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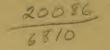


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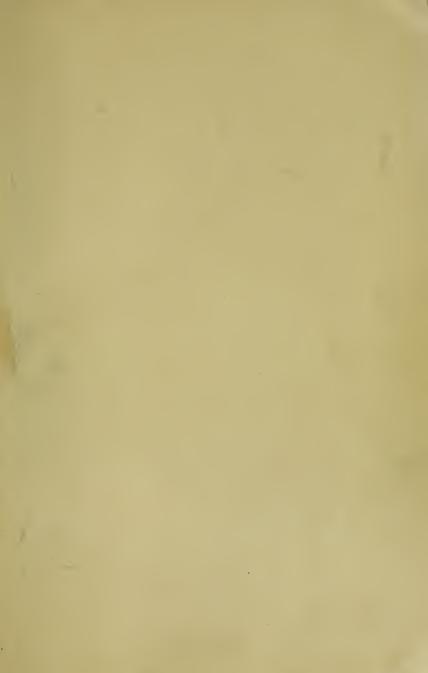
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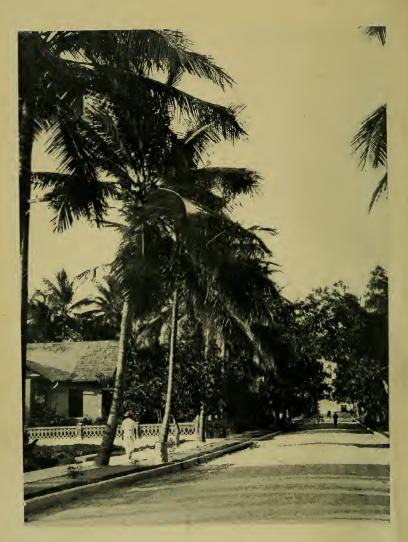
PORTO RICO PAST AND PRESENT

AND

SAN DOMINGO OF TO-DAY







A STREET IN SANTURCE

PORTO RICO PAST AND PRESENT AND SAN DOMINGO OF TO-DAY

BY

HYATT VERRILL

Author of "Cuba Past and Present," "An American Crusoe," etc.

WITH NUMEROUS ILLUSTRATIONS





NEW YORK DODD, MEAD AND COMPANY 1914

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

5

3

CHAPTER I

PORTO RICO OF THE PAST . .

Discovery of the island. Ponce de Leon. Indians. Pirates and privateers. The American invasion. The new organization. American governors.

CHAPTER II

PORTO RICO OF THE PRESENT .

Changes wrought by Americans. Language. Home life. Americans in Porto Rico. Modern improvements. Roads. Scenery.

CHAPTER III

SAN JUAN AND ITS ENVIRONS

San Juan at sunrise. A walk through the town. The old and new. Historical spots. Casa Blanca and the Palace. San Juan Gate. The Morro. San Christobal. The market. Modern buildings. The cathedral and De Leon's tomb. The jail.

CHAPTER IV

ACROSS THE ISLAND BY THE MILITARY ROAD 43 The outskirts of San Juan. Santurce and Miramar. Rio Piedras. Into the interior. Caguas. Over the mountains. Cayey. Aibonito and the famous pass. Coamo and its springs. Down

the mountains to Ponce.

CHAPTER V

PONCE AND THE WESTERN COAST .

Ponce. The city and its business. Docks and harbour. From Ponce to Arecibo. Adjuntas and Utuado. Arecibo. Aguadilla and the Columbus spring. From Aguadilla to Aguada. Rincon 56

12

1

26

and the Añasco River. On to Mayaguez. Mayaguez and its sights. Southward to San German. The City of the Hills. Sabana Grande, Yauco and the Guanica Central. Guayanilla and back to Ponce.

CHAPTER VI

THE EASTERN AND SOUTHERN COASTS

From San Juan to Carolina. Loiza and the Rio Grande. Fajardo. The eastern coastal plain. Humacao. Along the coast to Guayama. Salinas, Santa Isabel, Yabucoa, and Aguirre. The salt plains and desert vegetation.

CHAPTER VII

HERE AND THERE IN THE INTERIOR .

From Caguas to Humacao. Juncos and its odd bridge. From Cayey to Guayama. Cataño, Bayamon, and the fruit section. The Comerio road. Rivers and waterfalls. The Comerio dam. Barranquitas the lofty. Aibonito again.

CHAPTER VIII

	TOWNS A	ND M	UNICI	PALITIES					. :	87	ľ
--	---------	------	-------	----------	--	--	--	--	-----	----	---

CHAPTER IX

PEOPLE AND CUSTOMS	S		CUSTOMS .	AND	PEOPLE
--------------------	---	--	-----------	-----	--------

CHAPTER X

GEOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY, AND CLIMATE . . . 111

Mountains and soil. Rivers, streams, and native vegetation. Rainfall. Temperature. Winds. Storms and hurricanes.

CHAPTER XI

AGRICULTURE, RESOURCES, AND OPPORTUNI-

69

78

CHAPTER XII

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS . . 132 The governing bodies. Parties. Anti-Americanism. The question of citizenship.

CHAPTER XIII

HEALTH AND SANITATION The triumph of scientific sanitation. The plague scare. Isolation of lepers. Numbers and causes of deaths. Deaths by contagious diseases. Cases of transmissible disease. Death by months and ages. The leper colony. Deaths in a year.

CHAPTER XIV

. 146 THE INSULAR POLICE SERVICE A peaceful people. Reform school. Felonies committed. Arrests and convictions.

CHAPTER XV

MANUFACTURES, EXPORTS, FINANCE, ETC. . 154 Manufactures. Domestic and foreign corporations. Exports. Imports. Cost of bridges and

roads. Entry of vessels.

CHAPTER XVI

TRANSPORTATION .

Auto trucks. Bull-carts. Mules. Horses. Railways. Steamships. Express companies. Postal facilities. Cables and wireless. The American railway; time-table. Itinerary of the auto busses. Fares by auto busses.

CHAPTER XVII

HOTELS, BOARD, AND LIVING EXPENSES . . 171 Hotels at San Juan and suburbs. Hotels of the interior. Restaurants and cafos. Need of good hotels. Servants. Water. List of hotels.

vii

139 ²

. . 163

CONTENTS

CHAPTER XVIII

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION . . .

The common schools. Rural schools. Continuation schools. Child labour. Night trade schools. Agricultural instruction. Cooking. Sewing. School bands. Playgrounds and physical culture. Celebrations. High school courses. Receipts and expenses.

CHAPTER XIX

AUTOMOBILE LAWS AND REGULATIONS . . 213

SAN DOMINGO OF TO-DAY

PART II THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

CHAPTER I

223ments. Revolutions.

CHAPTER II

GEOGRAPHY, CLIMATE, AND RESOURCES . . 226

Size and area. Population. Contrast between Haiti and the Dominican Republic. Character of surface. Rivers. Mountains. Forests. Minerals. Lakes.

CHAPTER III

THE PEOPLE AND THEIR WAYS .

Races. Proportion of colored and white races. Character of people. Customs. Money. Duties. Hotels and Boarding places. Food and bever-ages. Clubs. Horses. Living expenses. Factories and industries. Recreations. Schools.

CHAPTER IV

FAUNA AND FLORA . . 244 Plants. Cabinet and dye woods. Vegetable prod-

. 233

viii

. . . 179

CONTENTS

ucts. Fruits. Cacao. Tobacco. Coffee. Birds. Game. Fish. Insects. Reptiles. Mammals.

CHAPTER V

ROADS AND TRANSPORTATION .

Lack of good roads. Character of so-called roads. Fords and bridges. Trails. Railways. The Samana-La Vega Railroad. The Central Dominican Railway. Telephones and telegraph lines. River and coastal boats. Steamship lines.

CHAPTER VI

HERE AND THERE IN THE REPUBLIC . . .

The island from the sea. Monte Christi and the north coast. Isabella, the first settlement in the New World. Puerta Plata, Santiago, and Moca. The Bay of Samana. The buccaneers' stronghold. Samana. Sanchez. The railway to La Vega. Scenery along the railroad. The Vega Real, or Royal Plain. La Vega and the Camu River. La Vega la Vieja. From La Vega to Moca. Roads of the interior. Undeveloped forests. Mineral wealth of the interior. Across Samana Bay to San Lorenzo. Caña Honda. Buried treasure. El Valle and the Swiss chocolate. Sanchez to Macoris. Sugar production. Royal palms. Santo Domingo City. Ruins and historical spots. House of Columbus. The Columbus tree. The city wall. The plaza.

CHAPTER VII

THE CATHEDRAL .

Within the cathedral. Remains of Columbus. History of the cathedral. The chapels, relics and paintings. San Nicolas, the oldest church. Church of San Miguel. Santa Barbara. San Anton. La Merced, Santa Clara and La Regina churches. The Church of Santo Domingo and the first college in America.

CHAPTER VIII

OTHER TOWNS AND PLACES OF INTEREST . Santiago de Los Caballeros. San José de las

Santiago de Los Caballeros. San José de las Latas. Santo Tomas and the first fort. Moca, 292

282

259

251

a "white town." Santo Cerro, or the "Holy Hill." San Francisco de Mecoris. Cotui, or Las Minas. Bonao the golden. Boya and the cacique Enriquillo. Santa Cruz, the ancient. Salvaleon de Higuey and Ponce de Leon. La Romana. Villa Duarte, or Pajarito. Where Coumbus was imprisoned. The caves of Tres Ojos. Azua and the old conquerors. Maniel and its climate of perpetual spring. San Juan de la Maguana and its prehistoric ruins. Barahona and Neyba. The great interior lakes. The Princess Anacaona. The Mountain of Salt. Bani, the birthplace of Maximo Gomez. San Christobal and other towns.

PART III HAITI, THE BLACK REPUBLIC

CHAPTER IX

HAITI AND ITS HISTORY . .

Characteristics of Haiti. Its backwardness and retrogression. Haiti's history. Discovery of Haiti. The wreck of the Santa Maria. The fort of Navidad. Settlement of Haiti. Extermination of the natives. Importation of slaves. Pirates and freebooters. French colonists in Haiti. Cession of Haiti to France. Haitiens in the American Revolution. The Paris of America. The outbreak of the slaves. Toussaint l'Overture. Napoleon's perfidy. A war of extermination. The massacre of the whites. Haitien independence. The first Haitien king.

CHAPTER X

HAITI'S TOWNS AND CITIES .

Port au Prince, the capital. Buildings, streets, etc. La Coupe and its residences. Miragoane and Petit Goave. The Island of Gonaives. The Tiburon peninsula and Jeremie, the birthplace of Dumas. Aux Cayes and Jacmel. St. Marc and the valley of the Artibonite River. Gonaives. The Mole San Nicolas. The island of Tortuga. Port de Paix and the Vale of Paradise. Cape Haitien. Sans Souci and the Black King's Castle.

309

322

CHAPTER XI

THE INTERIOR OF HAITI AND ITS RESOURCES 337 The character of the country. Rivers. Fertility. Forests. Mineral wealth. Fauna. Flora. Health and climate. Diseases. Lack of roads and transportation. Ruined estates.

CHAPTER XII

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, GOVERNMENT, EDUCATION 345

Population. Proportion of whites and colored races. Attempts at colonization. Character of the people. Language. The "Creole" or "Patois." Educational institutions. The Government. Laws and legal procedure. Superstition. Obeah and Voodooism. Sacrifices. Distinguished Haitiens.



ILLUSTRATIONS

Street in Santurce					From	ıtispi	ece	\checkmark
	· ·					FACI	NG	
						PA	GE	
Map of Porto Rico							1	6
Statue of Ponce de Leon .								1
Statue of Columbus, San Jus	an						6	
Governor's Palace and Corner	of	the	Town				10	
Morro from the Sea							10	
Royal Bank of Canada, San	Juai	n .					16	
Cruz Street, San Juan							16	· /
Cruz Street, San Juan . Map of San Juan							20	
Lateen Boats, San Juan Har	bor						24	· ·
Casa Blanca and San Juan G	late						24	
Fort San Sebastian							28	- 1
Haunted Sentry Box							28	
San José Church, San Juan							30	
San José Church, San Juan Plaza Principal and Intenden	cia	Bui	Iding	•			30	all.
Cathedral, San Juan		Dui	i uning	÷			32	
Interior of Cathedral, San Ju	an	Ċ		•			32	1
Plaza of the Lions, San Juan							36	
Beach at Borinquen Park .		•		·			36	
A "Pushing Business".	•	•	•				38	1
The Passing of the Old and	Jew	•	÷	•			38	~
A "Pushing Business". The Passing of the Old and M Road Near Cayey Road Scene Near Guayama	1011	•	•	•	•	•	40	1
Road Scane Near Guavama	•	•			•	•	40	V-
View of Aibonito	•	•	•		:	·	44	V
View of Aibonito Street in Aibonito	·	•	•	:		•	44	1
Street in Ponce	•	•	•			•	46	
Air Plants on Wires, Ponce	•	•	•	•	•	•	46	
New Dock, Ponce	•	•	:			•	48	
Fire Department Building, P	one	<u> </u>	•	•	:	•	48	
Plaza and Cathedral, Ponce	one	•••	•	:			50	
Ponce Market	•	•	•		•		50 1	1
Ponce Market Scene on Arecibo Road .	•	•	•	•	•	•	52	1
Amoniho Plano					•		52 4	1
Arecibo Plaza Columbus Spring, Aguadilla San German Church Caguas Plaza	•	•		•	•	•	54	
San Corman Church	•	•		•	•	•	54	
Gamer Diara	•	•	•	•	•	•	58	
Caguas Flaza	•	•	*		•	•	00	

ILLUSTRATIONS

						FAC	CING
						P	AGE
Street in Carolina							58 00
Tobacco Under Shade, Cayey							62
Comerio Falls							62 1
Scene on the South Shore .							68 M
Salt Plains and Cacti, Souther	rn C	oast					68
A Mountain River near Come	rio						74
Lowland River near Juncos							74 V
Comerio Dam							80 V
Old Spanish Bridge on Militar	y Ro	ad			1		80 V
Country Residence of a Peon					1		88 1
City Residence of a Merchant							88
On the San Juan-Ponce Railro							150 V
Salinas School, Salinas .	1.						182
McKinley School, Ponce .							182
Map of the West Indies .							220 V
Plaza Colon and Statue of C	lolun	ibus,	San	Do	min	go	
City		. ´			. '		224
Entrance to a Dominican Gar	den						228 🍆
Interior of a Dominican Hou	se						238
Charcoal Vendor on Riding Bu	ll, P	uert	a Pla	ıta			246 V
Calle Commercio, San Doming							262 🗸
Docks at Macoris							274
Tomb of Columbus, San Domin	ngo						282 V
West Front of Cathedral, San I			City				286
Tomb of Columbus, San Domin			. *				290
Cathedral and Plaza, Santiago			aballe	eros			294
A Street in Santiago de los Ca							298 ¥
Congressional Buildings, San I			Citv				302 🛀
Along the Water Front, Haiti							328
In the "Black Republic".		•1					340
"River Sprites," Haiti .							348

ALTHOUGH Porto Rico, or more properly Puerto Rico, has been an American colony for the past sixteen years, yet the American public as a whole has but a vague idea of the island's resources, condition, people, or climate. To many the island seems a far distant and foreign land, a mere speck in the vast expanse of ocean, and simply one of the numberless other specks which on maps are collectively labelled the "West Indies." It is indeed a surprise to find these little dots spreading out into vast mountain chains and leaguebroad valleys, with a shore line that stretches from horizon to horizon, and the visitor who for the first time views the West Indies is invariably impressed at the unexpected extent of the islands. It is hard to realise that Porto Rico is scarcely farther from New York than Des Moines, and that one may visit the island, tour its roads, see its numerous points of historical interest, and return to New York all within the space of a fortnight. While Porto Rico is the smallest of the so-called

Greater Antilles, yet it is by no means small, and as far as appearances go one might as well be on the mainland as on an island, when in the interior of Porto Rico.

From the tourist's viewpoint Porto Rico is most interesting, and in no other West Indian island can one obtain such an insight into tropical life, industries, and vegetation with so little trouble and inconvenience.

It is true that Porto Rico has many natural characteristics peculiar to itself and that it is wrong to judge it by other tropical lands or the other islands by the Porto Rico standard. It is the only one of the Greater Antilles which is practically denuded of forests and the only one which is densely inhabited. For these reasons the wild, luxuriant, and riotous vegetation and heavily wooded mountains of other islands are lacking, and it does not possess the majestic, primitive grandeur of San Domingo, portions of Cuba or Jamaica, nor of many of the smaller Antilles. On the other hand, its wonderful roads, its modern methods of transportation, its health and cleanliness, its freedom from loathsome, diseased beggars, its delightful climate, and last, and to many

xvi

the most important of all, the fact that over it waves our own flag, more than compensate for the sparsity of natural beauties and quaint customs.

Very little of general interest has been written about Porto Rico. Histories, government reports, steamship folders, and similar works are legion, but these are far from satisfactory or complete from the tourist's point of view or are too technical, too full of data, or too evidently advertising matter to be of great value or interest to the prospective visitor to our West Indian colony.

The present book has been written with the aim of presenting all the important facts and figures in regard to Porto Rico without bias, prejudice, or exaggeration. In its preparation nothing has been taken for granted and nothing included in the work which is pure hearsay. The author has personally visited the island, has lived in its various cities and villages, has toured the roads from end to end and from coast to coast, and has mingled and talked with all classes and conditions of people, both native and American, from the Governor to the lowliest peon.

In every case unquestionable facts have been adhered to, and no statement or information has been included which has not been personally investigated.

The political situation is a much involved and delicate question, and the author has refrained from discussing it or suggesting remedies for existing evils, although one cannot forbear some criticism of conditions which are palpably wrong and unjust.

In the following pages Porto Rico is described as found by the author and as seen through his eyes, and no doubt others might see many things in a different light. What is admirable to one may not appear so to another, and what is attractive to one observer may appear uninteresting and unworthy to the next; but blasé, unnatural, and prejudiced indeed must be the visitor to Porto Rico who cannot find an abundance of interest, pleasure, and admiration in viewing the myriad charms, the magnificent scenery, and the interesting life of Porto Rico.

In the preparation of this book the author has been greatly aided and encouraged by many Porto Rican and American residents of Porto

xviii

Rico, as well as by numerous government officials and others.

To His Excellency the Hon. Arthur Yaeger, to Judge E. B. Wilcox, Col. B. W. Bates, Mr. Sanchez Morales, and to the officers and officials of the New York and Porto Rico S. S. Co., and many others the author wishes to express his deep gratitude for innumerable favours, invaluable help, and universal courtesy, without which the preparation of this volume would have been a most difficult task.

THE island of Santo Domingo is so closely associated with the early history of the West Indies and the Spanish Main, and is so intimately connected with the conquest and settlement of Porto Rico, that it seems quite fitting to include something about the island in a book on our little West Indian colony.

It was from Santo Domingo that Ponce de Leon sailed across the narrow Mona passage and established the settlement which later became San Juan. From Santo Domingo came many a bold and adventurous knight to settle in the new land of promise,—Puerto Rico,—and all through those

early years of Spanish dominion in the Antilles the two islands had much in common, and the great men of the times were familiar figures in both "Puerto Rico" and Hispaniola.

While Porto Rico was primarily and principally an agricultural colony, San Domingo was famed for its wealth of precious stones and metals, and when the output of the mines decreased many of the Spaniards from the latter island moved bag and baggage to Porto Rico, across the strait, and settled down to wrest greater if slower fortunes from Porto Rican soils than they had won in San Domingo's golden sands.

Even aside from its connection with Porto Rico, the island of San Domingo is worthy of being known and visited by Americans, for on this island there is more that savours of early American history than on any other spot in the Western Hemisphere. Here was the first settlement of Europeans in the New World; here was shed the first blood of Europeans in conflict with the Indians; here the Spaniards found their first gold in America, and here repose the mortal remains of Christopher Columbus.

Santo Domingo is a wonderful land, a land of

romance, history, and untold resources, a land of vast opportunity, of immense mineral wealth, of inexhaustible fertility and sublime scenery. It was baptised in blood, civilised by the ruthless slaughter of countless thousands of human beings, and for centuries has been torn with massacres, revolutions, and warfare. Its past has been one of violence, greed, and despotism. Let us hope that its future may be one of progress, peace, and prosperity.



PART I

PORTO RICO PAST AND PRESENT

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CHAPTER I

PORTO RICO OF THE PAST

IT was on his second voyage to the new world that Columbus, while sailing cautiously among the uncharted reefs and unknown isles of the Antilles, sighted a large and luxuriant island, which the natives called "Borinquen."

Coasting around the southern shores of this new land, the discoverer put into a large, calm bay on the northwestern coast where a beautiful spring gushed from the hills and flowed in a good-sized stream to the bay. In commemoration of this event the admiral christened the place "Aguadilla," and named the new island San Juan Bautista. To-day the visitor to this beautiful spot may see the self-same spring forming a fountain at the western end of the pretty town and falling in cascades into a stone basin, from which the water flows through the streets to the shore. Here also a monumental cross of native marble marks the first landing place of Columbus on Porto Rican soil.

2 PORTO RICO PAST AND PRESENT

Continuing on his voyage to Santo Domingo, Columbus left Porto Rico astern and never again revisited it. On board his ship, however, was a romantic and adventurous "Conquistador" called Juan Ponce de Leon, and filled with admiration at the wonderful luxuriance and fertility of the new island, he set sail from Santo Domingo in 1508 and landed at the bay of Aguada. From this spot he travelled eastward and discovered an almost land-locked bay, which he named "Puerto Rico." He was received hospitably by the natives and especially by Agueynaba, the cacique, and greatly pleased at the richness of the island, he returned to Santo Domingo and related the story of his explorations to Governor Ovando. The latter thereupon furnished additional supplies and men, and in 1509 De Leon again landed at Puerto Rico Bay, and at a spot known as Caparra built a settlement, which was later abandoned in favour of the more desirable island of San Juan, the present capital. From here Ponce de Leon set forth on nis famous voyage in search of the Fountain of Youth, which resulted in the discovery of Florida. Here in San Juan he built a large and luxurious house or castle, known as the "Casa Blanca," or White House, which, embowered in palms and surrounded by gardens, still looks forth across the blue sea towards distant Florida, and stands aloof, dignified and proud,—above the bustle and noise of the town, like some old Spanish grandee among a crowd of gamins. In 1512 the searcher for the fabulous fountain once more sailed forth from San Juan Harbour only to return silent in death, the victim of an Indian arrow, from which he succumbed in Havana.

From the very first Ponce de Leon realised the natural advantages which San Juan possessed for fortifications, and every energy and resource was devoted to erecting a complicated and extensive series of walls, forts, castles, and moats about the city. At the entrance to the harbour, upon a precipitous bluff, was built the massive Morro, which was not completed until 1584 and which still stands, grim and forbidding, and is the first sight to greet the visitor arriving in Porto Rico from the North. Scarred with the wounds of a hundred conflicts, moss-grown, hoary with age, and frowning upon the narrow harbour entrance, its lofty lighthouse casts its brilliant

4 PORTO RICO PAST AND PRESENT

beams far across the waves, a welcome message of peace and salvation instead of death and destruction, which in former days belched forth from its antiquated cannon. Within this mighty fortress were chapels, living-rooms, water-tanks, warehouses, quarters, bakeries, barracks, and dungeons, -a veritable little city in itself. From the Morro, walls extended about the city and surrounded the entire town with a line of bastions, moats, fortified gates, crenelated battlements, and quaint sentry boxes, which have endured the stress of storm and warfare for four centuries and have withstood the shot and shell of buccaneers, pirates, and the navies of the world, and have even held their own against the rain of steel poured upon them by our battleships in 1898.

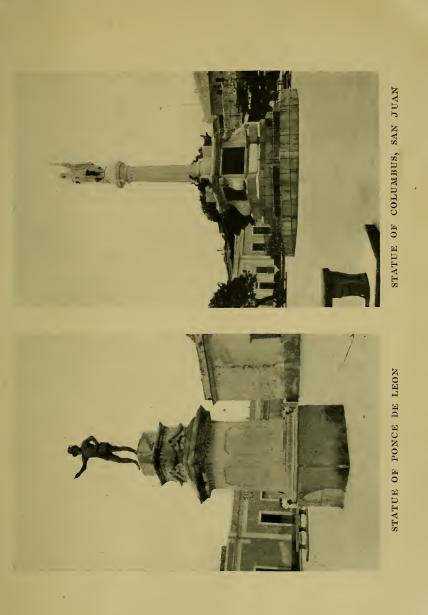
For a long time after the Spaniards settled on the island, the Indians were peaceful and hospitable, and while often oppressed, were restrained from acts of violence by their belief in the immortality of the Europeans. Finally the truth of this theory was tested by an experiment on an unfortunate man named Salcedo, whom the natives held beneath the waters of a river until he apparently drowned. To make sure that life was extinct the Indians kept a careful watch over the body for several days, until the warmth of the climate afforded ample proof of the mortal character of the Spaniards. Convinced that their oppressors were mere men, a general rebellion and massacre was planned, and the town of Aguada was burned, sacked, and the inhabitants murdered. One of the inhabitants escaped the slaughter and, reaching Caparra, related his story to Ponce de Leon, who, with a strong body of troops, at once commenced an active warfare on the savages, so many of whom were slain or seized for slaves that there was no further danger of an uprising.

The Indians were, however, the least of Porto Rico's troubles, and from 1516 until 1798 the island was constantly attacked and harassed by invaders, and the people were kept busy defending their island from capture and devastation.

In 1535 and 1543 French privateers sacked and burned several of the smaller towns, and in 1565 Sir John Hawkins swept down upon the island, to be followed in 1572 by Sir Francis Drake, but the powerful forts and stubborn defence of the inhabitants were too much for the buccaneers, who

sullenly sailed away, to return in 1595, when they learned that a galleon with vast treasure was in San Juan Harbour. Better had it been for the dreaded freebooters to have left Porto Rico alone. for Hawkins died when off the eastern end of the island, and Drake, beaten and nearly annihilated by the heavy fire of the forts, sailed off towards South America, and died ere he reached Porto Bello. It was a heart-breaking defeat for the doughty Englishman, for the Spaniards removed over four million dollars from the ships in the harbour and secreted it ashore, so that Drake, who had helped destroy the Armada a few years before, was obliged to leave unmolested more gold than he had taken from the famous fleet. Once more in 1597 the English returned to Porto Rico, this time with a fleet of 20 ships, under Lord Cumberland. Landing at Santurce, the British defeated the Spaniards at San Antonio bridge and marched into San Juan. The English were on the verge of victory, and Morro had capitulated, when disease broke out among the invaders and they were compelled to abandon the island.

In 1625 Morro was again under fire, for a fleet of Dutch war vessels invaded the city and trained



their guns on the fortress. The bombardment was ineffectual however, and after burning a large portion of the town, the Dutch sailed away, leaving one of their ships behind. From this time until 1702 French, Dutch, and English buccaneers, privateers and men-of-war were a constant menace to the Porto Ricans, but one and all were defeated and driven off. Then for nearly one hundred years the island was left in peace until in 1797, when Sir Ralph Abercromby landed a large force at Santurce, threw up trenches, and placed batteries on Miramar Hill and prepared for a long and tedious siege. After two weeks of cannonading and ferocious hand-to-hand fighting, the British were obliged to abandon the attack, and retreated with a loss of nearly two hundred and fifty men and many prisoners, guns, ammunition, and supplies.

One hundred years later the grim fighting ships of Admiral Sampson trained their guns upon the citadel that rose impregnable above the town, and while the steel-clad shells and smokeless powder of the modern weapons tore gaping holes here and there in the ancient masonry, yet the vast weight of metal hurled at the town did comparatively

little damage, and the residents were left in peace, until the American army, marching overland from the south, were halted in their victorious progress by the signing of the peace protocol, and in August, 1898, the Stars and Stripes were hoisted above the ancient forts and buildings, and a new territory was added to the United States.

A military government was at once established by General Brooke, who was succeeded in December, 1898, by General Henry. A postal system was organised, the Government lottery abolished, freedom of speech and the press restored, the use of stamped paper and certificates of residence discontinued, a police force, consisting of Porto Ricans under command of American officials, was organised, and strict sanitary measures adopted. Free public schools were opened, provision made for writ of habeas corpus and jury trials, the courts were reorganised, and imprisonment for political offences, chains, solitary confinement, and other similar methods of punishment were abolished. Pending the restoration of normal conditions, the foreclosure of mortgages was temporarily suspended. The Spanish currency in use was retired and replaced by American money.

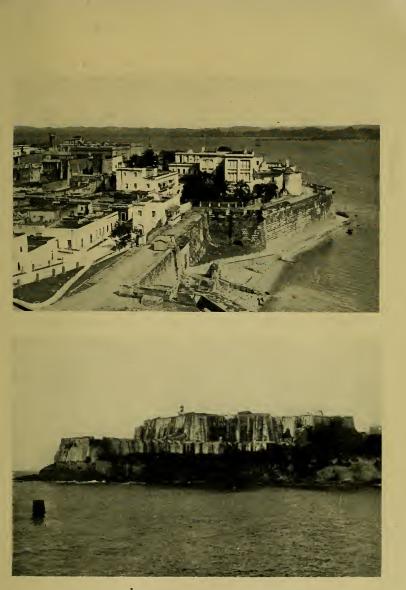
Mayors and other local officials were elected, and in 1899 a census taken, which showed a population of 953,243.

Unsettled conditions immediately resulting from the war seriously affected local industries and commerce, and a material decrease in exports, with many hardships, followed as a natural sequence. The abnormal conditions were augmented by the results of a severe hurricane on August 8, 1899, which destroyed many coffee plantations and cattle. Many of the inhabitants of the interior suffered from lack of food. Aid speedily came from the United States, and the free distribution of food and building material in great quantities afforded temporary relief.

On April 12, 1900, the United States Congress passed what is known as the Organic Act, establishing a civil government in Porto Rico and providing temporary revenue for its maintenance until such time as elections could be held and a local system of revenue established. In accordance with this act the military government, under General George W. Davis, who had succeeded General Henry, came to an end, and the civil government was established, with Hon. Charles

H. Allen as Governor, May 1, 1900. On June 28, the Executive Council, the Upper House of the Legislature, consisting of six Americans, who were also heads of Government departments, and five residents of Porto Rico, all appointed by the President of the United States, met and organised. A general election was held on November 6 of the same year, at which 35 Porto Ricans were chosen as members of the House of Delegates, the other branch of the Legislature. These elective delegates met with the Executive Council in the first session of the Legislative Assembly on December 3, 1900, and continued in session until January 31, 1901, having passed 36 laws necessary for the complete establishment of civil government, and providing for a system of taxation and internal revenue.

On June 22, 1901, the Governor called an extraordinary session of the Legislature, to meet on July 4, and on that date a joint resolution was passed advising the President of the United States that a system of local taxation had been provided and placed in operation, and requesting that a presidential proclamation be issued announcing the existence of civil government in



GOVERNOR'S PALACE AND CORNER OF TOWN MORRO FROM THE SEA





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Porto Rico. This fact was duly proclaimed by President McKinley on July 25, 1901, the third anniversary of the first landing of American troops. In accordance with the provisions of the Organic Act, free trade with the United States followed the publication of this proclamation, and American merchandise entered Porto Rico and products of the island were admitted into the United States without payment of customs duties.

Governor Allen's administration was followed on September 15, 1901, by that of Governor William H. Hunt, who held the office until July 4, 1904, when he was succeeded by Hon. Beekman Winthrop. Governor Winthrop was followed by Governor Regis H. Post, who assumed the office on April 18, 1907. On November 6, 1909, Governor George R. Colton was inaugurated, and in November, 1913, the present Governor, Mr. Arthur Yaeger, took over the office of chief executive of the island.

CHAPTER II

PORTO RICO OF THE PRESENT

WHEN the Americans took possession of the island, Porto Rico was, like all true Spanish-American countries, quaint, quiet, picturesque, and with an indefinable charm or "atmosphere" impossible to picture or describe. For 400 years the people had lived in more or less the same manner, their homes were of Spanish or Moorish style, their lives were simple, their wants few, business worries, financial reverses or competition troubled them not. No one gave a thought of to-morrow, and bull-fights, cock-fights, dances, and the lottery were the amusements of the populace. Withal sanitation was conspicuous by its absence, dirt and disease were considered necessary evils, candles or oil lamps furnished sufficient illumination, bulls, oxen, and horses provided means of transportation, and the island seemed a bit of old Spain set mid tropical surroundings. When one stepped ashore in Porto Rico of the past, one stepped into a foreign land and into scenes of four

PORTO RICO OF THE PRESENT 13

centuries ago. To-day all is greatly changed. With the American occupation sewers were laid, sanitary plumbing was made compulsory for all householders, electric lights replaced the candle and lamp, a telephone system was installed throughout the island, automobiles, motor cycles, and auto trucks hummed over the splendid roads, disease and dirt were stamped out, trolley lines and railways brought far distant towns within easy reach, schools were established, and to-day Porto Rico is a busy, bustling, up-to-date, and modern country,-far ahead of most American s communities of equal size. In the transformation much of the charm, the picturesque, and the oldworld atmosphere have been lost, and while we may admire and appreciate the conveniences and modern improvements, yet we cannot but regret the fact that in obtaining these we have been compelled to sacrifice such a large part of the true Spanish-American life and atmosphere.

Although in many ways Porto Rico has been "Americanised," yet it is as un-American as ever in other ways. Although English is,—according to theory,—the "official language," yet those who speak it are few and far between. English may

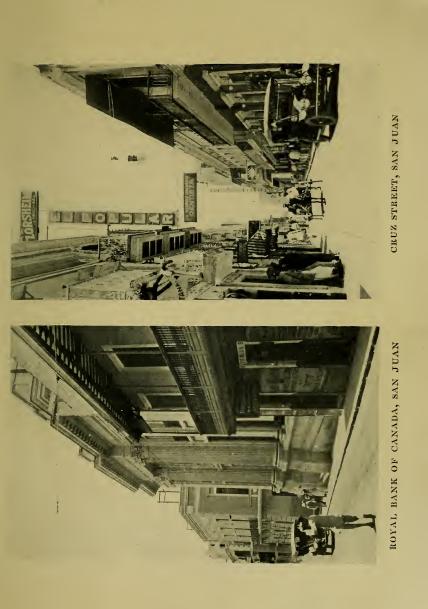
be "official," but the officials do not speak it, save in a few instances or where they happen to be of American birth or education. Even the policemen in San Juan cannot speak the "official language," and a visit to the offices of the Interior Department or to many other Federal and Insular offices will demonstrate that the officiousness of the English tongue has scarcely gone beyond the theoretical stage. Many of the shops and stores have salesmen who speak our language after a fashion, and here and there the children and young people can speak and understand it, but as a rule the folk who speak anything but their beloved Spanish are the negroes from St. Thomas, St. Kitts, and other British West Indian islands, or are Americans, Germans, or English. Now and then one meets with a surprise,-possibly some light-haired, blue-eyed clerk or official may look so Anglo-Saxon that you essay a question in English, only to be met with a blank look, an expressive shrug, and a polite "No entiendo Ingles." Perchance the very next person you address will be a swarthy native selling fruits or other commodities. Feeling convinced that the "official" language would be useless, you ask the

price of his goods in your best Castilian and are dumbfounded when he replies, "Ten cents, three for a quarter."

English is supposed to be compulsory in the schools, but comparatively few scholars ever learn their English, save in a parrot-like manner. They may learn English so that they can carry on an ordinary conversation, and yet they will not and do not use the language if it can be avoided. If we are bound to Americanise the Porto Ricans, why stop halfway? Why not carry on all official business in English and make all documents in that language, or else admit that the so-called "official language" exists as such merely in theory? Why should we expect the Porto Ricans to use our tongue when we send out governors, chiefs of departments, officials, and others who cannot speak or read Spanish, and who nevertheless carry on all official business in Spanish and employ native interpreters? Moreover, although English is the "official tongue," we do not require native officials or employees to speak it. Why not make a knowledge of English a necessary factor in the appointment of all officials or public employees, whether they come under Civil Service

or not? On every side we tacitly admit that it is simpler for Americans to learn Spanish than for the Porto Ricans to acquire English. No doubt much of this will be overcome in due time, and even the poorly-paid police will speak English; but in the meantime it seems highly absurd to have a traffic officer hold up an American autoist and try to explain the local laws and regulations when neither of the parties to the controversy can understand what the other is saving. At times the confusion of the two languages is really For example, many documents are amusing. printed in English and the blanks filled out in Spanish, the result being a sort of hybrid affair, portions of which are meaningless to the holder of the papers unless he reads both languages.

The visitor to Porto Rico can get along without a knowledge of Spanish, especially in the larger towns, but unless one speaks Castilian or employs an interpreter, he will find himself woefully handicapped, and will lose much of interest and value on the island. Spanish in Porto Rico is fully as important as in Havana, Central or South America, or Mexico; in fact, of the two



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places it is certain that in Cuba English is more generally spoken than in Porto Rico.

In their home life the Puerto Riqueños adhere to their old-time customs; they parade about the plazas in the cool evening, lean from jutting balconies and watch the passing throngs, gossip, and laugh in soft Creole Spanish, receive visitors in their "salas" open to the street, and are as vivacious, light-hearted, frivolous, and care-free as ever. In costume, business, and other matters, the Porto Ricans have adopted American ideas and customs with wonderful facility; the large stores are up-to-date, stocked with American and European goods, and there is no longer the "last price," as in Cuba and other Spanish-American lands. Cash registers, pneumatic money-carriers, elevators, bargain sales, and auto deliveries are now a necessary part of Porto Rican business, a large proportion of which is in the hands of Spaniards. Graceful mantillas have given way to outlandish "latest Parisian styles" in hats, highpowered automobiles have replaced the old-time coaches, and moving pictures, baseball games, and horse races now attract the crowds that formerly flocked to bull-ring and cock-pit. Within the

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Porto Ricans' homes one glimpses shady, flowerfilled patios, tinkling fountains, charcoal braziers, cool corridors, and huge open, unglazed windows. Within the American homes are all the surroundings of Northern life, absolutely unsuited to tropical comfort. The walls extend unbroken from ceiling to floor, allowing no free circulation of air; the windows are small, there are no charming patios, gas ranges are used for cooking, and canned goods, American dishes, and imported food is served, although the markets are replete with delicious fresh native vegetables and fruits.

Of course there are exceptions. Many Porto Ricans have become so Americanised as to dwell in concrete houses, with all the ugly, ornate, incongruous, ginger-bread architecture of Northern homes, while many Americans are sensible enough to adapt themselves to the customs and necessities of the tropics, and live in simple, low, cool houses, embowered in palms and flowers, and appreciate the value of native vegetables and other products.

American though Porto Rico may be, yet it is merely on the surface; at heart the Porto Rican is a Porto Rican first, last, and all the time, and

PORTO RICO OF THE PRESENT 19

to his credit be it said, for our colonial policies are far from perfection, and we have much to learn.

One cannot blame the Porto Ricans if they chafe more or less under American rule; we have taken much from their lives, and while we have given a great deal in some ways, yet we leave much to be desired in others. Our sanitation, road building, schools, and other institutions are splendid and beyond all praise, but why should we insist on closing every shop and store on Sunday, thus depriving innumerable poor country people of their only means of revenue and recreation, when we allow moving picture shows, amusement resorts, and similar things to remain wide open for the amusement of the better classes? And yet this was actually attempted and carried out. Recently, however, the law has been more lenient, and now a great many shops, stores, and other business places are open on Sundays. It is indeed a difficult matter for the Anglo-Saxon to see things from the point of view of the Latin mind, and it is equally difficult for the Spanish-American to understand the Anglo-Saxon. We are new hands at the colonisation game, and our

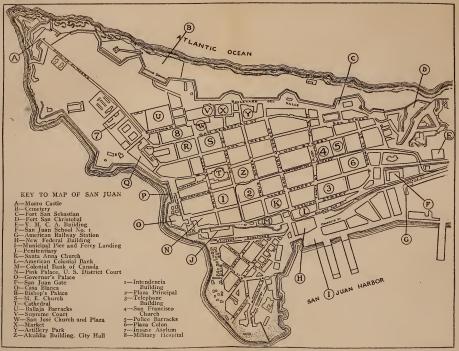
first efforts have been with a race radically distinct in every way from ourselves. Possibly, when we have had as much experience as England and other European powers, we will succeed better, at least let us hope so; but we should not be misled into thinking that any Latin will ever become Anglo-Saxon in ideas, thoughts, manners, or ideals. We might just as well expect to graft apples on a mango tree.

One's first impressions of a new country are apt to be erroneous, and the visitor arriving in Porto Rico is liable to think it the hottest and most expensive spot on earth. As a matter of fact, Porto Rico is not hot for the tropics, save in the large coastal towns in the middle of the day, and while many objects are high in price, compared to the other West Indian islands, yet in the shops and stores one may obtain everything that can be found in New York and at prices as low, or even lower, than in the United States.

Living expenses are high, it must be admitted, but salaries are also high, and in proportion to wages the necessities of life are no higher in price than in other West Indian towns. Too much dependence should not be placed upon the stories







MAP OF THE CITY OF SAN JUAN

PORTO RICO OF THE PRESENT 21

related by Americans living on the island. Many of these people are embittered, prejudiced, or dissatisfied, and see nothing good in Porto Rico, while others are so flagrantly American that they give one the impression of being constantly dressed in the American flag. To these everything and everybody not of their race, religion, or speech is unworthy of consideration and beneath their notice. Many other American residents are woefully ignorant of local conditions, food supplies, customs, and other island matters, and are content to pay outrageous prices for imported goods or the odds and ends of native produce peddled from door to door. Although the natural resources of the island have been greatly neglected, and there are vast opportunities for raising vegetables, chickens, eggs, cattle, and dairy products, yet any or all of these articles may be purchased at fairly reasonable prices at all times and there is no excuse for any one being deprived of fresh vegetables of all kinds, fruits, both tropical and temperate, fresh eggs, fowls, turkeys, beef, fish, cream, milk, and butter.

Those who visit distant lands in search of novelty, new customs, quaint manners, and pic-

turesque ways will find little of interest in Porto Rico. Those who would visit the tropics,—were it not for fear of discomfort, disease, or inconveniences,—will find in Porto Rico all the comforts and luxuries of the North, with the colour, warmth, and surroundings of the tropics, while those who love the tropics, regardless of surroundings, conditions, or accompaniments, will find the island most delightful, and last, but by no means least, the automobilist searching for new lands to tour will find in this lovely island undreamed of possibilities.

It is doubtful if anywhere in the world one can auto over better roads and among more delightful surroundings than in Porto Rico, and while machines are legion on the island and many Americans annually tour over its roads, yet comparatively few people realise what a perfect paradise for autoists lies almost at our doors.

There are various ways of "seeing" Porto Rico. One is to take passage on one of the Porto Rico Line ships, stop at the various ports and return on the same ship. Another method is to leave the ship at San Juan, ride across the island by auto and rejoin the ship at Ponce or

PORTO RICO OF THE PRESENT 23

some other port, and the last and best way of all is to take an automobile with you on the ship, tour the island from end to end, and when satiated with enjoyment, return, auto and all, to the North.

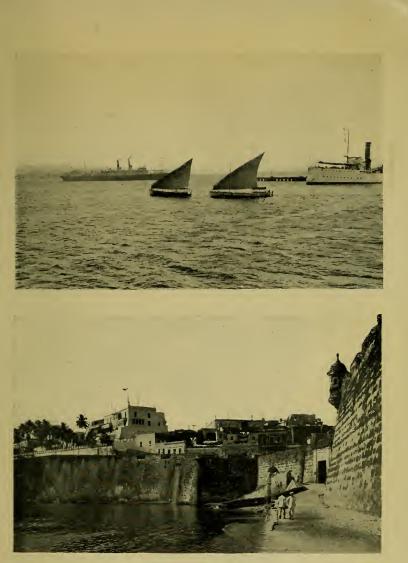
There is something incongruous in speeding over perfect roads amid tropical surroundings and between buildings hoary with the weight of four centuries, and huge motor trucks seem out of place as they lumber across old Spanish bridges or pass quaint native bull-carts, toiling slowly along the mountain roads. It is veritably a meeting of the old and new, for the roads were planned and built by the Spaniards centuries ago, and pass through towns and villages whose houses, plazas, and cathedrals have remained unaltered since the days of Columbus.

Certainly the old Spanish engineers were wonderful road builders, for the Americans have scarce done more than dress and repair the roads, and as we travel through the island and gradually climb the mountains and look back upon the white ribbon of road, winding in sinuous curves and loops, skirting the edges of precipices, and crossing deep ravines on picturesque bridges, we are

filled with wonder and admiration for the skill and labour that produced such marvels of engineering.

Although Porto Rico is practically 100 miles in length and 40 miles in width, yet nearly every acre is denuded of native forest growth. For this reason the scenery is far less attractive and is far more tiresome than that of many of the smaller and more densely wooded islands. On the other hand, the very absence of forests allows the visitor to obtain better view of the mountains, valleys, and plains, and at every turn one is greeted with new and beautiful vistas. Now a deep barranca, or ravine, yawns beneath the road, and we look down into its dim depths to groves of bananas, coffee, or fruit trees. Again we gaze out across range after range of steep, green hills or towering mountains, their summits draped in clouds and their sides cultivated and verdant with growing crops to their very crests. Here and there we pass through long avenues of flaming poinciana trees or amid great clumps of towering, feathery bamboo. Above us the hills sweep upward for hundreds of feet, their sides clothed in tropical shrubs, palms, and bushes, with great

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LATEEN BOATS, SAN JUAN HARBOR CASA BLANCA AND SAN JUAN GATE



PORTO RICO OF THE PRESENT 25

tree-ferns rearing their crowned heads above the other verdure. From time to time we pass quaint wayside fondas or country stores, simple wattled huts, sheds roofed with ancient Spanish tiles, and bare-footed natives and naked children lolling about the wayside. On every road the tourist will find new scenes, new sights, and new interests. The roads cover practically every portion of the island, and if you would really "see" Porto Rico, by all means ride over it in an auto, whether your own or a hired one matters little as far as sightseeing is concerned.

From a scenic point of view, Porto Rico is wonderful; its roads are perfect, its people quiet and peaceful, its climate superb, its health unequalled, but socially, politically, and economically it is an anomaly, as one observer aptly remarked, "It is neither fish, flesh, fowl, nor good red herring."

CHAPTER III

SAN JUAN AND ITS ENVIRONS

FORTUNATE is the visitor to Porto Rico who first sees our beautiful West Indian territory at daybreak, when land and sea are glorified with the gorgeous colouring of a tropic sunrise and the air is fresh and cool with the morning breeze.

