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THE PLAIN OF BOGOTÁ

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General* PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

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

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

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

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

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

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

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

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

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



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ILLUSTRATION at side: GALLERY OF HEROES, PAN AMERICAN UNION





Photograph by Osuna

INTERIOR OF CHURCH AT TAXCO

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BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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MARCH 1942

Church Organs in Colonial Mexico

PÁL KELEMEN

THE expanding facilities of travel and communication are opening more and more remote parts of Latin America to the visitor, and an unexpected pageant of natural and cultural beauties is unfolding before him. Mexico is declared by many, not only from the Western Hemisphere but from the entire world, to be one of the most fascinating countries on earth; this writer, after repeated visits, can well understand such enthusiasm. But so great is the variety of important artistic remains there that the average traveler seldom gets beyond what strikes his eye and leaves countless treasures of the prehistoric past

As readers of the author's authoritative and enthralling paper on "Colonial Architecture in Guatemala" in the August 1941 issue of the BULLETIN will recall, he is a widely known art historian who turned some years ago from the study of early Christian art to the esthetic aspects of pre-Columbian and Colonial America. He has made several survey trips into the various areas of Latin America, to collect first-hand material for his forthcoming book on ancient American art.

The illustrations in this article, when not otherwise acknowledged, were furnished through the very courteous cooperation of Jorge Enciso, Director of Colonial Monuments of Mexico. The musicological notes were assembled by Elisabeth Kelemen.

and the Colonial era unnoticed, hidden behind the veil of his ignorance.

In the past fifteen years, Mexico has accomplished a most praiseworthy task in cataloguing the great ruins of its pre-Columbian civilization and the relics of its Colonial centuries. Under the able and farsighted leadership of Dr. Alfonso Caso, the Instituto Nacional de Antropología e Historia has undertaken to make photographs and collect data in preparation for a comprehensive series of publications, a project now in part effected. This Institute, modern in method and apparatus, receives the visiting scholar with courtesy and cooperation. The corpus of pictures which has been accumulated discloses an unimaginable wealth in architecture, sculpture, painting, and the applied arts. But these photographs are so numerous and cover such a vast field that it will be years before even all the high lights can be published.

The Colonial churches of Mexico alone provide the art historian with material for

lifelong study. It was natural that in the 16th and 17th centuries the growing importance of the colony, one of the richest in the Americas, should have found expression in its ecclesiastical buildings and their interior furnishings. It was, in any event, an epoch of flourishing artistic activity in the Old World. In Spain, builders such as Juan de Herrera and José de Churriguera were executing their great compositions in stone, while Juan Martínez Montañés and Pedro de Mena were carving statuary of such impressive realism that their influence lasted for centuries. Many works of art were commissioned in Spain for the colonies, and Spanish artists sometimes remained in the New World for years, providing the imposing churches and dignified palaces with the fruits of their talents, as high in standard as those in the mother country. Among such manifestations, little known and seldom noticed, are the Colonial organs which ask emphatically for our attention.

The organ as an instrument goes back



FIGURE 1. ORGAN AT SANTO DOMINGO, ZACATECAS

to the pre-Classical Greek civilization and, later, in the Roman centuries, its loud and penetrating tone filled the circus with an accompaniment appropriate to the robust entertainments there. The earliest organs, however, used water power, as the Greek name *hydraulos* implies. The first pneumatic organ of which anything is known is pictured on an obelisk of A. D. 393 as a small instrument with its bellows compressed by the weight of two youths standing on top. Byzantium was the first organ-building center in the Middle Ages, and from this city organs as well as treatises on organ building were exported to Europe.¹

Spain developed its own liturgy, independent of the rest of Europe, from the time of its conversion to Christianity, and can boast an individual tradition of music as well. As early as the 13th century, Alfonso X is said to have established a chair of music at the University of Salamanca, and, in 1517, Charles V founded the *Real Capilla de Música*.²

Organs were made in Spain as early as the 5th century. By the turn of the millennium, these instruments had grown very large and were sometimes so powerful that the townsfolk are said to have had to stop their ears when they were played; but they were still primitive, with only a few notes, held down by the fist, and used to accompany plain song. It was not until the 13th century that the projecting levers (forerunners of our keys), which could be worked by separate fingers, were invented. There were then about three octaves on the manual. The organ was the first instrument to become entirely chromatic, although at first not all the semitones were present. With the coming of the Renaissance, a number of technical improvements were made, effecting greater ease in

¹ Sachs, Curt: "The History of Musical Instruments," New York, 1940.

² Esclava, F.: "Música Religiosa en España," Madrid, 1860.



Photograph by Bravo

FIGURE 2. DETAIL OF CHOIR STALLS, CATHEDRAL, MEXICO

handling and a finer quality of tone, so that by the end of the 16th century, when the organ was introduced into the New World, it was already the queen of instruments. The great organ of Seville, said to date from that period, has 110 stops and 5,300 pipes.

The Spanish organs had certain individual features, most of which were carried over into the colonies. They were generally placed on the wide "screens" or galleries which enclosed the choir of Spanish churches. The tiers of projecting horizontal pipes—with their inevitable suggestion of fanfare—are quite peculiar to this country, as are also the grotesque faces that utilize the slits of the pipes as open mouths, frequently found even on the most ornate and suavely decorated instruments. The pedal organ, which

probably developed from the "drone note" peculiar to pneumatic instruments, notably the bagpipe, was neglected, except in Germany, until well into the 18th century.³ This might account for the lack of this feature in many of the organs shown here.

The early 18th century saw the culmination of the organ as a musical instrument. The few extant Baroque organs which can be heard today are characterized by a sweet, mild tone, sometimes quite reedy, like a great choir of woodwinds. Polyphonic effects are amazingly clear and untangled, with none of the "smear" and stridency frequent in modern, motor-driven mechanisms. Serene and without sensual effects, they present a straightforward musical line.

³ Hopkins, E. J.: "The Organ, its History and Construction," London, 1855.



FIGURE 3. ORGAN IN THE CHURCH OF SANTA ROSA, QUERÉTARO

Until the 17th century, religious music in Spain kept to the antiphonal and to the playing and singing of hymns. Medieval musical forms persisted until the 18th century, and then, when the rest of the world was being carried away by the theatrical, Spanish religious music returned to the neo-plain song.⁴ Various accompanying instruments with separate parts appear in the church about this time: harps, strings, clarinets, flutes, and sackbuts. In Mexico, however, the use of flutes and trumpets was forbidden because of their association with earlier pagan ceremonies.

Although the colonies of New Spain,

⁴ Hamilton, Mary N.: "Music in 18th Century Spain," *University of Illinois, 1937.*

ving with one another in achievements, naturally spent lavishly on their organs, resplendent in tone as well as architecture, the medieval tradition still lingered in the small, undecorated, portable instruments. Convenient for choir practice, mission work, and the plain chant of the monks, they were used for a long time in communities of no great wealth or size, even after built-in and extensive organs appeared.

Figure 1 shows such an instrument, now standing in the choir loft of the Church of Santo Domingo in the town of Zacatecas. Silver mining made this settlement an important center, and its rights as a township were established as early as 1585. The fact that the Church of Santo Domingo was not founded until some 150 years later does not necessarily mean that the organ also dates from that time. It could easily have been used in an earlier church and transported to its present location in later years. It rests on a simply carpentered stand. Behind it, the bellows are clearly visible, with heavy weights on them to compress the air. The several rows of small tubes, like series of Panpipes, contrast interestingly with the single row of gigantic "show pipes" displayed in the "grand organ." The keyboard below does not yet cover four full octaves, but the semitones are already raised and placed as in our modern manual. A few stops for the modulation of the tone are apparent, and the rods with threads above the keyboard give a glimpse into the intricate mechanism. The instrument's case, with an undecorated cross on top as the only ornament, is modesty itself. It is a piece that breathes the air of the ascetic centuries of early missionary zeal rather than the epoch of Baroque richness that flourished in the colonies. It is interesting to note that in 1527, only a few years after the Conquest, Friar Pedro de Gante initiated the Indians of his fold into the man-

ufacture of musical instruments at the Convent of San Francisco at Texcoco.

The atmosphere of the late Renaissance lingers in the detail illustrated in Figure 2, a section of the choir stalls of the Cathedral of Mexico.⁵ This horseshoe structure stands in the middle of the church, closed off by a tombac grille topped with crosses and candelabra. Fifty-nine stalls, exquisitely carved of cedar, outline the lower choir, the work of Juan de Rojas, 1655. Above each seat, between twisted columns, there is a saint in high relief, about two feet tall and recognizable from his characteristic symbols. Here generations of clerics, thumbing the parchment pages of the giant antiphonaries, prayed and sang under the guidance of their superiors. In early morning and late evening the service was held by candle illumination, but in the sunny hours the light shone through the cupola, bringing a glow and brilliance to the saints of the choir. Each still has his hour in the passing day when the marching sun throws its rays upon him.

The classically solid woodcarving exemplified by these choir stalls loosened into exuberance in a later century. After the old style, which held to an organized and controlled pattern-world, striving for balance and continuity, had produced all the variations and modulations within its possibilities, a new style came into being, which pursued different ideals. The small positive, or "set-down," organ from the Church of Santa Rosa in Querétaro (Figure 3) is gloriously Baroque. The pipes are not hidden, as in Figure 1, but prominently displayed and their different lengths and calibers used to excellent decorative effect—a solution which, as we shall see, is later developed into a most

important and imposing feature. The organ still represents, however, a big box for music, and the wooden case receives more attention than the instrument itself. The opulent, carved cornices, shells, medallions, garlands, and the standing figure on the crest all attract the eye first through their striking plastic quality. When not in use, the keyboard was enclosed by a panel (see center of base), bearing a fine, heart-shaped medallion, corresponding to those on either side, to give an unbroken pattern. Much of the top section is covered by a lacy screen of carved wood, a decorative feature restricted to a minimum in later organs. The tiers of horizontal pipes (now lost



FIGURE 4. ORGAN AT TLACOCHAHUAYA, OAXACA

⁵ First published in "Battlefield of the Gods" by Pál Kelemen, London, 1937. Another beautiful example of the same art, the choir stalls in the Cathedral of Lima, was illustrated in the November 1941 number of this BULLETIN.



Photograph by Osuna

FIGURE 5. INTERIOR OF SANTO DOMINGO, OAXACA

except for four or five) between the curling shells at the sides must have made a harmonious unit in themselves.

In contrast to the carved Querétaro organ, painting constitutes the chief embellishment of the instrument at Tlacoahuaya, a village near Oaxaca (Figure 4). A lively floral pattern covers front and sides, and even ornaments the vertical show pipes. The only figural element is an angel with a viol, placed in a medallion on the side. The charming, 18th-century provincial style of the decoration is in keeping with the interior of the church. It can be easily understood that what was carved and gilded in the larger and richer churches would, in a less well-to-do community, be suggested in paint. Here the carving retreats to the flowing garlands around the frame, which relieve the box-like contours of the instrument. A single row of horizontal pipes is, in this case, almost intact, and the bellows, which had

to be pumped constantly while the instrument was being played, stand at the right. The position of the keyboard is undisguised and there are fourteen stops—a large number for such a small piece.

A shell of a miniature instrument of similar style, only about a yard wide but charmingly painted and with indications of a few pedal notes, stands in the gallery of the little church at Tule, also near Oaxaca. Another beautiful and little known example, still in good condition, is in the Bello collection at Puebla.

These instruments, in their fusion of woodcarving, plasterwork, and paint, are examples of that most elaborate school of decoration, Baroque, which flourished in the 17th and 18th centuries. This style, which in the neo-Classistic rage of the 19th century was absolutely misrepresented by shortsighted and stubborn esthetes, only now is coming to its deserved reevaluation. Its delight in rich decora-

tion, its exuberant blending of shapes drawn from fantasy with those from life, is today recognized as the artistic expression of an epoch which had outgrown all artistic canons which preceded it.

In the little church just discussed, the influence of the nearby city of Oaxaca makes itself felt. The province of Oaxaca, of which it is the capital, was immediately recognized by the Spaniards as a district of great mineral wealth and agricultural possibilities. In fact, Cortés selected it for his own domain, receiving the title of Marqués de la Valle de Oaxaca.

Figure 5 shows a view from the organ loft of the Church of Santo Domingo at Oaxaca. The patrons of the Faith here wanted their church unrivaled in beauty and their ambition resulted in one of the most splendid examples of Mexican Baroque. The great barrel-arched ceiling is covered in every part with heavily gilded, stucco ornaments and polychrome sculptures in high relief. Paintings on canvas are interspersed, creating an effective contrast. Much of the adjacent monastery was destroyed during the French Intervention, but the church proper makes even today an overwhelming impression. The Zapotec and Mixtec cultures of pre-Columbian times had evolved here barbarous and stupendous edifices; Christianity also felt the power of these regions and produced in this district a style surpassing the Baroque of the motherland in splendor.

Another local school of decoration, from a somewhat later time but not one iota less lavish, is seen in the interior view of the church at Taxco (frontispiece). This town is well known to every tourist, and holds an outstanding place among Mexico's rich sites for its picturesque position and fine architecture. While the church at Oaxaca represents the most luxuriant decoration that international taste would recognize as good Baroque, that of Taxco

is nearer to the Rococo. The voluptuous curves in the ovals, scrolls, and shells have given way to notched lines and faceted projections. Even in the composition of the retables a certain change is noticeable. The church, as superb outside as in, was built by the famous mining magnate, José de la Borda, and was finished in 1757. This late date accounts, to a considerable degree, for the stylistic differences between it and the Oaxaca church, which seems to have been completed at least seventy years earlier. Although the organ standing in the gallery above the main entrance of the Taxco church was not erected until 1806, because of the congenial manner of its decoration it blends into the interior. Even the angel statuettes and the lantern-shaped bell-racks at the side are in harmony. However, the approach of neo-Classicism is discernible in the more sober application of Rococo paraphernalia, and particularly in the bust medallions, four of which are in the hanging garlands which cover the columns between the show pipes, with a fifth in the peak of the instrument. A great flowery rug from the Orient is said to have covered the whole of the nave. With the magnificent decoration of the church, its sparkling crystal chandeliers, and the glittering priestly garb, the pomp of a high mass must have been highly operatic, a scene for a Mozart or a Cherubini.

On the site where the city of Puebla now stands there has been, ever since pre-Columbian times, a powerful settlement. Even now it has its own character, and its different intellectual atmosphere makes it a delightful change after cosmopolitan Mexico. Figure 7 brings a view, seldom noticed, of the Cathedral there, one of the most imposing buildings in the country. The main part, finished in mid 17th century, is somewhat reserved in general effect. Massive Renaissance surfaces appear, interrupted by characteristic early



Photograph by Osuna

FIGURE 6. INTERIOR, CATHEDRAL OF PUEBLA



Photograph by Osuna

FIGURE 7. CORNER OF CATHEDRAL OF PUEBLA



FIGURE 8. GRAND ORGAN, CATHEDRAL OF MEXICO

Baroque decoration. The tiled lantern on the dome bears proud testimony to the fact that the region produced the finest majolica.

Inside, two imposing organs flank the nave, their cases carved by Pedro Muñoz, who is said to have devoted two years to the task. Figure 6 shows the instrument

at the left. It has all the attributes of the monumental organ that reached its height in the 18th century. The pipes are not subordinated to their musical purpose but step forward as a part of the decoration and serve to enhance the plastic effect. The three rows of vertical pipes overpower the single bristling line of those arranged

in horizontal sequence below them. Angelic musicians are perched about the façade as if on a retable. Especially noteworthy is the figure at the top, extreme left, playing the 'cello—an instrument which approached its present-day form at that time. The wood carving on the framework is restrained and in keeping with the dignified atmosphere of this interior, where the sheen of gilded grilles makes a pleasing contrast to the many canvases.

