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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and an administrative division exists for this purpose.

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

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HALL OF THE AMERICAS, PAN AMERICAN UNION.

Here the Third Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History will meet from October 14 to 19, 1935.



VOL. LXIX

OCTOBER 1935

No. 10

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION WELCOMES THE ASSEMBLY OF THE PAN AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

By L. S. ROWE, Ph.D., LL.D.

Director General of the Pan American Union

THE Pan American Union is honored by the presence in Washington of the distinguished delegates to the assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History and takes this opportunity to extend a warm and hearty welcome. It is most fitting that the sessions of the Institute be held in the Pan American Building and it is a very real privilege to place every facility of the Union at the disposal of the delegates.

The work of the Institute possesses a deep significance, not only by reason of the important problems with which it is called upon to deal, but also because of the fact that it constitutes another of the intellectual ties binding the nations of the Western World to one another.

The Pan American Union renews its greetings to the delegates and expresses the hope that the assembly held at Washington will meet with the fullest measure of success.

FOLLOW THE CONDOR AND EAGLE

By JOSÉ TERCERO

Chief, Division of Travel, Pan American Union

OF the many distinctive geographic features that make the New World a unique region on the globe, none holds greater fascination than the gigantic mountain system that forms the mighty backbone of the Americas. Although not the first to appear and take shape in the geological chronology of what is now the American continent, these majestic cordilleras have been for many centuries one of the most persistent physical factors influencing the destinies of this section of our planet.

The rich alluvial deposits of the great plains and the vast river systems that nurture the jungles and forests of the lowlands have a common origin in the great sierras. Even many of the islands that dot the seas of the Western Hemisphere were once lofty eminences of the original American ranges until some unknown cataclysm wrested them from the mainland.

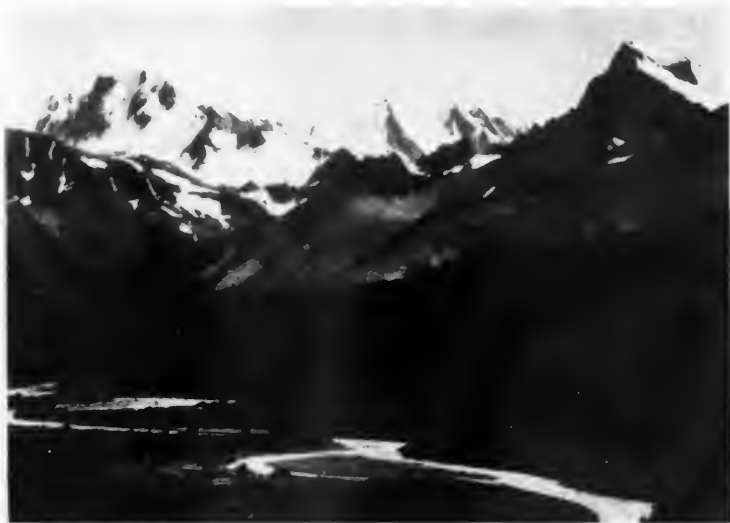
It was in the mountainous valleys and highlands that there flourished the most renowned civilizations of pre-Columbian America--with the exception of the Mayan. And the lure of the precious metals imprisoned in the mountains' entrails largely determined the nature and extent of the conquest and colonization of Hispanic America and greatly affected the migrations and expansion of Anglo-Saxon America.

Osorno, Llaima, and Villarrica towered over the proud Araucanian nation and witnessed its indomitable warriors challenge successfully the Spanish invader. Aconcagua, Copiapó, El Misti, Illimani, and Ausangatá were among the southern and central sentinels of the vast Incan empire, which extended through the Andean ranges and had as northern outposts Chimborazo, Cotopaxi, and Tungurahua. Under the shadow of Popocatepetl, Ixtaccihuatl, and Orizaba rose and developed the successive civilizations that culminated in the Toltec and Aztec nations.

The epic history of the Spanish conquest is recorded in valleys, peaks, canyons, and highlands. Strongly entrenched in their new empire, the invaders turned to colonizing and their explorers, missionaries, and traders crossed and recrossed the sierras, pushing their domain farther and farther. Defying the heights, towns and cities began to rise marking each new successful strike in the relentless quest for the coveted mineral riches of the ranges.

The colorful pageant of the colony moved for centuries through the passes and defiles of the cordilleras, and when the torch of liberty was lighted in the New World the colonists battled for their independence amidst the giants of the sierras, fighting some of the decisive encounters in the very heart of the great ranges.

In the history of the development and progress of the new nations since their independence, the cordilleras as ever played a dominant part. Practically every step forward represented a new battle won in the incessant struggle against the giant, at once a generous friend and an implacable foe. Heights had to be surmounted, chasms



THE CORDILLERA OF THE ANDES.

The great mountain range stretching down the length of South America had a conspicuous role in the early history and latter-day development of that continent.

spanned, the very heart pierced to tap new resources or to join provinces and territories separated by almost inaccessible barriers.

Railroad lines began to climb the ranges, zigzagging above precipices and under towering peaks. Soon the automobiles took up the challenge, and a network of roads is steadily spreading through ridges and highlands. And now that man has got his wings, he can look down upon the highest monarchs of the mountains and claim that they are conquered at last.

This boastful assertion is far from being a mere exaggeration, as modern travelers, in increasing numbers every year, are beginning to find out. From the rim of Antarctica northward to the Isthmus



IXTACIHUATL, OR "SLEEPING WOMAN", MEXICO.

The Aztecs so named this volcano because of its fancied resemblance to the form of a reclining woman. From the pass between this and the adjacent peak of Popocatepetl, Cortez obtained his first glimpse of Mexico City.



SANTA MARÍA VOLCANO IN GUATEMALA.

Throughout the Central American portion of America's mountain range, innumerable peaks soar skywards.

of Panama, through Central America, Mexico and the Western United States, and on to the Arctic circle, the great American cordilleras with their stupendous scenic, legendary and historical treasures are easily and comfortably accessible. Nor is the indescribable experience of journeying through or across canyons, passes, highlands, and summits reserved to the bold adventurer and the daring explorer. Almost everyone is familiar with the portion of the great ranges extending northward from Mexico, but not so many know how simple it has become to follow the trails and paths of Indian and discoverer, of viceroy and liberator, of missionary and warrior, of pioneer and trader in the vast mountain chains to the south of the Río Grande.

In Mexico, the two great arms of the cordilleras that run parallel to the coasts and hold the largest portion of the country in an immense plateau, are crossed thrice from the Gulf and twice from the Pacific. Many other lines in all directions traverse the mountains and the plateau. The great capital lies at 7,400 feet above the sea. South of Mexico, the ranges are climbed by rail from both oceans in Guatemala, Costa Rica and Panama, from the Pacific in El Salvador and Nicaragua, and by rail and highway in Honduras. In Central America the ranges literally bristle with hundreds of volcanoes and lofty peaks towering over lakes and valleys of arresting beauty. By rail and road the traveler approaches the slopes covered with luxuriant vegetation and in some cases climbs to the very rim of their craters. Agua, Fuego, Atitlán, Santa María, Santa Ana, the famous Izalco, whose almost continuous flames serve as a beacon to ships on the Pacific, the twin volcano Ometepe that rises straight from the waters of Lake Nicaragua, Irazú and Poás, in Costa Rica, the former allowing the rare experience of seeing from its summit the Caribbean and the Pacific, these are among the best known landmarks of this amazing section that links the two Americas.

The northern Andes disappear into the Caribbean on the shores of Colombia and Venezuela. By rail or highway the traveler reaches beautiful Caracas, nestling over 3,000 feet above the sea. From here the Andes can be crossed by the great Bolívar Highway to Bogotá, the capital of Colombia, situated in the heart of the sierras, at an altitude of 8,500 feet.

From the Atlantic and Pacific shores Bogotá is reached by river, rail and road. The journey from the Pacific, combining railway and automobile, is an amazing succession of unforgettable panoramas. The airplane far outspeeds the river boats up the Magdalena from the Atlantic side.

In Ecuador the Andes offer the traveler one of the most grandiose spectacles in the world. The railroad from Guayaquil on the Pacific to Quito, the capital, rises from sea-level to 11,800 feet in 170 miles, surmounting the famous Devil's Nose in an amazing engineering feat



**MOUNT CHIMBORAZO,
ECUADOR.**

One of the highest peaks of the Andean range, Chimborazo reaches an altitude of 20,576 feet.



**THE TORTUOUS ROUTE
OF THE CENTRAL
RAILWAY OF PERU.**

A remarkable engineering achievement, the line at 15,865 feet reaches the highest point of any standard gauge railroad in operation in the world. The ascent to this altitude is made in 106 miles of track-age.

Photograph by W. V. Alford.

**MOUNT ILLIMANI.
BOLIVIA.**

From the Sucre monument in La Paz, Illimani is an impressive sight.



**BALSAS ON LAKE
TITICACA.**

One route from the Pacific coast to the Bolivian capital takes the traveler across picturesque Lake Titicaca.





Reproduced by permission from Robert Gerstman's "Chile."

THE ANDES AND ACONCAGUA.

The loftiest peak in the Americas, Aconcagua rises 23,380 feet above sea level. The snow-covered Andes form a background for the green pasture land just outside Los Andes, a junction of the Transandine Railway.

where the train climbs 2,900 feet in five minutes over sheer granite walls. Soon the traveller gets his first glimpse of Chimborazo, the highest monarch of the Ecuadorean Andes, rising 20,700 feet above the sea, to be followed by the awe-inspiring sight of no less than four great volcanoes, ranging from 16,600 to 19,500 feet in height.

In Peru and Bolivia travel over the Andes must be pointed with superlatives. The Peruvian cordilleras are crossed twice by rail, and thrice by road. Both the standard-gauge railroad from Lima to Cerro del Pasco and the highway to Huánuco have the distinction of being the highest in the world. The railroad attains its highest point at 15,805 feet, while the highway reaches 17,562 feet above the sea. The central highway from Lima to Oroya and Tarma, opened to traffic only last July, is perhaps one of the most scenic in existence. And from Mollendo the traveller ascends into the highlands to reach Cuzco, the great Incan capital, center of one of the richest archaeological regions of South America, and marvelous Lake Titicaca, at 12,500 feet, the highest navigable body of water on the planet, reflecting in its clear, dark-blue waters the lovely islands that rise from its depths. La Paz, the loftiest capital, is set in the heart of the Andean ranges at 12,700 feet above the sea, in a region where four colossi of the cordillera, Illampu, Illimani, Sajama and Chacacomani, all thrust their snowclad peaks toward the sky at more than 21,000 feet.



A PANAGRA PLANE AT AREQUIPA, PERU.

By the development of aviation, man has achieved his final conquest of the heights.

The lofty Bolivian plateau is the best served section of the Andes in point of accessibility from below. Three railroads, two of them crossing the northern Chilean ranges, climb the sierras from the Pacific, and one from Buenos Aires, the latter leaving the pampa and crossing in a steady ascent part of the wide and beautiful Andean provinces of Argentina.

The snowy ridges which form the dividing line between Chile and Argentina are towered over by cyclopean Aconcagua, the mightiest peak in all the New World, serenely surveying its realm from 23,380 feet. The far-famed Transandine railway joins Argentina and Chile, surmounting the cordillera not far from Aconcagua. Part of the crossing from Mendoza to Punta de Vacas is made by automobile through Uspallata pass, at a height of 13,000 feet. This break in the journey adds greatly to the scenic beauty of the trip. The eastern slopes in Argentine territory are reached by four railroads from the Atlantic, and almost the entire length of the western ranges is traversed from north to south by Chile's admirable railroad and highway systems. The superb lake regions of Chile and Argentina are without doubt one of the most magically beautiful sections in all the world, culminating in the channel and fjord region where the mountains begin their plunge into the sub-Antarctic seas. The traveler navigates through narrow channels, hemmed in by the protruding summits of the sunken cordillera which form islands of fantastic shapes, with giant peaks, volcanoes and glaciers. During

the southern summer months of December and January regular excursions to this region and through the Strait of Magellan are made from both Chile and Argentina.

The great airways of the Americas, in a giant transportation system that covers the entire continent, have indeed played a most important part in the final conquest of the heights. Their amazing growth achieved in a few years and their enviable record of safety and reliability constitute one of the most brilliant pages in the history of transportation. The traveler who misses seeing from the air the majesty of America's great mountain system, symbolic of the unity, the strength and the lofty destinies of the New World, is denying himself a privilege long reserved to the condor and the eagle



MUSIC OF THE HEMISPHERES

By BURLE MARX¹

Director, Philharmonic Orchestra of Rio de Janeiro

UNTIL the present time South Americans have had little knowledge of North American music and artists. Except for the concerts of Latin American music given several times a year by the Pan American Union and broadcast throughout the Americas, musicians here in the United States have been equally ignorant of what was being produced in South America. Until four years ago South Americans knew only the music of their own country. Their point of view was purely local. It was with considerable effort that the Philharmonic Orchestra under my direction started to educate music lovers of Brazil in the works produced by her sister Republics. Upon one occasion the Philharmonic Orchestra played a whole concert of Argentine music. At other times single works by Argentine composers were performed. Next I took a whole program of Brazilian music to Argentina. And at the Teatro Colón in Buenos Aires I conducted a program of music from four Latin American countries—Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, and Chile—with works by 10 different composers. During my concert season in Chile I introduced Brazilian music there for the first time. These concerts awakened a very real interest, the result of which is an active and stimulating communication not only between the composers of the various Latin American countries but among artists as well. It is my great hope to develop a similar musical relationship between the United States and the whole South American continent.

During the last 20 years each country in South America has produced its own composers, many of them worthy of being heard in the cultural centers of the world. Brazil has Carlos Gomes, Nepomuceno, Henrique Oswald, among the earlier composers; and among the later ones Villa-Lobos, Lourenzo Fernandez, Francisco Mignone, Camargo

¹ The American musical public first had an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the author of this article last summer, when he conducted to the admiration of audience and critics two performances of the National Symphony Orchestra in Washington and a broadcast of the Columbia Symphony Orchestra in honor of the Brazilian National holiday, September 7. His American audience concurred in the opinion of Enrique Soró, the eminent Chilean maestro, who said of Marx: "His executions are framed with rhythmic exactitude in a variety of colors which are shadowed fantastically. He transmits to the orchestra what he feels, the very soul of the music."

Mr. Marx was born in São Paulo in 1902. Most of his musical studies were made in Germany under the direction of Professor Friedrich E. Koch, James Kwast, and Reznicek in Berlin, but he also studied in Basle with Weingartner and in London with Tobias Matthay. Since 1930 he has directed the Rio de Janeiro Philharmonic Orchestra, which he himself founded. Under his direction, the Ninth Symphony of Beethoven with choir was given for the first time in Rio de Janeiro. Mr. Marx is well known throughout South America, where he has been guest conductor with a number of orchestras.—EDITOR.

Guarnieri, and Assis Republicano. By the use of Indian themes in combination with African rhythms these men have contrived a quite original base for their musical compositions. Argentina has produced such composers as J. J. Castro, Pascual de Rogatis, Athos Palma, José André, Giannéo, Williams, Ugarte—all of them men of great musical technique. They too have formed their own school. Uruguay has Fabini and Cluseau Mortet. Chile has Enrique Soró, Humberto Allende, and Leng.



COLÓN THEATER, BUENOS AIRES.

In the magnificent Colón Theater, the largest opera house in the Americas, the author conducted a program of works by 10 different composers from Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Uruguay.

These countries have entered into a close musical relationship which includes both composers and reproductive artists. There are a number of Chilean pianists of merit beside Claudio Arrau, who has a European reputation. I have had the opportunity of conducting for Rosita Renard, who is known in the United States; and for Armando Palacios, who played under my baton the *Rhapsody in Blue*. Argentina has an excellent pianist, also, in Ruiz Díaz. Brazil has the very famous Guiomar Novaes, as well as Antonita Rudge and

J. Souza Linia. And among violinists there are Pery Machado and Romeo Ghipsman; among 'cellists there is Iberé Gomes Grosso. And the younger generation has many artists—especially pianists of great promise.

The best orchestra in South America is that of the Teatro Colón, in Buenos Aires, which has been municipally supported since 1925, and plays each year for a period of five to seven months. The municipality also supports a very good choir and an excellent ballet. For many years the Argentine Republic helped another orchestra formed by the *Asociación del Profesorado Orquestal*, which gave a season of concerts annually with an outstanding European conductor. But it is the Teatro Colón which is the center of musical life—and especially opera—in South America. In Brazil conditions are more difficult because of the lack of concentration of population. The opera season has to be divided between Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, and musical life of other kinds begins in Pernambuco (Recife) and extends all the way down to Rio Grande do Sul (Porto Alegre). Of late, artists such as Fritz Kreisler have arrived at Pernambuco by the *Graf Zeppelin*, given a concert, and continued the next day on the *Zeppelin* to Rio de Janeiro. Of the orchestras at Rio de Janeiro three have been supported by the municipality at the same time. For the last four years the Philharmonic Orchestra has held the leadership with 60 first performances of works ranging from Bach to Ravel. In Chile there is a competent orchestra formed of musicians who came from Europe for the opera season and have since made Chile their own country. Because of the distance and expense of going to Chile from the capitals on the Atlantic, many artists are prevented from making their appearance in that beautiful and charming country, of which I have the most delightful memories. In Uruguay the government supports an excellent orchestra of 106 musicians, the *Orquesta Sinfónica del Servicio Oficial de Difusión Radio Eléctrica*.

Music by South American composers would be performed more frequently were it not for the difficulty of getting scores and orchestral parts. It is hoped that this difficulty can be eliminated by special libraries in Montevideo under the direction of Professor Francisco Curt Lange, a man of great energy and executive ability. Through his efforts we now have that wonderful publication, the *Boletín Latino-Americano de Música*, which I cannot recommend too strongly to all who are interested in the musical life of Latin America. The *Boletín* will be published twice a year, with the most prominent musicians of South America contributing articles and music for the supplement. The organization of the *Boletín* is due entirely to the personal effort of Mr. Lange. He has been traveling in Argentina, making personal contacts, and holding conferences not only in

Buenos Aires but also in other important centers. In Brazil he was fortunate enough to get the help of Mr. Luis Heitor Corrêia de Azevedo, President of the *Associação Brasileira de Musica*, and librarian of the *Instituto Nacional de Musica* at Rio de Janeiro. Because of the distances between capitals and the difficulties of communication, Mr. Lange's *Boletín* represents a very real achievement, of intrinsic excellence and of great promise to the future.

I came to the United States with the object not only of making South American works better known, but also of meeting young



MUNICIPAL THEATER, RIO DE JANEIRO.

Many of the concerts in the Brazilian capital are given in the Municipal Theater.

American composers and artists. I have been so extremely fortunate as to be admitted to the MacDowell Colony at Peterborough, New Hampshire. The MacDowell Colony is located on the top of a high hill within sight of Mount Monadnock. It has accommodations for 25 men and women—living quarters, a dining and recreation hall, and very delightful studios situated here and there in a beautiful pine forest. In these studios the artists can work all day long without distraction of any kind. At noon their lunch is left outside on the doorstep. In the evening they come together again like a big family—poets and scholars, painters, writers, sculptors, composers. All are

happy because they are translating the life of their imagination into reality, creating, doing the work they love most.

Of the composers whom I met here during June and July, Spencer Norton of Oklahoma made the deepest impression upon me. Mr. Norton is a young man of 26, modest, with enormous musical knowledge and very excellent taste. I do not say too much if I predict that he will some day be the leading composer of the United States. Among the other musicians were David Diamond, winner of the Whitman Prize; James Spencer, with his strong emotional music, especially a very fine symphonique for organ; Sol Cohen, with his delightful fresh melodies and his special talent for light music; Joseph Wagner, with his sense for rhythms; Dr. Hamilton C. MacDougall, a man of great musical erudition, and two women composers—Mabel Daniels and Radie Britain. I must confess that I have not had too much faith in women as creative artists. But in the United States they occupy a far more important position than they do in South America and other parts of the world. And I have been obliged, after hearing the work of Miss Daniels and Miss Britain, to revise my opinion. Mabel Daniels is an excellent composer who specializes in choral music and writes with great sincerity. Radie Britain is the winner of a national competition with her heroic poem *Lindbergh*, composed for symphony orchestra. She has great talent, and since she is young, much can be expected from her.

During June and July I met also at the MacDowell Colony such painters as Lewis Daniel, Sybil Emerson, O. W. Guglielmi, Jeffrey Levey, Mildred Shires, and Stuyvesant Van Veen; such poets as Robert Fitzgerald, Frances Frost, and Chard Powers Smith; such playwrights as Esther Bates and Frederic Day; such writers as Frederika Beatty, Emily Croff, Kenneth Kempton, William Maxwell, Mary Mears, Tess Slessenger, and Irene H. Wilson.

