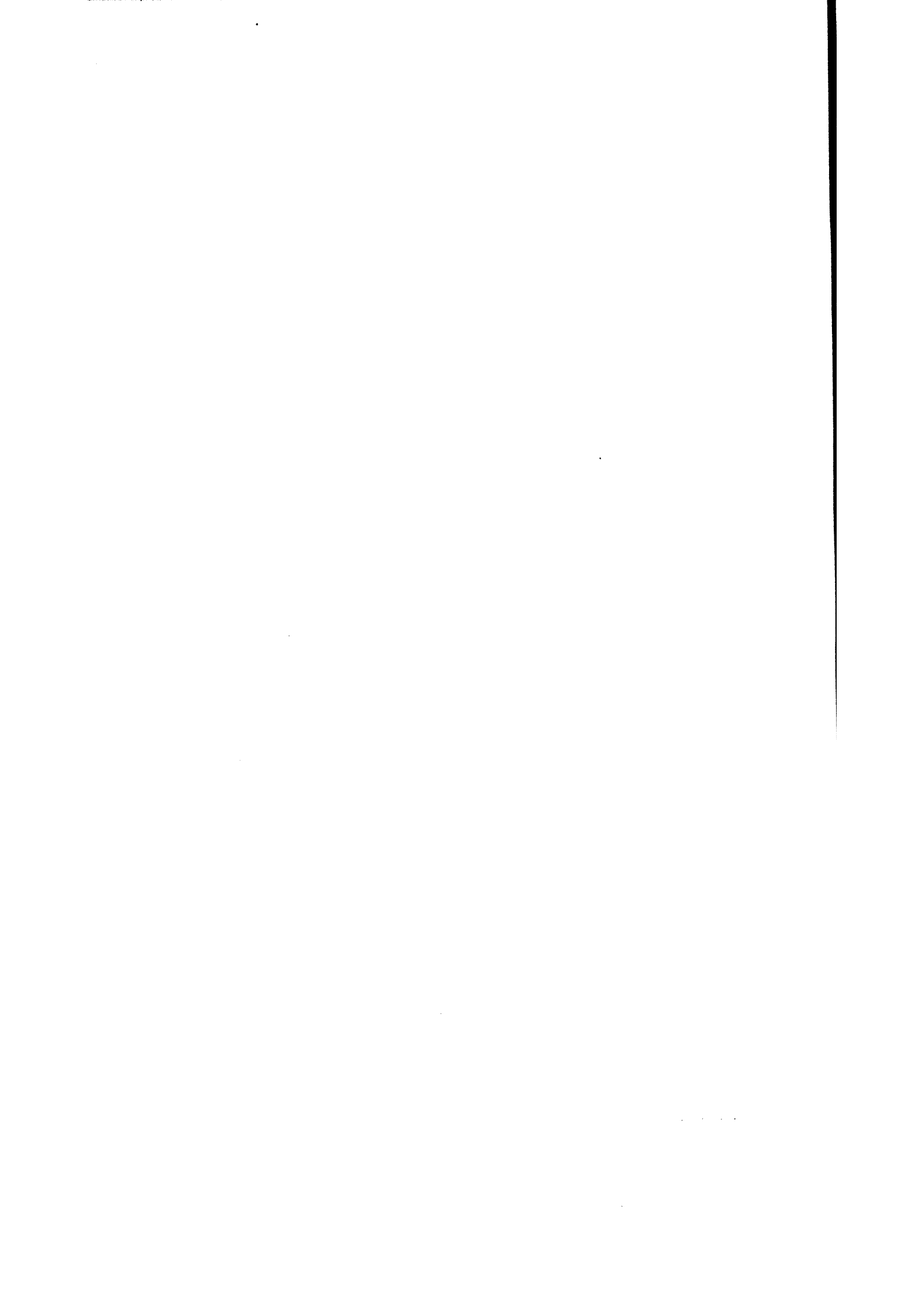


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b

PLATE CII.—TEAK (*Tectona grandis*).

a, Flower cluster; b, fruit.



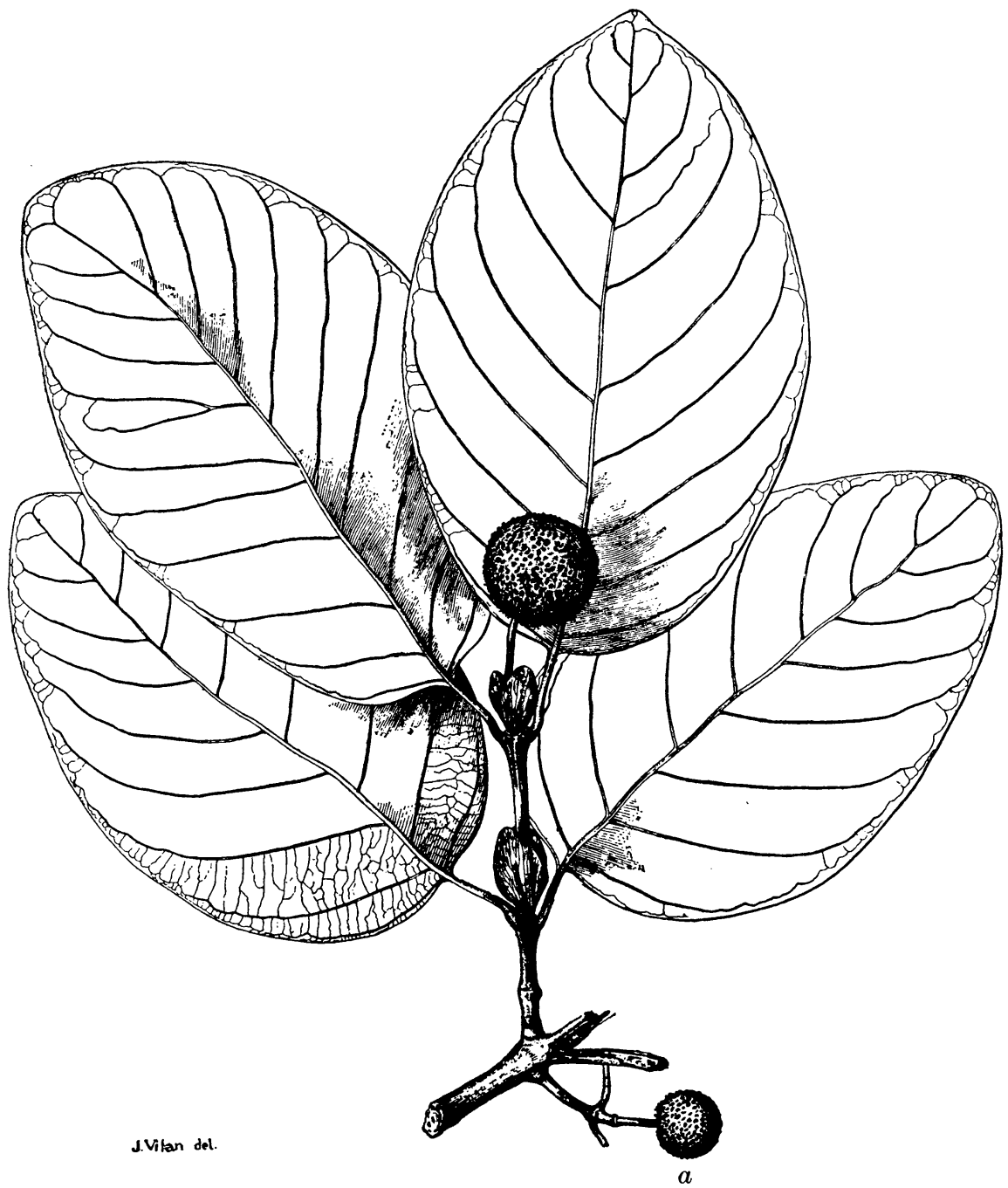
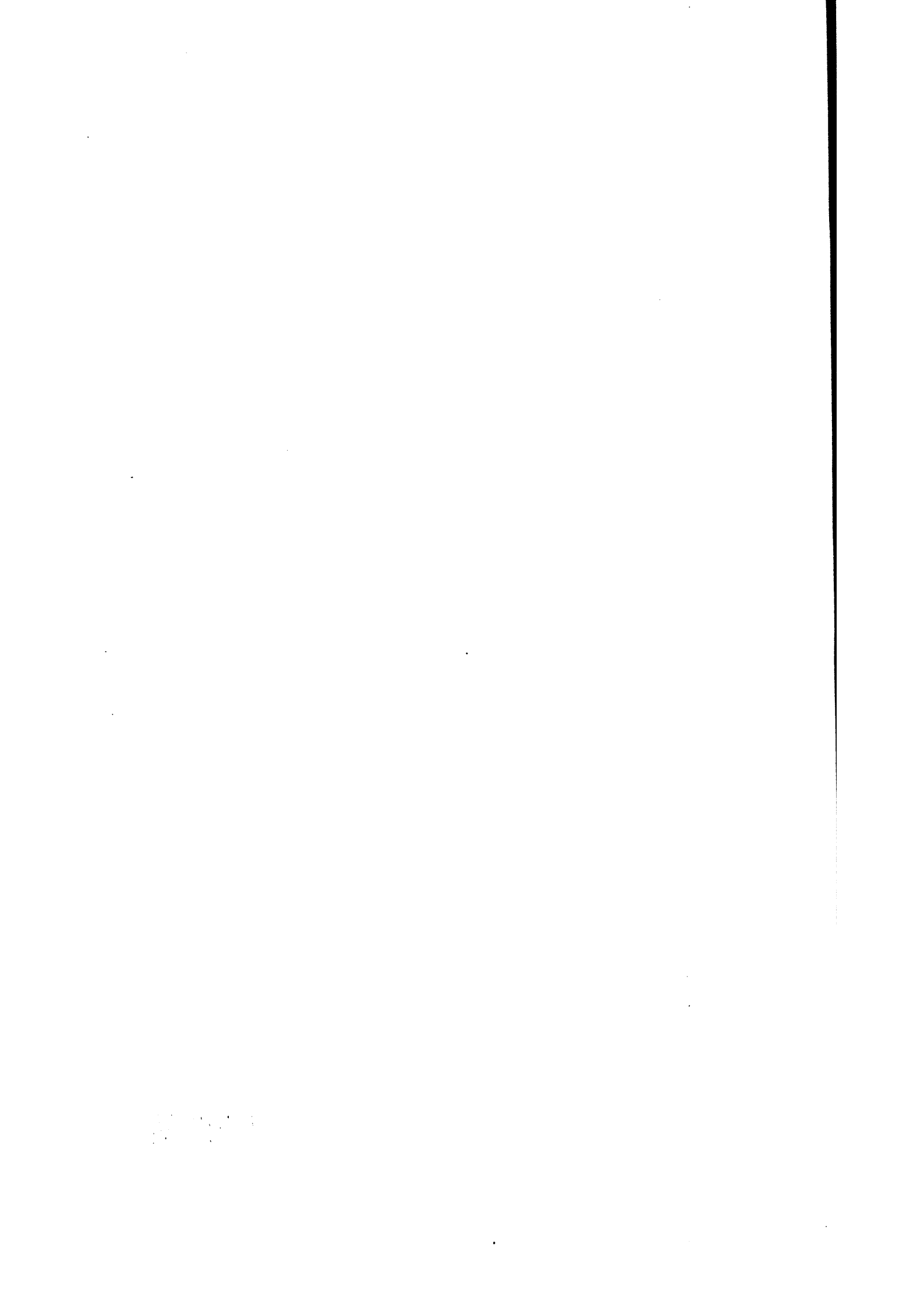


