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**LATIN AMERICA**  
*Twenty Friendly Nations*



# LATIN AMERICA



## *Twenty Friendly Nations*

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## FOREWORD

It is often said that Columbus discovered America in the fifteenth century but that the United States waited until the twentieth century to make its discovery of its neighbors to the south. That is not quite true, as you well know; but there is some truth in the statement, for many more people than formerly are now looking about the Western Hemisphere and are, like the adventurers of old, discovering and exploring countries in the American World that are new to them.

We should all like to venture forth and become acquainted with the various parts of the Americas. It would be great fun to travel in Mexico, in Central America, in the islands of the Caribbean Sea—the Sea of the Americas—in South America. It would be exciting to journey through the mountains, the jungles, and the fertile valleys—in temperate lands and in the beautiful and sometimes dangerous tropics. We would visit Indian ruins in Peru, in Mexico, in Guatemala, and elsewhere in Latin America. Little villages in the mountains and in the lowlands would fascinate us. Great modern cities—Buenos Aires, Rio de Janeiro, Lima, Mexico City, Habana, Panama City, and others—would make us welcome. We would find friends among the Brazilians, the Mexicans, the Cubans, the Venezuelans, and the populations of all the other twenty Latin-American nations.

At present, however, we shall do our exploring through books. We shall prepare ourselves for the day when we

take our trip through Latin America. We shall enjoy becoming acquainted with our good neighbors to the south of us by reading about them and their countries. *Latin America: Twenty Friendly Nations* has been written with just this purpose in mind—to help you become better acquainted with these neighbors. The authors, who know the Americas and who know what boys and girls in the United States like to read, have taken great pride in preparing this book for you. Your teacher will join you in your imaginary travels through Latin America and will help you get the greatest possible enjoyment out of the interesting story you are about to read. I shall, then, say to you as you start on your way, "*Hasta luego, amigos*" ("So long, friends").

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PART I

FROM THE PAST TO THE PRESENT



Mr. Wilson, the owner of the Hotel, and his



## TWENTY FRIENDLY REPUBLICS

Good neighbors of the United States. World War II made those of us who live in the United States realize more than ever before the value of friendly neighbors. When our country was attacked by the Japanese, we were glad to know that we would receive a great deal of help from good neighbors to the south of us.

These good neighbors were the twenty Latin-American republics that lie south of the border of the United States. Our neighbors planned with us ways in which we could protect the nations in the Western Hemisphere. They have supplied us with quantities of raw materials that are vital to us in our manufacture of the munitions and machines which our army and navy need. Most of them declared war on our enemies and were ready to fight at our side.

Every day we are becoming better acquainted with these other American republics, and they are learning more about us. The radio and newspaper bring us news of each other. Our schools are teaching more about the republics which lie south of our border, and their schools are teaching more about the United States. So let us see how well we know these American neighbors.

1. Which are the Latin-American republics?
2. Why do we call the region Latin America?
3. Who are the Latin-American people?
4. Where do they live?
5. What kind of country do they live in?

The extent of these republics. Some people talk about

the republics south of our border as though they were all in South America, but this is not true. There are twenty American republics in addition to the United States. Only ten of them are in South America. The other ten republics lie between the United States and South America.

**Republics of the West Indies.** If you will look at the map, you will see a group of islands just south of Florida. They stretch in a great curve, or crescent, from the peninsulas of Florida and Yucatán<sup>1</sup> in North America to Venezuela in South America. These islands are the tops of a mountain range which is buried in the waters of the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea. They vary in size. Some of them measure only about five square miles. The largest is Cuba, which is more than 44,000 square miles, or about the size of our state of Kentucky.

*The Antilles.* Usually we call this great crescent of islands the West Indies. There is an older name for it—a name which has come down to us from the time when Columbus first landed on their shores—the Antilles. In the time of Columbus there was a fable about a land called Antilia, where there were said to be seven rich and wonderful cities. When Columbus discovered the West Indies, it was thought that he had discovered the wonderful land of Antilia, and so the group of islands was called the Antilles; although the seven rich cities were never found.

The West Indies, or the Antilles, are the home of three independent nations. Sometimes these nations are referred to as the island republics. The island of Hispaniola is divided between two nations, the republic of Haiti and the Dominican Republic. The republic of Cuba has an

<sup>1</sup> This name is often spelled without the accent on the second *a*. Pronunciations of the more difficult proper names, as well as certain other terms, may be found in the Glossary.

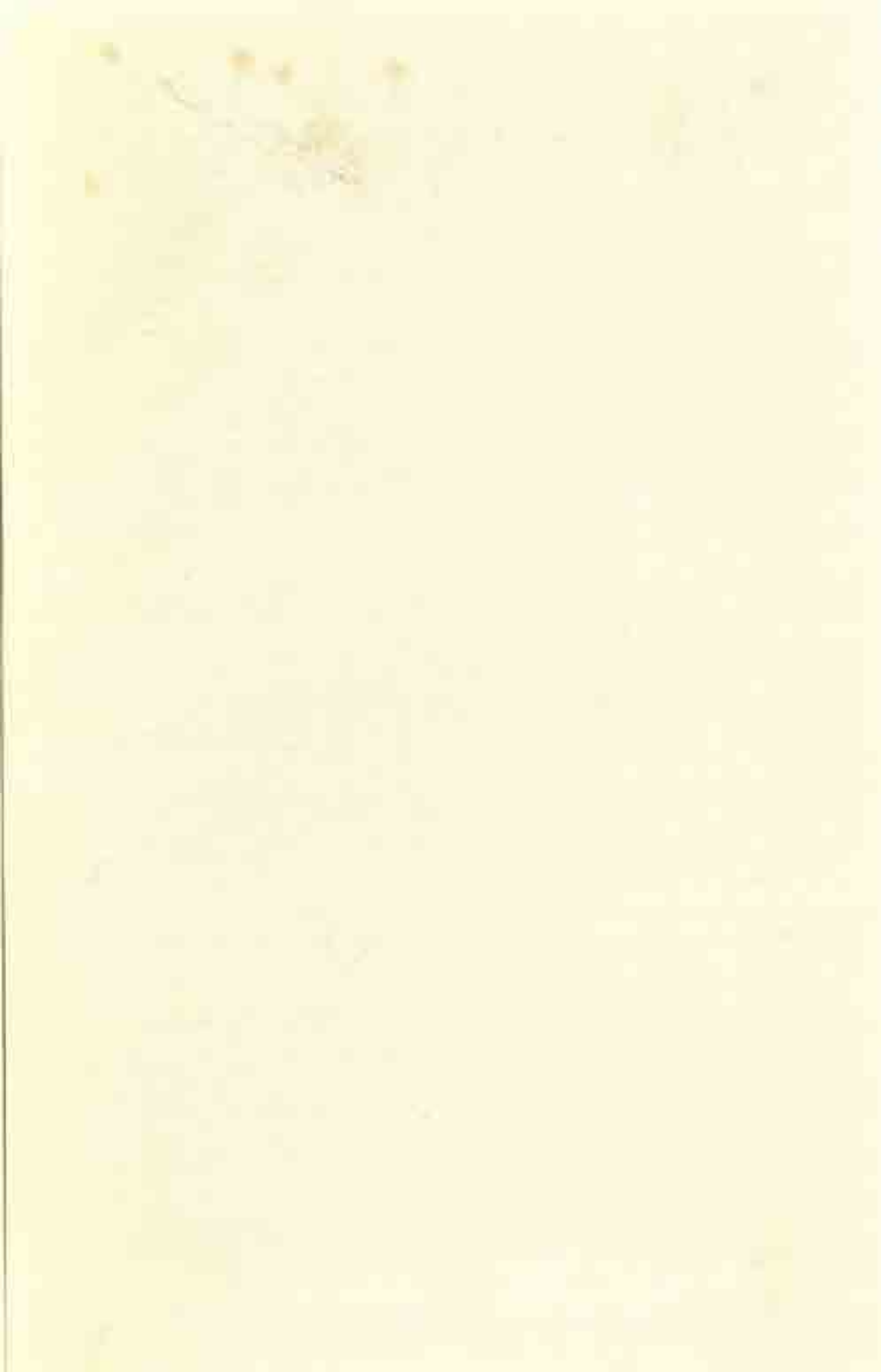
island all to itself. It might be well for you to make a list of the Latin-American republics. Place Cuba, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic on your list.

Before we leave the West Indies, we should call your attention to another interesting fact about this chain of islands. If you will look at the map, you can locate some islands that belong to the United States. Can you find Puerto Rico and the group of islands called the Virgin Islands? They are part of the United States. Also, as you very likely know, some of the islands belong to Great Britain, others to France, and still others to the Netherlands. European countries as well as the United States have possessions in the Caribbean.

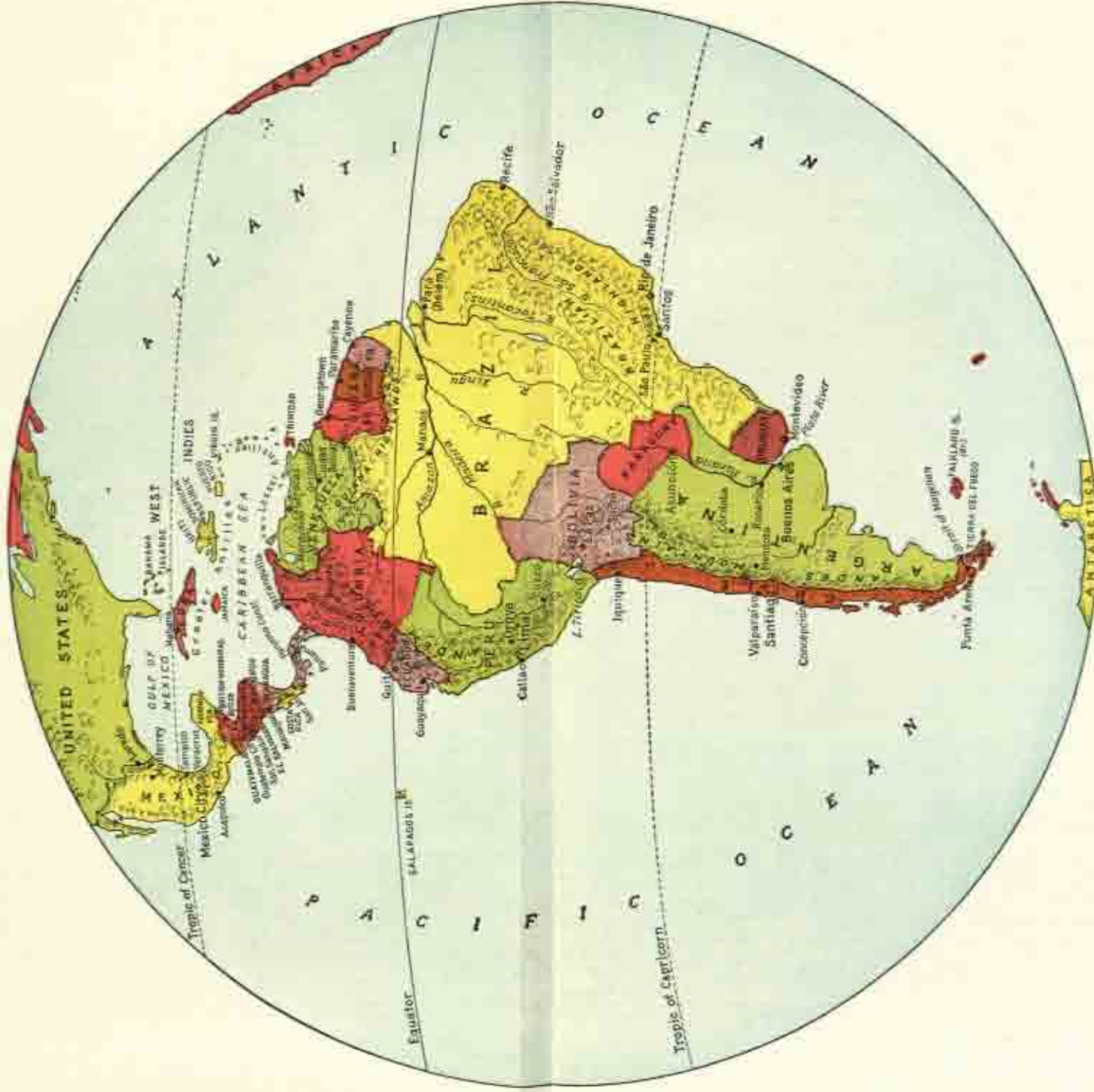
**Mexico.** Now if you will look at the map again and let your eyes travel westward over the Caribbean Sea to the North American continent, you will come to a near neighbor of ours, Mexico. Mexico is a Latin-American republic. Place it on your list.

**Republics of Central America.** South and east of Mexico, at the end of the great horn which forms the southern part of North America, you will see Central America. Central America is the home of five more Latin-American republics. You may look at the map to get their names. You will perhaps be surprised to learn that there is one piece of land in Central America which belongs to Great Britain. It is British Honduras. It is not a separate nation; it is a colony of Great Britain. So do not include it in your list. You will have five Central American countries without it.

**Panama.** Just south of Central America is the republic of Panama. This makes seven different nations lying south of the United States but north of South America. If you add the names of these seven nations to those of the three







Latin America





island republics in the Caribbean, you will have a list of ten Latin-American nations. These ten nations lie between the United States and South America. So you see it is quite incorrect to speak of our American neighbors to the south as if they were all South American.

You may think that the republic of Panama should be called a part of Central America, and some people do think of this country as a Central American nation. It was once a part of Colombia, a country of South America. Because of that, and because of its later history, it cannot be classed with the countries of Central America. In 1903 it became an independent nation; it belongs on your list of Latin-American republics.

**Republics of South America.** Now in order to complete your list of Latin-American republics you will have to look at the map of South America and find the names of ten countries there which are separate nations. Every country of South America is a separate nation, with the exception of Guiana, which is divided among three European nations: Great Britain, the Netherlands, and France.

Check your list carefully to see that you have the names of twenty republics. Be sure that you have not included the names of any of the possessions of the United States, Great Britain, the Netherlands, or France. These twenty republics are called the Latin-American nations.

**Why the neighbor republics are called Latin America.** Each of the twenty republics has its own government. It is convenient to have one name which we can apply to all of them, just as we have one name to use when we wish to refer to all the countries of Europe. There has been much discussion as to what name should be used to include all the American nations to the south of us.

Some people refer to the twenty republics south of



A sheep ranch in Argentina. This flat grassland is typical of much of the Argentine pampas.

the United States as Spanish America. Possibly they use this term because they think the people all speak Spanish. This is not true. Spanish is a foreign language in two of the Latin-American republics. The people of Haiti, one of the island republics, speak French. The people of the huge country called Brazil speak Portuguese. Since about one third of all the people in Latin America live in Brazil, you see what a mistake it would be to think of all our southern neighbors as Spanish-speaking and to refer to them as Spanish Americans.

Still other people refer to the nations to the south of the United States as the South American republics. But you already know why this is not a good term. Only half of the Latin-American republics are in South America.

There is a name which serves very well for all twenty

republics and for all three language groups—Spanish, French, and Portuguese. All three of the languages used by the people to the south of us grew out of the Latin language. That is, Latin is the base, or the mother language, of Spanish, French, and Portuguese. Therefore the name "Latin America" covers all twenty countries very well indeed. So we use the term Latin America when we wish to refer to all twenty republics to the south of the United States. But we should always keep in mind that Latin America is made up of twenty separate nations, each one differing from the others in many ways.

#### WHO THE LATIN-AMERICAN PEOPLE ARE

The people of Latin America have as much right to call themselves Americans as have the people of the United States. In fact, the name of America was first applied to South America. There are almost as many of these other Americans as there are of us, the people of the United States. There are about one hundred twenty-three million Latin Americans, and there are only a little over one hundred thirty million people in the United States.

Races. Also, Latin-American people, like the people of the United States, are drawn from all races—the white, the black, the brown, and the yellow. We can only estimate the number of people of each race in Latin-American countries, since there are no accurate figures. About twenty-five million of the Latin Americans are pure white. These whites, like the whites of the United States, are either Europeans who migrated to the Western Hemisphere or they are the descendants of such immigrants.

About half, or about sixty-three million, of the Latin Americans are a mixture of white and Indian. These peo-



ple of mixed blood—Indian and white—are sometimes called *mestizos*. The rest of the population includes about seventeen million Indians, fifteen million Negroes and mulattoes, and about two million people of mixed Negro and Indian blood. The people of mixed Negro and Indian blood are sometimes called *zambos*. There are also about one million Asiatics, largely Japanese and Chinese, living in Latin America.

The original white settlers of the United States were largely English, but the first white settlers of Latin America were either Spanish or Portuguese. Yet just as people of other nationalities came into the United States, so they came to Latin America. Today Latin America has Germans, Italians, English, Irish—people from most of the countries of Europe and Asia.

The republics of Latin America differ greatly in the number of people of different races that live within their borders. In some republics most of the people are white, in others most of them are of Indian blood, while in still others the majority of the people are black. Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay are most like the United States in that their population is largely white.

The same uneven distribution of races is found in the United States. For example, more Chinese and Japanese live in the western section of our country than anywhere else in the United States. Also, Negroes outnumber the white people in some parts of the southern section of the United States.

In Haiti 95 per cent of the inhabitants are black. In Brazil a large proportion of the people have some Negro or Indian blood.

Where the Latin Americans live. If you were to take an airplane trip over the United States, you would not find

the same number of people living in the different states of the United States. In New York, Pennsylvania, and other northeastern states as well as in the manufacturing cities of the Middle West, such as Chicago, Detroit, and St. Louis, you would find many people living close together. Away from the large cities there would be great sections of the country where you would see but a few houses and where you would know that there were very few people. People live in clusters, or centers, scattered over our country.

In Latin America we find very much the same situation. The people are not evenly distributed over the country



but live here and there in clusters, just as they do in the United States. In the republic of Haiti there are about two hundred eighty people to every square mile—one dense cluster of people. In Paraguay and Bolivia there are great spaces with almost no human beings. There are about eight people to a square mile in these countries. Just imagine the difference between Haiti and Bolivia in the number of people you would meet on the streets and highways.

If you could get high enough to look down on all the republics of Latin America at one time, you would notice not only that the people live in clusters scattered over Latin America but also that most of them live near the coast. The map on page 9 will give you an idea of where our Latin-American neighbors live. Why are so many of the clusters of people in Latin America near the coast? In order to answer this question you will have to know something about the countries in which Latin Americans make their homes.

## THE REGION OF LATIN AMERICA

**Location.** Before we tell about the kind of region, let us tell you two facts about the Latin-American region which may surprise you. Your first surprise may come when you find out that more than half of the Latin-American republics are not directly south of the United States but are actually southeast of our country. Imagine where the  $80^{\circ}$  meridian would be on the map of Latin America. This meridian runs through Pittsburgh and east of Florida and also through the coast of Ecuador. Almost all of South America lies to the east of this line.

**Size.** Your next surprise may come when you learn the





A volcano in the lake region of southern Chile. Because of its natural beauty this region is a resort place for Chileans and other visitors.

size of Latin America. It is more than twice the size of the United States, not including Alaska. Brazil alone is equal to the size of the United States plus another state of Texas. Argentina is a third as big as the United States. Chile is twice the size of California. Uruguay, which is the smallest of the South American republics, is actually larger than the six states we call New England. Mexico is one fourth the size of the United States. The five countries of Central America are larger than Washington and Oregon combined. The three island nations that lie in the Caribbean Sea—Cuba, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic—are small when compared with other Latin-



The jungle along the Rio Doce (Sweet River) in southeastern Brazil

American republics, but Cuba is about the size of the state of Virginia, and Haiti is a little larger than Vermont. So remember that when you talk about Latin America you are speaking of a huge region. Because it is an enormous region, the sections are very different from one another, just as one part of the United States is different from another.

**Climate.** Now let us see what kind of region Latin Americans live in. You can find out many things about the climate by studying the map. Find the Equator on the map and notice where it crosses South America. Now locate the Tropic of Cancer to the north of the Equator and the Tropic of Capricorn to the south. The

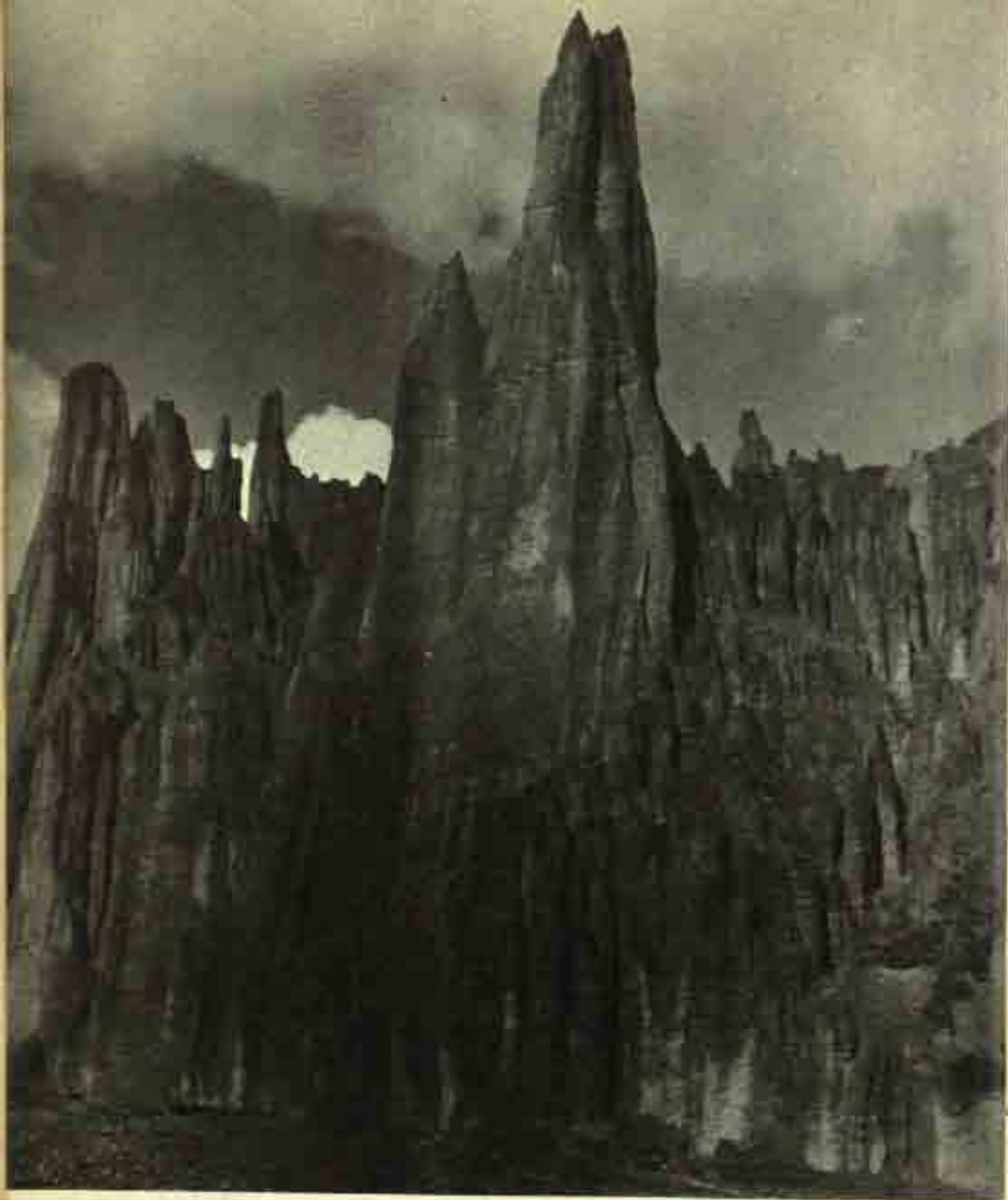


region between these two imaginary lines is what we call the Torrid Zone. How many of the Latin-American republics lie wholly or largely in the Torrid Zone?

**The tropics.** Probably it is because most of Latin America lies in the tropics that some people in the United States have the idea that the region is largely a land of hot, steaming, tangled jungles. It is true that at the Equator the sun is directly overhead for a large part of the year and that its rays are direct and hot. There is little change in temperature from one season of the year to another. But not all of the lands in the tropics are hot, nor are all of them wet and steamy. The truth is that more than half of the people who live in the tropical section of Latin America live in regions as agreeable and pleasant as any in the world. This is because location does not tell the whole story about climate.

**Altitude.** Location helps to determine climate, but it is only one of several important points to study in learning about the climate of a country. Altitude is another. For every three hundred thirty feet you climb in the air there is a drop, or decrease, of about one degree in the temperature. Much of Latin America has what is called a "vertical climate"; that is, the temperature depends not on the season of the year but on the altitude.

Mexico, Central America, and South America are well supplied with highlands and great mountain ranges. The great mountain range which extends from Alaska down the west coast of the United States reaches all the way to the southernmost tip of South America. Through Mexico and Central America and in most of the countries along the Pacific coast of South America this range broadens out into a mass of lofty ranges, high plateaus, and deep mountain valleys. Here, in the same latitude, agricul-



The walls of this canyon in La Paz Valley, Bolivia, are eroded into fantastic pinnacles.

tural products of every climate can be raised at different altitudes. The broad eastern coastal plain of Mexico and of parts of Central America is torrid and moist; the upland valleys and level spaces between the mountains are temperate and well watered during growing seasons; while the high mountain slopes are chilly and forbidding to all plant life. So in the tropical lands of Latin America one can find almost any climate by going higher or lower.

The east coast of South America is not unlike the east coast of the United States. There are mountains which, though not so high as our Appalachian range, do much to make the tropical lands of Brazil livable.

Even the island republics—Haiti, the Dominican Republic, and Cuba—escape some of the unpleasant heat of the tropics because they have some highlands also.

Now if you will recall the location of the highland regions of Brazil, you will be able to tell why most of the people in that country live in the southeastern part.

Notice the location of Mexico City, Bogotá, Quito, and La Paz, and give one reason for their location.

**Temperate region.** In the southern half of South America are three countries which lie either wholly or largely in the South Temperate Zone. This is the zone which corresponds to the North Temperate region, in which the United States is located. The climate of these countries is much like that of the United States.

**Contrasts.** Latin America is not only a huge territory, but it is also a region of great contrasts. It has all the variations in climate found in the United States and many others. It has a great mountain range, desert regions, vast swamp areas, and great river valleys. Later we shall visit each of the republics of Latin America to see how the people live and to find out more about the region.



## SOME THINGS TO DO

A. If necessary, refer to the map of Latin America to answer these questions.

1. Name the four South American countries that border the Pacific Ocean.
2. What are the five republics of Central America?
3. Two of the Latin-American countries are landlocked, or without a coast line. Which are they?
4. Which are the South American countries that lie wholly or largely in the South Temperate Zone?
5. One of the islands discovered by Columbus on his first voyage to the New World is the home of two Latin-American republics. What island is this?
6. Name the Latin-American republics that lie wholly or largely east of Boston, Massachusetts. The 70° meridian will help you.
7. Which Latin-American country borders the United States?
8. Name the one South American republic that has both a Pacific and a Caribbean coast line.

B. What you have just read in this text should help you to choose the best ending for each of these sentences.

1. The white people of Latin America are largely of (1) Portuguese and Spanish (2) English (3) French or (4) Dutch ancestry.
2. Most of the people of the republic of Haiti speak (1) Italian (2) French (3) Spanish (4) Portuguese.
3. Most of the people of Brazil speak (1) French (2) Spanish (3) English (4) Portuguese.
4. Most of the people of Argentina speak (1) French (2) English (3) Spanish (4) Portuguese.
5. One of the most densely populated countries of Latin America is (1) Brazil (2) Haiti (3) Bolivia (4) Paraguay.

6. Most of Latin America lies in the (1) North Temperate Zone (2) Torrid Zone (3) South Temperate Zone.

C. Every day your newspaper has news of Latin America. Cut out news items, pictures, and maps of Latin America and display them on the bulletin board in your room. Keep this display on Latin America going by bringing in new materials often. They will help your class to become well acquainted with our neighbors.

D. Some members of your class may have stamp collections which contain stamps from countries of Latin America. Ask them to bring their collections to school to show to the rest of the class. The Pan American Union of Washington, D. C., has a special set of twenty-four colored poster stamps which are not expensive. You may wish to order one or more sets.

E. How would you like to exchange letters with girls and boys in Latin America? Perhaps your teacher will help your class to start such correspondence with some class in Latin America. Here are two suggestions:

1. Write to the Junior Red Cross, Washington, D. C. Tell them in what grade you are and ask them how to start an exchange of letters with Latin-American students.
2. In April, 1941, the magazine *Among Us*, published by the National Education Association of Washington, D. C., contained a list of sixteen Latin American teachers who wished to exchange letters in English with teachers and students in the United States. Possibly, if your teacher would write to Mrs. Concha Romero James of the Pan American Union, who made out the list that appeared in *Among Us*, she would furnish you with other names.

F. Show a motion picture. One interesting way to learn about a region is through motion pictures. In connection with many parts of this book there are motion-picture suggestions which will help you to know and to understand Latin America better. In a few cases you are told where

you can rent or secure the film mentioned. You may be able to get the films from a distributor close to your school. It is suggested that you write to your state university. If it is like many state schools, it is probably a local distributor of many educational films. Write to the visual education department of your state university to find out whether they have the film which you wish and, if not, where you may obtain it.

Also, your public library probably has a copy of a publication entitled *Educational Film Catalog*, in which you can find practically every educational film listed, with the name and address of the nearest distributor.

In case you have not a public library near your school, you may wish to have your own list of films. An inexpensive but not complete listing of films may be obtained from *The Educational Screen*, 64 East Lake Street, Chicago, Illinois. This list contains the names and addresses of the distributors of most of the films referred to in this book.

For this part of the book we suggest:

*Continent of South America* (15 min., 16 mm., silent).

This film emphasizes outstanding geographical features of South America—the Andes, the Brazilian Highlands, La Plata Basin, the Guiana Highlands, the Orinoco Basin, and the Amazon Basin.



## THE AMERICAS BEFORE THE WHITE MEN CAME

Indians the first inhabitants. In order to understand Latin America we shall have to turn back the pages of history many hundred years. The history of North and South America did not start in 1492, when Columbus accidentally landed on an island just north of Cuba. It began long before the white men of Europe even dreamed there was a Western world. Probably the men of Europe were still living in caves and were existing on whatever they could find through hunting and fishing when the yellow-brown men of Asia, or the people we know as Indians, first came to the Americas. They came before men knew how to write, and therefore they left no written history. But they did leave picture writing, pottery, metal work, temples, and statues as clues to the way they lived for a period of more than two thousand years.

Relics of early times. Men who study the history of people that lived in prehistoric times (before the time of written history) have outlined the story of the first settlers of the Americas from the relics which these early people left behind them. This has been a long and difficult task, for many of the relics were buried deep in the earth and others were covered by jungle forests. Men have had to "dig out" the history of these early people.

Not only have they had to find these relics, but they have also had to study them for a long time in order to decide how old they are and what they mean. Since even the experts occasionally disagree on the meanings of these

objects, we cannot be altogether sure of the history of the first settlers in the Western Hemisphere. Besides, objects are still being found which belonged to prehistoric peoples. These are adding new ideas to history as well as changing some of our former ideas.

You must not think that it is only in the Americas that men have had to piece together the history of early peoples. Much that we know about ancient Egypt, Greece, Rome, China, and other countries has been built from bits of information gained by studying the relics which the people of long, long ago left. Thus the early history of the Americas is based largely on unwritten records in quite the same way as is that of the early Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans.

1. Where did the first settlers in the Americas come from?
2. Where did they build their cities?
3. How did they live, work, and govern themselves, and what did they know?
4. Were there many Indian tribes in the Americas?
5. What did these first settlers learn that is of value to us today?
6. When did the white men find their way to the Americas, and what did they want?

**Where the Indians came from.** There have been many different ideas or theories about where the Indians came from and how they got to the Americas. At one time some men believed that the ancestors of mankind started in different parts of the world. They thought that one race of men grew up in Asia, another in Africa, another in Europe, and another, the Indians, in America. Not



many people believe this now. Instead, many believe that the ancestors of all mankind originated somewhere in Asia. From this place in Asia they spread out in different groups, and as they scattered over the earth they came to have different ways of living, different-shaped features, and even different-colored skin. So we have the white, black, and yellow-brown races developing from a race that started somewhere in Asia. The white race developed in western Asia and Europe, the black race in Africa, and the yellow-brown race in eastern and southern Asia.

When the Indians came. Do not imagine that mankind came to have differences in appearance in three, four, or even a dozen generations or lifetimes. Though we do not know how long it took, we do know that man lived on earth five hundred thousand years before he knew how to write sufficiently well to leave any record or any written history. In fact, written history extends back only about six thousand four hundred years to the year 4500 B.C. That may sound like a long time, but it is really very short when compared with the length of time men have lived on the earth. During the thousands of years before history was written, men had plenty of time to find homes in different parts of the earth and to learn different ways of living as well as to become different in their appearance. If we let one dot represent 6,400 years, mankind's long struggle before the time of written history can be represented by seventy-eight dots like this:

.....  
4500 B.C.  
↓

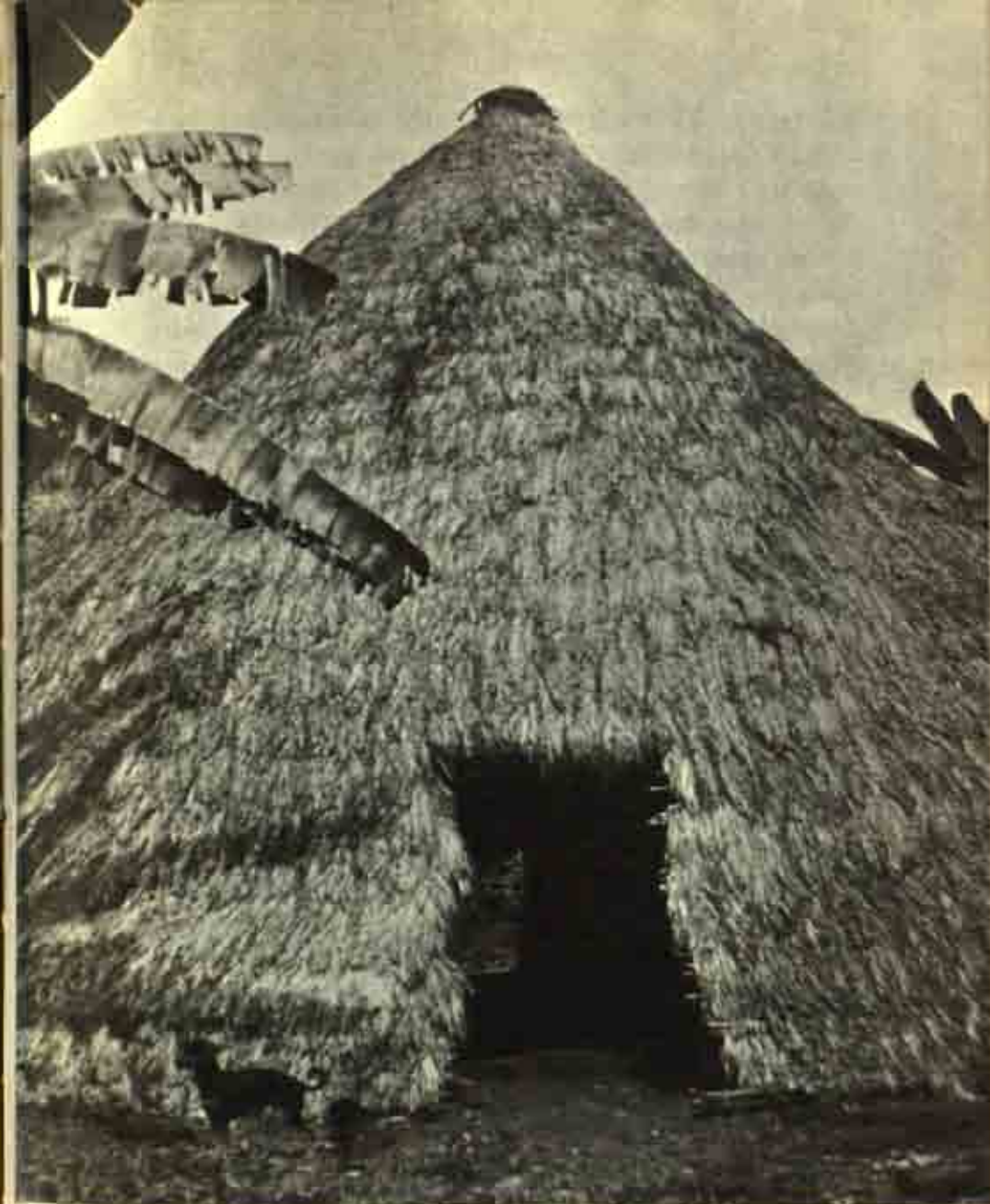
The period in which man has known how to write, from 4500 B.C. to the present, is then represented by a single dot.

When you consider that each dot represents the lifetimes of more than one hundred generations of men one after another, you get an idea of the endless stream of lives which have contributed to our history.

How the Indians reached America. It seems probable that the first settlers in the Americas came from Asia and that they belonged to the yellow-brown race. If the Indians did not originate or develop in the Americas but came from Asia, they must have found some way of reaching the western continents. There are at least three different theories or ideas about how this was done. One theory is that there was once a chain of islands beginning at the southern tip of Asia and stretching across the Pacific to what is now South America. According to this theory, some of the more daring of the yellow-brown men of Asia came across this bridge of islands. Afterwards most of the chain of islands sank into the Pacific and left some of the men of Asia stranded in South America.

Another belief is that at one time Europe, Asia, and the Americas were part of the same great mass of land. Finally the middle of this land, called the Atlantis, sank into the sea and caused the Atlantic Ocean to form. This left some of the people in the Americas.

However, it seems more reasonable to believe that some of the men of Asia found their way north to the north-eastern tip of what is now Russia and from this point crossed over the narrow strip of water which we know as the Bering Strait to the northwestern tip of the North American continent. These two continents are now less than fifty miles apart at this northern point. In earlier times they may have been even closer together, and it was probably easy for men to cross from one continent to the other, especially when Bering Strait was frozen.



A primitive type of hut built by Indians in Costa Rica



Where the Indians settled. Once the yellow-brown men of Asia found themselves on the North American continent they moved southward to warmer climates, more abundant vegetation, and better hunting. They found no human enemies to stop them, so they spread over North America. These early settlers did not all come at once. They probably came in groups over a long period of time—hundreds, perhaps thousands, of years. They traveled to the east and to the south. Finally some groups went far into the narrow passageway we now call Central America. Still others pressed on into South America.

Considering the size of the Western Hemisphere there were not very many of these men. It is said that all together there were probably never more than ten million Indians living in the Western world. Now that North and South America are the homelands of more than two hundred fifty million people, we can see that the early settlers had plenty of space. Probably they were so scattered that they had very little opportunity to exchange ideas with one another. Once a group had settled in some part of the New World it lived more or less by itself. Each group developed its own way of living according to the customs which its people brought with them and according to the type of country in which they settled.

**How the Indians lived.** The Indians did not bring many ideas with them from their old homes in Asia. They may have known little more than how to make a fire, to make crude clothing, and to hunt and fish. Probably the dog was their only tamed, or domesticated, animal. The newcomers had to learn practically everything by themselves. Thus it came about that various groups of Indians living in different parts of the Americas developed their own language, their own arts and tools, their own religion, and



their own customs. They increased their store of knowledge greatly. In some parts of the Americas the Indians built up civilizations which compare favorably even with those of Egypt, Greece, and Rome. To be sure, there were some important things known to the men of the Eastern world which the Indians never discovered. For example, they never learned to use wheels for transportation. But, on the other hand, some of the Indians invented a system of numbers which included a sign for zero, and they used the zero in their calculations. They did this as long ago as eight hundred years before it is known to have been used anywhere else in the world.

#### INDIAN CIVILIZATIONS BEFORE THE WHITE MEN CAME

The three places where Indian civilization made the greatest advances were located near the middle of the Western Hemisphere. One was in Central America, including the peninsula we now call Yucatán, where the Mayas lived. Another was within the country we now know as Mexico, which was the home of the Aztecs. The third was in the northern and western part of South America, where the Incas flourished. Thus three great Indian civilizations were in what we now know as Latin America.

**The Mayas.** Although the Indian tribes of Central America spoke different languages, these languages were so much alike that the various tribes are usually regarded as just one people, the Mayas. The Mayas lived first in Guatemala and Honduras. Later they moved north into Yucatán. Because their region was at the crossroads of the two great continents, they probably came in contact with other Indians traveling between the continents and thus had some opportunity to exchange ideas.

*How the Mayas made a living.* Since the Mayas lived in a region where vegetation grew rapidly and luxuriantly, it was not strange that they soon gave up the wandering existence led by most Indian tribes and settled down to farming. At first their existence seems to have depended largely upon corn, or maize. This corn was probably originally a kind of wild grass. The Mayas must have found it growing wild, but later discovered that they could plant the seed and harvest greater crops than they could obtain by gathering the wild grain.

The Mayas had no iron tools or domesticated animals to help them in their farming. Their land was covered by dense forests with heavy underbrush. The best the Mayas could do was to use stone knives and axes to cut the bark of the trees and then leave them to die. They tore out the underbrush by hand. Since Central America has really only two seasons, a rainy and a dry season, the places the Mayas expected to farm were cleared of underbrush at the end of the rainy season in order that the trees left standing unprotected might die from drought during the dry season.

After the trees and the brush were dry, the Mayas set fire to the wood and burned over the whole field. When the rainy season came, they were ready to plant their corn. This they did by using a sharp stick to make a hole, dropping a few kernels of corn into the hole, then scraping the earth over the seed with a bare foot. In this laborious way the Indian planted his whole field.

The Mayas discovered and began raising other food plants, such as squash, beans, tomatoes, chili peppers, and sweet potatoes. Later they added two crops which were to become important in American agriculture. These were cotton and tobacco.

The Mayas' method of farming was not only crude but also very wasteful. When the same fields were used year after year, crops naturally became smaller each season. Though they discovered and grew many kinds of food plants, they seem to have known nothing about conserving the soil by fertilizing or by rotating crops. When the land wore out they cleared new fields. The old fields were abandoned and left to grow back to brush and trees. Fortunately there was land enough so that the Indians could do this for hundreds of years.

*The Maya cities.* One puzzling thing about the Mayas is the fact that they never occupied any city for more than a short period of time. They would build a beautiful city and then apparently abandon it and move on to build another. Just why they shifted from place to place, abandoning one town and then founding another, is a mystery. Many theories have been advanced. Some experts think it was their wasteful methods of farming. As the land wore out and crops became poorer they had to move on and build new settlements on richer soil.

*The first Maya Empire.* Although there seem to have been several phases in the history of Maya civilization, these phases can be grouped conveniently into two main periods. The first period started in Guatemala and Honduras before or about the time of the birth of Christ and reached its peak about 600 A.D. Here Maya civilizations grew up around city-states somewhat like the city-states of ancient Greece. The people lived in little farm villages scattered over the country near the city.

The cities were the center of government, religion, and learning. Here the people gathered for celebrations and religious festivals and for trade and exchange of goods. The cities of the first Maya civilization have fallen into



ruin, but men have uncovered them and have found temples with gracefully carved pillars, lovely pottery, jade ornaments, and intricate designs chiseled in stone. Palaces two and three stories high have been uncovered. Near one of the cities was found a huge monument cut from a single block of stone which is thirty-five feet long and weighs more than fifty tons. Since the Mayas had no animals to help them and did not use wheels to move objects, how do you suppose they were able not only to cut so large a stone but also to move it into place and set it up? No one has yet solved this mystery.

All dates on the monuments in this early Maya Empire came to an end about the year 800 A.D. Apparently within a few generations this whole group of early Maya cities was abandoned. No one knows what happened. The only thing we can be sure of is that their cities and art work reached their peak about 600 A.D. and then declined.

*The second Maya Empire.* Two or three hundred years later a new center of art and civilization appeared to the north, in Yucatán. It was not until about the year 1000 that the Mayas again built beautiful cities and produced objects of art. What they were doing between 600 and 1000 we can only guess. They may have been in the process of moving and starting farms in the new land.

The peninsula of Yucatán is flat, although as one travels from the north to the south there are a few low ranges of hills, none of which reaches much over five hundred feet. The peninsula is covered with dense and rather low forests. If you look at the map, you will notice that there are no rivers and only a few lakes. What water there is collects in depressions, or natural blowholes in the limestone crust of the earth's surface. These natural underground reservoirs are called *cenotes*. We might call them wells.





This painted clay vessel with the kneeling figure is the work of some Maya Indians who reached the coast of Peru and were later conquered by the Incas.

Naturally these wells, or cenotes, are important. The first great city of the second Maya Empire was built near one such well. It was called Chichen Itzá, which means "at the mouth of the well of Itzá." "Itzá" was the name of the particular tribe or group of Mayas that first settled here. Other cities sprang up in other parts of the Yucatán peninsula. Chichen Itzá, probably because it started first and its people were so vigorous, furnished much of the early leadership for the second period in Maya civilization.

Certain signs tell us that another tribe of people called the Toltecs had some influence on the building of the Maya empire in Yucatán. The Toltecs had settled in the great valley of Mexico to the north, where they were later conquered by the Aztecs. If the Toltecs did not actually work with the Mayas, at least the two tribes had some ideas in common. The feathered serpent, the mythical leader of the Toltecs, for example, appears in the carvings of the Mayas.

The art and science of the second empire were very similar to those of the old empire in Honduras and Guatemala. It was only in the field of architecture that the second civilization really excelled. Buildings in the new cities were larger and more beautiful.

*Maya beauty.* We have heard that the people of old China bound the feet of their baby girls because they believed that small feet made girls more attractive. The Mayas, too, had strange ideas of beauty. They thought a slanting forehead and a peaked head very beautiful. So they bound the heads of their infants in boards in order to produce a head which came to a point. They also admired crossed eyes and went to great trouble in dangling objects between the baby's eyes in order to turn the eyes inward. They filed their teeth to sharp points and sometimes decorated them with insets of jade.

*How the Mayas dressed.* As for clothing, the common man wore but little. Frequently he wore only a piece of cloth fastened about his loins. Sometimes it was embroidered and decorated with feathers. His wife wore a single loose garment gathered around the neck with slits for the arms. It hung in straight lines from the shoulders to the feet. The men of high rank wore more elaborate clothing than did the poorer men of the community.

They adorned themselves with capes of skin and wore wooden helmets with streamers of cloth. They wore sandals and decorated themselves with fine bracelets and neckbands of gold and jade.

*The homes.* Because the homes of the common people were made of wood, the houses in which they lived decayed long ago, and we have only picture writing to tell us what they were like. These pictures show small windowless houses with thatched roofs. When a young man married he moved into the house with his bride's parents. He had to work for his wife's parents for five years before setting up his own household. Can you imagine how many people were sometimes crowded together in one small hut?

*The land belonged to the people.* The Mayas, like most other Indian tribes, regarded land as the property of all the people. A man could own his own home. If he was a craftsman, what he made was his private property. But all lands were held in common by all the people of the tribe. Although a man could have a piece of land to farm, it belonged to him only so long as he used it. Thus land could not be bought or sold. It is easy to understand why Indians had trouble with the white men when the latter tried to drive them from their lands.

*Co-operation.* The people of each village did many tasks together, or in co-operation. When a man was ready to plant his fields, his neighbors and his friends came to help him. They went from field to field to help first one neighbor and then another plant his crops. Harvesting and hunting also were usually done in groups. Planting, harvesting, and hunting were more or less social events. You can be sure that neighbors spent at least part of their time in exchanging news and gossiping.

Each community owned certain things in common.



There were large community storehouses, for instance, where corn was stored to take care of the needs of the community in times when crops failed or were not sufficient.

The Mayas were a friendly people who enjoyed sharing their homes with others. Any stranger that came to a home was taken in and fed, even though there might be but little in the house.

*Pastimes.* A favorite pastime of the Mayas was telling stories. They recited stories, myths, and dramatic poems over and over again. Some of these stories are still told among the descendants of the Mayas, about one million of whom live today in Central America and Mexico.

*The Mayas studied astronomy.* Because the Mayas were farmers they were naturally interested in the seasons and the weather which influenced their crops. As soon as they had crops upon which they could depend, they began to devote some of their time to studying the movements of the sun, the moon, and the stars which accompanied the changing of seasons. So accurately and wisely did they make their observations that they came to know more about astronomy than any other people living in the world at that time. They made a calendar and marked off the days, months, and years. They recorded the positions of the sun, moon, and stars over a long period of time. They were able to predict eclipses of the sun and moon and to foretell the positions of the stars.

*The Maya number system.* Mathematics was a part of their study of astronomy. They developed a system of numbers in which they counted in multiples of twenty rather than in multiples of ten as we do. Their number system was better than the clumsy system of numerals used by the Romans. It was not until the Arabs invented





In the capital of Honduras are plaster reproductions of the Calendar Stone of the Mayas (in the foreground) and (in the background) the Temple of Meditation that was erected in the old Maya city of Copán.

the decimal system more than a thousand years later that man knew anything better than the Maya method.

Other fields in which the Mayas made as much progress as the Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans were art and architecture. They left magnificent temples, beautiful statues, and fine carvings in stone.

*Maya picture writing.* It is strange that people intelligent enough to learn about the movement of the planets, to invent a good system of numbers, and to erect beautiful buildings never made much progress in writing. They depended largely upon picture writing, but they did learn to make parts of a picture stand for the whole object and even for ideas. They made a start in writing their history, poetry, and ideas about life.

*How the Mayas worshiped.* The Mayas, quite like the early Greeks and Romans, thought that life, death, sickness, health, crops, and the weather depended on the pleasure or anger of the gods. So their religion centered in ways of winning favor with their gods.

Their gods and goddesses were much like those of the Greeks and Romans. They were just as numerous and had many of the same traits. There were gods of the rain, wind, thunder, lightning, and gods for the various days of the week. The greatest of all the Maya gods was Itzamna, who represented the rising sun of life, light, and knowledge. He was considered the high priest of the Maya religion and the inventor of all Maya learning as well as a great healer. Another god whose likeness is seen very frequently in the carvings on Maya temples and statues was that of the feathered-serpent god called Kulkulkan. He was considered the great organizer, the founder of cities, the originator of laws, and the teacher of the calendar.

The Mayas believed that the human spirit enjoyed either pain or happiness after death on the basis of the kind of life the individual had lived on earth. They believed also that heaven was promised to all persons who died in battle, to all who were offered as sacrifice to the gods or who killed themselves. Because of this, human sacrifice played an important part in the Maya religion.

The priests were important men in the Maya civilization. There must have been a great many of them, because they not only had charge of the religious ceremonies but were also the scholars. It was the priests who invented the calendar we mentioned and devised the system of hieroglyphs, or signs and figures for writing. It was the priests also who studied astronomy, for the Mayas regarded this as a religious study. That is, through astronomy they attempted to find out more about the ways of the gods in order to avoid their anger and to learn ways of pleasing them. While the priests were trying to keep peace with the gods and goddesses, most of the Indians of the Maya tribes spent their time planting and harvesting their crops, spinning, weaving, building, and making pottery.

*How the Mayas carried on trade.* The Mayas held festivals in the larger villages, towns, and cities to which men, women, and children from all the small farming villages for miles around came. People came into the cities and set up thatched shelters to house their families and erected booths where they could barter gourds, cotton goods, hides, ornaments, gold and silver objects, corn cakes, peppers, squash, and almost anything else they happened to have and could spare.

The Maya family lived on the things which they grew themselves plus such things as they could get through





A carving of the Maya Rain God on the wall of a temple in Chichen Itzá

exchange or barter with the neighbors. While *fiesta*, or festival, times were usually set by the priests and religious ceremonies were the chief feature, they were also the chief times of trade and exchange. Since the festival centered in a religious ceremony, the people spent much of their time in front of the temple watching offerings made to the god and listening to the sacred chantings of the priests.

*Three large cities.* The government of the country rested in the hands of the rulers of three large cities: Chichen Itzá, Uxmal, and Mayapán. By sharing equally



in the government of the empire these three cities succeeded in keeping peace for nearly two hundred years. This gave their people time to build fine cities and make beautiful things which brought the culture of the new empire to a high level.

*War breaks up the Maya Empire.* The peace was ended, however, by strife between the cities of Chichen Itzá and Mayapán. The ruler of Mayapán called warriors from the valley of Mexico to help him conquer Chichen Itzá. He drove the ruler of Chichen Itzá from the city, but the people of Chichen Itzá continued to struggle against Mayapán rule. Increased oppression on the part of the Mayapán and of their paid soldiers from the valley of Mexico kept up a continual strife. Finally the people of Uxmal joined the people of Chichen Itzá, and the soldiers of the two cities conquered Mayapán.

After the destruction of Mayapán the Itzás deserted their city of Chichen Itzá and moved south. Also, the leaders of Uxmal removed their capital to a place south of the old city of Mayapán and started a new city. The wars had so exhausted the people and brought such ruin on their land that their new cities never rose to the heights of the old. Consequently, when the Spanish came to the shores of Yucatán they found an exhausted people who were easily conquered.

*The Toltecs.* About the year of 1300 A.D., while the Mayas were building their second empire in Yucatán, another early American civilization was making its appearance to the north and west of the Maya Empire in the great valley of Mexico. This is usually called the Aztec civilization, but actually when the Aztec tribes entered the valley of Mexico they probably found already in existence the beginnings of the civilization which came to bear



The Toltec Pyramid of the Sun in Teotihuacán

their name. An Indian tribe called the Toltecs is usually given credit for the beginning of the Aztec culture, or way of living. According to some reports, the Toltecs were growing corn, building temples, and studying astronomy and mathematics long before the Aztecs arrived. They may have learned some of these things from the Mayas, for the Toltecs may have been the people who went to the Maya country to help the ruler of Mayapán conquer the people of Itzá.

*The Toltecs build pyramids.* The Toltecs were great builders. They built huge pyramids. One of their pyramids—the one at Cholula, Mexico—covers twice as large an area as the largest pyramid in Egypt, even though it is

not so high. Often the Toltec pyramids were topped with little temples. The religion of the Toltecs centered in the worship of the imaginary hero Quetzalcoatl, who was deified as the Feathered Serpent, god of the winds. The Feathered Serpent appeared in the Maya stone carvings also, which is evidence that the Mayas and Toltecs were acquainted with each other.

The Toltecs seem to have been a warlike people. Whether their wars were due to a scarcity of food, to a desire to get prisoners for human sacrifices, or merely to satisfy their desire to build a great empire and to live on the loot which they secured from the conquered tribes, it is difficult to say. The only good feature of these wars was that the Toltecs spread their learning to the tribes they conquered. About the time of the Maya wars the Toltecs seemed to have had a civil war also.

The Aztecs. Soon after the Toltec civil war a new tribe of Indians called the Aztecs seem to have gained control of the valley of Mexico, either driving out or conquering the Toltecs. No one knows exactly where the Aztecs came from, but we do know that they came into the valley of Mexico and founded the city of Tenochtitlan on an island in Lake Texcoco. It became the capital city of the Aztec tribes.

*How the Aztecs built an empire.* Just as the Mayas are generally compared with the Greeks because of their intelligence in creating better ways of living, so the Aztecs are usually compared with the Romans because they were a strong, warlike people interested largely in building an empire. They did not contribute much learning of their own, but they took ideas from other people. Like the Romans, they made their greatest contribution in organization and government.



*The Aztec League.* Once they were well settled in their villages on the shores of Lake Texcoco, they started fighting in order to gain control of the people around them. In just about one hundred years they had made themselves strong enough to form an alliance with some of the strong tribes living near them. This partnership, which was formed in 1437, is called the Aztec League. All the cities of the league joined in warring on other tribes and divided the spoils of their wars.

*Conquests and taxation.* In the century which followed the formation of the league the Aztecs extended their empire to include much of the great territory which we now know as Mexico. The Aztec League levied and collected taxes from their conquered neighbors. Taxes were high. These taxes consisted of whatever goods the conquered tribes had to offer. There are records to show that about a third of everything the conquered tribes produced went into taxes. The Pacific coast tribes of Mexico may have sent cotton garments, bundles of fine feathers, and sacks of cocoa. Probably the tribes to the south of Mexico City sent gold and red dyes, and the tribes to the east sent gold and silver ornaments and rubber. From conquered towns far and wide the wealth of Mexico poured into the hands of the warring Aztecs.

Although the members of the Aztec League controlled all the tribes for many miles around, they never succeeded in bringing the conquered tribes together into a unified state or nation. Some of the fierce mountain tribes to the west of Mexico City were never completely conquered. Other tribes paid their taxes and waited for the time when they dared to revolt from their hated conquerors. The Aztecs held their empire together by fear and violence.

Tenochtitlan was the capital of the empire; and, as you



may imagine from the description of taxes, it was an extremely wealthy city. From the village of thatched huts in the swamps of Lake Texcoco the Aztecs developed a beautiful city. It was the center of commerce, religion, and learning as well as of government.

*How the Aztecs governed.* The chiefs, two of them, were chosen by the people. At first their offices were not hereditary, and because they were elective the people could get rid of an unsatisfactory chief. One of the chiefs seems to have been a war leader ("chief of men"); the other was a peace chief ("snake woman"), who stayed at home and took care of the government while the war chief was fighting. In the early days of the empire the warfare must have continued most of the time, and so the war chief became very powerful.

After the Aztecs had conquered most of the surrounding tribes and the conquered people were forced to pay tribute in whatever goods they had, the war chief seems to have made himself sole head of the government. When we consider the importance which the Aztecs attached to war and to plundering other tribes, it seems quite possible that the "chief of men," or the leader of the Aztec army, became almost a king. In later years of the empire the office seems to have become more or less hereditary, passing from father to son.

*How the Aztecs punished crime.* The Aztecs had very severe laws, and death was the penalty for breaking almost any one of them. Drunkenness carried a death sentence except in the case of individuals seventy years of age or older. Slander and gossip too were severely punished. Persons who were not put to death for breaking a law were condemned to slavery. The penalty of slavery, however, was really not so bad as it sounded. These slaves had

many privileges. They were allowed to hold property and were even allowed to buy themselves out of slavery. Because the laws were strict and everyone knew that they would be enforced, there was little lawlessness.

*How the Aztecs educated their children.* Both the boys and girls of the Aztec state were educated. The Aztecs had two types of schools, those for the common people and those for the nobles. The main difference between these schools was that the children of the common people had to do more actual labor, such as building fires and bringing wood, than did the children of the nobles. Both boys and girls stayed in school until they were married.

Since success in war was the most important thing in life for the Aztec, it is easy to understand why training for war occupied an important place in the Aztec system of education of boys. Boys from the age of three to fifteen spent considerable time in developing strong, healthy bodies. Physical education was an important subject in the school. At fifteen the boys made a choice between being educated for the priesthood and being trained for the army. Then they entered either the military school or the temple school.

The girls were taught household arts and crafts. You might be interested in a strange custom of the Aztecs in connection with the education of girls. If a girl was not married by the time she became twenty-two years of age, she was sent to a temple school, where she learned religious tasks, and then spent the rest of her life caring for the temples of the gods and teaching younger girls.

*Aztec writing.* The Aztecs used the calendar system of the Mayas, but they developed their own system of writing. Aztec writing was a mixture of pictures and hieroglyphs, or figures with hidden meanings. Their books



The Aztec Calendar Stone, based on the calendar of the earlier Mayas, is preserved in the National Museum in Mexico City.

were written on paper folded like an accordion. Several hundred volumes of Aztec literature, which included poetry, still exist.

*The calendar stone.* The calendar stone, a huge old stone slab of the Aztecs, has been found. It contains the face of the sun god in the center. The whole is marked with divisions of the year. It is thought to be a record of mythological events important to the Aztec religion, and may have been used as an altar on which human beings were sacrificed to the Aztec gods.

*How the Aztecs carried on trade.* The Aztecs carried on trade in the market places of their cities much as did



the Mayas. In most cases the trading was done by means of barter; that is, one piece of goods was exchanged for another. But the Aztecs did have certain things which they used as money. Some of the articles used for money were cocoa beans, cotton cloth and, most valuable of all, flakes of gold packed in transparent duck quills.

The largest market place in the empire was in the capital, Tenochtitlan. Here special market days were held in the public square. On these days men came over the mountain roads from points miles around, carrying on their backs all types of wares which they wished to exchange. Even today these market days are a feature of life in Mexico City, which is on the site of the Aztec capital, Tenochtitlan. Barefoot men still trudge into the city bringing goods to sell or exchange in the market.

Aztec trade reached far beyond the community market places. War and trade went hand in hand. Whenever and wherever a new tribe was conquered, traders from the Aztec capital soon came in with huge caravans of slaves carrying goods to be sold. Aztec merchants traveled under the protection of the army, and the conquered peoples were forced to welcome them. These merchants traveled hundreds of miles each year carrying goods and ideas from one end of the empire to the other. The merchants were men of wealth and power in Aztec society.

*How the Aztecs made a living.* In the time which was left over from fighting, the Aztecs' principal means of making a living was farming. The land was the property of the whole people, but a man could claim property to farm for as long as he could use it. It was not his to sell, and if it remained idle, he lost his right to it. The Aztec farmers raised corn, cacao, vegetables, and cotton. They also domesticated turkeys for food.





Carvings on the altar of Quetzalcoatl in Teotihuacán

The Aztecs did some good work in pottery-making, weaving, and metal craft even though their work was not original. It was copied chiefly from the Mayas.

*How the Aztecs worshiped.* The religion of the Aztecs was much like that of the Mayas. They had many gods and goddesses similar to those of the Mayas. They took over the feathered-serpent god, Quetzalcoatl, from the Toltecs, but the chief idol was Huitzilopochtli, the god of war. They seem to have made more sacrifices to their gods than did the Mayas. The human sacrifices were for the most part prisoners of war. So bloody and terrifying was the Aztec religion that the Spaniards who invaded Mexico were horrified by what they saw.



A religious ceremony of the Aztecs. Here the image of the sun is being presented with a vessel filled with precious scented water.

The Aztecs were extremely superstitious, and the use of magic was widespread among them. There were fortunetellers, medicine men, and witch doctors, whom people continually consulted to determine whether the fates favored any proposed piece of work which they expected to undertake. Certain days were regarded as unlucky and no work was undertaken on them.