Above the ultra-marine sea, that breaks in a line of silver foam upon the beach and rocks, rise the grim and frowning ancient walls of Morro. Beyond the gleaming white walls of Casa Blanca, half-hidden amid feathery palms and gorgeous flowers, and in the distance, dim, hazy, and purple against the sky the cloud-topped mountains and lofty hills of the interior. As the vessel slowly approaches and passes between the moss-grown walls of Morro and the crouching island-fort of Canuelo, the full beauty of the city of San Juan is revealed to view. From the busy water-front, with its large wharves and many vessels, rises the quaint old Spanish town, its many-tinted blue, pink, yellow, and green buildings, red roofs and narrow streets rising steeply from the sea to the summit of the hill, where the enormous fortress of San Christobel stands, massive and irresistible above the town it has guarded faithfully for nearly four centuries.

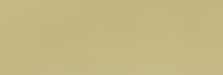
Here and there among the lower edifices rise three, four, or five-story buildings of recent construction, and speeding automobiles, clanging trolley cars, and gasoline launches give a touch of modernity to what otherwise might be a part of old Spain itself. Across the narrow harbour vivid green fields and graceful palms extend backward to the distant hills, their greenery broken by red-roofed houses, soft-tinted buildings, and quaint fishing villages. Upon the blue waters of the bay foreign-looking, lateen-sailed boats drift slowly in the light morning air, gasoline launches puff busily about, a miniature ferry boat churns its way across to Cataño, and a few moments later the big liner draws in to her dock, and you look upon a waiting crowd of swarthy, Southern faces and listen to a babel of soft Spanish as the gang-plank is lowered, and you set foot upon Porto Rican soil at last.

Passing from the wharf, we come upon a broad,

well-paved square, known as the "Marina"; before us a large four-story building of modern construction,-the telephone building,-to the left the magnificent new Federal building, and on our right the railway station, with its waiting coaches, snorting locomotives, and modern equipment. At the head of the Marina we enter a typical Porto Rican street (Calle San Justo), and passing between the ancient church of Santa Anna, built in the sixteenth century, and the American bank, built in the twentieth, we enter a busy, bustling thoroughfare. The street is smooth and well paved, scrupulously clean, and on every hand are shops and stores, packed with every article known to modern civilisation. Here and there we catch a glimpse of ancient arched corridors, of cool interior patios, and of dark, mysterious passages, while on every hand are the projecting balconies, the iron-barred windows, and the massive doors and shutters of old Spain. Continuing up this busy street, we reach a cross street, through which a trolley track runs, and turning to the left through this thoroughfare, known as "Calle San Francisco," we soon reach the Plaza Principal. The Plaza, with its broad stone or cement surface,



FORT SAN SEBASTIAN HAUNTED SENTRY BOX





its beautiful trees, and the imposing buildings on all sides, is the central part of the town, and as in every Spanish city, it is the favourite meeting place of the people, the promenade, and the scene of the bi-weekly band concerts. The central building on the north at once attracts attention, for from its lofty twin towers a chime of bells booms out the hour, as it has done since 1819. This is the City Hall, or "Alcaldia," built in 1799, and within its walls are quartered the City Council, the Mayor, and various municipal officials. Above the sidewalk is a broad arcade, supported by huge columns or pillars, and on either side are imposing stores, as well as the offices of the Porto Rico Association, the Bureau of Information, the City Club, etc. To the west is the handsome "Intendencia Building," wherein the various branches of the Insular Government are housed, while the post-office is on the northwest Along the southern edge of the Plaza corner. are numerous stores, mainly devoted to photographs, books, curios, needlework, and similar native industries and souvenirs, and along the curb stands a waiting row of dozens of automobiles ready to carry the visitor to any portion

of the island at a moment's notice. Here too are the offices of the Porto Rican Transportation Company, whose automobiles are seen on every hand, and in the up-to-date American store of Gillies and Woodward one may find English spoken and understood, may purchase the latest American magazines and papers, may buy the best of Porto Rican cigars and cigarettes, and may slake one's thirst with ice-cream sodas, sundaes, or delicious ice-cream made from fresh milk from a splendid dairy. Every visitor to Porto Rico should visit this south side of the Plaza Principal, for here are American stores, where pictures, books, curios, and photographs may be purchased, films may be developed, prints made, and every courtesy shown the stranger by the obliging proprietors.

But if we are to see San Juan before the heat of the day, we cannot loiter long at the Plaza. It is hot, glaring, and comparatively deserted in the daytime; but visit it on a Tuezday or Thursday evening and we will find it crowded with all classes of people, who pass and repass in a continual procession or sit about in hun-



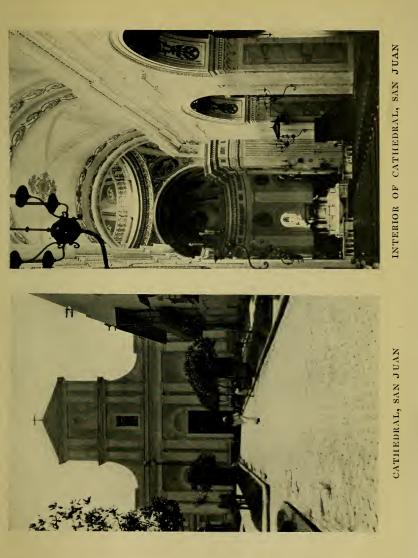
SAN JOSÉ CHURCH, SAN JUAN PLAZA PRINCIPAL AND INTENDENCIA BUILDING, SAN JUAN

dreds of rented rocking chairs and listen to the really fine music of the military or municipal bands.

There are so many interesting sights and so much of historical association to be seen in San Juan that it is really difficult to say just what should be visited first. Close to the plaza is the ancient Cathedral, which stands just behind the post-office, and from whose towers the bells have called forth day in and day out since 1549, and within whose shady interior rest the ashes of Ponce de Leon. Here also is a strange waxen image of a Roman soldier, known as the "Petrified Man," and about whose origin and history much romance and tradition has been woven. As a matter of fact the effigy contains the bones and a vial of blood from the catacombs of Rome. and which are venerated as those of Saint Pio. Almost opposite the Cathedral and on the further side of a small park or plaza is the Episcopal Church of St. John. Beyond this modern edifice the road leads us upward and to the right to a flight of stone steps, above which stands the Casa Blanca, or White House, popularly known as the residence of Ponce de Leon. It is a ques-

tion if the great discoverer of Florida ever occupied this palace, for some authorities contend that it was not erected until 1525, several years after the death of De Leon, and that the Ponce de Leon who occupied the Casa Blanca was one Juan Proche, who fell heir to all the rights and privileges of De Leon and assumed the latter's name.

Regardless of the truth or fallacy of traditions, Casa Blanca is well worth visiting, and is a splendid type of old Spanish architecture. It extends for some distance along the water-front, rising above the ancient city wall, which is thirty feet or more in thickness, and from its flower-filled grounds and broad galleries one may obtain a splendid view of the harbour and the pretty town. Looking southward from Casa Blanca, we see near at hand the steep descent leading to old San Juan gate, the only gateway still remaining intact in the city wall. The gate opens upon the former landing place, where all the shipping of older times could load and unload beneath the protecting guns of Santa Elena. Although the gate bears the date of 1749, yet the huge wooden doors are well preserved and swing readily upon





their pivot hinges, while the portals are studded with enormous brass-headed nails.

Beyond this gate rises the imposing residence of the Governor, known as the Palace of Santa Catalina, or the "Fortaleza," from the fact that the older part of the building was originally constructed for a fort. It was the first fort erected in San Juan and was commenced in 1533. The palace is impressive, massive, and ancient, with a patio, beautiful gardens, and great vaults that formerly served as temporary hiding-places for treasure en route from the new world to Spain.

Turning to the north, we cannot fail to be attracted by the grandeur and immensity of the soft-toned, moss-grown walls of old Morro and the great wall that crowns the heights and stretches along above the city to Fort San Christobal, an enormous pile of solid masonry and a magnificent example of old Spanish fortification work. In former times the defensive wall about the city extended from San Christobal across San Juan island to the harbour, with a large gate, known as "Puerta Tierra," or Land Gate, from which the suburb of Puerta de Tierra has received its name. To-day only remnants of this old wall

remain, but it may be traced here and there among the modern buildings, and some very interesting examples of embrasured walls, sentry boxes, and even the old moat may be seen near San Antonio bridge and San Geronimo. San Christobal itself is really a combination of three forts, known as Christobal, Escambron, and Princesa. The massiveness of its exterior is heightened when the internal construction is inspected. Its dungeons, passages, and moats are truly wonderful, and the various portions are connected by arched passages or tunnels, some of which in former times led to the various forts about the city, and even to the country outside the walls of the town. Unfortunately much of the old work has been sacrificed to make way for modern progress, and many of the old passages have been allowed to cave in or have been filled up. Here in San Juan we have a relic of early European civilisation in America, which is almost unrivalled, and yet our Government has taken practically no steps to preserve it. The massive and wonderful San Juan gate is defaced with posters and advertisements of soaps and patent medicines, miserable huts are built against and about the ancient walls, and moats

SAN JUAN AND ITS ENVIRONS 35

and sentry boxes and other relics are crumbling away and overgrown with weeds.

There is scarcely a visitor to San Juan who does not see numerous photographs of the socalled "Haunted Sentry Box," and the original may be seen on the seaward wall of San Christobal. According to tradition the Evil One was accustomed to visit this spot and carry away the guard on duty, leaving no hint of his presence, save an odour of brimstone. In time the soldiers became so superstitiously afraid of this post that the military authorities were compelled to wall up the box. Regardless of the true origin of this tale relating to the spot, the sentry box itself certainly looks spectral and forsaken enough to invite supernatural visits and occurrences.

Not far distant from San Christobal is the new market, a large open square filled with roofed booths or stalls, on which all the native fruits, vegetables, and other products of the island are displayed. One should visit the market on Saturday to see it at its best, and if possible the inspection should be made in the early morning. At such a time the market will be filled with a

light-hearted, chattering, gesticulating crowd, while every imaginable tropical and many temperate vegetables and fruits will be heaped upon the booths. Lettuce, radishes, cabbage, potatoes, egg-plants, chards, corn, sweet potatoes, and other familiar garden truck will be seen side by side with taro, plantains, yams, bread-fruit, palm-cabbage, and other odd vegetables, while bananas of a score of varieties, oranges, grape-fruit, pines, limes, custard-apples, nisperos, paw-paws, melons, mangoes, and innumerable other new fruits tempt the visitor to buy and taste.

Around the open market is an arcade of stores or stalls, wherein are displayed meat, fish, wearing apparel, etc., which are sold to the country people. The market is clean, orderly, and well conducted, and is a vast improvement over the ordinary openair markets found in most West Indian towns. To the northwest of the market and close to the sea is the "Pantheon," or cemetery. Here we may see the wall filled with niches, each large enough to contain a coffin, which the family of the deceased may rent for a period of five years or more. As long as the rent is paid the corpse is allowed to occupy its resting-place in peace, but if



PLAZA OF THE LIONS, SAN JUAN BEACH AT BORINQUEN PARK

SAN JUAN AND ITS ENVIRONS 37

in arrears it is unceremoniously thrown into a pit or trench with scores of others. In the old Spanish days the skeletons of such unfortunates could be seen in a great confused mass of bones, and prowling dogs often carried the bones hither and thither, while the stench at night was terrible. Nowadays the bones are covered with earth and disinfectants, and are hidden from public view. Between the cemetery and Casa Blanca stands the enormous Infantry Barracks, known as the "Ballaja Barracks," which were built in 1860, and are so large that 2,000 troops may easily be housed within the buildings. The barracks are built in the form of a rectangle around an open central patio, which is large enough for a parade and drilling ground, the whole being one of the largest barrack buildings owned by the American Government. Turning eastward from the barracks and passing through Beneficia Street, we reach the Plaza of San Jose and the ancient church of the same name. In the centre of this Plaza stands a magnificent statue of Ponce de Leon, made from cannon which were captured from the British invaders in the attack of 1797. Within the church the remains of Ponce de Leon reposed from 1559

until 1863. Adjoining this church is the Supreme Court, which occupies a building formerly used as a Franciscan monastery, and in the spacious patio may still be seen the convent wells, from which the old padres drew their water. Proceeding still further eastward along one of the many well-paved, clean streets, such as Sol St. Luna Street, San Sebastian Street, or Allen Street, we reach the eastern end of the town and before us see San Christobal frowning down upon the city. To the right and beneath the shadow of the mighty fort, is a broad, open field or parade ground, with the splendid building of the Y. M. C. A. standing imposingly at its edge. The Casino of Porto Rico is near at hand, and the Municipal Theatre is on the further side of the pretty square known as the Plaza Colon, in the centre of which stands a beautiful statue of Columbus. Most of the buildings in this section are modern and strictly up-to-date, and contrast strikingly with the old forts and walls so near at Retracing our steps westward through hand. Tetuan Street, we will be able to view at close quarters many fine new buildings, and the sixstory "skyscrapers" of San Juan. Prominent





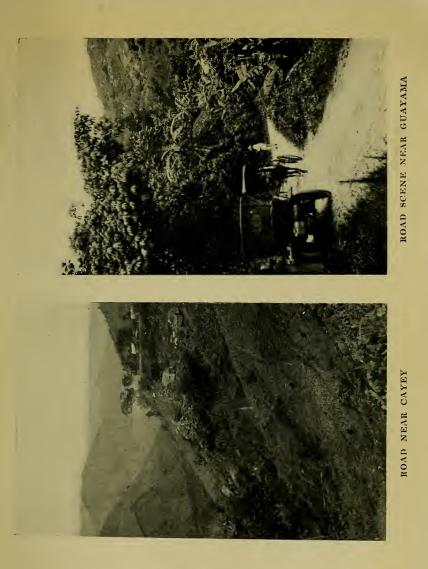
A "PUSHING BUSINESS" THE PASSING OF THE OLD AND NEW

SAN JUAN AND ITS ENVIRONS

among these are the American Bank, the Royal Bank of Canada, the Railway Station, the Telephone Building, and many commodious, modern stores. A sharp contrast between the old and the new is afforded at every turn in San Juan. Narrow, winding, steep lanes, scarce ten feet in width, descend sharply between smooth asphalt streets, while trolley cars clang through the narrow streets between buildings that seem transplanted from some old Moorish city. If we turn to the right at the corner by the Telephone Building and proceed up Tanca Street, we will reach the charming little Plaza of San Francisco, where the road ends, and on the further side of the Plaza is continued in a flight of stone steps to Luna Street. At the head of this flight of stairs is an excellent, modern restaurant, and close at hand is the old Church of San Francisco, the Police Headquarters, and the Central Grammar School, as well as many fine, modern stores. From here it is but a few steps up Luna Street to the Plaza Principal and the Cathedral, and on our way we should not fail to turn aside and pass through the broad arcade of Gonzalez Padin. This arched-roof street passes through the building

39

from Luna to Francisco Street, and is in reality a hall in the Padin stores, which occupy the block and are equal to many of our large department stores. The large plate-glass windows of the stores in this section are filled with an attractive display of the latest Parisian, Spanish, and American wearing apparel, musical instruments, furniture, kitchen utensils, curios, and every article known to American stores. Before leaving San Juan for a trip elsewhere we should not fail to make a short visit to the jail, or prison, in the southwestern part of the town, below the Governor's Palace. This large, airy building rests against the lofty, ancient, city walls, and is surrounded by beautiful flower gardens and welltended grounds, shaded by flowering shrubs, trees, and palms. The guards and prison-keeper are courteous and obliging, and will gladly show the visitor over the prison. Here the prisoners enjoy far greater liberty and better treatment than in our Northern prisons or jails. The whole building is spotlessly clean and neat, the hospital is large, airy, and thoroughly well equipped, and nowhere is there an appearance or the depressing effect of being behind barred windows and bolted



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SAN JUAN AND ITS ENVIRONS 41

-doors or of small solitary cells or unnecessary rigour. The prisoners are kept busy, the trusties being sent out to work on the roads, and the others being employed in the tailor and shoe shops, kitchens, bakery, etc. The women prisoners do the laundry work; a large exercise ground is provided, and the boys and young men and women are given instruction in a well-equipped school. The prisoners live and sleep in large, airy barracks and are allowed to converse freely until nine P.M. Each convict is provided with a folding bench, blankets, and bedding, which is kept neatly folded and rolled during the day. Many of the prisoners employ their time in making drawn-work, embroidery, baskets, and other souvenirs, which they sell to visitors for their own profit, while those at work outside are paid a small sum for their labour. They are well fed, are happy, contented, and healthy, and stand at attention at the entrance of a guard seemingly quite as proud of their discipline and condition as the officials themselves. In fact, many of the inmates are far better off in jail than in their own homes, and they show no disposition to escape, even when allowed a great deal of liberty on outside work.

It is not unusual to find a party of convicts returning from work and one of them carrying the gun for their guard, while now and then a prisoner is dispatched on a message for a considerable distance without guards of any sort.

CHAPTER IV

ACROSS THE ISLAND BY THE MILITARY ROAD

ALTHOUGH San Juan is the capital and largest city and is the first port of call for steamers from the North, yet it is by no means the most attractive or interesting place to see. There is only one road leading from San Juan to the interior, but a ferry boat runs across the bay to Cataño, and from there a road extends along the northern shore of the island. The road par excellence, however, the main artery to the interior, and the highway of greatest interest is the "Carretera," or Military Road, that runs from San Juan to Ponce across the centre of the island. Leaving San Juan, the Y. M. C. A. building is passed and a broad, smooth, asphalt pavement leads westward from the city. Close to the town the road branches, the upper paved road being devoted to carts and teams, while the lower asphalted road is reserved for the use of automobiles. A short distance up this road we pass a beautiful, semi-circular court and fountain, known

43

as the "Plaza of the Lions," and a short distance beyond enter the suburb of Puerta de Tierra,the slums of San Juan, inhabited mainly by the poorer classes, and wherein are situated the San Antonio docks, the American and Porto Rican Tobacco Company's factory, and other industries. Here too are the lofty towers of the wireless station, from which messages are flashed to New York and other far distant parts of the world. Along this broad, smooth highway passes a neverending, motly, interesting procession, reminding one of the highroad described by Kipling in "Kim." Great lumbering bull-carts, galloping ponies, pannier-laden horses and donkeys, army wagons drawn by six sturdy mules and driven by grim flannel-shirted soldiers, puffing auto trucks, swift, honking touring cars, whirring motor cycles, and luxurious Victorias pass and repass, while afoot trudge natives of every colour, class, and trade. Black, buxom negresses, with bundles on their heads, swarthy, lean-limbed Porto Ricans, barefooted but proud of their Spanish lineage, vendors of fruit, bread, vegetables, eggs, milk, and what not; some carrying trays upon their heads or shoulders, others pushing barrows, others with

VIEW OF AIBONITO STREET IN AIBONITO



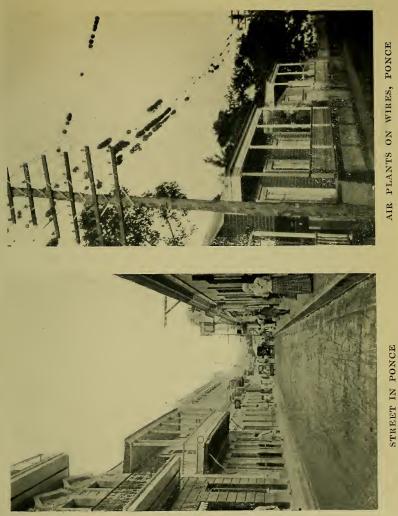


baskets on their arms, and still others with quaint wheeled stores, from which are sold drinks, icecream, or sweets. Now and then a squad of sunbrowned, seasoned troops swing down the road, their kahki suits, army hats, and gleaming arms very business-like and savouring of war, or perchance one meets a file of white-clothed convicts armed with pick and shovels on the their way to or from their work. White, black, brown, yellow, or olive; men, women, boys, and girls,-a thousand types, a score of races, and a myriad of native trades and occupations may be seen on this one great artery that leads from the modernised capital into the great, old-fashioned interior; from the busy, rich, and prosperous centre to the lonely, poverty-stricken mountain villages; from the palpitating heat of paved streets and close-packed buildings to the clear, free air and cooling breezes of verdure-clad hills and damp, luxuriant valleys of the mountains.

Crossing the San Antonio bridge, which connects the island of San Juan with Santurce, we enter the charming residential district of Miramar with the Union Club, the Miramar Theatre, the ornate American hotels, and many fine resi-

dences, embowered amid cocoa palms, flowers, and tropical vegetation. To the left a blue-watered bay is separated from the sea beyond by a long point of land with an ancient fort,—San Geronimo,—at its outer extremity, where, in the ruined fortifications, a neat, modern dwelling has been erected. Across this calm lagoon the Hermanos bridge leads by another route close to the shore to the Candado district, where the most exclusive of American and Porto Rican officials and business men have their homes.

Through Santurce and Miramar the highway leads on to Rio Piedras, passing many fine dwellings, the Girls' and the Boys' Charity Schools, several fine public schools, numerous stores, a number of churches, and many beautiful private grounds. A short distance beyond Santurce the Borinquen Park road is reached, and a visit to this favourite resort is well worth while. Borinquen Park is the recreation ground for San Juan and its neighbourhood, and consists of an extensive cocoanut grove situated on a lovely white sand bathing beach, with broad cement promenades, shady benches, a moving picture theatre, restaurant, ice-cream parlours, merry-go-rounds,

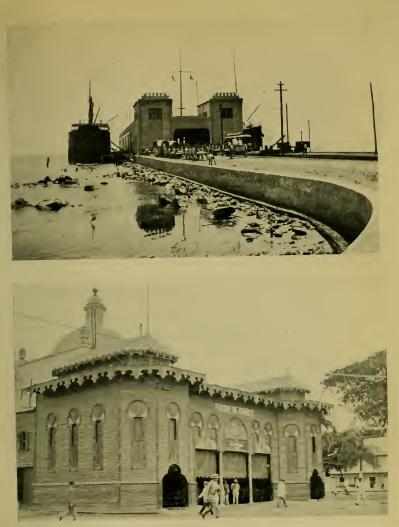


and all the other appurtenances of a miniature Coney Island, and always cooled by the sweeping trade winds blowing from the wide, blue sea, and rustling the feathery palm fronds in a soothing lullaby.

Resuming our trip along the Military Road, we soon reach Rio Piedras, a neat little town of some nineteen thousand inhabitants, about seven miles from San Juan. The American railway passes through the town, and the trolley line from San Juan terminates here. The place was founded in 1714, and is devoted mainly to raising sugar cane, cattle, and pineapples. At Rio Piedras is the reservoir which furnishes the water for San Juan, and several lime and brick factories are in the neighbourhood. Here also is the Insular Normal School, the University of Porto Rico, an attractive old church on the little plaza, a Capuchin monastery, and a very beautiful park, which was formerly the summer palace of the Spanish Governor.

At Rio Piedras a second road branches off[•] to Carolina, Fajardo, and the southeast and eventually winds its way along the southern coast to Ponce; but the road is not of the best, it is of

little interest, and the main Military Road is far more advisable. Leaving Rio Piedras behind, the road lies across a level plain, while south and east and in plain view the foothills rise in broken spurs and conical eminences, gradually growing higher and rougher to the towering mountains of the Luquilla range, with their cloud-topped summits purple and hazy in the distance. Presently the road commences the ascent of the hills by winding curves and easy grades, the roadway always smooth, well kept, and in many places with an asphalt surface, and mounting higher and higher so gradually that one scarce realises that there is any ascent at all. Here and there we pass through clumps of feathery bamboo, palms shade the highway, glimpses are had of deep valleys or green hillsides, and the visitor who has not before seen the island is charmed by the view and exclaims at the lovely vistas. Each moment new and more beautiful scenery is brought into view, until finally an ancient Spanish bridge is crossed, the tropical vegetation becomes richer and more varied, and mountains and hills rise on every hand. Presently, crossing the last ascent and looking ahead, the magnificent Caguas valley



NEW DOCK, PONCE FIRE DEPARTMENT BUILDING, PONCE

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ACROSS THE ISLAND

is seen, with the little red-roofed town nestling in a broad green expanse between the surrounding hills, and with the Turabo and Caguas rivers winding like great silver ribbons across the circular valley.

Caguas is a thriving tobacco-growing town of about twenty-seven thousand inhabitants, and is distant about twenty-five miles from San Juan. On all sides may be seen broad fields of tobacco, with the great, thatched drying-sheds standing in their midst, and during growing time the ground appears as if covered with snow, owing to the immense areas of cheesecloth stretched above the fields. Under this protection the tobacco leaves grow large, fair, and delicate, and are highly valued for wrappers. There are several large tobacco warehouses and packing houses at Caguas, and a visit to these will prove most interesting. In these great buildings one may see hundreds of tons of tobacco of all grades and in all stages of preparation. Few people realise the amount of time, labour, and skill necessary to prepare tobacco for the market. Machinery has yet to be devised which will perform the work of sorting, curing, bundling, tying,

and baling tobacco, and each and every individual leaf must be handled over and over again from the time it is cut from the plant until it is ready for manufacture into cigars. Most of this work is done by native men, women, and children, who become wonderfully skilful and rapid in the work.

Caguas has wide, fairly well-kept streets, two hotels, several restaurants, numerous stores, a pretty plaza, and a picturesque church. One of the finest of the island schools is here, and in addition there are 14 graded and 11 rural schools, a good library, a hospital, a splendid water system, and electric lights. A telephone system connects the town with the rest of the island, a railway connects it with Rio Piedras, and in every way the people are provided with modern appliances, improvements, and conveniences.

Beyond Caguas the road passes for some distance across the fairly level valley, the roadway bordered by glorious scarlet-flowered flambou or poinciana trees that form an arch of living fire across the highway. Gradually it commences to rise towards the mountains that loom ahead, and presently we are winding in serpentine curves



PLAZA AND CATHEDRAL, PONCE PONCE MARKET •

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round and round the towering mountainside. In a few moments we have risen far above the valley and look down upon sparkling rivers, broad green fields, verdure-filled valleys, and sweeping hillsides far beneath us. Steadily the road climbs upward, spanning deep barrancas on ancient Spanish bridges, curving along the very brinks of precipices, rounding jutting mountainsides and frowning cliffs, a very marvel of engineering skill . and an everlasting monument to the enduring and thorough work of the old Spanish engineers. Although the grade is nowhere steep, yet the ascent of the mountain is so sharp that within a distance of some fifteen miles the traveller attains a height of over two thousand feet, and on the descent one's ears ring and hum with the rapid change of atmospheric pressure. Here and there along the road we see beautiful tree-ferns, symbols of high tropic altitudes, while tropical vegetation of innumerable forms, air-plants, orchids, trailing ferns, and gorgeous flowers greet the tourist at every turn. Reaching the summit of the divide, the road leads us rapidly down to the smiling emerald valley, wherein nestles the little red-roofed town of Cayey, with the large military barracks promi-

nent on a low hilltop in the foreground. Just before the town is reached we see a road which branches off to the south towards Guayama, and passing this, we enter the narrow streets of Cavey. The town was founded in 1774, and has a population of about seventeen thousand, and . is at an elevation of about thirteen hundred feet above the sea. The town is cool, healthy, and clean, and is devoted mainly to tobacco and coffee growing. There is a fairly good native hotel, numerous cafes, a hospital, numerous churches, 12 graded and 12 rural schools in the town, but it is of little interest to travellers. Leaving the narrow and rough streets of the place behind, we soon commence a second ascent of a mountain range even loftier than the one we have passed. At each turn and twist we marvel at the amount of labour required to construct the road, and exclaim in admiration at the glorious panorama unfolded to our view. Hugging precipitous mountainsides, skirting bold cliffs and precipices, stretching across narrow "hogbacks," but ever climbing upward, the road extends until an altitude of some two thousand feet is reached and we look down upon Aibonito,



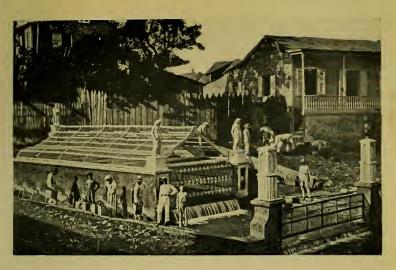
SCENE ON ARECIBO ROAD ARECIBO PLAZA



sleeping on a green and rolling table-land and girt around with lofty mountains. Aibonito is itself nearly two thousand feet above the sea, and is cool and healthy. The population is about ten thousand, and its principal industry is tobacco and coffee cultivation. There is an excellent water supply, two churches, a hospital, a hotel, three mission schools, nine graded schools, and eight rural schools in the town, but otherwise it is of little real interest. From Aibonito the road again ascends a mountain through groves of coffee, tropical vegetation, and wooded ravines and, reaching the summit of the range, 3,300 feet above the sea, we look forth upon a scene of wonderful magnificence, impossible to describe. On every hand stretch vast, rich valleys, lofty mountains, and green hills. Deep within the cool ravines we catch glimpses of running water; here and there tiny thatched huts peep from the bowers of banana and palm trees or perch on the very brinks of precipices, and looking towards the south, we catch a glimpse of sparkling blue,the shimmering surface of the Caribbean sea. From this lofty aerie the road dips sharply down in wonderful, sinuous curves and sharp turns, and

within six miles we drop to Coamo, a mere 500 feet above sea level. Coamo has 17,000 inhabitants, was founded in 1606, is provided with a hospital, graded and rural schools, a splendid water supply, and produces coffee, sugar, fruits, and vegetables. A few miles from the town are the famed Coamo Springs whose waters are noted for their medicinal properties. Here there is a well-equipped sanitarium, a splendid hotel, and baths, which are the mecca of many visitors afflicted with rheumatic or other ailments.

The descent from the high mountain tops of the central range to the lower lands of the south is marked by great changes in vegetation, and as we speed southward towards Ponce we find that moss, ferns, and other odd forms of growth have disappeared and we are passing through a scene which might be in our own New England states, and which reminds us of a road through the Berkshires or the Litchfield hills. Thick, bushy trees have taken the place of tree-ferns, palms and bamboo are seldom seen, broad spreading trees shade the road and valleys, meadows and hillsides are covered with a growth of waving green grass amid which sleek cattle and quiet ponies graze





COLUMBUS SPRING, AGUADILLA SAN GERMAN CHURCH



in peace. Soon the little town of Juana Diaz is passed and a little later the road winds and curves through an arch of poinciana trees across the level coastal plain and leads us to the outlying streets of Ponce.

CHAPTER V

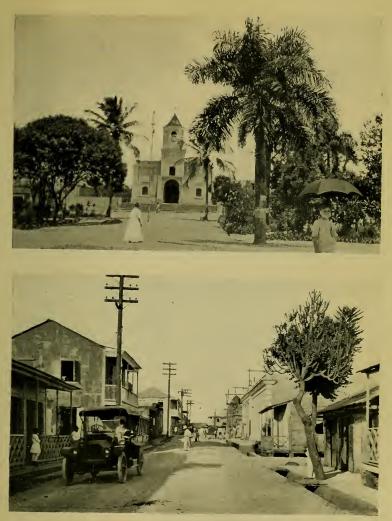
PONCE AND THE WESTERN COAST

THE city of Ponce is very different in climate, situation, appearance, and character from San Juan, or in fact any of the other Porto Rican towns. Whereas San Juan is hilly and the buildings are mainly of two or more stories, Ponce is flat as a table and the majority of the buildings are but one story in height. It is far more Spanish in character than the capital and in many ways is more attractive. The streets are fairly wide, but they are not so well kept as in San Juan; the buildings are more generally of Spanish architecture, the town is more regularly laid out, and the people are, on the whole, more sociable, hospitable, and less Americanised than in San Juan. On the other hand, English is more generally spoken in Ponce stores than in those of San Juan, prices are lower for most goods, and more people are to be seen upon the streets during business The town is far hotter than San Juan hours. and the nights are scarcely cooler than the days,

although the sea breezes prevail throughout the greater portion of the year. Ponce is one of the foremost cities on the island, both industriously and commercially, and is the shipping port for the main coffee-growing districts as well as for a large proportion of the sugar produced on the island. The casual visitor sees little of Ponce's commerce, for the docks, or "muelle," and the "playa," or shore front, are some distance from the centre of the town, whereas at San Juan they are close to the main business section of the city and consequently much in evidence. The playa is a busy place, and a constant stream of drays, trucks, and bull-carts pass and repass through the rough streets leading to the water-front. At some distance from the shore proper, and reached by a long causeway, is the new dock, or "muelle," a large and commodious wharf and building reached by a drive, or by trolley cars from the city. The inevitable plaza forms the central feature of the city, and here, among spreading shade trees is an ornamental kiosk,-in which the bands play on certain evenings,-the local fire department building, and the imposing Cathedral, over two hundred feet in depth and 120 feet in height.

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Ponce is well supplied with educational institutions, with 61 graded schools, a kindergarten, and a large high school in the city and eight graded schools in the playa suburb, while in the immediate district are 37 rural schools. There are numerous hotels, the Melia, Inglaterra, and Frances being the best, with the Frances ranking first in point of comfort, food, and price. Public institutions are also numerous, and include an asylum for the blind, a women's hospital, a general hospital, St. Luke's hospital, and an insane asylum. The La Perla Theatre is probably the largest and best on the island, while the "Cine" or moving-picture theatre, known as "Las Delicias," is airy, neat, and pleasantly situated close to the Plaza. There are numbers of fine residences, many large stores and restaurants, a splendid roofed market, a Casino, several clubs, baseball grounds, and the Hippodrome, where horse races are held. The population of the municipal district of Ponce is about sixty-three thousand and the town itself spreads over a wide area and gives the impression of a much larger city than San Juan. The town is provided with a good water system, electric lights, telephones,



CAGUAS PLAZA STREET IN CAROLINA

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an ice factory, a sanitary milk company, and is the terminus of the American railway. Several prosperous shops and factories are located in the city and numerous industries are carried on, mainly the manufacture of carriages, cigars, cigarettes, rum, soda-water, hats, laces, and drawnwork. The inhabitants are very fond of plants and flowers, and scarce a patio, balcony, or garden can be found which is not gorgeous with tropical flowers, blooming shrubs, vines, palms, etc. The climate is very conducive to vegetable growth and the visitor is usually filled with wonder at seeing the telegraph and telephone wires everywhere covered with a luxuriant growth of orchidlike air plants which grow in bunches everywhere and make the wires appear as if decorated with innumerable bird's nests.

As a place of residence Ponce is inferior to San Juan or the interior towns, but it has an atmosphere and attractiveness of its own and appears far more like a South or Central American town than any other city on the island. From Ponce the traveller may visit many other cities by train or auto, and among the places worth visiting may be mentioned Arecibo, Mayaguez, Aguadilla, etc.

The road to Arecibo is wonderfully interesting and attractive, and passes through some of the most rugged and picturesque country on the island. Some twelve miles from Ponce the road enters Adjuntas, a little hill town of about sixteen thousand inhabitants and situated at an elevation of 1,700 feet above the sea in the very midst of the coffee-growing districts. The town is built in a small valley surrounded by hills and mountains, the highest of which, "El Novillo," rises to 3,000 feet above the sea. The scenery about Adjuntas is charming, and from some of the nearby mountain tops one may gaze upon the Atlantic to the north and the Caribbean to the south by merely turning about. The climate is cool, there is an excellent water system, a picturesque plaza, and the town contains seven graded and 15 rural schools. From Adjuntas the road climbs steadily upward to Utuado, rising at one place to a height of nearly thirty-three hundred feet. Utuado has 30,000 inhabitants and was founded in 1739, and is devoted principally to raising coffee, cane, etc. The town is lighted by electricity, there is a splendid water supply, a hospital, and public library, while 51

schools provide educational accommodations for the district. In the vicinity of the town are many caves in which various Indian relics have been found and much light may be thrown upon the aboriginal inhabitants by a scientific exploration of these caverns. In the vicinity of Utuado the mountain scenery is very rugged and many bare and naked peaks of rocks may be seen projecting above the green verdure of the hillsides, while dashing mountain streams foam in roaring cascades among the deep tropical vegetation of the ravines. Beyond Utuado the road descends towards the northern coast and at last leads to Arecibo, a flourishing town and a very important port, and one of the most typically Spanish cities on the island. The town has a population of about forty-two thousand and was founded in 1616. Fruit, cane, coffee, and other crops are grown in the neighbourhood, and many large swamps have been drained and reclaimed to form rich cane fields. Arecibo is connected with San Juan and other towns by railway, and although a shipping port, it has no real harbour,-the anchorage being merely an open roadstead. There are 28 graded and 36 rural schools within

the municipality, and the town is well provided with modern improvements, well-stocked stores, fairly good hotels, etc. From Arecibo the road may be taken west to Aguadilla, made famous as the port at which Columbus obtained water for his ships, and while the scenery is uninteresting, the land flat, and the road not over good, yet a visit to Aguadilla is well worth while. The city has a population of some twenty thousand inhabitants and the climate is delightful; the ocean breezes giving relief from the heat of the day and making the nights deliciously cool. The people of Aguadilla are very proud of their city, and an ornamental fountain and stone basin mark the spot where the great discoverer landed, and the same spring, "Ojo de Agua," from which he obtained water for his caravels, is still used as a source of water supply by the people. Aguadilla is situated in a densely populated district and the inhabitants show a most commendable tendency to learn modern ideas and to improve their condition, and the numerous schools of the district are wonderfully well patronised. The principal industries are coffee, sugar, fruit-growing, and cigar-making, but excellent hats are also





TOBACCO UNDER SHADE, CAYEY COMERIO FALLS

made in the neighbourhood. The town is connected by railway with San Juan and other towns, is equipped with electric light, has modern improvements, and is neat, clean, and sanitary.

From Aguadilla to Aguada one may travel by road, but the country is not particularly interesting, and as the road from Aguada to Mayaguez is bad, it is preferable to make the trip around the western coast by train or else to travel to Mayaguez from Ponce by auto. Aguada is interesting historically, as it was founded by Sotomayor, one of Ponce de Leon's officers. The original town was destroyed by Indians and the ruins may still be seen. The present town has a population of about twelve thousand people, most of whom are engaged in cultivating sugar cane and coffee and manufacturing hats. A large sugar mill, "El Coloso," also employs a great number of the inhabitants in the vicinity. There is some question as whether Aguada or Aguadilla was the spot at which Columbus first landed to obtain water; the people of both towns claiming the honour of having the original spring, and both towns are named in commemoration of the landing.

Rincon, a thriving little town of nearly eight

thousand inhabitants, lies further to the south at the extreme western end of the island, in the sugar district, and is supported mainly by the neighbouring "Central Corsica." Still further to the south and about three miles from the coast is the thriving city of Añasco, founded in 1773, and with a population of about fifteen hundred. This town is mainly of interest on account of the Añasco River, in which, according to tradition, the Indians drowned the Spaniard Salcedo in order to ascertain the truth of the Spaniards' claim to immortality.

From Añasco an excellent road runs to Mayaguez, which was founded in 1763 and was named in honour of Our Lady of Canolemas of Mayaguez. The town has a population of some fortythree thousand inhabitants and is one of the most attractive and important cities on the island. The harbour is large and deep and affords a safe anchorage for large vessels. It is an important shipping port for the adjoining country and has two lines of railway connecting it with the rich agricultural districts; a street railway, and good highways to Añasco and Ponce. The three principal plazas, known as Columbus Square, Flower

Square, and the Old Plaza, are all well worth a visit, and the numerous public buildings and fine residences add to the attractiveness of the town. The most noteworthy buildings are the City Hall, the San Antonio Hospital, the court houses, public market, and United States Experiment Station. The latter institution is very important and while a great deal of work of value is carried on, yet much more might be accomplished. As it is, many planters and officials of the island are almost totally ignorant of the work done and have received no help in their agricultural troubles. Publicity is sadly lacking in regard to all matters pertaining to Porto Rico, and in no line of activity is it more needed than in matters relating to agriculture and the researches and results of investigations carried on by our Agricultural Department and the Insular Experiment Station.

Continuing southward along the western railway, or over the highway, we reach the quaint and ancient city of San German, founded in 1512, and named by no less a personage than Diego Columbus, son of the famous discoverer. Historically the town is full of interest, for it has been attacked and destroyed by pirates, Indians, and

other enemies, and each time it has been rebuilt in a new spot, so that the town has been moved hither and thither along the southern shore of the island. The first destruction of the town by Europeans took place in 1528, when it was attacked by the French; but it was soon rebuilt, and in 1748 was attacked by the English, who landed at Guanica, but were finally repulsed and forced to retreat by sea. A very ancient church, the Convento de Porta Coeli, built in 1538, stands in the present town, and numerous other buildings date back to the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The town is beautifully situated among the hills overlooking the rich valley of the Guanajibo River, and from its location it is known locally as the "City of the Hills." To north and south there are ranges of mountains which divert the trade winds and cause them to blow across the town and its valley, thus tempering the heat and making the climate really delightful; facts which were recognised by the Spaniards, who built large barracks in the town and in which newly arrived troops from Spain and other places were acclimated.

The lowlands in the vicinity are mainly culti-

vated for sugar cane, while coffee and fruit are grown on the surrounding hillsides. Since the completion of the main line of the railway the commercial and agricultural interests have increased very rapidly, and the town has been rapidly improved and built up. At the present time it has a population of about twenty-two thousand, with two banks, eight wholesale business houses, and many retail stores, as well as a theatre, four hotels, a charity hospital, many churches, a good city hall, a municipal market, the military barracks, numerous schools, and a library.

The next town of importance is Sabana Grande, about eight miles from the southern coast in a rich tobacco, coffee, and sugar district, and on a branch line of the railway. The town has about twelve thousand inhabitants and is one of the most healthy spots in Porto Rico.

Beyond Sabana Grande is the town of Yauco, with a population of nearly thirty-two thousand, and on the line of the American railway and the Ponce-Mayaguez highway. The town was founded in 1756 and depends upon sugar cane and coffee for its prosperity. About one-sixth of the total area of the district is devoted to coffee, while the

lowlands are planted with sugar cane. Most of the cane grown in the neighbourhood is ground in the mill known as the "Guanica Central," one of the most important and modern mills on the island and from which the sugar is shipped through the nearby port of Guanica. Guanica, which is some eight miles from Yauco, is famous as the landing place of the American troops under General Miles, who invaded Porto Rico on July 25, 1898. In addition to sugar and tobacco, the district also produces fruit, cabinet woods, fibres, and other products. There are 39 public schools in the municipality, while in the town there is a new hospital, several fine churches, a Masonic Temple, an electric light and power plant, and many notable public and private buildings.

Guayanilla, said to be the most progressive small town on the island, is a few miles to the east of Yauco, and is mainly of importance on account of its commodious harbour, which affords a safe and almost landlocked refuge for small vessels. Leaving Guayanilla and proceeding easterly, we pass through Penuelas, and soon afterwards enter Ponce and complete our circuit of the western end of the island.



SCENE ON THE SOUTH SHORE SALT PLAINS AND CACTI, SOUTHERN COAST

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CHAPTER VI

THE EASTERN AND SOUTHERN COASTS

ALTHOUGH the greater portion of Porto Rico is hilly or mountainous and the scenery is very similar throughout the interior, yet on the eastern and southern coasts the landscapes are very different from other parts of the island, and these sections are well worth visiting. Unfortunately the roads on the east and south are not nearly as good as on the interior or on the north, but in dry weather there is no difficulty in traversing them in an automobile, although many rivers must be forded. In wet weather, or after heavy rains, some of these fords are almost impassable, and any one desiring to make a trip along the eastern and southern coasts should select a dry spell for their tour. From San Juan one may tour easily over excellent roads to Carolina, a neat little town of some sixteen thousand people, situated in a rich sugar-producing district. Beyond Carolina the road is fair to Loiza, a quaint little town which was originally situated on the coast near

the mouth of the Loiza River, where it remained until January, 1910, when it was removed to the Beyond Loiza the road passes present site. through Rio Grande, a town of some fourteen thousand inhabitants, nestling in a valley with the towering Luquillo range of mountains behind it. From Rio Grande the road improves, and by the time Fajardo is reached the highway is excellent. Fajardo, situated at the extreme eastern end of the island, is a town of 22,000 inhabitants, and with the Luquillo River on one side and the Fajardo on the other. It is one of the wealthiest sugar districts of Porto Rico and has many nice buildings, numerous stores, and a large number of graded and rural schools.

The country on this eastern coastal plain is low, flat, and very monotonous, but the panorama of the great interior mountains is entrancing, with the tallest peak, El Yunque, towering over all, while to the left one catches glimpses of the shimmering Caribbean Sea gleaming through vistas of feathery palms or breaking in silver foam upon white sandy beaches. Passing Fajardo and continuing southward we finally arrive at Naguabo, a town of 15,000 inhabitants, and surrounded by

EASTERN AND SOUTHERN COASTS 71

broad cane fields, the beautiful palm-fringed sea before it and the lofty mountains at its rear, while the sweeping trade winds blow ceaselessly in from the broad open ocean.

From this picturesque spot the highway leads onward to Humacao, an interesting, typically Spanish town dating back to 1793, and with a population of some twenty-seven thousand inhabitants. The city is beautifully situated in a valley enclosed on three sides by mountains, with the ocean but six miles distant and with a very healthy and pleasant climate. The surrounding country is very fertile, and vast quantities of sugar cane and tobacco, a considerable amount of coffee, and many cattle are raised in the district.

Humacao is neat and scrupulously clean, with a very pretty, well-kept plaza, smooth streets, and substantial, attractive buildings. There are numerous stores, several churches, a municipal library and other public buildings, and the hotel accommodations are by no means bad. In the district are 21 graded and 22 rural schools, with many school libraries, and last, but by no means least in the estimations of the people, there is a

city band, of which every man, woman, and child is justly proud.

From Humacao one may travel over the mountains to Caguas, or by the shore to Ponce via Guayama. The latter route leads through some very beautiful scenery and through a country very different in character from other portions of the island. Leaving Humacao, we almost immediately reach a small river. At first appearances there would appear to be little difficulty in fording this with an automobile, for it is only about one hundred feet in width and sixteen or eighteen inches in depth. Unless one has an amphibious machine, however, it is unwise to attempt to ford the river under power; it is better to hire a yoke of oxen or a half-dozen men to pull the car through, for the bottom of the river is almost quicksand and many machines are stalled in the ford each year.

Having safely crossed the river, we proceed over a rough and flinty road for a few miles, when the road again becomes excellent and passes between rugged hillsides on one hand and broad, pale-green cane fields on the other, with a most charming view of Humacao against its back-

EASTERN AND SOUTHERN COASTS 73

ground of green-clad mountains. For many miles the road is very smooth and well kept, almost perfectly level, and with several small rivers to cross.