The idea for the MacDowell Colony originated with the American composer Edward MacDowell. After his death it was fulfilled by the untiring effort and the indomitable courage of his widow. For more than 25 years Mrs. MacDowell has travelled from one end of the United States to the other, giving lectures and concerts, raising more than a hundred thousand dollars so that this unique and very wonderful idea could be realized. Now there is a permanent creative center where young and old artists from all over the country meet together and work. Mrs. MacDowell not only manages the colony with great efficiency, but also is the very soul of the place, and one of the finest women I have ever known. At this time, therefore, may I appeal to all those who love music and painting and poetry not to forget the MacDowell Colony and the irreplaceable service it is giving to America.

COTTON IN BRAZIL¹

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

EARLY explorers and settlers in Brazil in the sixteenth century reported that the Indians used fabrics woven of cotton, and it is not improbable that cotton is indigenous in certain regions of the country. The cultivation of cotton was undertaken by settlers early in colonial days, principally in the regions of Bahia, Pernambuco, and Maranhão. Export shipments are reported to have been made as early as 1700, and spinning and weaving mills were set up in Minas Geraes about 1775. It is also reported that hand spinners and weavers were brought by the Portuguese from India to teach their trades to the colonists.

But it was not until the American Civil War, when European spinners were unable to obtain American cotton, that the cotton-growing industry became of major importance in Brazil. Shipments of Brazilian cotton are said to have reached a figure of 368,000 bales (of 478 pounds net) during the American Civil War, but with a return to normal conditions in the United States, the Brazilian cotton crop declined, the planters generally returning to coffee and sugar. Cotton production in Brazil underwent a further decline following the abolition of slavery in 1888, and for a number of years thereafter coffee, rubber, and to a less extent, sugar, completely overshadowed cotton in the economic life of the country.

With the decline of the rubber industry in Brazil in the early part of the present century, the country lost its second most important export commodity, and both capital and labor again began to turn to cotton. The World War provided a further stimulus to the Brazilian cotton industry, and over recent years Brazil has become an increasingly important factor in world cotton production. During the 5-year period from 1909-10 to 1913-14, Brazilian cotton production averaged approximately 387,000 bales, which figure grew to an average of 572,000 bales for the 5 years 1924-25 to 1928-29. Recent estimates from the Brazilian Ministry of Agriculture place 1934-35 production at 1,591,000 bales. The following tables summarize Brazilian cotton acreage, production, and yields during recent years and give similar figures for other specified countries.

¹ Excerpted from a report on "The World Cotton Situation and Foreign Cotton Production (Preliminary)" issued by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, United States Department of Agriculture, April 29, 1935.—EDITOR.

Cotton, Brazil: Acreage, production, and yield per acre

Year	Acreage	Production		Yield per acre
		1,000 acres	1,000 bales, 478 pounds net	
Average 1911-12 to 1913-14		887	418	225
Average 1924-25 to 1928-29		1,329	572	205
1928-29		1,358	446	157
1929-30		1,461	583	191
1930-31		1,656	471	136
1931-32		1,941	575	142
1932-33		1,810	448	118
1933-34 ¹		2,520	969	184
1934-35 ¹	(?)		1,591	(?)

¹ Preliminary.² Not available.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Division of Statistical and Historical Research.

Cotton: Estimates of production, specified countries, 1920-21 to 1934-35

[1,000 bales of 478 pounds net]

Crop year	United States	India	China ¹	Russia	Egypt	Brazil	Peru	Mexico
1920-21	13,429	3,013	1,883	58	1,251	476	177	² 188
1921-22	7,945	3,752	1,514	43	902	504	186	147
1922-23	9,755	4,245	2,318	55	1,391	553	199	202
1923-24	10,140	4,320	1,993	197	1,353	576	212	175
1924-25	13,630	5,065	2,178	453	1,507	793	212	196
1925-26	16,105	5,201	2,102	782	1,650	602	210	200
1926-27	17,978	4,205	1,742	830	1,586	512	246	360
1927-28	12,956	4,990	1,875	1,096	1,261	509	246	179
1928-29	14,477	4,838	2,466	1,174	1,672	446	225	278
1929-30	14,825	4,387	2,116	1,279	1,768	583	303	246
1930-31	13,832	4,373	2,457	1,589	1,715	471	271	178
1931-32	17,095	3,353	1,785	1,843	1,323	575	234	210
1932-33	13,001	3,898	2,261	1,816	1,028	448	242	102
1933-34 ¹	13,047	4,197	2,726	1,887	1,777	969	276	260
1934-35 ¹	9,634	3,613	2,800	1,937	1,617	1,591	276	209

Crop year	Argentina	Uganda	Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	Chosen (Korea)	Estimated foreign		Estimated world total including China
					Excluding China and Russia	Total	
1920-21	26	68	26	101	5,637	7,578	21,007
1921-22	17	40	20	82	5,932	7,480	15,434
1922-23	26	74	24	103	7,134	9,507	19,262
1923-24	59	108	38	112	7,365	9,555	19,695
1924-25	67	164	41	123	8,669	11,300	24,930
1925-26	135	151	106	123	8,942	11,826	27,931
1926-27	58	110	130	143	7,867	10,439	28,417
1927-28	115	116	111	133	8,104	11,075	24,031
1928-29	118	171	142	150	8,646	12,286	26,763
1929-30	15	108	139	139	8,451	11,846	26,671
1930-31	159	158	106	149	8,143	12,189	26,121
1931-32	169	173	206	101	6,871	10,469	27,594
1932-33	150	247	121	136	6,860	10,937	23,938
1933-34 ¹	200	228	135	140	8,865	13,478	26,525
1934-35 ¹		240	196	140	8,842	13,579	23,213

¹ Estimates of the Chinese Mill Owners' Association and the Chinese Statistical Association.² Includes Laguna District and Lower California only.³ Preliminary.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Division of Statistical and Historical Research. From official sources, International Institute of Agriculture and estimates of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, except as noted.

TRENDS IN ACREAGE, PRODUCTION AND YIELDS

Cotton is grown in two distinct regions in Brazil: (1) The northeastern States, principally Parahyba, Pernambuco, Ceará, Rio Grande do Norte, Maranhão, Alagôas, Sergipe, Bahia, Piauhy, and Pará, and (2) the southern States, where the major producing areas are found in the States of São Paulo, Minas Geraes, Paraná, and Rio de Janeiro. Soil and climatic factors in the two districts are greatly different, and the cotton grown is of distinctly different types and qualities. Southern Brazil produces cotton of the American upland type, while in the northeastern States production is largely of the famous Brazilian tree cotton. In the interior of the northeastern States, cotton is of first importance in the agricultural life of the district, and in many sections is the only cash crop grown. In southern Brazil, although acreage and production have increased greatly in the last year or two, cotton is a poor second in importance to coffee as a cash crop.

During the period for which acreage data are available, the total cotton area of all Brazil has exceeded 2,000,000 acres only since 1932-33. The average acreage for the 10-year period ended 1933-34 was 1,603,000 acres. The average acreage for the first 5 years of this period (1924-25 to 1928-29) was 1,329,000 acres, while for the last 5 years (1929-30 to 1933-34) it averaged 1,877,000 acres. The increase during the last 5-year period was due primarily to the unusually high acreage of the last 3 years, 1933-34 acreage having reached the all-time high figure of 2,519,000 acres, while the 1931-32 and 1932-33 acreages totaled 1,941,000 and 1,810,000 acres, respectively.

As will be noted from the following table, cotton acreage in the southern States in particular has fluctuated widely in the last 10 years. From a peak of 463,000 acres in 1923-24, cotton plantings in the southern States declined to 155,000 acres in 1929-30, but since that year have increased rapidly, until a record acreage of 1,113,000 acres was reached in 1933-34.

During the 5-year period ended 1928-29, the southern States planted only 19.4 percent of the total cotton area in Brazil, the northeastern States accounting for 80.6 percent. During the low-acreage year of 1929-30, the southern States accounted for little more than 10 percent of the total Brazilian acreage, while in the 1933-34 record year acreage in the southern area had climbed to 44.2 percent of the total cotton plantings. Over the 5-year period ended 1933-34 the southern States accounted for 27.1 percent of the total Brazilian cotton acreage.

In the northeastern States, where cotton has been the traditional crop over a long period of years, total acreage has not fluctuated in so great a degree as has acreage in the southern States. Short-

term fluctuations in acreage in the northeastern States appear to have been due in a considerable degree to variations in rainfall, as much of that region suffers periodically from severe droughts. Cotton as a rule not being subject to price competition from alternative crops, cotton acreage in the northeastern States has not been so sensitive to price factors as has been the cotton acreage in the coffee-growing southern States. . . .

The Brazilian cotton crop over the last 20 years has averaged approximately 520,000 bales (of 478 pounds) per year. Of this, the northeastern States have produced an average annual crop of about 387,000 bales, or almost 75 percent of the country's total, against



Courtesy of the Minas Geraes Agricultural Experiment Station.

A COTTON FIELD.

This cotton, under cultivation in one of the new cotton-growing areas of southern Brazil, is of the American upland variety.

an average annual crop of about 133,000 bales in the southern States. . . .

Although the increase in production of the country as a whole during the 1929-30 to 1933-34 period, when compared with the immediately preceding 5-year period, was not particularly outstanding, the increase of the last 3 years, and especially of 1933-34 and 1934-35, in the southern States, is of marked significance. As shown in the following table, production in the southern States increased from 83,000 bales in 1930-31 to a crop estimated at 500,000 bales in 1933-34 and to a preliminary estimate of 853,000 bales in 1934-35, the latter figure being equivalent to 53.6 percent of the total estimated Brazilian crop. . . .

Cotton, Brazil: Estimates of acreage, by States, 1921-22 to date

[1,000 acres]

Season	Northeastern States											Total
	Pará	Mara-nhão	Piau-hy	Ceará	Rio Grande do Norte	Para-hyba	Per-nam-buco	Ala-gôas	Ser-gipe	Bahia	Other States	
1921-22	12.5	123.6	28.5	170.9	113.2	132.8	120.9	74.1	52.7	30.4	1.3	860.9
1922-23	15.9	137.5	40.7	208.7	156.1	165.4	160.8	78.7	63.1	40.5	2.0	1,069.4
1923-24	16.4	136.9	41.4	211.7	161.6	169.3	166.5	77.3	63.7	40.8	2.3	1,087.9
1924-25	23.5	155.9	51.6	199.5	163.2	169.9	182.2	75.5	56.1	45.9	4.2	1,127.5
1925-26	9.6	142.4	73.6	154.4	135.5	177.9	133.5	73.6	51.9	29.6	6.5	1,098.5
1926-27	13.7	101.7	52.0	112.1	97.5	173.0	185.3	62.9	60.3	48.2	4.7	1,011.4
1927-28	21.4	116.6	12.4	237.2	143.3	207.6	197.7	57.1	74.1	49.4	4.7	1,121.5
1928-29	25.0	60.3	35.3	286.1	173.0	197.7	222.4	65.6	61.5	57.6	0	1,187.5
1929-30	35.3	75.4	22.6	237.2	178.9	212.5	296.5	131.0	67.4	49.4	0	1,306.2
1930-31	57.8	270.0	36.5	135.1	139.9	237.4	248.4	81.9	84.2	77.5	0	1,368.7
1931-32	33.0	323.4	41.4	138.4	199.7	303.4	286.6	122.3	76.4	58.4	0	1,583.0
1932-33	54.4	82.4	44.1	123.6	135.9	210.0	296.5	131.1	37.8	61.8	0	1,177.6
1933-34 ⁴	61.8	82.6	42.0	74.1	247.1	370.6	165.6	164.8	123.6	74.1	0	1,406.3

Season	Southern States					All Brazil
	Rio de Janeiro	São Paulo	Minas Geraes	Other States	Total	
1921-22	0.9	247.2	71.0	4.5	323.6	1,184.5
1922-23	1.3	351.6	84.4	5.4	442.7	1,512.1
1923-24	1.6	377.7	77.6	5.8	462.7	1,550.6
1924-25	3.6	337.7	94.9	9.9	446.1	1,573.6
1925-26	4.6	235.9	61.8	9.5	311.8	1,320.3
1926-27	5.2	130.3	34.7	9.0	179.2	1,080.6
1927-28	6.2	104.8	57.4	11.5	179.9	1,301.4
1928-29	9.5	92.5	59.3	8.9	170.2	1,357.7
1929-30	40.5	52.2	60.0	2.5	155.2	1,461.4
1930-31	29.5	148.3	105.9	3.5	287.2	1,655.9
1931-32	13.6	228.1	116.5	0	358.2	1,941.2
1932-33	60.8	438.2	125.8	7.6	632.4	1,941.0
1933-34 ⁴	---	859.9	217.5	35.8	1,113.2	2,519.5

¹ Use as 1,005,000 acres.² Use as 912,000 acres.³ Use as 1,121,000 acres.⁴ Preliminary.

Division of Statistical and Historical Research.

Compiled from official sources.

COTTON IN BRAZIL

Cotton, Brazil: Estimates of production, by States, 1911-12 to date

1,000 bales of 475 pounds

Season beginning August	Northeastern States										Southern States					All Brazil		
	Pará	Mara- nhão	Piau- hy	Ceará	Rio Grande do Norte	Para- hyba	Per- nam- buco	Ala- goás	Ser- gipe	Bahia	Other States	Total	Rio de Janeiro	São Paulo	Minas Geraes		Other States	Total
1911	(1)	38.2	10.2	58.5	37.5	53.5	48.9	28.4	25.0	11.7	(2)	311.9	25.9	22.5	48.4	390.3
1912	(1)	48.4	13.7	63.8	43.2	48.8	52.8	28.1	27.0	13.0	(2)	338.8	55.1	24.1	79.2	418.0
1913	0.3	59.0	16.7	72.8	52.8	60.8	65.3	31.7	24.8	15.0	(2)	402.2	45.2	28.4	74.6	476.8
1914	54.8	14.8	69.7	49.0	62.8	68.6	31.4	22.4	15.8	(2)	384.7	50.0	30.1	80.1	464.7
1915	33.6	10.3	52.8	34.9	42.8	46.8	31.4	20.6	14.0	(2)	287.9	33.9	16.8	63.5	338.7
1916	1.0	32.8	10.5	47.3	32.4	42.8	40.2	27.9	21.4	14.9	(2)	318.7	76.5	18.3	94.8	413.5
1917	36.9	8.6	52.8	33.3	52.5	50.9	22.4	18.7	11.0	(2)	294.5	91.1	20.8	111.9	406.4
1918	38.1	9.0	63.1	35.2	56.5	60.5	26.4	21.5	13.0	(2)	332.7	105.8	22.0	127.8	460.5
1919	50.4	10.8	71.9	39.0	54.1	47.1	34.1	21.3	13.2	(2)	347.1	99.4	28.7	129.1	476.2
1920	52.6	12.1	72.8	48.2	56.5	51.5	31.5	22.4	12.9	(2)	366.4	105.2	30.2	137.7	503.0
1921	50.2	14.9	76.3	57.1	60.4	58.8	28.8	23.3	14.8	(2)	404.0	146.9	28.8	171.8	575.9
1922	50.9	15.4	78.6	60.0	62.9	59.4	40.8	23.3	12.3	(2)	431.6	177.3	40.6	226.9	608.5
1923	52.9	19.4	85.3	81.7	95.0	76.1	40.8	31.6	21.3	(2)	596.5	177.3	40.6	226.9	608.5
1924	50.9	19.4	85.3	81.7	95.0	76.1	40.8	31.6	21.3	(2)	596.5	177.3	40.6	226.9	608.5
1925	49.3	16.4	67.3	63.5	62.3	61.8	29.1	19.1	13.4	(2)	430.7	177.3	40.6	226.9	608.5
1926	46.0	5.7	78.4	62.3	91.8	87.7	29.1	19.1	13.4	(2)	430.7	177.3	40.6	226.9	608.5
1927	46.0	5.7	78.4	62.3	91.8	87.7	29.1	19.1	13.4	(2)	430.7	177.3	40.6	226.9	608.5
1928	33.8	6.9	92.3	49.6	83.0	78.4	20.3	17.8	12.9	(2)	400.5	60.4	14.6	81.7	501.4
1929	42.2	6.0	92.2	85.0	133.7	101.5	27.1	23.9	11.5	(2)	430.7	60.4	14.6	81.7	501.4
1930	56.3	5.7	94.6	46.0	107.0	94.6	30.4	19.0	12.0	(2)	430.7	60.4	14.6	81.7	501.4
1931	53.4	5.7	94.6	46.0	107.0	94.6	30.4	19.0	12.0	(2)	430.7	60.4	14.6	81.7	501.4
1932	53.4	5.7	94.6	46.0	107.0	94.6	30.4	19.0	12.0	(2)	430.7	60.4	14.6	81.7	501.4
1933	8.3	7.1	13.8	25.4	41.5	41.5	28.6	8.3	16.1	(2)	226.0	169.1	25.3	125.8	351.8
1934	11.1	10.2	50.7	80.7	99.3	69.2	47.0	28.5	23.1	(2)	430.7	169.1	25.3	125.8	351.8
1934 ⁴	(2)	737.9	417.3	61.3	500.4	998.7
1934 ⁴	(2)	737.9	417.3	61.3	500.4	998.7

¹ Less than 50 bales.

² Less than 50 bales in Amazonas.

³ Amazonas.

⁴ Use as 430,000 bales.

⁵ Preliminary.

Division of Statistical and Historical Research. Compiled from official sources.

Estimated production of cotton, by staple lengths, Brazil, 1932-33

States	Quantities				Percentages			
	Less than ¾ inch	¾ to 1¼ inches	1¼ inches and longer	Total	Less than ¾ inch	¾ to 1¼ inches	1¼ inches and longer	Total
	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
<i>Northeastern</i>								
Pará.....		8.1	0.2	8.3		97.1	2.9	100.0
Maranhão.....	1.5	19.9	14.0	35.4	4.2	56.3	39.5	100.0
Piauí.....	.1	6.7	.3	7.1	1.1	95.1	3.8	100.0
Ceará.....	.3	5.2	8.3	13.8	2.5	37.4	60.1	100.0
Rio Grande do Norte.....	.3	3.0	22.1	25.4	1.4	11.7	86.9	100.0
Parahyba.....	3.2	18.8	19.5	41.5	7.7	45.4	46.9	100.0
Pernambuco.....	.3	31.1	10.1	41.5	.8	74.8	24.4	100.0
Alagoas.....	.3	28.3		28.6	.9	99.1		100.0
Sergipe.....	1.2	7.1		8.3	14.3	85.7		100.0
Bahia.....	1.3	14.8		16.1	8.2	91.8		100.0
Total.....	8.5	143.0	74.5	226.0	3.8	63.2	33.0	100.0
<i>Southern</i> ¹								
Rio de Janeiro.....	(²)	8.7	0.5	9.2	0.2	94.2	5.6	100.0
São Paulo.....	.3	150.8	9.0	160.1	.2	94.2	5.6	100.0
Minas Geraes.....	.1	47.8	2.8	50.7	.2	94.2	5.6	100.0
Other States.....	(²)	1.7	.1	1.8	.2	94.2	5.6	100.0
Total.....	.4	209.0	12.4	221.8	.2	94.2	5.6	100.0
All Brazil.....	8.9	352.0	86.9	447.8	2.0	78.6	19.4	100.0

¹ Percentages for São Paulo used for other states in southern Brazil.

² Less than 500 bales.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics. Based on an official compilation of staple lengths for the Brazilian crop, published in "Economic Aspects of Brazilian Cultivation" by J. M. de Lyra, 1933. Publication #4 of the Director of Public Statistics, Rio de Janeiro. Millimeter lengths were converted to inches on the assumption less than 23 mm. equals shorter than ¾-inch; 23 to 29 mm. equals ¾-inch to 1¼-inches; and 30 mm. and longer equals 1¼-inches and longer. These conversions are made with the knowledge that differences in classing and in the collection of this information may affect the comparability of these lengths with similar lengths of American cotton classed on Official Standards, but a comparison of staple length designations for actual samples received from Brazil and classed by qualified government classifiers in the United States indicates that these conversions are approximately accurate. Furthermore only cotton exported from Brazil was classified in 1932-33.

TYPES AND QUALITY OF BRAZILIAN COTTON

The major part of the cotton grown in northeastern Brazil is of the long-staple perennial tree-cotton varieties, while the southern Brazilian cotton is of the American upland varieties. The characteristics of the northeast and the south overlap to a certain extent in the central sections of the country. For example, some tree cotton may be grown in Minas Geraes, the northernmost State of southern Brazil, while, on the other hand, considerable quantities of short-staple annual cotton, of the American upland type, are grown in some districts in northern Brazil. . . .