PLATE CIII.—BANCAL (*Sarcocephalus cordatus*).

a, Flower cluster.



TEAK OR MOLAVE FAMILY.

(Verbenaceæ.)

This is a family that has opposite, simple or palmately compound leaves.

MOLAVE. (Pls. XCIX and C.)

Molave is a tree that in exceptional cases will reach a height of 35 to 38 meters and a diameter up to 200 centimeters with a bole of 16 to 20 meters. Usually, however, it is below 30 meters high and may form in severe conditions a scraggly tree with a bole 2 meters or less in length. The bole is usually crooked, fluted, and buttressed. It has an open, wide-spreading crown. It is found throughout the Islands, especially on the low coastal hills, usually on limestone, but may occur on volcanic rocks. It is intolerant of shade, and partially or wholly deciduous during the dry season.

The bark is 8 to 10 millimeters in thickness, yellowish brown to gray in color, velvety to the touch, sometimes shedding in small thin flakes, otherwise smooth. The inner bark is light yellow, with darker yellow rings when freshly cut, but rapidly turns brown on exposure. The leaves are opposite, usually trifoliately compound; the leaflets are smooth, and vary in size from 4 to 15 centimeters long and 2.5 to 7 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is creamy white; the heartwood a pale yellow often turning to dull brown on exposure. It has a fine, usually crossed grain, with short and brittle fibers, making it easy to work. It is hard and heavy. It turns greenish yellow when treated with an alkali, and has a bitter taste and a slight odor. It stains water a greenish yellow color.

Molave is one of the best high-grade construction timbers in the Islands and is a good substitute for teak. It resists well the action of fungi, teredo, and white ants. The following is an enumeration of its uses: House construction (posts, doors, interior finish, flooring, joists, siding, sills); shipbuilding (knees, cutwater, sternposts); wagon making (axles, wheel rim, spokes); bridges; cabinetmaking; carabao yokes; cogwheels; docks; salt-water piles; pillars; plows; rice mortars; railroad ties; sugar mills; paving blocks; furniture; balusters and other turned work; hemp presses; sculpture; wooden tools; plane stocks; tool handles.

Practically all the provinces in the Philippines contain molave, though in many it is no longer in commercial quantities. The scientific name of molave is *Vitex parviflora*. The name molave is a corruption of the Tagalog name mulawin. The following local names are also recorded: Agubarao (V.); aguherao (V.); amurauon (B.); amugauan (Il., V., B.); bangongon (V.); bulaon (V., T., Pam.); bulauen (Pang.); bulausan (Il.); bulaun (Z., Pam.); buyog tongon (Sur.); danigga (Il.); hamuraun (V.); hamulaon (T., B.); hamurauon (B.); hamursan (B.);

kalibayan (V.); kalipapa (Moro); kulipapa (Moro); lanahan (B.); maraun (V.); sagad (Il.); salingkapa (Guim.); tugas (V.).

The hairy leaf molave (*Vitex pubescens*) produces a wood so similar to molave that it is sold for it. It is recorded from the following regions: Mindoro; Guimaras; Culion Island; Palawan. A number of woods in the Philippines pass under the name of mulawin-aso and female molave as opposed to the hard molave (mulawin-bato) or male molave. The names of male and female are, of course, only a means of designating hard from soft molave. It is probable, as is maintained by some, that the wood of some trees of the same species (*V. parviflora*) is softer than the others. Young trees often have much softer wood than old trees and those growing in rich soils may be softer in texture. However, there are a number of distinct species of this family that do have the general name of mulawin-aso. One of the most important of these is kalipapa-aso or mulawin-aso (*Vitex pentaphylla*) which is a medium-sized tree usually found scattered in rich bottoms. This has a much softer wood than molave and has five leaflets instead of three. Another is lingo-lingo or mulawin-aso (*Vitex turczaninowii*) also with five leaflets. This tree is found scattered throughout Luzon and adjacent islands. A third species is alagao or mulawin-aso (*Premna nauseosa*) which has simple, opposite leaves, covered above and below with fine velvety hairs.

SASALIT. (Pl. CI.)

This is a medium-sized tree which reaches a height of 25 to 28 meters and a diameter of 75 centimeters, though usually it is considerably smaller. The bole is buttressed, usually crooked and fluted. It is found scattered in open places or as undergrowth in certain dipterocarp forests. The bark is 8 to 10 millimeters in thickness, gray to brown in color, slightly roughened by shallow saucer-like depressions; the inner bark is brittle. The leaves are opposite and palmately 3 to 7 compound; the leaflets are usually smooth, varying in size from 5.5 to 28 centimeters long and 2.5 to 12.5 centimeters wide. The wood of sasalit is light yellowish brown to dark yellowish brown. It is very heavy, very hard, durable, and less brittle than molave. It has practically the same uses as molave and is often sold for it.

Sasalit has been recorded from the following regions: Luzon (Cagayan, Pangasinan, Principe, Zambales, Tayabas, Albay, Sorsogon); Ticao Island; Samar; Negros; Zamboanga. It has the scientific name of *Vitex aherniana*. The following local names are known: Dalipapa (Cag.); dungula (Neg.); gualberto (Il.); igang (Principe); kalipapa (Sam., Al.).

Api-api (*Avicennia officinalis*) is a small tree common in the mangrove swamps. It has opposite leaves, white beneath. The wood is hard, heavy, very brittle and with a very peculiar structure.

TEAK. (Pl. CII.)

Teak is not native to the Philippines. Small plantations of it occur in the southern islands, especially in Zamboanga district, Basilan Island, and Sulu. Here it has been planted long enough to reach sizes up

to 80 centimeters or more in diameter. It is intolerant of shade. The bark is 8 to 20 millimeters thick, light brown to gray, with vertical lines, giving it an indistinct ridged appearance, the outside being a soft papery layer shedding in long thin flakes. The inner bark is light colored with prominent brown pith rays; on exposure it turns rapidly to a yellowish brown. The leaves are simple, opposite, with a dense mat of velvety hairs beneath, and vary in size from 19 to 33 centimeters long and 13.5 to 22 centimeters wide, though sprout leaves are much larger.

The sapwood is light colored; the heartwood is dark golden yellow, turning brown and finally black with age. It is moderately heavy, moderately hard, with a coarse and straight grain. It has a distinct aromatic odor. Teak is the best known wood of the Tropics. It is used for ship-building; high-class construction of all kinds; furniture; carving.

Teak (*teca*, Sp.) has been collected in the Philippines in the following regions: Rizal; Zamboanga; Basilan Island; Jolo Island. The scientific name is *Tectona grandis*.

CATALPA OR BANAI-BANAI FAMILY.

(Bignoniaceæ.)

