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COLLEGE OUTLINE SERIES

LATIN AMERICA IN MAPS

Historic *ft* Geographic *ft* Economic

By

A. CURTIS WILCUS, Ph.D.

*Professor of Hispanic American History
The George Washington University*



New York

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Preface

Every day we are becoming more and more world-minded and map-conscious. Any aid which will help us to understand the development and civilization of other peoples receives grateful acceptance. Among such aids are atlases, which supply the "windows of history" through which one may look out upon past or contemporary life from the vantage point of historical perspective. In teaching, especially, atlases are essential tools, and, if properly used, they present a panorama of related facts which students may easily comprehend. An atlas should be an adjunct to all good teaching, whether in the grades, the high schools, or the colleges. But no atlas is better than the maps it contains. And maps are not good pedagogical tools if they are overburdened with facts and over-heavy with artistic color combinations. A map to be effective must be accurate as to construction and simple as to content. Too great detail on a map may defeat the purpose which it aims to achieve. An atlas of such maps might well be worthless.

In the compiling of this atlas I have attempted to keep in mind the present-day needs — which are fundamentally the same — of teachers and students from the grades to the colleges. Since an atlas is a supplementary tool for studying and teaching, it cannot actually be substituted for a textbook. Nevertheless, an atlas of maps showing a series of related events may be of value in lieu of a text. This atlas has been prepared so* that it may be used in conjunction with any other aids¹ and with any text in the field of Latin American affairs. Specifically, it may be used with the *Outline-History of Latin America* (Barnes and Noble, Inc., 1939 and 1941) by A. Curtis Wilgus and Raul d'Eca, and with *The Development of Hispanic America* (Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1941) by the first named author, for which volumes many of the maps used here were originally drawn.

In the preparation of these maps I am indebted to numerous individuals and publishing companies. Among the former who have

1 Among the aids which this atlas supplements is a series of thirty-two desk outline map studies entitled the *Wilgus Directed History Problems and Map Projects*, published by A. J. Nystrom* and Co., Chicago.

given me most assistance in drawing the maps are William Ormsby Ticknor, Henry Gray, C. J. Murphy, and Walter Y. Cox. Mr. E. W. Fitzgerald of Barnes and Noble has devoted both his skill and his time to the final preparation of the atlas. Mr. A. W. Littlefield, vice president of the same company, has also been of great assistance to me in this work. To all of these people I am sincerely and deeply indebted. Likewise to many publishing companies which have given me permission to reproduce their maps or which have allowed me to base information upon maps or facts which they have printed, I am exceedingly grateful and I have indicated my debt wherever necessary. I am especially pleased to acknowledge my gratitude to Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., for the privilege they have accorded me of using maps and text which they printed originally in my textbook.

No atlas is ever complete, and this one is no exception to that axiom. As the years pass, material for new maps will be accumulated and, eventually, if the demand is sufficient, a new edition of this atlas will follow. Meanwhile, the reception given this excursion into a comparatively virgin field will determine how many years will elapse before a revised edition appears.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

December, 1942.

A NOTE TO TEACHERS

If you wish, for mounting, a photostatic enlargement of any map published in this volume, write to the publishers for price and full information.

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PART ONE

The Geographical Background



Physical map of Latin America

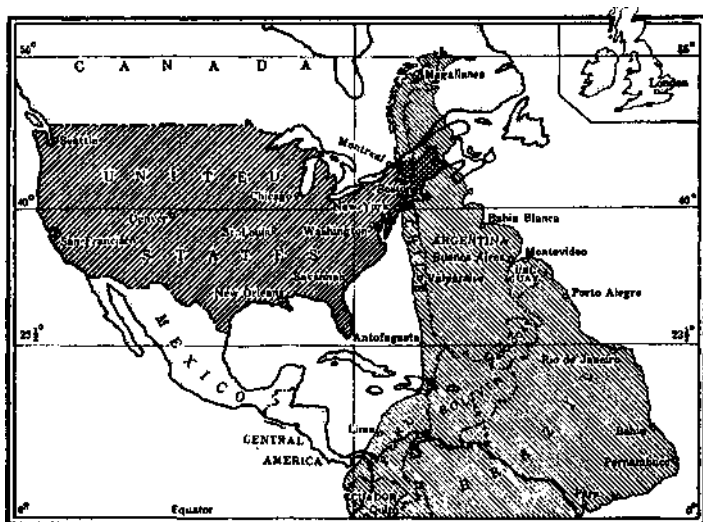
Latin America:

Physical Features

LATIN AMERICA today includes Mexico, Central America, several of the islands of the West Indies, and South America. It embraces an approximate area of more than 8,600,000 square miles, nearly two and one-half times the area of Europe. Mexico and Central America combined cover approximately 1,000,000 square miles, an area slightly smaller than Argentina, while the West Indies constitute nearly 100,000 square miles, which is somewhat smaller than Arizona. South America has an area of about 7,500,000 square miles, or about twice the size of Europe. From the northern boundary of Mexico to Tierra del Fuego, the southernmost point of South America, is a distance of about 7,000 miles, or nearly as great as the distance from London, England, to Capetown, South Africa. When the areas of North and South America are compared it is found that the former is greater than the latter by about 1,000,000 square miles. At the Isthmus of Panama the two continents are joined by a narrow strip of land some forty miles in width. The backbone of the two continents is formed by a virtually continuous mountain system extending in a northwest to southeast direction from Alaska to the southern extremity of South America, through the North Temperate, Torrid, and South Temperate zones. That the southern continent is much to the east of the northern is shown by the fact that if an imaginary line were to be drawn directly south from Cleveland, Ohio, all of South America would be found to lie east of that line.



Comparative sizes of North and South America

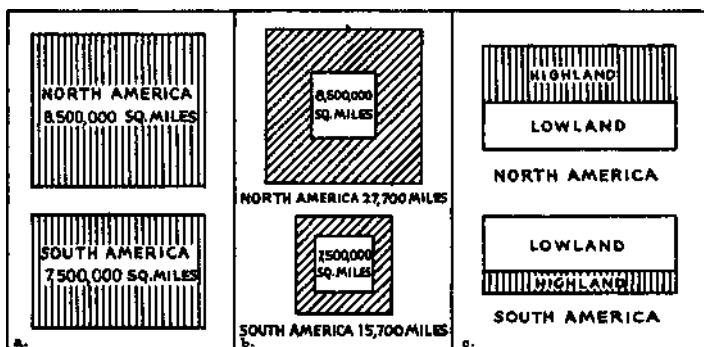


Comparison of latitudes and longitudes in the Western Hemisphere

This map and all succeeding maps accredited to Farrar & Rinehart, Inc. are reproduced with permission from *The Development of Hispanic America*, by A. Curtis Wilgus, published by Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., New York, 1941.

Latin America:

Comparative Size and Location

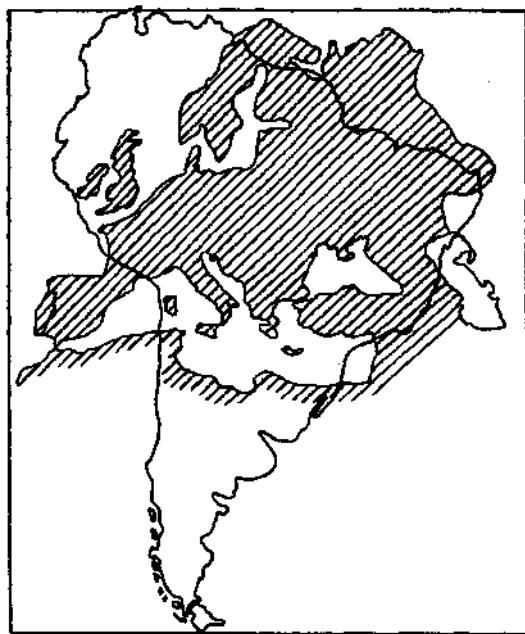


a. Relative areas of the two continents b. Length of coast lines and areas compared c. Relative areas of highlands and lowlands

NORTH and South America are roughly triangular in shape, which means that the bulk of the northern continent lies chiefly in the north temperate zone while the bulk of the southern continent lies chiefly in the Torrid Zone. Although the northern continent is larger than the southern, distances in each are comparable. South America, which lies to the southeast of North America, extends from about 13 degrees N. Lat. to 56 degrees S. Lat., a total distance of some 4,600 miles. From east to west it extends from about 35 degrees to 81 degrees W. Long., or about 3,000 miles. When a Western Hemisphere map is folded on the equator as indicated, the southern continent will be found to lie largely east of North America.



Comparative areas of northern and
southern Latin America



Comparative areas of South America
and Europe

Latin America: Comparative Areas

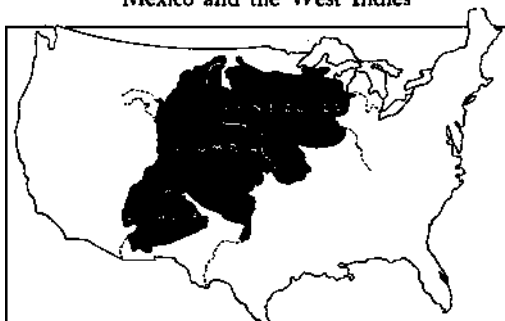
T H E continent of South America is some 4,600 miles from north to south and some 3,000 miles in its extent from east to west. The total area of the continent is about 7,500,000 square miles, which is about 1,000,000 square miles smaller than North America. The greatest bulk of South America lies in the Torrid Zone, although the Tropic of Capricorn divides it nearly equally north and south.



Mexico and the West Indies



Central America



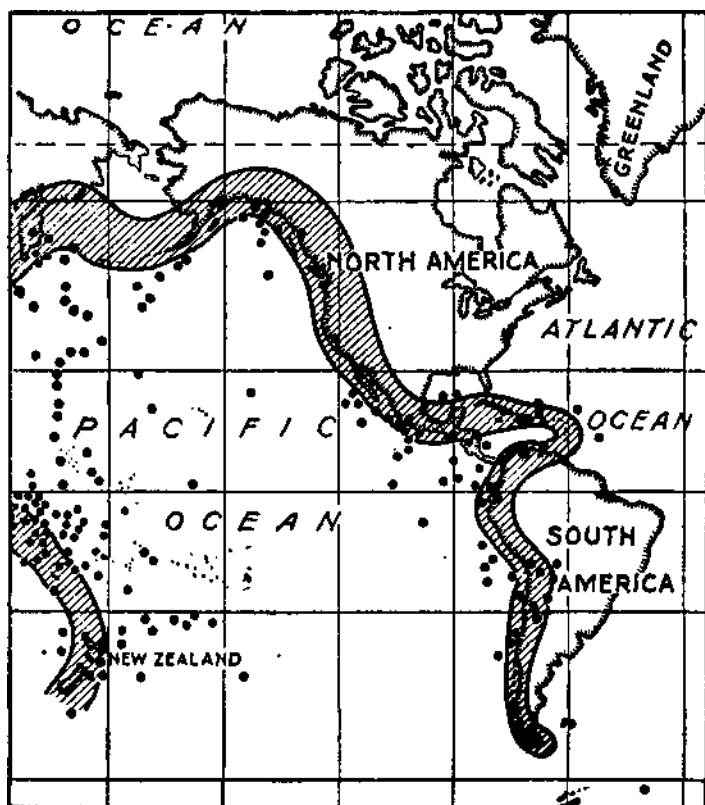
Northwestern South America



Peru, Bolivia, Paraguay, Uruguay

Latin America: Area Comparisons with the United States

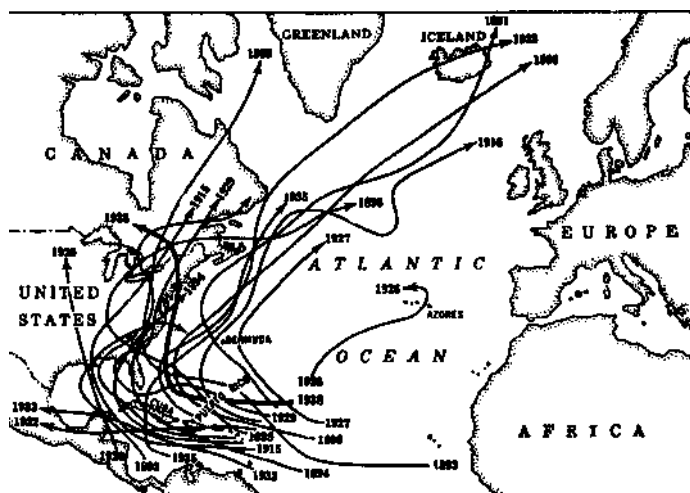
BESIDES the ten Latin American republics on the continent there are three European colonies: British, Dutch, and French Guianas, roughly equal in area to Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Maine, respectively. Argentina is about equal in size to the eleven Pacific and Mountain states of the United States; Bolivia is about twice the size of Texas; Brazil is about the size of the United States with Alaska; Chile is somewhat larger than the eight south Atlantic states; Colombia is about the area of Washington, Oregon, California, and Arizona; Ecuador is nearly as large as New Mexico; Paraguay is slightly larger than New Mexico; Peru is about the size of Texas, Arizona, Utah, and Nevada; Uruguay is a little larger than North Dakota; and Venezuela is about the area of Texas, Arkansas, and Louisiana.



Major earthquake areas in the Western Hemisphere
Reproduced with permission from the *New York Times*, April 5, 1931.

Latin America: Major Earthquake Areas

AN earthquake zone extends virtually the whole length of the Western Hemisphere along the western ranges of the mountains bordering the Pacific Ocean. In some portions of this belt earth tremors are of daily occurrence and since the earliest times have done untold damage. With the increasing population in these regions, an increasing toll of human life has been taken. Since the days of the conquest types and forms of architecture have been determined largely because of the frequency of earthquakes.

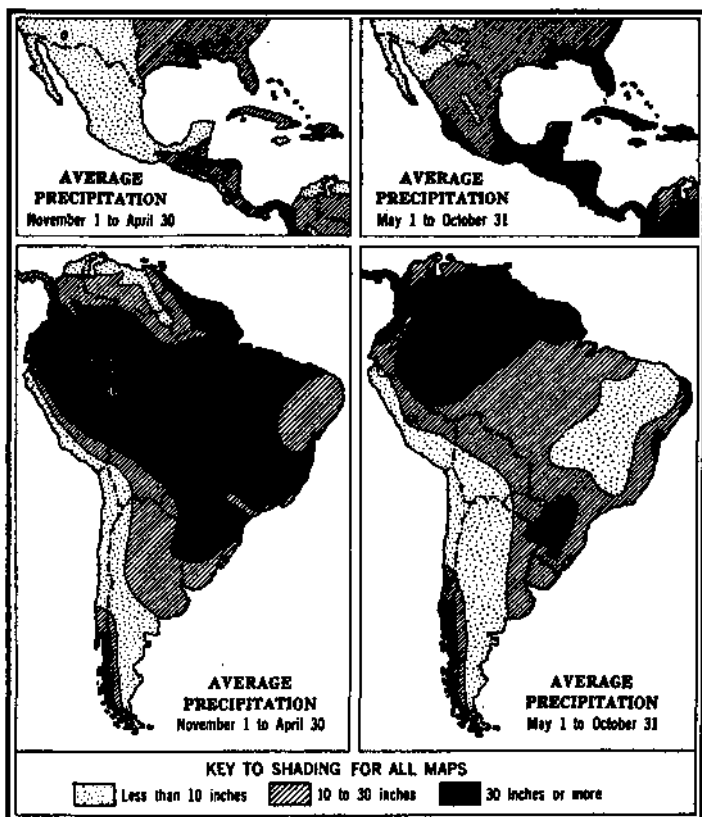


Paths of recent West Indian hurricanes

Reproduced with permission from the *New York Times*, September 25, 1938.

Latin America: The Hurricane Region

HURRICANES are most frequent in the Caribbean and Gulf regions of the hemisphere, but storms which originate here flow out to the northern part of South America and especially into Central America, Mexico, and what is now the United States. From the early days of discovery the adventurers and settlers in the Middle American area were acutely aware of this tremendous hazard to sailing vessels and to settled communities. Fortunately, although the storms are unpredictable, they are seasonable and come most often in the late summer and the fall.



Rainfall map of Latin America

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Latin America:

Climate and Rainfall

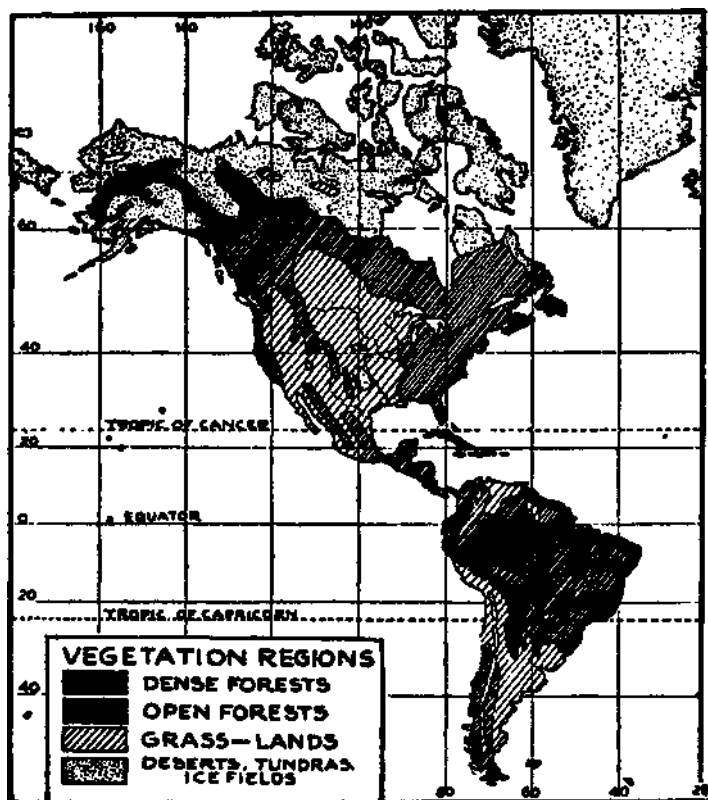
MEXICO. There are three zones, the hot, the temperate, and the cold. The moist coasts are tropical, the uplands and plateaus are perpetually cool. The mean annual temperature of the Valley of Mexico is about 62 degrees. The rainy season begins in June and lasts until November, except in the extreme north, where there are the usual four seasons. Along the Gulf and Pacific coasts the precipitation averages perhaps 45 inches during the rainy season, although at times the maximum may reach nearly 200 inches; on the tablelands the average rainfall is about 24 inches, with about a 10-inch average for the northern half of Mexico. The average rainfall in the Valley of Mexico is about 25 inches.

CENTRAL AMERICA. The upland valleys and plateaus are temperate, while the low coastal plains are torrid, moist, and unhealthful, except along the Pacific Coast. The yearly rainfall varies from 50 inches in the west to nearly 300 inches in the east. The rainy season is in the summer.