The first town reached is Yabucoa, with some eighteen thousand inhabitants, in the midst of a rich sugar district, with the huge "Central Mercedes " forming a prominent landmark. Here it is necessary to turn aside at the "Central" and pass over the mill's bridges, pass to the rear of the buildings, and emerge on the highroad further on; for the ford at the main road is usually impassable for automobiles. Yabucoa itself is of little interest, being an irregularly-built town with poor, hilly streets but with very pleasant, goodnatured people, many of whom speak English. From Yabucoa the road at once commences to climb the mountains and in a few minutes we find ourselves far up on the mountain side, the valley stretching miles away to the coastal plain behind us and the little town clustered close to the winding river and the fields of cane. Round and round the mountainside the road winds, ever rising higher and higher, clinging like a slender ribbon to the slopes and shaded by odd, tropical growths,

waving palms, broad-leaved plantains, and bananas, and delicate tree-ferns, and with beautiful views of mountains, valleys, and plains at every turn. At last the crest of the ridge is reached, and as we round the highest turn of the road we look upon one of the most magnificent views in the island. From the lofty roadside the mountainside drops steeply down to a silvery river, falling in little cascades among the greenery. Beyond stretch broad, velvety fields of cane through which the white road winds and twists to a tiny, white, red-roofed town in the distance, and still further, between jutting mountain spurs we see the broad, blue Caribbean Sea stretching from the palm-fringed beach to the hazy horizon, with Culebra, phantasmal and cloudlike to the left. Rapidly the splendid road leads downward towards the valley and then through waving fields of cane until the streets of Maunabo are reached. This is a small town of only 8,000 inhabitants, but neat, clean, and quite up to date, and with a pretty little plaza in its centre. Beyond the town the road is smooth and level as a floor and leads, by wide sweeping curves, to the sea, where it turns to the right and ascends the coastal ex-





A MOUNTAIN RIVER NEAR COMERIO A LOWLAND RIVER NEAR JUNCOS



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EASTERN AND SOUTHERN COASTS 75

tremity of a mountain. From here the view is superb, with the turquoise sea breaking in snowy surf upon the beach 200 feet beneath the road and with countless palm trees fringing road and beach for miles upon miles. Soon the last hills of the road are left behind and we speed smoothly along a perfect road close to the palmfringed shore to Patillas, a little sugar town of 15,000 inhabitants. From here the road continues perfect to Guayama, a large and prosperous town of 18,000 people, in the midst of a very rich sugar-producing district. The town is connected with the interior by a splendid road leading to Cayey, and has an air of prosperity, business, and thrift that is very attractive. There is a well-shaded and pretty plaza, a fine cathedral, several large public buildings, numerous stores, and 16 graded schools in the town.

Leaving Guayama, the level boulevard-like road leads onward through Salinas, a well-kept little town, mainly of note for the numerous prehistoric Indian relics which have been found nearby and for the caverns containing inscriptions, carvings, and utensils in the immediate vicinity. Salinas, however, is an attractive little town with a

pretty plaza, neat houses, and well-stocked stores, and with some exceptionally well-built schools. The next town reached is Santa Isabel, with its palm-embowered plaza. Beyond this pretty little town the character of the country rapidly changes. The district is almost wholly devoted to sugar, and far and wide stretch the fields, the great mills standing prominently here and there, the long barrack-like houses of the field hands rising above the cane and the rugged mountains far off to the right and blue and hazy in the distance. Gradually the rich sugar land gives way to broad and barren stretches, sparsely covered with grevish, thorny scrub, great bunches of prickly pear, and clusters of Spanish Bayonets. On the left, and stretching to the shore, are wide, level, salt flats, their black, clayey surface baked hard by the sun and with streaks and spots of white salt showing upon them. Reddish, burnt bushes, dull, scraggly shrubs, and immense giant cacti cover the flats and give an arid, desolate appearance to the landscape, while here and there the road passes through dark, stagnant salt water swamps with odd mangroves, dense and tangled, and trees draped with grey Spanish moss. Grad-

EASTERN AND SOUTHERN COASTS 77

ually the cacti-covered deserts grow less and less, the swamps and moss-draped trees become more frequent, and finally, emerging from a heavilywooded, swampy section, we find ourselves once more in the outlying streets of Ponce.

CHAPTER VII

HERE AND THERE IN THE INTERIOR

BEAUTIFUL as are the coastal districts, and fascinating as are the panoramas unfolded by the trip over the Military Road, yet these are dull and insignificant when compared to several other interior routes.

From Caguas a side trip may be taken to Humacao, and on this road there is scenery, quaint points of interest, and stretches of road that cannot be seen elsewhere on the island. Turning to the left at Caguas Plaza and passing through the town towards the east, the road is excellent and passes through well-cultivated country with the mountains on every side. Several miles beyond Caguas the road crosses the "Rio Grande de Loiza," over a magnificent iron bridge. The river scene here is very beautiful; the stream flowing peacefully. along its stony bed beneath great clumps of feathery plume-like bamboo and bordered by lush-green meadows on which sleek cattle graze contentedly or rest beneath the grateful

IN THE INTERIOR

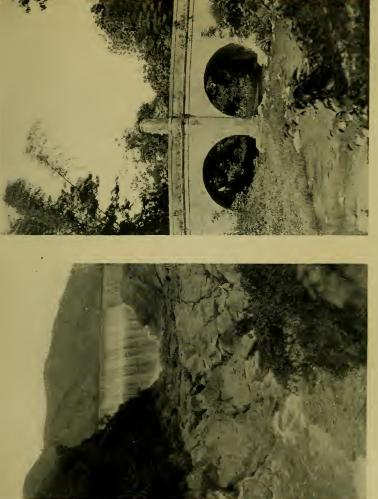
shade of spreading trees. The stranger to the tropics is often filled with wonder at the immense and lofty bridges which span small and narrow streams. In dry weather the rivers meander along in the centre of broad, stony gullies and the great bridges seem out of place and unnecessary. Visit the same spot after a heavy rain or in the wet season, however, and you will no longer marvel, for in place of the tiny rivulet you will see a roaring, rushing torrent tearing seaward and flowing in foam-flecked surges far across the meadow land and even burying the bridge and road beneath several feet of turbid water.

Beyond the Rio Grande bridge the road continues excellent to the quaint town of Gurabo, a comparatively modern town, founded in 1815, and well lighted with electricity and with all modern improvements. The town has a population of about twelve thousand and has many attractive buildings, a neat plaza, and some fifteen schools. Near the town is an odd pyramid-shaped hill, covered from base to summit with little thatched native huts and forming a sharp and picturesque contrast to the modern cement houses in the town. From Gurabo the road is unequalled to Juncos,

a prosperous town of 12,000 inhabitants and in a rich sugar and fruit district. Juncos has electric lights, a splendid hospital, seven graded and nine rural schools, and numerous churches and public buildings. On the outskirts of the town the road descends a steep hill, turns abruptly, and ends at the sandy beach of a broad, quiet river.

Although the road ends, its continuation can be seen on the further shore, but the only connection is a remarkable bridge or bridge-like structure consisting of two parallel planks supported on short upright posts and with an open space in the centre. Although it seems a rickety and dangerous affair for automobile traffic, yet it is really safe, and with a little care in driving there is no difficulty in crossing.

On the further side of the river the road is very rough, stony, and bad for several miles, and the country on every hand is very different from most parts of the island. Many of the mountainsides show bare, rocky ledges, while here and there the hillsides are covered with great isolated white boulders scattered about as if tossed from some Titan's hand or arranged in odd, semi-symmetrical patterns reminding one of Stonehenge or similar



OLD SPANISH RRIDGE ON MILITARY ROAD

COMERIO DAM



1.1

IN THE INTERIOR

prehistoric ruins. The abundance of these stones has given the name of "Las Piedras" to a nearby village. At Las Piedras the road improves and is soon excellent and continues good until we reach Humacao. As we approach the latter town the scenery becomes truly magnificent, with sparkling rivers, roaring cataracts, and glimpses of the far-off sea beyond the green-clad mountainsides and fertile valleys.

Another splendid interior trip is that from Cayey to Guayama. This is the old Spanish road, and is a marvel of engineering skill. From Cayey the road climbs ever upward on the high central mountain range for mile after mile until, at an elevation of nearly three thousand feet, it drops down to picturesque Guayama at sea level by tortuous curves, hairpin turns, serpentine loops, and sharp twists around the very brinks of dizzy precipices. Throughout the trip the scenery is magnificently grand and the panorama of mountains, ravines, valleys, and plains is enhanced and made trebly attractive by the frequent glimpses of the gloriously blue sea in the distance.

Still another trip, and to the author's mind the most attractive trip on the island, is over the so-

81

called Comerio Road. Leaving San Juan by the ferry, we land at the waterside town of Cataño and proceed over a splendidly surfaced road across the extensive mangrove swamps to Bayamon, a neat Spanish town over two hundred years old but with the up-to-date improvements of the twentieth century. Bayamon has a population of about thirty thousand, and while the present town dates back only to 1772, yet it was actually founded by Ponce de Léon in 1509 and for many years was known as "Pueblo Viejo." Moreover, it is in a district famous as having been the site of the first Spanish settlement in the island-the "Villa de Caparra," which afterwards became the "City of Puerto Rico,"-and in 1521 was moved to the other side of the bay and formed the nucleus for the capital city of San Juan.

Bayamon has numerous manufactures, including an ice plant, brick and match factories, and a cigar factory which employs over a thousand people. It is in a rich and prosperous fruit district, and the surrounding country is settled largely by American planters engaged in the cultivation of grape fruit, pineapples, oranges, etc. From Bayamon the road ascends and descends rolling hills, passing through rich valleys and ever within sight of the sparkling Rio Plata until the new Rio Plata bridge is reached. Beyond the bridge the road rapidly ascends the mountains, running along the mountainside, with the winding river below and with lofty, green-clad mountains on the opposite side, each turn and twist bringing new and more beautiful vistas into view. As we ascend by easy grades the river recedes farther and farther away in the dim rocky gorge below, while frequent rapids and cascades are seen. Presently a small dam with a foaming cascade of water bars the river, and a mile or two beyond we round a curve and see the great hydro-electric plant of the Porto Rico Light and Power Company, with its huge concrete dam and roaring spillway. Above the dam the artificial lake stretches its placid surface for several miles, the towering mountains mirrored on its azure bosom and submerged palm trees standing oddly in the water near the shores. From this plant the power is carried to San Juan and other places, and is used to operate trolleys, light the towns, and perform a thousand and one other duties throughout the surrounding country.

A few miles beyond the lake we reach the little mountain town of Comerio, its foot in the silvery river and its outlying houses nestling on the mountainside. It is a picturesque and pretty town of 12,000 inhabitants, and was formerly known as Sabana del Palma, or "Palm Meadow," from the immense numbers of royal palms in the vicinity. It is a progressive town, with some fourteen schools, a good church and plaza, numerous stores, and well-kept streets, and is mainly dependant upon coffee and tobacco for its prosperity. Above Comerio the road continues upward around the mountainside, and at each turn of a jutting spur a beautiful view of the valley, the town, and the serpentine river may be seen.

The mountains seem never ending, and nowhere else on the island does the highroad turn and twist, double on itself, and loop-the-loop as on this portion of the route. As this is an American built road, it is interesting to compare it with the old Military Road and the Cayey-Guayama road, built by Spanish engineers, and it must be confessed that the comparison is not always favourable to the American engineers.

The views from the Comerio Road are superb,

and are of such immensity, so sweeping, and so delightful that one is forced to stop and gaze upon the view at frequent intervals, and blasé indeed must be the traveller who does not exclaim in admiration at the glorious scenery along this wonderful road.

At last the topmost cloud-kissed ridge is reached, and dipping downward on the further side we soon reach Barranquitas, one of the most beautifully situated towns in Porto Rico and the highest town on the island, being at an altitude of some eighteen hundred feet above sea level. The town has a population of about ten thousand and is in the centre of a coffee-growing country. The town is neat, well kept, and remarkably cool and healthy, and at night heavy blankets and overcoats are frequently required. From Barranquitas the road leads through coffee groves and patches of mountain forest to a point on the Military Road above Aibonito, and from here the same route is followed through Cayey, Caguas, and Rio Piedras as described in a former chapter.

In addition to these trips, there are various others, each charming and attractive in its own way and each leading the tourist through new

and interesting scenes and an endless succession of vistas and wonderful mountain panoramas. Even the same road is never twice alike. At morning or evening, in brilliant tropic sun or when veiled with mountain showers, each turn of the road and each smiling valley has a different aspect, and the tourist, fond of natural scenery, of lofty mountains and of fresh air and outdoors life, can find in Porto Rico a never-ending source of pleasure and magnificent natural beauties.

CHAPTER VIII

TOWNS AND MUNICIPALITIES

PORTO RICO is divided into 69 different municipalities, each of which is practically autonomous; the chief officials being elected by the residents and the subordinate officials being appointed by those elected. These various communities are, with but slight changes, the same communities established by Spain, for Porto Rico was a practically independent and free country long before the Americans took possession. In each of the municipalities the chief town is the administrative centre and in nearly every case the district is named from the town.

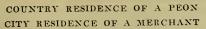
The chief executive of each municipality is the "Alcalde," or mayor, while local legislative power lies in the municipal councils—bodies which vary as to the number of members according to the size of the municipality, those of Class I having a council of nine members; those of Class II, seven members, and those of Class III, five members. Each district has in addition a secretary, a treas-

urer, a comptroller, an inspector of health and charities, and an inspector of public works. As these local municipal governments are not burdened with the expense of courts, save the justices of the peace, and do not have to maintain a police force, the comparatively small income afforded from local and insular taxes proves ample, and nearly every one of the districts is financially very well off.

The following are the various municipalities of the island, but as many have been already described, a mere sketch of each will be given. In every case, however, it should be borne in mind that the population given for a certain place, or a certain town, in Porto Rico, does not imply the actual population of the city itself but the entire population of the municipality.

Adjuntas.—On the Ponce-Arecibo road about 18 miles north of Ponce. Located at an elevation of 1,700 feet above the sea in a rich coffee district. Population about 17,000.

Aguada.—Between Rincon and Aguadilla and some two miles from the western coast. Population about 12,000. Chief industries, sugar cane, coffee, and the manufacture of hats.







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TOWNS AND MUNICIPALITIES 89

Aguadilla.—North of Aguada, on the western coast. Population about 22,000. Principal industries coffee, sugar cane, fruit, and cigarmaking. The town is on the American railway and also on the Arecibo-Mayaguez road.

Aguas Buenas.—An inland town of about 9,000 inhabitants, in the coffee district. The municipality has many mineral and other springs and a most delightful climate.

Aibonito.—On the Military Road, about 80 kilometres from San Juan and 50 kilometres from Ponce. Population about 11,000. Industries, coffee and tobacco-growing.

Añasco.—On the western part of the island about three miles from the sea and on the American railway. Population about 15,000. Industries, cane, coffee, and cocoanuts.

Arecibo.—On the northern coast, about 50 miles west of San Juan. Population about 43,000. Industries, fruit, coffee, and cane, as well as cigar and other factories.

Arroyo.—On the southern coast, on the Ponce-Humacao road, in the rich sugar district of the island. Population about 8,000. Considered the healthiest spot on the island, no epidemic ever

having occurred here. Famous as the first place in Porto Rico to have a telegraph line, the latter having been installed by the inventor, S. B. Morse, while on a visit to Porto Rico.

Barceloneta.—In the northern part of the island, on the American railway in a rich fruit, coffee, and sugar district.

Barranquitas.—Near the centre of the island, at an elevation of nearly 2,000 feet, and on the Comerio-Aibonito road. Population about 12,000. Near the town are a number of caves in which Indian relics are found and which also furnish large quantities of bat guano.

Barros.—A short distance west of Barranquitas, among the mountains in the coffee, tobacco, and fruit district. Population about 16,000.

Bayamon.—On the American railway and Cantaño-Arecibo road on the northern coast some 12 miles from San Juan. Population about 30,000. Industries mainly fruit culture and manufactures, including ice, matches, cigars, bricks, tiles, etc. Near here the first settlement on the island was made, the "Villa de Caparra" which later became known as the "City of Puerto Rico" and the capital of the island, and which in 1521 was moved across the bay and rechristened San Juan.

Cabo Rojo.—On the southwestern coast in a rugged valley. Industries, sugar, coffee, tobacco, and cocoanuts, as well as sea salt. Reached by American railway. Population about 21,000.

Caguas.—In the eastern-central part of the island on an extensive plain surrounded by mountains and on the Military Road. Population about 30,000. A steam railway connects the town with San Juan, about 18 miles distant. Industries, cane, tobacco, and cigar manufacture, with some coffee.

Camuy.—On the American railway on the northwest coast between Hatillo and Quebradillas. Industries, coffee, tobacco, and cane. Population about 16,000.

Carolina.—In the rich cane district in the northeastern part of the island on the "Carolina Road" which encircles the eastern end of the island. Population about 17,000.

Cayey.—Near the centre of Porto Rico among the mountains at an elevation of some 1,500 feet. Situated on the Military Road at the junction

of the Guayama Road. Industries, coffee and tobacco, the latter being by far the more important. Here are located large army barracks, the seat of a United States Army post. Population about 18,000.

Ciales.—Between Juana Diaz and Manati, north of the centre of the island in a mountainencircled valley. Cattle, coffee, and tobacco are the principal products. Population about 20,000.

Cidra.—In a mountainous district near the eastern end of the island on the road from Comerio to Las Cruces. Elevation about 1,300 feet. Population about 11,000. Coffee and tobacco are the principal crops.

Coamo.—Between Cayey and Ponce on the Military Road. Coffee, fruit, and sugar are the principal crops of the district. Population about 19,000. Coamo Springs, a few miles distant, is famous for its medicinal baths and springs.

Comerio.—In the north central part of the island on an excellent road between Barranquitas and Bayamon and a short distance above the hydro-electric plant of the Porto Rico Power and Lighting Company. Population about 12,000. Principal products, coffee, tobacco, fruit, and some cane.

Corozal.—On the road from Bayamon to Toa Alta in the northern part of the island in a mountainous district. Population, 13,000. The surrounding country produces coffee, sugar, tobacco, oranges, and fruit. The bed of the local river contains considerable gold, which is washed out by the natives, and in the neighbouring mountains there are numerous valuable deposits of copper, iron, gold, silver, and other minerals. Recently a shaft some 200 feet in depth has been sunk and the mines are being rapidly developed by American and English capital.

Culebra.—On the island of Culebra a few miles off the eastern coast. Population about 2,000. Mainly noteworthy for its splendid harbour.

Dorado.—On the American railway near the north coast between Bayamon and Vega Baja. The surrounding country produces citrus fruits, cattle and pineapples. Population about 6,000.

Fajardo.—About a mile and one-half from the northeastern coast on the road to San Juan. In the heart of a rich sugar district. Population about 22,000.

Guayama.—Situated on a broad and fertile plain about 200 feet above the sea in the midst of a great sugar district and on the road from Ponce to Humacao. A road also connects with the Military Road at Cayey. Population about 20,000.

Guayanilla.—On the southern coast between Ponce and Yauco and on the American railway. The healthy climate and beautiful bathing beaches attract many visitors from other towns on the islands. Population about 12,000.

Gurabo.—In the eastern part of Porto Rico on the Gurabo River. The principal industries are cane and tobacco cultivation. Population, 12,000.

Hatillo.—On the northern coast west of Arecibo on the line of the American railway. The surrounding territory is devoted to tobacco, sugar, coffee, and cattle-raising. Much frequented as a summer resort by the people of Arecibo and other towns. Population about 11,000.

Humacao.—In the eastern part of the island on the road from Guayama to Caguas. Situated in a lovely valley surrounded on three sides by mountains and some six miles from the ocean. Sugar, coffee, and tobacco are the principal resources. Population about 28,000.

Isabella.—On the northwestern coast on a plain some 300 feet above the sea and overlooking the ocean. Reached by American railway and highway. A favourite summer resort for the people of nearby towns. Sugar cane, tobacco, coffee, and fruits are raised, while phosphates are mined in the caverns of the neighbourhood. Population about 18,000.

Jayuya.—Between Ponce and Arebico in the coffee district. Population about 11,000.

Juana Diaz.—Situated on the Military Road northeast of Ponce and on a site donated by a lady named Juana Diaz, who gave the land under the conditions that the town should be named after her and that none of the municipal land should ever be sold or given away. Located in the heart of the coffee district but also in an extensive cattle and fruit-raising section. Population about 30,000.

Juncos.—In the eastern part of the island on the Caguas-Humacao road. Sugar, tobacco, coffee, pineapples, bananas, mangoes, and other

fruits are all extensively raised. Population about 12,000.

Lajas.—In the southwestern part of the island on the American railway and situated on a broad and fertile plain devoted to cane, tobacco, and fruit culture. Population about 12,000. A large pineapple cannery is situated here.

Lares.—In the western portion of the island on the Arecibo-Mayaguez road at 1,250 feet above the sea. Coffee is the most important product, although cane is grown extensively. Numerous caves containing prehistoric inscriptions and implements are in the vicinity. Population, 23,000.

Las Marias.—In the western portion of the island a short distance from Mayaguez and on the main highway to Lares. At an elevation of about 1,000 feet above the sea. Coffee, cane, tobacco, fruit, and cattle are raised. Population about 11,000.

Loiza.—In an extensive cane district in the northeastern section of the island. Originally the town was on the coast at the mouth of the Loiza River, but in 1910 was removed to the present situation, a short distance inland on the Carolina road. Population about 14,000. Manati.—On the American railway near the northern coast three miles from the shore and in a beautiful valley. Tobacco, coffee, sugar, and various fruits are cultivated. Population about 18,000.

Mariacao.—East of Mayaguez and northeast of San German about 1,400 feet above the sea. Principal product is coffee. Population about 8,000.

Maunabo.—Near the coast on the southeast in the sugar cane district. On the main highway between Guayama and Humacao. Population, 8,000.

Mayaguez.—On the western coast. Has a large deep harbour and is on the American railway and highroads. One of the foremost cities on the island. Population nearly 50,000.

Moca.—In the northwestern part of the island a short distance from Aguadilla on the highroad to Lares. In the coffee-producing district, from which the town was named. Population, 14,000.

Morovis.—In the interior, north of the centre of the island and about 50 kilometres from San Juan. Mainly devoted to raising coffee, sugar, tobacco, and cattle. Population about 13,000.

Naguabo.—In the eastern part of the island near the towering Luquillo mountains on the road from Humacao to Fajardo. Sugar, grape fruits, and pineapples are cultivated. Population about 15,000. –

Naranjito.—A mountain town on the road from Bayamon to Comerio and in one of the most picturesque locations on the island. Products, tobacco and fruits. Population about 9,000.

Patillas.—Near the coast in the southwestern part of the island on the main road near Guayama. Population about 15,000.

Peñuelas.—In the southern part of the island between Adjuntas and Ponce. Population, 12,000.

Ponce.—In the southern part of the island and the principal shipping port for coffee, sugar, and other products. Terminus of the American railway and Military Road. Ponce has many manufacturing industries, among which are cigars, cigarettes, rum, soda-water, carriages, hats, laces, embroideries, ice, brick, etc. Ponce is one of the places at which the American troops landed in Porto Rico, a force having taken possession of the city on July 28, 1898, without resistance being offered. Population about 64,000.

Quebradillas.—Near the coast in the northwestern part of the island on the line of the American railway between Isabella and Camuy. The district is devoted to sugar, tobacco, coffee, and cotton. Population about 9,000.

Rincon.—At the western extremity of the island on the American railway between Añasco and Aguada in a rich cane district. Population about 14,000.

Rio Grande.—In the northeastern part of the island about three and one-half miles from the shore in a deep valley. Population about 14,000.

Rio Piedras.—About seven miles from San Juan on the Military Road. On the line of the American railway and the terminus of the Caguas tramway and the San Juan trolley lines. Cane, cattle, and fruit are raised extensively, while bricks, tile, and lime are manufactured. Population about 19,000.

Sabana Grande.—On the south side of the island near Guanica harbour. Products are coffee, cane, and tobacco. On a branch of the Amer-

ican railway and with a population of about 12,000.

Salinas.—In the southern part of the island between Santa Isabel and Guayama and on the Ponce-Guayama railway and the coast highway. Principal industries are the manufacture of salt, cattle-raising, and sugar. The immense sugar mill known as the "Central Aguirre" is located near this town. In the vicinity are numerous caves containing Indian relics, while extensive shell-heaps also contain utensils and implements of the aborigines. Population about 12,000.

San German.—In the southwestern part of the island on the American railway between Mayaguez and Sabana Grande. Coffee, sugar, and fruits are the principal products. Population about 23,000.

San Juan.—The capital and most important town on the island. Founded in 1511. San Juan is the headquarters of the United States Army in Porto Rico; there is also a naval station, a weather bureau service, various other Federal departments, and one of the largest wireless stations in the world. The stores, factories, and industries of the town are numerous and thoroughly modern, and altogether San Juan is a progressive, up-todate city with an immense amount of business and traffic. Population about 50,000.

San Lorenzo.—In the eastern part of the island in a mountainous district devoted to coffee, tobacco, and cattle-raising. Population about 15,000.

San Sebastian.—In the northwestern part of the island on the road from Lares to Aguadilla. Coffee is the principal product. Population about 19,000.

Santa Isabel.—On the southern coast of the island on the Ponce-Guayama road and the Guayama railway, and in one of the richest sugar districts of Porto Rico. Cattle-raising is also an important industry in the vicinity. Population about 7,000.

Toa Alta.—In the northern part of the island on the Toa River. The principal industries are the cultivation of coffee, tobacco, cane, and cattle-raising. Population about 10,000.

Toa Baja.—North of Toa Alta on the American railway in a cattle and dairy district. Population about 7,000.

Trujillo Alto .- About seven miles southeast of

Rio Piedras on the Caguas tramway line in a sugar-raising district. In the vicinity there are numerous limestone caves and also marble quarries. The principal industry is the cultivation of pineapples and citrus fruits. Population about 7,000.

Utuado.—West of the centre of the island on the Arecibo-Ponce road in the midst of high mountains. The principal industry is coffee raising, but considerable sugar is also raised. Population about 31,000.

Vega Alta.—In the northern part of the island about 35 kilometres from San Juan on a branch of the American railway. Sugar cane, fruits, coffee, and tobacco are raised. Population about 9,000.

Vega Baja.—A short distance west of Vega Alta on the main line of the American railway and the Manati-Bayamon road. Tobacco and coffee are raised, but the principal industry is fruit culture. Population about 13,000.

Vieques.—A small island a short distance off the eastern coast. The industries are cattle-raising and sugar cane cultivation. The cane is ground in the four large mills on the island. The island, known also as "Crab Island," is about seventeen and one-quarter miles in length by two and one-half miles wide. Population about 11,000.

Yabucoa.—Near the coast at the southeastern extremity of the island on the main road to Guayama. Sugar, rum, cattle, and cheese are the principal products. Population about 18,000.

Yauco.—In the northwestern part of the island on the American railway and the road from Ponce to San German. Sugar and coffee are the main industries of the district. Near the town is located a huge sugar-mill, the "Guanica Central." The sugar is shipped from the nearby port of Guanica about seven miles from Yauco. Guanica was the first landing place of the American troops under General Miles, who disembarked his forces here on July 25, 1898. Population about 32,000.

CHAPTER IX

PEOPLE AND CUSTOMS

THE traveller who is familiar with the quaint customs, odd ways, and picturesque garb of other West Indian islands and Spanish-American countries will be disappointed in Porto Rico.

The Porto Ricans have few local or unique habits and no national costume, and many of the interesting mannerisms and Spanish-American customs have been destroyed by the Americanisation of the island. The coquettish, gaudy turbans of the other islands have given place to ugly hats or slovenly-tied bandanas. Flowing, stifflystarched skirts, silken "foulards," short-sleeved "camisas," rebosas, and mantillas are no longer in evidence, and even the beautiful silken shawls worn by the women of Havana, Central and South America, and San Domingo are scarcely ever seen on Porto Rican shoulders. The inevitable fan is used quite as much as in Cuba or other Latin countries, however, and the native people have the same habit of sitting in their "salas" that 104

open on the street, and the young ladies are still surrounded with the same hedge of Duennas and formality as in other Spanish lands. When the band plays in the Plaza and "all the world" comes forth to promenade or sit about, one may see far more of the typical Porto Ricans than at any other time or place. Unfortunately the truly élite do not take part in the "pasear," but still one may obtain a fairly good idea of the types, blood, and dress of the masses at this time. The Porto Ricans are a much-mixed race, in which the Spanish and Indian blood predominates. In the interior the bulk of the people are of pure Spanish descent and the poor whites or "Jibaros" constitute the greater portion of the inhabitants of the island. Near the coast and in the larger cities, however, there are large numbers of negroes, both native born and from the French, British, and Danish islands, and every shade and mixture of colour may be seen. To the casual observer there seems to be no colour line. but in their home life and social functions there is comparatively little mingling of whites and blacks.

At the larger clubs Americans, Porto Ricans,

and other nationalities mingle, but still there is an underlying aloofness, and Anglo-Saxon and Latin usually "flock by themselves," while even among the Americans there are numerous cliques and "sets," and far less wholesome, open-hearted, good-fellowship than one would expect among Americans in a foreign land.

In addition to the large clubs and those which are preëminently American, there are Porto Rican clubs, Spanish clubs, and ladies' clubs.

There are many pure Spanish people in Porto Rico, and the bulk of the business and many of the largest plantations are in the hands of Spaniards. The Spaniards are smart, thrifty, business men, and it must be confessed that they are the mainstay of the retail and wholesale business in Porto Rico and that without them the island would fare ill indeed. Chinamen and other Orientals are conspicuous by their absence, and the Syrian, Armenian, and Hebrew have not as yet invaded the island. It is possible that there are pawnshops in Porto Rico, but the author never saw one, and the sign of the three balls is nowhere visible; possibly the Porto Ricans never have anything worth pawning or perhaps they

PEOPLE AND CUSTOMS

are never sufficiently in want to require the services of an "uncle."

Apparently the Porto Ricans love noise, for San Juan is the noisiest spot I have ever seen, and the other towns—and even the small villages —are almost as bad. The clang of trolley cars, the rattle and roar of carts and drays, the honk of auto horns, the jangle of gongs on carriages, the roaring of open mufflers, and the screams and calls of itinerant vendors all combine to create a perfect babel of sound, which continues from dawn to midnight without cessation.

By riding, driving, or walking along the Military Road that leads out from San Juan through Santurce one may see many types, and here and there customs and manners peculiar to the island. Country men and boys riding their nervous, quickstepping little ponies and squatted on the huge basket-panniers slung on either side of the saddle; drays and carts, with one horse in the shafts and the other drawing on a rope at one side; vendors of all sorts, with vegetables, fruits, eggs, sweet-meats, and live fowl; some pushing a homemade wheelbarrow loaded with baskets of goods; others carrying great native baskets on their arms

107

and crying their wares in raucous tones; others with enormous push-carts loaded with cocoanuts or vegetables, and here and there a man or woman carrying a tray or basket on the head.

Near the sea and in the larger rivers the visitor may sometimes see the native fishermen wading waist deep and throwing their cast-nets with unerring aim, or one may even be fortunate enough to see the queer wattled and thatched huts of the fishermen perched on stilts in the middle of stream or bay.

In many of the interior and out-lying towns a few native Porto Rican customs still prevail. Hat sellers may be seen carrying a pole across their shoulders, with either end hung with great bundles of native-made hats; sometimes a man may be seen carrying water pails or other objects on crude shoulder yokes; occasionally one may see a native pounding corn or rice in a great wooden mortar or may catch a glimpse of women busily plaiting palm-leaf hats or netting hammocks.

The Porto Ricans have many native industries besides hat and hammock making. The women are experts at fine needlework and produce marvellously delicate and beautiful embroidery and drawn-work, which always find a ready sale. The men are quick to learn a trade, and are often expert mechanics, skilful carpenters, clever artisans, and excellent masons. In concrete work they produce wonderful results, and the nativemade Porto Rican tiles and mosaics are highly artistic and ornamental.

'The Porto Rican has considerable inventive ability, and one often sees home-made pushcarts, chairs, furniture, and other objects that are really wonderfully well made and cleverly designed. The native musical instruments are well worthy of study. The queer little guitars and mandolins made from hollowed wood or calabashes; the home-made flutes and pipes, and queerest of all the calabashes or gourds, with a roughened surface, over which steel wires are rubbed, are all invariably used at the native dances and often in the city orchestras as well.

Porto Rico has also produced numerous authors of both prose and verse; several noteworthy poets; historians of international fame, and some wonderful artists whose work has received recognition in the Paris salon. As a race the Porto

Ricans are far superior to the natives of many of the Spanish-American countries or the other West Indies, and were they given one-half the opportunities and encouragement which they deserve they would prove a people of which any country might well be proud.

Even as it is progress and improvement are everywhere in evidence. On every hand the old is giving place to the new, and while the civilisation of four centuries ago is still seen side by side with that of to-day, yet it is but a question of a few years before the quaint old ways will be crowded out, destroyed, and forgotten.

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CHAPTER X

GEOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY, AND CLIMATE

PORTO RICO, the smallest of the Greater Antilles and the most eastern of the group, has an area of about 3,606 square miles. In shape it is almost a perfect parallelogram, with a length of nearly one hundred miles and a breadth of about thirtyfive miles. The entire surface of the island, save a narrow coastal plain on the north and a somewhat wider plain on the south, is a mass of mountains, ridges, hills, and peaks interspersed with deep valleys, high table-lands, precipitous cañons or ravines, and a few small interior plains. The highest mountains reach an altitude of nearly four thousand feet, the highest peak being "El Yunque" (the anvil), 3,700 feet in height, near the eastern end of the island. This lofty peak is the termination of the Luquillo range, which forms the eastern range of the main divide of the island known as the Cordilleras, and which has an average altitude of about twenty-five hundred feet. From this main

central ridge, or backbone, the numerous spurs, minor ridges, and isolated peaks extend to north and south, ending in abrupt slopes a few miles from the coast. Although geographically the Cordilleras range is said to form the main divide, vet the mountains are so broken, so irregular, and so interspersed with valleys and ravines that it is difficult for the observer to say just where one range of mountains begins and another ends. In fact there are several ranges of mountains known as the Sierra de Cayey, which extends from the southwestern coast towards the centre of the island; the Cordillera Central, near the centre of the island, and the Cabezas de San Juan, at the extreme northeastern extremity. All of these mountains are of mixed volcanic and sedimentary formation, consisting of tufa, gneiss, hornblende, and a peculiar conglomerate of volcano bombs, lava, and tufa. Near the coasts and at various elevations, usually of less than two hundred feet, are extensive deposits of compact limestone of the Cretaceous period, while in many isolated localities in the interior and on numerous portions of the coast are large areas of aeolian limestone, ele-

GEOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY, CLIMATE 113

vated coral reefs, and lime-cemented sand similar to the Bermuda limestone.

The island is well watered by several large rivers, numerous small streams, and innumerable rivulets, which during dry weather become mere rills of water trickling through stony beds, but which, after a heavy rain, become raging, foaming torrents. In many places there are extensive limestone caves, and a number of the rivers disappear in the ground, pass through subterranean channels, and reappear at some distance beyond. In the higher portions of the island the decomposition of the rock has resulted in extensive deposits of tough, sticky, scarlet, or orange clay, often 100 feet in depth. This clay is almost impervious to water and serves to prevent the erosive action of the rains on the mountainsides, and this protection has resulted in large areas of mountain land being exceptionally adapted to the cultivation of various agricultural products. Near the coast and in the valleys the streams and rains have left heavy deposits of alluvial soil, which is very fertile and upon which splendid crops may be grown. The virgin fertility of Porto Rico is proven by the fact that for nearly

four hundred years various exhaustive crops have been raised with but little or no fertiliser, and yet to-day the soil is still capable of producing enormous crops, and seems to be far from exhausted. Although situated within the tropics and properly considered a tropical island, yet Porto Rico is far from typically tropical in appearance. The native growth of timber has been almost entirely destroyed, and only in a few isolated localities does the visitor find tropical forests which are so typical of many of the West Indian islands and which add so much to the strangeness, charm, and beauty of the tropics. For mile after mile one may ride across Porto Rico and never see a wild native tree of any size, and one may tour the island from end to end without finding the damp, rank, cool, and dripping "high woods" of the West Indian mountains. In many places the scenery is decidedly like that of the temperate zone, and in a great many localities not a single palm, banana, or other distinctly tropical tree is visible. Although the extensive denudation of the island may have reduced the rainfall, yet there is no lack of moisture in most parts of Porto Rico, the average rainfall for the entire island being

GEOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY, CLIMATE 115

some seventy-six inches. In certain mountainous districts the rainfall may be as great as 200 inches, while on some portions of the southern coast it may fall as low as 45 inches. This, compared with the excessive rainfall of three hundred inches or more, which is common in many other tropical countries, seems very light, but throughout the greater part of the island it is ample, and the ground is constantly damp. There are no well-defined dry and wet seasons in Porto Rico, but during the winter the rains are lighter than in summer, the monthly average increasing steadily from February until May, after which the monthly variation is very slight until September or October, when the maximum monthly fall is reached. In the northern parts of the island and extending southward over about two-thirds of the entire area, an abundant rainfall may be looked for at all seasons, and droughts or prolonged dry spells are very rare. On the southern coast, on the other hand, the rainfall is very irregular, and rainless periods of several months' duration frequently occur. The Porto Rican rains are often extremely heavy, but as a rule they are of short duration. The majority

of showers last but a few minutes, but during these few minutes the rain descends in sheets, and as one shower frequently follows another in rapid succession, the result is the same as if it was a steady and prolonged downpour. During the spring and summer it is not unusual for the weather to be unsettled, cloudy, and showery for several days in succession, and frequently the rain falls more or less continuously day and night for a week at a time. On the whole, however, the daily rainfall is not great, although four to five inches in 24 hours is of frequent occurrence, and daily precipitations of 20 to 23 inches have been recorded during the passage of hurricanes or severe storms. The average temperature of the island is not excessive, the average annual temperature of the entire island being 76 degrees, with a mean winter temperature of 73 degrees, and a mean summer temperature of 79 degrees. It must be borne in mind, however, that many of the elevated mountain towns have a comparatively cool climate, with a low average temperature, and that this greatly reduces the average for the entire island, and for this reason the visitor to Porto Rico should not expect to find San Juan,

GEOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY, CLIMATE 117

Ponce, or any of the coastal towns either cool or invigorating. The average official winter temperature for these localities is 75 degrees, with a summer average of 81, but the mercury often reaches the nineties during the day and the nights are far from being as cool and refreshing as in the smaller West Indian islands. In fact, Porto Rico is a rather unpleasantly warm spot, in the coastal towns, although the constant trade winds and sea breezes make the heat far from oppressive. The air is quite damp, and while excessive humidity is rare, yet it is often sufficient to prove oppressive and to cause a feeling of extreme lassitude. At San Juan the average humidity for the entire year is 78 per cent, for the winter 75 per cent, and for summer 81 per cent. This is far greater than in the more densely wooded islands, where the moisture is condensed and falls as rain before the humidity becomes oppressive, but it is far less than in many places in the tropics or even in the temperate zone.

Although Porto Rico is situated in the hurricane belt, yet destructive storms are of rare occurrence. On but three occasions in forty years have hurricanes crossed the island, namely, in

the months of August, 1891, August, 1893, and August, 1899, the latter being by far the most destructive storm on record in Porto Rico. Thunderstorms are of frequent occurrence, but they are of a mild and almost harmless type as a rule, and while the electrical display is brilliant, serious damage seldom occurs from their presence.

On the whole Porto Rico may be said to have a healthy, pleasant, equable, and not excessively hot or moist climate. It is fertile, well watered, and so varied in elevation, soil, and temperature that almost any desired climate may be found, with the exception of the frigid wintry weather of temperate climates. It is densely inhabited, but vast areas are uncultivated; it is free from volcanic disturbances, severe earthquakes, or destructive storms, and while geographically in the tropics, yet it is free from many of the disadvantages of the tropics, and if the truth were told, many of the tropic's charms and attractions as well.

CHAPTER XI

AGRICULTURE, RESOURCES, AND OPPORTUNITIES

For 400 years Porto Rico has been primarily and principally an agricultural country. To-day the million and more inhabitants are nearly all engaged in agriculture or in vocations, trades, or work related to or depending upon agriculture, and as a result many of the natural resources of the island have been overlooked or neglected. Although within the tropics the variety of soils, variations in temperatures and rainfalls, and the mountainous character of the island render the raising of many Northern products both possible and profitable. In the early days and until quite recently little attention was given to any but the tropical products, such as sugar cane, coffee, and tobacco, but within the last few years much attention has been given to raising fruit and other crops. Although the greater portion of the island has been completely stripped of its native forest growth, yet in some sections considerable virgin forest still remains, and several of the localities

have been wisely held by the Government as forest The cleared land has been for many reserves. years cultivated over and over again without the addition of humus, fertiliser, or enrichment of any kind, and as a result many of the foothills between the level coastal plains and the mountains have become very barren and sterile, but with proper care and fertilisation there is scarcely a spot in Porto Rico which will not produce abundant crops of some sort. The island is so densely populated and the population is so largely rural that agriculture must always be the mainstay of the people and every effort should be made to improve conditions and to encourage agricultural pursuits and the raising of new, valuable, and lucrative crops. For many years sugar was the principal crop of the Porto Ricans. The first mill was erected in 1548 and by 1581 11 mills were in operation, with an aggregate output of 187 tons of sugar annually. The methods of cultivation and manufacture were, however, very crude, and until the American invasion little changes had been made in this and other industries. Irrigation was unknown, poor varieties of cane were grown, the cane was handled by primi-

AGRICULTURE AND RESOURCES 121

tive and expensive methods, the land was prepared and the cultivation carried on with crude wooden ploughs and hand-hoes and machetes, and a great deal of the cane was crushed in the simplest of mills, driven by the power of plodding oxen. Today the huge steam and electrically-driven "centrals" contain the latest and most highly perfected automatic machinery; cultivation and ploughing is done with great steam ploughs, the best possible varieties of cane are grown, trained scientists and chemists are employed, and the cane and sugar are shipped and transported in railway trains, auto trucks, and trams. On the southern coast the broad level cane lands have been provided with an elaborate and extensive irrigation system, and there is no reason why the Porto Rican sugar industry should not continue to prove the most lucrative of all the island's industries. were it not for the tariff system now in vogue. Under the former administrations, whereby Porto Rico sugar was admitted duty free and other sugars were dutiable, the Porto Ricans were protected, business boomed, and the island was on the crest of a wave of prosperity such as it had never known. With the removal of the tariff

poor Porto Rico was obliged to compete with other countries and with the European beet sugars, and as a result the sugar planters have become poverty-stricken and discouraged, many estates have shut down, others have gone into practical bankruptcy, and the financial condition of the island is daily becoming worse and worse.

Long before the decline of the sugar industry, tobacco and coffee had become important factors in the island's prosperity; but within the last few years the tobacco industry has reached a higher state of development than ever before. Although the amount of soil adapted to the cultivation of superior tobacco is limited, yet by improved methods and proper care a great deal of tobacco is produced, which is, in the opinion of many, the equal of any of the Cuban tobacco. In addition to filler tobacco of high grade, a vast amount of excellent wrapper leaf is produced under shade formed by cheese-cloth stretched over the fields. If the production and value of the tobacco crops continue to increase at the present rate it will soon exceed any other product in importance.

Coffee is also a very valuable product, which is yearly increasing in importance. At the time of the American occupation coffee had become the principal agricultural industry, for under Spanish laws coffee was a favoured article of export, and was sent in large quantities to Spain, Cuba, and other countries. With the change in ownership of the island the coffee growers were very hard hit by the elimination of the bounty which existed under Spanish dominion. Almost immediately the Porto Rican coffee growers were obliged to compete with Brazil and other coffeeproducing countries, while their best markets in Spain and Cuba were shut off by the tariffs. Moreover, as the Porto Rican coffee was practically unknown in American markets, its sale in our cities was problematical, and a demand for it had to be built up. In addition to these handicaps, a disastrous hurricane swept Porto Rico in August, 1899, just before the harvesting of the coffee crop, and causing the loss of the crop, the wreckage of many plantations, and the actual washing away of a great deal of the fertile coffeeproducing soil. So great was the loss occasioned by business conditions and damage by storm that many of the best plantations were sold for far below their value or were abandoned entirely. So

great was the business depression and actual want brought about by the ruin of the coffee industry that several million dollars worth of supplies were sent into the interior by the United States Government in order to relieve the suffering of the people and to prevent actual starvation. Gradually, however, the coffee industry is improving, and year by year the demand is greater, the production larger, and to-day the coffee crop bids fair to resume its old-time importance, and has already reached third place in the leading productions of the island.

Before Porto Rican coffee meets with a large and ready sale in our markets, great improvement must be made in its growth and preparation. In many districts the trees grow practically wild, with but little care or attention and overgrown with parasites, choked by weeds, and surrounded by brush, trees, and jungles of tangled vines and bushes. Not only are the trees neglected, but the berries are gathered, cleaned, dried, and prepared with no regard to sanitary conditions, cleanliness, or decency. It is a common sight to see coffee drying in the sun on half-cured cowhides laid upon the open streets and with chickens,

AGRICULTURE AND RESOURCES 125

dogs, and goats wandering over and through it at In other places the beans are spread upon will. doorsteps, floors, or similar places, and naked children and various household animals use it for a playground or resting-place. In one case I noticed a shed some twenty feet in length and within this building tobacco was being stripped and tied, while at the other end coffee was being assorted, winnowed, and packed. Under such conditions it is hardly surprising that much of the Porto Rican coffee tastes more like tobacco than the real beverage, and that many people are prejudiced against it. Of course, all Porto Rican coffee is not treated in this slip-shod manner, and many growers are as careful and cleanly in their work as any one could wish; but nevertheless it will require time and care to build up such a reputation that the island coffee may successfully compete with the coffee of Brazil, Venezuela, or Central America.

