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Union



ST. RITA WHARF, RECIFE

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are available to officials

and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: GALLERY OF HEROES, PAN AMERICAN UNION





STATUE OF JUAN MORA FERNÁNDEZ, FIRST PRESIDENT OF COSTA RICA

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Relations of the United States and Costa Rica During the Guardia Era

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THE twenty years following the seizure of the Costa Rican government by Tomás Guardia and his followers in April 1870 were in many ways a very constructive era in that country. The epoch was signalized by rapid progress in sanitation, transportation, communications, and agriculture; and some advance was made in education, mining, and stockraising. Lands and others forms of wealth were more widely distributed; wages increased; the intellectual level of the people was raised; and the dominance of the old aristocracy was broken. Foreigners, especially citizens of the United States, made important contributions to the achievements of the period; and this phase of the relationship between the two countries is the subject of the present essay.

Costa Rica was under the vigorous direction of a single family. After Guardia's death in 1882, his brother-in-law, Próspero

Fernández, took charge of the national government; and Fernández, at his death in 1885, was succeeded by Bernardo Soto, who was the son-in-law of Fernández. The Government was not conducted in an altogether democratic manner. The press was not entirely free; members of the opposition were persecuted at times; lawmakers were occasionally reduced to puppet status; and force was often used as a political instrument; but in 1889 Bernardo Soto not only permitted but supported one of the few fair elections in Costa Rican history up to that time. Thus the Guardia era, while not one of democracy, was an epoch of preparation for democracy and one of those instances, rare in Latin America at that time, of dictatorship shaping the life of a nation so as to make dictatorship unnecessary and almost impossible in the future. Material progress without full individual freedom; and yet

religious toleration with growing opportunities for enlightenment and an inevitable trend toward liberty and democracy—these were the salient features of the Guardia period. Within a few decades after the end of the Guardia era, Costa Rica was to become one of the most democratic, stable, and prosperous countries in Latin America.

Costa Ricans themselves have been the first to point out the notable contributions of foreigners to this social and economic transformation. Englishmen, Germans, Frenchmen, and Spaniards, as well as citizens of the United States and of various Latin American countries, all collaborated with Costa Ricans in introducing the latest medical practices and the latest inventions of technology. In a surprisingly large measure the technical skills and business management that effected the "modernization" of Costa Rica came from the United States.

The population of Costa Rica was not large. The inhabitants of the country numbered fewer than 158,000 in 1875 and not many more than 243,000 in 1892. Nor did foreigners bulk large in the total, for there were only 4,672 aliens in the country in 1883 and 6,856 in 1888—and those from countries where technology was relatively advanced were far in the minority. The total for citizens of the United States, for instance, was 130 in 1883 and only 250 in 1888. But the contributions of these foreigners to the transformation of Costa Rica during the Guardia era were far greater than their meager numbers might suggest.

Anglo-Saxon names occupy considerable space in the list of physicians in Costa Rica during the 19th century, and the names of several citizens of the United States were among them. The first of the North American medicos to arrive was Stephen Curtis, who entered Costa Rica

near the end of the eighteenth century and remained until he was compelled to flee in order to escape the clutches of the colonial Inquisition. He seems to have been deeply devoted to his profession, more interested in science and service than in financial gains. Of similar character was James Hogan, who arrived in San José in 1854 and was for several years in charge of the San Juan de Dios Hospital in that city. Hogan married a Costa Rican wife and practiced medicine with striking unselfishness until his death in 1864. Another prominent physician from the United States was Charles Lordly, who arrived in 1875 in connection with a railway enterprise and not only followed the medical profession but also opened a drug store. These are only the most conspicuous; there were several others, and there were dentists as well as physicians.

Gradually, however, Costa Rica was producing its own corps of physicians. The first of them were trained in Scotland; others were educated in Guatemala, the United States, and elsewhere. After the middle of the century courses in medicine began to be offered at the University of Santo Tomás, founded in 1843. During the same period also a national board of examination and supervision, called *El Protomedicato* after the terminology of the colonial epoch, was established.

The science of sanitation had its beginnings in Costa Rica shortly before the dawn of the Guardia era. San José was the first Costa Rican city to install plumbing. The building of the reservoirs and laying of the water pipes were initiated in 1865 and completed in 1869. Apparently the work was supervised by a German engineer named Franz Kurtze. Plumbing was installed in Cartago in 1874, in Heredia in 1879, in Alajuela in 1880, and in Liberia and Limón in 1899. The laying of the water pipes in Heredia was super-

vised by an Englishman named John Brealey, probably the son of an English physician who had been living in the country since 1835. In the other towns mentioned the plumbing was installed by Costa Rican and foreign engineers, some of the latter being citizens of the United States. Even as late as 1900, however, Limón was the only town in Costa Rica equipped with underground sewage. Drainage in San José was notoriously imperfect. For several years following 1885 George Ross, a citizen of the United States, held a contract for cleaning and repairing its streets and disposing of its garbage.

In lighting, Costa Rica seems to have skipped the era of gas, making the transition from kerosene lamps and lanterns, first installed on the streets and plazas of San José in 1856, directly to electricity. Beginning in the early 1870's, vain efforts were made for ten years to introduce gas, Costa Ricans and North Americans being prominent among the promoters. Attempts to employ electricity for lights began as early as 1882. In that year Manuel V. Dengo, a Costa Rican, and Luis Batres, a Guatemalan, were granted a small subsidy by the national government to aid them in their attempts to inaugurate that system of illumination in the leading towns of the republic. Electric lights first appeared on the streets of the capital in August 1884 and in Cartago five years later. They were not installed in Alajuela and Heredia until the middle 1890's, nor in Puntarenas and Limón until 1906 and 1927 respectively. Soon after 1884 Dengo and Batres obtained the backing of Minor C. Keith, a prominent citizen of the United States (discussed at some length below), and his associates. Ten years later a Cuban named Francisco Mendiola Boza began to play a prominent part in the electrical enterprises of the country.

Projects for street railways with cars drawn by animals were first advocated in Costa Rica in the 1870's; but a decade passed before the tramways began to operate. Those of San José, Heredia, and Cartago were built in 1885-1886 by a North American named Silas Wright Hastings, who also constructed and operated a hippodrome (racetrack) in the capital and a number of markets in Heredia and Cartago. Associated with Hastings in his enterprises in the last-named towns was a naturalized Costa Rican named Thomas Calnek. Electrification of the tramways, which was mainly the work of Minor C. Keith and his British financial supporters, began in 1889. By the late 1890's trolley cars were in operation on the streets of Alajuela as well as those of San José, Cartago, and Heredia.

The first telegraph line in the country was built in 1868 by a North American named Lyman Reynolds, who sold it to the Costa Rican government the next year. Passing through San José, Heredia, and Alajuela, it connected Cartago and Puntarenas. The line between Limón and Cartago was completed by Minor C. Keith in 1881. By 1886 there were 389 miles of telegraph wire and thirty-four telegraph offices in the republic, and Costa Rica already had telegraphic connections with the outside world. The first manager of the government-owned telegraph system was an Englishman; but Costa Ricans themselves soon took charge, and natives of the country operated the telegraph instruments almost from the outset.

Telephones were used for the first time in Costa Rica in 1886. The circuit, constructed under the supervision of Roberto Castro, a native son, connected the various offices of the national government in San José. Two years later Silas Wright Hastings tried to establish a system for private

use, but failed. Francisco Mendiola Boza, the Cuban, organized the first telephone company in the country. This enterprise, the Costa Rica Telephone Company, installed telephones in San José, Cartago, Heredia, and Alajuela in 1894 and 1895, and in the course of the next year these new instruments of technology began to be employed in Puntarenas and Limón. Minor C. Keith was a stockholder in the company.

Mining was sporadic and not very remunerative until near the end of the Guardia era. The mountain districts of the country were known to contain fairly valuable deposits of gold, silver, and copper; but efforts to work them had not been brilliantly successful, and the mineral resources of the forested lowlands stretching toward the Caribbean had not been thoroughly explored. Englishmen, among them the famous Richard Trevithick himself, had introduced steam and more modern methods in the 1820's and 1830's; but the Anglo-Costa Rican Mining Company that they organized had collapsed in 1842. In 1868 the Montealegres, the Castros, and other Costa Ricans had set up a company of their own, and soon afterwards had employed Ernest Mellis, a California mining engineer, to examine a number of mining properties. At the same time a search was made for the precious metals and other resources of the region bordering upon the Caribbean. In 1872 Minor C. Keith employed a Philadelphia geologist named William M. Gabb in this quest; and three years later a company composed of native and naturalized Costa Ricans imported some fifteen or twenty experts and laborers from the United States for the same purpose. Donald Cameron, the Meiggs family, and no doubt other North Americans made investments in Costa Rican mines during the 1870's and 1880's; but by the end of

the Guardia era British capitalists were once more in control of the majority of the Costa Rican mining properties.

The most significant contribution made to the modernization of Costa Rica by foreigners was the construction and financing of its railways. Although a part of the cost of the iron roads was paid immediately and directly by the nation, most of the capital was British. Nearly all the building, however, was carried on under the supervision of citizens of the United States.

The first Costa Rican railway—a line only nine miles long running toward the interior from Puntarenas, with cars drawn by mules—had been completed in 1857; but it proved unprofitable and was soon abandoned. This pioneer road was mainly the result of the efforts of Richard Farrer, an English merchant. The first contracts for the construction of steam railways in the country were granted to North Americans. The pioneer concession was obtained by the distinguished John C. Fremont and four associates and was dated July 31, 1866; but nothing was accomplished. The second contract, signed in 1869 with Edward Reilly, Alexander Hay, and two other citizens of the United States, was equally futile. The third, dated July 20, 1871, soon led to the inauguration of the era of steam railways in Costa Rica. This concession was granted to Henry Meiggs, a native of New York, who was already famous for his railway building in Chile and Peru.

The contract was signed in Lima, and neither Henry Meiggs nor his brother John G. Meiggs ever came to Costa Rica; but they were nevertheless mainly responsible for the construction of the first steam railroad in the country. Emily Meiggs, a sister of Henry and John, had married Minor Hubbell Keith and become the mother of several sons, three of whom were to sacrifice their lives in Costa Rican

railway construction. A fourth, Minor Cooper Keith, mentioned several times above, was to become the most famous North American in all Central America. Henry Meiggs Keith, the eldest son of Minor Hubbell and Emily Keith, had acquired experience under his noted uncle in Peru; and it was this member of the remarkable family who was sent to Costa Rica to build the first steam railway in that country and the second in Central America. (The pioneer Central American railway of this type was a line running from Puerto Caballos, later Puerto Cortés, toward the interior of Honduras. It was built by the British construction firm of McCandlish and Waring.) Henry Meiggs Keith urged his younger brother Minor, who was then engaged in ranching and lumbering on a small island off the coast of Texas, to come to Costa Rica and help with the railroad enterprise. The two Keiths rode into San José together toward the end of 1871 and began work at once.

The Meiggs contract provided for the construction of a narrow-gauge railroad from Limón on the Caribbean through the towns of Cartago, San José, and Heredia to Alajuela. For this railway, solidly built and fully equipped with stations and rolling stock, Henry Meiggs was to receive the sum of £1,600,000. Construction was to begin simultaneously at Alajuela and Limón and the road was to be completed within three years. The Keith brothers were to have general supervision of the work; prominent among the construction engineers were Albert J. Sherzer, George K. Latham, and H. D. B. Norris; some of the common laborers were Costa Ricans, but many workers had to be imported. Minor C. Keith, it is said, looked after the Limón end of the line; Henry Meiggs Keith assumed responsibility for the entire railway, but devoted his attention mainly to the western portion

in the more densely populated highland area where the climate was agreeable and the construction somewhat easier.

The first locomotive was brought from Puntarenas up to Alajuela by a train of oxcarts at a cost of 4,000 pesos. It arrived there on February 9, 1872, amidst great rejoicing. Cars and other equipment had to be transported the same way, and the distance was more than fifty miles! The first train arrived at Heredia, eight miles beyond Alajuela, on August 6, 1872; on December 30 the railway reached San José; and less than a year later, November 12, 1873, it arrived at Cartago, twenty-six and a half miles from Alajuela. Banquets, oratory, poetry, music, and dancing accompanied the opening of each section.

Progress from the Caribbean terminus at Limón was not quite so rapid; but the road was completed to Matina, a little over twenty miles from Limón, by the time the first train on the other end pulled into Cartago. This eastern part of the line was built at heavy cost in labor, suffering, and life itself. Swamps had to be filled or drained, and primeval jungle cleared away. Rain fell incessantly; lizards, snakes, and alligators were plentiful; mosquitoes, sandflies, and other insects swarmed everywhere and made constant assaults; and the heat was stifling both night and day. Malaria, dysentery, and pernicious fevers soon broke out among the workers—Irishmen, Negroes, Italians, and coolies from India and China—and they died by the hundreds.

In spite of these enormous obstacles, the Keiths and their North American collaborators, enthusiastically supported by Tomás Guardia and other Costa Ricans, would have continued their work if Costa Rica's funds had not been exhausted. In order to build this difficult railway, the Guardia government had contracted a debt of some three million pounds sterling;

but the discounts and commissions taken by some of the London investment bankers were so large that less than half that sum was available for railroad building in Costa Rica. In fact, a considerable portion of the bonds had been repurchased by Guardia's agents in a vain effort to bolster a bad market, and suspicions of graft and fraud were rife. Construction had to be abandoned for lack of capital and credit late in 1873. Guardia thereupon took over the two pieces of railway, one of which—the Limón section—seemed practically worthless until it could be extended to the more populous region of the country.

Service on the bonds held by British investors was discontinued while Guardia slowly accumulated funds from the national revenues and hopefully looked forward to the day when construction could be resumed. Late in 1875 a contract was signed with John Myers and Andrew T. Douglas, citizens of the United States, for the building of the Limón division from Matina to the Reventazón River, some sixteen miles beyond. During the next two years Myers and Douglas managed to build most of this stretch; then construction ceased again. A few months later Minor C. Keith, who had settled down in the mercantile business at Limón, emerged from temporary obscurity, signing on February 14, 1879, a contract to finish the approximately three miles which Myers and Douglas had failed to build. Keith fulfilled his contract promptly and efficiently and received a much larger one on September 8, 1879. This embraced a section of over thirty miles, extending from the Reventazón to the Sucio, which he agreed to complete by May 8, 1881, for the sum of 1,750,000 pesos, payable in monthly installments.

At the time Minor Cooper Keith signed his second agreement he was only thirty-one years old. Henry Meiggs had died in poverty two years before and Henry Meiggs

Keith was also dead. John G. Meiggs, while still living, was poor, and Minor C. Keith could expect little assistance from his parents. The young contractor had only his own resources of character and will and the backing of an English merchant, John Wilson, who signed Keith's bond.

To obtain labor was a great problem. Guardia, always somewhat over-confident, was employing a good many native workers on other public enterprises; and Frenchmen engaged in building the Panama Canal were bidding against the young North American in the cheap labor markets of the world outside. Yet Keith managed somehow to get together a crew of a thousand workers from the four corners of the earth. Some were Costa Rican convicts; others were Italians, Canary Islanders, or coolies imported from China and India; still more perhaps were black men from the West Indies. For a time Guardia subjected this miscellaneous crew to military discipline, it is said. Once more laborers died by the hundreds, and two of Keith's brothers were among those carried away by tropical diseases. Nevertheless, the work went on. The railway was not being completed according to contractual schedule; but that was no cause for serious worry. Tomás Guardia was determined to finish this railroad, and he knew that Keith would complete it if anybody could. He accordingly granted Keith not only an extension of five months but also a contract to operate the Limón-Sucio division for a period of five years. Moreover, he awarded Keith a contract to build the major part of a vehicle road from Sucio to San José and still another contract to organize a system of mule and wagon transport over this new highway.

Both the Limón-Sucio railway and the highway from Sucio to San José were finished before the middle of the year 1882.

From May 7 to May 10 both events were celebrated; wines, beer, and foreign liquors flowed freely for all who liked them. Keith was now famous throughout Costa Rica. But Guardia's career was approaching its end. Already suffering from a fatal illness that confined him to his bed in Alajuela, his life ebbed away on July 6, 1882. Keith's relations with Fernández and Soto were soon as intimate, however, as they had been with Guardia.

Already the young North American was agent for three British steamboat lines, each operating a steamer or two between Limón and New Orleans or New York, and banana plantations were flourishing along the route of the railway under Keith's management. For several years he had been busy promoting the cultivation of this new crop in order to develop freight for the railroad. Before long he was to establish a steamship company of his own; the production and sale of bananas would become the most important of his business enterprises; in 1899 he would help to organize the United Fruit Company. Yet Keith was fundamentally a railroad man; the urge to build railways was in his blood, inherited from the Meiggs family. All that he lacked in 1882 was a wife and enough funds to continue the railway through the Reventazón gorge to the plateau and Cartago. Both were soon to be found, the first in Costa Rica and the second in England.

On October 31, 1883, at the age of thirty-four, Keith married Cristina Castro, a daughter of José María Castro, an eminent Costa Rican who had served on three occasions as president or acting president of the republic and had founded the national university. Keith and his Costa Rican wife lived happily together for more than forty years and brought up a large family.

In July 1883 and in April 1884 Keith signed contracts with the Costa Rican government which authorized him to negotiate with the dissatisfied British bondholders, organize a railway company, arrange for the sale of another issue of Costa Rican bonds, and dispose of the two divisions of the railroad he had helped to build. The scaling down of the old foreign debt, the flotation of the new bonds, and the organization of a British railroad company with a capital of well over a million pounds sterling occupied a good part of Keith's time for three years. In order to induce the new company, the Costa Rica Railway Company (Limited), to finance the construction of 50 miles of track between Reventazón junction and Cartago it was necessary to cede it a majority interest in the whole line from Limón to Alajuela for a period of 99 years counted from the time the Reventazón-Cartago section should be completed. The company also obtained a land grant of 800,000 acres.

Minor C. Keith received the construction contract. Resumption of work on the railroad in August 1886 was accompanied by a *fiesta* and a grand ball. The completion of the railway in December 1890 was followed by more celebrations and a banquet. Bernardo Soto was no longer president of Costa Rica; having permitted a free election in which the opposition won, he had magnanimously surrendered his power. The leading oration at the banquet was delivered by Cleto González Víquez, a rising politician destined soon to be chief executive of his country. Unlimited praise was bestowed upon the North American railway builder. The obstacles confronted and surmounted were fully set forth. Keith was described as a modern Hercules to whom life was synonymous with struggle and achievement. He is "a grand character even

among the Yankees." said the orator; "he merits every honor." Although Keith had retained his United States citizenship, he had become a Costa Rican institution.

Further discussion of the contributions of North Americans to the modernization of Costa Rica must be in the nature of an anticlimax after considering the achievements of Minor C. Keith, who not only restored the nation's finances and built its leading railway, but also added bananas to coffee as a profitable commercial crop. Nevertheless, a few more paragraphs must be devoted to the larger theme.

Early in 1879 Tomás Guardia had ordered the construction of another railway, a line from Puntarenas to Alajuela, remarking that progressive patriots had long dreamed of a railroad from sea to sea. Work was begun at the Pacific terminus at once. At first it was under the direction of French engineers employed by the Guardia government; later a Cuban had charge of construction. Finally, on April 20, 1882, John Myers, a citizen of the United States, was granted a contract to complete the short line between Puntarenas and Esparta, a distance of some fourteen miles across the tropical lowlands of the Pacific coast. The line was finished and turned over to

the government in December 1883. Although it soon became evident that the enterprise was a dead loss unless it could be extended further into the interior, many years passed before funds could be raised for the purpose. The railway between San José and Puntarenas was not completed until 1910. A good part of its seventy-two miles was built by John S. Casement and Warren S. Knowlton, citizens of the United States; the rest was the work of Costa Ricans themselves. Minor C. Keith had built well over a hundred miles of track across a far more difficult terrain.

Except for bananas, the North American contribution to Costa Rican agriculture was small. The people of the United States stimulated coffee production, however, by increasing their consumption of that commodity, and Roland P. Saxe of California, along with other North Americans, made a small contribution to the Costa Rican livestock industry by introducing a few blooded animals either directly or through sales to Costa Ricans. It is clear that the greatest assistance given by citizens of the United States to Costa Ricans during the Guardia epoch was in the field of transportation and communications.

Homage to General Bernardo O'Higgins

On October 23, 1942, the Pan American Union held a ceremony honoring the memory of General Bernardo O'Higgins, the national hero of Chile, on the centenary of his death. The function was attended by the Honorable Henry A. Wallace, Vice President of the United States; His Excellency, the Ambassador of Chile, Señor Rodolfo Michels; other members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union; Mr. Nelson A. Rockefeller, Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs; and many of the Latin American residents of Washington.

Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, opened the program with the following words:

We have assembled this evening to pay homage to the memory of an illustrious Chilean patriot who, by both precept and example, does honor to

the Americas. Great as he was in his leadership for the independence of Chile, he was equally great in the civil organization of his country for which he had to assume responsibility after independence had been secured. A leader both in war and in peace, his greatness reached its highest expression in adversity, when in order to save his country from civil war, he resigned his high office as Supreme Director of Chile.

The Pan American Union deems it a privilege to do honor to a great Chilean and a great American. In placing this wreath at the bust of General Bernardo O'Higgins, the Pan American Union pays tribute to one who has left a glorious heritage to all the Americas.

The Assistant Director of the Pan American Union has graciously accepted the invitation of the Union to deliver the address of the evening. I have great pleasure in presenting to this distinguished audience, Dr. Pedro de Alba.

Dr. Pedro de Alba, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union, then spoke as follows:

The New World of Bernardo O'Higgins

The geography of Chile has acquired, in the voice of the distinguished Chilean author Gabriela Mistral, a measured and melodic rhythm. When she speaks of the Elqui Valley, of Mt. Osorno, of Coquimbo, Talea, Chillán, Temuco, there is in her words a gentle and melancholy nostalgia. As country school teacher or member of a high school faculty, she has followed the trail trodden more than a hundred years ago by the heroic cavalcade of Bernardo O'Higgins and his companions in arms.