CUBA. The altitude and insular position largely temper the heat. The rainy season is from May to October. The rainfall is heaviest on the northern coast near the eastern end. Havana has some 40 inches of rain yearly.

HISPANIOLA. The mean annual rainfall varies from 45 to 70 inches and is especially heavy on the slopes of the mountains. The wet season lasts from May to October. Along some of the lowlands the temperature is extremely hot, but the upland climate is delightful.

SOUTH AMERICA. About two thirds of the continent lies within the Torrid Zone. The great lowlands of the Amazon are damp and hot; places of great altitude are cool even at the equator. In Chile the southern region has almost incessant rain (about 100 inches yearly), while in the region north of Lat. 30° lies a hot desert, with an average of one rainy day each year. Between these regions is the "Vale of Chile." Through Peru the arid coastal plain continues nearly to the Gulf of Guayaquil; northward the plain is fertile and productive with a mean annual rainfall of from 50 to 70 inches. In Colombia and Venezuela the rainfall varies of from 20 to 50 inches. Southern Argentina has little rain, but northeastward to the coast the rainfall increases from 10 to 50 inches. In northern Argentina rainfall is heavier. The heaviest rainfall is in the Amazon Valley, with a yearly average of 70 to 100 inches.



Western Hemisphere vegetation

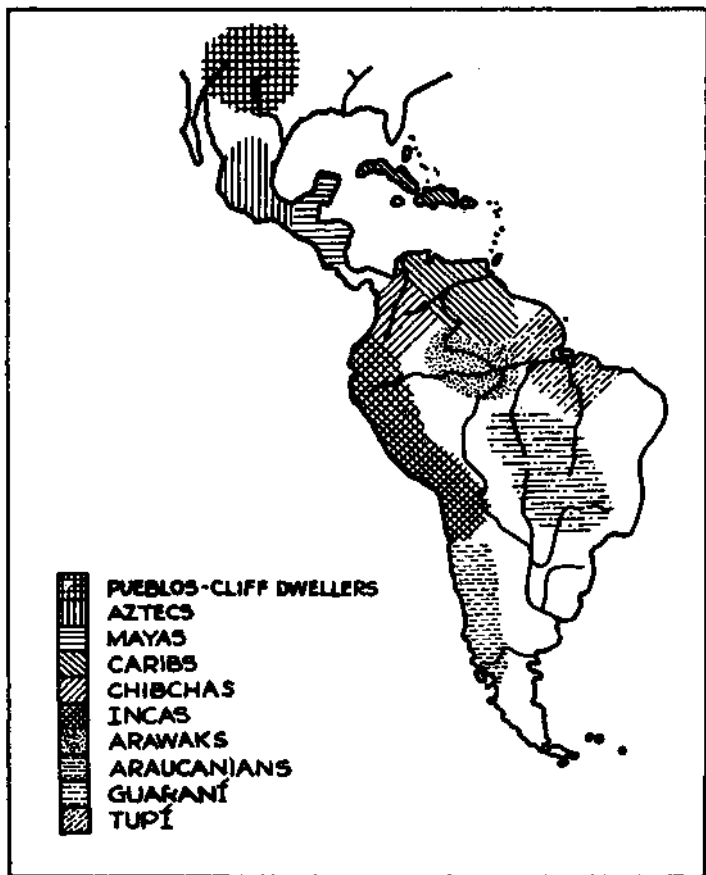
Reproduced With permission from *The New World Atlas and Gazetteer*, published by P. F. Collier and Son Corporation, New York, 1921.

Latin America: Vegetation

THE vegetation of much of Latin America is tropical or semi-tropical, although in regions of high elevation even in the tropics the products are of temperate zone character. In Mexico, Central America, and the West Indies practically any products of the Torrid and Temperate Zones can be grown, while in South America any product which can be grown anywhere in the world may be raised. Besides deserts of the mid-Pacific coast region of South America and the tundras of the southern part of the continent, there are the grass-covered *llanos* and *pampas* of Venezuela and Argentina and the dense jungle-covered *seltas* of Brazil.

PART TWO

The Ethnological Background



Location of native culture areas of Latin America before 1500

Latin America: Chief Native Culture Areas before 1500

WHEN the Europeans arrived in this hemisphere, they found the natives in varying stages of civilization. The Mayas in Mexico and Central America had probably attained the greatest degree of culture. The next in line were the Aztecs of Mexico and their predecessors, and the Incas of Peru and their predecessors. Diminishing degrees of civilization were represented by the Chibchas in northern South America and by the Pueblo Indians of southwestern United States. Many other scattered native groups, however, were struggling up the ladder of civilization.

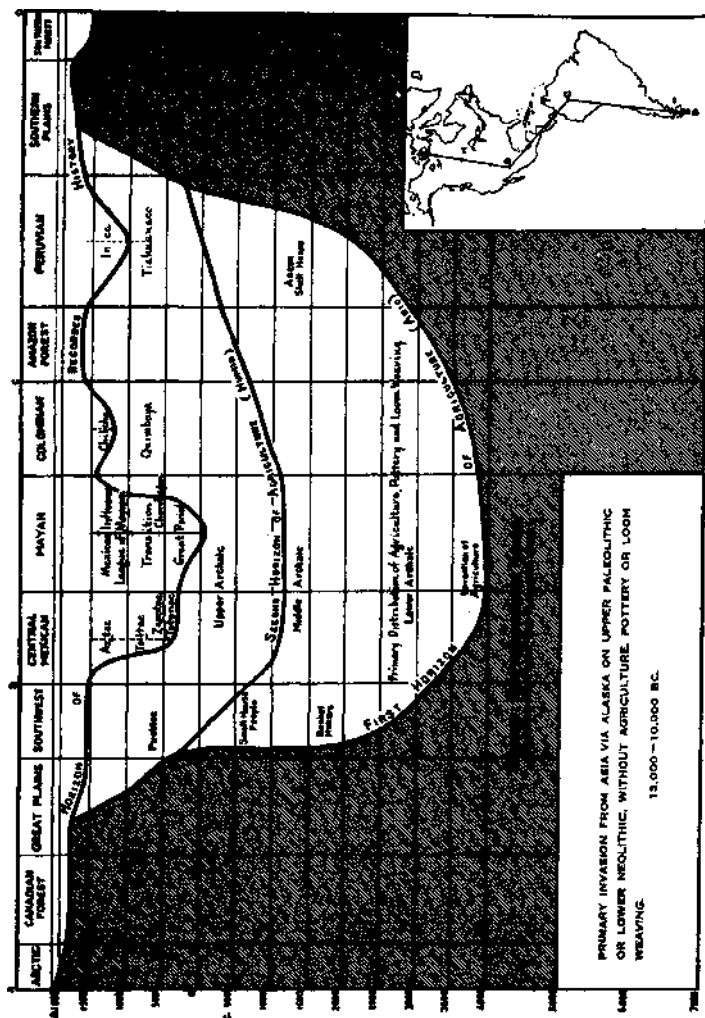


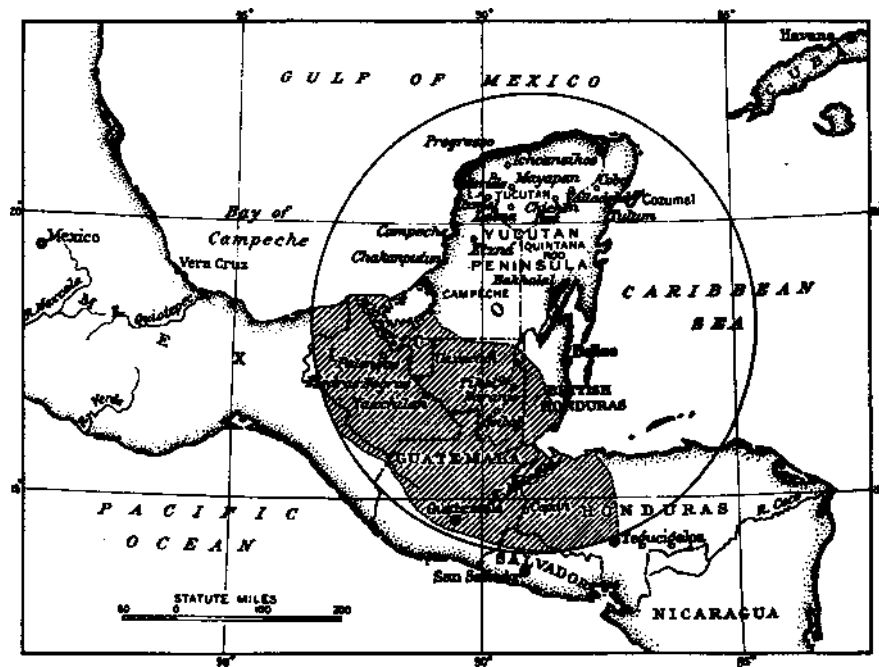
Diagram of early American chronology

Reproduced with permission from *Ancient Civilizations of Mexico and Central America*, by Herbert J. Spinden, published by the American Museum of Natural History, New York, 1922.

Origin and Chronology of Early Man in America

THE question of the origin of the American natives has for centuries furnished a topic for popular and scientific discussion. It is now believed that the American Indian originated in Asia and that he migrated to this continent by way of the Bering Strait and the Aleutian Islands. From here he moved southward and eastward. The highest native cultures developed in Middle America and along the north and middle Pacific coast of South America.

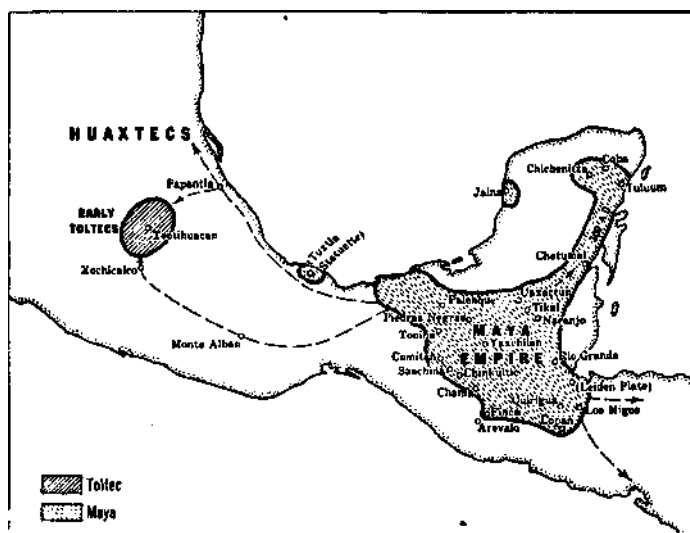
Among other theories of native origin which have been suggested, are the Indigenous theory, the Lost Ten Tribes of Israel theory, the Malay-Polynesian theory, the Japanese-Chinese theory, the Phoenician theory, the Egyptian theory, the Mormon theory, the Lost Atlantis theory, the Lost Continent of Mu (or Lemuria) theory, the Ayar theory, the African theory, and many more.



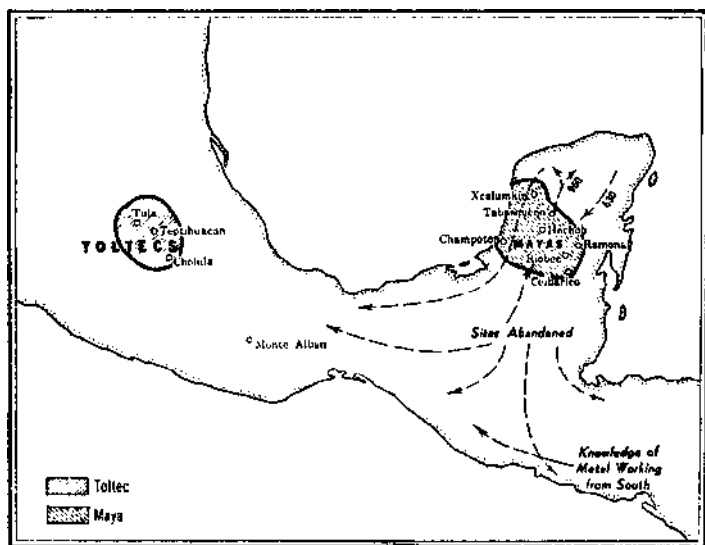
Maya cities and centers

Chief Sites of Maya Culture

AMONG the jungles and forests of Yucatan and northern Central America appear today the vine-covered and crumbling ruins of temples, pyramids, and the remains of great, ancient cities. Thus did the Spaniards see them and thus have they been for unknown centuries. Though the earliest recorded date is 291 B.C., it has been estimated that many of these monuments date from 3000 B.C. and that a high point of civilization was reached by these people about the dawn of the Christian Era. These structures and their sculpturing are doubtless the finest in the Western Hemisphere, yet less is known of these early peoples than of the Aztecs or Incas. The remains are mainly of brick, marble, and hewn stone elaborately carved or stuccoed. Upon the summits of the pyramids are the remains of temples. Many of the carvings are of undeciphered hieroglyphics, while others represent animals, people, and symbols. In some localities there seems to be a striking resemblance between the sculptured figures found there and those of Egypt, Greece, and Mesopotamia, while in other localities the similarity is to Mongolian and Indian cultures. In southern Mexico the principal centers of Mayan culture were at Palenque in Chiapas, and Uxmal, Chichen Itza, and Mayapan in Yucatan. In Guatemala there are remarkable ruins at Quirigua, Santa Lucia, Cozumalhuapa, Piedras Negras, and Yaxchilan, near Guatemala City. In Nicaragua there are typical Maya remains at Tenampua, in El Salvador near Tehuacan and Quelapa, and in Honduras at Copan. Many of these cities seem to have been deserted by the Mayas in the sixth or seventh centuries, but the cause is not known.



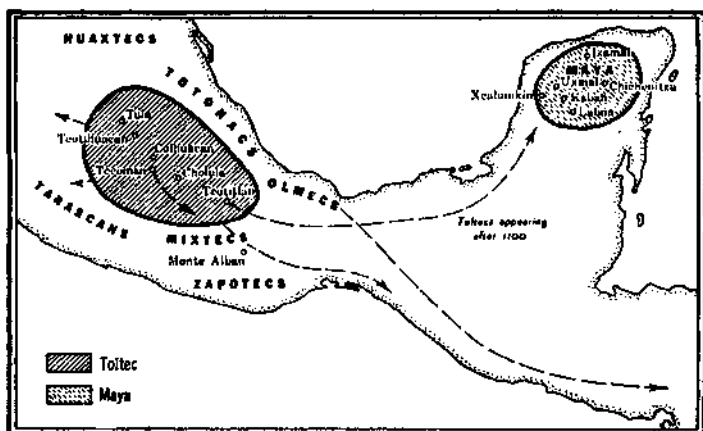
The first empire of the Mayas, 100 B.C-630 A.D.
Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History.



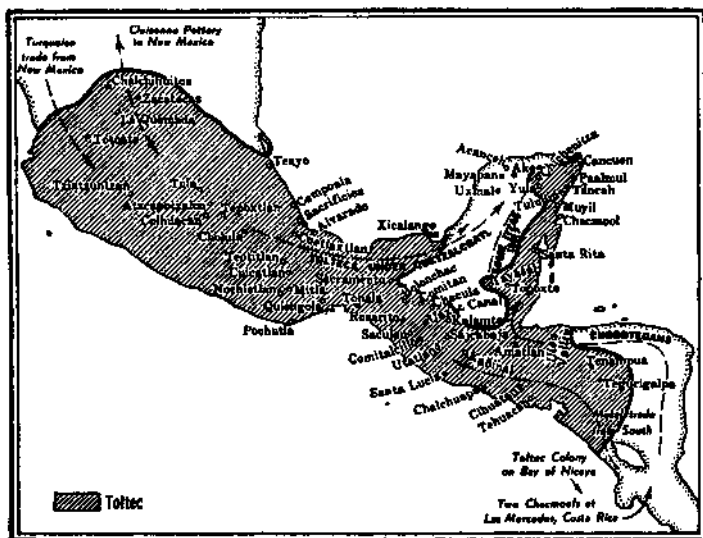
The transitional period of the Mayas, 630-960
Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History.

Rise of the Maya Empire

MUCH has been written concerning the origin of the Mayas, but as yet little has been learned. In the first millennium "B.C. an archaic people appears to have inhabited the plateaus extending from Mexico to South America, in which locality they practiced an intensive agriculture. A group of these people seem to have migrated to the low coastal region about the Panuco River in Mexico, where, because of the warm climate and fertile soil, they rapidly developed a high state of civilization. Shortly before the beginning of the Christian Era a portion of this group seems to have migrated southward and eastward into what is now Guatemala, founding their first great city, Uaxactun, in the first century A.D. From this center they spread over Yucatan and northern Central America and rapidly advanced to an astonishing civilization which had its apogee about 500 A.D.



The second empire of the Mayas, 960-1200
 Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History.



The Toltec period of the Mayas, 1200-1450
 Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History.

Rise of the Toltec and the Aztec Peoples

ABOUT the sixth century A.D. there came into the Valley of Mexico a group of Indians known as the Toltecs, who may have been related to the Mayas. They built cities, temples, and pyramids, practiced agriculture, developed picture writing and a calendar, worshiped many gods, and practiced human sacrifice. About the tenth or eleventh century the Chichimec peoples conquered the Toltecs in the Valley of Mexico and adopted their civilization. Finally, probably in the twelfth century, the Aztecs, coming from the north, conquered the Valley and began to extend their sway over the other peoples of Mexico. A great centralized confederation was established with an emperor; one of the emperors, Montezuma II, ruled from 1503 until he was conquered by the Spaniards. The Aztec capital, Teotihuacan, stood on an island in the middle of Lake Texcoco within the area now occupied by Mexico City. The Aztecs worshiped many gods and goddesses and practiced human sacrifice in the temples on the tops of their pyramids. Slavery also was practiced. Agriculture and mining were important occupations; weaving and the making of gold and silver objects were developed to a high degree; taxes were collected; and trade was engaged in throughout the confederation. The Aztecs spoke one language, recorded their thoughts in picture writings, developed a highly effective calendar, and enjoyed the dance, drama, and a variety of athletic activities. Their civilization astonished the Spaniards.



Growth of the Inca Empire

Reproduced with permission from *Ancient Civilizations of the Andes*, by Philip Ainsworth Means, published by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1931.