*How they amused themselves.* In spite of their bloody sacrifices in the name of religion, the Aztecs had a gentle side. They loved flowers. They had numerous ceremonies in which there were dancing, singing, and offerings of flowers and fruits. Their music was produced by wooden or pottery flutes and by rattles and drums. The Aztecs were also very fond of games. They had one game which

they probably learned from the Mayas. It was played on a court with a rubber ball which could be struck with the hips or any other part of the body except the hands and feet. Tumbling and juggling were popular among the Aztecs also.

*How the Aztecs lived.* Since most of the Aztec wealth was obtained through war, the soldiers or warriors of the nation became people of considerable wealth. The military chief or the king, the leading warriors, the priests, and a few wealthy merchants formed the upper class of society. Then came the common people, or the great middle class. The middle class included the farmers, craftsmen or expert makers of pottery and jewelry, cloth workers and painters, and finally the small traders or merchants. In the lowest class were the slaves. There were different grades of slaves. The very lowest were prisoners of war; the next, persons condemned to slavery for crime; and the highest, children sold into slavery by their parents. Those sold or condemned into slavery could sometimes buy their freedom, but the others always remained slaves.

*How the Aztecs were conquered.* The Aztec state and the Aztec government did not last long. When the Spaniards invaded Mexico, they found these people easy to conquer. There were three reasons for this. In the first place, there was a legend about their god Quetzalcoatl, who was supposed to return on the wings of a great white bird. When Hernando Cortés<sup>1</sup> and the Spanish soldiers appeared in a ship with great white sails outspread the Aztecs thought their god was coming back to them, and so they welcomed Cortés with open arms. In the second place, the Aztec government was based on the force of war, and this meant that the Aztecs were hated by many

<sup>1</sup> In English this name is often spelled without the accent.



of the tribes they had conquered. These tribes were waiting for a chance to free themselves from the Aztecs. Therefore, when the Spaniards arrived, they found these enemies of the Aztecs ready and willing to help them overthrow the mighty Aztecs. In the third place, the Aztec method of fighting contributed to their downfall. It was their custom not to kill or severely injure their enemies, but rather to capture them alive in order that they might be used as human sacrifices in their religion. Therefore the Aztecs were no match for the Spaniards who fought at long range and for the purpose of killing. The story of the conquest of Mexico is told later.

**The Incas.** We are sometimes told that it is only in temperate regions that great civilizations are developed. In general, this is true. But we have already seen that the Mayas, struggling in the humid tropical regions, succeeded in building a great civilization. Far to the south of the land of the Mayas, in the lofty Andes, another tribe of Indians, working under very difficult conditions, also succeeded in building a great civilization.

In the Andes in central Peru lived a tribe or family of Indians called the Incas. In the space of a little more than four hundred years they built an empire worthy of comparison with the empires of the Egyptians and Greeks. Though it was different in many ways from the civilizations built by the Mayas and the Aztecs to the north, there was one principal way in which it was very unusual. It was built, not by a single tribe or group of tribes speaking a common language, like the Mayas and the Aztecs, but by many little tribes, each made up of quite different Indian stock. These were brought together by the powerful Inca family, a small ruling group of which the emperor was the center.



*The Incas establish themselves in Cuzco.* At the beginning of our story the Incas were a small tribe of llama herders dwelling in the cold lofty plain southwest of Cuzco. Some authorities believe that as early as the beginning of the Christian era the ancestors of the Incas were building huge fortresses, temples, and palaces, or possibly a city, on their high plateau. At least at the southern end of Lake Titicaca are ruins of enormous, perfectly cut stone blocks. These early Incas were skilled builders. But probably they were dissatisfied with life there because their region was unfit for farming. They existed on the poor livelihood which could be gained from herding. Finally they moved down from their high plateau into the fertile valley of Cuzco. Many stories are told of how this little mountain tribe succeeded in taking over the management

Native fishermen on Lake Titicaca



of the affairs of the Indians who lived in the valley. We do not know just how they succeeded in getting control of the valley of Cuzco, but they did it with very little destruction and small loss of life. Probably the Incas took possession of Cuzco at about the time the Mayas were building their second empire in Yucatán, that is, about the year 1000 or 1100.

*How the Inca Empire was built.* After the Incas were well established in Cuzco, they began bringing other tribes under their control. First by raids and then by well-organized military expeditions the Incas succeeded in bringing more and more territory and people into their empire. Once they had conquered a territory and had the people of that territory in their power, they immediately turned their attention to the welfare of their new subjects. They proceeded to win the loyalty of the conquered tribe by giving its chiefs and leaders responsibility in the new empire. There are many stories of Inca cleverness in winning favor with surrounding tribes. It is said that things went so well in the Inca Empire that many tribes came into the organization of their own free will in order to enjoy the benefits of the wise and just rule of the Incas. No Inca emperor could be said to have been merely brutal. Although the proud Incas ruled with a firm hand, they treated their subjects fairly well.

By warfare and statesmanship the Incas built a huge empire extending from northern Peru down into Bolivia and into northwestern Argentina. At the height of its power it stretched for more than two thousand miles along the plateaus of the Andes and the coastal plains of the Pacific. Its area was equal to that of all our present-day Atlantic states from Maine to Florida. It was an empire of greatly varied regions. There were highlands

and lowlands, cold regions and torrid sections. For the most part the coastlands were so arid and dry that the Incas had to use irrigation in order to grow crops. On the other hand, the highlands were dry and cold, and were of little use except for grazing and herding.

*How the Incas were governed.* The whole empire was organized as one great family in which the emperor and his officials took a kindly interest in the people of the nation. The rulers supervised the work of each family and saw that their needs were met. Cuzco was the center of the Inca government, and there the emperor lived, held court, and ruled his people.

The Inca society was organized with the family or household, not the individual citizen, as the center. Every man was required to marry. The government took a hand in arranging marriages in such a way that very little choice was left to the individual. The head of the household, a full-grown man, aided by his wife and older children, was called upon to perform heavy labors. Neither the very young nor the old were required to do hard work. The head of the household paid to the government whatever tribute or taxes the authorities said was due. This tribute might take different forms. It might be part of a farmer's produce. It might be a reasonable amount of work on roads, irrigation canals, or public buildings. Or it might be the objects made by a craftsman during the time in which he was required to work for the government. Thus everything depended upon the number of households or families in the empire. The head of each household was the person to whom the officials gave directions and from whom they collected services and products.

The government made numerous efforts to see that its people were contented and that they prospered. It built





Windows are rare among the buildings left by the Indians of the Andes. These three small windows are an exceptionally good example of the fine masonry work (dry masonry) of the late Inca period. (See page 59.)

roads and irrigation systems in order to help them. It saw that food was distributed to the craftsmen, builders, shop workers, and soldiers—to all the groups not engaged in farming. The farmers were given seed and fertilizer as well as pottery for their cooking and textiles for their clothing. Wool and cotton were distributed to all those who were in need of such supplies. Thus the needs of the people were looked after by the government. The army was regarded as a means through which the people as well as the emperor might gain greater comfort by extending the empire to include new territory and thus make more



products available to everyone. The army was not permitted to impose upon the people by trespassing on their property or by overrunning their villages. So from the central government under the emperor everything from producing and distributing food, pottery, and textiles to building highways and irrigation systems was controlled.

*The four provinces.* It was impossible for one man, the emperor, to oversee the work and the care of all the people in so large an empire. The law and the word of the emperor were supreme and absolute, but the emperor entrusted powers to a very large group of government officials. He did this by dividing the empire into four grand provinces, or states. Each part was connected with the capital city by a great highway. In fact, the Inca Empire is sometimes called "The Realm of the Four United Parts." In each of these grand provinces there was a governor, and under him were regional governors who supervised the counties and villages. Finally, under the regional governors there were other officials, each of whom was responsible for the care of ten families.

*How the Incas controlled crime.* The government was very strict. Crime of any sort was severely punished. Since there was very little of what we know as private property and no money, there were few crimes punishable by any kind of fine. Punishment was usually flogging or death. But the fact that there seems to have been little crime was not due altogether to the strict laws. The Inca rulers thought that a man's crime was the responsibility of his family, and in some cases of the whole village in which he lived. Therefore, other people as well as the man who committed the crime might be punished for his misdeeds. Because many people might be held responsible for the crime of any one man, everyone was interested

in maintaining law and order and in preventing crime. The law tried to be fair. If a man stole deliberately, he was punished by death, but if he stole from hunger or need, the official who should have prevented his hunger or need was punished. So everyone was interested in preventing crime.

The empire was knit together by excellent roads, or possibly we should call them footpaths because of their narrowness. It was the custom to have each section visited regularly by high officials who listened to the people's complaints. When questions of particular importance came up, they were referred to a high court made up of federal judges who were sent out from Cuzco to handle them. All regular and petty violations of the law were handled by local courts. There were strict laws about judges as well as about people who committed offenses. A judge who accepted a bribe was looked upon as a thief and was punished by death.

*How the Incas lived.* We might get the idea from all that has been said about the Inca government that the people lived in luxury. This was not true. Though nobles, priests, and some government officials did live on a lavish scale, the common people had a simple, meager existence. Maize, potatoes, and dried llama meat were their chief foods. Their houses were one-room structures with earthen floors and no chimneys. In the mountainous regions the walls were built of rough field stone and the roofs were of thatch. On the coast the houses were made of sun-baked clay, which was often colored. These small one-room houses were shared by the family and whatever animals, such as dogs or llamas, they might possess.

*The people had little freedom.* The Inca ruler planned to take care of the needs of the people, but there was no

room for personal freedom or for individual initiative. The government told each person not only what to do but also when to do it. There was no need for thinking or planning on the part of the people. They merely did what was planned for them. The men of Peru could not even change their occupations. If a man was a craftsman, his children had to enter the same craft unless they were given permission by the government to make a change. Under the Inca rule the common people had no opportunity to learn to govern themselves. We can understand that it was not a wise form of government, but we must remember that it was a time when nowhere in the world did common men have much freedom.

*Highways.* We have already learned that governors and judges traveled from one village to another to see how the people were faring. The four great highways that led out of Cuzco were paved and in places cut out of solid rock. Two of them ran the length of the empire. One highway followed the coast line, and the other ran along the highlands. At frequent intervals along these great highways there were crossroads which gave easy access to all parts of the empire.

In a large empire controlled in the way in which the Inca empire was, roads were absolutely necessary in order to hold the region together. So the Incas had thousands of men at work upon their highways. The work of these men was directed by expert engineers. They succeeded in building splendid roads, paved in spots where they might become wet and muddy, and built with steps where they were needed.

The roads were used by the Inca armies and by droves of llamas carrying packs of goods to market. Almost everyone who passed over these roads went on his own





The Peruvian Indians still build suspension bridges.

two feet. Only the emperor, the empress, and a few of the emperor's favored officials, such as the governors of the grand provinces, ever rode. They rode on litters carried on the shoulders of their men.

*Suspension bridges.* Inca highways were not like our roads. As there were no horses or drawn vehicles of any kind, the roads were narrow, but they were remarkable in many ways. One unusual thing about them was their suspension bridges. In some places the highways ran through the mountainous districts where there were many deep gorges and chasms which would have interrupted travel had it not been for the cleverness of the Incas in building bridges. The suspension bridges were usually

made by stretching five cables across the chasm. The cables were made of willow reeds which were woven together to great thickness and strength. Three cables, each as large as a man's body, served to hold the floor, which was made of layers of reeds or rushes. Two other cables served as hand rails and were attached to the floor by an interlacing of twigs and boughs.

Where the banks were not steep and the streams were not large, other types of bridges were used. Stone slabs were used to bridge some of the small streams. In quiet streams where there was no particular current a platform woven out of reed or rushes was floated on the surface of the water to serve as a bridge.

*How messages were sent.* Maybe you know how the pony express carried the mail across the western part of the United States for a short period in the days before we had railroads. The Incas used men without ponies to carry messages over their highways. It was a barefoot express. At frequent intervals along the highways there were posthouses for the messengers. Each runner covered a convenient distance of about two or three miles; then the work was taken up by another runner who went on to the next posthouse. The runners had remarkable speed and great endurance. There are reports of runners bearing messages from Cuzco to Quito, a distance of more than a thousand miles, in five days. Sometimes these post-runners carried verbal, or unwritten, messages. Again, they carried bunches of knotted string, called *quipus*, which the Incas used for recording messages. Often they carried a parcel or package for the emperor.

Although roads were good and the barefoot post-runners were swift, news traveled so slowly that the Incas had another method of sending messages when speed was



In the National Museum in Lima you may see these gold ornaments made by the Incas.

necessary. They built beacon fires high on the mountaintops and from these flashed messages by means of smoke in the daytime and flames at night.

*How the Incas made a living.* The Incas were skilled craftsmen. The making of pottery and the weaving of textiles were large industries. Each was a regular business, planned, organized, and supervised by the government. Pots and vases of lovely lines and colors were decorated with pictures of historical scenes, religious festivals, and important current events.

*Weaving.* The Incas ranked high in their skill in weaving textiles. Even today their weaving is considered as fine as any the world has ever known. They used both cotton and wool. They were clever with dyes as



well as with lovely designs. Spinning was done entirely by hand. So much time was required for spinning that the women carried cotton or wool with them wherever they went, and their fingers were always busy making strands and winding them on spindles.

*Metal work.* Some of the Incas were master craftsmen in working with metal, even more skillful than the craftsmen of the Mayas and Aztecs. They used gold, silver, platinum, and copper. Copper was used extensively for tools as well as for ornaments. They knew how to mix copper with tin and make a bronze which was tougher than pure copper. They made knives, hammers, and chisels of bronze. They used gold and silver not only for ornaments but also for decorating the homes of the noblemen. The emperor sat on a solid gold throne that rested on a golden platform. All the utensils in the royal household were of gold and silver. It is said that gold was sometimes used for the floors of the houses of the very wealthy. It is a small wonder that history has been filled with stories of the wealth of the Inca Empire.

*Building.* The Incas were builders. Their skill in engineering and the building of highways was applied in constructing beautiful temples and palaces. They used bricks made of clay and mixed with twigs and grass. They quarried and transported huge blocks of rock. They invented a system of cutting building stone into shapes that could be locked together. In many Inca buildings the stones are so tightly locked together that not even the blade of a knife can be inserted between them. The great fortress which guards the entrance of Cuzco is made of stones more than twenty feet long. It is estimated that it took twenty thousand men fifty years to build this stronghold. It is difficult to understand how they con-



A street in Cuzco. When the Spaniards found it difficult to tear down the stonework of the Incas, they used it for foundations and first floors and built on top of it.

structed such a building in a time when they had neither animals nor wheeled vehicles to help move the huge blocks of stone into place.

*Farming.* The greatest industry in Peru was, without doubt, farming, since the people depended on farming for their food. Farming, like everything else, was planned by the watchful government. Government officials, by means of close study, knew the regions where each crop grew best. The government furnished the seed and the fertilizer, we know. It even said when the planting and the harvesting should be done. All the crops which were

not immediately needed for food were kept in huge store-houses to be used in times of famine or crop failure.

The Inca farmers cultivated every bit of fertile land. They even used the mountain slopes. Some mountain slopes were made usable by building stone walls and leveling out the ground behind them, very much as the Chinese have done in some parts of China. If the land was dry and there was not much rainfall, the farmers used water from the mountains to irrigate the farms.

Maize, or corn, and potatoes were the chief crops of Peru. The potatoes were the white potatoes common today in the United States, not the sweet potatoes which the Mayas grew. The Incas also raised beans and squash.

The planting and the harvesting of crops were community undertakings. Men worked together in large groups, and women and children helped. At planting time the men broke furrows or hills by means of a sharp stick. The women followed along after them, breaking up the clods of earth and pulling out the weeds. The men dropped the seeds into the furrows or into the hills and then scraped the dirt over them either with sticks or with their feet. The old men and the children drove away the birds that tried to pick up the newly sown seed.

*The llama and the alpaca.* The Incas were able to tame, or domesticate, two animals, the llama and the alpaca, which furnished them with food and clothing. The llama is related to the camel and has a woolly coat. The high-lands of Peru were covered with herds of llamas. The Incas found the llama a valuable animal. It furnished wool for clothing and a large part of the meat which the Incas used. It was also used as a pack animal. Sometimes llamas lived with the family as pets and playmates.

The llama can live on the scant grass and herbs found





Alpacas feeding in the highlands. The alpaca is smaller than the llama and rather delicate.

in the bare highlands and can do without water for days. It is still used as a pack animal in many parts of South America. It never carries more than about one hundred pounds. When it is overloaded it refuses to work. In this respect it is unlike the patient donkey, which is also used in present-day South America and which never seems to mind how much is loaded on its back.

The alpaca, a relative of the llama, has long silky wool. The Incas used the fine alpaca wool in their textiles.

In the coastal regions of the Inca Empire there was good fishing. However, fishing was regulated by government officials. Hunting, too, was carried on to some extent in the mountains, but officials of the government curbed it also because certain varieties of the useful llama

were found wild in the mountains and no one wished the llamas to be destroyed or killed unnecessarily.

*How the Incas worshiped.* The Inca religion centered in the worship of the sun and the moon. The chief god was the Sun God. When a new province was added to the empire one of the first tasks of the Inca conquerors was to build a temple for their chief god. The Incas had a clever way of spreading their religion among the conquered tribes. Immediately after a conquest they carried away all the images or symbols of the religion of the conquered people. They did not destroy these images but took them to Cuzco and set them up in the great Sun temple of the capital city as subjects of the Sun God. So the religion in many of the conquered territories became a mixture of the official Inca religion, or the worship of the Sun God, and the religion which existed in the region before it was conquered by the Incas. The common people had many sacred objects, such as rocks, animals, mummies of ancestors, sticks, and stars. The sun was simply the most holy of all holy objects. Religion was concerned mainly with keeping the good will of all of these sacred objects.

Religious ceremonies gave much attention to providing for the welfare of departed friends and relatives and to warding off any evil which their ghosts might do to the living. The Incas treated the mummies of their dead with special respect. They wrapped them in beautiful fabrics and surrounded them with lovely ornaments and vases. Some of these mummies have been preserved through the ages and can be seen in museums today.

The Incas had many ceremonies and festivals too in connection with the worship of the Sun God and of the lesser gods. There is some evidence that human sacrifices



Inca ruins near Cuzco. The Incas had to quarry their stone without blasting.

were used in religious ceremonies, but the Inca rulers tried to discourage this practice. Certainly human sacrifices never were as common in the Inca Empire as they were with the Aztecs.

*How the Incas kept records—the quipu.* Among the Incas the priests were not astronomers and mathematicians, as they were among the Mayas. The emperors of the Incas placed practical things above everything else. For instance, they considered the keeping of accurate records of more importance than the study of astronomy. For this purpose they used a cord with colored knotted strings attached, the quipu. The Incas never invented



a method of picture writing, as did the Mayas and the Aztecs. They wrote their records and messages by tying knots in the many-colored strings of their quipus. They could do remarkable things with a quipu. Quipus were used to keep accounts of materials and supplies, and to keep records of births, deaths, marriages, and other important events. In the Inca school at Cuzco the sons of officials and noblemen were educated in Inca style. Instead of learning to write, as every child does in our schools, they learned to keep records by tying knots.

*How the Incas were conquered.* The Incas lived under the stern rule of a government in the hands of a few men. All went well with them until, the empire having grown very large, the Sapa Inca, or emperor, divided it, just before his death, between two of his sons. A quarrel followed, which might have been settled if the white men had not appeared. These white men were Spaniards who had heard of the fabulous wealth of the Incas. A small army of them conquered the great Inca nation. It is not strange that two hundred white men with guns were able to do this, for the Inca people were wholly untrained in deciding anything for themselves. With the empire in a state of civil war, the huge army of Indians lacked adequate leadership. In 1533, therefore, the Spaniards under Francisco Pizarro found it comparatively easy to conquer the Incas, to seize their wealth, and to take possession of the great empire.

The free people of the present-day Americas can see many weaknesses in the Inca plan of government. These Indians would not have been so helpless in defending themselves against the Spaniards if they had had some practice in making decisions for themselves. Aside from a small group of officials, no one took responsibility. The



**The Hall of Columns.** These ruins represent the best period of the Zapotec and Mixtec civilization. The Zapotecs and Mixtecs were agricultural tribes of southern Mexico.

people had had few decisions to make. Their empire fell because the individual men had rarely had to think for themselves.

**Other Indian tribes in Latin America.** The Spanish found many Indian tribes besides the Mayas, Incas, and Aztecs scattered over the lands they explored. Some of the tribes lived lives much like those of the Mayas and Incas, but they were not so powerful. Others had made but little progress toward better living. There were the Pueblos, the Caribs, the Chibchas, and the Arawaks, the Araucanians, and the Guaraní.

*The Pueblos and Caribs.* The Spanish found the Pueblos in the region north of the Rio Grande when they marched into the territory which is now New Mexico and Arizona. The Pueblos were farmers, and some of their handicrafts resembled those of the Mayas. Columbus found the Caribs on the islands in the Caribbean Sea. The Caribs also lived on the northern shores of South America.

*The Chibchas.* The Chibchas lived in the cool upland regions of Colombia. Like the Incas, they were farmers and miners. They raised corn and mined salt, gold, and emeralds. They wove textiles and made pottery. They had a kind of money and carried on trade with near-by tribes.

*The Arawaks, Guaraní, and Araucanians.* There were the primitive and fierce Arawaks in the northern and central parts of South America, and the Guaraní in the interior and along the northeast coast of South America. In what is now Chile the brave Araucanians made such a courageous stand against the Spanish invaders that their heroism is celebrated in Spanish-American poetry.

Some Indian tribes were conquered and made slaves by the Spanish, while others fled to the mountains and jungles. Still others, like the Araucanian Indians of Chile, stayed and continued warring on the Spanish for many, many years. But everywhere the white man changed the Indians' way of life.

*Indian tribes in the United States.* The Indians of Mexico, Central America, Peru, and other parts of Latin America were not the only early settlers in the Americas who learned the secrets of nature and put them to use long before the white men appeared. Probably you have heard and read about the early life of the Indians in the



region that is now the United States. If you have read the poem "Hiawatha," you have been introduced to many of the tribes: the Chippewas, Ojibways, Dakotas, the mighty Iroquois, and many others. North of the Rio Grande were many small and scattered tribes.

These northern Indians never learned so much nor lived so well as the Mayas and Incas. Still they had interesting lives. Over the vast territory north of the Rio Grande there were but little more than one million Indians. When we consider the size of the region, this was indeed a small population. Probably in the city of New York alone there are today six times as many people as occupied the North American continent north of Mexico when Columbus arrived.

Progress before the coming of the white men. The story of the Mayas, Aztecs, Incas, and even the warring Iroquois shows us that all these first settlers in the Americas made progress toward better living long before white men appeared in the Americas. The majority of them were farmers or were learning to farm when they were interrupted by the coming of the Europeans. It is in the field of farming that the Indians made their greatest contribution to our way of life. Many of the foods we eat today were first grown by American Indians. By patient cultivation of various plants they were able to tame many wild crops for food. Nowhere else in the world has there been a race of people who developed so many plants and vegetables for the use of human beings. Corn, sweet potatoes, white potatoes, tomatoes, squash, and beans are but a few of the Indian contributions.

In basket-making and pottery-making, in weaving, and in the fashioning of ornaments of copper, silver, and gold they were artists of the first rank. The world still admires

their arts and crafts. In many parts of North, South, and Central America the descendants of the first settlers continue to make beautiful articles.

### THE COMING OF THE WHITE MEN

The Indians meet the white men. If the Indians had not been interrupted by white invaders, they might have continued to develop better ways of living. One day in the year 1492 a group of Indians on a little island in the Caribbean Sea not far from eastern Cuba saw three great white-winged birds floating across the water toward them. As these white-winged monsters drew nearer, the Indians were amazed to see that they were huge "canoes" carried along by wings. When the canoes came near the shore, the Indians were further astonished by the men who waded ashore. Their faces were pale. They wore thick, heavy clothes and uttered strange words which no Indian could understand. On reaching the shore one of them unfurled a great banner. Then all of these strange white men fell upon their knees and lifted their faces to the sky. They were thanking God for their safe landing.

*How the white men acted.* The Indians tried to welcome them, but the white men seemed too much excited to realize that they were guests. The white men ate the food offered them as they rushed about shouting strange words. They seemed more interested in the jewelry worn by the Indians than in anything else. They rudely snatched these ornaments from the Indians. When they lifted great war clubs to their shoulders and these clubs spit fire that burned and tore the flesh, the Indians thought that such magic must belong to the gods.

The strangers tramped through the homes of the

Indians. They went from one end of the island to the other, seemingly searching for something they could not find. The war clubs carried by the strangers took the lives of many Indians. The white men could not be satisfied, even when the Indians gave them everything they had which was of any value. Finally the boats left the island and sailed away, disappearing over the rim of the ocean.

*What the white men wanted.* Year after year the Indians saw the canoes of the white men returning. The restless strangers were always searching for something they could not find. Some of these white men came to live among the Indians. They made the Indians do their work. The Indians were puzzled as to where the strange men came from and why they came.

The Indians did not know that these white strangers came from the continent of Europe, where they had been developing ways of living which were very different from theirs. The men of Europe had found out how to make tools to help them in their work. They had learned to make tools out of iron. They had learned how to use wheels to carry their burdens, to grind their grain, and to do many other things for them. They had tamed and raised cows, pigs, chickens, and horses. They had developed an alphabet which they used for writing; and, more wonderful than this, they had invented a printing press which helped them to make many copies of their most important pieces of writing. They had found out about gunpowder and had invented the war clubs which amazed the Indians by hurling fire and lead. They had also built the great canoes in which they could sail long distances.

The men of Europe were all very much alike. About



the time the Mayas were building their cities, the Romans, a powerful people in the Mediterranean region, had brought most of Europe under their rule. As a part of the Roman Empire the peoples of Europe had learned that trade with other people was a way in which they could get new and different things to use and to sell to others.

*How the Indians were named.* The white men who first invaded the Indian land were searching for a region called the Indies lying to the east of Europe, in Asia. They had been trading with the Indies for nearly two centuries. The Indies had great wealth, and these white men went there to obtain spices and silks. They had to travel eastward by way of ports on the Black Sea or the Mediterranean Sea, then by camel caravan across the continent of Asia. It was a long and difficult journey, and they wished to find a shorter route by water over which to carry their goods.

Christopher Columbus believed that he could reach these lands of the East by sailing westward. He persuaded the queen of Spain to give him ships and men so that he might try to find a westward route by water to these rich lands. When Columbus landed on one of the islands in the Caribbean Sea he thought that he had reached some part of the Indies. It was natural, then, that he should call the yellow-brown men he found living there "Indians." The first inhabitants of the Americas have been known by that name ever since.

Columbus never knew that he had found a new land instead of a new route to India. This mattered little to the rulers of Spain who had given him ships and men so long as they believed he had found a land with an abundance of gold and silver.

Most of the nations of Europe were young and am-

bitious at this time. England, France, the Netherlands, and Portugal as well as Spain were seeking wealth through trade. They were all interested in acquiring new lands. So it is easy to understand why Spain was pleased with the work of Columbus.

The king and queen of Spain sent ship after ship to the



Cortés was one of the many ambitious Spaniards who came to the New World seeking their fortunes.

new land to the west to search out all of its secrets. They planted settlements of white men who with the help of the Indians farmed and mined in order to produce food and riches.

The Spanish conquer the Mayas, Aztecs, and Incas. Soon the Spaniards became dissatisfied with the small islands

in the Caribbean and pushed on to the westward until they came to the mainland of North America. They landed on the shores of Yucatán in 1517. Although the Mayas fought bravely against the newcomers, they were weak from their own wars and were soon conquered.

When the Spaniards had conquered the Maya tribes, they marched on toward Tenochtitlan, where they had heard that there was great wealth. In the year 1519 Cortés and a few hundred soldiers mounted on horses conquered the Aztecs. By 1531 other Spaniards had invaded the country of the Incas.

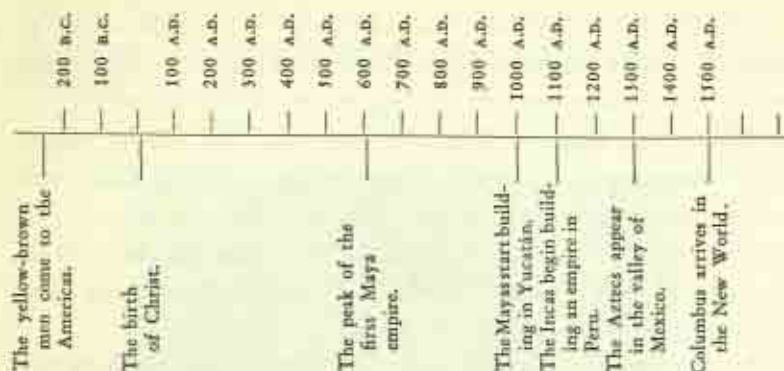
So the Spaniards came seeking a new trade route to the Indies but found instead a new land, new peoples, and new riches. They overran the empires of the Mayas, the Aztecs, and the Incas, and stayed to build a white man's world in Mexico and in Central and South America as well as in part of what is now the United States.

### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Keep a class "time line." Because the history of the Americas goes back into the dim past, it is a good idea to build a time line to show when events happened. A simple way to do this is to take a long, narrow strip of paper and mark it off into equal spaces. Letting each space represent a century, indicate the centuries in large numbers that can be seen across the room. Then place the strip at the top of the blackboard or fasten it to the molding running across the room. When a new event or an important date is mentioned in this book, make a note of it on a card and then paste the card in the proper time space. Your time line should begin in the centuries before the birth of Christ. We do not know just when the first yellow-brown men came to the Americas, but we do know that it was before Christ was born.



Here is a possible beginning for your time line.



B. Prepare a report comparing a tribe of Indians in Latin America and those of a tribe that lived in what is now the United States. Tell ways in which their customs were different and ways in which these were similar.

C. Here are the names of some motion pictures that you will probably like to see:

*Inca Cuzco (Peru)* (20 min., 16 mm., sound). Shows ruins of Peru.

*Peru, Land of the Incas* (1 reel, 16 mm., silent). Shows the high mountain town of Cerro de Pasco, the market places of the Indians, how weaving is done, and the use of llamas. Rental through American Museum of Natural History, Film Division, New York, N. Y.

*South America—Ancient and Modern* (1 large reel, in color and with sound, or 3 reels, silent. Sound films cannot be shown on silent projectors.) The film features a cruise from New York through the Panama Canal to Ecuador, Peru, and Chile. It shows the land of the ancient Incas and the lake districts of the Andes. Write to the Grace Line, Publicity Department, 247 Park Avenue, New York, N. Y.

*Wings over the Andes* (3 reels, 16 mm., sound). A record of the Shippee-Johnson expedition to the land of the Incas.

D. Here are the names of some books about the ancient peoples of Latin America that you may enjoy reading:

Eells, Elsie S.—*South America's Story* (new edition); New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1934. This is a story of South America written for young people.

Fernald, H. C., and Slocombe, E. M.—*The Scarlet Fringe*; New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1931. A story of the retreat of the Incas after the Spanish conquest.

Gann, T. W. F., and Thompson, J. E.—*The History of the Maya*; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1931. A simply written history of the Maya Indians from earliest times to the present day.

Janvier, Thomas Allibone—*The Aztec Treasure House*; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1929. An exciting tale of ancient and modern Aztec times.

Malkus, Alida S.—*The Dark Star of Itza*; New York: Harcourt, Brace & Company, 1930. An account of a Maya festival with description of the costumes worn by the nobility, priests, warriors, and others. The book gives authentic material on early Maya civilization and tells about a young Maya princess and her friends.

Mead, C. W.—*Old Civilizations of Inca Land*; New York: American Museum of Natural History, 1932. This book describes the accomplishments of the ancient Incas.

Morris, Ann A.—*Digging in Yucatan*; New York: Doubleday, Doran & Company, 1931. Tells about the archaeology of the region.

Verrill, A. H.—*Foods America Gave the World*; Boston: L. C. Page and Company, 1939. Much interesting information about the many foods America has given the world.

## EUROPEANS IN THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE

THE story of the Spanish in Latin America started more than one hundred years before the English built homes in the present United States. They appeared in the Western world for the first time in 1492. In 1493, just one year later, they returned a second time, this time with a considerable fleet of vessels carrying Spanish settlers, tools, seed, horses, cattle, and hogs. Their first settlement was on the island now shared by Haiti and the Dominican Republic.

1. What did the Spanish want in the Americas?
2. How was the work of the Spanish and the English in the New World alike and how was it different?
3. Who were the leaders in laying out the Spanish-American empire?
4. How did Spain govern her immense possessions in the New World?
5. How did white men make their start in Brazil?

What the Spanish wanted. In the years between 1493 and 1503 Spaniards from all walks of life clamored for a way to reach the New World. Nobles, priests, soldiers, merchants, miners, and others came on any vessel that could get up a sail. They came without adequate charts to guide them and without proper supplies of food for the journey. They came with a desire to serve their king and country.

At the time when these Spaniards came to the Western world all the nations of Europe were competing with one another to secure trade and power. Spain, England,



Portugal, France, and the Netherlands were all young nations. Each was proud of its language, country, and way of life, and wished to be strong and powerful. So each one tried to find new lands, new wealth, and new peoples. In the beginning Spain and England wanted the same thing—trade. But once men of both nations were in the New World things worked out somewhat differently for them.

### THE SPANISH AND THE ENGLISH IN AMERICA

The Spanish find adventure, the English homes. The great race of European nations to find an all-water trade route to the fabulously wealthy Indies was won neither by Spain nor by England. It was Portugal that won the race when Vasco da Gama succeeded in 1498 in sailing from Lisbon to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope. But Spain was just as fortunate as Portugal, for Columbus had stumbled on a new world. Even more important, he touched upon a part of the New World where the natives had accumulated great wealth in the form of gold and silver.

England lagged far behind Spain. It was not until 1497 that she sent John Cabot, an Italian, to try to find a water route to the Indies. Cabot also stumbled on the Western world. He landed somewhere in the vicinity of present-day Labrador. The king of England was pleased with Cabot, for, even though he failed to find a passage-way to the Indies, his discovery gave England a claim to new lands.

It was more than eighty-five years after Cabot's discovery that the English followed up their claim by sending settlers to the Americas. Then the first Englishmen

who came spent most of their time searching for gold. They knew of Spain's good fortune in finding easy wealth, and they hoped to be equally lucky. But in the region claimed by the English there were no natives with beautiful ornaments of gold and silver, and there were no mines to turn out great stores of quick riches. After several discouraging attempts to find gold, silver, or other form of easy wealth the English began to realize that they had found wealth but that it was in the form of rich, fertile soil, great forests, and beautiful quick-flowing streams.

So, while both the Spanish and the English came to the Americas in search of riches, the wealth which they found was very different. Spain sent men to the New World to get the gold and silver. Englishmen came to till the rich land, fish in the streams, and hunt fur-bearing animals in the great forests.

The Spanish took over the Indians' mines. They traveled about Mexico, Central America, South America, and the southern part of what is now the United States in a search of more and more gold. Comparatively few of the Spanish brought their families, because not many of them planned to make their homes in the Americas. The English took possession of the Indians' land. They came with their families and household goods and planned to stay. For many years the English remained close to the shore where they landed and began immediately to build homes and to plant crops. Only when they were well established did they begin to push inland and occupy more and more of the Indians' land.

The Spanish and English had different interests in religion. Both the Spanish and the English were Christians, but the Spanish were all of the Catholic faith, whereas the English were of several different faiths. The Spanish brought

their priests with them, and wherever they went in the New World they tried to teach the Indians their religion. The king of Spain expected them to win converts for the church among the natives. In addition, the work of the missionaries was the chief means by which the natives were able to absorb some of the civilization of the Spanish. The missionaries taught the Indians different kinds of hand-work and better farming methods, besides giving them religious instruction.

Things were different among the English. In England, as in Spain and in most of the other countries of Europe, the government had designated one church or one faith as the accepted religion of the nation, and wished all people of the nation to worship God according to the teachings of that church. But many Englishmen had their own ideas about how they wished to worship, and as a result several different faiths, or beliefs, arose in England. Among the followers of these different faiths were the Puritans and the Quakers. Roman Catholics, too, were unwilling to worship in the Church of England. Those who refused to obey the orders of the English Government and worship in the Church of England were in constant trouble. So when there was an opportunity to move to the New World with the promise that they might worship God in their own way, many Englishmen were glad to go. Many of them came to America in groups, all members of the same faith, and brought the ministers or leaders of their particular faith with them. Once in America, they settled in one place and often tried to keep all men of any other faith than theirs out of their settlement. In the beginning each group wished religious freedom for itself, but after a time they opened their settlements to people of all faiths and creeds.



The Spanish had leisure; the English found only hard work. You already know the story of the Aztecs, Mayas, and Incas, whose lands were taken over by the Spanish. So you know that the Spanish found cities, farms, and mines already started. They found, besides, a large native population which was easily conquered and put to work for the white men. This left the Spanish time to do many other things. They were not lacking in energy, endurance, or courage. They sailed the seas, climbed the mountains, tramped over the deserts, and hacked their way through dense forests in order to investigate every rumor of riches. They made enough lucky finds to spur them on and on. In less than fifty years from the time Columbus landed on an island in the Caribbean the Spanish had explored and conquered a large part of the vast region which is now Latin America.

In addition to marching over most of present-day Latin America they traveled as far north as North Carolina and westward beyond the Mississippi River to the Ozark Mountains. They went up the coast into California and Oregon. They tramped over Texas and marched as far north as Colorado and Kansas in a vain search for gold. Of course not all the Spanish went wandering around the New World in quest of gold. Some of them settled down beside the Indians to farm, trade, and to mine gold and silver. Some of them even found time to write books and compose music.

The English found no docile Indians with cities and farms already started. The tribes of natives which they encountered fought long and bitterly to keep the white men out. For the English there were long years of hard toil in order to build settlements, to start farms, and to keep from being killed by the Indians.



A statue of Columbus stands in the public square in Guatemala City.

## LEADERS IN THE SPANISH EMPIRE IN THE AMERICAS

The best way to tell you the story of the opening of Latin America to white settlers is to introduce you to some of the men that took part in the conquest. Some of these men may have been cruel leaders, but they were fired by a fierce and untiring energy which led them on and on to accomplish the almost impossible. They staked out an empire nearly twice the size of Europe in a little less than fifty years.

Columbus discovers the land. Columbus, as you know, was the first of these Spanish leaders. To be sure, he was an Italian, but he sailed under the Spanish flag. His landing on an island in the Caribbean in 1492 marked the beginning of the Spanish procession to the New World. We know how he returned to Spain with the news that he had found a way to the rich cities of the Indies. Of course he was mistaken, but no one in Spain cared very much so long as he found a land of wealth. Returning in 1493 with a great fleet carrying fifteen hundred men, seeds, plows, hogs, cattle, and horses, he founded a Spanish settlement on the island of Haiti, which the settlers named "Española" or "Little Spain." Later, Englishmen changed the name Española to "Hispaniola."

Columbus made four voyages to the Caribbean, always in search of the rich cities of the Indies that he believed must be there but which he never found. He explored the coast of Central America and on one voyage may have sailed along the coast of South America. Even before his death in May, 1506, Spaniards were coasting along the shores of Central and South America, finding out a little more about the strange new world that Columbus had discovered.





Balboa walked into the waters of the Pacific Ocean and took possession of it in the name of the king of Spain.

The Spanish soon began to explore more and more of the New World. They set up more settlements on the islands of the Caribbean. They established themselves on the islands of Puerto Rico, Jamaica, and Cuba. They reached out toward the mainland of Central and South America. They sent two parties to establish settlements on the mainland: one in what is now Colombia and another in the region now called Panama. The expeditions suffered greatly from shipwreck, fever, hunger, and from the poisoned arrows of unfriendly Indians. In Panama it seemed for a time that the white men might not succeed in making a settlement. In 1513 there ap-

peared among the suffering settlers of Panama a Spaniard named Vasco Núñez de Balboa.

Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean. Balboa, a gay, courageous adventurer, had escaped from the officials in Santo Domingo as a stowaway on a vessel sailing for Panama. Once in Panama, he brushed aside all leaders and made himself head of the feeble little band of men he found there. He founded the town of Darien, the first settlement of white men on the American continents.

No sooner was Darien established than Balboa began to hear rumors of a great sea to the south and of lands rich in gold. So he gathered a party of men and together they hacked their way through the jungles of the isthmus, until finally, in September, 1513, they looked down on a mighty ocean. Balboa named this ocean the "South Sea," and claimed it and all the lands it touched for the king of Spain. The king was pleased and named Balboa governor of Panama.

Balboa remembered the stories he had heard of richer lands to the south and decided to embark on an expedition in search of these lands. About this time the king appointed another man governor. Balboa was arrested on some trumped-up charge of treason and was beheaded.

Dávila helps in Central America. Pedrarias Dávila was the man responsible for Balboa's downfall. He took up Balboa's work. In 1519 he established Panama City, on the Pacific coast. He sent adventurers plundering and killing through the lands to the north. Finally his men joined the party of Hernando Cortés in gaining control of the present countries of Honduras and Guatemala.

Cortés conquers Mexico. The adventures of Cortés are next on the list of Spanish conquests. In 1519 Cortés was sent out by Velásquez, the governor of Cuba, to explore

the lands to the west of the Gulf of Mexico. There had long been rumors that natives living in these lands dwelt in beautiful cities, adorned themselves with gold, and wore garments of dyed cotton. No sooner had Velásquez appointed Cortés than he regretted his appointment and attempted to withdraw it. But Cortés had already embarked with six hundred men, many servants and slaves, a few horses, and a small supply of arms and ammunition. On the coast of Yucatán he was fortunate in finding a shipwrecked Spaniard who understood the Maya language. He took the man with him to act as interpreter.

*Cortés lands in Yucatán.* Cortés landed in Yucatán. By fighting and making peace with the Indian tribes he met, he finally made his way up the coast to the site of what is now the city of Veracruz. Here on the border of Aztec territory he received his first real evidence of the wealth of the Aztecs. It was at this place that representatives of Moctezuma,<sup>1</sup> ruler of the wealthy Aztecs, welcomed him and gave him rich gifts, including two great plates—one of gold and one of silver—gold dust, and many beautiful ornaments. It was Moctezuma's hope that the strangers would be satisfied with these gifts and go away. Unfortunately for the Aztecs, the sight of such wealth made Cortés more determined than ever to march into the heart of the Aztec Empire and see for himself the great Moctezuma and his fabulously wealthy country.

Some of Cortés' followers did not support him in his plans to explore the territory of the Aztecs. They wanted to return to Cuba. Velásquez, the governor who had sent Cortés on the mission, had not authorized him to make such a long journey inland. Many of the soldiers thought Cortés was exceeding the orders given him. So Cortés

<sup>1</sup> This name is frequently spelled *Monteruma*.



decided to settle all this matter. He had all his ships burned. Then there was no chance that any of his men would turn back from the venture on which he had set his heart—the conquest of Moctezuma's empire.

*The Tlascalans help Cortés.* Cortés left some of his men in charge of things in Veracruz and began his march inland toward the Aztec capital, Tenochtitlan. Along the way Cortés, by means of persuasion and sometimes by war, made friends with several Indian tribes. One of the most powerful of these tribes was the Tlascalans. The Tlascalans had never been really conquered by the Aztecs, and so after a brief battle with the Spanish they were easily persuaded to be friendly to Cortés' plan. The Tlascalans became loyal allies of the Spanish.

While Cortés and his men rested among the Tlascalans, Moctezuma again sent his representatives. Again they brought rich gifts, but this time they invited the Spanish to visit the Aztec capital of Tenochtitlan. Although the Tlascalans warned Cortés that this was probably a trap, he was determined to push on. The Spanish marched on to the Aztec city of Cholula, where at first they were entertained royally. Then Cortés' scouts reported that a large force of Moctezuma's warriors were massing outside Cholula and that all streets leading to the Spanish quarters were barricaded. Things looked very dark for the little Spanish army, but Cortés began to devise a plan to get them out of this difficulty.

As the first step in his plan Cortés announced that he was marching on to Tenochtitlan the next day and invited all the nobles of Cholula to come to visit him before his departure. When several thousand of the finest Aztec warriors in the city had come in answer to his invitation, Cortés ordered his men to attack them. Many of the

Aztecs were killed and all the others were put to flight. Even the Aztec warriors encamped outside the city withdrew. Cortés pretended that the plot against the Spaniards was the work of the people of Cholula and that Moctezuma knew nothing about it. Thus he deceived Moctezuma so thoroughly that the emperor permitted the Spanish to march on to Tenochtitlan, where it was his plan to destroy them after he had put them off their guard by entertaining them as guests.

*Cortés and Moctezuma.* When the Spaniards came to Lake Texcoco, with its island city of Tenochtitlan, they were welcomed by Moctezuma himself. Although Moctezuma gave his visitors fine apartments in the city and showered them with gifts, the Spaniards could not forget that they were surrounded by thousands of hostile warriors who would at the slightest sign from Moctezuma fall upon them and destroy them. As the Spaniards looked about the city they saw how difficult it would be for them to retreat or escape. The island city's only land connection with the mainland was three causeways or highways which the Indians might easily block. So the Spanish were almost prisoners of the Aztecs. This made them very uncomfortable. Cortés thought of a way to protect himself and his men. He decided that he would make Moctezuma his prisoner. So, accompanied by a few of his men, he went to Moctezuma's palace as if to make a formal call. There he accused Moctezuma of being responsible for the trouble at Cholula and finally gave the emperor the choice of being killed there on the spot or of becoming the prisoner of the Spaniards as a hostage for their safety. Moctezuma chose to be a hostage, and so he accompanied the Spaniards back to their quarters.



The fierce struggle that preceded the capture of the Aztec capital by Cortés and his men. The Indians fought so savagely that the progress of the fight was slow.

The Indians did not relish the idea of having their ruler held by the Spanish. Though they obeyed the orders which Cortés dictated through Moctezuma, it was clear that they would soon elect another leader. About this time a representative from Velásquez and a group of Spanish soldiers arrived in Veracruz with an order for the arrest of Cortés and for his return to Cuba for punishment. Besides, Velásquez' soldiers began negotiations with the Aztecs, promising them the release of Moctezuma if they would rise against Cortés. Leaving a trusted lieutenant, Pedro de Alvarado, in charge, Cortés marched out of Tenochtitlan with a small force of about seventy men to



meet Velásquez' soldiers. Cortés surprised them and made the leader his prisoner. He then persuaded the rest of the soldiers to follow him back to the Aztec capital.

*La noche triste.* On his return march to Tenochtitlan, Cortés received news that Alvarado had attacked the Indians of the capital and had caused the whole city to revolt. Cortés succeeded in re-entering Tenochtitlan only after a severe fight. He found the Spanish quarters surrounded by the aroused Aztecs. When Cortés ordered Moctezuma to appear before his people and try to quiet them the angry Aztecs stoned their emperor and wounded him so severely that he died a few days later. Moctezuma's brother then became emperor, and the Aztecs took up their fight against the Spaniards in earnest. The Spaniards soon realized that, if any of them were to live, they must force their way out of the city. So about midnight on June 30, 1520, the Spaniards began to fight their way through the streets and over the causeways to the mainland. Cortés lost more than nine hundred of his men in a battle which lasted all night. Many Spaniards were killed by the Indians and others were drowned in the waters of the lake. In Mexican history this night of horror is known as *la noche triste*, or "the doleful night."

*Cortés captures Tenochtitlan.* The remaining Spanish hurried to the country of their allies the Tlascalans, where they found shelter and rest. After a time Cortés again marched on Tenochtitlan. He found all causeways leading into the city closed and therefore had to devise a way of transporting his soldiers across the lake. Finally thirteen boats were constructed of materials which had to be carried overland all the way from Veracruz. When the thirteen boats were launched a bitter fight began. The natives of Tenochtitlan defended their city and their



In Mexico City you may still see the tree beneath which Cortés  
sorrowed for his comrades who were lost  
during "the sad night."

homes so stubbornly that the city was almost destroyed in August, 1521, when it finally passed forever from the control of the Aztecs. After the capture of Tenochtitlan the rest of the Aztec Empire soon fell into the hands of the Spanish.

After so great a conquest one would have expected Cortés to take a rest. But no sooner was Tenochtitlan in his control than he led a party southeast into the lands of the Mayas—Guatemala and Honduras. Here his men joined the party sent out from Darien by Pedrarias Dávila.

They soon had the land of the Mayas under their control.

*Cortés governs New Spain.* Then Cortés set about organizing and improving the territory he had conquered. The region was called "New Spain." The ruins of the city of Tenochtitlan were replaced by Spanish buildings, and the new city was called "Mexico City." If you visit Mexico City today you will find some of the buildings planned by Cortés still in use. Useful food plants and animals were imported from Spain. Churches were built and schools were opened for the native children. Cortés did many things which prove that he was not only a daring and courageous soldier but also a wise ruler or governor.

Magellan carries the Spanish flag around the globe. The same year that Pedrarias Dávila founded the city of

Part of the "magnificent aqueduct of 904 arches of gigantic size" which the early Spaniards built in Mexico City to replace the water system of the Aztecs





Panama, 1519, and at the time that Cortés was entering the empire of the Aztecs, another leader was making history on the sea. Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese captain in the Spanish service, carried out Columbus' idea. He showed that the east could be reached by sailing west.

Magellan did not live to report his accomplishment to the king of Spain. When he reached South America he took his ships through the dangerous but beautiful strait which today bears his name. Then came what was probably the worst part of his adventure—ninety-eight days on the great Pacific Ocean. These were horrible days of famine, thirst, and sickness for Magellan and his men. Finally they reached the Philippine Islands. There Magellan was killed in a skirmish with the natives of the islands.

Magellan's men sailed on from the Philippines. Somewhere in the Spice Islands of the Indian Ocean they picked up a cargo of cloves. On they went around the Cape of Good Hope and back to Spain. One morning three years after Magellan first set out, the people of Spain were surprised by the appearance of one poor ship with eighteen tired sailors. It was all that remained of Magellan's brave little fleet. It is said that the cargo of cloves carried by the one surviving boat paid for the five ships and the cost of the three-year voyage.

Magellan's voyage was a great achievement. It added to the map the greatest of oceans, the Pacific. But more important, it revealed to the people of the world the fact that they lived on a globe. In other words, it proved that the world was really round.

Pizarro conquers the Inca Empire. Still the Spanish were not through investigating the Americas. Francisco Pizarro, a rough adventurer, had twice sailed out of

Panama to investigate reports of the great wealth of the Incas of Peru. You remember that Balboa wanted to investigate these rumors. Finally, in 1531, Pizarro set out for the third time. He took with him only 183 men and 37 horses for the conquest of the great Inca Empire. So great were the difficulties which he met that it was almost two years later when he marched inland to meet the ruler of the Incas. The meeting was outwardly peaceful, but there followed a slaughter of the emperor's body-guard and the seizure of the emperor as a prisoner.

The people of the Inca Empire were too stunned by the capture of their ruler to offer any real resistance to the Spanish. When the Inca emperor offered as the price of

A statue of Pizarro has been erected in Lima. In the background is the Presidential Palace. (See page 347.)



his freedom nearly enough gold to fill a room, his faithful subjects stripped the temples of the empire in an effort to free him. Although the gold was delivered in full measure, Pizarro found one excuse after another for holding his royal prisoner. Finally, in August, 1533, he thought of an excuse for having him executed. By November, 1533, Pizarro's soldiers had captured and taken possession of the Inca capital city of Cuzco.

Pizarro founded the city of Lima in January, 1535, as the Spanish capital of the region. From there he and his followers explored and conquered a large part of the Inca Empire. Once the Spanish had the region under control, they began to fight among themselves. Pizarro was killed in one of these quarrels.

Benalcázar takes Ecuador and Colombia. From Peru, Pizarro sent men north and south to conquer new provinces. In 1534 Sebastián de Benalcázar conquered Quito and what is now Ecuador. Then the Spanish took possession of the southern part of what is now Colombia.

Valdivia occupies Chile. Another of Pizarro's captains, Pedro de Valdivia, marched far into Chile. There with great difficulty he subdued the brave Araucanian Indians sufficiently to permit him to found six Spanish cities. Valdivia lost his life in a struggle with the Indians. For more than two hundred years the Araucanian Indians continued to war on the Spanish invaders, but the Spaniards kept their hold on the region.

Quesada takes New Granada. While Pizarro was busy in Peru, Jiménez de Quesada set out to explore the kingdom of Bogotá, as Colombia was then called. Pizarro's man, Benalcázar, had entered the southern part of the country. Quesada entered from the north by way of the river Magdalena.



Quesada's party had a hard time. Only about one fifth of the men that began the journey were with him when, eight months later, he finally entered the valleys and upland plains around the present city of Bogotá. In 1538 he founded the city of Santa Fé de Bogotá. It became the Spanish capital of the region. They called the region New Granada.

In 1539 Benalcázar, the conqueror of Quito and Ecuador, arrived on the uplands of Bogotá. He must have been surprised to find a fellow countryman, Quesada, already in possession.

Solís and Cabot explore the region of La Plata. The northern and western parts of South America were the most difficult sections of the continent to explore and conquer. Even today the great mountain ranges are barriers to travel. But the southeastern part of the continent, the region of La Plata, was comparatively easy to reach from Europe. Yet for a number of years the Spanish paid little attention to this region, probably because there were no rumors of great wealth in what is now Argentina.

In 1516 Días de Solís, a Spanish sailor, brought a boat into the great mouth of the Plata River,<sup>1</sup> but he was killed by the Indians he found there. It was ten years before another Spanish vessel appeared in the waters which now form the great harbor of Buenos Aires. The captain of this second Spanish boat was Sebastian Cabot. He was the son of the Italian John Cabot who in 1497 brought an English boat to the shores of North America.

Sebastian Cabot found three white men on the shores of the Plata. They were survivors of the Solís expedition. Such wondrous tales did these three men tell of the coun-

<sup>1</sup> This river is usually called "the Plata."

try that Cabot spent three years exploring the region. Probably he reported his explorations to the king of Spain, but there was no immediate attempt to plant a settlement. It was several years before that happened.

**Mendoza settles Buenos Aires.** In 1535 a rich Spanish captain, Pedro de Mendoza, led a great expedition from Seville, Spain, to found a settlement in Argentina. He called his settlement Santa María de Buenos Aires. The first settlement did not last long. It was surrounded by savage tribes. The settlers that did not starve were driven out. The survivors of the settlement made their way nearly a thousand miles up the Plata and the Paraná rivers, and in 1536 founded the city of Asunción, where the Indians were not so fierce. The Spanish made Asunción the capital of the southeastern section.

In 1580 the Spaniards of Asunción (this time they were largely Creoles, or Spaniards born in America) again planted a settlement at Buenos Aires. They were able to make it a permanent and lasting one.

The cities of the interior of Argentina were settled by men who either crossed the Andes from Chile or who came down from the plateau of Peru. It seems to us now as if it would have been easier for them to cross the plains from Buenos Aires, but the story of Spanish exploration has shown us that these early Spaniards gave little thought to hardships.

This is the brief story of the men who discovered and explored Latin America. Columbus, Balboa, Dávila, Cortés, Magellan, Pizarro, Quesada, Benalcázar, Valdivia, Solís, Cabot, and Mendoza were the leaders, but we must remember that with them were thousands of Spanish soldiers and adventurers. The quest for gold and other riches spurred these leaders and their followers on to

accomplish in less than fifty years what might otherwise have taken hundreds of years.

**Other Spanish explorers.** We must remember that the restless and energetic Spaniards did more than explore and conquer Latin America. Juan Ponce de León, Hernando de Soto, Francisco Vázquez de Coronado, Juan de Oñate, Diego de Vargas, and many others explored the southern half of what is now the United States. In this part of our country there are today dozens of towns and cities as well as many mountains and rivers which bear Spanish names.

### SPAIN'S GOVERNMENT OF THE NEW WORLD

**The Spanish settle in the New World.** After a time the Spanish had but few places to look for new wealth. There remained little for them to do except to settle down and work the mines they had found. The mining industry was controlled by a small group of men who paid to the Spanish king one fifth of all the gold, silver, and mercury (or quicksilver) which they mined. There was plenty of wealth for the Spanish if they could keep control. It required careful planning to rule so large a region.

The Spanish were to rule a large part of what we now call Latin America for more than three hundred years. They controlled parts of Latin America for an even longer period if we include Cuba and Puerto Rico in their domains, as probably we should. They did not withdraw from these two islands until 1898. But since they had lost most of their vast empire by 1826, we shall use that date as marking the close of Spanish rule in Latin America.

**The colonies belonged to the king.** It is difficult to give an exact picture of how the Spanish governed in Latin America because in each district local conditions changed



the pattern somewhat. In one thing all districts were alike—all authority in both civil and church affairs came from the king of Spain. The Spanish territories in Latin America were regarded not as colonies of Spain or of the Spanish people but as the property of the king.

Spain began her rule in America by building a network of cities and towns. Whenever the Spanish discovered a new region they established a settlement from which they governed the territory for many miles around. As early as 1574 a Spanish geographer who wrote about Spanish America described two hundred different cities and towns.

**The cabildo.** In these early days each settlement had a council, or *cabildo*, which administered the laws of the territory. The cabildos did very little lawmaking. Most of the laws and regulations came ready-made from Spain.

At first the members of the cabildos in the Americas were chosen by the founder of the settlement. Columbus chose his brother Bartholomew as head of the council that ruled the settlement which he founded in 1493 at Santo Domingo. But soon the king of Spain took a hand and began to appoint members.

The cabildos had the right to send deputies to Spain to represent their interests before the king and the Council of the Indies. They had other powers and privileges which caused the people of their settlements to view them with consideration but not always with respect.

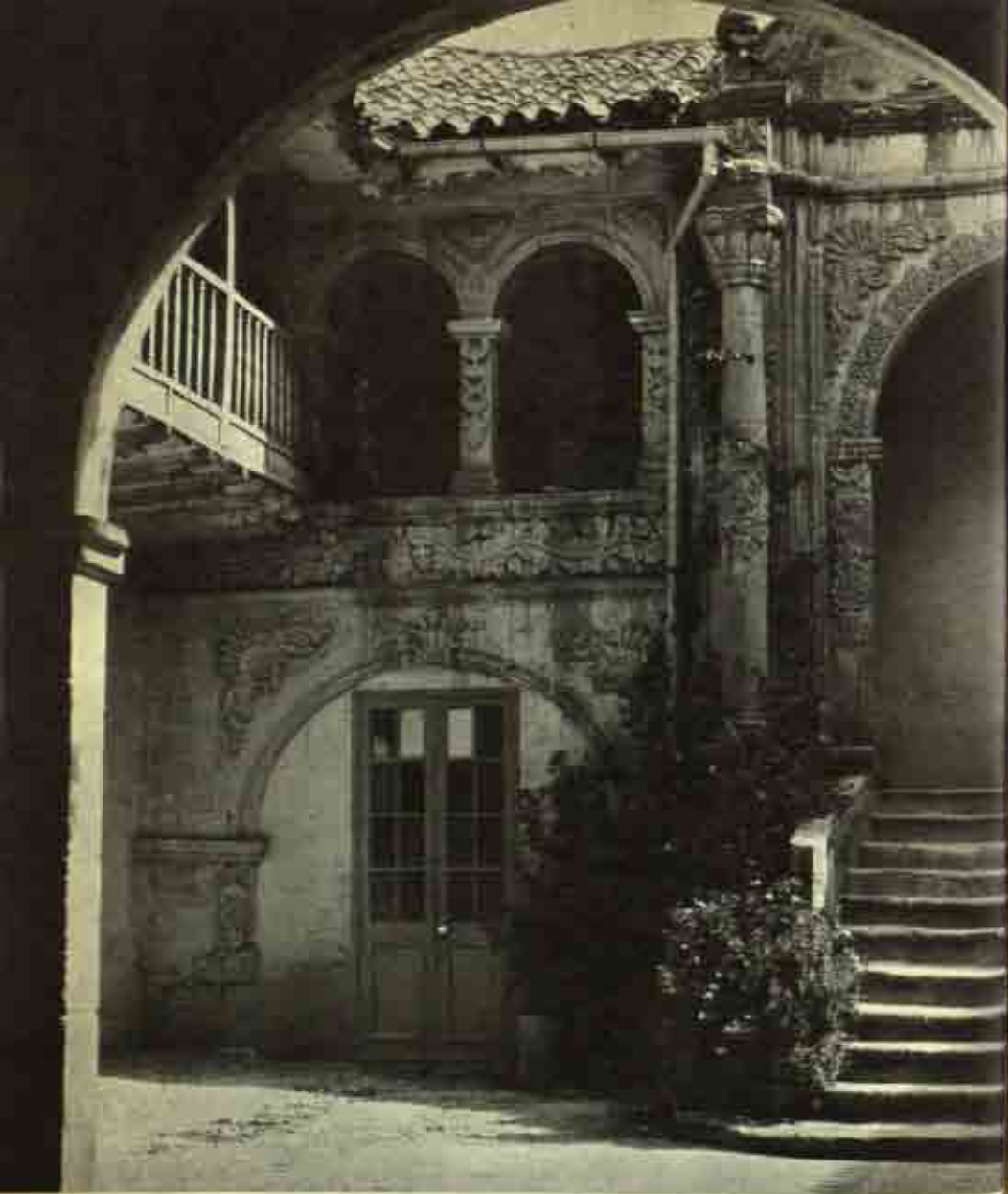
**The Council of the Indies.** The king of Spain and his advisory group called the Council of the Indies made all principal rules and negotiations related to the territories in the Americas. You will remember that when Columbus found America he believed that these new lands were a part of Asia and that somewhere in them were the rich cities of the Indies. When the king of Spain set up a

council to help him rule his vast new territory, it was quite natural that he called it the Council of the Indies.

The Council of the Indies, which sat in Spain and acted in the name of the king, reached into every Latin-American settlement with a stream of rules and regulations. They made rules to cover everything from civil and religious affairs to trade and social conduct. Often their orders were so absurd and impractical that even the most loyal *cabildo* found them impossible to administer. So it came about that government in the Spanish territories was often lax. When Spain really settled down to rule the New World, the *cabildos* lost much of their power. They became mere city or town councils, and their power in the surrounding country was reduced.

**Viceroyalties.** The system of government which finally developed in Spanish America operated through four large districts called *viceroyalties*. Over each viceroyalty was a governor called a *viceroy*, who was appointed by the king.

One of the four departments was the viceroyalty of New Spain. The viceroy, or governor, of New Spain ruled in kingly fashion from Mexico City. His district, or department, included all Spanish territory in North America and to a certain extent the Philippine Islands. This was the first viceroyalty to be established. The second district was the viceroyalty of Peru. The viceroy of Peru held court in Lima. For almost two hundred years the viceroys of Peru ruled not only what was once the huge Inca Empire but all Spanish territory in South America. The third viceroyalty to be organized was that of New Granada. It included most of present-day Ecuador, Colombia, and Venezuela. Much later, in 1776, the viceroyalty of La Plata was established. It included most of present-day Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia.