Chillán, that city of the strange name, shaken unmercifully by earthquakes, was the cradle of the national hero of Chile. One thinks of O'Higgins as a child accustomed from infancy to contemplate the serious aspects of life. The panorama of his native land excited in his soul an inextinguishable love for his country. From his earliest years his association with both the humble and the great acted like a reagent leading to the discovery of the world's multiple facets.

The boy who studied his first lessons at home or in provincial schools went on later to the aristo-

cratic colleges of the Lima of the viceroys, and there learned more than his professors might have wished to teach him. The beautiful and gladsome city captivated him with its tradition and perhaps aroused within him those impulses of human sympathy that were to characterize him all his life.

In Lima he learned that in America there were other governors like his father who came from afar, appointed by monarchs beyond the seas; he learned that centuries before, the empire of the Incas was occupied by bearded white men, valiant Castilians and Estremadurans, who after conquering the natives began to fight among themselves because they could not agree on the division of the gold, the lands, and the Indians.

When the adolescent Bernardo O'Higgins was sent to Europe to continue his studies, he carried in his mind a faithful memory of his own Chilean land and an imaginative picture of the grandeur of Peru. All during his militant life he had a predilection for those two countries, which were his cradle and his tomb.



TRIBUTE OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION TO O'HIGGINS

In commemoration of the centenary of the death of Bernardo O'Higgins, the national hero of Chile, a ceremony was held at the Pan American Union on October 23, 1942. In the photograph appear, left to right, His Excellency Señor don Rodolfo Michels, Ambassador of Cuba in the United States; Dr. Pedro de Alba, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union and speaker of the evening; and Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union.

Fragments of history had shown him that his America was not free; that within its confines there lived some people exalted by their wealth and privileges and others sunken in misery and humiliation. With that array of more or less clear ideas, young O'Higgins landed at Cádiz in 1795, when he was perhaps seventeen years old.

Hardly had he recovered from the fatigue of his voyage when he was sent to England, where he went to various schools that left no particularly happy memories. His passage through Cádiz and his life in London were episodes that profoundly marked his career. The city that in 1812 was to be the seat of the liberal Cortes, and

the world metropolis with a parliament that had more power than the sovereigns, made indelible impressions on his spirit. It was not only the physical environment but also his association in Cádiz and in London with José de San Martín and Francisco de Miranda that were to develop in him his heroic vocation. In the last years of the 18th century the youthful Bernardo O'Higgins became acquainted with the Venezuelan who roamed the world over in his crusade for the liberty of America. The knight of the novelesque adventures was from that time onward the inspiration and the teacher of the young Chilean.

In his correspondence and notes on his journey, O'Higgins referred with reverence to Miranda, whom he always called *My General*. The Caraqueño, imbued with learning and the ideas of the Encyclopedia, had also a knowledge of the democratic principles of the young republic of the United States. In London Miranda maintained a sort of academy of politics in which apprentices to the career of liberator began their studies. He was eloquent and persuasive; there are authoritative stories to the effect that Bernardo O'Higgins was moved to tears on hearing him speak and then and there vowed to devote his life to the cause of American emancipation.

The young O'Higgins Riquelme was not the only disciple; Ecuadoreans, Peruvians, Colombians traveled westward from London to preach the good tidings in their countries. When O'Higgins returned to Cádiz on his way back to his dearly loved Chillán, Concepción, and Santiago, he cherished within himself a vision of a great America, of a continent extending from pole to pole, an immense field of operations on which to fight for a single cause, under a single flag. His return voyage, about the year 1800, was perhaps more hazardous than that of Columbus's mariners. Piracy, seizure, prison, pillage, hunger—these were his experiences on board ship or during the forced debarkations. The twenty-year-old youth related it all with wonderful simplicity and steely stoicism; nothing could deter him in his earnest desire to return to his fatherland to breathe the air of his childhood and to receive the welcome of his own people. But the young Ulysses no longer thought only of his native land; he returned inspired by the noble ideal of discovering his New World as a promised land for all liberty-loving men.

In addition to the influence of Miranda on the career of Bernardo O'Higgins, one must not forget the very direct influence of the great Chilean patrician, Juan Martínez de Rozas.

From the quiet of his hacienda of Las Canteras, O'Higgins wrote to Colonel Juan Mackenna a letter, dated January 5, 1811, which is a most revelatory document. The son of the Viceroy Ambrosio O'Higgins was heedful of what was occurring in all America; he spoke of the patriotic intellectuals who had been sacrificed in Quito and in La Paz in the years 1810 and 1811, and of the juntas and open councils in which the independence of the viceroalties and the captaincies general had been proclaimed.

As a consequence of conditions prevailing in Spain, an independent council of government was organized in Chile; the situation of the mother country because of the Napoleonic occupation and the unworthiness of the reigning family obliged the Spanish American colonies to take their own way. As early as 1808 the municipal government of the City of Mexico, under the inspiration of the lawyer Don Francisco Primo Verdad and Friar Melchor de Talamantes of the Order of Mercy, of Lima, upheld the thesis that the official organisms and civil and religious institutions of the colonies could convoke congresses, which might be the seeds of independent nationalities. Don Francisco Primo Verdad was thrown into prison through pressure of the Spaniards and the prosperous creoles and died there; the Peruvian monk was exiled.

In 1810 the juntas of Caracas and Buenos Aires took a still more advanced step, when they undertook the task of governing with their open councils composed of patriots who had appeared among the people of Venezuela and the United Provinces of the Río de la Plata.

In Chile also an independent junta was established, of which Dr. Juan Martínez de Rozas was a member. In the postscript to his letter to Don Juan Mackenna, O'Higgins expressed himself as overjoyed because Dr. Martínez de Rozas "has obtained from his colleagues on the junta a signed call for a congress." O'Higgins was persuaded that this first constitutional congress of Chile would not obtain any great results but that in any event it was a form, as he said, "of assuring the march of the revolution and promoting the happiness of the country." The congress was in fact made up of Spaniards and conservative creoles; the patriots were in the minority. Martínez de Rozas and O'Higgins, who were members, retired from the assembly after achieving their purpose of stirring up public opinion in favor of the independence of the Spanish American colonies.

Martínez de Rozas spoke of Latin America

in broad and general terms. In his *Declaration of the Rights of the Chilean People* he said that the sovereignty of their states should not be considered as a one-sided enterprise and that for their development and preservation they needed unity, not only internal organization but international security against the plans of those who might wish to invade or reconquer them. The American states, he held, should unite in a congress, either of the entire continent or at least of the nations of the south, a congress that could speak to the rest of the world with a voice that would be heard with respect, and thus they would encounter no opposition to their forward march as independent nations.

The ideas of the Supreme Council of Venezuela of 1810 and those of the mentor of the Chilean Junta of 1811 were identical as to the ideal of an American confederation; Simón Bolívar and Dr. Juan Martínez de Rozas clasped hands across the distance.

It might be said that a reciprocal current ran between O'Higgins and Martínez de Rozas. The teachings of the patriot of Concepción, who was convinced that the destiny of America was one and indivisible, strengthened the attitude of the young man who had listened to Francisco de Miranda in London. O'Higgins, for his part, gave effect to the ideas of Dr. Martínez de Rozas on the field of action.

Perhaps during his student days in London O'Higgins may also have become acquainted with the writings of the Jesuit of Arequipa, Juan Pablo Vizcardo y Guzmán, who in a letter written to Spanish Americans in 1792, after addressing them as *compatriots*, had held up to them as an example "the courage with which the English colonies have fought for the liberty that they now gloriously enjoy;" adding that it was to the shame of the Spanish Americans that through their indolence they had thus ceded the palm to the Anglo-Saxons, the first free men in the New World.

The narratives of Miranda, who spoke with enthusiasm of Washington, Jefferson, and Franklin, and the allusions to "the first free men of the New World," as the Peruvian Jesuit called the Anglo-Saxons of America, were deeply etched in O'Higgins' mind.

When after the great campaign of 1816 and 1817 the independence of Chile was consolidated and General Bernardo O'Higgins was named Supreme Director of the young nation, one of his first acts was to write to the President of the United States of America. His letter, dated April 1, 1817,

advised President James Monroe of Chile's independence, paid homage to General José de San Martín as chief of the liberating army, and then said: "If the cause of humanity interests the feelings of Your Excellency, and the identity of the principles of our present contest with those which formerly prompted the United States to assert independence disposes your Government and people favorably towards our cause, Your Excellency will always find me most earnestly desirous of promoting the commercial and friendly relations of the two countries, and of removing every obstacle to the establishment of most perfect harmony and good understanding."¹

Fatigue, adversity, defeat, and exile—all these O'Higgins was doomed to suffer after the unsuccessful attempts at independence of the juntas of Santiago and Concepción. All the conciliatory measures of the *Patria Vieja* (a term used in Chile to designate the four years 1810-14 during which the cause of independence was first championed) met with naught but frustration; in order that the new independent nation might arise it was necessary to call upon the Chilean people to revolt and to secure the aid of San Martín's armies.

When Bernardo O'Higgins assumed the supreme command of the destinies of his country, his first thought was to establish relations with all the nations of America. The principle which in 1825 found concrete expression in a message of the President of the United States to the Congress of that country, and which came to be known as the Monroe Doctrine, had antecedents in the proclamation of Dr. Martínez de Rozas on the Rights of the Chilean People and in the letter which General Bernardo O'Higgins wrote to the President of the United States.

Originality in the Epic of O'Higgins

O'Higgins was of Irish and creole blood; a student in his youth in a foreign country, which permitted him to learn a language other than his own native tongue; early subjected to the school of experience; and gifted with a taste for books and for association with men. All these contributed to the formation of his personality; they were the deep frame of his life's design.

If Bolívar communed with the heroes of Hellas and Latium on one of the hills of Rome, O'Higgins, from the bridges of the Thames, seemed to talk with the captains of ships sailing to explore

¹ Translation taken from "Inter-American Acquaintances," Charles Lyon Chandler, *The University Press of Sewanee, Tennessee. Second Edition Extended, 1917, p. 113.*

new worlds. The four or five years that he lived in England as a youth gave him a clear idea of the maritime routes of the globe. Without being in any sense phlegmatic, as the Anglo-Saxons are usually said to be, his calmness and self-control provided him with resources to conquer difficult situations. A man of less strength of character would have given up to defeat when faced with the incidents and misfortunes that befell him on his return journey to America.

The memory of his father, an Irish merchant who by his own merits rose to the highest station under the Spanish crown, was a stimulus to him. Ambrosio O'Higgins, captain general and later viceroy, had been a man of perseverance; he was distinguished for his executive ability and his benevolent attitude toward the masses. Although titles of nobility were won by him, the old colonial aristocracy continued to regard him as an upstart. No descendant of the conquistadors, he could look upon some of America's problems with the clear gaze of the newcomer. The veneration which Bernardo O'Higgins had for his father is apparent in the respectful allusions he often made to his memory, and in his gratitude for the education he received and for the name and the hacienda bequeathed to him by express order of the viceroy.

The biographers of Bernardo O'Higgins—some of them excellent ones—assure us that the happiest years of his life were those at the beginning of the 19th century, spent in company with his mother Doña Isabel Riquelme and his sister Rosa, at the hacienda of Las Canteras. His Irish grandparents, strong in their labors in the field and tender within the circle of their home, seemed to preside over that pastoral poem that was later to assume epic dimensions, while his Spanish creole forefathers bound him to the land that was to be the theater of his exploits.

This man, who as time went on became both soldier and governor, was really a farmer at heart. He had a great love for rural work, as he himself said in a letter to Colonel Juan Mackenna. In his years of great power, he thought of giving land to poor farmers and to the revolutionary soldiers; he wished to govern for the neediest classes, as if he had been familiar with the thought expressed by Thomas Jefferson when he said of the wealthy: ". . . enough of these will find their way into every branch of the legislation to protect themselves." (Letter to John Adams, 1813.)

Bernardo O'Higgins was never supported by the landed aristocracy or by those who attached high

value to nobility of blood as repositories of the prejudice and arrogance of the time of Spanish domination.

The pastoral repose of his early years as a farmer at Las Canteras gave him a store of energy with which to face in his maturity the rigors of the campaign for independence and to solve the grave problems that confronted him as head of the government, sometimes to the sound of songs of victory and on not a few occasions with the sorrows of adversity weighing heavily upon him.

Rancagua, Chacabuco, Cancha Rayada, and Maipú represent the topmost heights in the story of O'Higgins' military exploits. One marvels at the heroic resistance at Rancagua and at the fact that from an apparent rout a decisive advantage was obtained. His forced retirement to Argentina brought him into association with San Martín, with whom he was later to share the glory of the Chilean and Peruvian campaigns. O'Higgins was always convinced that the cause of Chile could not be isolated but that it must depend on the general course of the war of independence in America and above all on the fate of the viceroalties of Lima and Buenos Aires.

The Chilean was an expert guide in the crossing of the Andes; after Rancagua he had braved the cordillera with scarcely a day's journey between the enemy and himself. When the army of San Martín crossed the Andes, O'Higgins was one of the strategists of the great feat; for him the return to Chile was the second episode of the same great adventure.

With the victories of the revolutionary armies of Argentina and Chile at Chacabuco and Maipú, the way was open for complete occupation of the country. O'Higgins, who had won the confidence and admiration of his companions in arms and of the people of Chile, was to begin a new chapter of his own story as Supreme Director of the young nation.

By land and by sea expeditions sallied forth from Peru to subdue Chile again and to threaten Argentina; therefore it was necessary to fight the royalists in their own redoubts. Once more the collaboration between San Martín and O'Higgins worked well for the cause of independence. The liberating army sailed, and before long its banners were raised over Callao and the church towers of Lima.

O'Higgins had given his compatriots a practical lesson; he had made them see the new nation's need for a naval force. Thus he marked out the path of liberty through sea lanes. Later he was the founder of his country's merchant marine;

he was convinced that there could be no effective independence without free trade.

While he served as Director and Supreme Chief of his country, his government was democratic; he undertook the task of correcting the evils inherited from the colonial period. Taxes; agriculture; education; agrarian laws; the abolition of slavery, titles of nobility, and entailed estates; the repression of the abuses exercised by the privileged classes—all these received his attention. Reforms were slow and difficult, because at the same time he had to be on guard against threats of reconquest by Spain. O'Higgins opened the doors of the new nation to healthy and useful immigrants from other countries and continents. The country needed industrious people and trained technicians, who at the same time would serve to dissipate old rivalries which had survived from the Spanish regime among creoles, Spaniards, Indians, and mestizos. In his policies he anticipated the admonition of Juan Bautista Alberdi on the urgency of populating the lands of the young republics with new inhabitants. This trait of unstinted and generous hospitality, which has redounded to Chile's credit throughout the course of its history, had its beginning in the administration of O'Higgins. He looked upon the problems of population with the tolerance of a man who knows the world.

O'Higgins' warm reception of foreigners in both military and civil activities created an unfavorable impression among the traditional elements. It was said of him that he wished to set himself up as a perpetual dictator, and there was no lack of people who accused him of not following constitutional precepts and republican principles. Like Simón Bolívar, Bernardo O'Higgins was a great advocate of representative assemblies and popular congresses. It is necessary only to glance over his correspondence, manifestos, and other public documents to be convinced of his enthusiasm for the democratic form of government. If such organisms did not function completely during his administration, it was for reasons that were beyond his power and his will. Threats of anarchy and disintegration in the young Spanish American republics spread from one extreme of the hemisphere to the other. The problems which the leaders of the Spanish American countries had to face during the first years of independence outstripped all capacity and foresight; they were so enormous that neither the fortitude nor the genius and patriotism of any one man could harmonize beautiful ideals and a sound course of public administration. Three hundred years of bad government had left baneful

heritages which could be changed only through the course of time.

The history of the independence of the Spanish American republics makes an absorbing study: one must seek its origins and its consequences in very remote events. Perhaps in no other epoch of history have those who governed had to face so many problems. In Europe the liquidation of feudalism, the dawn of the Renaissance, and the advent of the revolutionary era comprised three or four centuries; in the Spanish American republics, born at the beginning of the 19th century, the imperatives of social reformation struck all at once.

Servitude and slavery, political reforms, quarrels between the common people and the nobility, religious and class conflicts, abolition of caste privileges, the opening of new sources of wealth and production, eagerness for fundamental social justice, differences between church and state—a complex mountain of difficulties requiring quick solution confronted leaders, legislators, and civil and military authorities.

It seemed that the Nemesis of the Greeks, jealous of the glory and felicity of men, presented to the heroic idealists and to the nations so anxious for liberty the somber perspective that those ills "had no remedy," as is sometimes said even today.

Men of genius, heroes clad in glory, clear-sighted statesmen suffered tremendous reverses in the government of the Spanish American republics. Some lost their own self-control and allowed themselves to be halted by resentment or discouraging inertia. Sucre, Francisco Morazán, and Vicente Guerrero, exemplary citizens who were among the greatest heroes of their time, were sacrificed by political intrigue or the acts of the very ones to whom they had given liberty. Even Simón Bolívar, he of the admirably organized mind and the will of steel, was on the point of losing his life when he attempted to solve the grave problems that grew out of the consummation of independence.

O'Higgins, Hero of Continental Unification

O'Higgins was not only the Father of his Country; he was the artisan of a new society. The Chilean nation was molded by him with those fundamental democratic characteristics for which it has been known in the course of history. It was Chile's good fortune to have been governed for more than five years by a Supreme Chief of the stature of O'Higgins.

The first years of the republic—the most

dangerous because of unbridled passions and appetites, the inexperience of the new officials, material ambitions, or the desire for revenge—found in the Supreme Chief a moderator of balanced and constructive spirit. His great contributions were appreciated by his fellow citizens, but nevertheless he could not escape the fate of the majority of the founding fathers of the young republics.

During the last year of his administration opposition became constantly deeper, stronger, more decided. From 1822 on there was in Chile much visible unrest or underground discontent. To the resistance and rebellion of the Senate was added the nonconformity of those who objected to election results. The most inflammatory charges against the Supreme Chief were those incited by the tolerance with which, according to his opponents, he treated his Minister of the Treasury; this alienated the confidence of a considerable section of the country. The crisis culminated in the resignation and retirement of O'Higgins early in 1823. This page of Chile's history may be considered as a sample of the civic spirit of the nation; such proceedings have not been frequent in other latitudes. O'Higgins, who began his revolutionary career as a member of the juntas in the time of the *Patria Vieja*, gave over the reins of government to an open council made up of citizens of the young republic and representatives of various bodies. The coalition sent a committee to the Supreme Chief to ask for his resignation; he received the committee, and shortly appeared in person to reply to the charges that had been made against him. He was told that for the welfare of the republic and the good of the nation he should resign. He asked that representatives of the assembly be named to discuss with him the debatable points, and after a short deliberation he resolved to surrender the power that he had exercised for almost six years. Meanwhile the people of Santiago, according to authentic accounts, were milling through the streets to the shout of "Viva O'Higgins!" The Supreme Chief could have refused to receive the committee and could have retained his executive powers but, besides being a man with a keen sense of honor, he had a horror of civil war; he thought that his presence in the government might be a pretext for even greater disorders, and to that he preferred exile.

The former student in the schools of Lima returned to the city of his adolescence; Lima was to be his asylum and Peru the field for his agricultural work. He who as a youth had loved rural

life would now follow his agricultural bent; a new Cincinnatus would grasp the plow after having liberated his country and established the republic.

The city of the viceroys was generous to him. For his residence it offered him the house which had been occupied by the Protector José de San Martín, and the government placed at his disposal the hacienda of Montalván, which was almost a replica of Las Canteras.

The former insurgent general, who spoke of the wars of independence as of the field of honor, was not idle in his exile. He took part in the final Peruvian campaign and offered his sword to Bolívar. The Liberator, who respected him and lauded his merits, conferred the highest military rank upon him, so that he might accompany the armies in the battle of Ayacucho. Thus O'Higgins was able to say in a letter to his mother that he was given this privilege "so that an Araucanian may see the conclusion and play the part his poor strength allows in ending forever Spanish rule in these regions. . . ."

In Chile, as in nearly all the continent, there followed a period of civil wars and unstable governments; an eagerness to steer new courses agitated all the Spanish American countries. Soon after O'Higgins' departure into exile, his partisans began sending forth urgent calls for him to return to politics in Chile. The reaction of the former Supreme Chief was another feature exceptional in the annals of America. He could have regained his power and perhaps have made himself a decisive factor in the progress of the republic, but he abstained from such action in fulfillment of his word and out of self-respect. However much he failed to conquer resentment—for he frequently referred to the ingratitude of his compatriots—he was nevertheless faithful to his promise to himself and to his country.

His words, written in a letter to Don Fernando Errázuriz, a member of the junta that took over the duties of government after O'Higgins' resignation, may be recalled. In that brief note he asked for his passports in order to leave the country "because it will conduce to the tranquillity of the republic in the present state of affairs, as well as fulfil my desire to get away from the tumult and claims that my presence might arouse, either among the troops that I have built up or among any other class of people. When all is calm again and my influence would be no other than that of a simple citizen, then I shall return to my beloved country to enjoy this great good. . . ."

The passports which the provisional govern-

ment and the generals in command granted Bernardo O'Higgins were written in the most respectful and grateful terms; they asked for him broad guarantees and respectful treatment; the former Supreme Director was referred to as the Father of his Country and Founder of the Republic, who would be absent from the country for two years. Besides honoring him in his absence, the Chilean nation cherished the illusion of his return. O'Higgins' strength of character to withstand twenty years of exile is exemplary; there was the certainty that his return would be a cause of joy for many of his compatriots, but he did not fail to suspect that his presence could also give rise to new complications or rioting, which he wished to avoid, whatever the cost.