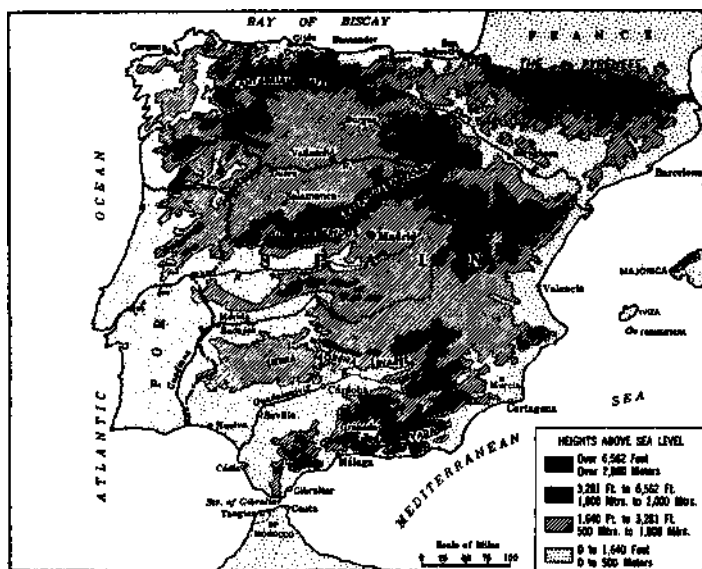
Rise and Development of the Inca Empire

PRECEDING the Incas were the so-called "Pre-Incas," who may have developed an empire in the vicinity of Lake Titicaca as early as 400 A.D. By 900 A.D., however, they had declined after attaining a high degree of civilization expressed in great fortifications and other buildings and in pottery and weaving.

The Inca tradition of origin holds that at some distant time there came from the Valley of Pilcamayu, to the south of Cuzco, four brothers with their four sisters, who advanced northward toward that city. Three of the brothers and three of the sisters were never allowed to reach their destination, but the surviving brother, Manco Capac, with his remaining sister, Mama Ocllo Huaco, whom he married, arrived at Cuzco perhaps in the twelfth century. There they made their home, sharing the land with the tribes which they found. The immediate successors of Manco Capac consolidated the empire and extended it north and south. Moreover, they built many temples and other edifices. Eventually, when the empire was at its height at the end of the fifteenth century, it may have extended for 3,000 miles from Colombia to central Chile, and eastward across the Andes into the western Amazon basin.

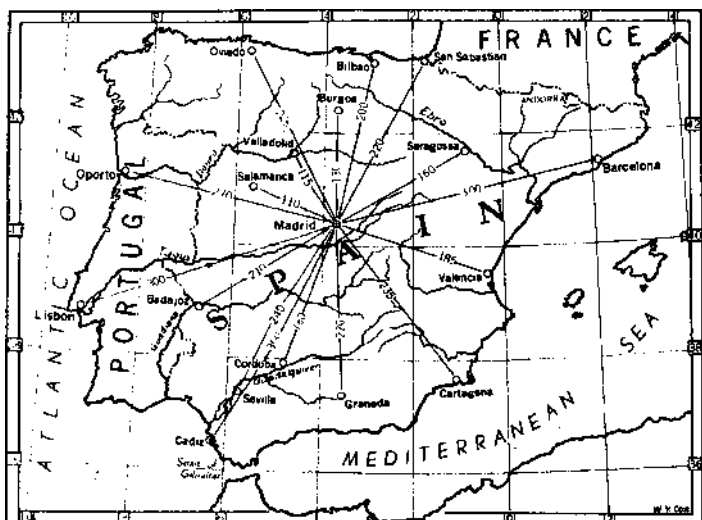
PART THREE

The European Background



Physical features of the Iberian Peninsula

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc. Based on a map published in the New York Times, August 23, 1936.



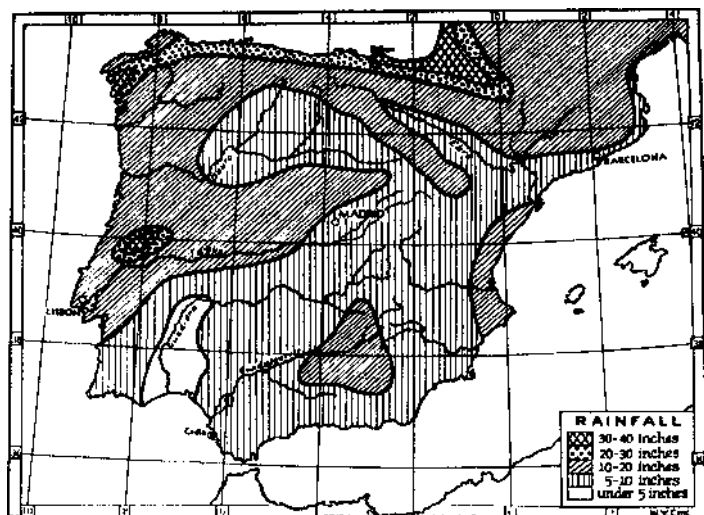
Air distances in the Iberian Peninsula

The Iberian Peninsula:

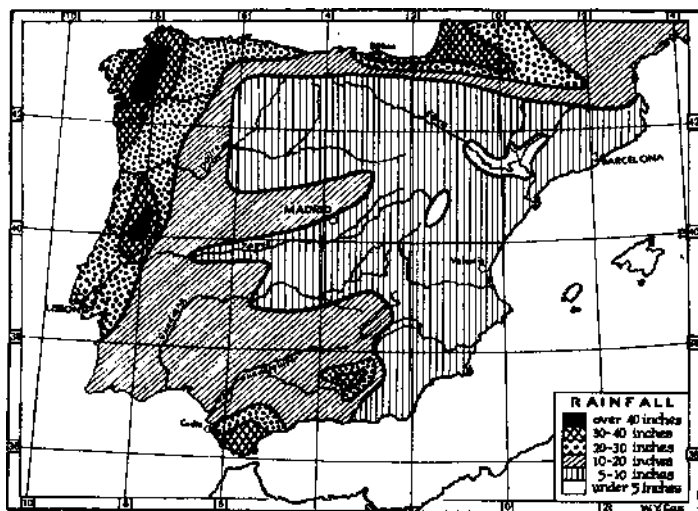
Geographical Features

IBERIAN geography has many of the characteristics of Latin American geography, with high mountains, bleak plateaus, semitropical lowlands, moist and dry areas, fair harbors, and navigable rivers. The area of the peninsula is some 225,000 square miles, or about the size of Texas. Spain proper has an area of about 190,000 square miles, which makes it about the size of New England, New York, and New Jersey, or about half the area of Venezuela. Portugal has an area which is about equal to that of the state of Indiana and smaller than that of Cuba. Yet these two small countries of Iberia together conquered and claimed more territory than any other powers in history prior to the twentieth century.

The peninsula is entirely surrounded by water except where it is connected to France by the rugged Pyrenees. Central Iberia is a high plateau with a bleak winter climate, while parts of the south are semitropical in character. The rainfall is heavy in the northwest and light in parts of the east and south, where irrigation must be practiced for the production of crops. The scattered mountain areas affect the climate considerably. Valleys are formed by the five largest rivers, the Tagus, the Duero, the Guadiana, and the Guadalquivir flowing into the Atlantic Ocean, and the Ebro flowing into the Mediterranean Sea. There are harbors along the rivers as well as along the sea coast. Hence, through the centuries Portugal has faced the Atlantic, and Spain, has faced the Mediterranean.



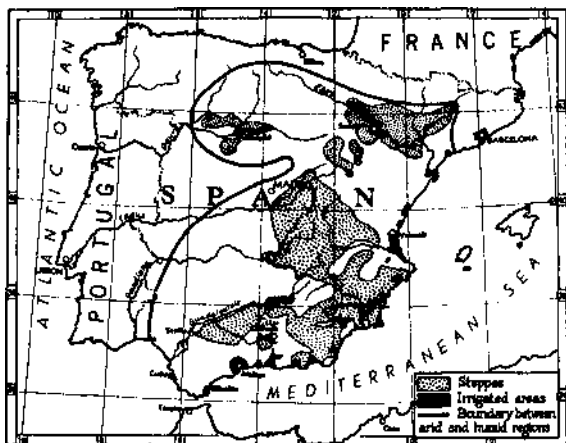
Summer rainfall



Winter rainfall

The Iberian Peninsula:

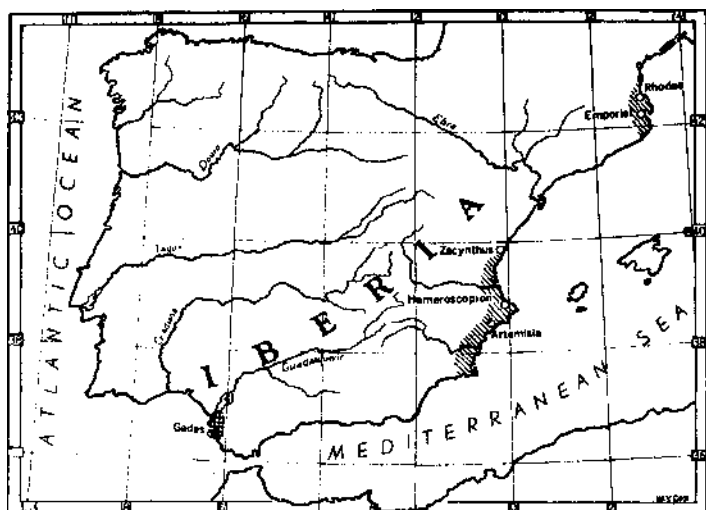
Climatic Factors



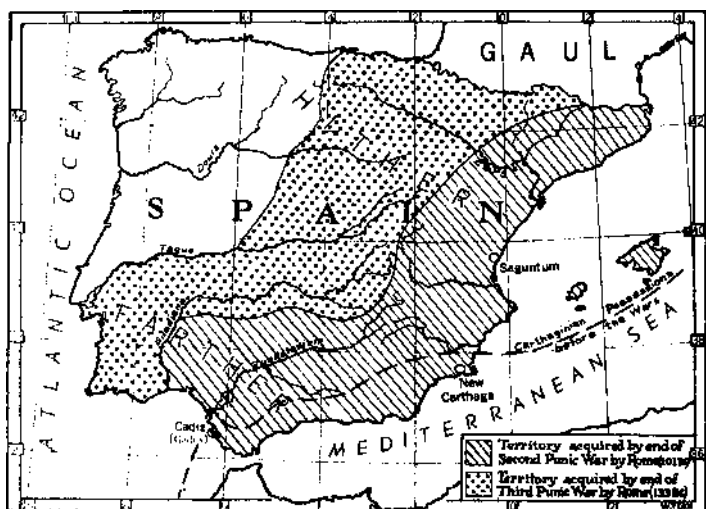
Humid and arid regions

BECAUSE of a great diversity in altitude a wide variety of temperature has resulted. On the whole, the peninsula has more of a continental than an oceanic climate, although Portugal has a climate more like that of our Pacific Coast in the same latitude. January temperatures, except in the extreme south, where it is somewhat warmer, range from about 32 degrees to about 50 degrees F. July temperatures for the lower three fourths of the peninsula average about 68 degrees, while the upper fourth averages from 50 degrees to 68 degrees. Such a climate furnished a poor environmental preparation for nations which were destined to occupy vast tropical areas.

The rainfall of the peninsula is uneven. The area of greatest precipitation is in the northwest, where the mean annual rainfall is from 50 inches to 70 inches. In the west and southwest the mean annual precipitation is from 20 inches to 50 inches. In the east and southeastern sections, especially in Castilla and La Mancha, there is too little rainfall for cultivation, and along the Mediterranean coast the rain falls after the growing season. Because of such conditions irrigation is practiced.



Early Greek and Phoenician colonies

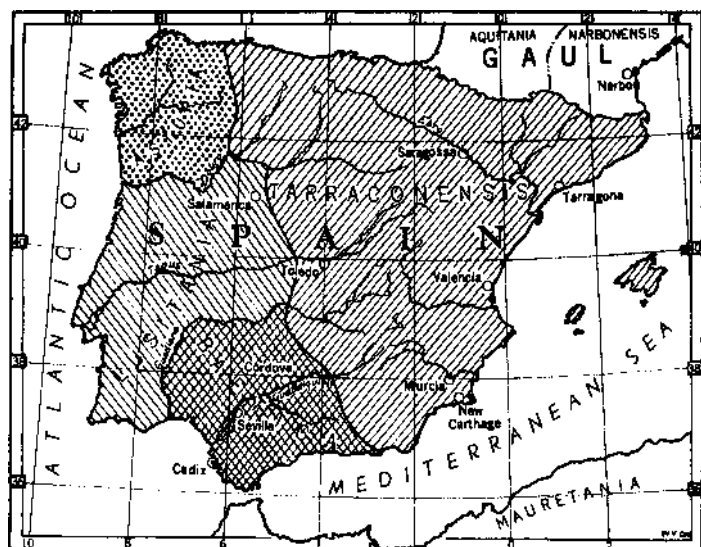


The Punic Wars

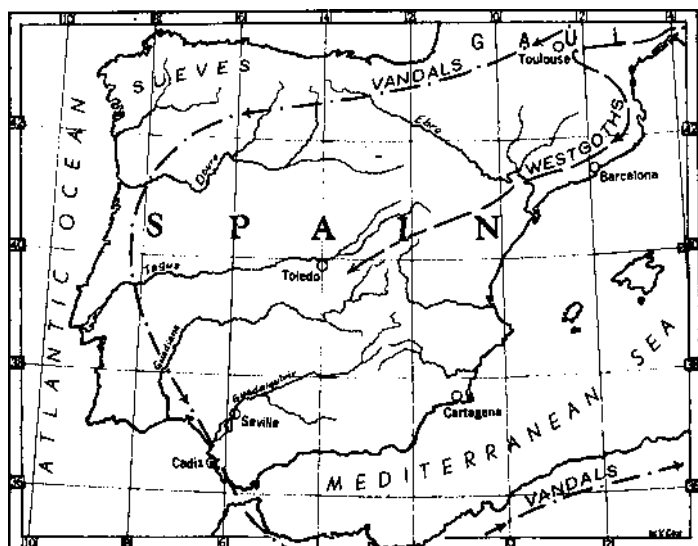
The Iberian Peninsula:

Early Invaders

GEOGRAPHICALLY, northern Morocco in Africa has much in common with Spain. Separated only by the narrow channel of the Strait of Gibraltar, the Iberian Peninsula early offered enticing inducements to the peoples of Africa as well as to other Mediterranean inhabitants. Perhaps the first people to enter Spain arrived by way of this strait. Between 1100 and 600 B.C. the region was partially colonized by the Phoenicians, who founded Gades, the later Cadiz, just before the former date. From 600 to 200 B.C. southern Spain was subject to Carthage, formerly a Phoenician colony. At the same time the Greeks occupied a portion of the Mediterranean coast of the peninsula. During this latter period the north and west of the peninsula seem to have been occupied by the Celts, who entered between the sixth and fourth centuries B.C.



Roman territory

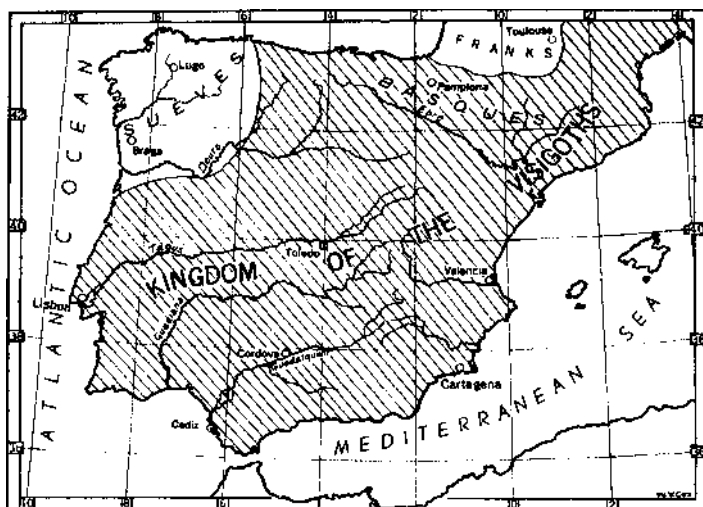


Germanic invasions in fifth century

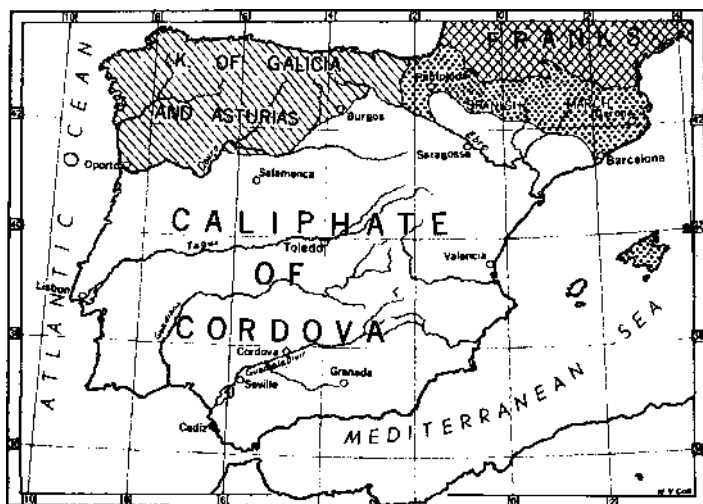
The Iberian Peninsula:

The Roman Period

IT has often been asserted that all that Spain now is and has been is largely due to Roman influence. From about 200 B.C. to the fifth century A.D. the Romans held Iberian territory and established Roman law, customs, and habits which had a permanent and marked influence on all Iberian institutions. The first Romans came as explorers and miners with little intention of conquering the region. However, the unexpected native opposition necessitated a systematic conquest which lasted for about three hundred years. The* massacre and enslavement of the inhabitants followed, but Roman peace was eventually established and the country was divided into political jurisdictions under Roman officials. The peninsula became an important part of the Roman Empire, furnishing it with generals and emperors. The municipality developed in the country in characteristic Roman fashion and became the center of civilization. Society grew under Roman guidance and Christianity was introduced, the Spanish church enjoying more privileges than the church in Rome in the fourth century. But Roman Spain began to decline in the third century, and barbarian invasions brought an end to the Roman period two centuries later.



Visigoth territory, 525 A.D.