Fruit has also become a very important product of Porto Rico, and many portions of the island are wonderfully adapted to fruit culture. Under the Spanish régime practically no fruit was grown, and that produced was for home consump-

tion. With the coming of Americans a great deal of attention has been given to fruit, especially citrus fruits, and the industry has grown with remarkable rapidity. All of the citrus fruits grow readily in Porto Rico, and the land of the northern coastal plain is particularly well adapted to oranges, grape fruit, etc. The Porto Rican grape fruit is considered the best of all in the American markets, and a number of Americans own large and thriving orchards, and have built up a large and lucrative fruit export business. Pineapples are also extensively grown, and several canneries are in operation, but as a whole the possibilities of fruit have hardly been touched, and various tropical fruits might be raised and marketed or canned on the island with profit. Cotton was at one time a most important Porto Rican product, and during the Civil War in the United States the cotton industry assumed a leading place among Porto Rican resources. With the close of the war and the dropping cotton prices, cotton growing was gradually abandoned, and while sea island cotton may still be produced at a profit, yet little attention is given to it, as other crops bring larger and quicker returns and

AGRICULTURE AND RESOURCES 127

considerable care, industry, and careful cultivation are required to produce profitable crops. Many fibre-producing plants grow freely in Porto Rico, and there is little doubt that the production of sisal hemp would prove very remunerative in the more barren and dry sections of the island, as along the southern coast. Although experiments have proven that sisal will thrive and can be produced at a profit on the island, yet the cultivation of the plant does not appeal to Porto Rican farmers, and no doubt it will take a number of years to educate the natives to the value and importance of growing more lucrative crops than their old favourite sugar cane.

It is a very difficult matter to wean a sugargrowing community from cane, a fact that has been demonstrated in other West Indian islands; but the future prosperity of Porto Rico depends in large measure upon the production of numerous crops, which have as yet been almost untried. Even garden vegetables for home consumption are scarcely grown, although certain native vegetables are produced everywhere, and in some localities all our Northern vegetables are grown with little effort.

Cocoanuts are profitable and are produced in large quantities, but they require eight to ten years to reach maturity. Cocoa is not grown, rubber has not as yet been produced, and aside from the three staples,—coffee, tobacco, and sugar,—and the various fruits, practically nothing has been cultivated for export or on a large and practical scale.

There are still vast opportunities for scientific and up-to-date agriculturalists to make money in Porto Rico, but the land is very high in price, there is a great deal of competition, and only by the use of a large amount of capital and the latest methods can one succeed in the island if fruit, tobacco, coffee, or other crops are attempted. Although Porto Rico has been an American possession for a number of years, yet no accurate and exhaustive survey has ever been made, no scientific and geological exploration has been carried out, and the natural resources and riches of the country are less known than those of many other far-distant countries, over which we have no control and in which we have no real interest.

Cattle and horses are raised to some extent in many localities, but large dairy farms, blooded cattle, good beef steers, heavy horses, mules, or donkeys are almost unknown. There are a few poultry farms on the island, several apiaries are flourishing, and here and there one finds truck gardens, but there is a far greater demand for such things than can be supplied, and any one of these industries will prove profitable, if carried out intelligently, assiduously, and scientifically.

The fisheries of the island have been woefully neglected. About Porto Rico the sea teems with fish of many varieties; the large West Indian lobster lurks in crevices among the rocks on every coast; edible shellfish abound; oysters are found in several localities; crawfish are found in the rivers, and terrapin are common, and yet it is next to impossible to obtain fresh sea food in the San Juan markets. The native fishermen are shiftless, improvident, and use ancient and crude apparatus; but with modern fish-nets, properly equipped boats, pounds, and a systematic fishery the island could be supplied with an abundance of fresh fish, which would meet with a ready sale.

In one class of tropical products Porto Rico is sadly lacking. Dye woods, cabinet woods, and timber for building purposes are not available,

and it is a great pity that neither the Porto Ricans nor the Americans have seen fit to plant valuable and useful trees to take the place of the original forest growth.

The mineral wealth of Porto Rico has been practically untouched, and yet there are extensive deposits of valuable ores. Gold, silver, iron, bismuth, lead, tin, nickel, platinum, and copper are all found and in many places the deposits are large, rich, easy of access, and near transportation. Copper ore, running as high as 65 per cent exists in many localities; native copper has been found in various parts of the island; iron is abundant, and gold and silver, running as high as \$400 per ton exist in certain sections of the island. Many of the rivers carry considerable gold, and the natives frequently wash out several dollars worth a day with very crude methods. One mining company has already done considerable work on the island. This company controls numerous promising veins and outcrops of copper, gold, silver, and other ores, and shafts several hundred feet in depth have been sunk. Ore has been mined and shipped, and a sluice has recently been installed, and as much as \$200 a day has been cleaned up in this way. This is but a beginning, and no doubt in the near future the mineral wealth of the island will be exploited; prospectors will make a proper exploration of its mountains and valleys, and Puerto Rico will become "Rico" in the full sense of the word when the American public awakens to the wealth, fertility, and natural advantages of our little West Indian colony.

CHAPTER XII

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

THE government of Porto Rico is vested in the Governor, appointed by the President of the United States, and the Legislative Assembly. The Governor is given the power to grant pardons and reprieves, to veto acts of the Legislature, etc. He also appoints all the Judges of the District Courts, Justices of the Peace, and other minor officials, and is the commander-in-chief of the Insular Police force. In addition, the President may assign other duties and powers to the Governor, provided they are not at variance with the law or the Organic Act.

The legislative power is vested in the Legislative Assembly of two houses,—the Executive Council and the House of Delegates. The former consists of 11 members, at least five of whom must be native Porto Ricans. All members are appointed for a term of four years by the President of the United States, with the consent and approval of the United States Senate. Six of

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS 133

the 11 members are also heads of the Executive Departments, namely, the Secretary of Porto Rico, the Attorney General, Auditor of Porto Rico, Treasurer, Commissioner of Interior, and Commissioner of Education.

The House of Delegates consists of 35 members elected every two years by duly qualified voters of the island, there being five delegates for each of the seven insular districts.

Such a form of government and legislature would no doubt prove very satisfactory and fair, provided it was free from intrigue, graft, and dishonesty. Unfortunately the insular politics are far from clean, and political influence and personal profit play a large part in island affairs. A large proportion of the Porto Rican public is ignorant, apathetic, and completely under the thumbs of unprincipled politicians and party leaders. The Latin-American is a born diplomat and politician, and no Anglo-Saxon party leader can hope to keep pace with the smooth and suave machinations of the Spanish-American politicians. Add to this the fact that a great many of the American officials are unable to speak or understand Spanish, that many of

them are men appointed merely to pay off political debts, and that as a rule the American underestimates and looks down upon the natives, and we may understand why and how Porto Rican politics have reached the state in which we find them.

There are two principal parties on the island, known as the "Republican" and "Unionist". In reality the so-called Republicans parties. have nothing in common with our American Republicans. In a broad way the insular Republicans are the smaller business men, the resident Americans, and the coloured population and the party as a whole claims to be pro-American. The Unionist party, on the other hand, consists of the wealthy Porto Ricans, the resident Spaniards, and the large business interests. A large proportion of this party are white men, and the party as a whole is considered anti-American. Swinging first one way and then the other and divided between the two parties, is the great bulk of the population,-the mestizo and mulatto people, the peons and the working class of the island. The leaders of the parties are educated, brainy, intelligent men, and born politicians, and by hook

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS 135

or by crook they twist the bulk of the people about their fingers. It is doubtful if either party really knows what it wants or what it stands for, and sifted down and examined critically the differences between the two are really negligible. As far as real anti- or pro-American feeling is concerned, neither party favours all phases of American legislation and control, and neither party entirely disapproves of our policies. Much blame is placed upon certain Governors for having shown favours or partisanship with one or the other of the parties, but I doubt if this is of any great moment. . The whole trouble is that, like all other Spanish-American races, the Porto Ricans must find recreation and relief in political intrigue, and being either too peaceable or too patriotic to revolt, as do their cousins in other Spanish-American countries, they amuse themselves with the more harmless but equally effective methods of playing politics, buying votes, and making fiery and threatening speeches. At times the Porto Rican parties have split,-much as our own parties are divided unto themselves,and at times a so-called "Democratic party" appears. It is practically hopeless to try and pre-

vent dishonesty and graft in politics in a country where the great mass of people are poor, ignorant, illiterate, and apathetic, and not until the Porto Ricans themselves are aroused to the importance of clean politics and the elimination of unprincipled leaders, dishonest politicians, and "heelers," will the free vote of the Porto Ricans be more than a farce.

One hears a great deal about the ill-feeling of the natives against Americans. As a matter of fact, there *is* a certain amount of this feeling, especially in certain sections, but the feeling is against the American Government and Americans as a people and not against Americans individually.

It must be remembered that Porto Rico was becoming extremely prosperous, men and firms were becoming wealthy, lands had increased in value, and immense sums had been invested in machinery and equipments under our protective tariff on sugar, and the Porto Ricans had been led to believe that their interests would be protected. Without warning the tariff was removed and the Porto Rican planters, unable to compete with Cuba and other localities, were forced into

bankruptcy and enormous losses, and to-day the island is in a very discouraging financial condition, with no prospect of improvement. It is scarcely strange, therefore, that the islanders should feel but little gratitude towards a government or a people who have brought this ruin upon them, and, moreover, many of the officials we have sent out to Porto Rico have been men of little principle or ignorant, prejudiced, dissipated, or in other ways a disgrace to their country and their flag, and totally unfit to handle local conditions or affairs. Much might also be said of the intrigues, deceptions, dishonesty, and guile of native politicians, who are past masters of graft and diplomacy, and by hook or crook pull the wool over the eyes of natives and Americans alike, and wield a power akin to that of Tammany at its worst.

A history of the political situation in Porto Rico would fill a volume, and would prove interesting reading, and were the truth known it would bring a blush of shame to the cheeks of every fair-minded and honest American.

Although it would probably be unwise to grant full citizenship to all the native Porto Ricans, a

vast number of the people are as intelligent, as capable, and far more versed in the duties of citizenship than the majority of Americans. At any rate, we owe it to these people to give them some standing; they welcomed us with open arms when we delivered them from Spanish misrule; they have obeyed our laws, have been loyal, peaceful, and true, and yet to-day they find themselves at the mercy of sharpers and grafters,-not Americans, not United States citizens, but merely "people of Porto Rico,"-a race and nation apart, ruled by aliens, mismanaged, and with an executive assembly wherein the majority are Americans; but on the whole steadfastly patriotic, true to the flag, and ready to send their young men to fight for the very people and the very administration which has robbed them of their chief source of revenue and reduced them from affluence to poverty.

CHAPTER XIII

HEALTH AND SANITATION

WHEN the Americans took possession of Porto Rico it was one of the dirtiest, filthiest, and most unsanitary of countries. Lack of adequate water supply, carelessness, and an utter ignorance and disregard for the simplest rules of hygiene and sanitation had made the island a menace to human health, life, and comfort. There is no greater monument or more lasting proof of the triumph of modern sanitation and science than the present condition of Porto Rico as compared to its past state. To-day Porto Rico is one of the cleanest, the most sanitary, and the healthiest of countries, and it is doubtful if another city in the world can compare with San Juan for cleanliness and health. Even in the outlying districts nearly every respectable house is provided with modern plumbing. Drainage and sewerage are excellent, a pure water supply is maintained, and garbage, rubbish, and similar things are removed daily. A short time ago the island was visited by an epi-

demic of Bubonic Plague, but it was soon under control, and a war of extermination was waged upon the rats, with a result that these vermin have been practically exterminated. Cocoanut trees throughout the island were provided with bands of tin to prevent the rats from seeking refuge among the leaves and nuts; all vessels were compelled to place large iron circles or discs about their hawsers and were removed to open water during the night; traps, poisons, and the mongoose were brought into play, and if the plague ever is introduced into the island again there will be little danger of its spreading by means of rat carriers. The lepers, which are usually in evidence and are a pitiable and disgusting sight in many tropical communities, are safely and comfortably isolated on an island in the harbour. People suffering from the disgusting "yaws," elephantiasis, and similar diseases are seldom or never seen, and even cripples or deformed beggars are conspicuous only by their absence.

After looking through the following tables the reader will no doubt be convinced that in Porto Rico there is every reason for a reasonably careful person to live free from all ills and die of old age.

HEALTH AND SANITATION

	.latoT	2,271 2,186 2,186 2,328 2,328 2,328 2,543	2,487 2,019 1,986 1,909 1,801	26,034
	ХІҮ. ПІІ-defined diseases.	65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 6	55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55	122
	XIII. External causes.	2344884	42 88 33 56 33 49 88 83 56 33	543
an Ba	XII. Old age.	107 122 93 112 126 128	136 124 113 113 113	1,380
GROUF	XI. Early infancy.	212 205 229 243 263 263	291 191 204 187 213 213	2,608
NU BY	X. Malformations.	2-2-02400	∞ es es es 4ª es	58
FICATI	IX. Diseases of the bones and of the organs of loco- motion.	∽ :⇔ ,	H 00140	17
CAUSES OF DEATH-CLASSIFICATION BY GROUPS.	VIII. Diseases of the skin and of the cellular tissue.	20 00 - 2 CL CL	-1900000	64
ATH-(VII. Тhе ристрегаl state.	474 84 11 12	413333333	502
OF DE	VI. Иопчепетеяl diseases of the genito-urinary system and annexa.	10.999888 10.999888	104 120 120 120 120 120 120 120 120 120 120	1,118
AUSES	у. Diseases of the digestive вузет.	700 659 602 678 678 739	691 517 497 516 551 551	7,289
0	IV. Diaeases of the reapira- tory system.	238 219 292 292 292 292 292 292 292 292 292	309 265 237 237 209 237 209	3,123
	III. Diseases of the circu- latory system.	114 102 102 83 83	127 101 888 888 76	1,204
	II. Diseases of the nervons system and of the organs of special sense.	8328888	20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 2	066
	І. Сепегаl diseases.	555 5571 5556 5556 617 656	576 503 470 459 459	6,417
	Монтнз.	1912. July August September November December	January January February March May June	Total

SHOWING BY MONTHS THE NUMBER AND CAUSES OF DEATH, CLASSIFIED BY GROUPS, DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1913. 141

SUMMARY OF DEATHS CAUSED BY TRANSMISSIBLE DISEASES IN ALL THE TOWNS OF THE ISLAND OF PORTO RICO DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1913.

DISEASE.	No.
Typhoid fever	164
Scarlet lever	1
Diphtheria	39
Plague	18
Dysentery	27
Meningitis	59
Whooping cough	44
Parotiditis	1
Filariasis	2
Infantile tetanus	512
Malaria 1	
Tuberculosis 1	
Glanders	3
Leprosy	2
Anemia	627
Colibacilosis	13
Pneumonia	42
Syphilis of the skin	23
Total	1 109

CASES OF TRANSMISSIBLE DISEASES IN PORTO RICO DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1913.

	Typhoid fever.	Sinallpox.	Varicella.	Diphtheria.	Plague.	Dysentery.	Menin- gitis.	Whooping cough.	Parotiditis.
North district South district East district West district	204 344 149 154	$\frac{2}{2}$	24 13 91 46	18 13 35 26	32 	7 6 10 11	1 3	$ \begin{array}{r} 14 \\ 16 \\ 27 \\ 2 \end{array} $	833 72 248 160
North and south district East and west district Total	548 303 851	<u>4</u> 4		31 61 92	32 32	13 21 34	$\frac{1}{3}$	30 29 59	905 408 1,313
	Malaria.	Tubercu- losis.	Glanders.	Leprosy.	Syphilis of the skin.	Filariasis.	Infantile tetanus.	Colibaci- losis.	Pneu- monia,

Grand total, 5,485.

HEALTH AND SANITATION 143

SHOWING THE NUMBER OF DEATHS BY MONTHS AND AGES DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1913.

		Age.									
MONTHS.	Under 1 year.	From 1 to 2 years.	From 2 to 5 years.	From 5 to 10 years.	From 10 to 15 years.	From 15 to 20 years.	From 20 to 25 years.	From 25 to 30 years.	From 30 to 40 years.		
1912.											
July August September October November December 1913.	545 513 493 588 621 636	288 256 277 290 295 310	233 234 226 267 234 322	89 98 113 111 106 130	43 46 57 65 51 48	85 71 64 54 86 81	102 101 127 140 132 108	105 108 92 112 109 138	188 189 165 159 177 201		
January. February. March. April. May. June	612 499 470 484 529 469	276 206 181 127 160 177	265 198 186 166 166 176	120 80 70 83 64 80	54 45 46 32 46 48	77 71 87 83 71 65	130 105 127 114 108 95	116 102 119 94 80 119	218 181 162 154 167 178		
Total	6,459	2,843	2,673	1,144	581	895	1,389	1,294	2,139		

		Age.—Continued.							
Montes.	From 40 to 50 years.	From 50 to 60 years.	From 60 to 70 years.	From 70 to 80 years.	From 80 to 90 years.	From 90 to 100 years.	Over 100 years.	Age unknown.	Total.
1912.									
July August September October November December	14 3 159 144 146 148 157	139 118 102 121 129 116	106 117 122 98 129 109	93 81 97 105 106 100	75 63 45 46 61 60	28 20 15 16 20 17	482522	5 4 5 1 8	2,721 2,186 2,141 2,328 2,407 2,54 3
1913. January February March April May June	162 134 141 141 149 133	121 128 113 116 97 100	130 113 107 117 112 109	98 75 102 69 89 72	63 53 49 51 50 51	36 24 18 27 17 15	325 544	6 3 3 3 	2,487 2,019 1,986 1,866 1,909 1,891
Total	1,757	1,400	1,369	1,087	667	253	46	38	26,034

LEPER COLONY

The leper colony during the year had under treatment 32 inmates, 28 at the beginning of the year and four others during the year. Twenty of these were men and 12 women, almost all adults and coming from different parts of the island. Of the total number during the year four died, leaving at present in the colony 28 inmates. Among the latter there are 18 men, three less than 20 years, one between 20 and 30 years, three from 30 to 40 years, 10 from 40 to 60 years, and one of 60 years. There are 10 women, one of less than 20 years, seven from 20 to 30 years, two from 40 to 60 years, and one of 60 years. Of the total number of cases treated 10 came from San Juan, three from Mayaguez, two from Aguadilla, and one from Humacao, these towns all being capitals of districts. From the other towns five came from Vega Baja, three from Patillas, and one each from Naguabo, Arroyo, Añasco, Bayamon, Cayey, Rio Grande, and Las Piedras. One came also from Valencia, Spain. The number of cases remains practically the same from year to year,

HEALTH AND SANITATION 145

SHOWING BY MONTHS THE NUMBER OF DEATHS DURING THE FISCAL YFAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1913, AND THE CON-JUGAL CONDITION OF THE DECEASED.

		CONJUGAL CONDITION.											
Months	. Si	ngle.	Ma	rried.	Widowid	ows and owers.)i- ced.		Jn- own.			
	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males	Total.		
1912. July August Sept October Nov Dec 1913.	825	796 764 802 823	176 174 162 182 188 178	162 160 173 174 167 190	61 77 67 56 76 57	168 135 134 142 158 146	2 3 2	2 1 1	6 2 10 4 4 8	2 1 3 3 4 2	2,271 2,186 2,141 2,328 2,407 2,543		
Jan Feb March April June	921 797 750 725 768 694	910 689 674 569 620 658	213 161 178 165 173 157	192 167 164 195 148 168 168	79 61 61 61 60 75	$ \begin{array}{r} 157 \\ 135 \\ 148 \\ 143 \\ 135 \\ 135 \\ 135 \\ 135 \\ \end{array} $		$1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ \\ 2 \\ 1$	11 5 4 5 2 2	1 1 2 3 1 1	2,487 2,019 1,986 1,866 1,909 1,891		
Total	10,162	9,066	2,107	2,060	791	1,736	13	12	63	24	26,034		

CHAPTER XIV

THE INSULAR POLICE SERVICE

PORTO RICO is well policed by a body of men known as the Insular Police, comprising 100 guardsmen, 40 corporals, 15 sergeants, and 66 district chiefs, and considering the material at hand, the few members of this force and the character of the country and people, the work of these men and their efficiency is remarkable. All the police are drawn from the lower classes or peons and many are of pronounced negro blood. Unfortunately few speak or understand English, and, as the Chief of Police does not speak Spanish, a great deal is left undone which might be more readily accomplished if the members of the force were compelled to learn English. It is argued that it is impossible to secure men at the meagre salary paid the police who are intelligent enough to learn English, but I can see no reason why the officers should not be given instruction and a knowledge of the so-called "official" language should not be made compulsory in order for

THE INSULAR POLICE SERVICE 147

the men to remain on the force, at least in the towns. The Porto Rican people, even of the lowest classes, are neither vicious, quarrelsome, dishonest, or turbulent as a whole, and comparatively few police are required to maintain order among a large number of natives. Intoxication is uncommon, the people are far from being total abstainers, but a Spanish-American considers it a disgrace to be seen drunk in public, and if under the influence of liquor will remain indoors and out of sight until sober. Among themselves the Porto Ricans at times quarrel, and even assault and murder, but serious felonies are very rare, and attacks on foreigners are unknown, and this is more apparent when we consider that during the year of 1913 only 108 burglaries and 95 murders were committed out of a million and more inhabitants, and not a single case of Lighway robbery was reported. During the strikes of the cigarmakers an unusual number of assaults and murders occurred, and usually the number of such crimes is much less. A very strict and farreaching crusade against carrying concealed weapons has been waged, and tons of revolvers, knives, brass-knuckles, sword-canes, daggers,

razors, clubs, and miscellaneous weapons have been confiscated and destroyed. I was shown over thirty-five hundred revolvers, several barrels of knives, and a wonderful assortment of other weapons, which had been confiscated by the police, and it is now very difficult for the natives to obtain or carry weapons of any sort without being apprehended. Sneak thieves are rather common, but their depredations are made possible by the carelessness of householders, and it is extremely difficult to trace or locate them, especially as they confine their robberies almost exclusively to money and seldom touch jewelry or other personal property. On the whole Porto Rico is a very orderly and law-abiding place, and no one need fear molestation of any sort on the island. The stranger, or native, is far safer in any part of Porto Rico than in the streets of New York or other American cities, and man or woman may travel from one end of the island to the other in perfect security either during the day or night.

A total of 7,567 prisoners have served in the insular jails and penitentiary during the year. Of these, 6,007 were liberated upon expiration of

THE INSULAR POLICE SERVICE 149

term, 33 by pardon, and 138 by commutation of sentence. The prisoners assigned to labour on insular road construction furnished 183,188 days' work, which upon a daily wage basis of 50 cents represents a value in labour on account of public works of \$91,594. On June 30, 1913, there were 1,560 persons serving sentence, and of these 439 were confined in the penitentiary at San Juan.

The inmates of this institution who were available for that purpose were employed or received instruction in shoemaking, carpentry, tailoring, baking, barbering, cooking, and common-school work. Work to the value of \$1,071.81 was turned out by the carpenter shop. Clothing for inmates and discharged prisoners and linen for the hospital were made by the tailor shop. The shoe shop turned out 1,029 pairs of shoes.

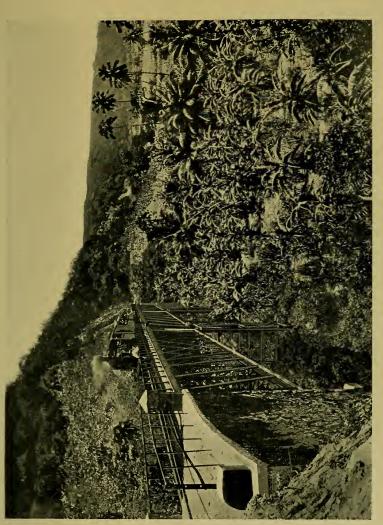
The penitentiary hospital is well provided with medical attendance and equipment, and invalids receive the best possible medical and surgical treatment.

The very unsatisfactory conditions due to the inadequate building used for a penitentiary still exist, although some relief has been afforded dur-

ing the year by the construction of additional wards for women and minors.

The boys' reform school at Mayaguez had 99 inmates at the close of the fiscal year. Their instruction in common-school studies and industrial training has been continued as in the past. Additional funds allotted during the past year have enabled a number of improvements in the buildings and equipment, which add much to the comfort of the inmates.

In concluding the discussion of penal and correctional institutions, reference is again made to the recommendations in previous reports as to the necessity of new accommodations for the insane and for persons undergoing penal sentence. It has been the hope of the insular authorities that a portion of the military reservation at Cayey would be transferred to the insular government in exchange for certain insular government property in San Juan, on which could be constructed a modern penitentiary and an insane asylum. However, the repeated failure to secure congressional approval of the transfer of this property leads to the belief that unless the exchange can be ratified in the near future it will be necessary for



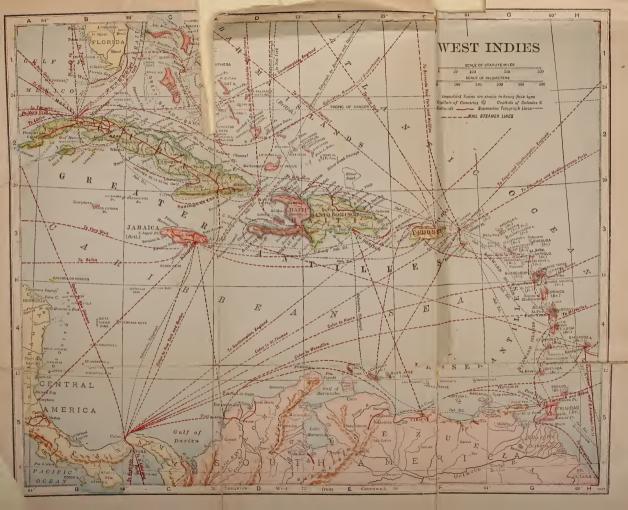
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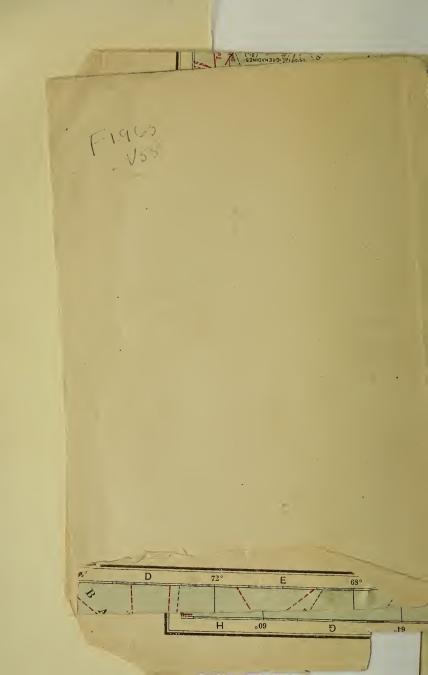
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THE INSULAR POLICE SERVICE 151

the Legislature of Porto Rico to make some other arrangement to relieve the condition of the inmates of those two institutions.

The following tables, extracted from the Governor's report, may be of interest to those readers fond of statistics, and will serve to show the numbers of crimes committed and the classes of offences most prevalent on the island:

STATISTICS SHOWING NUMBER OF FELONIES COMMITTED BY BOTH SEXES DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1913.

30, 1913.						tal
	Sente	enced.	Acqu	itted.		sted.
CRIMES.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
Attempt of murder. Cattle stealing. Burglary. Violation Arson. Grand larceny. Destruction of insured property Against the executive power. Murder	$\begin{array}{c} 33\\16\\86\\12\\10\\55\\8\\5\\10\\29\\124\\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ $	2 2 1 4 1 1	$ \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 1 \\ 22 \\ 3 \\ 8 \\ 1 \\ 5 \\ 27 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 3 \\ 1 \\ 58 \\ 5 \\ 32 \\ 8 \\ 217 \\ \end{array} $	2 1 2 1 5 	37 17 108 14 13 63 4 4 10 95 10 10 10 47 143 220 21 86 36 944	4 2 1 6 22 6 22

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF ARRESTS MADE, CON-VICTIONS AND ACQUITTALS DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1913, FOR THE FOLLOWING OFFENCES AND CRIMES:

CRIMES.	Acquitted.	Sentenced.	Total.
Arrests, illegal Animals, cruelty to	242	1 923	1 1,163
Assault and battery	527 3	2,229 10	2,756 13
Abuse of confidence Automobile laws, infraction	33 31	203 249	236 280
Advertising law, infraction of	8	10 33	10 41
Burglary Bird law, infraction.	22 5	86 3 1	108 8 1
Coins, counterfeit of Court, contempt of	2	41	43 2
Corpses, profanation of Cattle stealing Docks and harbours law, infraction of.	2 1 4	16 22	17 26
Executive power, crime committed by or against the		7	12
Exposures, indecent Excise tax, infraction of	18	65	83 1
Election law, infraction of Forgery.	5	81 6	86 6
False pretence Flag, profanation of United States	16	128 3	144 3
Fishing law, infraction of Gambling	4 1,224	1 5,701	5 6,925
Health and safety, crime against the public Injury, malicious	13 69	29 152	$\frac{42}{221}$
Internal revenue laws, infraction of	4 7	102 36 22	40 29
Insanity, dangerous Justice, crime against public Kidnapping	33	55 1	88 1
Larceny, grand Larceny, petit	8 232	55 1,375	63 1,607
Lottery tickets, sale of Labour, child	3	12 26	15 29
Libel	1 11	1 31	2 42
Murder, attempt of Minors, neglect of	2 9	23 8	27 17
Mortality, against Mutilation	4	18 10	22 11
Medicine, illegal practice of Minors, corruption of	1 2 7	6 12	8 19 3
Maritime zone, constructions on the Nature, crime against	3 1,212	8 209	3
Ordinances, infractions of, municipal Property, fraudulent destruction of, in-	1,818	8,302	9,5 4 1 4
Peace, disturbance of the Prostitution	4,131 21	8,158 44	10,289 65

THE INSULAR POLICE SERVICE 153

Crimes.	Acquitted.	Sentenced.	Total.
Postal laws, violation of		3	3
Perjury Pharmacy law, infraction of		1	1
Rape		2	2
Road laws, infraction of	111	1,474 14	1,585 32
Seduction	18	29	47
Sanitary laws, infraction of		$\begin{array}{c}10\\2,477\end{array}$	$10 \\ 2,787$
Slander	8	21	29
Sec. 553, Penal Code, infraction of (Sunday closing)		167	228
Sec. 300, Penal Code, infraction of			
(gambling houses) Sec. 37, Penal Code, infraction of	18	47	65
(inexcusable use of deadly weapons)	8	19	27
Sec. 137, Penal Code, infraction of (other offences against the public			
justice)	16	14	30
Sec. 444, Penal Code, infraction of (larceny)	5	16	21
Sec. 305, Penal Code, infraction of			
(pawnbrokers) Sec. 438, Penal Code, infraction of	1	•••••	1
(purchasing stolen articles)		1	1
Sec. 412, Penal Code, infraction of (having possession of burglarious in-			
struments)		3	3
Sec. 444-A, Penal Code, infraction of (unlawful use of property of another)		12	17
Sec. 180, Penal Code, infraction of			
(sale of liquors on eve of election) Sec. 223, Penal Code, infraction of		2	2
(assault with intent to commit felony)		2	2
Sec. 56, Penal Code, infraction of (sub- sequent offences)		1	1
Sec. 36, Penal Code, infraction of (ac-			
cessory) Thefts Treasury, frand against the public		1 4	1 4
		4	7
Violation Weights and measures, false		14 105	14 19
Weapons, carrying deadly	162	2,323	2,485
	6,691	34,967	41,658

Nore.--During the year there were 56 suicides and 45 attempts to suicide.

CHAPTER XV

MANUFACTURES, EXPORTS, FINANCE, ETC.

ALTHOUGH Porto Rico is primarily an agricultural community and its greatest wealth is in products of the soil, yet numerous articles are manufactured on the island, and there are many thriving mechanical and other industries. Space will not permit of a detailed list of the factories, shops, mills, and other industries, but among the goods made upon the island may be mentioned: Boards; sash and blinds; doors; house trimmings; wooden ware; ornamental woodwork, etc. Iron and other foundries are in operation; stoves, dishes, pottery, and furniture are made. There are numerous lime, brick, and tile factories. Boats, carriages, and wagons are manufactured in various towns. The excellent trolley cars used in San Juan are made in the Miramar shops at Santurce, and there are steam laundries, ice factories, gas plants, soda-water factories, bottling works, and canneries in all parts of the island. Chocolate, cigars, and tobacco, spaghetti, bay-

MANUFACTURES, EXPORTS, ETC. 155

rum, guava jelly, soap, salt, cheese, and butter are made in nearly every town, and the beautiful floor tiles and mosaic work cannot fail to attract the attention of the visitor. Excellent trunks, steam boilers, barrels, boxes, leather, and even shirts are among the native products, and in addition there are match factories, machine shops, rubber stamp makers, manufacturing jewellers, hat manufacturers, and scores of other lesser industries.

	Total authorized capital stock.	\$50,000 1,000 1,000 150,000 150,000 50,000 50,000 50,000 50,000 50,000 50,000 100,000 100,000 100,000 100,000 50,000 50,000 50,000 100,000 50,0000 50,0000 50,0000 50,0000 50,0000 50,000 50,000 50,000 50,00
	Paid-in capital.	\$1,000 10,000 15,000 15,000 1,0000 1,0000 1,0000 1,0000 1,0000000 1,00000000
ING THE FISCAL YEAR 1912-1913.	Principal purposes.	Electric light, power, and transpor- tation
IE FISCAL	Location.	Mayagüez San Juan Maricao San Juan Añasco San Juan Caguas San Juan Mayagüez Arecibo Arecibo Arecibo San Juan Ponce San Juan Ponce San Juan
IL ÐII	МАМБ.	Mayagüez Tranway Co

DOMESTIC CORPORATIONS REGISTERED IN THE OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY OF PORTO RICO DUR-

156

PORTO RICO PAST AND PRESENT,

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REGISTERED	INC
FOREIGN CORPORATIONS REGISTERED IN THE OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY OF PORTO RICO DUR-	
FOREIGN	

	Total authorized capital stock.	\$250,000 5,000 225,000 225,000 225,000 40,000 100,000 100,000 30,000 60,000 60,000 80,000 80,000 81,705,000
	Paid-in capital.	\$250,000 95,500 95,500 79,000 15,000 100,000 100,000 20,450,000 30,000 824,200 66,000 66,000 66,000
	Principal purposes.	General contracting Food products. Fleetrical contract- ing, supplies Fruits Pobacco Fruits Manufacture and anu of gas. Machinery and mo- tor vehicles finon work Machinery and mo- tor vehicles en or supplies Machinery and mo- tor vehicles en or supplies Machinery and mo- tor vehicles en or supplies finon work
	Address.	San, Juan Bayamon Bayamon Manati Citrus Citrus Pueblo Viejo San Juan
-	Agent.	Purdy & Henderson. Trenton, N. J. Fred. O. Lewis. San Juan General contracting foot dist. Portix Bleactive Go. New York, N. Y. Max Konnetch Bayamon Frond contracting foot dist. Portix Bleactive Go. New York, N. Y. General contracting foot dist. Bayamon Frond contracting foot dist. Privit Co. New York, N. Y. G. C. Kautzmann Bayamon Fruits Areoto Grape Fruit New York, N. Y. G. W. Middleton Bayamon Fruits Privit Co. Barti Fruit Co Bart Fruits Pruits Diant foot dist Proto kico Giast Co Bart Fruits Citrus Pruits Diant foot dist Proto kico Giast Co Bart Fruits Manati Diant foot dist Diant foot dist Proto kico Giast Co Bart Fruits Mant foot dist Diant foot dist Diant foot dist Proto kico Gias Co Bart foot dist Diant foot dist Diant foot dist Diant foot dist Proto kico Co Bart foot dist Diant foot dist Diant foot dist Diant foot dist Proto kico Co
	Location.	Trenton, N. J New, York, N. Y Buffalo, N. Y Buffalo, N. Y Butfalo, N. Y Wilmington, Del Mew York, N. Y New York, N. Y Johnstown, N. Y Buffalo, N. Y
	NAME.	Purdy & Henderson. Trenton, N. J Bits Wholesale Co., New York, N. Y., Prosth Blectric Co., New York, N. Y. Arento Guane Fruit Co., Buffalo, N. Y The Sola Cigar Co., Barflalo, N. Y Co., Bart Pruit Co., Shaft Drange, N. J. Shand Fruit Co., Buffalo, N. Y Porto Rico Porto Rico Porto Rico Porto Rico Machine Co Raction Co Public Service Con. Struction Co Machine Co Machine Co Area fright. New York, N. Y The Snare & Triest Co The Snare & Triest Machine Co Buffalo, N. Y Public Service Con. Struction Co The Snare & Triest Co The Snare & Triest Co The Royal Fruit Co. Donstown, N. Y. The Royal Fruit Co.

MANUFACTURES, EXPORTS, ETC. 157

DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN MERCHANDISE SHIPPED FROM PORTO RICO TO THE UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1913.

ARTICLES.		pped to the	Domestic merchan- dise exported to foreign countries.		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
Cocoalbs. Coffee	1,632 773,626 192, 5 81	132,970	49,000,571	8,378,346	
Fruits and nuts: Orangesboxes Pineapplescrates Grapefruitboxes Prepared or preserved—	360,232	1,142,007	56		
Pineapplesboxes Cocoanuts M Hides and skins, other than furs Honey	10,797	348,619	107 3,596	3,771 600 9,514	
Leather, solelbs. Seeds: Cottonlbs. Annatto	88,176 213,225	18,726	4,232 457,163	1,150	
Spirits, distilled : Alcoholgals. Rum	3,041	988 215,163	43		
Sugartons Molassesgals. Tobacco and manufactures of : Unmanufactured—	11,150,572	607,747	•••••		
Leaflba. Scrap	6,952,467 1,196,998	3,006,854 141,234			
Cigars M Cigarettes M Tallowbs. All other domestic articles	165,524 8,442 72,887	5,800,162 23,923 4,391 577,475	15 234,211	524 21 18,397 53,560	
Total exports of domestic merchandise		\$40,529,665		\$8,549,451	
Total exports of foreign merchandise		8,958		15,491	
Total exports of domestic and foreign merchandise		\$40,538,623		\$8,564,942	

MANUFACTURES, EXPORTS, ETC. 159

FISCAL YEAR.	Sugar.	Cigars.	Coffee.
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906	\$4,715,611 5,890,302 7,470,122 8,690,814 11,925,804 14,184,667	\$306,115 1,549,235 1,753,795 1,460,496 2,152,051 3,074,226	\$1,678,765 3,195,662 3,970,574 3,903,257 2,141,009 3,481,102
1907	$\begin{array}{r} 14,770,682\\ 18,690,504\\ 18,432,446\\ 23,545,922\\ 24,479,346\\ 31,544,063\\ 26,619,158 \end{array}$	4,241,410 3,414,140 4,383,893 4,480,030 5,355,223 5,086,711 5,800,686	4,693,004 4,304,609 3,715,744 5,669,602 4,992,779 6,754,913 8,511,316

	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
1902	\$8,918,136 13,209,610 14,449,286 13,169,029 16,536,259 21,827,665 29,267,172 25,825,665 26,544,326 30,634,855 38,786,997	\$8,583,967 12,433,956 15,089,079 16,265,903 18,709,565 23,257,550 26,996,300 30,644,490 30,391,225 37,960,219 39,918,367 49,705,413	\$17,502,103 25,643,566 29,538,365 29,434,932 35,245,824 45,085,195 56,263,472 56,263,472 56,470,155 56,935,551 68,595,074 78,705,364 92,631,886

....

STATEMENT BY COUNTRIES OF VALUE OF MERCHANDISE BROUGHT INTO PORTO RICO FROM THE UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES FOR THE FIVE YEARS END-ING JUNE 30, 1913.

	SHIPPED INTO PORTO RICO.							
COUNTRIES.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913			
United States	\$23,618,545	\$27.097.654	\$34.671,958	\$38,470,963	\$33,155,005			
Austria-Hungary	8,826	7.030	15,000	11,329	10,406			
Belgium	55,406	97,340	99,949	87,507	142,571			
Denmark	48,388	67,127	108,737	97,593	111,212			
France	336,855	345,469	435,024	409.278	348,975			
Germany	250,981	493,856	586,575	601,723	326.419			
Italy	72,106	76,611	80,847	105.446	74,986			
Netherlands	122,842	164.314	252,596		237,969			
Norway	2,097	414		271	287			
Portugal	1,055	993		1,920	692			
Spain	585,792	708,573	791,293	843,120	761,082			
Turkey	558			0.005	10.050			
Sweden			2,127	2,325	19.659			
Switzerland	3,725	373	1,012		2,262 368,107			
United Kingdom	332,087	366,241	423.809	490,579 699,731	639,178			
Canada	536,260	555,729			82,023			
Newfoundland	170,107	77,074 85			103			
Panama	803	13,226			61,804			
Mexico	, 26,674	15,880	2,924	50,405	01,004			
Miquelon, Langley,		5,183						
etc		0,100						
West Indies:	8,343	1,954		15,548	18,893			
British	42,360	56,511	43,815					
Cuba	3,754	12,128			4.632			
Danish Dutch	8,673	38,504			6,691			
French	0,010		2,827		133			
Haiti				60	11			
Santo Domingo.	13,156	41,395	52,508		16,857			
Argentina	19,263			89,879	86,989			
Brazil		765						
Colombia	3,656	3,248	6,579		6,720			
Ecuador	1			3,123	366			
Guiana-British	795		45					
Peru		172						
Uruguay	126,614	199,341						
Venezuela	8,191	7,925	11,716	13,455	14,627			
East Indies-British		100.000	107 000	005 501	040 705			
India	115,340				242,195 68			
Japan	56							
Canary Islands	21,018	43,066	35,707	04,108	2,500			
Spanish Africa					2,500			
Total	\$26,544,326	\$30,634,855	\$38,786,997	\$42,972,891	\$36,900,062			

STATEMENT SHOWING COST OF CONSTRUCTION OF ROADS AND BRIDGES TO JUNE 30, 1913.

1 () () () () () () () () () (Valuation as of June 30, 1913
Cost of roads and bridges to July 1, 1913	\$7,061,032.5
Construction of various sections of roads defrayed from- Proceeds of sale of bonds for road construction, trust fund	
COMPTENDED VERS BAIS-MOTOVIS FOOD	46,586.68
	2,127.6
CONSTRUCTION OF A LECTRO-LARES FORD	0.010 8
COnstruction of Martin Pena, Bayamon road	0.004.44
COnstruction of origes over inshon Corrillog and Dorty	0,00111
Eucse nivers	345.83
	866.58
Study of road, Barros to Coamo Completion of Arecibo-Hatillo road.	755.86
Construction of road from Road No. 2 to Florida Adentro	659.14
Construction of Ciales-Juana Diaz road	12.42
Druge ally road construction between reform school and	263.40
mayaguez Playa	010.00
3 and 4	300.00
3 and 4 Completion of road between Mayaguez and Maricao, via Las Vezas	
Las Vegas. Completion of Road No. 2 between San Juan and Arecibo	651.04
Bridge over Schene Diver et Lucuiti	138.93
Bridge over Sebana River at Luquillo Construction of Road No. 16 from Yanco to Road No. 14	2,725.86
JUISTRUCTION OF San Schastian, Les Maries road	813.69
Joinpletion of San German-Lajas road	32.00
Construction of Camuy-San Sebastian road	112.50
	89.47
Total to June 30, 1913	\$7,220,707.42

NUMBER OF VESSELS AND TONNAGE ENTERING PORTS OF PORTO RICO DURING FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1913.

8	San Juan.		Ponce.		Mayaguez.		Arroyo.	
American steamers American sailing Foreign steamers Foreign sailing Total	.radmnN 2888 101 27 496	999,265 64,107 353,868 3,432 420,672	January 176 38 85 31 330	555,434 34,866 355,575 5,184 851,059	.radmnN 230 33 44 6 818	300 880 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90		255,511 10,552 8,345 274,408

	Hu	Humacao. Faja		jardo. Aguadilla.		Total Ameri- can and for- eign steam and sailing vessels.		
	Number.	Gross tonnage.	Number.	Gross tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Total	Tonnage.
American steamers American sailing Foreign steamers Foreign sailing	81 12 	240,376 6,390	47 8 	146,829 6,611	115 6 22 1	349,618 1,781 52,842 72	1,028 189 254 65	2,513.572 126,254 731,502 9,610
Total	93	246,766	55	153,440	144	404,313	1,536	3,380,938

CHAPTER XVI

TRANSPORTATION

THE facilities for transportation of merchandise or passengers in Porto Rico are really wonderful. Although the island is small and no point is more than eighteen miles distant from the sea,-in a straight line,---yet the broken, rugged, and mountainous character of the island make the actual distances between points very great. The Spaniards early recognised the value of good roads, and when the island came into the possession of the United States there were already nearly two hundred miles of splendid highway on the island, the principal one being the famous Military Road from San Juan to Ponce. Since the American occupation numerous additional macadam roads have been constructed, until at the present time there are over eight hundred miles of beautifully graded, smooth-surfaced roads suitable for automobile traffic. These splendid highways connect all the principal towns and cities, and form a network of arteries of travel which is unequalled

in any West Indian island and is excelled by few places in the world. The original and principal means of travel in Porto Rico was formerly by means of horse-drawn vehicles, mule trains, riding horses, and the great lumbering, creaking bull-carts. To-day nearly all the passenger and a great proportion of the freight transportation is carried on in automobiles, auto trucks, and railway trains, but an enormous amount of freight is still hauled in wagons, carriages, and ox-carts. At the present time there are about one thousand automobiles on the island, and several companies operate passenger and freight lines of autos running on a regular schedule between various points.

The railway facilities of the island are far less up-to-date and satisfactory than the auto lines, but the character of the country prevents the extensive use of steam roads, save in certain sections and near the coasts, and under the circumstances the railway accommodations are as good as could be expected.

From Carolina on the north coast a steam road connects at San Juan with the line to the western end of the island, extending to Arecibo and hence south to Mayaguez and Ponce to Guayama, in this way encircling nearly four-fifths of the island and passing through all the important coastal In various places short branches of this towns. system penetrate some distance to the interior and furnish transportation to the sugar "centrals." Another railway extends from Mameyes to Naguabo; another connects Dorado with Vega Alta; another runs between Humacao and Humacao Playa; still another line connects Añasco and Altosano; the Caguas tramway connects Rio Piedras with Caguas, and another short branch runs from Cantaño to Bayamon. It will thus be seen that the traveller in Porto Rico may reach almost any desired point by means of modern vehicles and fairly rapid transit, and that practically every district of the island is provided with ample transportation facilities to enable the planter, agriculturist, or manufacturer to get his goods or products to the seacoast towns. The bugbear of poor and expensive transportation, which has proved such a detriment to many other tropical localities, is entirely wanting in Porto Rico.