A colonial patio and stairway in La Paz. This building of the days of the Spanish occupation is now used as a primary school for girls.



**Captaincies.** When it became evident that a viceroyalty was too large to be managed by one governor, the district was divided and a new governing unit was set up within the district. These subdivisions, or states, were called *captaincies*. The *captain general*, who was appointed to take charge of the captaincy, was responsible to the viceroy of the territory. There were at one time four captaincies: in Cuba, Chile, Guatemala, and Venezuela.

So each of the many regions had a ruler directly representing the king and responsible for carrying out the many rules and regulations laid down by the king and the Council of the Indies. The king and his advisers made up the legislative, or lawmaking, branch of the government. The viceroys, or governors, and the captains general were the administrative branch that carried out the laws.

**The audiencia.** There was also the judicial branch to settle disputes and mete out justice. The judicial bodies were called *audiencias*. These courts—for that is what we would call them—consisted of Spanish lawyers. They met in the principal cities of the viceroyalties and captaincies and handled all court cases. The viceroy kept a check on the courts to see that they did their work. So you see that even the administration of justice was kept under the supervision of the king of Spain through his representatives. Most of the colonists and natives submitted to Spanish rule without protest, but in some sections of the empire the natives were never really conquered. In Peru and in Chile revolts took many lives, both Spanish and Indian.

**How the Spanish treated the Indians.** The Spanish crown tried to set up a system which would give the Indian protection. There was considerable discussion about improving the lot of the Indian, but, considering the number of

natives, very little was accomplished. What little was done was usually the work of friars and priests. The demands of the Spanish crown for more and more revenue from the New World and the desire of Spanish leaders and officials for wealth meant that the Indian had to work and toil very hard for his Spanish masters.

In the regions where there were mines to be worked, particularly in Peru and Mexico, some of the Indians suffered cruel abuses under their Spanish conquerors. It is estimated that in Peru alone several million Indians died as the result of enforced labor.

The Indians who were remote from mining regions fared much better, but everywhere there was a decrease in the Indian population. Contact with the European invaders brought plagues and diseases formerly unknown to the natives. Yet today throughout Latin America there are many persons of pure Indian blood who still speak their native languages.

The church. You already know that the Spanish were not concerned about religious freedom because they were all of one faith. The Spanish king was interested in the Roman Catholic church only and in converting as many Indians as possible. The church was part of the Spanish government.

The whole Spanish Empire was divided into archbishoprics, bishoprics, and parishes. The king of Spain had the right to govern the religious life of his subjects. With a few exceptions, this placed the church as well as the civil government under the rule of the viceroys.

The church as a whole was led by capable and excellent priests who cared for the religious life and the personal needs of the people. Friars and clergymen went into all new territories to convert the Indians to Christianity.



These buildings on this old street in Mexico City are part of the National University of Mexico, the oldest university in America.

**Schools and universities.** Spanish culture, or the Spanish way of life, was rapidly established in the New World. Schools for Indian children were opened in many parts of the Spanish American world. The first institution of higher learning in the Americas was a college for Indians opened in Mexico City in 1536. Education was a means of extending Spanish ideas and customs. In 1551 the University of San Marcos in Lima, Peru, and the University of Mexico in Mexico City were founded by a decree of the king of Spain. They were the first universities in the New World. This was eighty-five years before the founding of Harvard, the oldest university in the United States.



Twelve or more other universities were founded in the New World during the period of Spanish rule. They were modeled after the Spanish universities of the time. The chief aim of the universities was to train leaders for the church and for the professions. Girls and "persons of low caste" were not admitted.

**Printing presses.** In Mexico City the earliest printing presses in America were put to work even before the universities were established, probably in 1539. Lima also had a printing press at an early date. Guatemala and also Puebla had presses by the end of the seventeenth century. The government decided what could be printed on these presses in order to control the ideas spread by means of the printed word. Printing presses were few in number and were used only with the permission from the king. This was not a great hardship because most of the population could neither read nor write.

**Spain controlled trade and manufacturing.** Since one of Spain's chief interests in Latin America was the wealth it might yield, there were strict rules controlling trade. Of course, trade with the Spanish colonies was the privilege of Spain alone. Only Spanish ships could call at Spanish ports. Spain and England were great rivals. They were frequently at war or on the verge of war with each other, and each nation therefore watched its trade and the other's with an eagle eye.

*Two fleets a year from Spain.* At first just two fleets of ships a year were sent to trade with the Americas. One fleet loaded with Spanish goods sailed from Spain to Veracruz in Mexico. Once in Veracruz, the traders from Spain carried their merchandise to the city of Jalapa some sixty or seventy-five miles inland and toward Mexico City. The arrival of the European traders and their merchandise

was a gala occasion. Merchants came from far and near to trade gold, silver, tobacco, indigo, and other products for things from Europe.

The other fleet sailed from Spain to Cartagena, a city on the north coast of Colombia. This was in the viceroyalty of New Granada. At Cartagena merchants from Lima and even from distant Buenos Aires gathered to trade with the men from Spain.

Today this seems an unpractical way to carry on trade. It was not only inconvenient but also extremely costly for the people of Chile and Argentina. Although Buenos Aires had a harbor on the Plata River, the settlers had to send their products across the Andes to Peru, up the Pacific coast, and then transport them across Panama to Cartagena if they wished to exchange them for articles from Spain.

Spain had a reason for trading in this inconvenient way. Raiders from England, the Netherlands, and other countries waited along the sea lanes on the Atlantic to capture a Spanish cargo. By sending traders in fleets Spain was able to protect her ships from raiders. It was much like the convoy system used when nations are at war. There is safety in numbers.

The king of Spain allowed Mexico, or the viceroyalty of New Spain, to carry on trade with the Philippines. Each year a ship sailed from Acapulco, a city on the west coast of Mexico, to Manila. The ship carried silver to exchange for Chinese goods. Chinese silk and muslin were in great demand in Mexico.

*Manufacturing was forbidden.* To prevent any competition from her colonies Spain forbade them either to trade with each other or to manufacture anything. When Peru began wine-making, Spain forbade the planting of vine-

yards. If the colonies had started manufacturing goods, there would have been less demand for articles from Spain, so for hundreds of years the Spanish colonies were denied the privilege of making things for themselves. This is one reason why the Latin-American nations of today lag far behind the United States in the production of manufactured goods.

After 1700 the Spanish Crown relaxed its grip on trade slightly and permitted merchants to send their ships to the Spanish colonies in Latin America quite freely. Also the colonies were permitted to trade with each other. Now ships from Spain went directly to Buenos Aires, and other ships sailed around Cape Horn to Chile and Peru.

*Taxes were heavy.* The change in trade was welcomed by the colonists, but with it came another change which was not so desirable. The Spanish Crown began to demand more revenue. The king of Spain had always received huge taxes from his American territories, but he was forced to spend most of it to maintain his governors and representatives and to support the church. So he asked for more and more taxes.

It became the first duty of each royal governor to see that the taxes were collected. Tax collectors put greater pressure on the colonists. This naturally decreased the freedom and liberties of the people. Also it meant hard times for the poor people. Spaniards born in the Americas, called Creoles, became resentful of the Spaniards sent from Europe to regulate their affairs. Quarrels were frequent. No doubt there were colonists who thought it would be a good thing if they could get rid of the Spanish governors and their tax collectors. For a long time to come there was no open move to gain independence from Spain, but there were many plots against those in power.



## THE PORTUGUESE IN BRAZIL

So far we have given all our attention to the Spanish colonies, but we must remember that the Portuguese were occupying part of the South American continent. The story of Brazil is brief because there were fewer important events. However, it is important.

**Cabral discovers Brazil.** It was in 1500 that Pedro Álvares de Cabral, a Portuguese explorer, landed in the region which is now Brazil. He was engaged in a voyage from Spain around Africa to India. We do not know whether he was blown off his course and thus came upon South America or whether the Portuguese had had some previous knowledge of Brazil and sent him to claim the territory. At least we know he claimed Brazil for Portugal. For a long time Portugal made no serious attempt either to explore or to settle Brazil. This was because Portugal had just discovered a route around Africa to the Indies. She did not feel the need of more land in the Americas. She had riches aplenty in her trade with the Orient. Portugal was busy sending fleets of ships around Africa to bring back pepper, cloves, muslin, and silks from the Orient.

**The Line of Demarcation.** You may ask why Spain did not take Brazil away from the Portuguese, since they were so slow in making a settlement. There was at least one very good reason. Portugal had discovered a route around Africa before Columbus made his famous voyage. So when Columbus returned from his first voyage and reported the discovery of land which he thought was a part of the Indies, the Spanish rulers wished to be sure it was really their land. In those early days it was the custom of Catholic countries like Spain and Portugal to accept the Pope's decision in matters of dispute. Spain appealed to

the Pope, who in 1493 decided on a boundary line dividing the New World between the European nations. It was called the "Line of Demarcation." Spain was to have all the new lands to the west of this north-to-south line, and Portugal all to the east. In 1494 Spain and Portugal made a treaty which moved the line farther west and thus gave Portugal a basis for her later claim to Brazil. This explains why Spain did not attempt to trespass on the Portuguese territory.

**Souza plants a settlement.** It was France that finally aroused the Portuguese and caused them to do something about Brazil. From the time of its discovery French traders had been visiting this Portuguese territory to get cargoes of a dyewood similar to the brazilwood of the East. From this wood the country gets its name. Portugal decided that she must get a firmer foothold in Brazil if she expected to keep the region. In 1531 she sent a fleet of ships under Affonso de Souza. In January, 1532, Souza planted a settlement near the present port of Santos. To-day a monument marks the spot where he landed.

**Captaincies.** One settlement on Brazil's long coast line was not enough to hold so vast a territory. So the king of Portugal divided the coast line into a number of parts. Each part measured about one hundred fifty miles along the coast and extended indefinitely into the back country. These sections were called *captaincies*. The captaincies, or sections, were distributed as grants to favored persons, chiefly to members of the king's court. They were supposed to found settlements in these sections. The men receiving the grants were given extensive powers over their holdings. They could found cities, give grants of their land to others, levy taxes, enslave the natives, and send a limited number of natives to Lisbon each year to be sold



A meeting of the junta in Pernambuco, Brazil. The junta was a government committee whose duty it was to administer laws of the district.

as slaves. Only a few of these grants were ever occupied by their owners, and only two of them were really successful. One was that of Souza, who was granted the region around Santos. Before many years Souza's grant had a population of some five thousand persons and Santos and São Paulo were prosperous settlements.

The other successful captaincy was in the northern part of Brazil, the province of Pernambuco. The Portuguese had introduced sugar cane in this region, and plantations were flourishing.

Souza becomes viceroy. After about fifteen years, in 1549, the king of Portugal withdrew the powers granted to the owners of the captaincies but permitted these owners to keep the land. The king appointed Thomé de



Souza viceroy, or governor, of the whole country. Souza ruled the scattered settlements from the city of Bahia, which was to be the capital of Brazil for the next two hundred years. Under the new arrangement Brazil attracted more settlers. By 1600 Bahia and Pernambuco each had a population of two thousand whites with many Negro slaves.

**Priests convert the Indians.** The scattered plantations in Brazil were constantly harassed by unfriendly Indians. Bad as conditions were, they might have been worse had it not been for the work of the priests who had come from Portugal to convert the Indians to the Christian religion. Many of these priests won the friendship of Indian tribes and so maintained peace with them. Not only did the priests provide religious training, but they also sought to protect the Indians from those whites who tried to enslave them. They must have been fairly successful in protecting the Indians. At least we know that the Portuguese had to import thousands of Negroes from Africa in order to get laborers for their plantations.

**French Huguenots at Rio de Janeiro.** Brazil had just made a good start under its new governor, Souza, when a small party of Frenchmen appeared. With the consent of the ruler of France they took possession of an island in the great bay at Rio de Janeiro and founded a settlement. To this settlement came several hundred French Huguenots. The Huguenots were Protestants, and since the state religion in France was Catholic, they were having a hard time at home. For a time the colony prospered, but often disputes arose between the leaders and the colonists, and some of them returned to France. In 1567 an armed expedition of Portuguese from Bahia drove out the remaining French and founded their own city on this site.

The French made other attempts to gain a foothold in Brazil, but all of them failed. In the end France had no possessions in South America except the colony of Cayenne, French Guiana.

The troubles of the Portuguese in holding Brazil did not end with the expulsion of the French. In 1580 Spain and Portugal were united under Philip II, the Spanish king. This meant that all the enemies of Spain were now the enemies of Brazil, and that Brazil had to help Spain fight its wars.

**The Dutch in Pernambuco.** In 1630 the Dutch captured Pernambuco, the rich sugar-growing province of Brazil. Count Maurice of Nassau was sent over as the Dutch governor of the region. Nassau was an excellent governor. He did much to establish better relations between the Portuguese and the Dutch. He granted religious tolerance or freedom and greatly improved the city of Pernambuco, which under the Dutch was called Moritzstadt. But the Dutch West India Company was interested in profits from trade and not in Nassau's plans for improving life in the colony. So miserly was their support of the colony that Nassau finally resigned his governorship. A few years later, in 1655, the Dutch gave up their claims in Brazil and in 1661 signed a treaty with the Portuguese. Dutch Guiana is all that remains in South America to remind us of Dutch ambitions for territory there.

So for a very long time about all the Portuguese did was to keep out the French, English, and Dutch, who were always waiting for an opportunity to seize a piece or all of Brazil. The Portuguese of Europe had little interest in moving to America to establish homes.

**Gold and diamonds are discovered.** But when gold and diamonds were discovered in Brazil the attitude of the

Portuguese changed. This is how that happened. The inhabitants of São Paulo were somewhat more energetic and daring than the Portuguese of other settlements. They made frequent expeditions into the interior to capture Indians to use as slaves on their plantations. Late in the seventeenth century they discovered gold in what is now the state of Minas Geraes. Then followed a gold rush much like the California gold rush which was to come later in our own country. Men, women, and children—black, white, and Indian—struggled through the forests to reach the mines. Ships from Portugal were crowded with fortune hunters. The sugar plantations on the coast were neglected while men searched for gold. This interest was further increased when diamond fields were discovered.

Although thousands of settlers were attracted to Brazil by the discovery of gold and diamonds, there were not very many people in Brazil. It is amazing that so few people were able to hold so vast a territory. The fact that the Portuguese were able to keep their hold on Brazil is explained in part by the geography of the region. The Amazon River was the only route of travel into the interior, and so long as the Portuguese commanded the mouth of the river they could shut out any foreigners that might wish to enter the region.

Portugal imports Negro slaves. Another thing which helped the Portuguese was the importation of enormous numbers of Negro slaves. The Portuguese held Angola, a region in Africa which was a great center for the slave trade; so it was easy for them to get slaves. It is estimated that for many years an average of forty thousand slaves were brought into Brazil each year. The many Negroes who live in Brazil today are the descendants of the slaves imported from Africa.





The porcelain pineapples at the gate of this home in Rio de Janeiro are a Portuguese sign of hospitality and welcome. It was used in many colonial homes and gardens.

Prince John comes to Brazil. In 1807 the French invaded Portugal, and the ruling prince of Portugal moved his government to Rio de Janeiro. This was the first time a European ruler took up residence on American soil. After ruling the Portuguese empire from Brazil until 1821, the king (the prince had by now become king) decided it was safe to return to Portugal. He went home, but he left his son Dom Pedro to govern Brazil.

Serious tasks remained for the young prince. There was political unrest in Brazil, and many people desired its independence of Portugal. At last in 1822, on a plain outside the city of São Paulo, Dom Pedro proclaimed Brazil an independent empire.

## SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Write a sentence which tells one important fact about each of these men:

1. Columbus
2. Balboa
3. Cortés
4. Magellan
5. Pizarro
6. Quesada
7. Benalcázar
8. Valdivia
9. Solís
10. Sebastian Cabot
11. Mendoza
12. CabráI
13. Affonso de Souza

B. Add these events to your time line. Be sure you know the date when each event happened.

1. Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean.
2. Panama City is established.
3. The Aztecs of Mexico are conquered.
4. Magellan sails around the world.
5. Pizarro kills the Inca ruler.
6. Benalcázar conquers Quito.
7. Mendoza founds the city of Buenos Aires.
8. Pizarro founds the city of Lima.
9. The University of San Marcos is opened in Lima, Peru.
10. The Portuguese explorer CabráI lands in Brazil.

C. Perhaps some of the men who came with the early conquerors to Latin America kept diaries or notes telling of their experiences. Pretend that you are a member of one of the early Spanish or Portuguese expeditions and prepare such notes as you think you would have made regarding a particularly exciting event in which you were taking part.

D. Questions to discuss:

1. If Spain instead of Portugal had been the first country to discover a route around Africa to the Indies, how might the history of Latin America have been different?
2. If Columbus had sailed for England instead of for Spain, in what ways might the history of Latin America have been different?
3. If the Spanish had not found gold in Mexico and Peru, how might the history of Spanish America have been different?

E. Here are the names of some books you may like to read:  
Finger, C. J.—*Tales from Silver Lands*; New York: Doubleday, Doran & Company, 1924. Folklore stories of South America.

Lang, Andrew—*Conquest of Montezuma's Empire*; New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1936.

Malkus, Alida S.—*A Fifth for the King*; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1931. The conquest of Yucatán and the discovery of the Amazon.

Moon, Grace P.—*Arrow of Tee-May*; New York: Doubleday, Doran & Company, 1931. The Spaniards in Mexico.

Peck, Anne M., and Meras, Edmond—*Spain in Europe and America*; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1937. The era of exploration and colonization.

Wilson, Lawrence—*Story of Cortes; Conqueror of Mexico*; New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, 1937.



## THE AMERICAS GAIN INDEPENDENCE

FOR more than three hundred years Spain ruled her American colonies with a firm hand. Portugal held her colony, Brazil, almost as long as Spain held on—more than one hundred twenty-five years longer than England was able to hold her colonies in what is now the United States.

1. How did Spain keep her hold on her colonies all during this time? How did Portugal keep her colony?

2. Where did the colonists finally get their ideas of freedom and independence?

3. What event in Europe forced the colonists to take action against their European rulers?

4. Who were the leaders that helped the Latin-American colonies to gain their freedom?

5. How did the war for independence in Latin America compare with that in the English American colonies?

6. Why have the nations of Latin America been slow in establishing really democratic or representative governments?

## SPAIN CONTROLS HER COLONIES

Trade is restricted. As you have already learned, Spain kept her colonies strictly for herself. She watched their trade with an eagle eye. She required that all merchandise be carried in Spanish ships. These ships were allowed to leave only certain ports in Spain and could touch only selected places in America. Usually these cargo vessels traveled in fleets protected by warships. Any foreign coun-



The patio in a home in Yucatán that shows in its design the influence of Old Spain

try that wished to trade with the Spanish colonies could do so only with the permission of the Spanish government, and then their trade had to be carried on through Spain.

News of the wealth which Spain was getting from her colonies in America spread, and other countries of Europe became interested. France, England, and the Netherlands sent out ships to capture and plunder the returning Spanish cargo vessels. The Caribbean became the scene of many battles between raiders and Spanish merchantmen.

England tried to make her colonies in America trade only with the motherland and to have merchandise carried

only in English and colonial vessels. She found this difficult. Whenever she did attempt strict enforcement of the laws she had trouble with her colonists. As Englishmen the colonists expected to have some voice in making the rules and regulations which governed their lives.

**Nationality and religion of colonists.** Spain kept her colonies for Spaniards. No one could obtain permission to enter the Spanish colonies until the record of his life had been checked and approved by the Spanish government. If he could prove that he had been born in Spain and that he and his ancestors had been Catholics for several generations, he would be permitted to enter. This rule slowed up the settlement of the colonies in the New World.

The policy of England in relation to her colonies in the United States was quite the opposite from that of Spain. England encouraged people to go to the colonies. Some of the proprietors and owners of the English American colonies even advertised the advantages of life in their settlements. William Penn, the founder of Pennsylvania, had circulars advertising his colony printed in several languages and distributed in the different countries of Europe. His circulars brought Irish, Germans, Dutch, and people of other nationalities, although the majority of them were English. They brought their families, goods, and money to help build a new world. So the English colonies in North America made rapid progress.

**Reading matter and education.** Not only did Spain regulate the trade of her colonies and shut out foreigners, but she also censored the books, papers, and pamphlets her colonists read. To be sure, printing presses were introduced early in Spanish America, but every printer was required to have a license and everything that he published was censored by the government.



Few of the inhabitants got new ideas from printed matter, for most of the people in the Spanish colonies went through life without learning to read or write. But before 1800 illiteracy was common to the Old World as well as to the New. Nevertheless, there were seven universities in Spanish America before 1700. In some areas primary instruction was offered to the children of the poorer classes, especially the Indians. But as a rule the children of the Indians and the mestizos received no education, except for such religious and industrial training as they might obtain from village priests or at mission schools. An education in secondary schools was largely the privilege of the children of the upper classes, and university training was an unusual experience for anyone.

Spain's method of controlling the learning of her colonists was different from that followed in the English colonies on the American continents. The English colonists gave little thought to providing education for the natives, but they did give considerable attention to the education of the children of the colonists. At first their children were taught to read and write either by their parents or in "dame" schools. Dame schools were held by some of the village women in their own homes. Within thirty or forty years after the first settlement at Jamestown (1607) there were schools for young children in most of the towns and villages. They were supported by public funds. In New England there were a few high schools, such as the Latin School of Boston, for the education of boys. This type of school, in which the classical languages, reading, writing, and arithmetic were taught, spread slowly throughout New England and eventually to nearly all the colonies. Harvard, the first college, opened its doors in 1636. William and

Mary in Virginia followed in 1693. These schools were free to teach whatever the colonists thought their children should know.

Colonists have no part in government. Spain gave colonists almost no voice in their government. Every detail of government was regulated from Spain. The king was supreme at home, so it was natural that the Spanish colonial government was organized to give him absolute power overseas.

Usually only men born in Spain were appointed to hold important positions in the colonial government and the church. Thus only four persons born in the New World were ever appointed as viceroys during the three hundred years during which Spain held her American colonies. This practice caused much discontent. As time went on, more and more of the colonists were American-born, and it seemed unjust that they were not given the same opportunity as the Spanish-born to hold important posts in America.

The mass of common people had grievances also. Most of the natives made only a poor living, but they all had to pay taxes to the Spanish king. They had no part in deciding what the taxes should be. Taxes became heavier and heavier. The burden became increasingly difficult for the poor people.

The English American colonists always had considerable freedom in managing their local affairs. Each colony had its own assembly, or lawmaking group, composed of representatives elected by the colonists themselves. Not only did the members of an assembly make most of the laws governing the colony, but they also decided on the taxes they would collect and on how much they would pay the English government. Of course there were unpleasant

times under some of the governors sent over by the English king, but still the colonists kept the government largely in their own hands.

**Portugal controls her colonies.** Portugal managed things in Brazil in very much the same way as Spain controlled her colonies. Possibly Portugal gave her colonies a little more freedom than did Spain, but it was only a very little more. She also controlled the trade from Brazil just as Spain did in her colonies. She refused American-born colonists the privilege of holding important offices, she levied heavy taxes, and she tried to regulate the books and papers which the colonists read. A few years before the people of Brazil declared their independence Portugal lightened these restrictions, but by this time the colonists in Brazil had become thoroughly tired of Portuguese rule.

### IDEAS OF INDEPENDENCE

English American colonies pave the way for independence. In all the Spanish colonies and in the Portuguese colony there was discontent with conditions, but no one seemed to have any definite notion of doing anything about it.

Long before ideas of independence gained much headway in Latin America the English colonies in North America had broken away from England. They quarreled with the English king and his Parliament because they wanted the same rights and privileges of governing themselves as were enjoyed by free men in England. Finally, in 1776, they declared their independence. There followed a long war which ended in victory and complete independence for the English American colonies. These colonies formed the first independent nation in the Western Hemisphere, the United States of America.



Early steps toward independence in Brazil. The idea of an independent nation was discussed in Brazil long before any real move toward independence was made in the Spanish American colonies. In 1792 the Portuguese government caused Joaquim José da Silva Xavier to be put to death because he talked of Brazilians becoming a free and independent people like the people of the United States.

Disorder and lawlessness in Brazil. When gold and diamonds were found in the state of Minas Geraes at a very early date, around 1700, life in this region was much like the days of '49 following the discovery of gold in California. There was great disorder and lawlessness. The confusion lasted longer than in our own California. A representative of the Portuguese government was sent into this region to see that the king of Portugal received his full share of the wealth and to keep law and order. Small crimes were punished with the utmost severity. The royal governor ruled with a heavy hand. It is not strange that one of the first moves for independence took place in Minas Geraes.

The *Inconfidencia*. As early as 1789 an organization called the *Inconfidencia*, which means "lack of confidence," sprang up. Members of this organization were largely well-educated and well-read individuals who were informed about the way in which the United States had gained its independence. One of the influential members of the organization was Joaquim José da Silva Xavier. As he was a dentist, he quite appropriately came to be nicknamed "Tiradentes," which means "toothpuller." At first he was a lieutenant in the militia, or home guard, and so helped to keep order. He traveled from one end of Minas Geraes to the other. He even traveled to Rio. Wherever he went, he took a copy of the Constitution of

the United States with him. He lost no opportunity to read parts of this wonderful document to anyone who would listen to him. His conversation always bore upon the necessity of throwing off the tyranny of Portugal.

**Portugal suppresses Brazil.** Finally the captain general, or governor of the district, learned about the Inconfidencia. It is surprising that he did not learn about it much sooner than he did, because the members, particularly Tiradentes, talked freely. The government arrested a number of the leaders, and in the trial, which lasted for nearly two years, most of them were sentenced either to exile or to imprisonment. Tiradentes was singled out for capital punishment and was put to death on April 21, 1792.

The government intended that this should be a lesson to the people not to attempt a revolt. But it was a lesson in a very different sense from what the government intended. The unselfish way in which Tiradentes assumed all responsibility for the organization in order that other members might escape punishment aroused great sympathy for him. People saw in him a truly great man and a genuine leader, and so the idea of independence lived in the people's memory of Silva Xavier.

**Miranda strikes the first blow for independence in Venezuela.** The revolt of the English colonies did not pass unnoticed in Spanish America. The news leaked in. Besides, at least one young Spanish American took part in the struggle in North America. Francisco Miranda, a Venezuelan who had served as a Spanish infantry officer, fought with the English colonists under the leadership of George Washington. After the English colonies had gained their independence, Miranda went to Europe. There he traveled from country to country trying to

interest some nation in helping the Spanish colonies gain their freedom. But he found Europe indifferent to the affairs of the Spanish colonies. So Miranda returned to the United States, where he secured from merchants in New York a few ships and enough money for an expedition. Miranda's plan was to free Venezuela first.

When Miranda's feeble little expedition drew near the coast of Venezuela in 1806, it was sighted by the Spanish navy and driven off. Most of Miranda's men were captured, but Miranda himself escaped and made his way to the British West Indies. He was still sure that, if he could only land a party in Venezuela, his fellow countrymen would rise and help him overthrow the Spanish governor. In the British West Indies he raised another expedition. This time, again in 1806, he succeeded in landing his party at Coro, a city in western Venezuela and the early capital of the country. But Miranda was doomed to disappointment. His fellow countrymen did not rebel and join him in overthrowing the government. Miranda had overlooked the fact that there was no public opinion in favor of independence. The educated men of Venezuela held large tracts of land and they had no desire to see things upset. The rest of the people were too poor and too ignorant to care or know much about what was going on.

Miranda's expeditions to free Venezuela were unsuccessful. Some years later, in 1811, when the country did declare its independence, it was due largely to Miranda's activity. But the new republic was short-lived. The Spanish soon overthrew the independents, and Miranda was thrown into prison. Later he was taken to Spain, where he died in a Spanish dungeon. Although Miranda was not a successful military leader, he started some of his countrymen thinking about independence.



The French Revolution influences Latin America. News of still another break for freedom leaked into Spanish America. Toward the end of the eighteenth century the people of France were growing tired of the rule of selfish kings. The king of France and a few noblemen were living in luxury, while the great mass of people struggled to keep alive and to pay the ever increasing tax bills. The king and his government took every cent they could squeeze out of the people and gave them nothing in return. There was no such thing in France as personal liberty or freedom. No one could speak a word against the government. All books and papers were censored in order to keep the people in ignorance. Prisons were filled with men and women who had in some way offended the king and his nobles.

Finally, the French people decided that all men had certain rights and privileges which no king or government should take away from them. In 1789 they rose in revolt. After a bloody, stormy time representatives of the people wrote down their rights in a famous document called "The Declaration of the Rights of Man."

It was Antonio Nariño, a prominent citizen of Bogotá, who had a copy of the French Bill of Rights translated into Spanish. Somehow he succeeded in having copies of it printed and distributed among fellow colonists. The ever watchful Spanish officials found out about Nariño's translation. Since the distribution of papers which did not have the approval of the Spanish government was a crime, Nariño was thrown into prison.

A revolt in the Caribbean. The next disturbing thing was a revolt in Santo Domingo. This was the Caribbean island on which Columbus had made the first settlement in the Americas. The French had gained possession of the island

after the Spanish had deserted it in favor of richer lands in Mexico, Central America, and South America. In 1803 the French colonists revolted against the French rule, and in January, 1804, they declared their independence and took the Indian name of Haiti. \* Much later, in 1844, one part of the island gained its independence from Haiti and became the Dominican Republic which we know today.

So events almost forced leaders and small groups of men in Spanish and Portuguese America to think about freedom. The long-continued practice of seldom allowing Creoles to hold office either in the church or in the government, the heavy taxes, and the restrictions on trade were constant sources of dissatisfaction and unrest. Still there was no united move for freedom on the part of either the Spanish or the Portuguese colonists. But the desire for revolution was there waiting only for the proper leader or for an opportunity which would cause it to become a united movement for independence.

#### HAPPENINGS IN EUROPE AFFECT THE COLONISTS

Argentina defends herself against British invasion. One day in 1806 things began to happen in Argentina which were to lead to independence. Spain was weak—very, very weak. The French dictator Napoleon was making trouble for all the countries of Europe, much as Hitler has done in our time. Spain had so many troubles at home that she did not have the power to protect her American colonies. So it happened that a British fleet sailed into the Plata River and about a thousand British men marched into Buenos Aires. They did this without orders from the British government, but that did not help the surprised people of Buenos Aires. The British set up one of their

own men as governor. Instead of fighting, the Spanish governor, or viceroy, ran away to Córdoba, in central Argentina. When the colonists of Buenos Aires recovered from their surprise, they rose against the British. With some help from Uruguay they drove the British out in about six weeks' time.

Probably the people of Buenos Aires were pleased with their own strength. At last they realized that Spain was too weak to help them and that they would have to protect themselves. They called a meeting of the "general congress" to plan for their future defense. It was not long before they had raised and equipped an army of ten thousand men to defend Argentina.

Their new army was soon put to a test. During their first invasion the British had taken possession of the city of Montevideo and had stayed on there. In 1807 they again tried to take possession of Buenos Aires. But the Argentine army was so successful in defending their country that the British leader was forced to go after he had promised not only to leave Buenos Aires but to withdraw his men from Montevideo as well.

It must have been heartening to the people of Buenos Aires to find that they had twice protected themselves from the British. Now they had a strong citizen army, their own army. They were without a Spanish governor to hand down orders from the Spanish king. They had had a glimpse of what foreign trade might mean, for while the British were in possession of Montevideo, foreign vessels brought in many articles never before seen by many of the Spanish Americans. The British were eager to trade with the Spanish colonies. It was apparent that if Buenos Aires was free from Spanish restrictions, it could have a profitable trade with Britain and other European countries.



Still there was no general idea of independence from Spain. The people of Argentina had taken control of things simply because something had to be done and Spain was too weak to do it. Only a small group led by Manuel Belgrano, a lawyer of Buenos Aires, were really thinking and working for independence.

Spanish colonies refuse to recognize Joseph Bonaparte. In 1808 something happened in Europe which changed things in other Spanish colonies as well as in Argentina. Napoleon Bonaparte, the French dictator who was marching through Europe conquering country after country, took possession of Spain. He forced the weak Spanish King Charles IV to give up all claim to the Spanish throne. Charles' son was proclaimed king as Ferdinand VII, but after a short time he too gave up the throne, and Napoleon placed his brother Joseph Bonaparte in control.

Now that the Spanish throne was under the control of the French, it was expected that the Spanish American colonies would also be under the control of the French, but many of the Spanish American colonies refused to recognize Joseph Bonaparte as their ruler and went on as though Charles or Ferdinand were still in power. Other colonies took things in their own hands and declared their independence of any European ruler.

Argentina announces independence. In 1809, when a new governor from Spain arrived in Argentina, he found the government in the hands of the colonial leaders. The colonists were polite enough to permit the new governor to stay for a time, but they let him know that his services were not needed. In 1810 the people of Argentina forced the Spanish governor to call a congress to take complete charge of the government of the country. In 1816 Argentina announced its complete separation from Spain.



Signing the Venezuelan declaration of independence. Miranda and Bolívar helped greatly in gaining this independence.

Venezuela declares her independence. In 1808 the attitude of the Creole landholders of Venezuela was very different from what it had been. No longer indifferent, now they thought it better to take over the government themselves than to take the chance of having someone else do it. So the Creoles of Caracas, Venezuela, became active. They took the government away from the Spanish governor who had represented the king of Spain. They sent their representatives to London and to Washington to ask for support for their independent government. Among the men who went to Washington was Simón Bolívar,<sup>1</sup> a young man from a wealthy Creole family.

<sup>1</sup> In English this name is usually spelled without the accent.

In July, 1811, a congress of representatives from seven provinces of Venezuela, including Caracas, issued a Declaration of Independence. This was the first such declaration issued in Spanish America. It set an example for other countries. In December, 1811, the Congress of Venezuela adopted a constitution patterned after that of the United States. It seemed for a time that Venezuela, like Argentina, had literally stepped into full nationhood, but this was not true. There was to follow a long struggle before the Spanish flag was finally hauled down. Not only did the royalists—the men who were loyal to Spain—struggle with the men who wished to be independent of Spain, but also at times one group of independents fought another. So confusion reigned. The poor colonists were never quite sure who was going to be in control tomorrow.

**Independence spreads.** During this time of unrest all the colonies got a taste of political independence. They ceased to pay taxes to a European ruler. They got an idea of what it was like to govern themselves. So when Ferdinand VII returned to his throne in Spain in 1814, he found that the colonies were no longer willing to let Spain dictate their affairs. Some of the colonies had already declared their independence. The struggle for freedom was in full swing. By 1826 the Spanish flag no longer flew in any of the Spanish American colonies except in Cuba and Puerto Rico. In these two colonies Spain held on until 1898.

**Brazil gains her freedom.** When Napoleon invaded Portugal in 1807 Prince John, prince regent and real ruler of Portugal, moved his hopelessly insane mother, the queen, the royal family, and the Portuguese government to Rio de Janeiro. He opened the seaports of Brazil to commerce with all friendly nations and thus put Brazil in





Independence Monument in São Paulo, the city that coffee built

touch with the outside world, a thing never experienced up to that time by this big Portuguese region.

He established a national bank, built roads, helped establish schools and libraries, and encouraged foreigners to settle in the country. In 1815 he proclaimed Brazil a kingdom in its own right. Queen Maria, his mother, died the next year, and he became King John VI of Portugal and Brazil. When King John returned to Portugal in 1821 he left his son Dom Pedro in charge of Brazil. It was young Pedro who led the movement of revolutionists by proclaiming Brazil's independence of Portugal on September 7, 1822. Brazil thus became a kingdom and

not a republic, as did the Spanish American countries, and Dom Pedro assumed the title of emperor. From 1822 until 1889 Brazil had only two rulers, Dom Pedro I and Dom Pedro II. Thus Brazil escaped many of the difficulties which marked the early years of independence in the Spanish American countries.

During the sixty-seven years that the two Pedros ruled Brazil there were quarrels but no revolutions which upset the government. In 1845 a new constitution was granted which gave considerable personal liberty and granted freedom to print the news and publish books and papers. It also improved the position of slaves. Slaves were granted full freedom by the year 1888 by means of a series of laws which gradually gave them more and more privileges.

Brazil becomes a republic. As Brazil became more prosperous the demand of the people for greater voice in the government increased. By 1889 the country was ready to become a republic. Dom Pedro II abdicated, and he and the royal family were sent to Portugal. The country was thus transformed from an empire into a republic without bloodshed—a remarkable accomplishment.

#### LEADERS OF LATIN-AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

Because the success of the wars for independence in Latin America depended to such a large extent on the leaders, the best way to tell you about the struggle is to tell you about these men. You have already read of Miranda and his early attempts to free his countrymen and of Nariño, who defied the Spanish by printing and circulating copies of the French Declaration of Rights. You have already heard something of Bolívar, but we must tell



Patio of the birthplace of Simón Bolívar, in Caracas

you more about him because his work was important. We must also tell you about another great leader, José de San Martín. In the stories of these two men, Bolívar and San Martín, we have much of the history of the struggle for freedom on the South American continent. To these two men must go most of the credit for the independence of the South American Spanish colonies. In Mexico two other men helped along the struggle for freedom.

**Simón Bolívar—The Liberator.** On one of the narrow streets of Caracas, Venezuela, stands a house which is visited by thousands of North and South Americans each year. The stone walls of the house rise straight up from the edge of the sidewalk after the style of most Spanish



houses. In keeping with Spanish architecture the windows are covered with iron grills. Over the huge wooden doorway is a bronze plate which bears the words *Casa Natal*, "The Birthplace." This is the birthplace of Venezuela's most famous citizen, Simón Bolívar.

Bolívar was a Creole. His family owned many houses, some in Caracas, others in the country on great estates, or *haciendas*, as the Spanish called their ranches. But wealth did not make Bolívar's life a happy one. His parents died when he was a small boy. Much of Bolívar's early life must have been lonely. An uncle looked after the education of Simón Bolívar and his older brother. Before he was sixteen years of age he was sent to Europe to complete his education.

It was in France during the days of the French Revolution that Bolívar learned about representative government and began to think about justice and freedom for mankind. He vowed, "I will not give rest to my arm or my soul till I have broken the chains which bind my fatherland to Spain." Through all the sacrifices, bloodshed, and sorrows of the years to come Bolívar held to his pledge.

Bolívar was back in Venezuela when news of Napoleon's victory in Spain arrived. When the Venezuelans took the government of their country out of the hands of the Spanish governor in 1810, Bolívar was on hand to assist.

*Bolívar's victory in New Granada.* But when Venezuela issued a declaration of independence in 1811, not all the Venezuelans wished independence. The Venezuelans set up a new government, but it did not last long. City turned against city, and even Creole against Creole. The people fell to fighting among themselves. The Spanish governor received new and strong re-enforcements from

Spain, and again took charge of things. Bolívar fled. He went to New Granada, which is now Colombia, where independence was declared in 1813. Bolívar led the six-year struggle which in the end gave all New Granada (except what is now Ecuador) freedom from Spanish rule. The battle of Boyacá in 1819 ended the conflict with the Spanish army as far as the northern section of New Granada was concerned.

*Bolívar's success in Venezuela.* Bolívar did not rest after his victory in New Granada but turned immediately to the task of freeing Venezuela from the Spanish, who had regained control. He succeeded in driving out the Spanish army in the battle of Carabobo in 1821.

Bolívar rose to power and fame rapidly, but it was not an easy road which he traveled. At times he was a conquering hero, and again he was a fugitive from justice. But he was always courageous, and he never gave up his idea of freeing his countrymen from the tyranny and oppression of Spanish rule.

After Bolívar's victories in New Granada and Venezuela the two regions were brought together in one independent republic called Colombia, or Great Colombia, to distinguish it from the smaller country of Colombia which we know today.

Bolívar was declared the first president of the new nation. When he was selected president he protested, saying that he was a soldier and not a governor. He said that he wished to be free and to carry on his campaign to drive the Spanish out of other American colonies. The congress of Great Colombia must have accepted the conditions which Bolívar laid down. At least he soon departed for Quito, in what is now Ecuador.

*Bolívar and Sucre free Quito.* The struggle for free-



**A monument to Bolivar in Lima. Among Bolivar's ideals were a united South America and freedom of the people from oppression.**

dom was already in full swing in Quito, but the armies had little success in gaining independence until Bolivar and his trusted and able lieutenant José de Sucre appeared with troops from Colombia. It was the brave Sucre who led the troops of Quito, or Ecuador, and Colombia in a victorious battle on the slopes of the volcano Pichincha in May, 1822. The battle of Pichincha freed Quito from Spanish troops. Bolívar decided that Quito also should be a part of Great Colombia. So for a time the countries which we know as Venezuela, Ecuador, and Colombia came together in one state called Great Colombia.



After freeing Ecuador, Bolivar turned his attention to Peru. In Peru Bolivar met another great leader, so we shall let the rest of his story wait until we have told you something about this other leader.

**San Martín—The Protector.** Another great leader was José de San Martín. San Martín was the hero of the



**José San Martín, liberator of Argentina and contributor to Chilean independence**

southern part of South America. He was the son of a Spanish captain in the viceroyalty of La Plata. He had received his military education in Spain and had served in the Spanish army in the struggle against Napoleon.

When news of the movement for independence in Buenos Aires reached San Martín, he returned from Spain to his native land. He was thirty-three years old and had spent twenty years in the army in Spain, but his long service in the Spanish army did not lessen his interest in securing the independence of Argentina. He landed in Buenos Aires in March, 1812, and immediately took up the fight for the Argentines.

*San Martín and O'Higgins.* After two years of service San Martín became governor of a province of Argentina, one bordering the Andes. Here he spent another two years collecting and drilling an army with which to free Chile. It was his plan to build an army strong enough to free Chile and then to move into Peru to drive out the Spanish who were making that region their stronghold, since Argentina was not safe so long as the Spanish held either Chile or Peru. After the seizure of Spain by Napoleon the Chilean Congress took control of the government for a time. This independence, however, was short-lived, and Chile was soon reconquered by a Spanish army sent in by the viceroy of Peru. Bernardo O'Higgins, leader of the revolt in Chile, and many Chilean patriots fled across the Andes and joined San Martín in the work of building an army. Together they assembled and equipped five thousand soldiers.

*The Army of the Andes frees Chile.* Early in 1817 San Martín and O'Higgins led their Army of the Andes into Chile. They marched over mountain passes thirteen thousand feet above sea level to reach Chile. They surprised and thoroughly defeated the Spanish at Chacabuco. They took control of Santiago and later ousted the Spanish army from southern Chile. Chile was now independent, and O'Higgins took charge of the government.

*San Martín enters Lima, Peru.* Now that Chile was free and in the hands of O'Higgins, San Martín turned his attention to the problem of driving the Spanish out of Peru, which was strongly garrisoned by Spanish troops. In 1820 San Martín secured the assistance of the British admiral Lord Cochrane, who helped him transport his troops up the Pacific coast to a point just south of Lima. As San Martín advanced on the city of Lima the Spaniards abandoned it without a battle. They preferred to make their fight in the interior rather than in the city itself.

San Martín and five thousand men of the Army of the Andes peacefully marched into Lima, Peru, and proclaimed the independence of the country. San Martín took control of the government as "Protector of Peru." But possession of the capital did not give San Martín control of the country. The Spanish royalists were still in the surrounding mountains gathering more troops among the natives who did not like the idea of having the "foreigner," San Martín, in charge of their government. San Martín made but little progress in driving them out of the mountain stronghold.

*Bolívar and San Martín.* In the meantime Bolívar and Sucre had conquered the Quito region (Ecuador) and were now moving south toward Peru. San Martín traveled north and met them at Guayaquil in Ecuador. Here the two great leaders, Bolívar and San Martín, held a conference. Just what they said to each other no one knows, but after the meeting San Martín resigned the command of the army which he had brought north and advised his men to join Bolívar. Quietly San Martín, this intelligent, brave, and faithful leader, withdrew from the picture, leaving the field of honor to the more dashing, brilliant, and masterful Bolívar.



Why could not these two men work together? The conference was in secret. We must guess just what was said. It seems probable that they disagreed on the future of Spanish America. They agreed that the colonies were not ready for democracy, but it is probable that they held different ideas about the type of government best suited to the country. San Martín believed that the country should have a king until such time as the people were ready for greater voice in the government. Bolívar probably preferred some form of republic with a lifetime presidency.

We know that San Martín offered to serve under Bolívar if Bolívar would bring his troops into Peru to help drive out the last of the Spanish troops. They agreed that Bolívar's troops would have to come into Peru if the country was to be free, but Bolívar preferred to lead his own troops, and so he found a way to refuse San Martín's generous offer to serve under his direction.

*San Martín retires.* Before leaving Lima to go into retirement in Europe, San Martín issued a statement which expressed his unselfishness and his willingness to sacrifice his all for the liberty of Spanish America. He said:

I have witnessed the declaration of independence of the states of Chile and Peru. I hold in my hand the standard which Pizarro used to enslave the empire of the Incas. My promises to the countries for which I fought are fulfilled: to secure their independence and leave them to select their own governments. The presence of a fortunate soldier, however disinterested he may be, is dangerous to newly established states. . . . Nevertheless I shall always be ready to make the last sacrifice for the liberty of this country, but only in the capacity of a private citizen. With regard to my public conduct, my compatriots [fellow countrymen], as in most affairs, will be divided in opinion. Their children will give a just verdict.

This closes the story of the great San Martín, a man that many people admire more than Bolívar. Certain it is that he sought no glory for himself. He was willing to labor and sacrifice for a just cause. When he thought that someone else might better lead his countrymen, he quietly withdrew and left the glory to another.

*Bolívar and Sucre free Peru.* When San Martín moved out of Lima, Bolívar marched his army in. He was hailed as Liberator, Redeemer, and the "First-born Son of the New World." It was the brave and trustworthy Sucre who led the troops to battle in the final struggle with the Spanish. The last battle for freedom occurred at Ayacucho on December 9, 1824. Sucre with six thousand troops thoroughly defeated nine thousand royalist troops. After Ayacucho, the Spanish commander turned over his twenty-three thousand royalist troops, and the Spanish governor became Bolívar's prisoner. It was the last determined stand made by Spanish troops in their attempt to hold the Spanish American colonies. Spanish South America was now free and independent.

*Bolívar writes a constitution for Bolivia.* Bolívar now turned his attention to southern Peru, where several provinces had joined forces and declared themselves independent of both Spain and Peru. They wished to establish their own nation and sent for Bolívar to help them. Ill and exhausted from his long campaigns though he was, Bolívar answered the call. He wrote a constitution for the new state, which the people wished to call Bolivia in his honor.

The Bolívar constitution gave the chief executive so much power that Bolívar was accused to trying to set himself up as dictator of the new state. There was much quarreling and discord not only in Bolivia, but in all Span-



An Indian village twenty miles north of La Paz. Some of the present-day Indians still live quite simply. These Indians have just returned from the cattle market in town.

ish America. Bolivar was more convinced than ever that the countries which he had freed were not ready to govern themselves. Most of the people were uneducated and wholly unaccustomed to making decisions for themselves. Under Spanish rule they had never had an opportunity to work together as free men. How to do so men can learn only through practice and constant effort.

*Bolivar's last years.* Finally, worn by his long campaigns, ill, and discouraged by the petty quarrels in the countries which he had freed, Bolivar left South America to seek rest on one of the islands of the Caribbean. He never reached his haven, for he died on the way at Santa Marta, Colombia, on December 17, 1830. He was born



rich but he died almost penniless. He had spent his fortune as well as his life in the struggle for South American independence.

*"The Liberator" of South America.* Bolivar was a great soldier and a statesman. He was able to organize armies, plan and direct great military campaigns, draft laws, write constitutions, and organize governments. Besides winning freedom for Venezuela, he led the way to independence in what is now Colombia, Ecuador, and Bolivia. He also contributed greatly to the struggle for freedom in Peru. Today these five nations remember and honor him as "The Liberator."

**O'Higgins—Liberator of Chile.** The man who worked with San Martín to build the Army of the Andes is a hero to every boy and girl who lives in Chile. You should know the story of Bernardo O'Higgins.

One morning in 1798, about nine years after George Washington became President of the United States, a young man sat in a room in London studying a copy of the Constitution of the United States. He was a handsome youth, not more than twenty years of age. He was Bernardo O'Higgins, who was later to become one of the great leaders in Chile's struggle for independence.

Later that morning young O'Higgins went to a meeting with a group of fellow South Americans. At their meeting there was much conversation about George Washington and the heroic struggle which he had made to give the English American colonies their independence. Also, there was considerable talk about the French Revolution and of how Frenchmen had gained recognition of their rights as free men. One man in the group, who was addressed as Francisco Miranda, had much to say about the United States and about George Washington. You have

already read about how Miranda served with Washington in the struggle for independence in the United States. He admired George Washington greatly.

*O'Higgins and Miranda.* All of this little group in faraway London were interested in the United States and in France because they wished to gain greater freedom for



Bernardo O'Higgins, President of Chile

Spanish America. Miranda was trying to persuade the English king to help the Spanish colonies throw off the control of Spain. If he did not succeed in getting English help, he planned to go to the United States and try to get assistance there. Young O'Higgins followed Miranda's arguments carefully. He, like Miranda, had been born in

the colonies. They both knew that it was difficult for a young man born in the colonies to hold an important office or have a part in the government. They knew that Spain sent out numerous government officers to take charge of everything in the overseas colonies. To them it appeared that there were no freedom and no opportunities for the colonists. Everything of value went to Spain.

Bernardo O'Higgins was born in Chile in 1776. His father was Ambrosio O'Higgins, an Irishman who had been educated in Spain. Ambrosio O'Higgins was a man of considerable ability. The Spanish king recognized his ability by making him governor of the colony of Chile and then, later, the viceroy of Peru. Bernardo was sent to Europe to prepare himself to enter a profession, probably law. While young O'Higgins was studying in London he became acquainted with Miranda. From that time on he thought more about helping the colonists than he did of his studies. When his father heard about Bernardo's ideas of independence for Chile he was very indignant and threatened to disown him. This he might have done had he not become fatally ill about that time.

It was not long after O'Higgins attended the morning meeting in London that he was called back to South America by the death of his father. His father's death made it necessary for him to take charge of the rich estates which became his. Although he was now a man of wealth and influence, he did not lose his interest in the welfare of his fellow countrymen nor in the idea that men born in America should have more voice in their government. He continued to work for some means of relieving the oppression and suffering caused by the harsh rule of Spanish governors and generals.

*Chile during the time of Napoleon.* Finally, in 1808,



when Napoleon took possession of Spain and of its government, Chile, Argentina, and other Spanish American colonies realized that they would have to take a hand in ruling themselves. Spain was too weak to rule or to protect them from England and other European nations that might wish to take possession of the Spanish American colonies.

A meeting of the Chilean Congress was called. O'Higgins was a member of this Congress. Some of the members thought that Chile should set up an entirely independent government, but most of them were not ready for this move. Like other Spanish American colonies, Chile had been so long under the control of the Spanish king that it was difficult for anyone but the most daring to think of the country as a republic, entirely independent of Spain. Most of them thought only of carrying on until Spain was again strong enough to assume control.

However, the Chilean Congress took a firm hold on the affairs of the country and set about trying to right some of the wrongs. They passed several measures which would have been impossible under Spanish control. They agreed to free all slaves born in Chile. Chile had thousands of Negro slaves who had been imported to work on the large estates as well as many Indian slaves. A measure was passed to extend schools and education to a larger number of children. There is little or no doubt that young O'Higgins made many an eloquent speech in favor of these measures, for he was sincerely and honestly interested in the welfare of his fellow countrymen.

*O'Higgins heads the Chilean army.* The Chilean Congress did not have a chance to carry out its orders very long. In 1813 the Spanish viceroy who still ruled from

Peru sent troops into Chile to take charge of things. He was not willing to let Chile gain too much independence without at least putting up a struggle. The colonists placed O'Higgins in charge of their army to resist the Spanish. O'Higgins fought often and well, but he had slight chance of victory with only about seventeen hundred poorly equipped men against about five thousand excellent Spanish troops. Finally he was thoroughly defeated, and with a few hundred of his soldiers began a long journey over the Andes into Argentina.

*O'Higgins and San Martín.* O'Higgins' poor little army was joined by many prominent Chileans who thought they would be safer if they left the country for a time. In all, about three thousand Chileans climbed over the high Uspallata Pass and journeyed down into Argentina. In Mendoza, a city of one of the western provinces of Argentina, the three thousand refugees were kindly received by José de San Martín, who was then governor of the province.

*The Army of the Andes.* We have already learned that O'Higgins worked as San Martín's aid in recruiting, training, and equipping an army to free Chile and Peru from Spanish troops and to protect Argentina from invasion. By the end of 1816 they had about five thousand trained men. They were called the "Army of the Andes." In January, 1817, they left Mendoza and began their difficult trip over the Andes.

As we have already learned, the Army of the Andes, with San Martín and O'Higgins in command, defeated the Spanish at Chacabuco and in February, 1817, marched into Santiago, the capital of Chile. O'Higgins was badly wounded in one of the skirmishes with the Spanish.

When the final battle for Chile took place on the plains



Mt. Aconcagua, over 22,000 feet high, is the highest mountain in the Western Hemisphere. Near by is Uspallata Pass, over 12,000 feet high.

of Maipú outside the city of Santiago, O'Higgins was still in no condition to fight. He was advised to remain quietly at home to take care of his wounds while San Martín took command of the army.

It was characteristic of O'Higgins that he did not remain quietly at home nursing his wounds, but as soon as he heard that the battle was in progress he gathered up what troops he could find in the city and made his way out to join San Martín. When his friends urged him not to go, he is said to have remarked, "Only one arm is left me, but with it I shall decide the fate of the country." When O'Higgins reached San Martín's headquarters, the



Spanish were already in flight. O'Higgins embraced San Martin and cried, "Glory to the savior of Chile." San Martin modestly replied, "Chile will never forget the name of the illustrious invalid who today presents himself on the battlefield."

*O'Higgins becomes Supreme Director.* It was O'Higgins who became the Supreme Director of the new government of Chile. From 1817 to 1823 he struggled to restore order and to build a stable government in the country. There were many petty jealousies to be overcome. There were many men who wished to be the head of the new government. They were jealous of O'Higgins and opposed him in every way they could. Finally, O'Higgins was forced to resign his position and he withdrew from the country. So O'Higgins, the great patriot of 1810 and the great general of 1813 and the Supreme Director of Chile from 1817 to 1823, left the country and made his home in Peru. But before his death his country recognized his greatness and cordially invited him to return to Chile. O'Higgins began preparations to do so, but he died in Lima in 1842 before he was able to return. Today his country recognizes him as the great leader of their nation.

*Hidalgo and Morelos lead Mexico to freedom.* In Mexico the movement for freedom started about as it did in the other Spanish American countries. Miguel Hidalgo, an American-born priest, became interested in improving the lot of the Indians of Mexico. He taught them to cure hides, to manufacture brick, and to cultivate the silk-worm. He tried to correct some of the abuses which the Spanish overlords imposed on the natives. At first the movement he started showed promise of success, but so many Indians joined that soon all white supporters of



**Miguel Hidalgo, Father of Mexican Independence**

Hidalgo's movement abandoned the cause. For a time the mob of unorganized Indians carried everything before them, but not for long. The trained Spanish soldiers came into action, and the poorly equipped and undisciplined Indians were defeated and many were killed. Hidalgo and a number of his best leaders were captured and shot in 1811.

Hidalgo's place was soon taken by another native priest, José Maria Morelos. For a time Morelos and his Indian followers made considerable progress, but he too was captured and put to death by the Spanish army in 1815.

About this time, however, the Mexican whites began to fear that they would lose much of their power under the new constitution which had been put in operation in the mother country, Spain. They decided to start their own revolution and take control of the country themselves.

**Iturbide.** The Mexican whites chose as their leader Agustín de Iturbide, an officer in the viceroy's Spanish army. Iturbide was a Creole and a brilliant military leader. He succeeded in uniting the whites and the Indians in a movement to oust Spain. He issued the Plan of Iguala, which declared the independence of Mexico. In 1822 Iturbide caused his soldiers to declare him emperor of Mexico. But Iturbide had very little ability as a ruler. Soon there were more upheavals and he was condemned to death. Mexico then became a republic, and Guadalupe Victoria, one of the leaders in the revolt against Iturbide, was chosen as the first president and was inaugurated in 1824.

**Independence in Central America.** Central America (Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica) achieved freedom without bloodshed and without the help of any great leader. Encouraged by happenings in Mexico, Central America declared its independence in 1821, and the captain general, or Spanish governor, of the five districts left without any trouble. Probably the reason independence was secured without a struggle was that Spain had no troops in Central America. In 1822 the countries of Central America joined Mexico, but after the fall of Iturbide, one year later, they broke away and formed their own confederation of independent states. This union lasted until about 1838.

**Spanish lose control in the Americas.** As we have seen,



the Spanish lost control of South America in 1824, but they did not surrender their last remaining troops, which were stationed at the Peruvian fortress at Callao until 1826. (They stayed on in the Caribbean—in Cuba and Puerto Rico—until 1898.) In spite of the fact that Spain had lost control of almost all of her Spanish colonies she refused to recognize their independence. Mexico was the first to gain such recognition by Spain in 1836. It was many years before Spain acknowledged the independence of the rest of her colonies.

The United States was the first power to recognize the independence of the new American republics. Great Britain had also shown an interest in these struggling young nations. Both powers had established trade relations with them after the throwing off of Spanish control. The Spanish American states gained assurance from this that Spain would not be able to get other nations to help in reconquering them, for to do so would now mean trouble with the United States and Great Britain.

**Independent republics.** When the curtain went down on Spanish control in the Americas there were ten independent republics in Latin America. There were Brazil and the United Mexican States, the United Provinces of Central America, Great Colombia, Peru, Chile, Bolivia, Paraguay, the United Provinces of La Plata (Argentina), and Haiti, which had been the first to establish independence. Later some of these republics were to fall apart and become several small nations. For example, the United Provinces of Central America soon divided into five separate nations. The important thing in 1826 was that most of Latin America was independent of European control. It was ready for the long pull toward the enjoyment and the responsibility of democracy.

## THE STRUGGLE IN LATIN AMERICA COMPARED WITH THE WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE IN THE UNITED STATES

**Aims the same.** In Latin America the struggle for independence was like the War for Independence in the United States in one important way. It was directed against a form of government which took away many of the rights and privileges of the colonists. Many of the American-born Spaniards and the Indians of Latin America came to believe that they should no longer submit to the rules and regulations sent out by the Spanish king, nor should they be required to pay heavy taxes to the king. The English colonists in the United States had much the same feeling about the English king.

**Differences of territory and climate.** In other ways the revolutions on the two continents were very different. The Latin-American struggle was carried on over a territory many times the size of that covered by the United States in our struggle for freedom. Then, too, the wars in Latin America were made more difficult by the climate. Bolívar, one of the great leaders in the movement for freedom, had to accomplish the almost impossible feat of leading armies of men through steaming, sweltering tropical jungles, across dry, parched deserts, over barren, chill uplands, and up lofty mountain ranges. Bolívar's men swam rivers, waded through swamps, and hacked their way through forests to win their victories. In the War for Independence in the United States, Washington's army suffered great hardships, but the climate did not present the difficulties which had to be met in South America.

The War for Independence in the United States was comparatively short. In Latin America the struggle for freedom continued for fifteen years.



A tropical jungle such as the jungles Bolívar and his men encountered in their marches



**Attitude of the people.** In our country the name of George Washington stands out as that of a great leader without whose faithfulness and courage we might not have gained our independence as a nation. But Washington had the support and the aid of most of his fellow countrymen. In Latin America it was very different. There the leaders in the fight for freedom struggled on and on, year after year, almost without the help or the approval of the people. Only a third of the people of Latin America ever took an active interest in the struggle for independence, and there was little or no help from outside countries. You will remember that France gave important help to our country.

So the struggle for independence in Latin America was waged over an enormous territory in the most difficult climate in the Western Hemisphere. It was carried on by strong leaders who had the aid of only a small fraction of the citizens and without the help of any foreign country. The fact that the people of Latin America finally won their freedom was due chiefly to the intelligent and courageous leadership of a few men like Bolivar, San Martín, and Morelos.

## THE STRUGGLE FOR DEMOCRACY

**Lack of training and practice in self-government.** Some historians say that Bolivar and San Martín gave the people of South America independence almost against their wishes. This probably is an exaggeration, but we do know that only about a third of the people in South America took an active part in the struggle for independence. Also we know that, aside from a mere handful of leaders, the people showed no interest in independence until Spain

fell into the hands of the French dictator Napoleon. Only then, when it seemed as though something worse than Spanish rule might befall them, did even a small portion of the people support the idea of breaking away from Spain. Because Spain was too weak to protect them, they were forced to take matters of government and protection into their own hands. The people of Brazil had about the same attitude toward Portugal as the Spanish colonists had toward Spain.

When independence was finally won, the people of Latin America wished for peace and for the opportunity to develop their commerce and agriculture. They did not care particularly about a republican form of government. Most of their leaders seemed to believe more in a monarchy than in a democracy. They believed in a society divided into classes, but they did wish to have all classes treated fairly. We can understand this indifference to a republican and representative form of government when we look back at the history of the Spanish and Portuguese peoples. Through all their history they had been governed by stern rulers. But now that they were independent, they found themselves with constitutions calling for a representative form of government. Most of them had neither knowledge of how to govern themselves nor practice in how to do so.

**Lack of education.** Only some type of free education could have given the people of Latin America the knowledge necessary to govern themselves. We already know that such schools as were established in Latin America served only a small percentage of the population.

Probably it was not only the lack of practice in self-government but also the lack of education which Bolivar had in mind when he wrote, "We the inhabitants of the

American hemisphere are on a plane still lower than that of servitude, and for that reason it will be more difficult to raise ourselves to the level where we may enjoy liberty."

The Latin-American republics looked to the United States for their ideas of government, but Bolívar was quick to see that a government adapted to the needs of the English farmers and traders in North America who had had much practice in self-government might not be suited to the talents and abilities of the soldiers, miners, priests, and natives of Latin America. He says:

Until our compatriots [fellow countrymen] acquire the political talents and virtues which distinguish our brothers to the north, entirely popular systems [of government], far from being beneficial, will, I fear, come to be our ruin. . . . The states of America [South America] need the kindly guardianship of paternal governments which will cure the sores and wounds of despotism and war.