This family is of little importance to the lumberman. Three trees are common, however, and need a brief mention in this place. Banai-banai (*Radermachera pinnata*) is a small to medium sized tree with doubly compound leaves and large showy flowers. It and other species of *Radermachera* are found scattered usually in open places. Pinkapinkahan (*Oroxylum indicum*) is a small to medium sized tree with large doubly compound leaves and long, flat, broad pods containing winged seeds. It seems to be confined to the region where the dry season is pronounced, and so far as observation goes is bare of leaves longer than any other tree in the Philippines. The wood is soft, light in weight and is used for matches. Tui (*Dolichandrone spathacea*) is a small tree usually confined to the sandy beaches and along tidal rivers. It has a soft light-colored wood used principally for making wooden shoe-soles.

COFFEE OR-BANCAL FAMILY.

(Rubiaceæ.)

This family contains a large number of undergrowth, small and medium sized trees and a few that can be classified as large. The trees have opposite leaves with interpetiolar stipules (small leaf-like appendages between the leaf stalks of the opposite leaves) by which the trees can usually be readily distinguished from those of other families.

BANCAL. (Pl. CIII.)

Bancal is a small to medium sized tree with a straight regular bole, the length of which is about one-half the height of the tree. It is intolerant of shade, and is found usually along streams, in coastal plains, and occurs as scattered trees in grass lands in the deforested areas of the lauan-hagachac type. It owes its success here to the fact that it

resists well the effects of fires. The bark is 14 to 18 millimeters in thickness, grayish yellow to ashy red in color, very rough and scaly and has a bitter taste; the inner bark is yellow. The leaves vary in size from 12 to 24 centimeters long and 6.5 to 18.5 centimeters wide.

The sapwood is light yellow; the heartwood darker yellow in color. It is soft to moderately hard, moderately heavy, and has a decided waxy feeling. It has the following uses: House construction (partitions, posts, rafters, flooring, ceilings); small boats; furniture (chairs, desks); barrel staves; tubs; paddles for beating clothes (palopalo), and kitchen and other household implements; firewood; carving.

This or closely related species occur in nearly all provinces. The scientific name is *Sarcocephalus cordatus*. Besides bancal, it has the Ilocano name of bulala.

A number of other species much like bancal in many respects produce bancal lumber. Of these, mambog or bancal (*Sarcocephalus junghuhnii*) is confined to regions where the dry season is not pronounced. It differs from bancal in having smaller leaves.

CALAMANSANAY.

This name seems to apply to a number of species of this and, perhaps, other families that have a light rose-colored wood. (See pp. 79, 87.) The lumber on the market in Manila, however, comes from several species of *Nauclea* found in many parts of the Islands. The following description applies to a specially large species found in the Zamboanga district of Mindanao.

It is a tree that reaches a height of 40 meters and a diameter of 70 centimeters. The bole is straight and regular with slight buttresses. It is intolerant of shade and is very scattered. The bark is 8 to 10 millimeters in thickness, light gray to brown in color, with a surface broken into more or less continuous lines of corky pustules. The middle bark is brown; the inner bark is bright yellow when freshly cut, but on exposure quickly turns to brown. The leaves are simple and opposite.

The sapwood is yellowish with a tinge of pink; the heartwood when freshly cut is a brilliant red, but soon changes to the same color of the sapwood. The wood is heavy and hard, close and straight grained.

Calamansanay has the following uses: House construction (flooring, beams, posts, siding, window sills); masts for boats; furniture; telegraph poles; ties; tool handles.

While the above applies to a particular species of *Nauclea*, yet the character of the bark seems to be rather uniform for a number of species. The following is a list of common names of calamansanay: Bankalauag (V.); bayaho (Il.); bisal (Pang); himbabalut (Il.); kalamansauan (T.); kalumagon (B.); kamansak (Z.); malatumbaga (Zam.); subo-subo (Z.).

GENERAL INDEX.

[NOTE.—Official common names are in heavy-faced type; local names not official (i. e., synonyms), in Roman type.]

	Page.		Page.
Acacia	43	Anabion	28
Acle	35, 42	Anagao	59
Acleng-parang	35, 40	Anagap	43
Abbreviations	22	Anahao	27
Abuhungan	68	Anahauon (<i>Dipterocarpus affinis</i>).....	70
Adaan	41	Anahauon (<i>Dipterocarpus grandiflorus</i>)	69
Adamui	68	Anahuhan	43
Adiangao	26	Anam (<i>Buchanania arborescens</i>).....	51
African mahogany	44	Anam (<i>Diospyros pilosanthera</i>).....	94
Afu (<i>Anisoptera sp.</i>).....	78	Anang	94
Afu (<i>Dipterocarpus vernicifluus</i>).....	70	Anapias	32
Agana	36	Andaman rosewood	36
Agaru	48	Andarayan	95
Agguk	53	Anibong	27
Agoho	27	Aniga	77
Agoho family	27	Anilao family	55
Agoo	27	Aninapla	41
Agoso	27	Aningat (<i>Parinarium griffithianum</i>)..	34
Agubarao	97	Aningat (<i>Vatica mangachapoi</i>).....	77
Aguherao	97	Anis-kahoi	32
Agupanga	54	Anis-moscada	32
Alagao	54	Anonang family	96
Alahan	54	Anonas	31
Alakaak	91	Anotong	96
Alalangad	41	Antagan	36
Alam	66	Antipolo family	28
Alamog	47	Antipolo	29
Alasin	54	Anubing	28
Alato	59	Apalang	81
Alauihau	54	Apalit (<i>Pterocarpus sp.</i>).....	36
Alcohol	27	Apalit (<i>Pahudia rhomboidea</i>).....	39
Alibangbang	43	Apalong	53
Aligamen	53	Api-api	83, 98
Alim	48	Apitong (<i>Dipterocarpus affinis</i>).....	70
Alintatao	94	Apitong (<i>Dipterocarpus grandiflorus</i>)	68
Alipauin	95	Apitong (<i>Dipterocarpus vernicifluus</i>)..	70
Almaciga	25	Aplit	30
Almon (<i>Shorea furfuracea</i>).....	63	Apnit	62
Almon (<i>Parashorea plicata</i>).....	64	Araka	68
Almon-lauan	61, 62	Aragas, The	78
Alupay	53	Aranga family	78
Alupag	53	Arangan	79
Alupag family	53	Arbol de fuego (see also Fire tree)..	43
Amaga	93	Aritongtong	84
Ambogis	50	Aroma	43
Anongo family	54	Aroo	27
Ampopot	50	Asana	36
Ampupuyot	79	Ata-ata (<i>Diospyros mindanaensis</i>).....	94
Amugauan	97	Ata-ata (<i>Diospyros pilosanthera</i>).....	94
Amuguis	50	Atis	31
Amuravon	97		

	Page.		Page.
Bacauan family	81	Bantinon	45
Bacauan	82, 83	Bantulinao (<i>Diospyros discolor</i>).....	93
Bacauan-gubat	82, 83	Bantulinao (<i>Diospyros pilosanthera</i>)..	94
Bacauan-lalaki	82, 83	Bantulinao (<i>Maba buxifolia</i>).....	93
Baganaum	80	Banuyo	35, 41
Bagiles	53	Barakbakan	75
Bagiroro	43	Barasus	84
Bagtican-lauan	61, 63, 64	Barayong	39
Bagulibas (<i>Buchanania arborescens</i>)..	51	Basakan	28
Bagulibas (<i>Garuga abilo</i>).....	44	Baslayan	32
Bahai	43	Batete	35, 36
Bait	53	Basuit	34
Bankahasi	50	Baticulin family	32
Bakalao	53	Batino	95
Bakayao	90	Batitinan	79
Bakayo	34	Batitinan-babaye	86
Balabak (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>).....	62	Batuan	51
Balabak (<i>Shorea squamata</i>).....	66	Bangongon	97
Balacat family	52	Bayabas	88
Balagayan	68	Bayaho	100
Balakbakan (<i>Shorea polysperma</i>).....	67, 68	Bayok	58
Balakbakan (<i>Shorea sp.</i>).....	67	Bayu	70
Balambanan	54	Bayukan (<i>Parashorea plicata</i>).....	64
Balanga	51	Bayukan (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>).....	62
Ba'santi	48	Bayuko	29
Balao	69	Bejucu	27
Balayohot	51	Bel-bel	26
Balayong (<i>Cassia javanica</i>).....	43	Benguet pine	26
Balayong (<i>Pahudia rhomboidea</i>).....	39	Beobayano	51
Balayong (<i>Wallaceodendron celebi-</i> <i>cum</i>)	42	Betik (<i>Hopea plagata</i>).....	73
Balete	30	Betik (<i>Shorea guiso</i>).....	71
Baligohot	51	Betis family	89
Balinghasay	51	Betis (<i>Illipe betis</i>).....	89
Balintua	32	Betis (<i>Palaquium tenuipetiolatum</i>)...	92
Balinsil	85	Biao	49
Balobo	55	Bias-bias	89
Balongkawit	45	Bibit	77
Baltik	26	Bidiangao	26
Balubad	52	Bigaa	53
Balubat	96	Biguai	48
Balui	47	Biguai lalaki	48
Balukanad	49	Bikag family	59
Banaba family	79	Billian	33
Banaba	80	Biluang	79
Banai-banai family	99	Binayuyu	48
Bancal family	99	Bingao	34
Banasi	44	Binggas (<i>Lagerstroemia piriformis</i>)..	80
Bangai	28	Binggas (<i>Parinari griffithianum</i>)..	34
Banati	44	Binggas (<i>Terminalia comintana</i>).....	86
Banato	49	Binayuyu	48
Banalo	55	Binuang (<i>Endospermum peltatum</i>)....	49
Banawi	49	Binuang family.....	79
Bangat	58	Binuang (<i>Octomeles sumatrana</i>).....	79
Bani (<i>Pongamia mitis</i>).....	43	Binukao	60
Bani (<i>Vatica sp.</i>).....	77	Binunga (<i>Endospermum peltatum</i>)....	49
Baniti (<i>Illipe ramiflora</i>).....	92	Binunga family	48
Baniti (<i>Palaquium philippense</i>).....	91	Binunga (<i>Macaranga tanarius</i>).....	48
Bankalari	50	Blot	46
Bankalauag	100	Bird's eye calantas	45
Bankalauan	51	Biroi	60
Bansalaguin	90	Bisal	100
Bansangal	60	Bitangol	60
Bansilak	43	Bitanhol (<i>Calophyllum blancoi</i>).....	60
Bansog	26	Bitanhol (<i>Palaquium luzoniense</i>).....	91
Bantangali	54	Bitagog	60
		Bitaoi	60