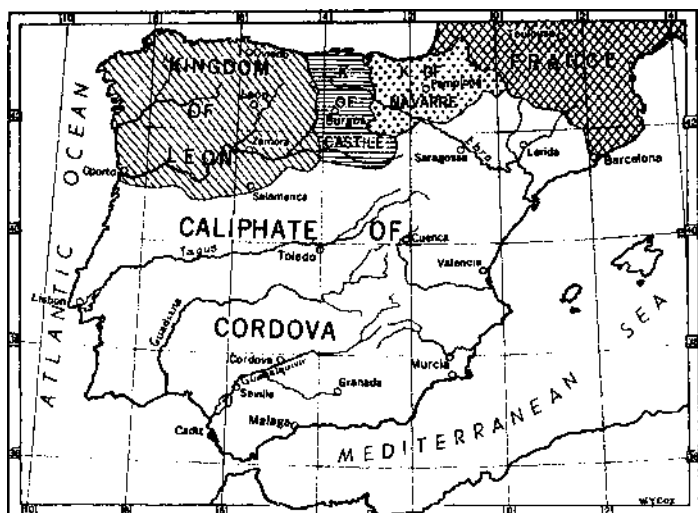


Moslem territory, 800 A.D.,

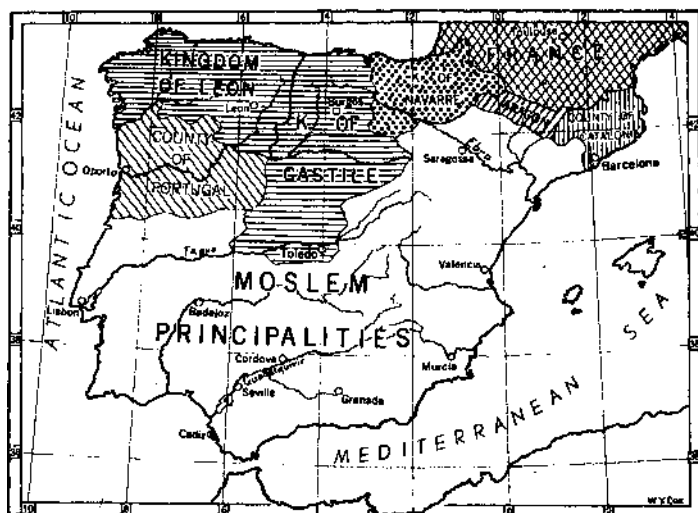
The Iberian Peninsula: Visigoths and Moslems

AT the beginning of the fifth century a group of barbarians, known as Vandals, began to move westward from Hungary. In the year 409 they invaded Spain from France. This group was followed closely by the Suevians, and they by the Visigoths. The first two groups settled in different parts of the peninsula. In 456 the Visigoths, or West Goths, began to conquer the Iberian Peninsula, driving the Vandals to Africa and the Suevians into northern Spain. By 623 practically all of the peninsula was under Visigothic rule, and Roman civilization remained only in modified forms of Christianity, political institutions, society, and economic life. But through all of the chaos incident to the barbarian conquest there persisted the fundamental ideas of Roman law which was to play so important a part in the life of the people of Spain and Portugal and of Latin America.

The first Moslem invasion of Iberia came in the year 710. The next year the migration began in earnest and by 718 all of the peninsula, except a small region in the north, had been overrun.



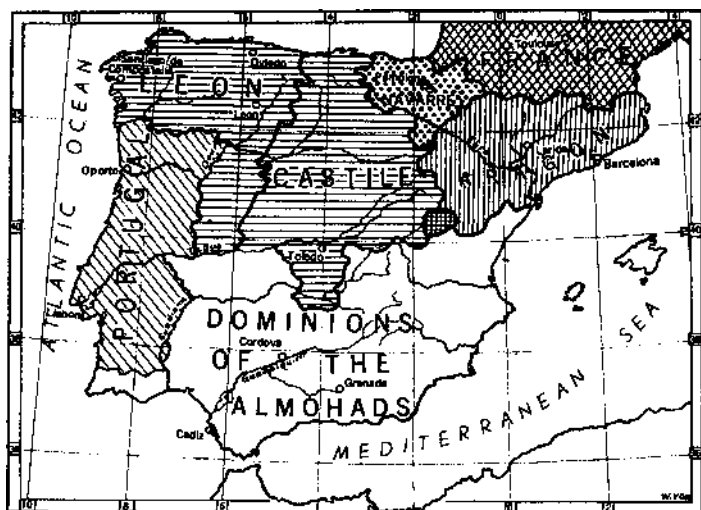
Political divisions about 1000



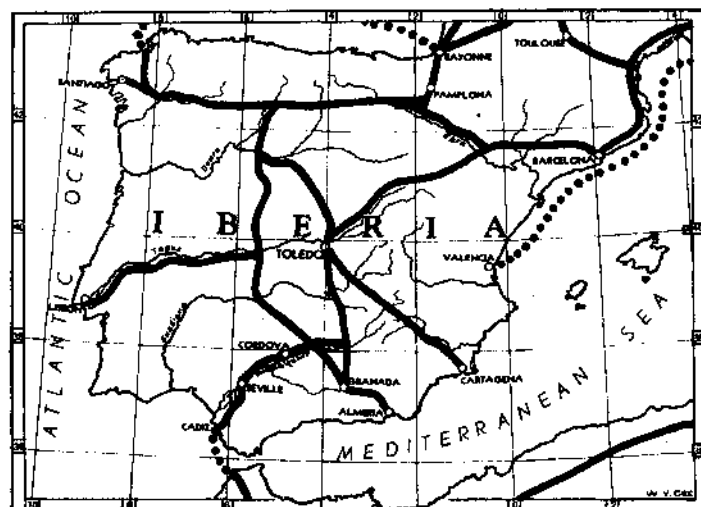
Political divisions about 1095

The Iberian Peninsula in the Eleventh Century

Wt IT was not until about the eleventh century that Moslem civilization became well established. Under the Moslems, society consisted of the aristocracy, freemen, peasants, slaves, merchants and soldiers. The members of the nobility were mainly Arabic, while the merchants were the Jews, *Mozdrabes* (Christians who had adopted the Moslem rule), and *Renegados* (Christians who had adopted the Moslem religion). Religious toleration under Mohammedanism was allowed to such an extent that the *Mozdrabes* could retain their churches and priests and celebrate their festivals. There was no public school system in Moslem Spain, but there were many private schools, and many scholars were brought into the peninsula. The Moslems encouraged the education of women, many of whom became prominent in scientific and literary pursuits. Mathematics and medicine were widely studied, but philosophy and astronomy were opposed by the religious officials and by the common people, although the subjects gained wide popularity among the educated. The literature of the Moslems was varied and abundant, and in architecture, sculpture, and painting they distinguished themselves. Industrial arts, especially the making of textiles, swords, pottery, and so forth, reached a high state of perfection. The Moslems introduced racial elements which left a deep impression upon the Spanish character, especially upon the Andalusians in the south, and through them upon the Spanish American countries in the Western Hemisphere.



Political divisions about 1200



Trade routes about 1300

The Iberian Peninsula in the Thirteenth Century

PORTUGAL was destined to become geographically, if not politically, unified some 200 years before the remainder of the peninsula. The expulsion of the Moslems began in the northwest in the eleventh century and was continued until the thirteenth, when Portugal reached its present boundaries. In Portugal the great nobles were much more loyal to the king than was the corresponding class in Spain. Likewise the cities did not cause so much trouble for the king as they did in Spain. During the reign of King Diniz (1279-1328) the great power of the Catholic Church was checked, which fact also made for the strengthening of the monarch's power. On August 14, 1385, at the Battle of Aljubarrota, the aggressions of Castilla to the east were practically ended, and John I (1357-1433), called "the Great," was able to establish the political unity of Portugal.



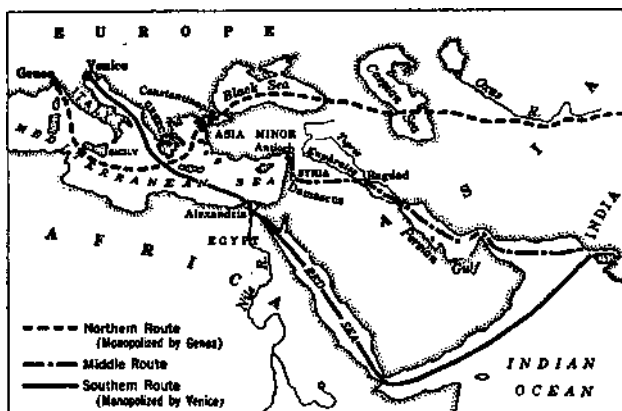
Political divisions about 1491



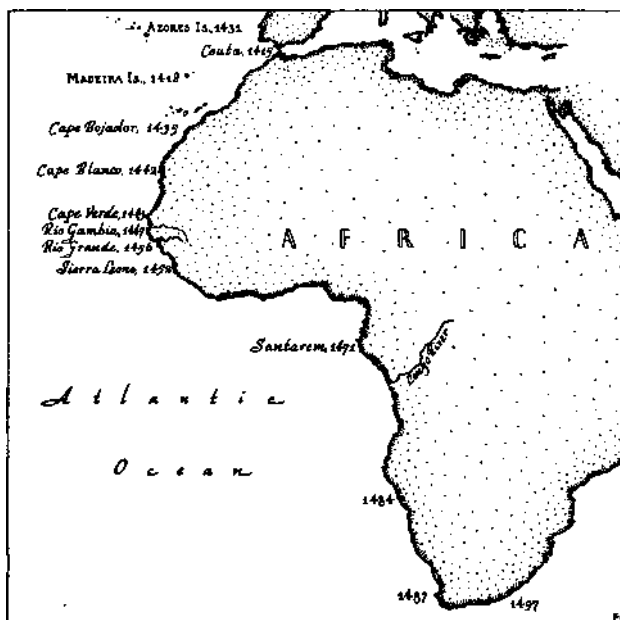
Political divisions, 1519

The Iberian Peninsula, 1491 to 1519

THE Spanish reconquest began in 718, when Pelayo in Asturias defeated the Moslem. Gradually the Christian fighters extended their conquests, until by 910 the kingdoms of Leon and Navarre and the County of Barcelona had been founded. Then Leon and Castilla united and Arag6n appeared. By the middle of the twelfth century about half of the peninsula had been reconquered from the Moslem. In 1236 Cordova was taken from the invaders, and in 1248 Seville was captured. By 1252 the reconquered territory included about two-thirds of the peninsula, and by 1491 all of present-day Spain, except the region about the city of Granada, had been recaptured. Finally, in 1492 Ferdinand and Isabella seized this region and the present boundaries of Spain were reached. By 1519 the Spanish Empire was beginning to prosper under the rule of Charles V.



Fifteenth century routes of trade between Europe and Asia
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.



Portuguese exploration along the west coast of Africa
 Based on map in *Historia de Mexico*, by Chdvez Orozco.

The Portuguese Search for New Trade Routes to the East

BECAUSE Portugal was unified before Spain, the government and people were ready at an earlier date than in Spain for exploration and conquest overseas. In the fourteenth century the Canary Islands were discovered, and in 1415 Ceuta on the north coast of Africa was captured. There, the son of John "the Great," known to history as Prince Henry the Navigator, became interested in searching for the golden kingdom of Timbuktu and for the fabled kingdom of Prester John, a Christian ruler supposedly surrounded by pagans somewhere in Africa. In 1419 Prince Henry began to send out ships along the west coast of Africa. By '1431 the Azores were discovered; by 1435 Cape Bojador was reached; and by 1443 the Cape Verde Islands were reached. By 1448 a colony was established at Agadir. By 1460, when Prince Henry died, Portuguese discoveries had extended as far south as 6 to 8 degrees north latitude.

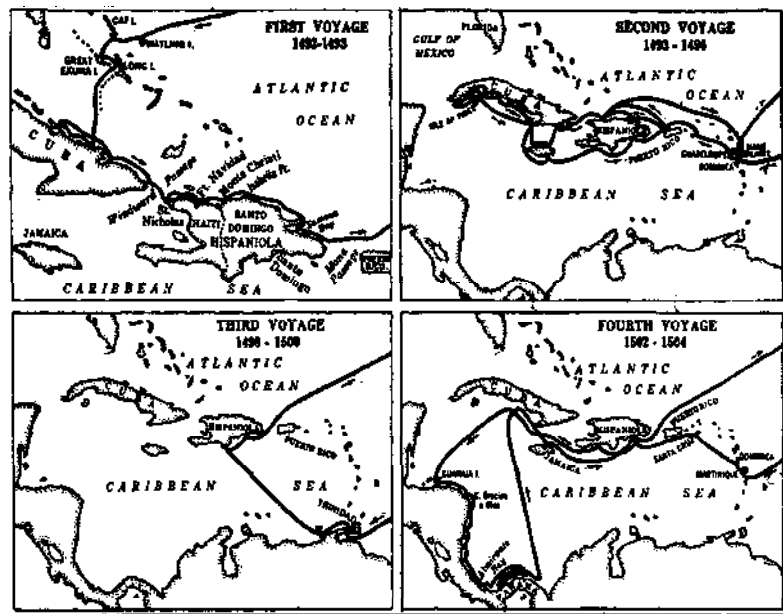
At this point a new incentive arose to give impetus to African discoveries, for the Turks at the eastern end of the Mediterranean, with the capture of Constantinople in 1453, had begun the seizure of trade routes to the East. In 1462 the great bend of Africa was found, and finally in 1486 Bartholomeu Dias discovered the Cape of Good Hope. In 1497 and 1498 Vasco da Gama went around Africa to India. The Portuguese had thus acquired their own private trade route to the East. And it was along this route that Pedro Alvares Cabral was sailing in 1500, when he found himself on the coast of Brazil in America.

Europe in the Age of Charles V and Philip II

ON the death of Ferdinand in 1516 there succeeded to the throne of Spain a young man, Charles I, King of Spain (also called Charles V, Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire), who was destined to unite the Spanish and German branches of the Hapsburg family into a great European empire which engaged his attention to such an extent that he had little time for his larger American empire. In 1556 Charles was succeeded by his son Philip II as King of Spain, but the title of Holy Roman Emperor passed to another relative. Until 1598 Philip ruled Spain and his American possessions, but he too at times was able to devote very little thought to his empire overseas. However, these two rulers made Spain a great European as well as a great world power. During the next two centuries the European importance of Spain generally declined.

PART FOUR

The Colonial Period

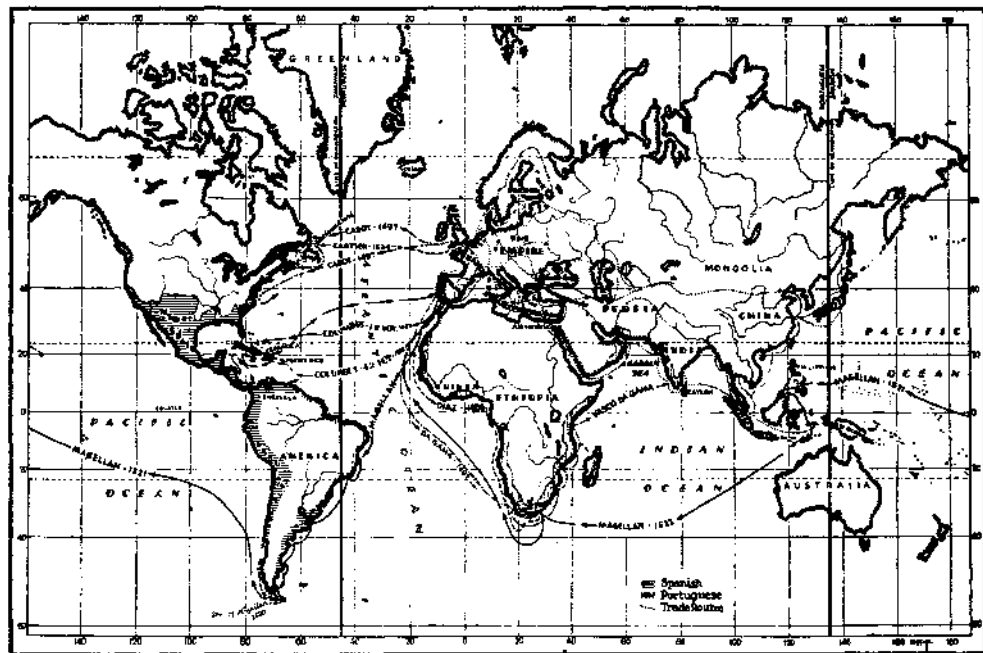


Routes of Columbus in the New World

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

The Four Voyages of Columbus

COLUMBUS made four voyages to America, each time discovering and exploring new regions. His first voyage began on August 3, 1492, and ended with his return to Spain on March 15, 1493. On his second voyage Columbus left Spain on September 25, 1493, and returned to Spain on June 11, 1496. The third voyage extended from May 30, 1498, to the end of November, 1500. On his last voyage Columbus left Spain on May 9, 1502, and returned to Spain November 7, 1504. The great admiral died on Ascension Day, May 20, 1506, still believing that he had found Asia rather than a new continent.

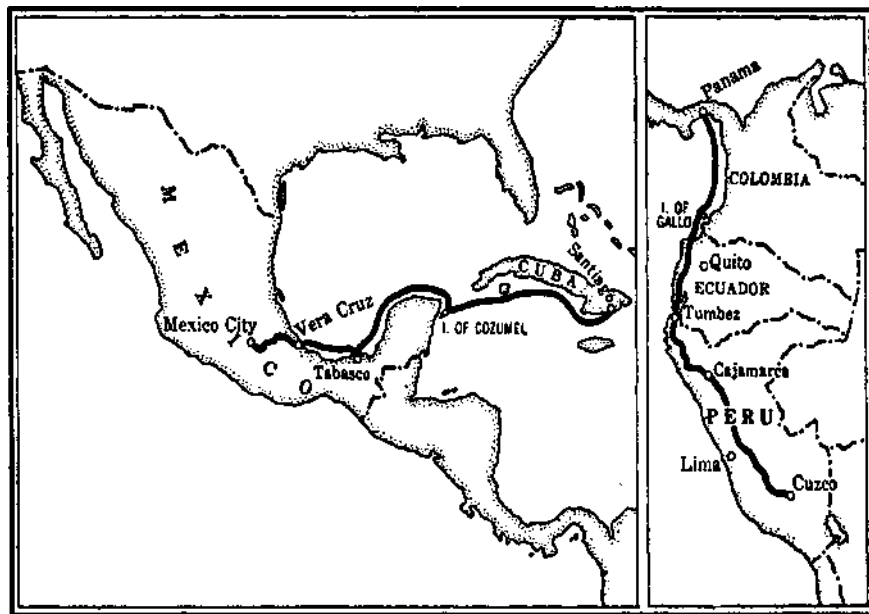


Early European explorations and claims

The World Divided and Explored

CERTAIN problems concerning rights to the land discovered confronted Spain and Portugal as a result of Columbus' voyage. If Columbus had reached Asia, Portuguese priority to claims had to be considered. If he had reached new lands, then claims by Spain must be made legal. The Spanish Pope, Alexander VI, was asked by the sovereigns of both countries to help settle the problem, and as a result the New World was divided between Spain and Portugal by three Bulls of Demarcation. These provided for a north-south line in the Atlantic running 100 leagues west of the Azores (May 3 and 4, 1493), with the territory east of the line belonging to Portugal and the territory west of the line belonging to Spain. When this arrangement caused Portugal to complain that she did not have sufficient sea space to go around Africa, the two countries signed the Treaty of Tordesillas (June 7, 1494) moving the line westward to 370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands. Though it was not known at the time, this arrangement gave to Portugal a toe hold on the eastern bulge of South America, from which Brazil later developed. The Demarcation Line was extended to the Pacific Ocean by the Treaty of Zaragoza (April 22, 1529), and this gave to Portugal the Philippine Islands, which were later exchanged with Spain for Brazilian territory west of the Demarcation Line in South America.