From his retirement, whether in Trujillo, Lima, the hacienda of Montalván, or the port of Callao, he followed with the keenest interest political developments in his country and events in all America. There were times when his residence in Peru could have been made difficult by the state of war between Chile and Peru and Bolivia; he was grieved to see his fellow citizens and his friends enveloped in what he considered fratricidal struggles. As soon as there was a truce or respite in the conflict, O'Higgins addressed the Protector of the Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation, Don Andrés Santa Cruz, and the Chilean General Manuel Bulnes, urging them to solve all their differences peaceably and suggesting that as brothers they submit controversies between neighbors to a calm and judicious deliberation, without having recourse again to the "blind fury of arms."

O'Higgins may be regarded as a hero of the unification of the continent. He was faithful to San Martín, whom he always called "my most dearly beloved friend;" he admired Bolívar, in whom he recognized the fire of genius; and he never saw any incompatibility in revering at the same time and for different reasons those two great men of America. He fostered the idea of the perpetual friendship of Peru, Bolivia, and Chile among themselves and with all their neighbors, and strove earnestly for better understanding among the nations of Latin America and those of Anglo-Saxon America, in order thus

to complete the political map of a friendly, strong, and united New World.

While he was devoting himself to these tasks of fraternal conciliation he was attacked by the malady that a few years later was to cause his death. In his last days he was called again and again by the government and the people of Chile to return home, where he would receive nothing but filial affection from his fellow citizens. Even those who in other times had attacked him had revised their attitude and recognized him as a national hero.

Bernardo O'Higgins, depressed and disheartened since the death of his mother, began to feel more keenly a homesickness for his fatherland; he yearned for its fields and cities in which he had known both triumph and defeat, and in which he had sown the seeds of new ideas. He, who had always been so resolute in his determination, began to waver between the expedience of staying in Peru and yielding to a deep and secret desire to go home. Fate solved the problem. His illness grew worse; his journeys to the seashore to breathe the salt air failed to improve his health. His last days were spent in Lima and in that beloved and friendly city he died on October 24, 1842. The bells of all the churches of the historic city of the viceroys tolled in expression of the general bereavement. The people of Chile, when they heard the sorrowful news, reverently paid homage to the best of their fellow citizens and the father of their nation. The grief caused by the death of the founder of the republic of Chile spread throughout all America.

Tomorrow is the hundredth anniversary of the death of Bernardo O'Higgins. Tonight as the Pan American Union pays tribute to his memory, the illustrious Chilean is present in spirit here in the Gallery of Heroes, along with Washington, whom he so greatly admired; near José de San Martín, "his friend in good and ill fortune," and Sucre, his companion in arms in the last battles for continental independence. At his side also is Simón Bolívar, whom he called "the philosopher general," and with whom he shared the dream of an America ever watchful in danger, resolute in common action, and confident in the high destiny of the New World.

The President of Cuba in Washington

GENERAL FULGENCIO BATISTA, President of Cuba, arrived in Washington on December 8, 1942, for a five-day visit as the guest of President Roosevelt. When the special plane that brought President Batista from Miami, Florida, landed at Bolling Field in the crisp cold of the late wintry afternoon, President Roosevelt, Vice President Wallace, Secretary of State Hull, other members of the Cabinet, Under Secretary of State Sumner Welles, officers of the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps, and officials of the Cuban Embassy in Washington, were gathered to welcome him. He was received with full military honors; a twenty-one-gun salute was fired, a service band played the national anthems of Cuba and the United States, and the two Presidents held a brief reception to greet the attending officials. The entire party drove to the White House, passing through lines of troops that extended from the Capitol to the gates of the Executive Mansion.

Accompanying General Batista were the following persons: Dr. José A. Martínez, Minister of State; Dr. Aurelio F. Concheso, Ambassador of Cuba in Washington; the Honorable Spruille Braden, United States Ambassador to Cuba; Amando López Castro, Minister of the Presidency; Brigadier General Francisco Tabernilla; Dr. Óscar García Montes, member of the Cuban National Development Commission; Dr. Pedro Rodríguez Capote, Chief of Protocol, Ministry of State; Commander Rolando Peláez and Major Jorge Hernández, Naval and Military Aides; Dr. Óscar Figarola Infante; and Señor Rafael Mulet, Secretary.

In Washington Brigadier General John B. Coulter, U. S. A., and Captain A. H.

Addams, U. S. N., joined the party as Military and Naval Aides, respectively.

President Batista was an overnight guest at the White House, where President Roosevelt was host at a state dinner in his honor. On the following day the distinguished visitor took up his residence at Blair House, the handsome and historic home near the White House which serves the Nation as its guest house.

On December 9 the Governing Board of the Pan American Union held a special session in honor of the visiting Chief of State. The Chairman of the Board, the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, voiced the greeting on behalf of the Board members in these words:

MR. PRESIDENT:

The members of the Governing Board have assembled today to extend to you a warm welcome on behalf of the Pan American Union. You were elected to the Chief Magistracy of Cuba in one of the most critical periods in the history of the Americas. This world-wide conflict has brought to your country many difficult problems but you have faced them with courage, determination, and statesmanlike outlook.

We have all followed with the deepest interest the splendid accomplishments of your administration, especially in the fields of education, public health, and social security. We have admired your unsparing efforts to raise the standard of living of the masses of the Cuban people.

We are also deeply grateful for the important contribution that you have made to the cause of inter-American solidarity. The strategic position occupied by Cuba lends special significance to your wholehearted cooperation in resisting aggression and in strengthening the security of the Western World. In all these respects your Government has set an example of which you have every reason to feel proud.

We welcome you as the leader of a people profoundly imbued with those principles of inter-

American cooperation which mean much both to the present and to the future of the American republics.

General Batista expressed his appreciation of the Governing Board's welcome as follows:

Mr. CHAIRMAN AND HONORABLE MEMBERS OF THE BOARD:

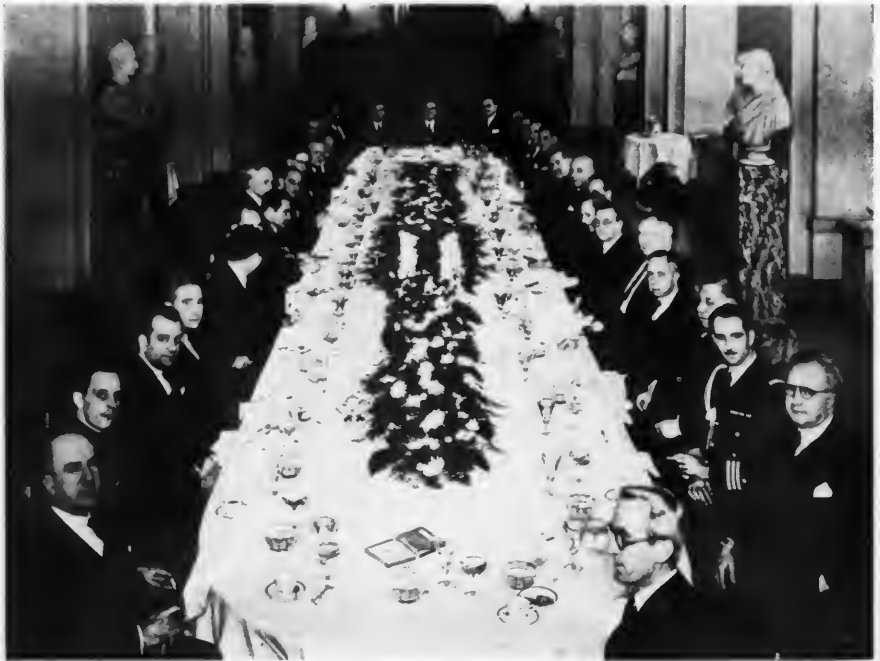
In behalf of my country and for myself, I wish to express my sincere appreciation for the kind words of welcome that the Secretary of State and President of the Board, the Honorable Cordell Hull, has addressed to me at this solemn session held in my honor.

Deeply moved, I wish to give testimony at this time of my heartfelt gratitude to Secretary Hull, who on many occasions has shown his affection for the Cuban people. I wish to express my

appreciation also to the Chiefs of Mission of the sister republics of America for the hospitality, kindness and courtesy which they have shown me.

Cuba will never forget that the Chairman of this Board was a valiant soldier in the struggle for Cuban independence. Neither does Cuba forget that in 1933 at the Seventh Pan American Conference at Montevideo, the present Secretary of State of the United States gave effective expression to the Good Neighbor Policy as advocated by the illustrious President Roosevelt.

I can not and should not fail to recall, too, that Mr. Hull, as representative of the United States, together with the representatives of all the Pan American republics, attended the Second Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs held at Habana in 1940 for the historic purpose of consolidating an effective continental cooperation. The union of our countries has now acquired even more



LUNCHEON GIVEN BY THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION IN HONOR OF THE PRESIDENT OF CUBA

General Batista is seen in profile, leaning slightly forward in the center of the left-hand side. He is at the right of the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State and Chairman of the Board.

significance, as was made evident by our joint action at the meeting in Rio de Janeiro, when it was agreed to break diplomatic relations with the Axis powers.

The democratic nations have had to mobilize with the greatest urgency in order to defend not only western culture but also the destinies of the present generation and of coming generations, so that we and they may live in peace under the aegis of liberty, law, and international justice.

It is the task and human responsibility of our American republics to safeguard western civilization and to insure democratic existence as the only political system guaranteeing to all peoples of the world the national life which they, as independent nations, may deem most appropriate for the achievement of their purposes and interests as free peoples.

For myself I can say that whether the responsibility of governing our country rests on my shoulders or on those of any other citizen elected by the people, Cuba will always be ready to cooperate and help, in order that continental solidarity may be a perpetual reality, with no doubts or shadows that might weaken our indispensable unity.

Following adjournment of the special session, the Governing Board members entertained President Batista at a luncheon, the long flower-decked table being laid in the Gallery of Heroes of the Pan American Union.

On December 10 General Batista paid a visit to the House of Representatives. That body recessed in order to receive him and to hear the brief address in which he recalled the fact that it was in the House chamber that on April 19, 1898, a declaration was adopted proclaiming that "the people of Cuba are, and of right ought to be, free and independent." At the close of his remarks, General Batista was presented to House members by the Honorable Sol Bloom, Chairman of the House Foreign Affairs Committee.

In the afternoon of the same day, General Batista went to Mount Vernon, the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier and the monument to the officers and men of the battleship

Maine in Arlington National Cemetery, and the Lincoln Memorial. At the tomb of George Washington at Mount Vernon President Batista placed a wreath which bore a ribbon inscribed "To the illustrious founder of the United States of America, from the President and the people of Cuba," and he laid a similar wreath with an appropriate inscription at the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier during a brief and solemn ceremony there.

On December 11 General Batista and the members of his official party drove to Annapolis, Maryland, to pay a visit of inspection to the United States Naval Academy.

Interspersed in President Batista's busy schedule of official meetings, conversations, and conferences was a crowded round of social affairs. In addition to the White House dinner, he was entertained at dinner on various days by the Secretary of State and the Under Secretary of State, at luncheon by Mr. Nelson Rockefeller, Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, and finally, he was guest of honor at a dinner at the Cuban Embassy, followed by a brilliant reception attended by United Nations diplomats, government and service officials, and many members of Washington society. At the dinner at which the Under Secretary of State, Mr. Sumner Welles, was host, the medal of the Pan American Society was bestowed on President Batista, in recognition of his merits as a citizen of the Americas.

On December 12, President Batista left Washington to spend a few days in New York and Buffalo. In the latter city he visited our war industry plants and in New York he was entertained by the Mayor of the City, the Cuban Chamber of Commerce, and by Mr. Thomas J. Watson, President of International Business Machines Corporation.

Since this was not President Batista's

first visit to Washington and the United States, he came not as a stranger, and found friends, not strangers, in the United States to welcome him. But there is always profit in the mutual interchange of ideas, experiences, and information, and as the Cuban Chief of State sped back to his sun- and sea-swept island republic

he could surely reflect, as did his friends and neighbors in the United States who bade him farewell, that his most recent visit served to consolidate the bonds between the two countries even more strongly, both in the great task of the present moment and in the tremendous task of post-war reconstruction.

A Sentimental Journey in Peru

III. The Sierra

(Continued)

JULIA MACLEAN VIÑAS

Secretary to the Assistant Director, Pan American Union

IT WAS almost midnight when our car drew up before a house in one of Tarma's narrow streets. We let fall the heavy knocker and immediately were welcomed by Don Juan Dejudicci, who with his brother-in-law, Carlos Rizo Patrón, had been anxiously awaiting our arrival. They had feared because it was so late that we might have had difficulty crossing the Junín plateau, but luckily nothing had happened. As soon as we passed the threshold of the house we immediately felt the reassuring warmth of their charming hospitality. After having traversed dangerous roads where it was a question of survive or perish, we found it especially grateful to be sheltered in this Tarma household, its very atmosphere an indication of the care and good taste of another school friend. We missed Enriqueta Rizo Patrón, who was in Lima; but her husband and brother did the honors so well

The first and second parts of this article appeared in the BULLETIN for March 1940 and December 1942.

that they gave us many pleasant hours besides affording us a well deserved rest.

How delicious is a meal when the table is set with a lace cloth, fine porcelain, shining silverware, and a vase of flowers! While we were eating we listened to *Madame Butterfly*, broadcast by short wave direct from Rockefeller Center in the heart of New York. What a contrast this house offered to the town's simple atmosphere!

Since this place which other travelers had described had long attracted us we wanted to have the pleasure of roaming through its picturesque environs, exploring the beautiful valley, surrounded by terraces covered with vegetation and profusely dotted with clover and alfalfa blossoms. Many orchards boast lemon, apple, pear, peach, walnut, and quince trees. The ground is splendid for tree growing because of the abundant rains; and the view is cheered by the green of the willows, cedars, ashes, poplars, and cypresses that make Tarma an important timber center. The

air is filled with the aroma coming from groves of graceful eucalyptus, whose rustling foliage lulls the traveler to sleep during his stay in this city, 9,915 feet above sea level.

We wandered about the town, along different little streets, constantly attracted by the red, yellow, green, and purple of the samples of smooth-finished woolen cloth hanging from the doorways of the dry-goods stores, a temptation not only to the native women, who make their shawls of it, but also to those from the coast, who find many domestic uses for this heavy material. Then we went on toward the park, after acquiring some trinkets and that delicious dainty typical of the region, the famous *manjar blanco* (milk boiled down to the consistency of a baked custard), in a round box of rough white wood.

All through the sierra one sees women spinning or weaving at any time of day, making the most of every minute. They come and go along the roads and through towns with fleece and distaff in the left hand, spinning with the right. While they talk of their children, their crops, and of what is happening in different communities the spindle is never still. This custom was handed down from their ancestors, since even the *pallas*, women of royal blood, made their servants carry their spinning and weaving when they went on visits. From the Inca Garcilaso we learn that the first needlework teacher was the queen Mama Ocllo Huaco, who taught the Indians to spin and weave, bring up their children with love and care, and do every thing else a good housewife should.

In the square at Tarma, smaller and more friendly than that at Huánuco, we paused to sit down on a bench with a young *chola* of solid build, whose swift fingers were crocheting a woolen garment of that shade, now known as "shocking pink," which is a favorite among Peruvian

mountaineers. Seated there, under a clear sky, we meditated on the simple life of this town and at the same time contemplated the clock whose sonorous bell marks the hours and quarters from the tower of the main church; but the movement of its hands loses all meaning in this peaceful village, where no one is in a hurry. We looked sidelong at our unknown companion, who continued her work undisturbed; seeing her so lost in thought something prompted us to start a conversation. We asked if she were crocheting for her baby. She replied that it was for her little sister. We learned her name was Ceferina Pachas and then asked if she would not like to go with us to Lima to be a nursemaid. She explained that she would be most unhappy away from her animals and little brothers and sisters, for once she had gone there for the national holiday and worked awhile for a good mistress, but she had cried all the time until finally one night she ran away, back to Tarma.

We did not argue, for the peasant girl's decision did not surprise us. For these women, rooted in their native soil, the violent change to a large city must be intolerable. In the short space of a few hours, the time taken by the trip from the sierra to the coast, the climate and customs change with disconcerting abruptness. The women, who at home are their own mistresses, on the coast are forced to replace their many-colored petticoats with servants' uniforms and do up their plaits in a knot or cut them off. They are obliged to resign themselves to the closed confines of a house, when their eyes are used to mountain paths, potato fields, llama flocks—all those simple components of the sierra's magnificent panorama that they are accustomed to seeing from dawn to dusk.

Soon the conversation ended because we could not find words to induce Ceferina

to leave the mountains; so we let her go off toward her little farm, work in hand, hat pulled down to her eyebrows, a blue fringed shawl wrapped about her. She will never know that as we listened to the wind blowing through the branches of the eucalyptus, her words served to throw light on the flight of other mountaineer girls, natives of Tarma, Concepción, Jauja, who long ago had been part of our household in Lima and who, like her, slipped away one night with no explanation.

The Peruvian sierra, with more than 5,500,000 inhabitants, covers an area of 156,180 square miles and is noted for its mild climate which, although there is a great variation between day and night, remains almost the same during the different seasons of the year. (The maxi-

mum temperature at noon is 63° Fahrenheit and minimum at night 40° Fahrenheit.) There is total dryness during the winter months, while in summer—that is to say from November until May—torrential rains fall. The sierra vegetation is varied. In the fields of the rich Department of Junín, as well as in the rest of the region, the inhabitants grow wheat, barley, corn, *ollucos* and *ocas* (tubers), and different varieties of potatoes, the yellow ones having the best flavor.

The fertility of the soil around Tarma, Jauja, and Huancayo has made the Department of Junín important in the production of food not only because it is near Lima, the country's most important consuming center, but also because it is joined by roads with other interior districts and with the valleys of Chanchamayo, Oxapampa, Acobamba, and Vitoe in the Amazon basin. Among the various products the earth offers in these valleys we find avocados; the granadilla, fruit of the passion vine, whose wood is valuable in cabinetwork; and the chirimoya, both plant and name being of Andean origin, the latter a corruption of the Quechua.

Our stay in Tarma ended with a dinner given by the Rotarians in honor of their Governor, Andrés Dasso, and his wife, in whose car we were making this tour of the mountains and forests of Peru. The Governor's address was received with great enthusiasm and a tribute was paid to the work of the Pan American Union throughout the continent. The banquet table was adorned with flowers and the colors of the American flags, showing that the Pan American idea flourishes even in this remote town, where many old-fashioned customs still prevail. Among these is the separation of the women from the men before dinner. It is rather terrifying to enter the drawing room of a



Courtesy of Julia MacLean

A HERD OF LLAMAS IN THE PERUVIAN SIERRA



Courtesy of Julia MacLean

TARMA, A REPOSEFUL TOWN FAMOUS FOR ITS PLEASANT CLIMATE AND BEAUTIFUL COUNTRYSIDE

colonial mansion now turned into a club and find two ranks of guests down which the visitor must pass, greeting first the ladies and then the gentlemen. Only when the guests pass into the dining room does a gentleman ceremoniously offer his arm to a lady to conduct her to her place at the table, where women alternate with men.

Since the Rotarians in Jauja also wished to honor the Governor, we rose early to begin our day's journey and arrive in time for luncheon, but the clear air of Tarma, its lovely countryside, and the peace prevailing everywhere made it hard for us to pack our baggage and depart.

We left Tarma with the feeling that we

always experience when we must go from a place not knowing at what far distant date we shall be able to return. We tried to make the trip from Tarma to Jauja as quickly as possible, but the unexpected always happens on those treacherous roads where even a luxurious Packard often provides surprises. When we had covered half the trip the motor began to act like an over-burdened llama and there seemed to be no way to make it start again. At first the incident appeared of so little importance that we thought we should be able to follow our day's schedule, but after being held up several hours in the middle of the high plateau there was still no prospect of remedying our misfortune. In that desolate region it is a diffi-



Courtesy of Julia MacLean

WOMEN OF TARMA ENJOY A MORNING GOSSIP

Spinning as they talk, these women stand on a sunny street above which rises a hillside planted with rustling eucalyptus trees.

cult task to figure out the proximity of the nearest village. We were fearful that the roof, provisions, and robes we had with us might not be sufficient if we had to spend the night in the open air.

No human being passed our way; not even any birds dwelt in those icy regions; there was no murmuring of a stream or any sign of a cave to offer us shelter. Mary, our clever friend, managed to make the first hours of our tiresome wait pleasant by her tales. Her volubility, characteristic of a true Limeña, is a gift for driving away fears, but an occasional glance at a watch and at the parts of the dismantled motor lying scattered on the ground while Andrés and his mechanic tried to repair the damage gave a true measure of our plight. The agreeable conversation lagged; words failed and finally our friend, properly disgusted with the "Saxon phlegm and muteness" of her traveling companions, punished us by devoting herself to reading. A long time afterwards we learned that although we were stuck in the very heart of the Andes, Axel Munthe's *The Story of San Michele* had the power to transport Mary to the Isle of Capri, the delightful refuge of the famous Swedish doctor. Those are captivating and moving pages; but on the bleak plateau they lost their charm for us because they could not, as they had done before, carry us away to the Gulf of Naples.

Lost in contemplation of the countryside, we longed to have a *chasqui*, or messenger, appear by magic, to take a message

to Jauja. Unfortunately in these days *chasquis* do not travel those roads, as they did in Inca times when young Indians carried messages in relays from one place to another. Nor are there inns such as those where a messenger used to wait until he saw his fellow approaching and went to meet him to get the message by word of mouth or from quipus (different colored strings which, by a system of knots, the Peruvian Indians used to take the place of writing) to be passed on at the next inn, and so on until the message reached its destination. It was indeed a noteworthy system that the primitive Peruvians used for sending messages; upon arrival they were decoded by the *quipucamayos*, experts in the art.