The Cathedral of the Mexican capital is not only the largest Catholic church in the Republic but perhaps on the whole continent. Its twin towers are visible from afar, and, within, the vaulted ceiling reaches a height of 178 feet; the width is proportionate. In this vast structure two organs were erected on the galleries that separate the nave from the side aisles. They have generally been considered of European

origin, but recent evidence seems to indicate that they were made in Mexico. *La Gaceta* of October 1736 mentions their dedication.⁶ The cases are of unvarnished cedar, exquisitely carved, and present a lavish display of the sculptor's art, framing the metallic beauty of the pipes. The great mass of the instruments, said to contain some thirty-five hundred pipes, did not carry much figural decoration, and what was applied was placed high or was blended into the architecture of the base (Figure 8). Not only is the total effect magnificent, but any of the details are worthy of study.

A closer view of the other organ, showing the center part above the railing (Figure 9), reveals that the smallest motif received the same loving care as the large

⁶ Hernández, F. J.: "Órganos de la Nueva España," in "Hoy," No. 109, Mexico, 1939.

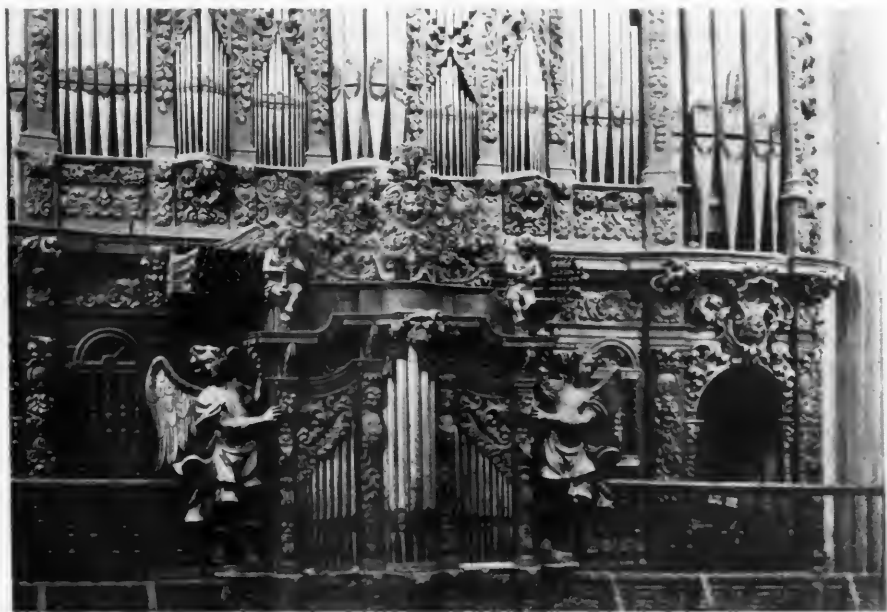


FIGURE 9. ORGAN DETAIL, CATHEDRAL OF MEXICO

three-dimensional statues of the angels. The faces painted on the pipes, a Spanish characteristic, can be plainly seen. The huge organ, with its extraordinary dimensions, its doors into the interior, and its suggestion of grilled windows, gives the impression of a veritable house of music.

These majestic instruments, few of which are in use today, were built by inspired artists and devoted artisans. Their velvety and celestial tone belongs to an era,

now past, when advancing science seemed to presage the enlightenment of man. Instead, today, through the misuse of that power, brute and cynical forces threaten to rob the world of the liberties for which it has toiled through centuries. These silenced organs, standing in dignity and beauty through much turmoil, are monuments of hope for a brighter future, in which mankind will recover its love for the arts and its humanitarian values.

A Geographic Traverse

Across the Eastern and Central Cordilleras of Colombia

RAYMOND E. CRIST

Introduction

THE Eastern and Central Cordilleras of Colombia, two of the three main ranges that branch off north of the Ecuadorean Andes at the Pasto massif, parallel each other in a north-northeast direction and, together with the Western Cordillera and the Cordillera de Chocó, form the western part of Colombia.

In few places in the world is it possible to cross as many climatic, geological, and ecological zones in so short a distance, as in going from the Llanos of Colombia to the Cauca River. The importance of motor roads in connecting totally different regions is readily appreciated in this jaunt from the hot, low-lying Llanos up the eastern face of the Cordillera Oriental to the Savanna of Bogota, with its mild to cold

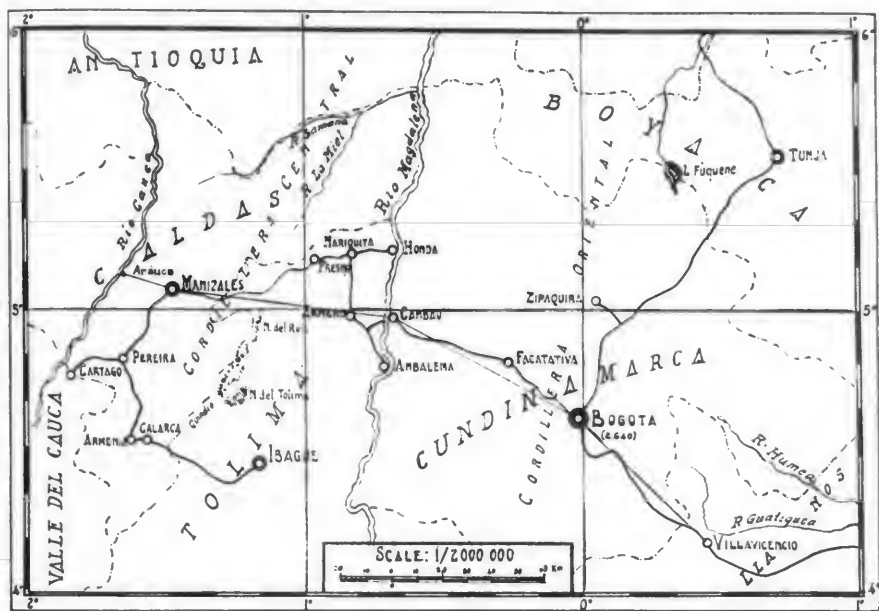
The field work on which this study is based was made possible by grants from the John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation and the Graduate Research Board of the University of Illinois.

climate, down the steep western slope to the *tierra caliente* (hot country) of the Magdalena Valley, thence through the pass across the high, narrow Cordillera Oriental, and down to another area of *tierra caliente* along the Cauca River. In 150 miles one crosses on a relatively good gravel road two passes that are higher than any of the famous Alpine passes.

Cultural traverse Villavicencio-Bogotá-Cambo

The vast grass plains, or Llanos, of Colombia, like those of Venezuela, are regions *par excellence* for the grazing of cattle; but little has been or is being done to improve the natural grasses or the breed of cattle.

Since the construction of the Villavicencio-Bogotá motor road the growing of rice has become important in certain areas of the Llanos. As time goes on, this intensive agricultural activity will probably be



Courtesy of Raymond E. Crist

MAP SHOWING THE AUTHOR'S TRAVERSE ACROSS THE EASTERN AND CENTRAL CORDILLERAS OF COLOMBIA

as important as the extensive one of grazing.

Villavicencio itself is a typical "gateway to the Llanos" town. Since the building of the motor road to Bogotá, it has become a popular resort, whither people from the chill climate of the capital come to *veranear*, to spend the week-end or even longer in a warm climate. A few ranchers and majordomos have town houses here. There are several large mills that hull the rice grown on the Llanos. (The heavy consumption of polished rice on the part of the native population is not conducive to robust health.) The town is also a collecting center for the hides of alligators, wild hogs, and jaguars, and the pelts of the nutria or tropical otter. Cattle being driven to the Bogotá market usually spend at least a night in the fenced pastures on

the low deforested hills on the outskirts of this town. It is cheaper to walk the cattle to market—a five-day trip during which each steer loses from 60 to 75 pounds—than to truck them over the mountains.

Here at Villavicencio the grasslands of the plains give way to the dense rain forest of the foothills, which have been cleared and planted in grass for some years. Even the stumps and fallen logs of the original forest have rotted away. The process of forest destruction by the shifting agriculturalists is going on all along the road from Villavicencio for some 15 kilometers up the eastern slope of the Cordillera. Along the road are stacked up great piles of fire wood, the usual cash crop of the *conuquero*, or subsistence farmer. At the contact with the Quetame

metamorphics, the tiny subsistence plots—corn and yuca are the usual crops—are no longer to be seen. The soil is so poor and the slopes are so steep that not even one crop can be grown on it. This is probably in part due to the complete absence of limestone beds. The one-lane road is for miles just a notch cut in the side of the mountain, and there is a sheer drop of from 1 to 200 meters to the Negro River below. Into this complex the river has been able to incise a fine V-shaped gorge, but lateral erosion is out of the question.

A few miles before reaching Cáqueza the whole aspect of the landscape changes abruptly. Here, upstream from the wall of extremely hard rocks which it is about to enter, the river is seen to be aggrading; there are no longer any forests on the slopes, and the densely populated area is one of dispersed settlements. The soft limestones and shales make an excellent soil, which fortunately the rainfall is not heavy enough to erode as fast as it is

formed. Furthermore, the area is largely in the hands of industrious owner-operators who are interested in conserving their land. Families are large; hence, agriculture has to be largely of the subsistence rather than the market variety, because the plots are small. But great care is taken with every square inch of land; some terracing is done, and eucalyptus trees are planted along boundary lines. They are valuable for fuel, and the roots help prevent erosion. Some few farmers have cows; most of them have a hog or two which are fed on scraps. Animal fertilizer is used when available. To the tiny market village of Cáqueza the farmers bring their meager surplus in exchange for a few necessities, such as salt and cloth.

As the road climbs to the pass into the Bogotá Basin there are fewer and poorer farms, because of the cold climate and infertile soil. Most of the poverty-stricken farmers add a few centavos to their ex-



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

TYPICAL VIEW OF THE LLANOS NEAR SAN MARTIN



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

SIERRA NEVADA DEL RUIZ FROM THE PÁRAMO ZONE ALONG THE MARIQUITA-MANIZALES ROAD

tremely low income by making charcoal out of the gnarled trees and shrubs which are able to grow at that elevation. Many mule-pack trains loaded with charcoal are passed on the road. It is particularly regrettable that in a country relatively rich in coal and petroleum the forest cover is being so rapidly destroyed for fuel. It would certainly be better in the long run to move the marginal population or pay it a dole rather than have whole drainage basins denuded of their forest cover. This is a problem which the national government will ultimately have to solve.

From the pass there is a magnificent view of the beautiful modern city of Santa Fe de Bogotá (altitude 8,600 feet), and the flat, fertile Savanna of Bogotá beyond. The town has grown long and narrow in a north-south direction along the eastern edge of the basin, avoiding the flat, poorly drained area farther out on the Savanna. The city is a nodal point in the present

system of roads; here those from the Llanos, from the cold plateau to the north around Tunja, and from the valleys of the Cauca and Magdalena, come together. The city is not only a commercial capital, but the center of the cultural and political life of the table land and its tributary areas. Bogotá is a city of contrasts. The most modern of modernistic buildings (neotechnic) are only a few squares from colonial dwellings or even adobe huts of the pre-Conquest type. The Andalusian houses, with their ample patios, not at all suited to the chill, often damp, climate, are giving way in the suburbs to modern steep-roofed houses of the English or Dutch type.

One of the most striking examples of the reversal of pattern in an urbo-rural cultural landscape as a result of land concentration in a few hands is to be seen in the environs of Bogotá. A few families have for generations controlled almost all the



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

VILLAVICENCIO FROM ONE OF THE DEFORESTED FOOTHILLS

The braided Guatiquía River appears in the background.

land of the Savanna, with the result that all the fertile alluvial soil is in grass. Fine modern suburban residences or apartment buildings are within a stone's throw of extensively exploited pasturelands. The minutely subdivided and intensively cultivated fields of the small landholders are often on less fertile and more steeply sloping hill lands many miles from the market, and produce must be transported across the extensively exploited pasturelands to the city. In this way the influence of the manorial land tenure system still makes itself keenly felt in the economic development of a great modern city.

From Bogotá to Facatativá the road runs through rich grazing lands, alluvial flats across which meanders the canal-like Bogotá River. Only by cutting through the hard Upper Cretaceous sandstone bed at the Tequendama Falls, on the western

edge of the Cordillera, will this river be able to dissect the Savanna.

Although the western slope of the Cordillera Oriental is geologically similar to the eastern for some distance, the economy is different. The effect of the long-established wagon road is seen in the fact that farmers raise more crops for the market than they grow exclusively for their own use. There are numerous large coffee haciendas from which formerly the high-grade crop was sent directly to Europe. This area has been hard hit by the dislocation of trade induced by the war, which may have the effect of disintegrating these vast absentee holdings. On truck farms vegetables and fruits are grown for the Bogotá market. A few hotels have been built to accommodate week-end tourists from Bogotá, who seek some days of warm weather.

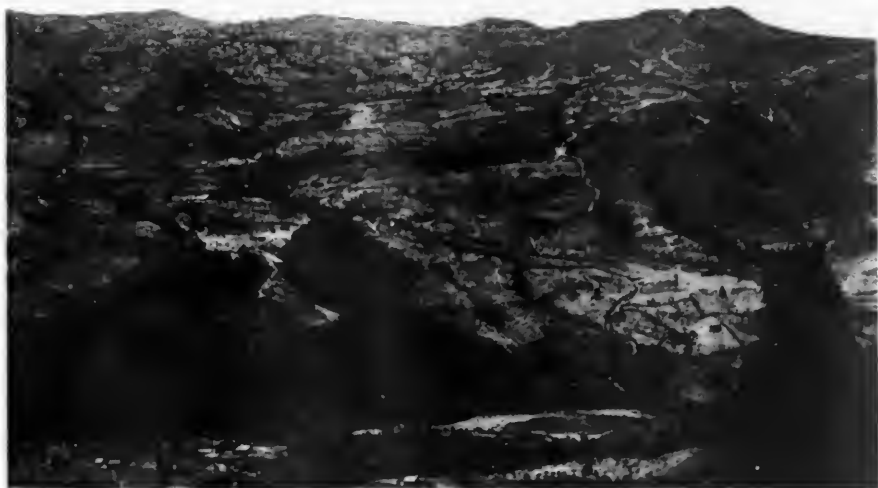
Cultural response in the Magdalena Valley

Of recent years the Magdalena floodplain has been extensively used in the production of rice, for the growing of which conditions are ideal. Streams from the Cordillera Central are diverted from their beds to the fields located on the floodplain. A great deal (155 tons in 1922) of this rice is exported from Mariquita.¹ The increase in domestic production of rice has been paralleled by a corresponding decrease in imports. Cotton has also been produced in this area; but after a bumper crop or so pests destroy the plants. The flood-plain would seem to be ideally suited to large scale scientific production of warm climate fruits and vegetables for the Bogotá market, but neither the capital nor labor necessary for such an enterprise seems to be available.

¹García, Antonio: "Geografía Económica de Colombia—Caldas," *Imprenta Nacional, Bogotá, 1937, p. 523*

The main activity on the floodplains now is the fattening of steers for the Bogotá market. However, Mr. Long, who has a 6,400-acre ranch near Cambao, finds that competition with the ranches along the Lower Magdalena is getting keener every day. The ranches of that region have an abundance of free unfenced land and practice a kind of transhumance of their stock from higher lands in the wet season to the lush pastures in meander scars in the dry season. Under such conditions operation costs are so low that the upper Magdalena ranchers, if they wish to survive, will probably be forced to specialize in better breeds of quick-maturing cattle, or dairies may have to be established, as in the Cauca Valley.

The hills of Miocene conglomerates and tuff rise abruptly from the floodplain, and give an inselberg aspect to the landscape. Because of the permeability of these forma-



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

DISPERSED SETTLEMENTS ACROSS THE RÍO NEGRO FROM CÁQUEZA

The soil here is made by decomposed limestone and shale.

tions they are covered with a xerophytic vegetation, in marked contrast to the luxuriant green of the pastures on the floodplain itself. Goats put in their appearance as a response to these spotty semi-arid conditions, and are a nuisance to the farmers, who try to raise small unfenced patches of corn or soybeans.

Although the Magdalena is generally a sprawling, meandering stream, it has locally entrenched itself in one of the Miocene outliers at the village of Cambao, where Bogotá-Manizales motor traffic is ferried across the river. It would not be difficult to build a suspension bridge across the constricted river at this point.