	Page.		Page.
Black yacal	73	Cinnamon	33
Bladder nut family.....	54	Ciruelas	52
Blanco's narra	36	Coffee family	99
Bogo	44	Cotton-tree family	55
Bok-bok	46	Cubi (<i>Artocarpus cumingiana</i>).....	29
Bolik	53	Cubi (<i>Beilschmiedia cairocan</i>).....	33
Bolongeta (<i>Diospyros mindanaensis</i>)..	94	Custard apple	31
Bolongeta (<i>Diospyros pilosanthera</i>)..	93	Cupang	35, 39
Bongling	89	Curly calantas	45
Boo-boo	26	Dadiangao	26
Borneo mahogany	60	Dagaa	53
Borom	51	Dagang	78
Botong	81	Dagindigan	53
Boxwood, substitute for.....	44, 88	Dagum	78
Brea	44	Daitanag	36
Brea blanca.....	44	Dalandan	44
Bread fruit	29	Dalinas	31
Buanubai	53	Dalingdingan (<i>Hopea acuminata</i>)	75
Buckthorn family	52	Dalingdingan (<i>Hopea pierrei</i>)	76
Bugaron	80	Dalingdingan-isak	76
Bugis	62	Dalinsi (<i>Terminalia nitens</i>).....	85
Bulala (<i>Euphoria cinerea</i>).....	53	Dalinsi (<i>Terminalia oöcarpa</i>)	85
Bulala (<i>Sarcocephalus cordatus</i>).....	100	Dalinsi (<i>Terminalia pellucida</i>)	84
Bulauisan	97	Dalipapa	98
Bulauen	97	Daluru	81
Bulaon	97	Damalalian	69
Bultlok	28	Dambuhala	94
Bunog	60	Damilang	68
Busain	82, 83	Dammar	25
Butarik	40	Danga	45
Butong-manuk	48	Dangi	77
Buyog-tongon	97	Danggai	37
Cabiqui	91	Dangilo	50
Cacao family	55	Danigga (<i>Toona calantas</i>)	45
Cajel	44	Danigga (<i>Vitex parviflora</i>).....	97
Calamansanay (<i>Flacourtia inermis</i>)..	79	Danioura	80
Calamansanay (<i>Nauclea</i> sp.).....	100	Dankalan	60
Calamansanay (<i>Terminalia calaman-</i> <i>sana</i>)	87	Danlig (<i>Parashorea plicata</i>)	64
Calantas family	44	Danlig (<i>Shorea furfuracea</i>)	63
Calantas	45	Danlig (<i>Shorea malaanonan</i>).....	64
Calocatmon	59	Danlig (<i>Shorea squamata</i>)	66
Calumpit (<i>Terminalia edulis</i>).....	83	Danlik	53
Calumpit (<i>Terminalia nitens</i>)	85	Danlog	62
Calumpit (<i>Terminalia oöcarpa</i>).....	85	Danupra	45
Calunti (see also Kalunti-lauan).....	64	Dao	51
Camagon (<i>Diospyros discolor</i>).....	94	Dap-dap	43
Camagon (<i>Diospyros pilosanthera</i>)....	94	Darayao	34
Camanchile	43	Dauer	42
Camphor wood	33	Dayap	44
Camuning family	44	Digaa	53
Canary family	44	Dilaan	51
Candle-nut oil	49	Dila-dila	49
Cafia-fistula	43	Dilak	48
Castilloa	30	Dili	34
Cashew nut	52	Dilupaon	95
Catalpa family	99	Dinglas (<i>Lagerstroemia piriformis</i>)..	80
Catmon-carabao	58	Dinglas (<i>Terminalia comintana</i>)	86
Catmon family	58	Dipterocarp family	60
Ceara rubber	49	Diraan (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>).....	62
Champaca family	31	Diraan (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	28
Chico	17	Diraan (<i>Zizyphus zonulatus</i>).....	53
Cigar boxes, Calantas	45	Dita family	94
Cigar boxes, Balinghasay	51	Dita	95
Cinnamon family	32	Dogbane family	94
		Dogwood family	89
		Doldol	55

	Page.		Page.
Dolo	94	Halupag	53
Dugkatan	33	Hamindang	48, 49
Duguan family	31	Hamulaon	97
Duhat	88	Hamuraon	97
Duka	37	Hamurauon	97
Duko	69	Hamursan	97
Dulauan	43	Hanagdon	28
Dulitan	91	Hapnit (<i>Parashorea plicata</i>)	64
Dumadara	32	Hapnit (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>)	62
Dungon (<i>Pterocarpus</i> sp.)	36	Hatblocks (<i>see also</i> Santol)	46
Dungon family	55	Himbabau	30
Dungon (<i>Tarrietia sylvatica</i>)	55	Himbabalut	100
Dungon-dungonan	34	Himlalaong	53
Dungon-late	56, 83	Hinabusi	86
Dungula	98	Hindang-atian	32
Duplak	53	Hinlaumo	48
Durugo	32	Huligano	58
Durog	77	Hupong-hupong	51
Duyog-duyog (<i>Illipe betis</i>)	90	Ibu	54
Duyog-duyog (<i>Mimusops</i> sp.)	91	Igang	98
Duyong	78	Ilang-ilang family	31
Ebano (<i>Maba buxifolia</i>)	92	Inyam	48
Ebano (<i>Diospyros pilosanthera</i>)	94	India rubber tree	30
Ebony family	92	Ipil	35, 38
Ebony	92	Ipil-ipil	43
Elemi	44	Iron wood	33
Elm family	28	Itang-itang	95
Eucalypt family	87	Ituman	93
Eucalyptus	88	Jack fruit	29
Fanginhan	58	Kabakabat	54
Fig family	28	Kabiki	91
Fire tree	43	Kabuyao	44
Gagil	50	Kakawati	43
Gala-gala	26	Kakgangan	34
Galangan	94	Kalai	41
Galarigal	93	Kalamansanan	100
Ganga	51	Kalamansi	44
Gatasan (<i>Mimusops</i> sp.)	91	Kalangtapai	93
Gatasan (<i>Palaquium luzoniense</i>)	91	Kalantad	45
Gayumayen	84	Kalatuchi	95
Ginseng family	89	Kalautit (<i>Terminalia edulis</i>)	84
Gisit	84	Kalautit (<i>Terminalia nitens</i>)	85
Gogong-toko	41	Kalautit (<i>Terminalia oocarpa</i>)	85
Grape fruit	44	Kalautit (<i>Terminalia pellucida</i>)	84
Gualberto	98	Kalibayan	98
Guanabano	31	Kalingag	33
Guava	88	Kalios	30
Gubas	49	Kalipapa (<i>Vitex aherniana</i>)	98
Guijo	68, 70	Kalipapa (<i>Vitex parviflora</i>)	98
Guiso	71	Kalipapa-aso	98
Guisoc (<i>Hopea plagata</i>)	73	Kaliwas	60
Guisoc (<i>Shorea balangeran</i>)	73	Kaloyanan (<i>Diospyros discolor</i>)	93
Guisoc (<i>Shorea guiso</i>)	71	Kaloyanan (<i>Maba buxifolia</i>)	93
Guisoc-amarillo	73	Kalubkob	88
Guisoc colorado	73	Kalulit	29
Guisoc-guisoc (<i>Hopea philippinensis</i>)	75	Kalumagon	100
Guisoc-guisoc (<i>Shorea balangeran</i>) ..	73	Kalumanog	84
Guntapai	89	Kalumpang	58
Guttapercha family	89	Kalunti-lauan	61, 64
Gutta-percha	92	Kamagahai	79
Guyung-guyung	60	Kamangsi	29
Hagachac (<i>Dipterocarpus affinis</i>)	70	Kamansak	100
Hagachac (<i>Dipterocarpus grandiflorus</i>)	68, 69	Kamarak	51
Hagimit	30	Kamatog	43
Hakit	84	Kamayuan	30
		Kamuling	55