With the discovery of America several European nations began to think of acquiring overseas colonies, and the rising state systems, as they became consolidated, began to participate in the important movement in world history known as "The Expansion of Europe."



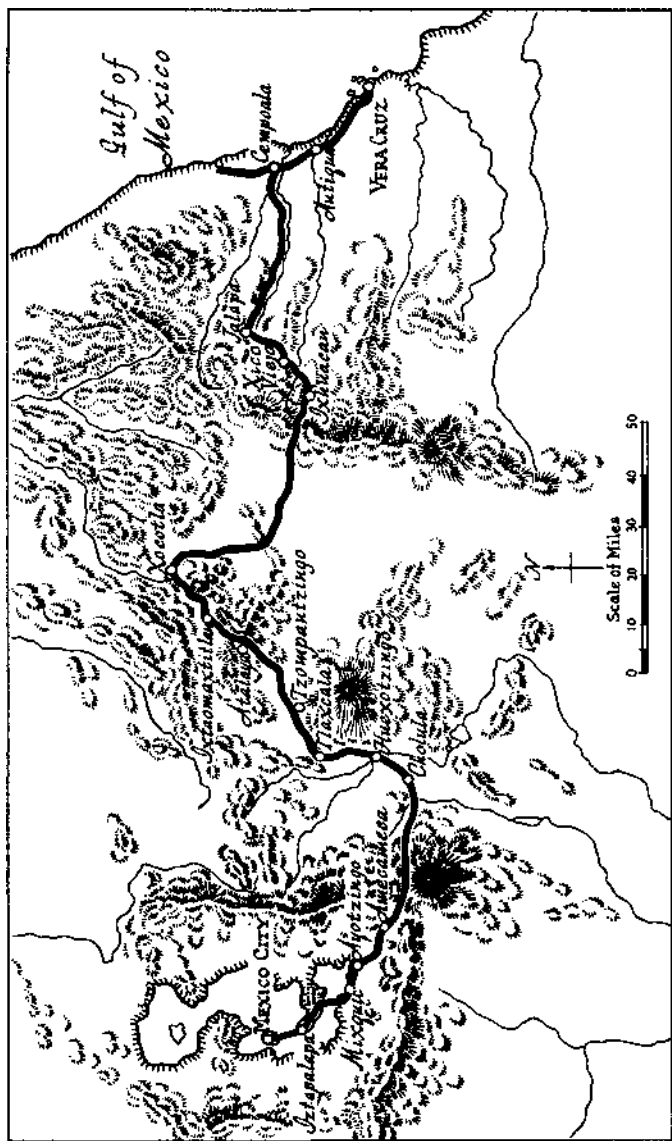
General routes in the conquests of Mexico and Peru

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Two Great Conquests in America

THE conquest of America by the Spaniards and the Portuguese was carried out at private cost and at private initiative. The rulers gave only their permission and their good wishes. Thousands of adventurous souls from the Iberian peninsula sold their worldly goods and went to the Indies. Three motives for conquest were rapidly formulated: gold, glory, and gospel. The first and second aggrandized the state and the individual, while the third contributed to the glory of the Roman Catholic Church, whose interests the sovereigns of the peninsula had at heart.

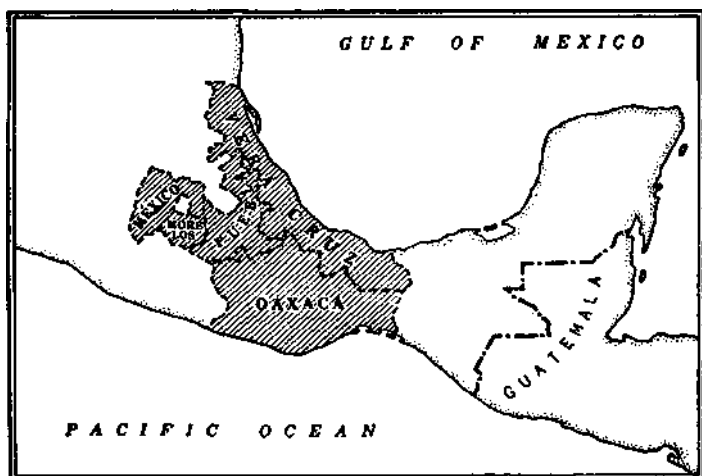
Among the leaders of the conquest in America were two individuals who, because they fought and overcame the greatest native opposition, prepared the way for the exploration of many adjacent regions and made possible the establishment of permanent colonial governments and the consolidation of vast amounts of territory. These men were Hernando Cortes in Mexico and Francisco Pizarro in Peru.



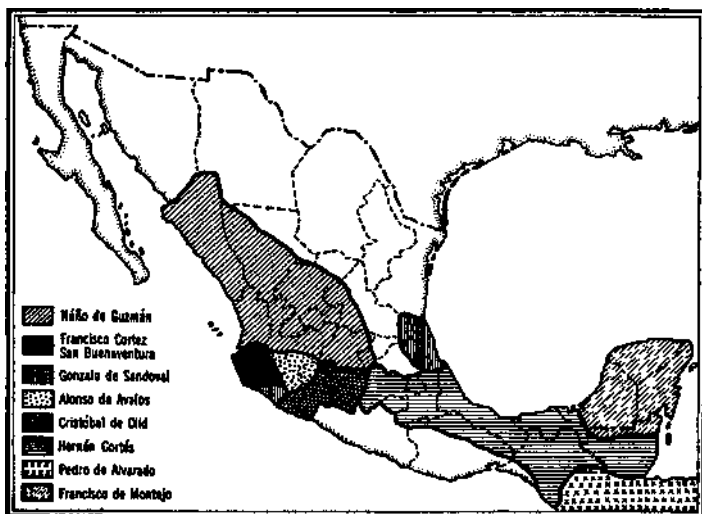
Route of Cortés from Vera Cruz to Mexico City

Cortes Goes to Mexico City

CORTES set out toward Mexico City in August, 1519. But before his departure from Vera Cruz he took care to ally himself with the Totonacs and thereby secured 1,300 Indian warriors. Added to these were his own soldiers, about 400 in number, with 15 horses, 7 cannon, and several hundred Indian carriers to transport the baggage. The events which occurred during the march into the interior were characteristic of the leader's audacity. At Cempoala, not far from Vera Cruz, Cortes destroyed the native idols and imprisoned the chiefs. At Tlaxcala, 64 miles east of Mexico City, the Spaniards were resisted by the Indians, but after a fierce struggle a peace was made and an alliance was formed with them. At Cholula, the sacred city of the Aztecs, some 60 miles southeast of Mexico City, Cortes, discovering a plot to destroy the Spaniards, assembled the natives in the great public square and massacred several thousands of them. From this town Cortes proceeded directly to Mexico City, which he entered along the south causeway on November 8, 1519. There his forces were greeted by Montezuma and given headquarters in the heart of the city. But the Spaniards, naturally suspicious of the natives, decided that some action should be taken to gain complete possession of the monarch and his capital. Consequently, when Cortes heard of an attack by the Indians upon the Spaniards left at Vera Cruz, he accused Montezuma of causing it. The Aztec chief denied this accusation, but Cortes insisted that he come to live in the quarters of the Spaniards until the affair had cleared up. This, of course, meant that his freedom was lost; as was intended, it was never to be regained. The natives immediately began to scheme to rescue their king, but when Cortes discovered their plots he had their leader, a nephew of the emperor, executed. Cortes's next step was to force Montezuma to declare his vassalage to the king of Spain and to show his good faith by making a cash payment equivalent to about \$7,000,000. In this manner Cortes also discovered where the riches of the Aztec kingdom were stored.



Territory in which towns were granted to Cortes
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

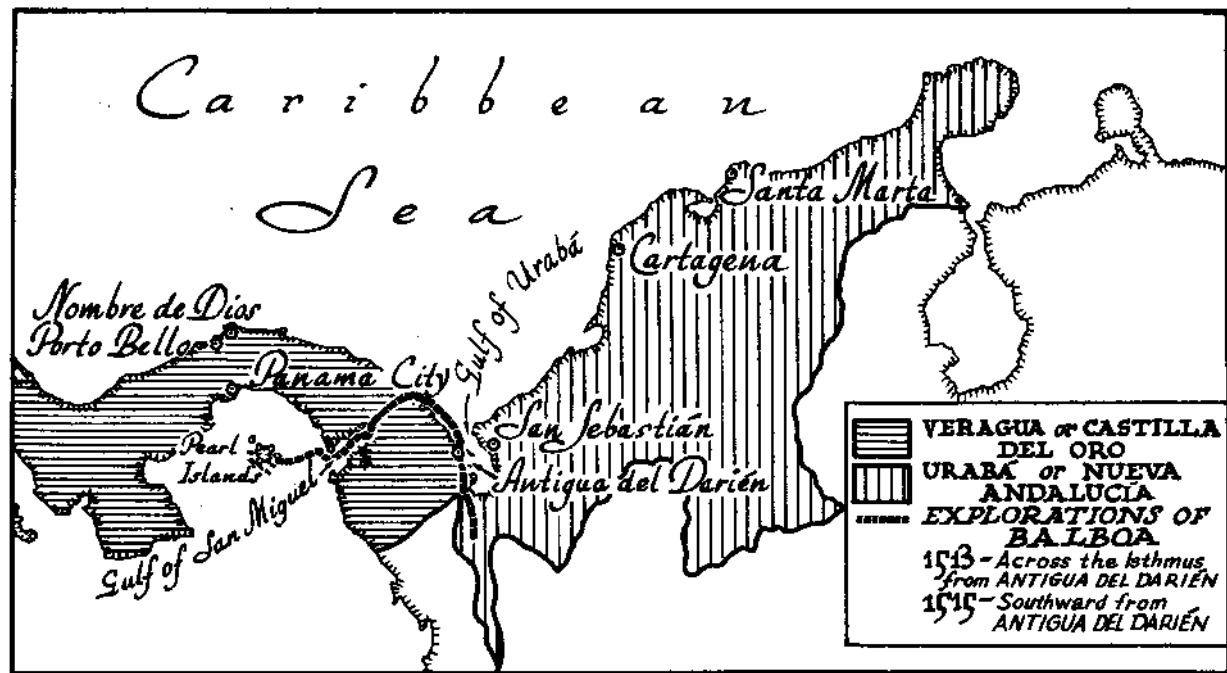


Early Mexican conquerors and the regions conquered
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc. Based on data from *La conquista de la Nueva Galicia*, by Jose Lopez-Portillo y Weber, Mexico, 1935.

Early Expansion in New Spain

DESPITE his achievements, the enemies of Cortes in New Spain and in Old Spain caused him to suffer many indignities, and in 1528 he went to Spain to present his defense to the crown. Charles V was much impressed and he granted Cortes twenty-two towns and 23,000 vassals in Mexico and gave him the title "Marquis of the Valley of Oaxaca." In 1530 Cortes returned to New Spain, where he found life was not pleasant. He then went back to the Peninsula, and later he fought in Algiers. He died in 1547.

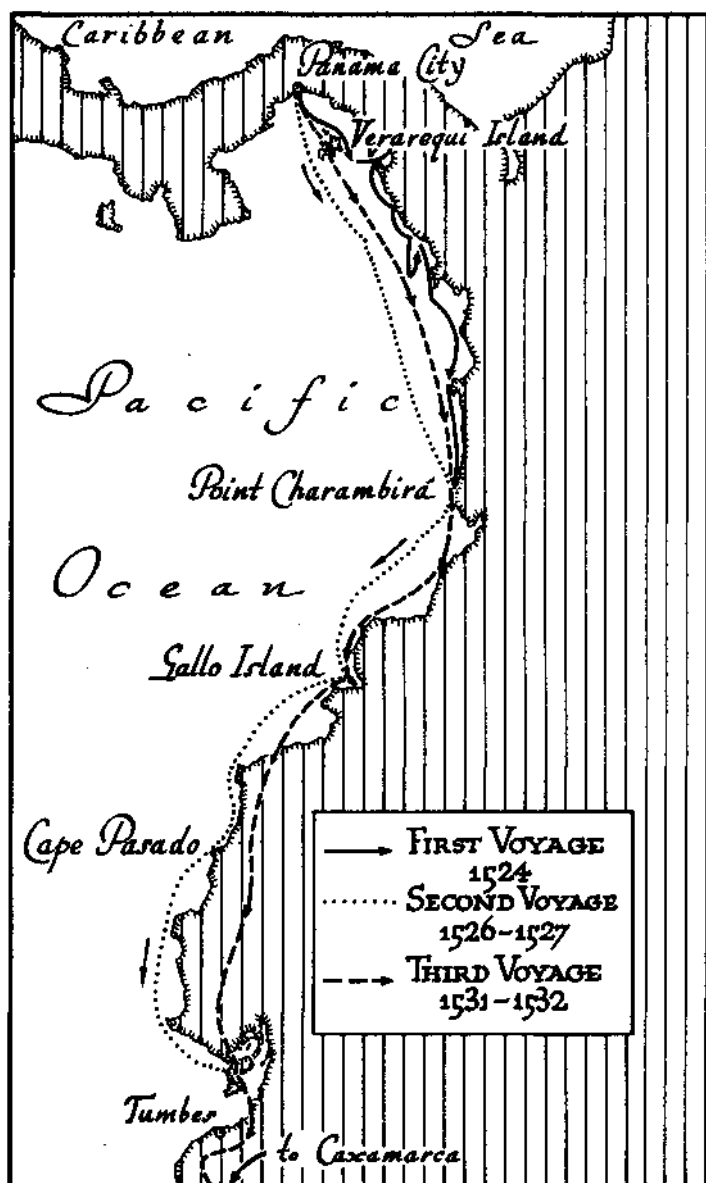
Immediately after the conquest of Mexico City, expansion began in various directions. A series of wondrous tales, aptly called the "Northern Mysteries," led men northward from both Mexico and the West Indies into the present limits of the United States. Other stories of fabulous cities led men southward into Central America, which was soon to be conquered and settled and gradually brought under the control of New Spain.



The Pearl Coast, 1510-1515

The Occupation of Panama and the Discovery of the Pacific

IN 1503 Columbus had founded the short-lived town of Santa Maria de Belen on the Isthmus of Panama. Five years later, in 1508, Alonso de Ojeda received a grant of land on the Pearl Coast east of Panama (called Uraba), while at the same time Diego de Nicuesa obtained a grant of land from Panama northward (called Veragua). In 1509 Ojeda founded the town of San Sebastian which was later moved to a new site called Santa Maria la Antigua del Darien. In 1510 Nicuesa founded a colony at Nombre de Dios. In 1513 the governor in the colony of Darien was the red-headed, blue-eyed, energetic Vasco Nunez de Balboa. In September of that year, after one of the most difficult marches in recorded history, he discovered the Pacific Ocean, which he called the South Sea, and took possession of it and all the lands bordering it in the name of the king of Spain. But the next year, with the arrival of a new governor, Pedro Arias d'Avila (called Pedrarias), the fortunes of Balboa declined, and he was finally executed by Pedrarias in 1519. The same year, Pedrarias moved across the Isthmus and founded the town of Panama on the Pacific side, the first Spanish settlement on the Pacific Ocean.



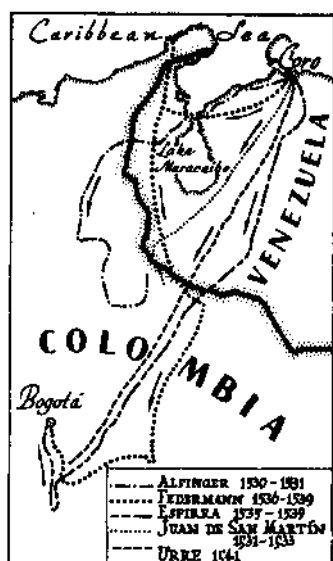
Voyages of Pizarro, 1524-1532

Pizarro Goes to Peru

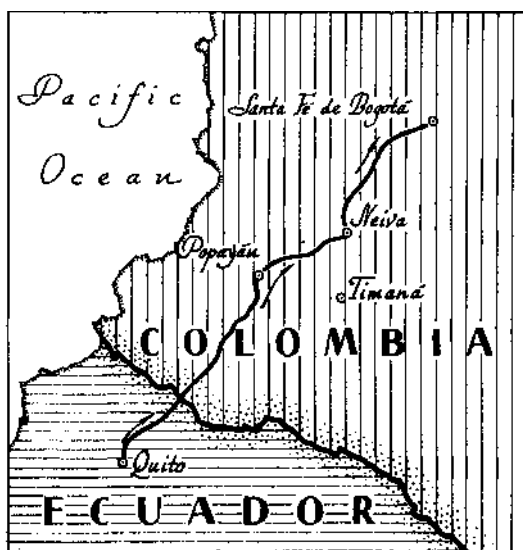
FROM Panama City Francisco Pizarro set out on three expeditions to the land of the Incas. After failing in his first two voyages to accomplish his objectives, Pizarro went to Spain to obtain royal backing. It was thus possible on the third expedition to reach the Inca kingdom and eventually to accomplish its conquest.



Route of Jimenez de Quesada,
1536-1538



Exploring expeditions from
Coro, 1530-1541



Route of Sebastian de Benalcazar, 1536-1538

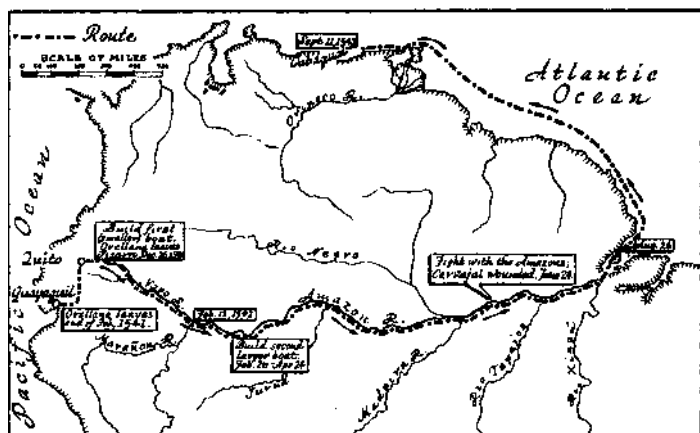
Early Explorations and Conquests in Colombia and Venezuela

ON April 6, 1536, Jimenez de Quesada set out from Santa Marta with six hundred infantrymen, one hundred horses, and six ships with two hundred men on board. The fleet was to go up the Magdalena River while Quesada was to lead his men overland into the high plateau of central Colombia. Clothed in heavy cotton armor as protection against the poisoned arrows of the Indians, the men cut their way foot by foot through the steaming jungles, making contacts occasionally with the ships ascending the treacherous river. Finally, after going four hundred miles in eight months and having lost two-thirds of his men, Quesada founded the town of La Tora on the Magdalena River. After resting there, the Spaniards moved into the mountainous region to the east. By now their clothes, which had been torn to shreds, offered slight protection against the cold. They dragged their cannon up precipices and toiled through deep drifts of snow. At last, 166 men reached the great plain near the present city of Bogota, where the Chibchas lived.