GOVERNMENT INTERVENTION AND AID

Government intervention and aid to the cotton industry in Brazil take several forms.

1. *Protective tariffs.*—The National Government imposes a practically prohibitive tariff on foreign cotton, amounting with surtax to 4.576 milreis per gross kilogram, which is equivalent at present rates of exchange to approximately \$0.171² per pound. In addition,

² On Sept. 10, 1935, equivalent to \$0.178 per pound.—EDITOR.

the local textile industry is protected by a high tariff on yarns and finished goods, the Brazilian tariff on cotton cloth ranking as one of the highest, if not the highest, in the world. . . .

2. *Government gin inspection, cotton classification, etc.*—Federal Decree No. 24,049 of March 27, 1934, requires the annual registration and licensing of all cotton gins and presses. It also provides for an annual inspection of all ginneries, and grants a period of 18 months in which existing ginneries must be made to conform with standard practice. Although the Textile Plant Bureau of the Federal Ministry of Agriculture is charged with the execution of these measures, provision is made for the transfer of such authority to the States that maintain duly organized cotton services. In connection with this decree, it is of interest that exports of American ginning machinery to Brazil were valued at \$558,000 in 1934, against \$68,000 in 1933. Doubtless much of this machinery went to replace obsolete equipment, rather than to new plants.

Federal decree no. 20211 of July 14, 1931, provided for the official classification of all cotton destined for export. On July 12, 1933, there was issued decree No. 22,929, which provides that *all* cotton transactions must be effected according to the quality of the product as determined by official classification certificates. It was further decreed that the Federal Textile Plant Bureau install classification commissions in the principal cotton centers of Brazil.

The above measures covering cotton ginning and classification may be expected to overcome much of the former criticism of foreign spinners concerning variations in quality of Brazilian cotton and defects due to improper ginning.

In addition to its measures relating to ginning and classification, the Federal Government, by decree no. 22982 of July 25, 1933, entrusted the Federal Textile Plant Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture with the distribution throughout Brazil of cottonseed for planting purposes, which duty may be transferred to the State governments. Prior to this the distribution of seed was regulated in some of the States by the State governments and as a result the quality of the cotton was improved considerably. This decree may bring about further improvement in the quality of the cotton and may result in increasing yields since the various agricultural experiment stations throughout the States are at work developing the varieties of cotton best suited to local conditions.

3. *Publicity encouraging cotton production.*—The Brazilian press has carried a great deal of publicity from both official and private sources, looking toward the development of cotton as a second export crop, so that Brazil's export trade will not be so completely dependent on coffee. Local newspapers published editorials, and stories of sales of cotton abroad, as well as accounts of local planters and farmers who have made large sums from cotton. This is particularly effective in

the southern States, such as São Paulo, where mass education is probably higher than in other sections of the country. Local citizens who take pride in the development of their State are encouraged to invest capital in cotton gins and other equipment, while large planters are encouraged to turn to cotton or to finance small growers who wish to produce cotton.

4. *Drought-relief program.*—The Federal and State governments have undertaken since 1931 an extensive public-works and drought-



Courtesy of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce.

TREE COTTON OF
THE VERDÃO VA-
RIETY IN BAHIA.

Tree cotton is the more common kind in northern Brazil where, since the advent of the rainy seasons varies, planting, pruning, and picking are carried on in one part or another throughout the year. The verdão fiber is especially strong, long, and silky in appearance. Tree cotton is replanted only every three to ten years.

relief program in the northeastern States. The work on dams, irrigation systems, and highways in these areas (particularly Ceará) which have suffered from periodical droughts, should have some influence on cotton production.

5. *Government encouragement to cotton exporters.*—During the first 8 or 9 months of 1934, the Brazilian Government required cotton exporters to sell only 30 percent of their foreign exchange at an official rate, lower than the open market rate, whereas coffee exporters were

required to sell virtually all of their exchange, and exporters of commodities other than cotton and coffee, 50 percent of their exchange at the official rate. This measure, favoring the cotton-export trade, was of substantial aid in the exportation of the unusually large 1933-34 crop. At present (April),³ however, exporters of all commodities are required to sell 35 percent of their exchange at the official rate.

UTILIZATION OF COTTON

The manufacture of cotton textiles has long been an important industry in Brazil, and today ranks first among Brazil's manufacturing industries. As early as 1866, Brazil had nine textile mills, with 385 looms and 14,875 spindles, employing 766 workmen. By 1905 the country had 110 mills, with approximately 39,000 workers. Since the early 1900's the industry has grown very rapidly, and in 1920 Brazil was reported to have 242 mills with 57,200 looms and 1,521,000 spindles, employing 109,000 workers. Official statistics for 1932 show a total of 369 plants, with 126,171 looms and 2,968,175 spindles, giving employment to 118,809 workmen. The industry centers in the States of São Paulo, Minas Geraes, Rio de Janeiro, and the Federal District; about 80 percent of the spindles and looms are found in these four political units. Until 1933-34 the consumption of raw cotton exceeded production in these States, the difference having been supplied by the northeastern States.

It is estimated that from 90 to 95 percent of Brazil's cotton-textile requirements are now manufactured within the country and cloths made of fine-count yarns or specialties, such as tire fabric, are about the only goods imported. As the Brazilian cotton-textile industry becomes more completely developed, these fine fabrics and specially made goods will doubtless be supplied by the domestic industry.

As will be noted from the following table (p. 756), around 75 percent of Brazilian cotton production, or an average of 405,300 bales per annum, has been absorbed by the domestic textile industry over the period from 1921 to 1933. The expansion of the domestic textile industry is limited by law, with the object of keeping cotton textile production in line with textile consumption. Even though the limitations on textile plant expansion were removed, the indications are that domestic consumption of raw cotton would be little in excess of the 1921 to 1933 average of 405,300 bales per annum. As a result, further increases in raw cotton production may be expected to be reflected directly in the export trade. In this connection, it may be added that 1934 exports of raw cotton, following the unusually large crop of 1933-34, reached the all-time high of 584,000 bales.

³ Still in effect September 10, 1935.—EDITOR.

Brazilian cotton production, consumption, and exports, 1921-1934

[478-pound bales]

Year	Production	Domestic consumption	Exports	Year	Production	Domestic consumption	Exports
1921.....	476,200	397,300	90,400	1928.....	509,100	362,500	46,200
1922.....	504,100	382,300	156,600	1929.....	445,800	311,300	224,700
1923.....	553,000	405,300	88,400	1930.....	583,200	334,400	140,300
1924.....	575,900	489,400	29,800	1931.....	471,200	394,200	93,500
1925.....	793,200	448,300	141,300	1932.....	574,700	414,000	2,400
1926.....	601,600	424,500	77,000	1933.....	447,800	433,600	53,900
1927.....	512,400	471,600	55,000	1934.....	1,968,700	1,584,100

¹ Preliminary.

Compiled from official sources. Production data are for crop years, i. e., 1934 production figure covers the crop year 1933-34. Internal consumption and export data are according to calendar years.

OUTLOOK FOR COTTON GROWING IN BRAZIL

Brazil's advantages as a producer of cotton may be summarized as follows:

1. *Abundance of land.*—Brazil has an abundance of land that is suited to cotton production, particularly in the southern States. The total area of the four cotton-producing States in southern Brazil (São Paulo, Minas Geraes, Rio de Janeiro, and Paraíba) is approximately 418,000 square miles, or almost as large as the combined area of Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas. If the two extreme southern States of Rio Grande do Sul and Santa Catharina are included, the total area of southern Brazil is 565,000 square miles, approximately equal to the area of the American cotton belt west of the Mississippi plus the States of Mississippi and Alabama.

Although much of this area is now producing coffee, corn, and other food crops, more than half of it is still virgin land, a good part of which, if cleared, would be suitable to the production of cotton, coffee, and food crops. The area officially reported as being given over to farms in these States, including land used for grazing and range purposes as well as the crop area, is less than 50 percent of the total area of this section. When the actual cultivated or crop-producing area is considered, the estimate is less than 30 percent. In the two extreme southern States of Rio Grande do Sul and Santa Catharina, the percentage of unimproved land is much higher than in the other four southern States, the land actually under cultivation in these two States probably not exceeding 10 percent of their total area. In the State of Minas Geraes, there are also extensive areas now utilized only for grazing.

It is obvious that southern Brazil, from the standpoint of available land, has tremendous possibilities for agricultural expansion. If only 5 percent of the area of the six southern States of Brazil is considered suitable to cotton production, the potential cotton area in this region may be calculated at 28,250 square miles, equivalent to 18,080,000

acres. This figure is roughly 16 times the area (1,113,000 acres) devoted to cotton in this region in 1933-34, and is equivalent to about 44 percent of the average area (41,036,000 acres) devoted to cotton in the United States in the 5-year period, 1927-31.

In the northeastern cotton-growing States, the areas in the plateau region in which cotton can be grown are limited by rainfall and transportation facilities. Without going beyond the boundaries of the present cotton-growing zone, however, acreage and production could be greatly increased by irrigation works of the type now under construction or planned by the Brazilian Government, and by highway construction.



Courtesy of the Cotton Exchange of São Paulo.

COTTON AWAITING GINNING AT SÃO PAULO.

As the 1934 crop could not be handled as rapidly as it arrived, the bags of cotton, much of it in the seed, piled up at the gins of southern Brazil.

Estimates of the Brazilian Government place the area now given over to farms (including grazing and pasture lands) in the States of Maranhão, Piauí, Ceará, Rio Grande do Norte, Paraíba, Pernambuco, Alagoas, Sergipe, and Bahia, at 139,000 square miles (88,960,000 acres), out of a total land area of 590,000 square miles, equivalent to, roughly, 24 percent of the total area of these States. The State of Pará, with a total area of 526,000 square miles, has only 38,000 square miles (24,320,000 acres), or approximately 7 percent of its total area, given over to farming and grazing.

As yet, the cotton-growing possibilities of the huge interior States of Matto Grosso, Goyaz, and Amazonas, with a total area of over

1,500,000 square miles, have not been explored, but lack of population and of transportation facilities probably eliminates them for the present as important factors in the Brazilian cotton situation.

2. *Climate.*—The climate of southern Brazil, with reference to both rainfall and temperature, is well adapted to cotton production. In the plateau districts of northeastern Brazil, temperatures are favorable to cotton production although the periodical droughts represent a serious handicap, but their effects can doubtless be overcome to some extent by irrigation, although there seems to be little likelihood of a very significant increase from irrigation within the near future.

3. *Well-established cotton industry.*—The importance of the Brazilian textile industry, ranking first among its manufacturing industries, will inevitably sustain interest in cotton-growing, even in periods of low world prices. The industry, which has offered a regular market to the local cotton producer, is responsible to a great degree for the fact that cotton is already firmly entrenched as the farmers' traditional cash crop in the plateau districts of the northeastern States and that in the southern States its importance as a secondary source of income, to supplement coffee, is becoming more and more widely recognized.

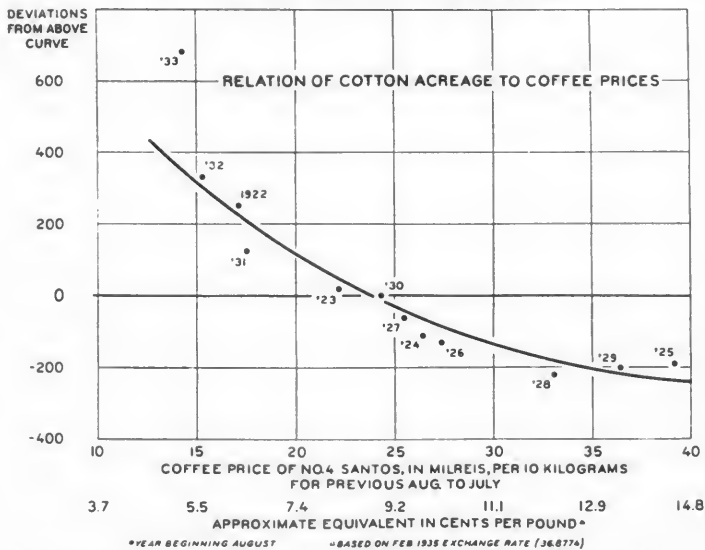
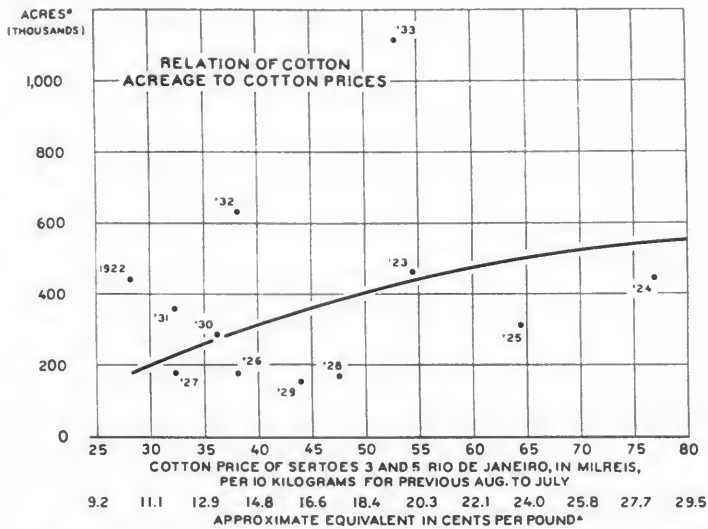
4. *Active governmental encouragement.*—Recognizing the uncertainties of a one-crop economy, it is probable that the Brazilian Government will continue actively to encourage cotton production as a means of lessening the country's dependence on one crop—coffee. This is particularly true in view of the general feeling that prospects for a substantial improvement in world coffee prices do not appear favorable at the present time.

The problems that Brazil must face as a producer of cotton may be summarized as follows:

1. *Limited labor supply.*—Although Brazil's labor supply is adequate for the areas now planted to cotton, and doubtless sufficient to provide for a substantial increase in acreage, it is clear that there is now a shortage of labor in relation to the huge undeveloped arable land areas. Moreover, additional labor is required to bring new areas under production for the first time, and in the south there is difficulty in obtaining labor during the harvest season if wages on coffee-plantations are attractive.

2. *Inadequate transportation facilities.*—In northern Brazil, and in the undeveloped areas of southern Brazil, the inadequacy of transportation facilities, particularly in the way of roads tributary to existing rail lines, represents a handicap to much further expansion in cotton production.

3. *Shortage of equipment.*—There is at present a shortage of modern ginning machinery in most of the cotton-growing regions of Brazil. This deficiency is already being remedied, however, under the stimu-



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

NEG. 29005 BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

EFFECT OF COTTON AND COFFEE PRICES ON COTTON ACREAGE, SOUTHERN BRAZIL, 1922-23 TO 1932-33.

For the 11 years a given increase in the price of cotton in Brazil resulted, on the average, in an increase in cotton acreage in southern Brazil, unless coffee prices changed, by an amount equivalent to that shown by the slope of the upper curve. If cotton prices remained unchanged, a given increase in coffee prices tended to reduce cotton acreage by the extent indicated by the slope of the lower curve.

lus of favorable prices and an active interest on the part of both domestic and foreign capital in Brazilian cotton.

4. *Lack of production credit.*—The lack of an organized credit system for the purpose of making loans to the growers, and for the marketing and handling of the crop, is a handicap to the Brazilian cotton industry. But there appears to be ample capital in the country, aside from the foreign capital which may be attracted by the Brazilian industry, and there is already reported to be an easing in the credit situation.⁴

5. *Competition with coffee.*—In the south it is apparent that in the past cotton acreage has been to a large extent dependent on the relationship between coffee and cotton prices, with capital and labor going into the crop which appears to offer the greater return. A substantial increase in coffee prices in relation to cotton prices would probably affect cotton production in the southern States adversely, insofar as production in excess of domestic requirements is concerned. However, so far as the next few years are concerned there seems to be little prospect for any significant increase in coffee prices. The world carry-over of coffee on July 1, 1935 will probably be equivalent to one full year's consumption⁵ and all reports indicate that the 1935-36 world coffee crop will be perhaps much larger than the comparatively small crop of 1934-35, barring unusual weather conditions. It has been stated by one reliable agency that with favorable conditions the 1936-37 crop may be a bumper one.

⁴ In this connection the following resolutions of the Commerce and Transportation Section of the National Cotton Conference which met in São Paulo last April are cited:

25. The National Cotton Conference recognizes:

(a) That the increase of our cotton crop on a large scale is conditioned, within the productive capacity of the country, upon a corresponding increase in cotton exports;

(b) That the tendency of national exports of cotton, as far as can be foreseen, is upward. This probability is based on our low labor costs in comparison with those in other cotton-growing countries, on the good quality of our product and the great extent of arable land;

(c) That among the internal factors opposing this tendency are: the poor organization of agricultural credit, the deficiency of transportation in certain sections, lack of labor, the relative lack of agricultural machinery and knowledge of modern methods of agriculture on the part of farmers, the lack of good seed, and the possibility of trying out other crops.

29. The National Cotton Conference recommends that the following urgent measures, among others, should be taken for developing and perfecting cotton production:

(a) Equip and improve present experiment stations, and when this has been done create new zones where stations may be necessary;

(b) Improve the service for supplying good seed to cotton growers, increasing the fields for growing seed;

(c) Facilitate in every way possible the installation in Brazil of complete establishments for ginning and baling;

(d) Promote the use of tractors and agricultural machinery, fertilizers and insecticides, maintaining at convenient points stocks of these articles to be furnished to farmers at moderate prices;

(e) Prevent the operation of ginning and baling establishments which do not satisfy the proper technical requirements;

(f) Give as much expert assistance as possible to workers, teaching them modern methods of cultivation;

(g) Provide facilities for agricultural credit;

(h) Move for the reduction of railway and maritime freights on cotton.

(From "O Estado de São Paulo," April 27, 1935.)—EDITOR.

⁵ The New York Coffee and Sugar Exchange gives the world carry-over of coffee on July 1, 1935, as 23,520,413 bags. Consumption for 1930-31 was 23,148,175 bags; 1931-32, for 23,728,000 bags; for 1932-33, 22,850,000 bags; for 1933-34, 24,452,000; and for 1934-35, 22,680,000 bags.—EDITOR.

A weighting of the favorable factors against the unfavorable and an examination of the past trends in both sections of Brazil seem to indicate that while acreage and production may vary from year to year and with low yields may drop back well below the high level of the current season, the trend will continue upward, particularly in the southern States. The rate of increase will of course be affected by cotton prices (both actual and relative) in Brazil, but the trend should be very much less pronounced than during the last two years even if cotton prices should be comparatively high during the next several years.

On the basis of the average response of acreage to price changes in southern Brazil during the 11 years 1922-23 to 1932-33, it would be expected that with no change in the price of coffee a change in cotton prices from 10 to 15 cents (at the current ratio of cotton prices in Brazil to domestic prices) might be expected to result in a change of a little less than 200,000 acres in the cotton area of southern Brazil. In the last two years, however, such factors as (1) legal restrictions on the planting of coffee trees, (2) more active effort on the part of the Government to encourage cotton production, due in part to the desire to develop another important export crop to supplement coffee, (3) the increasing interest of foreign and domestic capital in Brazilian cotton production, and (4) perhaps the lingering effects of the extremely high prices of cotton in Brazil in 1932-33 have resulted in a much larger cotton acreage in southern Brazil than might have been expected from past relationships. Therefore, it seems not unlikely that cotton acreage in southern Brazil might increase still further even if cotton prices in Brazil decline considerably during the next few years. A price of 10 cents in the United States would, at the current ratio of cotton prices in Brazil to domestic prices, reduce the Brazilian price of cotton about 13 percent, which would tend to reduce the rate of expansion. Under such conditions, a price of 15 cents in the United States would result in an increase of about 30 percent in Brazilian cotton prices over the current levels and 50 percent over what it might be at 10-cent domestic prices.