The services of a *chasqui* would have been invaluable during the several hours' stop we were forced to make. Fortunately Andrés finally managed to conquer the trouble, a real feat considering the place where the mishap occurred. The automobile's start was acclaimed by cheers; when we were already on our way we saw two other cars approaching us. Their occupants were coming from Jauja to rescue us. Their foresight was such that the first thing they did was regale us with drinks of brandy and with *butifarras*, the Peruvian hot rolls filled with pork and slices of onion dipped in spices with lettuce peeping out around the edges. Needless to say they tasted like manna in the desert. Then the newcomers escorted us to the main plaza of their town

Visit to Washington of the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Guatemala

EARLY in December 1942 Washington was honored by a visit from a prominent Latin American statesman, Dr. Carlos Salazar, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Guatemala. Dr. Salazar came to Washington following a short stay in Mexico. He was accompanied by the Honorable Delfino Sánchez Latour, Chief of Protocol of the Guatemalan Foreign Office, and Señor Mendoza, his private secretary.

On December 3 a special session of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union was held in honor of Dr. Salazar. Its chairman, Secretary of State Hull, welcomed the distinguished visitor on behalf of the Board with the words:

The cordial welcome which I am privileged to extend to you, Mr. Minister, on behalf of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, is more than a tribute to the distinguished dean of American Foreign Ministers. It is, in large part, a greeting from friends of long standing. Most members of this Board have enjoyed the privilege of association with you at Pan American conferences, from the Sixth International Conference of American States at Habana, in 1928, through the Second Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs, also at Habana in 1940. I am sure that I speak for these colleagues as well as for myself when I say that it has been a great pleasure to work with you in furthering the principles for which the Pan American Union was founded.

Guatemala has many reasons to take pride in your accomplishments. As an influential member of the National Assembly and as Dean of the Law School, you have made the future leaders of your country aware of their responsibilities in seeing that the principles of law are followed by individuals and in national and international procedure.

During the long period of your incumbency as Minister of Foreign Affairs of Guatemala you have shown unwavering devotion to the cause of inter-

American solidarity and cooperation. The sincerity of that devotion is attested by the fact that, under your skillful guidance, the definitive boundaries of Guatemala with Honduras and El Salvador were peacefully settled and demarcated.

In this world crisis through which we are now passing, Guatemala has given evidence not only of a desire to protect her national interests but also of a determination to cooperate in maintaining the security of her sister nations of this continent.

We all join in extending to you and to your country our sincere good wishes, together with a deep appreciation of the service which Guatemala is rendering to the cause of continental solidarity and the even greater cause of human freedom.

In his reply Dr. Salazar expressed Guatemala's stand with relation to present day affairs by saying:

I appreciate indeed the kind words of welcome you have addressed to me on behalf of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union upon the occasion of my visit to this institution which so consistently and enthusiastically promotes the interests of the American nations.

It is certainly most gratifying to me, Mr. Chairman, to see again some of my distinguished colleagues of Conferences and other Pan American gatherings and to meet the representatives of the other Republics of the Continent under the chairmanship of the illustrious Secretary of State of the United States, whose noble endeavors as a missionary of peace and inter-American friendship I have been privileged to witness throughout the Continent.

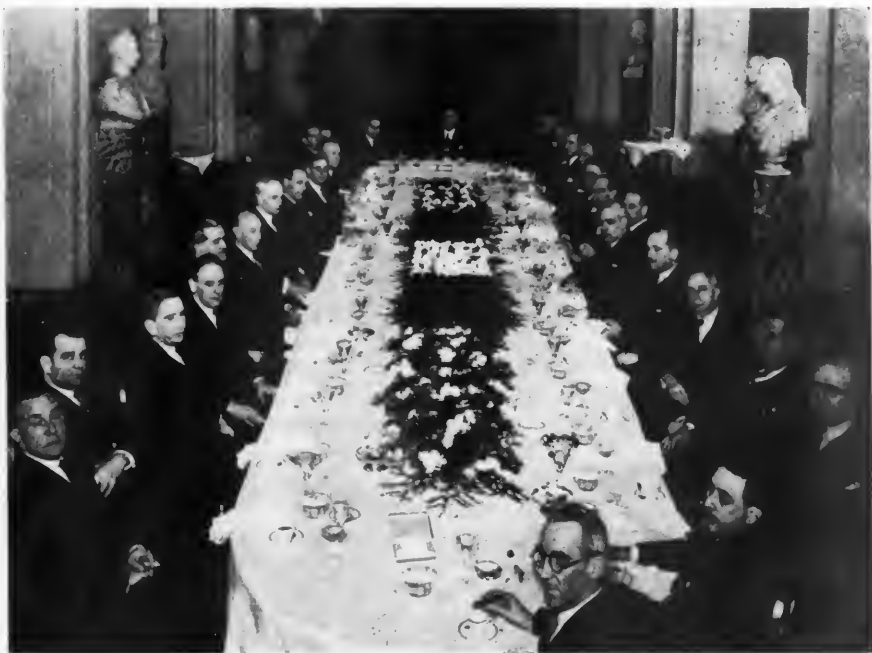
In all circumstances my country and my government have made efforts to cooperate in arrangements to foster peace and understanding among the American nations, and our people have rejoiced whenever, as a result of the efforts and good will of the peoples and their governments, the barriers hindering continental solidarity and harmony have been overcome.

In the present struggle against the forces of aggression, Guatemala unhesitatingly took its stand, from the very moment when a foreign power treacherously attacked an American nation, and our people and its government are resolved to cooperate until peace and the security and independence of all the nations in our Hemisphere are achieved.

I beg you and the other members of the Governing Board to accept my best wishes for the prosperity of the countries you so ably represent, and may the sacrifices the peoples of the New World are making for the reestablishment of peace and liberty ultimately result in complete success.

The meeting was followed by a luncheon, tendered Dr. Salazar by the Board, in the

Hall of Heroes of the Pan American Union. The next afternoon the Guatemalan visitor was entertained at a delightful reception given for him at the Pan American Union by the Minister of Guatemala to the United States, Dr. Adrián Recinos, and attended by prominent Washingtonians. The Secretary of State, the Honorable Cordell Hull, and the Under Secretary, the Honorable Sumner Welles, were also his hosts at luncheon and dinner, when important figures in the capital were invited to meet their distinguished and esteemed guest.



THE MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS OF GUATEMALA AT THE LUNCHEON OFFERED IN HIS HONOR BY THE GOVERNING BOARD

Dr. Salazar is seated next to Secretary of State Hull, Chairman of the Board, in the center of the left-hand side.

Centenario del Nacimiento del Dr. José C. Paz

PASADO mañana, dos de octubre de 1942, se cumple el centenario del nacimiento del Dr. José C. Paz, figura señera del civismo argentino, por el que batalló sin descanso como soldado, legislador, diplomático y periodista, sacrificando no pocas veces sus simpatías e intereses personales. Por eso se destaca, con caracteres singulares, entre las grandes figuras de nuestro pasado, y perdura y perdurará eternamente en el corazón de todos los argentinos amantes del país y de su tradición liberal y democrática.

Porque fué la suya una vida consagrada enteramente al servicio del país y de los ideales democráticos que inspiraron a los próceres de la independencia, presidieron los fastos de la Revolución de Mayo y, después del interregno rosista, orientan los actos de los héroes de la reconstrucción nacional y quedan perennemente grabados en la Constitución que rigió nuestros destinos. Había heredado de sus mayores este fervor patriótico y liberal, que le impulsó desde muy joven a intervenir con ardor en las luchas cívicas. Intervino, como soldado, en varias jornadas memorables, entre ellas la de Pavón, en la que vistió el uniforme de oficial y actuó como ayudante del general Mitre.

En 1869 fundó el diario *La Prensa*¹, orgullo hoy del periodismo argentino y que, fiel al pensamiento de su fundador,

De "La Reforma Comercial," Buenos Aires, septiembre de 1942.

¹"The writer of these lines once had the privilege of introducing an executive of *The Times* of London to the editorial chiefs and technicians of *La Prensa*. After seeing its top-rank mechanical methods, its library, lecture hall, research laboratory, dental parlor and medi-

es alta tribuna de civismo y argentinidad.

Como periodista honrado que antepone los ideales a las conveniencias personales, sacrifica en el 74 sus simpatías e intereses personales, para oponerse a la candidatura presidencial del Partido Autonomista, del cual era miembro, indignado por la preparación y comisión del fraude electoral. Deja entonces la pluma para empuñar la espada, y el general Mitre nombra a su antiguo ayudante en Pavón auditor general del ejército revolucionario.

Tal era el patriota austero y el periodista probo cuyo nacimiento se presta a conmemorar todo el país, en su centenario. Como diplomático sirvió también a la República en las capitales de España y Francia, y como legislador desarrolló labor con eficiente y acendrado liberalismo, en aquel período fecundo de la organización constitucional de la Nación. Pero el mayor título de su gloria, no obstante tener tantos y tan valiosos, es el de fundador del gran diario cuyo prestigio hace tiempo que ultrapasó las patrias fronteras y, manteniendo celosamente vivo el fuego sagrado de su alto ideal, sigue batallando por la democracia y la argentinidad. Y es así que, a través de *La Prensa*, su espíritu sigue irradiándose a todos los ámbitos del país, diariamente, perennemente, como llama inextinguible, para bien de la República y ejemplo de las generaciones presentes y futuras. . . .

cal consulting rooms, our friend of *The Times* emerged into Calle Rivadavia with many new ideas and one unflinching conviction. "This," he said "is not just a newspaper, it is Argentina's greatest institution." From "The Review of the River Plate," Buenos Aires, October 9, 1942.

Reflections on Rationing in Guatemala

C. ALVARADO FAJARDO

OUR belligerent status in the present conflict between democracy and totalitarianism will, in the end, be very beneficial because it is subjecting us to gradual trials, without brusque changes, haste, or violence. Little by little we have been accustoming ourselves to certain ways of living which previously could not possibly have been imposed on us either by persuasion or by more rigorous methods. We are journeying towards economy and saving by easy stages. It is like learning to ride a bicycle or taking the first steps after spraining an ankle. Certain inveterate habits and customs will finally disappear, and in time we shall come to feel the joy of the spirit of sacrifice because we shall already be capable of giving up many comforts and denying all our whims.

Moreover, in these renunciations, forced upon us by the world crisis, there is nothing that injures our sensitiveness or makes us blush. If you, for example, have never been seen traveling along a street under your own power because you always rode in state in a luxurious Packard and then one of these days you are observed walking along the sidewalk or in the park, swaying a little, like a sailor who has just landed, you can say you are not using your car because of gasoline rationing or because you can't get new parts or haven't any tires. If, in other days, when those things were plentiful, you were observed unexpectedly walking, you would have felt depressed, humiliated, crushed, ashamed—as though you were wearing an ill-fitting suit—because undoubtedly your appearance would have been such that the

Translated from "El Liberal Progresista," Guatemala, November 6, 1942.

people who watched you with surprise would necessarily have thought you were ruined, your car had been attached, and goodness knows what else.

Now nothing like that happens to anybody, not even to those whose creditors have descended upon them, because rationing can be used as an excuse for anything. From this still another benefit is derived: the satisfaction the individual feels upon accustoming himself to another way of life which proves just as pleasant and perhaps more healthy than the old one. He will not fail to be surprised to discover that he is still capable of walking perpendicularly, without support or crutches.

On the other hand, when special circumstances compel the eternal occupant of a private vehicle to patronize a bus he comes into contact with the life of the city, exchanges words with his fellow passengers, and makes new acquaintances with people he previously knew only from a bird's-eye view, when he was passing like lightning in his 8-cylinder car. He will hear things he has never heard before: there will be those who prescribe remedies for his attacks, those who give him good advice, those who propose business deals, even those who frighten him; but there will also be those who enlighten him with their inexhaustible and erudite loquacity. He can furthermore be amused by listening to cruel commentaries on his own profession—naturally without the wiseacre's knowing the listener is of that clan of which ill is being spoken. Just that happened to me a few days ago.

There were two gentlemen who looked

like university professors and who in a pleasant and skillful manner dealt first with the war, next with the depression, and then with our state of civilization, saying that the Indians retard national progress in Guatemala. After a time they spoke of newspapermen, placing them on the level with quacks.

"See," said the one who appeared the more lively, in a carrying voice, "journalists offer nothing but gibberish. You can't tell me they contribute to culture since nobody pays any attention to them and that is because they don't deal with the basic problems; they don't throw themselves wholeheartedly against pas-

sion and vice, they do not speak of the evils of swimming or of the other sports tending towards nudism; but on the other hand they seem to support all that. . . ."

"You are right," cut in the other one timidly, turning his head to see if there were any passengers listening to them who looked like journalists. As he saw in me only the simple physiognomy of a ticket seller, he raised his voice a little to add: "But getting back to the problem of the Indians. . . ."

The reader will never hear such strange, picturesque, and pleasant things if rationing does not pull him out of his rolling box.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list will be compiled of the laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions dealing with the war and its effects and published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, the delay in receiving recent issues of official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parenthesis, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of

measures already published are inserted with letters following the number (*e. g.*, 2a).

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. Cooperation to this end will be appreciated. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART XI

ARGENTINA

40. February 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 112,895, placing wire under the control of the Ministry of Agriculture and requiring importers, manufacturers, and dealers to register their stocks. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 21, 1942.)
- 12c. April 1, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 117,147, issued in accordance with Decree No. 112,895 (see 40 above), fixing maximum prices for black wire. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 21, 1942.)
- 12d. April 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 117,557, fixing maximum sales prices for flour. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 28, 1942.)
- 13b. April 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 117,805, fixing maximum sales prices for automobile tires and inner tubes. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 28, 1942.)
- 13c. April 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 117,806, fixing maximum sales prices for rice. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 28, 1942.)
- 13d. April 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 117,859, placing the used bag trade under the control of the Textile Container Division of the Department of Agriculture. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 28, 1942.)
- 13e. April 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 117,860, placing the sale of drugs and pharmaceutical products under the control of the Ministry of Agriculture and requiring dealers to register their stocks within 30 days. (*Boletín Oficial* April 28, 1942.)
- 17e. May 8, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 119,287, approving certain maximum prices for the province of Córdoba. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 12, 1942.)
- 18b. May 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 119,974.—859.—411, authorizing the Central Bank of Argentina to issue 50 centavo notes, since present circumstances make it difficult to secure the metal for coins. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 12, 1942.)
23. August 29, 1942. Order, Ministry of Agriculture, prohibiting the sale of gasoline on Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays except as authorized by the Fuel Distribution Office. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, August 30, 1942.)

BRAZIL

- 2a. December 12, 1941. Resolution No. 19, National Economic Defense Commission, requiring the use of wood, paper, pottery, or plastic substitutes for tin plate for packing specified per-

centages of listed animal, vegetable, and mineral products for domestic consumption; not applicable to products packed for export markets. (*Diário Oficial*, January 6, 1942.)

- 32c. June 30, 1942. Resolution No. 287, National Economic Defense Commission, establishing the percentage of edible oils, and of biscuits and similar products that must be packed in substitutes for tin plate. (See 2a above.) (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 7, 1942.)
- 32k. July 11, 1942. Resolution No. 288, National Economic Defense Commission, establishing the percentage of potash, caustic soda, various fertilizers, and calcium carbide for packing which substitutes for tin plate must be used. (See 2a and 32c above.) (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 7, 1942.)
- 35d. August 20, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4598, prohibiting increases in rents. (Mentioned in *Boletim No. 45*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda do Brasil, November 14, 1942.)
- 41d. (Correction) September 10, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4675. (*Diário Oficial*, September 11, 1942.)
- 41e. (Correction) September 15, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4690. (*Diário Oficial*, September 17, 1942.)
- 41k. September 12, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4684, regulating the establishment and functioning of associations the object of which is any matter pertaining to national defense. (*Diário Oficial*, September 15, 1942.)
- 41l. September 15, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4689, prescribing measures in regard to civil associations of employers for the purpose of coordinating economic activities, and prohibiting the organization during the war of such associations without previous authorization of the Minister of Labor, Industry, and Commerce. (*Diário Oficial*, September 17, 1942.)
42. Decree-Law No. 10451. (*Diário Oficial*, September 18, 1942.)
- 42a. September 17, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4701, prescribing measures regulating commerce in radio sending and receiving sets, parts, and equipment; prohibiting any transactions in such merchandise with German, Italian, and Japanese nationals; and placing any radio equipment now in possession of such nationals under supervision of the competent authorities and declaring it subject

to confiscation. (*Diário Oficial*, September 19, 1942.)

42b. September 17, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4706, creating the Tenth Military Zone with headquarters at Fortaleza. (*Diário Oficial*, September 19, 1942.)

42c. September 26, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4750, providing for national economic mobilization; placing all resources of the country, including manpower, at the service of the nation; providing for the appointment of a Coordinator of Economic Mobilization; and defining his duties and functions. (*Brazil Today*, New York, November 1942; mentioned also in *Boletim No. 43*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda do Brasil, October 24, 1942.)

50. (Correction) October 1, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4766. (Mentioned in *Boletim No. 43*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda do Brasil, October 24, 1942.)

52a. October 13, 1942. Decree providing for the coordination of means and organs of information and publicity, and placing such matters under the control of the Minister of Justice. (*Boletim No. 43*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda do Brasil, October 24, 1942, and *New York Herald Tribune*, October 14, 1942.)

52b. October 17, 1942. Decree providing for the financing and development of rubber production, placing all rubber production operations in the country under control of the Rubber Credit Bank (see Brazil 32g, BULLETIN, January 1943), and prescribing other measures pertaining thereto. (*Boletim No. 43*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda do Brasil, October 24, 1942, and *New York Times*, October 18, 1942.)

52c. October 1942. Order, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, creating the National Technical Food Service, for the purpose of adopting the necessary technical measures for mobilizing national food resources, as provided for in Decree-Law No. 4750 of September 26, 1942 (see 42c above). (*Boletim No. 43*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda do Brasil, October 24, 1942.)

52d. October 1942. Resolution, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, providing for the coordination, direction, and supervision of the importation, transportation, storage, industrialization, supply, distribution, and prices of liquid fuel. (*Boletim No. 43*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda do Brasil, October 24, 1942.)

52e. October 1942. Decree-Law authorizing the Ministers of Agriculture and the Treasury to enter into a contract with the Bank of Brazil for

the financing and protection of the sugar and alcohol industry in accordance with existing provisions. (*Boletim No. 43*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda do Brasil, October 24, 1942.)

55. November 1942. Order, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, requiring that prices of pharmaceutical products be printed on the packages in order to prevent abuses in their sale by producers and merchants. (*Boletim No. 45*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda do Brasil, November 14, 1942.)

56. November 1942. Order, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, extending to offices, shops, warehouses, and other places dedicated to commercial, industrial, or professional uses the provisions of Decree-Law No. 4598 of August 20, 1942 (see 35d' above), which prohibits increases in rents. (*Boletim No. 45*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda do Brasil, November 14, 1942.)

57. November 1942. Order, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, increasing the daily quota of alcohol motor fuel in the States of Espírito Santo, Minas Gerais, Rio de Janeiro, and the Federal District. (*Boletim No. 45*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda do Brasil, November 14, 1942.)

58. November 21, 1942. Resolution, Brazilian Reinsurance Department, reducing to 3 percent the war risk insurance rate for shipping in Brazilian waters, in view of the improved conditions resulting from the occupation of North Africa by United Nations forces. (*New York Times*, November 22, 1942.)

CHILE

1b. December 31, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2450, extending to the existing state of war between Japan and Great Britain, Northern Ireland, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Union of South Africa, China, and Poland and between China and Germany and Italy the declaration of neutrality set forth in Decree No. 1547, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Commerce of September 8, 1939, the principles of International Law referred to in Decree No. 1548 of the same Ministry and date, the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 1587 of September 21, 1939, and all other government dispositions relative to Chilean neutrality. (*Diario Oficial*, January 13, 1942.)

1c. January 12, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 118, extending to the state of war existing between Japan and Greece and between Holland and

Germany, Italy, and Japan the declaration of neutrality and other measures referred to in Decree No. 2450 of December 31, 1941 (see 1b above). (*Diario Oficial*, January 24, 1942.)

1d. January 20, 1942. Law No. 7161, Military Service Law, setting forth recruiting, appointment, and promotion procedure for the armed forces. (*Diario Oficial*, January 31, 1942.)

1e. January 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 72, prohibiting the publication of any news relative to the arrival, stay, or sailing of foreign merchant vessels in and from Chilean ports. (*Diario Oficial*, January 28, 1942.)

1f. January 21, 1942. Resolution No. 194, Department of Mines and Petroleum, fixing procedure for supplying war vessels with petroleum. (*Diario Oficial*, January 23, 1942.)

3a. January 29, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 574, providing that motor vehicles shall carry only one license plate in view of the difficulty of importing steel for the manufacture of plates. (*Diario Oficial*, February 2, 1942.)

3b. January 30, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 228, requiring the granting of previous permits for the exportation of certain specified products (various minerals and ores). (*Diario Oficial*, February 17, 1942.)

4a. February 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 187, declaring automobile tires and inner tubes and rubber and other raw materials used in their manufacture to be articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, February 25, 1942.)

34. September 17, 1942. Government order, effective October 1, 1942, prohibiting the circulation of private automobiles and reducing the number of taxis. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, September 18, 1942.)

35. September 17, 1942. Resolution, Petroleum Supply Committee, prohibiting the sale of paraffin except to supply farm tractors. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, September 18, 1942.)

COLOMBIA

28a. April 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 976, reorganizing the National Department of Supplies in order to facilitate the acquisition of materials needed for the normal functioning of public services during the present emergency. (*Revista de Provisiones Nacionales*, April 1942.)

43a. July 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1756, supplementing Decrees Nos. 1500 and 1552 of June 25 and 30, 1942 (see Colombia 35 and 38, BULLETIN, December 1942 and January 1943, respectively) regarding properties belonging to

German, Italian, and Japanese nationals. (*Revista del Banco de la República*, Bogotá, July 1942.)