Because the Chibcha kingdom was divided into two parts, each with a ruler, the Spaniards were able eventually to overcome native resistance and to seize several native leaders. On August 6, 1538, Quesada founded the town of Santa Fe de Bogotd, which he planned to be the capital of the country. Expansion from this city occurred in all directions, and some gold and emeralds were found.

Meanwhile the northern capital of the divided Inca empire had been captured by Sebastian de Benalcazar and renamed San Francisco de Quito. From this town in 1536 Benalcazar set out northward looking for El Dorado in Popayan and Antioquia and in 1538 he met Quesada at Bogota.

Another center of expansion was at Coro on the Pearl Coast, from which many expeditions were sent in search of El Dorado.



Orellana's voyage of discovery down the Amazon, 1541-1542



Route of Lope de Aguirre from Peru to Venezuela, 1560-1561

Exploration of the Amazon River

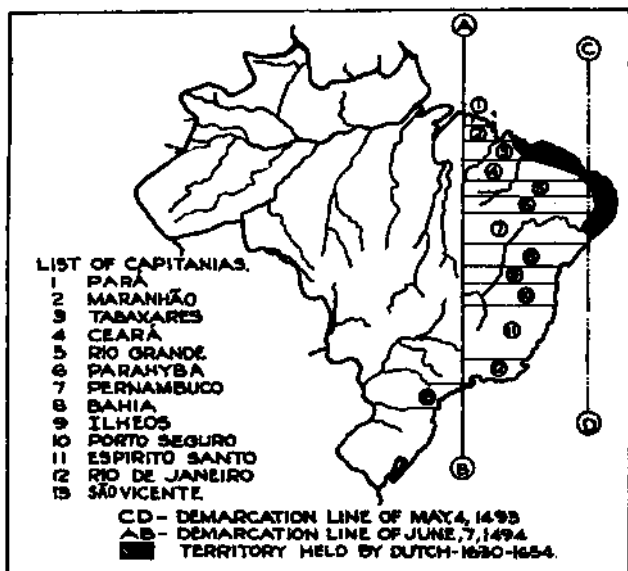
ON December 25, 1539, Gonzalo Pizarro, having heard of the Land of Cinnamon eastward across the Andes in the Amazon Valley, set out to look for it with two hundred foot soldiers, one hundred mounted troops, four thousand natives, and a large herd of cattle. But the expedition found only a small quantity of spice and that of an inferior quality. During 1541 and 1542 Francisco de Orellana, a lieutenant of Pizarro, explored the course of the Amazon to its mouth, giving the river his name. In 1544, with a royal commission, he started again to explore the stream but lost his life in the attempt.

In 1560 Viceroy Mendoza sent the incapable Pedro de Ursua, who had recently come from Bogota, eastward with three hundred men to explore the Amazon River following Orellana's route. With Ursua went Lope de Aguirre, an infamous villain known by the names of "Mad Man," "the Tyrant," and "the Traitor," who before the end of the expedition caused the leader's death (January 1, 1561) as well as the deaths of hundreds of others. Amid an orgy of murder and rapine he descended the Amazon part way and then turned northward across country to the Orinoco and thence to its mouth. From there he proceeded along the coast westward, shortly landing in New Granada territory, where he continued his plundering. At the same time he wrote the Spanish sovereign complaining of the neglect and bad government of the colonies and declaring himself a rebel against the Spanish administration. But soon after, although not until he had murdered his own daughter, he was captured, and on October 7, 1561, he was executed and his body thrown to the dogs.

Territorial divisions in South America by 1534

Spanish South America Divided

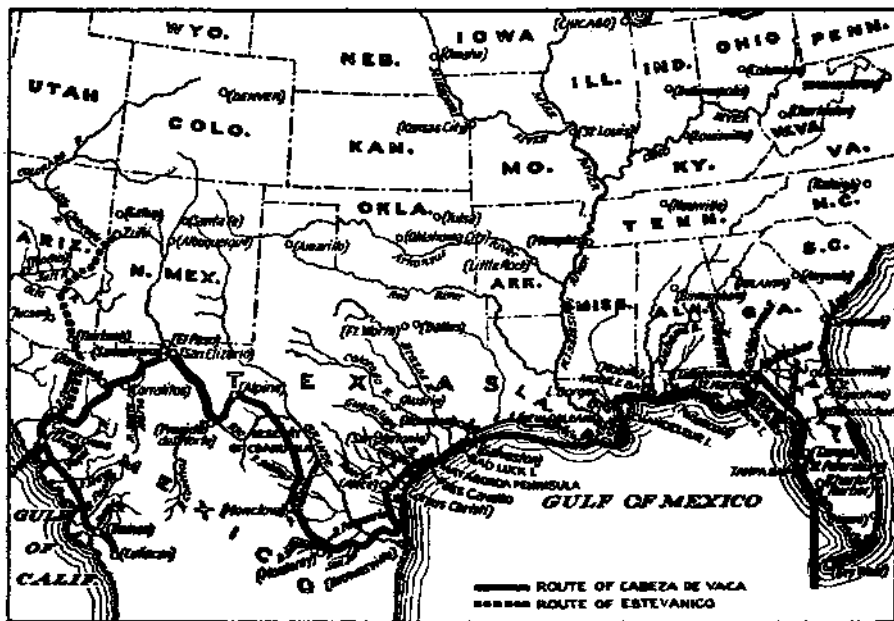
W IN the early days of the conquest it was customary for the Spanish king to be most generous with grants of territory, but because of the lack of geographical knowledge and the impossibility of making accurate surveys there was considerable overlapping of boundaries and claims. Hence armed conflicts frequently occurred among the early conquerors. In some instances two or more individuals or groups were granted the same territory. Yet considering the difficulties of the conquest and the confusion in current information, it is surprising that territorial divisions could be so well mapped.



Early territorial divisions of colonial Brazil

Portuguese South America Divided

No concerted attempt was made to settle Brazil until 1530, when Martim Affonso de Sousa was sent by the Portuguese government with settlers, cattle, and seeds to colonize the country. A fort built at what was called Rio de Janeiro was destroyed in January, 1531. The settlers therefore moved to a new locality which on January 22, 1532, they named Sao Vicente. Sousa was made captain general, a feudal government was erected similar to that which had proved so successful in Madeira and the Azores, and thirteen *capitanias*, or fiefs, were marked out in 1534. These land areas had no definite boundaries to the west, except perhaps the Line of Demarcation, but each extended along the coast a definite number of leagues. Settlements were generally to be made on good harbors and at the mouths of rivers. When established inland, towns were to be at least six leagues apart. Trade was to be carried on directly with Lisbon, and other regulations were made. No one might trade in the interior of the country except by special permission. Agriculture and fishing soon became the two leading industries.

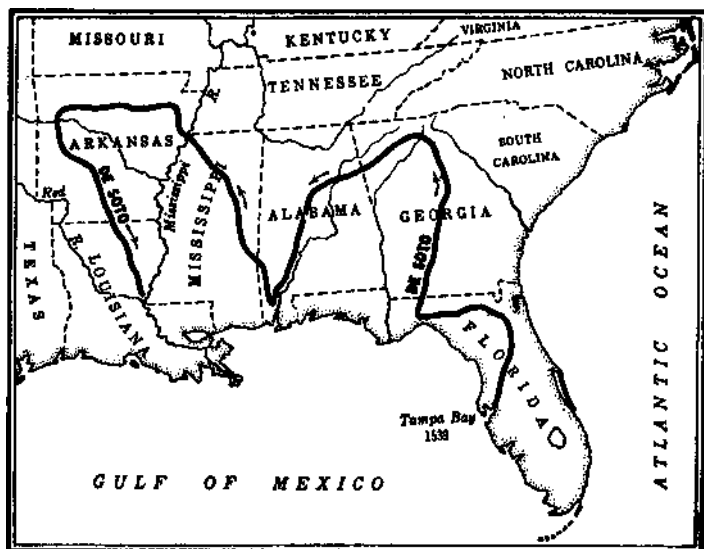


Route of Nunez Cabeza de Vaca from Florida to Mexico, 1528-1536

Based on text and map in *The Odyssey of Cabeza de Vaca*, by Morris G. Bishop, published by D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1933.

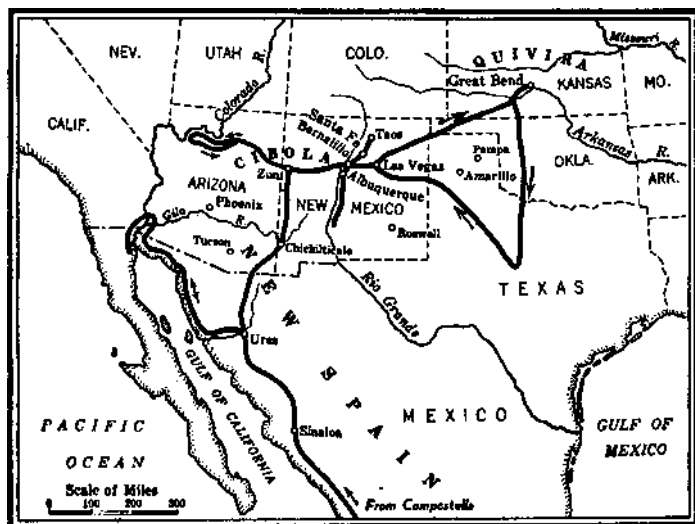
The Journey of Alvar Nunez Cabeza de Vaca

PANFILO DE NARVAEZ, on April 15, 1528, en route from Spain with six hundred persons and eighty horses, landed near the present Tampa Bay. Marching inland, his company fought the Indians but failed to find riches. At the end of July, they reached St. Mark's Bay, hoping to find ships which would take them to the West Indies. But no aid came, and they killed and ate their horses, using the skins to make five small boats in which they set sail on September 22. A hurricane blew them along the Gulf coast, sinking all but one ship, which was wrecked on the coast of Texas. In this craft was the treasurer of the expedition, Alvar Nunez Cabeza de Vaca, with several companions. These survivors, wishing to reach Mexico City overland, set out to walk there, but they were seized by numerous Indian tribes as they moved along, and they did not reach Culiacdn, near the Pacific coast of Mexico, until April 1, 1536, after having walked several thousands of miles. The stories they told of the things they had seen and heard led other adventurers to explore **the** southwestern part of the United States.



Approximate route of de Soto's expedition, 1539-1542

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.



Route of Coronado's expedition, 1540-1542

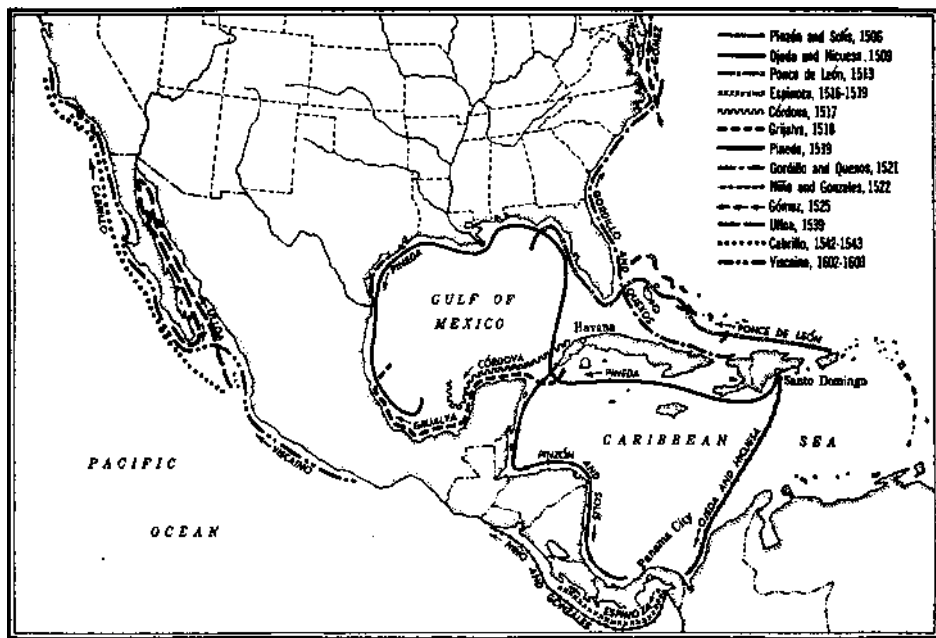
Reproduced with permission from the New York Times, January 7, 1940.

The Southern United States Explored: De Soto and Coronado

HERNANDO DE SOTO, on May 25, 1539, landed at Tampa Bay with about six hundred men and 223 horses to look for riches and several of the Northern Mysteries. For about four years this band wandered through present Georgia, the Carolinas, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Oklahoma. But they found no wealth of any consequence, and when on May 21, 1542, the leader died, the explorers, under Luis de Moscoso, turned back, floated down the Mississippi River, and finally reached Mexico in 1543.

After Alvar Nunez Cabeza de Vaca had returned to Mexico with tales of the famous Seven Cities of Cibola, the viceroy commissioned the Franciscan Marcos de Niza and a Negro, named Estevanico, to find these cities and to bring back a full report. In March, 1539, they set out northward, with Estevanico going ahead and promising to send back a token if he found the cities. When this was received Marcos hastened on, but he learned that the Negro had been killed by the Indians and that the supposed Seven Cities was only a Zuni pueblo. Returning to Mexico, Father Marcos, however, reported that he had found the Seven Cities of Cibola and that they were richer than Mexico City itself.

As a result of this report, the viceroy decided to send a great expedition to the region, and he commissioned Francisco Vasquez de Coronado to seize it. In February, 1540, Coronado took two hundred horsemen, seventy infantrymen, and nine hundred Indian servants with cattle and horses overland toward the north. For nearly two years the explorers searched for a land of riches and passed through the states of New Mexico, Arizona, Texas, Oklahoma, Colorado, and Kansas. In 1542 they finally returned to Mexico.



Water explorations in northern Latin America in the early colonial period

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Northern Latin America:

Early Explorations by Water

A SWARM of Spanish and a few Portuguese adventurers, with a small mixture of other nationalities, followed closely on the heels of Columbus' second voyage. These men were inspired chiefly by the desire to gain personal riches and glory, but whatever land they discovered they claimed in the name of their king. Within about three decades after the first voyage of Columbus most of the Atlantic coast line of America was known and mapped.

In 1500 Rodrigo Bastidas and Vasco Nunez de Balboa preceded Columbus in exploring along the coast of Central America. In 1506 Juan Diaz de Solis and Pinzon explored the region. In 1517 Francisco Hernandez de Cordoba explored Yucatan, and the next year Juan Grijalva sailed along the Mexican coast. In 1519 Alonso de Pineda explored the Gulf coast of Mexico, while in the same year Hernando Cortes began his famous conquest of Mexico from his base at Vera Cruz.

In 1513 Juan Ponce de Leon sailed along the Gulf coast of Florida, and in 1519 Alonso de Pineda explored the Gulf coast of the United States. Finally, in 1521 the eastern seaboard of the country was explored by Francisco Gordillo and Pedro de Quexos.



Water explorations in southern Latin America in the early colonial period

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Southern Latin America:

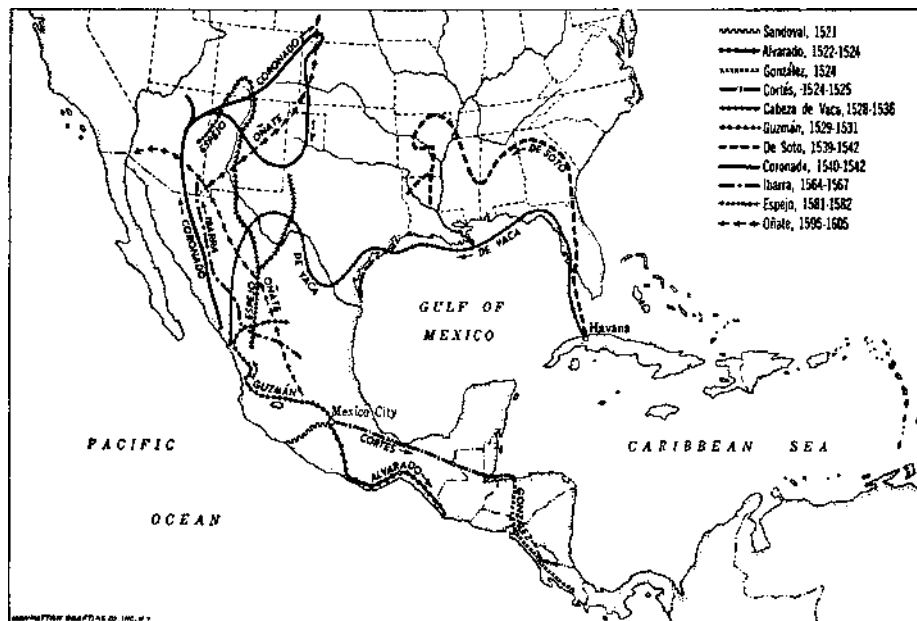
Early Explorations by Water

ALONG the Brazilian coast, before the coming of Cabral from Portugal, were the Spaniards Diego de Lepe and Vicente Yanez Pinzon (1499-1500).

From 1501 to 1503 Vespucci claimed that he was twice along the south Atlantic coast of America. In 1509 Juan Diaz de Solis and Vicente Yanez Pinzon were in the same region. In 1515 the former, while exploring the Rio de la Plata, was killed and eaten by Indians in that territory.

On the northern coast of South America, Columbus had discovered pearls, and thereafter that region was known as **the Pearl Coast**, although it also came to be called the Spanish Main. To this region, after Columbus, came Alonso de Ojeda, Vespucci, Juan de la Cosa (the map maker), Pedro Alonso Nino, and Diego de Lepe (1499-1500).

Exploration of the Pacific coast was not as rapid or as early as the exploration of the Atlantic coast and it occurred chiefly in **the** latter part of the sixteenth century.