In addition to the outlook for an upward trend in the total acreage and production in Brazil, another factor which is significant from the standpoint of competition with American cotton is the trend in the quality of Brazilian cotton. During the last few years cotton production in the southern States, where most of the crop is of American upland varieties, has increased from an average of about one-fourth of the total to more than half of the entire Brazilian crop, and the prospects are that this region may continue to produce a larger and larger proportion of the total. In addition the systems of seed

control and gin regulation seem likely to further improve the quality of Brazilian cotton.⁶

⁶The following tables of exports of raw cotton from Brazil, published in "Foreign Crops and Markets" for September 9, 1935, are of interest:

INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN COTTON IN 1934-35

Brazil: Exports of raw cotton by months, average 1923-24 to 1932-33, August 1933-July 1935

[1 bale=478 pounds net]

Month	Average, 1923-24 to 1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	Month	Average, 1934-24 to 1932-33	1933-34	1934-35
	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	1,000 bales		1,000 bales	1,000 bales	1,000 bales
August	4	3	68	March	4	20	43
September	9	5	57	April	2	21	39
October	13	9	92	May	3	44	36
November	15	23	69	June	3	47	-----
December	15	10	75	July	3	37	-----
January	10	27	46	Total	86	273	-----
February	5	27	78				

Foreign Agricultural Service Division. Compiled from Comercio Exterior do Brasil (Monthly). Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Brazil: Exports of raw cotton to specified countries, January-July 1935

[1 bale=478 pounds net]

Year and month	Germany	United Kingdom	France	Belgium	Japan	Other countries	Total
	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	1,000 bales
1935							
January	16	17	5	2	-----	6	46
February	49	15	6	5	-----	3	78
March	32	7	1	1	-----	2	43
April	30	3	3	2	-----	1	39
May	22	5	3	2	2	2	36
June	35	16	6	2	5	10	74
July	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

Foreign Agricultural Service Division. Compiled from Consular Reports submitted by Rudolf F. Cahn, Vice Consul, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.—EDITOR.

TROUT FISHING IN THE TROPICS¹

RAINBOW TROUT IN THE RÍO CHIRIQUÍ VIEJO, PANAMA

By SAMUEL F. HILDEBRAND, D. Sc.

Senior Ichthyologist, Bureau of Fisheries, United States Department of Commerce

REPORTS giving glowing accounts of a very successful introduction of rainbow trout in the upper course of the Río Chiriquí Viejo, situated in extreme southwestern Panama, have reached the United States Bureau of Fisheries during recent years. It seemed desirable, therefore, to obtain first hand information concerning the ecological conditions prevailing in this stream that brought about the excellent results. Such information would serve as a guide in determining the fitness for the support of trout of other streams within tropical America.

Americans have been attracted to the uplands of the Province of Chiriquí for some years by the cool pleasant climate in contrast with the warm humid atmosphere of the Canal Zone, as well as by the fertile land. The American settlers and property owners were successful in about 1924 in interesting the American minister to Panama in the possibility of establishing trout in the streams of the vicinity.

Upon the request of the American minister, through diplomatic channels, the United States Commissioner of Fisheries detailed Fred J. Foster, an expert fish culturist, to make an inspection of the Río Chiriquí Viejo to determine if the conditions were suitable for trout. Mr. Foster found the temperature sufficiently low above an elevation of about 4,000 to 4,500 feet, and the stream in other respects also seemed suitable. Thereupon, he recommended the introduction of rainbow trout. Accordingly in 1925 a lot of 2,500 eggs was sent by the Bureau of Fisheries.

The eggs were secured from an eastern hatchery and were shipped to New York by rail; from there they were sent to the Canal Zone by boat; and from there to Volcán, Chiriquí, by airplane. En route the eggs were of course kept cool with ice. As no hatching trough or other facilities were available for incubating the eggs on the Río Chiriquí Viejo, they were merely buried to a depth of an inch or so in sand and gravel in comparatively quiet places in the stream, and there at least some of them hatched.

¹ Published by permission of the U. S. Commissioner of Fisheries.

For four or five years the fish were not seen. Then some inquisitive sportsman began angling and succeeded in catching trout. Ever since that time anglers have gone from the Canal Zone to Chiriquí to fish for trout.

As already indicated, the Río Chiriquí Viejo is situated in the extreme southwestern corner of the Republic of Panama in the Province of Chiriquí. The lower course of the stream lies in a comparatively flat country, and as seen from an airplane it is rather winding. It is no doubt quite sluggish in the lowlands, as the maps indicate two mouths. From an elevation of about 5,000 to 7,000 feet, or a distance of about 10 miles, the stream was seen by the writer on foot, as well



Photograph by Samuel F. Hildebrand.

THE RÍO CHIRIQUÍ VIEJO AT 6,000 FEET.

In the higher altitudes numerous rapids are formed in the river by rocks and log jams. An excellent trout hole exists just below the rapids in the foreground.

as from the air. Here its course is not especially winding, but still far from straight.

The average width of the stream bed in the section examined on foot probably is about 35 to 40 feet from bank to bank. Although the river was examined during the dry season, it evidently was not at its lowest stage. It is certain, however, that it always has ample water for the welfare of the trout. The river, also, has several tributaries of fair size, which appear to be especially valuable for protection for the young and smaller trout from the older and larger ones.

The river bed is mostly quite rocky, the size of the rocks varying from gravel to large boulders. In places log jams and drift wood also

are present. There is little smooth bottom and collecting with a seine is nearly impossible. The larger tributaries are equally as rocky as the main stream.

The current is quite swift, and the roar of the stream may be heard a long distance. However, between the rapids comparatively large deep pools generally are present, making good hiding and resting places for the trout.

During the time (February 3 to 6) spent at Mr. Lewis' camp a check was kept on the temperature. There, at an elevation of about 6,000 feet, the temperature of the water in the river was 54° F. each morning at 7 o'clock, and each evening between 5 and 6 o'clock it was 57° F. Each morning the water and air temperatures were equal within one degree. However, of evenings the air was from 15 to 20 degrees warmer than the water. Every day was clear. Consequently, the tropical sun exerted its maximum influence. Presumably, the water is no warmer during the rainy season. Possibly it is cooler, as there is less sunshine. It is evident, therefore, that the water is amply cool for trout, at and above an altitude of 6,000 feet and for some distance below it.² According to information given by anglers, the trout do not descend the river far below an elevation of 4,000 feet.

That trout are quite numerous in the Río Chiriquí Viejo in the sections of the stream examined is obvious from the liberal catches made by anglers, and from collections and observations made by the writer. It was noticed several times that an angler would return with from 8 to 12 fish after fishing for an hour or so. Furthermore, small trout were common in the quiet shallow coves where, presumably, they were seeking protection from larger trout, for they have virtually no other enemies in the stream. It was reliably reported that two Americans desiring to make a test of how many trout could be taken during a whole day's fishing succeeded in catching 200 fish. Another American, who lives on the banks of the river, claims to be so certain of catching a trout within a few minutes' time that he often puts his skillet on the stove to heat while he goes to the river to catch a fish for his breakfast. It may be concluded, from the observations made and the many reports of large catches, that trout are quite numerous in the Río Chiriquí Viejo above an altitude of perhaps 4,000 to 4,500 feet.

² Air temperature records kept by Mr. R. G. Lewis at his camp at an elevation of about 6,000 feet during 1934 and part of 1935, kindly placed at the writer's disposal by him, show that the fluctuations are not great. Since the air temperatures do not fluctuate greatly it is certain that the temperature of the water is fairly constant throughout the year. The lowest temperature of the air during 1934 was 37° F., which occurred some time during the first three months of the year when daily records were not kept. The highest temperature for the same period of time was 75° F. During the remainder of 1934, for which more definite records are available, the lowest temperature reached was 40° F., which occurred in June, and the highest 70° F. reached during three successive months: namely, October, November, and December. The lowest average minimum temperature for any one month during the nine months of 1934 for which records are available, is 50.3° F. for April, and the highest is 53.7° F. for September. The average maximum temperatures for the same period of time range from 66.4° F. in April to 73° F. in September. The lowest temperature reached during January and February 1935 was 41° F.

The fish that were caught during my visit by anglers were not large, as they ranged in length from about 8 to 12 inches. A few larger ones were seen in the river by me, and individuals up to 23 inches in length were reported by anglers.

Since my return from Panama Mr. R. G. Lewis has sent a photograph of a large trout taken in the Río Chiriquí Viejo at an altitude of about 6,000 feet 25½ inches in total length, weighing 5¼ pounds. This fish has been mounted and is on exhibition in Mr. Lewis' store in Panama city. It is evident, therefore, that some of the trout attain a large size.



Photograph by Samuel F. Hildebrand.

AIR VIEW OF THE LOWER RÍO CHIRIQUÍ VIEJO.

Its slow meandering course is in sharp contrast with its precipitousness in the uplands. The temperature of the stream in the lowlands is of course too high for trout to endure.

One of the principal objects of my visit to the Río Chiriquí Viejo was to ascertain on what the trout feed and the probable abundance of the food. Such information is regarded as especially desirable in determining whether other streams in the tropics are suitable for the support of trout. Accordingly, observations and collections were made in the main stream and some of its tributaries, and the stomachs and intestines of 45 adult trout were preserved and later examined in the laboratory. Also, the stomachs of 6 young trout, ranging in length from 19 to 51 mm, were examined.

No native fish are present. Therefore, the trout do not feed on fish, except as they sometimes may feed on each other. They exist

principally, as shown by the contents of 51 stomachs, on insects, taking occasionally in addition a few ostracods and amphipods.

Spawning apparently takes place principally during November and December, though limited spawning extends over a much longer period of time.

The opportunity to make an inspection and to gain first hand information relative to the ecological conditions obtaining in the Río Chiriquí Viejo came to the writer through the generosity of Dr. Herbert C. Clark, director of the Gorgas Memorial Laboratory, Panama City, during a recent visit to the Panama Canal Zone. Accordingly the period extending from February 2 to 8, 1935, was devoted to the investigation. The writer is indebted, also, to Mr. R. G. Lewis of Panama city for making all arrangements for the airplane flight to the vicinity and for the use of his camp on the banks of the river during most of the investigation. Thanks are due, likewise, to Mr. W. H. W. Komp of the United States Public Health Service, who was a member of the party, for very helpful assistance, and to Dr. T. W. Earhart, chief surgeon at the Gorgas Hospital, Ancon, Canal Zone, for preserving trout stomachs for examination. Without the co-operation of these gentlemen the investigation could not have been made.



Photograph by Marcel J. Busard.

THE MOUNTAINOUS REGION OF THE UPPER CHIRIQUÍ VIEJO.

For a distance of about 15 miles the river borders the volcanic plain at the foot of the heavily forested cordillera.

SPAIN AS A COLONIZER¹

By R. G. TUGWELL, Ph.D., LL.D.

Under Secretary of Agriculture of the United States

FROM the outset of the Conquest the Spaniards began the great task of transplanting their culture to the New World, and of course the basic element of that culture was the art of farming.

From the first efforts were made to transplant agriculture in a very practical manner. In 1524 Cortez wrote his sovereign asking him to give orders that no ship should sail to America without bringing its cargo of plants and seeds. Said Cortez, "I have also explained to Your Caesarian Majesty the need for plants of all kinds; for every species of agriculture may flourish here; but nothing has been so far provided, and I again pray Your Majesty to order a provision from the Casa de Contratación at Seville, so that no ship be allowed to sail without bringing a certain number of plants which would favor the population and prosperity of the country." Columbus on his second voyage brought animals for breeding purposes and seeds and slips and plants. This example was followed by subsequent explorers and conquistadores and the domestic pig, sheep, dog, goat, rabbit, and horse were among some of the animals imported. As early as 1495, jacks, jennets, mares, cattle, pigs, sheep, rice, millet, farm laborers and gardeners, millwrights and blacksmiths were brought. Wheat, grapes, olives, sugar cane, date palms, figs, and pomegranates were transported to the New World, as well as apples, pears, plums, peaches, apricots, quinces, mulberries, oranges, limes and lemons, all before the year of the first English settlement in North America.

Not only did Spain bring in plants and seeds from the mother country but from the other countries of the Old World, and one great authority has said that during the time of colonization no European power was spending more on agriculture than Spain. I should like here to say something about other contributions made by Spain in mining, in institutions of government, in religion, in exploration, but at best I should be rephrasing knowledge common to you all. The Spanish built the first cities, schools and churches. They brought the first printing presses and made the first books. They wrote the first dictionary, history, and geography. They transplanted here some of the best attributes of the Old World civilization generations before the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock, and three Spanish universities in the New World were rounding out a century of cultured existence before Harvard College was founded.

¹ Excerpt from commencement address of Dr. R. G. Tugwell, Under Secretary of Agriculture, at the University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, June 10, 1935.

MAKING BUSINESS CONTACTS IN THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

By WILLIAM A. REID

Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union

A STEADY movement of samples of interesting commodities from Latin American countries flows into the Pan American Union. These articles are highly diversified and some of them are unusually interesting and novel—novel, of course, to those unfamiliar with products originating in some of the more remote parts of American nations.

Before the writer stands a bottle half filled with a thick, red liquid. Shake the bottle and a beautiful foamy substance covers the inside of the glass. This fluid, in the language of the unromantic trader, is simply "dragon's blood." We are not here concerned with the botanical origin of the tree that produces this valuable article nor with the chemical substances comprised in this sap. Samples of dragon's blood, shipped from equatorial jungles, were submitted to a number of United States manufacturers; at least two concerns expressed their interest in receiving trial shipments with which to experiment. Some chemists believe it can be more extensively used in paints and varnishes, floor coverings, and composition materials.

A gentleman calls and presents a card indicating his connection with an organization in this country that consumes quantities of hardwood each year. Says he, "I am looking for supplies of cedar lumber. Cedar-lined presses for the modern home are now popular and often demanded by the prospective purchaser; cedar chests are handled in vast numbers by our department stores; the need for cedar in pencil-making also creates a big demand for this particular wood, which is becoming somewhat scarce in the United States. Our company wishes to get in touch with some lumber concerns that might supply a regular flow of cedar. Do you know of any such enterprises?"

The caller was informed of lumbering operations in certain parts of Latin America where cedar exists in commercial quantities and is being exploited. But the exploitation has been somewhat limited by lack of regular demand. In this particular case the consumer in the United States was brought into contact with the producer in a Latin American country. Prices, mutual agreements, quality and

quantity were next under consideration between the parties; result, trial orders were placed which at last accounts were proving mutually satisfactory.

An assortment of oil-producing nuts from wild regions was received from an exporter at Manaus, Brazil. It included "the light of the



A BRAZILIAN CEDAR TREE.

The great demand for cedar in the United States has been an incentive for bringing it from South American forests.

jungle," a peculiar small nut which when ignited will burn for some time with a light comparable to that of an ordinary candle. While natives in the wilds may use this nut for lighting purposes, the far-seeing industrialist in this country is beginning to extract oil from it. This product is of far more value than the flickering light. Some of the larger nuts in the collection are somewhat better known. By chance a business man saw these products on display. Becoming

interested, he later formed a company and, after making arrangements with national and local officials, dispatched men and machinery to the tropical jungle where these nuts are plentiful. In the field native laborers were employed and operations begun in what some day may be a great industry.

It is not often that a woman from a United States metropolis finds a business opportunity in one of the earth's remote regions. But a cultured woman happened to come to the Pan American Union



BABASSÚ NUTS.

The babassú is one of the most valuable of the tropical oil-producing nuts, which are plentiful in Brazil. Modern industry is finding an increasing number of uses for babassú oil.

for information in regard to a voyage into Amazonia. Having been a world traveler, she had grown tired of big cities and crowds of people. "Ship me to the wilds," said she, "but first give me an idea of what I may experience or expect in the Amazon country." She was supplied with the requisite information and personal suggestions. Six months passed. One day an expressman delivered a package—a box of lumber in small slabs. The woman who had called to ask about the Amazon country had reached Manaus, a thousand miles up-stream from the ocean. She was pleased with her trip; she was taking the liberty of sending 20 specimens of local woods

to Washington. These samples were shown to manufacturers of lumber products, some of whom became interested. For at least two varieties there was a market in the United States—balsa and cedar. The first is used in parts of airplanes and in refrigerating apparatus, while the increasing shortage of cedar in the United States is well known.

From Bolivia came liberal samples of cubes of isinglass. In a long letter the owner of the mines explained his facilities for shipping isinglass in commercial quantities. He desired a market in the United States, for he believed this country could easily consume the output of his properties.

Like other incoming samples, the isinglass was divided into a number of pieces and one of these sent with a letter of explanation to stove manufacturers who, it was thought, might be in a position to consume more of this material. It was found that at least two firms were willing to place trial orders with the mine, and at last accounts one manufacturer is still importing Bolivian isinglass.

A man bearing marks of exposure to sun and storm is relating some of his adventures in an isolated mining region of southern Colombia. He opens a wallet and places on the desk a dozen golden fish hooks—fish hooks made of crude gold by native people. "Workers on our properties," said the visitor, "needing hooks of one kind or another with which to catch fish from the streams, and not having ordinary steel hooks, resort to the home-made article which they crudely form from gold nuggets. Since we took over the properties, however, we discouraged such waste of a most valuable metal. We supply ordinary fishing hooks and tackle to the men and watch every speck of gold that is found. I merely exhibit these articles for your information. Dredges are now operating along the larger streams of our properties and we believe a promising future lies ahead of these activities."

The visitor who made the above remarks hails from Baltimore; before his first trip to Colombia he made a careful study of the gold mining possibilities in that country. "I found the reports not the least exaggerated," said he, "and after weeks of field investigations and conferences with Colombian officials we decided to purchase properties and embark on the uncertain yet often pleasant work of hunting gold by modern processes."

Down in the Ecuadorean Andes there grows a delicious but little-used fruit. When ripe it has the appearance of a small orange; the skin is thick and leathery, but within this covering there is juicy pulp

in which are imbedded numerous seeds somewhat like those of the tomato. This fruit is commonly called *naranjilla*, or little orange. The botanist, however, knows it by the name of *Solanum quitense*. Today a new factory in Riobamba is making both a soft drink and an extract from this fruit and the output of the establishment is known as *naranjilla*. In bottled form the beverage is being placed in local markets. It is refreshing, non-alcoholic and pleasant in flavor, which seems to be a combination of peach, orange and lime—lime predominating. Ecuadoreans use *naranjilla* extract to flavor ice cream,



NARANJILLA PLANT.

This plant, which is native to Ecuador, produces a delicious fruit whose flavor seems to be a blend of peach, orange, and lime. Beverages and extracts have been made from the fruit, which is said to have valuable tonic properties.

punches, and cocktails or, in diluted form, enjoy it as a refreshing beverage. By reason of its digestive properties the juice is said to be valuable as a tonic. With samples of this beverage came the request that the company be informed as to sales possibilities in the United States. In this particular case, owing to the distance of Ecuador from the proposed market and the innumerable beverages already being sold in this country, it was thought best to suggest that the hot dry coastal regions of Peru and Chile might offer an inviting market, and that the possibilities of sales there be studied.

"Will you please give me the names of any firms in the United States that are in a position to supply *cuyas* and *bombillas* in wholesale quantities? We have need for them immediately."

These lines came in a hurried request from a Los Angeles merchant who has placed yerba maté on sale and whose orders have been growing. The people of California, it would seem, are not satisfied to sip maté from a china cup, but demand the fancy gourd and the "straw"—often of silver or of gold—that are universally used in South America for this beverage. Importers have found that the increased consumption of maté in this country is reflected in a greater demand for the native utensils.



A HENEQUEN PLANTATION.

Henequen, or sisal, is one of the valuable fiber-producing plants native to Latin America.

Recently a liberal sample of pita, a fiber that grows wild in the tropics, was received with an inquiry as to the possible market for it in the United States. The company in Ecuador that submitted the sample said that at least 85 tons were available for immediate exportation and that larger supplies could be provided whenever the foreign market called for this commodity. The sample was cut into about a dozen pieces which were submitted to well-known manufacturers of cordage, floor mats, and hammocks. At least two of the companies addressed replied that they were interested in securing quantities of pita for experimental purposes and, if the fiber proved strong and workable so that it could be woven into the several classes of goods manufactured by their concerns, they would consider the purchase of regular consignments.



MAHOGANY LOGGING IN CENTRAL AMERICA.

One of the best-known American woods is mahogany, much in demand for fine furniture.



SAMPLES OF WOOD FROM VENEZUELA.

The forests of Venezuela and of other South American countries are supplying the United States with a wide variety of valuable woods.

One of the largest commodities the Union has been called upon to help place is the dwelling house. Now that homes are manufactured on a large scale, knocked down, and shipped to all points in the United States, the idea occurred to a prominent South American that the summer home he wished to construct could be purchased in the United States. So he sent an outline of his needs, was put in touch with the proper firms, and now he and his family, in another American country, are doubtless enjoying the ready-built house that came from over the sea.

Some years ago, after an earthquake in Central America had destroyed hundreds of homes, a cablegram was received stating that large numbers of houses were urgently and quickly needed. Within a few days the agent of a manufacturer of ready-built houses was en route to the region. Upon his arrival, he presented illustrations of the houses he had to offer; an order on a wholesale scale was given, and within a few weeks many a homeless native found himself and his family living in a new house from the United States.