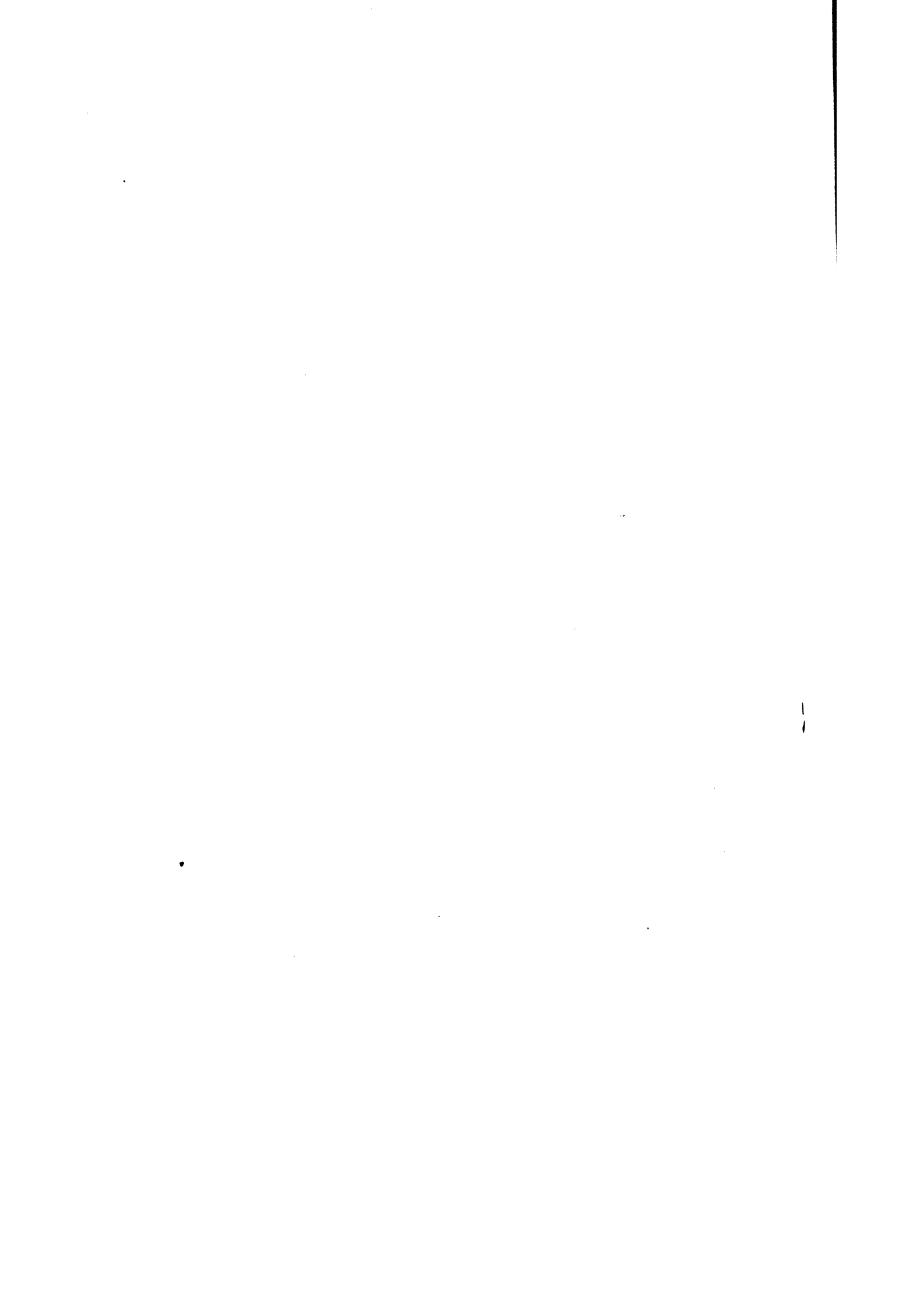
	Page.		Page.
Kamuyao (<i>Dipterocarpus affinis</i>).....	70	Latuan	31
Kamuyao (<i>Dipterocarpus grandiflorus</i>)	69	Laua-an (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>).....	62
Kamuyao (<i>Dipterocarpus vernicifluus</i>)	70	Lauan family	60
Kaming	51	Lauan group	61
Kamingi	44	Lauan (<i>Parashorea plicata</i>)	64
Kandongisal	53	Lauan (<i>Shorea furfuracea</i>)	63, 64
Kanilan	80	Lauan (<i>Shorea malaanonan</i>)	64
Kankangan	34	Lauan (<i>Shorea squamata</i>)	66
Kanteng	51	Lauan blanco (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>)....	62
Kantingen	45	Lauan puti (<i>Parashorea plicata</i>).....	64
Kansuyod	47	Lauan puti (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>)	62
Karamutan	27	Lauan puti (<i>Shorea malaanonan</i>)....	64
Kaping-gubat	48	Lauan, Red	66
Kapok	55	Lemon family	44
Karial	41	Letis	78
Karig	76	Libas	52
Karogkog	50	Libtuk	58
Karunyan	54	Ligaa	53
Kasai	43	Ligas (<i>Buchananie arborescens</i>).....	51
Kasoi	52	Ligas (<i>Semecarpus perrottetii</i>)	52
Katabang	28	Ligayan	91
Katapang	71	Linan	80
Katural	43	Lignum vitae, substitute for	88
Kayutana	44	Linden family	55
Key to principal timber trees	18	Lime	44
Key to Principal Trees of Mangrove Swamps	83	Lingabunu	51
Kia-kia	54	Lingo-lingo	98
Kita-kita	43	Liput	70
Kalapak	68	Litan	71
Kogik	54	Litao	26
Kotilik	28	Liusin family	34
Kulatingan	34	Liusin-gubat	35
Kuling-manuk	48	Locust family	35
Kulipapa	98	Lubanayong	47
Kulis family	88	Lukban	44
Kuyus-kuyus	30	Lumbang	49
Labang	77	Lumbayao	57
Labing	37	Lumangud	53
Lago	35	Lumanog	86
Lako-lako	50	Lumbol	88
Lamiglen	90	Lupigi	42
Lamio (<i>Dracontomelum dao</i>)	51	Luyong	93
Lamio (<i>Dracontomelum cumingianum</i>)	52	Mabolo	93
Lamisi	96	Macaasim family	87
Lamog	81	Madalo	54
Lamusi	96	Madre-cacao	43
Lanahan	98	Magalapalali	59
Lanete	96	Magalayao (<i>Pahudia rhomboidea</i>) ...	39
Langarai	82, 83	Magalayao (<i>Pterocarpus</i> sp.)	36
Lanigda	45	Magalibas	50
Langip	43	Magalipak	58
Lanipao	86	Magatli	59
Lanitan	95	Magayao	57
Laniteng	96	Magbalago	37
Lanot	32	Magkono	88
Lanoti	96	Magnolia family	31
Lansones	48	Maglalopoi	86
Lanutan (<i>Anonaceae</i>)	31	Maglanka	53
Lanutan (<i>Bombycidendron vidalenum</i>)	55	Magsantol	46
Lasila (<i>Lagerstroemia piriformis</i>)....	80	Magtallsay (<i>Terminalia edulis</i>)	84
Lasila (<i>Terminalia comintana</i>)	86	Magtallsay (<i>Terminalia nitens</i>)	85
Lasilasan	53	Mahogany	44
		Mahogany family	44
		Mahogany, Borneo	60
		Makabalo	80
		Makabingao	28
		Makao	26