46. September 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2126, forbidding radio stations to broadcast foreign news that does not originate in agencies or information services registered with the Postal and Telegraph Department. (*Diario Oficial*, September 9, 1942.)

47. September 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2174, turning an airport over to the General Command of the Air Force. (*Diario Oficial*, September 24, 1942.)

COSTA RICA

47. September 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 29, prohibiting the circulation of United States currency and providing that travelers entering the country may bring in up to \$250 which must be exchanged at the National Bank for *colones*, and providing that hotels, boarding houses, steamship and airline agencies may receive from each traveler up to \$50 daily, which must also be delivered to the National Bank. (*La Gaceta*, September 17, 1942.)

48. September 21, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 30, prohibiting the exportation of nickel and copper coins. (*La Gaceta*, September 22, 1942.)

49. September 26, 1942. Order, Director General of Supplies, fixing flour and bread prices and rationing flour. (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, September 26, 1942.)

50. September 28, 1942. Communiqué Secretary of Public Safety, requesting the Secretaries of all government departments to pay special attention to fulfillment of the provisions of the law requiring foreigners to have a certificate of residence. (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, September 28, 1942.)

51. September 29, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 32, issued in virtue of Law No. 34 of December 24, 1941 (see Costa Rica 13, BULLETIN, April 1942) regulating Decree No. 26 of August 14, 1942 (see Costa Rica 41, BULLETIN, January 1943), which places all stocks of gasoline and other petroleum products under the control of the Gasoline Rationing Board, and setting forth the powers and duties of that board. (*La Gaceta*, September 30, 1942.)

52. September 29, 1942. Announcement by the Office of Economic Defense that starting October 1, 1942, it will be necessary for all importers from the United States to secure a certificate of necessity from the Office of Economic

Defense to cover the product to be imported. (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, September 29, 1942.)

53. September 30, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 33, amending Decree No. 27 of August 31, 1942 (see Costa Rica 44, BULLETIN, January 1943), levying a new consumption tax on wooden and wax matches. (*La Gaceta*, October 1, 1942.)

CUBA

173a. June 6, 1942. Resolution No. 6, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, curtailing gasoline deliveries after June 16, 1942, by providing that garages in Habana, Marianao, Guanabacoa, and Regla are not to receive more than 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ percent of the quantity received in the corresponding month in 1941. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 16, 1942, p. 10,679.)

190d. July 18, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, issued under the authority granted by Decree No. 894 (see Cuba 80c, BULLETIN, July 1942), declaring useless radiators and copper waste to be within the regime of quotas, provided they do not contain tin, bronze, yellow metal, nickel, zinc, lead, or other metals needed for national industry and limiting the quotas to 100 tons of radiators and 250 tons of copper waste. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 27, 1942, p. 15,518.)

216a. August 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2492, creating, for the duration of the war, a Propaganda Bureau in the Cuban Maritime Commission. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 8, 1942, p. 16,189.)

243a. September 30, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2737, providing that during October all foreign service officials who are in Cuba and away from their posts for various reasons must return. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 3, 1942, p. 17,851.)

244a. October 3, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2762, authorizing the Ministry of State to use certain funds collected by the Foreign Service in Spain to defray the repatriation expenses of Cubans who are still in Europe. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 6, 1942, p. 18,043.)

245a. October 5, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2808, appointing eight officers and eight enlisted men from the Cuban army to take a six months' course at the United States Naval Operations Base at Guantánamo. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 8, 1942, p. 18,221.)

247. October 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2951, revoking Decree No. 87 of January 13, 1942 (see Cuba 40, BULLETIN, April 1942) and placing the Alien Registration Office under the

jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Interior. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 17, 1942, p. 18,655.)

248. October 13, 1942. Resolution No. 53, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing the price and formula for fuel which is being manufactured in Cuba with an alcohol base in an effort to remedy the gasoline shortage. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 15, 1942, p. 18,629.)

249. October 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2947, extending for an additional 30 days the time period for the registration of Cubans between the ages of 18 and 25 years, as required by the Emergency Military Service Law (see Cuba 37 and 208, BULLETIN, April and December 1942, respectively, and 228 and 243, BULLETIN, January 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 15, 1942, p. 18,595.)

250. October 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2946, exempting from import and export duties all food products originating in the United States consigned to a representative of the United States Department of Agriculture and intended to be stored in Santiago de Cuba for distribution among the countries of the Caribbean area. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 15, 1942, p. 18,623.)

251. October 15, 1942. Resolution No. 9, Ministry of Communications, amending the Electricity Rationing Plan established July 6, 1942 (see Cuba 184, BULLETIN, October 1942) by allowing firms using electrical signs 50 percent of the current consumed prior to the rationing. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 15, 1942, p. 18,635.)

252. October 15, 1942. Resolution No. 54, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing new prices for lard and soy bean oil for Habana, Regla, Marianao, and Guanabacoa; the prices for other localities are to remain the same as established by Resolution No. 8 of June 22, 1942 (see Cuba 179a, BULLETIN, January 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 17, 1942, p. 18,659.)

253. October 19, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2994, setting forth rules and regulations relative to the collection of the taxes levied by Resolution-Law No. 1 of December 31, 1941 (see Cuba 33, BULLETIN, April 1942) as amended by Resolution-Law No. 15 of February 6, 1942 (see Cuba 63, BULLETIN, May 1942) and replacing the temporary provisions of Decree No. 759 of March 17, 1942 (see Cuba 95, BULLETIN, June 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 20, 1942, p. 18,843.)

254. October 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3018, creating the Technical Fuel Commission (*Comisión Técnica de Combustible*) to study means of producing fuel (with the exception of the "national

motor fuel"). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 22, 1942, p. 19,010.)

255. October 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3019, creating the National Technical Commission on National Motor Fuel (*Comisión Técnica del Carburante Nacional*) to investigate and report upon matters relating to the production of a national motor fuel. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 22, 1942, p. 19,011.)

256. October 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3029, appointing 10 Army aviators to study at various aviation schools in the United States. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 22, 1942, p. 19,039.)

257. October 20, 1942. Resolution No. 55, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, creating an Advisory Commission on Prices (*Comisión Consultiva de Precios*). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 23, 1942, p. 19,132.)

258. October 22, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3040, amending a portion of Decree No. 1359 of May 13, 1942 (see Cuba 160, BULLETIN, August 1942) referring to payments for service. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 23, 1942, p. 19,131.)

259. October 22, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3055, amplifying the duties of the Commission of Indemnification for the Suspension of Port Activities (see Cuba 187, BULLETIN, October 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 24, 1942, p. 19,195.)

260. October 22, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3045, forbidding private airplanes to fly over any area within 5 miles of airports with the exception of those fields which they may be authorized to use by the Army General Staff. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 24, 1942, p. 19,197.)

261. October 23, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3057, intended to remedy the congested situation on the docks and in the warehouses of the Port of Habana by reducing from 6 to 3 months the time period at the end of which merchandise that has not been properly declared may be sold at public auction. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 26, 1942, p. 19,227.)

262. October 23, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3116, authorizing the use of code in cable messages exchanged between the National French Committee in London and its representatives in Cuba. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 30, 1942, p. 19,554.)

263. October 24, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3113, appointing a commission to go to El Salvador and study the cultivation of roselle since its production might fill some of the needs for

fibers in war production. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 29, 1942, p. 19,490.)

264. October 24, 1942. Resolution No. 56, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, assigning a special quota for recently imported tires and inner tubes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 28, 1942, p. 19,390.)

265. October 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3039, creating the Office of Assistant Director of Child Protection and Defense (*Subdirección de Protección y Defensa del Niño*) and appropriating funds for that office. (See Cuba 197c, BULLETIN, November 1942.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 29, 1942, p. 19,488.)

266. October 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3151, providing that certain specified foreign service officials be allowed to remain in Cuba after the end of October (see 243a above) until they be able to secure priorities for passages to their posts. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 4, 1942, p. 19,869.)

267. October 27, 1942. Resolution, Ministry of Commerce, declaring the exportation of alcohol, cement, and hides to be included under the control established by Decree No. 3485 of December 27, 1941 (see Cuba 26, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 29, 1942, p. 19,491.)

268. October 28, 1942. Resolution No. 58, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, extending until November 12, 1942, the period of time allowed for the presentation of the declaration required by Resolution No. 26 of July 27, 1942 (see Cuba 195b and 222, BULLETIN, January 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 10, 1942, p. 20,255.)

269. October 30, 1942. Resolution No. 59, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, freezing rents at the March 1942 level. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 2, 1942, p. 19,713.)

270. October 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3135, authorizing the Metals Reserve Company of the United States to use a specified zone to store ores extracted in the Province of Santiago de Cuba and intended for export to the United States where they will be used in the manufacture of war materials. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 2, 1942, p. 19,739.)

271. October 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3163, creating the Indemnity Fund for War Maritime Accidents (*Caja de Indemnizaciones por Accidentes de Guerra Marítima*). (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 4, 1942, p. 19,900.)

272. October 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3201, granting 2 years' exemption from customs tariffs to the *Compañía de Combustibles y Carburantes*

Gubanos, S. A., engaged in the conversion of mineral asphalt into motor fuel. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 6, 1942, p. 20,061.)

273. October 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3241, appropriating funds necessary to increase the efficiency of the Office of the Alien Property Custodian (see Cuba 11, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 10, 1942, p. 20,252.)

274. November 3, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3165, amending the regulations of the Emergency Military Service Law (see Cuba 37, BULLETIN, April 1942) by providing that the registration of Cubans between the ages of 25 and 35 start February 1, 1943, and of those between the ages of 35 and 50 May 1, 1943. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 5, 1942, p. 19,970.)

275. November 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3205, increasing the budget for the Army in compliance with Decree-Law No. 7 of January 27, 1942 (see Cuba 49, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 6, 1942, p. 20,062.)

276. November 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3268, exempting fishermen from the payment of certain fees for a period of 6 months in an effort to facilitate the fishing industry. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 11, 1942, p. 20,379.)

277. November 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3331, confirming the authorization granted by the Ministry of Public Works whereby the Havana Coal Company can use the docks, warehouses, machinery, and other facilities on the Casa Blanca coast of the Port of Habana for the exportation of chrome ore to the United States by the Metals Reserve Company. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 17, 1942, p. 20,732.)

278. November 12, 1942. General Order No. 3, Cuban Maritime Commission, regulating the compilation of statistics relative to maritime traffic and imports and exports. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 18, 1942, p. 20,870.)

279. November 12, 1942. General Order No. 4, Cuban Maritime Commission, ordering the registration of Cuban merchant vessels exceeding 59 tons deadweight and providing for reports on the movements of merchant vessels of any nationality. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 18, 1942, p. 20,870.)

280. November 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3328, applying the provisions of Decree No. 3365 of December 12, 1941 (see Cuba 7, BULLETIN, April 1942) to all territory controlled by the Vichy government. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 17, 1942, p. 20,735.)

281. November 13, 1942. Resolution No. 11, Ministry of Communications, revoking Resolution No. 9 of October 15, 1942 (see 251 above) which granted electric current to firms using electrical signs. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 14, 1942, p. 20,609.)

282. November 16, 1942. Resolution No. 60, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, excluding certain products (fresh fruit and vegetables, tea, cocoa, candy, alcoholic beverages, etc.) from price regulation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 18, 1942, p. 20,869.)

283. November 17, 1942. Law No. 9, amending certain articles of Resolution-Law No. 4, the Emergency Military Service Law (see Cuba 37, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 18, 1942, p. 20,859.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

41a. June 23, 1942. Law No. 16, declaring a state of national emergency and empowering the President to take any steps considered necessary to protect the national economy. (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 28, 1942.)

47. September 15, 1942. Decree No. 244, prohibiting the exportation of radio-telegraph equipment and parts and the sale or transfer of such materials within the country, except under license issued by the Director General of Communications. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 16, 1942, quoted in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 28, 1942.)

48. September 15, 1942. Decree No. 246, prohibiting the exportation and reexportation of medicines and pharmaceutical products of all kinds except under license from the Secretary of State for Health and Sanitation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 16, 1942, quoted in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 28, 1942.)

ECUADOR

19a. June 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 924, creating the Ecuadorean Development Corporation (*Corporación Ecuatoriana de Fomento*) for the purpose of developing and placing under production the natural resources of the Republic, developing and improving agriculture, mining, industry, and transportation, and constructing public works or any other class of works that would be useful or advantageous within the Republic. (*Registro Oficial*, June 6, 1942.)

19a. (Correction) July 7, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1105. (*Registro Oficial*, July 13, 1942.)

23a. August 7, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1325-bis, authorizing the Minister of the Treasury and Public Credit, in union with the Ecuadorean Development Corporation (see 19, above), to sign a contract with the Export-Import Bank of Washington for a \$5,000,000 loan for the purpose of improving the national economy. (*Registro Oficial*, September 5, 1942.)

30. August 19, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1381, amending Presidential Decree No. 816 of May 18, 1942 (see Ecuador 19, BULLETIN, November 1942), in regard to limitations on the exportation of palm nuts (*coquitos de palma real*), and prohibiting the exportation of copra. (*Registro Oficial*, August 22, 1942.)

31. September 2, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1449, prescribing measures, necessary for the defense and safety of ships of the National Merchant Marine, to facilitate identification of such ships from the sea and by air. (*Registro Oficial*, September 14, 1942.)

32. September 2, 1942. Decree, General Office of Priorities and Distribution of Imports, which, in view of shortage and high prices, authorizes the Mortgage Bank of Ecuador (*Banco Hipotecario*) to acquire all stocks of agricultural hand tools (machetes, shovels, hoes, mattocks, etc.) now on hand in customs warehouses, all shipments that are yet to arrive in the country, and all importers' stocks on hand, and to sell such tools at cost plus 5 percent, making the distribution as follows: 50 percent to farm owners; 25 percent to agricultural cooperatives; and 25 percent to farm laborers in general. (*El Comercio*, Quito, September 11, 1942.)

33. September 4, 1942. Resolution, General Office of Priorities and Distribution of Imports, fixing 40 percent as the maximum gross profit that may be obtained from commerce in rubber tires and tubes for motor vehicles, prescribing regulations for the calculation of such percentage of profit, and announcing that retail prices on imported tires and tubes will be fixed by the General Office of Priorities and Distribution of Imports. (*El Comercio*, Quito, September 11, 1942.)

34. September 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1497, prescribing, as long as the difficulties of importing certain types of merchandise from the United States exist because of export restrictions of that country, suspension of the 50 percent surcharge on imports from Switzerland; effective September 15, 1942. (*Registro Oficial*, September 12, 1942.)

35. September 18, 1942. Resolution, General Office of Priorities and Distribution of Imports, providing for the rationing of newsprint, due to the reduction in stocks caused by the shortage of shipping space and the curtailment of United States exports of that product. (*El Comercio*, Quito, September 19, 1942.)

36. September 22, 1942. Presidential decree prohibiting the exportation of wheat and wheat flour. (*El Comercio*, Quito, September 23, 1942.)

37. September 25, 1942. Presidential decree authorizing the exportation of surpluses of specified kinds of rice. (*El Comercio*, Quito, September 26, 1942.)

EL SALVADOR

13a. March 6, 1942. Bulletin No. 1, Treasury Department, fixing the price of gasoline and providing for its control by the Committee on Economic Coordination. (*Diario Oficial*, March 27, 1942.)

26₁. June 2, 1942. Bulletin No. 2, Treasury Department, amending Bulletin No. 1 (see 13a above) and refixing gasoline prices. (*Diario Oficial*, June 11, 1942.)

26_d. June 12, 1942. Bulletin No. 2, Treasury Department, replacing the Bulletin of June 2, 1942 (see 26₁ above) relative to gasoline prices. (*Diario Oficial*, June 15, 1942.)

32_f. August 17, 1942. Executive Decree regulating Legislative Decree No. 56 relative to the purchase and sale of United States currency (see El Salvador 31, BULLETIN, November 1942). (*Diario Oficial*, August 22, 1942.)

38. (*Diario Oficial*, October 20, 1942.)

39. October 17, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 53, authorizing the Executive Power to provide for the minting of 25- and 1-centavo pieces. In view of the nickel shortage brought about by the war the 25-centavo pieces will be silver (instead of nickel) and the 1-centavo pieces 95% copper and 5% zinc (instead of 25% nickel and 75% copper). (*Diario Oficial*, October 22, 1942.)

40. October 19, 1942. Executive Order No. 495, creating a Sub-Committee on Fuels to study and handle problems relative to petroleum supply. (*Diario Oficial*, October 23, 1942.)

41. October 21, 1942. Bulletin, Committee on Economic Coordination, confirming Bulletin No. 2 of the Treasury Department fixing gasoline prices (see 26_d above) and requesting that violations of that Bulletin be reported. (*Diario Nuevo*, San Salvador, October 22, 1942.)

42. October 22, 1942. Bulletin, Treasury Department, revoking the provisions of the Bulletin of October 17, 1942 (see El Salvador 38, BULLETIN, January 1943) and fixing \$50 as the maximum amount of United States currency travelers may carry into or out of El Salvador. (*Diario Oficial*, October 27, 1942.)

GUATEMALA

42. (Correction) October 13, 1942. (*Diario de Centro América*, October 14, 1942.)

42a. October 13, 1942. Notice issued by the Army Commandant extending until October 20, 1942, registration for the Civic Guard (see Guatemala 22, BULLETIN, August 1942) and advising that after that date there will be compulsory registration if necessary. (*Diario de Centro América, Sección Informativa*, October 13, 1942.)

43. (Correction) October 15, 1942. Presidential Order. (*Diario de Centro América*, October 20, 1942.)

44. October 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2981 imposing a new tax on matches of domestic manufacture. (*Diario de Centro América*, October 20, 1942.)

45. October 27, 1942. Presidential Order regulating the accounting system set up for the agreement signed October 14, 1942, between Guatemala and the United States relative to the construction of the Pioneer Road (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 35 and 55a, BULLETIN, November 1942 and February 1943, respectively). (*Diario de Centro América*, October 31, 1942.)

46. October 30, 1942. Issuance by the Secretary of Foreign Affairs of details relative to the procedure for making requests for airplane passage priorities. (*Diario de Centro América, Sección Informativa*, October 31, 1942.)

47. November 4, 1942. Presidential Order approving the contract signed between the United States and Guatemala relative to the construction of the Pioneer Road (see 45 above and Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 35 and 55a, BULLETIN, November 1942 and February 1943, respectively). (*El Liberal Progresista*, Guatemala, November 5, 1942.)

48. November 6, 1942. Presidential Order providing that so long as the state of war exists only the National Mortgage Credit Association may insure the property of blocked nationals or persons on the blacklist. (*Diario de Centro América, Sección Informativa*, November 6, 1942.)

HAITI

54. October 2, 1942. Announcement by the Department of National Economy that effective October 5, 1942, and extending to March 30, 1943, the country will revert from war time to standard time. (*Haiti-Journal*, October 3, 1942.)

55. October 7, 1942. Order revising the rationing of electric current in Port-au-Prince, Pétionville, and Cap-Haitien to conform to the change from war to standard time (see 54 above). (*Haiti-Journal*, October 8, 1942.)

56. October 20, 1942. Communiqué, Department of National Economy, placing the sale of kerosene in Port-au-Prince under control of the Department of Commerce and National Economy beginning November 1, 1942. (*Haiti-Journal*, October 21, 1942.)

HONDURAS

10a. April 17, 1942. Executive Order No. 1555, authorizing the Tropical Radio Telegraph Company to use the same codes in its Honduran stations which have been approved by the Office of Censorship in Washington for use in the United States. (*La Gaceta*, October 20, 1942.)

19. October 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 55, regulating the handling of ocean freight in Honduran ports and adopting measures intended to facilitate importations and alleviate many of the difficulties and inconveniences brought about by the state of war. (*La Gaceta*, October 10, 1942.)

20. October 15, 1942. Order issued by the Council of the Central District providing that the annual National Exposition held in December in the city of Comayagüela as part of the Concepción Fair will not take place in 1942 in as much as the war has affected freight shipments to such an extent that it would be difficult to ship exhibits to the Exposition from the different parts of the country. (*El Cronista*, Tegucigalpa, October 17, 1942.)

MEXICO

8a₁. December 16, 1941. Regulation on articles of prime necessity, authorizing the Department of National Economy to fix maximum prices and regulate the sale and use of the following articles: Corn, *masa* for tortillas, beans, rice, wheat, flour and bread, potatoes, salt, charcoal, lard and other edible fats, milk, sugar, brown sugars, soap, cacao, meat, casings, and other products of beef, pork, and goat, fish, all kinds of medicines, cotton textiles, petroleum and its derivatives, coffee, corrugated iron for reinforcing concrete, iron and

steel for the manufacture of tools and implements, cement and construction materials, calcium carbide, raw hides, sole leather, and tanned leather. (*Diario Oficial*, December 23, 1941.)

9₁. December 29, 1941. Decree amending the Organic Law of Art. 28 of the Constitution, prescribing penalties for the sale of articles of prime necessity at prices in excess of fixed maximums. (*Diario Oficial*, January 10, 1942.)

9₂. December 29, 1941. Executive Order requiring wholesalers who deal in corn in the Federal District to make declarations to the Department of National Economy of their stocks, including data as to kind, quantity, origin, quantities sold to millers, and names and addresses of the latter. (*Diario Oficial*, January 10, 1942.)

9₃. December 30, 1941. Regulation of Article 15 of the Organic Law of Art. 28 of the Constitution, referring to monopolies, requiring that merchants and industrialists operating with a capital of more than 500 pesos must make monthly declarations to the Department of National Economy of their stocks on hand of articles of prime necessity, and requiring persons or firms engaged in the transportation of merchandise to make declarations of the quantities of such articles that they transport to consumption centers. Effective three days following publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, January 7, 1942.)

10₁. January 12, 1942. Executive Order authorizing the Department of National Economy to take charge of the distribution of shipping space in boats transporting articles of prime necessity from Gulf ports to the southeast part of the Republic. (*Diario Oficial*, February 24, 1942.)