**Lack of leadership in government.** A single kingdom or several separate ones might have been established in Latin America, but there was no leader, not even Bolívar, who was both willing and able to assume so great a responsibility. Iturbide made himself emperor of Mexico for a short time, but he succeeded only in being shot.

So freedom and independence from European despotism and tyranny left the Latin-American republics with much work to be done. They made their start under a great handicap—a form of government in which they had had no practice or training. It was the best they could do at the time, but it was a long road to the day when their young governments could be permanently established and peace could be restored. It takes men a long, long time to learn how to govern themselves.



**Disputes over boundaries.** It was not only the problem of not knowing much about self-government that made progress in building orderly peaceful governments slow work. There were other difficulties. Probably no one thing has given rise to so many disputes in Latin America as has the question of boundaries between countries. In such a huge region it is difficult to set exact boundaries. Then, too, South America is divided by the highest mountain ranges in the world, except the Himalayas. It is divided by great tropical swamps and dotted with stretches of rainless desert. Even today some of the Latin-American republics have occasional arguments and even open armed conflict over boundaries.

**Lack of easy communication and transportation.** The mountains, tropical swamps, parched deserts, and great distances, which prevented the exact mapping of boundary lines, were also great obstacles in establishing communication lines. Without easy transportation it was difficult for the different countries or the parts of one country to keep in touch with each other.

Difficulties in communication caused many of the young nations to split up into smaller countries. Great Colombia, which was organized by Bolívar, split into three separate nations, namely, Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador. Bolivia broke away from Peru. Central America broke away from Mexico and finally separated into five small but independent republics. The Provinces of La Plata divided into many separate states for a time and finally organized into three nations, Argentine, Paraguay, and Uruguay. Even the little island of Hispaniola was split into two nations, Haiti and the Dominican Republic.



Progress toward improved transportation. A section of the Pan American Highway, through the desert coast of Peru. In the background are the ruins of an ancient holy city.

Too many leaders. Fifteen years of warfare had developed the habit of settling disputes with swords rather than by peaceful methods. Each nation had many military leaders whose chief occupation for many years had been war. Many of them were not interested in earning their living by peaceful means but were eager to seize whatever power and profit they could by getting control of sections of the country. Wherever these military chieftains could seize territory they set themselves up as dictators. Once in power, some of them made fair leaders, but certainly they did not help to establish either lasting governments or democratic and representative governments. They kept their countries in a constant turmoil. As a result of this, from 1826 until modern times much of the history

of Latin America has been one of strife and unrest, created by leaders seeking power. But through it all each country has moved slowly forward toward a more stable or lasting government.

**Lack of immigrants.** The new Latin-American nations needed people and money to help develop their countries. Immigrants from Europe were pouring into the United States. It was no accident that they chose to come to the United States instead of to Latin America. Most of them came from northern Europe, and in the United States they found somewhat the same climate as that to which they were accustomed. They also found people whose customs and languages resembled their own. Probably these immigrants thought the United States would be a more peaceful home than Latin America, which had so many wars and revolutions. Many immigrants came to the New World while Latin America was engaged in her fifteen-year war for independence, when Latin America seemed like anything but a peaceful place for a home. They chose the calmer, more peaceful United States as the country in which to settle and establish their homes and in which to invest their money. So, while money and labor were available to develop agriculture and business in the United States, the countries of Latin America were left largely to themselves. The absence of immigrants helped to keep Latin America from developing her rich resources.

It is impossible to tell you all the things that happened in the many Latin-American republics in their struggle to establish their new independent governments. We shall take a peek at two countries to see what progress they made. Perhaps they will give you an idea of what happened in the other republics.



**Independence in Argentina.** Argentina is a good example of how a nation overcame the difficulties of great distances, lack of population, and rivalry among leaders. We have already told you how the Argentines took things into their own hands when Buenos Aires was invaded by the British. You will remember that they raised an army. It was San Martin who led their army in their final struggle for independence.

*The United Provinces of La Plata.* After the Spanish withdrew from South America, Argentina was divided into a number of small states. These states were bound together in a loose federation under the name of the "United Provinces of La Plata." The union was very much like our United States when the colonies were organized under the Articles of Confederation. This type of organization did not work well in our country. We had to give it up and unite under the Constitution of the United States of America, which gave the central, or federal, government more power.

*Three separate nations.* The federation of provinces, or states, did not work well in Argentina either. In control of each state was a military leader who usually did all he could to oppose the central government. Finally, however, the desire to profit by trade with other countries did much to bring these states together. They reorganized as three nations—Argentina, Uruguay, and Paraguay.

*Government of Juan de Rosas.* Buenos Aires had long been looked upon by the British as a profitable trade center. Now that Argentina was independent, there was an opportunity to develop trade. Although the country was strongly divided in the beginning, each state wished its share in the profits of commerce, so they drew close together. Early in its history Buenos Aires came under the

rule of a ruthless dictator named Juan de Rosas. From 1829 until 1852 Rosas, with the help of his band of secret police and spies, kept everything under his control. In order to be fair to Rosas we shall have to say that he did succeed in uniting the country. He encouraged trade and succeeded in getting the co-operation of the governors of the different states. When he was finally forced out of the country, Argentina was ready as a nation to move forward. The more enlightened leaders who had been driven from the country by Rosas returned to take part in the affairs of the nation. Immigrants from Europe were encouraged to bring their families and their money into Argentina. Railroads were built, farm lands were opened up, strong banks were established, and the government was placed under a good business administration.

*Modern times.* By 1930, a little more than a hundred years after she gained her independence, Argentina had made notable progress. She had built and had in operation over twenty-five thousand miles of railway, and her factories were turning out one third of the country's cotton goods, about two thirds of the linen, and four fifths of the woolen goods used there.

*Chile.* Chile found her way to peace more quickly than any other Latin-American republic. After independence from Spain was declared, there was a struggle for power in governing the country. There was little bloodshed over the matter of setting up a new government and by 1833 the country had settled down under a government policy which with some modification was to last until 1925.

*Constitution of 1833.* The constitution under which the country was governed during most of this ninety-two-year period provided a strong central government in which the president had the power of absolute veto. This

meant that, if the president did not approve of a law or government regulation, that law or regulation could not be passed. The men who held the important government offices had to be property-holders, so the government was largely in the hands of wealthy landowners. Since the constitution contained guarantees of liberty and protected private property, many people were satisfied. There was one serious outbreak in 1891, when some of the people of Chile revolted against the government because it rested largely in the hands of wealthy landowners. The revolt was put down, and the rule of the conservative landowners continued until 1920, when more liberal leaders came into the government. The constitution remained in force from 1833 to 1925, when there was a new constitution.

*War with Bolivia.* Twice during her first hundred years as an independent nation Chile went to war with her neighbors. She found that the president of Bolivia was promoting a movement to unite Bolivia with Peru. Chile did not care to have such a strong neighbor on her north, so she promptly made war on Bolivia and destroyed the idea of union. The president of Bolivia was forced to abdicate in 1839.

*War of the Pacific.* Again in 1879, forty years later, Chile sent her troops against both Bolivia and Peru in the War of the Pacific. This time the dispute grew out of disagreement over the possession and the use of the rich nitrate fields which are now in northern Chile but part of which were then in Bolivia and Peru. When the war ended in 1883, Chile had succeeded in getting possession of most of the disputed territory, cutting Bolivia off entirely from the seacoast. When the final settlement was made in 1929 Peru was left with only one small province in the nitrate region.





**"Christ of the Andes."** This famous monument to peace between Argentina and Chile was unveiled in 1904. It stands at Uspallata Pass on the Chile-Argentina boundary.

*General peace.* On the whole Chile has had a more stable government and has had less unrest than any other country in Latin America with the exception of Brazil. During her early years as an independent nation Chile kept her government going and enjoyed a large measure of peace because she placed control in the hands of a strong central government. Now that more of her people have the training and education necessary to govern themselves, many individuals believe that they should be given a greater voice in the government of their country.

*Independence in other countries.* The story of the struggle to establish a lasting government was much the same in each of the young nations of Latin America. Immediately after independence was gained, there was in each country, with the exception of Brazil, a period of confusion, disturbance, and strife. The United States, too, had a period of confusion after she gained her independence from England, but it did not last long. Latin-American countries differed greatly from one another in the length of the period of confusion. In Chile it was only a brief period, but in Mexico it lasted until recent times.

Many Latin Americans have no part in the government. Whatever its difficulties, each country has progressed toward a more representative form of government. Some countries have progressed slowly, others more rapidly. There are many Latin Americans who have no part in their government. For example, in Brazil, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, and Bolivia many individuals are excluded by a law which requires the voter to have a certain amount of education. In Colombia they are excluded by laws which require voters to be property owners as well as to have a certain amount of education. Women have the right to vote in only a few of the republics.

Education necessary for self-government. So there are millions of Latin Americans who, although they live in what is called a republic, have no part in governing themselves. It may be a long time before these millions will have a voice in their governments, because all people must *learn* the ways of governing themselves. This requires education. As schools become more numerous and as more boys and girls have a chance to learn to read, write, and live and work with other people, the right to vote and to take part in the government will probably become the privilege of more and more Latin Americans. Opportunities for education are being extended as better lines of communication are developed and as new blood and more money come in to help develop the resources of the countries. The various nations of Latin America have moved forward, until now they stand beside the United States as full-grown American republics.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Select from the sentences below the four which you think are the most important facts regarding the means by which Spain and Portugal kept control of their Latin-American colonies.

1. They controlled all reading material in the colonies.
2. They usually permitted only men born in the mother country to hold office.
3. They did not permit the people to vote.
4. They kept foreigners out of their colonies.
5. They kept other nations from trading with their colonies.
6. They sent cargo boats to certain ports only.
7. They forced the colonies to trade with the mother country only.



B. Place additional important dates and events in the time line. Here are a few. You will find others in the section you have just read.

1. 1776—The English colonies in the United States declare their independence.
2. 1804—French colonists in Santo Domingo declare their independence.
3. 1806—Miranda tries to free Venezuela.
4. 1808—The French dictator Napoleon takes over the Spanish government.
5. 1810—Argentina sets up her own government.
6. 1811—Venezuela declares her independence of Spanish control.

C. Name three men who helped to spread the ideas of independence in South America.

D. Name two men who led the struggle for freedom in Mexico.

E. Give five reasons why the Latin-American countries have had a long struggle in building lasting or stable governments.

F. Be sure you know these men and places:

1. Ayacucho
2. Pichincha
3. Boyacá
4. Dom Pedro I
5. Iturbide
6. José de Sucre
7. Morelos
8. Hidalgo
9. Miranda
10. Nariño
11. Simón Bolívar
12. San Martín
13. Victoria
14. Bernardo O'Higgins

G. You and your parents are living in one of the Latin American colonies, and you have a cousin in Spain or Portugal. Write a letter to your cousin describing your life in the New World. You may choose your own colony and a period before or during the struggle for independence.

H. Write a character sketch of one of the leaders referred to in this section. See if you can find in other books additional information to use in describing this leader.

I. As a review of what you read earlier in this book, do these things:

1. Show on a map the regions occupied by the chief Indian tribes of Latin America.
2. Compare the civilization of the Indians and that brought by the Europeans. Were there ways in which the Indian civilization was better than the European?
3. Were the governments of the Indian tribes democratic? Do you think the Indians gained any benefits through being conquered?

J. Write a report telling about the work of the missionaries among the Indians of Latin America. Perhaps you will wish to consult other books in preparing this report.

K. When the Spanish fleets arrived for trade with the colonists there were big fairs in the towns where the trading was done. Write a description of one of these fairs as though you had taken part in it yourself.

L. Give some reasons:

1. Why did dictators find it fairly easy to seize control in some of the Spanish American countries?
2. Why were most of the people who lived in the Spanish American colonies not interested in the struggle for independence?
3. Why, even today, do Latin-American countries continue to have occasional revolts against their governments?
4. What reasons can you give for the fact that the United States has had a stable government?

M. Here are some books which will give you more information about the history of the South American republics:

Brooks, E. C.—*Stories of South America*; Richmond: Johnson Publishing Company, 1922. An informal history, chiefly biographical, and geographical information.

Carr, Mrs. K. C.—*South American Primer*; New York: Reynal & Hitchcock, 1939.

Goetz, Delia—*Neighbors to the South*; New York: Harcourt, Brace & Company, 1941. Brief biographies of leaders—Bolívar, Sucre, San Martín, and others.

Hasbrouck, Louise S.—*Mexico from Cortes to Carranza*; New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937.

Lansing, Marion—*Liberators and Heroes of South America*; Boston: L. C. Page and Company, 1940. This book includes biographies of Miranda, San Martín, O'Higgins, Bolívar, and Sucre, as well as the stories of other heroes of war and peace.

Sanchez, N. V. de G.—*Stories of Latin American States*; New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941.

Webster, Hutton—*History of Latin America*; Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1936. A good outline history.

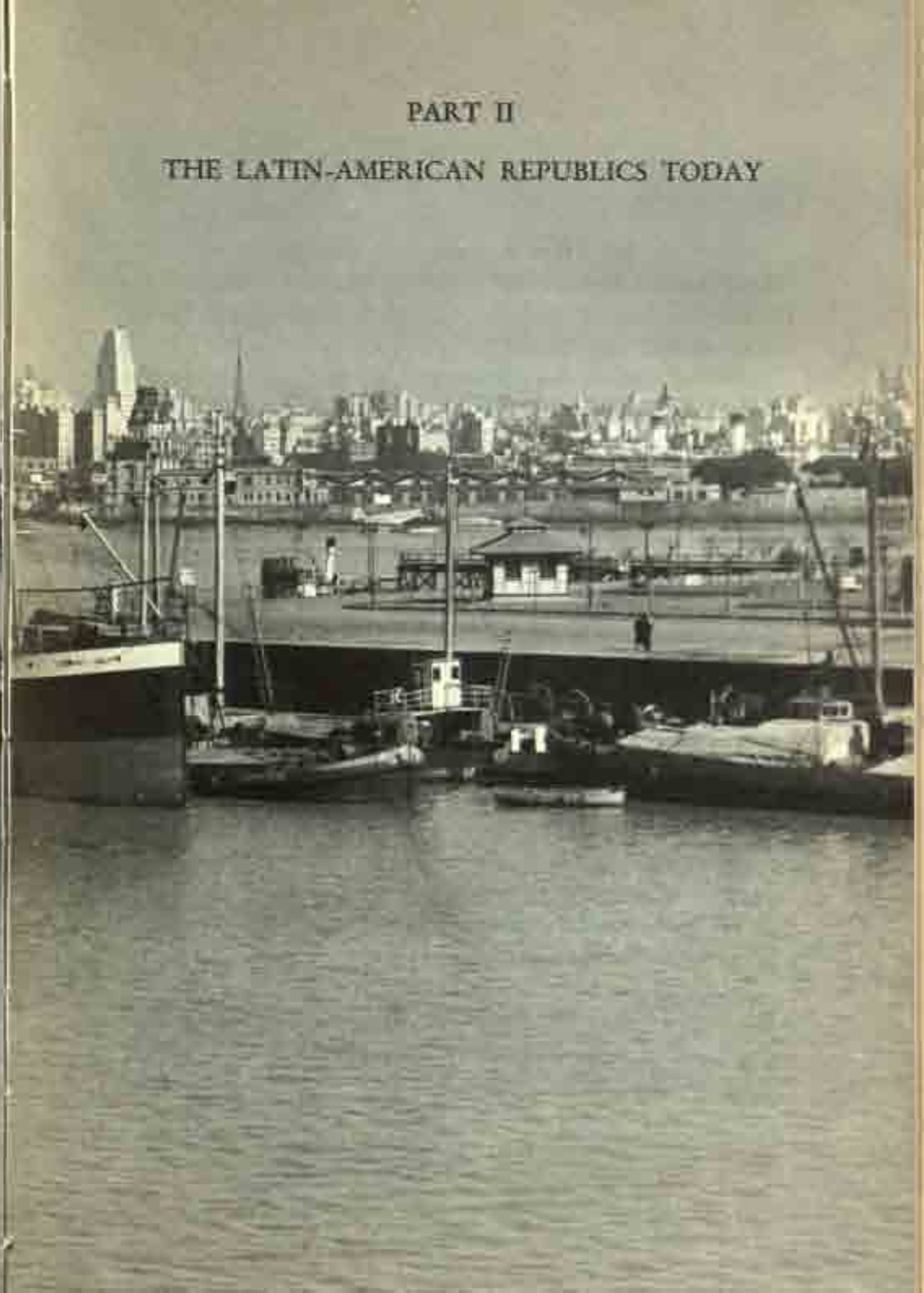


PART II

THE LATIN-AMERICAN REPUBLICS TODAY



Latin America's biggest city, Buenos Aires, with a population of two and a half million



## THE LATIN-AMERICAN REPUBLICS TODAY

MOST of the Latin-American nations have had their independence for only a little more than a hundred years. This is not long in the life of a nation. The United States is more than one hundred sixty years old. So the Latin-American nations are young, but in spite of their youth and of many difficulties they have made remarkable progress. Modern civilization with all its inventions, machines, and devices is evident in the life of all of them, but the change has not come to the same extent or degree everywhere. In the republics of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Mexico—these nations representing between them three fifths of all the people of Latin America—there has been great progress. In some of the other nations development has been much slower because of poverty, border warfare, and unstable government.

Latin America is too large a region to discuss under one heading. That would be like discussing North America as if it were all one nation and as if all parts of it were alike. The various republics of Latin America differ from one another quite as much as Mexico differs from Canada or as Mexico differs from the United States. In order to get better acquainted with Latin America we must look at each country separately.

We shall start with our neighbor Mexico and shall learn something of its climate, its products and industries, and the customs of its people. In a similar way we shall learn about all the other countries that are in the Latin-American group.



## MEXICO

**Map questions.** What states of the United States form the northern border of Mexico? Find the two mountain ranges in the northern part of Mexico. What are they called? What kind of land do you think lies between these two ranges? Find the peninsula of Yucatán. What famous early people once lived in Yucatán? What Central American countries form the southern boundary of Mexico?

How far is Mexico City from the nearest seaport? how far from the nearest part of the United States?

See if you can list a group of states in this country that is about equal in area to Mexico.



## A VISIT TO MEXICO

We start from Laredo, Texas. Let us journey into Mexico, as many Americans do during a summer vacation. We may take a train, a bus, or an airplane to Laredo, Texas. From there we shall take a bus over the great Pan American Highway to Mexico City, although we could go on by train. In Laredo, although we are still in the United States, we see many Mexicans on the streets and hear Spanish spoken as often as we do English.

**Visitor permit, vaccination certificate.** It is summer, but our hotel is air-cooled, and so we are comfortable even though it is very warm outside. We are near the Torrid Zone and the sun is directly overhead most of the day. This afternoon we must get ready to go to Mexico City on the bus which leaves early tomorrow morning. No passports are required. In their place we each have a card, called the "visitor permit," which gives us permission to enter Mexico as tourists. Also we have a letter from our family physician saying that we have been vaccinated as protection against smallpox. We shall not need the letter in order to enter Mexico, but when we are ready to leave the country the American doctors at the border will ask us, before they let us enter the United States, whether we have been vaccinated. There is still considerable smallpox in Mexico, although great strides have been made in the control of disease. The health department of the United States wishes to be sure that no one brings smallpox into our country.

**Mexican pesos for American dollars.** One thing we shall have to do this afternoon is to change some of our United States money into Mexican dollars, or pesos. When we go to the bank in Laredo, we find that the rate of ex-

change is very favorable to American money. We get five Mexican pesos for one American dollar. If you look at your newspaper tonight, you may find that the rate has either gone up or gone down. We change one hundred dollars of American money into Mexican currency, and when we come out of the bank we feel very rich. We are loaded down with Mexican silver pesos and with bills. It seems like a great deal of money if we make the mistake of thinking of a Mexican dollar as having the same value as an American dollar. In fact, prices seem very high in Mexico until we remember that a Mexican dollar is worth only about twenty cents in American money.

**On the road to Monterrey.** Early in the morning we take a bus which carries us across the Rio Grande. The Rio Grande is the boundary of the United States and Mexico. Soon we are rolling along toward Monterrey, Mexico, on a fine paved highway. On either side of the highway is a broad, dry, dusty plain covered with sagebrush. Occasionally we drive through a small village of low, one-story adobe huts. Most of them crowd close to the roadway. Not a blade of green grass is to be seen, but many of the tiny one-room houses have tin cans with bright flowers growing in them hanging on the outside walls. Mexicans love bright colors.

**How the people dress.** Most of the people seem very poor. The men that lounge in front of the few stores are clad in white cotton suits which look like pajamas. Every man and almost every boy has a folded woolen blanket over his shoulder. This blanket has a slit in the middle through which the man can put his head. In this way the blanket is made to serve both as an overcoat and as a covering at night. It is called a *serape*. We shall see many *serapes* in Mexico.



A motor highway west of Mexico City

The women wear great full skirts and often have shawls over their heads. The children seem to have whatever clothing is left over after the adult members of the family have dressed. The children and many of the adults are barefooted. Others wear sandals or what are sometimes called *huarachos*.

Just before we reach Monterrey we begin to see mountains in the distance.

The temperature. We begin to wonder whether all of



Mexico is as hot and dry and parched as this northern section, but our driver points to the map, and from it we get an idea of what to expect.

The Tropic of Cancer crosses Mexico, which means that the northern part of it is in the Temperate Zone and that a little more than half of the country is in the Torrid Zone. We are still in the Temperate Zone, and if the Torrid Zone is going to be hotter than it is now, we shall be uncomfortable indeed. When we ask the driver whether it will be warm all the way, he points to the mountains on the map. Of course, we know that higher altitudes always mean cooler temperatures.

**The Sierra Madre.** The Rocky Mountains of the United States continue across the border into Mexico. In Mexico they are no longer called the Rocky Mountains but are known as the Sierra Madre. In northern Mexico the mountains divide into two ranges which finally join in the southern part of the country. These mountain ranges lie over Mexico like a great letter Y. Between the two prongs of the great letter Y lies a wide, high plateau. This plateau becomes higher and higher as one travels south; at the southern end it rises to more than eight thousand feet.

The road from Laredo, Texas, to Monterrey lies along the coastal plain on the eastern edge of the central plateau. This whole northern section is low and flat, and therefore it is very warm.

**Monterrey.** It is early afternoon when we drive into Monterrey. The city is very quiet. Many of the stores are closed, and there are only a few people on the streets. Early afternoon is the time when most Mexicans stay indoors, out of the heat, and take their siestas, or afternoon rest. It is a very wise custom indeed, for no one feels like moving around during the hottest part of the day.

The driver of our bus suggests that we rest for an hour or two and then at about four o'clock go out to see the city. Since we are to stay overnight in Monterrey, we go to one of the several fine hotels and engage rooms. Our hotel has a Spanish name, and we find it much like the best hotel in any city in the United States. The day has been warm outside, but our rooms are cool. The ceilings are high, and on the ceiling of each room a huge electric fan is turning.

At four o'clock when we leave the hotel on our sight-seeing trip, the city is very much alive. The stores are open, and there are many people on the streets. Siesta time is over and people are ready for the tasks and pleasures of the afternoon.

The guide tells us that Monterrey is sometimes called "the Pittsburgh of Mexico," because it has several large iron and steel plants. It has shoe factories, furniture factories, and textile mills as well. Monterrey is an important manufacturing center. We spend the late afternoon visiting some of these factories.

Monterrey is the capital of Nuevo León, one of the states of Mexico. There are twenty-eight states in Mexico, three territories, and the federal district. Each state has a governor and a legislature much like any one of our states. Mexico City is the capital of the republic and the home of the national government, very much the same as our Washington, D. C.

**A Mexican meal.** We return to our hotel just in time for the evening meal. The waiters in the dining room speak Spanish and English, and we find that both American and Mexican dishes are on the menu. Since this is our first meal in Mexico, we decide to have Mexican food. Our waiter suggests frijoles, tamales, and then papaya for

dessert. The tamale looks somewhat like a meat roll that we might have at home, except that the meat is wrapped in corn meal, and possibly the meat is more highly seasoned with pepper than any meat in the United States. The frijoles are beans much like the kidney beans we have in the United States. The papaya is the fruit of a tropical tree called the papaw. It looks very much like a yellow melon, but it has a flavor all its own which we find delicious.

The waiter tells us that in order to have a real Mexican meal we should have eaten tortillas as well as frijoles and tamales. We see some other people in the restaurant eating tortillas. They look very much like pancakes, but, we are told, they are made of corn meal. The Mexicans like to roll their tortillas around a bit of meat, fish, or beans and then eat them.

**Relaxation in the evening.** After our evening meal we go to a little park opposite the hotel. Around the edge of the park are many benches facing the sidewalk, and we find places on one of these benches. Before long a Mexican band appears and takes its place in the middle of the little park. Soon whole families of Mexicans begin to arrive at the little park. The old folks sit on the benches, and the young people walk round and round the square. Not many of the boys and girls walk together as they would in American cities. Here the girls walk in one direction and the boys walk in another. This seems strange to us, but it is a Spanish custom which the Mexicans observe even today.

We are up and off in our bus early in the morning. The morning air is cool. We are approaching the mountains, although we cannot see them because the clouds hang low over them.



**Haciendas.** The first two hours we see very few people. Finally we meet a cowboy riding along on his horse. The bus driver calls him a *vaquero*. This is the Mexican word for "cowboy." He is dressed very much as our cowboys dress, and the bus driver tells us that he works on a hacienda, or ranch. The ranch on which this vaquero works is one of many thousand acres with great herds of cattle. A very small part of the ranch is irrigated for raising corn, beans and alfalfa. We cannot see the hacienda from the roadway because it lies in the foothills of the mountains. We are told that there are many large haciendas in this section of the country. On each of them there is a small village, much like the villages we see along the highway, where the workers live. On each ranch there are a hundred or more vaqueros to take care of the cattle, and there are many *peons*, or workers who take care of the fields and do other work around the hacienda. The rancher, or *hacendado*, as he is called in Spanish, lives in a very fine house.

How the people in the mountains live. Now the mountains are close ahead, and we soon begin to climb. The highway winds back and forth up the side of the high mountains. Soon we are looking down on many little green valleys. In many of them we can see little settlements of white adobe houses with red-tiled roofs. They are very attractive from up here on the mountain road.

About noon we drop down into one of these valleys where there is a small town. As we approach the town we see several places where teams of oxen are being used to plow fields. The plow looks strange to us. We are told that it is made of wood with a tip of iron which tears up the ground. As we draw near the village we pass many burros heavily laden with wood. This wood is brought



Plowing fertile farm land in the valley of Mexico

down from the mountains. Much of it is made into charcoal, which the Mexicans use for cooking their food. Also, we pass men, women, and children trotting along the side of the road, each carrying a huge load. Some of the women have jars on their heads. Some of the men carry bales of hay, and others have great baskets filled with pottery jars. There are women carrying children. A man is driving a pig; he has a string tied to one of its hind legs. Most Mexicans are too poor to own automobiles or trucks, and so most of the products of the country are still transported on the heads and shoulders of human beings.

Everyone has something to sell. We stop in the village for lunch. No sooner does our bus stop than we are surrounded by men, women, and children who want to sell something. Here is a man with a great stack of straw hats, or *sombreros*. Here is a woman with a tray of tortillas, and there are girls with bunches of flowers which they wish to sell for a few pennies.

We make our way through the crowd to a low one-story building which is a restaurant. We are soon being served with frijoles and tortillas. We top off our luncheon with a tamale. This tamale is wrapped in corn husks which we peel away, and inside we find a fat sausage-like roll of corn meal. When we bite into it we find that inside the corn meal are meat and peppers. Beans and corn are a part of every Mexican meal among the poorer people.

After our lunch we walk about the village pursued by men, women, and children who are still trying to sell us something. Most of the homes we see are very small. They have one or two rooms with beaten earth floors and little furniture.

Schools. We find a school in the village, and since the children have not yet gone home for their noon meal, we decide to visit it for a few minutes. The teacher and the pupils give us a friendly, courteous welcome. We decide that the people of the United States could learn much about courtesy from these children. The children are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, history, and geography much as children are taught in our schools. They also learn to cook, sew, weave, carve, and make jewelry and pottery.

The school has only a few books and only one poor piece of blackboard. The children sit on rough benches,



not at fine desks. We have visited many schools in the United States, but seldom have we seen children so eager to learn and so proud of their schools as these children. One child that speaks a little English tells us that the Mexican government is now trying to build schools in every village. Probably this is one reason why these children are so eager to learn; they know that the opportunity to get an education is a real privilege. We tell them how fine we think it is that their government is helping them. We sincerely hope that their government will soon find it possible to provide schools for alert young Mexicans in all parts of their country.

**The market place.** Near the school we find a market place. Every Mexican village and city has its own market place. In the larger cities every day is a market day, but in this small village markets are held on Sundays and Wednesdays. We are fortunate that today is Wednesday. This explains why we saw so many men, women, and children trotting along the road with loads of pottery dishes, stacks of baskets, and other articles on their backs. They were coming in to the market.

As we walk around the market we find some little booths, or stalls, where things are sold, but most of the people sit on the ground with their products displayed in front of them. Here are several women, each with many little piles of fruit, vegetables, and nuts spread on the ground in front of her. Here is a man with earthenware pots and jars, and another one with a great pile of hand-woven baskets. Most of the things at the market are articles of food. The Mexican women seem to be bartering or exchanging products among themselves. The average Mexican peon has very little money, so most of the trading that he does is by barter, or exchange.



Shawls for women and serapes for men, for sale in a native market

Not only is market day a time for exchanging what one has for something which one's neighbor has, but it is also a social time. As men and women sit around in the market place there is much conversation and laughter. Usually there is a small orchestra of two or three musicians and the music adds to the gaiety of market day.

In a short time we are off again in our bus. This time our road climbs higher and higher. We cross range after range of mountains, each higher than the one before. Finally our road lies flattened out ahead of us. We are

at last on Mexico's great central plateau. There is another overnight stop. Early the next morning we start out on the last lap of our journey for Mexico City.

**Mexico City.** The city of Mexico is the largest city in the republic. It has a population of well over a million people. Not only is it the headquarters of the Mexican national government, but it is also the transportation center of the republic and one of the oldest cities in what was once a Spanish Empire. Finally we top a range of hills, and there before us, surrounded by high mountains, is the lovely city of Mexico. In a short time we are driving down a broad, clean avenue, one of the main streets of

**Mexico City is the industrial, political, and business center of Mexico.**





the city. There are streetcars and many automobiles. There are also little long-eared burros carrying heavy loads. On the streets are many men and women. Some are as well dressed as anyone in the United States, but here and there we see barefoot men and women with loads of merchandise on their backs.

Most of the houses are two or three stories high and are made of adobe, which is often painted some bright color. They are like the houses in the newer sections of many cities in the United States, but as we travel nearer the heart of the city we find more houses of the Spanish type that rise straight up from the sidewalk and are built around a courtyard, or patio. The glimpses which we have of the patios of these houses show that many are adorned with shrubs, flowers, and lovely fountains.

**Xochimilco and the Floating Gardens.** After we have had a good night's rest at our hotel, we plan sightseeing tours which will take us in and about the city. Sunday's trip is to Xochimilco to see the Floating Gardens. These gardens were planted by the Aztecs hundreds of years ago on rafts which were covered with rich soil in a great shallow lake. Now willow trees have grown through the rafts and formed roots which hold the tiny islands anchored in place. Between the islands are long canals. There are flat-bottomed, flower-bedecked passenger boats which are poled along the canals. Most of the boats are carrying gay family parties. We hire a boat and join the throng. Some boats carry bands of musicians. One of them draws up beside us, and for a few pennies the band plays our favorite selections. Other boats are floating restaurants which sell us anything that we wish, from soda pop to tortillas and tamales. There are women in small canoes filled with flowers which they offer for sale.



One of the canals in Xochimilco. The water in these canals is clear brown and not very deep. The bottom of the canal seems to slide past you as the boat moves along.

Xochimilco with its Floating Gardens is a favorite recreation place for the people of the city of Mexico. On Sundays and holidays the gay flowered deck boats are filled with happy families who spend the day floating up and down the canals chatting, singing, and eating picnic lunches.

There are so many places to visit in bright and beautiful Mexico that we cannot take you to all of them. We shall have to be content with merely telling you some of the things which we learn about the country. And you

will find, as you continue to study Mexico, that it is a land of great contrasts. There are contrasts in its physical features, in the races, and in the ways in which the people live.

## THE COUNTRY

As we drove down from Monterrey you probably had the impression that Mexico was a large country. It is large. It is almost three times the size of our state of Texas.

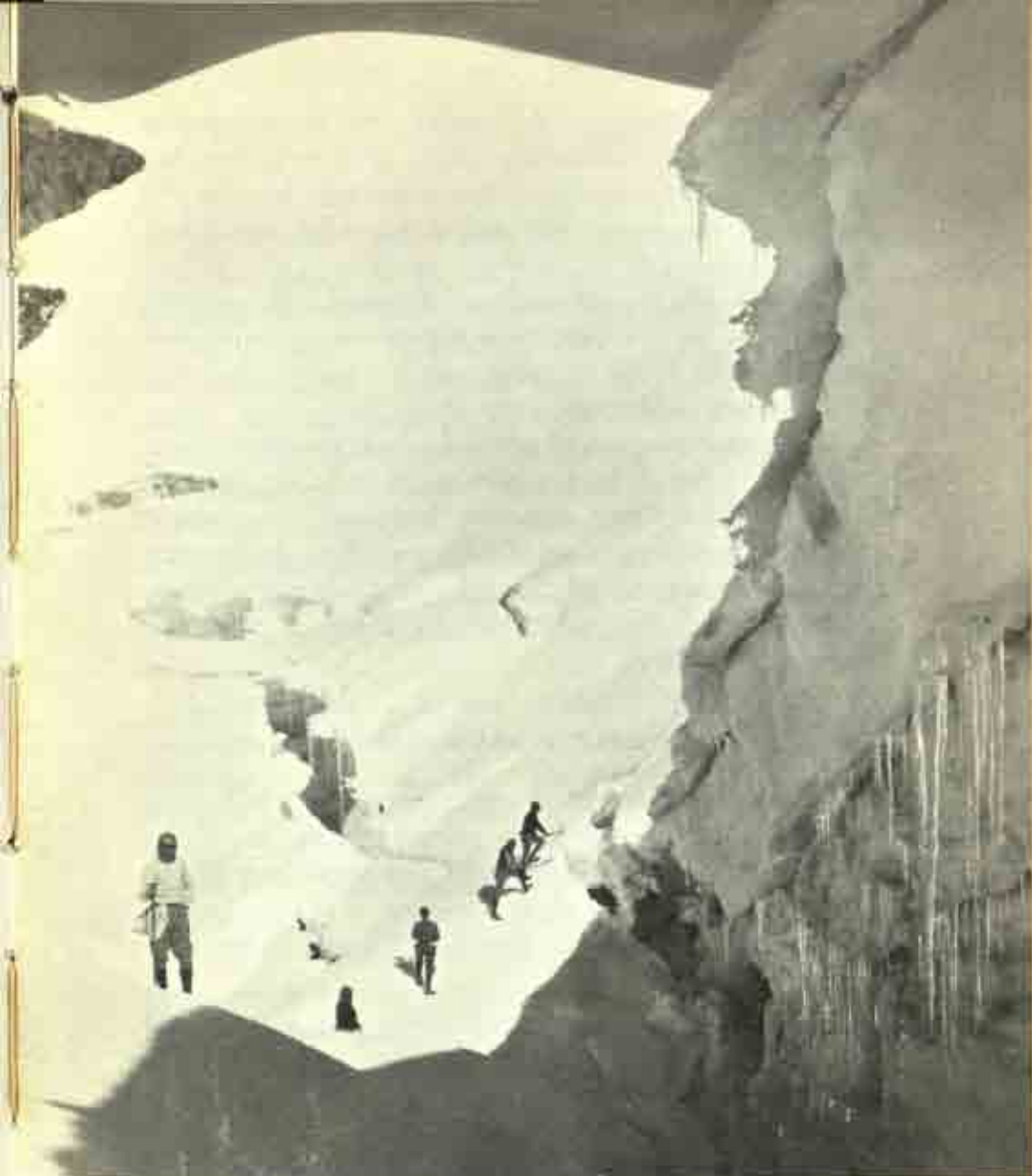
A great mountainous plateau. The country is shaped somewhat like a great triangle, and its broad base rests against the southern boundary of the United States. A large part of Mexico is an immense elevated plateau, which is tilted to form a low plain in the north and which reaches the height of seven thousand five hundred feet in the region around Mexico City. This plateau covers a region about equal in size to our state of Missouri, and it ranks next to the plateaus of Tibet and Bolivia among the largest and highest inhabited regions in the world.

The surface of the great plateau is ruffled by great mountain peaks, some of them more than eighteen thousand feet high, and deep valleys and ravines. Once when Cortés was asked to describe the surface of the country, he gave a very excellent picture of it by picking up a piece of paper and crumpling it in his hand. About 70 per cent of Mexico is a rugged, jagged, mountainous country.

This plateau region is an important part of Mexico. Two thirds of the Mexicans live in this region. Later we shall tell you how they earn their living.

Narrow coastal plains. Along each coast line is a low narrow coastal plain which is always warm. Far to the





Mountain climbers crossing the snow fields just below the summit of Mexico's third highest mountain, Ixtacihuatl, which is sometimes called "The Sleeping Lady"

south, in the peninsula of Yucatán, the eastern coastal plain spreads out to become a wide tableland. The Atlantic, or Caribbean, coastal plain is not only hot but also wet, while the Pacific lowland is somewhat cooler and drier.

**Harbors.** Mexico has about six thousand miles of coast line, but on the east coast there are no bays to form protected harbors. The principal port is Veracruz, but it is only an open anchorage.

The west coast is more favored; there are several deep and well-sheltered bays which make excellent harbors. There are Salina Cruz, Acapulco, Manzanillo, and others. But these Pacific ports are of little service to the country because they are cut off from the great interior plateau, where most of the people live, by a high and rugged range of mountains.

## THE PEOPLE AND HOW THEY LIVE

**The people.** There are almost twenty million Mexicans. In population Mexico ranks second among the Latin American republics. Only about one person out of ten is of pure white blood; about three out of ten are Indian, and the rest are mestizo, that is, of mixed Indian and white blood.

The people of Mexico are not alike. The Indians that live on the flat, dry plains in the northern part of the country are quite unlike the natives of Yucatán, who are descendants of the ancient Mayas. Mexico has many little communities where the people live very much to themselves and in much the same manner as did their ancestors in the time of Cortés.

Though the population is composed of many quite dif-

ferent groups, all Mexicans have certain common bonds. There is the three-hundred-year period when they all were under the control of the Spanish conquerors. The long period of Spanish rule did something to make the people feel that they were of one nation. The overwhelming majority of them are members of the same church, the Roman Catholic. They have a common language, Spanish, although about a fifth of them still speak their native Indian tongue. In fact, there are fifty-four different Indian languages or dialects in Mexico. Mexicans must feel alike in another way. Except for a small group, they are all extremely poor. In spite of the help which their government is giving them, they are beset with illness and disease. The death rate in Mexico is very high. Only about half of the babies born live to reach their tenth birthday.

**Most Mexicans are farmers.** About 65 per cent of the Mexicans live by agriculture, but the living they make from the land is a poor one. The amount of good farming land in Mexico is limited. Only a little more than half the land can be used in any way for agriculture, and at least half of this is not good farm land. It is either too mountainous or too dry for cultivation. Since 1911 the Mexican government has been trying to improve the lot of the people by helping them to own their own farms and by teaching them better methods of farming.

**Mexicans almost lost their land.** Life for the Indians of Mexico depends on land, and without land they are helpless. Even before the coming of the Aztecs the people of the region which is now Mexico were farmers. They lived in little settlements and held in common, or together, the lands around their villages. No one person actually owned any of the land, but each man was assigned a piece



to cultivate and farm. The farmers worked together to grow their crops and shared the products which they grew. Some of the crops were placed in community storehouses for the use of all the people of the village.

When the Spanish came, this way of life was changed. The conquerors took the best land, and the natives had no choice but to stay and work for whatever their new masters saw fit to give them. The landholdings of important Spanish families became enormous as they took over thousands and even hundreds of thousands of acres. Some of the Spanish hacendados acquired lands which totaled the size of some of the states of the United States. These huge haciendas, some of which exist today, resemble a state in other ways. On each of them are many villages, each with churches and stores.

It was not the Spanish alone who took over huge tracts of land. Even after Mexico gained her freedom from Spain, some of the presidents of the new republic helped their friends gain possession of thousand of acres of land. Under President Porfirio Díaz one man was given a title to seventeen million acres. By 1910 about 90 per cent of the rural Indians had no land but were either peons on some great hacienda or had moved up into the barren mountain regions, where they almost starved.

**Land laws are reformed.** In 1911 came a revolution and the overthrow of the government of President Díaz, who had given away so much of the Indian land. The people of Mexico demanded that something be done to give them farm land. They wished some reform or correction in the laws to prevent one man from holding many thousands of acres of land. In 1917 a regulation was written into the constitution of the country stating that the Mexican nation "shall have at all times the right to impose

on private property such limitations as the public interest may demand." This law gave the Mexican government the right to buy for a reasonable price parts of some of the large haciendas in order to subdivide them among the landless Mexican farmers.

Today the theory of the Mexican back-to-the-land movement is based on the idea that each family of a village is entitled to a share in the land. This is very much as it was in Aztec times. A group of twenty villagers can petition the government for land. The neighborhood of the village is then studied to see what land is available near the settlement. Land can be taken, although the government must pay for it, from large landowners or from those who possess more than about two hundred fifty acres of irrigated land. So if land is found, it is purchased and assigned to the villagers. Each man is given a title to a piece of about ten acres or less. He can farm it and use it as his own, but he cannot sell it or mortgage it.

From 1917 up to the present time it is estimated that about sixty-five million acres of land have been taken over by the government and distributed to more than one and a half million Mexican farmers. During the presidency of Lázaro Cárdenas (1934-1940) more than forty-seven million acres were divided among a million farmers, whereas during the two previous decades only about twenty million acres had been turned over to seven hundred fifty thousand peasants. Most of the great hacendados of Mexico have had to give up at least a part of their land.

**Better ways of farming.** Not only is the Mexican government buying land for its landless people, but also it is trying to help them become better farmers. It has established agricultural schools where it is training hundreds

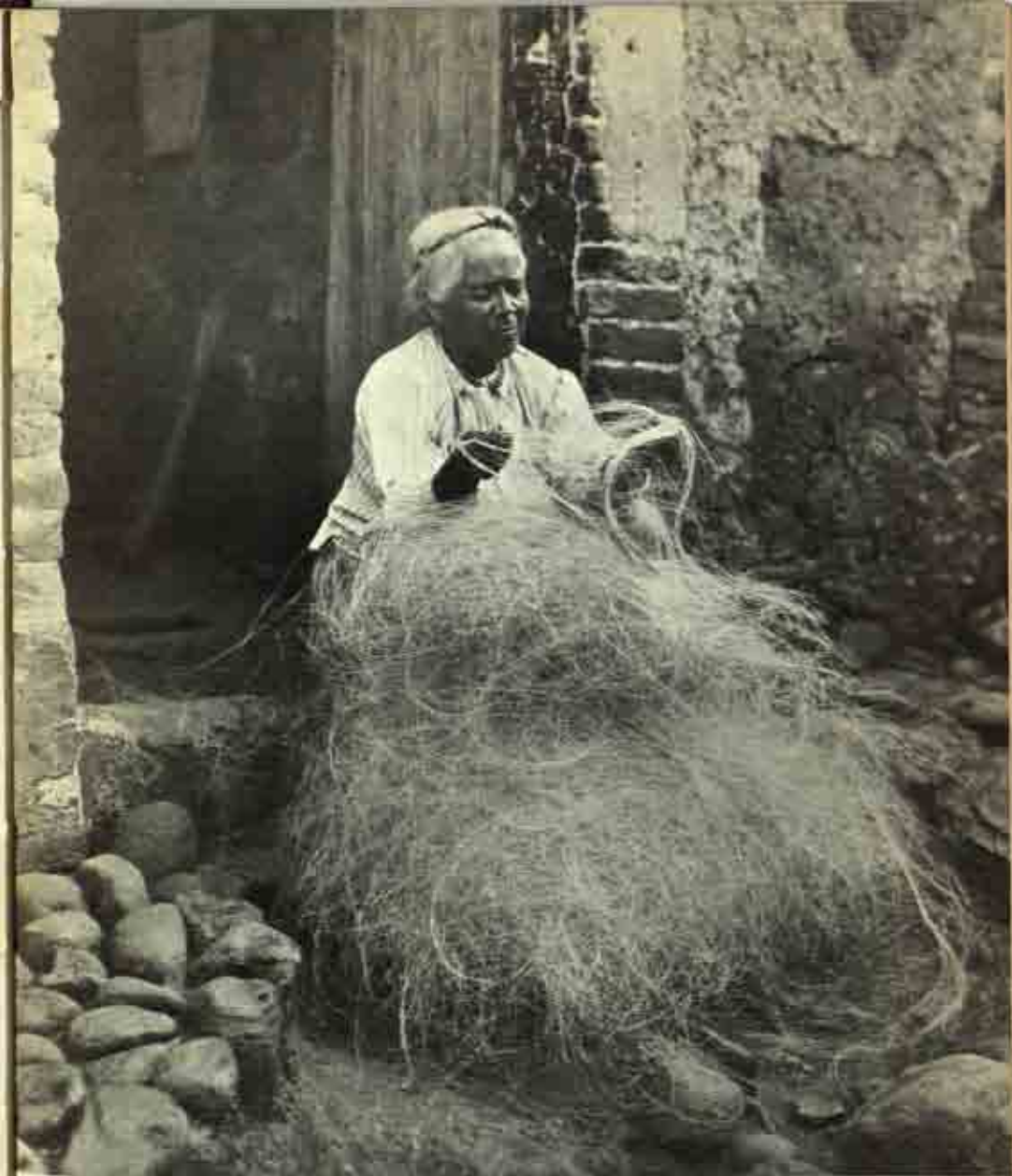
of young men in better methods of farming. When these young men complete their training, they must return to their villages and spend several years in helping and teaching the farmers. As you drive through Mexico you see hillside farms which are plowed not in straight furrows but in curves which follow the shape or contour of the hillside. This is called *contour plowing*. It prevents the rich top soil from being washed away. Such fields are an indication of the fact that one of the young men trained in a government school has given the farmer a lesson in soil conservation.

**Cattle-raising in northern Mexico.** The northern part of Mexico is a fairly level, dry plain. Some sections of it have enough water for irrigation, and crops such as corn, wheat, beans, alfalfa, and even some cotton are grown. Not many people live in the dry, parched lands of northern Mexico. Most of the land is divided into huge haciendas. Cattle-raising is the most important industry.

**Farming on the central plateau.** In the thousands of valleys that are a part of the great central plateau there are a great many small farms. As you already know, this is the part of Mexico in which most of the people live. Corn is the most important crop. If the land is irrigated, two or three crops of corn can be grown in a year. Beans, which are the main dish of every Mexican meal, are the second most important crop. Wheat, barley, peas, coffee, alfalfa, cotton, tobacco, onions, olives, figs, papayas, and even rice are grown also.

In some places methods of farming are not very different from those used by the early Mayas and Aztecs. The plow is usually a homemade wooden implement with a steel point for breaking the earth. Generally it is drawn by oxen. We saw oxen drawing such plows as we drove





Preparing maguey fiber for the manufacture of baskets and rope. This woman lives in one of the many small villages near Mexico City.

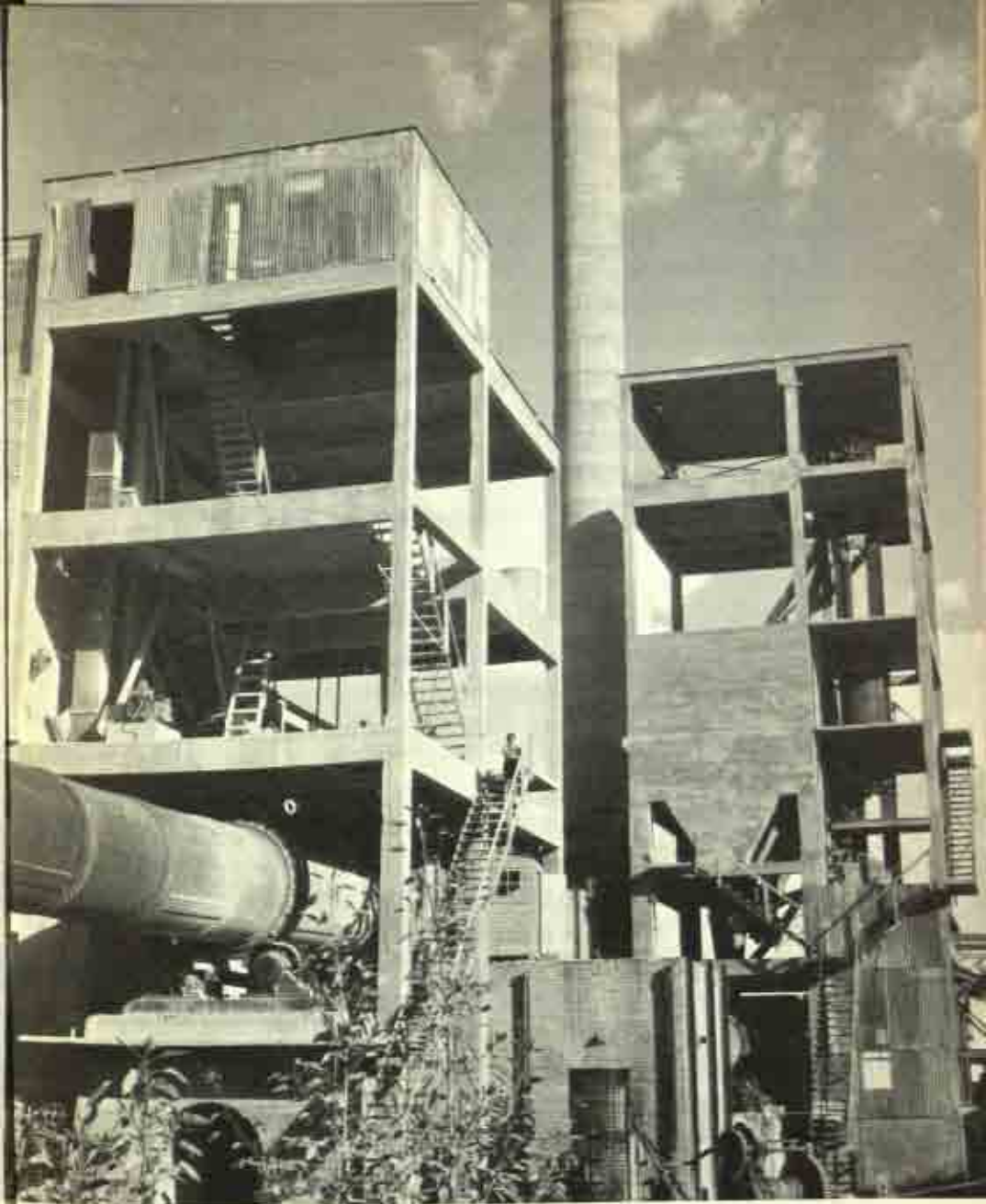
down from Monterrey. Sometimes the farmer uses only a wooden stick for breaking the ground. Seed is sown by hand and the ground is smoothed over the seed by the bare feet of the farmer or by the farmer's wife and children. This is the way the Mayas and Toltecs did their farming. Gradually these old methods are being replaced by better ones. The young farmers trained by the government are bringing about improvements.

**Maguey.** On the central plateau is one plant which is not grown in the United States—the maguey. It is a cactus. One cannot travel far in Mexico without seeing great long rows of maguey. It seems to grow almost anywhere and does not require any particular cultivation. It takes about ten years for the plant to reach its full size.

The leaves of the maguey contain a strong fiber which the Mexicans weave into cloth or twist into rope. The heart, or center, of the plant is sometimes cooked and eaten as a vegetable. The sap of the maguey is used to make a very intoxicating drink, but the Mexican government has been trying to discourage this use.

**Products of the eastern coastal plain.** In the vicinity of Veracruz are sugar and banana plantations which give employment to many people. Far to the south on the east coast of Mexico is the peninsula of Yucatán. Today Yucatán is of interest for its fine old ruins, which give us an idea of the beauty of Maya civilization, and for its great fields of henequin. Henequin looks very much like maguey. Its sturdy leaves give a fiber called sisal, which is used in making rope and twine.

Large parts of Yucatán are swamp and jungle. Dotted through the jungle are occasional small clearings where a few Indians live. The heat and rains make the low tableland of Yucatán uncomfortable for white people.



Lime is manufactured in this Mexico City plant.



The western coastland is not a farming region. On the Pacific side of Mexico the mountains drop abruptly down to the ocean. In general, the western coast line is not so low and hot. There is less rain than on the Atlantic side, which makes it a pleasant tourist and resort section. This is not a farming region.

Ancient Acapulco on the west coast is the port from which Spanish galleons once sailed for the Philippines. Now it is a popular resort. Other ports on the Pacific coast are almost equally attractive to vacationers.

**Mining.** Many Mexicans are engaged in occupations other than farming. In mining, especially in the silver mines, many men find employment. Hidden away in her vast mountain ranges Mexico has great deposits of minerals—zinc, tin, mercury, and iron—which are almost untouched. Many of these deposits are far from any good line of transportation, and their development must wait until means of bringing them out to the markets of the world are available.

Since the first Spanish adventurer reached Mexico silver has been pouring out of Mexican mines to other countries of the world. The country is the world's greatest producer of silver. Lead, gold, and copper are mined also.

**Manufacturing.** In the larger cities of Mexico there are factories for manufacturing cotton goods, shoes, cigars, flour, sugar, pottery, and glassware, and for packing meats. Mexico makes most of the cotton goods which her people use. The cities in which manufacturing is at all important are located in the eastern highland region of the country. In Monterrey there are extensive ironworks, and in Orizaba twine and fiber bags are made. Probably these two cities are the most important manufacturing centers outside of Mexico City.

**Hand crafts.** In Mexico much of the manufacturing is done in homes. Since the time of the ancient Mayas and Aztecs the people of Mexico have shown great skill in making things with their hands. A visit to a Mexican market place on any market day will show you dozens of things which the Mexican family manufactures at home. There are pottery jars and straw baskets and colorful serapes. Some of the serapes offered for sale may be cheap machine-made articles imported from the United States, but usually you will see the durable, warm, homemade kind, too. Leather belts, saddles, silver ornaments, furniture, and many other home-manufactured articles will be there for sale too.

**Oil fields.** On the eastern coast of Mexico is the city of Tampico. It is the center and the seaport for Mexico's oil. Most of Mexico's oil is shipped out of the country. Mexico has neither the automobiles nor the factories to use much oil. The country does not pump so much oil as Texas, but the industry gives employment to many people.

**Foreign money invested in the oil industry.** Mexico's oil industry was developed by foreign money, or capital. Companies in the United States and Great Britain invested their money in the oil fields, and the oil wells became the property of these foreign companies. In 1937 the Mexican government requested that the British and United States companies pay higher wages to the Mexican workers. When the companies said that they could not do this, the Mexican government took over the oil wells of many companies. The foreign companies protested vigorously. They did not feel that the Mexican government was just and fair. They had spent huge sums of their money in developing the oil fields when Mexico was too poor to do it herself.

The companies asked their home governments to tell the Mexican government that it could not hold their properties. The British government demanded that Mexico return the oil wells of the British companies. The United States government agreed that the Mexican republic had a right to take over the property, but it did not approve of its being taken without giving the companies a just and fair price for their holdings. It insisted that Mexico pay for the property it had seized. Mexico has already made some payments to the companies and has worked out plans with the United States for making full payment to all American companies.

## THE STORY OF MEXICO

**Early history.** You have already read something about the long history of Mexico. We use the word "long" because Mexico's history as the home of white men started long before that of the United States. The Spanish under Cortés arrived in Mexico as early as 1519. The first permanent English settlement was not made in what is now the United States until 1607, when the Jamestown colony was founded in Virginia.

We know how the white men swept aside and destroyed a part of the civilization which the Aztecs and the earlier Toltecs had built. We know how they entered Guatemala and Yucatán and conquered the Mayas.

**The viceroyalty of New Spain.** After Cortés came many officials, priests, and some settlers from Spain. In 1535 Mexico became the viceroyalty of New Spain. Some of the early viceroys sent from Spain tried to protect the natives, but gradually the lot of the Indians became worse. Finally, their rights and their welfare were almost com-



pletely neglected as the Spanish-born Spaniards, or *gachupines*, and the native-born descendants of the Spanish struggled for power.

The natives found a great leader and champion in Miguel Hidalgo, a native priest. For a time he succeeded in helping some of the Indians, but finally the Spaniards decided he was dangerous. They made him a prisoner and later shot him. Another native priest, Father Morelos, took his place, but he too was killed by the Spanish rulers. In 1821 the natives, aided by the Creoles, succeeded in freeing themselves from Spanish rule and declared their independence.

**Government under Juárez.** From 1821 to 1857 the history of the government of Mexico is the story of how first one army leader and then another overthrew the government and took control of the country. In 1859 Benito Juárez, an educated Indian, was recognized by the United States as president of Mexico. Juárez was the first pure-blooded Indian to rule Mexico since Moctezuma.

Juárez had many plans for the education and advancement of the Indians. His work was interrupted, but not for long, when the French took possession of the govern-



Benito Juárez. Mexican discontent over the distribution of farm land brought Juárez into leadership in 1857.

ment of Mexico and put the Austrian archduke Maximilian on the throne as emperor. Maximilian arrived in Mexico in 1864 and by July, 1867, the last of the French troops had withdrawn and Maximilian had been captured and executed. Juárez became president and remained in office until 1872. During this time he succeeded in doing many things to help the natives of Mexico.

**Rule of Díaz.** After Juárez came Porfirio Díaz, whose mother was an Indian. But Díaz took little interest in the lot of the common people. He kept control of Mexico, except for one brief period, from 1877 to 1911, ruling not as a representative of the people but as a stern dictator. His ambition was to develop the country. He opened Mexico to foreign capital. He sold the lands and mineral rights of Mexico to foreigners in order to get money for roads, railways, and factories. He gave millions of acres of land to his friends and thus built up his own following. Outwardly, that is, in the terms of railways, highways, oil fields, and factories, the country made great progress under Díaz, but the lot of the common people was as bad as it had been under the Spanish conquerors.

**Civil war.** In 1911 the indignant masses of people in Mexico decided that they could bear no more of this kind of government. Life had become intolerable for them, and since there were no true elections, their only way to get rid of Díaz was to drive him out by force. This they did. Then came nine years of civil war. First one leader, then another seized control. The names Francisco Madero, Victoriano Huerta, Venustiano Carranza, Pancho Villa, and Emiliano Zapata play an important part in this interlude of strife and destruction.

**Stable government restored.** It was General Alvaro Obregón who restored some degree of order and served as presi-

dent from 1920 to 1924. After Obregon came Plutarco Elías Calles (1924-1928) and others who gave Mexico years of fairly peaceful government. The most interesting of these later presidents is Lázaro Cárdenas, a mestizo who, like Juárez, was sincerely interested in improving the lot of the Indian. There are many stories of his honesty and of his untiring labors in behalf of his people while he was president from 1934 to 1940. He aroused the hatred of the great landowners of Mexico when he forced many of them to sell their lands to the government in order that they might be divided and distributed to the landless Indians. He alarmed many people in Great Britain and the United States when he took over oil wells, mines, and haciendas held by foreigners.

At the end of six years Cárdenas quietly withdrew from political life. Manuel Ávila Camacho became president of Mexico in December, 1940. The peaceful government of Mexico continues.

Our close neighbor, Mexico, is slowly finding her way toward democracy and peaceful, orderly government. Mexico and the United States are becoming better friends. We do not interfere in the affairs of Mexico but stand ready to help her if she needs assistance in developing her country, in exchanging articles of trade, and in building a defense which will keep out unfriendly nations.

Mexico is a land of extremes. Mexico is a land of extremes. Here, within a single nation, are found all the climates found in the United States and a few more in addition. There are the hot, tropical regions of the coastal plains and the barren, cold uplands of the mighty mountain ranges. There are the dry, dusty, barren plains of northern Mexico and the dense tropical jungles of the southeast.



## SOME THINGS TO DO

### A. Choose one of the following:

1. Write a short statement giving all the good reasons you can why many Mexicans are poor.
2. Write a paragraph or two telling why you believe a boy who lives in a small village in the United States has a better chance than a boy in Mexico to get an education, to make a living when he grows up, and to keep well.
3. Write all the good reasons you can to explain why Mexico is not a great manufacturing region.
4. Pick out a place in Mexico which you would like to visit and then write a paragraph telling why you chose the place and what you would expect to see there.

### B. Some questions to answer:

1. What is one reason why Mexico does not use more of the oil which it produces?
2. Tell some ways in which more and better railroads will help Mexico.
3. Why do you think Mexico has had a difficult time in establishing a peaceful, orderly government?
4. Name the most important industry of each of these sections of Mexico: northern Mexico; the east coast near Tampico; the central plateau.

C. Some members of your class may have friends who have visited Mexico. Possibly they have pictures of Mexico which they will lend you to place on the bulletin board in your classroom. And of course you can find news items about Mexico and pictures of the country in the newspaper. Some of these will be interesting to place on the bulletin board.

As you study other Latin American countries you will wish to make corresponding changes in your bulletin board display.

D. A Latin American scrapbook will be much worth while if you put in it only items and pictures that are really informing. Each country in Latin America should have a section.

Your scrapbook can be artistic. You might draw the flag of each country at the beginning of its part of the book.

E. There are many good motion pictures of Mexico and Mexican life. Here are some that you may like:

*Land of Mexico* (1 reel, 16 mm. and 35 mm., sound). A general survey of Mexico showing the coast and harbor cities, the mountain regions, and the great valley of Mexico City. The people are shown making their living.

*Mexican Children* (1 reel, 16 mm. and 35 mm., sound). A day in the life of a Mexican child.

*Mexican Silhouette* (3 reels, silent or sound). Begins with Mexico City and the pyramids; goes to the agricultural country and shows farming methods. There are scenes of modern Mexico.

*Rolling Down to Mexico* (2 reels, 16 mm. and 35 mm., sound). A trip by automobile over the Pan American Highway from Laredo, Texas, to Mexico City. Produced in 1937 by the Pan American Union.