Cultural traverse across the Cordillera Central

Between Mariquita and kilometer 600 the metamorphics, predominantly phyllites with igneous intrusions, have been decomposed or lateritized to depths ranging from 1 or 2 to 15 or 20 meters and make an

excellent soil. This whole area, maturely dissected, is in slopes. The road runs for miles along the stream divides. The streams in their lower courses, near the temporary base level of the Magdalena, aggrade during the torrential rains. As one reaches their steeper parts two distinct terrace levels are noted, the alluvial deposits probably laid down during the period of greatest extension of the Pleistocene glaciers.

This area has passed through the first stage of the shifting agriculturalist—deforestation and cropping by primitive methods. It is now in the relatively permanent second or pasture stage. The original settler moves on; the small clearings, if not already owned by ranchers, are bought by them, planted in grass, and pastured. The former rain forest becomes grassland and, with a small amount of clearing occasionally, grassland it remains.

At an elevation of about 3,000 meters



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

GORGE THROUGH LIMESTONES AND SHALES, UPSTREAM FROM CÁQUEZA



Courtesy of Colombian Embassy, Washington

AVENIDA JIMÉNEZ QUESADA, BOGOTÁ

In celebration of Bogotá's fourth centenary in 1938 a new avenue was made and named for the founder of the city. Along it have risen many business blocks of the most modern architecture.

the forest cover is quite dense on the thick layer of volcanic ash which has blanketed the area. This ash is highly porous, rainfall is heavy, and the topsoil is readily leached. But the temperature is still high enough to further rapid decomposition of vegetation and thus prevent the accumulation of humus. Only in the sheltered valleys from around 3,500 meters to the upper limit of cultivation is there a deep fertile soil, rich in humus because of the slow rate of decomposition. But here temperature is so low as to make farming precarious. The same kind of volcanic-ash deposit in the relatively mild climate of Naples or Catania disintegrates into a soil capable of supporting a dense population.

The ash-blanketed area between 3,000 and 3,500 meters in elevation is being feverishly deforested by shifting agriculturalists who work from 5 to 10 acres of land, which becomes productive almost as soon as the trees are felled. Unfortunately, these plots lose their fertility rapidly, are abandoned, and become a prey to erosion. The *conuquero* invests all he has—his small savings, if any, and the labor of himself and his family—in his clearing, and before the first crop, supports the family unit by making charcoal or by selling logs or construction lumber. The rapid destruction of this forest is due to the presence of the completed motor road. None of this agricultural activity was noted at the same



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

LOOKING EAST FROM THE FLOODPLAIN

The field in the foreground

elevation and on the same soil along the unfinished road to Termales—which is much nearer to Manizales. The earth-covered, slowly smouldering piles of wood, from which smoke issued in small columns, resembling a fumarole, dotted the landscape between Fresno and Esperanza.

At first the economy of the *conuqueros* is a closed one, hence the emphasis on subsistence and quick growing crops. Little by little they experiment with other crops adapted to the particular climate. As they come into contact with the city market, through improved transportation facilities, they find they can sell a variety of crops, particularly fruits and vegetables, and are able to avoid the dangers of monoculture. But they are somewhat limited in their choice of crops by the climatic "low ceiling." There is a tendency for

the modern farmer in this area to specialize in crops according to their adaptability to a given climate and to the demands of the market. But for the region as a whole it will be necessary for many people either to emigrate or to acquire land—and be secure in their tenure. The State is interested in seeing that the people have land, but this is not true of all those with large estates. Unfortunately for many landless but willing workers, the large landowner is often able to show that he is not only a more efficient producer, but a more "stable element" than the small settler.

For the last fifteen miles before entering Manizales the underlying rock is again the old weathered metamorphics. This maturely dissected area has also been completely deforested, but the slopes are cov-

OF THE
planted



OF THE MAGDALENA RIVER AT CAMBAO

planted to rice, an important crop.

ered with grass instead of gullies. The traveller is reminded of certain parts of the Bluegrass Region or the South Downs in this dairy region. Tributary to Manizales. The cows graze in the field the year round, being brought to the stalls only for milking. Dairies farther up the Cauca, distant from markets, sell butter and cheese. Indeed, domestic cheeses of various and excellent flavors are an important source of income in many parts of Colombia.

The same maturely dissected landscape continues westward beyond Manizales, but pastures give way to cropped fields. The presence of these crops—particularly coffee and plantains—together with a marked rise in temperature heralds the change in climate. Between Manizales and the crossing of the Cauca River at Arauca lies the boundary zone between *tierra templada*

and *tierra caliente*. The small streams begin to aggrade in their lower courses, and terrace remnants appear a few meters above the present stream levels. Then the road runs onto the extensive terraces about 300 meters above the present level of the Cauca. These fertile land areas in *tierra caliente* are to a large extent used as grazing lands rather because the good land was originally held in great estates than because cattle grazing is their most efficient use. Abruptly the road leaves the terrace and descends rapidly. Another terrace level is seen about 10 meters above the Cauca, just below which is an outcrop of basalt through which the superimposed river has cut a gorge. These narrows, like those at Cambao, on the Magdalena, make an ideal site for crossing the river, over which a suspension bridge has been

built. The tiny village of Arauca, which had its boom days during the building of the Cali-Medellín railroad, is a kind of ghost town in which there are far too many saloons for the present trade, even on Sunday.

The extraordinary growth of population in the State of Caldas in general and Manizales in particular is related to the rapid increase in the number of owner-operator plots, the development of transportation facilities, and the resultant commercial boom. The increase in population and commerce seems to be almost a direct function of increase in land ownership and in the means of transportation. A case in point is the growth of the Municipio of Manizales, which counted 25,000 inhabitants in 1905. Although this Municipio practically controlled the coffee industry in Caldas, it grew only very gradually, relatively speaking, till 1920, when it had

50,000. In 1930 the population was 80,000, and at present is probably well above 120,000.² The city itself, founded in 1848 by settlers from Antioquia, is the youngest of the large cities in Colombia; furthermore, it was burned down in the '20's and rebuilt along modern lines. The main part of the town has wide clean streets, modern buildings, and prosperous looking people. There are few terribly poor people or beggars, in contrast to Bogotá. And the growth of the suburban area has probably just begun. The completion of the road to the hot springs at Termales will certainly increase tourism by several hundred percent.

This reconnaissance trip from the extensively exploited Llanos, across two great mountain chains, to the densely populated State of Caldas, where agriculture, industry, and commerce are im-

²García, A., *op. cit.*, pp. 242-243.



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

MARIQUITA AND AN INSELBERG ON THE FLOOD PLAIN OF THE MAGDALENA



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

IN THE OUTSKIRTS OF MANIZALES

The slopes are almost completely deforested, but make excellent pastureland.

portant, is like a trip in time in the Middle West of the United States from, say, 1850 to the present. By diversification of crops and industries and by constructing means of transportation, the wealth of regions and nations can be multiplied and the standard of living of the people raised. And to achieve regional and national prosperity all the human beings therein must act as one interrelated productive unit.

It is not a mere coincidence that free-trade advocates reside in industrially advanced countries. Alexander Hamilton in the United States and Lister in Prussia, some century and a half ago, fought the free-trade idea as implied in Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, because it would have tended to make the whole world for all time an agricultural complement of industrialized England. By protecting and building up their own domestic industries the United States and Germany became

industrialized nations, increased their trade with Great Britain and the world, and raised the standard of living of their people. Unlimited free trade between two nations can redound to their greatest mutual benefit only if they have achieved more or less the same productive level, and if their exchanges augment the exploitation of all their wealth. If one nation always produces only raw materials and the other becomes highly industrialized, the former will always remain a colonial dependency of the latter. The two can play ball, of course, but the rules will always be laid down by the industrialized nation and, by the very nature of the case, while the game is in progress.

This reconnaissance trip was greatly facilitated by the network of good roads which has been constructed in Colombia, work on which is still being pushed forward. Colombian leaders have been

keenly aware that one of the first steps in modernization of a land is road building. The important regional centers, such as Pasto, Cali, Bucaramanga, Medellín, Manizales, to mention only a few, are linked to Bogotá by good gravel roads. This has made possible the easy movement of goods and passengers from one part of the coun-

try to the other, which has greatly increased the general prosperity. The modernization of agricultural techniques, the emphasis on national industrial development, and the road-building program are three highly significant factors in the present strong economic and political position of the Republic of Colombia.



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

BRIDGE ACROSS THE CAUCA AT ARAUCA

The road ascends the high terrace on the other side of the river; the village is on the lower terrace level. There are basalt outcrops in the bed of the river.

Ricardo Adolfo de la Guardia

President of Panama

THE change of government that occurred in Panama on October 9, 1941, brought to the Presidency of that republic Ricardo Adolfo de la Guardia. The new President took the oath of office before the Supreme Court of his country on the same day.

Señor de la Guardia was born in Panama City on March 14, 1899. He began his career as a public servant at the age of twenty, and held positions in various government departments. He was at one time treasurer of the Red Cross Society of Panama and a member of the Board of Directors of the National Lottery.

In 1930 he retired to private life, and engaged in business for six years.

When Dr. Juan Deróstenes Arosemena became President in October 1936, he appointed Señor de la Guardia Governor of the Province of Panama. The Governor resigned in March 1938 to become Superintendent of Santo Tomás Hospital, and he remained at the head of that institution, the most modern and best equipped of its kind in the republic, until October 1, 1940. On that date he entered the Cabinet of Dr. Arosemena's successor, Dr. Arnulfo Arias, with the portfolio of Government and Justice. During Dr. Arias' administration he twice was acting Minister of the Treasury, and once acting Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The Grand Cross of the Order of Vasco Núñez de Balboa has been conferred upon Señor de la Guardia.

Immediately after he became President of Panama, Señor de la Guardia issued the following statement:



The government of which I am now, with the unanimous approval of my fellow countrymen, the chief executive, will be motivated, I assure you, by the firm determination to cooperate in the defense of the continent. It will also steadfastly maintain the dignity of our nation, and meet with the utmost fidelity its contractual obligations with the Government of the United States, a nation to which we are linked by strong and sacred agreements, which my Government will most loyally keep.

I am absolutely confident that all the problems pending between these two countries will soon be solved without violating any of the democratic principles innate in all citizens of this nation, who can count on the protection of the incoming administration.



Courtesy of DIPP

THE LIBRARY OF ITAMARATY PALACE, RIO DE JANEIRO



Courtesy of DIPP

TIRADENTES PALACE, RIO DE JANEIRO

The Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics was in session in Rio de Janeiro from January 15 to 28, 1942, under the presidency of Dr. Oswaldo Aranha, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil. The plenary sessions were held in Tiradentes Palace, an imposing structure completed in 1926. The Political Committee met in the historic Itamaraty Palace, erected in 1854 by the son of the Baron of Itamaraty and purchased in 1889 for the seat of government by the Provisional authorities of the Republic, which had just been declared. Since 1899 it has been occupied by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. In the older part of the Palace many rooms are hung with damask and richly adorned with valuable paintings, handsome antique furniture, and oriental and Aubusson rugs. The Economic Committee convened in the library, a modern edifice that stands at the rear of the garden (shown on the opposite page). This building and another contiguous to it contain a collection of books and maps, some of them extremely rare, and the archives of the Ministry.

Next month the BULLETIN will give an account of the Meeting of the twenty-one Ministers of Foreign Affairs or their representatives, whose successful deliberations "were directed toward the common objective of hemispheric solidarity and mutual defense." The convocation of the Meeting was described in the January issue and the program was given in February.

More than 300 persons who attended the conference as delegates, technical advisers, members of their staffs or press representatives flew to Rio de Janeiro, traveling 2,000,000 passenger miles.

Women Workers in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay

MARY CANNON

Latin American Representative, Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

"BUT very few women of the South American countries work for wages!" I hear this exclamation constantly when I say I went to three countries of South America last year to get first-hand information for the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor about working conditions of women, and to establish contacts with public and private agencies concerned with the welfare of women workers.

Women have been wage earners in those countries for years, and their numbers are increasing as the number of industries increase and as social conventions change. The idea that girls should be prepared to contribute to their own and their families' support, if necessary, is more and more accepted. Since about 1920 the number of industries has been steadily increasing, but the greatest jump has come in the last few years; in Montevideo, Uruguay, for example, in 1931-32 582 new industrial establishments were founded and in 1935-36 there were 1,127. This is indicative of what has happened also in Argentina and Chile. It was these three countries that I visited during six months of 1941.

It is difficult enough to write about the women of one country alone, but to try to include three countries in one article is dangerous. There is nothing more obnoxious to the people of any one country than to be included in broad generalizations about "Latin America." Each of these

three nations is different from the other in many respects—it is true that all speak Spanish, all had their historical beginnings more or less at the same time, all shared the struggles for independence and even shared national heroes—but each one is a nation in its own right with its own traditions and history, its own national heroes, its own national pride. I would not offend friends in any one of these countries by including them in broad generalities.

There are, however, trends in the lives of women that are more or less the same in each country. Changing conditions and the women themselves cause the current of life to change for women in general. Individuals illustrate trends, and out of many possibilities a few are chosen. The first illustration is a young woman in Buenos Aires, now a feature writer for one of the most popular women's magazines. She is also the author of two books about wage-earning women, one a novel based on personal experience, the other a study based on research in legislation and conditions of work for women in the Americas. When she no longer had her parents and their home, she did not do the customary thing—go to live with her relatives; in spite of surprised protests, she made a home for herself in a small modern apartment. She has the confidence and respect of her neighbors as well as her friends. Another woman, a bit older, who had been teaching for 10 years or more and who had spent a

year in "the States," broke with the traditions of her family and friends several years ago when she found an apartment for herself. Friends who asked her how she dared have taken courage from her and now happily "live alone and like it." These women go out to dinner together, to lectures and the theatre after their late dinner, and their relatives are no longer shocked.

Another important trend is illustrated by a prominent leader who in the early years of her married life devoted her time to charitable institutions. She still gives a great deal of time to her "charity works," as she calls them, but she realized some years ago that women's concern should go deeper than alleviation of poor social conditions and so she was instrumental in interesting a group of intelligent friends in social problems, and then in working for political rights for women. This, she said, was "not because we thought we could

greatly improve conditions just by voting, but because without the vote we have absolutely no power."

Then there is the young Uruguayan metal-work artist, winner of exhibition prizes, both national and international, who had to be a wage earner as well as an artist: so she used her artistic gifts first in making adornments, such as costume jewelry, of the finest materials, and exquisite articles of interior decoration. Now she and another young woman design and build small inexpensive houses in lovely suburban spots, beautiful in arrangement and unusual with their hand-wrought rustic lights, fireplaces and other fixtures.

One more illustration is the young Chilean woman, a Doctor of Education from Columbia University, who established and is the director of a high school conducted on the principles of progressive



Courtesy of Mary Cannon

A TEXTILE FACTORY, SANTIAGO, CHILE

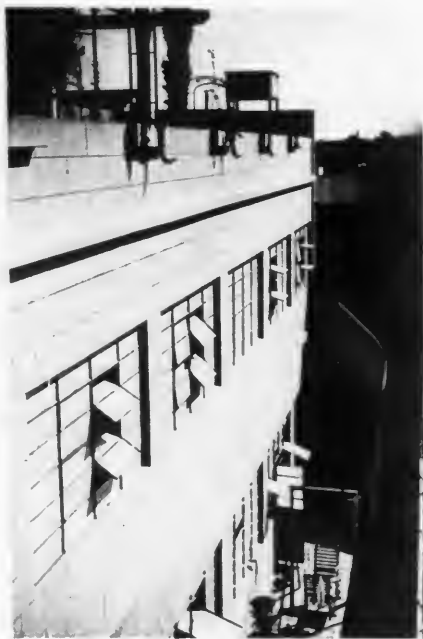
An American humidifying and ventilating system contributes to the efficiency of the work and the health of the workers.

education. It is unique because it includes both boys and girls, and is invaluable in a country with an already developed and rapidly growing social conscience, because the pupils of that school are studying the living needs of their people along with their books.

And so the illustrations could be multiplied, for women of those countries with their courage and ingenuity are achieving freedom of action not only in their personal lives but also in their professional work. It cannot be said of women in those countries or of women in the United States that freedom in general in economic activities has been achieved. In industry they are still paid lower wages than men. They themselves are not sufficiently vocal in their protests against this, nor are their

economic rights defended by others to any great extent.