One of the most important contacts ever made by the Union was begun at a conference with the Director General and then transferred to the commercial office. More than a decade ago a representative of a great manufacturing corporation came to ask preliminary questions about conditions and possibilities of an enterprise being established in an undeveloped region of South America. An hour or so was given to this caller; he returned another day with three additional representatives of his company. Later, the Union's librarian was called on for service; and in turn books and laws and translations of laws were placed before these gentlemen. They studied and pondered; they then sought the diplomatic representative of the country where the land in question was located. "Inviting possibilities for a big enterprise seem to lie ahead", said one of these men. The next move of the company was to dispatch an agent to the South American country. Once on the ground, and encouraged by government officials, this man finally obtained land and other concessions. The big deal approved, operations started in the jungle and raw materials are now flowing therefrom to several factories in the United States. Success crowned well-planned and serious effort and those of us who recall initial investigations feel glad to have had at least an infinitesimal part in the beginning of a great inter-American development enterprise.

Occasionally it happens that certain samples of material submitted to the Union are not salable in the United States. Everyone knows, of course, that tile roofing and floors are features of home and office

construction all over Latin America. And much of this product is superior in quality and beautiful in design.

Hoping for a possible sale outlet in the United States, an enterprising manufacturer in Central America supplied the office with a varied assortment of well-made tile, which was available for shipment in quantity. Conference with architects and builders showed that the high cost of freight and the weight of the tile made competition with the domestic product impossible.

Likewise demand was found to be nonexistent for an iron oxide sent from one of the West Coast countries of South America. Deposits of this mineral in the United States, according to scientific investigation, are sufficient to last this country a long period.

The foregoing pages may serve to indicate the diversity of Latin American products whose manufacturers or exploiters are seeking new or wider markets. The examples also reflect the increasing numbers of contacts between exploiters and possible markets. Each one, infinitesimal as the effort entailed may be, is on the whole a worthy builder of commerce—and the development of commerce is one of the foundation stones upon which this organization of Republics has been functioning for many years.



RESULTS OF THE BUENOS AIRES COMMERCIAL CONFERENCE

By H. GERALD SMITH

Chief, Section of Financial Information, Pan American Union

THE Pan American Commercial Conference of Buenos Aires held its final meeting on June 19 last, having been in session since May 26. Each of the 21 Republics, members of the Pan American Union, was represented. Four conventions were adopted: on the repression of smuggling; on the creation of a Pan American tourist passport and of a transit passport for vehicles; on the transit of airplanes; and on the creation of Pan American commercial committees. These conventions are now to be submitted to the various governments for ratification. In addition to the conventions, the conference adopted 61 recommendations on a wide variety of subjects, a number of which were added to the original agenda after the conference opened. The following pages summarize the conventions and recommendations adopted.

CONVENTION ON THE REPRESSION OF SMUGGLING

This convention provides that each of the contracting parties shall cooperate to the fullest extent possible with the others, in exchanging information of value in the prevention of smuggling or in the apprehension of smugglers; that in ports and on the banks of frontier rivers, all foreign merchandise not nationalized shall be stored in government warehouses under the direct control or immediate supervision of the customs authorities, until it is dispatched for public consumption, reexported, or dispatched in transit. It is further stated that any accumulation of national or nationalized merchandise in frontier zones outside of recognized ports or centers of one country shall be considered evidence that smuggling into the adjoining one is being contemplated. The latter nation may demand, upon the presentation of a written detailed statement, that the former put such goods under the supervision of its customs authorities.

CONVENTION ON A PAN AMERICAN TOURIST PASSPORT AND A TRANSIT PASSPORT FOR VEHICLES

This convention defines the term "tourist" and provides for the elimination by each signatory of taxes on tourists, and for the creation and adoption of the Pan American tourist passport. Each contracting

state shall have the right to issue this passport, in either individual or collective form, to its native-born or naturalized citizens, or to the citizens of other American countries after fulfillment of certain formalities. The passport is to be issued free of charge.

Other features of this convention include provisions for special visa services; the right of the government of the country visited to retain the passport during the tourist's sojourn, a certificate to take the place of the passport until the tourist is ready to leave the country; and the establishment by each country of offices for the promotion of tourist travel.

That portion of the convention dealing with the transit of vehicles of tourists provides that bicycles, motorcycles, automobiles, and airplanes being used by their owners or which accompany them for later use are to be admitted tax-free; scientific instruments, equipment for the arts and professions, as well as sporting equipment for tournament use, are to be admitted free; vehicles may remain in the country visited as long as their owners; and special insignia may be issued for the vehicles admitted under the terms of this passport.

The United States refrained from signing this convention, because its governmental organization prevents it from entering into agreements of such a nature. The statement was made, however, to the effect that the United States was willing to enter immediately into bilateral agreements with other countries with a view to giving effect to the spirit of the convention.

The Dominican Republic also made a reservation to the convention, as its legislation does not permit it to consider a person traveling on business as a tourist.

CONVENTION ON AIRPLANE TRANSIT

This convention provides that there shall be no taxes or duties of any kind on the movement of airplanes, except those required to cover actual services rendered at airports. Control formalities are to be limited to the minimum, and only a single document containing required information regarding passengers and crews is to be demanded of commercial air lines operating in the contracting countries.

CONVENTION FOR THE CREATION OF PAN AMERICAN COMMERCIAL COMMITTEES

This convention provides for the organization in each country of a Pan American Commercial Committee, as a branch of the Pan American Union and subordinate to that organization, which committees are to have the triple function of cooperating with the Union in all matters of interest to American commerce; of serving as a means of coordination for the interchange of commercial information

between the countries, members of the Pan American Union; and of encouraging in each country the establishment of permanent exhibits of the products of the other nations.

The proposed committees are to be composed of representatives of both government and private business—including commerce, agriculture, industry, and stock raising. The Pan American Union is to draw up uniform regulations to govern the activities of the committees, especially in coordinating the work of these groups with that of the Union.

The work of the Commercial Committees, as described in the convention, promises to be of great importance. The information to be exchanged between the Pan American countries includes data on such widely diversified subjects as prices; communications; the exchange situation; statistics; trade marks; customs procedure and shipping information; and in general all material which may be useful in promoting inter-American commerce.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND DECLARATIONS

The Commercial Conference adopted 61 recommendations or declarations of policy, covering a wide variety of subjects. These included such general topics as customs or consular regulations; port facilities; animal and vegetable sanitary measures; aerial, land and water transportation; tourist travel; commercial arbitration; and a number of other miscellaneous questions. Lack of space prevents detailed discussion of all the recommendations adopted: therefore only a few of the more important will be considered under the general headings outlined above.

CUSTOMS AND CONSULAR REGULATIONS AND PORT FACILITIES

An important recommendation adopted under this heading, entitled "Modification of Port Dues", laid down the following principles: port dues should never acquire the character of duties, but should rather be based on the actual cost of the services rendered; it is desirable to have as uniform port dues as possible throughout the Americas; various types of port dues should be consolidated into a single charge per net register ton; port dues should be levied uniformly, except for allowances for the national merchant marine; and regulations should be adopted for expediting the issuance of certificates of "pratique" and "bills of health", and fees for these services should be as moderate as possible.

Another recommendation under this heading provides that the countries, members of the Pan American Union, should as far as possible immediately adopt the recommendations on consular procedure of the committee of experts appointed by the Union, which were

approved by the Commercial Conference. The conference further recommended that the Pan American Union should appoint another committee of five experts to draft a convention on the simplification of customs, port, and consular procedure. This convention is to be studied by the various governments prior to its submission to the Eighth International Conference of American States at Lima, Peru.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE SANITARY REGULATIONS

The Commercial Conference adopted ten recommendations under this general heading. These included a recommendation that official information on the sanitary condition of plants and animals and on control measures taken and results obtained should be published periodically by the American Governments; that the Second Inter-American Agricultural Conference should determine the basic principles to be adopted by the American Republics for the establishment of foreign quarantines on agricultural products; and that in any agreements concluded on the sanitary control of plant products in transit, certain basic principles should be applied, with the object of preventing the spread of insect pests or communicable diseases.

Further recommendations dealt with provisions for visits by foreign experts belonging to animal and plant sanitary services; the possibility of making livestock vaccination obligatory in the American Republics, and the suitability and usefulness of taking other measures to control diseases in animals in inter-American commerce; and regulations to be enforced by countries through which cattle pass in transit.

The conference also resolved that, on the basis of proposals made by the Uruguayan, Peruvian, and Brazilian delegations, the governing board of the Pan American Union should draft a convention on the inter-American organization of animal and plant sanitary officials, to be included in the agenda of the Second Inter-American Agricultural Conference; and recommended that facilities be accorded for the study of plant and animal diseases, and that the American countries prohibit the exportation or importation of plants and animals suffering from disease.

TRANSPORTATION

The Commercial Conference adopted 14 recommendations on means of transportation, covering land, water and aerial communication.

In the case of general railway policies, the conference recommended the establishment of national committees in the countries, members of the Pan American Union, to cooperate with an international committee, to be appointed by the Union, on the unification of laws and

regulations in different countries concerning railway transport, and on the preparation of a draft convention on railway transportation. A recommendation along the general lines of that adopted with respect to railway transportation was adopted on the subject of highway communications. In another resolution, the work of the Pan American Railway Committee was approved and the recommendation was made that the various governments pursue studies looking toward eventual linking of the continental countries by rail.

On the subject of communication by water, a recommendation was adopted which urged the conclusion of bilateral or multilateral conventions creating what would be known as a Pan American Merchant Marine, by which not more than two ships designated by each country would be afforded in the other countries the same status as ships engaged in national coastwise trade. To obtain such advantages, the vessels designated would have to fulfill certain duties regarding nationality, routes and the carrying of samples of the products of the American countries. Cuba, Peru and the United States abstained from voting on this recommendation, and Brazil presented a reservation.

On the question of aerial transportation, the action of the Commercial Conference consisted principally of calling to the attention of the governments of the American countries the desirability of taking definite action upon a number of conventions on various phases of aerial navigation which had been signed at Pan American and European conferences. Steps were also taken to change the meeting place of the forthcoming inter-American aviation conference from Panama city to Lima, Peru, this conference to be convened at as early a date as possible.

TOURIST TRAVEL

As indicated by the signing of a convention at the Buenos Aires Commercial Conference looking toward the promotion of inter-American tourist travel, this subject was of considerable importance on the agenda of the meeting. In addition to the convention, a number of recommendations were adopted, including those upon the definition of the term "inmigrant", to which reservations were presented by Cuba, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela; on measures to control the movement of persons while in transit through a country; on the simplification or elimination of passport formalities; on the farther development of tourist travel propaganda by the Pan American Union; and on encouragement to banking establishments to increase the use of travelers' checks.

COMMERCIAL ARBITRATION

The recommendation on commercial arbitration adopted by the Commercial Conference furthered the resolution on the subject adopted at the Seventh International Conference of American States, which met at Montevideo. The Buenos Aires recommendation featured two points: that the Governments, members of the Pan American Union, should further the work of the Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission; and that the governments should endeavor to secure legislation to compel the signatories of a clause accepting arbitration to comply therewith, and accept the arbitration award as final.

STANDARDIZATION

The Commercial Conference adopted three recommendations on the question of standardization: one on uniform classification of merchandise; another on standardization of weights and measures; and the third on uniform terminology for engineering, manufacturing, and commerce. The latter two recommendations called upon the Pan American Union to make studies upon the subject.

The recommendation on the uniform classification of merchandise, after stressing the necessity and desirability of furthering studies upon the subject, adopted as a basis the nomenclature prepared by the Economic Committee of the League of Nations for customs purposes. It was also recommended that each country establish a national classification office, and that the Governing Board of the Pan American Union create a special entity for classification work, all the work carried out by both groups to be coordinated as closely as possible.

APPROVAL OF MONTEVIDEO COMMERCIAL POLICY

Among the miscellaneous declarations adopted by the Commercial Conference was one on economic, commercial, and customs tariff policy which maintained and confirmed the declaration made on the subject at the Seventh International Conference of American States, meeting at Montevideo, Uruguay, in December 1933. This declaration called for the liberation of international commerce from unnecessary restrictions, the encouragement of international economic cooperation, and the elimination of restrictive unilateral measures affecting world trade.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

Pan American Conferences.—Mexico City has recently been the scene of the Seventh Pan American Scientific Congress which met in September, and this month is entertaining the Seventh Pan American Congress of the Child.

The Second Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History will convene in the building of the Pan American Union in Washington from October 14 to 19.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Acquisitions.—Since the last publication of the notes the Library has been enriched by several new histories and biographies. The histories include one of Chile by Augusto Orrego Luco, one of Mexico by Alfonso Teja Zabre, and a volume on the quadricentennial of Trujillo, Peru. The subjects of the biographies are for the most part notable Chileans, including Don Crescente Errázuriz, Captain Arturo Prat, and Andrés Bello, an adopted son. There is also a volume entitled *Hijos ilustres de Chillán*, which contains biographies of some historical characters of colonial and early republican times.

An interesting scientific contribution was a collection of four bulletins of the Brazilian Departamento Nacional da Produção Mineral, Serviço de Fomento da Produção Mineral. These contain studies on gold and diamond mines in Minas Geraes, on petrology and petroleum in north central Brazil, and on lead and silver mines in São Paulo.

The books mentioned are listed below with other interesting acquisitions:

Ofidioterapia [por el] Prof. Dr. Pedro Castro Escalada. . . . Buenos Aires, Vial y Zona [1935] 95, [4] p. 23½ cm. [Dr. Castro Escalada is the author of various medical works, including one on cobra serum and several on radiotherapy. In the present work he shows the value of different snake serums

in several diseases and cites cases. The bibliography also alludes to various uses of snake serums.]

Anuario de la Sociedad rural argentina; estadísticas económicas y agrarias. Prólogo del Ing. Luis Dulhau. . . . Compilado bajo la dirección de Raúl Prebisch. No 1, 1928. Buenos Aires, Establecimiento gráfico Luis L. Gotelli, 1928. 5 p. l., [v]-viii, 367, [12] p. tables, diagrs. 25 cm. [The Library has just received this first annual of the famous Argentine Rural Society. It is composed largely of tables and graphs covering the agricultural and economic life of the Republic for most of the twentieth century. The graphs are the work of Sr. Elías D. Ponzini.]

Política rural; (temas agro-zootécnicos). . . . [por] Juvenal José Pinto. . . . Prefacio do Dr. Ildefonso Simões Lopes. . . . Pôrto-Alegre, Oficinas gráficas da Livraria do Globo, Barcellos, Bertaso & cia., 1935. t. 1: 229, [1] p. pl. (port.) 19½ cm. [The author has long studied and worked in the agricultural field, especially in several agricultural experiment stations in Brazil. He pleads in this volume for the betterment of Brazilian agricultural conditions through improvements in cattle and crops, irrigation and soil development plans, and cooperation among agriculturists.]

El "Uti-possidetis juris" de 1810 y el derecho internacional americano [por] Pizarro Loureiro. . . . Rio de Janeiro, Tip. "Medicamenta", 1935. 16 p. 23½ cm. [A brief but interesting study of the important principle of *uti-possidetis* in American international law.]

Notas preliminares sobre algumas jazidas de minério de ouro do estado de Minas Gerais, por Djalma Guimarães e Victor Oppenheim. Rio de Janeiro [Diretoria de estatística da produção (Secção de publicidade)] 1934. 5 p. l., [5]-36 p. fold. diagrs. 23 cm. (Brasil. Departamento nacional da produção mineral. Serviço de fomento da produção mineral. Boletim No 1.)

Depositos diamantíferos no norte do estado de Minas Geraes, por Luciano Jacques de Moraes. Rio de Janeiro, 1934. 77 p. 13 plates, tables, 17 diagrs. 23 cm. (Brasil. Departamento nacional da produção mineral. Serviço de fomento da produção mineral. Boletim No 3.)

Rochas Gondwanicas e geologia do petroleo do Brasil meridional, por Victor Oppenheim. Com o "Mapa geologico do Brasil meridional" e "Carta das principais sondagens efetuadas no sul do Brasil, Uruguai, Argentina e Bolívia". Rio de Janeiro [Diretoria de estatística da produção (Secção de publicidade)] 1934. 1 p. l., viii, 129 p., 1 l. 32 plates, tables, 29 diagrs. (28 fold.), 3 fold. maps (1 col.) 23 cm. (Brasil. Departamento nacional da produção mineral. Serviço de fomento da produção mineral. Boletim No 5.)

Chumbo e prata no estado de São Paulo, por Othon Henry Leonardos. Rio de Janeiro [Typ. d'a encadernadora, S. A.] 1934. 3 p. l., 47 p. 12 plates, fold. diagr. 23 cm. (Brasil. Departamento nacional da produção mineral. Serviço de fomento da produção mineral. Boletim No 6.)

Prat [por] Luis Adán Molina. Santiago de Chile, Casa editora-imprenta "Artes y letras", 1935. 92 p. pl. (port.) 18½ cm. [Captain Arturo Prat, the hero of the battle of Iquique on May 21, 1879, has a worthy biographer in Sr. Molina, who dedicates the work to all Chilean naval students, since it is, he says, the life of Chile's greatest maritime hero.]

Biografía de D. Crescente Errázuriz [por] Carlos Fernández Freite. Prólogo de Francisco J. Cavada. . . . [Santiago de Chile] Editorial "Zig-Zag", 1935. 173 p. illus., ports. 18 cm. [Historian, man-of-letters, and beloved prelate of Santiago de Chile, Don Crescente's long life is reviewed here with full realization of his many accomplishments.]

Hijos ilustres de Chillán, por Domingo Amunátegui Solar. Santiago, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1935. 87, [2] p. 21½ cm. [The author includes among his "illustrious sons" San Bartolomé de Gamboa, Don Francisco Núñez

de Pineda y Bascañán, Padre Miguel de Olivares, Don Bernardo O'Higgins y Riquelme, Don José Antonio Rodríguez Alda, and General Lagos.

Ensayo de bibliografía de la literatura chilena, por Arturo Torres-Rioseco y Raúl Silva-Castro. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard university press, 1935. x, 71 p. 23½ cm. [The Harvard council on Hispano-American studies has now almost completed its series of bibliographies of Spanish-American literature. This latest contribution is made by two native sons of Chile, literary men in their own right.]

Don Andrés Bello [por] Eugenio Orrego Vicuña. [Santiago de Chile] Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1935. 285 p. plates, ports. 27¼ cm. [Don Eugenio Orrego Vicuña has written numerous works on history, criticism, travel, politics, socialism, and several dramas. The present work—a long biography and bibliography of Andrés Bello—is published by the University of Chile, as a monument to its founder and first president.]

La Universidad de Chile (1843-1934) [Santiago de Chile, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1934] xiv, 201, clviii, [iii] p. illus., port., tables. 27 cm. [A long history of the university (signed by Luis Galdames), a detailed study of its present organization, and numerous tables and photographs of the modern school buildings which house the university, make this an interesting and complete study.]

La patria vieja [por] Augusto Orrego Luco. Santiago, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1933-35. 2 v. 25 cm. [Probably the last work of Dr. Orrego Luco, this lengthy study covers the period in Chilean history from the end of the colonial era to the battle of Rancagua; that is, the brief first period of Chilean independence, known to Chileans as "La patria vieja." Dr. Orrego Luco, as noted in the BULLETIN for December, 1933, was a well-known physician, author, journalist, and statesman.]

Archivo nacional. Índice del Archivo colonial. . . . [Publicación del] Ministerio de gobierno—Sección cuarta. . . . Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1935. v. 1: 351 p., 1 l. 24½ cm. Contents: Tierras. [Following the recent removal of the national archives from the Capitol in Bogotá to the Palace of Justice, an index of the volumes relating to the colonial period was begun by Carlos Gil and Manuel María Herrera, of the Archives Office. The first volume of the index, on legal proceedings concerning property in all the States (which at that time included also Ecuador, Panama and Venezuela), covers 217 volumes of the archives.]

Los Estados Unidos y Europa en Hispano América; interpretación política y económica de la Doctrina Monroe, 1823-1933 . . . [por] Jorge Roa. . . . [Habana, Carasa y cía., 1935] xi p., 10 l., [3]-411 p. 19½ cm. Señor Roa, a professor in the University of Habana, studies the Monroe Doctrine from an impartial standpoint. His work at Columbia University, New York, led him to consider the question. He discusses the most important aspects of the international policy of the United States in the American continent, especially in its economic antecedents. A 35-page bibliography is appended.]