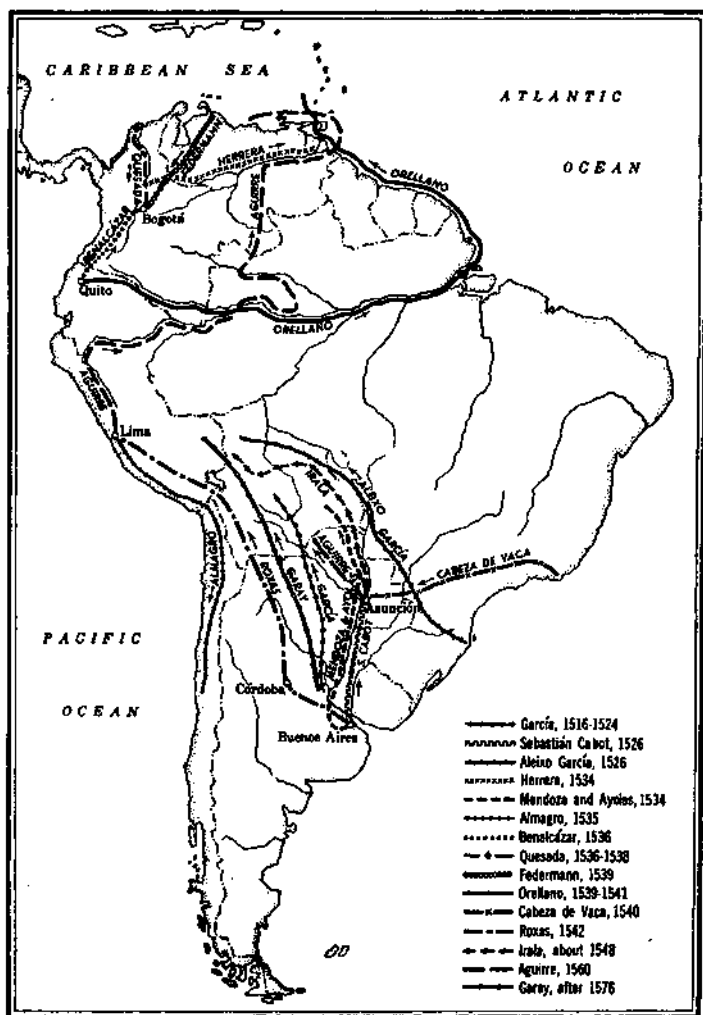
Land explorations in northern Latin America in the early colonial period

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Northern Latin America: Early Explorations by Land

FROM the West Indies and from Mexico numerous expeditions went into what is now the United States. Besides those of Nunez Cabeza de Vaca, De Soto, and Coronado, already mentioned, other expeditions explored both north and south.

Central America was explored both from Mexico proper and from Panama. Cortes was especially interested in exploring and conquering the territory. In 1523 and 1524 Alvarado extended his influence as far south as present day El Salvador. In 1524 Cristobal de Olid, under the direction of Cortes, went to Honduras while Cortes himself came to Honduras shortly thereafter. In 1526 the conquest of Yucatan was undertaken. Frequently in Central America the forces of different Spanish leaders clashed, and especially was there rivalry between the forces coming from Mexico and those coming from Panama City which were sent out at first by Pedrarias.



Land explorations in southern Latin America in the early colonial period

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Southern Latin America:

Early Explorations by Land

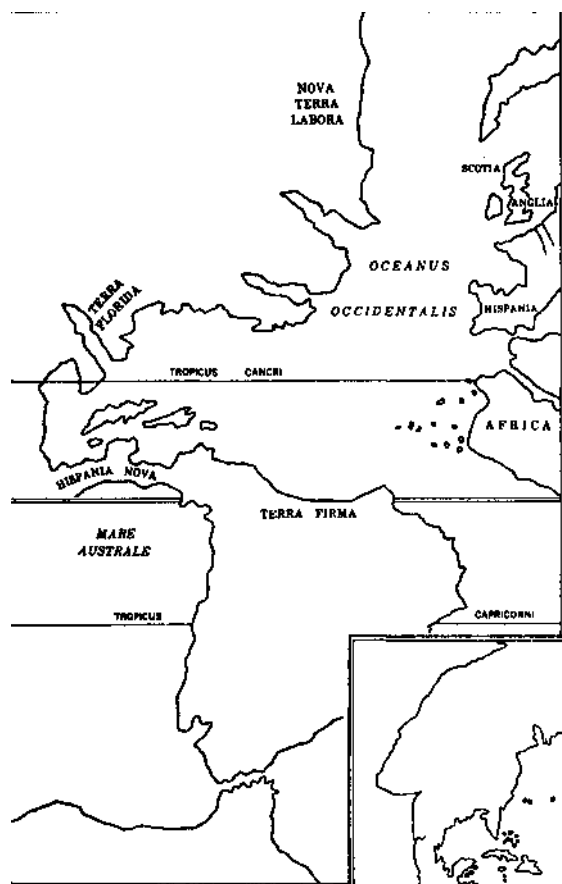
IN northern South America several towns founded along the Pearl Coast were used as bases from which to send out exploring parties into the interior of what are now Colombia and Venezuela. All of the explorers were looking for the Southern Mysteries and especially for El Dorado.

Civil war between the Pizarros and the Almagros (father and son) prevented for a decade the effective organization of exploring expeditions in and from Peru. But during 1541 and 1542 Francisco de Orellana explored the Amazon, which thereafter was called Rio Orellana, and in 1560 Viceroy Mendoza of Peru sent Pedro de Ursua to further explore the Amazon. With him went Lope de Aguirre, who murdered the leader and most of the party and then escaped northward to the Orinoco River.

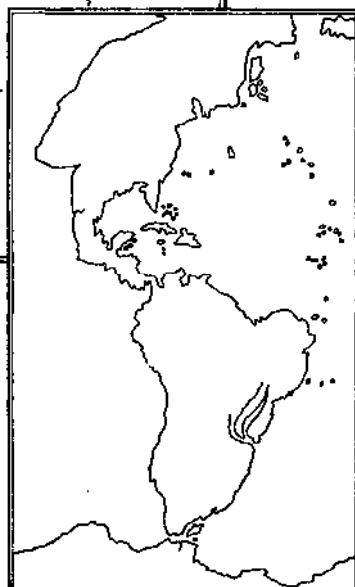
In La Plata in 1515, Alejo Garcia, with four companions explored part of present-day Bolivia and Paraguay (in which region he was killed in 1525).

In 1526, Sebastian Cabot, a pilot major of Spain, stopped in La Plata on his way to the Moluccas and explored the region until 1530.

In September, 1534, Pedro de Mendoza led an expedition of eleven ships carrying 2,500 colonists, cattle, seed, and agricultural implements to La Plata. In 1535 they built a fort at Santa Maria de Buenos Aires, which was soon attacked by the Indians. In consequence, the colony was moved up the river to Corpus Christi. In 1536 the town of Asuncion was founded. With this city as a center other towns were established in the interior of Argentina, including Santa Fe and Cordoba in 1573. Finally, in 1580 a town was built at Buenos Aires, and in the following years towns were laid out at Tucuman (1585), Corrientes (1588), Rioja (1591), and San Luis (1596). Four leaders in this region were Domingo Martinez de Irala, Juan de Ayolas, Alvar Nunez Cabeza de Vaca, and Juan de Garay.



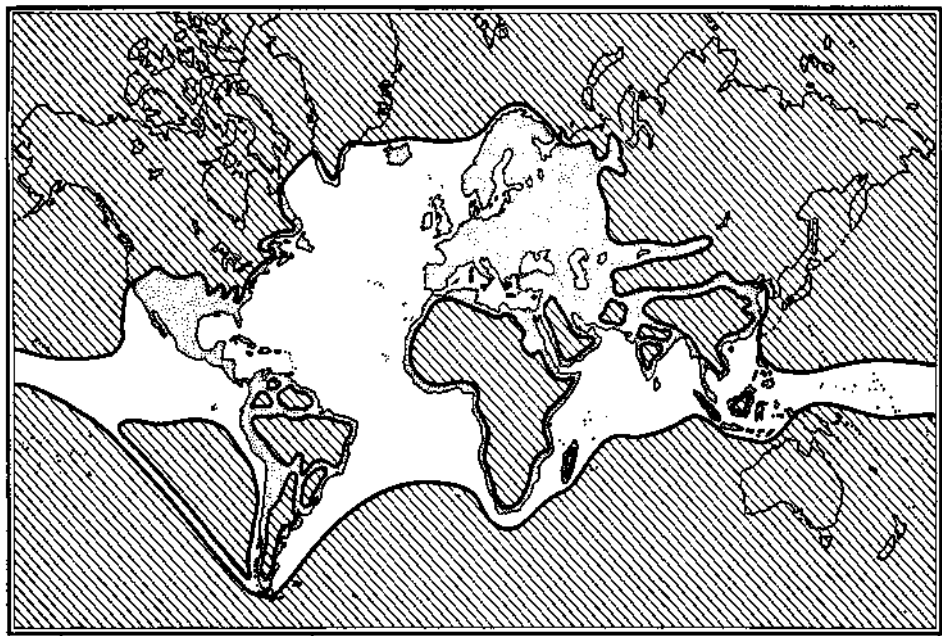
European concept of the Indies
in 1527 (after Thome's map)



European concept of the Indies
in 1541 (after Mercator)
Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

European Concepts of the Indies

FOR some years after the discovery of the Western Hemisphere the people of Europe had only a vague conception of the size and shape of the western continent. Indeed it was not until Balboa's discovery of the Pacific and Magellan's voyage into it that map makers were sure that a new continent had been found. As the early years of the sixteenth century passed, maps of the hemisphere tended to assume more and more accuracy, although some cartographers persisted in drawing Brazil and California as islands. Both the Spanish and Portuguese governments went to great pains to obtain careful data about geographical facts, and map makers were employed at the royal courts to record all new information which might be obtained from ship captains and others as to the configuration of the coasts of America. There thus resulted a constant improvement in the accuracy of the maps which were made and printed for distribution.



The known world about 1550
Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Europeans Learn about the World

BY the middle of the sixteenth century all the known parts of the Western Hemisphere had been claimed by either Spain or Portugal, but exactly what this territory consisted of was not known. Certain portions of South America had been more carefully explored by Europeans than had portions of Africa. North America, on the other hand, was yet to be mapped along the full length of the Pacific coast, while much of the interior was completely blank to Europeans. It was still generally believed that the Strait of Anian, which would provide a sailing route between the Atlantic and Pacific, could be found somewhere in the mid-continent regions. Throughout the continent the Northern Mysteries and the Southern Mysteries continued to furnish incentives for the penetration of interior regions.



Some early settlements in the Spanish colonies in North America

Some Early Spanish Settlements in Northern Latin America

T H E Spanish colonies in North America, together with the West Indies and the Philippine Islands, were included in the Viceroyalty of New Spain, or Mexico. Settlement in this region was gradual but steady, especially in the sixteenth century, when exploring and conquering expeditions were sent into nearly every part of the territory south of the present United States.



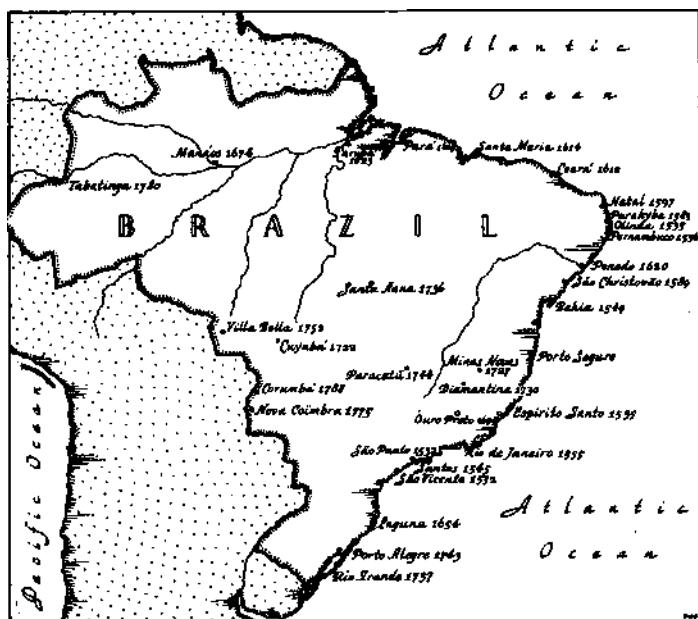
Some early settlements in the Spanish colonies in northern South America



Some early settlements in the Spanish colonies in southern South America

Some Early Spanish Settlements in Southern Latin America

IN Spanish South America many towns were founded in the sixteenth century as a result of expeditions of conquest, exploration, and exploitation so enthusiastically made by the first *conquistadores*. Numerous settlements were made along the coasts wherever harbors could be found, while in the interior mining settlements sprang up in great numbers. In most instances these towns became bases for further expansion into desirable regions.

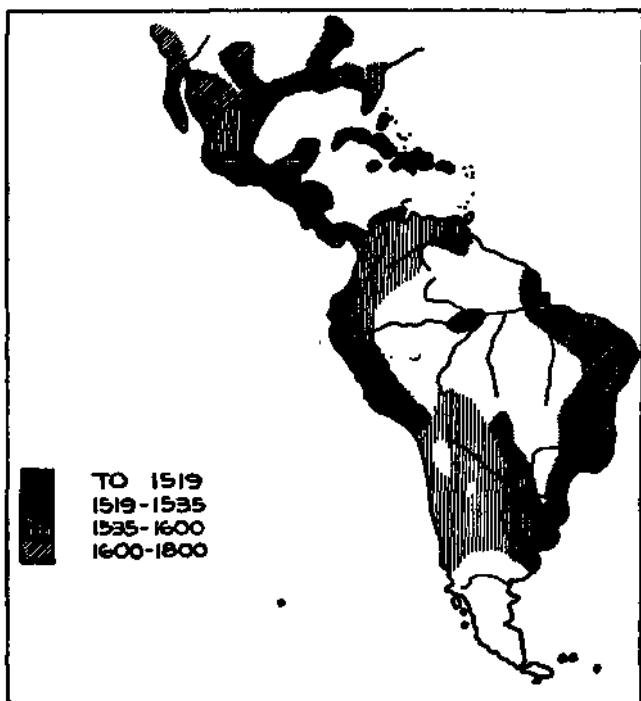


Colonial towns in Brazil

Some Settlements in Colonial Brazil

IT was not until some thirty years after the discovery of Brazil by Cabral that the Portuguese government became seriously interested in its new colony. The early settlements were invariably along the coast. From these points some expeditions were sent inland, but few towns were founded in the interior in this period.

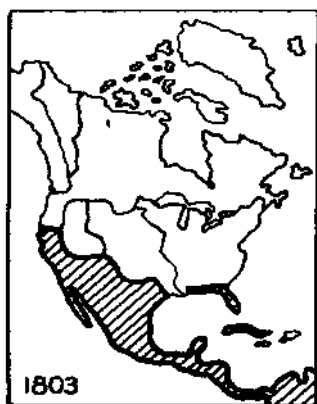
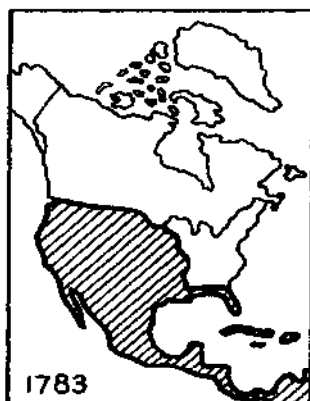
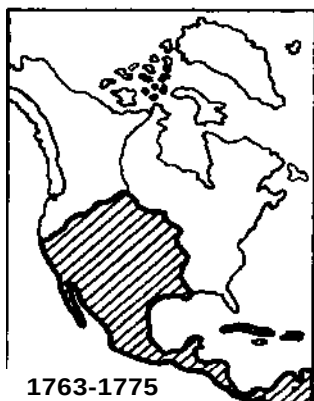
In 1580 the colony of Brazil became a Spanish possession, when Philip II of Spain inherited the throne of Portugal. This "captivity" lasted until 1640, and during the period renewed exploring activities occurred. But it was not until the eighteenth century that many towns were opened in the interior, and especially in the southern part of Brazil, where gold and diamonds were found by the roaming Paulistas. For much of her colonial life Brazil remained a coastal colony.



Stages in the Spanish and Portuguese occupation of America,
1492-1800

Stages in the Occupation of America by the Spanish and Portuguese

FOR purposes of convenience the occupation of America by the Spanish and Portuguese can be divided into periods or stages. By 1600 great areas had been explored, mapped, partially conquered, and brought under political and economic control. In the two centuries following 1600 smaller parts of the colonies were explored, and conquest usually extended into regions which were of economic value to the mother countries. Throughout the whole colonial period, however, the religious motive could almost always be relied upon to fire the clergy to venture into new regions in search of souls to save.



Changes in the boundaries
of New Spain, 1664-1803

The Advance of the Northern Frontier of New Spain

THE northern boundaries of colonial Mexico, or New Spain, changed both because of the advance of Spanish soldiers and churchmen and because of the struggles in Europe which had world-wide results. North America was a pawn for European statesmen, and boundaries were moved to suit international demands rather than national needs. Certainly New Spain was little consulted in regard to her desires, and her area expanded or contracted without her consent. France, England, Russia, and finally the United States all played a part in this great game of boundary shifting.

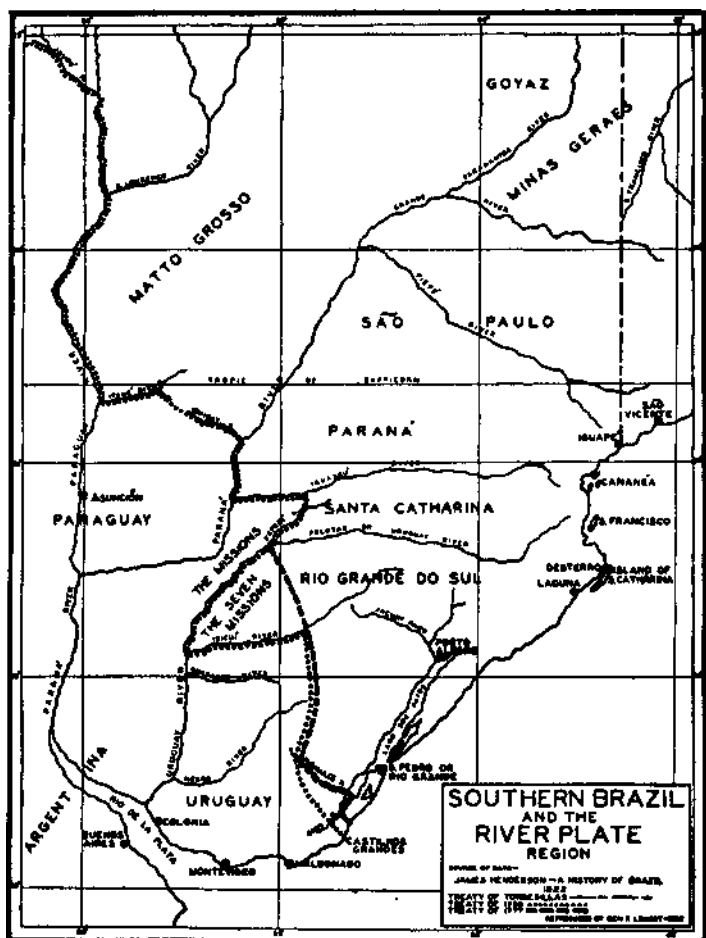
Early Spanish Missions in Northern Latin America

THE principal religious orders in America were the Franciscans, the Dominicans, the Augustinians, the Carmelites, the Hieronymites, and the Jesuits. Wherever these missionaries went they founded missions, convents, monasteries, and schools in great numbers, so that by 1600 there were in New Spain alone some 400 monasteries belonging to the regular clergy, the Franciscans having the most with 166. When possible, the missionaries assembled the natives into villages in order better to convert and civilize them. In these localities strict discipline was maintained and agriculture was practiced. A part of each day was set aside for the study of Christian doctrines, for the memorizing of the catechism, and for praying. Most of the religious brotherhoods lived apart from the inhabitants of the community and enjoyed numerous privileges, one of which was the ecclesiastical *fuero* which gave them legal immunity from civil law. Their churches and monasteries were considered inviolable and could give sanctuary to individuals fleeing from authority.