The oceanic transportation facilities are also excellent, no less than fourteen steamship lines running to the island. The main lines operating

between the United States and Porto Rico are the Red "D," the New York and Porto Rico, and the Bull lines. The Red "D" line operates a line of ships running from New York to Venezuela and touching at San Juan on the outward and homeward trips. The New York and Porto Rico line is the principal passenger and mail line, and operates three large and splendidly appointed ships between New York and San Juan, calling at Ponce and Mayaguez. These ships sail weekly every Saturday from New York and arrive at San Juan the following Wednesday or Thursday. In addition the company operates coastwise steamers, carrying freight and passengers about the island, and other ships of the same line ply between Porto Rico and New Orleans. The Insular and Bull lines, which have recently combined, are devoted to freight carrying. The Spanish and French Transatlantic steamers connect Porto Rico with Europe, Mexico, Cuba, Central America, Haiti, San Domingo, and other West Indian ports, while the Hamburg-American line runs a ship between St. Thomas and Jamaica, calling at Porto Rico and San Domingo, and the Italian line runs from Mediterranean ports to the island.

TRANSPORTATION

There are also numerous sailing vessels plying from port to port about the coast and from other West Indian islands; a ferry line runs regularly across San Juan Harbour between the capital and Cantaño, and gasoline launches are at the service of those desiring to reach other waterside towns.

A very important item in the transportation of freight, baggage, and merchandise is the service offered by the Porto Rican Express Company and the Consolidated Express Company. These firms maintain an insular service of auto trucks and express wagons, and also operate an express service over the railway lines and forward merchandise over seas by the Red "D" and New York and Porto Rico Steamship Companies.

The postal service is excellent, with daily and bi-daily deliveries in all towns, and a bi-weekly service with the United States. The various parts of the island are also connected by telegraph and telephone lines; cables link the island to all parts of the world, and the powerful wireless station at San Juan allows of direct communication with New York, and upon the completion of the plant will be one of the most, if not the most, powerful wireless station in the world.

American Railroad Time Table-San Juan-Ponce Division

READ	DOWN		REA	D UP
Daily	Daily	STATIONS	Daily	Daily
3	1		2	4
P. M.	A. M.	Depart Arrive	P. M.	A. M.
9.10 9.15	$7.20 \\ 7.25$	San Juan Miramar-F	5.06 5.01	8.48 8.43
= 9.26 9.30	7.31 = 7.34		4.56 4.52	8.38 8.33
9.39	7.41	Martín Peña	4.46	8.27
9.45 10.08	$7.47 \\ 8.02$	San Patricio-F Bayamón	4.39 4.23	† 8.19 8.03
10.20 10.26 F	8.13 8.18	Bayamón Sabana Seca-F Ingenio-F	4.11 4.06	7.51 7.46
10.33	8 25	Toa Baja	4.00	7.40
10.38 10.57 F	8.29 8.50	Dorado San Vicente.	3.56 3.35	7.36 7.15
11.04 11.09	8.56 9.01	Vega Baja	3.29 3.22	7.09
11.18	9.10	Algarrobo-FCampo Alegre-F	3.13	6.54
$11.25 \\ 11.37$	$9.15 \\ 9.27$	ManatiBarceloneta	3.08	6.49 6.37
11.51	9.41		2.40	6.25
11.57 F 12.07	9.47 9.57	Santana-F Cambalache	2.34 2.25	6.19 6.07
12.13	10.03	Arrive Arecibo Station Depart	2.18	6.00
$12.00 \\ 12.20$	9.45 10.15	D Arecibo A. A Arecibo D.	2.22 1.52	5.50 5.35
12.48 1.26 F	$10.09 \\ 10.32$	D Arecibo A.	$2.12 \\ 1.50$	5.25 4.54 F
1.32 F	10.37	Hatillo Camuy Quebradillas	1.45	4.46 F
$1.56 \\ 2.25$	$10.59 \\ 11.27$	Quebradillas	1.23 12.55	4.15 3.41
3.01	12.03	A * Aguadilla D.	12.18	3.02
3.43 3.57 F	$12.28 \\ 12.42$	DAguadillaA.	11.53 11.41	$2.30 \\ 2.16$
4.08 4.19 F	12.50	Aguada Santoni	11.33	2.07 F 1.45 F
4.33	1.11	Rincón	11.12	1.43
4.39 F 4.51	$1.17 \\ 1.29$	Córcega Tres Hermanos-F	$11.06 \\ 10.53$	1.36 F 1.17
5.02	1.39	Añasco	10.44	1.10
$5.17 \\ 5.37$	$\frac{1.54}{2.00}$	A Mayaguez Playa D. D Mayaguez Playa A.	10.27 10.19	12.45 12.15
$5.46 \\ 6.03$	$2.06 \\ 2.23$	Mayagnez	$ \begin{array}{r} 10.15 \\ 9.55 \end{array} $	$12.10 \\ 11.50$
6.10	2.30	Hormigueros. Río Rosario-FFilial Amor.	9.47	11.42
$6.15 \\ 6.25$	$2.35 \\ 2.45$		9.43 9.32	$11.38 \\ 11.26$
6.44	3.02	Lajas City	9.13	11.03
6.49 6.57	3.07 3.15	Lajas Station Lajas Arriba-F	9.07 8.57	$10.56 \\ 10 \ 46$
7.05 7.14	3 22 3.32	L Plato-F-	8.50 8.43	10.40 10.30
7.27	3.44	Santa Rita	8.31	10.17 .
$7.38 \\ 7.50$	3.54 4.06	Yauco Lluveras-F	-8.21 -8.07	10.07 9.52
8 00	4.15	Gnayanilla	7.59	9.44
$\begin{array}{c} 8.14\\ 8.38\end{array}$	4.29 4.50		7.44 7.20	9.28 F 9.00
A. M.	P. M.	Arrive Depart	A. M.	P. M.

At flag stops trains step on signal to receive or discharge passengers. F In column showing time indicates flag stop for that train. F After name of Station indicates flag stop for that train. * Stop for Lunch.

TRANSPORTATION

TIME TABLE AND FARES BY THE AUTO BUSSES OF PORTO RICO TRANSPORTATION COMPANY

TIME SCHEDULE

ITINERARIO

		San	Juar	-Ponce						
SOUTH	I-BOU	ND	_	NORTH	I-BOU	ND				
Run No.	1	3	5	Run No.	2	6				
San Juan Lv. Rio Piedras. Arr. Cayeay	8:40		6:00 7:00 8:00 9:00 9:45	CayeyLv. CaguasArr. Rio Piedras"	9:25 10:25 11:30 12:10	5:15 6:20 7:30 8:45	6:30 7:45 10:00 11:00			
	Ca	ayey-	-Gua	yama—Ponce						
SOUTH A	ND W	EST		EAST AND NORTH						
Run No.	7			Run No.	8					
CayeyLv. GuayamaArr. Salinas Sta. Isabel Ponce	6:00 7:30 8:45 9:15 10:30	*		Ponce Lv. Sta. Isabel" Salinas" Guayama" Cayey"	4:30 5:45 6:15 7:30 9:00					
		Hur	nacad	-Caguas						
W	EST			EAST						
Deen Mr.	0			D M.	1 40	1 10	-			

W.	EST		EAST					
Run. No.		11	Run No.	10	12			
Las PiedrasArr. Juncos" Gurabo"	6:35 7:05 7:25	12:00 12:20 12:50 1:10 +1:35	CaguasLv. AuraboArr. funcos" Las Piedras" Tumacao"	10:20 10:50 11:10	6:55 7:25 7:55			

+ Connects at Caguas for San Juan.

† Connecta en Caguas para San Juan.

* Connects in Caguas for Humacao.

* Connecta en Caguas para Humacao.

The time given above is the time at which the busses are expected to arrive, but the time of departure or arrival is not guaranteed nor will the company be liable for any failure to depart or arrive on schedule.

El tiempo indicado arriba es el due se permite para llegar los carrusjes, pero las salidas y llegadas de éstos no se garantizan, ni la Compañía se hace responsable de cualquier accidente que pueda entorpecer el itinerario.

0 1	PORTO	RICO	PAST	AND	PRESENT
-----	-------	------	------	-----	---------

Rio Piedras	1.00	T																• •	-		_			
abuM sJ	1.25	0.75]															10 ascertain fare between points. Find the	name or one point in one marginal column and	the name of the other point in the other man-	ginal column. I ne lare between the two points	is given where the times enclosing the names in-		
Caguas	1.50	1.40	0.75	Ī	_												i	3	Colum	othe	CANO -			
Gurabo	2.00	2.00	1.50	0.75		_											g ·	points	ginal	n the				
Juncos	2.50	2.50	1.75	1.00	-0.75		_										rare 18 same in citner direction.	cen l	- mar	U TUIO	Detwe	ncrost		
Les Piedras	2.75	2,75	2.00	1.25	1.00	0.75	Ī	_									ther	Detw	u one	ler p	Iare			
Humacao	2.75	2.75	2.00	1.75	1.50	1.00	0.75										5	I Tare		ne ott	1 10			
Las Cruces	2.50	2.50	1.75	1.00	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	Ĩ							-	sam	ertaun	d auc		1	vitetic		
Cayey	2.75	2.75	2.00	1.50	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.00	0.75								ELC 18	0 830	5	name	nicol		;	
Barrio Maton	3.60	3.60	2.75	2.50	3.25	3.50	4.00	4.00	1.50	0.85	Ī					5	48	1	TIBIL		gung	12 21	1008101	
Aibonita	4.00	4.00	3.25	2.75	3.50	4.00	6.25	4.25	2.00	1.25	0.85													
Rio Cuyon	4.75	4.75	4.00	3.00	4.00	4.25	4.50	4.50	2.75	2.00	1.50	0.85	ł											
ouno	5.25	5.25	4.50	4.00	5.00	5.25	5.50	5.50	3.75	2.50	2.00	1.25	0.85											
Barrio Rio Cañas	5.75	5.75	5.00	4.50	5.25	5.50	6.00	6.00	4.25	3.00	2.50	1.75	1.75	0.75										
zsiG sasut	6.00	6.00	5.25	4.75	5.50	6.00	6.35	6.25	4.50	3.25	2.75	2.00	1.75	1.00	0.75									
Jajome	3.50	3.50	3.00	2.75	3.25	3.50	4.00	4.00	1.75	1.00	1.75	2.25	3.00	3.50	4.00	4.25								
Guayanta	4.00	4.00	3.50	3.25	3.75	4.50	4.75	4.75	2.25	1.50	2.25	3.00	3.50	4.25	4.50	5.00	1.00							
lobos	4.25	4.25	4.00	3.75	4.50	5.00	5.25	5.25	3.00	2.25	3.00	3.50	4.25	5.00	5.25	5.50	1.75	0.50						
iupoD	4.75.	4.75	4.50	4.25	5.00	5.25	5.50	5.50	3.25	2.50	3.25	3.75	4.75	5.25	5.50	6.00	2.00	0.75	0.50					
sanilaZ	5.25	5.25	5.00	4.50	5.2	5.50	6.00	6.00	3.50	3.00	3.50	4.25	5.00	5.50	6.00	6.25	2.35	1.25	0.75	0.50				
Santa Isebel	5.50	§.50	5.25	5.00	5.50	6.00	6.25	6.25	4.00	3,25	4.00	4.75	5 25	6.00	6.25	6.50	2.75	1.50	1.00	0.75	0.75			
Cortada	6.00	6.00	5.50	5.25	6.8	6.25	6.50	6.50	4.23	3.50	4.25	5.00	5 50	6.25	6.50	6.75	3.00	2.00	1.25	1.00	1.00	0.50		
Fortuna	6.25	6.25	5.75	5.25	6.00	6.25	6.50	6.50	4.75	3.75	4.75	5.25	6.00	6.50	6 75	7.00	3.25	2 25	1 75	1 25	1 25	0.75	0.50	
Ponce	6.50	6.50	5.75	5.25	6.00.	6.25	6.50	6.50	5.25	3 75	3.25	2.50	2.25	1.25	1.00	0.75	3 50	2 50	2.00	1.50	1 50	1.00	0 75	0.50
First Class Fare. Tarifa de primera class entre los pun- tos de la linea.	San Juan	Rio Piedras	La Muda	Caguas	Gurabo	Juncos	Las Piedras	Humacao	Las Cruces	Cayey	Barrio Maton	Aibonito	Rio Cuyon	Coamo	Barrio Rio Cañas	Juana Diaz	Jajome	Guayama	Jobos	Coqui	Salinas	Santa Isabel	Cortada	Fortuna

CHAPTER XVII

HOTELS, BOARD, AND LIVING EXPENSES

WHILE hotels are legion on the island, yet really good hotels are few and far between. Practically every town boasts one or more hotels, and while the traveller or tourist can find bed and board in any part of the island, yet the fastidious visitor will find much to be desired. The majority of the hotels are clean, and the proprietors undoubtedly do their best to please, but their resources are limited and their knowledge of the wants of Americans and of the management of hotels is very rudimentary. As a rule the food is Spanish or Porto Rican, and many of the dishes are too greasy, too highly spiced, or savour too much of garlic to appeal to the Northern palate. One should not, however, be discouraged. Usually among the vast array of dishes on the menu one may find two or three which are acceptable, while the native vegetables, fruit, chickens, and eggs are always good. The rate charged in these small native hostelries is as high as in the larger

and better hotels in the principal towns. From \$1.50 to \$2.00 a day,—American plan,—is the ordinary rate, but the accommodations are not worth over \$1.00 at the most.

In the large towns the majority of the hotels are but little better than those of the outlying and interior towns. In San Juan proper there is really no good hotel. The Plaza, Inglaterra, and Frances are probably the best, but in these one will find native cooking and poor service. In the suburb of Santurce, however, are two really good places, the Hotel Eureka and the Hotel Nava. The former is close to the Union Club, and is a large and commodious building, with excellent rooms, but in the United States it would be considered far from a first-class hotel, although the rates savour of the Murray Hill or the Knickerbocker. The Nava is by far the better, and both are conducted by Americans. At the Nava the rooms are large, airy, wonderfully neat and clean, and the table is probably the best on the island. The rates at the Nava are \$3.00 and \$4.00 and up. The management leaves much to be desired, but it is really the only hotel where one feels that he is getting his money's worth. At Ponce the Hotel Frances is an excellent hotel, with rates of from \$3.00 up, but the Inglaterra or the Melia are very satisfactory for a short stop. The table at the Inglaterra is good for native cooking, the rooms are airy, clean, and comfortable, and the rates are from \$1.50 to \$2.00.

In many places there are private boarding houses, and several are to be found at Santurce. These boarding houses are conducted by Americans, and the rates are fully equal to those in the hotels, whereas the service does not approach that of the best hotels, the food is no better nor even as good, and there is really no advantage whatever in stopping at a boarding house. Unfortunately the Porto Rican boarding house keepers and hotel proprietors have a mistaken idea that all visitors prefer American dishes, and heavy meals of numerous imported vegetables, cereals, meat, and canned goods are served at every meal. It is comparatively seldom that odd native vegetables are served or that any fruit, save oranges or bananas, are seen on the table. For this reason the smaller native hostelries are preferable if one really desires to sample native food, but this may

be done to better advantage in some of the many good restaurants.

In San Juan and Ponce there are numerous large cafés or restaurants, where lunches, dinners, etc., may be obtained, and where splendid chocolate and delicious coffee, tasty cakes, biscuits, sweetmeats, and excellent ice-cream may be had. Everywhere are little stores, kiosks, and cafés, where one may obtain iced drinks, sodawater, and excellent beer, made on the island. These soft drinks are all good; they are pure, refreshing, and are usually preferable to local water, although Porto Rico water is as a rule perfectly safe to drink. Several mineral springs on the island furnish sparkling vichy-like water, which is for sale in every town, and such brands as "Pastilla" may be used, with absolute confidence. Cocoanut water from green cocoanuts, known as "Cocos de Agua," is cooling and refreshing, and may be taken as frequently and as freely as one desires. Nearly all the native fruits are healthy, and many of them are cooling and nourishing. To appreciate some tropical fruits and vegetables, the Northerner must cultivate an acquired taste, but good oranges, grapefruit, pineapples, and bananas are always available. The cost of living in Porto Rico depends largely upon how one lives. If you insist on American food and subsist upon imported things, the cost of living is high, whereas if you can accustom yourself to native dishes and are fond of vegetables and fruits, the cost of living is quite reasonable. House rents are excessive, but now and then one may find a house which is comparatively cheap. Furniture, household goods, and almost all other merchandise is sold for the same prices as in New York. Servants are high, and as a rule poor and untrustworthy. English-speaking servants from St. Thomas, St. Kitts, or the British islands are preferable to the natives in most cases, but nearly everything in the island has an inflated value. Gas ranges are used extensively in San Juan, Ponce, and the large towns; electricity is used everywhere for lighting; running water is in nearly every house, and one may have every comfort and convenience of the North if desired.

There is a great and increasing need for a wellconducted, properly-managed, and convenient hotel, planned and arranged for the tropics and with meals served à la carte or table d'hôte.

Such a hotel should have a bus or auto meet the steamers, should have a carriage and auto livery connected with it, and should be equipped to furnish reliable, intelligent guides to accompany guests about the towns, and to act as interpreters. If a hotel of this sort should be established, and with road-houses or branches at various towns throughout the island, it would fill a long-felt want and would doubtless induce many tourists and travellers to visit the island, for it must be admitted that many Americans think far more of the hotel accommodations they will find than of the scenery, climate, customs, or people they will meet in a foreign country.

HOTELS

ADJUNTAS Hotel Aparicio Hotel Ybero Americano

AGUADA Innocensio Charneco

AGUADILLA

Hotel Borinquen Hotel Porto Rico Hotel Universo

AGUAS BUENAS Hotel Juana Diaz Modesta Camarcho José Lopez AIBONITO Hotel Aibonito

ARECIBO

Las Balearis Hotel Boston Hotel Comercio Hotel Inglaterra Hotel El Parque Hotel Porto Rico

ARROYO Hotel Alhambra

BARCELONETA José Guerrero J. Martinez & Co.

HOTELS-Continued

BARRANQUITAS

Hotel El Hogar Adela Jimenez

BAYAMON Hotel Buena Vista

CABO ROJO Hotel Fenix

CAGUAS Hotel America Hotel Filo

CAMUY Turiano Rivera

CAROLINA Isabel Calderon

CAYEY

La Esperanza Hotel Gloria Hotel Inglaterra

CIALES

Hotel Maria

CIDRA

Francisco Gonzalez Wenseslao Segarra

COAMO

Isabel Pico

COAMO SPRINGS Coamo Springs Hotel

COMERIO

Cirilo Cruz Levacadio Rivera

COROZAL Dolores Rivera

FAJARDO

Hotel Fajardo San Rafael

GUAYAMA

Hotel Frances Hotel Gloria Hotel Roma

GURABO

Marcia Maldonado José Ramon Quinonez Antonio Vasquez

HATILLO

Natalia Morales

HUMACAO

Hotel America Hotel Maxim Hotel Oriente Hotel Paris

ISABELA

Hotel Parada Hotel Estacion

JUANA DIAZ

Hotel Borinquen Hotel Italia Hotel Porto Rico

JUNCOS

Estela Bohonis

LARES

Hotel America Hotel Central Hotel Roma

MANATI

Hotel Central Hotel Comercio Hotel Coney Island Hotel Porto Rico 177.

HOTELS-Continued

MARICAO

P. Cordero

MAYAGUEZ

Hotel America Hotel Inglaterra Hotel Nacional Hotel Palmer Hotel Paris Hotel Pina Hotel Porto Rico

MOCA.

J. Cotta v d de Perez Aurora Gonzalez de Miranda

NAGUABO

José S. Belaval

PATILLAS

Jesus M. Marquez Rafael Ortiz

PONCE

Hotel Frances Hotel Inglaterra Hotel Melia Hotel El Hogar Fenix Vesubio Las Delicias Central Fortuna

JUBRADILLAS

Juan Munoz

RIO GRANDE

Adelina Quinonez Saturino Reyes

SABANA GRANDE Magdalena Acosta Juana Rodriguez

SALINAS

Hotel Cosmopolita

SAN GERMAN

Hotel Central Hotel Frances Hotel La Lucha

SAN JUAN

Hotel Plaza Hotel Colonial Hotel Inglaterra Hotel Roma Hotel Frances Hotel New York

SANTURCE

Hotel Nava Hotel Eureka

SAN LORENZO Teresa Machin

SAN SEBASTIAN Hotel Julia

TOA ALTA Sandalian Nieves

UTUADO

Hotel La Bruja Hotel Universo

VEGA ALTA José Escalera

YABUCOA

José Eorrejo Francisco Lanarse

YAUCO

Hotel Maria Hotel Pla Hotel Victoria

CHAPTER XVIII

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION

IN 1898, after four centuries of civilised government, there was but one building on the island especially erected for school purposes; the total enrolment in the public schools was but 26,000; 80 per cent of the entire population, 80 per cent of the children of school age, and 73 per cent of the males of voting age (over 21 years) were illiterate, unable to read or write. A million souls with this high percentage of illiteracy were domiciled within 3,600 square miles, or approximately 300 to the square mile, a population more dense than that of any part of the United States except a few manufacturing districts.

The people have responded magnificently to their opportunities and the inspiration of educational advancement is obvious throughout the island. Fourteen million dollars have been wisely expended for educational purposes since civil government was established in 1900. Instead of one school house, erected for that purpose, as was the

case in 1899, the people of Porto Rico own to-day 105 graded school buildings, many of which are of fine construction and compare favourably with the better class of school buildings in the cities of the United States, and 264 rural school buildings distributed throughout the country districts of the island, while 1,180 separate schools are maintained and 1,972 teachers employed in the service. The public school enrolment has been increased from 26,000 to 161,785. The percentage of illiteracy in the whole population has been reduced from 80 per cent to 66 per cent, and of all persons between 10 and 20 years of age, to 53. A considerable reduction in illiteracy among persons over 21 years of age has been accomplished by public night schools, which are eagerly sought and have been maintained wherever possible.

The daily attendance in the public schools during the past year averaged 117,360, a very slight increase over the average of the previous school year. The total enrolment was 161,785, also but a slight increase over the enrolment of the year before. The task of extending the public school system met the obstacle of limited funds available

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION 181

for that purpose. It became apparent that to proceed with the accommodation of the gradually increasing enrolment, more school buildings than were being constructed were needed, and with every new school building funds for more teachers, more books, and more equipment were necessary.

The Legislative Assembly had from year to year generously increased the allotments of funds for educational purposes, until in 1913 it found itself in a position where to make further increases in these appropriations to the extent that the demand for additional educational facilities required an increase in the treasury receipts was necessary, and to accomplish this new revenue laws were passed. The appropriation for school purposes was then increased by something more than a million dollars over that for the previous year, and an increase of nearly eight hundred in the number of teachers, also authorised by the legislature, will provide accommodations for at least 30,000 more pupils.

THE COMMON SCHOOLS

The common-school system of Porto Rico comprises the rural and graded schools. During the school year of 1912-13 a total of 1,064 rural schools were allotted to the municipalities of the island, whereas there were but 765 graded schools. Of the two the rural schools are the most important factor in uplifting and educating the masses of the people. Most of these schools are located in the country districts wherever needed, and funds are available for their maintenance and are often reached after long, hard climbs over mountain trails. Although the large majority of buildings used for rural school purposes are rented by the school boards, nevertheless 264 rural school buildings were owned by the school boards or by the people of Porto Rico on June 30, 1913. The school boards in many localities have made great strides forward in the matter of equipping the rural schools with modern furniture and appliances.

The course of study for the rural schools covers a six-year period, although not all the rural schools have students enrolled in all six grades.



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SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION 183

The enrolment in each grade in the rural schools on March 1, 1913, is shown by the following table:

First grade	46,836
Second grade	19,455
Third grade	11,684
Fourth grade	5,024
Fifth grade	943
Sixth grade	77
Seventh grade	5
Total	84,024

When we take into consideration the fact that none of the rural schools of the island offered work beyond the third grade previous to the year 1907-8, the enrolment of 6,049 pupils in grades above the third of the rural schools at the present time is indicative of the growth of the rural system.

The course of study for the rural schools differs from that of the graded schools in that practically all of the work is given in Spanish, English being taught as a special subject in all grades after the first. However, in those rural schools which are located near the urban centres not infrequently the course of study for the graded schools is followed. The course of study for the rural schools articulates with that of the graded schools at the end of the fourth year, thereby enabling

pupils from any rural school to enter any graded school without loss after completing the work of the fourth grade.

IMPORTANCE OF RURAL SCHOOLS

The important mission which the rural schools will have to fill in the uplift of the people can be understood when we realise that 837,725, or 74.9 per cent of the total population of the island, is to be found in the rural districts. Of this rural population 292,666 are of school age; that is, from 5 to 18 years. The total enrolment in the rural schools at the time the school census was taken last March was 84,024, or a little more than 28 per cent of the rural population of school age.

In many of the rural barrios a largé number of the inhabitants live in relatively close proximity, and wherever this condition prevails the school boards have been requested to acquire a piece of land centrally located for the purpose of constructing thereon a centralised rural school of two, three, or four rooms, according to the number of children of school age. This will prove more economical for the school boards and much better results can be obtained than by having the children of a given barrio housed in two or three separate buildings. In other words, an effort will be made to carry the graded school system, with all its conveniences, to as many as possible of the 75 per cent of the children of school age who live in the country.

The graded schools have more and better accommodations than the rural, due to their location and to the fact that there are several rooms in the same building. They are maintained in each of the 70 municipalities of the island and also in a few of the more populous barrios. Most of the towns have provided modern buildings for their graded system and the few remaining plan to secure loans with which to construct modern buildings before the close of the year 1913-14.

The people of Porto Rico own 105 graded school buildings containing a total of 557 classrooms, and with the new legislation secured, authorising school boards to issue bonds, it is expected that many new buildings will be constructed during the coming year.

The course of study of the graded schools covers the full eight grades of the common-school

course, and students who complete the course and pass the examination set by the department of education, which is uniform for the island, receive the common-school diploma. The number of persons receiving the common-school diploma has increased very rapidly during the past ten years, as shown by the following table:

COMMON-SCHOOL DIPLOMAS ISSUED

School year:	Pupils.	School year:	Pupils.
1902-3	44	1908-9	651
1903-4	29	1909-10	707
1904-5	79	1910-11	967
1905-6	212	1911-12	1,325
1906-7	213	1912-13	1,634
1907-8	467		

One who visits the graded schools of the island is impressed with the favourable conditions under which the work is carried on. The buildings, mostly of a modified Spanish type of architecture, nearly all constructed of cement, are pleasing in appearance, well lighted and ventilated. Almost without exception the school equipment is as complete and perfect as can be found anywhere. The course of study for the graded schools can be compared favourably with that of the better public-school systems in the United States.

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION 187

The instruction in the graded-school system is given in the English language in all subjects with the exception of Spanish. The Spanish language is taught as a special subject, beginning with the second grade and continuing to the end of the course. Hereafter all the work in nature study of the first four grades will be given in Spanish as well as the first year's work in hygiene and sanitation. A class in Spanish language will also be introduced into the work of the first grade. Manual training and agriculture will be obligatory subjects for all boys enrolled in the upper three grades of the graded school system and cooking and sewing for all girls enrolled in those same grades. Instruction in music and drawing will be given in all the grades.

CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

Due to the increased number of pupils graduating from eighth grades and to the fact that many of these wished to continue their studies but were unable to do so, since high schools were maintained in but three or four towns of the island, the department established continuation

schools in some of the larger centres of population for the purpose of taking the pupils upon the completion of their common-school course and carrying them two years further in their educational career without the necessity of leaving home.

The work of the continuation schools is based principally upon manual training for boys and cooking and sewing for girls, but at the end of this two-year period the pupils are prepared to go out with a fair knowledge of the practical side of life, or if they so desire they may enter any of the high schools of the island, receiving full credit toward high-school graduation for all the work done during their two years in the continuation school.

For the school year 1910-11, which was the first year for which special provision was made in budget for continuation schools, these schools had little more than become organised without having received the proper equipment for the maintenance of the manual subjects. For the school year 1911-12, each one of the 12 schools allotted was equipped with benches and full manual training outfit for from 12 to 24 boys, domestic science equipment for an equal number of girls as well as all the requisites for courses in sewing and other branches of household economy. For the school year 1912-13, continuation schools were maintained in 16 municipalities, but only 13 of these acquired the necessary equipment for the work along manual lines. For the coming school year our budget provides for 25 continuation schools, and these have been assigned to the following municipalities: Carolina, Rio Grande, Fajardo, Naguabo, Vieques, Arroyo, Juncos, Caguas, Guayama, Cayey, Aibonito, Coamo, Juana Diaz, Yauco, San German, Cabo Rojo, Añasco, Lares, Aguadilla, Utuado, Adjuntas, Manati, Ciales, Vega Baja, and Bayamon.

In but few of these towns have separate buildings been erected for the use of the continuation schools. In three or four municipalities the boys in the continuation schools, under the direction of the instructor in manual training, have built suitable houses for the installation of the equipment in manual training. Quite a number of school boards are planning to build new school houses or additions to present buildings in which ample provision will be made for the work in

manual training for boys as well as for girls. The course of study for the first year for the continuation school comprises, for the boys, two daily periods in manual training, and, for the girls, a like number of periods in cooking and sewing. The work in English consists of a daily period in composition and rhetoric and the reading of English classics. One period a day is devoted to Spanish based on the "Gramática Castellana" of the Royal Academy of Spain, and in connection with this several masterpieces of Spanish literature are read. In mathematics, algebra is studied as far as quadratics. Ancient history is given one period a day. For the second year of the continuation school the same amount of time is given to the practical study of manual training and household economy. English and Spanish are continued. In mathematics, plane geometry is covered, and in some towns work in botany has been offered.

In connection with the continuation school maintained in Fajardo during the past year commercial courses were established. Two teachers were assigned to each continuation school, one, a specialist in manual training for boys, the other a specialist in household economy, and both competent to handle the academic subjects mentioned above.

In all the work given in manual training and household economy an attempt has been made to keep the utilitarian idea in mind all the time. Aside from the regular problems usually given in woodworking the boys in many instances were taught to build and repair fences about the school property, construct apparatus for the playgrounds, make bookcases for the schools, and to repair floors, blackboards, doors, etc., of the school buildings. The boys in the continuation school at Juncos received instruction in painting and masonry as well as in carpentry and joinery. These boys drew plans for a miniature house 14 by 13 by 13 feet, with balcony, parlour, diningroom, bedroom, kitchen, bath, and toilet room, with the complete set of miniature furniture in proportion to the size of the house, and this house was actually built by the boys as a part of their exhibit at the third insular fair held in February. The boys laid the foundations for the house, installed the plumbing, and did all the wiring for the electric lights. The girls made all

the curtains, bedding, table covers, towels, etc., for the model house, and it is not an exaggeration to say that this exhibit of the continuation school of Juncos was one of the most interesting ones at the insular fair.

The total enrolment for the high and continuation schools for the school year 1912-13 was 1,744, as compared with 1,197 for the preceding year. The average daily enrolment in these schools was 1,492 for the past year and the average daily attendance 1,381.

The course of study for the continuation schools for the coming year will be as follows:

NINTH GRADE.

S

	Number of reci-
	tations a week.
ubjects:	
English	5
Spanish	5
Manual training (boys)	
Household economy (girls)	
Industrial and commercial geography	
Agriculture (boys)	
Free-hand drawing (girls)	
Bookkeeping and arithmetic or algebra	a5
1 0	
TENTH GRADE.	
English	
Spanish	5

English	
Spanish	5
Manual training (boys)	5
Household economy (girls)	D
General history	0
Bookkeeping and arithmetic or geometry	3
Agriculture (boys)	2

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION 193

From the early days of the American school system in Porto Rico night schools have been maintained in the urban centres to which adults were admitted, and some three years ago the department authorised the establishment of night schools in the rural districts. During the year of 1913, 299 night schools were maintained, and of the 9,000 students enrolled in March more than 40 per cent were over 18 years of age.

In Porto Rico the compulsory age for attending school is from 8 to 14 years, but owing to insufficient accommodations it is impossible to enrol more than a portion of the children who should attend school.

The average amount expended for each pupil in daily attendance on the public schools of Porto Rico last year was \$13.82, as compared with \$27.85 in the United States. The per capita expenditure for public school purposes was \$1.45 in Porto Rico, as against \$4.64 in the United States. These figures go to show that public schools, as far as they go, are conducted at a far less expense in proportion to the number of pupils enrolled than those of the United States, and, it might be added, than those of any other country.

As a result of the demand on the part of parents to have their children educated and a lack of funds to extend the system to meet the demands made upon it, schools are greatly overcrowded and teachers overburdened.

The average number of pupils per teacher in charge of a room in graded and rural schools during the past year was 64.4, which is far in excess of the number a teacher should be called upon to handle and obtain satisfactory results. On the basis of 40 pupils per teacher, Porto Rico would need 9,766 teachers to take care of her school population, and when we consider that the average number of teachers employed by the department during the past year was but 1,972, the enormity of the problem can be realised.

In light of the actual condition of affairs, the insular legislature at its regular session last spring gave the matter serious consideration and as a result the appropriation for educational purposes for the fiscal year 1913-14 is more than \$1,000,000 in excess of the appropriation for the year 1912-13.

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION

CHILD LABOUR

A law was passed regulating the work of children, and protecting them against dangerous occupations. This law provides that no child under 14 years of age who has not received a certificate from the department of education to the effect that he has finished the work required of the third grade of the rural or the eighth grade of the graded schools, according to whether he lives in the country or in town, can be employed in any lucrative occupation during the hours public schools are in session. Exception is made, however, of those children who reside in a community in which there is no school within a reasonable distance wherein accommodation can be furnished and of any orphan child or one who for any other reason depends on his own efforts for support, as well as any child whose parents are invalids and depend exclusively on the work of the child for their maintenance. In these cases the child must obtain a certificate from the mayor of the town where he resides, authorising him to secure employment. These children are, nevertheless, re-

195

quired to attend a night school when such a school is within one kilometre of their residence.

NIGHT TRADE SCHOOLS

The demand for skilled workmen in Porto Rico is constantly increasing and the crafts have not kept pace with the rapid development made in modern building construction, or sanitary regulations. Skilled bricklayers, carpenters, plumbers, etc., are comparatively few in number and there is no adequate apprenticeship system as in many other countries. For these reasons the department of education opened a night trade school in San Juan in November, 1912, and for a period of five months, on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday nights, instruction was given in carpentry, plumbing, bricklaying, mechanical drawing, and automobile mechanics. One hundred and five persons over the age of 16 years responded to the roll call on the night of the opening of the school, filling all departments to the capacity of the shops, with the exception of that of bricklaying. At the expiration of the five months' experimental period the attendance and interest in the classes in car-

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION 197

pentry, plumbing, bricklaying, and the correlated work in mechanical drawing were such that the advisability of continuing the work without interruption was unquestioned. Through the kindly interest and coöperation of the Governor, arrangements were made whereby the instruction was continued to the close of the fiscal year.

The first real test of the efficiency of the work being done in this effort to produce skilled mechanics will come in January, 1914, when the class in plumbing will appear before the board of examiners for plumbers' licenses for the purpose of securing authority to practise the trade in Porto Rico.

The plans as now projected call for the continuance of the night trade school in San Juan without interruption on account of the summer vacation and for the organisation of similar schools in at least four other cities when the industrial school buildings now being constructed are ready for occupancy. With the increased facilities offered by the new buildings, courses in printing, tailoring, shoemaking, and lacemaking will also be possible. Applicants for admission to the trade schools must be over 16 years of age,

and if unable to read and write, must attend an academic night school two nights each week, while they are enrolled in a trade school.

The following table shows the total enrolment, the average nightly enrolment, and the average attendance in each of the trades taught from the date of opening, November 11, 1912, to the close of the fiscal year, June 30, 1913:

CLASS.	Total enrolment.	Average nightly enrolment.	Average attendance.
Plumbing. Bricklaying Carpentry Automobile mechanics *. Mechanical drawing † Total	20 44 40	16 11 14 17 45 103 103 1	12 7 10 14 42 85

* Instruction in automobile mechanics was given for the period covering five months.

[†] Students of plumbing, bricklaying, and carpentry are required to take conrses in mechanical drawing, which are specially designed to meet the needs of their respective trades. In addition to these regular students a special class was maintained for students who wish to prepare for more advanced courses in architectural drawing.

INSTRUCTION IN AGRICULTURE

During the school year 1912-13 nine special teachers of agriculture were assigned, one to each of the following districts: Carolina, Humacao, Barros, Juana Diaz, San German, Añasco, Utuado, Toa Baja, and Bayamon. These teachers received a salary of \$60 a month for the calendar year and gave theoretical and practical instruction to the pupils of both the graded and rural schools within their respective districts. Their entire time was devoted to the teaching of agriculture, the holding of conferences and classes for teachers, conducting public meetings for the farmers, and increasing the interest in the cultivation of the soil. According to the reports received over 4,500 children in grades 3 to 8 in the urban centres and more than 11,000 pupils enrolled in the rural schools received instruction in agriculture. Generally speaking, the teachers of agriculture devoted three days a week to the children in the graded schools and two days to those of the rural schools. The interest of the farmers is shown by the fact that in many instances where the school boards did not own a sufficient amount of land about the school buildings to permit of practical work in agriculture half an acre or more has been loaned in order that the children might receive the practical instruction.

Special stress was given to truck gardening in all instances, and in some schools model vegetable

gardens were maintained throughout the year. The children have grown successfully lettuce, radishes, kohl-rabies, turnips, onions, beets, tomatoes, beans, okra, cabbage, corn, cotton, sugar cane, millet, tobacco, pineapples, coffee, etc. School gardens have supplied the domestic science departments in the different schools with the necessary vegetables. In most districts some of the vegetables were sold and the proceeds used for the purchase of implements, fertilisers, and seeds. Pupils were allowed to take some of the vegetables to their homes in order to show the parents the results of their work and to arouse an interest in backyard gardening. Those pupils who wished to start vegetable gardens at home were allowed to take the agricultural implements after school hours and on Saturdays, and in some instances the special teachers of agriculture visited their homes for the purpose of giving the boys whatever help was necessary. One district reports that as a result of this the demand for garden seeds has become so great that four of the local stores have put in large stocks of seeds, whereas last year only one store carried a very limited amount. In most of the districts where agricultural teachers

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION 201

were assigned an exhibition of the garden products was made by the schools of the district during the teachers' institute, and the fact that hundreds of parents and farmers visited the exhibition is proof of the interest aroused in favour of practical gardening.

Nature study is a required subject in the first four grades of the common schools, and in districts where no special teachers of agriculture were assigned courses in this subject and in elementary agriculture were very closely correlated. Each of the special teachers of agriculture worked out a special course based on the conditions existing in his district and submitted it to the commissioner for approval.

COOKING

Instruction in cooking has been offered to the girls enrolled in the upper grades in 14 towns of the island during the past school year; the total number of girls taking advantage of this instruction being 445. In almost every instance the equipment and supplies for this work were furnished by the school boards, at a total expense of

about thirteen hundred dollars. Special emphasis has been laid on the essentials and the work made as practical as possible. Although in most instances the conditions were such that it was impossible to give the girls instruction in preparing and serving meals, nevertheless they were taught to make practical menus, and to estimate the cost of meals. The importance of cleanliness, variety, good serving, regular meal hours, and thorough mastication has been duly emphasised. It is gratifying to note the increased interest shown by pupils and parents in this line of work, and in almost every instance the instruction received has been put to practical use by the girls in their homes.

For the coming school year classes in cooking will be made obligatory for all girls enrolled in the upper three grammar grades. The budget of the department of education makes provision for a sufficient number of teachers of household economy to supply every town of the island with at least one instructor, and the course as outlined will provide for three hours' work per week in cooking and two hours a week in sewing to be

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION 203

given during the regular hours by teachers who have received special preparation for the work.

SEWING

During the school year 1912-13, instruction in sewing was offered to the girls enrolled in the graded schools of 63 of the 70 municipalities of the island. A total of 6,329 young ladies took advantage of the work offered. As compared with the preceding year this represents an increase of 1,329 girls who were benefited by the courses given and an increase of nine towns in which the courses were established. Generally speaking, the classes were taught outside of regular school hours each day of the week, including Saturdays, and, wherever possible, the teachers connected with the common schools, who had received special training for the work, were obtained. In the lower grades simple hygiene has been combined with instruction in sewing, and the reasons for personal neatness taught. In the upper grades notebooks with simple stitches and compositions on the manufacture of articles of daily use, such as pins, needles, different kinds of cloth, etc., are

kept. Many of the articles made in these special classes in sewing were on exhibition in the Educational Building at the Third Insular Fair held in February, and proved a source of deep interest to the general public. In not a few instances articles made in these classes were distributed among the poor children to enable them to attend school, and others were sold. As a general rule, the articles made by the girls were retained by them upon payment of the actual cost of the material employed. Among the articles made in the different towns of the island may be mentioned:

Handbags, dresses, aprons, pincushions, patchwork, quilts, men's shirts, handkerchiefs, pillowcases, chemises, table-cloths, napkins, undershirts, petticoats, shirt-waists, slippers, lunch-cloths, doilies, towels, caps, corset-covers, nightgowns, and a great deal of drawn work and embroidery.

SCHOOL BANDS

The evening concert in the public plaza, with its accompanying gathering and promenade, is an old institution in Porto Rico, and it has in a way compensated for the lack of parks and other suitable resorts for the recreation of the people. Lovers of music by inheritance and endowed with special aptitude for it, the people have demanded that the schools provide this instruction. What the department has not been able to offer for lack of funds the local school authorities have attempted to supply, in part, with the creation of school bands. Some of these are wholly supported by the school boards out of the funds at their disposal; others are supported conjointly by appropriation of the school boards and donations from the town councils; and the others are supported by these two and public subscription.

The instruction is usually given in one of the schoolrooms where the instruments are kept. The school bands now own 864 instruments, exclusive of a great number which the pupils have bought for themselves. The bands generally play at all school exercises, athletic meets, school celebrations, and in the public plazas certain evenings each month. The majority of the bands are uniformed, the money for uniforms being raised by public subscription.

The extension of the moving-picture shows throughout the island has given the schoolboys the

opportunity to market their musical ability. In a number of towns the music at these shows is furnished entirely by schoolboys who have learned to play in the school bands. One supervising principal reports that his boys receive from \$0.50 to \$1 per night for playing at the shows. In other towns some boys are supporting their parents with what they earn playing.

PLAYGROUNDS AND PHYSICAL CULTURE

The past school year has been one of continued progress and interest as related to the development and furtherance of the public-school playground movement, which was initiated some five years ago. The table on opposite page shows the increase from year to year in the number of towns providing playground facilities for children; the amount of land utilised for the purpose; the amount of money expended for purchase of sites, equipment, etc.; and the number of public-school children making use of the facilities furnished.

SCHOOLS	AND	EDU	ICATION	
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SCHOOL YEAR.	Towns with play- grounds.	Land set aside for play- grounds.	Money spent for play- grounds.	Children using ur- ban play- grounds.
1908-9 1909-10	27 45 52 58 61	Acres. 24 50 58 59 61½	\$3,000 8,250 19,746 30,737 43,209	5,000 15,000 18,420 23,902 26,564

Athletics have been engaged in more or less since the American school system was organised in Porto Rico, but up to the time the public-school playgrounds were established a very small percentage of the pupils enrolled participated, thereby limiting the influence and benefits of outdoor sports. During recent years, through the establishment of playgrounds and the introduction of simple competitive games and contests, enabling all the pupils to take part, a much larger percentage of the pupils have received the direct benefits to be obtained from play in the open air.

SCHOOL CELEBRATIONS

Lack of familiarity with the language used as the medium of instruction is a serious handicap to the establishment of active coöperation between

207

the parents and the schools. The former are obliged to accept many things on faith. Legal and school holidays have been celebrated by pupils and teachers alike with great enthusiasm, and these fiestas have never failed to attract and interest the parents. The exercises, accompanied by music, songs, drills, parades, etc., speak to the parents in a familiar language, and the spirit, activity, and happiness which the medium of instruction veils from them are revealed in the clearer terms of the school fiesta. In thus establishing a bond between the people and the school these celebrations have proved of inestimable value.

Thanksgiving Day, Arbour Day, which is celebrated the Friday following Thanksgiving; Washington's Birthday, Abolition Day (March 22), and Decoration Day are the recognised school holidays. These have been supplemented by Lincoln's Birthday, Parents' Day, Christmas, and Closing Day.

Thanksgiving is generally celebrated in connection with Arbour Day. In some districts the children bring donations of money, provisions, or clothes, which are given to the poor, in thankfulness for the blessings received during the year. The school authorities see to it that the gifts of the children go to worthy hands.

Arbour Day, which fell on November 29, 1912, is, perhaps, the most elaborate celebration of the year and the one productive of the most immediate and lasting results for the welfare of all concerned. The department publishes each year an Arbour Day manual of exercises containing programs, recitations, songs, and detailed instructions regarding the preparation of the soil, planting, etc. While the musical and literary parts of the celebration receive due share of attention, more and more time has been devoted of recent years to the planting of trees and flowers. School surroundings and gardens are cleaned and put in condition by the children themselves. In many instances fences are repaired or built, and in still other cases similar work is done around the home, the celebration thus losing much of its traditional perfunctoriness.