Guide to the history of Mexico; a modern interpretation [by] Alfonso Teja Zabre. Mexico, Press of the Ministry of foreign affairs, 1935. xii, 375 p. illus. 24 cm. [This work is based on the author's "Breve historia de México" (México, 1934) listed in the NOTES for November, 1934. The author devotes considerable space to the primitive Mexican cultures and the influence of these cultures, as infused with the Spanish, on nineteenth and twentieth century Mexico. Another feature is the Chronological Summary, consisting of some 30 pages. The bibliography covers 12 pages.]

Un siglo de relaciones internacionales de México (a través de los mensajes presidenciales). Con un prólogo por Genaro Estrada, Director del Archivo histórico

diplomático. México, Publicaciones de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores, 1935. xxvii, 464 p. 22½ em. (Archivo histórico diplomático mexicano. N° 39.) [This is a review of Mexico's foreign relations from presidential messages. Señor Estrada's introduction gives a brief outline of relations, as disclosed in the messages. President Domínguez' message in November 1823 is the first recorded here; President Rodríguez' in September 1934 the last.]

"*La Fundación de Trujillo.*" Recopilación de artículos y trabajos históricos sobre dicha fundación. [Publicación de la] Junta del cuarto centenario de la fundación de Trujillo. Trujillo [Imprenta comercial, S. A.] 1935. 3 p. l., [5]-232 p. plates, facsim. 24½ em. [There has been a question whether Trujillo, the Spanish city founded by Francisco Pizarro within the Incan empire, was founded in 1534 or 1535. In this volume the Trujillo quadricentennial commission attempts to compile all related historical data concerning the founding of the famous Peruvian city.]

Dos problemas internacionales de interés nacional: El río de La Plata y el mar territorial . . . [por el] Capitán de navío José Aguiar. Montevideo, Imprenta "El Siglo ilustrado", 1934. 175 p., 2 l. incl. 19 illus. (diagr., maps), 3 fold. maps. 25½ em. (Apartado de la "Revista del Instituto histórico y geográfico del Uruguay", Tomo X.) The question of territorial waters has always been important in international law. Captain Aguiar considers it from the general point of view, and notes the interest shown in it by the International Conferences of American States. This discussion is introductory to the more specific question of the La Plata river. The author quotes various sources as a background for his study, includes numerous old and new maps, and supplements the work with several appendices and a brief bibliography.]

Los relicarios (siluetas románticas en la vida del Libertador) [por] Alejandro Fernández García. Caracas, Tip. Universal [1935]. 2 p. l., xii, 110, cxxv p., 2 l. pl. (port.) 18½ em. [An interesting addition to Bolivariana, this volume of Sr. Fernández García contains sonnets on numerous persons who influenced Bolívar's life. The second part of the book is devoted to biographical notes, taken from various sources, concerning the persons to whom the author alludes in the poems.]

Ana cariná rote; orígenes del militarismo heroico en Venezuela, por el brigadier J. C. Terrero Monagas. Caracas, Editorial "Elite", lit. y tip. Vargas, 1933. 256 p. illus. (incl. ports.) 23½ em. ["Ana cariná rote" was the war-cry of the Carib Indians. It might be translated "We are the only ones". This book is a study of the military tactics of those famous Indians, who inhabited Florida, the Antilles, Colombia, Venezuela, and Brazil. Numerous old and new illustrations add to the interest of the work. A 2-page bibliography is appended.]

Ensayo crítico y antológico acerca de la historia de la literatura hispanoamericana, por el doctor C. Ayala Duarte . . . Caracas, Editorial Sur-América, 1933. 133, 138 p. Contents: Méjico y Centroamérica. [The greater part of this volume has been published in the "Anales de la Universidad central de Venezuela". The author has also written a history of Argentine literature (Caracas, 1928) and "Resumen histórico-crítico de la literatura hispanoamericana" (Caracas, 1927). The present study outlines the literature of Mexico and of the five Central American Republics from their beginnings to the present and includes many excerpts from the authors mentioned.]

La carta rogatoria o exhorto internacional ante las cortes norteamericanas [por] Guerra Everett . . . New York, Chalmers publishing co. [1935] 109 p. 23½ em. [Mr. Everett, who has been admitted to practice before the Supreme Court of the United States, the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, and the Supreme Court of New York State, is chief of the division of commercial laws, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, U. S. Department of Commerce. Rogatory letters form an important chapter in national and international actions.

They are used also for administrative, criminal and fiscal civil procedure. In view of this, Mr. Everett has prepared this study for the use of Spanish-speaking readers. He includes numerous letters representative of form and contents.]

The following list of magazines gives information regarding publications most of which are new or have been received for the first time:

Ciudad y turismo; arte, viajes, espectáculos, modas. Buenos Aires, 1935. Año I, N° 2, junio 1935. 64 p. illus., ports. 30½x23 cm. Monthly. Address: Florida 229, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Radio magazine (editado por Revista telegráfica). Buenos Aires, 1935. Año I, N° 1, 13 de junio 1935. 64 p. illus. 28½x20 cm. Semi-monthly. Editor: E. N. Packmann. Address: Perú 165, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Revista de educación; órgano de la Dirección general de escuelas. La Plata, 1935. Año LXXVI, N° 2 de 1935. 64 p. 24x17 cm. Address: Dirección general de escuelas de la provincia de Buenos Aires, La Plata, República Argentina.

Boletín del trabajo. La Paz, 1935. Año IV, N° 22, 1935. 34 p. 23x17 cm. Editor: Pablo Guillén, Director general del trabajo. Address: Dirección general del trabajo, La Paz, Bolivia. (Publication has been renewed after having been suspended for 4 years.)

Movimento bancario do Brasil—Banking—Mouvement des banques. Rio de Janeiro, 1935. N° 1, 31 março 1935. 7 p. tables. 25x32½ cm. Editor: Directoria de estatística economica e financeira, Ministerio da fazenda. Address: Rua Luiz de Camões, 68; Caixa postal, 315, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Elo fraternal; órgão official do nucleo "Vinculo internacional de amizade". Bahia, 1934. Anno II, N° 5, outubro de 1934. 26 p. illus. 23½x16½ cm. Quarterly. Editors: Couto Maciel, M. Souza Lellis, R. P. Barbosa. Address: Rua Luiz Gama, 18, Cidade do Salvador, Bahia, Brasil.

Syn-diké; revista dos bancarios. Publicação official do Sindicato de funcionarios bancarios. São Paulo, 1935. N° 1, anno I, maio de 1935. 60 p. tables (part fold.) 23x16 cm. Monthly. Editor: Walter Quaas. Address: Rua Libero Badaró, 43, 4°; Caixa postal 1099, São Paulo, Brasil.

Revista de ciencias penales. Santiago de Chile, 1935. Año I, Tomo I, N° 2, mayo-junio 1935. [150] p. 26½x19 cm. Bimonthly. Editor: Abraham Drapkin. Address: Dirección general de prisiones, Teatinos 86, Santiago de Chile.

Scientia; revista científica trimestral. Órgano de las escuelas de la Fundación Federico Santa María. Valparaíso, 1935. Año I, N° 4, 1° de julio de 1935. 32 p. illus., ports. 26½x19 cm. Address: Casilla N° 110-V, Valparaíso, Chile.

Revista de la Cámara de comercio, agricultura e industrias de Quito. Quito, 1935. Junio de 1935. 28 p. 29x19½ cm. Editors: Sr. Leopoldo N. Chávez y Sr. Rogerio Alvarado C. Address: Calle Venezuela N° 75, Quito, Ecuador.

La ciudad; revista mensual. Órgano del Departamento del D. F., publicada por la Dirección general de acción cívica. México, D. F., 1935. N° 1, junio de 1935. 49 p. illus. 27x20 cm. Address: Dirección general de acción cívica, Mercado "Abelardo L. Rodríguez", México, D. F., México.

Universal; revista femenina ilustrada. Lima, 1935. Año XII, N° 67, mayo de 1935. [78] p. illus., ports. 35½x25 cm. Monthly. Editor: Elisa Rodríguez Parra de García Rosell. Address: Calle Plateros de San Pedro 120, Lima, Perú. (This magazine suspended publication with the September-October 1930 issue and has just recommenced publication.)

The Traveling American. Washington, D. C., 1935. Volume I, N° 1, May, 1935. 32 p. illus., ports. 29½x22 cm. Monthly. Editor: Robert Burgess Draper. Address: 923 Fifteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.

Boletín histórico (del Estado Mayor General del Ejército). Montevideo, 1935. Año VI, N° 17, junio de 1935. 99 p. 24x16½ cm. Editor: Coronel Orosmán Vázquez Ledesma. Address: Estado Mayor General del Ejército, 18 de Julio 1717, Montevideo, Uruguay. (This is the publication of the Army Archives, formerly issued under the title "Boletín de informaciones".)

Boletín latino-americano de música. Montevideo, 1935. Tomo I, Año I. abril de 1935. 288 p. illus., plates, ports. 29x20 cm. Semiannual. Editor: Instituto de estudios superiores del Uruguay, Sección de investigaciones musicales. Director, Profesor Francisco Curt Lange. Address: Tacuarembó, 1291. Montevideo, Uruguay.

Orbe; periódico universitario. (Publicación del Centro universitario de relaciones internacionales, entidad bajo los auspicios de la Dotación Carnegie por la paz internacional). Montevideo, 1935. Año I, N° 1, mayo de 1935. 12 p. illus. (ports.) 38½x28 cm. Editor: Profesor J. P. Medina. Address: Casilla de correo N° 841, Montevideo, Uruguay.

Gaceta jurídica trimestral. San Cristóbal, Venezuela, 1935. Año II, N° 5, abril a junio, 1935. 85 p. 25x17 cm. Editors: Dr. Amadoro Rangel L., Dr. Luis Loreto, & Dr. Ángel Biaggini. Address: Apartado de correo N° 58. San Cristóbal, Estado Táchira, Venezuela.

Asia-América; a monthly illustrated journal devoted to industrial, commercial, cultural, and social affairs in the Asiatic and American continents. Printed in English, Spanish, Portuguese, and Japanese. Tokyo, 1935. Vol. I, N° 1, June. 1935. [98] p. illus., col. pl., ports. 30x22 cm. Editor: Dr. Carlos Rodríguez Jiménez, consul general for Venezuela in the Japanese Empire. Address: Hongo-Ku. Motomachi. Itehome, N/13/9. Tokyo, Japan.

Repertorio americano. San José, Costa Rica. (The editor having gone abroad, publication has been suspended for the second half of 1935. It will be renewed in January 1936.)



PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

NEW ARGENTINE-BRAZILIAN TREATIES

The sentiment of cordiality which found expression in the innumerable brilliant festivities and celebrations held in Buenos Aires when Dr. Getulio Vargas, President of Brazil, visited Argentina last May did not vanish with the echo of the last applause. On the contrary, it was given substance in a series of conventions and protocols which, added to those signed during the visit of President Justo to Brazil in 1933¹ form a series which regulates the manifold phases of the mutual relations of Argentina and Brazil; their commerce and navigation, the prevention of smuggling on their common frontier, the promotion of tourist travel, the interchange of books, the revision of history and geography texts, the regulation of extradition and air navigation, the establishment of permanent expositions of each other's products as well as annual expositions of fine and applied arts, the interchange of professors and students, and the measures to be adopted in the event of civil strife.

Treaty of commerce and navigation.—The most important of the instruments signed during the sojourn of President Vargas was the new treaty of commerce and navigation. It complements the provisions of the treaty of peace, amity, commerce and navigation of 1856 and particularly those of the commercial treaty and protocol signed at Rio de Janeiro in October, 1933. The latter provided for the appointment of a mixed commission to study those questions on which no decision had been reached at the time of President Justo's visit to Brazil and in general to examine the whole problem of the economic relations between Argentina and Brazil. The commission met at Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro; this treaty is the result of its labors.

According to a summary issued by the Argentine Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the treaty provides for unconditional most-favored-nation treatment with two exceptions: frontier traffic and custom unions. This treatment applies not only to custom duties but also to exchange control measures and to quotas and contingents. Should either country establish import quotas, they will not be less than the average of the imports during the three previous years. National treatment is granted to the vessels of either country, with the ex-

¹ For a summary of the treaties and conventions signed during President Justo's visit to Brazil see the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for January 1, 1934, pp. 39-49.

ceptions provided in their respective coastwise shipping laws. Nevertheless, both countries are to examine the possibility of extending each to the other the advantages and restrictions of their own coastwise navigation up to a specified limit on their respective coasts. The two nations have agreed to protect each other's products against unfair competition in their respective territories, especially by prohibiting the sale of products which bear marks giving false indications of their origin, kind, or quality.

The treaty contains special provisions with regard to maté, wheat, and wheat flour, the principal items in the trade between Brazil and Argentina. Brazil promises not to increase the duty on wheat and flour and not to impose quantitative limitations to their importation. Argentina in turn promises to abolish the surcharge on maté and likewise not to limit its importation.

Argentine fresh fruits, seed potatoes, and books and other publications will enter Brazil free of duty. Argentina grants free entry to Brazilian bananas, oranges, tangerines, avocados, *condé* fruits, pineapples, mangos, sapotes, coconuts, manioc meal, and books and other publications.

Brazil also grants reductions ranging from 20 to 60 percent on the duty now paid by many Argentine products, such as milk, lard, cheese, frozen poultry, beef, corn, preserved vegetables, wines, tomato paste, grape juice, potatoes, etc. The Argentine concessions include reductions of duty on such Brazilian products as coffee, cacao, rubber, coconut and other vegetable oils, and various kinds of wood.

The treaty will be in force for a year from the date of the exchange of ratifications.

Convention on civil strife.—This convention lays down the rules by which the authorities of Argentina or Brazil will be governed in the event of revolutionary activities in the other. It provides that the Government of the country in which public order is disturbed shall notify the Government of the other. Certain duties then devolve upon the notified country. It will adopt all measures at its disposal to prevent the inhabitants of its territory, both nationals and foreigners, from taking part in war preparations, obtaining war materials, or crossing the frontier to serve with the rebels. Likewise it will not permit the enlistment of sailors, soldiers or volunteers, and the equipment of vessels intended to operate in favor of the insurgents. It will disarm and intern any rebel force that crosses its frontiers and will return armed vessels owned by the other Government. It will forbid traffic in arms and munitions, except when intended for the other Government, and private traffic in transport and communication equipment when such material is obviously intended for the rebels. Upon request it will also intern, at a prudent distance from

the frontier, political émigrés who are conspiring against the other Government and will not allow them to establish juntas, committees, or clubs with that purpose. All expenses caused by internment will be borne by the complainant State. Both Governments will adopt all measures within their power to prevent their telegraphic, telephonic, and radio lines and stations, whether public or private, from being used for the benefit of the rebels.

Additional protocol to the extradition treaty.—The treaty of extradition signed at Rio de Janeiro on October 10, 1933, provided that the nationality of the fugitive could not be invoked as grounds for the denial of extradition, that is, Argentina could extradite from Brazil a Brazilian accused of a crime committed in Argentina, or vice versa. The constitution adopted by Brazil on July 16, 1934, however, forbids the extradition of Brazilian citizens on any grounds. The additional protocol signed at Buenos Aires last May takes cognizance of this prohibition and provides that: "The Contracting Parties are not obliged to deliver their respective nationals to each other or to consent to the transit through their territories of a national of one of them delivered to the other by a third State." In such a case the accused is tried by the tribunals of the country which denies his extradition. Naturalization after the commission of the crime for which extradition is asked does not constitute grounds for denial.

Convention for the interchange of professors and students.—Argentina and Brazil obligate themselves to promote an annual interchange of professors and scientists to lecture in the educational institutions and cultural centers of the other, as well as to accept the transfer of students registered in the secondary schools of one country to the schools of the other.

Protocol on the international bridge.—This protocol deals with the international bridge connecting the two countries which is to be constructed over the Uruguay River. The project took shape on June 15, 1934, when notes were exchanged between the two Governments providing for the appointment of a mixed commission to select the site, make the necessary preliminary surveys, draw up a plan of the project, and estimate its cost. The protocol provides that the bridge is to be erected in the zone between the towns of Paso de los Libres and Uruguayana, in accordance with the preliminary survey of the commission, and stipulates the manner in which the final surveys are to be made. The approaches to the bridge from the Brazilian and Argentine sides are to be constructed and maintained by the respective Governments separately. The bridge itself will be constructed and maintained by both Governments, each paying half the cost. Each country will exercise jurisdiction to the middle of the bridge; both Governments agree to secure from their respective legislatures the necessary appropriations for its construction.--G. A. S.

ARGENTINA SIGNS 15 CONVENTIONS WITH CHILE AND PERU

At a simple but solemn ceremony, attended by President Justo of Argentina, a series of bilateral conventions was signed on July 2, 1935, by the Argentine Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Carlos Saavedra Lamas, and his Peruvian and Chilean colleagues, Dr. Carlos Concha and Dr. Miguel Cruchaga Tocornal, who had gone to Buenos Aires for the signing of the protocols for the cessation of hostilities in the Chaco. Ten agreements were signed with Chile and five with Peru, as follows:

ARGENTINA-CHILE

Protocol on railway communications.—Perhaps the most important of the agreements signed between Argentina and Chile is the protocol providing for the appointment of a mixed commission to make the necessary studies for establishing transandine railway communication via Juncal and other points. The studies are to include economic as well as technical phases of the question. The commission is to recommend to the two Governments modifications in the Treaty of Commerce of June 3, 1933, having in mind the necessity of supplying the transandine railways with sufficient freight to insure continuous service. It will also study all measures which would increase the number of passengers using the services.

Convention on judicial requests (exhortos judiciales).—This convention expedites the carrying out of judicial requests (*exhortos judiciales*) addressed by competent authorities of one country to those of the other by omitting the formality of authenticating the signatures on such documents when the requests are transmitted through diplomatic channels.

Convention on counterfeit currency and public instruments.—The manufacture or circulation of counterfeit currency, lottery tickets, government bonds and other credit instruments of one country in the other will be punished in the same manner as if the offense had been committed against that country's own currency, bonds, etc.

Convention on motion picture censorship.—Each Government agrees to forbid within its territory the showing of motion picture films which the other Government considers injurious to its prestige and good name.

Convention on the exchange of official publications.—In the interest of better understanding between the two countries, each Government promises to enforce agreements already signed for the exchange of such publications as the official gazette, bulletins of laws and decrees issued, statistical reports, presidential messages, reports of the various ministries, university publications, and similar official documents.

Convention on intellectual interchange.—The two Governments will do everything within their power to promote the exchange of professors, students, and journalists. Every year they will try to have at least two university professors or journalists from each country visit the other to deliver lectures. The expenses connected with these visits will be paid by the Government of the country to which the respective professors, journalists, and students belong, except when a special invitation has been extended by the Government or by competent authorities of the other. Special facilities are to be granted for student visits or excursions so that young men and women may come into contact with organizations and other institutions devoted to feminine activities, social welfare, and the promotion of peace.

Convention on the traffic in narcotics.—Desiring to cooperate fully with the humanitarian work of the League of Nations in regard to the traffic in narcotics and taking into consideration the facilities for communication along their extensive common frontier, Argentina and Chile agree to adopt special measures which will enable them to suppress this traffic efficiently.

The police and health authorities of the two countries are to keep in contact so as to agree on measures to be taken and to suggest to the Governments the issue of new regulations whenever necessary.

Convention on expositions.—Argentina and Chile agree to grant all the facilities within their power for holding within their respective territories expositions of each other's artistic or industrial products. These facilities will be granted to public or private enterprises worthy of such aid, and will include concessions as regards customs formalities and requirements, transportation on Government railways, exhibit and warehouse space and other related matters.

Conventions on facilities for frontier traffic and on the issue and visa of certificates of origin.—The text of these two conventions was not made public at the time of signature. According to press reports, the first convention accords special facilities for the trade in commodities consumed within the frontier regions of each of the two countries. It also provides that within 6 months after the exchange of ratifications, regulations will be issued fixing the maximum value of the products to benefit by these facilities. The second provides for the free issue and visa of certificates of origin by one country for goods destined for the other.

ARGENTINA-PERU

Convention on the exchange of publications.—A Peruvian section is to be established in the National Library at Buenos Aires and an Argentine section opened in the National Library at Lima. For the installation of these sections each Government shall supply a comprehensive collection of books and thereafter the national libraries

at Buenos Aires and Lima shall exchange books published in their respective countries as well as copies or photographs of documents of historical interest. After January 1, 1936, each Government shall supply the diplomatic mission of the other in its capital with three copies of all official publications and of those published with government aid. An identical convention was signed between Argentina and Brazil on the occasion of President Justo's visit to Rio de Janeiro in October 1933.