F. Here are some books about Mexico which you may be able to borrow from the library. They will tell you much about Mexico and its people.

Burbank, Addison—*Mexican Frieze*; New York: Coward-McCann, 1940. Includes accounts of six Mexican villages visited by the author.

Decatur, D. D.—*Two Young Americans in Mexico*; Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1938. A story of two children and their parents who live for a time with a Mexican family.

Gaines, Ruth, and Read, Georgia W.—*Village Shield*; New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, 1917. Mexican social and political life as shown in a revolution.

Holmes, Burton, Ed.—*Mexico*; Chicago: Wheeler Publishing Company, 1939. The history, customs, and ways of living in Mexico. Illustrated with many photographs.

- Moon, Carl—*Tita of Mexico*; New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1934. Customs and manners based on history.
- Peck, A. M.—*Young Mexico*; New York: Robert McBride and Company, 1934. Shows Mexican life in the mountains and in the tropics. "A useful book for planning a special unit on Mexico."
- Purnell, Idella—*Pedro the Potter*; New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1938. The crafts of Mexico.
- Smith, S. C.—*Made in Mexico*; New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1930. Stories of making serapes, dishes, and toys. Also customs and legends related to Mexican art are included.
- Steinbeck, John—*The Forgotten Village*; New York: Viking Press, 1941. An effective presentation of life in a tiny Mexican village. Excellent photographs.



## CENTRAL AMERICA

**Map questions.** How many countries make up Central America? Which one is not a republic but a possession of Great Britain? Where is the chief range of mountains that crosses all the Central American republics? The prevailing winds are the trade winds, which blow from the northeast. On which coast of Central America would you expect to find the heavier rainfall?

**The region.** Nestled together on a bridge between the two great American continents lies Central America. Central America is really a part of the North American continent. At its widest this narrow neck of land which is Central America is no more than six hundred miles from one ocean to the other. In some places it is only fifty miles wide, but it is about a thousand miles long. About six million Latin Americans live in Central America in five small independent republics.

**History.** The history of Central America is much like that of other Spanish American colonies. It was in Central America that Mayas lived and built beautiful cities long before the Spanish knew there was a New World. Like the Aztecs of Mexico, the Mayas fell before the Spanish soldiers. For more than three hundred years Central America was part of the Spanish Empire.

When Central America gained its independence from Spain, it became part of Mexico, then a federation of five states; later it separated into five republics: Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica.



## GUATEMALA

If we were to travel south from Mexico, the first one of these republics we should reach would be Guatemala. Of course, all the Central American republics are small, but they are larger than many people think. Guatemala alone is nearly the size of Louisiana and has about the same population.

**The country.** Down the middle of the country runs a range of mountains which sends out spurs that cover most of the republic. In some parts the peaks of this range of mountains rise to more than eleven thousand feet. The country lies in the tropics, but, as you already know, temperatures drop as you travel up into the air. The uplands of Guatemala are cool and pleasant.

Along both the Atlantic and the Pacific coast are lowlands. On the Atlantic side Guatemala is almost cut off from the seaboard by territory which belongs to Great Britain and is called British Honduras. It was on the plains of this Atlantic seaboard that the Mayas once lived. Now the remains of their once beautiful temples lie almost buried in lush green jungle.

**The people.** The people of Guatemala are largely Indians. The Guatemalan people are not a united group. The Indian population is divided into many groups, each speaking a different language, although Spanish is the official language of the country. The languages differ

**Mt. Agua in Guatemala.** This volcano, whose name means "water," received its name from the fact that it destroyed the old Spanish capital by a deluge of water from its flooded crater.







An Indian woman weaving in front of her home

because for long years the Indians have lived on separate highlands and valleys, cut off to a great extent from one another by the high mountains. Even today many of them do not use money as a medium of exchange but carry on what little trade they have by barter. In recent years the government of the country has brought some of these isolated communities into touch with the rest of the country by means of government-supported schools and government-built roads.

**Farming.** About 20 per cent, or one fifth, of the land of Guatemala is used for farming. The government of the republic has a very active department of agriculture

which encourages the people to try farming and gives them advice and help and distributes seeds. Guatemala will probably become more and more an agricultural country, for she has much good land that can be cultivated.

In the valleys and on the mountain slopes of Guatemala there are more than two thousand plantations for growing coffee. Coffee is the chief export of the country. In the low valleys, particularly on the east coast and to some extent on the west coast, there are banana plantations. Bananas have not long been grown in Guatemala, but they are a very profitable crop. Most of the crop is shipped to the United States.

**Guatemala City.** There are famous Maya ruins in Guatemala. An airport has been built in the jungle that surrounds one group of ruins, so that it is now possible to fly directly to them from another part of Guatemala City.



**The city of Guatemala.** The city of Guatemala, which is the capital of the country, is the largest city in all Central America. This does not mean that it is very large compared with some of our American cities. Its 166,456 population is about equal to that of Hartford, Connecticut, or to that of Nashville, Tennessee. It has the reputation of being the cleanest city in Latin America.

**Transportation.** Like other Latin-American countries, Guatemala is not well provided with railways and highways. Most of the lines of transportation start on the coast and run up to the capital city of Guatemala. Highway connections between the different countries of Central America are poor. For instance, there is a highway between Guatemala City and El Salvador, but it is so poor that it takes at least seven hours to cover the one hundred ten miles by automobile. Between Guatemala and Honduras there is neither highway nor railway. But each year more highways are built.

Guatemala is connected with Mexico by the Pan American Highway. When this international highway is finished it will bring Central America closer to the United States. The airways now furnish the best means of travel in Central America. The Pan American line connects the United States and Mexico with Guatemala and other Central American countries.

## EL SALVADOR

**The country.** Next in our line of travel come Honduras and El Salvador. The two republics lie side by side just south of Guatemala. The little republic of El Salvador is pinned to the Pacific side of Central America and has no Atlantic seaboard. On the map El Salvador looks very





small indeed. The only Latin-American republic which is smaller is the Republic of Haiti. Actually El Salvador is a little larger than our state of Maryland and has about the same number of people.

San Salvador is the capital and the largest city of the republic. It has almost as many people as the city of Sacramento, California.

**The people.** For many centuries the region that is now El Salvador did not attract the Spanish conquerors. Because it was midway between the colonies that were settled by people who came north from Panama and those that were settled by people who came south from Mexico, it seemed far away to the colonists. Moreover, there were no precious metals to tempt the Spaniards to endure hardships to reach this part of Central America.

Now more than three quarters of the population is either Indian or of mixed Indian and white blood. The people take an active interest in their country. Most of them have given up their Indian dialects and speak Spanish.



A view of San Salvador from a hotel window

**Products.** Two mountain ranges travel down the full length of the country. The plateaus and valleys between the ranges are pleasantly cool. On the plateaus and in these valleys agriculture is carried on. Practically every inch of good farming land is used. Coffee, cacao, tobacco, indigo, rubber, and a kind of hemp are grown in considerable quantities for shipment to other countries. Coffee is the principal agricultural product; it makes up about 90 per cent of the exports from the country.

**Transportation.** Railways, waterways, and highways link the upland region of El Salvador with the Pacific coast.



## HONDURAS

The country. On the Atlantic seaboard just south of Guatemala and opposite El Salvador lies another Central American republic. It is third in our story of Central America, and it is the third largest of the Central American republics. It is only a little smaller than the state of Mississippi, but it has less than half the number of people.

Honduras also has a backbone of mountains which stretch over a good part of the republic. In the southern part of the state these mountains rise to more than ten thousand feet. They spread out to give the country many fertile plateaus, grassy plains, and large rich valleys of good farm land. On the highland plateaus there are products such as grow in our United States in the Temperate Zone.





**Tegucigalpa.** A gold mine and its concentrator, where impurities are washed from the ore

The capital and chief city, Tegucigalpa, has an elevation of about three thousand feet. Its location is a beautiful one, in the midst of mountains, and its climate is one of the most comfortable climates of the Central American capitals.

Bananas the chief crop. The most important crop in Honduras is bananas. Honduras is sometimes called the "banana republic." On the lowlands along the Atlantic coast there are many banana plantations. Bananas thrive also in the rich, hot, wet lands which extend inland from the coast for from fifty to seventy-five miles. It is estimated that 80 per cent of all the bananas that are imported into the United States come from Central America, and

Honduras furnishes a large proportion of them. It is probably the greatest banana-producing region in the world.

**Minerals.** The country has considerable mineral wealth. There are gold and silver mines which have been worked since the time of the Spanish conquerors. There are known to be deposits of copper, lead, mercury, and other metals which are not at the present time mined to any extent. When more and better highways are built, more mines will be opened.

**Mahogany.** From the forests of Honduras comes the fine mahogany wood. The cutting of mahogany is different from most other lumber industries because mahogany trees do not grow in groves or in forests. The giant mahogany trees are found, a single tree here and there, over a wide area. This means that the companies which cut and ship

Clearing land owned by a fruit company. The tractor is pulling up a mahogany stump in a banana grove.





One of the two extremes of transportation—the oxcart. Remote places where commerce or industry is important are reached by freight and passenger airplanes.

mahogany have to "hunt" for the trees. The leader of a group of cutters climbs a tall tree from which he can spot a mahogany tree in the distance. If he does, the cutters hack their way through the jungle to reach the tree. Once the tree is cut, there is the problem of hauling it to the nearest stream or of cutting it up in such a way as to transport it down to the coast. Fortunately, though most of the mahogany trees grow in the highlands, they are in regions near the ocean.

Agriculture and cattle-raising. The country has the be-



ginnings of a good cattle industry; it has much fine pasturage. When transportation lines are available it may become an important agricultural and stock-raising region. The government is doing all it can to encourage farming and stock-raising.

**Transportation.** Honduras is greatly handicapped by the lack of good transportation. Its capital city of Tegucigalpa is without railroad service, but it has a good highway that connects it with the Pacific coast and with Caribbean ports. There are some railroad connections with other Central American countries, but the country as a whole is not well served. All together the railroads of the country total only about eight hundred miles. Some of the lines are operated by fruit companies to haul the bananas, which are such an important part of our trade with Honduras.

**Education.** Recently the government has given considerable attention to education. Primary education is free and compulsory for children between the ages of seven and fifteen. But, of course, as in most Latin-American countries, there are not enough schools to serve all the children. Some children live so far away from any school that it is impossible for them to attend. There are about nine hundred fifty schools for children of the younger ages. There are higher schools like our high schools which are open to children who can pay the cost and who can reach them.

Also, the government is trying to teach the adults of the country how to read. It is providing night schools which are held in school buildings, barracks, stores, and prisons. Groups of teachers and lecturers are sent into the most isolated and remote parts of the country to teach the Hondurans how to read and write.



## NICARAGUA

**The country.** South of Honduras and El Salvador lies Nicaragua, which is the largest of all Central American republics. It is almost as large as our state of Florida, and it has almost as large a population.

The same chain of mountains that serves to give a temperate climate to parts of Guatemala, El Salvador, and Honduras crosses Nicaragua and spreads out to give the country a cool mountainous section. Sloping eastward from these mountains is a broad coastal plain which runs down to the Caribbean. Here temperatures are high and there is heavy rainfall.

**Products.** Along the banks of one of the principal rivers on this hot, steamy Atlantic coastal plain are many banana plantations. The river furnishes transportation for the

bananas when they are taken down to the Caribbean for shipment to the outside world. Also, many coconuts, oranges, and pineapples are raised, but most of the food used by the people who work on the banana plantations is shipped in from the United States.

On the western slopes of the mountains coffee, sugar cane, and cacao are grown; they are sold to other countries. Coffee is the leading crop of the country. It is on the western slopes of the mountains that most of the population of the country lives. The high plains of the western half of Nicaragua provide excellent pasturage to cattle, and many hides are exported.

**Minerals.** Nicaragua has many possibilities in mineral supplies. There are gold mines which have been in operation since the time of the Spanish and which are now worked by American and British companies. Gold is the most important mineral export. There are known to be

**The airport in Managua**





deposits of copper, coal, oil, and precious stones, but as yet these resources are but little developed owing to the poor transportation facilities.

**Transportation.** There are few good roads in the country, and travel from the eastern to the western section is difficult. A few hundred miles of railway link the Pacific coast with the capital city of Managua and with the boats which steam back and forth on Lake Nicaragua.

The government of Nicaragua, like the governments of other Central American republics, is trying to improve its highways, and each year sees some extension in roadways.

**The people.** The mountains, which run down through the center of Nicaragua, not only furnish a barrier to transportation, but they also divide the people of the country into two groups. The people of the eastern half of Nicaragua take little interest either in the development of their country or in the improvement of their own condition. The people of the western half of the country take a livelier interest in the affairs of their nation. They make up about three fourths of the population. Probably because the western half of the country is higher and therefore cooler, these people of the western section are more industrious and more interested in developing and improving their country.

**Education.** There are several hundred elementary schools in Nicaragua, and all children between the ages of six and fourteen are supposed to be enrolled in them. But actually only about three out of five children are in a school of any kind. Some children are too far away from any school to attend. Some belong to families that are too poverty-stricken to provide their children with the clothes and proper food for school attendance. Still



Lake Managua, one of Nicaragua's two large lakes, both of which drain into the Caribbean

others, especially the Indians in the eastern section of the country, are indifferent to opportunities for an education. There are a few secondary schools, or high schools, and three universities in the country. However, more than half the people can neither read nor write—a condition which the government hopes to correct.

A Nicaragua canal. To those of us who live in the United States, Nicaragua is an important country. The government of the United States has long discussed the building of a canal across Central America, and the favorite route for it is through Lake Nicaragua. Lake Nicaragua is nearly equal in size to our states of Delaware and

Rhode Island combined. It is one hundred miles long and about forty miles wide and lies only twelve miles from the Pacific Ocean. The building of the Nicaragua canal has been discussed since 1826. Treaties have been written and abandoned. Companies have been formed and have worked for a time building the canal and have then given up the project. But the people continue to talk about a canal through Central America.

Many different routes for a second canal have been discussed, but most of them provide for the building of a channel from the Atlantic Ocean to Lake Nicaragua with passage through this large lake and then a short canal from the lake to the Pacific Ocean. In 1916 Nicaragua and the United States signed a treaty which gave the United States the perpetual right to build such a canal. If at some future date the Panama Canal cannot carry the heavy trade between the Atlantic and the Pacific, it may be necessary to open another waterway, and probably it will go through Nicaragua.

## COSTA RICA

**The country.** The southernmost republic in Central America is Costa Rica. It lies between Nicaragua and the republic of Panama. If you were in an airplane exactly over the middle of Costa Rica, it would be very easy on most days to see both the Pacific and the Atlantic Ocean. It is a small republic about the size of our state of West Virginia, but it has only about a third as many people.

Costa Rica, like the other Central American republics, has a backbone of mountains. The double range of mountains is high enough to give variety to the climate.





On the Atlantic seaboard there is a low, hot, wet, and unhealthful coastal plain where it rains practically every day, and the vegetation is dense and tropical.

The central part of this narrow little country is an upland with some mountain peaks which rise to the height of ten thousand feet or more. This mountain upland is the home of about three fourths of the population of the country. The climate is cool and pleasant.

On the Pacific side of the country the mountains slope sharply down to the ocean. There is no wide coastal plain such as there is on the Atlantic coast. However, there is a narrow strip of warm lowland, but it does not have as much rain as the Atlantic coastlands.

**The people.** The people of Costa Rica are descendants of the early Spanish colonists and Indians. Most Costa Ricans are white, but all of them—Spanish, Indians, and mixed-bloods—live together in peace and harmony. The

Indians are peaceful and industrious, and the whites are as much interested in the welfare of the Indians as they are in their own. This spirit helps them to get along very well together and makes their country one of the most democratic nations in Latin America. Also, they take great interest in their government. It is considered the duty of every citizen to vote at election time. The people are required by law to use this important privilege of selecting their officials and leaders.

**Farming.** Costa Rica is a country in which almost all the people earn their living by some type of farming. Practically every man in Costa Rica is a landholder. The government has arranged this by preventing anyone from holding extremely large estates.

**An automatic banana loader on its way to the ship's hold with bunches of bananas brought to the ship by railway**



**Products.** The three great crops of Costa Rica are coffee, bananas, and cacao. Coffee ranks first when it comes to shipping products out of the country. Bananas come second, and cacao brings in considerable revenue. These three crops make up 95 per cent of all the products shipped out of the country.

As you may guess, the banana land is in the tropical lowland along the Atlantic coast, where it is hot and wet. This is one of the great banana regions of the world. There are some banana lands on the Pacific coast, but most of them are new plantings. In years to come more and more bananas may be produced on the Pacific coast.

The coffee which grows well in the upland region of Costa Rica finds a good market in both the United States and Great Britain. About half the people of the country make their living from their small farms by growing coffee.

Costa Rica grows other crops—sugar, rice, corn, and beans. Most of these products are used locally and little is shipped out of the country.

The country has thousands of acres of good pasturage. Stock-raising is already important as a source of food for the Costa Rican people, and many bales of hides are shipped out of the country.

**Forests.** There are great tracts of heavily forested land which have never been cleared. From these forests excellent woods for the making of fine furniture are obtained. Mahogany, cedar, and rosewood are shipped out of the country and are also used in Costa Rica for manufacturing furniture.

**Mines.** Some of the gold mines that were opened by the Spanish are still being worked. Gold is probably the most important mineral now mined in Costa Rica. Cop-



per is also mined and exported. There are important deposits of manganese, mercury, and silver, but most of these are as yet undeveloped.

**Transportation.** Costa Rica has better transportation facilities than some of the Central American countries. It has a railroad which runs from the Pacific across to the Atlantic. Of course, this is only sixty miles, but it makes a very convenient line of transportation for travelers and for shipping supplies. All together the country has about four hundred fifty miles of railways, including branches and sidings. There are sixteen rivers of considerable size in Costa Rica, and several of them can be navigated by small craft for some miles inland. The small boats traveling on Costa Rica's rivers help to bring out the products which are raised on the plantations. The country is connected with the United States and Europe by regular steamship lines that carry passengers and freight to Limón, an important port on the Atlantic, and to Puntarenas on the Pacific.

Within the last few years the government of Costa Rica has made considerable progress in building highways. As better highways are being constructed, more automobiles, buses, and trucks come into the country.

**Government.** Since Costa Rica gained its independence it has been far more peaceful than the other republics of Central America. Its present constitution has been in operation with only a few changes since 1871. The peace of the little republic has been disturbed by few revolutions or overthrows of the government. The people of Costa Rica have used their government to develop their country and to improve the condition of all the people.

**San José.** San José, the largest city of Costa Rica, is its capital. The city lies on the central plateau of the coun-



The post office in San José

try. It is a Spanish type of city, but it is modern, having electric lights, paved streets, libraries, and schools. It is served by the transcontinental railway which runs from the Pacific to the Atlantic. Most of life in Costa Rica is patterned after Spanish customs.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Guatemala has been called both the "Egypt of America" and "Tropical Switzerland." Give reasons why these are good names.

B. In which one of the Central American countries would you like best to have your home? Why? In which would you like best to spend a vacation? Why?

C. Motion pictures of Central America:

*Central America* (1 reel, silent). A general survey showing scenery and occupations.

*Picturesque Guatemala* (2 reels, 16 mm. and 35 mm., sound).

Shows the hot tropical lowlands and the cool mountain region, the banana and coffee industries, scenes from villages and cities. Produced by the United States Department of Agriculture in co-operation with the Pan American Union.

*Yes, Bananas* (1 reel, sound). Shows the banana industry.

D. These books will not only entertain you but will also tell you much about life in Central America:

Burbank, Addison—*Guatemala Profile*; New York: Coward-McCann, 1939. The account of the experiences of an American artist in colorful Guatemala. Contains many pen-and-ink sketches.

Coatsworth, E. J.—*Boy with the Parrot*; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Modern Guatemala with its background of ancient civilization.

Lee, M. H.—*At the Jungle's Edge; A Boy and a Girl of Costa Rica*; New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1938. The story of two Indian children who live with their grandfather on a cacao plantation. Much information about the cocoa industry.

Lee, M. H.—*Children of Banana Land*; New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1936. Life on a banana plantation.

Lee, M. H.—*Volcanoes in the Sun; A Boy and a Girl of Guatemala*; New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1937. Rosa and Ciro live on a coffee plantation.

Skinner, Constance L.—*Tiger Who Walks Alone*; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927. Revolutions in Central America.





## PANAMA

**Map questions.** In which direction would you travel if you went through the Panama Canal from the Pacific Ocean to the Atlantic Ocean? Although it does not show on this map, find the name of the lake that forms a large part of the canal.

The republic of Panama is the southernmost section of the bridge of land between North and South America. It connects Colombia, from which it was separated in 1903, with Central America. Actually it is only a little farther south than Costa Rica because here the land twists and curves so that the country lies east and west. On the north of the republic of Panama is the Caribbean Sea and on the south the Pacific Ocean. So if anyone asks you, "In what direction does the Panama Canal run?" do not say, "East and west." The canal runs northwest and southeast. The entrance on the Caribbean side is twenty-seven miles west of that on the Pacific side.

The land area of the republic of Panama is about equal to our state of Indiana, and its population outside of the Canal Zone is about the same as that of Minneapolis, Minnesota. Only about one person in twenty is white. The rest of the population is Negro, Indian, Oriental, or of mixed blood.

**Importance of Panama to the United States.** To the people of the United States the region of Panama is extremely important because it is the home of the Panama Canal. This water route is our life line between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Also it is of great importance to the west coast of South America.

**Crossroad between the Atlantic and the Pacific.** Ever since the year 1513, when Balboa hacked his way through the jungle to wade out into the waters of the great Pacific and claim for the king of Spain not only the Pacific Ocean but also all the land which its waters touched, Panama has been an important crossroad between the Atlantic and the Pacific. Just three years after Balboa's discovery the city of Panama was founded. Little did Balboa or the Spaniards who followed him realize how important Panama was to become to the rest of the world. To them the word Panama meant an abundance of fish, while to us it means a highly important short cut from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean.

**Commerce in the time of the Spanish Empire.** Shortly after Balboa came Pizarro, who conquered the huge Inca Empire and turned it into the viceroyalty of Peru under the control of the Spanish crown. Then Panama became an important center at which was collected the wealth of the great Inca Empire for shipment to Spain. It was to Panama that huge cargoes of gold, silver, and emeralds stripped from the temples of the Incas and precious



Over this bridge near Panama City passed Henry Morgan and his pirates to the capture and sacking of the first city of Panama, in 1671.

metals taken out of Inca mines were brought for transshipment to Spain. Also it was to Panama that Spain brought goods to be distributed among her colonies on the west coast of South America. The ships from Spain came in to Porto Bello, which was the seaport on the Caribbean, or Atlantic, side of Panama. Early in the history of Spanish control a stone-paved highway was built from Porto Bello to Panama City. For hundreds of years commerce between the west coast of South America and Spain was dependent on this rough cobblestone highway. For a time the city of Panama outshone Lima, the capital city of the viceroyalty of Peru, in its importance to trade.





A dredger at work in the Panama Canal. The channels are watched carefully to keep them navigable.

When the city was destroyed in 1671, it was promptly rebuilt within six miles of its present site. Today a railroad and the canal take care of the cargoes which were once carried across this narrow strip of land on the backs of Indians or on burros.

**Transportation.** The government of the United States has almost completed an automobile highway across the isthmus in the Canal Zone. The dense jungle and heavy tropical rains have made the construction of the highway slow work, but when it is completed there will be three ways of crossing Panama—water, rail, and automobile.

**The Canal Zone.** The Canal Zone includes the Panama Canal and a five-mile strip of land on each side. It is under the control of the United States War Department. The city of Panama lies on the Pacific side of the Canal Zone, and the city of Colón at the Atlantic entrance to the canal. Each of these cities is controlled by both Panama and the United States, and each has a twin city which is controlled entirely by the United States. Near Panama City is Balboa and near Colón is Cristóbal. The United States government has its headquarters for the Canal Zone at Balboa.

In normal times about five thousand ships go through the canal every year, and each one pays a toll for the privilege of using the man-made waterway. The average toll is about four thousand dollars.

**How the people earn a living.** The trade of the Panama Canal in one way or another furnishes a living for most of the people living in the republic of Panama. The country quite literally lives on the business which is brought in by the canal. The United States pays the government of Panama \$430,000 a year as rental for the zone. Also it pays more than twenty-eight million dollars a year to the people who work in the Canal Zone, and this does not include the pay of army and navy men who are stationed there. A large part of this money is spent in the shops and business concerns of Panama.

**The country.** The rough backbone of mountains which runs through Central America spreads out to become two low mountain chains in Panama. There are many mountain valleys and plains where there are good pasture lands and fine farm land. The mountains are heavily forested.

The lowlands along both coasts are hot and wet. Panama is one of the wettest regions in the Western Hemi-

sphere. The year is divided into two seasons, the rainy season and the dry season. The rainy season lasts almost eight months—from April to December. Even the dry season is not without showers.

The soil in Panama is rich, and rainfall is abundant, but only a small part of the land is used for farming. In fact, half of the country is uninhabited. Along the low, hot coasts bananas are grown by some of the fruit companies of the United States. Other tropical vegetables and fruits are raised in this region but not in large quantities. In fact, there is not sufficient farming to raise the foods which are needed in the country itself. Large quantities of food are imported from the United States and other countries.

**Panama City.** The silver balboa is the principal coin in Panama.





**Sanitation.** Everywhere in the low regions of Panama the jungle crowds in, making much of the country a trackless green wilderness infested with snakes and insects. The heat and the dampness make the climate unhealthful. Hot tropical swamps are ideal breeding places for mosquitoes, which carry both malaria and yellow fever. This is one of the reasons why the United States has control of all sanitation and health matters in both Panama City and Colón as well as throughout the Canal Zone itself. Workers from the United States have succeeded in making the Canal Zone and these two cities healthful places in which to live in spite of the tropical climate. They have cleaned up the swamps which breed mosquitoes, and they constantly watch the water supply to keep it clean and pure.

**Minerals.** There are rich deposits of gold, copper, iron, and salt, but mines are just beginning to be developed. Panama has been so busy handling trade between other countries that it has not felt the need for doing much of anything else.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Continue your bulletin board display. You will find many newspaper items about Panama and the Panama Canal.

B. Read in other books accounts of the health difficulties encountered in building the Panama Canal and be ready to tell the class the story of overcoming them. Include in your story the names of at least two men who were important in carrying out the construction of the canal.

C. A good motion picture of the Panama Canal is:

*Panama Canal* (1 reel, 16 mm., silent). An Eastman film showing the work of constructing the canal and the locks.

- D. Books that you will enjoy reading:
- Bishop, Farnham—*Panama, Past and Present*; New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938.
- Bond, A. R.—*Pick, Shovel, and Pluck*; New York: Scientific American Publishing Company, 1931. The engineering feats involved in building the Panama Canal.
- Johnson, Enid—*Runaway Balboa*; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1938. Life in Panama and the effect of the canal there.
- Nicolay, Helen—*The Bridge of Water*; New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1940. The story of the Panama Canal.
- Nida, Stella H.—*Panama and Its "Bridge of Water"*; Chicago: Rand, McNally & Company, 1931.

## THE ISLAND REPUBLICS OF THE CARIBBEAN

**Map questions.** Why is the United States interested in naval bases and airports for fighter planes and bombers in the West Indies? Name the large islands of the Greater Antilles. What group name is given to the smaller chain of islands in the West Indies? What three Latin-America republics are in the Caribbean? Which two republics share the same island?

**The West Indies.** Now we shall visit the Caribbean, which is in many ways a world of its own. In the Caribbean Sea between North and South America there are thousands of islands. We call the whole group the West Indies. On two of the larger islands, Cuba and Hispaniola, are three independent countries. All the rest of the islands belong either to Great Britain, the Netherlands, France, the United States, or Venezuela.

Great Britain has thousands of islands in the Caribbean. Most of them are small. Her possessions include the Bahamas, Jamaica, the Leeward Islands, the Windward Islands, Barbados, and Trinidad. In addition to this, Britain has possessions on the mainland. They are British Honduras in Central America and British Guiana on the north coast of South America.

The French have six small islands under their control and one other, St. Martin, which they share with the Netherlands. Probably the French island we hear most about is Martinique. France also has a little piece of the mainland, French Guiana, in South America.



In addition to the island it shares with France the Netherlands has five other islands. Three of them are just off the coast of Venezuela. The Netherlands controls Dutch Guiana on the mainland.

The United States possessions in the Caribbean include Puerto Rico and the American Virgin Islands.

Venezuela has two small islands off her northern coast.

**Importance of the Caribbean to the United States.** If you will look at the map and note how the islands of the West Indies form a great crescent extending from the tip of Florida to the northern coast of South America, you will have an idea why the United States is always interested in what happens in the Caribbean. The islands almost shut the Caribbean Sea off from the Atlantic Ocean and thus form a natural line of defense for the Panama Canal and the Gulf of Mexico. In addition to this they make a convenient starting point for warships, fighter planes, and bombers if the United States is ever called upon to help defend some country of Latin America from invaders.

**Defense bases.** In 1940, after World War II had started in Europe, the United States secured permission from Great Britain to use certain British islands for defense purposes. In exchange for fifty overage destroyers or fighting ships the British government gave the United States the right to use eight different areas for building air fields and naval bases. Seven of them are in the Caribbean region—Trinidad, Jamaica, Antigua, St. Lucia, Mari-guana (in the Bahamas), Bermuda, and British Guiana, which is on the mainland of South America. The eighth base is in Newfoundland, which is not a part of Latin America and therefore has nothing to do with our story.

The Netherlands, another friendly European government, gave the United States permission to use Dutch

Guiana on the mainland of South America as a base. Now the United States has built many naval and air bases in the Caribbean. So you see the life and safety of the Americas are very closely related to what happens in the Caribbean.

Now we must return to our story of Latin America and to the three Latin-American republics—Cuba, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic.



## CUBA

The largest of these island republics and the one which lies closest to the United States is Cuba. It occupies an island all by itself. It is about the size of our state of Pennsylvania. It is long and narrow. At no place is it more than one hundred twenty miles wide. Its greatest distance is from east to west, which is about seven hundred fifty miles.

**The country.** Across the island run several mountain

chains which spread out in various directions to cover a large part of the land. Between these mountain ranges are a number of fertile, healthful plateaus and valleys where most of the farming of the little republic is carried on.

There are many rivers which flow down from the mountain ranges to the surrounding ocean waters. These rivers are on the whole too short and swift for navigation. Those that can be navigated at all can be used for a short distance only.

The climate of Cuba is varied. Although the island lies under the hot, tropical sun, the climate is in general pleasant and moderate owing to the sea breezes which blow over it and to the closeness of all parts of the island to the ocean. Then, too, the mountains help to give large parts of the country sufficient altitude to modify tropical temperatures.

As in most tropical countries, there are no sharp distinctions in the seasons. Really there are only two seasons—a dry season lasting from December until April, when the weather is usually cool and pleasant, and a wet season from May until November, when it is very warm and steamy.

Many Americans know Cuba as a delightful place in which to spend a vacation. The beautiful natural scenery and the fine winter climate attract many thousands of tourists from the United States each year.

**The people.** The republic of Cuba is the home of more than four million people. At least 27 per cent, or more than a quarter of them, are Negroes; and if you count the people who have some Negro blood, you will have to say that from 60 to 70 per cent of the Cubans are at least part Negro.





Carts drawn by triple ox teams bring cane from the sugar plantation to the refinery.

The Negroes of Cuba occupy many important posts in the government and other walks of life. About a third of Cuba's army is made up of Negroes; and if we include those who have some Negro blood, about 70 per cent of the army is colored.

"The sugar bowl of the world." Cuba is called "the sugar bowl of the world." About 85 per cent of what the country exports is sugar. So most of the people in Cuba earn their living either by growing sugar cane, by working in the mills where the sugar cane is turned into



The beautiful capitol in Habana, among the palm trees

sugar, or in some other occupation connected with the sugar industry. About two thirds of the people live either on sugar plantations or on farms.

**Transportation.** Cuba has about two thousand miles of coast line and many excellent harbors. Since it is near the United States, many steamers travel between the two countries each week. There is a daily ferryboat from Key West, off the tip of Florida, to Habana,<sup>1</sup> the capital and principal city of Cuba.

<sup>1</sup> In English this name is often spelled Havana.

The island itself is well served by railroads. The principal railway runs east and west, lengthwise of the island. Highways and motor travel have been so well developed that the railways are used only for carrying heavy freight. In fact, the railway has difficulty competing with the truck and bus services.

The island has two thousand miles of excellent highways. They were built by the government and are maintained by the government. There is a great central highway which runs east and west the length of the island. Extending from this beautiful and excellent highway are many short feeder roads which connect all parts of the country with the main highway. Over it go most of the passengers and most of the products of the island.

Cuba is also well served by airways. Habana is an important center for air travel. Planes arrive and depart many times each day. There are planes from the United States, from Puerto Rico, from Panama, from the west coast of South America, and from the east coast of South America. The airways bring the little republic within a few hours' distance of the principal cities of the United States.

**Education.** Cuba has all the equipment for a system of schools, but because of the lack of funds and teachers the educational system is not in complete operation. Children between the ages of seven and fourteen are required to attend school. In the cities and towns most of the children of these ages do go to school at least for a short time, but in many of the rural sections there are children who have never been inside a school building. Sometimes their parents are too poor to furnish them with proper clothing for school. Again, some of the parents are too ignorant either to know or to care much about education. Then



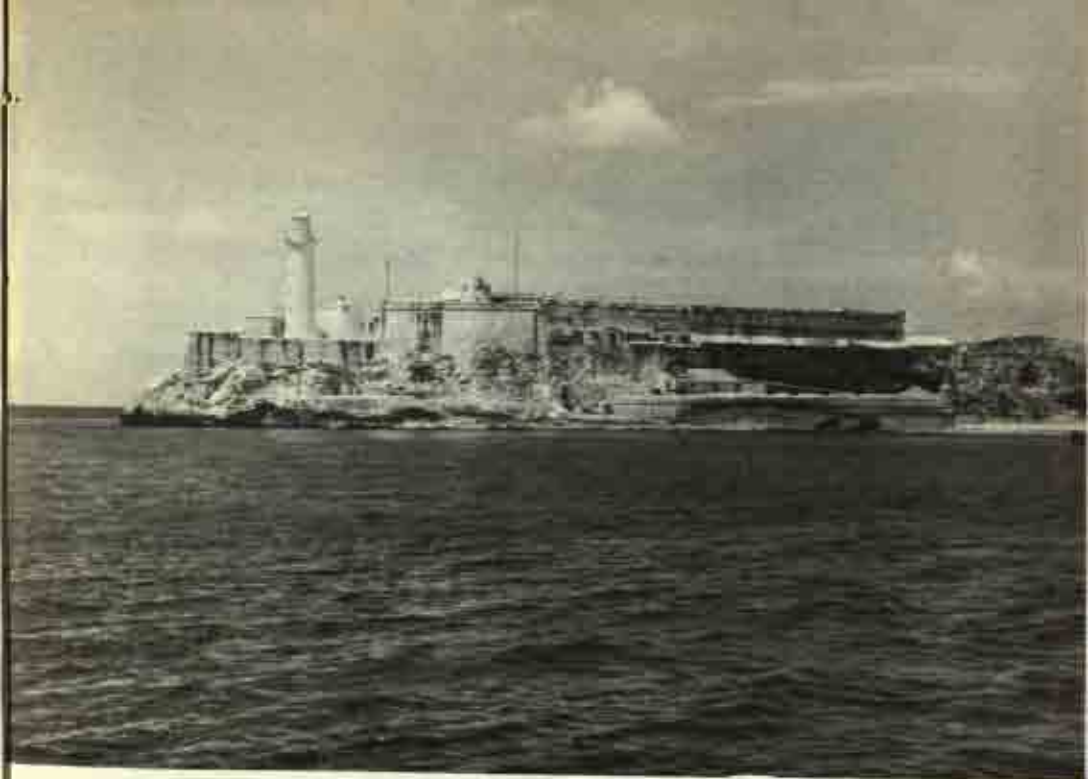
there are many parents who would like to send their children to school, but unfortunately the government has not provided schools and teachers for their neighborhood.

Consequently there are not only many children out of school but there are also many adults in the republic who can sign their names only by making a cross because they are unable to write. Each year finds Cuba improving the education of its children.

**Cuba's story.** Columbus landed on the island of Cuba October 28, 1492, on his first voyage to the Americas. In a few years the island became an important center from which the Spanish sent out expeditions to the mainland of the Americas. It was from here that Cortés made his start for the conquest of Mexico.

**Habana, the port of treasure ships.** When the gold and silver and other wealth began to drain out of Mexico and Peru toward Spain, Cuba's seaport, Habana, became a gathering place for Spanish treasure ships. It was at Habana that Spanish ships leaving for Europe with the cargoes of wealth from the New World stopped to take on water and provisions and to make final preparations for their long return trip to Spain. The Spanish treasure ships always sailed out of Habana in fleets and were protected by warships. In spite of this they were never quite safe from French, Dutch, and British raiders. Warships from these countries even tried to capture Habana. The English did gain possession of it for a short period of time, but it was retaken by the Spanish.

Today Habana is a city of over a half million people. Besides being the commercial and government center of Cuba, it is important in the manufacture of cigars and cigarettes, and it also finds that the care of tourists is quite profitable.



Morro Castle, an old Spanish fort in Habana harbor

The United States in Cuba. Though Cuba began its struggle for independence early in its history, it was almost eighty years before it became an independent nation. The people could not quite free themselves from Spanish control until the United States went to war with Spain in 1898. At the end of the Spanish-American War, Spain gave up the island of Cuba and it came under the protection of the United States. The United States restored order, cleaned up the island so that it was a healthier place in which to live, and then turned the government over to the Cubans themselves. The Cubans inaugurated their first president in 1902. We shall learn more about the government of Cuba later in this book.



## HAITI

Haiti is the smaller of the two nations that together share the island of Hispaniola, but it is the most densely populated country in all the Americas. Also, it is one of the few Negro nations in the world and the only French-speaking republic in the Americas.

**The country.** The republic of Haiti occupies the western third of the island. The country is about the size of our state of Vermont, but it has almost eight times as many people. It has about twice as many people as the Dominican Republic.

A large part of the island is mountainous, but most of the people live on the plains along the coast and in the valleys which extend inland between the mountain ranges. They are huddled together on small farms from which they make a living, but a very poor one.

Haiti has a tropical climate. The temperature along the low coastal plains where most of the people live and farm is high and unpleasantly warm for us. Not only is the climate warm, but because of the frequent rainfalls it is also humid and steamy.



The temperature does not vary much from one season to another. It is usually between 70° and 85°. The rainfall varies greatly in different sections of the country. Since the rain comes with the prevailing winds, which are from the northeast, most of it falls on the northern and eastern parts of the island. The leeward side, or side away from the wind, has far less moisture. This is true of all tropical islands. The trade winds, which blow steadily from the northeast, bring the rains. On all the islands the windward side is wetter than the leeward side.

**Products.** Coffee is the principal crop of the island. It grows well on humid mountain slopes on the windward side of the island and makes up about 72 per cent of the

**The public square in Port-au-Prince, the capital and chief port of Haiti. Port-au-Prince was founded in 1749, and in 1770 it was made the capital.**





One of Haiti's highways

total exports of the country. At best, the people of Haiti never have anything better than a poor living, but when the price of coffee is low they really suffer.

Cotton, sugar, sisal (which is used for the making of twine), and bananas are also produced in considerable quantities and are shipped out of the country. Banana-growing has increased rapidly in the last few years. In time Haiti may have several crops to sell to foreign countries, so that she will not remain the one-crop country she has been in the past.

**Education.** Ever since Haiti declared her independence the people have tried to build a complete educational system, but the little republic has been so disturbed by upsets in the government that it has not been able to make much progress in education. There have not been sufficient

funds to build more than a fraction of the schools that are needed. Today only about one Haitian in ten knows how to read or write.

**Transportation.** Railways are neither extensive nor important in Haiti. Such railways as exist are used largely for hauling freight. It is the highways that furnish the best transportation routes. There are about thirteen hundred miles of gravel and dirt roads which link the principal cities of the country.

**Health.** As in all tropical countries, the problem of maintaining good health is a very serious one. During recent years the government of the republic has done much to improve health conditions. It has organized medical schools for the training of health workers, has opened hospitals, has supervised the water supply, and has carried on campaigns against disease. Also, the government inspects houses and markets to see that they are clean and sanitary. It sees that swamps are drained to prevent the breeding of mosquitoes, which carry disease germs. Haiti has made great progress in public health, but there is still much to be done.

**Haiti's story.** After Columbus discovered the island, it was soon settled and ruled by the Spanish. The Spanish forced the Indians to labor for them, but it was only a few years until the Indians almost disappeared; either they ran away, were killed in battle, or died of the hard labor to which they were subjected. Spain then imported thousands of Negroes from Africa to work on the plantations, and so began the process which today makes Haiti a Negro republic.

**French rule.** After the Spanish obtained a foothold in Mexico, Peru, and other parts of the mainland of the Americas, they lost interest in Haiti. They turned it over,



by treaty, to the French. The island was under French rule for more than two hundred years. That is why its people speak French today.

Under French rule Haiti became one of the most prosperous colonies in the West Indies. Its rich farm land produced large quantities of sugar, indigo, cotton, and coffee for France. Today the government of Haiti is trying in every way to make it a rich agricultural land once again.

*Revolt.* But the Negroes of Haiti grew restless under French rule. The struggle for independence started in 1791. A Negro slave, Toussaint L'Ouverture, who had risen to the position of general in the French army of Haiti, took control of things and had himself elected governor of the colony for life. The French sent soldiers from France to regain control, and after much bloodshed the Haitians were defeated and their leader was captured.

*Republic established.* After the revolt was over, the French were determined to re-establish Negro slavery, which had been abolished, but soon there was another revolt. Again the uprising was led by a Negro who was a general in the army. After a bitter struggle which lasted about a year the French government finally gave up and withdrew its troops. In January, 1804, the Negroes declared their independence and took again the Indian name of Haiti for their country. Dessalines, their Negro leader, became emperor. He ruled from 1804 to 1806.

*United States interference.* The revolution destroyed the wealth of the land, and from 1804 to the present day the people of Haiti have struggled to re-establish orderly government and to regain their lost prosperity. Several times after the country gained independence, conditions became so bad that the United States had to help restore



Christophe's Citadel, perched high on the coast of northern Haiti. Christophe, Negro king of Haiti, ruled from 1811 to 1820.

order. Some Latin-American countries have not liked the United States for interfering in this way, but we can understand why our government thought it better to take a hand than to stand aside and let some European country take over the little republic while it was weak and disorganized. At least the United States gave the people of Haiti some help in making the island a healthier place in which to live. When order had been restored, they gave the control of the island back to the Haitians.



## THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

The eastern two thirds of the island of Hispaniola is, you know, occupied by the Dominican Republic. This republic gets its name from the first European settlement in the New World, the colony of Santo Domingo, which was planted by Columbus.

The Dominican Republic is almost as large as our state of West Virginia with a population only a little greater than that of Detroit, Michigan. The proportion of Negroes is not quite so large as in Haiti. About 15 per cent of the population is white. The language is Spanish instead of French.

In 1930 a violent hurricane swept over the eastern part of Hispaniola. It destroyed nearly all of the capital city of Santo Domingo, oldest European settlement in the New World. When the city was rebuilt it was renamed Ciudad Trujillo. Besides being the capital, Ciudad Trujillo is the largest city in the Dominican Republic.

How the people earn a living. Most of the people of the Dominican Republic earn their living by farming. About





Cacao pods growing on the tree. The cacao tree grows in a number of Latin-American countries. The pods are yellow and contain numerous seeds.

five sixths of them live in rural areas. Sugar is the most important crop grown on the farms. Of the products shipped out of the country sugar brings in more than half the money. Cacao is the next important product, and

coffee is becoming more important but is greatly overshadowed by the large production of sugar. Coffee, molasses, tobacco, and corn are exported also.

**Farming.** Lately the government has tried to stimulate farming and place more land under cultivation. It has distributed land among individual owners so that more people may have farms. It has provided tools and implements and has distributed large quantities of seeds and plants. But the republic depends largely on one crop, sugar. When the sugar crop is good and prices are high, the country prospers, but if the sugar crop is poor and prices are low, the country is apt to have a difficult time. The government has carried on a campaign to encourage farmers to grow more rice, cotton, bananas, and other products. Also there has been a considerable increase in the raising of livestock. Most of the meat which is produced is consumed in the republic itself, but some hides and skins are exported.

**Industries.** There is some manufacturing in the Dominican Republic, but most of it is related to the agricultural products. Sugar cane is made into sugar. There are lumber mills, cigar and cigarette factories, chocolate factories, soap factories, match factories, dairies, canneries, and some shoe factories, as well as one or two clothing plants and a meat-packing plant. But all these industries are small, and almost all the products are used on the island.

Mining is of very little importance, although some gold is exported. There are some deposits of iron, nickel, and copper, but there are none of importance.

**Transportation.** One of the great needs of the Dominican Republic is better transportation. There is a fertile interior valley which is well adapted to growing many products, but it is of little value so long as these products



A Santiago sugar refinery. Santiago is the second largest city in the Dominican Republic.

cannot be moved out to markets. In recent years some progress has been made in building a highway, but the country is rough and rugged and the building of bridges and highways has therefore been expensive. The building of railroads has never received much attention, and now that highway development has started, railway construction will probably never be extensive.

Harbors which will give the island republic connection with the rest of the world have attracted the attention of the government. The Dominican Republic has a long coast line, but unfortunately there are many coral reefs and deltas. The deltas are formed by silt deposits of the rivers. These barriers have made it necessary to do considerable dredging before ocean-going vessels could enter any harbor.

**Health.** The Dominican Republic has a health depart-



ment as a part of its government. Excellent work has been started in improving health conditions, but much remains to be done.

**Education.** Only a small proportion of the children of the Dominican Republic attend school at all, and most of these go through only the first three grades. The government is giving more attention to schools, and in time education may be extended to more of the children of the republic.

**The story of the Dominican Republic.** The beginning of the story of the Dominican Republic is the same as that of the republic of Haiti. First came the Spanish to settle in the town of Santo Domingo, founded in the year 1496 by Columbus' brother. Later the island was ceded by Spain to France. The people in the eastern section of the island—in what is now the Dominican Republic—broke away from France in 1814 and returned to Spanish control.

In 1821 they grew tired of their Spanish government, shipped the Spanish governor back to Spain, and declared themselves independent. But they were not independent for long. Just one year later, in 1822, troops from the western end of the island, Haiti, took over the eastern end. For twenty-two years the dictators of Haiti ruled the whole island with a firm and cruel hand.

It was not until 1844 that the Haitians were finally driven out of the eastern end of the island and the Dominicans regained their independence. Their funds were exhausted, and they lived in constant fear of the Haitians. Finally, at the request of a few of their leaders, they again became a Spanish colony. But this lasted only a few years, from 1861 to 1865, and once more they became independent.

*Unrest.* The lack of good transportation facilities, of a good educational system, and of a satisfactory public-health program is due to the many revolts which have taken place in the republic. Trouble with Haiti and many uprisings against its own government have kept the little republic in an unsettled state and have exhausted its funds and destroyed both property and man power. From 1844 to 1904 the republic had more than twenty presidents despite the fact that one of these men ruled as a dictator for fourteen years.

### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Make up a one-word quiz program about the island republics and test your class. Here are sample questions:

1. What language is spoken in Haiti?
2. What state of the United States is about the same size as Cuba?
3. What is the name of the island which is shared by Haiti and the Dominican Republic?
4. What island is called the "Pearl of the Antilles"?

B. In your art class make a pictorial map of the island republics to show the important products of each republic.

C. The Pan American Airways, New York City, has some sound films that give information about the Caribbean and the West Indies. You may write to them for information on how to secure their films. We suggest:

*Rio Cruise* (1 reel, 29 min.)

*South by Sky* (1 reel, 40 min.)

D. A book which you may enjoy reading:

Ditmars, Raymond L.—*The Forest of Adventure*; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933. A good adventure story, which tells of a scientific exploring party in the West Indies and in the jungles of northern South America.





You know that Brazil lies in the Torrid Zone, where the sun is directly overhead most of the year. Also you know that altitude, or elevation, lowers temperatures. With these two facts in mind look at the map and pick out the section of Brazil where you would expect the largest number of people to live. Where is this region?

Brazil is larger than the United States. Brazil, a federation of twenty states, is the largest of the Latin-American nations. This territory measures twenty-six hundred miles from north to south and even more from east to west. It is in itself almost a continent. It is larger than the forty-eight states of the United States. It is twenty-seven times the size of the British Isles. It takes up nearly half of the South American continent, and half of all the people in South America live there. Portuguese, not Spanish, is the language of the forty-three million people of Brazil.

So great is the United States of Brazil that it includes many varieties of life, climate, and scenery. In spite of its great size three fourths of the Brazilians live within a hundred miles of the Atlantic coast. We shall find out why so many of them have chosen the rim of the country for their homes. The geography of the country will give us the reasons.

*The three regions.* Climate, rainfall, and surface features divide Brazil into three regions. These three natural regions are: the great Amazon River Basin, or valley; the semi-arid, or dry, northeastern section; and the central and southern coastland plateau, or uplands region.

**The Amazon River Basin.** Like many things about Brazil, the great low tropical valley of the Amazon is surprisingly large. It is a region almost equal in size to the

whole continent of Australia, or about a million square miles larger than all Europe if we leave out Russia. Most of the land for great distances on either side of the mighty Amazon is a dense, thickly matted forest. This tropical jungle stretches from the source of the river in the Andes of Peru to the Atlantic Ocean, a distance of four thousand miles. Forests of magnolias, live oaks, water oaks, palms, and tangled vines form a high and almost solid green wall on either side of the river. The Amazon is the largest river in the world.

As you may imagine, this huge Amazon Basin is not thickly populated. It has very few large cities. The principal city of this region is Manaus, which has about ninety thousand people. Manaus marks the heart of the region which gave us the rubber tree and which still gives the world some rubber.

In the south and southeastern parts of the Amazon valley region are some highlands which rise a few hundred feet above sea level. They are not high, but the climate there is not quite so damp and hot as that in the rest of the valley. There is good pasture land here, and many cattle are raised. If sometime in the future this highland region is connected with the coast by good transportation lines, it may become an important cattle-raising and agricultural area.

In the Amazon valley the rainfall averages seventy-nine inches a year. This rainfall is not evenly distributed but ranges from fifty-seven inches in the highlands we have just mentioned to one hundred twelve inches, or almost twice as much, along the Amazon River. Seldom is it cooler than 70° in any part of the great river basin.

The combination of heat and moisture makes the great Amazon Basin a difficult place in which to live. But the



Spraying plantation rubber trees with insect poison

uncomfortable climate has not kept white men out of the region. Men of many different nationalities have pushed up the Amazon and have floated down its tributaries and branches. They have studied the products of the region in an effort to search out their secret values.

*The rubber industry.* Between 1890 and about 1912 there was a great boom in rubber. Rubber trees were found growing wild in this section of Brazil, and stations for collecting the sap of rubber trees were opened in the far corners of the Amazon Basin. Towns and cities such as Manaus were built a thousand or more miles up the river. Then the rubber business collapsed.

There is an interesting story to explain why it collapsed.



It did not collapse because something happened to the rubber trees. Nor was it because there suddenly ceased to be a market for rubber. In fact, as more and more automobiles were being manufactured in the United States there was a greater and greater need for rubber. It was slow and therefore expensive to send natives through the forests searching for wild rubber trees to tap. An Englishman named Henry Wickham believed that rubber could be produced much more cheaply if the trees were grown on plantations, or farms.

*Plantation rubber competes with Brazilian rubber.* Wickham's idea was a good one, and he wrote a book about it. The British government asked him to bring some rubber seeds to England to see what could be done in the way of starting young trees. Wickham collected about seventy thousand seeds of the healthiest and best rubber trees he could find in the Amazon region, and took them to London.

In London the government emptied one of its great public greenhouses of all its plants to make room for Wickham's experiment. The heating apparatus of the greenhouse was carefully adjusted to reproduce the moist, hot climate of the jungle. It was not long before some of the seeds sprouted. Finally there was a large number of seedling rubber trees ready to be taken to British Malaya, in Asia. Malaya has a jungle region with a climate much like that of the Amazon Valley. In Malaya the trees were nursed along, and finally great plantations, or farms, of rubber trees were started.

*The rubber industry in Brazil collapses.* The rubber men in Brazil who were facing fever, snakes, and starvation in order to bring out great black balls of rubber knew very little about what the English were doing. Then



Unloading rubber at Belém, or Para, a seaport at the east mouth of the Amazon

quite suddenly, about 1912, plantation rubber from Malaya was offered in great quantities at lower prices than Brazilian rubber. The rubber gatherers of Brazil could not compete, and so the rubber business in Brazil collapsed.

When the Japanese conquered the British forces in the Malay Peninsula in 1942, the rubber supply of Great Britain and the United States was cut off. About 97 per cent of our rubber supply came from Malaya. It was a severe blow to the United States, which depends so much on automobiles for transportation.

*Rubber production today.* The people of the United States began to ask about the rubber from the Amazon region. Many of them were surprised to learn that Henry Ford had been busy there for a number of years. Deep in the Amazon jungle the Ford company holds about two and a half million acres of good rubber land where many millions of young rubber trees are growing and are well on their way toward production. Though it may be several years before this rubber is placed on the market, there is not much doubt that many American automobiles will some day roll on American rubber. Brazil may again become one of the important rubber-producing countries of the world.

*Other products of the Amazon Basin.* The great boom in rubber at the beginning of the twentieth century did a service to Brazil and to the rest of the world. It served to make men familiar with the Amazon region. While they searched the forests for rubber trees, they discovered numerous other products useful in trade—vegetable ivory, useful oils from various nuts, fibers, and herbs. They found timbo, a vine which provides rotenone, an insect poison. This poison is used by gardeners and farmers in the United States and saves millions of dollars of farm crops. Even though the rubber industry which first brought many men into the Amazon region is not so active as it once was, many men have stayed to do other work and more men have come in to join them. Manaus is today nearly twice as large as it was in 1900.

*Transportation.* The Amazon Basin is so huge that many parts of it are little known even today. Regular steamship lines take travelers up the Amazon and up some of its tributaries. Travel inland away from the rivers is extremely difficult because in the low swampy jungle



there are few highways or railroads. Roads are being built, but the rivers will probably continue to be the main route of travel through this region for a long time.

So dense and unknown is part of the Amazon Basin that, when Theodore Roosevelt discovered an unmapped river a thousand miles long during an exploring trip in 1914, the people of Brazil didn't believe the river existed. They called it "the River of Doubt." Later the government of Brazil sent out explorers to see if there really was such a river. When they found that it really existed, they named it in honor of Roosevelt and placed it on the maps.

The airplane may be another means of opening up this section. The Pan American Airways is planning a route over the Amazon Basin from the West Indies to Buenos Aires. Once transportation has opened up the region, probably scientists will find many valuable products not yet known to us, and white men may find some way to live here in comfort. It has been suggested that the falls and rapids in the many great rivers of the Amazon Basin may some day be used to produce electric power which will enable men to build air-cooled cities. In other words, this great Amazon Basin which is the heart of Brazil is a region of the future.

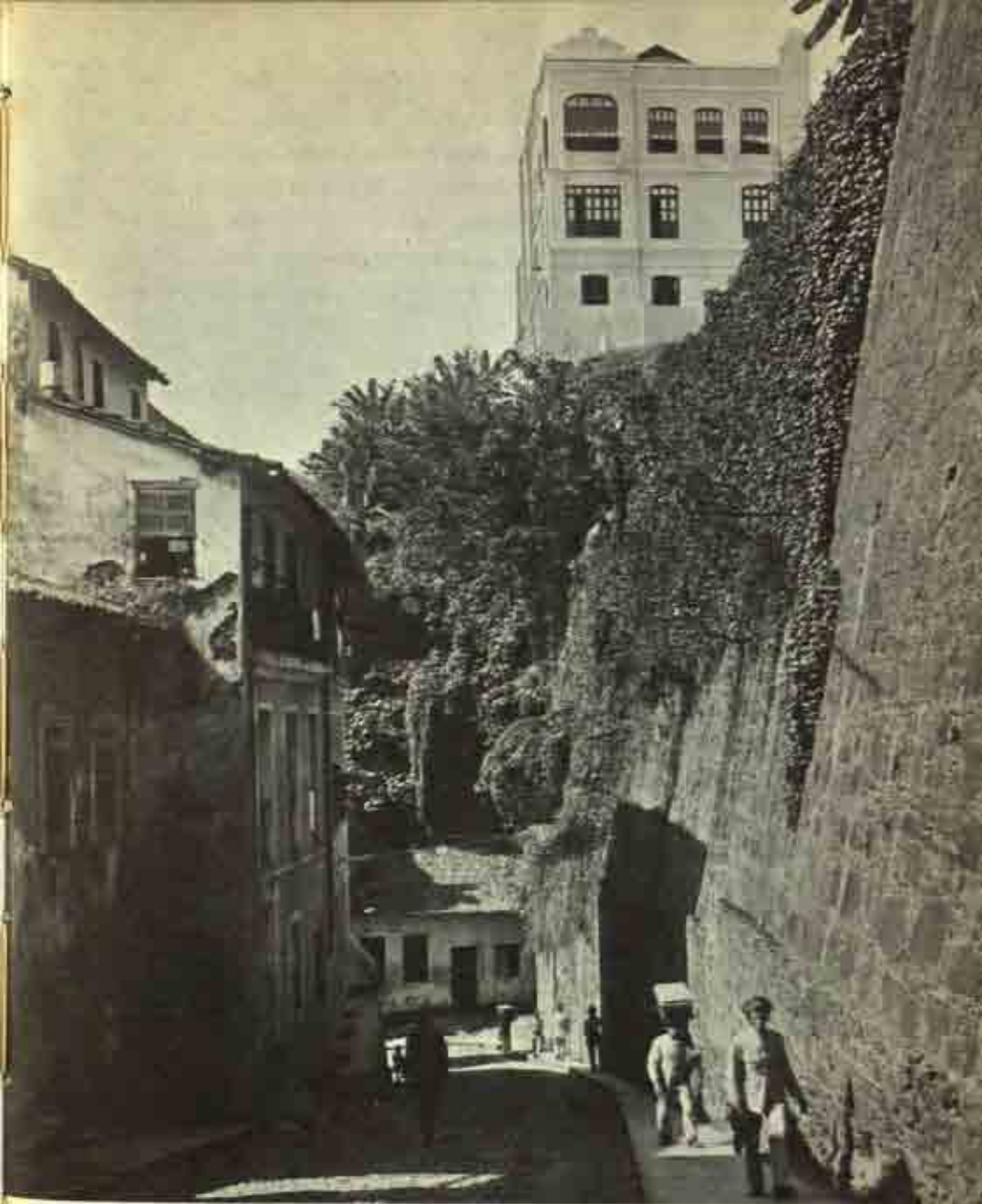
**Northeastern Brazil.** In the second region of Brazil—the dry section of the northeast—there is much scrubland such as we find in the semi-desert section in the western part of the United States. There is considerable rainfall in this part of Brazil, about fifty-eight inches each year, but it is not distributed through the year. For this reason during the long dry season farmers must irrigate their land in order to grow crops. This section is even hotter than the Amazon Basin. The average temperature is about 78°. The atmosphere is not so damp as in the

Amazon Valley, and it is therefore a more comfortable place in which to live.

*Products of northeastern Brazil.* In the irrigated sections of this territory cacao, cotton, sugar cane, and tobacco are grown. Also there are forests of palm trees which furnish valuable oils and a kind of wax known as carnauba wax. This wax is very important to the people of the United States. You may never have heard of it, but we use it to make phonograph records, carbon paper, varnishes, and shoe polish. Brazil is the only country that exports it.

If we stop at the city of Pernambuco—we should call it Recife, since that is its correct name—we shall see ships from many parts of the world taking on loads of sugar and cotton. Just south of Recife but still in the northeastern section is São Salvador, once called Bahia. If we had time to visit the country around São Salvador, we could see many great cacao plantations. Cacao seeds furnish us chocolate and cocoa.

*Brazilian uplands.* The third geographic division of Brazil is the central and southern coastland plateau, or upland region. Here live more than half the total population of the nation and most of the white population. It is one of the largest upland regions of the world, rising from one to three thousand feet above sea level and covering many thousands of square miles. The altitude of these uplands helps to cool off what might otherwise be another hot tropical region. The average temperature is 68° and seldom does the thermometer go higher than 77°. The cool, even temperature of this region has made it attractive to settlers. There are but few frosts, and they are very light. The southeast trade winds blow in from the ocean and bring ample moisture for farming.



One of the sloping streets in São Salvador



*Products of the uplands region.* Many products grow in this upland region—corn, beans, rice, sugar, and cotton. In the southern third of the region there is considerable cattle-raising. In the northern two thirds of this upland region coffee is by far the most important product. This is the region of the famous coffee plantations in Brazil.

*"The coffeepot of the world."* Possibly you have heard Brazil called "the world's coffeepot." This is not a bad name for the country because half of her trade with foreign countries is based on the coffee which she exports.

Brazilian coffee is very important for the people of the United States, who probably are the world's greatest coffee drinkers. About half the coffee shipped out of Brazil finds its way to the United States. In normal times enough coffee comes into the United States each year to give every person in the nation twelve pounds of coffee, or about five hundred cups, a year.

*São Paulo.* A large part of Brazil's coffee comes from one state, São Paulo, which is in this coastland uplands region. The state of São Paulo has thousands of large and small coffee plantations, which are called *fazendas*. One of the coffee plantations at São Paulo is so large that it employs about six thousand people. It has its own highways, railroads, and warehouses.

*Santos.* Santos is the city from which most of Brazil's coffee is shipped. In this city are huge warehouses where coffee is stored. If you were to approach Santos at certain times of the year, you might smell coffee far out at sea. That might be because Santos was burning the extra coffee which was left on its hands. In some years Brazil burns more than one third of her huge coffee crop.

*Reducing the coffee surplus.* Brazil produces so much coffee that it has become something of a problem. The



Coffee in Santos on its way to the ships

coffee plantations yield in one year about twenty-one million bags of coffee, each weighing one hundred thirty-two pounds. Only about sixteen million bags can be sold even in good years when there are no wars in Europe. So you see Brazil has coffee left on her hands. She has been forced to burn her extra coffee. This is such a great waste that men are trying to find some way either of reducing the amount raised or of using what is left over. A committee of men representing all the Americas has been trying to work out an agreement on how much coffee should be grown, not only in Brazil but in other Latin-American countries which produce coffee. Such an agreement would help to reduce the surplus.