GROWTH OF SCHOOL SYSTEM

The growth of the school system during the past few years is shown in the following table:

Year,	Amount	Total en-	Amount
	appropriated	rolment in	per
	for	public	pupil
	education.	schools.	enrolled.
$\begin{array}{c} 1900-1901.\\ 1901-2.\\ 1902-3.\\ 1903-4.\\ 1903-4.\\ 1904-5.\\ 1905-6.\\ 1906-7.\\ 1906-7.\\ 1907-8.\\ 1908-9.\\ 1908-9.\\ 1908-9.\\ 1908-9.\\ 1908-9.\\ 1908-9.\\ 1908-9.\\ 1908-10.\\ 1910-11.\\ 1911-13.\\ 1913-14.\\ 1913-14.\\ 1913-14.\\ 1903-10.\\ 1903-10.\\ 1913-14.\\ 1913-14.\\ 1903-10.\\ 1903-10.\\ 1903-10.\\ 1913-14.\\ 191$	$\begin{array}{c} \$ 435,565,28\\ 597,688,36\\ 723,111,30\\ 986,556,45\\ 913,908,38\\ 997,386,79\\ 1,257,018,51\\ 1,413,516,68\\ 1,387,576,03\\ 1,463,948,64\\ 1,681,237,66\\ 3,014,740,00\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 33,802\\ 61,863\\ \hline \\ 63,566\\ 68,855\\ 68,828\\ 71,696\\ 79,752\\ 105,125\\ 102,125\\ 121,453\\ 145,525\\ 100,657\\ 161,785\\ \hline \end{array}$	\$12.89 9.66 12.22 12.61 13.28 13.91 15.76 13.45 11.42 10.06 10.46 11.76

AGES.	Total number children in Porto Rican Census 1910.	Enrolled in graded schools Mar. 1, 1913.	Enrolled in rural schools Mar. 1, 1913.	Enrolled in sec- ondary schools Mar. 1, 1913.	Enrolled in night schools Mar. 1, 1913.	Total enrolled Mar. 1, 1913.	Per cent enrolled Mar. 1, 1913.
5 6 7 9 10 11. 12 13 14 15. 16 17 18	32,722 31,163 33,956 31,909 21,472 33,294 22,892 36,545 22,988 28,032 26,859 23,354 16,781 28,672 390,639	$\begin{array}{c} 1.252\\ 2.734\\ 3.864\\ 4.624\\ 4.725\\ 5.733\\ 4.416\\ 5.414\\ 4.616\\ 4.063\\ 2.544\\ 1.495\\ 2.544\\ 1.495\\ 308\\ \hline \end{array}$	2,160 6,408 9,814 11,496 9,927 12,017 8,086 9,762 6,931 4,383 2,024 663 22,024 663 22,024 83,992	5 53 136 288 418 287 1,187	7 9 40 68 180 162 465 486 808 840 765 589 895 5,314	3,412 9,149 13,687 16,160 14,720 12,644 15,641 12,038 9,277 5,544 3,211 2,005 1,585	10.4 29.3 40.3 50.6 68.5 53.8 55.3 42.7 52.3 33.1 20.6 13.3 11.9 5.5 33.07

	com- ompo- euch 8. f; ad- half. fani- fani- fani-			1913	63 59 6	138
/ear.	 Bnglish literature, composition, classics, emilon, classics, and sick, position, classics, french sick, French grammar Cicero and prose		ercial.	1912	30 18 30	57
Fourth year.	American literature, position, classics, sittion, classics, fr sittion, classics, fr composition, classics, fr virgil and prosody. American and civics. Prigonometry, one-har vanced algebra, out Chemistry or physics, out Chemistry or physics, out commetrolallaw, and metic.		Commercial.	1161	10°% :	23
H	merican position, panish sition, compote irgil an merican vanced hemistr tigononel tenograj conmel conme con conme conme conme con conme con conme conme conme conme conme conme con con conme conme conme conme conme conme conme con conme conme conme conme conme conme conme conme conme conme conme con con con con con con con con con con	GRADUATES.		1910	44 8 8 5 5 :	27
	Pool Alianti A	GRADI		1913	25 23 12 23 23	66
ar.	English literature, compo- suion, classics. Spains composition, clas- sics, French grammar Cicero and prose English Physics or chemistry Stenography, typo-writing, stookkeeping, commercial correspondence		ılar.	1912	20 36 16	99
Third year.	mglish literature, (suiton, classics, pauish composition sics, French gram icero and prose mglish inglish nglish nglish nglish nglish nglish nglish ooking		Regular.	1911	846 :	31
Th	inglish literatur suion, classics, panish composi sics, French gi dicero and prose, dicero and prose, did gib, hysics or chemi hysics or chemi hysics or chemi hysics or chemi hysics or chemi oblicepting, ty bookkrepting, ty			1910	18 : :	25
	Cooling Steer			1918	376 524 166 125	1,191
rear.	Composition and theforic, classics. Spanish, rhetoric, composition, clas- sics. Caear and prose Medieval Botany or zoology. Bookkeeping Bookkeeping and Milli- nery, mechanical or freehand draw- ing.		LUGI	1912	844 391 175 70	980
Second year.	positic foric, o foric, o foric, o foric, o r and p r and p r and p r and r ard r and r ard r ar		TONNE	1161	229 271 101 42	643
ž.	Comp rheb Spanik com sics. com com Medie Plane Bookh Bookh Bookh Bookh Sewin Crypton Crypton Crypton Com Sevin Solar Spanik Span			1910	161 281 32	551
Flrst year	Composition and Composition and rhetoric, classics. Spanish, rhetoric, classics. Spanish, rhetoric, spanish, rhetoric, composition, clas- sics. Begioner's Latin Crean and prose Book Gradatim. Ancient		CHOOL.			Total
Subject.	English Composition and Composition and Sulfar theorie, classics, theorie, classi		Нібн Зсноог.		Central Ponce. Mayaguez. Arecibo.	Total

HIGH SCHOOL COURSE OF STUDY.

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION

211

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1913.

	1,794,554.46 1,028,291,95 2,530,173,93 177,555,21 24,897,74 260,875,52 120,048,82 17,126,37 765,635,92 83,863,21 14,681,08 22,926.08 11,012,68 10,722,47 	1,635,409.62 7,071.29 27,657.93 18,831.50	\$3,123,383.14 1,028,291.95 4,105,583.55 177,585.21 24,897,74 260,875.52 127,120.11 44,784.30 65,635.92 102,694.71 14,681.08 22,996.08 11,012,68 10,722,47 51,656.62 475,148,85
Cusioms	2,530,173,93 177,585,21 24,897,74 260,875,52 120,048,82 17,126,37 65,635,92 83,863,21 14,681,08 22,926,08 11,012,68 10,732,47	7,071.29 27,657.93 18,831.50 51,656.62 460,445.81	$\begin{array}{c} 4,165,583.55\\ 177,585.21\\ 24,997.74\\ 260,875.52\\ 127,120,11\\ 44,784.30\\ 65,635.92\\ 102,694.71\\ 14,681.08\\ 22,996.08\\ 11,012.68\\ 10,722.47\\ 51,656.62\\ 475,148.85\\ \end{array}$
Internal revenues	2,530,173,93 177,585,21 24,897,74 260,875,52 120,048,82 17,126,37 65,635,92 83,863,21 14,681,08 22,926,08 11,012,68 10,732,47	7,071.29 27,657.93 18,831.50 51,656.62 460,445.81	$\begin{array}{c} 4,165,583.55\\ 177,585.21\\ 24,997.74\\ 260,875.52\\ 127,120,11\\ 44,784.30\\ 65,635.92\\ 102,694.71\\ 14,681.08\\ 22,996.08\\ 11,012.68\\ 10,722.47\\ 51,656.62\\ 475,148.85\\ \end{array}$
Property taxes. Inheritance taxes. Municipal license fees on account of sunitation. Court fines and fees. Harbour and dock fees Telephone and telegraph receipts. Interest. Royalities on franchises. Taxes on insurance premiums. Rent of property. Sale of Government property United States Government (Mor- rill-Hatch Act).	177,555,21 24,897,74 260,875,52 17,126,37 65,635,92 83,863,21 14,681,08 22,926,08 11,012,68 10,722,47	7,071.29 27,657.93 18,831.50 51,656.62 460,445.81	$\begin{array}{c} 24,897.74\\ 260,875.52\\ 127,120,11\\ 44,784.30\\ 65,035.92\\ 102,694.71\\ 14,681.08\\ 22,936.08\\ 11,012.68\\ 10,722.47\\ 51,656.62\\ 475,148.85\end{array}$
Inhéritance taxes Municipal license fees on account of smitation Court fines and fees Harbour and dock fees Telephone and telegraph receipts. Interest. Royalities on franchises Taxes on insurance premiums Rent of property Sale of Government property United States Government (Mor- rill-Hatch Act)	24,897.74 260,875.52 120,048,82 17,126.37 65,635.92 83,863.21 14,681.08 22,926.08 11,012.68 10,732.47 	7,071.29 27,657.93 18,831.50 	$\begin{array}{c} 24,897.74\\ 260,875.52\\ 127,120.11\\ 44,784.30\\ 65,035.92\\ 102,694.71\\ 14,681.08\\ 22,936.08\\ 11,012,68\\ 10,722,47\\ 51,656.62\\ 475,148.85\end{array}$
Municipal license fees on account of sanitation Court fines and fees Harbour and dock fees Telephone and telegraph receipts. Interest Royalities on franchises Taxes on insurance premiums Rent of property Sale of Government property United States Government (Mor- rill-Hatch Act)	260,875,52 120,048,82 17,126,37 65,635,92 83,863,21 14,681,08 22,926,08 11,012,68 10,722,47 14,703,04	27,657.93 18,831.50 51,656.62 460,445.81	$\begin{array}{c} 260,875.52\\ 127,120.11\\ 44,784.30\\ 65,635.92\\ 102,694.71\\ 14,681.08\\ 22,996.08\\ 11,012.68\\ 10,722.47\\ 51,656.62\\ 475,148.85 \end{array}$
of sniitation Court fines and fees Harbour and dock fees Telephone and telegraph receipts. Interest Royalties on franchises Taxes on insurance premiums Rent of property Sale of Government property United States Government (Mor- rill-Hatch Act)	120,048.82 17,126.37 65,635.92 83,863.21 14,681.08 22,926.08 11,012.68 10,722.47 14,703.04	27,657.93 18,831.50 51,656.62 460,445.81	$\begin{array}{c} 127, 120, 11\\ 44, 784, 30\\ 65, 635, 92\\ 102, 694, 71\\ 14, 681, 08\\ 22, 996, 08\\ 11, 012, 68\\ 10, 722, 47\\ 51, 656, 62\\ 475, 148, 85\\ \end{array}$
Harbour and dock fees Telephone and telegraph receipts. Interest Royalties on franchises Taxes on insurance premiums Rent of property. Sale of Government property United States Government (Mor- rill-Hatch Act)	17,126.37 65,635.92 83,863.21 14,681.08 22,926.08 11,012.68 10,722.47 14,703.04	27,657.93 18,831.50 51,656.62 460,445.81	$\begin{array}{r} 44,784,30\\ 65,635.92\\ 102,694.71\\ 14,681.08\\ 22,936.08\\ 11,012.68\\ 10,722.47\\ 51,656.62\\ 475,148.85\end{array}$
Telephone and telegraph receipts. Interest. Royalites on franchises. Taxes on insurance premiums Sale of Government property United States Government (Mor- rill-Hatch Act).	65,635.92 83,863.21 14,681.08 22,926.08 11,012.68 10,722.47 14,703.04	18,831.50 51,656.62 460,445.81	$\begin{array}{c} 65,635,92\\ 102,694.71\\ 14,681.08\\ 22,926.08\\ 11,012.68\\ 10,722.47\\ 51,656.62\\ 475,148.85\end{array}$
Interest. Royalties on franchises Taxes on insurance premiums Rent of property. Sale of Government property United States Government (Mor- rill-Hatch Act).	83,863.21 14,681.08 22,926.08 11,012.68 10,722.47 14,703.04	51,656.62 460,445.81	$102,694.71 \\ 14,681.08 \\ 22,926.08 \\ 11,012.68 \\ 10,722.47 \\ 51,656.62 \\ 475,148.85 \\ \end{array}$
Royalties on franchises Taxes on insurance premiums Rent of property Sale of Government property United States Government (Mor- rill-Hatch Act)	14,681.08 22,926.08 11,012.68 10,722.47 14,703.04	51,656.62 460,445.81	$\begin{array}{r} 22,926.08\\11,012.68\\10,722.47\\51,656.62\\475,148.85\end{array}$
Taxes on insurance premiums Rent of property Sale of Government property United States Government (Mor- rill-Hatch Act).	22,926.08 11,012.68 10,722.47 14,703.04	51,656.62 460,445.81	$\begin{array}{r} 22,926.08\\11,012.68\\10,722.47\\51,656.62\\475,148.85\end{array}$
Rent of property. Sale of Government property United States Government (Mor- rill-Hatch Act).	10,722.47 14,703.04	460,445.81	10,722,47 51,656.62 475,148.85
United States Government (Mor- rill-Hatch Act)	14,703.04	460,445.81	51,656.62 475,148.85
rill-Hatch Act)		460,445.81	475,148.85
Miscellaneous		460,445.81	475,148.85
Miscenaneous			1 110,140.00
Uroceeds from sales of honds			1,113,846.94
Bureau of supplies, printing and		1,110,010.01	1,110,010.01
transportation, repayments	753,403.43		753,403.43
Repayments of loans by munici-			
palities Repayments of loans by school	115,831.51		115,831.51
Repayments of loans by school	25,064,74		0E 064 P4
boards	25,004.74 144,707.32	••••	25,064.74 144,707,32
Other repayments Transfers	5,500.00	38,492.55	43,992.55
	5,427,051.02	3,353,412.26	8,780,463.28
	7,221,605.48	4,682,240.94	11,903,846.42
Disbursements:			
Appropriations-			
1910-11	3,038.93		3,083,93
1911-12	238,600.25		238,600.25
1912–13	3,875,184.78		3.875.184.78
Indefinite	761,513.07		761,513.07 1,373,985.99
	1,373,985.99	1,052,975.43	1,373,985.99 1,052,975.43
Municipalities tax account	•••••	565,935.43	
Insular bond redemption		79,192.64	79,192.64
		1,181,087.86	1,181,087.86
School building extension		16,830.49	16,830.49
		152,632.60	152,632.60
	• • • • • • • • • • • •	33,518.66 38,351.70	33,518.66 38,351.70
Taxes paid under protest	••••	11,962.00	11,962,00
Construction of harbour improve-	•••••	11,000.00	11,000.00
ments at San Juan		10,546.54	10,546.54
Miscellaneous		31,047.05	31,047.05
Repayments and transfers	38,492.55	55,778.36	94,270.91
	6,291,580.57	3.229,858.76	9,521,439.33
Balance as of June 30, 1913	930,024.91	1,452,382.18	2,382,407.09
Grand total \$	7,221,605.48	\$4,682,240.94	\$11,903,846.42

CHAPTER XIX

AUTOMOBILE LAWS AND REGULATIONS

PORTO RICO is a paradise for autoists, and while quite a number of visitors take their cars to the island each year, yet comparatively few Americans realise how simple it is to transport their machines to the island or how advantageous is this method of "seeing" Porto Rico.

The ships of the New York-Porto Rico Steamship Co. make a specialty of carrying automobiles and the rates are very low, \$25.00 each way for Ford cars and from \$35.00 to \$50.000 for larger cars. The Brazos and some of the other ships carry the machines in the open hold and run them in through open ports in the ship's side. The smaller ships lower the cars into the hold by specially designed slings. No crating is required, but cars are taken at owners' risk and it is wise to insure machines before shipment. As the salt atmosphere and air of the hold corrode brass and nickel it is best to cover all lamps and other bright metal work with cloth or other protectors. Upon

landing in Porto Rico it is necessary to obtain an insular license, which costs \$5.00 per year, but a temporary license for transients may be taken out at \$2.00 per month. The license is obtained at the office of the Department of the Interior in the Intendencia Building at the northern end of the Plaza Principal. The yearly license requires two number plates, while the temporary license requires but one tag on the rear of the machine. For the plates a deposit of \$1.25 is required, which is refunded when the plates are returned at the expiration of the license.

The automobile laws of the island are very liberal and are in condensed form as follows:

"The person acquiring an automobile already licensed shall be required only to notify the Commissioner of his name and of the number of the automobile. The license shall be deemed to be transferred with the automobile. While within the urban zone of a municipality, automobiles shall not travel at a pace faster than 16 kilometres an hour. Every motor-propelled vehicle, except motor cycles, shall carry during the period from one half-hour after sunset to one half-hour before sunrise at least two lighted lamps showing white visible at least 250 feet in the direction towards which said motor vehicle is proceeding, and

shall also exhibit one red light visible in the reverse direction. Every motor cycle shall carry one lighted lamp showing a white light visible at least 200 feet ahead. Drivers of motor vehicles must exercise every reasonable precaution to prevent frightening horses and if requested must come to a full stop and stop the motor until the animal appears to be under control. While rounding a curve, approaching a crossing or any person on the road, the operator of a motor vehicle must give due warning and reduce his speed to such limit as will ensure safety. When stopping remove machine as far as possible to one side of road. Penalties: Fine not to exceed \$50.00.-Imprisonment not to exceed 60 days.-Revocation of license." 4

There is also a local ordinance in San Juan requiring drivers to leave some person in charge of a machine while standing and wherever a car stops it is at once surrounded by a group of boys, each anxious to earn five or ten cents by guarding the machine. These boys are perfectly honest and there is no danger of their meddling with the car or taking any articles. Several of the streets in San Juan can only be traversed in one direction, and several of these have signs at one end and not at the other, or at intervening crossings, so that the stranger is very apt to turn into such

a street without realising that he is violating the traffic laws. In such cases some bystander will usually call attention to the rule, and the car must be backed out without delay. The traffic officers in San Juan are quite efficient and are very courteous, but as they do not speak or understand English, it is sometimes difficult to understand their instructions or to make known your queries unless you speak Spanish. In rounding a corner care should be taken not to run over the policeman. It is not customary to turn the corner close to the curb or to swing far to the right when turning to the left, but rather to turn near the centre of the street, while the policeman stands at one side.

Although the ordinary rules of the road are followed in Porto Rico, yet the natives,—especially the drivers of mule carts and those riding horseback are rather regardless of such trivialities, and one must use considerable caution in passing or overtaking other vehicles and the horn must be sounded repeatedly. The heavy, lumbering bull carts will usually pull to one side and allow a machine to pass as soon as they hear the horn, but the oxen and bulls are slow and it often requires several minutes to navigate one of the great carts to the side of the road. The Porto Rican chauffeurs are reckless and wild drivers and will take risks and perform most unexpected stunts, and one can never be sure just what one of these men will do until after he has passed. In the mountains one should proceed slowly and cautiously; the turns are sharp, and a truck, cart, car, or carriage may be just around the bend and as often as not on the wrong side of the road. In the outlying districts there is no speed limit and each urban zone is plainly marked with large white wooden signs advising the traveller that autos must reduce speed to 16 kilometres an hour until the next sign shows that the urban zone is passed.

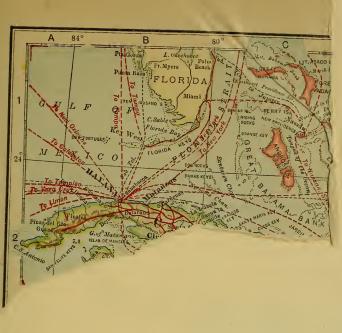
Most of the roads have excellent bridges over the streams, but on some of the coast roads it is necessary to ford numerous rivers. These are seldom deeper than the hubs of a car except after a heavy rain, and in such cases a bull team or mules will often be found waiting beside the river to haul machines across the ford.

The autoist in Porto Rico need not fear that he cannot secure supplies, tires, or other acces-

sories or that repairs cannot be made. There are a number of well-stocked supply stores in San Juan and the other larger towns and garages are numerous. The charges in Porto Rican garages are very low, much lower than in the United States, and the work is well and conscientiously done. Gasolene can be purchased at every town and village on the island and in many of the smallest "barrios" or outlying settlements. Along the coast and in the larger towns on the main roads gasolene sells for about the same price as in New York, but in the interior, where transportation is difficult, the price may be two or three times as high. For this reason it is advisable to invariably carry a supply of gasolene purchased at the large towns for use in case of emergency. The atmosphere of Porto Rico and the numerous grades necessitating a great deal of low and second-speed travelling add greatly to the fuel consumption, and it is seldom possible to obtain more than one-half or two-thirds the mileage from the fuel that one is accustomed to obtaining in the States. In many places the high altitudes cause a motor to miss fire, but as this trouble lasts

but a short time and the motor resumes its normal condition when the lower levels are reached, it is seldom necessary to readjust the carburetor unless the engine misses so much that it is difficult to pull the hills.







PART II

THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC



CHAPTER I

HISTORY OF THE REPUBLIC

IT was on December 6, 1492, that Columbus, sailing through the Caribbean Sea, discovered a most beautiful and fertile island which he called Hispaniola. That was over four hundred and twenty years ago, and yet Hispaniola, or as it is now called, Santo Domingo, is almost as unknown to the outside world as it was in those far-off days. And this notwithstanding that it is the second largest, the richest, and the most fertile of the Antilles; that here was founded the first European settlement in the New World; that its capital is the oldest European city in the Western Hemisphere and that within its borders repose the bones of Columbus himself.

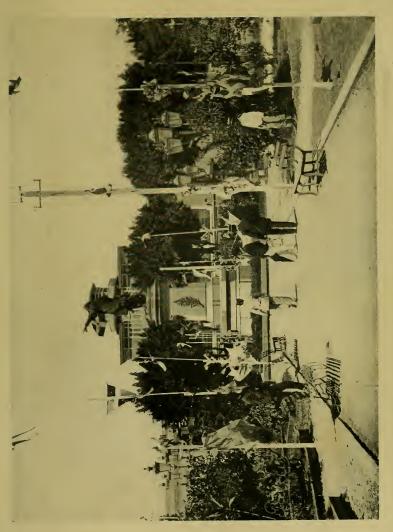
Columbus first landed at or near the present site of the Mole St. Nicolas in Haiti, and having taken possession of the new land in the name of Spain, he sailed easterly along the coast. At the spot where now stands Cape Haitien the flagship *Santa Maria* was wrecked upon a reef and

224 SAN DOMINGO OF TO-DAY

Columbus and his men were forced to accept the hospitality of the Indian cazique while the wreckage was being brought ashore and built into a fort or tower. Here he left forty of his men, and sailing along the northern coast of the island, he visited the various harbours and bays now known as Monte Christi, Puerta Plata, and Samana before he returned to Spain.

In the following year he returned to the West Indies, and visiting Cape Haitien, found his fort destroyed and his men massacred. From this spot he turned eastward, looking for a favourable place to found a settlement, and finally landed at a spot near the present town of Puerta Plata. Here he built several stone buildings, among them a small chapel, and started a settlement,—the first in the New World,—which he named Isabella.

Although Isabella endured but a short time, yet other settlements were soon made, and in 1496 Bartholomew Columbus, a brother of Christopher, founded the city of San Domingo, from which the island took its name, the original native appellation being Haiti, meaning "High Land," and which was rejected in favour of Hispaniola by the discoverers.



PLAZA COLON AND STATUE OF COLUMBUS, SAN DOMINGO CITY

From this early beginning the island was rapidly settled, towns sprung up everywhere, mines were discovered and worked, and soon San Domingo became the richest and most prosperous of the Indies. For many years the island remained in undisputed possession of the Spaniards, until in 1795 Spain, by the treaty of Bâle, ceded the entire island to France. After the downfall of Napoleon and the restoration of the Bourbons the eastern portion was returned to Spain, the portion now called Haiti remaining as a colony of France. In 1822 the Spanish district placed itself under Haitien rule, but resumed its autonomy after the revolution of 1843, and fearing conquest by the Haitiens, it voluntarily went under the Spanish Crown in 1861. Two years later the Dominicans revolted against Spanish domination, and in 1865 Spain relinquished her attempts to retain her once great colony and the Dominican Republic became an independent country.

CHAPTER II

GEOGRAPHY, CLIMATE, AND RESOURCES

ALTHOUGH Santo Domingo appears a small spot on the map, yet in reality it is very large. From Monte Christi on the north to Cape Beata on the south the island measures 175 miles, and from Cape Engano (65 miles from Porto Rico) to Cape Tiburon, the western extremity, is nearly five hundred miles. The area of the island is nearly twenty-nine thousand square miles, or nearly as large as the State of Maine; one-fourth larger than Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut combined: three times the size of Belgium; twice the size of Denmark, and only a trifle smaller than Portugal or Ireland. Moreover, this refers only to the main island, and in addition there are several large islands adjacent to the coasts and some of which are larger than any of the lesser Antilles. Among these is Gonaive, 40 miles in length; the Island of Tortuga, 22 miles long and 5 miles in width; La Saona, nearly as large as Tortuga and Alta Vela, a huge, conical

GEOGRAPHY AND CLIMATE 227

pile; all of which, with islets of smaller size, add more than six hundred square miles to the area of Santo Domingo. The island is divided into two independent republics known as Haiti and the Dominican Republic, the former occupying about one-third of the island on the west, the latter including the remaining twothirds.

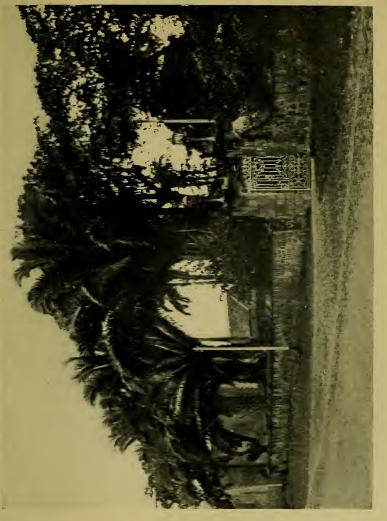
Although both of these republics occupy the same island and are separated only by an imaginary boundary line, yet in habits, manners, people, and language they are as distinct as though situated on different continents. Whereas the Haitiens speak a French patois and French laws and customs prevail, the Dominicans speak Spanish and are Spanish in manner, appearance, and temperament. While the Haitiens are opposed to foreigners and discourage foreign capital, business, or professions, the Dominicans welcome outsiders and offer every encouragement to foreign investors, business men, and industries. Whereas the population of Haiti is nine-tenths black and the country is backward and retrogressive, the people of the Dominican Republic are progressive and keenly alive to the importance of sanitation,

228 SAN DOMINGO OF TO-DAY

improvements, and development, and less than onethird of the population are negroes.

In the Haitien towns the streets are rough, dirty, undrained; the large buildings are few and far between; neglect and decay are on every hand, and modern improvements are conspicuously lacking. In the Dominican cities the streets are straight, clean, smooth, and well kept, while large and imposing buildings are numerous and street cars, telephones, electric lights, and modern conveniences abound. But in one feature both republics are similar; they are torn by frequent revolutions and have not yet learned that peace spells prosperity. Nevertheless there is such a vast difference between the two countries, such a wonderful change in travelling from Haiti to the Dominican Republic, that as one visitor expressed it, "It is like travelling through a tunnel and suddenly coming into the daylight."

In itself, the Dominican Republic contains about nineteen thousand square miles or four times the area of Connecticut with a population almost the same as that State. The climate is delightful and healthy; yellow fever is unknown and malaria is rare, but in certain sections typhoid fever is



ENTRANCE TO A DOMINICAN GARDEN



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prevalent. The temperature on the coast during the winter months varies from 80° to 84° during the day to 48° or 50° at night, and during the summer from 86° or 90° in the day to 70° or 75° at night. This great variation between day and night and summer and winter is due to the northerly winds that prevail from sunrise to sunset during the winter and the easterly and southerly winds that blow during the summer months. In the mountains and on the plains of the interior the climate averages several degrees lower throughout the year but the extreme variations do not occur.

The country is very rough, consisting of high mountain ranges and deep valleys interspersed with broad level plains, dense swamps, and rolling savannas and is marvellously well watered and fertile. Three enormous rivers flow through the republic, the largest being the Yaqui del Norte, which rises near Mount Rucillo in the centre of the island and flows northwesterly and empties into the ocean at Manzanillo Bay, on the northern coast. The Yaqui of the South, or San Juan River, rises in the mountains near the Haitien frontier and flows south into Barahona Bay, while the Colorado or Yuma River rises near Santiago in the north-

230 SAN DOMINGO OF TO-DAY

ern part of the republic and flows easterly into the Bay of Samana. In addition to these three great streams there are numerous other large rivers and countless smaller watercourses, which, with their tributaries, form a perfect network through the country. There are few lakes or ponds, but in the southwestern part of the republic are the three large lakes of Enriquillo, Limon, and Rincon, the first a fresh water lake with no visible outlet and with a good-sized island, "Cabritos," in its centre.

The island is exceedingly mountainous,—the most mountainous of the West Indies,—and contains numerous peaks over six thousand feet in height with Mount Loma Tina the highest mountain in the Antilles rising to nearly eleven thousand feet above the sea.

Between the northern and southern mountains is a great, level, elevated plain, the "Vega Real," while the southeastern portion of the Republic and many other portions of the country consist principally of rolling meadow or savanna lands.

Only a small portion of the republic is under cultivation, the bulk of the land being covered with dense forests containing innumerable valuable woods, such as mahogany, Spanish cedar, satinwood, lancewood, green-heart, ebony, logwood, purple-heart, yellow-wood, lignum-vitæ, etc., while vast forests of long-leaf pine cover many of the interior mountainsides. Aside from its agricultural and lumber resources the Dominican Republic abounds with mineral wealth. It was from this island that gold was first obtained by white men in America and the first gold sent from the New World to Spain was found in the portion of the island now known as the Dominican Republic.

Although Columbus found the natives wearing gold nuggets as ornaments yet it was not until he entered the mouth of the Yaqui River in January, 1493, that the Spaniards first discovered the yellow metal in its natural state. For over four hundred years gold has been taken from the sands and streams of this land and yet to-day native women frequently wash out from six to seven ounces of gold each week, and it is an exception rather than a rule to find a Dominican river where gold does not occur and yet the mother lode has never been discovered. Silver also occurs in considerable quantities, copper is abundant, iron occurs in various places and a good quality of lignite is found on the Samana Peninsula. Mercury, manganese,

lead, tin, bismuth, and nickel are found in the republic; there are deposits of alum, kaolin, and valuable clays; petroleum exists in large quantities; there is a mountain of pure salt near Lake Enriquillo, amber is found at Samana, and precious stones have been found at various places. Throughout the republic there are valuable mineral and medicinal springs and yet these wonderful natural resources have been scarcely touched or developed. Truly, the Dominican Republic is a land of vast resources and untold opportunities, and if once a stable government can be established and maintained it will prove the most important and richest of the Antilles: a land with all the advantages of the tropics, with an ideal climate, wonderful fertility, unexcelled harbours, and magnificent scenery. The republic is free from venomous snakes, there are no volcanoes, it is practically outside the earthquake belt and is rarely visited by hurricanes.

CHAPTER III

THE PEOPLE AND THEIR WAYS

THE people of the Dominican Republic are mainly of Spanish descent, some pure white, others mixed with negro blood, others with an admixture of Indian, and still others a combination of white, Indian, and negro. While the pure black, or nearly black, negro is far less in evidence than in Haiti, yet numerically there are many blacks in the republic. Along the coast and on the plantations there are immense numbers of negroes from Turks Islands, the Bahamas, Jamaica, and the other West Indies, while at Monte Christi and in other localities there are a good many native San Domingo and Haitien blacks. In other localities the blacks are scattered among the other people so that they are scarcely noticeable, and while the Dominican Republic cannot by any stretch of the imagination be called a "black republic," yet it is distinctly a coloured one. Here and there are towns known as "white towns" where the pure whites of Spanish descent outnum-

ber the inhabitants of mixed blood and proud indeed are these people of their long line of unbroken ancestry which they can trace direct from the old hidalgos and grandees of Spain. In most places, however, the coloured races outnumber the whites, but the colour is far lighter than in most of the West Indies and to a superficial observer a large portion of them would pass for white. There seems to be no colour line drawn in the republic, for men and women of pure white, coloured, or black skins are seen mingling and conversing freely. Whites and blacks intermarry, blacks hold office on an equality with the white and coloured races and on every hand are evidences that the Dominicans consider all men equal, regardless of the colour of their skin. In reality, however, there is more or less of a colour distinction among the upper classes, but owing to the mixture of races, which has gone on for centuries, it is impossible to have a colour prejudice or distinction as we know it.

No matter whether they are black, brown, or white, the Dominicans are a pleasant people and immeasurably superior in every way to their Haitien neighbours and to many of the other West In-

PEOPLE AND THEIR WAYS 235

dians. Many of the Dominicans are highly educated in the great universities of Europe and America and among them there are artists, authors, poets, musicians, historians, engineers, diplomats, soldiers, clergymen, sculptors, and architects that would be a credit to any country.

The Dominicans have few native customs, their greatest national peculiarity being their fondness for revolutions. Apparently, the Dominicans acquired the habit in their wars for independence and having once become infected with the "insurrecto" germ, they cannot overcome their tendency to revolt on any and every occasion. While the loss of life during these periodical revolutions is comparatively small-considering the number of the combatants and the amount of powder burned, -yet their effect upon the progress and welfare of the country is incalculable. Not only is the actual damage done to estates, villages, and plantations very extensive, but the majority of the male population is forced to turn soldiers, thus leaving the crops to be uncared for and neglected. In addition the unstable character of the government prevents foreign capital from being invested, frightens foreign investors and colonists away, and

gives the republic a reputation that it will take many years to overcome.

The Dominicans seem to look upon these insurrections as almost a pastime, and while they fight viciously and show conspicuous bravery at times, yet they are such execrable shots and so poorly drilled and equipped that their fights are more like those of a comic opera than a real war.

There never seems to be any real hard feeling between the two sides in these "scraps," and laughable situations at times occur. On one occasion, I saw two Dominicans, belonging to opposite political parties, engaged in "sniping" at one another across a road. After some time one of the men stood his gun against a tree, felt of his pockets, and waving a white rag to his enemy, called out "Tiene V. cigarillo?" (Have you a cigarette?) In response to this flag of truce the second combatant laid aside his gun, fumbled in his pocket, and after a moment joyfully replied, "Si, Señor, venga aqui."

Thereupon both of my warlike friends abandoned their weapons, advanced to the centre of the road, squatted down and contentedly puffed away at the cigarettes, finally parting excellent friends and quite forgetting their differences, for the time being at least. In this case cigarettes certainly proved a blessing rather than a curse.

Even during the height of a revolutionary battle it is not unusual for the opposing forces to draw up and pose in order to have their pictures taken by some photographer, to be sold later in the form of picture postcards.

In one way, however, the Dominican revolutionists excel those of all other Spanish-American countries,—they seldom molest foreigners or injure their property. I have known of several instances where an attack on a town or on the intrenchments of the enemy was actually delayed while the soldiers removed the goods and chattels of some foreigner out of harm's way, and on one occasion a detail from the "army" was ordered to unload a vessel in a besieged port for fear that the owner, a foreigner, would suffer if the vessel delayed in discharging.

Even in the height of battle, Americans or other foreigners are usually perfectly safe. A friend of the author once landed at Macoris and with a companion from the ship wandered about the town after nightfall. Presently they were startled at

hearing rifle shots and to their surprise discovered that rebels had attacked the town and they were caught in the line of fire between the opposing forces. The two Americans at once cried out that they were strangers and Americans and immediately a rebel officer stepped forward while the firing ceased. As soon as the identity of the strangers was established a detail of armed rebels was ordered to convey the Americans safely to their ship. In the meantime a federal officer arrived under a flag of truce and insisted that no rebel guard could alone accompany the strangers, for if anything befell them he would be held accountable, and finally it was agreed that hostilities on both sides should be temporarily suspended while an armed guard, composed of equal numbers of federals and rebels, conveyed the Americans to their steamer.

The money of the Dominican Republic consists of both the native Dominican silver and United States currency, the latter being the standard and common medium of the country. The Dominican money is used in the country and interior, and to some extent in the cities as small change, but it is only accepted at a fraction of its face value where-



INTERIOR OF A DOMINICAN HOUSE



PEOPLE AND THEIR WAYS

as American money is used at its full face value. This peculiar state of affairs has come about through the fact that since April, 1905, the United States has been in charge of the customs in the republic. Under the arrangement entered into between the Dominican Government and the United States, fifty-five per cent of the revenues are banked in New York for the benefit of foreign creditors of the republic, and while this arrangement is highly satisfactory to the creditors of the revolution-torn republic, yet it does not by any means meet with the approval of the rank and file of Dominicans who seem to feel that our government is interfering in other people's business. Another matter for resentment by the natives is the fact that the duties of the republic are of the "fixed" variety, and each separate class of goods is dutiable at a fixed rate and not at an ad valorem rating. When the schedule of duties was originally planned the Dominicans had no idea that the rates would be adhered to or enforced, for they were accustomed to getting a substantial reduction by judiciously "tipping" the native customs officers. As carried out to the letter by the American officials, many of the duties prove a hardship to the

239

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Dominicans, while such things as ammunition and firearms are strictly forbidden and are contraband, thus cutting off an easy means of securing the sinews of war for their beloved revolutions.

Notwithstanding the fact that firearms are forbidden entry, a great deal of ammunition and many arms are smuggled into the republic and ambitious politicians, if provided with sufficient ready cash, have little difficulty in obtaining all the arms they require. This is no reflection upon our administration of the customs, for even with the greatest care it is an impossibility to prevent landing contraband goods. With a coast line of practically a thousand miles, with innumerable small bays and natural harbours, and with only a small force of men and a half-dozen revenue cutters, it is hopeless to try to prevent smugglers from landing when and where they please.

Although the smaller towns or villages are seldom provided with hotels or boarding places of any description, all of the more important cities have fairly good hotels and in some the accommodations are excellent.

At Puerta Plata, the "Europa," under Italian management, is very good and is far superior to

most hotels in the tropics, and the "Tres Antillas" -a Porto Rican hotel, is by no means bad. At Santiago, there is the "Garibaldi," under Italian management, and at La Vega the "Ayuso," a Spanish place, and the "Clamens," a French hostelry. At Sanchez, there is the "Nagens," run by a German, and several private boarding houses; and at Santo Domingo City, there are several hotels, of which the "Frances" is perhaps the best. On the whole, the republic is as well supplied with hotels as most of the West Indies, considering the population of the towns, and in every large town there are numerous private families, both native and foreign, who are glad to take boarders. In many of the towns there are fairly good restaurants and cafés, but the charming, open-air restaurants that are such an attractive feature of Cuban life are lacking. The Dominicans are not so much given to soft drinks, made from native fruits, as are the Cubans and Porto Ricans, and only in one or two towns is it possible to obtain ice cream. The question of food is, in most parts of the island, of far greater importance than a place in which to sleep. In many of the interior districts, it is next to impossible for a foreigner to eat the native food as

everything is cooked in oil. In the coastal towns, the food is usually fairly good, but in the interior the only satisfactory method is to employ your own cook and purchase your own foodstuffs.

In most of the larger towns there are thriving clubs with attractive quarters where strangers are usually welcome, and if one has letters of introduction to residents he will have no difficulty in living comfortably or even luxuriously for as long as he desires.

In the interior, it is often almost impossible to hire horses, and on several occasions the writer found it more economical to buy horses than to hire them, for at the completion of the trip there was no difficulty in disposing of the animals for as much or more than was originally paid for them.

Foodstuffs, clothes, and in fact every imported article is high in the republic, owing to the exorbitant import duties, but native goods and manufactures are cheap. The Dominican Republic is not wholly dependent upon the outside world for the necessities of life and there are many local industries and manufactures. There are soap and match factories, cigar and cigarette factories, ice plants, saw mills, planing and lumber mills, fur-

niture factories, breweries, alcohol distilleries, brick and tile manufactories, machine shops, etc. In their home life, the Dominicans are much like other Spanish-Americans. They are fond of music and dancing, are gay, vivacious, and frivolous, and find a great deal of amusement in most 🔍 trivial matters. Bull fights are not permitted, but cock fights are universal and on Sundays and feast days the cock pit is the centre of attraction. The people are temperate, and although nearly every one drinks, yet one seldom sees an intoxicated person. The natives are honest, rather more intelligent than other West Indians and are usually good labourers. The peons, or country people, are apparently poverty-stricken, but there is no suffering, for every one has his or her garden of vegetables and a few cacao trees, and in a country where nature bountifully provides all the necessities of life little is required to satisfy the happygo-lucky good-natured people.

There are numerous schools in the republic and in many of these English is taught. There are also institutes of art, music, and the sciences, and everywhere the people are thoroughly alive to the benefits and value of education.

CHAPTER IV

FAUNA AND FLORA

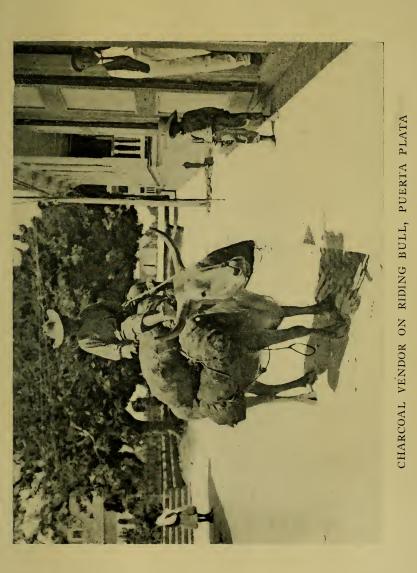
THE flora of the Dominican Republic is exceedingly rich, and in addition to the vast number of native plants any tropical product will thrive. Many of the native trees are exceedingly valuable as cabinet woods, others are dyewoods, and still others are well adapted to building and construction works. From the vicinity of Puerta Plata considerable mahogany and lancewood is exported, but owing to the lack of good roads only a very small proportion of the valuable timber is brought to the coast. From Barahona and Azua large quantities of Spanish cedar, mahogany, and lignum-vitæ are shipped, while Santo Domingo City, Sabana la Mar, and other ports also ship great quantities of lignum-vitæ, logwood, and mahogany. In the mountains of the interior are enormous forests of long-leafed pine, but only close to the cities or settlements have these forests been cut or used.

The principal products of the republic are

sugar, cacao, coffee, and tobacco, with some fruit, large amounts of honey and wax, and a considerable number of hides. Dominican cacao is noted for its quality, and several of the large Swiss chocolate manufacturers have estates in the republic. The coffee of the interior highlands is excellent and the tobacco, which is usually cured as "perique," is of excellent quality and very strong. In many places there are enormous cocoanut groves, but the oil, nuts, or copra are scarcely exported. Fruits of splendid quality grow everywhere, and at Samana navel oranges and huge delicious pineapples are a drug on the local market. All the other tropical fruits, such as lemons, limes, mangoes, nisperos, plantains, bananas, tamarinds, cashews, pomegranates, etc., grow luxuriantly, while in many parts of the country fruits and vegetables of the temperate zone succeed very well. About La Vega, large quantities of peas, beans, and some potatoes are raised; in the heights of the northern coast mountains wheat and northern fruits may be grown; rice is raised on the Vega Real and in isolated localities strawberries, watermelons, peaches, plums, and even apples have been produced.

The fauna of the republic is also notable for the number of its species, especially among the birds. There are over one hundred and fifty species of birds recorded from the republic, about ninetyfive of which are residents and among these many are peculiar to the island. Although the majority of these are song and insectivorous species, yet among them are numerous game birds and birds hunted as game in San Domingo. The two species of parrots, the several pigeons and doves, and the fruit crows are all considered as good game in the republic and all are excellent eating. At certain seasons these birds are excessively abundant and congregate in immense flocks and thousands are shot and sold in the markets. Along the shores of the rivers, bays, swamps, and lakes are numerous ducks, water-fowl, and shore birds which furnish excellent sport at times, while in certain of the grassy savannas English snipe occur in countless numbers. In many places also wild guinea fowl abound and no better or more wary game bird can be found than these.

The waters of the rivers, lakes, and bays abound in fish of many kinds and sizes, but like everything else in San Domingo the fisheries have never been



Service Analysis

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properly exploited and no effort has ever been made to determine the number of species or kinds of fish which occur in the Dominican waters. In many of the creeks, water turtles and terrapin are found, crawfish are abundant in most of the streams, and land crabs are everywhere.

The insect life is very meagre for a tropical country and the troublesome species are very scarce. Mosquitoes are exceedingly obnoxious in the swamps and on the banks of bays and rivers, but in the towns they are seldom at all troublesome and are certainly not half so bad as in our northern summer resorts. House flies are seldom seen, fleas and other vermin are no more abundant than in the United States, cockroaches are not as abundant as in most tropical countries, and the ants are only a nuisance in certain places and at certain seasons. Butterflies and moths are fairly common and beetles, crickets, grasshoppers, and bugs occur, but serious injuries to growing crops by insects are almost unknown and, all in all, the country is not a good field for the entomologist.

Like all tropical countries the republic has numerous large spiders, centipedes, and scorpions, and while the natives tell great yarns in regard

to the venomous character of these creatures they are purely imaginary and there is no more danger of being stung by a scorpion or centipede than by a good healthy wasp or hornet.

Among the reptiles, lizards abound everywhere, iguanas are fairly common and in some of the lagoons and sluggish rivers alligators are abundant and are much hunted for their skins and oil. There are several species of snakes in the republic but all are perfectly harmless. The commonest species closely resembles our ordinary "garter snakes"; another is a delicate, slender green species, while the largest of all is the Cuban boa or "Maja," which attains a length of ten or twelve feet.

There are few native mammals, the largest being the Manatee, or "sea cow," which is common in the rivers and mangrove swamps near the coast and which is hunted for the flesh and hides. Treerats are common in the forests, and the giant ratlike creature known as the "Hutia," or more properly "Capromys," is found in certain localities in the interior. In many places the mongoose has been introduced, has become common, and has played havoc with the native birds and

animals, and near Samana European rabbits have been acclimated. The most noteworthy and remarkable of all the Dominican fauna, however, is the Solenodon or "Almiqui." This strange creature is about two feet in length including the tail, and lives in hollow trees, and burrows in the earth or crevices among rocks. The snout is long, slender, and like that of an ant-eater, while the forefeet are strong, large, and provided with powerful claws well adapted for digging. The hair is coarse and brown and the hind quarters are nearly naked, warty, and covered with a sparse growth of woolly hair. The tail is long, round, and ratlike, and the eyes very small. The Solenodon is one of those natural history puzzles that connect the prehistoric forms with those of to-day, and but two species are known-one being peculiar to San Domingo, the other to Cuba. For nearly one hundred years the San Domingo Solenodon was considered a "lost species," and extinct, for the only specimen in the world was a fragment preserved in St. Petersburg, Russia, and obtained in San Domingo in 1832. The odd creatures were rediscovered and again brought to the knowledge of science in 1907, when the author obtained sev-

eral specimens in the Dominican Republic, some of which are now on exhibition in the American Museum of Natural History in New York City. Once they were rediscovered and their locality known it was easy to obtain more, and numerous specimens have since been brought to the United States and to Europe.

The flesh of this creature is considered good eating and in Cuba the related species has been extensively hunted. In San Domingo, the mongoose has played a large part in the extermination of the animals and no doubt within a short time this remarkable "missing link" will be totally extinct.

CHAPTER V

BOADS AND TRANSPORTATION

ONE of the greatest drawbacks to travelling in the Dominican Republic, and one of the chief factors in preventing the island's progress, is the lack of good roads. Everywhere in the republic there are so-called "roads," but the best are inexpressibly miserable apologies for highways and in any other land would be classed as mere trails.

In many places the roads are wide, the grades are not bad, and the country traversed is luxuriantly rich, but through lack of care or foresight the roads consist of a series of mud holes and hillocks.

Throughout the republic there is scarcely a thoroughfare suitable for wheeled vehicles save in the immediate vicinity of the towns and practically all travel and transportation is by horseback, donkey-back, or on the long-legged riding bulls peculiar to the country. Every time an animal travels over one of the Dominican roads he follows in the footsteps of his predecessor, leaping

or jumping over the ridges and floundering through the muddy pits and thus wearing the holes still deeper with his passage. In the dry season, the roads are baked as hard as brick, and in the rainy season they are as soft, sticky, and mushy as soft soap, and it is like travelling in a nightmare to traverse any considerable distance over such roads in either the dry or the wet months.