Indications of trends in what is happening in Argentina, Uruguay, and Chile were revealed in conversations also: A young woman who has been an employee in the post office for a number of years said, "Employed girls have acquired a personality, an individuality in these last 10 years. They are still reserved, but no longer shy and afraid. They have won the respect of their employers and fellow workers; they have made a place for themselves." Factory managers said, "Girls come from the same economic background as before, but they are coming with more education, more 'personality'." A teacher said, "Women are accepted in the universities now without suffering the comments, the jibes they used to hear, and there are more women than men now in the Liberal Arts College of the University." A woman who is editor of a woman's magazine said, "Girls are trying to get factory instead of housework jobs now, even girls who come to the city from the provinces; those who do go into domestic service are asking to have shorter hours and live out, something which never would have been heard of several years ago." At a "Votes for Women" meeting in Santiago, Chile, a well-known leader of Chilean women said, "Twenty years ago I would not have said that Chilean women should have the vote, but we have made such progress in these two decades that now I am sure we are ready for it. Women are holding important public and private positions; women wage earners are alert and are already taking an active part in the political life of the nation; 25,000 girls are in our high schools each year. We have already proved our ability."¹



Courtesy of Mary Cannon

GOOD LIGHTING CHARACTERIZES THIS
SMALL FACTORY

¹ It is not intended to give the impression that the way is open and easy. Many barriers are put in the way of woman's progress—barriers that are hard to overcome.



Courtesy of Mary Cannon

A GLOVE FACTORY, BUENOS AIRES

Eighty women work here on leather, fabric, and lace gloves.

Women at work

The majority of employed women in the aforementioned countries, like the majority of employed women everywhere, work because of economic necessity—to support themselves and their dependents or to supplement the wages of the head of the family.

There are large numbers of women in the professions: Medicine, teaching (many in schools and a few in universities), dentistry, architecture, chemistry, pharmacy, engineering, law, and social work, and in public offices. They are in commerce, stores, offices, banks, and some have their own businesses. Very few are employed as waitresses.

Large numbers in all countries are earning money by means of home work, making not only trinkets and small utility boxes

but also men's, women's, and children's clothing and shoes—in fact, practically all clothing that is sold in the stores. There is scarcely any idea of trying to eliminate home work, but there is considerable effort to control it. Home work laws have been passed (Argentina's law was improved last year) and efforts are being made to enforce them.

Women are working in factories on semiskilled and unskilled jobs, and in some plants as supervisors. The industrial census of 1936 of all Uruguay shows 14,850 women employed in industrial plants. In 1941 in Buenos Aires alone there were 58,475 women in industry; in Chile in 1930 there were 290,961 employed women. Hundreds of women, of course, are employed in offices. A Catholic federation of employed girls (mostly

"white-collar") in Buenos Aires has over 19,000 members.

The factories vary in size from the small shop (one that was visited, a glove factory, had 80 women workers) where the owner is the supervisor, to the large factories (some of them foreign-owned) with from 5,000 to 6,000 women employed. Between there are textile mills with 500, packing plants with 1,200, cigarette factories with 300. The largest numbers are found in the textile, clothing, and food industries.

The factory buildings in the majority of cases have been recently built and are modern in their structure and installation. Instead of one large four- or five-story building some plants are housed in separate buildings with plots of grass and flowers between. It is the practice to equip factories with the latest machinery when they were established, and modern improved equipment, imported from the United States and, before the war, from various European countries, has been installed from time to time. Because of the structure of the buildings, natural light and ventilation are generally good,

and, when necessary, some of the most modern humidifying and ventilation systems are used. On the whole physical conditions, including sanitary and dressing room facilities, are good. Even though the majority of factory workers are employed on piece-rate jobs, there is not much speed-up, the most evident being where girls package small articles, and where a "standard" system is used.

A number of factories in each country have medical and dental clinics. Some have full-time physicians and nurses, and care is given not only to employees but to their families as well. Most of the medical service is free. Some companies also have trained social case workers in their employ.

Women's wages are lower than those of men, even on skilled jobs, as has been generally true in all countries. One meat-packing plant under North American ownership gave these figures for January and April of last year: in January women averaged 80 pesos a month and men 140.42; in April, women 72 and men 127.50. This gives an idea of the difference in earnings.



Courtesy of Mary Cannon

THE OWNER OF THE
GLOVE FACTORY
AND HIS FAMILY



Courtesy of Mary Cannon

LUNCH HOUR AT AN URUGUAYAN TEXTILE PLANT

Some of the factories have restaurants where meals are served very reasonably; occasionally women are charged less than men. Milk and sandwich carts are also used for mid-morning and afternoon snacks. Meals are not generally a problem, for a two-hour break at noon is required and the great majority of factory workers live close enough to go home for this meal. It may not be an unmixed blessing for the women workers who have to cook for their families.

Sports clubs and equipment have also been provided by the owners of some plants. In some cases the administration of these clubs is given over completely to the workers; in others they are administered jointly with the management.

A considerable number of firms organize classes for those who want to continue their grade school education or to study commercial and other courses. There are classes in dressmaking, cooking, handi-

crafts, and English. There are companies in each country that have a system whereby girls working at machines can study typing and allied office subjects, and then take jobs in the offices of the company.

All three countries have laws requiring that firms provide a nursery with cribs and an attendant for a fixed number of women employees; here women may bring their babies under a year old. Some of the nurseries are models, spotlessly clean, and have attractive furnishings and charming color schemes. The factory managers are always delighted when there are several little brown-eyed babies to display to visitors.

Women work, too, in factories in the cities and towns of the provinces or departments, long distances from the national capitals. For instance, in Chile there are large textile plants near Concepción, and recently a new plant was built much farther south. Packing plants, fruit-drying

and canning plants, confectioneries, and always the small garment-making shops and shoe factories are found in the interior. Women's work in the agricultural districts is as varied as the tasks to be done. They work in the sugarcane fields with their husbands and children; they work in the fruit-picking harvests; they make lovely rugs and bright-colored hand-woven articles which they sell to travelling merchants at extremely low prices.

Legislation for women workers

Labor legislation in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay presents an interesting picture. There are the laws, familiar to all countries, prohibiting women from working in occupations that are unhealthy or that contribute to immorality; the work week is limited to 48 hours, and two hours are required for lunch. There is a law requiring that all commercial houses, offices, and factories close by 1:00 p. m. on Saturday, giving employees what is called *sábado inglés* (English Saturday). Some North American companies instituted the so-called "North American Saturday," closing the entire day. Minimum wages are fixed in some instances; the laws controlling home work authorize the appointment of representative wage-fixing committees who decide on the wage for each type of garment, basing the decision on the time used in each bit of embroidery, faggoting, or whatever special skill the design involves. The maternity legislation and that requiring the day nurseries (mentioned before) is of special interest. With some variations the laws provide for rest periods before and after childbirth with all or part of the wages, medical assistance, and retention of the job for the worker. In Chile during the

weeks of rest the woman must receive half of her wages; these wages are paid from the Workers' Social Security Fund if the worker is eligible, the employer making up the deficit to equal the half, or the employer must pay the entire amount if the employee is not in the Social Security plan. In Argentina a maternity fund is created by a tax on the wage of each employed woman, whether married or single (male employees are not taxed), by a tax paid by the employer on the pay rolls of women employees, and further, by a contribution from the State. A woman is given 30 days before and 45 days after childbirth with a total allowance equal to $2\frac{1}{2}$ times her monthly wage at the rate of 25 working days a month, up to a fixed maximum benefit. Laws prohibiting married women from being discharged strengthen the maternity laws. The Women's Division of Inspection of the Chilean Labor Department very strictly enforces the observance of the maternity laws. The Labor Departments of Argentina and Uruguay have women inspectors but no women's division.

Health and safety programs are under way, with some offices doing splendid jobs among the workers, by means of very handsome posters and other visual means of popular education. Labor and health departments have issued and are enforcing comprehensive health orders. One country limits the daily hours of work to six in occupations which are hazardous to health.

The picture of women's part in the economic development of these countries is more and more interesting as women become increasingly prominent in commerce, the professions, and industry. This discussion will be continued in another article.

Ernesto Jaén Guardia,

New Ambassador of Panama to the United States

ON November 17, 1941, Señor Don Ernesto Jaén Guardia, newly appointed Ambassador of Panama to the United States, presented to President Roosevelt his letters of credence, as well as the letters of recall of his predecessor, Dr. Carlos N. Brin.

In the course of his remarks to President Roosevelt upon that occasion, Señor Jaén Guardia referred eloquently to the traditional bonds of friendship between the United States and his country and to the prodigious efforts of the two countries in building the Panama Canal, the defense of which is now so vital to the Western Hemisphere. He said in part:

In their international policies, the new leaders of the Government of the Republic of Panama will frankly and sincerely accept the declarations made at the Meeting of Foreign Ministers held at Panama and ratified at Habana directed toward maintaining continental solidarity, to the benefit of the democratic spirit that represents the bases of their institutions.

The Government of my country, conscious of its historic mission, understands that in order to defend the fundamental interests and ideals of the American continent it is indispensable that there be close cooperation among each and all of the American nations, and it will act in a manner compatible with its traditional democratic spirit within the principles laid down by its dignity as a sovereign country.

In welcoming the new Ambassador to his post, President Roosevelt addressed him in part as follows:

There is indeed, Mr. Ambassador, . . . a notable reason for the particularly close and cordial relationship between the United States of America and the Republic of Panama. I share with you the aspiration of your Government that the most effective cooperation and firm friendship shall continue, during these troubled times, and after-



wards, between our two Governments and peoples.

The fundamental principles of continental solidarity, reaffirmed by Your Excellency's Government together with those of the United States of America and our nineteen sister Republics at the conferences of Foreign Ministers held in Panama and Habana, form the unshakable foundation on which the security of our national liberties and sovereignty have been built.

Panama's new diplomatic representative was born in Antón, Province of Coclé, Panama, on December 22, 1895, his father being Juan Paulino Jaén M. and his mother Rita Guardia de Jaén. His early education was received in his native province, his secondary education at the School of Arts and Crafts in the Capital, and he then attended the University of

Michigan and the University of Illinois, from which he was graduated in 1921 with the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architectural Engineering. During the years from his graduation to 1935 he was engaged in the practice of his profession in the United States, in Panama, and in the Canal Zone. In 1935-36 he was Director of the Vocational School in Panama; in 1936-37 he served as Chief of the Internal Revenue Office; in 1937-38 he was Superintendent of Santo Tomás Hospital; and in 1938-40 he was Secretary of Health, Welfare, and Public Works.

Señor Jaén Guardia was appointed special ambassador of his country to attend the inauguration ceremonies of the Presi-

dent of Mexico on December 1, 1940, and following that occasion he was designated Minister of Panama in Mexico. On October 9, 1941, he served as President of Panama for three hours, and thereafter was named to his present post as Ambassador in the United States. He has also served as official delegate to several inter-American conferences, including the Third Pan American Highway Congress at Santiago, Chile, in 1939, and the Fourth Pan American Highway Congress and Second Inter-American Travel Congress at Mexico City in 1941.

Senor Jaén Guardia is also Panama's representative on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



Latin American Foreign Trade in 1940

JULIAN G. ZIER

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THE purpose of this review¹ is to present a statistical account of the value of the foreign trade of the 20 Latin American Republics during the years 1939 and 1940, the latest years for which it is possible to obtain complete totals and to convert all of the monetary units of the Republics into a common denomination for comparison.

This conversion into United States currency was made by a somewhat arbitrary system necessitated by the fact that many of the monetary units have more than one fluctuating rate of exchange in foreign markets. In consideration of this fact the accompanying tables are published with such reservations as the process of compilation necessitates.

In some cases, as a result of the fluctuation of exchange rates, there is a marked difference in the status of trade expressed in the currency of a country as compared with that of the trade expressed in dollars.

The total foreign trade of the 20 Latin American Republics for 1940, compiled from Latin American official sources and converted into United States dollars, reached a value of \$3,096,959,000 as compared with \$3,204,999,000 in 1939, a decrease of \$108,040,000, or 3.4 percent. Latin American imports in 1940 totaled \$1,332,962,000, as compared with \$1,346,510,000 in 1939, a decline of \$13,548,000, or 1 percent. Latin American exports in 1940 amounted to \$1,763,997,000, as

¹ This review is taken from a more extensive pamphlet entitled "Latin American Foreign Trade: A General Survey—1940," published by the Pan American Union which contains statements in considerable detail on the trade of each country.—EDITOR.

compared with \$1,858,489,000 in 1939, a loss of \$94,492,000, or 5.1 percent.

The foreign trade of the 20 Latin American Republics for the latest nine-year period for which totals are available (1932 to 1940, inclusive), together with figures for the earliest four years for which a comparative compilation can be given (1910 to 1913, inclusive), was as follows:

TABLE I.—Foreign trade, all Latin America—1910 to 1913 and 1932 to 1940

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Year	Imports	Exports	Total trade
1910	1,058,660	1,286,201	2,344,861
1911	1,159,491	1,283,233	2,442,724
1912	1,242,513	1,573,533	2,816,046
1913	1,321,861	1,552,751	2,874,612
1932	610,448	1,030,393	1,640,841
1933	794,121	1,178,337	1,972,458
1934	1,043,673	1,632,368	2,676,041
1935	1,117,487	1,722,596	2,840,083
1936	1,248,230	1,908,076	3,156,306
1937	1,629,832	2,395,532	4,025,364
1938	1,414,083	1,757,555	3,171,638
1939	1,346,510	1,858,489	3,204,999
1940	1,332,962	1,763,997	3,096,959

Of the two main tables accompanying this survey, Table II gives the total visible imports and exports of each of the Latin American Republics for the years 1939 and 1940. Table III shows the percentage distribution of imports and exports of each of the Republics for the same two years among the six leading commercial countries.

Table IV shows the total import and export trade of the 20 Latin American Republics with the six leading commercial countries, by values as well as percentages, for the years 1939 and 1940. In Table V these percentages appear with those for the years 1910-15 and 1932-38.

TABLE II.—Latin American Foreign Trade in 1940—A General Survey

[Values in thousands of United States current dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	Imports			Exports			Total foreign trade		
	1939	1940	Change in 1940	1939	1940	Change in 1940	1939	1940	Change in 1940
Mexico	121,597	123,902	+2,305	176,569	177,800	+1,231	298,166	301,702	+3,536
Guatemala	15,296	12,667	-2,629	16,985	12,039	-4,946	32,281	24,706	-7,575
El Salvador	8,850	8,108	-742	12,740	12,228	-512	21,590	20,336	-1,254
Honduras ¹	9,703	10,085	+382	9,867	9,658	-209	19,570	19,743	+173
Nicaragua	6,365	7,052	+687	8,301	9,494	+1,193	14,666	16,546	+1,880
Costa Rica	16,885	16,840	-45	9,086	7,484	-1,602	25,971	24,324	-1,647
Panama ²	17,651	20,464	+2,813	³ 7,669	³ 6,826	-843	25,320	27,290	+1,970
Cuba	105,862	103,860	-2,002	147,676	127,288	-20,388	253,538	231,148	-22,390
Dominican Republic	11,592	10,511	-1,081	18,643	18,330	-313	30,235	28,841	-1,394
Haiti ⁴	8,181	7,940	-241	7,208	5,399	-1,809	15,449	13,339	-2,110
Northern group of Latin American Republics	321,982	321,429	-553	414,804	386,546	-28,258	736,786	707,975	-28,811
Argentina	312,088	289,367	-22,721	393,293	382,750	-10,543	705,381	672,117	-33,264
Bolivia ²	25,754	23,595	-2,159	34,613	43,003	+8,390	60,367	66,598	+6,231
Brazil	296,127	300,877	+4,750	333,674	301,021	-32,653	629,801	601,898	-27,903
Chile	84,055	104,515	+19,860	138,368	143,596	+5,228	223,023	248,111	+25,088
Colombia	104,819	84,977	-20,142	101,169	95,074	-6,095	205,988	179,751	-26,237
Ecuador	10,202	11,120	+918	11,533	10,742	-791	21,735	21,862	+127
Paraguay	7,822	9,069	+1,247	9,825	7,402	-2,423	17,647	16,471	-1,176
Peru	48,088	51,066	+3,578	71,707	65,782	-5,925	119,795	117,448	-2,347
Uruguay	32,649	39,091	+6,442	50,632	58,186	+7,554	83,281	97,277	+13,996
Venezuela	102,324	97,556	-4,768	³ 298,871	³ 269,895	-28,976	401,195	367,451	-33,744
South American Republics	1,024,528	1,011,533	-12,995	1,443,685	1,377,451	-66,234	2,468,213	2,388,984	-79,229
Total of the 20 Republics	1,346,510	1,332,962	-13,548	1,858,489	1,763,997	-94,492	3,204,999	3,086,959	-118,040

¹ Fiscal year ended June 30.² Figures are for 1938 and 1939; 1940 unavailable.³ Includes reexports.⁴ Fiscal year ended September 30.