Another solution of the problem of surplus coffee may be that of finding new uses for coffee. Only recently a

scientist has invented a plastic called *café lite* which can be made out of coffee. Plastics are used in the making of many articles which otherwise would be made out of wood, rubber, or metal.

Still another way of solving Brazil's coffee problem may be that of developing a greater variety of industries so that the exports of the country will not depend so much upon one product, coffee. For one thing, the country might give more attention to manufacturing. Of course, with labor directed into other channels the amount of coffee grown could be reduced without causing unemployment.

*Gold, diamonds, iron.* This upland region was once famous for its gold-mining. It also has diamond mines, which have been important for more than a hundred fifty years. These mines still yield many diamonds. One of the richest iron-ore deposits in the world is located in this region, but it has not as yet been fully developed. There are now plans for the United States to help Brazil build the highways and railroads necessary to open up the iron-ore mines.

*Agricultural products of Brazil.* It is quite appropriate to think first of coffee when you think of the products of Brazil. But we must remember that Brazil produces many things besides coffee. Her products include cotton, cacao, tobacco, rice, sugar, fruit, wheat, corn, barley, rye, potatoes, beans, and cattle as well as coffee. Brazil is still very much an agricultural nation. This is true, although only 4 per cent of this huge country is actually under cultivation.

*The people.* In recent years large colonies of Italians, Germans, and Japanese have been established in the southern part of Brazil. There have never been many British



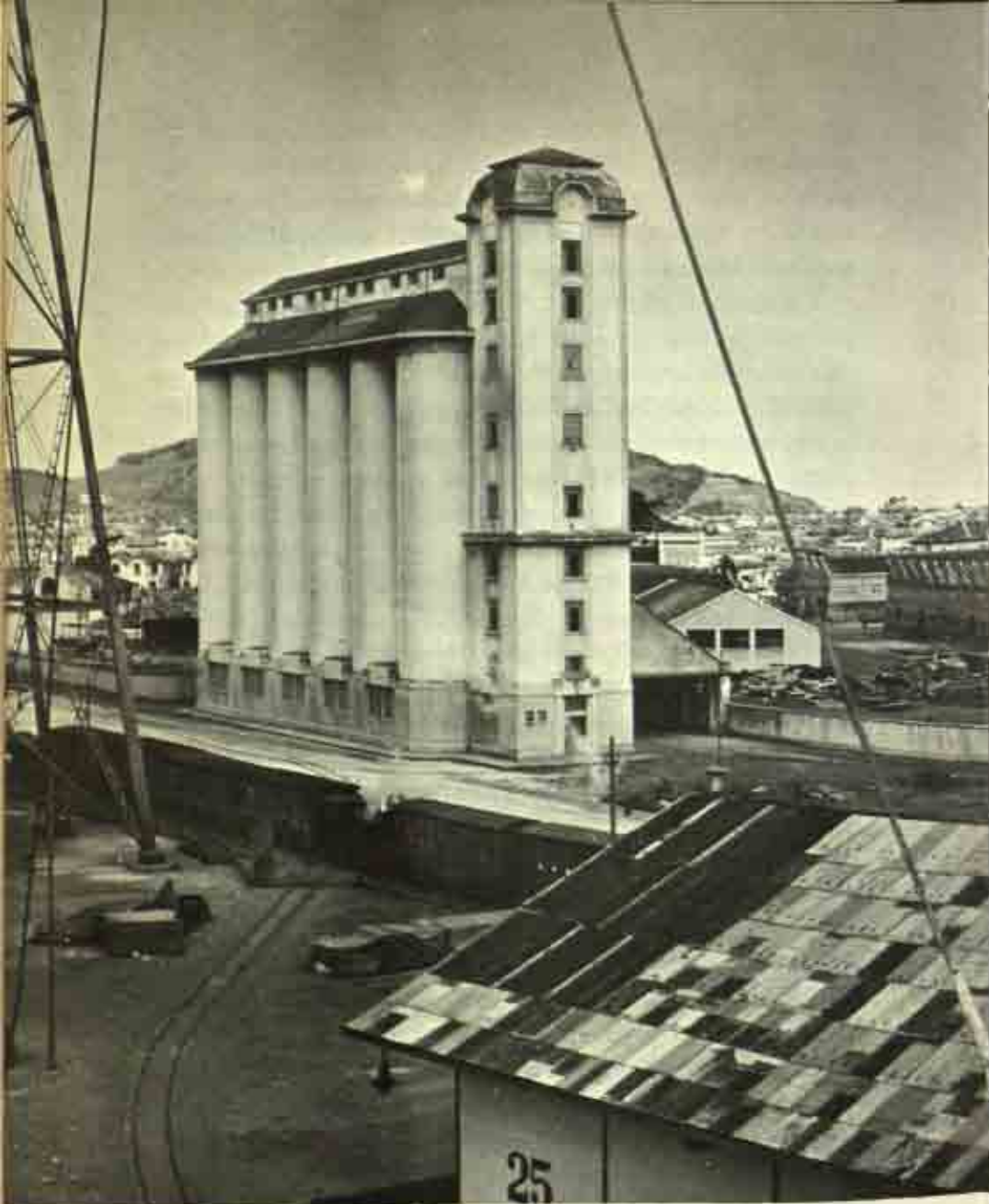
or Americans in the country. About six tenths of the more than forty million people of Brazil are white, and most of these are of Portuguese descent. About three tenths of the population are Negroes and mixed-bloods, and one tenth are jungle Indians.

The Indians of the northeastern section played an important part in the early history of the country and are treated with respect. Of course, many Indians live in the little-known lands of the Amazon Basin. There they live in houses made of bark tied together with vines, travel about in homemade canoes, and hunt with bows and arrows. They are scarcely touched by the white man's civilization or way of living.

**Education.** In the cities and towns near the coast there are many good schools. There are secondary and trade schools to carry forward the training of children after they finish the grade school. Attendance in grade school is compulsory in some of the states of Brazil, but there is no national law requiring school attendance. The children that live in the interior of the country, in small communities cut off by tangled jungles, or in other isolated regions have little opportunity to learn to read and write.

**Transportation.** Most of the railroads operate in the more open parts of Brazil, along the coast where the majority of the people live. Travel by rail is slow. Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo are only two hundred fifty miles apart, but it takes about eleven hours to make the trip by train. There are many miles of highway in the coastal regions, but a long trip by automobile is still difficult.

In the Amazon Basin travel is almost entirely by water. Ocean steamers can travel the nine hundred thirty miles from the sea up the Amazon River to Manaus. Both sides of the river are flanked by unexplored jungle. It probably



A grain elevator on the water front at Santos

will be a long time before many forest roads or even trails will be cut through lands along the Amazon and its tributaries to permit travel inland. The Paraguay and Paraná rivers also permit travel into the interior of the country.

**Rio de Janeiro.** "Beautiful" is the word to describe Rio de Janeiro, within whose fine harbor there was once (1939) said to be room enough for all the navies of the world. The city is built on flat land and low wooded hills with a beautiful background of mountains. The mountains are connected with the city by attractive drives. Along the mountain drives are lookout points famous for their fine views of the city and its harbor.

Along the bay is a boulevard paved with tiny pieces of colored glass and stones laid in artistic designs. The jewel-like pavement is kept bright by nightly washings.

Rio de Janeiro began to be important at the time of the Minas Geraes gold rush.





Of its many beauty spots the most famous are the botanical gardens, in which are rare plants from all parts of the world and an avenue of royal palms which were imported from the West Indies. A huge statue of Christ the Redeemer stands above the garden on the peak of Corcovado. It is floodlighted at night, and to the people of Brazil it is a symbol of protection for the city.

A clean and healthful modern city with attractive public buildings and homes, clean asphalt streets and boulevards bordered with palms, Rio has an Old World charm as well. The principal buildings are grouped around squares, as in most Portuguese cities. Monroe Palace is named for the president of the United States who proclaimed the Monroe Doctrine, which made known the American policy of keeping the nations of the Western Hemisphere free from foreign interference.

Rio de Janeiro is the seat of the national government of the United States of Brazil. Like Washington, D.C., our national capital, the federal city of Rio and its suburbs are considered a federal district independent of the state in which the city lies. Rio is important not only because it is the capital city of the largest Latin-American republic but also because it is a busy commercial center. Many of Brazil's products that are sold to foreign countries are shipped from Rio, and large quantities of goods enter the country through this port.

**A land of the future.** Brazil is a region of enormous unknown possibilities. She has rich agricultural land, virgin forests, and vast mineral resources which are as yet undeveloped. There are great iron-ore deposits and in some places deposits of coal. There are copper, manganese, lead, zinc, mercury, chromium, aluminum, oil, platinum, gold, and diamonds and other precious stones.



The Carioca Market, Rio de Janeiro. The market is held at the foot of the Carioca Viaduct, which was once the Carioca Aqueduct. By means of this aqueduct drinking water was brought from the mountains to the city.

The mineral resources of Brazil, like the agricultural resources, have been but little developed.

Brazil buys much of the manufactured goods that she needs from other countries. She is just beginning to develop her own manufacturing industries. There are cotton textile mills, shoe manufacturing plants, cement plants, meat-packing industries, paper mills, and many other kinds of industries in or near her large cities on the southeastern Atlantic seaboard at Rio de Janeiro, Santos, and São Paulo. Most of the articles produced are used in the regions where they are made, but sometime in the

future Brazil may become an important manufacturing region, exporting the products of its factories to all parts of the world.

The great problem of Brazil is to use the resources which Nature has given her in such lavish quantities. Almost every known crop will grow somewhere in Brazil. However, highways, railroads, and river transportation must be developed before Brazil's great wealth can be tapped.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

\* A. Questions to answer:

1. Find the area of Brazil and the area of the United States. How much larger is Brazil?
2. Make a list of the products which we get from the Amazon region of Brazil. Which product do you think is most important? Be ready to give one good reason for your choice.
3. Make a list of the products which the northeastern section of Brazil ships to the United States.
4. What section of Brazil furnishes most of our coffee?

B. Latin America has many birds and animals unknown to the people of the United States. Brazil, especially the jungle section, is the home of many of these strange and interesting creatures. You and some of your classmates may be interested in making a special study of the animals of Latin America. If you go to the library, you will find books and magazines that tell about the vampire bats, sloths, anteaters, monkeys, rheas, toucans, turtles, giant reptiles, dangerous fish, king hummingbirds, huge butterflies, and many other creatures. If this book is in the library, it will help you in your study:

Ditmas, Raymond L.—*The Book of Zoography*; Chicago: J. B. Lippincott, 1934.

C. Prepare a class report on the Ford Plantations in Brazil—Fordlandia and Belterra.



D. Some films to show:

*Brazil*, I and II (1 reel each, silent). The first reel shows the mouth of the Amazon River, the people who live by the river, and the animals and products of the jungle. The second reel gives glimpses of the industries of eastern Brazil—the raising of coffee, cacao, and sugar—and scenes in São Salvador, São Paulo, Santos, and Rio de Janeiro.

*Coffee from Brazil to You* (2 reels, 16 mm. and 35 mm., sound). Shows the development and operation of a coffee plantation.

*Commerce around the Coffee Cup* (1 reel, 16 mm. and 35 mm., sound). Lowell Thomas discusses the importance of the exchange of goods in terms of trade with Brazil. Produced under the supervision of the United States Department of Commerce.

E. Some story books that you will enjoy reading:

Brown, Rose—*Two Children of Brazil*; Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1940. Acquaints the reader with home life on a tropical plantation.

Finger, C. J.—*Give a Man a Horse*; Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1938. Social and economic life in South America.

Jekyll, Grace B.—*Two Boys in South American Jungles*; New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, 1929. Building the Madeira-Mamore Railroad in Brazil and Bolivia.

Kendall, Oswald—*The Voyage of the Martin Connor*; Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1939. A good adventure story of the Amazon region.

Lide, Alice A.—*Aztec Drums*; New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1938. Life in the South American jungle.

Ransome, Arthur—*Swallowdale*; Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1932. A story of life along the Amazon River.

Steen, Elizabeth—*Red Jungle Boy*; New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937. The story of the life of an Indian boy on the banks of the Araguaya River of Brazil.



## ARGENTINA

**Map questions.** What part of Argentina would you expect to be the warmest? Why? What is this warm region called? What is the central region called? What part of the United States is much like the central region? What is the southern section of Argentina called?

**The country.** Argentina is the second largest nation of Latin America, but it is probably the richest and most powerful of the Latin-American republics. It stretches along the southern half of the South American continent for over thirty-four degrees of latitude. A degree of

**Iguazú Falls, located on the border of Argentina and Brazil. The falls are a series of cataracts so vast that all of them cannot be seen at once unless they are viewed from an airplane.**





latitude, as you may already know, is about sixty-nine miles in length. So you can figure for yourself, by the use of a small amount of multiplication, something of the length of Argentina. The distance from the northern border of the country to the southern border is about equal to the distance from Habana, Cuba, to Edmonton in Alberta, Canada. Argentina is a little larger than thirteen of our central states plus our largest state, Texas. It has about thirteen million people. Most of them are white, for Argentina, unlike Brazil, has a population of less than 10 per cent Negroes and Indians.

*The four regions.* Although Argentina lies chiefly in the Temperate Zone, its great length gives it a variety of climates. If we are to get an idea of the climate, we must divide the country into at least four climatic regions: the Chaco, the central region, Patagonia, and Tierra del Fuego.

**The Chaco.** The first region we shall discuss is the northern section, which is known as the Chaco. Part of this region lies in the tropics and is the warmest section of Argentina. Even in the winter months of June and July the temperature seldom goes below 55° above zero. You must remember that south of the Equator the seasons are just the opposite of ours.

As for rainfall, the eastern and western sections of the Chaco are quite different. In the western part there are only about twenty inches of rainfall each year, while in the eastern part there is more than twice that amount. In general, the Chaco is warm, and a part of it is quite moist—a fine climate for growing sugar and rice.

Part of the Chaco region is covered with forests from which comes a wood that gives us the extract, or fluid, called *tannin*. This is used in tanning leather. Argentina



At this agricultural station experiments are being made with the cultivation of wheat.

controls almost all of the world's supply of this wood, which is called *quebracho* wood.

**Farm land.** The second region of Argentina to be considered is the central region. This section we shall have to divide into two parts. The eastern part, the section around the city of Buenos Aires, is known as the Pampa. It is a great nearly treeless lowland—a land almost as flat as a table top. The temperature is moderate throughout the year, and the average annual rainfall of thirty-eight inches is well distributed through the year. The Pampa has an excellent climate for growing cereals, or grains, and for raising cattle. There are not many small farms. Most of the land is owned by a few wealthy people.

The heavy, red earth of the Pampa is so rich that fertilizers are unnecessary. The farmers harvest wheat twice a year. Cattle can live in the open all year and need no special food other than the rich forage crops which grow there.

The western part of the central region is quite different from the eastern section. It lies under the shadow of the mighty Andes. It has abrupt and decided changes in temperature and little rainfall. It is a good region for growing grapes, olives, and other fruits, but farmers must irrigate their land.

**Patagonia.** We shall next look at the region south of the central section that stretches down to the Strait of Magellan. It is called the Patagonian region or Patagonia. It gets its name from the Patagonian Indians, a tribe whose descendants still inhabit this section of Argentina. There is an interesting story of how this region happened to be called Patagonia. It is said that when Magellan was making his famous voyage round the world he coasted along the shores of Argentina, south of the Plata River. There he sighted on the mainland some tall muscular Indians who walked around wrapped in skins. Because they wore leather sandals they left large tracks on the sand. Magellan therefore called them *patagones*, or the "clumsy-footed," and the region they inhabited "Patagonia." In Patagonia temperatures range from about 45° in winter to 72° or 80° in summer. It is always cool, and there is not much rainfall. On the lowland and plains some cereals are grown, but sheep-raising is the principal industry. Recently oil has been discovered in Patagonia. Since Argentina has very little coal for her factories, this oil region is very important to her.

**Tierra del Fuego.** At the tip of the continent, separated





A glacier in the Strait of Magellan

from the mainland by the Strait of Magellan, lies the fourth climatic region, Tierra del Fuego, "Land of Fire." Part of the region belongs to Chile, but Argentina controls the larger section. It is a cold, barren region much like Labrador in North America. In some parts of the Argentine section there is considerable sheep-raising, but other parts of it are inhabited only by Indians who live in a very crude fashion.

How the people earn their living. About two thirds of the people of Argentina live in cities of one hundred thousand or more in population. Nearly one quarter of them live in Buenos Aires. In spite of the fact that the Argentines are a nation of city-dwellers, the vast majority of them earn their living either directly or indirectly from



*A cattle ranch on the pampas*

some type of farming. Wheat, corn, and flax are the principal crops. The flax is raised for its linseed oil and not for the fiber for making textiles.

**Argentine frozen beef.** Cattle-raising is the next most important industry. Argentina's beef is famous the world over for its fine quality. In the cities are packing and refrigerating plants where beef is prepared in large quantities for shipment to other nations.

In the days before refrigeration and meat-packing plants little Argentine meat was shipped out of the country. But after the process of chilling and freezing meat was discovered, frozen meats became one of the chief products of the country. Argentines would like to sell their beef to the United States, and we should like to trade with them. At one time we did buy considerable beef

from Argentina. Then came a time when we bought only a small amount of canned beef because the government of the United States would not permit frozen fresh meats from Argentina to enter the country. The story of why we could not buy Argentine meats runs something like this:

A number of years ago a deadly disease called the foot-and-mouth disease killed millions of cattle in the United States. Congress passed a law stating that no cattle or fresh beef could be brought into the United States from countries where the foot-and-mouth disease was known to exist. Of course, since Argentina has an enormous cattle country and millions of cattle, there was some foot-and-mouth disease in that country. So trade in beef was cut off. Argentine officials said that the disease was found only in certain small sections of their country. They thought the law quite unfair. Finally, representatives of the United States government signed an agreement with Argentina to allow beef from that country to be brought into the United States provided it came from sections where the disease was not found. For a time it seemed as though our relations with Argentina might improve, but almost immediately there was trouble at home over this agreement. The cattlemen and meat-packers of the United States objected to the agreement. They said it would hurt their business, and because of their objection the United States Senate would not approve the new agreement.

Practically every product raised in the United States is produced in Argentina also. So you see it is difficult to trade products. Beef is only one product over which there have been long debates when the United States and Argentina have tried to work out agreements about trade.



**Trade agreement with the United States.** In October, 1941, Argentina and the United States finally signed a trade pact, or agreement, in which the United States agreed to buy more canned roast beef and corned beef but not fresh beef. Also, we will buy more flaxseed, cheese, hides, and quebracho extract, while Argentina will buy more fresh fruits, tobacco, and machinery from us. We shall have to wait a few years to learn how well this new trade agreement works out.

**Minerals.** Mining is unimportant in Argentina compared with agriculture and stock-raising, but the country is not lacking in mineral resources. There are deposits of copper, manganese, lead, tin, and other minerals, but they are used in Argentina and very little is exported.

Coal and iron are extremely limited. This has been a handicap in developing the manufacturing industries in Argentina, and it has made the country an important importer of iron and steel products. If the United States can buy more things from Argentina, then that country will in turn take more of our iron and steel in the form of machinery.

Petroleum is found in Argentina in Patagonia. It has helped to take the place of coal in manufacturing. However, the supply of petroleum meets only about half the needs of the country.

**Manufacturing.** Less than fifty years ago manufacturing scarcely existed in Argentina. Even the flour which was used was imported. Then came a change. Industries began to grow. Flour mills became adequate to supply the needs of the country. Sugar refineries were set up. Plants for tanning leather and for manufacturing leather goods became common. Then came huge packing plants and refrigerator plants for taking care of enormous sup-

plies of beef. Textile industries grew, until Argentina now weaves a third of its cotton goods, about 60 per cent of its linen, and about 90 per cent of its woolen goods. Most of the industrial plants in Argentina are small, and about a third of them are located in Buenos Aires.

**The people.** The people of Argentina are much like the people of the United States in that most of them are white. They are unlike us in that they speak Spanish and are largely of Spanish descent, although there are many Germans, English, and Italians. They are intensely proud of their country. Most of the Latin-American countries have only two classes of people—the very wealthy and the very poor—but Argentina, like the United States, has three groups. It has not only wealthy people and poor people, but a large middle class who are neither rich nor poor.

**Education.** Argentina is proud of her school system. In the large cities there are elementary schools for most of the young children. For older persons who can afford to pay there are high schools, trade schools, and universities. If schools are available, children are required to attend until they are about eleven or twelve years of age. In the rural sections there are many children who live far from any school and therefore have no opportunity to get an education. In time, schools will be provided for all because the government is interested in educating its people.

**Buenos Aires.** Before we leave Argentina we should get acquainted with the city of Buenos Aires. One out of every five persons in Argentina lives in or near this great city of two and a half million inhabitants. It is one of the great cities of the Western Hemisphere. In the New World only New York and Chicago are larger. It is the



A subway station in Buenos Aires

capital city of the country and is a federal district like our own city of Washington.

The city lies on what was formerly a treeless mud flat on the banks of the Plata River, about one hundred fifty miles inland along the river. "Plata" means "silver."

As we approach the city from the Atlantic Ocean we are greeted by a skyline notched by many skyscrapers. Buenos Aires has all the modern conveniences found in any large city of the United States. The harbor, which has been dredged out of what was once only a mud flat, permits large ocean-going steamers to anchor at what is probably one of the world's greatest dock systems. Busy



little work boats are constantly dredging the mud out of the harbor and keeping it in good condition.

Beautiful Buenos Aires—the name means “good air”—is an example of how a lovely city can be created by the sheer determination, courage, and talent of a people. The people of Argentina have made Buenos Aires beautiful in spite of certain handicaps due to nature. They planted the trees, laid out the streets, and planned the location and the types of buildings. The city is a monument to the intelligence and courage of the people.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Some questions to answer:

1. When it is Christmas in the United States what is the season of year in Argentina?
2. Give at least two reasons why most of the people in Argentina are farmers.
3. Find the area of Argentina and of the United States in square miles. How much larger is the United States than Argentina?
4. List three products of the Chaco region; the two most important products of the Pampa; and two products of Patagonia.
5. Why do the United States and Argentina have difficulty in trading with each other?
6. Give at least one reason why Argentina does not have many factories.
7. How do you account for the fact that most of the land of Argentina is held by a few people? Do you believe that large land holdings have helped or hindered the progress of Argentina?
8. Why does Argentina have closer trade relations with Europe than with the United States?

9. What is the name of the hero of Argentine independence?
10. Which country would you expect to be a better friend of the United States, Brazil or Argentina? Give your reason.

B. Some motion pictures of Argentina:

*Argentina* (1 reel, silent). Pictures the agricultural section of Argentina—raising sheep and growing sugar cane and grapes. There are pictures of the docks at Buenos Aires and Bahia Blanca.

*Argentina Argosy* (1 reel, sound). Scenes of Buenos Aires, cattle ranches, life on a great estate, and wheat being transported to market.

C. Some books you will enjoy reading:

Finger, C. J.—*A Dog at His Heels*; Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1936. An exciting story of Bill and dog Jock, which tells of a journey into Patagonia with 8000 sheep. There are gauchos and Indians.

Hudson, W. H.—*Tales of the Pampas*; New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1939. Stories of life south of Buenos Aires.

Tschiffely, A. F.—*Tschiffely's Ride*; New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1935. An account of a horseback ride from Buenos Aires to Washington, D. C.



## PARAGUAY

**Map questions.** What river divides Paraguay? In which section would you expect to find the largest number of people living? Over what rivers are products carried from Asunción to the outside world?

**The country.** Paraguay is one of the South American republics which are without seacoasts, but it is fortunate in having a good waterway connection with the outside world over the Paraguay, Paraná and Plata rivers. These three rivers form a water highway from Asunción, the





The government palace in Asunción, on the Paraguay River

capital of Paraguay, to Buenos Aires and the Atlantic Ocean. The mouth of the Plata River is about a thousand miles from Asunción. From Buenos Aires one can travel to Asunción either by rail or by water. It takes three and a half days to go upstream by boat and only twenty-four hours to go by rail.

Asunción. In Asunción what a person notices most is the array of many-colored houses. Gay-colored houses are set along streets lined with orange trees. The orange tree is the most common tree in the capital city of Paraguay. Also there are gorgeous flowers everywhere, for Paraguay is not only warmed by a tropical sun but it is also well watered. There is considerable rainfall well distributed through the year. In fact, Paraguay has so much rain that, it is said, in Paraguay each town has its river and each house has its brook.

**The people.** The republic of Paraguay is larger than our state of Montana, and it has about twice as many inhabitants as Montana. But it has the smallest number of people per square mile of all South American countries. About nine tenths of the people in the republic of Paraguay live in the country, outside the cities.

As we watch the people in Asunción and in other parts of Paraguay as well, we notice that most of them seem to have some Indian blood. Many of them are descendants of the Guaraní Indian tribes which lived in southern South America in the days before Columbus. We are told that probably there are fewer white people in Paraguay than in any other South American country.

As we listen to the people on the streets in the towns and villages most of them speak neither Spanish nor Portuguese. They speak an Indian language. We are told that it is the Guaraní language. Spanish is spoken by the small educated class. Many of the people are able to speak both Guaraní and Spanish.

**A land of two regions.** Paraguay lies in both the tropics and the Temperate Zone. The land is fertile and well watered. It will grow all the crops found in the tropics as well as many of those found in the Temperate Zone.

The Paraguay River divides the country into two parts, and these two regions are quite different. East of the river are many ranches and farms. It is here that most of the people live, and it is this region that gives Paraguay most of its products.

Across the Paraguay River, on the west, is the great Chaco region of vast rolling plains and heavy forests. Bolivia and Paraguay fought over the ownership of this region, but now it belongs to Paraguay. Some cattle are raised in this region, but their meat is not so good as that

of animals raised east of the river or in Argentina. The forests of the western region yield quebracho wood, which is an important product. We shall tell you more about quebracho later. Most of the people who live in the Chaco are Indians, many of whom are quite uncivilized.

How the people earn a living. The people of Paraguay are extremely poor. Most of them earn their living in some occupation connected with the land. Tobacco is one of the leading crops of the country, but cotton is increasing in importance.

In recent years immigrants from the United States, from Brazil, and from other countries have come into Paraguay to establish ranches and raise livestock. Paraguay still has thousands of acres of public land which anybody can buy for a little money. Livestock-raising is becoming an important industry. The country now exports some meat to other countries, particularly to Brazil and Cuba.

Maté. Paraguay does not have much to sell to the outside world, but she has one interesting product. It is maté. Many people earn their living by collecting and drying the leaves of the yerba maté. The yerba is a bushy shrub or tree found growing wild in all the eastern and central parts of Paraguay as well as in northeastern sections of Argentina and in some parts of Brazil. In Paraguay the industry has become important. The people are now learning to grow the yerba shrub from seed and to cultivate it on farms. The leaves of the yerba maté are made into a drink which is much like green tea.

Wherever we find people resting or eating in Paraguay we find them drinking maté. The natives make their maté drink in a dried gourd which is hollowed out. They place the crushed powdered leaves of the yerba in the hol-





The plant from which yerba maté, or Paraguay tea, is obtained is a kind of holly.

low of the gourd and then pour boiling water over the leaves. This is much like making tea, except that a gourd is used instead of a teapot. Also, instead of pouring the maté into a cup the Paraguayans suck it out of the gourd through a reed or bone sipper. Those who have more money use a silver sipper.

Maté is a favorite drink in many of the South American countries, especially in Chile, Argentina, Uruguay, and Paraguay. Even in parts of Brazil where coffee is grown in great quantities maté is a popular drink. Many people in the United States have come to like the South American drink. We can buy maté in the markets of some cities.

**Quebracho.** Paraguay, as well as Argentina, produces quebracho wood, which is a South American term meaning "ax-breaker." It is a good name for this tree because the wood is so hard that when it is used for railroad ties or for fence posts insects cannot damage it. The tree grows wild in Paraguay, as it does in parts of Argentina. Every part of the tree is used for the extraction of tannin, which finds a good market not only in the United States but also in many other parts of the world.

**Paraguay and Argentina.** Though Paraguay has its own president and legislature, the country is very much under the influence of Argentina. This is not because Argentina interferes with the government, but because Argentina controls Paraguay's trade. Argentina is able to do this because Paraguay is landlocked, and therefore has to send her products down the river to Buenos Aires for shipment to the outside world. This has made Paraguay very dependent on Argentina. All money transactions with foreign countries must go through Argentine banks. The Argentine government and Argentine transportation companies own a large share of the rail and water lines that serve the country. In addition, Paraguay depends on Argentina for certain important foodstuffs, such as bread and wheat.

**Education.** In most of the schools in Asunción the children go in two shifts because even in the capital city there are not many school buildings. In the rural areas only a few children have an opportunity to go to school. The people of Paraguay would like to have more schools but the long war with Argentina, Uruguay, and Brazil which killed almost half the population left the country among the poorest in all South America. From 1932 to 1935 a war with Bolivia regarding boundaries in the vast

but almost uninhabited region of the Chaco left the country bankrupt. The people have not the funds to provide school buildings and to train and hire teachers.

### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Some questions to answer:

1. What rivers serve as a water highway for Asunción?
2. Why is quebracho an important product of western Paraguay?
3. Why is Paraguay somewhat under the control of Argentina?
4. How do you account for the fact that more immigrants have not been attracted to Paraguay when it has so much cheap land?
5. Why is there a larger proportion of Indians in Paraguay than in Uruguay?

B. If you were going to establish a new home in one of these countries, in which country do you believe you would have a better opportunity to make a living, Paraguay or Uruguay? Give the reason for your answer after you have read the next section.

C. Prepare a class report on the Chaco region. In your report mention the four countries that own parts of it, tell a little of its history, and describe the land and its products.





## URUGUAY

Map questions. Where is Montevideo? What three bodies of water form boundaries of Uruguay?

Across the Plata River from Buenos Aires lies the small republic of Uruguay. It is the smallest of the South American republics. It is about the size of North Dakota, but it has more than three times as many people.

The people of Uruguay are very different from those of Paraguay. They are much like the Argentines. Almost all of them are white, and they speak Spanish.

Meat production. Most of the people of Uruguay earn



A meat-packing and freezing plant in Montevideo. Cattle are brought to Montevideo from the plains of Uruguay for slaughtering, processing, and freezing for export.

their living in some way connected with stock-raising. The country is a great meat producer. In good years this little country furnishes from 15 to 18 per cent of all the meat which is exported in the world. In peace times Great Britain buys most of Uruguay's meat. In fact, in 1939 Uruguay furnished 10 per cent of the meat exports of Latin America.

About four fifths of the land is used for cattle- and sheep-raising. This makes Uruguay seem like one huge stock-raising ranch. Only a small part of the land is used for growing crops of wheat, flax, corn, and tobacco.



The capitol in Montevideo. Montevideo is a popular summer resort for the people of both Uruguay and Argentina.

Montevideo. Montevideo is the capital and largest city of the little republic. About a fourth of the people of Uruguay live here. It is a beautiful modern city with many fine buildings and excellent highways and railways which reach out in many parts of the republic. In the heart of Montevideo stands a statue of General José Artigas, the Uruguayan patriot who helped Uruguay gain her independence from Spain.

In and around the capital city are many meat-packing and freezing plants. Most of the people of Uruguay who do not make their living by actually raising stock work



in some industry connected with the cattle and sheep industry. They either work in packing or freezing plants, buy and sell stock, or work on the docks where the ships that carry meat to other countries are loaded. There are but few other ways to earn a living, since the country has few factories. This is because Uruguay has no coal, iron, nor oil for operating factories. The country is therefore not likely to become an important manufacturing region, but her rolling, grassy hills will always furnish fine grazing land for millions of cattle and sheep.

**A progressive republic.** The people of Uruguay are intensely proud of their neat little republic. They have made their country one of the most progressive in Latin America. Nature has favored their land with rich, fertile soil, with an ideal climate that is neither too hot nor too cold, and with ample rainfall. They have worked hard to provide for the welfare of all their people. They were among the first people in South America to have free public schools. They were the first to allow women to vote and the first to provide pensions for the aged.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Some questions to answer:

1. Why is Uruguay a good cattle- and sheep-raising country?
2. Why does not the United States have more trade with Uruguay?
3. When it is July 4 in the United States what season is it in Uruguay?

B. Why do you think Uruguay is sometimes called a buffer state?



## CHILE

**Map questions.** Most of the passengers and cargoes from Chile are carried by water. Does the map tell you one reason? In northern Chile the rain-bearing winds are from the south-east. Does the map tell you why this section of the country is a rainless desert? In the central and southern parts of the country the winds usually come from the west. Do you think that these parts of the country are as dry as the northern section?

**The country.** The republic of Chile extends farther south than any other nation of South America. Shaped like the blade of a sword, it extends from north to south along the Pacific Ocean some twenty-nine hundred miles. This is about the distance from Seattle, Washington, to Washington, D.C. In no place is the country more than two hundred fifty miles wide, and over most of its length it varies from fifty to one hundred miles in width. Chile is about twenty thousand square miles larger than Texas, but it has about the same number of people as our small state of Massachusetts. It ranks seventh in size among the South American republics.

**The people.** Between 65 and 75 per cent of the population are a mixture of Spanish and Indian. Spanish is spoken practically everywhere in Chile. This is because about one fourth of the people are descendants of those energetic and progressive Spaniards who came to South America from northern Spain. Some of the leading families have made Chile their home for more than a hundred years, and they have preserved the manners and social customs of Old Spain. In late years a number of French, German, Italian, and British businessmen have been attracted to Chile. In the north in the region of the nitrate fields, there are fifty thousand former Peruvians and Bolivians.

Only about a hundred thousand members of the ancient tribe of Araucanian Indians, who fought the Spanish for many years, still live in Chile. The country was once shared by this tribe and the Patagonian Indians, who are nearly nonexistent today. The Patagonians were the last tribe of Indians to give up their independence and to accept the white man's laws. It was not until 1881 that they recognized the authority of the Chilean government.



**Health.** At one time the impure water and the lack of sewage systems were responsible for a very high death rate among the people of Chile. In more recent years the government of Chile decided to change Chile's health record. A great program of sanitation was put into operation, and now Chile is much better off in health matters than most of her neighbors. The program of sanitation aimed to stamp out flies and mosquitoes, provide pure water and milk, and improve the drainage systems. The work was often slowed up by insufficient funds, and improvements could not be made as fast as medical men and engineers wished, but now conditions are much better. The government of Chile is still working to make the country one of the most healthful in South America.

The new and modern buildings of the University of Chile are on the river that winds its way through Santiago.



**Education.** School attendance has been compulsory in Chile since 1920. Teachers have been brought from the United States and from Germany to help improve the methods of teaching. High schools, commercial schools, and teachers' colleges are located in the large cities. In spite of the new school systems, however, the children of the poorer classes and the children who live in rural sections of the country still have little chance to get an education. The government's health program has used a large part of the federal money. However, now that the country is a cleaner and healthier place in which to live, probably more attention will be given to schools and to educating the people.

**The three regions.** No other country in the world has either such great length north and south or such extremes of climate. Nature divides the country into three regions.

**The desert.** The northern section is a dry, hot desert with very few streams and little or no rainfall. In parts of this desert rain has not fallen for years. Consequently there is little vegetation, and crops are grown only in the few short river valleys where there is sufficient water for irrigation. But Atacama Desert is far from worthless. It is from this section of Chile that nitrate is obtained. Nitrate has been and still is an important source of wealth. We shall tell you more about nitrate later.

The southern part of this desert region has a little more rainfall than the northern section but not enough to make it a good farming region. However, quantities of grapes are raised here. But minerals—copper, gold, silver, nickel, lead, iron, borax, and manganese—are the important resources of this region.

**The central region.** South of the dry northern section is the second great natural region, the Central Valley.

About 90 per cent of the people in Chile live in this part of the republic. Santiago, the capital of Chile, and Valparaiso, the largest seaport on the Pacific side of South America, are located in this district. It is not a coastal region but a great valley lying between the Andes and the coastal range. Swift, rapid streams come tumbling down from the Andes to furnish much water power for the homes, shops, and factories in the valley. The soil is rich, and rainfall is ample for farming. It is a great farming region. About 95 per cent of the farms of Chile are in this rich valley.

**The southern region.** South of the Central Valley is still another district quite different from the two other sections. This region consists of a small forest-covered strip of mountainous mainland and many forested islands.

Valparaiso is built on the hills that surround the harbor. Often the rise from one street level to another is so steep that little railway cars must be used.





There is abundant rainfall over the whole area. There are not only heavy forests but also good pasture lands for sheep and cattle. The region is dotted with many beautiful lakes. The region is much like the coastlands of southern Alaska.

**Nitrate deposits in the northern region.** It was the desolate desert of the north which gave Chile her start in world trade. From the northern border of the country to a point about five hundred miles south lie great deposits of nitrate of soda, from which comes nitrogen. Nitrogen is a gas found in the air and in the tissues of plants and animals. It is very important because all life—plants, animals, even man himself—needs it.

Plants get nitrogen from the air and the earth. Rain and snow get nitrogen from the air and carry it into the earth. Nearly four fifths of the volume of air is made up of nitrogen. The earth also gets nitrogen from the roots of certain plants, such as clover and alfalfa. As these plants breathe the air they absorb the nitrogen. The roots of these plants are tiny nitrogen factories which manufacture nitrogen for the soil. Men and animals get their nitrogen from the plants they eat as well as from the air they breathe.

*Nitrate of soda for fertilizer.* When soil is used to grow the same kinds of crops year after year, it grows weaker and weaker in nitrogen. Then to restore its productive powers, men must find ways of putting nitrogen back into the soil. One way to do this is to plant nitrogen-giving crops, such as clover and alfalfa. Another way is to treat the soil with a fertilizer. One of the best fertilizers is the nitrate of soda which is found in great quantities in Chile's northern desert.

*Nitrate a source of large income.* For many long years



Nitrate trains arriving at port, where the nitrate will be loaded on boats for export

Chile's nitrate beds, or mines, were ignored. No one knew about them or realized their value. In fact, white men lived in Chile more than three hundred years before they found a use for this salt-like mineral of Chile's desert. Finally there came to be a great demand for nitrate as a fertilizer. During World War I (1914-1918) nitrate was needed not only by farmers but also munitions factories. It was used in making explosives. Chile supplied about 90 per cent of the world's nitrate. Taxes on nitrates paid more than 60 per cent of the cost of Chile's government and thus relieved landowners of heavy taxes.

In 1927 there were more than a hundred nitrate factories in northern Chile. But ten years later there were

only twenty-two factories in operation, and the number of men employed had been reduced by more than half.

*Nitrogen fixation hurts Chile's trade.* What happened to cause this change? Scientists had discovered a way of "fixing" nitrogen, that is, of making nitrate from the nitrogen which is present in the air. This discovery was a hard blow to Chile. Some countries started to manufacture their own nitrate. The United States built two nitrate factories at Muscle Shoals on the Tennessee River. But during World War II more and more of Chile's nitrate factories were reopened, since greater supplies of nitrogen were needed for explosives than could be produced by factories in other parts of the world.

*Nitrate also yields iodine.* Fortunately another use has been found for nitrate. From nitrate we obtain iodine, which is necessary to the health of mankind. We know that all people should have some iodine in their food. In Switzerland iodine is mixed with chocolate. In some cities

**Nitrate, or Chile saltpeter, packed for shipment. It will be used in the manufacture of iodine.**





in the United States it is put into the water supply. You have probably seen boxes of salt and advertisements for a salt called "iodized salt." This is another means of getting the supply of iodine you need for health. Iodine is also used on wounds.

*Life in the nitrate fields.* In some parts of the five-hundred-mile desert rain has never been recorded, but there are many settlements where live the half million men who work in the nitrate industry. They blast and drill out the lumps of ore which contain nitrate, and haul it either over short railway lines or by mule cart to plants where the nitrate is extracted.

The industry gives work to thousands of laborers, foremen, superintendents, managers, engineers, and chemists. Winds, flying sand, and the burning sun parch and scorch not only the landscape but also the skin of the people who live here. You may wonder how so many people are able to live where little or nothing grows and where water is scarce indeed.

In some of the mining settlements and in some of the seaports from which nitrate and iodine are shipped out of the country a few trees, vines, and flowers are able to grow only because someone gives them almost loving care, watering and tending them daily. Otherwise they would perish.

Most of the water used in the inland settlements is brought through pipe lines from the melting snows of the high Andes. The very life of the people depends on these miles of water pipes. Some of the coast towns, or seaports, have water plants—or we might almost call them water factories—which distill the briny sea water and make it fit for human use.

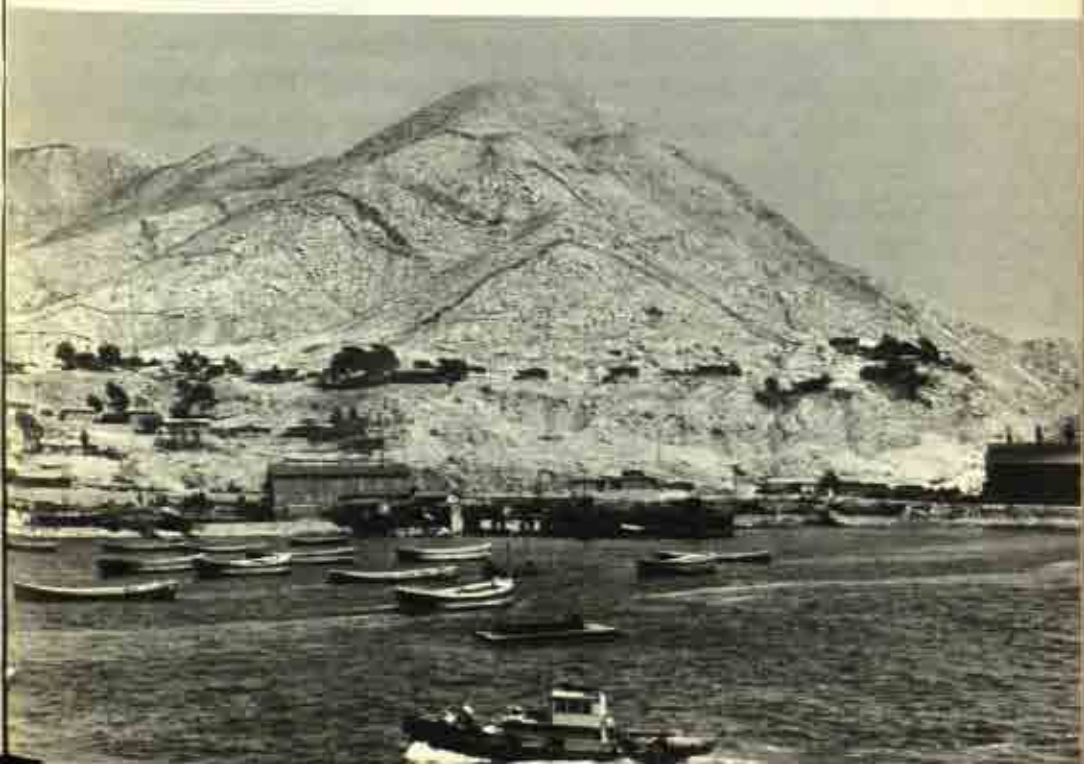
The food supply too is shipped in for both man and

beast. The food problem gives work to many men and ships. Steamships and sailing vessels of many nations enter the harbors of Iquique and Antofagasta, bringing food and manufactured articles and departing with bags of nitrate and barrels of iodine.

The northern region has other minerals. *Borax*. Other minerals come from Chile's north. Near Iquique is a huge borax lake. The lake is covered with a thick white crust of borax. It is cut out in great thick blocks much as lake ice is cut in the winter time in the northern part of the United States. These borax blocks are then taken to a refinery where they become borax crystals. Borax is used to soften hard water and in making glass and soap.

In only one other part of the world is borax found in such large quantities as in Chile and that is in Death Valley in our state of California.

**Copper mines overlooking an inland river port**



*Iron ore.* One of the greatest centers for mining iron ore is in this northern mining region about two hundred miles north of Valparaiso. Iron-ore deposits are reported in practically every province of Chile. Most of the iron ore is shipped to the United States for smelting and refining, and Chile buys back the iron and steel she wishes to use in manufacturing.

*Copper.* Copper is also mined and exported in large quantities. In northern Chile is located one of the richest copper deposits in the world. Here, about one hundred seventy miles south of Antofagasta, miners have only to blast away parts of several enormous mountain peaks and scoop the copper up with great steam shovels. The ore is then hauled to plants where the copper is extracted. Chile exports, or ships out, more copper than any other country in the world. The United States produces more copper but does not export as much as Chile because she uses most of her supply at home.

*Coal.* Chilean mines produce more than two thirds of the coal mined in South America. There are still many deposits of coal which have not been touched. Chile produces coal enough to supply her own needs and has some left over to export to other countries in trade. The greatest amount of coal is mined in a region near the industrial city of Concepción, which is about three hundred miles south of Valparaiso.

*The Central Valley.* We have already told you that about 90 per cent of the people of Chile live in the fertile Central Valley. If you were to visit it, you would understand why such a large proportion of the population have chosen this region for their homes. This great valley, which is about seven hundred miles long and about thirty miles wide, has a climate much like that of California.





**Harvesting wheat with a reaper pulled by oxen**

The temperature rarely goes below freezing and seldom is it warmer than about 80°. In the northern part it is necessary to irrigate the farms, but in the southern section of the valley there is ample rainfall.

There are in Chile many large farms, or haciendas. Here, as elsewhere in South America, most of the land is owned by a few wealthy people. Each hacienda is a village in itself. There is the great house in which the hacendado, or owner, and his family live, and not far away are many small one-room huts in which the workers live. These workers rent land from the hacendado and pay their rent by working on the land which the owner keeps for his own use. There are a store, a church, and usually a school in the workers' settlement.



Gathering grapes in the Central Valley

*Products.* Wheat is the principal crop, but oats, corn, tobacco, and sugar beets are also grown. The valley produces more fruit than the people of Chile can use. Melons, pears, peaches, grapes, prunes, figs, and many other fruits are grown in great quantities. Many of these fruits—fresh, canned, and dried—are shipped to the United States. If you were to visit the fruit market in New York during our winter months in normal times, you would probably find melons and grapes from Chile.

*Manufacturing.* During the past thirty years factories have greatly increased in number. The part of the Central Valley around Santiago and Valparaíso is the home of a large number of these factories. Shoes, knitted woolen goods, cloth, and many other articles are manu-

factured. Most of these manufactured articles are used in Chile and are not shipped out for trade.

**Southern Chile.** South of Concepción and the Bio-Bio River, flowing from the Andes, lies the region which we have already told you is much like the south coastland of our Alaska. The farther south we travel through this southern section the colder the weather becomes and the more frequent are raw winds and hard storms. The grassland of this southern region feeds millions of sheep. Because of the cold winter winds Nature gives these Chilean sheep extra heavy coats of thick wool which makes their fleeces very valuable. Sheep-raising is a principal occupation of the people who live in this section. Thousands of tons of mutton, wool, and skins are shipped from the port of Magallanes, which is the southernmost city on the South American continent and the principal seaport of southern Chile.

The port of Magallanes commands the entrance to the Strait of Magellan. In the days before the Panama Canal was in use it was a very important port for ocean-going vessels. Now that ships pass through the Panama Canal instead of sailing around the southern end of South America the chief business in Magallanes is the handling of the huge cargoes of mutton, wool, and skins exported from this southern region.

Most of the white people in southern Chile are engaged in sheep-raising. There are a few lumber men, but the cutting of the great forest of this region is not yet an important industry. The other inhabitants of southern Chile are the few thousand remaining natives, or Indians. The Chilean government has set aside land for the brave but fierce Araucanian Indians whom the early Spanish were able to defeat but never could conquer and enslave. To-



ward the southern tip of South America are some very primitive tribes of Indians. These small tribes still live very much as their ancestors did when white men first came to Chile.

*Tierra del Fuego.* Off the southern tip of the mainland is a group of islands known as the Tierra del Fuego. Chile and Argentina have divided these southern islands. They are of little value and serve chiefly as homes for some of the more primitive Indians, who eke out a miserable existence by fishing, hunting, and raising a few sheep.

*Transportation.* Since most of Chile lies on the flanks of the mighty Andes, highways and railways have been both expensive and difficult to build. The high Andes cut the country off from Argentina, and the scorching desert on the north has made travel by land difficult in that direction. Fortunately all parts of the country are close to the Pacific, so many passengers and much of the trade can go by water.

Before the opening of the Panama Canal in 1914 products and passengers from Chilean seaports had a long way to travel to reach other parts of the world. If their destination was any point to the east, they had to sail through the dangerous waters off the tip of South America or have the goods transported overland to Panama to a ship in the Atlantic. The Panama Canal has helped Chile as much as any other country in the world by bringing her products closer to world markets.

Today railway and airplane lines provide transportation over the high Andes to Argentina. Railroads run up and down the length of the country carrying passengers north and south in trains as modern as those of the United States. In the nitrate fields of the north, in the coal, iron, and copper region, and in the Central Valley of Santiago



The Trans-Andean Railway

there are many short railway lines running down to the coast. Highways have been greatly improved, although there is still much to be done, and the government is engaged in a great highway construction program.

Airplanes have done much to connect Chile with the outside world and to improve transportation at home. The Chilean National Air Line carries many passengers and express packages as well as mail within the country. The Pan American Airways brings Santiago within four days' time to Europe. So Chile is rapidly becoming an important part of our Western Hemisphere.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Some questions to answer:

1. Give several reasons why Chile is sometimes called the "California of South America."
2. What part of the United States is most like the desert region of northern Chile?
3. Why does northern Chile receive so little rainfall?
4. Why do melons, grapes, and other fruits and vegetables from Chile appear in the markets of the United States in the wintertime?
5. What products exported from Chile are not found in California?
6. How do the people of the United States use iodine? borax?
7. Why are these cities important: Antofagasta, Magallanes, Santiago, Iquique?
8. How does the Panama Canal help Chile?
9. Pick out one place in Chile you would like to visit. Write a short statement telling why you chose this place.

B. Do you think that there will always be nitrate works in the Atacama Desert? Why?



C. Some motion pictures:

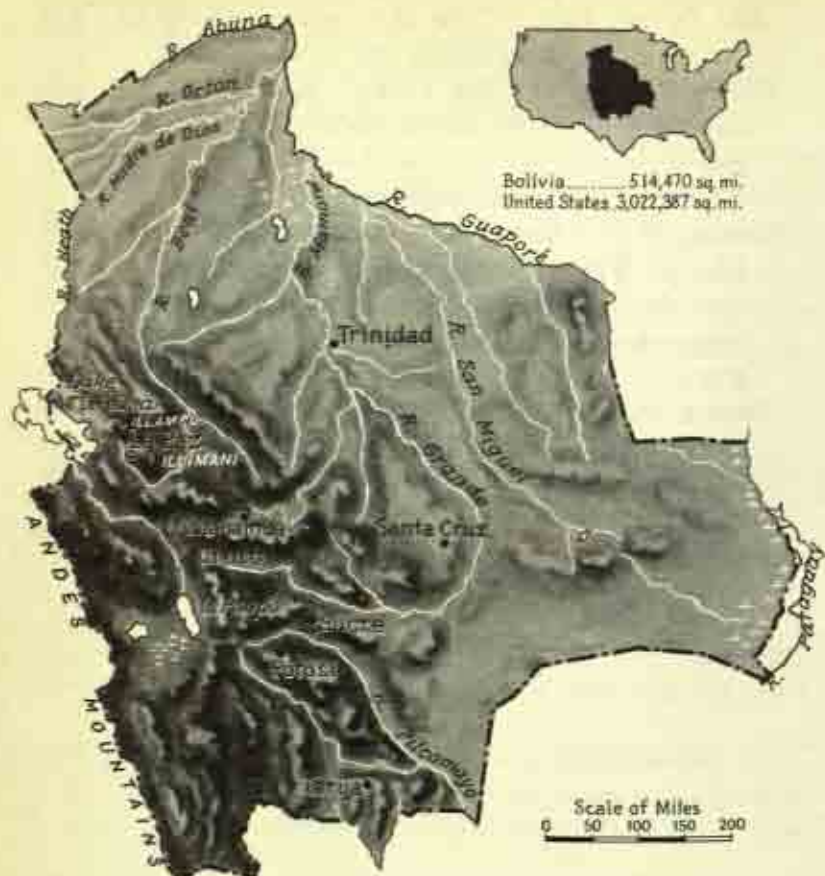
*Chile* (1 reel, silent). The three natural regions of Chile and the principal industries and occupations.

*Nitrate Industry in Chile* (1 reel, 16 mm. and 35 mm., silent). Work in the nitrate mines and life in the Chilean desert.

D. Some books you may enjoy reading:

Kummer, F. A.—*Courage over the Andes*; Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1940. The story of a boy from the United States who takes part in Chile's war for independence under the leadership of Bernardo O'Higgins.

Thomas, M. L.—*Paulo in the Chilean Desert*; Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1934. The story of a Chilean boy and his life in the Chilean desert and in the copper mines.



## BOLIVIA

Map questions. Why has Bolivia poor transportation facilities? What kind of region lies among the mountain ranges? What kind of region is the eastern half of Bolivia? Why are there so few people in eastern Bolivia? Why may this eastern section become important some day?

Bolivia is one of South America's two landlocked countries. It is cut off completely from an outlet to the ocean. On the west coast Chile and Peru handle its ocean-going trade. It is the third largest country in South America. It is a little larger than California, Oregon, Washington, and Idaho combined, but in spite of its size it has a population only a little greater than that of the city of Chicago, or about three and a half million people. It is one of the most sparsely, or thinly, settled regions of South America except Paraguay.

The people. Nine out of every ten Bolivians are either Indians or half-breeds (cholos), that is, of mixed white

The House of Congress in La Paz. The Spaniards chose the site of this city because it was convenient to the main colonial route of travel and because it afforded some protection from the winds. Now La Paz, which is the chief commercial center of Bolivia, is the world's highest big city.





and Indian blood. Only one in ten is white. Most of the Indians and mixed-bloods can neither read nor write, and they are desperately poor.

**The country.** In Bolivia the great Andes mountain system divides into two ranges which cover most of the western half of the country. Between these two ranges lies a high plateau. Most of it is more than two miles above sea level, and here is located the capital, La Paz, which is the center of life in this sky-land. Most of the Bolivians live in this plateau region, which ranks with that of Tibet as one of the highest inhabited sections in the world. We have called La Paz the capital, but Bolivia has another capital, Sucre, which is far to the south. The government is located in La Paz, but because the Supreme Court meets in Sucre, Sucre is called the legal capital.

**The high plateau.** The high plateau on which La Paz is situated is bleak and shivery. The climate will not permit the people to grow even their own foodstuffs. This is one reason why they are so distressingly poor.

Around the plateau is a background of high mountain peaks, for here in Bolivia are some of the highest peaks in the Western Hemisphere. If you are in La Paz in June, you will find it very cold. On this plateau it is hard to imagine that actually you are in the Torrid Zone. The climate is far from that we think of as tropical.

Bolivia is not a good place for people who have weak hearts and lungs. Even if you have a strong heart and a good pair of lungs, you will find yourself gasping for breath the first few days you are there. The Indians of the country dress in thin clothing, go barefoot, and do their work without the slightest discomfort. Somehow through long generations they have become adapted to living in high altitudes.



The world's largest tin mine, with its concentrating plant

*Tin mines.* In many ways the plateau where about half the Bolivians live is not a pleasant place, but it is here that the rich mineral wealth of Bolivia is located. The wealth of Bolivia lies in her minerals, and mining is the chief support of her people. Minerals make up 90 per cent of all the products which are sold to outside nations; 70 per cent, or far more than half, of the minerals exported is tin. Taxes on tin support the national government. Bolivia's tin is found from twelve thousand to twenty thousand feet up in the Andes. The awkward places in which tin is found make the cost of bringing it out very great. There are no smelters in Bolivia, so the ore is brought out in the form of tin stone and is shipped to English smelters,

where it is smelted and resold to other countries. Much of it is sold to the United States. Recently the United States has built a smelter in Texas to take care of some of Bolivia's tin.

The fact that Bolivia's tin is mined in places where transportation is poor and costly and that most of it is carried all the way to England to be smelted means that Bolivia does not get a very good price for her product. The high cost of producing it cuts down the profit to the country. A labor shortage also restricts the amount that can be shipped out. It is small wonder that the country is poor and that its people have a difficult time making a living.

Whenever there is a war Bolivia's tin becomes necessary to the warring nations. In 1942, during World War II, the supply of tin in the East Indies fell into the hands of the Japanese. This made Bolivia's tin of vital importance to Great Britain and the United States.

*Agriculture.* There is little vegetation on the high plateaus from which comes the tin. The low valleys on the eastern slopes of the mountains furnish the best agricultural lands, and it is here that most of the food products of the people of Bolivia are raised—wheat, corn, barley, potatoes, oats, sugar cane, coffee, and cacao. The foodstuffs grown do not begin to feed the population. Bolivia has to import many foods from other countries.

Small flocks of sheep and cattle are raised on the plateau, but the llama is the most important animal. The llama serves as a beast of burden and as a source of wool.

*Eastern lowlands.* The plains of northeastern Bolivia form a part of the Amazon Basin. A large part of this section is a dense tropical forest, though it is fringed on the south by open land much like the plains of Argentina.



This plains section makes up about half of the country, but it has very few inhabitants. The mountain Indians seem to prefer the high plateau to this inaccessible eastern half. This warmer lowland has no communication or transportation connections with the plateau section or with the outside world, except by plane or by perilous burro trails. If you look at the map, you will see that this part of Bolivia is cut off from the west by the high Andes and is hemmed in on the north and east by the great Amazon Basin. This is why few people, except scattered Indian tribes, choose this section for their homes. It is rich agricultural land, but farmers are not interested in raising farm products in a region from which they are unable to ship them to a market. The few agri-

Llamas grazing on the Bolivian plateau near Mt. Illimani



cultural products now grown here trickle out into Brazil instead of into Bolivia. So this rich agricultural region has not been developed.

*Oil.* The southern part of this eastern section is important in another way. Oil has been discovered. Some wells are now pumping oil for the outside world. This is a new industry, but it is becoming increasingly important.

*Manufacturing.* Only about six thousand Bolivians are employed in manufacturing of any kind, so you can see that manufacturing is not important. A large part of the country's manufactured goods is bought in the United States.

*Immigration and transportation.* Bolivia needs two things to help it take its place among the larger countries of South America. It needs people who will bring in money to help develop the country, and it needs transportation lines that will open up parts of the country, especially its eastern agricultural and oil lands, which are now cut off from the rest of the world.

The nation has been very slow in adding to its population by immigration. In 1831, shortly after the country became independent, the population was estimated to be more than one and a half million people. Seventy years later, about 1900, it was found that the population had increased only about seven hundred thousand, or an average of only about ten thousand people a year. In very recent years the increase has been more rapid, but Bolivia still needs many more new settlers.

*Bolivia has powerful neighbors.* Bolivia is almost surrounded by more powerful neighbors—Peru, Chile, Brazil, and Argentina. All of them wish a share in Bolivia's rich mineral resources and in her oil. The businessmen of Chile have invested money in Bolivia's mines. Argentina



This motor road near La Paz is here about 15,300 feet high.



has little oil and Brazil has none, so both countries are anxious to tap Bolivia's oil supply.

Money from Chile built the first railway from La Paz to Antofagasta on the coast of Chile. Argentina has built a rail line to the frontier of Bolivia and now would like to push the line through to what may be rich oil fields in the lowlands of eastern Bolivia. Brazil has shown an interest in building a railroad into the same lowland country. Bolivia may be a little afraid of her more powerful neighbors who wish to build transportation lines. But while the United States and Latin-American countries continue their Good Neighbor Policy, Bolivia is probably safe.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Some questions to answer:

1. Why is much of Bolivia's mineral wealth still untouched?
2. Pick out some point two miles from your school. Much of Bolivia is on a plateau more than two miles above sea level. Give reasons why Bolivia has not attracted more people to make their homes there.
3. Give one reason why trade with Bolivia is very important to the United States during wartime.

B. An imaginary autobiography.

Pretend you are Pepe, a native of Bolivia, who lives, works, and plays in the high plateau region. Write an imaginary account of what you did for one day.

C. Find out what you can about the wartime arrangement made in 1943 between Bolivia and Brazil permitting Bolivia to have an eastern outlet to the sea. You may have to consult magazines and newspapers.

D. A motion picture:

*Bolivia* (1 reel, silent). Shows the native life of the country, its cities, and its industries.



## PERU

**Map questions.** Where does most of the population of Peru live? Why do you think the population is distributed as it is? What kind of region lies in the northeast? in the southeast? Since the winds usually blow from the east, where do you think the greatest amount of rain falls?

**The country.** On the map Peru may appear small, but really it is a very large country. Peru had a long dispute with Ecuador over boundaries. Recently a new treaty, the Rio de Janeiro treaty, set new boundary lines, and now Peru has more territory. According to present estimates, it is nearly four times as large as our state of Arizona, not quite twice the size of Texas.

Peru is a country of three parts—a narrow coastal region, an enormous, sprawling mountainous plateau, and a rich, lush lowland section east of the Andes.

**The coastal plain.** The country faces the Pacific Ocean for more than fourteen hundred miles. Along the Pacific Ocean, in the shadow of the Andes, there is a narrow strip of coastland from twenty-five to forty miles wide.

Because the winds usually blow from the east and lose most of their moisture when they cross the Andes, this narrow coastal plain receives little or no rain. Rain might fall here once in a while if it were not for the Humboldt Current, a river of cold water which flows northward along the Pacific coast of South America from the South Pole region. Cold air rising from the Humboldt Current cools any rain-laden breeze that crosses the Andes and forces it back against the mountains to drop its moisture in the form of snow on the high peaks.

Farther north, in neighboring Ecuador, the coastal plain is well watered. There is almost too much rain. In the region where Peru and Ecuador touch, the cold Humboldt Current meets the warm Japanese Current and both streams turn westward. Because the warm Japanese Current off the coast of Ecuador does not drive back the rain-laden winds, the climate of the coast of Ecuador is very different from that of Peru.

If it were not for irrigation, Peru's coastland would be



a barren desert. Fortunately, many rivers dash down from the high Andes to cross the narrow strip of land, and their waters are used to irrigate the valleys. The region is important for the production of cotton and sugar.