In many other places the "roads" are simply narrow bridle paths barely wide enough to accommodate a single horse and so overgrown with vines, creepers, and trees that one is compelled to crouch forward on the saddle to avoid being swept from the horse by the overhanging boughs. In numerous places these trails are worn so deep that they become filled with mud and water and I have frequently travelled over trails where for miles the horses were actually up to their bellies in mud. At other places they wind about the brinks of dizzy precipices or across fallen trees, and everywhere one is constantly obliged to ford rivers and streams. In the interior there are no bridges, and as the roads run fairly direct from one spot to another, and as the streams meander across the landscape in a serpentine course, the traveller not infrequently crosses the same river half a dozen times in a distance of a few miles.

This is bad enough in the dry season when the streams are low, but in the rainy months, when the rivers are high, or after a heavy rain in the mountains, many of the watercourses are impassable and one is compelled to swim raging torrents at the risk of life and limb.

The country was pretty thoroughly traversed by the early settlers and conquerors and many of the trails have existed for centuries, and as one travels over them one marvels how the ancient Spaniards ever managed to get from place to place, and is filled with admiration at the hardihood and tenacity of purpose which enabled mailclad men to penetrate the vast interior over such fearful pathways.

The longest road on the island is that which leads from Monte Christi to Santiago and hence to La Vega, following more or less along the banks of the Yaqui River. In a way this road is good,—that is for San Domingo,—and there is a tradition that a carriage has been driven over it. The statement may be true, but judging from its

present condition the "carriage" must have been a six-mule army wagon, for certainly no other vehicle could possibly traverse this "highroad" to-day. From La Vega, another road leads southward to the capital, another runs easterly from Santo Domingo City to the Seybo and Higuey, and still another runs to the west along the southern coast to Azua, Neyba, and Bani, with one branch leading across to Port au Prince, Haiti, and another leading into the wild regions of the Yaqui valley of the south.

All of these main roads have been used for four hundred years or more without change or improvement, and the one to Azua was the principal route followed by the Spanish conquerors and their pack trains of gold from the mines.

There is no lack of trails and there is no trouble in finding a path of some sort leading to any town or village in the republic, but he who essays to travel overland in San Domingo must have an abundance of hardihood, must be a good horseman, and must start forth with determination and an optimistic view of all things,—he will need it all before he reaches his journey's end.

There are two principal railway lines in the

Dominican Republic, one known as the "Samana, Sanchez and La Vega Railway," leading from the Bay of Samana to La Vega, and the other the "Central Dominican Railway," connecting Puerta Plata with Santiago, Moca, and La Vega. Another short railway leads from San Domingo City to San Christobal and various other short lines are projected and under construction. In various places there are many miles of narrowgauge tracks on the plantations and on several of these the visitor may travel for considerable distances by obtaining permission from the owners. One of these lines at Macoris leads quite a distance into the interior, following the valley of the Higuamo River. Another cane road leads from La Romana into the Seybo district, while still another leads from Azua to the vast cane fields in the neighbourhood. The railway leading from Sanchez to La Vega carries one through the magnificent Vega Real, or Royal Plain, and affords a splendid view of the more level and open interior. This was the first steam road in operation in the island and the concession was originally granted to Americans in 1882.

The following year it was turned over to a

Scotchman, Mr. Alexander Baird, who with his own fortune carried the work to completion. In constructing this road it was necessary to fill and build a roadbed through a mangrove swamp ten miles across as well as to build and create a port at the little village of Las Canitas, now known as Sanchez, a city which is practically dependent upon the railway and its commerce.

The Central Dominican Railway, from Puerta Plata to Santiago, is 42 miles in length and was commenced in 1893 by Westerndorp & Co., a firm of Amsterdam bankers who employed Belgian engineers. The Belgians succeeded in building about fifteen miles of the road, employing the cog and rack system on the heavy grades, which are often six to ten per cent. The rights to the enterprise were then transferred to the "San Domingo Improvement Company," a New York concern, which completed the road and placed it in operation.

Unlike the Sanchez-La Vega road, this railway carries the traveller over a towering mountain range through scenery inexpressibly grand. At Altamira, 15 miles from Puerta Plata, the road attains an elevation of over two thousand feet

ROADS AND TRANSPORTATION 257

above the sea and at this point a stop of twenty minutes is made for breakfast at the little restaurant or "fonda." Just beyond here the train plunges into the great "Cumbre" tunnel, nearly one thousand feet in length, to emerge on the opposite side of the mountain range and descend the gentle slope to Santiago.

Although nominally American, yet this road in reality belongs to the Dominican Government and is merely leased to the Improvement Company for a term of years under an operating contract. It is a sort of cosmopolitan road, for it was financed by the Dutch, partly constructed by Belgians, is owned by Dominicans, and is operated by Americans. The rolling stock is American, the stations and buildings Belgian, and the bridges British.

Throughout the republic telephone and telegraphic communication is maintained between towns and villages and the postal system is complete and fairly efficient. The Ozama and Higuamo Rivers have numerous launches, small steamers, and sailing craft that ply between the various towns on the rivers' banks, and in the Bay of Samana there are regular packets, both sailing and power, which ply between Santa Barbara, San-

chez, and Sabana la Mar, and various passenger and freight boats travel about the coast from town to town.

From New York, the Clyde West India Line runs regularly to the republic, touching at Monte Christi, Puerta Plata, Samana, Sanchez, La Romana, Macoris, Santo Domingo, and Azua. From Europe the Spanish and French lines run to the principal ports; a steamer of the Hamburg-American line sails to and from Jamaica and St. Thomas, touching at Dominican ports en route, and several of the Porto Rico-Cuba steamships touch at, the ports in both San Domingo and Haiti.

CHAPTER VI

HERE AND THERE IN THE REPUBLIC

To the visitor approaching from the north the island presents a barren and forbidding aspect, for Monte Christi, the first port of call, is situated in a dry portion of the island. The coast at this point is low and fringed with mangrove trees, while inland and to the east rise towering mountains. Close to the steamship anchorage a huge, cone-shaped hill, some two thousand feet in height, rises sheer from the sea, its face as perpendicular as though sliced off with a knife and wonderfully coloured with•reds, yellows, and white.

The slopes of this hill, which is known as "El Morro," as well as the neighbouring hills and plains, are covered with a low growth of thorny scrub and dry, sparse grass, without any sign of cultivation. The port of Monte Christi is situated on a narrow sand spit between a mangrove swamp and a series of mud flats, and is hot and far from healthy. The only buildings of consequence are the warehouses, custom-house build-

ings, and a few stores, for the town proper is built on a hill a mile or more from the port. Between the two, tram cars drawn by mules ply back and forth, while the well-to-do inhabitants drive in private three-horse victorias.

Monte Christi, however, is of great importance as the outlet for the great and fertile valley of the Yaqui del Norte, which flows into Manzanillo Bay beyond the port. Unfortunately the port is infested by most vicious and bloodthirsty mosquitoes which render even a short stay ashore almost unbearable to a stranger. A large proportion of the inhabitants of Monte Christi are negroes from Turks Island and the British West Indies, and nearly every porter and labourer speaks English. The place on the whole is very uninteresting and disappointing and the visitor is all too likely to draw wrong conclusions from this first glimpse of the republic.

Sailing eastward from Monte Christi the country rapidly becomes more fertile, while the low scrub and half-dead herbage gives way to forests of rich green and grassy pasture lands. Thirtyfive miles from Monte Christi, Isabella Bay is passed. At this spot Columbus founded the first

IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC 261

European settlement in the New World. In 1493 he left a handful of men here, a church was erected, and on a bluff above the river the town of Isabella was built. It proved a most unhealthy location, however, and within a few years it was entirely deserted. A few crumbling ruins are now all that remain to mark the site of this historic town, and even these are overgrown with brush and jungle.

Thirty miles eastward from Isabella we reach the beautiful harbour and picturesque town of Puerta Plata. I do not think there is a prettier or more attractive town-from the sea-in all the West Indian Islands, with its red-roofed houses embowered amid hundreds of majestic royal palms and sloping upward from the water front towards the towering, forest-clad volcano of La Torre, its summit wreathed in clouds 3,000 feet above the sea. Guarding the entrance to the little harbour is the ancient Spanish fort and light-house. Puerta Plata is a clean, well-kept town with straight, smooth streets, a fine iron pier, and many other up-to-date improvements, and is of great commercial importance as being the seaward terminal of a railroad that penetrates the rich and fertile interior plateau known as the Cibao. The

thriving interior cities of Santiago de los Caballeros and Moca are now connected with Puerta Plata by a railway of about forty-five miles in length, but short as is the distance, the grades are so steep that a cogwheel track and four locomotives are required to take a train over the road. Moca is famous as a coffee centre, and Santiago for its tobacco. When the Spaniards first found gold in this region they supposed that the longsought land of Cipango was reached at last. Although gold was first found here by the conquerors and great quantities have been taken out in past times, little mining is done at present, notwithstanding that practically every river runs over golden sands and that the natives are continually bringing in dust and nuggets. Most of this they find accidentally while catching crawfish or washing clothes. Several companies have been formed to exploit San Domingo gold and copper deposits, but as all the gold occurs in placers and is scattered over a wide area they have not proved successful.

Puerta Plata boasts of some really fine buildings, a neat and attractive railway station, several fine clubs, and a well-regulated hospital. There

are also several well-kept and pretty little parks or plazas and the town is well lighted by electricity. The surrounding country is very attractive, and as the roads in the vicinity are unusually good, one may drive for several miles in the native victorias. The forests of the near-by mountainsides are rich in cabinet and dye woods and quite a little lignum-vitæ, mahogany, green-heart, and lancewood are shipped from this port. Here, too, we first meet the famous saddle bulls of the republic. These creatures are bred especially for riding and are long-legged, swift travelling animals, very different from our own slow-plodding oxen.

Travelling eastward from Puerta Plata, Cape Cabras is rounded and the steamer enters the magnificent Bay of Samana. This fine body of water is 35 miles in length by seven to nine in width and is of special interest to Americans, since at one time the United States Government came very near purchasing it for a naval and coaling station. On the northern shore of the bay the first blood was shed by Europeans in America, for a landing party sent ashore was attacked by Indians and several were killed. Opposite this historic spot, and some three miles from the shore, lies the Cayo

Levantado, a small limestone island about three miles long and a mile wide, which for many years formed an impregnable stronghold for the old buccaneers. The Cayo is covered with the ruins of forts, houses, and other buildings of the freebooters, all of them cut from the solid rock. It is a most interesting and attractive spot, with snowy beaches and luxuriant vegetation, and is a breeding place for innumerable pelicans and other water-fowl.

Ten miles up the bay is Samana, the loveliest spot in San Domingo. This charming town is built at the base of verdure-clad hills on an almost landlocked bay, and is everywhere surrounded by immense cocoanut groves, fruit orchards, and welltilled lands. Samana has been in turn French, Haitien, American, and Dominican, and at one time even formed an independent republic. For this reason the inhabitants nearly all speak English and patois French as well as Spanish. The locality is noted for its fruits, cocoanuts, and cacao. Pineapples here often attain a weight of 20 to 25 pounds, while the oranges of the navel variety are unexcelled. The valley of the San Juan River, a few miles inland, is settled principally by

the descendants of American coloured folk, who were brought out as labourers when Samana was leased to an American company years ago. These people have some curious customs and expressions. They will tell you they are of "Yankee abstraction" and call their saddle bulls "bicycles."

They are doing very well here, however, and are by far the most diligent workers on the island. They raise large quantities of fruits and vegetables for the local market and visiting steamers, but their most important crop is cacao. The cacao groves cover every hillside and flow over into the valleys, and the rich bronze of their leaves forms a pleasant contrast to the pale green banners of the bananas and the darker green of bush and palm.

The view from the hills back of the town is beautiful indeed with the clustered wooden houses and stores, the wonderfully coloured water, the jutting, palm-clad cape and wooded islands, with Samana Bay stretching beyond to the southern mountains dim on the further shores.

Sixteen miles from Samana at the head of the bay is Sanchez, a curious little town that owes its being solely to the fact that it is the terminus of

an English railway penetrating the interior valleys. Sanchez is built upon two hills, the roads are narrow, stony, and muddy, and there are few large or attractive residences, but the inhabitants more than make up for the shortcomings of their town, for, although I found the Dominicans all most hospitable and charming, yet to my mind the Sanchezites were the most delightful of all. The little town is provided with a fine steel wharf, a marine railway, engine and car shops, and imposing stores and custom-house buildings, while the strings of freight cars, the puffing locomotives, and the clang of forges and steam hammers give the waterside a busy and bustling aspect.

The railroad to La Vega, 60 miles distant, cost an enormous sum, but is badly built and poorly kept and equipped, but nevertheless affords an interesting trip, and gives one a very good idea of the character of the country.

For the first nine miles after leaving Sanchez the road passes through an immense mangrove swamp, which is the home of great numbers of white herons, egrets, and ibis. This swamp, which covers over one hundred square miles, is so vast and impenetrable that it will ever prove a safe refuge for these birds, which in many parts of the island are persistently hunted for their plumes. After passing the swamp, the road enters a country of rolling, grassy, pasture land, interspersed with dense groves of cacao, patches of forest and brush, low hills and deep-cut rivers. As the train never exceeds a speed of eight miles per hour, except special express trains, which sometimes travel at the excessive rate of 10 miles, and as it stops for from five to fifteen minutes at each little estancia or village, the traveller has ample opportunity to observe surroundings. Beyond Almacen the country becomes more open and the patches of forest and trees more scattered, while the mountains of the interior ranges appear on the horizon. This part of the country is mainly devoted to cattleraising and great herds of cattle may be seen on every side. An odd feature of the cattle herds are the white and blue herons that accompany them, often perching on the animals' backs. These cattle are mostly of the native slender-bodied breed so much used for riding and peculiar to San Domingo. The plains gradually widen and become more level, while groves of palm trees become abundant, and presently we realise that we have

entered the beautiful Royal Plain, or Vega Real. This magnificent interior valley extends for a distance of nearly one hundred miles east and west and is from ten to fifty miles in width. It is wonderfully fertile, well watered, and capable of supporting a vast population, but unfortunately it is neglected and almost deserted, with here and there small patches of cultivated land, lonely houses, and a few herds of cattle and horses. This failure to take advantage of natural resources appears to be due mainly to lack of capital and the frequency of revolutions in the past. Under the future régimes it is to be hoped that conditions will improve, that the republic will develop rapidly and soon take a place among the most progressive and richest of American republics.

At nearly every station one notices that many boys and men carry fighting cocks under their arms, while the country folk are literally armed to the teeth. Cock fighting is the national sport, while the warlike appearance of the natives seems to be more in the nature of ornament than otherwise. Men are often seen with two machetes one the ordinary working tool, the other a long, keen-bladed, carven-handled, scimitar-like weapon

slung from the shoulder—a heavy Colt's or Smith & Wesson revolver, a dagger-like knife and a shotgun or musket. Although they appear like walking arsenals there is comparatively little fighting among the natives, for they are at heart a gentle and peaceful lot, ready to share their last centavo or pot of beans with a stranger or vacate their home and place it at his disposal.

At last the train reaches the outskirts of La Vega, a large rambling town some three hundred feet above the sea on the banks of the Camu River. This river, like most San Dominican streams, varies greatly in size at different seasons. Ordinarily, it flows peacefully along, 200 or 300 feet wide and from three to four feet in depth over a rocky bed. One notices, however, that the bed of the river is half a mile or more in width and that on either side of this wide, dry bed the banks rise sharp and ragged to a height of from twenty to forty feet. In case of a storm in the mountains, as well as in the rainy season, the water rapidly rises and forms a rushing, irresistible torrent, half a mile wide and from thirty to forty feet in depth. So suddenly does the water rise that oftentimes the women washing at its edge are swept away and

the steel and concrete bridges of the railways are torn from their foundations and borne seaward like chaff.

The town of La Vega contains a number of really fine public buildings, a beautiful little plaza, and numerous large and handsome houses. The streets are wide and straight, but rather rough and dusty. The town has about five thousand inhabitants. Behind the town, and at a distance of from two to five miles, is a range of mountains covered from base to summit with a heavy forest of pitch pine. There are several saw mills at La Vega, but the mills are built in the town and the logs hauled at great labour and expense from the mountains to mills, instead of being sawed on the spot and transported in the form of planks and boards. As a result, imported yellow pine is cheaper than the native lumber.

The original settlement of La Vega was farther to the north at a spot known as La Vega la Vieja. The old town was founded by Columbus and soon became a thriving settlement, but was destroyed by an earthquake in 1564 and the site was abandoned for that of the present town. Today one may dig among the ruins and find old

coins, armour, and Toledo blades. These old Toledo swords are often used by the Dominican natives for making fighting machetes and are highly prized.

The roads in the vicinity of La Vega, and especially the main road from La Vega to Moca and hence to Santiago, are much superior to the majority of San Dominican highways. They are broad, level, and fairly smooth, but have the peculiarity of running back and forth across rivers, a habit common to all the roads in the republic. In some places, as the rivers wind about in a very serpentine course and the roads run fairly direct, one is obliged to cross the rivers a number of times in travelling even a short distance. On one occasion, I was obliged to ford the Yabon River no less than ten times in the distance of a mile. As the fords are usually so deep as to make it necessary to swim one's horse, this repeated performance is not particularly pleasant, and in case the rivers are high is absolutely dangerous. In crossing one of the tributaries of the Yaqui, when the water was high, I lost a horse, guns and ammunition, valuable instruments, and several boxes of specimens, and barely escaped with my own life.

The roads in many places are exceedingly bad, in fact the poor roads are in great measure responsible for the lack of development of the island. No one can possibly conceive of the actual condition of the so-called "good roads" until after riding over them. They are often very narrowbarely two feet wide-with overhanging branches and limbs which must be constantly dodged. They wind along the narrow edges of precipices, over logs and fallen trees, across rivers and up and down precipitous banks, and during the wet season are in many places actually up to the horses' bellies with mud. The custom riding bulls also proves very injurious of to roads, for these creatures have a habit of always stepping in the same spot, so that soft and muddy, deep holes, are worn in the roadbed. When the mud dries up these hollows remain and the hillocks between become baked as hard as brick, so that one is continually riding over a series of hills and hollows several feet in depth. Of course, on such highways no teaming or carting is possible and even hauling logs becomes a tedious and expensive undertaking.

In the vast forest-covered interior, between La

Vega and the Haitien frontier, are immense tracts of mahogany, green-heart, lignum-vitæ, lancewood, and other valuable timber which under present conditions it is impossible to bring out. I have often seen felled mahogany trees, from which the limbs had been cut and taken out, lying rotting in the forest and so large that when standing beside them I could not see over the trunk.

Aside from the value of the timber in this interior portion of the republic are the valuable but unexploited mineral deposits. Iron, tin, nickel, silver, copper, cinnabar, and gold occur throughout this district and in paying quantities, but the lack of means of transportation prevents their being mined or exported. In the southern portion of the republic several copper mines and a few gold placers are being worked, oil wells near Azua are used to some extent, and there have been several attempts to utilise the large lignite deposits of the Samana peninsula. Besides these, there is a perfect mountain of crystalline salt at Neiba, and amber is found at Puerta Plata, Santiago, and in Samana Bay.

From Sanchez one may cross the bay to San Lorenzo. This is a most interesting and attrac-

tive spot and was formerly owned by the Bartram Bros., a Boston firm who established an enormous banana plantation.

This estate, called Caña Honda, extended inward for several miles from San Lorenzo Bay and was equipped with a railway, shops, numerous buildings, and all modern appliances. Through mismanagement, competition, and other causes the estate failed, and is now deserted, forlorn, and overgrown.

Approaching San Lorenzo Bay we pass a large number of strange conical islets, while the nearby shore is covered with similar sugar-loaf-shaped Each of these hills and islands contains a hills. huge stalactite cave. The floors of these caverns are covered with a layer of fossil seashells several feet in depth, showing that at some time they were beneath the level of the sea. There is a popular tradition that an immense pirate treasure is hidden in one of these caves and several searching parties have attempted to locate it. As this district was infested by pirates and buccaneers for many years, and was one of their last strongholds in the Spanish Main, it is not at all improbable that treasure may be hidden in the caves, but



DOCKS AT MACORIS

there are so many of them, and as the stalactite rock forms very rapidly, there is little chance of any one finding the caché.

Nevertheless, the caves are very beautiful and interesting, and any one who has time at his disposal will be amply repaid by a visit to the caverns.

San Lorenzo Bay itself is a broad, shallow lagoon surrounded on three sides by dense mangrove swamps and with the fourth or seaward side protected by a long, sandy peninsula about four miles in length and completely covered with a grove of beautiful cocoanut trees.

From the bay various creeks and small rivers extend into the swamps, and these labyrinthine waterways are the haunt of great flocks of treeducks, herons, egrets, and ibis. The waters of the bay afford a feeding ground and home for a great many Manatees, which are often hunted for their hides and flesh.

The largest of the creeks flowing into San Lorenzo Bay is known as Caña Honda (Deep Creek) and leads inland in a very tortuous and irregular course. Like the other creeks, it is bordered by dense mangrove swamps, and as the boat passes

through frightened herons, ibis, and ducks are constantly rising from the trees on either hand. About a mile from the bay the landing place is reached,—a steep bank of firm land,—and from here the trail must be followed on foot or horseback to the buildings of the abandoned estate.

The edifices were originally timbered with mahogany and other rare woods and covered with corrugated iron. Several of them have been destroyed for the sake of the material used in their construction, but the main dwelling still stands and is occupied by a caretaker. Here the traveller will be assured of a hearty welcome and hospitable treatment, and may enjoy excellent pigeon or parrot shooting near the house, or may paddle about the creeks in search of ducks or ibis.

The house is on an eminence and commands a magnificent view and would prove a perfectly ideal spot for a hotel. The location is healthy, the land is fertile, and the valley is level and free from heavy timber. The attractions for hunters and fishermen are very great, and it is surprising that some one has not appreciated the possibilities of Caña Honda for a winter resort.

From Caña Honda one may make an excursion

into the interior to El Valle, a little village situated in the midst of a vast level prairie, with here and there small patches of forest in tiny ravines. The prairie is, in places, somewhat swampy and overgrown with rank grass and here the sportsman may find the finest snipe shooting I have ever seen.

On the road from Caña Honda to El Valle one passes through the immense cacao groves of a large Swiss chocolate company. The entire trip to Caña Honda is well repaid by a visit to this prosperous and well-conducted estate. The cacao groves cover a wide expanse of land and through them runs a miniature narrow-gauge railway. On this the cacao beans are carried to the drying houses and sheds and from there the railway carries the cured beans to the dock at Sabana la Mar.

The return trip to Sanchez or Samana may be made by way of San Lorenzo or from Sabana la Mar, nearly opposite the town of Samana.

Returning to Sanchez and travelling around Cape Engano for 160 miles Macoris is reached, and here the ship moors to modern docks before a flourishing city with steam tramways, dredges, and various other modern improvements. The city is

built on the banks of the river, and numerous vessels are usually made fast to the docks, for Macoris is a great sugar port and the flat land and llanuras of the district are dotted with huge sugar mills and broad fields of pale-green cane. The sugar is brought to the docks both by train and by lighters towed by busy steam tugs, and 35,000 to 50,000 bags are common shipments during crop season. The town is progressive, well kept, and has rather neat and well-built houses and buildings, but is very hot, dry, and dusty. About Macoris, as in fact throughout the republic, one is struck by the great number of royal palms. I do not know of any place in the tropics where one sees such quantities of these beautiful and useful trees. The royal palm to the Dominican is as useful as the reindeer to the Laplander or the dog to the Eskimo. From the tender leaf bud the famous "palm cabbage" is procured, the leaves are used for thatching huts and sheds, and the trunk is split into boards from which houses are built, and these are roofed with the dried leaf spathes or yagua. These yagua huts are seen everywhere in the republic and are very clean and comfortable, but as the palm boards are seldom

straight there are often cracks an inch or two wide between them, which, although they furnish excellent ventilation, prove very uncomfortable when the cold north winds sweep down across the plains of the interior. Even large and pretentious houses are often built entirely of *yagua*.

About forty miles from Macoris the steamer arrives at historic old Santo Domingo City. Passing through the narrow entrance to the harbour we skirt a grim and time-worn fortress which crowns a jutting headland at the river's mouth. This fine old masonry citadel, with its Moorish tower, was erected in 1509, and although the natives firmly believe that within its dungeon Columbus was imprisoned, there is no foundation for the story, for the date of his incarceration was in 1500 and he was confined in a smaller tower in the old settlement across the river. Ruins of this old tower still exist, although it has been abandoned since it was partially destroyed by a hurricane in 1502. These ruins mark the site of the first permanent European settlement existing in the Western Hemisphere, for they were erected in 1496 by Bartholomew Columbus, brother of Christopher. The present fortress, or "Home-

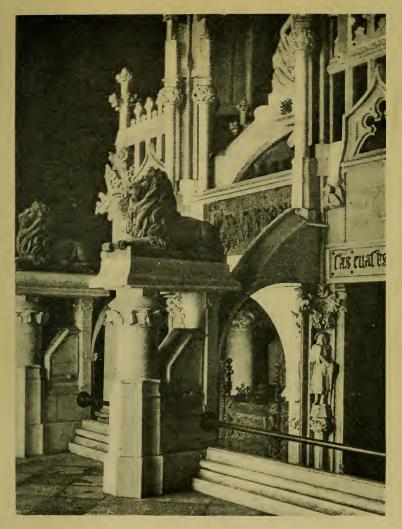
naje" tower, is now usually filled with political prisoners, who occupy the same stone cells wherein the old conquerors thrust their prisoners four centuries ago. From the dock beside the new and modern custom-house, one gazes shoreward upon scenes and ruins contemporary with the great discoverer, and looking upon the grand old stone wall surrounding the town, the half-ruined churches, and dull oriental colours of ancient buildings one seems to have stepped back into the days of armour and of conquest. Close at hand stands a large, well-preserved ruin, towering above the smaller, modern houses. This was the residence of Diego Columbus, son of the admiral, and onetime viceroy of the colony. His palace was so strongly fortified and defended with walls and cannon as to alarm the Spanish king, who recalled the governor to explain his actions. A little beyond the custom-house dock stands a gnarled old ceiba tree to which tradition says Columbus moored his caravels. Although there is room for doubt as to the veracity of this story, yet everything here is so closely identified with the life and career of Columbus that it loses nothing of interest thereby, and the ceiba is certainly old enough to have

served for a mooring in the days of the discoverer. As we step ashore and pass beneath the great arched gateway in the city wall, with the arms of Castile and Leon graven on the keystone, we half expect a challenge from a mail-clad sentinel within the dusky shadows. This massive wall entirely surrounds the city and even after a lapse of half a thousand years is yet firm and strong enough to withstand a siege of any but modern artillery. Passing up the main street, between old houses with their ornate doorways bearing the coats of arms of many such famous old families as Balboa, Alvarado, and Ponce de Leon, the plaza is reached, where stands the magnificent statue of Columbus with his bronze arm pointing ever westward.

CHAPTER VII

THE CATHEDRAL

On the southern side of the plaza is the massive old fortress cathedral, begun in 1514 and completed in 1540, and within its walls repose the bones of Christopher Columbus. The ancient bells of this cathedral are hung outside the walls in towers built for them instead of being placed within the edifice itself. Beneath these queer old bell towers we enter the broad stone portal decorated on either hand by pictured saints, almost as fresh as when first painted by the artists three centuries ago. Within the cathedral the attention is at once attracted to a magnificent monument of Italian marble, the last resting place of Columbus, whose bones repose in an ornamental urn guarded by two couchant lions. The Spaniards removed the supposed remains of Columbus to Havana in 1765, when the island was ceded to the French. The casket, however, bore no inscription and there is no doubt that it was in reality the coffin of Diego Columbus. In 1877, while repairs were being made



TOMB OF COLUMBUS, SAN DOMINGO

in the cathedral, another casket was discovered near the altar which bore on its sides the following inscription in ancient Spanish: "Discoverer of America, First Admiral and Illustrious and Famous Don Christobal Colon." Although it would seem that this was evidence enough, the argument has been advanced that the word America was not used at the date of Columbus's death. Although this is quite true, it is well known that the word did appear on maps as early as 1520, or nearly a score of years before the remains of Columbus were removed from Seville to Santo Domingo, and it was doubtless at this time that the inscription was made. The Italian Government was convinced of the authenticity of the remains when it presented the monument to the Dominicans, and the former United States Minister, the Hon. T. C. Dawson, investigated the matter thoroughly and came to the same conclusion.

Even without the remains of Columbus, the cathedral would be interesting, for it is a vast building of mediæval days, as much fortress as church, and in fact it has often served for the former purpose. In its tiled roof there still re-

mains a cannon-ball fired from the guns of Sir Francis Drake, who besieged the city in 1589. Although the doughty Englishman did his best to destroy and capture the capital, he failed in his attempt, and finally withdrew upon the payment of 25,000 ducats and a large quantity of plunder, leaving the cannon-ball in the cathedral roof as a lasting souvenir of his visit. Inside the cathedral, as we enter the western door, is the great nave, flanked by lofty pillars, supporting an arched, groined roof. Immediately in front is the high altar, faced with plates of silver from the Dominican mines and with a retable of carved native woods richly decorated with gold. Close to the altar, and facing the western door, is the Santa Reliquia sanctuary, containing a fragment of the ancient cross of Santo Cerro. The relic is preserved in a silver box and set in gold, and is exhibited once a year on the anniversary of the miraculous appearance of the angel on the "Holy Hill," near La Vega.

Continuing westward, the next chapel is that of "Santissima Trinidad," with a beautiful painting by one of the old masters, and next to this is the chapel of "La Virgen de Dolores," with

a tomb of a former archbishop. The "Door of Pardon," or "Puerta del Pardon," comes next, an interesting spot, as a person fleeing from justice, or even an escaped criminal, who reaches this doorway may claim sanctuary and pardon. Above this portal is a tablet stating that the cathedral was completed to this point in 1527, and at one side is a tiny chapel containing a rather repulsively realistic effigy of Christ with genuine human skull and cross-bones beneath and bearing the date of 1524. Between this and the entrance are four more chapels, one of which contains a painting and the bones of a saint. The "Capilla Alta Gracia" comes next, with a tablet stating that here repose the mortal remains of Oviedo, the historian of the West Indies, and just beyond is the chapel of "Jesus Predicador." Passing the western doorway, with its statues of San José and San Miguel to right and left, and once more moving towards the high altar, we arrive at the Capilla of "Jesus en Columna," with an image of "La Señora de Buen Sucesos." The next chapel contains a very ancient painting presented to the cathedral by Ferdinand and Isabella and brought to San Do-

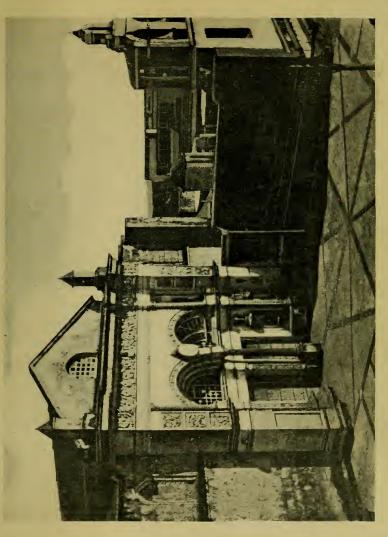
mingo by Columbus. Another painting in this chapel is by a pupil of Murillo, and in various other parts of the cathedral are valuable paintings by old masters, some of which will be mentioned in the order in which they are to be seen.

The "Capilla de San Francisco," which is next, contains the first cross erected on the site of the cathedral and which was transferred to its present resting place upon the completion of the church. The cross is of solid mahogany and about nine feet in height, and bears the following inscription: "Esta es la Insignia primera que se planto en el centro de esta Campo para dar principo a este magnifico Templo—el año de MDXIX."

The eleventh chapel, which is next, is that of "Santissimo Sacramento," with a series of paintings of the twelve apostles by Velasquez, while above the altar is a "Virgin" by Murillo. The tabernacle of this chapel is of beautiful wrought silver, and in the pavement before it is a huge tombstone on which is a carven coat-of-arms bearing the date 1551.

Beyond this is the "Capilla de Bautismo," with a beautiful door, delicate retable and splendid paintings. The next chapel is the most beau-





THE CATHEDRAL

tiful in the entire cathedral and is known as the "Capilla de Adelantado Rodrigo de Bastidas." The domed ceiling, Moorish tiles from the Alhambra in Spain, and other decorations, are wonderfully beautiful and rich and seem like a portion of some oriental structure. In this chapel are buried the remains of Bastidas with his wife and child. He was a famous commander and explorer and was killed by his own men while attempting to colonise the coast of the present Isthmus of Panama.

In this chapel also is a small cell with beautifully carved, two-leaved doors of wood, within which the remains of Columbus reposed at one time.

At the left and facing the nave is the altar of "Ave Maria," backed by a golden retable and an ancient painting, and with a statue of Isabella on one side and one of Ferdinand on the other, both copied from the statues in the royal chapel in Grenada, Spain. Back of this altar is a slab let into the pavement, and beneath this is the vault in which the remains of Don Luis Colon were discovered about fifty years ago.

It is at this spot that we again reach the mag-

287

nificent tomb of Christopher Columbus and thus complete our circuit of this most fascinating old cathedral.

Although the most interesting, the cathedral is by no means the oldest church in Santo Domingo City. This honour belongs to San Nicolas, built in 1509. This church was founded by Governor Ovando, the murderer of the beautiful Indian queen Anacaona, and the butcher of countless thousands of the aborigines. This blood-thirsty old Don did not confine himself to maltreating the helpless natives, but seems to have had a chronic grouch against the world in general and gave vent to his temper by oppressing every one with whom he came in contact, even including Columbus and his brothers.

Before he died he apparently saw the error of his ways and repented, and as a conscienceoffering he built the church of San Nicolas. The edifice is now merely a crumbling ruin, but the beautiful, groined roof above the presbytery is still fairly well preserved and well worth seeing.

There are fully a dozen old churches scattered about the city and scarcely one is not historically interesting to the traveller. San Francisco is par-

THE CATHEDRAL

ticularly noteworthy; a great massive structure conspicuous from all parts of the city, as it stands on an elevation back of the house of Diego Columbus. The church is now in partial ruins and a small portion is used as an insane asylum. It was under the entrance to this church that Ojeda, the comrade of Columbus, was buried "In humility that all who entered might place their feet above his head," and beneath the great altar Don Bartholomew Columbus, the founder of the city, was interred. From wall to wall great stone arches bridge the gaping, roofless interior, their crumbling masonry half-shrouded in climbing vines, while palm trees wave their plumes above the walls and find a foothold among the broken, tesselated pavement where once the faithful knelt in prayer.

San Miguel is another ancient church on a little hill before the Plazuela of the same name. This church was erected by the treasurer of King Charles of Spain in 1520, and while small is quite attractive and historically interesting. Santa Barbara is perhaps the most beautiful of the town's churches and is situated close to the river wall on the Calle Commercio. It is ancient, quaint,

and primitive, and wonderfully well preserved. San Anton, between San Miguel and Santa Barbara, was once a magnificent edifice but is now a mere shell with arches still intact. Of the other structures, La Merced is large but oppressively gloomy, Santa Clara is modern in appearance, having been greatly restored, as has Regina, which has an up-to-date and prosperous school in connection with it.

Of all the churches, none is more interesting than Santo Domingo, a well-preserved, imposing structure dating back to 1509, and with many a proud hidalgo and plumed knight of Old Spain resting beneath its floor. The altar is beautiful and mellowed with age, there are carved reredos, and the pulpit is supported on a serpent carved from native wood.

To the walls of this old church are attached the remains of the first university established in America. This college was under the direction of the famous priest, Las Casas, who accompanied Columbus on his voyages and whose life was never marred by bloodshed or violence, but who ever preached peace and good will towards his fellow-men. He did more than any other man



TOMB OF COLUMBUS, SAN DOMINGO CITY

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of his time to render the condition of the Indians more bearable and was mainly instrumental in abolishing Indian slavery. To him we owe an everlasting debt of gratitude as the author of the only reliable history of those old days, and here in Santo Domingo College he prayed and taught more than a century before the Pilgrims first landed at Plymouth Rock.

CHAPTER VIII

OTHER TOWNS AND PLACES OF INTEREST

IN addition to the principal cities and seaports already mentioned there are numerous smaller towns, many of which are of great historical interest or are centres of considerable importance. Among these may be mentioned Santiago de Los Caballeros, about twenty miles northeast of La Vega and reached by the railway from Puerta Plata or La Vega or by a road across the Vega Real from the latter town. Santiago was settled in 1504 by thirty Spanish gentlemen, or "Caballeros," of noble birth, who had special permission from the King of Spain to add their own appellation to that of the town.

Next to the capital, Santiago is the largest city of the republic, with about forty-five thousand inhabitants. Although the inhabitants of the aristocratic old town are by no means all "gentlemen" at present, yet the white race predominates in the city, and many of the leading families can trace their ancestry in unbroken

PLACES OF INTEREST 293

line from the old Spanish hidalgos who originally founded the town. Many of these descendants of grandees still retain the armour, swords, and other warlike gear of their ancestors, while several of Santiago's buildings also date from the days of the conquistadores.

Santiago has had a stormy history, but it is still an important, prosperous, and wealthy It has been sacked by pirates, has been town. almost destroyed by insurrectos, and has suffered from fire and sword for three centuries, but undaunted, the inhabitants have invariably repaired the damages, recouped their fortunes, and like the Phœnix, Santiago has each time arisen from its ashes a brighter, better, and more attractive town.

The city is built upon a high bluff overlooking the Yaqui River, and has a magnificent climate and is one of the healthiest towns on the island. It possesses three fine churches and a cathedral, a beautiful plaza embowered in palms, flowers, and shrubs; a governor's and a municipal palace, an institute, a fortified watch-tower, and many beautiful residences. The Santiago market is large and invariably well stocked with produce and pro-

visions, and for miles around the country people travel to the city on Saturdays, at which times the visitor can see the natives and their wares to the best possible advantage.

Near Santiago there are many historically interesting little towns and quaint villages, and San José de las Latas, about twenty miles distant, is one of these. Here at a high altitude and in the midst of balmy pine woods is the little town with its 400-year-old church and its peaceful population leading much the same simple, primitive life as their ancestors led several hundred years ago. The principal occupation of the inhabitants is weaving panniers, baskets, and hampers from palm leaves, but in the neighbouring streams gold occurs in considerable quantities, and many of the natives eke out an easy livelihood by washing out a few ounces of dust every week.

About the same distance south of Santiago is the town of Santo Tomas on the banks of the Janico River and near the first fort built by Columbus in the interior, and which was erected in 1494. This fort was constructed to protect the Spaniards in their search for gold in the



CATHEDRAL AND PLAZA, SANTIAGO DE LOS CABALLEROS

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river, for this district of the famed Cibao is the locality where gold was first found in quantities, and to-day over six million dollars' worth of the precious metal is annually taken from the Cibao by the crude native methods.

About midway between Santiago and La Vega is the town of Moca, a city of some thirty thousand inhabitants. Moca is a so-called "white town" and few of the people are coloured, the majority being of pure Castilian descent and proud of the unbroken line of their ancestry. Moca is in a rich agricultural district and famous for its coffee, and is connected with Santiago by rail.

It was in this town that General Ulyses Heureaux, the dictator of the republic, was assassinated in 1899.

Nearer to La Vega is Santo Cerro, or the "Holy Hill," and one of the most famed and attractive places in the republic. The hill rises for about six hundred feet above the beautiful Vega Real, and from its summit may be obtained a magnificent view of rolling green savannas, palmdotted plains, cultivated hills, sparkling silvery rivers, and pine-clad mountains. Columbus,

when subjugating the natives of the interior in 1495, took up a position on this hill beneath a huge nispero tree, portions of which may still be seen. From this point of vantage the admiral watched his armoured men as they slaughtered the defenceless Indians, while the Spanish bloodhounds bore them down and tore the naked, helpless savages to pieces. In honour of his victory he erected a cross upon the hilltop and marched away with his victorious troops. According to tradition some of the natives attempted to defile the cross after the departure of the invaders and as they did so the figure of a woman descended from the heavens and rested upon an arm of the cross. Although the savages threw stones and discharged arrows at the apparition, the missiles passed through her without any apparent effect, and thus realising the celestial character of the figure the Indians fell upon their faces in worship. The cross, which was the scene of this miracle, is now enshrined in the cathedral at Santo Domingo City, as mentioned elsewhere.

The hill itself is a sacred spot, held in the deepest veneration by all the Dominicans, and from all parts of the republic they come here on

PLACES OF INTEREST

pilgrimages, often creeping on their knees from the base to the summit of the hill, where a church has been built by the contributions of the pilgrims.

Another interior town, connected with La Vega and the coast by a branch line of the Samana-La Vega railway, is San Francisco de Macoris. This is a small city of some thirty thousand inhabitants nestling in the shadow of the northern mountains. Like Moca and Santiago, this is a "white" town, noted for the number of its inhabitants of pure Spanish descent and famous for the beauty of its women. Macoris is in a wonderfully fertile district and rich in its agricultural products, especially cacao, which covers every hillside in the vicinity.

Between La Vega and the capital are numerous towns, some of which are quite important, while others are of historical interest. Cotui, about thirty miles south of La Vega, was founded in 1505, and has scarcely changed through its four centuries of existence. The town owed its origin to the vast deposits of gold, silver, and copper in the vicinity, and was often called Las Minas, or "The Mines," on this account. It is now of little

297

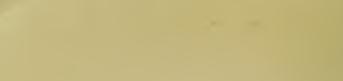
importance and the mines have been either forgotten or exhausted. About the same distance from La Vega is another ancient mining town, formerly of great renown, but now in much the same condition as Cotui. This is Bonao, and while gold mines are still in operation in the region, yet they do not amount to much as compared with those of early days, when vast treasure poured from Bonao into the coffers of the greedy Spaniards.

About thirty miles northeast of the capital is Boya, a little town of some three thousand inhabitants, which was founded in 1533 by a native chieftain, the cacique Enriquillo. The cacique carried on such a successful rebellion against the Europeans that Charles V was glad to sign a treaty with him and assign him and his people a reservation at this place. Here the last remnants of the once numerous natives lived in comparative peace, and the ancient church in which the chief and his people worshipped may still be seen, a quaint and lasting monument to Enriquillo, in whose honour the great inland lake was also named.

In the eastern portion of the republic, in the



A STREET IN SANTIAGO DE LOS CABALLEROS



PLACES OF INTEREST

district known as the Seybo, is the city of Santa Cruz. This town is about sixty miles from the capital and has a population of 15,000, and is one of the oldest cities of the island, having been founded by Juan de Esquival in 1502. The most eastern of all important towns is Higuey, or more properly "Salvaleon de Higuey," a place founded by Ponce de Leon soon after the settlement of Santa Cruz de Seybo. From here one may look out across the sea towards distant Porto Rico lying cloud-like and phantasmal on the horizon. No doubt old Ponce de Leon oft gazed from Higuey across the waves and meditated on the new land that he was destined to conquer and to govern.

About twenty miles from Seybo and sixty-five from the capital is La Romana, a new settlement on a splendid natural harbour and in the midst of a rich sugar district.

Villa Duarte, also known as "Pajarito," is a settlement of about ten thousand inhabitants on the eastern shores of the Ozama River opposite San Domingo City. This is the site of the original capital and the village is mainly of interest as containing numerous ruins of buildings closely

identified with Columbus. The chapel built by Bartholomew Columbus still stands here in the midst of a sugar plantation, and nearer the sea one may trace the ruins of the first settlement of San Domingo and the crumbling remains of the Moorish tower erected in 1496 and in which Columbus was cast in chains.

In this neighbourhood there are also some wonderful caves, the caverns of "Tres Ojos," within which are three miniature lakes of beautiful crystal-clear water.

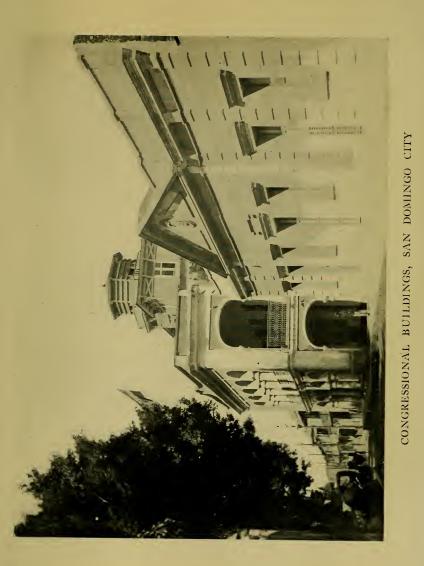
On the southern coast the principal town not already mentioned is Azua, 70 miles west of the capital and founded by Don Diego Velasquez, who later conquered and settled Cuba. Azua was first settled in 1504, and in its immediate neighbourhood dwelt many illustrious hidalgos of old Spain. Here lived Hernando Cortes, the conqueror of Mexico; Pizarro, who subjugated Peru; Balboa, the discoverer of the Pacific, and many another conquistador. Originally the town was three or four miles south of its present site but was removed on account of an earthquake. Azua is in a dry, rather barren section of the country, and formerly suffered greatly for lack of water, but now there is an ample supply from artesian wells. Although the country appears arid, yet with irrigation it is excessively fertile, and immense crops of sugar cane are produced. In the vicinity of Azua are large deposits of petroleum and several wells are being worked. The first well drilled spouted for over seventy feet, and it would not be at all surprising if eventually Azua became as great an oil-producing district as Tampico, Mexico. Among the mountains, about ten miles from Azua, is Maniel, a little village at an elevation so great that it possesses the climate of the northern spring, and in the neighbourhood apples, potatoes, and other products of the temperate zone grow freely. To the northwest of Azua, and forty-four miles distant, is the interesting little town of San Juan de la Maguana. It was at this spot that Caonabo, a famous Carib war chief, had his stronghold. Remains of the aborigines may be seen here in the form of a most remarkable circle of great stones on a level plain and known as "El corral de los Indios." No one has been able to explain just what purpose this circus-like structure served and it is doubtful if any light will ever be thrown on the subject, for the con-

querors were too intent on gathering gold and destroying the Indians to pay any attention to the habits and customs of the natives for the benefit of future generations.

San Juan was founded in 1504 and has a population of perhaps twenty thousand. From here westward to the Haitian border the country is as wild and unsettled as four centuries ago. In the midst of this virgin land, 40 miles from San Juan and close on the Haitian frontier, is Banica, founded by Velasquez in 1504, and with scarcely more trade or intercourse with the outside world than in the days of the conquest.