TABLE III.—Percentage Shares of the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Italy, and Japan in the Foreign Trade of the Individual Countries of Latin America

Country	United States				United Kingdom				France				Germany				Italy				Japan			
	Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports	
	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940
Mexico	66.9	78.8	74.2	89.5	2.6	3.2	5.8	1.0	3.7	2.0	1.6	0.9	12.7	1.3	5.6	(1)	2.2	1.7	1.7	2.3	1.2	2.6	1.0	2.5
Guatemala	54.5	33.8	70.7	91.0	3.7	1.6	0.4	1.3	1.4	1.1	0.4	(1)	27.0	2.9	11.5	(1)	1.7	2.5	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.8	(1)	(1)
El Salvador	53.0	67.4	59.9	75.2	6.9	7.6	0.2	0.2	3.6	2.6	0.5	0.2	17.5	1.3	9.0	(1)	4.3	4.0	1.1	1.0	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Honduras	65.2	62.7	90.7	95.6	3.0	2.9	1.8	0.1	1.0	0.7	(1)	(1)	11.4	6.5	1.9	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.1	(1)	6.0	13.2	0.2	0.2
Nicaragua	68.4	84.0	77.5	94.2	5.2	3.0	1.3	0.4	2.6	1.4	2.0	0.4	12.2	0.8	10.9	(1)	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.9	2.3	0.5	2.0
Costa Rica	58.8	75.0	45.6	58.8	4.0	4.5	16.9	25.1	1.3	0.7	0.9	0.1	17.7	3.5	25.0	(1)	1.7	2.2	0.8	0.9	5.1	2.5	0.6	0.5
Panama ²	67.5	58.2	43.6	43.8	4.7	4.7	0.3	0.7	2.3	2.4	(1)	(1)	6.2	7.9	1.9	2.1	0.8	0.7	0.1	(1)	9.3	9.8	(1)	(1)
Cuba	74.0	78.0	75.3	82.4	2.9	3.4	12.2	7.8	2.1	1.4	1.2	1.1	3.2	0.2	1.0	(1)	0.9	0.9	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.1	(1)
Dominican Republic	59.2	69.4	27.1	24.7	3.1	3.9	36.2	41.2	3.0	1.4	11.9	6.2	8.0	0.8	2.1	(1)	1.6	1.1	(1)	(1)	9.6	8.3	0.4	0.4
Haiti	62.3	72.6	34.4	51.6	11.1	9.1	18.9	27.0	5.1	4.2	21.0	4.0	5.7	0.1	3.1	(1)	0.9	0.9	0.4	0.1	2.4	2.8	0.1	(1)
Argentina	17.2	29.1	12.0	17.7	19.9	19.7	35.8	37.7	5.6	3.0	4.8	5.8	9.2	0.7	5.7	(1)	2.7	2.2	2.1	3.4	0.8	2.1	0.7	1.6
Bolivia ²	25.5	22.7	4.6	9.2	7.0	5.8	62.5	64.8	0.1	1.9	(1)	(1)	17.9	12.4	0.7	0.5	1.0	2.4	(1)	(1)	7.0	4.6	0.3	1.2
Brazil	33.6	51.9	36.2	42.3	9.3	9.4	9.6	17.3	2.7	(1)	6.3	(1)	19.2	(1)	11.9	(1)	1.8	(1)	2.4	(1)	1.5	2.4	5.5	5.7
Chile	31.1	47.9	30.5	58.3	8.3	10.4	12.3	5.8	1.8	0.5	4.7	0.9	22.7	3.5	8.4	(1)	3.9	4.0	3.7	3.0	3.7	5.5	1.8	4.5
Colombia	54.0	71.4	66.9	69.8	9.5	7.6	1.4	1.9	3.0	1.9	3.1	3.1	12.8	0.8	7.3	0.1	2.3	1.5	1.3	0.8	0.2	0.3	(1)	0.1
Ecuador	48.7	59.4	49.1	59.9	5.5	7.5	3.7	2.1	5.0	3.6	6.6	1.3	18.1	2.0	6.8	(1)	3.1	4.1	2.2	2.5	5.3	10.5	3.9	3.2
Paraguay	9.7	21.3	14.7	20.9	8.2	8.6	7.8	12.7	1.8	0.9	1.8	1.1	11.7	1.1	5.0	(1)	2.7	1.9	0.4	0.4	12.9	12.7	(1)	(1)
Peru	41.1	53.1	30.4	42.9	8.4	9.2	19.6	12.1	3.5	1.7	5.6	2.3	14.7	1.4	6.0	(1)	2.0	2.5	7.0	0.8	3.1	5.8	2.4	7.8
Uruguay	5.2	16.3	13.8	25.9	18.3	18.5	20.8	20.8	2.4	2.0	3.8	3.9	16.4	1.4	12.1	2.0	6.4	4.6	6.0	4.3	2.7	3.3	1.8	3.3
Venezuela	61.1	73.7	20.4	22.5	6.2	7.6	4.4	2.2	3.0	2.0	1.8	1.1	9.5	0.4	1.9	(1)	2.5	2.1	0.5	0.4	1.9	3.2	(1)	0.2

¹ Less than one-tenth of one percent² Figures are for 1938 and 1939; 1940 unavailable.³ Unavailable.

TABLE IV.—*Distribution of Latin American Exports and Imports among the 6 Principal Commercial Countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	Exports to—				Imports from—			
	1939	1940	Percent of total		1939	1940	Percent of total	
			1939	1940			1939	1940
Total	1,858,489	1,763,997	100.0	100.0	1,316,510	1,332,962	100.0	100.0
United States..	654,860	778,091	35.2	44.1	516,809	703,372	40.6	52.7
United Kingdom	289,316	284,419	15.6	16.1	136,643	136,982	10.1	10.3
France	70,613	37,812	3.8	2.1	45,911	21,116	3.4	1.6
Germany	117,788	1,717	6.3	0.1	179,655	16,521	13.3	1.2
Italy	31,790	27,005	1.7	1.5	30,987	22,687	2.3	1.7
Japan	28,777	43,132	1.5	2.4	21,403	38,037	1.8	2.9

TABLE V.—*Percentage Distribution of Latin American Exports and Imports among the 6 Leading Commercial Countries*

Year	United States		United Kingdom		France		Germany		Italy		Japan	
	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from
	1910	34.5	23.5	20.9	26.0	8.4	8.4	11.1	15.6	1.2	4.9	0.1
1911	34.3	23.8	21.0	25.7	9.2	8.3	12.9	16.7	1.7	4.6	0.1	0.1
1912	34.4	24.5	19.8	24.8	7.9	8.3	11.9	16.7	1.8	5.1	0.1	0.1
1913	30.8	25.0	21.2	24.4	8.0	8.3	12.4	16.6	2.0	5.0	0.1	0.1
1932	32.1	32.3	19.4	16.3	6.7	1.9	7.2	9.4	3.1	5.1	0.1	1.1
1933	29.4	29.2	22.1	18.1	6.2	1.9	6.9	11.5			0.3	1.8
1934	29.4	30.1	21.2	17.3	5.0	4.6	7.9	9.9			0.4	2.8
1935	32.8	31.7	18.6	14.7	4.7	3.7	8.0	13.0	2.2	2.6	0.8	3.7
1936	32.8	31.5	19.2	14.3	5.0	3.3	8.0	15.4	1.8	2.1	1.9	3.0
1937	31.0	34.0	17.7	13.2	1.0	3.0	8.7	15.4	3.1	2.4	1.6	2.8
1938	31.3	34.6	16.1	11.8	4.0	3.4	10.3	16.5	1.5	3.0	1.3	2.7
1939	35.2	40.6	15.6	10.1	3.8	3.4	6.3	13.3	1.7	2.3	1.5	1.8
1940	44.1	52.7	16.1	10.3	2.1	1.6	0.1	1.2	1.5	1.7	2.1	2.9

APPENDIX

Leading Latin American Exports and Imports

COUNTRY	EXPORTS	IMPORTS
Argentina	Wheat, wool, beef, linseed, cattle hides, corn.	Fuel and lubricants; textiles and manufactures; metals and manufactures; motor vehicles and accessories; chemical and pharmaceutical products; machinery and accessories.
Bolivia	Tin, silver, wolfram, antimony, lead.	Livestock; machinery, tools, and implements; foodstuffs, especially sugar, wheat and wheat flour; motor vehicles, streetcars, wagons, and coaches; petroleum and products; industrial explosives; textiles.
Brazil	Coffee, cotton, frozen, chilled and preserved meat, hides and skins, cacao.	Machinery and apparatus; wheat; iron and steel manufactures; vehicles and accessories; petroleum and products; patent fuel, coal and coke; chemical and pharmaceutical products; paper and manufactures.
Chile	Copper, nitrate, gold and silver ores, wool, gold in bars, iron ore.	Textiles; chemical and pharmaceutical products; metals and manufactures; industrial machinery and transportation equipment; coal and other fuel; foodstuffs and beverages.
Colombia	Coffee, gold, petroleum, bananas, cattle hides.	Machinery, tools and implements; transportation equipment; chemical and pharmaceutical products; metals and manufactures; textiles and manufactures; paper and cardboard and manufactures; stone, cement, ceramic, and glass products; rubber and manufactures.
Costa Rica	Coffee, bananas, cacao	Metal products; railway material; machinery; wheat flour; chemical products; petroleum and products; motor vehicles.
Cuba	Sugar and products, tobacco and manufactures, manganese, copper, bananas.	Foodstuffs, especially cereals, meat, fruits, and vegetables; machinery, instruments, and vehicles; textiles and manufactures; iron and steel and manufactures; coal and other fuel; chemical and pharmaceutical products.
Dominican Republic	Sugar, cacao, coffee	Textiles and manufactures; machinery and apparatus; jute bags; chemical and pharmaceutical products; paper and manufactures; structural iron; automobiles.
Ecuador	Cacao, gold (cyanide precipitates), petroleum, coffee, rice.	Textiles; vehicles and accessories; iron and steel and manufactures; chemical and pharmaceutical products; machinery and apparatus; wheat flour.
El Salvador	Coffee, gold, silver	Textiles and manufactures; chemical and pharmaceutical products; electrical apparatus and machinery; iron and steel and manufactures; motor vehicles.
Guatemala	Bananas, coffee, chicle	Textiles and manufactures; motor vehicles and accessories; petroleum and products; paper, cardboard and manufactures; railway material; machinery.

Haiti	Coffee, sugar, sisal, bananas, cotton.	Textiles and manufactures; foodstuffs, especially wheat; chemical and pharmaceutical products, especially soap; iron and steel and manufactures; mineral oils; motor vehicles; machinery, tools, and implements.
Honduras	Bananas, gold, silver	Metals and manufactures; machinery, tools, and implements; motor vehicles and accessories; textiles; chemical and pharmaceutical products; petroleum and products.
Mexico.	Gold, silver, lead, copper, zinc, petroleum and products.	Motor vehicles and accessories; metals and manufactures; machinery and accessories; textiles and thread, especially rayon; paper, cardboard, newsprint, cellulose pulp; copra; chemical and pharmaceutical products.
Nicaragua	Gold, coffee, bananas	Machinery and apparatus; textiles and manufactures; metals and manufactures; petroleum and products; chemical and pharmaceutical products.
Panama	Bananas, cacao	Textiles and manufactures; foodstuffs, especially butter and wheat flour; cigarettes; automobiles.
Paraguay	Quebracho extract, canned meat, yerba maté, cattle hides, cotton.	Textiles and manufactures; foodstuffs, especially wheat and wheat flour; tin plate and containers; petroleum and products; live animals.
Peru	Copper, cotton, petroleum and products, sugar, gold in bars.	Machinery, tools, and apparatus; textiles and manufactures; chemical and pharmaceutical products; foodstuffs; metals and manufactures; automobiles and accessories.
Uruguay	Wool, chilled beef, preserved meat, linseed, cattle hides.	Combustibles and lubricants; foodstuffs, especially sugar and yerba maté; textiles and manufactures; machinery, tools, and implements; automobiles and accessories.
Venezuela	Petroleum and products, coffee, gold, cacao.	Machinery, instruments, and apparatus; foodstuffs and beverages; textiles and manufactures; metals and manufactures; chemical and pharmaceutical products; minerals, glass, and ceramics; automobiles and accessories.

Second Inter-American Travel Congress

"ENLIGHTENED patriotism at last realizes that in this Continent of ours, with its immense treasures and vast unexplored regions, power and wealth will depend not upon conquest and displacement, but upon that collaboration and joint effort

which will reclaim deserts and fertilize the soil" That prophetic statement, uttered years ago by Luis Drago, the great Argentine statesman, faithfully expresses the spirit that characterized the deliberations of the Second Inter-American Travel Congress held at Mexico City from September 15 to 24, 1941.

From a report on the Second Inter-American Travel Congress, Travel Division, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

Representatives of 22 governments and

private industry—251 in all—met under the auspices of the Mexican Government to discuss ways and means of stimulating New World travel, with its obvious effect on commercial interchange, in the light of pressing needs for unity and close collaboration among our peoples. The importance of this international gathering was particularly enhanced by the presence of high government tourist officials and specialists from most of the countries represented.

All sessions of the Congress were marked by a spontaneous spirit of solidarity, by an abiding faith in the common destiny of our American nations and in the democratic institutions they so zealously uphold and defend. The need was stressed, however, for positive governmental action on a broad policy of interchange of individuals, if we are to achieve the unity and understanding so vital to the cultural, social and economic progress of the Western Hemisphere.

Further steps toward establishment of a continental organization for the promotion of tourist travel were recommended by the Congress. They included the formation of inter-American federations of hotels and automobile clubs, plus the drafting of a convention for the regulation of international automotive traffic, and a realistic analysis of the many problems confronting the travel industry in the Americas, with the adoption of practical solutions.

Immediate measures were recommended for the organization of North American, Central American and Antillean regional travel federations, similar to the South American group already in existence. Effective economic support was asked for the Permanent Secretariat of the Inter-American Travel Congresses at the Pan American Union.

The plan to establish continental associations of specialized groups urged by the

First Inter-American Travel Congress¹ was again endorsed, and action on such a proposal was not long delayed.

An Inter-American Hotel Federation was formed at Mexico City, as originally suggested at the First Travel Congress, by a special group of delegates representing hotels of 18 countries. Franklin Moore, ex-President of the American Hotel Association, was elected to head the new organization, with business offices in New York, although permanent headquarters are to be maintained in Mexico.

Another body officially launched in the Mexican capital was an Inter-American Federation of Automobile Clubs, with headquarters in Buenos Aires. Carlos P. Anesi, President of the Argentine Automobile Club and Chairman of the National Tourist Board recently established in that country, was the unanimous choice of the delegations present as first President of the Federation.

We may safely say that both of these organizations will be strong and active, and will exert a vitalizing influence on the movement for inter-American travel coordination.

Practical recommendations to the Governments of the 21 Republics and Canada, looking to the creation of a single, vast travel area in the Americas, were advanced in a series of resolutions adopted, which unfortunately can not be discussed in detail within the brief space at our disposal.

However, it should be said that the Congress ratified the position taken by the San Francisco meeting favoring the adoption of an inter-American tourist card. Pending a favorable change in the international situation, however, and the signing of a multilateral convention, the gov-

¹ *First Inter-American Travel Congress, San Francisco, California, April 14-21, 1939. See BULLETIN, August 1939, p. 473.*

ernments were urged to work out a solution of the problem through bilateral action. Furthermore, the simplification of health, police and customs requirements for travelers—in which great strides have been made by several Latin American countries—was deemed highly necessary.