Settlements along the coast of Peru are clustered in the valleys. There is vegetation in the dusty, brown plain only where rivers tumble down the mountain sides to make irrigation possible. Each little valley is a world in itself. In some valleys cotton grows, and in others sugar cane, but in all of them life depends on water in irrigation ditches. One plantation owner said, "Since water is the will of God, coming down from the mountains only in proportion as the sunshine melts the snow and ice, farming in Peru becomes a miracle."<sup>1</sup>

Today it is impossible to expand farming on the coastal plain because all the water is being used. Actually there is said to be less land under cultivation today than there was in the days of the Incas. This may be due to the fact that the Indians grew mostly corn and beans, which require less water than the present-day crops of cotton and sugar cane.

Cotton holds first place among Peru's agricultural products which are exported. The yield of cotton per acre is above that of the United States and of most of the other countries in the world. Peruvian cotton is of such excellent quality that it brings a high price in the world market. Most of it is shipped out of the country, chiefly to Great Britain, Germany, and Japan. Sugar holds second place as a profit-bringing crop. Most of the sugar, too, is shipped out of the country. More than a third of the products which Peru sells to the outside world come from the farms along this coastal plain.

<sup>1</sup> From Edward Tomlinson, *New Roads to Riches*, page 270.



**An oil refinery in Peru**

**Oil fields.** Just south of Ecuador, along the coast of Peru, are very rich oil fields. They are operated largely by foreigners, but the government of Peru makes a good profit by levying a tax on every ton of oil that leaves the country. Oil is by far the most important mineral product. It brings in more money than any other export.

Peru is not favored with good seaports, as the mountains crowd down too close to the water. Nevertheless, most of the cities of Peru are located along this strip of coastland. In the north, in the oil region, is Paita, where the tank steamers load oil. Near the center of Peru's coastland is Lima, with its fine modern seaport at Callao. In the far south is Arequipa, with its port at Mollendo.

**Mining.** From the narrow coastal plain, where the important seaports of Peru are located, railroads and highways climb the sharp slopes to the uplands. In this upland region the great Andes range spreads out into two and in some places into three parallel ridges. The peaks and ridges rise to tremendous heights. One peak, Mt. Huascarán, rises to more than twenty-two thousand feet.

The mountain system is so great that it covers about a third of the country. Lying at different levels in the midst of these great sprawling mountain ranges are many plateaus and valleys.

It is in this sky-land region that 70 per cent of the country's population lives. This region is the source of

Preparing to remove the mercury that is still with the gold in these balls





Peru's mineral wealth—copper, gold, silver, lead, zinc, and vanadium. Vanadium is not found in many parts of the world. It is used in the manufacture of steel to give it greater strength. Peru produces about a third of the world's supply of this valuable mineral.

Only a small proportion of the 70 per cent of Peru's population which lives in this mountainous region is engaged in any kind of mining. Much of the mining is done by machines. Most of the people, even in this highland region, are engaged in farming.

**Unused farm land.** On the east side of the great Andes are long slopes which run down to a lowland section. The eastern slopes of the Andes and the eastern lowland section make up more than half of Peru, but there are not many people in the region. Parts of it are little known and practically unexplored. In the northeast, where it borders on the Amazon Basin, it is covered by dense forests and tropical vegetation. Some parts are open country of rolling fertile fields. All of it is humid and warm, and there is abundant rainfall. Floods are not unusual.

Transportation lines are being built to connect the plateau region, where most of the people live, with the eastern section. Already parts of the region can be reached by automobile and truck. Land is being put under cultivation.

On the streets of Lima you may see an occasional truck load of vegetables. You would not see such vegetables on the plantations along the hot, dry coastlands, and you may be quite sure that they were not grown in the cold, mountainous plateau region. They came from one of the valleys on the eastern slopes of the Andes. Some day the eastern section may become a rich farming region.

**Manufacturing.** Manufacturing has always existed in Peru to a certain extent in the form of hand crafts. In recent years there has been a considerable increase in this industry, but it is confined largely to the making of things which can be produced from the raw materials grown in the country. Peru buys most of the manufactured goods which she uses from other countries.

**Foreign trade.** The prosperity of Peru and her people depends largely on her foreign trade. She must sell her raw materials to other countries in order to buy from them the things which she needs. If anything happens to her foreign market, Peru suffers. The United States supplies most of the things bought abroad and in turn is the leading purchaser of Peru's products.

**Transportation.** The airplane has been a great help in opening up isolated spots in Latin America. The difficulty of building railroads and highways in a mountainous country is not present in air transportation. Wherever there is a good landing field airplanes can alight, and the expense of building bridges and blasting necessary for the construction of highways along the sides of mountains is thus avoided.

Peru is served by at least four commercial air lines. These four lines give the country good service within the nation and connect it with other South American republics and with the United States. According to flying schedules, Peru is only three days distant from New York, an actual flying time of thirty-two hours. The planes do not fly at night.

Steamship service connects Peru with all the countries of the Americas, Europe, and Asia.

The country has railroads and highways which link the coastal plain with the plateau region. Callao is the best

harbor. In fact, it is the only place on the coast of Peru where you can step off your steamer onto a dock, but even this has been possible only since 1934. For hundreds of years Callao was a sleepy, untidy Spanish village. It existed only to handle goods and passengers for Lima, the capital city. Then the government spent many millions of dollars developing the harbor and building docks, and now Callao has come to life. It is a modern bustling seaport. Boulevards and a railway connect it with Lima.

Most of the highways of the country are on the low coastal plain. You can travel from one seaport to another with ease. Since 1937 the government has been giving a great deal of attention to its highway program. Several new roads are under construction in the mountain region which will connect the upland region with the eastern lowland section. Building highways in the mighty Andes is expensive. Let us take a trip out of Lima over one of these new highways and see why the construction of roads is slow and difficult.

**A visit to Peru.** We shall take a journey up from Lima across the high upland and down into the land on the east side of the mountains. Peru has built many excellent roads to connect the cities and towns of the low coastal region with many little feeder roads which reach like so many fingers from the coastlands up to the cities and towns of the mountainous section. Now roads are under construction which eventually will connect the different towns that lie along the backbone of the country, and some headway has been made in building highways that will connect the towns of the upland with the lands to the east.

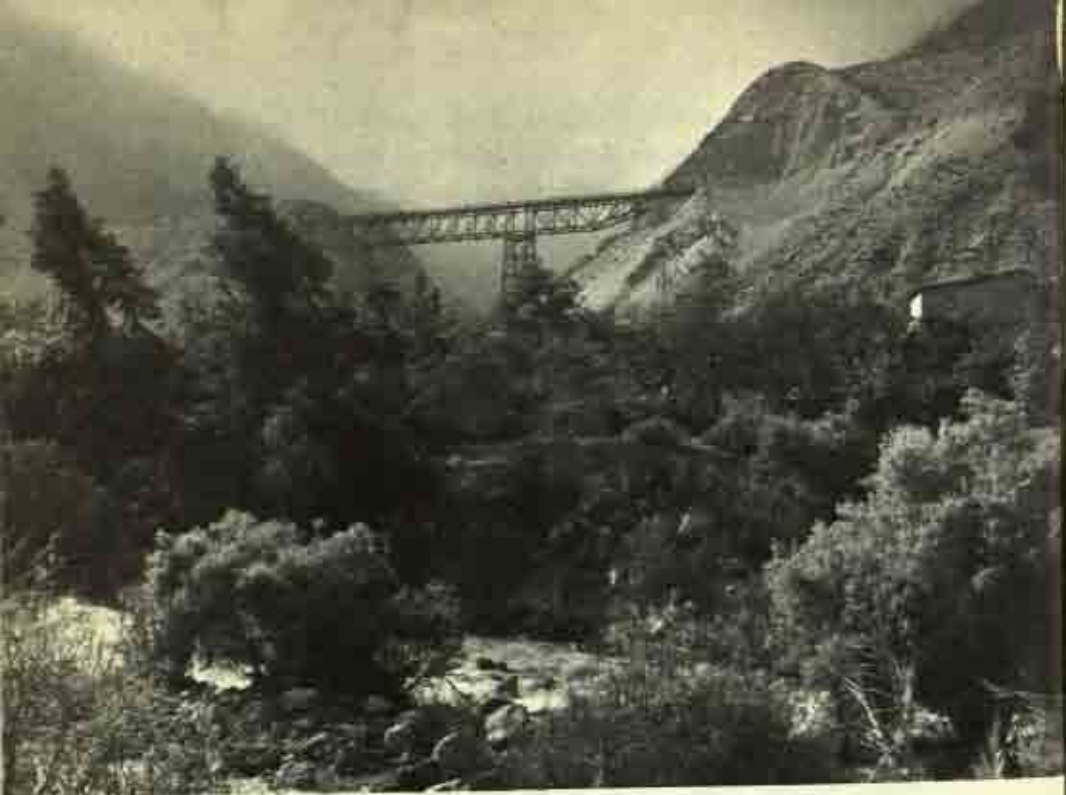
*We leave Lima by car.* We leave Lima early in the morning in a small car. (Almost all Peru's automobiles



and trucks are made in the United States.) We follow an excellent highway out of Lima and along the Rimac River. We climb steadily higher, for Lima is on the western slope of the Andes, and we are going up to the highlands that lie between this western range and an eastern range of the Andes, so our driver does not travel very fast. The river valley grows constantly narrower until it seems not more than a hundred yards from one wall of the canyon to the other. So deep and narrow is the canyon that the sunshine reaches the floor of its valley only at noontime.

*The railroad and its suspension bridge.* At forty-three miles from Lima we have climbed to fifty-five hundred feet, and we pass under a great railroad bridge suspended between two cliffs more than two hundred fifty feet above our heads.

There is a story about this railroad which runs from the Pacific up to the mines in the mountains of Peru. Many people thought it could not be built. They did not see how any engineer could build a railroad up mountain cliffs so steep that a llama had difficulty to cling to them. But the famous engineer who built the road said, "I will suspend the railroad by balloons if I cannot get there any other way." Of course, he did not do that, but he did have to burrow through tunnels and chisel out a roadbed along deep, narrow gorges and around hairpin turns in order to reach the uplands. The trains that run over this railroad pull supplies up the steep way to the mines where copper and other minerals are secured for shipment to the outside world. Finally they reach Oroya, a town which we shall visit on our trip by car. Oroya is the center of the copper-mining region and is a railroad terminal. Farmers and settlers on the east side of the



The Central Railroad of Peru, the highest broad-gauge railroad in the world

mountains for long years brought their coffee and sugar by llama and mule train to Oroya for shipment down to the coast. Now this highway on which we are riding makes it possible for trucks and buses and automobiles to travel all the way from the Pacific over to the eastern jungle.

After we pass under the mile-high railroad bridge we can see the railroad track zigzagging back and forth as it climbs on up the almost perpendicular walls of the mountains. Our highway climbs up these same mountains. As we look back we see the road twisting down

thousands of feet below us very much like a corkscrew. Finally, at the ten-thousand-foot point we stop to look down into the valley. It is too narrow for the growing of any plants down along the river. The sun never reaches the floor of the canyon, but climbing up the sides of the mountains are tiny terraces, like continuous stairs which rise from the river bed almost to the top of the mountain. All of these tiny terraces are irrigated in the same manner and by the same methods that were used by the ancient Incas more than a thousand years ago. Every snowflake and every drop of rain is caught as it hits the top of the mountain and is carried down through ditches and tiny canals to the grass and corn which need the moisture.

Now we travel on, still climbing. The railroad climbs along first on one side of the highway and then on the other. Every few miles now the mountains completely close in, and the road squeezes through a tunnel and comes out in another narrow valley. The walls of each of these valleys is cultivated to the very top.

At eleven thousand feet our car seems to be without rubber tires if we judge by the way it jolts along. We stop to see about the tires. Naturally, as we have climbed upward the air pressure has become less and less. The pressure inside the tires is now far greater than the pressure outside. The tires are as hard as steel. So we allow some air to escape and then ride more comfortably.

At a point eighty-three miles from Lima we cross the ridge of the western range of mountains, really the western boundary of the upland region. Here our highway is sixteen thousand feet above sea level. It is not easy to believe that we are in the tropics. The winds are icy cold, and it is already snowing on some of the great mountain



peaks that rise even higher than our highway. Now we are actually on top of the great plateau.

*Indians.* This is the homeland of the ancient Incas. The people we meet on the highway are not mixed-breeds. They are pure-blood Indians. Among themselves they speak the ancient Inca language. The driver tells us that they still dress in the same manner and wear the same costumes and follow much the same customs as they did in the days of the Inca rulers. The women wear at least a half-dozen full, billowing skirts. These skirts are made of many different colors, so that the wearers seem almost to be dressed in rainbows. Over their shoulders the women wear big scarlet or purple woolen shawls. Sometimes there is a baby peering out of the shawl on the back of a woman. Always these women are spinning yarn from alpaca wool. Whether they are sitting or standing, their hands are always busy.

*Puntas.* Here on the plateau between two great ranges of mountains are herds of llamas and alpacas grazing on the pale green grass which manages to grow here. Along the highway we pass trains of llamas with bags of coffee and sugar on their backs making their way toward Oroya. The natives call these trains of animals *puntas*. Each *punta* has a leader. The lead animal wears a fancy head-dress with colored tassels, and around its neck is a string of small bells. For hundreds of years such *puntas* have been carrying merchandise through this age-old mountain country. The keeper of each *punta*—maybe we would call him the herder—knows exactly how much of a load to place on the llama's back. Our driver tells us that the llama will carry one hundred pounds and no more. If another pound is added, the animal refuses to move.

*Oroya.* Finally we reach Oroya. It is late afternoon,



A trainload of copper leaving a great mining camp at Cerro de Pasco

and the cool winds are blowing copper-colored dust up and down the street. There are crowds of people in the main street, for it is market day. Here and there, squatting on the curbstones, are groups of women busy gossiping, spinning yarn, and selling their products to whoever wishes to buy them. No one asks you to buy. You may look and examine and handle and ask the price and then walk on. There will be no dissatisfaction. Great numbers of things are displayed for sale. There are cheap shoes, pottery, woven blankets, sugar cane, vegetables, and fruit of all kinds. Many of these women have come from valleys and plateaus as far as fifty miles away. Mar-

ket day is almost more a social occasion than a business affair. No Indian would miss the opportunity to exchange greetings and news with his fellow men if he could possibly help it.

Oroya is a smelter town for copper. We have already told you that it is the railroad center of the mining section of Peru. Smelters are owned by an American company. This company has a large mine ninety-three miles to the north which is connected with this town by a railroad built by the mining company itself. Also, this company has several smaller mines in and about Oroya. The copper ore is brought to Oroya for smelting. Our driver tells us that every shovelful of copper ore taken from the copper mines contains silver and sometimes gold. The mining industry in this part of Peru is not at all new. The ancient Incas mined gold here centuries before the Spaniards came. When the Spaniards came, they forced the Incas to work the mines for their new masters.

At Oroya the main railroad line from Callao and Lima ends. There is a branch line running some seventy-five miles southward along the top of the plateau and then a road which leads on in the direction of Cuzco, the capital of the Inca Empire. At some future time Lima and the cities and towns of the plateau may have good railroad connection, but just now the government is giving most of its attention to the building of highways.

The highway over which we have traveled from Lima to Oroya is the first link of what may become a great national highway system connecting the coast with the plateau and also with the rich farm lands to the east. Already a rough highway has been graded a number of miles to the north of Oroya. It leads over the eastern range of mountains down into the valleys of rivers which



flow northward into the Amazon. Also, a highway has been started southward. Eventually it will be built through to Cuzco.

But we are not going north or south. We are going on to the east over the eastern range of mountains and down the eastern slope. When we leave Oroya in the morning, almost immediately we start climbing the sides of the eastern range. There are hairpin curves and corkscrew turns as we climb up the eastern range and drop down occasionally into deep valleys. Here the valleys seem to be no more than bottomless slits in the high plateau, but somehow the road manages to drop down and then climb out of them. Now and then we hear llama bells in the distance, yet no llamas are to be seen. Then suddenly the head, or leader, llama comes trotting over the horizon, and finally a whole punta emerges from one of these narrow gorges.

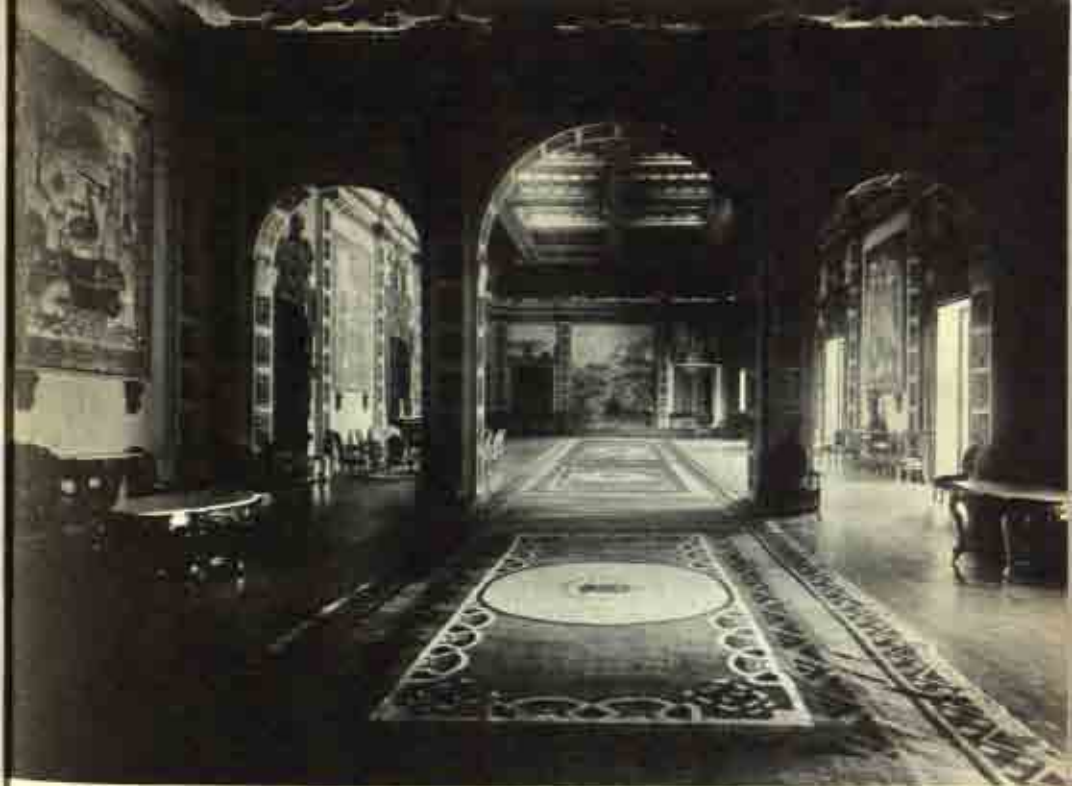
*The eastern valley.* Late in the afternoon we come out on a mountain shelf and look down into a great valley which stretches out before us. This valley is very different from the narrow gorges we have seen on our trip over from Oroya. Tall eucalyptus trees wave their leaves in the breeze. In their shade are the village houses. On the hillside are fields of corn and all kinds of vegetable gardens. All of them are beautifully kept. This is the eastern valley that furnishes most of the vegetables for the city of Lima. From this valley cabbages, carrots, radishes, and melons are carried over the eastern ridge of mountains, over the plateau, and then over the western ridge, and down into the city of Lima. They travel over the same highway on which we have traveled. Although this valley is ten thousand feet high, vegetables grow here the year round.

We are told in this valley that if we wish to drive on into the lands that border the Amazon jungle, we shall be able to do so. From this high valley we could descend to the lowlands by means of tunnels and grooves cut out of the mountain side over a roadway that was built over an old llama trail. At places where there is not room for the road, it is built out on balcony-like walls which overhang gorges thousands of feet deep. In many places the road is just about the width of the car. Over this trail there is one-way traffic. Cars go down to the Amazon lowlands on one day and return on the next. At no place is there room for cars to pass one another. We decide not to make this trip into the rich, lush land of Peru's lowlands. Our trip over the upland has given us an idea of the difficulty of building highways in a mountainous country. We understand why Peru has not had money enough to build many highways.

**The people.** In Peru, as in Bolivia, only about one person in ten is white. Three or four persons out of ten are of Indian and white blood, and about five out of every ten people are of pure Indian stock. Most of the Indians are the descendants of the ancient Incas.

**Education.** One of the two oldest universities in the Western Hemisphere is located at Lima, Peru. We have already mentioned the University of San Marcos. There are some primary schools, four universities, schools of arts and trades, schools for training teachers, and schools for the instruction of sailors and soldiers. Because of wars and the lack of money little progress has been made in developing a free public-school system.

**Government.** Peru is a republic and has a president who is elected for five years. It has a congress very much like that of the United States. The privilege of voting is



The reception room of the Presidential Palace in Lima. (See page 93.)

restricted to men who are twenty-one years or more of age. In order to vote these men must own property and must be able to read and write. When a large percentage of a country can neither read nor write and when thousands of the people are desperately poor, these requirements mean not only that the women have no voice in the government but also that a large proportion of the men cannot vote. So Peru is a democracy in form only. When the country becomes more prosperous, as it may when more of its rich farm land is opened up, there will be more funds for schools and probably more people will have a part in the government.



The story of Peru. In South America civilization got its start in Peru. It was here that the Incas established the center of their great empire. It was here also that the Spanish conquerors established the capital of one of the greatest viceroyalties of America. It was the Spaniard Francisco Pizarro, conqueror of the Incas, who took possession of the great Inca Empire and established his capital at Lima in 1535. It was from this city that the Spanish ruled the land of the Incas for almost three hundred years. During this long period the Indians suffered greatly. The Spanish kings wished to treat their colonists well, but they were far from Spain and they had little opportunity to learn about the abuses which the people suffered. The Spanish officials forced the natives to work long hours in the mines. Hard labor, disease, and the intoxicating liquors brought by the white men took many Indian lives.

*Independence.* Peru waited longer than some of the other Spanish colonies to declare her independence from Spain, probably because the country was the stronghold of the Spanish government. The fortress at Callao was the South American headquarters for the Spanish armies. At last San Martin came to Peru to help the people gain their freedom. Then came Bolivar to give assistance. The final battle of the whole revolution was fought in Peru on the plain of Ayacucho, as you know.

*War with Chile.* Peru's trouble did not end with the withdrawal of Spanish troops. There followed a long period of upheaval in government. Just when there seemed to be some improvement in government and a prospect of quiet, a long war arose with Chile over the rich nitrate fields on the border of the countries. This question was not settled until 1929, when the nitrate fields were divided between the two nations.

*Dispute with Ecuador.* In 1941 Peru and Ecuador exchanged blows over their boundaries. The dispute was settled by a new treaty which gave Peru an additional sixty-five thousand square miles of territory.

Peru is an example of countries which have been kept in a constant turmoil by border warfare. There can be no real progress or prosperity until a country has peace. No other one thing has caused so many upheavals in South America as this question of boundaries.

*The future.* Although Peru as the ancient home of the mighty Incas has known civilization for many centuries, her forests and rich farm lands to the east of the Andes have scarcely been touched. Just now the nation is in need of more and better lines of transportation and new settlers.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Some questions to answer:

1. What is the chief agricultural product of Peru's warm, dry coastal plain?
2. Why does not Peru use more of its oil?
3. Why do the farmers of the Peruvian uplands terrace the mountain sides to make farm land when the rich lands on the eastern side of the mountains are unused?
4. Did the Incas terrace their farm land?
5. Name and locate Peru's largest city.
6. Name and locate Peru's chief port.
7. What facts about Peru seem most interesting to you?

B. Prepare a report on the fertilizer guano, which is obtained in the coast region of Peru.

C. Be ready to tell the class about Lake Titicaca, describing it and reporting on the Indians of old who lived near the lake and the Indians there today.

D. A motion picture:

*Peru* (1 reel, silent). Shows the coastal region, the plateau, the interior lowlands, the natives, and the Inca ruins.

E. Some books which you will enjoy reading:

Malkus, Alida S.—*Along the Inca Highway*; Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1941. A trip by plane contrasted with earlier transportation.

Malkus, Alida S.—*The Citadel of a Hundred Stairways*; Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1941. The story of a friendship between a North American boy and an Indian.

Malkus, Alida S.—*The Silver Llama*; Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1939. The story of a white llama which always brings good luck to its owner.

Thomas, M. L.—*The Pack Train Steamboat*; Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1932. The story of how the first steamboat for Lake Titicaca, the highest navigable lake in the world, was brought up the mountains by pack train.





## ECUADOR

**Map questions.** Peru claimed a part of the eastern section of Ecuador. Look at the map and tell why you think this eastern section may be of value some day. How does the coastal region of Ecuador differ from that of Peru? How does the mountainous region differ from that of Bolivia?

**The country.** The republic of Ecuador lies on the Equator. The name Ecuador means "Equator" in the Spanish language, but the country is not so warm as its location might suggest. This is because much of it is on a plateau which rises more than a mile and a half above sea level. In other words, Ecuador has what is called a vertical climate. It is very warm on the low coastal plain, but it is always cool, almost uncomfortably cool, on the high plateau.

The mountains of Ecuador are not so high as those of Peru and Bolivia, but they are high enough to give a large part of the country a cool climate. The Andes divide into two parts in Ecuador as they do in Peru, and between the ranges lies a great upland region.

It was difficult to tell exactly how large Ecuador was because it had long had a dispute with Peru over its eastern boundary. In 1942 the two countries agreed to settle on a definite boundary line. Previously Ecuador had claimed an area about the size of our states of Utah, Nevada, and Arizona combined, or an area about twice the size of our state of California. The new boundary lines give Peru a large slice of Ecuador's eastern territory. According to the agreement Ecuador is, of course, considerably smaller than it was.

**The people.** About seven out of every ten people in Ecuador are either Indian or have some Indian blood. For the most part they live a poor life, struggling to get their living either by working on the plantations along the coastal plain or by farming for themselves up on the high plateaus. On the whole they are better off than the Indians of Peru because some of them own their own land, and the climate of the plateau region is such that they can grow more of their own foodstuffs than can the people in Peru.

**Galápagos Islands.** Ecuador owns some interesting islands which lie about six hundred miles off its coast directly on the Equator—the Galápagos Islands. There are about sixteen islands in the group and a number of little rocky islets. Some of the islands are quite large. Albemarle Island is somewhat larger than our state of Rhode Island. Very few people live on these islands. In fact, only two of the islands can be said to be inhabited.



**Farming in an Ecuador valley**

The islands take their name from a huge land tortoise living there. These tortoises sometimes weigh as much as six hundred pounds and are said to live two hundred years. They are found nowhere else in the world except on some islands near Madagascar. The government of Ecuador has taken measures to protect these interesting animals by making it unlawful to kill, capture, injure, or even disturb them. In fact, it is unlawful for yachts, steamers, boats, or airplanes of any kind to land a person on any one of these islands without having obtained the permission of the government to do so.

**Quito.** Quito, the capital city of the country, is located over nine thousand feet high. It was a city before white men came to the Americas, inhabited by Indians who





The Plaza Independencia, Quito. Quito is almost on the Equator but because of its altitude the climate is cool.  
Near by is the volcano Pichincha.

were subjects of the powerful Incas. They lived very much as the Incas did.

**The plateau region.** Almost the same crops as we find in the Temperate Zone of the United States grow in the plateau region. There are fields of wheat, potatoes, barley, and the other products that we find in our country, but the real farming section of Ecuador is on the low coastal plain.

**The coastal plain.** The coastal plain is wider in Ecuador than it is in either Chile or Peru. Also there is another important difference. North of the fine harbor of Guayaquil the plain not only spreads out and becomes a wide fertile region but there is also plenty of rainfall. This

is in sharp contrast to the narrow coastal plain of Peru and Chile, where a large part of the coastal region is either so dry that nothing can be grown or products are grown only with the aid of irrigation.

**Products.** On the coastal plain of Ecuador are many great plantations of cacao trees. The hot moist lands along the coast are just right for growing these trees. The beans of the cacao tree furnish us with chocolate and are the principal export of the country. Great quantities of cacao beans are shipped from Guayaquil, and the United States buys most of them. Cacao is the chief source of Ecuador's wealth.

Other products are grown on the humid, warm lands along the coast. They are sugar, cotton, tobacco, corn, rice, potatoes, and fruits. Most of these are used at home. Coffee is grown on the mountain slopes, but its production is not so important as that of cacao.

**Vegetable ivory.** In the harbor at Guayaquil are docks stocked high with bags of tagua nuts. This is an interesting product. Some people call tagua nuts "vegetable ivory," because it is from these white solid nuts that umbrella handles, buttons, and many other things which look much like ivory are made. Tagua trees grow wild in Ecuador, and many people make their living by collecting the nuts which are the fruit of the tree and drying them for shipment to the United States, England, and other countries.

**Panama hats.** Also from the region of Guayaquil come most of the comfortable white straw hats which we call "Panama hats." Hundreds of women and children in the region around Guayaquil earn their living by weaving them.

Long ago the people of Ecuador and Colombia had to



Loading bananas at Guayaquil, Ecuador's chief commercial city

carry the hats they made up to Panama to be sold. Americans on their way across the Isthmus of Panama to California during the gold rush bought them and found them so comfortable that they kept on buying them. They are still called "Panama hats," because that was where the people of the United States first purchased them. The straw used comes from a scrub-forest plant.

**Minerals.** There are many deposits of minerals on the high plateaus of Ecuador, but mining is not important. Very few minerals are exported. Petroleum from the region around Guayaquil is becoming of increasing importance. Dozens of little tankers carry petroleum down



the Guayaquil River to the harbor to be loaded on larger boats for shipment to other countries.

**Guayaquil.** The city of Guayaquil is actually larger than the capital city, Quito. It is on a river about forty miles from the coast and is one of the best harbors on the west coast of South America. Once this harbor was shunned by boats of foreign countries because the city was bothered by yellow fever and sailors feared the disease. Now the government of Ecuador has cleaned up the city, and ships dock without fear of the crews' contracting this dread disease.

**Eastern section.** Ecuador, like the other countries on the

#### Weaving a Panama hat





The plaza in Guayaquil. The railway that connects Guayaquil and Quito represents one of the greatest engineering feats in the world.

Pacific coast, has an eastern section which is well watered. A large part of it is a rolling plain which may some day be good farm land. Ecuador has never had the money to undertake the construction of highways and railroads to connect this region with other parts of the country. Therefore, it is unsettled and little known except to the Indians of a few settlements along its navigable rivers. Some of the region has been the subject of dispute between Ecuador and Peru. Much of it now belongs to Peru according to a recent boundary settlement.

### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Some questions to answer:

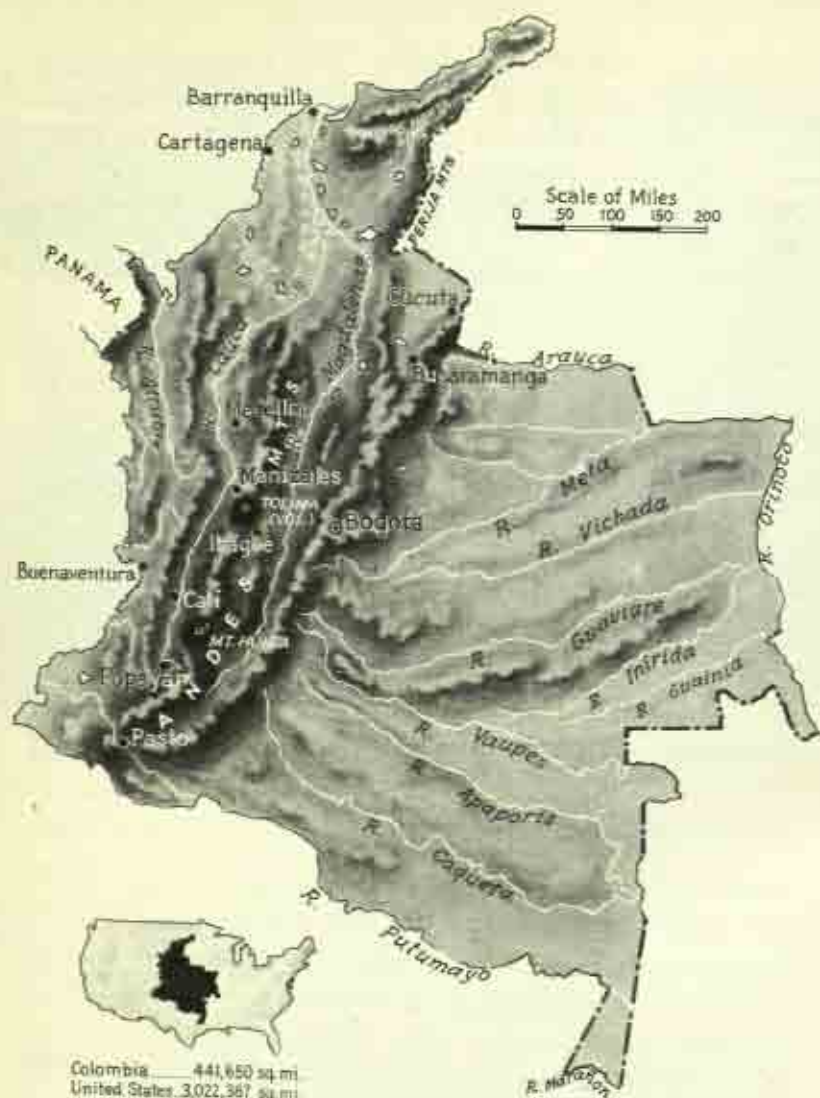
1. Why is the coastal plain of Ecuador well watered whereas that of Peru is dry?
2. What does the name "Ecuador" mean?
3. What are the principal products shipped from Guayaquil?
4. Why can Ecuador properly be called "the land where it is always spring"?

B. Find out how chocolate and cocoa are made from the cacao bean. Perhaps a committee will make a report to the class.

C. A motion picture to show:

*This Is Ecuador* (20 min., sound). An analysis of Ecuador's resources with views of Guayaquil and Quito.





## COLOMBIA

**Map questions.** What do you see about this map that suggests Colombia may have better water transportation than Ecuador or Peru? Where is Colombia joined to the North American continent?

**The country.** Colombia is fourth in size of the South American republics. It is almost as large as our states of Arizona, New Mexico, Nevada, and Colorado combined.

If you will glance at the map, you will see that about two fifths of the country sits astride the great Andes. As these mountains approach the Caribbean Sea, or the Atlantic Ocean, they divide like three huge fingers and spread over much of the country.

Colombia is the only one of the ten republics on the South American continent that has both an Atlantic and a Pacific coast. Also, it has the great Magdalena River, which rises in the southern part of the country and flows northward to the Atlantic between the second and third great mountain ranges. The waters of the Magdalena are navigable for more than six hundred miles from its mouth. Also, there is the Cauca, a branch of the Magdalena, which runs almost parallel to it between the first and second mountain ranges. It also is navigable for a part of its distance.

With two ocean seaboard and two long navigable rivers it might seem that Colombia was well supplied with natural water routes, but actually transportation is one of the country's great problems.



The Andes form the background of this street in a Colombia town.



The Magdalena and the Cauca rivers flow through the valleys of mountain ranges, and hence many waterfalls and rapids add to the difficulties of navigating these streams. Then, too, transportation along these rivers is made more uncertain by sharp changes in rainfall. There are high waters during the rainy season, but during the dry season the water becomes so low the river boats are left high and dry along the banks of the streams. There they are forced to wait for higher water.

**Up the Magdalena River.** Possibly you will understand the difficulties of water transportation on the Magdalena if we take a trip up the stream to the city of Bogotá, which is the capital and the largest city of Colombia. We shall go down to the ocean on the Atlantic side and make our trip up the stream with a load of machinery. The machinery is unloaded at Puerto Colombia, the ocean port on the Atlantic seventeen miles below Barranquilla. Barranquilla is a river port. Once the machinery is unloaded from the ocean steamer, it must be taken off the docks and placed on freight cars and carried up to Barranquilla by rail. In Barranquilla we have to wait two or three days for a river steamer. The schedule of the river steamers is always uncertain because of delays in navigating the Magdalena. Once our machinery is loaded on the river boat and we are safely on board, we begin our journey up the Magdalena toward La Dorada, about six hundred miles up the river, where there are huge rapids which our boat cannot travel. When we leave Barranquilla no one can tell us how many days it will take to reach La Dorada, for boats are frequently delayed on sand bars because of low water. But the pilot of our boat is very successful in feeling his way around sand bars, and so in about five or six days we reach La Dorada. Here the



The Magdalena River. Since early colonial times this river has been Colombia's principal route for commerce and communication.

machinery is again unloaded and again placed on railroad cars to be hauled around the rapids. Once the cargo is on the other side of the rapids, it is placed on another river boat, and again we steam up river toward the town of Girardot.

*By rail from Girardot to Bogotá.* At Girardot we say good-by to our boat and have our load of machinery transferred to a railroad which is to carry it up to Bogotá. Again we are on our way, and now it seems that our journey is nearing an end, but about halfway up to Bogotá

we suddenly come to a stop. The railway goes on but unfortunately the gauge of the railroad, that is, the width between the rails, changes, and the railroad cars we are riding on can go no farther. Once again our machinery is unloaded. Now it is placed on other cars, and after considerable delay we are off again. Finally, almost three weeks after leaving Puerto Colombia, we reach Bogotá.

If you will count the number of times our load of machinery was loaded and unloaded, you will know one reason why any goods which are brought in to Bogotá are very costly and also why any goods shipped out of central Colombia are very expensive by the time they reach the outside world. It costs about sixty dollars a ton to ship coffee from the region of Bogotá down to the coast. This is several times what it costs to ship a ton of coffee from New York to Chicago.

Possibly you will think we might have taken our load of machinery overland from Barranquilla either by rail or by highway. That would have been impossible, for Bogotá has neither rail nor good highway connections with the coast. In spite of all the difficulties we encountered in carrying our load of machinery up the Magdalena, the route we used is the best means of transporting heavy cargoes from the Atlantic coast to Bogotá.

If we had landed our machinery on the Pacific coast, at Buenaventura, we would have transported it most of the way by rail. A railroad connects Bogotá with Buenaventura with the exception of one short gap where trucks and passenger buses provide service.

**Transportation.** If the machinery could have gone by air, the trip would have been short indeed. Passengers, mail, and express are flown into Bogotá every day. Bogotá is just two and a half hours distant from Barran-



quilla. Bogotá is well served by air lines. Regular flights reach Bogotá and connect it with all the principal cities of the republic and with the outside world. But air lines do not solve the problem of transporting heavy cargoes, such as machinery, coffee, and wheat.

The building of enough modern railroads and highways in Colombia is extremely difficult and very expensive because of great mountain gorges, high mountain ridges, and heavy rains. Colombia, like all other Latin-American nations, was left very poor after its long period of Spanish rule and the great struggle for independence. If the Colombian government could either borrow or raise the money to develop its transportation system, there is little doubt that it might become one of the leading nations of South America, ranking with Argentina, Brazil, and Chile.

In all Colombia there are only five thousand miles of highway that are suited for any kind of wheeled vehicle, and only a few of these miles are paved. Most of this highway construction, and the finest part, is Colombia's section of the great Pan American Highway. A highway now runs from Cúcuta, on the border of Venezuela, over the highlands to Bogotá, through Cali, and then to the border of Ecuador. As for railroads, there are only nineteen hundred miles in the country. Our state of Texas, which is not much more than half the size of Colombia, has 40,985 miles of roads suited for travel the year round and 16,473 miles of railroad. So you can see that Colombia it not well served in the matter of transportation.

**The people.** The people of Colombia are white, Indian, Negro, and mixed-bloods. Out of every ten people in Colombia about five are a mixture of white, Indian, and Negro; one is white; three are Negro or Negro mixtures; and one is Indian. There are many Indians living in

remote, little-known parts of the country almost as their ancestors lived when the first white men came to the Americas.

Most of the people of Colombia live in the highland section of the country because Colombia is in the tropics, and in order to find a cool and livable climate, it is necessary to have altitude. Then, too, it is a large region, being about two fifths of the country.

Colombia has three regions. Colombia, like most of the countries which border on the Pacific side of South America, is a land of three regions. There is a large highland region which lies among the Andes, an even larger plains section to the southeast, and coastal lowlands along the Pacific and the Caribbean.

**The highland region.** In the highland region the valleys are good for the growing of sugar cane, and the high slopes are used for raising coffee. On the very high slopes there is good pasture for cattle and sheep.

**Coffee.** Colombia's most important agricultural product is coffee. The soil and climate of the mountain slopes

A branch full of coffee berries





Drying coffee in racks in the sun



seem to be just right for the growing of excellent coffee berries. Colombia is second to Brazil in coffee production, but its coffee brings a higher price. Colombian mountain-grown coffee berries are often mixed with the stronger Brazilian coffee berries. Most of it is bought by the United States.

One of the principal problems of producing coffee is getting it down from the mountain farms to the seacoast. Usually it is taken on mule-back, but sometimes it is carried on the backs of human porters down the mountain trails to some railroad or river where a slow-moving river boat carries it down to Barranquilla. Occasionally little cars that swing on strong cables are used to carry coffee down the steep mountain sides to some line of transportation. Often it is five or more months after the coffee leaves the plantation before it reaches the ocean port for shipment to another country.

*Petroleum.* Petroleum is fast becoming an important export product. It comes from the eastern part of this highland section, much of it from the Magdalena Valley around Barranca. Both Colombian companies and American companies are developing fields and building pipe lines across the mountains to the coast. These pipe lines are difficult and expensive to build, and it has taken foreign capital, or money, to develop the oil industry.

*Minerals.* Gold and silver are what brought the Spanish into Colombia, and from the time the first Spanish explorer landed until today the mining of gold and silver has been important. There are also important platinum and emerald mines. Colombia is the world's greatest producer of platinum. The mines are in the western part of the highland region. Many of them are reached from the Cauca River.



Mahogany logs awaiting shipment at the docks in Buenaventura

The coastal regions. There is only a very narrow fringe of lowland along the Pacific coast of Colombia. In the north along the Caribbean is a much larger low coastland.

The Pacific coastland is important chiefly for its seaport at Buenaventura. It is one of the few ports on the Pacific coast of South America where ships can come into the docks and so do not have to use lighters, or small boats, for loading and unloading cargo. From Buenaventura a railroad climbs the steep western slopes of the Andes to the highland city of Cali. From Cali there are short branches of the railroad line to the north and to the south. Many of the products of this part of the highland region—coffee, sugar, hides, and some gold—go over the

railroad line to Buenaventura for shipment. The coastal lands on the Pacific are sparsely inhabited, by Negroes chiefly.

*Barranquilla.* To the north along the Caribbean where the great Magdalena River emerges from the highlands is another low, tropical coastland. In this coastal region are three ports which rival one another in their efforts to secure the trade. Near the center of the region is Barranquilla, which is the port for most of the traffic which goes up the Magdalena. The lowlands east of the city are large swamps, but to the west are many small plantations where sugar and cotton are grown.

*Santa Marta.* East of Barranquilla is the old seaport of Santa Marta, founded in 1525. Long ago, when the Spanish were busy establishing themselves in Colombia, Santa Marta was an important seaport. It still has a good harbor, but it has lost much of its trade to Barranquilla. Santa Marta is now the center of another kind of activity. It is the port of a great banana-producing region. From its docks go many boatloads of fruit bound for the cities of the United States.

*Cartagena.* West of Barranquilla is another old seaport that is more famous historically than Santa Marta. Cartagena was established in 1533. Here the Spanish built a great fortress and a stronghold to protect their trade with South America. It was to Cartagena that ships from Spain brought their goods to be sold to Spanish American colonists from as far away as Buenos Aires. The Spanish spent many fortunes in building a good harbor at Cartagena, but during the wars for independence the harbor was allowed to fill with silt, so that it became useless for large boats. Now Cartagena again carries on considerable trade in gold and platinum, which are



brought in from the rich mining region drained by the Altrato River. On the lowlands near Cartagena considerable sugar and cotton are raised.

**Southeastern plains.** Southeast of the great highland region there is a vast plain. It includes about three fifths of the country. One part of this plains region, the llanos, is grassy or open pasture land. It is drained by streams that flow into the Orinoco River. In the llanos are thousands of cattle. Hides are an important product of the region. When better transportation is provided for this region, it may become a rich farming section.

Another part of the plains region which lies southeast of the mountains, where the rivers flow to the Amazon, is covered with heavy forest. From these forests come

**Plaza Bolivar in Bogotá.** Because there are many writers, artists, and students in Bogotá, the city is sometimes called the "Athens of America."



many hard woods, including mahogany. Also there are tropical products, as rubber and chicle, from which chewing gum is made. Most of the inhabitants of the forest section are Indians.

**Bogotá.** The old section of Bogotá is very Spanish indeed, with narrow streets and low houses with balconies, lovely patios, and great iron gates. It is all very much like an old Spanish village, as we might expect it to be, since it was founded by the Spanish conquerors in 1538.

Around the old section has risen a very modern city with several fine hotels, many movies, hospitals, libraries, and all the conveniences of a city in the United States.

In the center of the city is the Plaza Bolívar, with a large cathedral, or church, many government buildings, and a majestic statue of the Great Liberator, Bolívar. Bogotá is the capital of Colombia and the home of over three hundred thousand Colombians.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Some questions to answer:

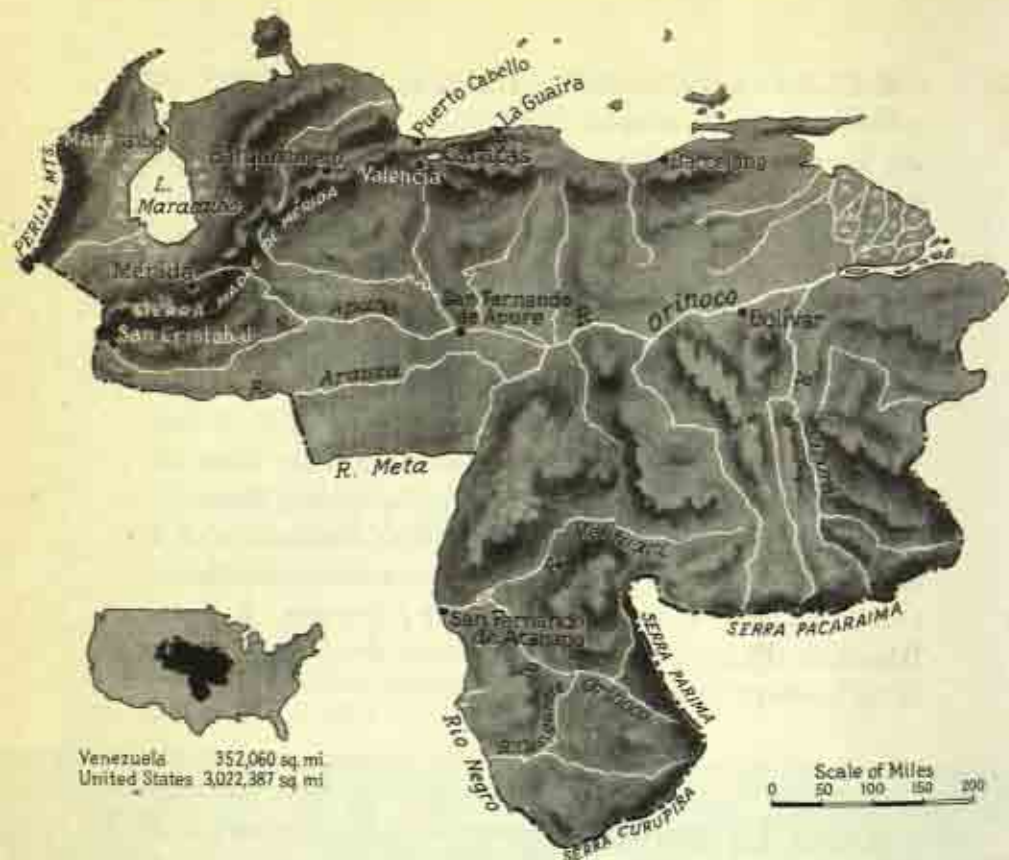
1. In whose honor was the republic of Colombia named?
2. What is the name of the old seaport in Colombia to which the Spanish once brought their cargo ships for trade with the Spanish American colonists?
3. What is Colombia's chief export to the United States?

B. On an outline map of Colombia show the regions where that country's chief products are obtained. You may wish to make this a pictorial map, using little pictures to represent the products.

C. A motion picture to show:

*Colombia, Crossroads of the Americas* (27 min., sound).

Shows the life and industries of the people.



## VENEZUELA

**Map questions.** Locate Lake Maracaibo, an arm of the sea which extends inland in western Venezuela. What river drains most of Venezuela?

**The country.** The republic of Venezuela is entirely in the Torrid Zone, and its climate is characteristic of the tropics. In the lowlands it is exceedingly warm, but the highlands are cool. This is another country with a verti-



cal climate. In those regions where the altitude is less than eight hundred feet the temperature usually ranges between  $75^{\circ}$  and  $97^{\circ}$ . Those parts of the country that lie between eight hundred and six thousand feet usually have temperatures between  $50^{\circ}$  and  $70^{\circ}$ , while at six thousand feet or higher it is very cold and the temperature seldom goes above  $14^{\circ}$  or  $15^{\circ}$ .

Venezuela—the name means "Little Venice"—is sixth in size among South American republics. Actually it is more than five times the size of our six New England states—Massachusetts, Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. To the north of the country lies the Caribbean Sea. Venezuela has more than seventeen hundred miles of coast line and several fine harbors.

The people. Venezuela has about the same number of people as Indiana, or about three and a half million. Actually Venezuela has fewer than half as many people as our New England states. About 10 per cent of the people are white, or predominantly so. About seven out of every ten persons in Venezuela are mestizos, or of mixed white and Indian blood. One out of every ten is Indian, and one in twenty is pure Negro.

Three regions. The country is divided into three natural regions. In the west, bordering Colombia, is a mountainous section where the Andes divide into two ranges and spread over the northwest corner of Venezuela. Between these two ranges are Lake Maracaibo and the rich oil lands of Venezuela. The eastern range of mountains is the home of most of the country's important cities and great coffee and cacao plantations. This western section, particularly the Maracaibo region, is the great money-producing part of the republic.



An old Mississippi River paddle steamer has a new home on the Orinoco River.

The central section of the republic, that is, the region stretching from the foothills of the eastern range of the Andes to the Orinoco River, is a great plains area. This llanos region feeds thousands of cattle.

The southern section of the country, the region south of the Orinoco, is a highland area. It includes about half of the republic. This is a jungle with few inhabitants.

**The Maracaibo Bowl.** Lake Maracaibo is really an arm of the sea which reaches far back between two arms of the Andes. Along the edges of the lake and even out in the lake, in forty or fifty feet of water, are oil derricks. There are hundreds of them reaching up to the skies like leafless trees. In many places around the lake there are great tanks for storing oil. Dozens of tugboats and oil



Oil wells in Lake Maracaibo. The oil industry has changed Maracaibo from a small, primitive town to a modern city ranking next to Caracas in population.





The highway between Caracas and La Guaira runs through rugged, mountainous country. A railroad also connects these cities.

barges are tied up at the docks near the oil tanks. Most of these oil wells are owned by European and American companies who pay the Venezuelan government a tax for every barrel of oil they take out of the country. The money which Venezuela has received from her oil fields has made her one of the most prosperous of South American countries. It has built new roads and new schools; it has improved farms and has made the country a more healthful place in which to live. Venezuela is one of the important oil-producing countries of the world. It ranks next to the United States and Russia in oil production.

**An agricultural region.** In the range of mountains east

of Lake Maracaibo are the farming section of Venezuela and many of its important cities. La Guaira is the chief seaport for this region. It lies near the middle of Venezuela's long Caribbean coast line.

*Caracas.* Let us travel into this region to visit Venezuela's most famous city, Caracas. We leave a plane or boat at La Guaira and take an automobile over a lovely modern highway up to the city of Caracas. Caracas is only about seven miles from La Guaira by air, but we travel about twenty-eight miles in order to reach it. The highway uses most of this mileage for twisting up the sides of the mountains which lie between La Guaira and Caracas. Caracas is one of the oldest cities in all South America, having been built in 1567. You already know that it is the birthplace of Simón Bolívar, and there are many things in Caracas to remind us of the Great Liberator. We are shown the big open square, or plaza, which is the center of every Latin-American city. In Caracas it is called the Plaza Bolívar, and it contains a great statue of Bolívar astride his fine horse. Here also is his tomb. Presidents of the republic of Venezuela always take their oath of office standing in front of the urn which contains the ashes of Bolívar. Out of Caracas for nearly eight hundred miles to the border of Colombia stretches the Simón Bolívar Highway. It is part of the Pan American Highway, but, like many things in Venezuela, it is named in honor of the Great Liberator.

Caracas, the capital city, is the center of Venezuela's rich agricultural district. This is the region of coffee and cacao plantations, but many other crops are raised also. At one time about 75 per cent of the people of Venezuela earned their living from some kind of farming, but in recent years the production of petroleum in the Maracaibo



A street in Caracas

Bowl has become so important that many people have left their farms for work in the oil fields. The result is that food is very expensive because the country does not produce all its food but ships in a large part of it. The government is doing everything it can to interest the people in going back to farming. The price of meals in Venezuela would soon melt away a supply of bolivars (the Venezuelan dollar is named in honor of the nation's hero). It is not strange that the government is trying to interest more people in growing foodstuffs.

**Minerals.** The southern part of the country, part of the Orinoco River basin and the mountainous section along the borders of British Guiana and Brazil, has the



fewest inhabitants of all the regions in Venezuela. For long years it was very difficult to reach this section of the country, but today you may make the trip by bus or you may travel by airplane and land in the principal city of the region, Ciudad Bolívar, in a couple of hours. South of Ciudad Bolívar rich deposits of gold and diamonds have been discovered. The government is holding back the opening of mines. Probably it is trying to find some way to keep this wealth for Venezuelans.

Ciudad Bolívar is not an old city in comparison with the earliest settlements in Latin America. The date of its founding is 1764. Ciudad Bolívar was at first a prosperous center for trade with Spain. Now its importance depends on such increase in interest as there may be in agriculture and cattle raising in the empty lands of the Orinoco or in the development of the iron mines there.

**Oil.** While diamonds and gold may not be flowing out of the region of Ciudad Bolívar, English and American oil companies are pumping oil out of the lands to the east of Ciudad Bolívar. Pipe lines are bringing the oil down to the rivers, whence it flows into tankers which worm their way down the jungle rivers to the Atlantic. Some day these oil fields of eastern Venezuela may put Maracaibo in second place as an oil-producing region.

**Asphalt.** While we are speaking of this southeastern region so rich in oil, we should tell you that there is a lake of asphalt here. You have all heard of the lake of asphalt on the island of Trinidad, which belongs to Great Britain. Possibly you have heard that it is the only lake of its kind in the world. This shows how little we know about some parts of South America. Lake Bermudez in the northeastern section of Venezuela is said to cover

thousands of acres, and, furthermore, there are reported to be several more lakes of asphalt in this part of the country.

### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Have each member of the class make a poster showing an economic advantage of a Latin American country—that is, a good way in which one could make a living there. See if you can have a class exhibit that will represent the twenty republics. You may like to have posters showing the vacation advantages of the Latin American countries also.

B. You can make some interesting line or bar graphs showing facts about Latin America. Make a graph showing the comparative sizes of the Latin American countries; the comparative populations; the largest cities. In your cities graph you might include cities that have a population of more than 200,000 people.

C. Write a good description of an outdoor scene that you might see in Latin America.

D. A way to get acquainted:

One pleasant way of becoming acquainted with a new region is to sample its food. Possibly some of the girls in your class are studying cooking in their home economics class and can prepare a Latin American menu. It is easy to secure good recipes of Latin American dishes. Here are some books which contain recipes; some of them you may get from your library, others are so inexpensive that your class may wish to buy copies.

Brown, Cora, Brown, Rose, and Brown, R. C.—*The South American Cook Book*; New York: Doubleday, Doran & Company, 1939. Contains not only recipes from South America but also from Central America, Mexico, and the island republics.

Dubber, Patricia—*Foreign Dishes*; Washington, D. C.: Washington Service Bureau. Includes recipes from Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina.

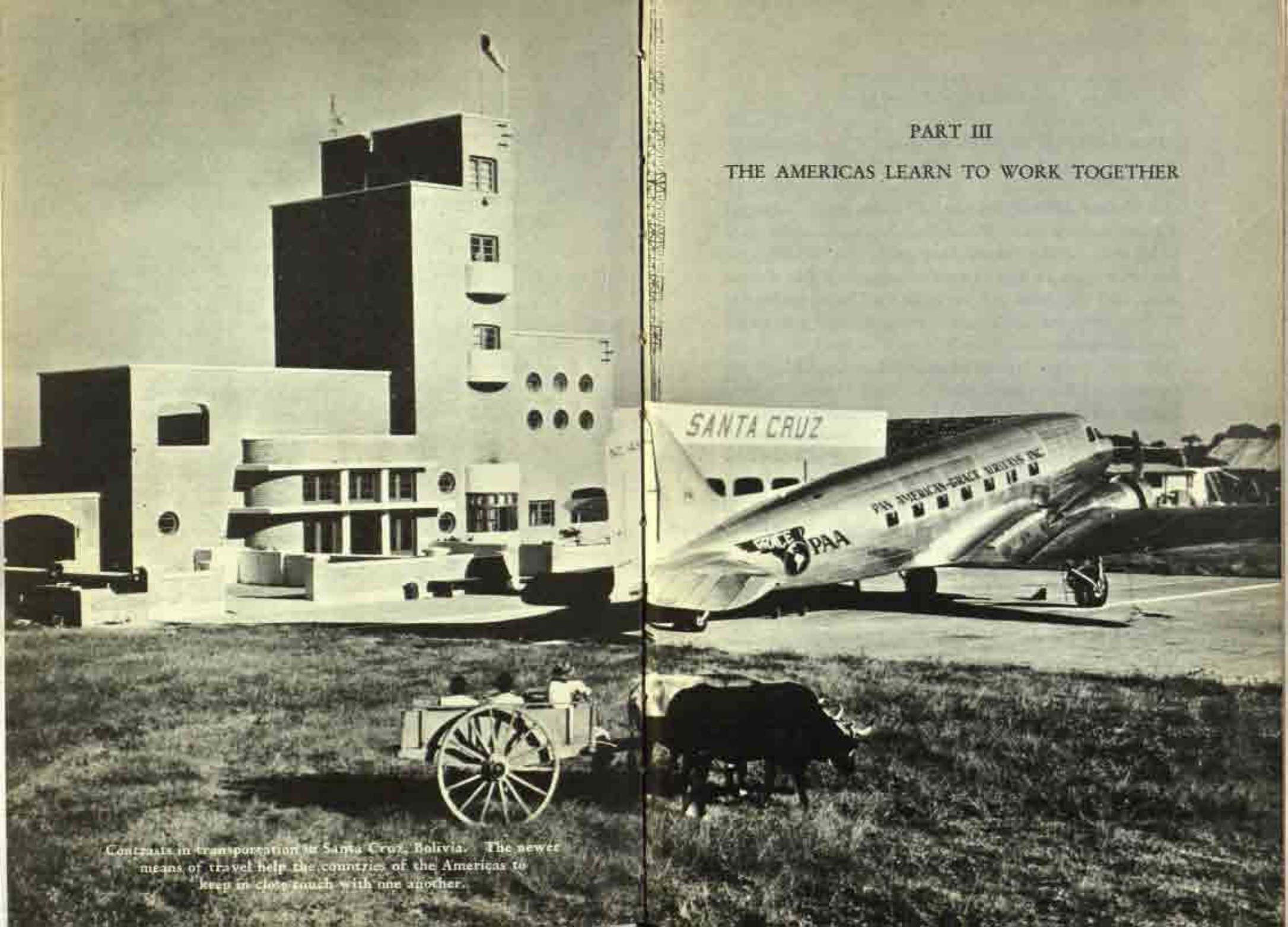
Garvin, Helen—*Fun and Festival from Latin America*; New York: Friendship Press, 1935.

*Kitchens from Many Lands*; Pittsburgh: Home Economics Department, H. J. Heinz Company. You may be able to obtain a copy of this attractive booklet free.

E. In this book we have mentioned two Latin-American coins with interesting names—the balboa of Panama and the bolivar of Venezuela. Refer to your dictionary or other books to find the meanings of these names of coins and the country in which each is used: boliviano, cordoba, quetzal, sucre. Is there any relationship between the words *quetzal* and *Quetzalcoatl*?

F. Why at many points along the north and the west coast of South America are there twin cities like La Guaira and Caracas?





### PART III

THE AMERICAS LEARN TO WORK TOGETHER

Contrasts in transportation in Santa Cruz, Bolivia. The newer means of travel help the countries of the Americas to keep in close touch with one another.

## THE UNITED STATES AND LATIN AMERICA LEARN TO WORK TOGETHER

Attitude of Latin America in 1917 and in 1941. When the United States entered World War I against Germany in 1917 seven of the twenty Latin-American republics remained neutral or friendly with Germany. This did not mean that they were unfriendly to the United States, but at least they did not consider an enemy of our nation their enemy also.

In 1941 when Japanese bombs were dropped on the territory of the United States at Pearl Harbor and the United States entered World War II, the attitude of the Latin-American nations was quite different from that of 1917. All except two—Argentina and Chile—very quickly declared their friendship for the United States. Chile acted early in 1943. Most of the Latin-American nations ordered the representatives of the governments of Japan, Germany, and Italy to leave their countries. In this way they informed the Axis nations they would not do business with them while they were at war with the United States. Some of the Latin-American nations even declared war on the Axis nations and began preparations to defend their territory against the Japanese, Germans, and Italians.

So for the first time in their history the United States and Latin America stood together as a "Family of Nations" when a European or Asiatic enemy threatened them. Even Argentina was friendly to the United States, but it did not wish to take sides in the struggle.



What had happened between World War I and 1941 that made the people of Latin America more friendly with the United States? There have been times in the history of the relations of the United States and Latin America when the southern republics have been suspicious and doubtful about their neighbor to the north. There have even been times when the United States and one of the Latin-American republics have had armed conflict over their differences. What is the story of how the United States and Latin America have learned to work together? It is a long story, but we shall tell it briefly.

**Friendly beginnings.** In the beginning it seemed as though the United States and the Latin-American republics should have no difficulty in being good friends. They were all young at about the same time, and because they were young, they were all interested in the same things. All of them wished to build strong and enduring governments and to develop the natural resources of their lands.