	Page.		Page.
Makitarim (<i>Hopea philippinensis</i>)....	75	Manaong	84
Makitarim (<i>Hopea pierrei</i>)	76	Manapo	37
Makopa (<i>Aglaia clarkii</i>)	47	Manaring	28
Makopa (<i>Engenia javanica</i>)	88	Mancono	88
Malaanonang (<i>Parashorea plicata</i>)..	64	Manga	52
Malaanonang (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>)....	62	Mangachapuy (<i>Hopea acuminata</i>)....	75
Malaanonang-lauan (<i>Shorea mala-</i>	61, 64	Mangachapuy (<i>Hopea pierrei</i>).....	76
<i>anonan</i>)		Mangachapuy (<i>Shorea</i> sp.)	67
Malabalunu	51	Mangachapuy (<i>Vatica mangachapoi</i>)..	77
Malabayabas	88	Mangasinoro (<i>Parashorea plicata</i>) ...	64
Malabignai	48	Mangasinoro (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>) ...	62
Malabobonao	46	Mangasinoro (<i>Shorea furfuracea</i>)	63
Malabohok	27	Nangasinoro-lauan	61, 65
Malabulak family	55	Mango	52
Malacacao	66	Mango family	49
Malacadios	33	Mangosteen	60
Malacalumpit	87	Mangosteen family	59
Malacatmon	58	Mangrove family	81
Malacmalac	91	Mangrove swamps, key to the prin-	
Malafuga	34	cipal trees of the	83
Malagabi	85	Manila elemi	44
Malagibuyo	28	Manilig	90
Malaikmo	28	Manicnic	92
Malaiyao	51	Mano-mano	89
Malakayan (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>)	62	Mansanab	54
Malakayan (<i>Shorea furfuracea</i>)	63	Mantalingan	34
Malakayan (<i>Shorea squamata</i>)	66	Mantalinga	80
Malaligas	51	Marang	32
Malamabolo	32	Maratika	41
Malambingan	30	Maraun	98
Malapaho (<i>Anisoptera curtisii</i>).....	78	Marsantog	50
Malapaho (<i>Dipterocarpus grandi-</i>	69	Mata-mata	34
<i>florus</i>)		Marutong	53
Malapaho (<i>Dipterocarpus vernici-</i>	70	Mayapis (<i>Anisoptera thurifera</i>)	78
<i>fluus</i>)		Mayapis (<i>Parashorea plicata</i>)	64
Malapaho (<i>Sindora supa</i>)	37	Mayapis (<i>Shorea furfuracea</i>)	63
Malapapaya family	89	Mayapis (<i>Shorea ploysperma</i>).....	67, 68
Malaputat	85	Mayapis (<i>Shorea squamata</i>)	66
Malaresa	53	Mayapis-lauan (<i>Shorea squamata</i>)....	61, 65
Malaruhat	87	Mayusip	92
Malarungon	56	Merbou	39
Malasaging	48	Merrill's ipil	37
Malasantol	46	Mesquite, Philippine	43
Malasapsap (<i>Polyscias nodosa</i>)	89	Miao	48
Malasapsap (<i>Pterocymbium tincto-</i>	58	Mirabow	39
<i>rium</i>)		Mitla	80
Malasinoro	66	Molave family	97
Malasulasi	88	Molina	42
Malatagum	86	Moling	53
Malatalang (<i>Diospyros pilosan-</i>	94	Monkey pod	43
<i>thera</i>)		Montol	81
Malatalang (<i>Maba burifolia</i>)	93	Mulawin	97
Malatapal family	89	Mulawin-aso (<i>Premna nauseosa</i>)....	98
Malatoko	41	Mulawin-aso (<i>Vitex pentaphylla</i>)....	98
Malatumbaga (<i>Aglaia harmsiana</i>)....	48	Mulawin-aso (<i>Vitex turczaninowii</i>)..	98
Malatumbaga (<i>Nauclea</i> sp.)	100	Mulawin-batu	98
Malaya	33	Naga	36
Malayacal	74	Naghubo	86
Malubago family	55	Nala	36
Malugay	54	Nangka	29
Maluktuk	34	Narra	35
Mallow family	55	Narra family	35
Mamalis family	34	Narig	76
Mamakao	51	Nato	91
Mamaog	68	Nato puti	92
Mambog	100	Nato, white	92

	Page.		Page.
Naya	36	Pango	92
Nerik	29	Pangolaklain	95
Nigi	47	Pao	32
Niket	71	Papolongan	73
Nipa	27	Pappagan	91
Niquet	71	Para rubber	49
Nutmeg family	31	Parasabuking	80
Oak family	28	Parina	37
Obar suluk	68	Parna	26
Odiao	36	Pasak (<i>Illipe betis</i>)	90
Oghayan	66	Pasak (<i>Parinarium griffithianum</i>)	34
Olayan	28	Pata	68
Olayan	34	Patangis	31
Ol-ol	26	Patsaragon	91
Oplai	95	Pawpaw family	31
Orange	44	Pedada	81
Oranges	51	Persimmon family	92
Padouk	36	Philippine mahogany (<i>see also</i> Ca- lantas)	45
Pagatpat	81, 83	Philippine mahogany (<i>see also</i> Lum- bayao)	57
Pagatpat family	81	Philippine mahogany (<i>Pterocarpus</i> spp.)	36
Pagsahingin (<i>Canarium villosum</i>)	44	Philippine mahogany (<i>see also</i> Red lauan)	67
Pagsahingin (<i>Dipterocarpus grandiflorus</i>)	69	Philippine mesquite	43
Pagsahingin (<i>Dipterocarpus vernicifluus</i>)	70	Philippine teak	80
Pahutan	52	Physic-nut	49
Palhapi	78	Piagao	47, 83
Pakak	29	Pianga	90
Palaien	28	Pili family	44, 60
Palali	59	Pili nut	44
Palang	86	Pili resin	44
Palanpino	26	Pine family	25
Palatangan	41	Pinkapinkahan	99
Paleng	51	Pintok	39
Palina	37	Pipi	41
Palma brava	27	Pisak	76
Palmegapoy	56	Pisek	91
Palm family	27	Polai	95
Palo de hierro	88	Pototan	82, 83
Palogapig	56	Pototan lalaki	82, 83
Palok-palok	91	Pototans, The	82, 83
Palo-Maria del monte	60	Porak	45
Palo Maria (<i>Kingiodendron alternifolium</i>)	37	Portia tree	55
Palo Maria family	59	Prickly Narra	36
Palonapin	56	Principal trees of the mangrove swamp, key to the	83
Palonapoi	28	Puso-puso (<i>Buchanania arborescens</i>)	51
Palonapoy	56	Puso-puso (<i>Neolitsea vidalii</i>)	33
Palong	32	Putat family	81
Palosanto	50	Pyngadu	43
Palosapis	77	Quia-quia	54
Palosapis group	77	Quita-quita	43
Pamalalian	59	Raintree	43
Pamalalian (<i>Dipterocarpus grandiflorus</i>)	69	Rattans	27
Pamantuling	69	Red Almon (<i>Shorea</i> sp.)	67
Pamarauagon	80	Red lauan (<i>Shorea</i> sp.)	61, 66
Pamayawasen (<i>Shorea malaanonan</i>)	64	Red Lauan (<i>Shorea squamata</i>)	66
Pamitaogan	60	Rima	29
Pamitlaten	60	Rose family	34
Pamito	53	Rosewood, Andaman	36
Panao (<i>Dipterocarpus grandiflorus</i>)	68, 69	Rosewood, Seychelles Islands	55
Panao (<i>Dipterocarpus vernicifluus</i>)	69	Rubber	30
Panganamaen	29	Rubber family	48
Pangnan	28		

	Page.		Page.
Rubber (<i>see also Hevea brasiliensis</i> and <i>Manihot glaziovii</i>).....	49	Talabangon	37
Sacat (<i>Terminalia nitens</i>).....	85	Talang	93
Sacat (<i>Terminalia oocarpa</i>).....	85	Talang-talang	32
Sabong-kaag	34	Talanpino	26
Sagad	98	Talihagan	32
Sagasa	88	Talimorong	48
Sagat	36	Talipopo (<i>Illipe betis</i>).....	90
Sagged	45	Talipopo (<i>Mimusops</i> sp.).....	91
Saging-kahoi	32	Talisay	85
Salalangin	37	Talisay del monte	85
Saldana	47	Talisay family	83
Saleng	26	Talisay-gubat	84
Saleng family	25	Taloktok	58
Salingkapa	98	Taluto	57
Salinkugi	35, 41	Tamarind	43
Salit	26	Tamayuan family	30
Sambulauan	50	Tambalao	32
Sampalok	43	Tambulian	33
Sampinit	34	Tampo i	88
Sandana	45	Tanag	58
Sandana	62	Tanaganan	80
Sangai.....	37	Tangal	82, 83
Sangki.....	36	Tangantang	51
Santa elena	43	Tanghas	96
Santol (<i>Sandoricum indicum</i>).....	46	Tangisang-bayawak	30
Santol (<i>Sandoricum vidalii</i>).....	46	Tangitan	95
Saplungan	86	Tanglangao	37
Sapolongan	73	Tanglin	43
Sappan	43	Tanguile (<i>Illipe ramiflora</i>)	92
Sarai	71	Tanguile (<i>Shorea polysperma</i>)	61, 67
Sarangan	34	Tanguile (<i>Shorea squamata</i>)	66
Sasalit	98	Tanguile (<i>Shorea</i> sp.)	67
Satinwood	44	Tanguitin	93
Seychelles Islands rosewood	55	Tanigi	48
Sibucan	43	Tanitan	95
Sidao	54	Taoto	58
Siggai	73	Tapilak	94
Siongsiongan	77	Tapulao	26
Soapberry family	53	Tapurao	77
Soursop	31	Tara-tara	45
Spanish cedar (<i>see also West Indian</i> cedar)	45	Tawalis	88
Strychnine family	94	Tawigi	47
Subo-subo (<i>Nauclea</i> sp.)	100	Tayataya	84
Subosubo (<i>Terminalia nitens</i>)	85	Tayogong	91
Subo-subo (<i>Terminalia pellucida</i>)	84	Tea family	59
Sudyang	88	Teak family	97
Suha	44	Teak	98
Sumac family	49	Teak, Philippine	80
Supa	35, 37	Teca (<i>Fagraea fragrans</i>).....	94
Susumbik	55	Teca (<i>Tectona grandis</i>).....	99
Sweetsop	31	Teluto	58
Tabak	66	Thatching material	27
Tabalangi	43	Tiaong-lauan	61, 68
Tabao	83, 87	Tiga (<i>Parinarium griffithianum</i>).....	34
Tabangao	80	Tiga (<i>Tristania decorticata</i>).....	88
Tabigi	47, 83	Tigawi	54
Tabun-tabun	34	Tigian	41
Tadian-manuk	34	Tigig	96
Tagatoi	91	Tiklik	28
Tagga	36	Tinaan	80
Taggai	73	Tinaan-pantai	49
Takaran	91	Tindalo	35, 39
Takugan	54	Tipolo	29
Takung	58	Tiroron	86
		Titao	26
		Toog (<i>Bischofia javanica</i>).....	49