The Pan American Highway, and its network of coordinated roads, came in for considerable attention. Jointly with the Fourth Pan American Highway Congress, which met simultaneously with the Travel Congress in Mexico City, an Inter-American Convention for the Regulation of Automotive Traffic was drafted, to be submitted to all Governments. Its purpose is to ease the flow of motor traffic across international borders through the adoption of uniform rules. Progress in the construction of the Highway makes this imperative.

Both Congresses endorsed the "Good Neighbor Circuit" of highways linking Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay, and the project that would connect the Antilles with the Continent through a coordinated system of highways and ferry-boats.

The next Congress of the Postal Union of the Americas and Spain is requested to survey the possibility of reducing, uniformly throughout the Americas, postal rates on travel publicity and information material intended for free distribution; while the governments are asked to exempt such material from the payment of customs duties, whether it be consigned to a Consulate of the country of origin, or by one transportation company to another or to its agents.

Protection is urged for the typical arts and crafts in the Americas, by "restricting, with a view to ultimately eliminating, the importation of imitations and counterfeits" from other areas of the world. A special committee, which is to meet under

the auspices of the Mexican Government, will work for uniform regulations and promote the adoption of such restrictive measures by all American nations. A generous leeway is requested for travelers who may wish to take articles of typical arts and crafts, as well as others intended for personal use, across international borders.

Other important resolutions call for special facilities for tourist yachts and airplanes; granting of all possible facilities for fishing, hunting, mountain climbing and similar sports; highway parking space, tourist shelters, restaurants and service stations conveniently located and properly supervised; easy availability of traveler's insurance; official supervision of currency exchange to insure that private commercial concerns grant current bank rates; preservation of national tourist resources (natural beauty spots, historic monuments, etc.); coordinated organization, promotion and stimulation of governmental tourist publicity; regulation of commissions to travel bureaus and tour promoters; interchange of groups of industrial and rural workers under the sponsorship of Government labor and agricultural departments, private associations and labor unions; collaboration of neighboring countries in the development of international parks; establishment of tourist libraries, and the adoption of a uniform system for the compilation of travel statistics.

The urgent need of improved inter-American communications was the subject of considerable discussion, in which particular stress was laid on the lack of steamship services to many countries, even prior to the present world crisis. Greater facilities were requested for international air services, while the governments were urged to negotiate with their neighbors at the earliest opportunity for the establishment or improvement of railway services across

their borders. The importance of international bus lines was emphasized in connection with the Pan American Highway.

Travel, with its effective contribution to mutual knowledge and understanding, has a definite place in the educational programs of the American nations, it was contended. Consequently, official endorsement and support of plans for a greater exchange of professors and students were unanimously urged.

In accordance with the practice followed with regard to the International Conferences of American States, the Pan American Union was designated as custodian of the original minutes and documents of the Inter-American Travel Congresses. The head of the Permanent Secretariat, of which the Travel Division of this institution has charge, is to be an *ex officio* member of the Congresses; and the Secretariat, in collaboration with the Organizing Committees and the respective governments, is given the task of drafting the agenda for each biennial meeting.

The joint formal opening of the Travel Congress and The Fourth Pan American Highway Congress in the Palace of Fine Arts was under the chairmanship of Lic. Miguel Alemán, Secretary of the Interior and chairman of the Organizing Committee; high government dignitaries and

members of the diplomatic corps were in attendance. A great measure of credit for the success of the Congress is due Lic. Fernando Casas Alemán, Under-Secretary of the Interior, who was elected permanent chairman; Professor Rafael Molina Betancourt, the secretary general; José Mayora, the chief clerk; and the staffs of the Mexican Government Tourist Department and the Mexican Tourist Association, whose aid and counsel were graciously offered and given at all times.

For the generous reception and entertainment by the Mexican Government, the delegates had the deepest appreciation. Such hospitality could hardly be excelled. The interesting program offered included a ceremony of homage to the flags, at the National Stadium, where a presidential message to the American nations was delivered and 10,000 voices sang a *Hymn to the Americas*; a spectacular pageant, *The Messenger of the Sun*, with 1,400 costumed actors portraying the ancient rite of human sacrifice in the Aztec city of Tenochtitlán; and, as a fitting climax to a series of sumptuous festivities, a formal reception tendered by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

The Government of the Argentine Republic will be host to the Third Inter-American Travel Congress, which is expected to meet at Buenos Aires in 1943.

O Velho Humanismo Latino e o Novo Humanismo Americano

JOSÉ AUGUSTO CESÁRIO ALVIM

ESTA REVISTA, nascida no seio de uma academia, traz forçosamente as virtudes que num cenáculo de cultura imperam: o espírito de compreensão, base de toda vida social e a aspiração de beleza, alma de toda atividade artística. Até aí está definida a herança latina de Casa de Machado de Assis, filha daquele viveiro da inteligência que Richelieu inaugurou à beira do Sena. Mas, para felicidade e desvanecimento nosso, esta revista—como a própria Academia de que provém—não se limita em ser latina e nem se contenta em compreender o mundo com a razão e embelezar a vida com a arte. Esta revista é alguma coisa mais do que latina—ela é americana. Ela vai além da razão e da arte. Ela agita um elemento novo e vigoroso no mundo das letras—a generosidade, o ímpeto liberal do idealismo americano—muito distinto da ingenuidade selvagem do mundo novo que influiu no exagêro romântico e liberal da civilização do século XVIII. Desta vez o que presenciemos não é mais um mundo virgem deixando os seus segredos serem roubados por estranhos incapazes de os penetrar e prontos a os desvirtuar. O que vemos é um mundo organizado, surpreendendo o mundo que se desorganiza, com a joviali-

dade e a sabedoria de um sentido claro dos destinos humanos.

Revela-se, pois, esta publicação—além de sentinela da cultura latina nos trópicos e de guardiã do gênio mediterrâneo nas margens do Atlântico—uma franco-atiradora da cordialidade social que o sr. Ribeiro Couto identificou na mentalidade da nossa gente e que é na verdade patrimônio do espírito das Américas. Tribuna da cordialidade brasileira, abrindo-se aos escritores de todos os cantos do país, cega a quaisquer prevenções ou preferências regionais e sectárias, a *Revista Brasileira*, a Academia que a edita e o Presidente que a lança, batem os alicerces da unidade literária do país, tão necessária depois de nossa unidade política e de nossa unidade econômica. Manifesto da cordialidade interamericana, esta publicação poderia ostentar na capa a frase profética de Bolívar que anunciou o surgimento do verdadeiro panamericanismo: “Um mundo novo se organiza sob a forma de nações independentes, unidas por uma lei comum que dirigirá suas relações exteriores e lhes oferecerá a fôrça estabilizadora de um congresso geral e permanente.” Mensagem da cordialidade e do optimismo americano ao mundo áspero e pessimista que se debate em crises ideológicas e bélicas, a *Revista Brasileira* adquire, nesta hora apocalíptica da velha civilização européia, um acento e um prestígio evangélicos.

Excerpt from an essay in “Revista Brasileira”, a publication of the Brazilian Academy of Letters, Rio de Janeiro, Vol. 1, No. 1, June 1941.

Pan American News

Convention on European Colonies and Possessions Effective

The Convention on European Colonies and Possessions in America, formulated at the Second Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs at Habana in July 1940, went into effect January 8, 1941, when the government of Honduras became the fourteenth signatory power to deposit its ratification at the Pan American Union.

The Convention sets up an Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration to take over and administer territory in the Western Hemisphere of a non-American State which another non-American State may attempt to acquire, and provides that it shall come into operation when ratifications have been deposited at the Pan American Union by two-thirds, or fourteen, of the American Republics. Prior to the deposit by Honduras, the following governments had deposited their ratifications: Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Panama, Peru, the United States, and Venezuela.

Now that the Convention has become effective, any ratifying country may convoke the first meeting of the Commission, proposing the city in which it is to be held.

The Commission is authorized to establish a provisional administration in the regions to which the convention refers, to allow such administration to be exercised by the number of States which it may determine in each case, and to supervise the exercise of such administration under the terms of the Convention.

Commission formed for utilization of immobilized ships

Designation of the members that will serve on the Commission of Experts on Maritime Affairs to formulate plans for the efficient use of foreign-flag vessels lying inactive in the ports of the American Continent was announced in December 1941 by the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, from its headquarters at the Pan American Union.

The appointments made by seven governments are as follows:

CHILE—Señor Carlos Cortés, Naval Attaché of Chile in the United States.

BRAZIL—Senhor Renato de Azevedo, General Agent of the Lloyd Brasileiro in New York.

CUBA—Dr. Ramiro Guerra, Delegate to the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee.

PERU—Señor Enrique Labarthe, Naval Attaché to the Peruvian Embassy in the United States.

ARGENTINA—Señor Alberto Brunet, Naval Attaché to the Argentine Embassy in the United States.

URUGUAY—Señor Mario Collazo Pittaluga, Naval Attaché of Uruguay in the United States.

UNITED STATES—Mr. Lloyd Swayne, of the Division of Emergency Shipping, U. S. Maritime Commission.

His Excellency Dr. Héctor David Castro, Minister of El Salvador, and delegate of El Salvador on the Economic Advisory Committee, has been chosen from among those members of the Committee whose countries will not be directly represented on the Commission to serve as chairman of the newly created body.

The creation of the Commission is in-

tended to give effect to proposals previously formulated by the Financial and Economic Advisory Committee for the use of immobilized ships. The basic plan in principle is that the vessels now lying in American ports shall be utilized in such a manner as to promote the defense of the economies of the American Republics as well as the peace and security of the continent.

The functions of the newly established Commission will be to make recommendations for the allocation of particular vessels to the several trade routes; efficient scheduling where more than one shipping line serves an individual port or nation; the diversion of at least minimum shipping facilities to those nations not reasonably adequately served and in which there lie no, or not sufficient, inactive vessels to alleviate the situation, at least partially; and the exchange or interchange among the ship-operating nations of vessels of various types in order that each may operate the type of vessels which it is in a position to handle and which are appropriate to the type of commerce to be borne.

Three pacts signed by Bolivia and Peru

On October 18, 1941, representatives of the governments of Bolivia and Peru signed two protocols, on safe conduct passes between the two countries and property titles and the nationality of inhabitants of the Copacabana Peninsula, respectively, and exchanged notes on the encouragement of tourist travel.

The first protocol provides for 3-day safe-conduct passes for nationals of either country traveling or engaged in border traffic between specified towns in one country to nearby towns in the other, from Fortín Bolpebra, Bolivia, and Iñapari, Peru, in

the north, to Berenguela, Bolivia, and Tarata, Peru, in the south. Those intending to travel farther into the neighboring country must have passports.

The other protocol will solve problems related to the ownership of private property and to citizenship that have arisen in putting into effect an earlier protocol, of January 15, 1932, which fixed the international boundary on the Copacabana Peninsula. Both governments will recognize the titles to private property legally acquired before December 2, 1939, and situated in territory whose sovereignty was changed by the 1932 pact, upon the presentation of certificates from the Registry of Real Property or other competent authority of the government under whose authority such title was acquired or established. Bolivians and Peruvians who are now, because of the new boundary line, under the jurisdiction of the other country, will keep their original nationality unless within three months after the protocol becomes effective they indicate their desire to change it.

By the exchange of notes, the two governments agree to inform each other of measures taken to increase tourist travel; to draft a plan whereby tourists to one country may also visit the other; to prepare a joint publicity program to be used abroad; to stimulate their mountain crafts that are of interest to tourists; and to preserve archaeological monuments and folk customs that serve as tourist attractions.

United States legations in Bolivia, Ecuador, and Paraguay raised to the rank of embassies

The Government of the United States announced on January 5, 1942, that arrangements had been made to raise its legations in Bolivia, Ecuador, and Para-

guary to the rank of embassies, and each of the three South American nations announced at the same time that it would take similar action with respect to its legation in the United States. The change in status will become effective in each country upon the presentation there of the letters of credence of the first Ambassador from the other country.

In the case of Ecuador, Captain Colón Eloy Alfaro has been accredited to the Government of the United States as Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of Ecuador since September 17, 1936, when he was given ambassadorial rank for the duration of boundary negotiations between the Governments of Ecuador and Peru. In accordance with the new arrangement, the Embassy of Ecuador in the United States will be maintained permanently as an embassy.

Supplementary trade agreement between the United States and Cuba

A second supplementary trade agreement between the United States and Cuba, negotiated under authority of the Trade Agreements Act, was signed at Habana on December 23, 1941, and, following its proclamation by the President of the United States on December 29, 1941, and publication in the *Gaceta Oficial* of Cuba on the same date, went into effect on January 5, 1942. It supplements and amends the United States—Cuba trade agreement of August 24, 1934, which was first amended by the supplementary agreement of December 18, 1939.

The original and first supplementary agreements covered nearly all dutiable products that enter into trade between the two countries. Therefore the new agreement includes comparatively few new products, but rather takes into

account new developments that have occurred since the signing of the original and first supplementary agreements and provides for additional tariff reductions by each country on specified imports from the other, as well as for other mutually advantageous changes. Like the original and first supplementary agreements, and in conformity with the policy first provided for in the Reciprocity Convention of 1902 between the two countries, the new agreement is an exclusive preferential arrangement and the tariff concessions contained therein are not to be extended by either country to a third country.

In Article I of the new agreement, Cuba grants concessions on products imported from the United States involving 38 Cuban tariff items, to 33 of which Cuba had already accorded improved customs treatment in the previous agreement and first supplement. The treatment of 30 of these products is further improved in the present agreement by reductions in the Cuban tariff rates, and on the remaining 8 items existing favorable tariff rates are bound against increases.

In the original and first supplementary agreements the United States obtained from Cuba duty concessions on about 80 percent, by value, of Cuba's imports from this country. In 1940 the United States supplied 78 percent of Cuba's total imports.

The new agreement establishes duty rates below those that formerly applied to the following United States products imported into Cuba: Steel safety razor blades; metal office furniture, filing cabinets, safes, and strong boxes; automobile and truck parts and accessories; tires and inner tubes; specified paperboard; insulating materials of rock or mineral wool or hair felt; specified napped cotton blankets; asphalt cements and putties for roofing and waterproofing; cellulose tubes, sausage casings,

and bottle capsules and bands; industrial starch and feculae; industrial glucose; alfalfa meal; chewing gum; cauliflower, celery, cucumbers, and other fresh garden truck (except tomatoes and cabbage) during the period June 1–October 31 in any year; fresh apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, grapes, and similar fruits; dried or evaporated fruits (except figs and raisins); canned peas, sweet corn, and asparagus, strained and unstrained; paprika and other canned or packed vegetables not specifically classified, strained or unstrained; preserved pears, peaches, plums, apricots, and others, and mixtures of the same; sauces, mustards, and seasonings (except tomato products); natural or artificial eider and unfermented grape juice, in specified containers; and edible starch and fecula of corn. Uniform customs classifications are provided for all kinds of canned beans and for all canned soups (except tomato).

Bound against increases are the present tariff rates on the following United States products: Pills, capsules, medicinal lozenges, and similar articles, when constituting pharmaceutical specialties; plywood; wooden crates for packing fruits and vegetables; canned tomato soup; ginger ale, root beer, and other nonalcoholic and soft drinks, not specially classified, in specified containers; tapioca and certain other edible starches, pastes, and feculae; manufactured articles of rubber not specially provided for; and felt-base oilcloth floor coverings.

Schedule I also provides for the free entry into Cuba of motion-picture films imported for preliminary showing to distributors or for censorship purposes, providing they are re-exported within thirty days without being publicly exhibited. Finally, provision is made in schedule I for the uniform classification of certain hydrogenated vegetable (soybean) oils in order to remedy an inadvertent ambiguity

contained in the text of the original agreement.