Convention on civil strife.—This convention is identical with that signed between Argentina and Brazil on May 25 last (see page 791). Since Peru and Argentina are not contiguous, the provisions relating to the internment of political refugees and rebel forces which cross the boundary have been omitted.

Conventions on judicial requests, motion picture censorship and intellectual interchange.—These three conventions are analogous to those on the same subjects signed between Argentina and Chile (see pages 793 and 794).—G. A. S.

CHILE AND PERU STRENGTHEN THEIR FRIENDSHIP

The increasing friendliness between Chile and Peru since the settlement of their territorial problems was further strengthened on July 5, 1935, by the signing of six treaties at Santiago by the Chilean and Peruvian Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Miguel Cruclaga Tocornal and Dr. Carlos Concha, upon their return from the Chaco Mediation Commission meetings at Buenos Aires. President Alessandri of Chile attended the ceremony, to "give evidence once more of his desire and the sincere wish of the Government and the people of Chile to strengthen the ties of cordiality and affection which bind Chile to Peru." The six treaties deal with civil registration, counterfeit currency, motion picture censorship, the census, judicial requests, and intellectual interchange. Referring to them President Alessandri said: "These treaties, although modest in appearance, are highly significant for, just as roots bind trees closely to the soil and allow them to extract from it their life-giving nourishment, countries are bound together, are united, by ties originating in treaties and conventions which, like those just signed, concern various phases of the vital functions of the two nations."

The treaties on judicial requests, counterfeit currency, offensive films and intellectual interchange are analogous to the conventions on the same subjects signed by Chile and Argentina on July 2 (see pages 793 and 794). The treaty on civil registration provides that each Government is bound to report to the other any entry concerning nationals of the other country in their respective civil registers and to

renit the corresponding certificates every six months by diplomatic channels. Thus the marriage or the death of a Chilean citizen living in Peru, or the birth there of a child to Chilean parents, will be automatically reported to the Chilean authorities, and vice versa. The treaty on the census lays down the procedure to be followed in taking the population census in so far as statistics of nationals of one country living in the other are concerned.

On July 12, *El Mercurio*, of Santiago, announced that all those conventions and treaties signed with Argentina and Peru which did not require Congressional approval had been promulgated by Presidential decree and that the commercial *modus vivendi* with Peru was to be extended for three months from August 1, so that the commercial relations of the two countries would not be disturbed pending the ratification of the commercial treaty which is to open the way for a wider interchange of Peruvian and Chilean products.—G. A. S.

THE NEW CONSTITUTION OF CUBA

Signed by Provisional President Carlos Mendieta, the members of his Cabinet and the Council of State, a new constitution was promulgated in Cuba on June 12, 1935. Its enactment sets aside the provisional constitution of February 3, 1934,¹ and restores that of 1901, "without other modifications than those required by the necessity of embodying in it the objectives gained by the Revolution." The constitution of 1901, modeled after that of the United States and issued shortly after Cuba became an independent nation, was extensively amended in 1928 to permit President Machado to extend his term of office. With the overthrow of the Machado regime in August 1933, these amendments were abrogated by Provisional President Carlos Manuel de Céspedes and the constitution restored to its original form.² However, when the Céspedes regime was in turn overthrown in September 1933, the government headed by Dr. Grau San Martín issued a Statute for the Provisional Government of Cuba³ which, although it did not expressly set aside the old constitution, was subsequently interpreted by the Supreme Court as an implicit abrogation.⁴ Formal revocation of the constitution of 1901 came with the fall of the Grau regime on January 1934 and the enactment by the present Provisional Government of the constitutional law of February 3, 1934.⁵ Cuba was governed until March 8, 1935,

¹ For an analysis of the constitutional law of Feb. 3, 1934, see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, May, 1934, pp. 371-374.

² Decree No. 1298, August 21, 1933.

³ *Gaceta Oficial, Edición Extraordinaria*, No. 20, Sept. 14, 1933.

⁴ *Tribunal Supremo, Sentencia Núm. 2, Gaceta Oficial*, March 6, 1934.

⁵ *Gaceta Oficial, Edición Extraordinaria*, No. 19, Feb. 3, 1934.

under this statute and its subsequent amendments; then it was suspended as a result of revolutionary disturbances.⁶ Simultaneously with the restoration of the constitution of 1901, constitutional guarantees were reestablished throughout Cuba. General elections under the new constitution are scheduled to be held on December 15, 1935.⁷

The new constitution was issued at the request of the political parties. "Through this charter", states its foreword, "the people of Cuba are empowered to enact a broader fundamental law in accordance with their manifest aspirations toward renovation and the irresistible trend of thought of the times." That a fundamental constitutional revision is envisaged at a future date is also made evident by the fourth general provision of the constitution, which states that the new Senate and House of Representatives shall, within six months after they have convened, study, discuss, and approve a draft of reforms to the constitution in accordance with the provisions of Article 115. This article, identical with that of the constitution of 1901, provides that two-thirds of the members of each House must agree in order to amend the constitution totally or partially. The amendment voted by Congress is then submitted to a Constituent Assembly, the functions of which are restricted to the approval or disapproval of the proposal.

Probably the outstanding change in the constitution, as compared with that of 1901, is the new status granted to women. As was provided in the provisional constitution of 1934, women are granted the right to vote and Cuban women married to foreigners retain their Cuban citizenship. A foreign woman married to a Cuban is considered a Cuban citizen unless she chooses to retain her nationality of origin. (Art. 6, 7, and 39.)

With respect to international obligations, the new constitution states: "The Government shall respect and fulfill obligations of an international character lawfully contracted by previous governments, as well as all existing treaties in force." (General Provisions, No. 2.)

No death sentences will be carried out until Congress shall have decided, within six months after it meets, whether the death penalty is to be maintained or abolished. The legality of the decisions of the Sanctions Courts, which tried and sentenced to death many officials of the Machado regime, is however, specifically upheld in the constitution. (General Provisions, No. 5 and 7.)

A few changes have been made in the bill of rights. The provision that no law, except penal laws when they benefit the defendant, may be made retroactive, has been altered so that this exception shall not benefit persons who have committed electoral frauds or public servants who have violated the law in the exercise of their duties. Civil

⁶ *Gaceta Oficial, Edición Extraordinaria*, No. 14, March 8, 1935.

⁷ Electoral Code, Decree-Law No. 51, *Gaceta Oficial, Edición Extraordinaria*, No. 120, July 2, 1935.

laws, according to the new constitution, may be made retroactive for reasons of "social interest" or public order. An exception in cases of public necessity is made to the inviolability of obligations of a civil character arising out of contracts or other acts. In the article prohibiting the expatriation of Cubans provision is also made for the deportation of undesirable aliens residing in Cuba. To safeguard the guarantee that no law, decree, or order of any kind regulating constitutional rights will restrict these rights, a provision has been added that the Supreme Court shall decide upon the constitutionality of such laws or decrees upon petition by any citizen. Omitted from the bill of rights is the article of the provisional constitution of 1934 which puts responsibility for the consequences upon officers who use their weapons against prisoners attempting to escape. The constitution of 1901 stated that only invasion of the nation or serious disturbance of public order would authorize suspension of constitutional guarantees; to these the new one adds general strikes. However, a new safeguard has been provided by limiting to 90 days the period during which these guarantees may be suspended. (Art. 13, 14, 31, 38, and 41.)

A comparison of the chapter on the legislature with that of the 1901 constitution brings out an important modification in regard to the immunity of legislators and the right of Congress to declare amnesties, intended to remedy abuses which were common in the past. The old constitution provided (Art. 53) that a senator or representative could not be arrested or prosecuted except with the consent of Congress, unless caught *flagrante delicto*. The new one (Art. 54) limits this immunity to arrest and allows prosecution. It provides that when a judge or tribunal requests of the Senate or the House permission to arrest one of its members, this authority will be considered granted if not expressly refused within 30 days or if Congress adjourns without acting on the petition. Should the petition be denied, he will be prosecuted without depriving him of his liberty, unless he opposes the proceedings. Should judgment be rendered against him he will have to serve the sentence though it deprive him of his liberty. The modification in regard to amnesties is designed to prevent Congress from declaring a general amnesty after each election by suspending the penalties for violations of the electoral laws. The new constitution states (Art. 60, sec. 10) that Congress does not have the right to declare amnesty in cases of electoral frauds and it may be granted only to those who have served one third of their sentence in cases of other crimes committed in connection with elections or in cases of misapplication of public funds. Amnesties granted by former administrations were abrogated after the overthrow of the Machado regime, the legality of this abrogation being specifically upheld in the new constitution.

Age limits have been generally reduced: for President, from 40 to 33 years; for senators, from 35 to 30; for representatives, from 25 to 21; and for voters, from 21 to 20. Foreigners wishing to become naturalized citizens now need wait only one year instead of two between the declaration of intention and the granting of citizenship papers.

In the new constitution the term of office for President of the Republic is four years and no one may be re-elected. The constitution of 1901 provided for the same term of office and stated that "no one may be President for three consecutive terms". The reform made in 1928 extended the term of office to six years and stated that "no one may discharge the office of President in two consecutive terms." A temporary provision, however, stated that the first term under this amendment would begin in 1929, thus allowing the incumbent, who was the only candidate in the 1928 elections, to hold office for six more years.

The chapter dealing with the Vice-Presidency, an office which was abolished in 1928, is the same as that of the 1901 constitution. The chapters dealing with the cabinet and the provincial and municipal governments have also remained unchanged.

Until general elections are held for President, Vice-President, senators, representatives, governors, mayors, and provincial and municipal councils, the present Provisional Government will function under a set of special articles contained in the new constitution. The Provisional President, his Cabinet, and the Council of State, will function as a legislative body, the latter in an advisory capacity, and all laws will be promulgated by decree as before.—G. A. S.

THE NEW CONSTITUTION OF HAITI

Ratified by a plebiscite held June 2, 1935, the new constitution of Haiti went into effect upon publication on June 17, 1935. It was drafted by a special commission of the legislature and signed by nearly all the members of both houses, and takes the place of that issued in 1932.¹ At the same time that the people voted on the new constitution they ratified one of its special provisions extending the term of office of President Sténio Vincent for another five year term beginning May 15, 1936.

In comparing the new constitution with that of 1932, it will be noted that the provisions with regard to foreigners in Haiti have been modified. A foreigner who through naturalization becomes a Haitian citizen must now wait 10 years instead of 5 before he can exercise political rights. The right to own real property, granted to foreigners

¹ For an analysis of the Haitian constitution of 1932 see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, Feb., 1933, pp. 133-137.

and to foreign corporations domiciled in Haiti solely for purposes of domicile and the pursuit of agricultural, industrial, commercial or educational enterprises, expires one year, instead of two years, after the individual has left the country or the corporation discontinued operations. (Art. 5 and 8.)

To the principle that all Haitians are equal before the law the following proviso has been added: "Nevertheless, as far as the exercise of civil rights is concerned, the law may establish certain differences between native born Haitians and Haitians by naturalization." (Art. 6.)

The article which guarantees property rights to citizens and provides for just compensation when real property is expropriated in cases of public necessity has been kept in the new constitution with the following modification: "But property carries with it also certain obligations. Its use must be in the general interest. The owner of real property has, with respect to the community, the duty of cultivating and exploiting the soil. Sanction of this obligation is provided for by law." (Art. 7.)

Omitted from the new constitution are the sections of the old establishing the conditions under which arrests could be made; providing for the non-retroactivity of laws and the inviolability of domicile and correspondence; prohibiting the confiscation of property for political reasons; and granting the rights of assembly and association.

In the chapter dealing with government finances the provision prohibiting the establishment of privileges in regard to taxes and the granting of exemptions except by law has been omitted. No mention is made of the *Chambre des Comptes* established by the former constitution for the examination and settlement of administration accounts.

The provision that the legislative, executive, and judicial powers exercise their respective functions independently and separately has been omitted. Instead the new constitution states: "The Government of Haiti is republican and democratic. It functions through the executive power, directed by a President, the holder of the public power, under whose authority the various organs of the state function and who is assisted by the legislature and the judiciary." (Art. 14.)

THE LEGISLATIVE POWER

As before, the legislative power resides in the Chamber of Deputies, the Senate, and the National Assembly, made up of the two houses meeting together. There will be 37 deputies and 21 senators instead of 36 and 20 as provided in the constitution of 1932. The deputies, as formerly, will be elected by universal suffrage for a term of 4 years. Senators, however, will no longer be chosen by an electoral college. Ten of the twenty-one are to be appointed by the President of the

Republic, the other 11 by the Chamber of Deputies from two lists of three candidates for each seat, one submitted by the electoral colleges and the other by the Chief Executive. They will hold office, as formerly, for six years. Besides the requirements as to age, enjoyment of civil and political rights, and residence provided for deputies and senators in the old constitution the new demands also ownership of real property. Members of the Legislature may now become members of the Cabinet or be placed in charge of a temporary State mission abroad, their salaries as legislators ceasing while they hold such positions. The annual regular session of the legislature has been moved forward from the first Monday in April to January 15. The terms of the present members of the Legislature have been extended so that they will hold office through the year 1936. (Art. 15, 19 and 23.)

In cases of serious disagreement between the two houses or between the Legislature and the Executive Power, the President of the Republic has the right to dissolve the legislature. In that case elections are to be held three months later. In the interim the President may issue decrees having the force of law which are to be submitted to the new Legislature for ratification and will require a two-thirds adverse vote in each house for rejection. (Art. 20.)

The procedure to be followed when a law passed by the Legislature is vetoed by the President has been changed. He is no longer limited to a period of eight days in which to exercise his veto power. When he returns a law with a statement of his objections, the House which first passed it must within eight days ask the other House to meet in joint session as the National Assembly and pass upon the objections. If the objections are not upheld and the President insists, the law will be submitted for final action to the National Assembly at the beginning of the next ordinary session. Previously, if the objections were rejected by a two-thirds vote in each house the President was compelled to sign the law. (Art. 24.)

The provision of the 1932 constitution by which no monopoly concessions could be made without the approval of the Legislature has been omitted.

The National Assembly no longer has the power to elect the President or declare war, and its right to revise the constitution has been modified. At the close of each ordinary session the National Assembly will appoint a permanent committee of eleven members—six deputies and five senators—approved by the President to help him draft the decrees issued between sessions. (Art. 30.)

EXECUTIVE POWER

The executive power is exercised by the President of the Republic "who personifies the nation." (Art. 31.) His term of office is now five years instead of six, but he may be reelected for another

consecutive term; such reelection was forbidden by the constitution of 1932. No one may be elected President who has held that office for two terms.

The qualifications for President are the same, except that he is now required to own real property, and he must be at least 40 years old instead of 35. (Art. 32.)

Whereas formerly the President was elected by the National Assembly under the new constitution, the Assembly's role is now limited to designating three candidates from among those who have indicated by registered mail their interest in assuming the office. The people then choose one of these three candidates through the primary electoral assemblies in each commune. (Art. 38.)

The powers of the Executive as outlined in the new constitution are as follows: (Art. 35.)

The President of the Republic is in charge of the supreme administration of the country.

(a) He is the commander-in-chief of the land, sea, and air forces; he executes and enforces the laws and the constitution, issuing decrees, decisions, regulations and orders to this effect.

(b) He appoints and removes the employees and officials who form part of the general administration.

(c) He calls the Legislature in extraordinary session.

(d) He may, if political or other circumstances so require, postpone the normal date for legislative elections three months or more, in which case senators and deputies remain in office until the newly elected Houses meet.

(e) He declares wars and makes peace with the authorization of the National Assembly.

(f) He negotiates conventions and international treaties.

(g) He decides upon all interior loans in case the revenues of the State are obviously insufficient or when he considers certain political or economic circumstances in the life of the State to be of such a nature as to disturb the public peace, giving the Legislature an account of his application at its next session.

(h) He declares a state of siege when necessary.

(i) He exercises supreme command over the police and has the right to pardon and commute sentences.

(j) He grants all amnesties.

The President is no longer obliged to discuss with the Secretaries of State, as the members of the Cabinet are called, the measures which he enacts in the exercise of his powers. Members of the Cabinet continue to be responsible for the acts of their own departments and the nonexecution of laws but not as formerly for decrees or other measures signed by the President and countersigned by them, a responsibility which previously not even a written order from the Chief Executive could relieve them of. The number and powers of the Secretaries of State are to be fixed by law; the former constitution provided that they could not be less than five. The right previously granted to the Legislature of summoning the members of the Cabinet and questioning them upon the acts of their administration is not mentioned. (Arts. 40 and 41.)

THE JUDICIAL POWER

Justice is rendered by a Court of Cassation, civil courts and peace courts, the number and powers of which are fixed by law. (Art. 42.) Judges, as previously, are appointed by the Executive, the term of office of those of the civil courts being reduced from 10 to 7 years. Judges of the Court of Cassation and the civil courts, as provided in previous constitutions, cannot be removed during their term of office except for the commission of crime. A transitory provision, however, stipulates that the President may, in the interest of justice, suspend this privilege for a period of six months beginning May 15, 1936. Among the articles of the old constitution which have been omitted are those providing that all disputes involving civil rights and, with certain exceptions established by law, political rights also, are under the exclusive jurisdiction of the courts and that no court and no jurisdiction for the settlement of disputes can be established except by virtue of law.

The new constitution provides for a special tribunal, composed of the president of the Court of Cassation, the president of the Senate, and the president of the Chamber of Deputies, to try the President of the Republic, the members of the Cabinet and the members of the Court of Cassation for treason or other crimes committed in the exercise of their duties.

This court functions upon an accusation supported by two thirds of the Senate and can apply only the penalty of forfeiture, removal from office, and suspension of the right to hold public office for no less than a year and no more than five. Previously the right to try government officials was exercised by the Senate upon impeachment by the Chamber of Deputies. (Art. 14.)

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

The communes of Haiti, which the former constitution declared autonomous, have been placed under the direct control of the Executive. Local government is exercised by three citizens elected by an assembly formed exclusively of taxpayers. One of these three officials is selected by the President to hold the office of Communal Magistrate for a term of four years. (Arts. 45 and 46.)

REVISION OF THE CONSTITUTION

The method of revising the constitution has been changed. The Legislature, upon the initiative of either house or of the Executive, declares, during an ordinary session, that the constitution should be revised partially or totally. At the end of the ordinary session the Legislature meets as the National Assembly in extraordinary session and deals exclusively with the proposed revision. Once the revision has been enacted, the Executive submits it within three months to the people for ratification and, if approved, it is proclaimed in a special

session, by the National Assembly. Under the former constitution, amendments enacted by the National Assembly were valid without popular ratification. (Art. 55.)—G. A. S.

MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT OF CHILE

At the opening of the regular session of the Chilean National Congress on May 21, 1935, President Arturo Alessandri read a lengthy message giving a detailed report on the events of the past fiscal year, a document of "great importance, broad in its judgment and duly supported by statistical data", as *El Mercurio* of Santiago describes it, adding that there is a good deal in it "which will surprise many of our own nationals, affording them a clearer view of our present conditions, at the same time that it will cause a favorable impression and inspire confidence abroad."

The nation has rapidly returned to constitutional government. The people freely exercised their civil rights in electing the President of the Republic, their representatives in Congress, and, not very long ago, their city councils. The municipal elections marked the first time that women and foreigners have voted in Chile. "Public opinion, desirous of peace, quiet, order and respect for our institutions", the President remarked, "is a strong intangible force that has supported the Government in its endeavors."

The fiscal year for 1934 closed with an actual surplus of 62,108,-253.73 pesos. Notwithstanding the countless difficulties which had to be overcome, the administration successfully launched a public works program; paid bills due to the amount of several hundred million pesos; arranged for resumption of the foreign debt service to the extent present conditions permit; solved the unemployment problem; maintained and improved administrative machinery; and did its best to improve the lot of public employees. The message contained assurance that no additional tax burdens would be imposed, pointing to the fact that steps had been taken to eliminate some of the existing taxes.

Banks showed an increase of 18.35 percent in their deposits during the year, with a corresponding rise in bank advances, loans, discount operations, etc. Insurance companies and corporations increased their net profits by 4.5 percent. Revenues disclosed in connection with payment of the excess profits tax showed an increase of 377,000,-000 pesos, or 33.68 percent over those of the preceding year. Agriculture and mining have had a decidedly better year, while the building trades have been extraordinarily active not only in the cities but also in the rural communities. Chilean exports were valued at 496,000,000 pesos in 1934, as compared with 290,000,000 in 1932 and 344,000,000 in 1933. The improvement in the purchasing power of

the nation is revealed by the imports, which rose in value from 182,000,000 pesos in 1933 to 243,000,000 in 1934.