All of this district is a mass of mountains, deep valleys, small plains, and rich river lands. Everywhere are mighty forests of gigantic trees of valuable wood; a country marvellous in its resources, sublime in its scenery, and in many places unknown and unexplored save by occasional natives.

Through this wonderful country flows the mighty Yaqui River of the south, and at its mouth on the great bay of Neyba is the town of Barahona, a city of about forty-five thousand inhabitants and the natural shipping point for ma-



hogany and other products of the great unsettled district to the north.

The town of Neyba is on the eastern shores of Lake Enriquillo, an immense isolated body of fresh water with no apparent outlet and surrounded by a wide valley. South of this lake are Lakes Limon and Rincon, in which are not only fresh water fish but also salt water species, proving beyond a doubt that at some past time the lakes were connected with the sea.

At the time of the conquest this country swarmed with Indians ruled by a queen or princess known as Anacaona and famous for her personal charms. Anacaona was visited by Bartholomew Columbus and other great men, but was captured and hung by the blood-thirsty Governor Ovando, who also butchered thousands of her subjects. On the monument to Columbus in the plaza before the cathedral in Santo Domingo City may be seen a bronze statue of this ill-fated princess standing at the feet of the discoverer. The figure is in the attitude of writing an inscription laudatory of the Spaniards—surely a strange occupation for one who lost her life, honour, and people at the hands of the brutal

invaders. Not far from Rincon is the wonderful "Hill of Salt," known as Cerro de Sal, a mountain of pure rock salt and a natural wonder and curiosity of great commercial value if exploited.

Travelling eastward from Azua towards the capital we find the town of Bani, founded in 1764, and situated in a marvellously beautiful valley by the sea. Bani has a wonderfully healthy climate and is famous for the notable men who were born there. The town is the birthplace of General Maximo Gomez, the liberator of Cuba; Don Francisco Billini, once president of the republic; and Rev. F. X. Billini, a famous clergyman and philanthropist.

Still further eastward is the town of San Christobal, with about thirty thousand inhabitants, and the scene of many historical events. San Christobal is attractively located in a rich country and is connected with the capital by railway.

There are many other beautifully situated and interesting towns in the republic, and wherever one travels he will find villages, towns, and tiny "barrios" tucked away in smiling valleys, on interior plains, or on rich hillsides. It is seldom indeed that these little settlements have hotels, boarding

PLACES OF INTEREST 30

houses, or other accommodations for travellers. The life is of the simplest and most primitive, but the people are kind, hospitable, and courteous to a degree, and will readily and freely give up their own homes to make the stranger comfortable and will share their scanty meals and consider it an honour. Time and again has the author arrived at some tiny interior village after nightfall, only to have the swarthy, brigandishlooking natives vie with one another to care for the horses, furnish food and drink, and move out of their own simple huts to provide sleeping accomodations for the visitor.

PART III

HAITI, THE BLACK REPUBLIC



CHAPTER IX

HAITI AND ITS HISTORY

THERE is probably no spot in the world, and certainly none in the Western Hemisphere, to which the saying that "Distance lends enchantment to the view" is more applicable than to Haiti. The term "Black Republic," by which it is commonly known, is far from *a propos*, for while it certainly *is* black in morals, instincts, conditions, and the colour of its people, yet it cannot with truth be considered a "republic" save in theory.

Although Haiti comprises but one-third of the island of Santo Domingo, yet its reputation is such that in the minds of the majority of people the "black republic" covers the entire island, and the poor Dominican Republic has suffered through the bad name of its neighbour and is classed in the same category. Although it must be admitted that the Dominicans are rather turbulent among themselves, that frequent revolutions, an unstable government, and a farcical form of republic have prevented the Dominican Republic

from progressing or becoming prosperous, yet it is by no means a "black" country nor are its people barbarous, half-civilised, or retrogressive. In Haiti, on the other hand, over 90 per cent of the million and one-half inhabitants are black, while the remaining ten per cent are of mixed white and African blood,—with the African strongly predominating,—the pure whites scarcely being represented, save by foreigners.

In Haiti foreigners are looked down upon, are discouraged, and are hedged about with numerous restrictions, and cannot own land, and while a foreigner's life is scarcely ever in jeopardy, unless he pries too closely into Haitian affairs, yet under present conditions Haiti is no "white man's country."

Even in the largest towns there is scarcely a sign of modern progress and development, sanitation is conspicuous by its absence, filth and dirt are on every hand, there are comparatively few decent buildings, and ragged blacks swarm everywhere. In the country, conditions are even worse, for the people, unrestrained by a stable government, reared as it were on bloodshed, massacre, and warfare, have reverted to almost pristine African savagery in many places, and while they cultivate the land and live in semi-civilised villages, yet Obeah practices and Voodoo rites are carried on openly, and the serpent deities known as "Papa Loi" and "Maman Loi" hold far greater sway than the transient presidents of the republic.

It is a shame and a disgrace that such conditions should exist, for Haiti is a wonderful country, with magnificent scenery, vast resources, incalculable natural wealth, a splendid climate, and every advantage, and under a stable and proper administration, with sanitation, roads, and a civilised, decent population, it would be one of the most beautiful and prosperous countries of the world.

Haiti's earliest history is so intimately associated with the discovery and settlement of America that one can almost overlook the shortcomings of the republic on account of its historical interests.

In later years Haiti became the "Paris of America," a land of fashion, prosperity, and wealth, only,—like Rome,—to fall through its own wealth and excesses, and from that time on-

ward to become the scene of almost constant massacres, butcheries, pestilence, and horrors.

Haiti was discovered by Columbus in 1492, and at the bay of Cape Haitien, on the northern coast, he met with his first serious disaster. Here on a reef at the entrance to the bay his flagship was wrecked on Christmas Eve, and as the guest of a native Indian chief the great admiral spent his first American Christmas sorrowfully ashore.

The wreckage of the Santa Maria was brought ashore at a spot near the present fisher village of Petit Anse, and at this place was erected the first European fort in the New World, which was named "La Navidad" (The Nativity), in honour of the day of the disaster to the flagship. Here, in this isolated fortress, Columbus placed a garrison of 40 men, and early in January, 1493, set sail along the northern coast of the island, cruising as far as the present bay of Samana, from which point he set forth for Spain.

On his return the following year he found the fort at Navidad burned and the poor garrison massacred, with only a few charred logs and whitened bones to tell the story of their tragic fate. The early discovery of gold in San Domingo brought numbers of adventurous spirits to the island, and the poor aborigines were forced to till the fields, toil in the mines, and perform every sort of manual labour for the proud and indolent Spaniards. The colonists drove the Indians with pitiless rigour, and a constant stream of gold poured from "Hispaniola," as the island was called, into the coffers of the Spanish king. Towns and cities were rapidly built and flourished in splendour, wealth, and magnificence, and in a comparatively short time the island became the most important and richest European possession in the New World.

Meanwhile the Indians, unused to labour and the cruel exactions of their masters, were dying off so speedily that in fifteen years from the discovery of the island not over sixty thousand were left, although the original population was estimated at over one million, and within thirty years the Indian population was practically exterminated.

For a number of years natives from the neighbouring islands were kidnapped and carried as slaves to Haiti, but this supply proved inade-

quate, and in 1502 Africans were purchased from the Portuguese for servitude in Hispaniola. For a time, with the African labour, the prosperity of the colony continued, but with the decline of the gold supply and the discovery of new countries on the mainland, the most adventurous Spaniards migrated to Peru, Mexico, and other colonies and the importance of Hispaniola gradually diminished.

Throughout the early years of Spain's supremacy in the New World everything bordering on the Antillean seas was claimed by the King of Spain, but with the declaration of war between Spain and France, French and British privateers and pirates commenced to prey upon Spanish ships and Spanish, cities in the West Indies, until their depredations became so unbearable that Spain sent fleets to destroy their rendezvous in The pirates and freebooters who es-St. Kitts. caped gathered on the island of Tortuga, off the northern coast of Haiti, and this marked the commencement of the French occupation of that country. Although repeatedly attacked by the Spaniards, these refugees managed to retain their stronghold and rapidly increased in numbers and

even began to migrate to Haiti itself, establishing settlements, cultivating the land, and even importing slaves to the number of many thousands each year. So numerous became the French colonists and settlers that governors were sent out, and while Spain never relinquished her claim to the whole island of San Domingo and attempted repeatedly to regain her territory by force of arms, yet the French still retained their foothold in the western district. At last, in 1697, when Louis XIV concluded the treaty of Ryswick with the allied powers, all that part of the island actually occupied by the French subjects was secured to France, and from that time dates the recognised authority of the French in Haiti.

It was not until 1770 that a zigzag boundary was run from Fort Dauphin and Manzanillo Bay on the north coast to Anses-a-Pitres on the south, thus accurately defining the Spanish and French portions of the island.

In 1795, however, Spain ceded the entire island to France, but the eastern portion was again returned to Spain after the downfall of Napoleon and the restoration of the Bourbons.

At the conclusion of the treaty of 1776 France

was at peace with all Europe, but very soon war was declared with Great Britain, and in 1779 Count de Estaing was ordered to recruit a force in the French Antilles to aid the American colonies in their war of independence. In this way it happened that some eight hundred black, Haitian volunteers took part in the siege of Savannah and showed conspicuous bravery during several engagements. During all these years the colony of Haiti had been prospering and had become so rich and so filled with the wealth and society of the French that the town of Cape Haitien was known as the "Paris of America" and rivalled any other city in the New World. Here, in this tropical land, were 30,000 whites living in luxury and elegance, deriving their revenue from the toiling black slaves, while 30,000 mulattoes,-offspring of the slaves and their white masters,-were smarting under humiliating social, industrial, and legal restrictions, although many were nominally free men; and behind all, sullen, silent, but as dangerous as a slumbering volcano, were half a million black slaves suffering under the most unbearable cruelties and ready to break forth with fire and destruction at any moment.

At last, in 1789, the opportunity arose, and with the arrival of the news of the decrees of the National Assembly at Versailles, open anarchy and insurrection broke forth, and in the terrible times which followed all of the parties appeared to vie with one another in committing the most horrible atrocities and cruelties. This was the famous "negro insurrection in San Domingo," and it is doubtful if any civilised land has ever gone through a more terrible time of massacre, bloodshed, and fire, with every fiendish accompaniment that black savagery and unbridled passions could suggest. Men, women, and children were torn asunder and burned alive, white infants were impaled alive and carried screaming above the shouting hordes of black fiends, and the country estates and smaller towns were burned and devastated throughout the land.

Finally the commissioners sent from France proclaimed general emancipation in 1793, and on February 4, 1794, the French Assembly proclaimed complete emancipation of the slaves in all the French colonies, and while this legally ended slavery in Haiti, yet in reality it had ceased long before; for throughout the colony the slaves had

rebelled and were in possession of most of the country.

At this time several of the self-freed blacks, who had gone to the Spanish settlements on the eastern part of the island, returned to Haiti. Among these leaders was one, Toussaint l'Overture, who at once flung his sword into the balance in favour of France, which was at war with Spain and England. This ex-slave developed extraordinary military genius, and at the head of his men he soon drove the British from their foothold in the north and restored comparative quiet and order to the land. Unlike the other blacks, l'Overture was generous and humane, and to this day his character and name shine out as the only bright spot on the black pages of those bloody days. Tranquillity having been restored, l'Overture devoted himself to reorganisation and soon became practically the sole governing power of Haiti. Soon planters returned to their estates, industry recommenced, and under the new organisation there seemed promise of a peaceful future.

During Toussaint's reorganisation work he promulgated a constitution which conferred considerable power on himself, and while this was

made subject to approval by France, yet it aroused Napoleon's suspicions and induced him to listen to the appeal of planters who considered themselves ruined by the emancipation. Finally in 1802 he sent an expedition consisting of 30,000 men and 40 ships to Haiti, under the command of his brother-in-law, General Leclerc, with the avowed object of restoring slavery. The expedition landed at Cape Haitien on the 12th of February, and l'Overture, resolving to resist the attempt to restore the blacks to slavery, at once commenced hostilities. This second war was even more horrible than the former insurrection, and led by Toussaint, Dessalines, and Christophe, the negroes and mulattoes burned, ravished, and slaughtered with the most savage and devilish methods they could devise, while the French, driven mad by revenge, committed like inhumanities, only to be met with more fiendish retaliations until the land literally ran with blood and the country became a veritable hell of unspeakable atrocities committed by both whites and blacks.

More troops were sent from France, Toussaint was treacherously captured and sent in chains to France, where he died, and yellow fever stepped in

to aid the blood-crazed blacks to exterminate the French; but still the war went on, until in December, 1805, the French withdrew with a loss of nearly sixty thousand men and a cost of over two hundred million francs; all of which was brought about by the perfidy of Napoleon.

Haiti was now freed from the foreign troops and was completely in the hands of the negroes. Under a monster known as General Jean Jacques Dessalines, the blacks and mulattoes commenced to systematically exterminate the few remaining whites, and proceeding from house to house the Africans butchered every Caucasian they could find or dragged them forth to execute them in the market places amid the most savage orgies and barbarous accompaniments.

Dessalines, in the meantime, promulgated the Declaration of Haitian Independence, and was proclaimed Governor-General for life; but he was assassinated in November, 1806, and was succeeded by Petion, who was harassed and kept constantly at war by Christophe, who set up a government in the north and styled himself King Henry I. In 1820 Christophe, who had lived in dread of a return of the French, committed suicide, and Boyer assumed the leadership of the republic.

Meanwhile, the cities of culture, prosperity, and wealth reverted to miserable villages of negro huts; the great cathedrals, the fountains and statuary, the magnificent residences, and the splendid public buildings were burned or neglected until destroyed and crumbled by earthquake and the elements, until to-day the once gay and fashionable towns are ramshackle, rambling settlements amid the ruins of past culture.

Truly the Haitiens have reaped as they sowed; and while the part that France played will ever remain a blot on her escutcheon, yet looking back upon those blood-stained days we can scarcely pity the Haitiens for their present condition nor can marvel that a republic founded upon massacre and torture should be torn asunder by constant warfare and the prey to dishonesty, despotism, and unbridled passions.

CHAPTER X

HAITI'S TOWNS AND CITIES

THE capital and largest city of Haiti is Port au Prince, a city of about seventy thousand inhabitants, situated on the western coast at the head of a deep gulf or bay. Port au Prince is a dirty, wretched city, with ruined and half-ruined buildings giving it an air of sadness and hopelessness that is quite pitiful to behold.

With every natural advantage in situation, climate, and surroundings to make it a metropolis of the West Indies, yet the capital of Haiti is poverty-stricken, dilapidated, and forlorn, lacking in nearly every modern convenience and improvement and with poverty and squalour side by side with wealth and culture on every hand. Black and brown men and women dressed in the latest Parisian fashions pick their way through the rough and filthy streets, splendid carriages drive through stagnant pools and over the broken cobbles, glorious tropical vegetation grows unkempt and uncared for in gardens surrounded by

HAITI'S TOWNS AND CITIES 323

crumbling, broken walls and sagging gates, while miserable native huts lean drunkenly against the walls of once fine palaces and public buildings.

Port au Prince was nearly destroyed by earthquake in 1770, and it has been so frequently subjected to serious conflagrations that it is said that the equivalent of the entire town has been destroyed by fire every twenty-five years.

There are but a few good buildings in the town, among them the national palace,—a huge, onestory building of brick and wood, wherein the gold-laced, gaily-uniformed negro, who happens to hold the reins of government, resides amid a tawdry imitation of pomp and ceremony. In the great, bare cathedral even the saints and virgins are painted black and brown to correspond with the national colour of the people, and at every turn one is constantly reminded that this is a black man's country.

Fronting the palace is a large field known as the "Champ de Mars," where parades and reviews of ragged soldiery are held, goats pastured, and semi-naked urchins play and laze.

The market-place is large but filthy, and is filled with a great variety of fruits, vegetables,

and other products, and with half-wild Africans, who have brought the produce from the outlying country districts. There are two or three hotels in the town, and strangely enough the meals at some are well cooked and well served, but all luxuries of hotel life, and most of the necessities as well, are sadly lacking. The stores are many of them large and well stocked and the buildings occupied by the various consulates, the steamship agents, the commission merchants, foreign storekeepers, banking houses, and larger merchants are clean, attractive, and in good repair.

Some of the buildings are quite imposing, notable among them the various edifices devoted to commerce, the churches and the schools, as well as the National Foundry.

The town possesses tram car lines and the beginning of a railway leading to the interior, and within the city limits are over one thousand licensed cabs locally called "busses."

Port au Prince has quite a large number of foreign inhabitants and white residents, and if the visitor to the dejected city is fortunate enough to know some of these he will find that a short stay in the town and vicinity may be made quite pleasant. About five miles from the town is the suburb of La Coupe, a beautifully situated resort at an altitude of about twelve hundred feet above the sea.

This is the warm weather residence of the better people of Port au Prince and contains numerous really fine residences. The climate is superb, a cool breeze always blows from the sea, the view of the bay is magnificent, and there are natural baths among the trees. A greater change than that between Port au Prince,—the stinking, hot, pestilential capital,—and cool, clean, attractive, and healthy La Coupe it is difficult to imagine.

Sailing westward along the northern coast of the long peninsula which bounds Port au Prince Bay on the south, the next port reached is Miragoane, about seventy-five miles west of the capital. This city lies at the edge of a mountainous district, where coffee is grown extensively and where dye and cabinet woods abound, all of which are shipped from this port. Near the town is a large lake about eight miles in width and seven miles in length and fully two hundred feet in depth. Near the eastern end of this lake is the port of

Petit Goave, with a considerable export trade and a port of call for numerous ships. Just north of Miragoane lies the island of Gonave, or Gonaive, some thirty-five miles in length by nine in width, and covered with a heavy forest growth wherein cabinet and dye woods abound, and with a large lake near the centre and numerous freshwater springs. Although this beautiful island is larger than many of the lesser Antilles, yet it is scarcely inhabited, and a few fishermen about the coasts, a few lumbermen in the interior, and a few half-wild squatters who cultivate tiny gardens of yams and fruits comprise its entire population.

Still further westward and almost at the tip of the long Tiburon peninsula lies the town of Jeremie, a port from which sugar and coffee are exported and the outlet for a wonderfully fertile district capable of producing untold wealth if properly cultivated and provided with good roads and a stable government. Jeremie has little to recommend it and little of interest save that it is the westernmost town of importance on the island of Santo Domingo and was the birthplace of Alexander Dumas the elder.

HAITI'S TOWNS AND CITIES 327

Rounding Cape Tiburon and proceeding eastward along the southern coast of the peninsula, the towns of Aux Cayes and Jacmel are reached. The former lies on the shore of a great crescentshaped indentation, with the Isle de Vache a short distance off the shore. Aux Cayes is an important port for sugar, coffee, dyewoods, and other products are shipped, and the locality is famous for its excellent rum. Aside from this, the town is of little interest to travellers, although the country between it and Jeremie is excessively rich and very beautiful. Still further to the east and the last port of importance on the southern coast is Jacmel, with a beautiful bay or open roadstead hemmed in with coral reefs. Jacmel is surrounded by magnificent scenery, and forested hills and mountains rise behind it in tier upon tier of green tropical vegetation, but the city itself, like Port au Prince, is a place of neglect and decay, with an utter disregard for sanitation or improvement, and is only of interest as showing how improvident, backward, and unprogressive the negro becomes when freed from the guidance and example of the white race.

Some distance north of Port au Prince, and on

the same great bay as the capital, is the town of St. Marc. Behind the port sweeps the great and fertile plain of the Artibonite, a large river that flows down from the interior mountain ranges, and before the town lies the deep and beautiful bay. It is a location of surpassing beauty, of vast resources, and of splendid climate, but the traveller who is not obliged to visit the town will be just as well off if he stays away. Sugar cane, tobacco, cotton, coffee, and other products are grown and shipped, but the town is no more progressive or inviting than the other Haitian ports. Moreover, St. Marc is a frequent battle ground for the squabbling Haitiens during their numerous and almost periodical revolutions, so that there is little incentive for the inhabitants to attempt to either improve the town or their own resources, as any indication of wealth or prosperity merely tempts the ruthless thieves of soldiery of both warring factions.

Further north, and on the same bay, lies the town of Gonaives, a port of about twenty thousand inhabitants, and important commercially, as large quantities of mahogany, dyewoods, and agricultural products are exported. It was at this



ALONG THE WATER FRONT, HAITI



town that the leader of the negro uprising,-Toussaint l'Overture,-was seized by the French.

Continuing northward and rounding the end of the northern peninsula a wonderful natural port is found. This is Mole San Nicolas, which was discovered by Columbus in 1492, but still remains almost as unused and lonely as when first entered by the discoverer over four centuries ago.

Situated but a bare sixty miles from eastern Cuba, commanding the Windward Passage and the sea approaches to Panama, Jamaica, and the south; deep enough to float the largest ship in the world and large enough to accommodate a huge navy, yet no power holds this port. Time and again the United States have carried on negotiations looking towards the possession of Mole San Nicolas as a coaling station and naval base, but it remains to-day a little neglected hole-in-thewall in the hands of the Haitiens.

Beyond Mole San Nicolas a narrow passage leads between the northern shore and the outlying island of Tortuga. This island, which is 21 miles long and nearly four miles wide, was for many years the favourite retreat and stronghold of pirates and buccaneers and probably contains

more buried treasure than any other spot in the Spanish Main.

The buccaneers, driven from their haunts in the smaller British and French islands, settled in numbers on Tortuga and defied the King of Spain and all his navy to drive them forth. For over thirty years the "brethren of the seas" lived upon the island of Tortuga, their craft lying safely at anchor in the well-protected harbour and faring forth to prey upon passing ships; while ashore, villages were built, cattle were raised, and gardens cultivated. Indeed it was from the jerked or sun-dried beef of Tortuga, and known as "bucan," that these freebooters were given the name of "buccaneers," a term by which they were known thoughout the seven seas and which still exists as a synonym for a sea rover and pirate.

When at last the stronghold on Tortuga was broken up and the pirate leaders had been killed, captured, or had retired on their ill-gotten gains to lead the life of gentlemen, many of the buccaneers migrated to the main island and settled down to a peaceful life. Others remained on Tortuga, and to-day many of the descendants of HAITI'S TOWNS AND CITIES 331

these old pirates dwell upon Tortuga and cultivate the ground, raise cattle, or gather dyewoods.

On the northern shore of the main island and opposite Tortuga is the town of Port de Paix, the outlet of a large and magnificent valley and a fairly flourishing town,—from Haitian standpoints. It is entirely a black town, with few coloured folk, and is no place for a white man, which is also the case with the nearby port of Acul, a harbour so beautiful and so lavishly provided with natural advantages that Columbus gave it the name of "Val de Paraiso," or "Vale of Paradise."

All along this northern coast are wonderful natural harbours, each surrounded with the riches and luxuriance of a most bountiful nature and even more desolate and solitary than when first discovered by Columbus. In those days Haiti teemed with a quiet, peaceful race of Indians, who tilled the soil and lived happily in this fair land, while to-day vast stretches of coast are unbroken by a single house or hut and the splendid harbours protect naught but weather-beaten, crudely built fishing boats drawn upon the beaches.

The last and most important town upon Haiti's northern coast is Cape Haitien, more familiarly and widely known as "The Cape." Once a centre of wealth, elegance, and luxury, with spacious residential grounds, an imposing cathedral, beautiful squares and plazas, fountains and statuary, Cape Haitien has fallen to a lowly state indeed. What was spared by the torch of the savage black hordes has fallen into ruin and decay, for once a building in Haiti is injured or partially destroyed it is never rebuilt, and at The Cape we will find a city of huts and hovels springing up amid the skeletons of former grandeur, the fountains dry and filled with rubbish, the gardens and parks mere jungles of unkempt vegetation, the streets rough, undrained, and filthy, and the people lazy, dirty, shiftless, and rapidly drifting back toward the African savagery of their ancestors.

One place in the vicinity of Cape Haitien is well worth visiting, however, and that is Sans Souci and the "Black King's Castle."

When the French troops under General Leclerc attacked Cape Haitien, then in possession of the black, the commander of the natives, a negro

HAITI'S TOWNS AND CITIES 333

"general" named Christophe, set fire to the town before retreating with his savage horde to the hills. Later this same Christophe became the second ruler of Haiti under the dominion of the blacks, and in 1811 he proclaimed himself king. Honouring his black consort with the title of queen, he proceeded to form a native Haitien nobility consisting of his own children as "princes of the royal blood"; three "princes of the kingdom"; eight "dukes"; twenty "counts"; thirtyseven "barons," and eleven "chevaliers," each and every one an ex-slave or the descendant of a slave.

Under the title of "King Henry," Christophe ruled in state with nine royal palaces, eight royal chateaux, coaches and horses galore, innumerable retainers and servants, a tremendous bodyguard, and all the pomp, ceremony, and display of true royalty.

Of all King Henry's possessions, the most magnificent and beautiful, and the only one which remains as a testimonial to his wealth and power, is the palace of Sans Souci,—probably the most wonderful architectural creation in the West Indies.

Sans Souci is located at the head of beautiful Millot Valley, at the base of high, verdure-clad hills down which flow sparkling streams to irrigate gardens of coffee and other tropical plants, the whole forming a scene as lovely as anything on earth.

Sans Souci may be easily reached by horses from Cape Haitien, and a guide may be secured in the town, while letters or a permit must be obtained from the Commandante in order to visit the ruins of the wonderful palace.

Sans Souci is now scarcely more than a gaunt skeleton, but even in its decay is impressive and vast, its roofless walls, arched entrances, and terraced gardens still evidences of the former grandeur of the place. In an open plaza or parade before the palace there stands an enormous starapple tree beneath which the black king held many a levee and audience in the days of his power, but all is forsaken and forlorn, for the king committed suicide by shooting himself in the head,—following out his love of display by using a silver bullet,—and Haiti's black dynasty lives only in story and in the descendants of Henry's self-appointed nobility.

HAITI'S TOWNS AND CITIES 335

Even greater and more wonderful than Sans Souci was that second structure erected by this king,—the fortress on La Ferriere, a lofty pyramid-shaped mountain some twenty miles inland from Cape Haitien and one of the most striking features of the landscape from the sea.

Upon the level summit of this peak the black king built a fortress, at such a sacrifice of life and labour that it may be truly said to rest upon the bones of its builders. Here in the vast solitary forest stands this mighty fort, a solid monolith-like structure frowning down upon the countryside, a vast and stupendous labour that would tax any king and country, but which was carried out by ignorant slaves under the cruel, pitiless guidance of a semi-savage monarch. Here to this mountain-top every stone was hauled by human hands, every piece of artillery,-and there are hundreds,-was dragged up to the summit by gangs of men, and here, as a last refuge, the black king stored vast quantities of grain and food, of ammunition, flints, bullets, powder, clothing, tools, and a treasure amounting to more than thirty million dollars.

Above the summit of the cone-shaped mountain

the mighty walls of the fort tower upwards for 100 feet. About them is a wide, deep moat, spanned by a single drawbridge, and within are enormous galleries one above another, and mounting scores, yes hundreds, of cannon. In the centre of the great structure is the tomb of the king, but like the treasure vault nearby, open and rifled of its contents. But while the mortal remains of the black monarch have long since disappeared, his fort still stands upon its lofty perch above the wilderness and his rusting cannon still point their mute muzzles towards an expected foe that never came to invade the solitude or to disturb the reign of the negro king.

CHAPTER XI

THE INTERIOR OF HAITI AND ITS RESOURCES

WHAT has already been said of the character of the interior, the resources, and the scenery of the Dominican Republic is in a measure also true of Haiti, for the two republics are separated only by an imaginary boundary line and the same fauna and flora are common to both sides of the island with few exceptions.

Many of the rivers which rise in the Dominican Republic flow into Haitian waters, the same mountain ranges run from east to west on the northern and southern sections of the two republics, and one of the largest inland lakes is half in one republic and half in the other.

If such a thing were possible, Haiti is even more fertile and more luxuriant than the Dominican Republic, and while the mountains are not as high nor the scenery so majestic, yet its rich and fertile valleys, wide grass-covered plains, undulating savannas, and lofty forest-covered mountains are wonderfully beautiful and are fully

equal in their wild grandeur to many parts of the Dominican Republic and far excel any other island in the West Indies.

Haiti is a well-watered country, although large rivers are not as numerous as in the neighbouring republic, 43 streams being worthy the name of river, the largest being the Artibonite, which rises far in the north on the Dominican frontier, flows southerly, and forms a portion of the boundary line of the two republics, turns westward, and flowing across the broad coastal plain, enters the sea near St. Marc. Another branch of this great river rises a few miles south of Cape Haitien, while a third tributary has its origin on the slopes of Mt. Loma Tina in the Dominican Republic. Thus this one river drains an enormous amount of the interior of Haiti and its numerous branches and tributaries form a system which waters the greater part of the most fertile area of the republic. Numerous other smaller rivers flow from the cordilleras, both north and south, into the seas, and scarce a spot in Haiti is parched, barren, or dry, and nearly every square mile of its nine thousand odd square miles is capable of being cultivated and of yielding a wonderful har-

INTERIOR OF HAITI

vest of fruits, vegetables, or other tropical products. Even the areas that are unfitted for agriculture are marvellously rich, for the forests abound in mahogany, lignum-vitæ, ebony, lancewood, cedar, satin-wood, balata, green-heart, pine, yellowwood, logwood, sapota, mamee, purpleheart, and scores of other valuable and beautiful cabinet woods and dyewoods. In many parts of the republic gold is found in the streams, and the early Spanish discoverers found the Indians wearing numerous gold nuggets as ornaments. Copper, iron, nickel, petroleum, tin, bismuth, mercury, and other minerals occur in numerous situations, and no doubt still other natural riches could be located by an exploration of the vast interior forests and almost unknown mountains of the republic.

The fauna of Haiti is rich in bird life, the same species being found as in the Dominican Republic, while the insects, reptiles, and mammals are identical save that in Haiti the Solenodon, or "Almiqui," is probably extinct and the Hutia, or Capromys, is exceedingly rare. The rivers, lakes, and coasts abound with fish; oysters are found in the swamps and bays; lobsters, crabs, and craw-

fish swarm in the coastal waters and streams, and on every hand an abundant supply of sea-food is provided by nature.

The flora consists of the same plants, trees, and shrubs as in the Dominican Republic, and every tropical and many temperate fruits and vegetables may be grown successfully.

Haiti is not naturally unhealthy, but lack of sanitation or hygienic conditions have caused many of the towns to be perfect pestholes of disease. In every case, however, Haiti's towns could be made as healthy and free from disease as the towns of Porto Rico or Cuba.

Yellow fever is not now as common as in years past, typhoid is not troublesome, pulmonary diseases are rare, but malaria, smallpox, dysentery, and mild fevers are very prevalent. In 1881-82 Haiti was visited by an epidemic of smallpox which raged for several months and wiped out thousands of lives, but cholera, bubonic plague, and other epidemics are practically unknown. Tetanus is excessively common and the slightest wound or abrasion is liable to result in lockjaw. Leprosy, yaws, syphilis, and elephantiasis are prevalent and the disgusting and malformed vic-



IN THE "BLACK REPUBLIC"



INTERIOR OF HAITI

tims of these repulsive diseases are seen in all parts of the republic, often taking advantage of their terrible condition as a means of obtaining alms and begging in the public streets and marketplaces.

The climate of Haiti varies according to the locality and altitude. On the coast it is generally very hot, Port au Prince being probably the hottest town in the West Indies. From the middle of April until the first of November the mercury averages from 94° to 96° every day, seldom rising above 97° and seldom falling below 93°, and the nights averaging from ten to twenty degrees cooler than the days. From November until April the mercury averages from 84° to 86° daily, but on occasion running as high as 95° if land breezes happen to prevail. Away from the coast almost any temperature may be found, and within a few hours' ride of the sea,-as at Turey,-an altitude of some sixteen hundred feet may be attained, where the thermometer falls to 45° or lower at night.

In climate, healthfulness, fertility, resources, and all other natural conditions, Haiti compares favourably with the most advanced and prosperous

of tropical countries, and yet it is the most backward, poverty-stricken, undeveloped, and unattractive of the West Indies.

One of the principal causes of the condition of Haiti is the lack of good roads and other means of inland transportation. In the days of the French occupation there were numerous splendid highways leading from one town and village to another as well as to the numerous fine plantations and estates. After the expulsion of the French these magnificent highways were neglected and uncared for, until to-day they are rough, full of ruts and mud-holes, and so narrowed by the ever-encroaching vegetation that they are scarcely more than forest trails, such as might be found in darkest Africa. Here and there are rude bridges across the streams or the crumbling remains of the once fine structures built by the French, but as a rule all streams are forded, and there is a common saying, "Never cross a bridge if you can go around it." It is the same way with the great estates that were once the scene of busy industry and great prosperity. Now and then the rundown plantations may still be seen, with halfruined buildings occupied by negroes and the once

well-tilled fields and orchards partially cleared and sporadically cultivated. Many a great estate lies hidden deep within the forests, its walls broken and overgrown with vines, great trees sprouting from the courts that were once the scene of merrymaking and luxurious pleasure, the outbuildings mounds of greenery, and the once richly furnished halls the haunt of countless bats, nightbirds, and lizards.

From Port au Prince a trail leads southward to the Dominican Republic, passing the huge lakes of Fondo and Enriquillo and traversing a wonderfully rich and interesting country; but it is a hard road to travel and one must indeed be a lover of nature to undertake the overland route unless driven by necessity. Another "road" connects the city of Port au Prince with St. Marc, Gonaives, and Cape Haitien, but it is as poor as the others, while the numerous inland routes across the border of the Dominican Republic are bad beyond expression.

Much capital would have been invested in Haiti and Haitian improvements were it not for the unstable government, the frequent disastrous revolutions, and the fact that foreigners cannot own

property in the republic and can seldom obtain redress for injury or loss of any kind. As a result, important industries or undertakings are lacking, and as long as the blacks hold sway and Haiti retains the present customs, laws, habits, and obstructive policies towards foreigners, the island's resources will remain unexploited and the republic will continue,—as it is to-day,—a repulsive ulcer on the richest and fairest of lands.

CHAPTER XII

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, GOVERNMENT, EDUCATION

IN 1791 the population of Haiti amounted to nearly one-half a million, consisting of about thirty thousand whites, thirty thousand mulattoes, and four hundred and fifty-five thousand blacks. Since that time no accurate census has been taken, although in 1860 an enumeration was undertaken, but which only went far enough to prove that the entire population was under a million. Later the Roman Catholic clergy attempted a census, and while not formal or official, the result showed about one million inhabitants. Owing to the innumerable wars and revolutions, the male population of Haiti has been decimated and the females outnumber the males about three to one. Less than one-tenth of the entire population consists of whites and mixed races, the bulk, or nine-tenths, being practically pure blacks. Although to northerners these people seem of unadulterated African blood, yet in Haiti, as in the other West Indies, the people themselves distinguish between

the various admixtures and have a special name to designate every gradation of colour or shade from the pure negro to the almost pure whites. Thus the offspring of a black and a mulatto is a "griffe" (feminine, "griffona"), the child of a griffe or griffona and a negro is a "marabo," or "marabout," and so on.

There have been several attempts to increase Haiti's population by inducing immigration from other countries, the first in 1824, when a number of coloured people emigrated from the United States. Although few of these people became prosperous, yet a number of their descendants are in the republic and still retain their American names and language.

A second effort was made in 1860, when exceedingly liberal terms were offered American coloured families. Under this offer passages of the settlers were to be paid, land was to be given free, and the colonists were to be housed and cared for until they could establish their own homes, and in addition the new arrivals were to be free from military service under the Haitien Government. Although a fully equipped emigration bureau was opened in Boston and every effort was made to obtain successful results, yet it amounted to little more than the first attempt, and no further efforts have been made to augment the population in this way.

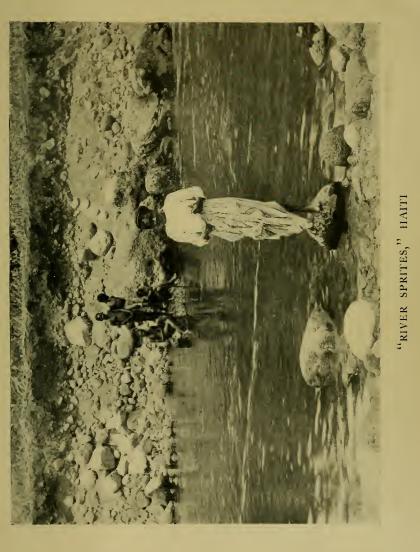
As a rule the natives are honest, hospitable, and happy, and a stranger may travel in perfect safety anywhere, provided he does not interfere in the people's lives, politics, or customs, or does not attempt to pry into their private affairs.

The language of the republic is French, which is spoken and written in its purest form by the educated upper classes, many of whom are educated in Europe. The language of the country, however, is the "Creole," or "Patois," which is really a distinct language, although founded upon and originally a dialect of French. Creole was evolved during slavery days, when the French whites were obliged to find a means of communication with the slaves drawn from numerous African tribes. Under such conditions a dialect was evolved having French as a basis, but so greatly abbreviated, condensed, and simplified, and with so many African words included, that it became practically a language by itself.

Creole is essentially a spoken language, and

while primers, the Bible, and other books have been written in patois, yet its crudity and peculiarities are not adapted to literature. Little attention is given to gender, number, or case; plurality is indicated by a participle and only when absolutely essential, and as a rule the feminine adjectives are used. The articles are of little importance and the verb is never changed,—fivemonosyllabic participles being used to distinguish modes and tenses. There is but one form for each of the personal pronouns and conjunctions, prepositions, etc., are sacrificed right and left, and yet with this crude, half-savage tongue every gradation of emotion and thought may be freely expressed.

It must be remembered, however, that Haitian patois is absolutely distinct from the patois of other French provinces and colonies. It bears little resemblance to French Canadian and differs materially from the Creole or patois French of the other French West Indies. Even the smaller French islands have distinct Creole dialects, and Guadeloupe, Dominica, Martinique, St. Lucia, and Trinidad each has its own patois, which differs in many ways from all others; and while a person





PEOPLE AND CUSTOMS 349

thoroughly familiar with one dialect may be able to speak and understand that of another island, yet in many ways the dialects are as distinct as the various Latin-European languages.

With all its retrogression Haiti is not blind to the value of education, and schools are not by any means lacking in the republic. As long ago as 1860 there were 136 schools in Haiti, with an attendance of over ten thousand pupils, while in 1891 the number had increased to 750, with 33,391 pupils, besides numerous private schools and schools of the various religious denominations. There is also a law school, a "Lycée," or National College, as well as various seminaries, schools, and other educational institutions for girls conducted by the Sisters of the Catholic Church, while a large number of the Haitiens of the educated or wealthier classes send their children to Europe and America to be educated.

Although nominally the government is a republic, and its powers are defined and limited by a written constitution, yet it does not trouble a Haitian president to set aside this important document or to alter it to suit his own ideas and ends. Certain portions of the constitution have, how-

ever, remained unaltered from the first, such provisions as the freedom of religious worship, the inviolability of territory, the equality of citizens, trial by jury, encouragement of education, and similar matters having withstood all the vicissitudes of warfare, revolution, and the various dictators that have guided, or rather misguided, Haiti through its one hundred and ten years of independence.

The President is the chief executive, and is elected for a term of seven years, with the possibility of re-election to a second term of the same. length. The President is entitled to a cabinet of six ministers, and no act of the President, other than naming or retiring members of his cabinet, is valid unless it is countersigned by one of the cabinet ministers. These men can be and frequently are elected members of congress, and whether members of that body or not, they can appear before it to advocate or explain measures, etc., and are compelled to appear when the House so requests. The Legislature, or National Congress, consists of two Houses,-a Chamber of Deputies and a Senate. The former consists of members elected by free suffrage from each com-

PEOPLE AND CUSTOMS

mune according to the population, but every commune is entitled to at least one deputy. This house selects the senators from two lists, submitted, one by the executive and one by the electoral assembly. When the two houses convene they constitute the National Assembly, and it is this body that elects the President. The Legislature meets yearly in April and is in session for four months. The Senate consists of 39 members, each chosen for six years, and both senators and deputies are indefinitely eligible for re-election.

The laws and forms of legal procedure are essentially French, and under Haitien laws no foreigners may own real estate or engage in retail trade unless they become citizens of the republic. All persons who engage in business or who practise a profession must secure a license, and the fees charged to foreigners are twice that charged to Haitiens. It is easy to see that these restrictions are a tremendous drawback, for while the constitution provides for the naturalisation of foreigners,—at least theoretically,—a person must indeed be hard pressed to become a Haitien subject, and a large number of Haitiens constantly establish residences abroad and become citizens of

351

other nations rather than submit to the chaotic, unstable, and overbearing conditions of their own country.

Wherever we find the African race we find gross superstition, and wherever the blacks are free from the restraint of the whites, or of advanced civilisation, the natural superstitions of the race find expression in witchcraft, idolatry, Obeah, or Voodooism. Even in the British West Indies a large proportion of the coloured population believe thoroughly in Obeah, and Voodooism is carried on with little attempt at concealment, although the more barbarous and savage rites are seldom indulged in. In Haiti, therefore, it is not surprising that Obeah and Voodooism should be practised almost universally and that in many of the outlying districts they should be accompanied with all the orgies and debaucheries of interior Africa.

Many people are ignorant of just what Voodooism and Obeah are and are prone to consider them mere superstitious beliefs and mild forms of witchcraft. As a matter of fact, Obeah consists primarily and principally of sorcery and witchcraft and is *not* a religion. The Obeah men and women are supposed to possess supernatural powers, and

OCT - 0 1941

PEOPLE AND CUSTOMS

through fear they have a strong hold on the people and their word is law to a certain extent. Their supposed powers are called into play on every occasion, and for a small sum they will undertake to put an enemy out of the way, induce the love of another, help in business matters, or perform all the services of our clairvoyants and secondsight mediums. It is unquestionable that many of the Obeah practitioners possess hypnotic and other powers and that some of the "stunts" they perform are beyond comprehension, but their main reliance is in their remarkable knowledge of vegetable poisons, with which they destroy their own enemies and the enemies of their clients. So subtle are some of the poisons employed by these people that their victims may live for years, dying slowly as from some wasting disease, or may go insane, deaf, blind, or dumb. All the actions of the Obeah men are surrounded with mysticism, weird incantations, odd rites and fetishes, such as red rags, dried snakes and lizards, human bones or portions of human organs, glass bottles filled with miscellaneous objects, etc. So firm is the belief of the negroes in the power of the Obeah that they often succumb to fear alone, and the author has person-

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353

ally known of cases where strong men pined away and died, merely because of fear induced by the statement, that some one had "put Obeah" on them. In the practice of Obeah, murders are frequently committed and children are often kidnapped, killed, and their internal organs used as accessories in Obeah rites; but cannibalism has no part in it and there is no religious significance nor any form of worship connected with pure Obeah. Voodooism, on the other hand, is a form of religion, the deity being known as the "great green serpent," who is represented by a high priest known as "Papa Loi" and a priestess called "Maman Loi," and the commands of these two are absolute. Originally the chief sacrifice to the serpent deity was the "goat without horns," which was nothing more nor less than a child, and preferably a white child. The priest and priestess do not, however, always insist upon a human victim, and as a rule the serpent deity may be propitiated by sacrificing a goat, sheep, or even a cock. At other times a child is led to the place of worship and every rite carried out to the moment of sacrifice, when a goat is substituted and killed. In any case, however, the ceremonies are

PEOPLE AND CUSTOMS

identical and are carried on with secrecy in some isolated part of the forest, where the victim is strung up by the feet and the throat cut, the blood being drunk warm by the worshippers and the flesh being distributed among them and eaten. Following the sacrifice there are weird dances, African songs, and the grossest and most repulsive orgies and forms of debauchery, many of which are far worse than those practised by the true African savages.

It is not difficult for an outsider to see evidences of Obeah, and without going very far from the towns he might witness a Voodoo dance; but unless thoroughly disguised, or a long resident among the natives, his life would pay the forfeit for his inquisitiveness if discovered, for no white man is knowingly allowed to look upon a Voodoo ceremony and live.

Much has been said and written of Voodooism in Haiti and many travellers have affirmed that cannibalistic feasts still take place during the "devil dances" and worship of the "great green serpent," the deity of Voodoo.

In reply to such statements many Haitiens have written articles and even books, endeavouring to

disparage such reflections on the civilisation of their country, notable among these being "Haiti, Her History and Her Detractors," by J. N. Leger, formerly the Haitien Minister to the United States.

There is really little reason for such vigorous denials of the existence of Voodooism, or even of cannibalism, in Haiti, for the most superficial observer may easily ascertain that Voodoo dances and Obeah are indulged in even in the larger towns, and plenty of evidences may be obtained of occasional cases of cannibalism in the remote interior towns and villages. Why Haitiens should be so sensitive on these matters is something of a puzzle, for they are to be expected under the present conditions of the republic and are by no means as great a reflection upon the people and government, as a whole, as the acknowledged lack of sanitation, the filth, the retrogressiveness, and generally rotten state of affairs in the country. It is a most difficult matter to stamp out savagery from isolated communities of blacks, and even Great Britain has not yet succeeded in accomplishing it in her West Indian colonies: but there is no excuse in not stamping out other things which are far more in evidence and are of far greater importance to the world at large.

Although Haiti is so behind the rest of the world and so little can be said in praise of the government or the people, yet it must not be supposed that all Haitiens are barbarians or that all Haiti is a waste. On the contrary, many of the Haitiens,—even among the pure blacks,—are intelligent, progressive, and broad-minded.

Toussaint l'Overture was a brilliant man,—a born leader and a wonderfully competent statesman and military genius; Dumas the elder was a Haitien, born in Jeremie, and many more of Haiti's sons have distinguished themselves in arts, letters, and the sciences in Europe and America.

Considering the conditions under which Haiti has suffered since her declaration of independence, it is surprising that the country has survived at all. As it is, vast areas of land are cultivated, the exports are large, the towns have maintained their commercial importance, an immense amount of money is in circulation, and the country as a whole is more thickly settled and more thoroughly cultivated in proportion to its size, than the more progressive and enlightened Dominican Republic.

On the other hand, the business is yearly falling off, the country is hopelessly in debt, the people are ground under heavy taxation and a despotic military rule, and one revolution follows another in such rapid succession that the country has no time to recover between times.

Above and over all, however, is the fact that Haiti is "black," that there is no guiding hand of the Caucasian to lead the Haitiens on their way; no firm, benign power to rule and protect them; no superior intellect to advise or direct. Instead there is the inborn lack of ambition, the happy-golucky character of the coloured race, and the utter disregard for comfort, convenience, or cleanliness which seem so vastly important to the white races.





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