In Article II of the new agreement the United States grants duty concessions on imports of various products from Cuba. Chief among these products are sugar and molasses, tobacco and cigars, and fresh, chilled, or frozen beef and veal. Concessions are also granted on medicinal preparations and drugs of animal origin; marble chip or granito; frog legs; mangoes; and miscellaneous preserved fruits, fruit pastes, and pulps. Lima beans, green or unripe, are included in schedule II for the purpose of bringing the wording on this item, which appeared in the original agreement, into conformity with the language of the Tariff Act of 1930; no change is made in the tariff.

The new agreement establishes a United States tariff rate of 75 cents per 100 pounds of 96-degree sugar of Cuban origin. On the basis of 1940 imports, this rate is equivalent to about 43 percent ad valorem. Under the Tariff Act of 1930, as originally enacted, the rate to Cuba was \$2.00 per 100 pounds; this rate was reduced to \$1.50 by presidential proclamation May 9, 1934, under the so-called flexible provisions of the Tariff Act (Sec. 336), in connection with United States sugar-marketing restrictions imposed under the provisions of the Jones-Costigan Act. The rate was further reduced to 90 cents per 100 pounds under the original trade agreement with Cuba.

The first supplementary agreement of December 18, 1939, provided for the restoration of the tariff rate of \$1.50 per 100 pounds in the event sugar-quota legislation in effect at that time should expire without the enactment of equivalent legislation. With a view to providing the greatest possible stability in regard to the tariff treatment of Cuban sugar, and taking into account the extension of sugar-quota legis-

lation until January 1, 1945, the provision linking the duty reduction to the existence of sugar-quota legislation has been dropped.

Both countries recognize the desirability, particularly in view of the emergency situation created by the Axis powers, of maintaining Cuba's position as a supplier of sugar to the United States market. In an exchange of notes which constitute an integral part of the agreement, the United States Government gives assurances to the Cuban Government that it will exert every appropriate effort to safeguard the position of Cuba as a supplier of sugar for the United States market as compared with its position under the Sugar Act of 1937.

On molasses and sugar sirups imported from Cuba (edible molasses, liquid sugar, and industrial molasses), the new agreement provides duty rates 50 percent below those applicable to Cuba under the Tariff Act of 1930. Based on average 1940 imports of the various types, the new rates will be equivalent to approximately 40 percent ad valorem for edible molasses, 19 percent ad valorem for liquid sugar, and 2 percent ad valorem for industrial molasses.

Of these three classifications, industrial molasses is by far the most important. It is used chiefly in the manufacture of industrial alcohol and, to a smaller extent, in livestock feed. As a result of wartime demand, consumption of industrial alcohol in the United States has risen to extremely high levels, involving larger molasses imports. Imports of this type of molasses from Cuba in 1940 amounted to approximately 239,000,000 gallons valued at \$10,000,000.

With regard to edible molasses, 1940 United States imports from Cuba of this product amounted to approximately 2,800,000 gallons, valued at \$200,000. Of this quantity approximately 1,400,000 gallons were imported at rates 20 percent

below those applicable to full-duty countries under the annual customs quota of 1,500,000 gallons provided for in the trade agreement with the United Kingdom. The balance was dutiable at rates 20 percent below the general rates of the Tariff Act of 1930. Under the new agreement there is no limitation on the quantity of edible molasses of Cuban origin which may enter the United States at the new duty rates, but such molasses may no longer be admitted under the customs quota provided for in the trade agreement with the United Kingdom.

On "liquid sugar," the reduced rate of duty provided for by the agreement will apply to a maximum yearly amount of 7,970,558 gallons (of 72 percent total sugar content), which is the absolute annual import quota established for imports from Cuba by the Sugar Act of 1937. Actual imports from Cuba in 1940 were 7,562,000 gallons valued at \$1,212,000.

The supplementary agreement provides for United States tariff reductions, in addition to those made previously, in the rates of duty on Cuban unstemmed wrapper tobacco; stemmed and unstemmed filler tobacco not specially provided for (other than cigarette leaf tobacco); scrap tobacco; and cigars. The new reductions bring each of these duty rates to a level equal to 50 percent of the rates effective before the original agreement was signed.

The ad valorem equivalent of the new tariff rate on fresh, chilled, or frozen beef and veal imported to the United States from Cuba, figured on the basis of 1940 imports, is 41 percent. Imports of this type of beef and veal from Cuba have increased substantially in recent years in response to growing demand and high prices in the United States. In the first nine months of 1941 they amounted to 23,000,000 pounds valued at \$1,700,000. These figures may be compared with a

domestic production of beef and veal estimated at 8.1 billion pounds in 1940. The quantity of beef and veal imported from Cuba will be primarily determined by prices in the United States, by Cuba's limited potentialities as a surplus cattle-producing country, and by the extent to which exports from Cuba may be restricted by local authorities in that country in the interest of Cuban consumers.

The new agreement changes the general provisions of the original agreement in some respects. A number of the changes are purely technical. However, among other things, certain changes were made in the provisions relating to the imposition of taxes on imports to compensate for internal taxes on like domestic products; provisions regarding quantitative restrictions and exchange control have been amplified, assuring, in respect to the latter, to each country unconditional most-favored-nation treatment in all aspects of any control of the means of international payment that either country may establish or maintain; and general reservations relating to such matters as sanitary regulations, public security, etc., have been clarified and brought up to date to include a specific reservation regarding measures adopted for the protection of the country's essential interests in time of war or other national emergency.

Joint Mexican-United States Defense Commission

On January 12, 1942, the Governments of Mexico and the United States announced that it had been found expedient to establish a mixed defense commission to study the problems relating to defense of the two countries and to propose to the respective Governments the measures that should be adopted.

The commission, officially called the

"Joint Mexican-United States Defense Commission," is composed of Brigadier General Miguel S. González Cadena and Brigadier General Tomás Sánchez Hernández, of the General Staff, as representatives of Mexico, and Vice Admiral Alfred Wilkinson Johnson and Major General Stanley Dunbar Embick, as representatives of the United States. The first meeting was scheduled to be held in Washington as soon as General Sánchez Hernández completed his mission as a member of the Mexican delegation to the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Rio de Janeiro.

The naming of this commission, which will operate along the same general lines as the Joint Canadian-United States Defense Commission appointed some months ago, represents another step in the whole-hearted cooperation that exists between Mexico and the United States for wartime defense of the American continent by land, sea, and air.

Mexican-United States conversations on petroleum expropriations

Conversations directed toward determining the just compensation to be paid to nationals of the United States of America whose properties, rights, or interests in the petroleum industry in Mexico were affected to their detriment by acts of the Government of Mexico subsequent to March 17, 1938, began in Mexico City on Monday, January 5, 1942, as provided for in the exchange of notes between the two Governments on November 19, 1941. (See BULLETIN, January 1942, pp. 47-50.)

Morris Llewellyn Cooke represents the United States and Manuel J. Zevada represents Mexico. Mr. Cooke, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, is a consulting engineer in management and has had a

long career in public service. He was Director of Public Works in Philadelphia during the years 1911-16, and since that time he served for varying periods with the Council of National Defense, Emergency Fleet Corporation, United States Shipping Board, New York State Power Authority, Mississippi Valley Committee, Water Resources Committee, Great Plains Committee, and Building Stabilization Committee. During the past year he was Technical Consultant to Mr. Sidney Hillman, Labor Division, Office of Production Management. Señor Zevada, an engineer, is at present Under Secretary of the Department of National Economy of the Mexican Government.

Mexican industrial census of 1940

Preliminary figures on Mexico's third industrial census, taken in 1940, were recently published by the General Statistical Office of the Department of National Economy. For purposes of the census Mexican industries were divided into two main groups, extractive (which includes electric power plants) and manufacturing, and only those enterprises that produced goods valued at 10,000 pesos or more in 1939 were enumerated. The summarized data are reprinted in the table on page 174.

The General Statistical Office made a few explanatory notes in reference to some of the data, as follows:

The 17 enterprises listed under the heading of extractive industries as engaged in the exploitation of oil fields were working a total of 31 fields, of which 15 were the property of independent producers and 16 were semiofficial undertakings. The value of their capital investments as given in the table did not include the value of their rolling stock and shipping tonnage. Figures on the value of oil-field production were obtained from the General Office of Petro-

leum and Mines, Department of National Economy. The 5 oil refinery enterprises operated a total of 9 plants, of which 3 were independently owned and 6 were semi-official. The value of oil-refinery production was an approximate figure, calculated on the basis of the value assigned by some of the refineries to their respective production. The value of the crude petroleum refined in Mexico was not included in the value of national raw materials. In the data on mines of metallic minerals, the figures on value of production represent the approximate value of the metallic content of the extracted ore before it was smelted.

In the manufacturing industries, the category of "Other industries" included such items as school and office supplies, toys, sandpaper, water filters, enameled, bakelite, and metal articles and accessories, and similar miscellaneous manufactures.

Mexico's first industrial census was taken in 1930 and the second in 1935. The results of these two, together with the data now being published for the third census, form a valuable and informative record of the country's industrial development in the past decade. Since the first industrial census of 1930 methods and bases for collecting and compiling the data have undergone some changes, but in spite of those modifications some interesting comparisons, indicative of marked industrial progress, may be made.

During the period from 1935 to 1940 there was, for example, an increase of 73.1 percent in the total number of manufacturing establishments and an increase of 29.4 percent in the total number of extractive enterprises (including light and power plants). In the same period the number of workers employed in manufacturing industries increased 20.3 percent and in the extractive industries 15.8 percent, while total wages paid by the two industrial

Mexican Industrial Census, 1940 (Preliminary figures)

Industry	Number of establishments	Number of workers employed	Wages paid	Social benefits paid to workers	In thousands of pesos			Value of production
					Value of capital investments	Value of raw materials		
						National	Imported	
EXTRACTIVE:								
Oil fields.....	17	7,368	21,616	1,668	126,412	641	11,263	182,419
Oil refineries.....	5	7,504	22,861	922	117,952	1,732	4,021	242,571
Mines (metallic minerals).....	166	41,310	63,698	3,837	228,588	1,315	6,121	281,868
Metallurgical plants.....	115	18,298	29,543	3,369	36,199	7,324	13,440	788,963
Shops for auxiliary service to mining and metallurgy.....	110	4,297	5,131	7,863	9,778	3,114	2,166	16,962
Mines (coal).....	7	2,403	5,131	505	7,863	407	2,692	11,293
Coke plants.....	10	622	1,849	418	25,440	7,276	()	11,871
Quarries.....	9	187	625	2	260	43	()	1,121
Sand pits.....	35	1,577	939	81	7,132	480	()	3,868
ELECTRIC POWER PLANTS:								
For service of mining and metallurgy.....	24	632	752	25	18,553			10,145
For public service.....	149	6,476	16,408	2,541	891,321			99,174
Total.....	680	91,561	170,125	16,309	1,735,619	36,864	35,573	1,601,633
MANUFACTURING:								
Textiles.....	941	97,537	96,521	2,922	215,849	184,068	42,093	425,171
Metals.....	420	13,397	20,130	2,739	33,577	24,573	34,201	39,424
Construction materials.....	205	12,786	12,640	2,559	28,157	6,940	34,286	38,889
Clothing and accessories.....	8,011	4,449	47,707	256	23,928	33,887	6,970	70,701
Food products.....	382	10,461	8,617	2,692	255,459	278,188	31,852	526,193
Woodworking.....	37	4,236	4,236	341	42,257	11,415	3,471	30,363
China, glass, and pottery.....	156	2,495	3,112	296	14,525	1,139	2,558	23,867
Chemicals.....	28	696	651	76	8,145	13,476	2,247	5,162
Paper.....	410	9,137	10,412	533	67,000	56,759	33,946	129,113
Graphic arts, photography, motion pictures.....	74	4,359	4,344	618	25,562	6,434	13,400	39,118
Tobacco.....	33	4,555	10,511	145	18,880	10,718	4,023	28,479
Jewelry and art objects.....	13	3,282	3,786	255	54,843	16,694	4,275	66,395
Musical and precision instruments.....	5	28	333	3	227	17	340	1,125
Other.....	57	1,288	1,850	()	56	17	9	1,025
Total.....	11,974	240,762	239,254	10,917	872,120	627,410	183,903	1,521,674
Grand total.....	12,654	332,323	409,379	27,226	2,607,739	684,274	219,476	3,122,707

1 Less than 1,000 pesos.

groups showed increases of 73.8 percent and 150.2 percent, respectively. Capital investments in manufacturing industries in 1940 were 32.8 percent greater than in 1935 and in the extractive industries the increase was 167.3 percent; and the value of production of the two groups increased 53.8 percent and 97.8 percent, respectively, during the same period. These percentages are based on official figures for the industrial census of 1935 published in *Resumen General del Censo Industrial de 1935* issued by the Dirección General de Estadística, Secretaría de la Economía Nacional, Mexico, 1941, and preliminary data for the 1940 census published in the *Revista de Estadística* for September and October, 1941, issued by the same office.—D. M. T.

Argentine tungsten purchases

Announcement was made in Washington on November 29, 1941, that the Metals Reserve Company had completed arrangements with the Argentine Government and the producers of tungsten in Argentina for the purchase of tungsten concentrates in an amount up to 3,000 tons per year for a period of three years, at a price of \$21.00 per short ton unit of contained tungstic oxide.

Argentina's present annual output of this important strategic material is approximately 2,000 tons, but it is expected that production can be increased to 3,000 tons. The Argentine Government agreed, under the terms of this purchasing arrangement, that no tungsten will be exported from Argentina except to the United States.

Nicaraguan Petroleum Commission

By a Presidential decree of October 14, 1941, the National Petroleum Commission of Nicaragua was created to see that

there is a permanent supply of petroleum products sufficient for national needs and to control consumption in the country. The Commission will periodically decide upon the amount needed by Nicaragua and inform the United States Petroleum Supply Committee for Latin America through the proper channels. The Commission is composed of three members, appointed by the President, representing respectively the government, the oil interests, and the consumers.

Aviation clubs in Brazil

Throughout Brazil there are 94 aviation clubs affiliated with the National Air Club, whose headquarters are in Rio de Janeiro. The State of São Paulo leads with 33, followed by Rio Grande do Sul with 19, Minas Gerais with 15, Paraná and Santa Catarina with 4 apiece, Mato Grosso, Paraíba, and Rio de Janeiro with 2 apiece, and the other 12 States and the Territory of Acre with 1 apiece.

In Porto Alegre there is also the Varig Air Sports Club, an organization similar to the air clubs, in that its members fly for pleasure and that it trains civilian pilots. The town of Novo Hamburgo (Rio Grande do Sul) has a glider group, which offers local youth instruction in civilian flying.

National monuments law in Nicaragua

A law signed by President Somoza on July 25, 1941, provides that all archaeological, historic, or artistic monuments in Nicaragua that were not in private hands when the law was promulgated shall belong to the State.

Archaeological monuments include buildings, steles, statues, inscriptions, ruins, and other relics of pre-Columbian peoples. Among the historic monuments are

buildings, statues, inscriptions, books and manuscripts, and anything else of recognized antiquity and historic importance. Artistic monuments are considered to be such above-mentioned objects as deserve to be preserved as outstanding expressions of the art and civilization of the country, as well as rare or beautiful works of nature.

For a given object to become a historical or an artistic national monument, it must be so declared by a Presidential decree, which will be issued after approval of the case by experts.

The exportation of any object coming within one of these three classifications is forbidden by the law.

Inter-American Federation of Societies of Authors and Composers

On November 22, 1941, representatives of authors' societies of Argentina, Brazil, Cuba, Chile, Uruguay, and Venezuela who were present at the Second American Conference of National Committees of Intellectual Cooperation at Habana formed the Inter-American Federation of Societies of Authors and Composers, which will have its headquarters in the capital of Cuba.

The aims of the Federation, as outlined in the constitution signed at that time, are: to try to obtain from the American nations the broadest possible copyright protection for writers; to work for improved national legislation and inter-American treaties on this subject; to create and maintain a center for documentation, information, and control, which will assist affiliated societies in obtaining guarantees for collecting royalties within the respective countries and abroad; and to study and settle problems relating to the collection, administration, and distribution of royalties.

Señor Alejandro E. Barruti, president

of the Argentine Society of Authors, was elected president of the Federation, and the presidents of the other societies that are charter members were made vice presidents.