16a. February 7, 1942. Decree adding rayon to the list of articles of prime necessity contained in the Regulation of December 16, 1941 (see 8a₁ above). (*Diario Oficial*, February 9, 1942.)

20b. February 25, 1942. Decree adding tin plate, milk cows, and cattle for breeding purposes to the list of articles of prime necessity (see 8a₁ and 16a above). (*Diario Oficial*, March 2, 1942.)

34b. May 19, 1942. Decree amending the Regulation on articles of prime necessity (see 8a₁ above), prohibiting the allowance of discounts of any kind or by any means to consumers on sales of such articles. (*Diario Oficial*, June 8, 1942.)

82b. September 8, 1942. Regulation of the Military Service Law. Effective three days after publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, November 10, 1942.)

91a. October 6, 1942. Resolution, Department of National Economy, creating the National Rubber Commission (*Comisión Nacional del Hule*) and prescribing its duties and functions. This Commission was established to assist in carrying out the provisions of the rubber agreement signed between Mexico and the United States on September 10, 1942 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 50, BULLETIN, November 1942). (*Excelsior*, Mexico City, October 8, 1942.)

96a. October 14, 1942. Executive Order authorizing the Department of National Defense to use the waters of the Hondo River in Naucalpan, State of Mexico, to provide power needed for national defense uses. (*Diario Oficial*, November 4, 1942.)

98a. October 19, 1942. Decree prohibiting any increase in rents in the Federal Territories as long as the suspension of individual constitutional guarantees is in effect (see Mexico 39 and 56a, BULLETIN, August and November, 1942, respectively). Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, October 27, 1942.)

98b. October 20, 1942. Decree requiring all persons or business firms in the Republic engaged in the transportation of any quantity of corrugated iron to declare to the Department of National Economy within eight days after they contract to effect such transportation the quantities of such materials to be transported. (*Diario Oficial*, November 4, 1942.)

98c. October 20, 1942. Decree restricting the exportation of dyestuffs without authorization of the Department of National Economy and repealing the decree of January 13, 1942, relative to the same matter (see Mexico 12a, BULLETIN, September 1942). Effective day following publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, November 23, 1942.)

99a. October 22, 1942. Decree authorizing Mexican citizens resident in the various American countries which are at war with the Axis Powers to engage in civil or military service with the Governments of such countries for the duration of the war, without losing their Mexican citizenship, provided such services are directed toward the defense of the United Nations against the Axis. (*Diario Oficial*, November 23, 1942.)

99b. October 24, 1942. Regulation of Art. 17 of the law relative to the suspension of individual constitutional guarantees (see Mexico 39, BULLETIN, August 1942), establishing censorship in postal, telegraph, radiotelegraph, telephone, and similar communications. Effective on publica-

tion in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, November 7, 1942.)

99c. October 27, 1942. Decree creating the Committee for the Coordination of Imports, for the purpose of facilitating all regulations and requirements necessary for obtaining and distributing articles subject to global quotas for export from the United States to Mexico or from other countries that have established similar systems of export control. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, November 7, 1942.)

99d. October 27, 1942. Decree establishing a base sales price for rubber. Effective five days after publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, November 7, 1942.)

101. November 3, 1942. Order, Office of Public Health, containing an additional list of medicinal products and fixing their maximum prices. (See Mexico 71 and 77, BULLETIN, November 1942, 81 and 87, BULLETIN, December 1942, and 89 and 90, BULLETIN, January 1943.) (*Diario Oficial*, November 7, 1942.)

102. November 6, 1942. Decree prohibiting in the Federal District the buying or selling of iron or iron products destined or appropriate for use in public utilities, unless the origin of such products is duly proven, in order to prevent speculation and other abuses. (*Diario Oficial*, November 23, 1942.)

103. November 16, 1942. Decree fixing maximum prices in the Federal District for live cattle and beef, beef by-products, and hides. (*Diario Oficial*, November 28, 1942.)

104. November 17, 1942. Decree establishing a system of control for rubber, prescribing priorities for its use in specified manufactured articles, and requiring factories to make a declaration of their present stocks, their average monthly production since January 1, 1937, and their present productive capacity. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, November 28, 1942.)

NICARAGUA

21. (Correction) August 13, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 206. (*La Gaceta*, August 19, 1942.)

23. August 22, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 18, regulating Legislative Decree No. 206 (see Nicaragua 21, BULLETIN, January 1943 as corrected above) relative to the reduction of cotton cultivation. (*La Gaceta*, August 29, 1942.)

24. September 10, 1942. Provisional decree declaring rubber a material of prime necessity and placing rubber exportation under the control of

the National Bank of Nicaragua. As long as the decree remains in force the executive decree of October 15, 1901, regulating the exportation of rubber, and the amendment contained in the decree of July 18, 1909, are suspended. (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 28, 1942.)

25. October 16, 1942. Order, issued by the Traffic Police and the Price and Trade Control Board, instructing 8 autobus lines in Managua to stagger their services in an effort to conserve gasoline. (*La Prensa*, Managua, October 17, 1942.)

26. October 28, 1942. Order of the Managua Police Department prohibiting, because of the state of war and with certain exceptions (cars belonging to government officials, diplomats, or officers of the U. S. Army, fire engines, etc.); all vehicle traffic after 11 P. M. and establishing closing hours for public institutions. (*La Prensa*, Managua, October 29, 1942.)

PANAMA

31a. September 3, 1942. Decree No. 255, prescribing regulations on packages arriving by air express, because of the great quantity of packages now being received in that way. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 25, 1942.)

35. September 16, 1942. Decree-Law No. 39, creating the Gasoline and Tire Rationing Office, ascribing to it the tire inspection duties outlined in Decree-Law 35 (see Panama 16, BULLETIN, September 1942), and prescribing regulations for gasoline rationing. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 25, 1942.)

36. September 16, 1942. Decree No. 126, prescribing further regulations for and duties and functions of the Office of Price Control established by Decree No. 114 (see Panama 22, BULLETIN, November 1942, as corrected in BULLETIN, January 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 26, 1942.)

37. September 16, 1942. Decree No. 7, Office of Price Control, establishing a maximum price for milk in the cities of Panama and Colón. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 26, 1942.)

38. September 21, 1942. Decree No. 8, Office of Price Control, prescribing measures for the regulation of wholesale and retail prices of national products of prime necessity which are delivered in Panama City by sea or land routes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 26, 1942.)

39. September 23, 1942. Decree No. 9, Office of Price Control, fixing maximum prices for specified food products in the cities of Panama and

Colon. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, September 24, 1942.)

40. October 2, 1942. Resolution No. 1, Gasoline and Tire Rationing Office, prohibiting owners or operators of motor vehicles that carry passengers to the interior of the Republic from picking up passengers from house to house. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, October 3, 1942.)

41. October 6, 1942. Order, Bureau of Control of Public Utilities, establishing government control over the trucking of freight to and from the interior; requiring declarations by wholesalers and retailers shipping merchandise of foodstuffs; and establishing an order of preference for the transportation of such freight. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, October 7, 1942.)

42. October 15, 1942. Decree, Office of Price Control, fixing maximum prices for specified medicinal products in the cities of Panama and Colón and the surrounding districts. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, October 16, 1942.)

43. October 15, 1942. Decree, Office of Price Control, fixing maximum prices for beef in Colón and the surrounding districts. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, October 16, 1942.)

44. October 15, 1942. Decree, Office of Price Control, fixing maximum prices for pork in Colón and the surrounding districts. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, October 16, 1942.)

45. October 15, 1942. Decree, Office of Price Control, fixing maximum prices for fish in Colón and the surrounding districts. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, October 16, 1942.)

PARAGUAY

25. October 19, 1942. Presidential Decree no. 15,150, removing restrictions heretofore in effect on the exportation of locally grown rice. (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 28, 1942.)

PERU

19. (Correction) July 10, 1942. (*Revista de Legislación Peruana*, Lima, July 1942.)

19₁. July 11, 1942. Supreme Decree, issued under authority of Law No. 9577 (see Peru 9, BULLETIN, August 1942), providing that native born Peruvians cannot acquire another nationality while residing in Peru and Peruvians who have been naturalized citizens of other countries can regain their Peruvian citizenship by establishing residence in Peru and following the procedure applicable to other foreigners. (*Revista de Legislación, Peruana*, Lima, July 1942.)

19₂. July 11, 1942. Supreme Decree issued under authority of Law No. 9577 (see Peru 9, BULLETIN, August 1942) and amending the Law on Aliens, requiring all foreigners over 10 years of age to register within 30 days of their arrival in Peru. (*Revista de Legislación Peruana*, Lima, July 1942.)

20_a. July 24, 1942. Supreme Decree reducing the country's cotton cultivation 30 percent in accordance with the agreement of April 1942 with the Commodity Credit Corporation (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 14, BULLETIN, July 1942). (*Revista de Legislación Peruana*, Lima, July 1942.)

20_b. July 25, 1942. Supreme Resolution charging the Agriculture and Cattle Board with the control of the reduction of cotton cultivation areas (see 20_a above). (*Revista de Legislación Peruana*, Lima, July 1942.)

21_a. July 27, 1942. Supreme Decree creating a Permanent Quinine Commission to study problems relative to the growth and production of that plant. (*Revista de Legislación Peruana*, Lima, July 1942.)

31. (*El Peruano*, September 30, 1942.)

31_a. September 5, 1942. Supreme Decree No. 21, providing that all reserve officers in the Air Corps shall serve one year as co-pilots with the National Commercial Airlines. (*El Peruano*, September 25, 1942.)

31_b. September 5, 1942. Supreme Decree providing that, in as much as the German Transatlantic Bank (*Banco Alemán Transatlántico*) falls within the scope of Laws Nos. 9586 and 9592 (see Peru 12 and 18, BULLETIN, August and October 1942, respectively), it shall be placed under the control of the Office of Bank Supervision. (*El Peruano*, September 23, 1942.)

32. (*El Peruano*, September 23, 1942.)

33. (*El Peruano*, September 23, 1942.)

34. (*El Peruano*, September 25, 1942.)

35. October 1, 1942. Supreme Resolution intended to improve shipping facilities by providing that no vessels in the coastwise trade be allowed on voyages abroad except by special permit from the Ministry of the Navy and the Nutrition Board. (*El Peruano*, October 8, 1942.)

36. October 2, 1942. Supreme Resolution prohibiting the exportation of empty bottles. (*El Peruano*, October 5, 1942.)

37. October 2, 1942. Supreme Decree clarifying Supreme Decree No. 21 of September 5,

1942, relative to co-pilots (see 31a above). (*El Peruano*, October 8, 1942.)

38. October 6, 1942. Order, National Food Production Promotion Board, creating the Commission for the Regulation of Food Supplies (*Comisión Reguladora de Abastecimiento de Artículos Alimenticios*) to handle matters relative to securing such products for the State. (*El Comercio*, Lima, October 7, 1942.)

39. October 9, 1942. Supreme Decree requiring possessors of rubber or elastic gums to report their stocks to the Peruvian Amazon Corporation and granting that corporation exclusive authority to buy and sell those products. (*El Comercio*, Lima, October 11, 1942.)

UNITED STATES

279. October 31, 1942. General Order ODT 21, Amendment 1, Office of Defense Transportation, prohibiting the operation of any commercial motor vehicle on and after January 15, 1943, without prior inspection of tires and without a certificate that all necessary adjustments, repairs, retreading, recapping, replacements, and realignments of wheels have been made, for the purpose of conserving such tires. (*Federal Register*, November 5, 1942.)

280. November 5, 1942. Executive Order No. 9262, authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to perform and exercise certain additional functions, duties, and powers necessary for expediting the national defense. (*Federal Register*, November 10, 1942.)

281. November 5, 1942. Executive Order No. 9264, extending the provisions of Executive Order No. 9001 of December 27, 1941 (see United States 25, BULLETIN, April 1942) to contracts of the Department of Commerce. (*Federal Register*, November 10, 1942.)

282. November 5, 1942. Order 25, Board of War Communications, prescribing rules and regulations in regard to wire communications, use, and control, and ordering the discontinuance as of December 15, 1942, by all domestic telegraph carriers of all non-telegraphic services (messenger-errand, remittance, etc.) and the transmission of holiday greeting and congratulatory messages. (*Federal Register*, November 11, 1942.)

283. November 6, 1942. Executive Order No. 9265, establishing American, European-African-Middle Eastern, and Asiatic-Pacific Campaign Medals and providing for their award to members of the land and naval forces of the United States, including the Women's Reserve of the

United States Naval Reserve and the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps, who shall have served since December 7, 1941, outside the continental limits of the United States. (*Federal Register*, November 10, 1942.)

284. November 6, 1942. Executive Order No. 9266, establishing Buzzards Bay and Vineyard Sound defensive sea area. (*Federal Register*, November 10, 1942.)

285. November 6, 1942. Ration Order No. 5C, Office of Price Administration, establishing nationwide gasoline rationing, based on a curtailment of the national average automobile mileage to a maximum of 5,000 miles per year, as a means to conserve rubber and to maintain the transportation system of the nation. (*Federal Register*, November 10, 1942.)

286. November 6, 1942. Ration Order 1A, Office of Price Administration, establishing control over the use, care, and acquisition of tires, tubes, and recapping services for all types and classes of rubber borne motor vehicles. (*Federal Register*, November 10, 1942.)

287. November 6, 1942. Directive XIV, War Manpower Commission, providing for employment stabilization on dairy, livestock and poultry farms in order to prevent the serious impairment that would result to essential farm production through a labor shortage. (*Federal Register*, November 10, 1942.)

288. November 9, 1942. Executive Order No. 9268, suspending in part specified provisions of the Naval Aviation Cadet Act of 1942 (see United States 207, BULLETIN, November 1942). (*Federal Register*, November 11, 1942.)

289. November 13, 1942. Public Law 772 (77th Congress), amending the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 by extending the liability of service to all male citizens of the United States and every other male person residing in the United States between the ages of 18 and 45 years. (This means a lowering of the former 20-year age limit to include 18- and 19-year-olds.)

290. November 19, 1942. Executive Order No. 9274, authorizing an increase in the number of units and members of the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps. (*Federal Register*, November 24, 1942.)

291. November 21, 1942. Rationing Order C, Office of the Secretary of Agriculture, prescribing measures, in view of the drastic curtailment in production of new farm machinery and equipment essential to the war effort, for the rationing

of such machinery and equipment, effective as of November 28, 1942. (*Federal Register*, November 24, 1942.)

292. November 21, 1942. Ration Order 5A, Amendment 1 to Supp. 1, Office of Price Administration, reducing, as of November 22, 1942, the unit value of gasoline ration tickets from 4 to 3 gallons in the area of the United States in which such rationing is in effect. (See United States 129, BULLETIN, August 1942.) (*Federal Register*, November 24, 1942.)

293. November 21, 1942. Appointment of a Director of Foreign Relief and Rehabilitation Operations, to undertake the work of organizing United States participation in the activities of the United Nations in furnishing relief and other assistance to victims of war in areas reoccupied by the forces of the United Nations. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, November 21, 1942.)

294. November 21, 1942. Creation by the United States of the post of Counselor of Embassy for Economic Affairs in seven of the American Republics (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Mexico, and Venezuela), for the purpose of coordinating the activities and efforts of the representatives of other agencies of the United States Government who are employed in work of a commercial or economic nature within the particular country. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, November 21, 1942.)

295. November 23, 1942. Public Law 773 (77th Congress), amending the Coast Guard Auxiliary and Reserve Act of 1941, as amended, so as to expedite the war effort by providing for releasing officers and men for duty at sea and their replacement by women in the shore establishment of the Coast Guard (through the creation of the Women's Reserve as a branch of the Coast Guard Reserve), and for other purposes.

296. December 2, 1942. Executive Order No. 9276, establishing the Petroleum Administration for War, providing for the appointment of a Petroleum Administrator, and defining their duties and functions. (*Federal Register*, December 4, 1942.)

297. December 2, 1942. Establishment in the Department of State of the Office of Foreign Territories, to implement the pertinent policies of the United States Government in harmony with the Atlantic Charter and the Declaration of the United Nations in all problems involving nonmilitary matters arising as a result of any military occupation of foreign territories by

American forces. (*Press Release*, United States Department of State, December 2, 1942.)

298. December 5, 1942. Executive Order No. 9279, providing for the most effective mobilization and utilization of the national manpower; transferring the selective service system to the War Manpower Commission; and providing that no male persons shall be inducted into the enlisted personnel of the armed forces except under the provisions of the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940. (*Federal Register*, December 8, 1942.)

299. December 5, 1942. Executive Order No. 9280, authorizing and directing the Secretary of Agriculture to assume full responsibility for and control over the nation's food program and outlining his duties and functions in the exercise of such authority. (*Federal Register*, December 8, 1942.)

URUGUAY

85. September 25, 1942. Decree establishing maximum prices for wrapping paper of the types used by butchers, bakers, and drygoods stores. (*Diario Oficial*, October 2, 1942, quoted in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 7, 1942.)

86. October 2, 1942. Decree fixing a maximum factory-to-wholesaler price for pure peanut oil. (*Diario Oficial*, October 13, 1942, quoted in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 7, 1942.)

87. October 8, 1942. Decree establishing maximum sales prices for coal and other fuel from the United States or Great Britain. (*Diario Oficial*, October 14, 1942, quoted in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 14, 1942.)

88. October 9, 1942. Decree suspending the maximum prices for wrapping paper established by the decree of September 25, 1942 (see 85 above). (*Diario Oficial*, October 15, 1942, quoted in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 21, 1942.)

89. October 9, 1942. Decrees establishing maximum prices for aviation gasoline and other products sold by the ANCAP (National Administration of Alcohol, Fuel, and Portland Cement). (*Diario Oficial*, October 19, 1942, quoted in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, November 14, 1942.)

VENEZUELA

53. Corrected copy of Resolution No. 39, National Price Regulation Board (see Venezuela 53, BULLETIN, December 1942), published in *Gaceta Oficial* of September 2, 1942.

58a. September 5, 1942. Resolution No. 44, National Price Regulation Board, requiring

bread, food paste, and cracker manufacturers in the Federal District and the Sucre District of the State of Miranda to use a minimum of 50 percent foreign flour originating in South America. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 5, 1942.)

58b. September 8, 1942. Resolution No. 44-9, National Price Regulation Board, prohibiting the cartage of freight (except petroleum and petroleum products) in motor vehicles between Puerto Cabello and Taborda, the cartage of bananas between Urama and Puerto Cabello, and the cartage of petroleum over the road from Los Yavos, Yaritagua, and Cabudare to Barquisimeto except as authorized by the National Price Regulation Board. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 8, 1942.)

58c. September 9, 1942. Resolution, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum sales prices for meat in the Federal District and the Sucre District of the State of Miranda. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 9, 1942.)

59. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 11, 1942.)

60. September 11, 1942. Resolution No. 46, National Price Regulation Board, increasing certain sales prices for meat in the Federal District and the Sucre District of the State of Miranda. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 11, 1942.)

61. September 11, 1942. Resolution, National Price Regulation Board, fixing sales prices for food paste in the Federal District and the Sucre District of the State of Miranda and revoking the resolution of May 29, 1942 (see Venezuela 33, BULLETIN, October 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 11, 1942.)

62. September 11, 1942. Resolution, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum sales prices for lard and revoking Resolution No. 28 of June 23, 1942 (see Venezuela 40h, BULLETIN, December 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 11, 1942.)

63. September 11, 1942. Resolution, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum sales prices for wheat bread and revoking the resolution of June 18, 1942 (see Venezuela 40b, BULLETIN, December 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 11, 1942.)

64. September 30, 1942. Resolution No. 50-10, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum charges for passenger service on the Caracas-La Guaira highway. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 30, 1942.)

65. October 3, 1942. Resolution No. 307 Treasury Department, providing that the shipment to Venezuela of merchandise originating in

foreign ports and transhipped in the West Indies can be made to any Venezuelan port and setting forth regulations pertaining thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 3, 1942.)

66. October 7, 1942. Resolution No. 16, Treasury Department, providing that the Coordination Agent among the authorities and organisms of Venezuela and similar offices in the United States (see Venezuela 47, BULLETIN, November 1942) shall act in accordance with instructions received from the Import Control Commission. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 7, 1942.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

29a. July 11, 1942. Contract between the Export-Import Bank of Washington and the Republic of Costa Rica for the extension of a \$2,000,000 line of credit to the Republic for the purpose of assisting in the stabilization of its financial and agricultural economy and furnishing urgently needed dollar exchange. (*Press Release*, Secretary of Commerce of the United States, July 11, 1942.)

43a. August 27, 1942. Report, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Ecuador, to the National Congress of Ecuador, in regard to concessions made by the Government of Ecuador to the Government of the United States for the establishment of continental defense bases in the Galápagos Islands (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 48, BULLETIN, November 1942 and below) and in Salinas on the Santa Elena Peninsula. (*El Comercio*, Quito, August 28, 1942.)

48. (*Boletín Informativo*, Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, Departamento de Prensa y Publicaciones, Quito, Ecuador, September 25, 1942.)

51. September 22, 1942. Contract between the Republic of Haiti and the Export-Import Bank of Washington in regard to the extension by the bank of a line of credit not exceeding \$500,000 to aid in stabilizing the finances of the Republic and to provide the dollar exchange necessary to maintain Haitian economy. (*Haiti-Journal*, Port-au-Prince, October 1, 1942.)

52. (*Noticias de México*, Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores, Mexico, October 10, 1942.)

54a. October 7, 1942. Emergency agreement between the Brazilian Rubber Credit Bank and the Rubber Reserve Corporation of the United States, announced by the United States Ambassador to Brazil, providing for immediate shipment of 3,000 tons of much needed foodstuffs to workers in the Amazon rubber regions. (*New York Herald Tribune*, October 8, 1942.)

55a. October 14, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of Guatemala and the United States for the construction of a pioneer road to serve as an emergency military route. (See Guatemala 45 and 47 above and Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 35, BULLETIN, November 1942.) (*Diario de Centro América*, Guatemala, October 31, 1942.)