	Page.		Page.
Toog (<i>Terminalia quadrialata</i>)	86	Uris	39
Toon	44	Urisan	50
Tuai	49	Urung family	94
Tualing	43	Usao	53
Tucang-calao	46	West Indian cedar	44, 45
Tuba	49	White Baticulin	32
Tugas (<i>Vitex parviflora</i>).....	98	White lauan (<i>Pentacme contorta</i>).....	61, 63
Tugas (<i>Xanthostemon verdugonia-</i> <i>nus</i>)	88	White Lauan (<i>Shorea furfuracea</i>)....	63
Tugoran	54	White Nato	92
Tui	99	Yacal (<i>Hopea plagata</i>).....	72
Tukud-langit	89	Yacal, black (<i>see also</i> Black yacal)..	73
Uakatan	91	Yacal-blanco	77
Uas	54	Yacal dilao (<i>Sindora supa</i>).....	37
Ubanan	66	Yacal group	71
Ubien	29	Yacal (<i>Shorea balangeran</i>).....	73
Ughayan	95	Yacal (<i>Vatica</i> sp.).....	77
Ugob	29	Yamban (<i>Shorea balangeran?</i>).....	73
Ulayan	53	Yamban (<i>Shorea guiso</i>).....	71
Ulian	28	Yellow Baticulin	32
Urian	36	Yew family	26
Urien	90	Zarumayen	60
		Zitan	71



INDEX TO SCIENTIFIC NAMES.

	Page.		Page.
<i>Acacia farnesiana</i>	43	<i>Bruguiera gymnorrhiza</i>	82
<i>Adenantha intermedia</i>	43	<i>Bruguiera parviflora</i>	82
<i>Adinandra luzonica</i>	59	<i>Buchanania arborescens</i>	51
<i>Aglala clarkii</i>	47	<i>Burseraceæ</i>	44, 60
<i>Aglala harmsiana</i>	48	<i>Caesalpina sappan</i>	43
<i>Aglala</i> spp.	48	<i>Calamus</i> spp.	27
<i>Agathis alba</i>	26	<i>Calophyllum blancoi</i>	60
<i>Alangium longiflorum</i>	89	<i>Calophyllum inophyllum</i>	60
<i>Albizzia acle</i>	43	<i>Canarium odoratum</i>	31
<i>Albizzia procera</i>	41	<i>Canarium cumingii</i>	44
<i>Albizzia retusa</i>	43	<i>Canarium luzonicum</i>	44
<i>Albizzia saponaria</i>	41	<i>Carallia integerrima</i>	82
<i>Aleurites moluccana</i>	49	<i>Cassia fistula</i>	43
<i>Aleurites trisperma</i>	49	<i>Cassia javanica</i>	43
<i>Allaeanthus glaber</i>	30	<i>Cassia siamea</i>	43
<i>Alstonia macrophylla</i>	95	<i>Castilloa elastica</i>	30
<i>Alstonia scholaris</i>	95	<i>Casuarinaceæ</i>	27
<i>Amoora</i> spp.	48	<i>Casuarina equisetifolia</i>	27
<i>Anacardiaceæ</i>	49	<i>Casuarina</i> spp.	28
<i>Anacardium occidentale</i>	52	<i>Cedrela odorata</i>	44
<i>Anisoptera curtisii</i>	78	<i>Ceiba pentandra</i>	55
<i>Anisoptera thurifera</i>	78	<i>Celtis philippensis</i>	28
<i>Anisoptera</i> sp.	77, 78	<i>Ceriops tagal</i>	82
<i>Anona muricata</i>	31	<i>Chisochiton</i> spp.	48
<i>Anona reticulata</i>	31	<i>Chloroxylon swietenia</i>	44
<i>Anona squamosa</i>	31	<i>Cinnamomum camphora</i>	33
<i>Anonaceæ</i>	31	<i>Cinnamomum mercadoi</i>	33
<i>Antidesma bunius</i>	48, 49	<i>Cinnamomum mindanaense</i>	33
<i>Antidesma edule</i>	48	<i>Citrus hystrix</i>	44
<i>Antidesma ghaesembilla</i>	48	<i>Citrus</i> spp.	44
<i>Apocynaceæ</i>	94	<i>Columbia serratifolia</i>	55
<i>Aporosa sphæridophora</i>	48	<i>Combretaceæ</i>	83
<i>Aporosa symplocosifolia</i>	48	<i>Cordia blancoi</i>	96
<i>Araliaceæ</i>	89	<i>Cornaceæ</i>	89
<i>Artocarpus cumingiana</i>	29	<i>Cratoxylon celebicum</i>	60
<i>Artocarpus communis</i>	29	<i>Cratoxylon</i> spp.	60
<i>Artocarpus integrifolia</i>	29	<i>Cryptocarya bicolor</i>	33
<i>Artocarpus</i> spp.	29	<i>Cyathocalyx globosus</i>	31
<i>Arytera littoralis</i>	54	<i>Cyclostemon bordenii</i>	49
<i>Avicennia officinalis</i>	98	<i>Cyclostemon grandifolius</i>	49
<i>Baccaurea tetrandra</i>	48	<i>Cyclostemon microphyllum</i>	48
<i>Barringtonia racemosa</i>	81	<i>Dacrydium</i> spp.	26
<i>Barringtonia speciosa</i>	81	<i>Datisceæ</i>	79
<i>Bauhinia malabarica</i>	43	<i>Decaspermum blancoi</i>	88
<i>Beilschmiedia cairocan</i>	33	<i>Decaspermum paniculatum</i>	87, 88
<i>Bignoniaceæ</i>	99	<i>Dehaasia triandra</i>	32
<i>Bischofia javanica</i>	48, 49, 87	<i>Dehaasia</i> spp.	32
<i>Bombacaceæ</i>	55	<i>Delonix regia</i>	43
<i>Bombax malabaricum</i>	55	<i>Dilleniaceæ</i>	58
<i>Bombycidendron vidalianum</i>	55	<i>Dillenia luzoniensis</i>	59
<i>Borraginaceæ</i>	96	<i>Dillenia philippinensis</i>	58
<i>Bruguiera caryophylloides</i>	82	<i>Dillenia speciosa</i>	58
<i>Bruguiera eriopetala</i>	82	<i>Dillenia</i> spp.	58

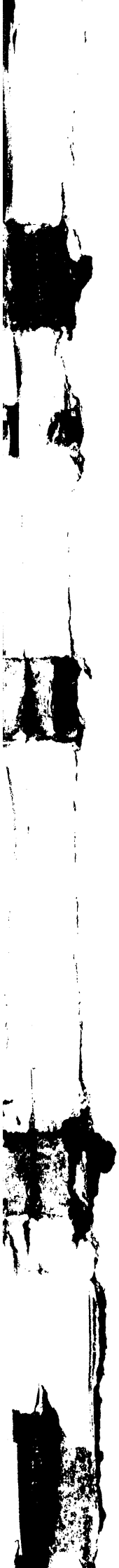
	Page.		Page.
Diospyros discolor	93	Hopea acuminata	75
Diospyros mindanaensis	94	Hopea philippinensis	75
Diospyros pilosanthera	94	Hopea pierrei	76
Diospyros spp.	92	Hopea plagata	73
Diplodiscus paniculatus	55	Hopea sp.	74, 75
Dipterocarpaceæ	60	Illipe betis	90
Dipterocarpus affinis	70	Illipe ramiflora	92
Dipterocarpus grandiflorus	69	Intsia acuminata	38
Dipterocarpus hasseltii	70	Intsia bijuga	38
Dipterocarpus speciosus	70	Jatropha curcas	49
Dipterocarpus vernicifluus	70	Kayea paniculata	60
Dolichandrone spathacea	99	Khaya senegalensis	44
Dracontomelum cumingianum	52	Kingiodendron alternifolium	37
Dracontomelum dao	51	Kleinhofia hospita	58
Dysoxylum spp.	48	Knema heterophylla	32
Ebenaceæ	92	Koordersiodendron pinnatum	50
Endospermum peltatum	49	Lagerstroemia piriformis	80
Enterolobium saman	43	Lagerstroemia speciosa	80
Eucalyptus naudiniana	88	Lansium domesticum	48
Eugenia benthamii	87	Lauraceæ	32
Eugenia bordenii	87	Lecythidaceæ	81
Eugenia calubcob	88	Leguminosæ	35
Eugenia jambolana	88	Leptospermum flavescens	88
Eugenia jambos	88	Leucaena glauca	43
Eugenia javanica	88	Litchi philippinensis	54
Eugenia mimica	87	Litsea perrottetii	32
Eugenia philippensis	87	Litsea spp.	32, 33
Eugenia vidualiana	87	Livistona spp.	27
Eugenia spp.	88	Loganiaceæ	94
Euphorbiaceæ	48, 49	Lumnitzera littorea	87
Euphoria cinerea	53	Lumnitzera racemosa	87
Eurya spp.	59	Lythraceæ	79
Eusideroxylon zwageri	33	Maba buxifolia	93
Erythrina indica	43	Macaranga bicolor	48
Erythrophloeum densiflorum	43	Macaranga tanarius	48
Fagaceæ	28	Magnoliaceæ	31
Fagara sp.	44	Mallotus moluccanus	48
Fagraea fragrans	94	Mallotus philippensis	49
Ficus elastica	30	Mallotus ricinoides	48
Ficus minahassæ	30	Mangifera altissima	52
Ficus variegata	30	Mangifera indica	52
Ficus spp.	30	Manihot glaziovii	48, 49
Flacourtiaceæ	78	Malvaceæ	55
Flacourtia inermis	79	Melastomataceæ	88
Garcinia benthami	60	Meliaceæ	44
Garcinia binucao	60	Memecylon edule	88
Garcinia mangostana	60	Michelia champaca	31
Garuga abilo	44	Mimusops sp.	91
Gliricidia sepium	43	Moraceæ	28
Gordonia luzonica	59	Murraya exotica	44
Grewia stylocarpa	55	Myristicaceæ	31
Grewia spp.	55	Myristica philippensis	31, 32
Guioa perrottetii	54	Myrtaceæ	87
Guttiferæ	59	Nauclea spp.	100
Harpullia arborea	54	Neolitsea vidualii	33
Heritiera littoralis	57	Neolitsea spp.	32
Hevea brasiliensis	48, 49	Nipa fruticans	27
Hibiscus tiliaceus	55	Octomeles sumatrana	79
Homalanthus populneus	48	Olacaceæ	30
Homalanthus spp.	48	Oncosperma spp.	27
Homalium barandæ	79	Ormosia calavensis	43
Homalium bracteatum	79	Oroxylum indicum	99
Homalium luzoniense	78	Osbornia octodonta	88
Homalium panayanum	79	Pahudia rhomboidea	39
Homalium villarianum	79	Palaquium luzoniense	91
Homalium spp.	78	Palaquium philippense	91