Any American society of authors, writers in general, composers, and artists of all kinds, the activities of which are mainly concerned with the collection of copyright fees, should apply to Secretary General, Dr. Natalio Chediak, whose office is at Calle Cuba 335, Habana, if it wishes to join the Federation.

Anti-illiteracy campaign in the Dominican Republic

In September 1941 the first step was taken in a new and vigorous campaign against illiteracy in the Dominican Republic through passage of a law providing for the establishment of up to 5,000 special "emergency schools" in rural areas of the country. The problem of providing adequate and accessible educational facilities outside the principal cities and towns had long been a grave and difficult one for the Government to cope with, inasmuch as the population is so widely dispersed that it was hard and often practically impossible for children of school age to travel the long distances from their scattered country homes to the schools. The installation of the new emergency schools to the extent provided for in the law represents an attempt to put education within easy reach of all the rural children of the country.

The emergency schools are to be financed in part by national funds (\$32,500 was allotted from general revenues as an initial contribution to their establishment immediately following passage of the law), and municipalities and even individuals may also participate in financing or otherwise contributing to their establishment and maintenance.

An integral part of each school will be a garden and orchard in which the pupils will have an opportunity to acquire a working knowledge of improved agricultural practices.

It was confidently expected by government officials that by the end of January 1942 about a thousand emergency schools would be in operation in the Dominican Republic.

Another step in the illiteracy campaign was recently taken by the Department of Education and Fine Arts through the issuance of an order directing the superintending, administrative, and teaching personnel of the country's public schools, both official and semiofficial, to devote themselves during the next two annual summer vacation periods (July 16 to September 14, 1942, and 1943) to the task of teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic to persons of school age or to adults who may wish to receive such instruction. Each teacher will be required to teach a group of from 15 to 25 pupils and to spend a minimum of two hours each day, excluding Sundays and legal holidays, in such work. Teachers may give their classes in the schools to which they are regularly attached, or they may make arrangements to take charge of classes in schools in other parts of the country.

Ernesto Laroche Museum

Ceremonies were recently held in Montevideo marking the inauguration of the Ernesto Laroche Museum, located in the house in which the late internationally known Uruguayan painter and printmaker lived during the last twenty years of his life.

Through the cooperation of the artist's family and the National Commission of Fine Arts, a great number of Ernesto Laroche's works were assembled for dis-

play in the museum, together with many personal mementos of the artist himself. The principal address at the dedicatory ceremonies was given by the Chairman of the National Commission of Fine Arts, Señor Raúl Montero Bustamante, in the presence of some two hundred invited guests, and on the first day the doors of the Museum were opened to the general public approximately five hundred persons visited it to pay tribute to the works and memory of one of Uruguay's greatest landscape artists.

Meeting of Inter-American Commission of Women

The second annual meeting of the Inter-American Commission of Women was held at the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C., November 6-9, 1941. Señora Ana Rosa S. de Martínez Guerrero, delegate of Argentina and Chairman of the Commission, presided over the meeting. The other delegates in attendance were:

Señorita Minerva Bernardino, *Vice Chairman*, Dominican Republic
 Señora Carmen B. de Lozada, Bolivia
 Señora Ángela Acuña de Chacón, Costa Rica
 Señora María Currea de Aya, Colombia
 Señorita Graciela Mandujano, Chile
 Señora Piedad Castillo de Levi, Ecuador
 Señora Elena de Castro, El Salvador
 Señora Mariana de Cáceres, Honduras
 Señora Amalia Caballero de Castillo Ledón, Mexico
 Señora Esther Neira de Calvo, Panama
 Miss Mary N. Winslow, United States

The delegates were welcomed to the Pan American Union by Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General, and Dr. Pedro de Alba, Assistant Director, and the meeting was officially opened by Señora de Martínez Guerrero, Chairman, who spoke spiritedly of the need for the women of the continent to help preserve American democracy.

Señorita Bernardino, Vice Chairman, described the recent reform of the Dominican Republic's legal code giving civil rights to women, the reform of the constitution giving them political rights, and the institution of juvenile courts.

The other members of the Commission then presented reports of their work during the year, after which they proceeded to the discussion of resolutions and plans for activity during 1942. A declaration was unanimously approved asserting that the Commission will "sustain and support all initiatives tending toward instilling in the nations of America a consciousness of their responsibility, with the objective of preserving democratic ideals and bringing the continent into a united front capable of aiding the world in its present distress." Among the several resolutions adopted, covering various phases of women's activity in national life and defense work, were those recommending that all governments that do not already have them establish nursery schools and obligatory courses in child care for girls in secondary schools and higher educational institutions; that educational standards be coordinated among the American nations to facilitate the interchange of students; and that, pending the enfranchisement of women in all countries, they be permitted to hold public office, to participate in juvenile courts, to act as advisors to legislative bodies on problems pertaining to women and children and to educational councils on matters pertaining to education, and to enter the diplomatic and consular service. Another resolution recommended that governments establish schools for training volunteer social workers to render assistance in the homes of laborers as an aid to civilian defense, and still another called for the training of women throughout the Americas to replace men in industry and agriculture.

In another resolution the aid of the United States delegate was asked in obtaining the cooperation of the Office of Civilian Defense in order to carry out similar programs in the other republics. In the same resolution the Commission expressed the unanimous feeling for the need of strengthening volunteer community services throughout the Americas as a part of the hemispheric defense program.

The work plan approved by the Commission for the ensuing year includes the publication of a Bulletin and the establishment of a library in the office of the Commission at the Pan American Union.

Publications of the Pan American Union, July-December 1941.

Specialists in various phases of Latin American life and activities, as well as the general public, will find much of interest in the material issued by the several divisions of the Pan American Union during the six months ended December 31, 1941.

The BULLETIN completed its 48th year of continuous publication as the official organ of the Union; it appears in three editions, English, Spanish, and Portuguese, not entirely parallel.

Other publications continued by the offices of the Union are as follows:

JURIDICAL DIVISION.—Volumes III and IV of the compilation *Improvement and Coordination of Inter-American Peace Instruments* were brought out in English. The former is entitled *Existing Inter-American Peace Instruments and Other General Peace Treaties Signed by the American States*, the latter, *Text of the Draft Treaty on the Establishment of an Association of American Nations submitted to the Eighth International Conference of American States*.

In the same series, in Portuguese, volumes II, III, and IV appeared: *Textos dos Projetos sobre Aperfeiçoamento e Coordenação dos*

Instrumentos Interamericanos de Paz Submetidos à Oitava Conferência Internacional Americana; Convênios e Acordos Interamericanos de Paz Existentes e Outros Convênios de Paz Assinados pelos Estados Americanos; and Texto dos Documentos Relativos ao Estabelecimento de uma Associação de Nações Americanas Apresentados à Oitava Conferência Internacional Americana.

Supplement no. 3 to *Decrees and Regulations on Neutrality* appeared in English, Spanish, and Portuguese volumes.

The semiannual revision of the chart, *Status of the Pan American Treaties and Conventions*, as of July 1, 1941, was duly published.

DIVISION OF INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION.—Two numbers of *Points of View* have been issued: *Is America a Continent?* a round-table discussion held in Buenos Aires, in which Amador Alonso, Germán Arciniegas, Raúl Arrarás Vergara, Carlos Alberto Erro, Edith Helman, Pedro Henríquez Ureña, Eduardo E. Krapf, María Rosa Oliver, and Arnaldo Orfila Reynal took part (No. 2); and *Do the Americas have a Common History?* by Edmundo O'Gorman (No. 3).

In Spanish, *Educación para una Sociedad sin Clases*, by James Bryant Conant (Puntos de Vista, No. 3), *Lectura para Maestros* (No. 12), and *Tres "Ilustres Muchachos" en Trance de Ficción y Realidad* (supplement to *Correo*, Nos. 21–22) were published, and No. 113–114 of the Education Series appeared: *Educación y Cuidado de los Excepcionales*, by Merle E. Frampton and Camilla Morgan.

The Portuguese publications were *Correio*, No. 9, and *Pontos de Vista*, No. 3, containing President Conant's article.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY.—*The Pan American Bookshelf*, a monthly list of books received in the Library, with some annotations, continued to make its regular appearance. Three volumes in the Bibliographic Series were revised: *Latin American Booktrade and Library Journals in the*

Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union (No. 2, part 2); *Book Stores and Publishers in Latin America* (No. 2, part 3); and *Theses on Pan American Topics*, prepared by candidates for degrees in universities and colleges in the United States (No. 5, third edition, revised and enlarged).

DIVISION OF AGRICULTURAL COOPERATION.—Two new publications in the Series on Agriculture have appeared, one in Spanish, the other in Portuguese: *Fibras Vegetales* (Nos. 137–40, Spanish), by Lyster H. Dewey, and *Cooperativas Rurais de Eletricidade* (No. 14, Portuguese) by Udo Rall.

In the Spanish Series on Cooperatives, Nos. 15, 16, and 17 were published: *Reseña de la Cooperación Agrícola en Venezuela* by Manuel Cardozo; *Crédito Rural en El Salvador*, by José Valle; and *El Cooperativismo Agrario en el Perú*, by Alejandro MacLean y Estenós.

DIVISION OF ECONOMIC INFORMATION.—Four numbers of *Commercial Pan America*, a monthly review of commerce and finance, were published, as follows: *Views of Central Banks after Fourteen Months of War* (July); *Commercial Interdependence of the Americas*, by Julian G. Zier (August); *Economic Relations between the Americas*, by Mordecai Ezekiel (September–October); and *Gold and Silver in Nicaragua* (November–December). The same articles appeared in *Panamérica Comercial*, the Spanish edition of this publication.

The pamphlets on Argentina, Bolivia, Costa Rica, and Honduras, in the American Nation Series, and on Quito, in the American City Series, have been revised and brought up to date.

MUSIC DIVISION.—No. 1 of the Music Series, *Partial List of American Music Obtainable in the United States*, with a supplementary list of books and a selective list of phonograph records, was issued in March 1941. It was compiled by Gilbert Chase,

of the Music Division of the Library of Congress. Mention of this publication was inadvertently omitted from the report in the September 1941 BULLETIN.

STATISTICAL DIVISION.—Five pamphlets in the Foreign Trade Series were published. These are as follows: No. 188, Brazil (1939 and 1940); No. 189, Nicaragua (1938 and 1939); No. 190, Guatemala (1938 and 1939); No. 191, Mexico (1939 and 1940); and No. 192, Bolivia (1938 and 1939).

DIVISION OF LABOR AND SOCIAL INFORMATION.—Numbers 5 and 6 of *Noticias* appeared. This mimeographed publication, which is issued in Spanish only, gives information on recent legislation and current events in the fields covered by this office.

LATIN AMERICAN STAMP SECTION.—A new price list enumerating the 57 postage stamps from 12 Latin American nations on sale at the Union has been issued, and will be sent to all those requesting it and enclosing a 3-cent stamp.

COUNSELOR'S OFFICE.—The annual list of material prepared at the Union for distribution early in the year to groups planning to observe Pan American Day was issued in November.

In addition to these regular publications, many special ones were prepared for specific purposes or to give information on subjects of current interest.

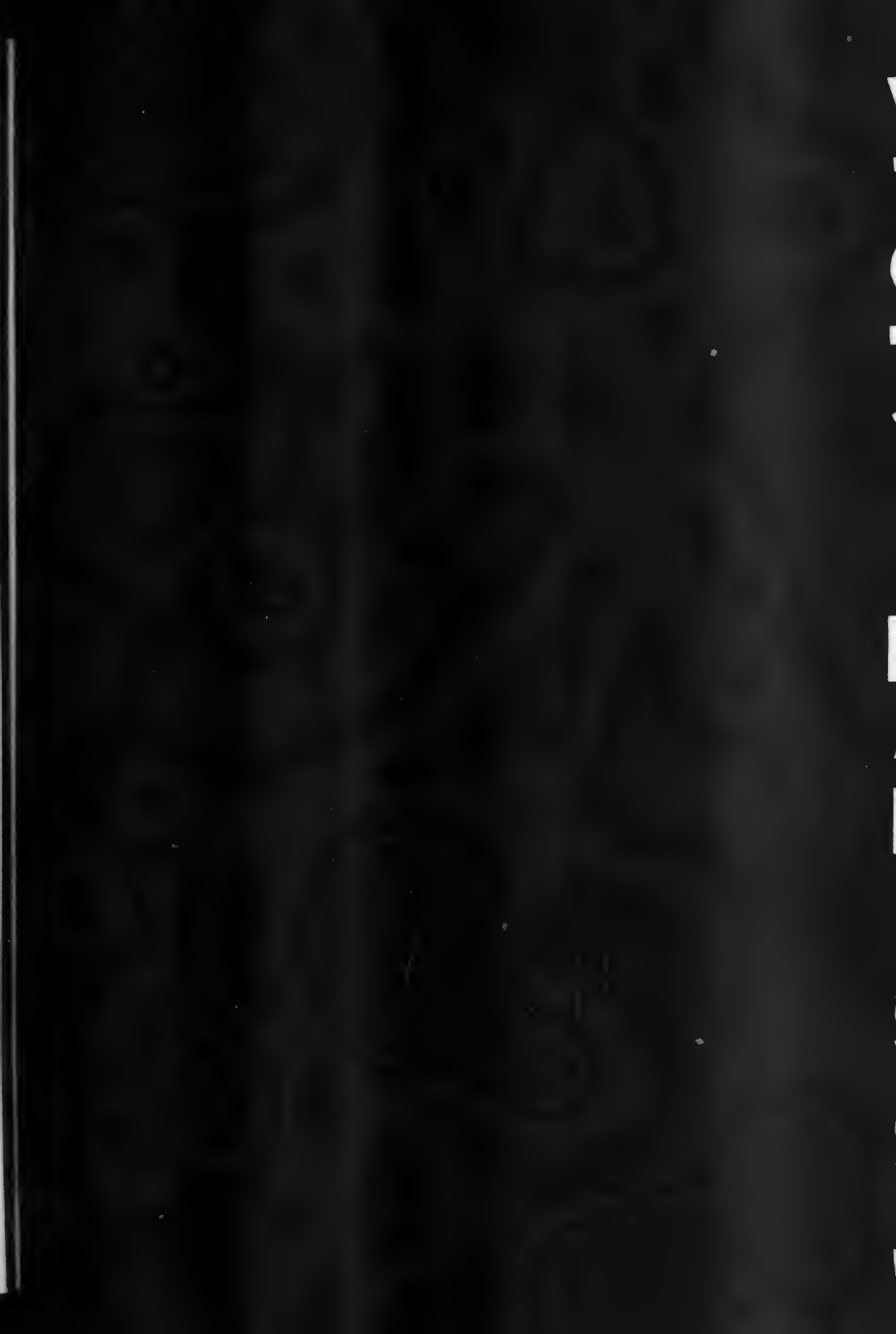
Those of the Division of Intellectual Cooperation were *Latin American Literature* (annotated references to material in English); *Conventions and Treaties Bearing on*

Intellectual Cooperation (signed at the Montevideo and Buenos Aires Conferences of 1933 and 1936); *Latin American Costumes* (a bibliography); *Report of the Division of Intellectual Cooperation*; and *The Exchange of Students and Teachers between the United States and Latin America*. Three comprehensive bibliographies have been revised and enlarged: *Latin America in 351 Articles published in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*; *Films and Slides on Latin America*; and *Life and Customs in Latin America*.

Short lists, either new or greatly revised, include *Pan American Union Publications of Interest to Teachers*; *Inter-American School Correspondence*; *Additional Sources of Material on Latin America for Use in Schools*; *General References on Education in Latin America*; and *Periodicals Published in the United States Carrying Information on Latin America*.

The programs and regulations for two inter-American conferences, which had been approved by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, were published by the Union in English, Spanish, and Portuguese. The two conferences were the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, held in Rio de Janeiro, January 15-28, 1942, and the Inter-American Conference of Police and Judicial Authorities, to be held in Buenos Aires in May 1942. A *Special Handbook* was prepared by the Counselor for the use of the delegates to the Third Meeting.

A revised edition of the bibliography, *Current Periodicals Printed in English relating Exclusively to Latin America*, was issued by the Columbus Memorial Library.





PUBLICATIONS OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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