57. October 19, 1942. Agreement between the Export-Import Bank of Washington and the Government of Venezuela with respect to a \$20,000,000 credit authorized by the Bank in May 1942 to finance a program of public works in Venezuela. (*Press Release*, Secretary of Commerce of the United States, October 19, 1942.)

58. November 7, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of El Salvador and Guatemala providing for the use of gasoline ration coupons of either country in the other country, in order to facilitate necessary travel between the two nations, and prescribing measures for effecting such exchange. (*Diario de Centro América, Sección Informativa*, Guatemala, November 7, 1942.)

59. November 18, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of Mexico and the United States for joint Mexican-United States rehabilitation of certain key lines of the Mexican National Railways, in order to assure optimum efficiency in

the operation of the railroads for the transportation of vitally needed strategic materials, not only from Mexico to the United States but also, in view of the completion of the Suchiate River Bridge, from Central America. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, November 21, 1942.)

60. November 23, 1942. Agreement, announced by the United States Department of State, the Board of Economic Warfare, and Defense Supplies Corporation, providing that the United States Government will purchase the unsold portion of the 1941-42 Uruguayan wool clip of grades and types suitable for use in the United States and will underwrite a substantial portion of the 1942-43 clip, in order to aid in stabilizing Uruguayan economy and to assure the availability of wool for war purposes. (*Press Release*, United States Department of State, November 23, 1942.)

61. December 1, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Canada setting forth the principles which will guide them in approaching the problem of post-war economic settlements and indicating their readiness to cooperate in formulating a program of agreed action, open to participation by all other nations of like mind. (*Press Release*, United States Department of State, December 1, 1942.)

Pan American News

Message of the President of Costa Rica

On May 1, 1942, the President of Costa Rica, Dr. Rafael A. Calderón Guardia, delivered his annual message to Congress, giving an account of the second year of his administration.

President Calderón opened his message by expressing his thanks for the valuable cooperation lent him by Congress, which made possible the realization of many of his projects. He pointed out that although the second year of his administration was more intense and turbulent than the first,

especially in international affairs, public order was maintained and important work accomplished.

In discussing foreign affairs the President referred first to Costa Rica's part in the present world conflict. Following Japan's act of aggression against the United States and in conformity with Costa Rica's policy of American solidarity, war was declared on Japan December 8, 1941, and on Italy and Germany December 11, 1941. A presidential decree of January 30, 1942, ratified the Joint Declaration of the United Nations signed at Washington January 1, 1942,

and definitely joined Costa Rica with those nations who are defending the democratic cause. The culmination of Costa Rica's contribution to international cooperation was her part in the Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs at Rio de Janeiro.

Costa Rican-Panamanian relations reached a climax in the signing of the Boundary Treaty on May 1, 1941. The Treaty was later ratified by the congresses of both countries, and the President reported that the two mixed commissions provided for therein and charged with surveying and marking the frontier were functioning in accordance with the terms of the Treaty.

The recent establishment of Costa Rican Legations in Mexico and Honduras was also of great importance in foreign affairs.

Turning to the question of public security and the problems brought about by the war the President mentioned the outstanding actions in that line as having been the suspension of certain constitutional guarantees and the executive decrees requiring all citizens to cooperate with the authorities in national defense and fixing certain rules for the conduct of nationals of enemy nations and other regulations necessary to insure public order and national defense.

These provisions had to be supplemented by rigorous vigilance throughout the country. For this purpose a contract was made with the Government of the United States whereby a patrol squadron of military airplanes from the American army should be stationed in Costa Rica. The squadron was already quartered at the La Sabana airport. It was also agreed that the United States should send a permanent military mission to handle the training of troops and officers of the Costa Rican army.

Finally the National Civil Defense Board was created, its function being to study the needs of the moment and suggest the measures it considers indispensable in order to guarantee national security.

The Treasury Department, like the other branches of the Government, was affected by the war. Its activities were characterized by the adoption of measures for economic security and by the extreme caution exercised to avoid, as much as possible, unfavorable repercussions throughout the country. In December 1941 the Economic Defense Board was set up to study economic problems arising from the present state of emergency and suggest possible solutions.

It was also necessary to control the commercial and industrial activities of citizens of enemy nations. To this end, and to settle, insofar as possible, the problems created by unemployment or the paralyzation of activities of firms included on the black lists, an Office of Coordination, subordinate to the Department of Commerce, was organized. Since the need for such control was greatly increased after the war declaration, the Alien Property Custody Board was established in March to take over some of the duties of the Office of Coordination.

The President recalled to the Congress that in his inaugural address he had promised to prevent speculation with the necessities of life. This aim, coupled with the circumstances resulting from the war, brought about the establishment in March 1942 of the Office of Price Investigation and Control, which was functioning with the desired effective results.

One of the Government's greatest problems is agricultural production, since the present war has caused the interruption or cessation of communications with the country's regular markets and needs must now be filled at home. All efforts, said

the President, must be directed toward improved production and he mentioned as means to that end longer working hours, higher wages, and better prices. Realizing that wages, particularly in agriculture, were below those compatible with vital requirements of workers, the Administration took steps to effect a moderate increase. To improve the situation of the rural population, the President announced that a land distribution program would soon be undertaken, so that each family head would have a place to grow what was needed for his family's support.

A law was passed authorizing the National Bank of Costa Rica to issue 3,000,000 colones in mortgage securities negotiable in commercial banks, in order to supply long-term credits exclusively for agricultural purposes. This action was taken because the Bank found itself unable to meet credit demands of nearly a million colones, due to the considerable decrease imposed by the war in funds budgeted for that purpose. Results of the new credit action were most satisfactory.

In August 1941 the Coffee Quota Board was authorized to contract for the necessary loans for the financing and purchase of coffee surpluses, and the Export-Import Bank of Washington granted the Board a \$500,000 credit. But by the time the money was available, the surplus coffee had been exported and it was therefore unnecessary to use the credit.

A recent contract approved by Congress with the Banana Company of Costa Rica for the sowing of abacá in the Atlantic coastal region had already appreciably benefited that area, the President announced.

The President reported that 1941 revenue receipts totaled 42,602,500 colones and expenditures 47,393,500 colones. The Public Debt as of December 31, 1941, totaled 149,195,010 colones, of which 105,175,023 colones represented foreign

debt and 44,019,987 colones internal debt. Service on all bonds was fully and promptly met throughout the year.

President Calderón, referring to the Pan American Highway, now of such importance to continental defense, mentioned the agreement with the United States whereby the Export-Import Bank will contribute \$5,000,000 and Costa Rica \$2,500,000 for construction of the section extending from the Nicaraguan to the Panamanian frontiers. This road building project will result in a double benefit to the country, for it will assuredly increase national wealth and help in solving the unemployment problem.

There was much activity in the field of public works during the year. Sixty-six projects were finished and 68 others were still in the process of execution. Eighty-nine repairs were made to various public works, and 15 were still to be completed; 48 pipe line studies and 53 land surveying projects were conducted; 122 miles of roads were built and 80 bridges constructed.

The Government continued its efforts to develop the Electric Railway to the Pacific. Railway revenues amounted to approximately 4,442,000 colones; expenses were 3,017,900 colones, making a total profit of 1,424,100 colones, or a net gain, after deductions for depreciation, of 626,500 colones. The railway carried out an extensive building program: many new stations were constructed, the most important being the central station at San José.

The President considered the National Liquor Factory (Fábrica Nacional de Licores) worthy of comment. He stated that the quality of its products had been improved so greatly that an export business was started, thereby aiding agriculture through the large scale purchases of honeys and fruits. Sales in Curaçao, Honduras, and Panama were very promising,

and efforts to strengthen those markets and gain new ones were continued by the Administration.

Speaking of the reorganization of the National Electric Power Service, the President stated that this was accomplished by a law dated August 18, 1941, which decreed that all waters which are not private property, as well as any energy derived from them, are inalienable and under government control, administration, and vigilance.

The Department of the Interior was most active, and through its efforts it was possible to realize a project whose need had long been deeply felt: social security. The President pointed out that social reforms must be made little by little and the law establishing the Costa Rican Social Security Fund and obligatory life insurance for workers marked the first step in a series of reforms considered to be essential for attaining a proper balance in relations between employers and wage earners.

Costa Rica's present educational program began over a year ago with the founding of the National University, outstanding event of the present administration. Every effort has been made, the President stated, generally to improve national education. Libraries were opened, summer schools for teachers reorganized, the Dental School founded. In 1940 there were 688 schools, and as of May 1, 1942, there were 697 with a total attendance of 73,320 pupils.

The last portion of the President's message was devoted to public health. He reported that the birth rate had increased slightly and infant mortality fallen off. The Health Administration did splendid work, great strides being made in every branch of its activities. During the year covered by the presidential report 10,670 children were examined at

the San José Central Clinic. The Central Anti-Tuberculosis Dispensary made 30,195 examinations, as contrasted with 22,333 in 1940. The Epidemiology Department broke its own record by inoculating 7,520 people against typhoid fever and 3,340 against diphtheria. Sanitary conditions were generally much improved and several new hospitals were opened in various parts of the country. The medical-sanitary problems of the rural regions were handled by 27 sanitary units, 3 mobile units, 19 official medical stations, and 2 rural assistance centers, which treated more than 113,000 persons during the year.

President Calderón closed his message by reiterating his gratitude for the valuable cooperation of Congress and expressing his certainty that the same spirit would continue, granted that all Costa Ricans are inspired by the best designs for the moral, intellectual, and material good of the Republic.

Message of the President of Peru

The President of Peru, Dr. Manuel Prado, read his annual message to Congress at the opening of the regular session of that body on July 28, 1942. The message reviewed events and activity from July 1, 1941, to June 30, 1942, and dealt in turn with the Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Government, Justice, Education, National Defense, Treasury and Commerce, Development, and Public Health.

The three outstanding events in the field of foreign affairs were the settlement of the Ecuadorean-Peruvian boundary dispute, the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, and the breaking of relations with the Axis powers.

Dr. Prado briefly outlined the manner in which the more than century-old bound-

ary dispute was finally terminated by the Protocol of Peace, Friendship, and Boundaries, signed at Rio de Janeiro January 29, 1942, and approved by the Congresses of both Ecuador and Peru on February 26, 1942. He spoke next of Peru's important role at the Rio Conference and mentioned the measures adopted by the twenty-one Republics at that Meeting.

Following the attack on Pearl Harbor, Peru immediately made known her irrevocable decision to aid the cause of the United States. Without delay, measures were adopted to safeguard the country's vital interests, both financial and industrial. Pursuant to the recommendations of the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, diplomatic relations were broken with the Axis nations on January 24, 1942. The world-wide scope of the war and the aggressors' subjugation of various free nations cut off the American continent from many of its main markets and sources of supply. It was therefore necessary to hasten an economic mobilization to preserve and increase by every possible means the stock of strategic materials; strengthen transportation facilities without which those materials would have no practical use; replace, as soon as possible, the foreign markets America had lost, readjusting commercial exchange and molding it to the requirements of the present situation in order to avoid the dangerous unbalance which selling exports at peacetime prices and buying imports at wartime prices might mean for some Latin American countries; protect currency values; and, finally, adjust production, industry, and economic gears so that by a supreme effort for survival Peru might supply herself as long as the war's restrictions are being felt. To this end Peru is now mobilizing all her strength.

A highlight of the President's recent activities and a further manifestation of

Pan American solidarity was Dr. Prado's visit to the United States in May 1942 and his subsequent visits to Cuba, Panama, Venezuela, and Colombia. At that time he had the opportunity to reaffirm Peru's policy of close alignment with the United States and other democracies in the face of the aggression of the totalitarian powers.

Peru's foreign trade was stimulated by the signing of various treaties and agreements. On October 17, 1941, there was signed with Chile a trade treaty, still awaiting Congressional ratification at the time of the President's message. In August 1941 a special commercial commission from Canada visited Peru to negotiate a trade agreement. Peruvian-Argentine relations were strengthened by a commercial treaty signed January 10, 1942. A trade agreement with the United States, signed May 7, 1942, will improve trade relations between the two countries through specified reciprocal tariff concessions. On February 25, 1942, the Inter-American Coffee Board agreed to increase basic quotas 5 percent.

Turning to the Ministry of Government, Dr. Prado reported that the country's internal situation is satisfactory; and that Peru, in the President's own words, has "acquired political maturity."

The Government adopted measures to nullify all antidemocratic activities. These include the suppression of the totalitarian propaganda carried on by Axis partisans through the press, radio, schools, clubs; the suspension of their driving licenses and confiscation of firearms; and, finally, the expulsion from the country of leaders and propagandists of doctrines contrary to Peruvian ideology.

The contract with the Marconi Wireless Telegraph Company expired May 2, 1942, and the administration of postal, telegraphic, and radiotelegraphic services

reverted to the Government. During 1941, 753 miles of new telegraph lines were installed and 28 new postal and telegraph offices opened. A comparison of the postal and telegraphic movement for 1940 and 1941 reveals increased activity and revenue, especially in receipts from parcel post, which jumped from 930,000 soles in 1940 to 2,228,000 in 1942. Air-mail services expanded; Peru has 518 local airmail connections each month (146 to the south, 320 to the north, and 52 to the eastern slopes of the Andes) and 84 to foreign countries.

Interesting traffic innovations were initiated during the past year with three important new rulings on autobus passenger service, drivers' licenses, and traffic regulations. February 1942 was marked by the opening of the Rimac Land Terminal, the compulsory starting and arriving point for passenger and cargo bus services to the north. It is the first of a series to be built in the outskirts of Lima, designed to relieve city traffic congestion. The revenue from car and truck licenses in 1941 amounted to 2,137,863 soles.

Dr. Prado next turned to a summary of the work of the Ministry of Justice. He referred to the commissions appointed to study and draw up plans for amending the Commercial Code, the Code of Civil Procedure, and court regulations.

He noted also that relations between Church and State have been harmonious. Attention was called to the admirable work of the Vicariates Apostolic charged with the conversion of the jungle tribes to Christianity and their incorporation into national life as well as to the missions' exploratory and cartographic activities.

Public education is always a most important line of Government activity; and the new organic education law of April 1, 1941 was the initial step in a vast

plan of reform. The chief object is to offer Peruvians a course of practical instruction so that on leaving school and taking an active part in the life of the country they will have some basis of practical knowledge in whatever interests them most (commerce, industry, mining, etc.). The scheme necessitates the building of many new schools and the creation of commercial and industrial elementary schools, industrial schools for adults, schools of mining, farming, animal husbandry, rural normal schools, and so on. Special attention is also being given to premilitary instruction.

The new law also provides for a Bureau of Art Education and Cultural Extension, intended to organize and supervise the teaching of fine arts and perform other duties implied in its name. As soon as conditions permit, a building for the National Library will be erected in Lima. At present, with the collaboration of the Library of Congress in Washington, the 120,000 works of the Library are being catalogued.

An educational cinema program was undertaken in cooperation with the office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, the British Council of Education, and the Canadian Commercial Delegate. The necessary equipment was acquired for showing films in schools and other institutions in the farthest regions of the country.

Referring to educational statistics, the President pointed out that appropriations for education in the 1942 estimates were 25,942,700 soles, higher than in any previous year; 504 new schools have been opened thus far in 1942, creating 903 additional teaching positions. Since 1940, 1,400 new schools have been opened and 2,343 teachers added. There are now 6,037 primary schools and 22 rural ones, with a total of 11,052 teachers.

National defense occupies an important position in every country today; and Dr. Prado proudly asserted that the discipline and morale of the army, navy, air corps, and police had been maintained at the highest possible level, with unity of feeling and comprehension of duty. Because of the present situation the armed forces have been expanded and new divisions added. A commission had been created to draft a law for the organization of the nation in wartime in order that any changes dictated by experience at home or abroad may be adopted to cope with existing needs. All possible means are being developed to safeguard national and continental defense: control of telephone and telegraph communications, strict supervision of foreigners, cooperation with the United States in the supplying of war materials, training of Peruvian officers in other countries so they can return prepared to teach new and modern tactics, expansion of the air force, etc.

Since the economic, financial, and industrial organization of a country is as important as its armed forces, it was logical that the report on the Treasury and on Commerce should be both lengthy and valuable, presenting in itself a clear picture of Peruvian governmental activity. Dr. Prado first spoke in general terms of the country's economic status.

The war, because of the large geographic area involved, its duration, and the methods employed, is greatly affecting world economy and national economies. Up to the date of the message Peru had been one of the countries to suffer least, but it had nevertheless faced unforeseen and serious difficulties, arising chiefly from the scarcity and high cost of maritime transportation and the general uncertainty and delay in obtaining the materials and parts required by industry to maintain its necessary level of production. The exportation

of agricultural and mining products had likewise been hindered.

An equally serious state of affairs had taken place in the production of commodities for internal consumption. Food prices had risen and were still rising, in spite of government control over production, wholesaling, and retailing of essential articles. Recently cotton cultivation has been reduced 30 percent, and the land thus released is to be used for increasing the output of other crops and dairy products.

In view of the rising cost of living the Government raised the salaries of all persons in the national service, and business and industrial enterprises were expected to follow suit. The great problem was the rising cost of living, and to combat this the production of food and essential commodities must be fostered. Currency and exchange also affect the cost of living; and Peru is fortunate in enjoying a stabilized rate of exchange and freedom from financial control measures, although a revision of the foreign exchange value of the sol may be necessary at some future date.

The difficult situations to be faced today and the future's uncertainty demanded wholehearted sacrifice on the part of every social class. Dr. Prado said:

Let us remember, with a deep sense of solidarity, that there are other peoples who, in order to defend our ideals, are suffering poverty and sorrow, which might be appeased by what we, in our heedlessness, waste on the trivial and unessential. It is only through self-sacrifice that we shall succeed in overcoming the grave daily difficulties that beset us at the present time and that we shall be able to await, confident and conscious of having fulfilled our national and humane duty, a new era of happiness in which, through the definite triumph of the democratic cause, justice will rule the earth.

The President then gave a general review of economic activities during the year, first discussing the Financial Mis-

sion to the United States, headed by Señor David Dasso, Minister of the Treasury. The outcome of the negotiations was the drawing up of the Trade Treaty, Agreement on Cotton Sales, Agreement for the Purchase of Flax and Tow, Rubber Agreement, Rotenone Agreement, Agreement on the Establishment of an Experimental Station at Tingo María, and Memorandum on Sanitation in the Peruvian Amazon Region. These agreements, together with the Metals Agreements of the previous year, covered nearly all Peruvian economy and provided one of the most powerful impulses to progress ever offered in the course of Peru's economic history.

Banking reforms were made in order to render state banks more useful. Law 9361 established special credits to further the development of the iron and steel industry, manufacture of cement and basic chemical products, and hydroelectric energy production. A decree of July 26, 1941, authorized the Reserve Bank to rediscount loans of the Agricultural, Industrial, and Mining Banks; and on September 1, 1941, a decree was passed empowering the Agricultural Bank to discount notes on the security of rice crops. The Government also initiated in State Banks a policy of direct intervention in the purchase of materials necessary for national industry and food production.

Petroleum legislation occupied an important place during the past year, since in April 1942, the twenty-year term for the petroleum export taxation plan created by the Hague Arbitration Court expired; and Law 9485 evolved a new system designed to benefit industry.

Customs legislation was adapted to defense requirements by various changes made in export duties and by certain prohibitions relating to exports. A special

arrangement was made with the Metals Reserve Company of the United States for the purchase of Peru's surplus metal production.

Following the United States Government's establishment of a priorities system for the sale of prime materials the Peruvian Government set up a special office for expediting purchases in the United States by means of certificates of necessity and recommendations. In December 1941 the Fiscal Inspectorate of Prices was created to prevent speculation, and a similar body was formed to control the sale of tires. The Inspectorate adopted measures to combat hoarding—especially of bar iron, cement, caustic soda, soda carbonate, soap, and leather.

Law 9577 granted the President power to take any steps necessary for the fulfillment of the agreements made at the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs. To this end Laws 9586 and 9592 were passed regulating commercial and financial transactions with the enemy and providing for the custody of enemy-owned property. In April the General Office of Economy was created to carry out the provisions of the new laws.

In discussing the matter of public credit the President remarked that the rise in quotations of Government securities and the manner in which the public hastened to subscribe the 1940 loan is evidence of the faith of the people in the nation and its leaders. The consolidation of state debts has continued with regularity, creditors' claims being settled with 6 percent public works bonds. The second series of the 1940 internal loan for 25,000,000 soles was launched on the same terms as the first. The country was already beginning to feel the effect of the employment of these hitherto idle funds in productive works. The external debt was one of the Government's chief con-

cerns. Postponement of external debt obligations was a necessity, since the world depression, changes in the economic situation, abnormal trade, the depreciation of Peruvian currency, and new social problems made it essential for Peru to attend first to her own problems. Peru had laid several proposals before her foreign creditors and hoped soon to reach a final agreement, enabling the country to attend to its obligations with due regularity.