The United States was fifty years old when most of the present-day Latin-American republics gained their freedom. Fifty years is not long in the life of a nation, but it was long enough to give the United States a little head start over the nations below the Rio Grande. Also, the United States was in a better position to make a start as an independent nation than were her southern neighbors. Her War for Independence lasted only six years. In Latin America the struggle for freedom dragged on for fifteen years, until most of Latin America was poor and exhausted. So while the United States was ready to go forward, once she had gained her independence, the Latin-American republics were too weak to make a vigorous start. But that was a good reason why the United States should help her weaker sister republics.



**United States recognizes Latin-American republics.** The United States did this by being the first government in the world to recognize the independence of the Latin-American republics. It did this even before the Spanish colonies had completely won their freedom from Spain. This recognition meant a great deal to the struggling Latin-American people because it gave notice to the rest of the world that the United States had a friendly interest in them and might help them if necessary.

Early in the nineteenth century what seemed to be bad news came from Europe to the Latin-American republics. In 1815 four European countries—Russia, Austria, Prussia, and England—formed a league known as the Quadruple Alliance. It was said that one of the purposes of the Alliance was to help Spain regain her colonies in the Americas. The nations of the Quadruple Alliance were strong. If they really wished to take possession of Latin America, they would have little difficulty unless some stronger nation came to the assistance of the young republics. Also, it seemed probable that if these European countries once got a foothold in the Americas the United States would not be entirely safe.

**The Monroe Doctrine.** John Quincy Adams, who was then our Secretary of State, and President Monroe thought over this threat to the freedom of the Americas and decided that it might help to hang up a "Keep Out" sign. So in December, 1823, President Monroe in a message to the Congress of the United States said:

The American continents "are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers." We owe it, therefore, to candor [frankness and honesty] and to the amicable [peaceful] relations existing between the United

States and those powers to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety.

This statement is what we now call the "Monroe Doctrine." The announcement of this policy, or doctrine, was a polite way of telling the countries of the Alliance and all other European nations that if they attempted to take control of any American nation they would find themselves at war with the United States.

Possibly the nations of the Quadruple Alliance had not planned to help Spain win back her American colonies, but President Monroe's message let them know that the United States would interfere if they made such a move. Nothing more was heard of the plan.

Latin Americans feared the Monroe Doctrine. At first the Latin-American nations seemed pleased with President Monroe's statement, but later some of them became disturbed because he said nothing about what the United States might do in respect to the Latin-American republics. Probably President Monroe did not consider it necessary to say that the United States had no intention of taking Latin-American territory by conquest. Still other Latin Americans were worried because the Monroe Doctrine was written and announced to the world without consultation with any Latin-American republic. They did not object to the policy, but they did not like the way in which the United States went about it. They did not want to be dictated to with respect to their politics, wars, or finance, or to be interfered with in any other way.

Texas and Mexico. The Latin Americans might have forgotten their fear of the Monroe Doctrine and have

ceased to distrust their powerful neighbor to the north if some serious trouble had not occurred a few years later. The Mexicans and the people of Texas got into an argument which led to bitterness and bloodshed. Though the difficulty had nothing to do with the Monroe Doctrine, it is a part of the story of the struggle which the Americas had in learning to work together.

Almost every boy and girl in the United States has heard of "the Alamo" and can recall at least a part of the story of that heroic group who fought to the last man rather than surrender to the Mexicans. In San Antonio, Texas, you may still see part of the original walled mission called the Alamo.

*The settlement of Texas.* The difficulty over Texas came about in this way. In 1821 a citizen of the United States, Moses Austin, secured permission from the Spanish government in Mexico to settle three hundred families in the Texas region. When Moses Austin died, the work of starting the settlement was delayed. Finally his son, Stephen F. Austin, led the first American settlers into the territory. By the time they arrived in Texas the Spanish government had been driven out of Mexico and the country was independent. Austin obtained a confirmation of the grant made his father from the new and independent government of Mexico before he planted his settlement.

Land was cheap in Texas. It sold for only a few cents an acre. Times were hard in the United States, and many people had lost all they owned. So after the first settlement more and more American pioneers poured into the region in the hope that they could make a new start in life. Some obtained permission from the Mexican government to plant settlements, but many came without such a grant.



By 1835 there were more than twenty thousand United States citizens there. The Mexican government became alarmed over the inrush of Americans.

Many things led to the trouble between the Americans and the government of Mexico. The chief difficulty was that the Americans and many of the Mexicans in Texas did not like Santa Anna, who was then president of Mexico. They were accustomed to considerable freedom in governing themselves. They thought that Santa Anna was trying to make Mexico, which included Texas, into a monarchy, or a nation ruled by a king. He had many ideas about government which the Americans did not like. In 1836 they decided to govern themselves, and they announced that Texas was independent of Mexico.

*The Alamo.* Santa Anna himself led the Mexican troops into Texas. He surrounded a garrison stationed at the Alamo in San Antonio; but the garrison refused to surrender, although they were greatly outnumbered. Not one of them survived the battle, but their brave stand for freedom and independence aroused the admiration of all Americans. The people of Texas were so thoroughly aroused over the Alamo incident that all the able-bodied American men and many Mexicans in Texas took up arms against Santa Anna. "Remember the Alamo" became their battle cry. In a few weeks Santa Anna was thoroughly defeated and made a prisoner. As a captive, he signed a treaty agreeing to give Texas its independence.

*Texas joins the Union.* Texas carried on as an independent nation for nine years. In 1845 it was allowed to join the United States and was accepted in the Union. Mexico was again aroused. The Mexican government had never officially recognized the treaty which Santa Anna had been forced to sign, so it was quite natural that the

Mexican government was angry with the United States for accepting the Texas region as a part of the Union. All of this was bad enough, but there were even more difficulties.

The southern boundary of the new state of Texas was set by the Texans on the Rio Grande. The Mexican government objected to this because it was really an extension of the earlier boundaries of the region, but the Texans held to their claim. Finally, the United States army was sent to support the Texans in holding the land to the north of the Rio Grande. In the trouble which followed American troops overran a large part of Mexico, and in the end the Mexicans lost not only Texas but also the territory now forming most of New Mexico, most of Arizona, Utah, Nevada, and California as well as parts of Colorado and Wyoming. In the peace treaty which was signed in 1848 the United States agreed to pay \$15,000,000 for Texas. It agreed to pay also the claims of some citizens of the United States who charged that the Mexican government had either damaged their property or had injured them in some way.

The Texans who declared their independence of Mexico were correct in their ideas about the ambitions of Santa Anna. We have already told you that they thought he wished to make himself king or emperor of Mexico. During the confusion which followed the war between the United States and Mexico, Santa Anna declared himself a dictator of Mexico. Of course he did not call himself a dictator. He took the high-sounding title of "Most Serene Highness."

Juárez becomes president of Mexico. Fortunately, there were some Mexicans who did not like dictators any better than did the Texans. Benito Juárez, a full-blooded In-

dian, was the leader of these liberty-loving Mexicans. Juárez and his followers made things so unpleasant for Santa Anna that he not only gave up his plan to be dictator but he also fled from the country.

Once Santa Anna was out of the way, it was Benito Juárez who took the lead in establishing a new constitution in Mexico. The new constitution gave greater freedom to the Mexicans and restored some degree of order in the country. Juárez became president of Mexico. Things were beginning to improve in Mexico when new trouble appeared for the country. This time the trouble came from Europe and not from the United States. In Mexico's new difficulty the Monroe Doctrine proved a very real help to Mexico.

**Europe interferes in Mexico.** The trouble between Mexico and the United States led indirectly to trouble with Europe. Mexico was poor and she had to borrow money from European countries to finance her war with the United States. After the war she was so poor that she was unable to pay the interest on her debts. In addition to this, some Europeans claimed that either they themselves or their Mexican property had been damaged during the period of trouble between the United States and Mexico. These two things gave several European countries an excuse for interfering in the affairs of the country.

Great Britain, France, and Spain banded together with the idea of making Mexico pay her debts. It was their plan to take possession of the seaports of the country and to collect all the revenue on goods either leaving or entering the country until the claims which their governments and their citizens held against Mexico were paid. This was a real test of the Monroe Doctrine. Would the United States defend Mexico from foreign invaders?





Emperor Maximilian and the Empress Carlotta, who was a Belgian princess. In 1866 she went to Europe to obtain help for the Emperor, but she was unsuccessful.

Troops from all three countries landed in Veracruz. However, Great Britain and Spain soon withdrew their troops. They discovered that France wished to do more than collect revenue. France planned to take possession of the country itself.

Maximilian becomes emperor of Mexico. Some of the Mexicans gave actual help to the French invaders. They did not like President Juárez and the new constitution which gave the common people of Mexico more power. So they became traitors to their country. In 1863 almost thirty thousand French troops marched into Mexico

City, took over the government, declared it to be a monarchy, or kingdom, and selected Archduke Maximilian of Austria to be the emperor. Maximilian became emperor in 1864.

Juárez, the president of Mexico, after trying and failing to arrange for a peaceful settlement of Mexico's troubles with France, withdrew to a place near El Paso, Texas. There he awaited help from the United States. In spite of the trouble over Texas, Juárez apparently believed that the Americans would come to Mexico's aid.

Why didn't the United States come to the help of Mexico immediately? In the Monroe Doctrine she had told Europe that she would not permit any European power to extend its control in any part of the Western Hemisphere. Here was France in control of Mexico and busy setting up a kingdom on the North American continent.

The answer is that the United States was so busy with a war at home that it was about two years before she could give Mexico any help. The North and South were in the midst of a great war. For a time it seemed likely that the struggle between the Southern and Northern sections of the country might wreck the Union or at least divide it into two parts. Probably the British, French, and Spanish realized that the United States was busy when they planned to interfere in Mexico. The fact that the United States was a quarreling and divided nation undoubtedly encouraged France to go ahead with her plan for enslaving Mexico.

The United States protests. The government of the United States knew what was happening in Mexico and did not like it. When the War between the States was over in 1865, the United States turned her attention to the Mexican problem. She refused to recognize the gov-

ernment of Maximilian. She sent a strong note to France and told her that her troops must be withdrawn from the Americas and backed up her note by sending troops to the Mexican border. There was no doubt that she was in earnest.

Mexico again becomes a republic. Napoleon III, ruler of France, was having difficulties in Europe just then. Probably he did not wish any more trouble, at least not at that time, so he withdrew his troops from Mexico. This left Emperor Maximilian to face the angry Mexicans without the help of the French army. Juárez organized his Mexican forces and captured and executed Maximilian. Once again Mexico became a republic.

The action of the United States in asking France to withdraw from Mexico showed that she was really in earnest about protecting the Western Hemisphere. There have been other times in the history of the Americas when the Monroe Doctrine has discouraged European countries from taking action which seemed to threaten the peace and safety of the Western Hemisphere.

The Monroe Doctrine applied in Venezuela. In 1894 England and Venezuela became involved in a dispute over the boundary between British Guiana and Venezuela. The United States made it clear to England that she was willing to see the dispute settled by peaceful means but that there was to be no use of armed force. England agreed to a peaceful settlement.

A few years later Venezuela was again the center of a dispute between that country and Germany, Italy, and England. This time it was over Venezuela's inability to pay some debts. The European countries planned to blockade Venezuela's trade until she did pay her debts. Once more the United States protested, and the countries



agreed to submit the disagreement to arbitration, that is, to peaceful discussion and judgment.

The policy, or plan of action, expressed in the Monroe Doctrine worked very well in Mexico and Venezuela. Probably the Latin Americans had begun to think that the Monroe Doctrine was really a protection for their young republics when some things happened which again aroused suspicion and doubt. In these new events the Monroe Doctrine seemed to serve as an excuse for the United States to interfere in the domestic, or home, affairs of her neighbors.

**The United States interferes in Cuba.** The story of Cuba is a case in which some Latin Americans believe the United States went too far in her desire to protect the Americas.

Spain kept her hold on Cuba and Puerto Rico long after she had been forced to give up her colonies on the mainland of the Americas. The Cubans tried in many ways to shake off Spanish control but without success. Finally some Cubans thought that they could free themselves from Spain by asking to join the United States. Other Cubans did not like the idea and opposed it bitterly. Some citizens of the United States who felt sorry for the Cubans suggested that the United States buy Cuba, but Spain would not sell. So the struggle between Cuba and Spain went on year after year.

**The Spanish-American War.** Finally open fighting broke out between Spain and her Cuban colonists. Spain began a cruel campaign which threatened to wipe out most of the Cubans. While the people of the United States were debating as to whether they should help the Cubans something happened which brought their country into the struggle very suddenly. Early in 1898 a United States warship, the *Maine*, anchored in the harbor of Habana for

a friendly visit. A few days after she arrived at the port there was a great explosion on the ship and she sank with over two hundred American sailors aboard. No one knew how or why the explosion occurred, but the people of the United States were greatly aroused. The United States lost no time in entering the war on the side of the Cubans. The great cry in 1898 was "Remember the Maine."

The war was a short one. When it was over, the United States annexed Puerto Rico and established a military protectorate over Cuba. Also, it annexed the Philippine Islands, which had belonged to Spain.

**The Platt Amendment.** The United States continued her military supervision of Cuba for four years; then she returned the government of the country to the Cubans. Cuba was free and independent. All of this was very good. If this were all of the story, there would have been no ill feeling over the Cuban affair. But there was one matter which spoiled the transaction in the eyes of many Latin Americans. Before the United States troops withdrew from Cuba the new Cuban government was required in 1901 to write into its constitution a regulation called the "Platt Amendment." This amendment stated that Cuba should not make any treaties with any foreign powers which might threaten her independence, that she should consent to the intervention of the United States any time her peaceful and orderly government was threatened, and that she should lease or sell to the United States lands for naval bases and coaling or fueling stations.

To most of the people in the United States the promises made in the Platt Amendment seemed a small price to pay for the help given Cuba in gaining her freedom. But some Latin Americans regarded the amendment as unfair



**Habana has one of the finest and safest harbors in the world.**

to a free nation. They said that Cuba did not have her freedom so long as the United States retained the privilege of interfering when things were not to her liking. The criticism of these Latin Americans aroused considerable suspicion of the United States. They did not like to have the United States interfere in their affairs. But Cuba was and still is a free nation, and the Platt Amendment has been canceled.

**Monroe Doctrine and Panama.** The Platt Amendment, or the promises which Cuba was required to make to the United States, was a small matter compared with the Panama event which was soon to follow. The Panama incident aroused great indignation in Latin America. Here is the story of the trouble over Panama.

For some time leaders in the United States believed





Building the Panama Canal, one of the world's great trade routes. Immense quantities of earth had to be removed.

that a canal should be built across the Isthmus of Panama to join the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Such a short cut was needed to bring the east and west coasts of the Americas closer.

**Beginnings of the Panama Canal.** In the year of 1846 Colombia and the United States signed a treaty which gave the United States the right to cut a canal across the Isthmus of Panama. Panama was then a part of the republic of Colombia. Many years passed and the United States made no effort to build the waterway. Colombia was anxious to have it built. Finally she permitted a French company to begin work on it. After spending millions of dollars on the project the company had no more funds and gave up the undertaking. The canal was still far from finished.

Again the United States came into the picture. This time she offered to buy the interests of the French company from Colombia. This time it was Colombia that was slow in bringing the arrangement to a close, and the Colombians who lived in Panama became impatient. They wished to have the canal finished as soon as possible.

**Panama revolts from Colombia.** On November 3, 1903, the region of Panama revolted against Colombia and declared that section to be an independent nation. The Colombian government sent a boatload of troops to put down the revolt and to make Panama realize that she was a part of Colombia. But when the Colombian troops arrived and tried to land in Panama they found warships from the United States there to prevent their landing. As you can well imagine, the government of Colombia was highly indignant over this interference. Panama was a part of the Colombian republic, and naturally the Colombian government did not like the idea of another nation's entering their domestic quarrel.

**United States recognizes Panama.** Just three days after the Panamanians had declared their independence, on November 6, 1903, the United States gave official recognition to the new republic of Panama. On November 18 the new Panamanian government and the United States signed a treaty which gave the United States the right to build the canal. Also it gave her control of the territory and the waters necessary for the construction, use, and protection of the canal. You can understand why most of the Latin-American countries were alarmed as well as indignant over the happenings in Panama and why they viewed with suspicion all talk of friendship between the United States and Latin America.

**The Panama Canal.** As soon as the Treaty of Panama

was signed, the United States set to work on the canal. It was completed and opened in 1914. Now in peace time steamship lines of all countries use the canal and find the waterway a great time-saver. This table will give you some idea of the value of the Panama Canal in reducing distances.

*Distance Saved by the Panama Canal*<sup>1</sup>

Between Liverpool and San Francisco .....	5,666 miles
Between New York and Honolulu .....	6,610 miles
Between New York and Valparaiso, Chile ...	3,747 miles
Between New York and Shanghai, China ...	1,876 miles

The fact that the Panama Canal is of great service to all the American nations has helped the Latin-American countries to forget at least a part of their indignation over the way in which the United States acquired the Canal Zone.

**The Roosevelt Corollary.** While Latin Americans were still angry over the Panama incident President Theodore Roosevelt made a statement which aroused even more ill will. The United States had shown by her actions in Cuba and Panama that she intended to keep order in the countries of Latin America.

In December, 1904, Theodore Roosevelt put the idea into words. He warned the Latin-American countries that if they persisted in "wrongdoing" or in weakness, the United States might find it necessary to exercise "international police power" over them. This was a new interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine. This policy, or idea, was called the "Roosevelt Corollary" of the Monroe Doctrine. In less polite language it was called the "big-stick policy."

<sup>1</sup> From Whittbeck's *Industrial Geography*, page 294.



Theodore Roosevelt thought that, if the United States was going to protect the Latin-American republics from the land-hungry nations of Europe, they, the Latin-American governments, would have to pay their debts when they were due, protect the lives and property of foreigners living within their borders, and in general "behave" themselves. There was another very good reason for the Roosevelt big-stick policy of 1904. The United States had started work on the Panama Canal, and it was necessary to protect and guard it as a part of her national defense. If the Latin-American countries, particularly those in the Caribbean area, were forever having disputes with European countries over debts, or if their governments were weak and were always in danger of being overthrown, there might be trouble for all of the Western Hemisphere. However necessary it may have been for the United States to keep order in Latin America, the idea did not help her to gain friends.

**Trade in the Caribbean.** The Panama Canal and Roosevelt's big-stick policy marked the beginning of greater interest on the part of the United States in developing markets for American goods in the Caribbean countries. A lively trade sprang up between the United States and countries in and about the Caribbean. Our ships traveled south loaded with manufactured goods and returned laden with bananas, coffee, tobacco, and sugar. When oil was found on the east coast of Mexico and in Venezuela, we began to take oil from those countries in exchange for the products of our factories. Between 1900 and 1913 our trade with the Caribbean countries more than trebled. •

Also, Americans began to invest their money in the Caribbean countries. Millions of American dollars went



Transferring shipments from train to boat at a seaport on  
Fonseca Bay, El Salvador

into Cuban sugar plantations and mills. American money helped to develop the Mexican oil fields. American banks made huge loans to Latin-American countries.

**Dollar diplomacy.** Through trade and investments the people of the United States came to have a stake in Latin America, particularly in the Caribbean countries. Now there were American investments, property, and trade to look after as well as the Panama Canal to guard and protect. With so many interests in the Caribbean the United States began to use her power not only to keep peace and

order but also to encourage trade and business. This policy of using the offices or privileges of the government to promote trade became known as "dollar diplomacy." Between the Roosevelt Corollary and dollar diplomacy the government of the United States was led into some difficult situations in several of the Caribbean countries. On at least three occasions she sent troops to look after affairs in Latin America.

**The United States and the Dominican Republic.** In 1904 the Dominican Republic found herself unable to pay the debts she owed certain European countries. These countries threatened to take over the commerce of the little republic until the debts were paid. President Theodore Roosevelt stepped in and arranged to have the United States collect the customs, or taxes on the goods shipped in and out of the country. This was in keeping with the Roosevelt Corollary, or big-stick policy. Of course the United States did not keep the money. She used part of it to pay the debts of the republic and gave the balance to the nation to take care of its local expenses.

All went very well until there was a revolt against the government of the Dominican Republic and it seemed that it might be overthrown. Because the United States had pledged her word that the small republic would pay its debts, she could not stand by and see the government overturned. She had no choice but to send in her troops to keep order. So from 1916 until 1924 all the affairs of the nation were managed by the United States under the eyes of American troops.

In 1924, when order was finally established and when it seemed that the Dominican government was strong enough to keep order, the American troops were withdrawn. But even today the United States continues to



collect all customs and to distribute a part of the money to the nations to which the republic is in debt.

Latin-American republics did not like the idea of the United States taking over the affairs of one of its neighbors. To them it seemed unwarranted interference, and it made them uneasy about their powerful northern neighbor.

**The United States in Haiti.** In Haiti the story was much the same as that of the Dominican Republic. In 1915 the United States sent troops to keep order, customs officers to collect duties, and a financial adviser to look after the business affairs of the nation. American troops were not withdrawn from Haiti until 1934.

**American interests in Nicaragua.** In Nicaragua, Americans invested great sums of money in the lumbering and mining industries of the republic, only to find that the president of the country was quite unfriendly to their business companies. When a revolution broke out in the country in 1909 the American businessmen gave their support to the revolutionists, or the natives who were trying to overthrow the government. The government was overthrown and a new president took office. The new president was more friendly to the American lumbering and mining interests.

Again in 1912 disorders broke out in Nicaragua, and once more there was a threat to overthrow the government. This time American troops were sent in to keep order. They remained on duty in Nicaragua until 1933.

**The Nicaraguan Canal.** During the time that American troops were keeping the peace in Nicaragua the government of that country gave the United States permission to cut a canal through their territory. The United States has long desired to have a waterway through Central

America to relieve the Panama Canal. The Nicaraguan canal has not been constructed, but we have permission to build it at any time.

In addition to the right-of-way for the canal the United States has secured leases (permission to rent land for a period of time) to Great Corn and Little Corn islands. These islands lie just off the east coast of Nicaragua and are well located for naval and air bases. Also she has secured a site for a naval base at Fonseca Bay on the west coast of the country. All of these privileges were willingly granted by the Nicaraguan government, but in Latin America they aroused considerable suspicion against the United States.

How Latin America feels toward the United States. This interference in the home affairs of the various Latin-American countries did not gain friends for the United States. However much the United States may have wished to be friendly, she was in a difficult position. The Americas were not entirely safe from greedy European countries. The great nations of Europe were ambitious and forever engaged in a struggle for territory, power, and trade. The Latin-American nations were weak and in no position to defend themselves. The New World was rich in raw materials which were greatly desired by the rival nations of Europe. The Latin-American nations, especially those of the Caribbean, are close to the United States, and if any of them had fallen into the hands of a powerful European country, the safety of the United States would have been endangered. Then the United States was investing great sums of money in the Panama Canal. The canal was important to the defense of not only the United States but of all the American republics.

The United States and Latin-American freedom. What-

ever the criticisms of the United States in her dealings with the Latin-American nations, from the beginning her major interest was to prevent foreign interference in the Western Hemisphere. Her watchfulness was of real assistance to the young republics. At least Latin America escaped partitioning, or division, among European powers. When we look at Africa we can see what might have happened to Latin America. Africa, which was without protection, was divided and subdivided as colonies of the European rivals. So, though there were misunderstandings regarding the way in which the United States helped her American neighbors, there is little doubt that she protected the freedom and independence of all the American republics.

As early as 1913 the United States began to realize that no matter how good her intentions of keeping order in Latin America, her policy expressed in the Roosevelt Corollary was winning her more enemies than friends among the Latin-American republics. So she started getting herself out of an uncomfortable position and began searching for better ways of dealing with her neighbors.

Woodrow Wilson's policy toward Latin America. In 1913 Woodrow Wilson became president and he set about trying to establish more cordial relationships. He assured the Latin-American countries that the intentions of the United States were entirely friendly. He told them that the United States did not wish to add to its territory by conquest or force. In spite of his assurances the Latin Americans continued to be doubtful. Several events seemed to justify their doubts. It was during Woodrow Wilson's administration that the Great Corn and Little Corn islands and the Fonseca Bay site were leased to the United States by Nicaragua. Then in 1915 American



marines went into Haiti, and in 1917 the United States bought the Virgin Islands from Denmark. So no matter what President Wilson said, some Latin Americans continued to have unfounded fear of the United States.

Wilson was sincere when he said that the United States did not wish to add to its territory. He was not saying one thing and doing another, but he was confronted with a difficult problem. The United States could not suddenly change its policy because things were happening in Europe which made world conditions very critical. It was a dangerous time for the Americas. Germany and England were unfriendly and on the verge of war. War finally broke out in 1914, and before it was over it either involved or affected most of the countries of the world.

When Wilson took office in 1913 he foresaw that the world was threatened by war. Had he changed the policy of the United States suddenly, the countries of the Caribbean and of the whole Western world would have been endangered. Then, too, with the world at war it was necessary to watch with even greater care the defenses of the Panama Canal. Besides, we needed the leases in Nicaragua and we needed the Virgin Islands which we purchased from Denmark for naval bases from which to defend the approaches to the canal. So, though President Wilson may have wished to change the policy of the United States in respect to its neighbors, world conditions made it dangerous to do so.

**How World War I affected Latin America.** When the United States entered World War I in 1917 on the side of England and France against Germany, she began to realize more than ever the desirability of having friendly neighbors. German agents were everywhere in Latin America trying to stir up trouble for the United States.

It was the business of these agents to keep the United States so busy at home that she would be unable to help Britain and France. The Germans were particularly active in Mexico, where the feeling was quite unfriendly toward the United States.

In the end most of the republics of Latin America were at least friendly to the side of the United States. Eight of them declared war against Germany and lined up on the side of the United States. Only four of them—Argentina, Chile, Colombia, and Mexico—remained neutral.

**The Good Neighbor Policy.** When World War I was over, the United States continued her changed policy toward Latin America. In 1933 President Franklin Roosevelt announced what he called a "Good Neighbor Policy" toward Latin America. President Roosevelt and his Secretary of State, Cordell Hull, began immediately to put their Good Neighbor Policy into action. The first step in a new plan of working with the other American republics was taken at a Pan-American conference held at Montevideo. This conference was held a few months after President Roosevelt took office and made his famous announcement about "good neighbors." At this conference of all the American nations Mr. Hull declared that the United States would not again use force to interfere in the affairs of its neighbors. The United States did more than make promises. In 1934 the Congress of the United States renounced the Platt Amendment and made a new treaty with Cuba. Also, the United States withdrew her troops from Haiti, the last Latin-American country to be occupied by American soldiers.

The action of the Congress of the United States, which showed that the government meant to do more than just talk about being a "good neighbor," helped to wipe out

some of the fears which Latin Americans had long felt toward their more powerful northern neighbor. The conference of 1933 was a real turning point in the friendship of Latin-American nations and the United States.

**Conferences in Latin America.** After the announcement of the Good Neighbor Policy of 1933 there were more frequent meetings of the representatives of the American republics. In 1936 representatives of the American republics met in Buenos Aires at a special conference called by President Franklin Roosevelt. Mr. Roosevelt himself attended the conference. There the American republics agreed that the peace of any one of them was the concern of all. They set up a procedure of consultation whereby all the American republics were obligated to confer in case the peace of any one of them was threatened.

In 1938 another conference was held at Lima, Peru. There the delegates again announced that the American republics would stand together.

**Consultative meetings during World War II.** Just three weeks after war broke out in Europe (September, 1939), the first consultation, or Consultative Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, was held in Panama. At this meeting were discussed ways of keeping the Americas out of the European war. Now we know that they did not succeed in keeping us out of war, but nevertheless the meeting was important. The members organized an advisory committee to help in matters of inter-American trade and finance. This committee is always in session in Washington, D.C., and has been responsible for solving many difficult problems during difficult war times.

When France surrendered to the Germans in the summer of 1940, a second Consultative Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs was held. This time the confer-



ence was held in Habana. The chief concern of the delegates was the question of what to do if Germany, now in control of France, tried to take control of French possessions in the Western Hemisphere. They finally agreed that the American republics would take charge of any European territory that seemed in danger of changing hands. Also, the republics reaffirmed their united stand in case any non-American state committed any unfriendly act toward any one of them.

Soon after the attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, the unity of the Americas was put to a real test. The American representatives were called to a conference in Rio de Janeiro. The United States had been attacked by a non-American nation, and the safety of all the American nations was endangered. It was recommended that each country break off relationships with Germany, Japan, and Italy because one of their number, the United States, was in danger. You already know that all except Argentina lined up on the side of the United States.

**Bolívar's good neighbor policy.** The Good Neighbor Policy, announced by Franklin Roosevelt in 1933, which marked a change in the relationship of the United States and the republics of Latin America, was really founded on a very old idea. The notion that the American republics might work together as a family of nations is almost as old as the American republics themselves.

It was none other than Simón Bolívar, the great hero of South America, who first saw the possibility of making the Americas stronger by providing an organization which would give them an opportunity to work as one group. In 1826, the very year the Spanish armies withdrew from the South American continent, Bolívar called a meeting.

He invited the Latin-American republics to send representatives to Panama City for a conference. Four of the republics sent delegates. The United States, too, was invited, but the Congress was so slow in accepting the invitation that the delegates were unable to reach Panama in time for the meeting. Bolívar's conference was not a success, but it was the beginning of an idea by which the Americas were to profit later.

It is easy to understand why Bolívar's conference was not successful. In 1826 the Latin-American republics and the United States were too busy at home to give much thought to any grand plan for drawing the Americas together in a great conference. The Latin-American republics were trying to establish their new governments, to settle disputes over boundaries, and to raise money to run the affairs of their countries. In the United States people were very busy expanding and developing their country. Pioneers were pushing westward to settle the lands acquired through the Louisiana Purchase in 1803. They were moving into Texas, which was then a part of Mexico. Explorers were pushing into the Oregon country, into what is now the states of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho. The Oregon country was not yet a part of the United States, but people were talking about it. Highways and waterways were being planned and built. The Erie Canal had just been opened (1825). The controversy over slavery which was to result in the War between the States was just beginning and it was taking the attention of many leaders in the United States. So you can understand why the people of the Americas were too busy to care much about Bolívar's idea of a conference of the American republics. Bolívar died feeling that his plan was a failure. Today we know that the idea lived on.

Between the time of Bolivar's first All-American, or Pan-American, Conference (1826) and the time of Roosevelt's announcement of the Good Neighbor Policy (1933) several meetings were held. Some of these conferences, like the Bolivar conference, were not very successful. Usually only the American nations near the place of meeting and on friendly terms with the republic in which the conference was held sent delegates. The meetings were little more than regional meetings, and the questions discussed were related largely to local affairs, but they served to keep Bolivar's idea alive.

Pan American Union founded. In 1889 an important meeting was held. That year the conference was held in Washington, D.C., and all but one of the republics sent representatives. Possibly because more nations were represented, the questions discussed had to do with more than

**The Assembly Room in the Pan American Building in Washington. Here each country belonging to the Union has a chair with its name carved on it.**





local problems. The representatives talked about trade relations and about peaceful ways of settling some of the disputes over boundaries which were always causing trouble in Latin America. Probably the most important accomplishment was the establishment of the Pan American Union, or what was then called the Bureau of American Republics, to represent all twenty-one American nations. This was a permanent organization in Washington, D.C. Its purpose was to help all American peoples to get better acquainted with one another and to encourage trade among them.

Today the Pan American Union is housed in a beautiful building in Washington, D.C., and is still at work promoting friendlier relations among American nations. April 14 has been set aside as Pan American Day to commemorate the day in 1889 when the resolution creating the Pan American Union was adopted.

Since 1889 conferences have been held more frequently, and most of them have been well attended. There were conferences in Mexico City in 1901, in Rio de Janeiro in 1906, in Buenos Aires in 1910, in Santiago, Chile, in 1923, and in Habana in 1928. At the conferences held between the years of 1889 and 1933 the attitude of the Latin Americans toward the United States was one of uncertainty, because it was during this time that American troops occupied Cuba and took a hand in things in Panama, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, and Nicaragua. Then in 1933 there came the turning point, when the Good Neighbor Policy was announced. Now the Americas are really working together. They are trying to improve their trade relations. They are building highways, steamship lines, and airways to bring the Americas closer to each other. They are building air fields and naval bases



Secretary of State Cordell Hull addressing the Pan American conference in 1940. The sessions were held in Habana's Capitol.

for use in defending themselves against foreign invaders. Let us find out about some of the ways in which the Americas are working together.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. The United States and Latin America have been slow in working out friendly relationships. There have been many difficulties. Select from the list on page 417 what you think is the greatest difficulty. Give reasons for your choice and tell what you believe the United States can do about it.

1. Many Latin American countries feel closer to Europe than to us. This is true not only geographically but culturally also.
2. Many Latin American people are, according to our standards, poor and illiterate.
3. Latin America is not just one country but twenty independent nations, each quite different from the others.
4. Many people of Latin America are suspicious and afraid of the United States.

B. Give as many reasons as you can to support the following statement:

The fact that Latin America is the home of twenty free and independent republics today is due to a considerable extent to the Monroe Doctrine.

C. Some motion pictures to show:

*Americans All* (25 min., 16 mm., sound). Interesting as an aid in school projects dealing with South America.

*Monroe Doctrine* (20 min., 16 mm., sound). Shows the meaning of the Monroe Doctrine at various times in our history.

*Our Monroe Doctrine* (20 min., 16 mm., sound). The historical background of the Monroe Doctrine.



## LATIN AMERICA WORKS TO IMPROVE ITS TRANSPORTATION LINES

### AIR LINES ARE IMPORTANT

**Sky trucks.** In parts of Latin America cows, mining machinery, sewing machines, and all manner of freight are moved by airplane instead of by truck, freight train, or steamship. These great planes which some people call "sky trucks" sail high above the great mountain ridges, the deep gorges, the vast swampy areas, and the dense jungles. There is no need to build expensive railroads and concrete highways for them. All they need in order to carry a load of freight to some isolated spot is a level landing field from which to land and to take off.

At one time chicle, which is used in chewing gum, was brought out of an isolated jungle district in Guatemala on mule back. It took weeks for a shipment to reach a market. Then a group of workers traveled into the district by canoe and mule back and in a few weeks they slashed a clearing in the jungle and leveled off a rough landing field. Next came a big cargo plane, or sky truck. It landed on the bumpy field and unloaded a tractor and other machinery needed to put the field in good condition. A modern air field with hard, smooth runways was completed in a few weeks. After this chicle could be brought to market from the jungle in a few hours. Medicines, mechanical refrigerators, radios, and other articles for better living are now carried back to the workers who gather the chicle. Thus the airplane is bringing the products of



Unloading heavy machinery that has arrived in Nicaragua on a transport plane

Latin America to the markets of the world and is carrying civilization to many spots far from any railroad, highway, or steamship lines.

When you read about the different countries of Latin America you were told that most of the republics have great sections that are almost uninhabited because there is no easy way of reaching them. Many of these isolated districts have either good farming land, rich mineral resources, valuable forests, or fine grazing land. But because they are without highways, railways, or waterways to connect them with the rest of the world, farmers, miners, lumbermen, and stock raisers are not interested in de-



Bleeding a tree in Yucatán to obtain chicle from it

veloping them. Transportation is one of the great needs of Latin America. Sky trucks such as are now bringing out chicle may in the future help to solve the problem of transportation for many of these rich but isolated parts of Latin America.

Sky trucks bring out rubber. Today the United States is busy building air fields in Latin America to be used by cargo planes to bring rubber out of jungle regions. In Brazil, Mexico, Central America, Colombia, Ecuador, and other countries of Latin America men from the United States, aided by great crews of Latin-American workmen, are searching the jungle forests for wild rubber trees. The big problem is not so much finding the trees and tapping



them as it is getting the rubber out to a seaport. Wild rubber trees grow in most of the tropical countries of Latin America, but they are far from any line of transportation. Air fields are being built in order that the rubber which the United States needs so much may be brought out by airplane.

Air lines make Latin America a neighbor. In the last ten years commercial airlines have done more to bring Latin America to the attention of the world than has any other one thing. The great distances between settlements in Latin America and the difficulties in building railways and highways have made aviation a great boon to this region. It is far easier and much less expensive to build a landing field in an isolated section than it is to construct railways or highways. Especially is this true if railroads or highways must cross great mountain ranges or bridge huge swamplands, as they are forced to do in many parts of Latin America. For a long time many Latin-American regions may have to depend on the airplane for the transportation of passengers and merchandise.

Probably you have all heard of the Pan American Airways System and its famous Clipper planes. Businessmen in the United States started the Pan American Airways. It reaches more points of Latin America than any other air-line company. It connects the United States with every Latin-American country. It covers both the east coast and the west coast of South America. Over this air line the trip from New York to Rio de Janeiro takes three days and to Buenos Aires three and a half days.

The people of the United States and Latin America find the Pan American Airways a very convenient means of travel. It has brought all the Latin-American countries and the United States within easy reach of each other.

Ten years ago it took months to visit even one or two of the South American republics. Now in three weeks or one month one can visit all of them and have time for sightseeing and for transacting business. It could be done in even shorter time if the planes could fly by night as well as by day, but the lack of radio beacons and emergency landing fields makes daytime flying safer.

No matter where your home is in the United States, the countries of Latin America are only a few hours distant by air. Here is a sample schedule.

*Leave* Brownsville, Texas, Monday, at 9:10 A.M.

*Arrive* Mexico City, Monday, 12:35 P.M.

*Leave* Mexico City Monday, 12:55 P.M.

*Arrive* Guatemala City Monday, 5:35 P.M. (Stay over night)

*Leave* Guatemala City, Tuesday, 7:00 A.M.

*Arrive* Cristóbal, Panama, Tuesday, 4:40 P.M. (Stay over night)

*Leave* Cristóbal, Wednesday, 7:15 A.M.

*Arrive* Medellin, Colombia, Wednesday, 11:00 A.M.

*Leave* Medellin, Wednesday, 11:45 A.M.

*Arrive* Bogotá, Wednesday, 12:55 P.M.

*Leave* Bogotá, Wednesday, 1:20 P.M.

*Arrive* Cali, Wednesday, 2:45 P.M. (Stay over night)

*Leave* Cali, Thursday, 7:00 A.M.

*Arrive* Quito, Thursday, 9:10 A.M.

*Leave* Quito, Thursday, 9:20 A.M.

*Arrive* Lima, Thursday, 4:20 P.M. (Stay over night)

*Leave* Lima, Friday, 5:30 A.M.

*Arrive* La Paz, Friday, 11:45 A.M.

*Leave* La Paz, Friday, 12:00 A.M.

*Arrive* Arica, Friday, 12:55 P.M. (Stay over night)

*Leave* Arica, Saturday, 11:15 A.M.

*Arrive* Santiago, Chile, 5:40 P.M.

The United States is not the only foreign country interested in air lines in Latin America. Before the war there were German and Italian air companies also. The German lines covered about 21,000 miles of air route compared to Pan American's 28,500. The Italians had a line which connected Rome with Brazil. After Italy and Germany went to war with the United States, many of the Latin-American countries did not permit them to fly over their territory.

In addition to the air lines owned by foreign countries there are many lines which are owned and operated by the Latin-American republics themselves. Brazil, Argentina, Venezuela, Chile, Peru, Uruguay, and Mexico have lines which carry mail and passengers within their own countries.

### RAILROADS ARE COSTLY

As you already know, a large part of Latin America is without railroads. In all the Latin-American republics together there are only about 82,873 miles of railroad. The United States, which without its possessions is a little smaller than Brazil alone, has 236,842 miles of railroad. So you can understand what people mean when they say that Latin America is not well served by railroads.

Brazil is better served by railroads than most Latin-American countries, but it has only about 21,000 miles of track. This is less than one tenth the railroad mileage in the United States.

Argentina is the best supplied with railroads of all the Latin-American countries, but it has only about 26,000 miles of track. If you will recall what you read about the country of Argentina and then look at the picture of



the mountain gorge in Peru, you can tell one reason why Argentina is better supplied with railroads than Peru.

When you read about Peru you learned that the railway of that country has to climb up the steep sides of the Andes in order to cross a ridge of mountains to the great plateau region of the country. You can imagine how expensive it is to build railroads in the mountainous regions of South America.

Because of the great expense of railroad construction some of the Latin-American countries may never build extensive railroad systems. Instead, they may use their money to build highways for trucks and automobiles and to construct air fields for cargo and passenger planes.

#### HIGHWAYS IN LATIN AMERICA

**The Pan American Highway.** It may not be long before the United States and the Latin-American republics on the continents of North and South America will be linked together by a great highway. Then we may drive our automobiles from the United States to any one or to all of the larger cities of Mexico, Central America, and South America.

The idea of a great Pan American Highway was suggested in 1923, and construction was started in 1931. Within a few years thereafter people were driving from the United States to Mexico City over a beautiful modern roadway.

In 1941 the United States poured millions of dollars and thousands of men into the work of completing the highway down to the Panama Canal in as short a time as possible. But even though the highway is completed to Panama, there still remain long stretches where the work



Part of the Pan American Highway that runs along the Rimac River in Peru. Here the highway takes one through a deep gorge.

has not even started. Road building in the jungle sections and mountainous regions is slow and expensive work. South of the Panama Canal Zone and in northern Colombia is an almost impassable jungle. It may be a long time before it is possible to extend the highway through this difficult region.

Not only is the United States supplying funds and help to build the Pan American Highway in the countries of Central America but also it is assisting the republics of South America. Many of the republics have already completed large sections of their part of the international highway and are still at work.

Peru is one of the countries which have pushed forward an ambitious plan of highway construction. In 1936 Peru adopted a three-year highway plan and put up almost nine million dollars for the work. This was 13 per cent of all the money spent by the government in that three-year period. She has completed many hundred miles of roadway. Among these many hundred miles of roadway that have been completed is her share of the Pan American Highway. In Peru the new highway runs along the coastal plain, west of the Andes, in the section in which most of the cities of the country are located. It makes a very useful national trade route besides forming what will some day be a part of an extremely important international highway.

#### TRAVEL BY WATER

Latin Americans, in general, still depend largely on travel by sea and river. For a long time this was the only means of communication in many parts of Latin America.

Along the coast, on the Amazon, the Plata, the Magdalena, and the Orinoco and over the large inland lakes, water travel and transportation is well developed. It will continue to be important for traveling and shipping between the various republics. More than this, the rivers and oceans of Latin America are vital in the handling of its foreign commerce.

The Latin-American countries have many shipping lines to the United States and Europe. The United States alone has eighteen or more different companies engaged in inter-American trade. Our government has helped shipping companies build more and faster ships for use between





When the Spaniards came to this part of the South American coast, after a long and difficult sea voyage, they called it "Vale of Paradise"—Valparaíso.

North and South America. You can travel from New York to Rio de Janeiro in twelve days, to Buenos Aires or to Valparaíso, Chile, in eighteen days.

Before World War II more than fifty steamship lines connected Latin America with Europe. Great Britain ranked ahead of the United States in the number of lines connecting her with South American ports. Germany had many lines and was steadily increasing the number when she went to war with England. Of course the war changed this.

Only Brazil and Chile have merchant fleets of their own which carry trade between North and South Amer-

ica. The Brazilian lines also serve the coastal ports of Brazil, and they have a river fleet which goes into the vast Amazon region where railways and highways are lacking. The merchant ships of Chile go northward to the United States and south through the Strait of Magellan to Buenos Aires.

Argentina has a fleet of boats that carry trade over the great Plata River and to ports on the eastern coast of South America. Uruguay, Colombia, Venezuela, Mexico, and Peru also have some coastal, river, and lake service, but it is not extensive.

Panama has many ships registered under her flag, but most of them are owned by foreign countries.

Latin America is well served by ocean steamship lines, but it is transportation in the interior of the countries that causes the chief difficulty. Once products are brought out of the interior of the country and are laid

Wheat at the docks in Buenos Aires



down at some harbor, it is easy enough to find a ship to carry them either to some foreign country or to some other Latin-American port.

## TRADE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND LATIN AMERICA

Every nation wishes to sell what it cannot use and to buy what it cannot grow or manufacture. This is true of the United States, the Latin-American nations, and all other countries. Many nations have struggled to get a share of Latin America's trade because the region has many things which other countries both want and need.

The struggle for trade with Latin America. Even in the days when Spain and Portugal controlled the trade of Latin America various countries of Europe tried in one way and another to get a part of it away from them. At first, they tried to do it legally, according to the law, but Spain and Portugal refused to let them have a share of the trade with the colonies. Then England, France, and other European nations sent men and ships to lie in wait along the sea lanes of the Caribbean to rob and plunder the Spanish and Portuguese merchantmen when they were returning to Europe with their loads of cotton, gold, silver, and other desirable things.

At a later period, as you know, England even thought that she would take possession of part of Latin America, so she pushed in to Argentina and actually captured Buenos Aires and held it for a time. The Dutch made their appearance in Brazil and took possession of a part of it for a short time. France pushed into Mexico and took over things for a little while. These three nations still have a slender hold on the South American continent,



in British, Dutch, and French Guiana, on the northeastern coast of South America. Also, they each have island possessions in the Caribbean Sea. Also, the British have a foothold in Central America, where they hold British Honduras. It was the desire for trade that led them to Latin America and that keeps them there. Since the United States put up its "Keep Out" sign called the Monroe Doctrine no European nation has gained new territory in the Americas.

What does Latin America have to sell? Which Latin American countries are important traders? How much of Latin-American trade is with the United States?

What Latin America has to sell. Latin America lives largely on its agricultural products. Coffee, meat, sugar, wool, cotton, wheat, bananas, and cacao are some of the things which the people of the region have to sell. In addition to agricultural products, there are natural products such as tin, rubber, quinine, nitrate, mercury, and

#### Manganese in Brazil



other things which are in great demand by all countries. So it is agricultural products and natural products, or raw materials, that Latin America offers the world.

Most of the Latin-American countries are one-product countries. The fact that they depend so much on one or two products has much to do with their lack of wealth. If something happens to the market for the one thing which a country has to sell, then that country has a difficult time indeed. Here is the list of countries and the principal products on which each depends.

Argentina and Uruguay depend chiefly on beef.

Bolivia depends on tin.

Brazil depends chiefly on coffee.

Chile depends chiefly on copper and nitrate.

Colombia depends chiefly on coffee.

Costa Rica, Guatemala, El Salvador depend on coffee.

Cuba and the Dominican Republic depend on sugar.

Ecuador depends chiefly on cacao.

Haiti depends on coffee.

Mexico depends chiefly on petroleum and gold and silver.

Nicaragua depends on coffee and bananas.

Panama and Honduras depend on bananas.

Paraguay depends chiefly on quebracho extract.

Peru depends on petroleum and copper.

Venezuela depends chiefly on petroleum.

Which countries are important traders. Naturally, not all the republics are equally important traders. Just seven of the twenty nations furnish more than three fourths of the total trade. These big traders are Argentina, Brazil, Venezuela, Mexico, Cuba, Chile, and Colombia. From the list above you can see what the Latin-American countries offer the world.

**Latin-American trade areas.** Latin America is too large and too varied a region to discuss as if it were one great market. It is easier to study its trade relations if we divide it into two parts—the Caribbean trade area and the South American trade region. In the Caribbean trade group we include the republics of the West Indies and all the Latin-American countries touched by the waters of the Caribbean—Mexico, the republics of Central America, Panama, Colombia, Venezuela, and the island republics of Cuba, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic. The remaining nations belong in the South American trade group.

*The Caribbean area.* The United States is by far the most important trader in the Caribbean area. There are two reasons for this. The Caribbean republics are almost on the front door step of the United States. They are so close that trade with them is easy and convenient. Besides, they are all tropical countries, and most of their products are therefore different from those produced in the temperate climate of the United States. In 1939 the United States bought a little more than one half of all of Latin America's coffee. Though most of it came from Brazil, a considerable quantity came from Colombia. We purchased about three fourths of Latin America's bananas and sugar, and both of these products came almost entirely from Caribbean island republics.

*The South American area.* The South American trade area with the exception of Brazil looks to Europe for its market. In normal years, when Europe is not at war, about three fourths or more of the products of this region go to European nations. This is natural because, with the exception of Brazil, these countries produce many of the same products as does the United States. This makes it



difficult for us to trade with them, but since 1933 the United States has tried to work out better trade agreements with each one of the South American countries. Considerable progress has been made even with Argentina, which grows largely the same products as does the United States. It is difficult for us to trade with a country like Argentina that wishes to sell beef, wheat, cotton, corn, and wool. We produce great quantities of these products ourselves, and so Europe buys what we cannot use.

Latin America is an important source of minerals, and of these oil ranks first. Most of it goes to Great Britain and the United States. In 1938 the United States bought 35 per cent of Latin America's copper, about 42 per cent of her lead, zinc, tungsten, antimony, and manganese exports, and 40 per cent of Chile's nitrates. We bought large quantities of Bolivia's tin, but we had to purchase it from England, since 90 per cent of the country's tin ore went to England for smelting. During World War II, which the United States entered in 1941, Bolivia's tin became very important to Britain and the United States. By the use of the smelter in Texas some tin can be brought directly from Bolivia to the United States.

When you compare the United States with the individual countries of Europe and not with Europe as a whole, the United States buys and sells more goods in Latin America than any other single nation.

*Brazil is the largest trader.* Brazil is the United States' best customer in the South American trade area. We take not only a large part of her coffee but also chicle, carnauba wax for carbon paper and phonograph records, castor beans, and diamonds. She has been a particularly good neighbor of ours during war times. She is letting scientists and engineers from the United States search her for-

ests for products, such as rubber, which we need to carry on our war against Germany and Japan. She buys machinery and all kinds of manufactured articles from us in exchange for her products.

Germany and Great Britain struggle for trade. Germany and Great Britain have always been the two leading traders in the South American trade area. During World War I, 1914 to 1918, and again in World War II, both of these countries lost a large share of their trade. After World War I Germany set to work to regain her trade and succeeded in crowding out Great Britain in many places. Germany's method of doing this was considered unfair by most countries and was not satisfactory to many of the Latin-American nations. She established a system of barter, or exchange of articles. Whenever she bought products in Latin America she gave in return not real money, which would permit the South Americans to buy goods anywhere they wished, but a kind of trading paper called "Aski Marks." These Aski Marks were good only for the purchase of German goods. In this way Germany tied things up so that the South Americans that did business with her were no longer free traders. They were forced to trade with Germany only. Their paper marks were good in no other country. The result was that many South American traders were forced to take goods which they did not want, and they could not buy many of the things which they actually needed.

For a time Germany gained a great amount of trade by her barter system, but the Latin Americans were learning to fear this kind of trade when World War II broke out and changed the picture. It practically ended Germany's trade.

Though trade with Europe dropped to a very low level

during the war, trade with the United States increased greatly. Latin America was a storehouse of many important or vital materials which the United States needed for the war, and the United States was a source of many manufactured articles which Latin Americans had formerly purchased in Europe.

*War materials from Latin America.* The story of the war between the United States and the Axis nations might be very different were it not for the friendship of the Latin-American republics. The United States must produce huge quantities of munitions and other war materials. She must not only supply her own armies but must also help to equip those of her allies, Great Britain, Russia, and China. Many of the materials which she needs can be obtained only in Latin America.

From Brazil come manganese, rubber, and quartz. All of these materials are necessary or vital in modern war. For example, without Brazilian quartz the United States could not manufacture the apparatus which enables her sailors to detect enemy submarines. While Brazil helps the United States carry on the war against Germany and Japan, the United States is helping Brazil. She is lending money to Brazil to help her build railroads and to buy mining machinery so that she will be able to develop her rich deposits of iron ore.

From Bolivia come cargoes of tin to be used in the manufacture of munitions. From Peru and Chile comes copper, while from Venezuela, Colombia, and Mexico comes oil for our tankers. Argentina sells vast quantities of beef to the armies of our allies, Great Britain and Russia, as well as to our own navy.

From Guatemala comes the castor oil which is used in airplane engines. In Costa Rica a rubber company has a



plantation which is beginning to produce rubber which may some day help to keep our automobiles and trucks rolling. Little Haiti is beginning rubber plantations which may send us rubber in the years to come.

The United States in turn is trying to supply the machinery and other manufactured articles needed in Latin America. Although the factories of the United States are busy turning out war materials and cannot now make automobiles, refrigerators, typewriters, and many other kinds of machinery, we are sharing the machinery we have with the people of Latin America. This is the Good Neighbor Policy in action.

**Good neighbors.** The war taught the Americas to depend on each other for materials which were formerly obtained elsewhere. The twenty-one nations of the Americas are learning to be good neighbors.

#### SOME THINGS TO DO

A. Make a map of Latin America which shows all the important geographic features of the region—countries, capitals, chief rivers, and principal mountain ranges. Instead of drawing your own map of such a large region as Latin America, you may wish to use desk outline maps such as are sold by many map companies. The map companies usually have separate maps of South America and of Mexico and the Caribbean region. The use of two maps has an advantage: the small countries of the Caribbean are shown more clearly.

After you have put in the important geographic features you may wish to make your map a special study by including one of these four suggested additions:

1. The Pan American Highway
2. The principal air lines
3. The chief products of each republic

4. The principal historic episodes, as Bolivar's conference in Panama and the march of O'Higgins and San Martin over the Andes

If someone in your class has particular ability in map making and in art, he may wish to make a large wall map of Latin America which shows historic happenings or which shows the principal products.

B. Make a list of reasons why you think the twenty-one republics of the Americas should be good neighbors.

C. A motion picture to show:

*Good Neighbors* (11 min., 16 mm., sound). A trip to Lima, Peru, Rio de Janeiro, and Buenos Aires, showing the wealth of these beautiful cities. Unusual airplane views of the Andes, showing remains of prehistoric settlements.





## GLOSSARY

### KEY TO PRONUNCIATION

ā, as in rāte; ā, as in al'wāys; â, as in câre; ã, as in pād; ä, as in fī'nāl;  
 á, as in ärm; a, as in ask; d, as in so'dā; ch, as in chair; ē, as in hē; é, as in  
 re-lent'; ê, as in bēnd; ê, as in re'cēt; ê, as in fērn; g, as in gō; ĩ, as in tēe;  
 ĩ, as in hīll; ĩ, as in beau'tē-ful; n, as in box (F.); ò, as in rōde; ô, as in ô'-clock';  
 ô, as in fōrk; ô, as in ôdd; oi, as in oil; õ, as in fōod; õ, as in fōot; ou, as in  
 out; th, as in then; ù, as in ùse; û, as in ûrn; ũ, as in rüst; ũ, as in cir'cūs;  
 ü, as in me-nü'; zh, as in azure.

The primary accent is indicated by a short, heavy mark (´), the secondary  
 by a lighter mark (˘).

Acapulco (ä'kä-pōöl'kō)	Barranca (bār-räng'kā)
Aconcagua (ä'kōn-kä'gwä)	Barranquilla (bār'rän-kē(l)'yā)
adobe (ä-dō'bī)	Belém (bā-lēm')
Agua (ä'gwä)	Belgrano (bēl-grä'nō)
Alamo (ä'lä-mō)	Belterra (bēl-tēr'rä)
Albemarle (äl'bē-märl)	Benalcázar, de (dē bē'näl-kä'zär)
Altrato (äl-trä'tō)	Bermudez (bēr-mōō'dēs)
Alvarado, de (dē ä'l'vā-rä'dō)	Bío-Bío (bē'ō bē'ō)
Amazon (äm'ä-zōn)	Bogotá (bō'gō-tä')
Andes (än'dēs)	Bolivar (Eng., bōl'ī-vēr; Span. bō-lē'vär)
Angola (äng-gō'lä)	Bolivia (bō-līv'ī-ä)
Antigua (än-tē'gwä)	boliviano (bō-lē'vyä'nō)
Antilles (än-tīl'ēs)	Bonaparte (bō'nä-pärt')
Antofagasta (än'tō-fä-gäs'tä)	Boyacá (bō-yä-kä')
Araucanian (är'ō-kä'nī-än)	Brazil (brä-zīl')
Arawak (ä'rä-wäk)	Buenaventura (bwä'nä-vēr-n-tōō'rä)
Arequipa (ä'rä-kē'pä)	Buenos Aires (bwä'nēs ī'räs)
Argentina (är'jēn-tē'nä)	
Arica (ä-rē'kä)	
Artigas (är-tē'gäs)	cabildo (kä-bēl'dō)
Asunción (ä-sōōn'syōn')	Cabot (käs'bät)
Atacama (ä'tä-kä'mä)	Cabral, de (dē kä-bräl')
audiencia (ou-dyēn'syä)	cacao (kä-kä'ō; kä-kä'ō)
Ayacucho (ä'yä-kōō'chō)	café lite (kä'fä' lit)
Aztec (äz'tēk)	Cali (kä'lē)
	Callao (kä(l)'yā'ō)
Bahama (bä-hä'mä)	Calles (kä(l)'yäs)
Bahia (bä-ē'ä)	Camacho (kä-mä'chō)
Balboa (bäl-bō'ä)	Carabobo (kä'rä-bō'bō)
balboa (bäl-bō'ä)	Caracas (kä-rä'käs)
Barbados (bār-bä'dōz)	Cárdenas (kär'dä-näs)

Carib (kār'ib)  
 Caribbean (kār'i-bē'dn)  
 Carioca (kār'i-ō'ka)  
 earnauba (kār-nou'ba)  
 Carranza (kār-rān'sā)  
 Cartagena (kār'tā-jē'nā)  
 casa natal (kā'sā nā-tāl')  
 Cauca (kou'kā)  
 Cayenne (kī-ēn')  
 cenotes (sā-nō'tēs)  
 Cerro de Pasco (sēr'rō dā pās'kō)  
 Chacabuco (chā'kā-bōō'kō)  
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 Dakota (dā-kō'tā)  
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 De Soto (dē sō'tō)  
 Dessalines (dō-sā-lēn')  
 Díaz (dē'ās)  
 Doce (dō'sā)  
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 Ecuador (ēk'wā-dōr)  
 Española (ēs-pān-yō'lā)

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 fiesta (fyēs'tā)  
 Fonseca (fōn-sā'kā)  
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 Iguala (ē-gwā'lā)  
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 Inconfidencia (ēn-cōō-fē-dēn'syō)  
 Independencia (ēn-dā-pēn-dēn'syō)  
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San Martín (mâc-tén')  
San Salvador (sân sâl'vâ-dôr)  
Santa Anna (sân'tâ á'nâ)  
Santa Cruz (sân'tâ krôôs')



Santa Fé de Bogotá (sân'tâ fâ dâ  
 bô'gô-tâ')  
 Santa María de Buenos Aires (mâ-  
 rê'a dâ bwâ'nôs t'râs)  
 Santa Marta (mâr'tâ)  
 Santiago (sân'tê-â'gô)  
 Santo Domingo (sân'tô dô-mîng'gô)  
 Santos (sân'tôôs)  
 São Paulo (soun pou'lôo)  
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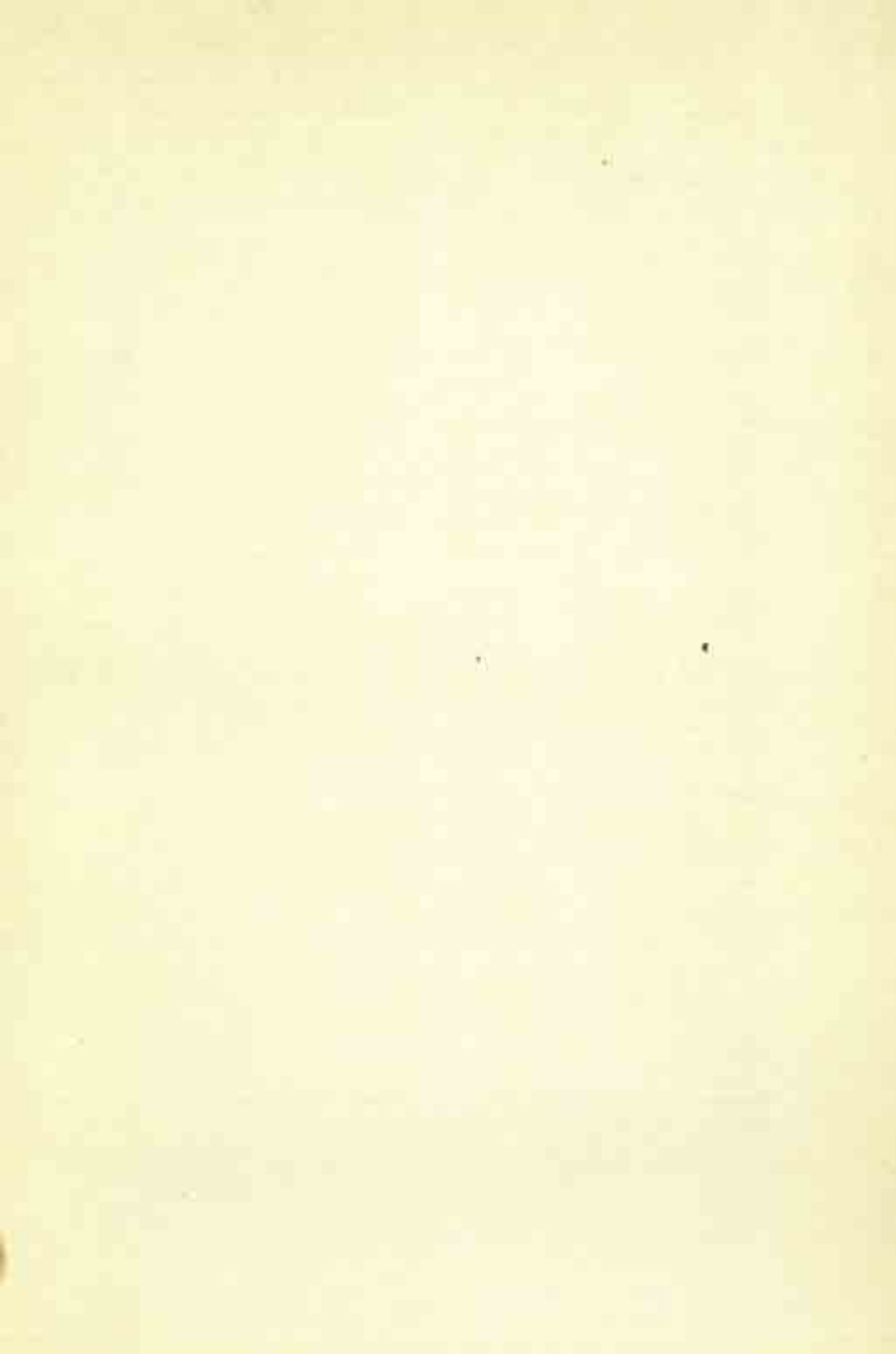
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