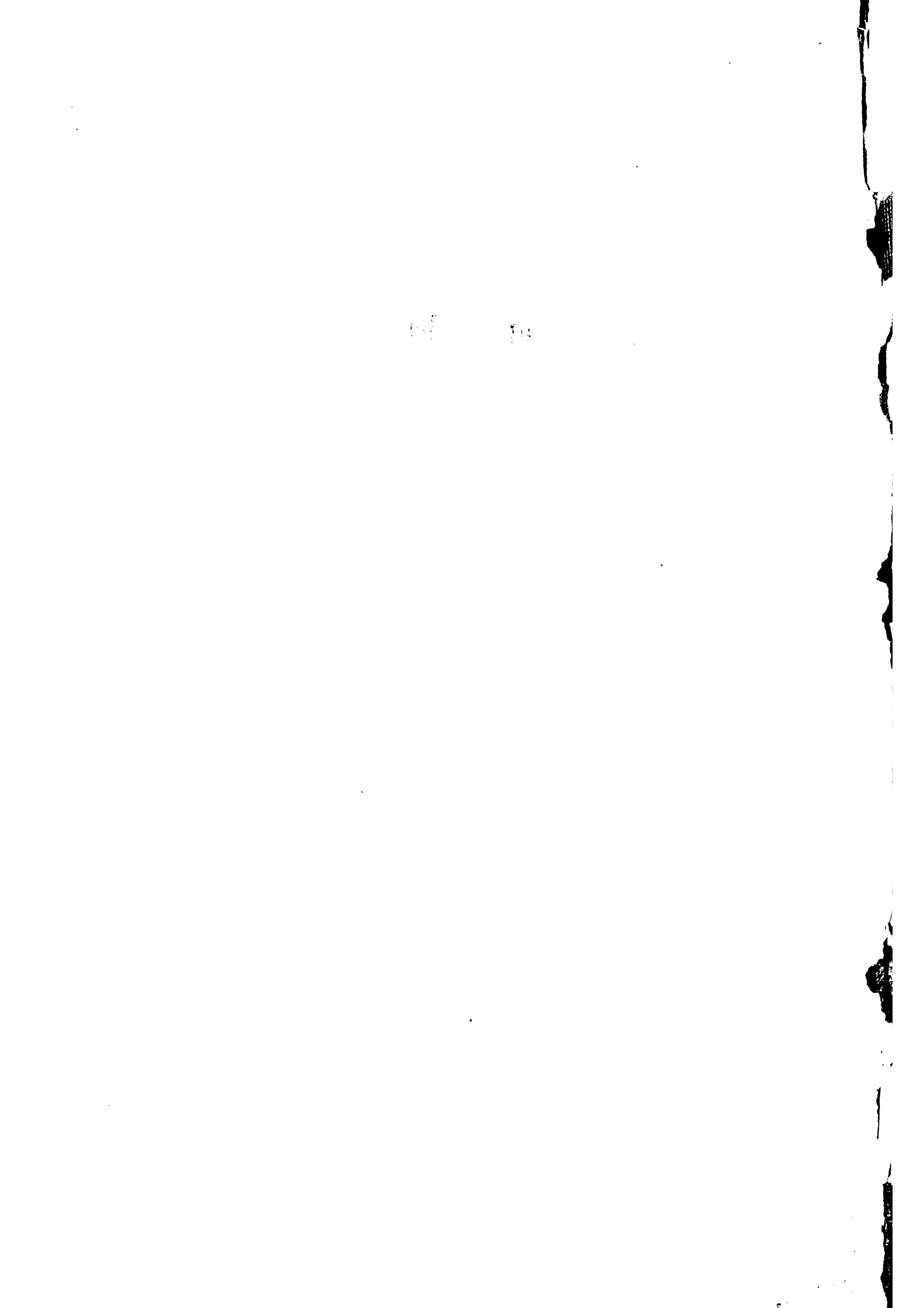
	Page.		Page.
Palaquium tenuipetiolatum	92	Sonneratiaceæ	81
Palaquium spp.	92	Sonneratia pagatpat	81
Palmae	27	Sonneratia sp.	81
Parashorea plicata	64	Spondias lutea	52
Parinarium griffithianum	34	Spondias pinnata	52
Parkia timoriana	40	Staphyleaceæ	54
Peltophorum inerme	43	Sterculiaceæ	55
Pentacme contorta	62	Sterculia blancoi	58
Phoebe sterculioides	33	Sterculia foetida	58
Phoebe spp.	32	Streblus asper	30
Pinaceæ	25	Strombosia philippinensis	30
Pinus insularis	26	Swietenia mahagoni	44
Pinus merkusii	26	Talauma villariana	31
Pithecolobium dulce	43	Tamarindus indica	43
Pithecolobium scutiferum	43	Tarrietia javanica	57
Pittosporaceæ	34	Tarrietia sylvatica	56
Pittosporum pentanarum	34	Taxaceæ	26
Planchonia spectabilis	81	Taxotrophis ilicifolia	30
Podocarpus spp.	26	Taxus spp.	26
Polyscias nodosa	89	Tectona grandis	99
Pometia pinnata	54	Terminalia calamansanai	87
Pongamia mitis	43	Terminalia catappa	86
Premna nauseosa	98	Terminalia comintana	80, 86
Prosopis vidaliana	43	Terminalia edulis	84
Psidium guajava	88	Terminalia nitens	85
Pterocarpus blancoi	36	Terminalia oöcarpa	85
Pterocarpus echinatus	36	Terminalia pellucida	84
Pterocarpus indicus	36	Terminalia quadrialata	87
Pterocymbium tinctorium	58	Terminalia spp.	83
Pterospermum spp.	58	Ternstroemia toquian	59
Pygeum preslii	35	Theaceae	59
Pygeum spp.	35	Thea montana	59
Radermachera pinnata	99	Thespesia populnea	55
Radermachera spp.	99	Tiliaceae	55
Rhamnaceæ	52	Toona calantas	45
Rhizophoraceæ	81	Toona spp.	44
Rhizophora conjugata	82	Trema amboinensis	28
Rhizophora mucronata	82	Tristania decorticata	88
Rosaceæ	34	Turpinia pomifera	54
Rubiaceæ	99	Ulmaceæ	28
Rutaceæ	44	Vatica mangachapoi	76, 77
Sandoricum indicum	46	Vatica sp.	76
Sandoricum vidalii	46	Vatica spp.	60, 65
Santiria nitida	44	Verbenaceæ	97
Sapindaceæ	53	Vitex aherniana	98
Sapotaceæ	89	Vitex parviflora	97, 98
Sarcocephalus cordatus	100	Vitex pentaphylla	98
Sarcocephalus junghuhnii	100	Vitex pubescens	98
Semecarpus perrottetii	52	Vitex turczaninowii	98
Sesbania grandiflora	43	Wallaceodendron celebicum	42
Shorea balangeran	73	Wrightia calycina	96
Shorea furfuracea	63	Wrightia laniti	96
Shorea guiso	71	Xanthostemon verdugonianus	88
Shorea malaanonan	64	Xylia dolabriformis	43
Shorea polysperma	68	Xylocarpus obovatus	47
Shorea squamata	66	Xylocarpus granatum	48
Shorea sp.	65, 67, 68, 74	Xylocarpus sp.	48
Sideroxylon spp.	92	Zizyphus trinervia	53
Sindora supa	38	Zizyphus zonulatus	52

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