Banking operations for the year in re-

view showed an upward trend. The total resources of the commercial and savings banks reached a high figure and it was thus possible to extend greater facilities to the public in the way of loans and advances. The special banks (Industrial, Agricultural, the newly opened Mining Bank) continued to expand their operations in benefit of agricultural and industrial interests. Increased banking activity is best illustrated by a comparison of figures as of June 30, 1941, and June 30, 1942:

	June 30, 1941	June 30, 1942
COMMERCIAL AND SAVINGS BANKS		
	<i>Soles</i>	<i>Soles</i>
Capital and reserves	61,482,260	71,485,443
Deposits, Commercial Banks	319,190,284	404,728,134
Deposits, Savings Banks	101,616,464	116,001,036
Available funds in Peru and abroad	161,274,095	224,067,706
Advances, loans, discounts, etc	284,571,149	331,650,142
Securities, real estate, etc	56,715,255	55,149,846
MORTGAGE BANKS		
Capital and reserves	10,384,518	10,552,885
Gradual amortization loans	91,269,559	100,028,127
Warrants in circulation and drawn for payment	85,123,000	91,538,000
INDUSTRIAL BANK OF PERU		
Loans to established industries	8,706,411	9,835,904
Loans to new industries	174,448	403,603
	8,880,859	10,239,507
MINING BANK OF PERU		
Loans made up to June 30, 1942:		
For plants, transportation, etc		466,545
To small-scale miners		30,000
		496,545
AGRICULTURAL BANK OF PERU		
Loans outstanding:		
Farm loans	26,984,039	25,920,485
Livestock loans	1,002,750	1,970,210
Small-scale farmers	2,646,734	3,126,903
Against crops	522,364	679,093
Against warehoused crops	2,500,991	2,915
For repairs and improvements	18,590	133,110
	33,675,468	31,832,716
Contracts for growing foodstuffs		1,102,642
	33,675,468	32,935,358

Operations of insurance companies also expanded. From January 1, 1942 to April 30, 1942 a total of 709,434,300 soles was invested in fire, maritime and other insurance, 36,801,800 soles in workers' accident insurance, and 6,924,500 soles in life insurance.

Budget estimates rose from 188 million soles in 1940 to 214 million in 1941 and 250,500,000 in 1942, showing a yearly increase of 7.6, 13.9, and 16.9 percent. Since the figures quoted exclude appropriations under special laws, amounting to 75,500,000 soles, the present budget can be figured at 326 million soles. The increase of fiseal turnover was an index of the country's prosperity and could be attributed to the Government's financial policy of greater participation in the profits of industry and trade. This policy brought about the execution of self-liquidating productive works, lowering of customs barriers in order to promote the sale of exports, price fixing of the latter—all of which permitted an increase in taxation rates and the drafting of tax legislation aimed at the achievement of a balanced budget. Estimates for 1943 were expected to show an increase.

Tax collections also reflected the country's expansion. The total of taxes and government revenue collected by the Caja de Depósitos during 1941 was 97,107,598 soles, an increase of 12,986,378 over 1940. Income taxes accounted for just half of the increase. Sundry taxes amounted to 39,355,163 as against 30,706,149 in 1940.

Monopolies also provided a fruitful source of revenue. The income from the tobacco monopoly was 21,570,144 soles, a million and a half more than in 1940 and a million more than estimated. Special attention is now being given tobacco in an effort to improve the quality of the native product. Monopolies on salt and matches also showed satisfactory increases.

The year 1941 marked a new stage in national statistics, for the final figures of the 1940 census of population and occupation were released, showing 7,023,111 inhabitants in the Republic. The Census Bureau has now been incorporated in the National Bureau of Statistics, and census-taking has been placed on a continuous basis. It was known, therefore, that from 1940 to 1942 the population of the country increased to 7,304,259.

In spite of the increasing difficulties brought about by the war the Government continued its public works program of highway construction, building, and agricultural and industrial promotion.

Road construction was summarized as follows: 907 miles of new roads built, 423 miles of surfacing, 139 miles asphalted (including 114 miles of the Pan American Highway), 400 miles of old roads improved and widened, 176 miles dug and graded for future highways, 2,723 feet of new tunnels made and 1,870 feet of old tunneling widened and improved, 151 miles of dirt roads built or improved. Special attention was given to the roads leading into the interior, especially the Huanuco-Pueallpa road to the Aniazon region.

Government construction included water and sewage system improvements in more than forty provincial towns. Reconstruction of buildings damaged by the May 1940 earthquake was actively continued, and in many cases the original premises were enlarged and improved. The two most important new undertakings were the Las Palmas Aviation School and the Military School. In Callao 732 workmen's dwellings were built. Many improvements were made in Lima and Callao.

The Unemployment Board's activities were varied and numerous. They included, to mention but two, the provision of 580,567 lunches for Lima school children, and the erection of a fourth floor on the

new premises of the School of Engineers.

National agriculture was progressing steadily and plays an important part in Peruvian economic life. Flax-planting promised to develop an export of great utility and value. Fruit-growing was being actively fostered by the action of the brigades established in certain valleys to visit orchards and spray the trees. Control of the dreaded fruit fly was being intensified by a joint Peruvian-Chilean campaign conducted from Taena and by the importation from Argentina of parasitical insects that feed on the fly. The recently created National Vine-growing Service was attempting to restore vineyards to their one-time importance. The National Institute of Meteorology and Hydrology initiated the publishing and broadcasting of weather reports, which were proving of practical assistance to farmers. Agriculture was further being promoted through the work of the Bureau of Farming Propaganda.

The Government was also encouraging the livestock industry and investing considerable funds in the purchase of fine breeding stock. Preliminary figures of the first livestock census ever taken in Peru indicated some 2,300,000 cattle, 13,750,000 sheep, and 490,000 horses.

In furtherance of the Amazon colonization campaign facilities of every kind were being given to colonists. In the Tingo María colony small proprietors were granted plots of 35 to 50 acres, and settlers of more experience and capital had taken up between them more than 24,710 acres on which they were planting tea and other tropical crops. This program was aided by loans from the Agricultural Bank and assistance from the official stations in the form of seeds, plants, and technical advice. The River Napo and Marañon settlements had been enlarged by new families of colonists, to

whom the State gave free land, lodging, and seed for an initial crop.

Tea growing, Peruvian barbasco and quinine production were being fostered by the Government since these products can no longer be secured in the Orient. Rubber growing was also attaining new importance, with the cooperation of the United States.

Under the reforestation policy initiated in 1940 everything possible was being done to produce seedlings and form new plantations. The principal objects of the program were the prevention of soil erosion in the districts of heavy rainfall, regulation of the discharge of rivers providing water for irrigation, and the covering with vegetation of the large extension of sterile pampas and hillsides on the Coast.

An immense amount of work had been done towards improving irrigation systems and irrigating new areas. In the Sierra irrigation schemes had benefited 37,066 acres of land, almost all of which is devoted to food growing.

The present year marked the initiation of heavy industry in Peru. The work in this line was twofold. This project was started with the approval of plans for the installation of the iron and steel industry in the Chimbote district and the reduction of iron ores from the Marcona beds in the Department of Ica. A preliminary step was the construction of the mole in Chimbote for the shipping of coal. Power will be obtained from a hydroelectric plant, to be built in the Cañon del Pato, on which American engineers are already working.

The Government also encouraged and aided domestic industry, such as home weaving, straw plaiting, and other handicrafts.

The development of the mining industry in the 1941-1942 period was more rapid than ever before. The mining

policy included three phases: administrative, study of deposits in order to start work in new areas and put new minerals on the market, and intensified development of mining operations.

Petroleum production proceeded steadily. The output reached 12,859,310 barrels in 1941, with a value of 96,794,750 soles, and was expected to reach 14,500,000 barrels in 1942.

One of the Government's chief preoccupations was the food problem, so seriously influenced by the war because of shipping difficulties. The Food Production Promotion Board was created to supervise and control production, imports, prices, and related movements; and every effort was being made to maintain and regulate the supply of the country's food requirements.

The Government endeavored earnestly to better health conditions. There was no outbreak of disease calling for quarantine in any ports or inland towns and thus hindering commercial traffic. The death rate declined. Campaigns against tuberculosis, malaria, and venereal disease were intensified.

The high proportion of Quechua and Aimara inhabitants disclosed by the recent census to be living in isolation from the benefits of civilization and progress revealed a situation demanding the Government's special effort and attention. During the past twelve months the Bureau of Indian Affairs has settled some four hundred controversies. In pursuance of its policy of native land ownership the Government has sponsored the splitting up of several large properties into small holdings for Indian occupation. A special office in Lima gives free aid and advice to Indians coming there for redress and justice. More than twelve hundred native communities have been registered. The Government is encouraging the develop-

ment of typical Indian arts and crafts as an aid in improving the Indians' standard of living.

The President concluded his message:

Thanks to perseverance in our work we have managed to lessen the effects of a worldwide crisis which in other non-belligerent countries has assumed frightful proportions. But circumstances beyond any foresight or effort, since they are outside our jurisdiction and control, require restrictions and sacrifices both in the individual and national way of life. The Government is struggling to combat those effects and it is confident that every citizen, irrespective of his position, will realize the import of the present emergency and be ready to cooperate wholeheartedly in order to cope patriotically with the unpredictable events we may have to face.—E.H.

Message of the President of Ecuador

On August 10, 1942, the President of Ecuador, Dr. Carlos Arroyo del Río, delivered his annual message to the National Congress. Taking up the various reports of his ministers, he outlined in more or less general terms the accomplishments of the second year of his administration.

Referring first to the Government's obligation to maintain internal order and international security, the President stated that every effort had been directed toward the preservation of domestic peace and the protection of national interests. In the country's international life, two outstanding phases presented themselves: first, the territorial conflict, and second, the world war. The course of events in the first of these problems is well known, said the President, and he reported that the agreement made at the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Rio de Janeiro in January 1942 had entered into effect and that the respective boundary commissions are engaged in demarcating the Ecuadorean-Peruvian frontier. As for Ecuador's posi-

tion in the face of the extension of the world conflict to the Western Hemisphere, the country, affirmed the President, was true to its tradition as a liberty-loving nation in aligning itself on the side of the democracies. "America," he said, "is today a refuge and a symbol," and Ecuador, with complete faith in that America, is cooperating to the utmost limits of its ability in the defense of America and American ideals.

With well-justified satisfaction the President was able to report a treasury balance of 635,900 sucres for the year 1941. For some years the Government had been operating on a deficit basis. When the present administration took office at the end of 1940, there was a treasury deficit from 1939 of 4,738,450 sucres which had to be met out of 1940 income. Studious efforts were made to coordinate income and expenditures, but by the end of 1940 there was still a deficit of 3,550,500 sucres. General fund expenditures were budgeted for 1941 at 117,200,000 sucres; receipts during the year totaled only 109,001,000 sucres, a difference of 8,199,000; and when to this latter figure was added the deficit of 3,550,500 sucres carried over from 1940, it can be seen that the Government's total general fund shortage was 11,749,500 sucres. Nevertheless, by dint of cutting expenses in every line of government activity during 1941, the treasury was able to keep expenditures within the limits of actual receipts, to pay off the previous year's deficit, and to finish the year with the balance noted above instead of another of the burdensome deficits that had so long been the rule in treasury operations. The President added the encouraging news, too, that during the first six months of 1942 a treasury balance was maintained, receipts having been 58,227,000 sucres and expenditures only 55,888,000.

The economic effects of the war, apparent in all directions, were a matter of grave concern to the Government, the President stated. A general price increase in articles of prime necessity was met by establishing ceiling prices that would be fair and equitable for both the consuming public and the producers. Another step of great importance was the establishment of control over exports, for the purpose of stabilizing, directing, and preventing any mishandling in that aspect of the country's economy. Several constructive steps were taken to further the development of the national wealth. There was, said the President, a general demand throughout the country for an extension of irrigation projects that would open vast new areas to active use. Such projects were of course very costly and to secure funds therefor, the rice export tax was allocated to such a purpose and the Ministry of Agriculture was authorized to formulate plans for the irrigation projects. Another measure that is expected to be of incalculable benefit to the country's future economic life was the creation of the Ecuadorean Development Corporation (*Corporación Ecuatoriana de Fomento*), to be financed through a United States Export-Import Bank loan of \$5,000,000; its function is the extension, establishment, and development of all possible sources of national wealth.

The President reported that all debt service, both interest and amortization payments, was met on time and all repayments to the Export-Import Bank on the loan of \$1,150,000 obtained in May 1940 for highways, agricultural development, and railways were made when due. The President also reminded the Congress that although the Ministry of Agriculture is authorized to borrow funds from the Central Bank it had not been necessary to resort to that source of credit.

Public works projects during the year were doubly handicapped, said the President, for in addition to the usual financial limitations there was the even graver difficulty of securing materials. United States priorities and export restrictions, plus the almost complete impossibility of securing anything from Europe, and, on top of all else, the lack of shipping space, put a dead stop to many projects that were either planned or in actual process of execution. As the President phrased it, it was more difficult to obtain iron, for instance, than dollars. Nevertheless, work was carried forward on the section of the Pan American Highway between Cuenca and Loja, and the President, who made a personal inspection trip over the highway during the year, expressed the hope that within another year it would be completed. Work on highway communications which had been interrupted because of the international situation in the border provinces of El Oro and Loja was resumed after settlement of the boundary dispute. To provide funds for the work, the Government obtained a loan of 600,000 sucres from the Central Bank, and the President voiced the belief that within a very short time the Piedras-Buenaventura road would be finished, thus assuring communication with El Oro and Loja and giving the latter the much desired and needed connection with the seacoast. Still another project mentioned by the President was the 70-mile highway extending from Eloy Alfaro in the Province of Guayas to Baquerizo Moreno in the Province of Cañar. When the problem of providing employment for refugees from El Oro presented itself to the Government, before settlement of the boundary dispute, this highway project was decided upon. Good progress was made on it during the year and President Arroyo asked the Congress to provide funds for its completion.

Other communications projects were also given due consideration by the Government. Railway, telephone, and telegraph systems are being extended as rapidly as resources, both financial and material, permit.

The provision of adequate water systems is another matter that received special attention. Plans have already been formulated for waterworks in Quito and Guayaquil and, according to the President, the actual work would proceed as soon as the municipalities in question could study the plans and adopt the necessary local legislation.

The President characterized Ecuador's new social security law as the solution of one of the country's gravest and most important economic problems. Earlier social security legislation was defective in many ways and the new law, which was formulated and put into effect after long, careful, and efficient study, marks a great step forward in that field. Other evidences of the Government's concern for the laboring classes were the numerous decrees which established minimum wages in many lines of business and industrial activity, and the decree which prescribed a general increase in salaries and wages of government employees. Government care of destitute children was not only maintained but increased during the year. The number of rest camps in the highlands and the number of children who received care therein during the year had never before been equaled, the President states.

President Arroyo del Rio mentioned the sum of \$1,000,000 each which was allocated by the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs of the United States to the cities of Quito and Guayaquil for public health and welfare work. With this money Quito was able to install a much needed drainage system, and

works now nearing completion include a hospital for communicable diseases, a maternity hospital, a health center, a market, and an addition to the Nurses School; and a portion of the funds was devoted to cooperation in the construction of some of the pavilions of the new hospital for the insane and to the anti-malaria campaign. In Guayaquil the funds were devoted to filling in and draining a sizable land area within the city, hospital construction (including the general, tuberculosis, maternity, communicable disease, and children's hospitals), the Medical School, the Health Institute, and the anti-malaria campaign.

Despite the adversities of the times, President Arroyo said, his administration has not been unmindful of the need for spreading and developing culture within the country. He referred to the establishment of annual prizes for achievements in music and art, the theater and literature, and mentioned the creation of the Cultural Propaganda Commission, the duty of which is to establish a library of Ecuadorean classics. For the time being, this library will comprise twenty-five volumes; funds were made available for the printing, and the first several volumes were already in press at the time of the President's report.

The Government's policy of improvement in public education was expressed in several ways. The University of Cuenca was authorized to borrow funds for the construction of a much needed auditorium; the University of Loja was assigned funds for the acquisition of a printing press; and as many new schools were constructed as budget limitations would permit.

President Arroyo del Río closed his message with a detailed discussion of national defense. He referred to the sub-

stitution of military conscription for the old system of voluntary enlistment in the army, and to the several administrative and organizational changes that were made and that resulted in vast improvement in the armed forces. The aviation arm of the service is being extended as much as possible, particularly through the help of Lend-Lease arrangements with the United States. When the present Administration took office at the end of 1940, army, navy, and aviation equipment was in a lamentable state of disrepair or even, in some cases, of utter uselessness. Inasmuch as new war materials for both training and defense purposes had become increasingly difficult to secure since the outbreak of the war in Europe in 1939, the Administration's problem of equipping its armed forces was an extremely difficult one. But it was handled, said the President, as efficiently as possible under the circumstances. Some of the naval and aviation equipment was sent to Panama and the United States for repair, and action was initiated in Washington for the procurement of materials and equipment to put the army on a satisfactory basis. The President recalled that much criticism had been directed at the Administration because of the lack of adequate defense and training equipment, and his résumé of the situation that prevailed when he took office and of the diligent efforts made to correct it was offered as exonerating evidence. There is still much to be achieved in equipping the army, securing war materials, and perfecting national defense, he reported, but he was able to assure the Congress and the nation that definite progress has been made and that no stone has been left unturned to attain the desired objective.—D.M.T.

*International Railroad Bridge
between Mexico and Guatemala*

Since November 1, 1942, freight trains have been using the new international bridge over the Suchiate River uniting Mexico and Guatemala. Passenger service was inaugurated November 10, 1942, following the official opening ceremony. The Mexican President described the work as symbolizing and strengthening "those desires for constructive peace and fruitful work that inspire both nations"; and the President of Guatemala referred to the opening of the bridge as one of the outstanding events "for two countries which by reason of tradition, ideals, race, and customs have remained firmly united throughout the years."

The new bridge connects the town of Suchiate, southern terminus of the Mexican National Railways, with Ayutla, the northern terminus of the International Railways of Central America, on the Guatemalan bank of the Suchiate River. Completion of the bridge not only expedites the flow of traffic between these two nations but between them and other Central American countries which are served by the International Railways of Central America.

Before the new service was inaugurated all freight consigned to Guatemala had to be unloaded at the Suchiate railroad terminal. It was then transferred by truck or oxcart to the river bank, loaded on small barges, and ferried across the river to the Guatemalan side, where it was again transferred by oxcart to the railroad.

In the light of present circumstances the bridge is a further step in cooperation for inter-American solidarity and continental defense. It will allow the shipment to the United States of many Central American products that have suffered because of lack of shipping space and will also facilitate the supplying of munitions and other military supplies to the armed forces of the United States stationed in the Canal Zone and at other strategic points as well as make it possible for Latin American countries to receive many vital materials.

The official inaugural ceremony of the international bridge over the Suchiate, constructed by the Mexican National Railways, was conducted by General Maximino Ávila Camacho, Mexican Secretary of Communications and Public Works, and the Guatemalan Minister of Development, Señor Guillermo Cruz.

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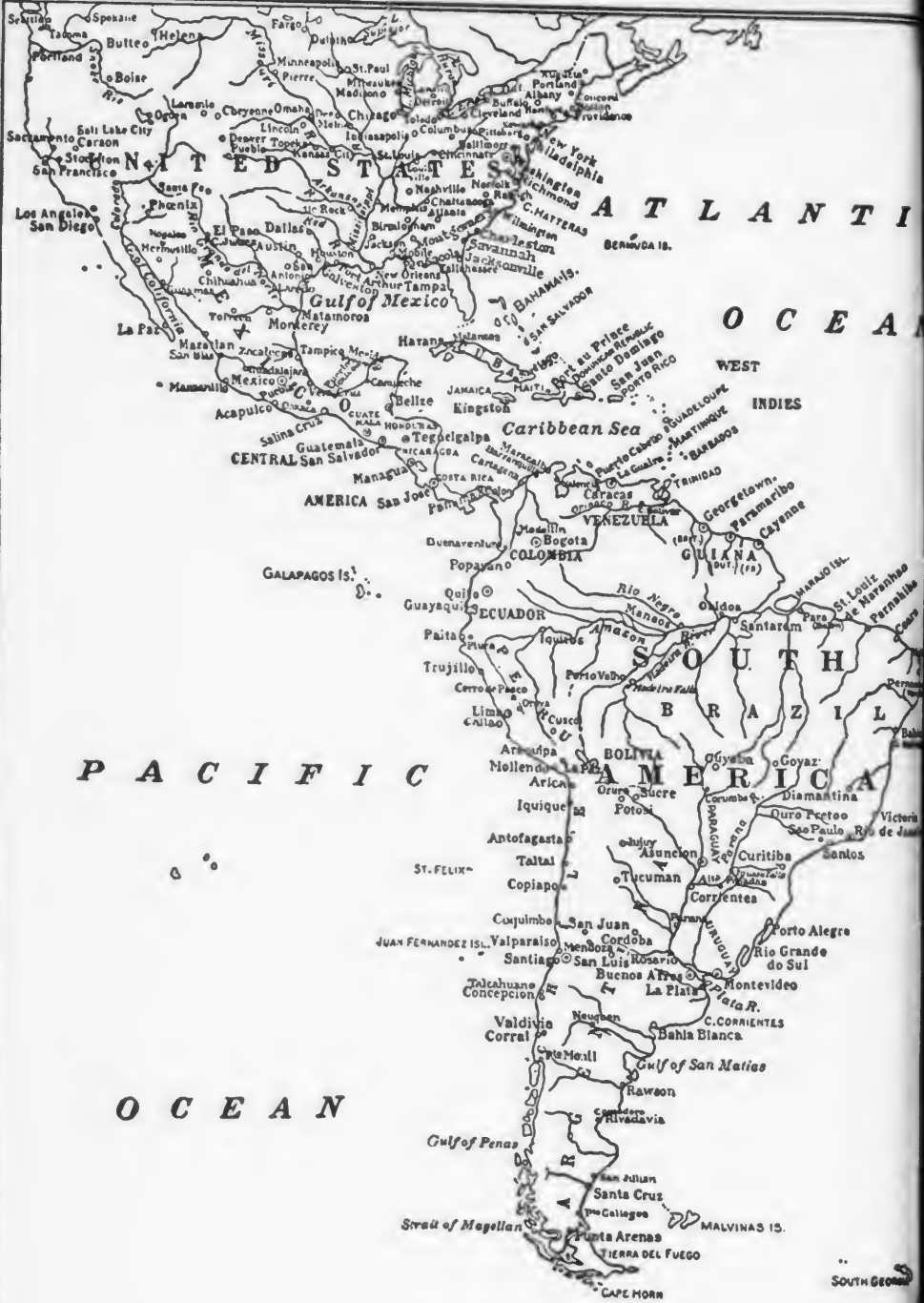
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