Outstanding among the items mentioned in the review of Chilean foreign affairs were: the maintenance of friendly relations with all the world, but particularly with the sister republics of this continent; the observance of strict neutrality in the Chaco conflict, and the efforts made, in collaboration with other American countries, to arrive at a satisfactory solution of the problem; the international economic policy, "applied wisely and intelligently", which has brought about a number of important trade treaties with nations of both the Old World and the New; and the ratification of numerous international conventions, especially those signed at the Seventh International Conference of American States, held at Montevideo, regarding extradition, nationality, rights and duties of States, asylum for political exiles, nationality of women, and the additional protocol to the General Convention on Inter-American Conciliation.—F. J. H.

DR. ROBERTO BERRO, NEW DIRECTOR OF THE INTERNATIONAL AMERICAN INSTITUTE FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDHOOD

At a recent meeting of the International Council of the International American Institute for the Protection of Childhood of Montevideo, Dr. Roberto Berro of that city was elected to succeed the late Dr. Luis Morquino as director of the institute.

Dr. Berro comes to his new office well qualified by years of experience in the fields of child health and child welfare, not only in Uruguay, but in international associations as well. In the past he has served as president of the Pediatric Society of Montevideo, as Chairman of the Council of the Child, and as head of the Asilo Larrañaga, an institution for children in the Uruguayan capital. Dr. Berro also played a prominent part in drafting the new Children's Code of Uruguay. He has attended as a delegate past Pan American Child Congresses, and from its foundation been actively interested in the establishment and development of the organization of which he is now the director.

SOUTH AMERICAN UNION OF ENGINEERS' ASSOCIATIONS

On May 23 and 24, 1935, representatives of engineers' associations of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Peru, and Uruguay met in Buenos Aires to organize an international society with which, it was hoped, national institutions in other South American countries would become affiliated.

The formation of such an organization was the suggestion of Señor Francisco Marseillán of the Centro Nacional de Ingenieros of

Buenos Aires. The proposal was unanimously approved, and the national associations of the four countries represented at the meeting were invited to send representatives to a constituent conference.

The purposes of the South American Union of Engineers' Associations, as given in the constitution adopted at that time, include the organization of international congresses of engineers; the encouragement of visits of engineers, singly or in groups, of one country to another, the interchange of professors, lecturers, and engineers between universities, schools, and professional associations, and the formation of personal ties between engineers of the different countries; the exchange of reports between professional associations and of technical, professional, commercial, or personal material between their members, individually or collectively; the passage of legislation fair to the profession, and the application of codes of professional ethics; the study of technical problems affecting more than one of the countries represented, as well as public works projects and economic subjects of an international character; the representation of member institutions at international congresses or before governments; and the furtherance of peace and understanding between nations.

The executive committee elected for the new institution was as follows: president, Señor Francisco Marseillán of Argentina; vice president, Señor Francisco Saturnino de Brito Filho of Brazil; secretary, Señor José L. Buzetti of Uruguay; members, Señor Francisco Mardones of Chile and Señor José Balta of Peru. The headquarters of the union are in Buenos Aires, at the Centro Nacional de Ingenieros. The first convention of the union will be held in Montevideo at a date to be decided upon by the executive committee.

ARGENTINE SCHOOL OF JOURNALISM OPENED

On June 14, 1935, the Argentine School of Journalism at the National University of La Plata was opened with exercises attended by the president of the university, Dr. Ricardo Levene, members of the Journalists' Circle of the Province of Buenos Aires, members of the university, and the general public. Dr. Manuel M. Eliçabe, director of the school, made the inaugural address.

Shortly after the establishment of the school was announced, *La Prensa* of Buenos Aires commented editorially upon the fact in its issue of May 24. Part of the editorial is as follows:

"Early last year, at the instance of the Journalists' Circle of La Plata and under the auspices of the university there, courses in journalism were introduced. The lectures and the classes in theory and practice proved that the subject was of interest not only to those planning to follow a newspaper career, but also to those already engaged in that profession. The results of the experiment led the superior uni-

versity council to create a school of journalism, with a curriculum distinct from the courses of other institutes connected with the University of La Plata. The new school will not, for the present, occasion any expense to the institution which has founded it, since students will attend some classes at the College of Liberal Arts and others held at the Journalists' Circle and given by members of that organization. The students will not be granted diplomas from the university at the conclusion of their studies, but will receive certificates showing the subjects they have studied. . . .

"This foundation, which will be called the Argentine School of Journalism and which will be the first of its kind in South America, has the double advantage of proving that our university is taking an interest in newspaper activities and at the same time of being a new expression of the always laudable cooperation of a professional organization—such as the Journalists' Circle of La Plata—in the education and social work carried on by the university. . . ."

THE COMPULSORY INSURANCE FUND OF CHILE

Compulsory illness, disability, and accident insurance was first established in Chile by law no. 4054 of September 8, 1925, for all low-salaried working men and women, the cost to be borne by contributions from State, employer, and employee. The law also provided for the creation of the Compulsory Insurance Fund (*Caja de Seguro Obligatorio*), which was to receive the contributions and provide for the insured both medical attention and funds for the family while the breadwinner was incapacitated. The Caja, established in June 1925, has 10 years of excellent service to its credit. The law has been somewhat changed during this period; at present labor accident insurance is handled separately, and old age pensions are administered by the Caja.

At first the Caja worked with the National Savings Bank and the Public Welfare Bureau. In 1928 the latter was given entire charge of the medical services, and those of inspection were placed under the Ministry of Labor. The results were not satisfactory, and in January 1932 the Caja was reorganized and took direct charge of all services, opening offices of its own throughout the country. At present it has polyclinics in all important cities and towns, medical aid stations in the larger rural centers, and contracts with all hospitals for the admittance of seriously ill patients.

MEDICAL SERVICES

In the cities the Caja has established clinics, where the work of the doctors is divided into three sections: admittance and emergency

treatment; diagnosis; and treatment and the granting of disability certificates. This system keeps the amount of feigned illness to a minimum and gives the best possible diagnostic service.

The problem in rural districts is more difficult, owing to the scattered population, the lack of means of transportation, and the relatively limited resources of the Caja for this service. Medical patrols (*rondas médicas*) have been established; each doctor has a definite route and visits at regular intervals the consultation clinics and rural stations, at each of which there is an interne (*practicante*) or a resident nurse who fills prescriptions, gives treatments, and makes the rounds in the unavoidable absence of the physician. At present the Caja has established 128 consultation clinics, 218 stations (*postas*), 79 rural medical stations, and 2 sanatoriums. Since 1932 it has established special services in 17 cities, ambulance service in 7, and 38 stationary and 50 traveling pharmacies.

INVESTMENT POLICIES

The investment of the large sums which are paid into the Caja has been made according to three criteria: security, adequate return, and benefit to society. With these ends in view the Caja has bought rural property, where it not only gives work to many otherwise unemployed, but is experimenting with plants and crops to enlarge the national resources; it has invested in some industrial enterprises already established, such as the Laboratorio Chile, which manufactures drugs and other medical supplies, and helped establish others, among them the National Bag Factory (see BULLETIN for February 1935); in several cities it has opened clothing shops, where low-salaried workers and their families may purchase suitable clothing at prices within their means; and it has begun low-cost housing developments. Seven hundred houses have been constructed in what is known as "Lo Franco", near Santiago; four apartment houses are to be built in Santiago as soon as the census has been taken in the industrial districts; and a program has been drawn up for the construction of 4,350 houses, with their attendant community centers, in 14 cities, at an estimated cost of 76,000,000 pesos.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON INTER-AMERICAN INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION APPOINTED IN THE UNITED STATES

A national committee to cooperate with the Division of Technical and Scientific Exchange of the Pan American Union was recently established and its 19 members appointed by the Secretary of State, under the chairmanship of Mr. John W. Studebaker, Commissioner of Education in the Department of the Interior. This action was taken

in fulfillment of the terms of resolutions adopted by the Seventh International Conference of American States meeting in Montevideo in December 1933.

The committee, which expects to hold its first meeting in October, is as follows:

Mr. JOHN W. STUDEBAKER, *chairman*, United States Commissioner of Education.

Dr. FRANK AYDELOTTE, president of Swarthmore College.

Dr. ALBERT L. BARROWS, secretary, National Research Council.

Dr. HARRY Y. BENEDICT, president of the University of Texas.

Dr. ISALAH BOWMAN, director of the American Geographical Society.

Mr. LAURENCE VAIL COLEMAN, secretary, American Association of Museums.

Dr. STEPHEN P. DUGGAN, director of the Institute of International Education.

Dr. CARLTON J. H. HAYES, professor of history at Columbia University.

Mr. CECIL K. JONES, assistant cataloguer of the Library of Congress and professor of Spanish American literature.

Dr. JOHN C. MERRIAM, president of the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

Dr. W. COLEMAN NEVILS, S. J., rector, Loyola School and Regis High School.

Mr. RAYE R. PLATT, secretary of the American Geographical Society.

Dr. J. A. ROBERTSON, editor, *Hispanic-American Historical Review*; Archivist of the State of Maryland.

Dr. JAMES BROWN SCOTT, director of the Division of International Law of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

Dr. ROBERT G. SPROUL, president of the University of California.

Dr. JOHN J. TIGERT, president of the University of Florida.

Dr. EDMUND A. WALSH, S. J., vice president, Georgetown University.

Mr. HENRY B. WARD, American Association for the Advancement of Science.

Dr. MARY W. WILLIAMS, professor of history at Goucher College.

ELECTRICITY CENSUS IN ARGENTINA

The importance of the electric power industry in Argentina is revealed in the first official figures released by the Ministry of Agriculture. The compilation of the data was undertaken pursuant to a decree of February 2, 1934; the information obtained refers therefore to 1933. The information was obtained from 471 companies, which supplied electricity to 797 communities from 783 distributing plants. Only commercial plants were included in the investigation; therefore the figures released by the Government do not include industrial enterprises producing energy for their own use, even though some of that energy may also be supplied to their employees' dwellings.

The figures have been summarized as follows:

Capital invested paper pesos	1, 012, 158, 826. 04
Energy produced kwh	1, 673, 133, 015
Value of electricity sold paper pesos	176, 892, 923. 59
Cost of fuel consumed paper pesos	18, 725, 563. 25
Wages and salaries paper pesos	30, 383, 412. 66
Persons employed number	13, 833

ARGENTINE TRIBUTE TO THE MEMORY OF SAMUEL F. B. MORSE

A bronze statue of Samuel F. B. Morse, placed in the "Hall of Foreigners" of the Central Post Office and Telegraphs Building, was unveiled on July 3, 1935 by President Agustín P. Justo. The speakers included Señor Faustino E. Juárez, chairman of the committee in charge of the tribute, which had been made possible by voluntary contributions from telegraph operators throughout the nation; Dr. Carlos Risso Domínguez, the Postmaster General, who accepted the statue on behalf of the Post Office Department; the Hon. Alexander W. Weddell, United States Ambassador to Argentina; and Señor Anacleto M. Rodríguez, a telegraph operator in the central office. At the appointed moment of unveiling, all telegraphic and wireless communication throughout the country was suspended for one minute.

CONVENTION OF THE NATIONAL FOREIGN TRADE COUNCIL

The National Foreign Trade Council will hold this year's sessions in Dallas, Texas, on November 18-19-20. Preparations are now in progress for making this Convention one of the largest and most important in the history of the organization. Hundreds of business men from all parts of the United States and representatives of foreign interests are expected to be present. A general review of business conditions throughout Latin America as well as in other nations of the world will form a feature of the meetings. Diplomats, foreign representatives, members of the United States Foreign Service and leaders in commerce and industry are to take part in the proceedings. The meeting in Dallas will be the twenty-second annual conference of the National Foreign Trade Council, which holds its sessions in a different city of the United States each year.

THE COLOMBIAN-PERUVIAN PROTOCOL RATIFIED

The Protocol of Peace, Friendship, and Cooperation and its additional act, signed by representatives of Colombia and Peru in Rio de Janeiro on May 24, 1934 for the settlement of the Leticia incident, has been ratified by both countries. The protocol provided that "the exchange of the instruments of ratification . . . shall be effected within the shortest time possible, before December 31st of the current year." The Peruvian Congress approved the protocol on November 3, 1934, but owing to parliamentary difficulties the

Colombian Congress was unable to ratify it within the period originally set. A joint statement issued on February 23, 1935, by the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of both countries announced that the time limit had been extended to November 30, 1935. On September 20, 1935, it was signed by President López of Colombia, having been approved by the Senate on August 24 and by the House on September 17. On the same day the Government of Colombia notified that of Peru that the protocol had been ratified, and congratulatory telegrams were exchanged between Government officials. Exchange of ratifications took place in Bogotá on September 27.

The protocol recognizes the boundary treaty signed between the two countries on March 24, 1922 and ratified on January 23, 1928; provides for the demilitarization of the frontier; and stipulates that whenever problems arise which cannot be settled through direct diplomatic negotiations, "either of the High Contracting Parties may appeal to the procedure established by article 36 of the statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice."



BRIEF NOTES

STATUE TO BOLÍVAR IN QUITO

On July 24, 1935, the 152nd anniversary of the birth of Simón Bolívar, the Liberator, a monumental statue to his memory was dedicated in Quito. The United States was represented at the ceremonies by its Minister to Ecuador, the Hon. Antonio C. González, who had been especially appointed his country's delegate on that occasion.

ARGENTINE-BRAZILIAN GOODWILL CRUISES

According to a statement in *The Times of Argentina*, two cruises to Brazil, to start in early July, were being organized to return a recent visit of Brazilian tourists to Buenos Aires. The first was to be gone 30 days, and visit Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, and Poços de Caldas. The second was to call at Santos and Montevideo on the return journey. The organizers invited 10 children from the Estados Unidos del Brasil School in Buenos Aires to be their guests on the trip.

POPULATION OF THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

On August 16, 1935, President Trujillo issued a proclamation containing the official population figures for the Dominican Republic as of May 13 of this year, when the national census was taken. On that date the Republic had 1,478,121 inhabitants.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF HISTORIC MONUMENTS FORMED IN CHILE

On June 18, 1935, the National Council of Historic Monuments held its first meeting in the office of the Minister of Education in Santiago, Chile. The Minister, Señor Osvaldo Vial, presided at the meeting. Señor Aníbal Baseañán V. was elected secretary of the council, and it was decided that it would hold weekly meetings in the law school of the University of Chile. The other members of the council, as announced in the Santiago press, are Señor Aureliano Oyarzún, director of the National Historical Museum; Señor Teodoro Schmidt, Director General of Public Works; Señor Ricardo Donoso, counsellor of the National Archives; Señor Rodolfo Oyarzún, president of the Institute of Architects; Col. Manuel Campos, representing the army; Admiral Javier Martín, retired, representing the navy; Señor Richon Brunnet; Señorita Ana Lagarrigue; Señor Daniel Schweitzer; Señor Agustín Edwards M. C.; Señor Alberto Mackenna; and Señor Fernando Márquez de la Plata.

CUSTOMS AIRDROMES IN VENEZUELA

According to information sent by the Government of Venezuela on June 27, 1935, to the International Commission for Air Navigation, the customs airdromes of that Republic are situated at La Guaira, Maracaibo, Ciudad Bolívar, Caripito, Coro, and Cumarebo.

FIRST RADIO LIGHTHOUSE IN ARGENTINA

The first radio lighthouse in Argentina was recently installed at Punta Mogotes, a cape on the south Atlantic near Mar del Plata. It was constructed in the shops of the Naval Communications Service and embodies the most modern features. Its use overcomes the difficulties presented by optical or acoustical beacons in foggy weather.

WORK ON INTERNATIONAL RAILWAY BEGUN AT AUGUSTA VICTORIA, CHILE

On June 7, 1935, at a ceremony attended by Chilean and Argentine officials, the Minister of Promotion of Chile laid the first rail on the long-planned international railway which will link the Chilean port of Antofagasta with the city of Salta in northern Argentina. The railway will be 523 miles long, 206 of which will be in Chile. By using lines already constructed to Augusta Victoria, 96 miles inland, only 110 miles will have to be built to connect that point with the pass at the foot of Mount Soconpa where the railway will cross the boundary.

NECROLOGY

DANIEL SALAMANCA.—One of the outstanding figures in recent Bolivian history, former President Salamanca, died on July 17, 1935.

Dr. Salamanca was born in Cochabamba on July 18, 1863, and educated in that city, receiving his law degree from the University of San Simón in 1890. After several years of law practice and teaching, he was elected deputy in 1901 and 1902, and the following year was appointed Minister of the Treasury. For the next 18 years he was a member of the Senate. During that period he helped found the Republican Party, of which he was elected chairman in 1912. In March, 1931, he was inaugurated President of Bolivia, taking over the executive power from the Military Junta which had been administering the affairs of the nation for eight months. Last November ill health obliged him to resign, and he was living in retirement at his home near Cochabamba when he died.

Dr. Salamanca had been a member of special missions that visited the United States and Europe in 1910, and in 1928 represented Bolivia in discussions of the Chaco problem held in Buenos Aires.

RINALDO DE LIMA E SILVA.—A former member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, Senhor Rinaldo de Lima e Silva, died on August 2, 1935, in Brussels, where he was representing his country as Ambassador.

Senhor Lima e Silva's long diplomatic career began in 1896, with his appointment as attaché of the Brazilian Legation in Vienna. After service in Europe, Asia, and America, he was made Counselor of the Embassy in Washington in 1909, and as Chargé d'Affaires of his country and consequently member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, represented his country at the dedication of the present building of the Union on April 26, 1910. After serving as Minister of Brazil in Ecuador, Bolivia, Switzerland, Poland, and Spain, and as Ambassador in Japan and Mexico, he was appointed Ambassador to the United States, and in April 1931 presented his letters of credence at the White House. During the three years he was in Washington he was instrumental in negotiating the agreement between his Government and the Federal Grain Stabilization Corporation of the United States whereby 1,050,000 bags of coffee were exchanged for 25,000,000 bushels of wheat.

LUIS MORQUIO.—One of the most eminent physicians and pediatricians of America, Dr. Luis Morquio of Uruguay, died in Montevideo on July 8, 1935, in his 68th year.

After receiving his medical degree in 1892, Dr. Morquio went to Paris, where for two years he studied under leading authorities, especially in the field of pathology. On his return he opened and took charge of the Children's Clinic at Montevideo, becoming increas-

ingly known for his interest in child welfare, which found expression in a series of reform measure for protecting children. He received recognition and honor at home and abroad, but his most enduring monument is the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, established in compliance with resolutions passed by the Fourth Pan American Child Congress at Santiago, Chile, in 1924. In recognition of his efforts on behalf of the institute, Dr. Morquio was appointed its first director, a position he held at the time of his death; under his able leadership the influence of the organization was a constructive force in child welfare activities throughout the continent.

JULIO PHILLIPI.—On June 26 Julio Phillipi, a Chilean lawyer, professor, and statesman, died in Santiago. Señor Phillippi had served as Minister of the Treasury under President Ibáñez and represented his country at the Third and Fourth International Conference of American States, held in Rio de Janeiro in 1906 and in Buenos Aires in 1910 respectively, and at the Second Pan American Scientific Congress of 1915-16, held in Washington. Señor Phillipi drafted the bill establishing the Central Bank of Chile, and at one time was Superintendent of Banks.

LUIS VÉLEZ.—On May 6, 1935, Dr. Luis Vélez died in Caracas. Dr. Vélez, well-known as an engineer and as a statesman, had held for some time before his death the portfolio of Public Works in the Venezuelan Cabinet. He was known and esteemed in his profession abroad as well as at home; at the time of his death he was president of the Academy of Physical and Natural Sciences and Mathematics, and corresponding member of the American Society of Civil Engineers.

CALIXTO OYUELA.—The president of the Argentine Academy of Letters, Dr. Calixto Oyuela, died in Buenos Aires on June 12, 1935, in his 79th year. The outstanding humanist of his time, Dr. Oyuela exercised a profound influence as a teacher and as a writer. After graduating from the university, where he studied both humanities and law, he taught Spanish literature, philosophy, and aesthetics in secondary and normal schools and in the university. As a writer, Dr. Oyuela was noted for the classic purity of his style, as shown in his essays and poetry; he was also the author of textbooks and translations.

JAVIER VIAL SOLAR.—A figure long prominent in the public life of Chile disappeared with the death on June 1, 1935, of Javier Vial Solar, at the age of 81. Dr. Vial Solar, a graduate of the law school of the University of Chile, began his public career as secretary of the arbitration commission which settled the German claims arising from the War of the Pacific. He entered Congress as national deputy in 1889, and later served his country as its Minister in Lima and in Rio de Janeiro. Dr. Vial Solar was also the author of many important historical and international studies.