Spanish Missions in Paraguay and California in the Eighteenth Century

AFTER their entrance into Paraguay in the late sixteenth century, the Jesuits began to assemble the Indians into *reducciones* (reductions), or villages, in order to civilize them. For this purpose, the missionaries set about learning the Indian tongues. After a number of years, more than thirty native towns were organized and patterned, as far as government was concerned, after a socialistic theocracy in which the Indians owned no property and the Jesuits' word was law. Each community consisted of a number of one-room houses, in which the natives lived, and the requisite religious buildings. All able-bodied men were employed in agricultural pursuits or in a number of trades, while the women were instructed in the making of cotton clothing. The Jesuit district in the Paraguay region came to be known as the Province of Guayra and included the present state of Paraguay and a small part of Brazil. In 1608 Philip III, who ruled in Spain from 1598 to 1621, confirmed the Jesuits in their rights in the territory. By 1614 there were 119 members of the brotherhood, including various nationalities, in the province.

While the Jesuits were establishing reductions in Paraguay, their religious brothers, and later the Franciscans, were founding missions in La Florida and on the northern frontier of New Spain in New Mexico, Arizona, Texas, and California. By the beginning of the seventeenth century Jesuit missionaries were moving northward in Mexico founding missions, Christianizing the natives, and teaching useful trades, practical agriculture, and everyday Spanish. This religious order constituted the advance guard of Spanish civilization. With the missionaries frequently went soldiers sent to establish garrisons. The Christianizing work of the seventeenth century was confined largely to northern New Spain, Lower California, and parts of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona. This last section formed a part of what was called *Pitneria Alta*. In the eighteenth century missions were extended into Alta California. Until their expulsion in 1767, the Jesuits were among the most active religious orders, but after this date the Franciscans began a more extensive mission policy. Between 1769 and 1804 the members of this body founded twenty-one permanent missions in Alta California. Money for these undertakings came generally from pious laymen who created private endowments or who contributed to the famous Pious Fund of California.



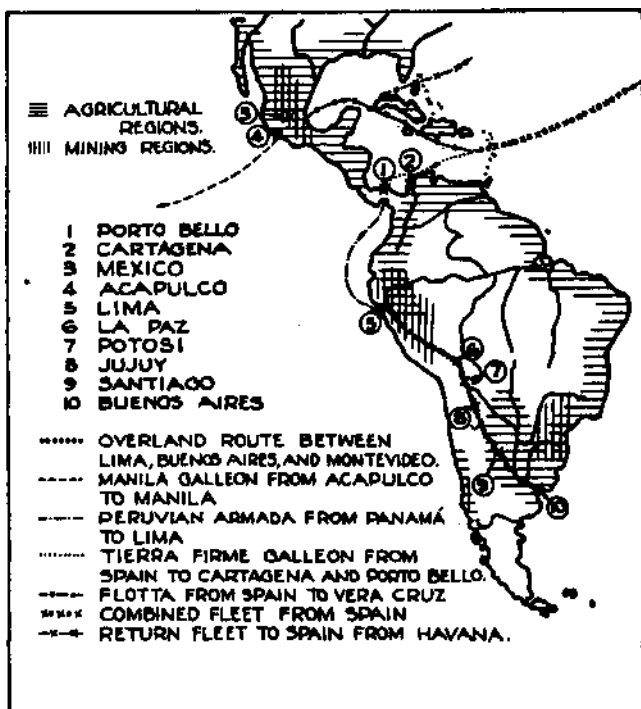
Colonial boundaries of southern Brazil

Reproduced with permission from *British Preeminence in Brazil. Its Rise and Decline*, by Alan K. Manchester, published by The University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1933.

Spain and Portugal Quarrel over Boundaries in South America

IN the course of Portuguese expansion, little attention was paid to the Line of Demarcation or to the provisions of the Treaty of Tordesillas. By 1679 the Portuguese claimed westward to the Andes and south to the Rio de la Plata. In that year the Brazilians, led by Manoel Lobo, governor of Rio de Janeiro, founded and fortified a settlement opposite Buenos Aires in modern Uruguay called Colonia do Sacramento, but in 1680 the Spaniards, under the governor of Buenos Aires, captured the town only to lose it again the next year. In 1703, during the War of the Spanish Succession (1702-1713), the Spanish again seized Colonia. But the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 forced Spain to give up the town and definitely confirmed Portugal in her possession. In 1724 the Spaniards founded the town of San Felipe y Santiago, soon called Montevideo, in territory then claimed by Portugal. Thus matters stood until 1735. During these years the Spaniards occupied territory north of Colonia as far as the present Brazilian boundary, and in 1735 they attacked Colonia. Two years later the Portuguese attempted to seize Montevideo, but failing in this, they established the town of Rio Grande do Sul.

In 1750 Spain and Portugal signed a "treaty of exchange" in an attempt to settle the boundary dispute. As a result, Colonia was given up by the Portuguese and the boundary line was run between the Spanish settlements in Uruguay and the Portuguese towns in the province of Rio Grande do Sul. Thus the Plata became entirely Spanish, but in 1761 the treaty was annulled. In 1762 a force from Buenos Aires captured Colonia and the next year marched against Rio Grande do Sul and seized it. After 1763, Colonia was returned to Portugal, but the Spaniards remained in Rio Grande despite provisions to the contrary in the Treaty of Paris. Finally, by the Treaty of San Ildefonso (1800), the Portuguese relinquished Colonia to the Spaniards and the latter gave up their claims to Rio Grande do Sul and Santa Catharina.



Trade centers and routes in colonial Spanish America

Spanish Colonial Trade

UNDER the mercantile system the Spanish government developed a method of monopolistic trade control which defeated the economic ends it had in view of profiting exclusively from colonial economic exploitation. All trade with the American colonies was confined to the Spanish ports of Seville and Cadiz, while all trade with Spain was confined to the American ports of Havana, Vera Cruz, and Porto Bello on the eastern side of the colonies. From 1561 to 1748 the Spanish government annually allowed two merchant fleets to be equipped in Spain (in March and April) for trade with the Indies. These ships were convoyed to America by war vessels. On entering the Caribbean, the fleet divided, one part going to the Isthmus and the other part to Mexico. After unloading and loading at Porto Bello and Vera Cruz, the fleets met at Havana and began the voyage to Spain, thus completing a round trip within the year.

Goods destined for southern South America were shipped across the Isthmus, put on board the Peruvian galleons at Panama City, and taken to Callao (the port of Lima). Then they were carried overland to La Plata and intermediate points. Products from these regions were sent to Spain over the same route reversed.

Goods destined for Mexico and the Philippines were landed at Vera Cruz, carried overland to Mexico City, and thence to Acapulco on the Pacific. There they were placed on the Manila galleons for the East. Oriental products returned over the same route to Mexico and thence to Spain.

Trade between colonies was generally discouraged and often forbidden by law. At the chief colonial ports there were finally established *considados*, or consulates, for the supervision of trade, while the coasts were guarded from illegal traders by *guardas costas* (or coast guards) and by fortifications.

Time seemed to be no factor in trade, and all transportation by sea and land was slow. It often took two years for a round trip between Buenos Aires and Spain.



Viceroyalties in Latin America about 1800

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

The Viceregal System in the Spanish and Portuguese Colonies

IN the sixteenth century there were two viceroyalties in Spanish America: New Spain, created in 1535; and Peru, created in 1544. In the eighteenth century two more were added: New Granada, created in 1718; and La Plata, or Buenos Aires, created in 1776. These were established to better govern and defend large territories in South America remote from the seat of government at Lima, Peru. In each viceroyalty was a capital city, where the viceroy resided. The viceroyalty was divided into a number of judicial districts called *audiencias*. The smallest political division of a viceroyalty was a municipality. The boundaries of the viceroyalty were fixed by the crown.

In Brazil (1572 to 1577) an experiment was tried by dividing the colony into North and South Brazil, with capitals at Bahia and at Rio de Janeiro. Thereafter the capital was fixed at the latter city. In 1645 the colony was temporarily made a *principado* with the heir to the Portuguese throne as Prince of Brazil. In the eighteenth century the whole colony was placed under the authority of a viceroy, and its boundaries became fixed.



Audiencias in colonial Spanish America before 1550

The Audiencia System in the Spanish Colonies

THERE were no *audiencias* in Brazil, but in the Spanish colonies they constituted both a territorial subdivision of a viceroyalty and a judicial, administrative, and advisory body. In the capital city of the viceroyalty the *audiencia* was presided over by the viceroy, while in some other places it was presided over by either a captain general or a president, in which case it was often called a captaincy-general or a *presidencia*. The members of the *audiencia* were paid high salaries so that they would be above influence. The members were usually trained in the law and known for their good qualities. As the conquest progressed, the number of *audiencias* increased until there were thirteen important ones in the eighteenth century. Serving within the *audiencia* structure were several officials whose titles and functions sometimes varied but who were in intimate contact with the natives and the colonists. Among the officials were *gobernadores* in charge of *gobiernos* and *provincias*, *corregidores* in charge of *corregimientos*, and *alcaldes mayores* in charge of *alcaldias*. Their functions were chiefly judicial, financial, and administrative in their respective districts.



Intendancies in eighteenth century Mexico

Information based on *Guide to the History of Mexico*, by Alfonso Teja Zabre,
Mexico, D.F., 1935.

The Intendancy System in the Spanish Colonies

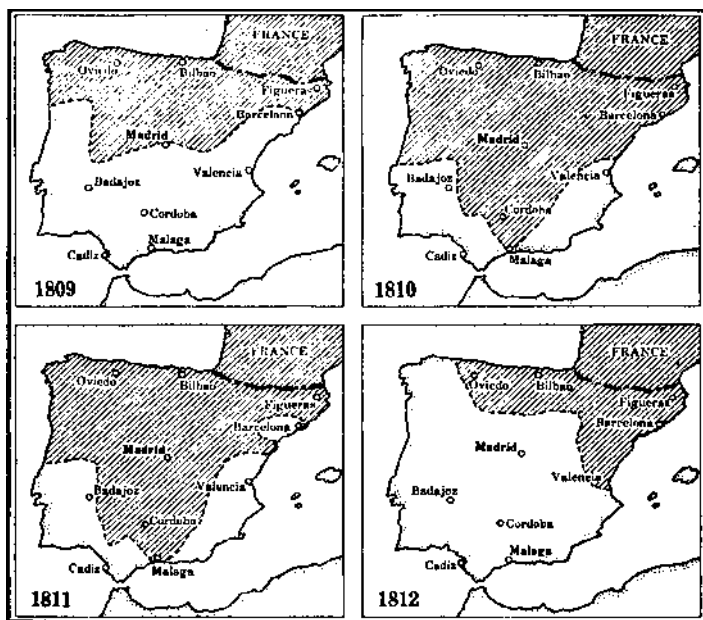
AFTER the War of the Spanish Succession, which ended in 1713 with the Treaty of Utrecht, the French House of Bourbon came into control of the Spanish throne, which had been held for nearly two hundred years by the Hapsburgs. One of the French political institutions introduced into Spain was the intendancy. This was taken to the Spanish American colonies when the first intendancy was set up at Havana, Cuba, in February, 1765. In 1786 the system was extended to New Spain when eleven (later fifteen) intendancies were created there. By 1790 the system had been extended to all of the Spanish American colonies.

As a result of this innovation the viceroyalty was divided into districts called *intendencias* with definite boundaries. Over each, an *intendente* was appointed by the crown. His functions were divided into four classes: justice, finance, war, and industry (*policia*). Each *intendente* was immediately responsible to an intendant-general, who in turn was subject to the Council of the Indies. The intendant eventually took over most of the functions of the viceroy except his social duties, and that official became largely a figure-head. It was expected that this simplification of colonial government would raise the general efficiency and honesty of officers, but in reality the intendants had too many duties to perform to carry them all out efficiently and effectively.

PART FIVE

**The Revolutions for
Independence**





The French in Spain, 1809-1812

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

The Spaniards Fight the French in Spain

ON May 6, 1808, at Bayonne, France, Napoleon forced Charles IV and his son Ferdinand to relinquish all claims to the Spanish throne and compelled them to give him the right to name a successor. As a result, in the following July the brother of Napoleon, Joseph, was placed on the Spanish throne, having been proclaimed King of Spain on June 6.

The news of the abdication of the Spanish monarch in favor of Napoleon's brother Joseph did not spread rapidly in Spain, but as soon as it was understood a popular outburst of rage followed. Between May 24 and June 10, 1808, practically every section of the country, acting independently for itself, rose in arms against the French troops, and little governing groups, or *juntas*, were hastily assembled to make preparations for defending their rights. The French army in the Iberian Peninsula consisted of about 117,000 soldiers, of whom about 28,000 were in Portugal, while to oppose them the Spaniards could not assemble 100,000 men. But the spirit of patriotism made up for the lack of numbers and equipment, and within two months, on June 23, a French army of 18,000 men was forced to surrender. The next month Joseph was driven from Madrid. From that date until 1814, when Napoleon fell from power, the war of Spanish independence continued, although the French were driven from the peninsula by 1813 with the aid of English forces under Sir Arthur Wellesley.



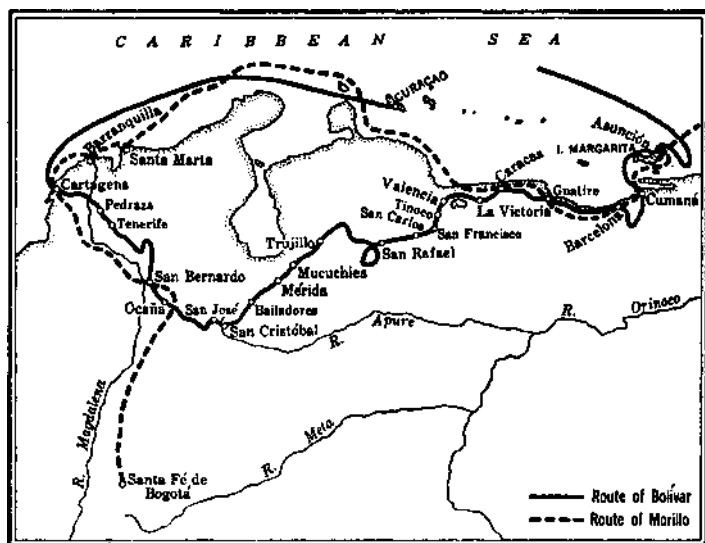
The route of Hidalgo, 1810-1811



Mexican territory in control of the revolutionists, 1811-1813

The Revolutions of Hidalgo and Morelos in Mexico

THE Mexican movement for independence may be divided into several phases. The first patriot leader, although he seems to have been more interested in reforms than in independence, was the priest Miguel Hidalgo, who from September, 1810, to July, 1811, organized and led revolts against the Spanish authorities. A follower and co-revolutionist was Jose Maria Morelos, who from 1811 to 1815 sought without success to win the independence of his home land from the Spanish oppressor. Although unsuccessful, both of these priests prepared the way for the later successful revolt under Iturbide.



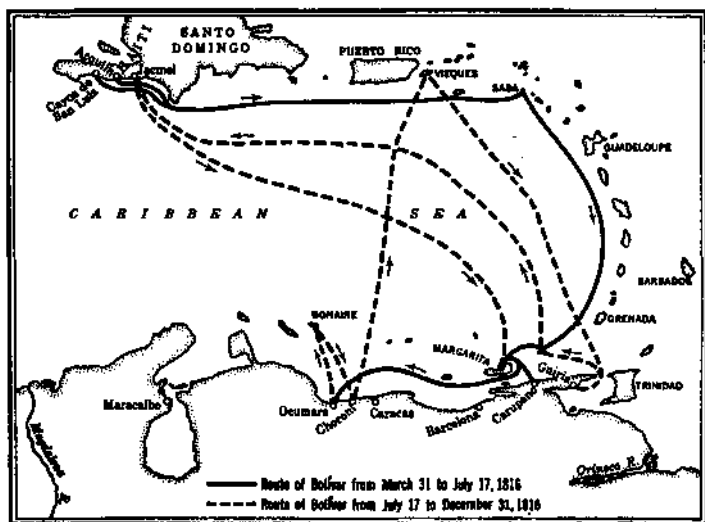
Campaigns of Bolivar and Morillo, 1812-1816

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinohart, Inc.

Bolivar vs. Morillo, 1812 to 1816

IN December, 1812, Bolivar went to Cartagena in New Granada and offered his services to the *junta* of that city, which had been organized upon an independent basis since May 22, 1810. This offer was gladly accepted, and the Liberator was given an independent command on the Magdalena River, where in January, 1813, he succeeded in capturing two Spanish forts. With re-enforcements which the *junta* sent, Bolivar seized Ocana and, marching north-east, entered Venezuelan territory after crossing the Andes with four hundred followers. On this campaign he met with phenomenal success, driving the royalists before him and at the same time augmenting the numbers in his own army. Within thirteen months after the surrender of Miranda, Bolivar entered Caracas (August 4, 1813) and occupied Valencia.

The Spanish General Morillo, upon his arrival in 1815, had seized Cartagena in December of that year after a terrible siege in which six thousand patriots had died of hunger. There he had established an absolute government under Spanish control and had reorganized the Inquisition. From that city he moved against Bogota, which on May 6, 1816, he reduced to submission. Having thus crushed the patriot cause in New Granada, he proceeded to Venezuela for the double purpose of defeating Bolivar and re-establishing Spanish authority.

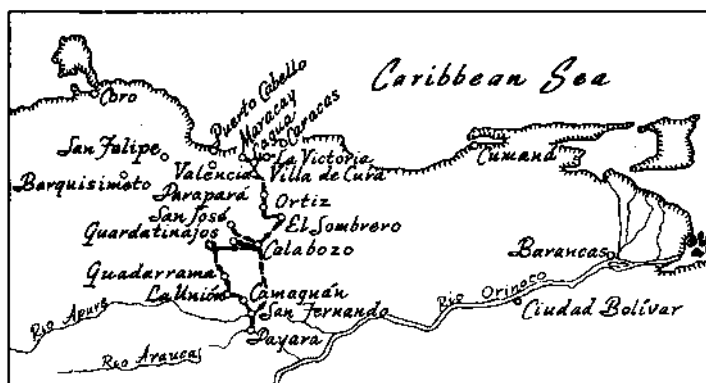


Expeditions of Bolivar in 1816

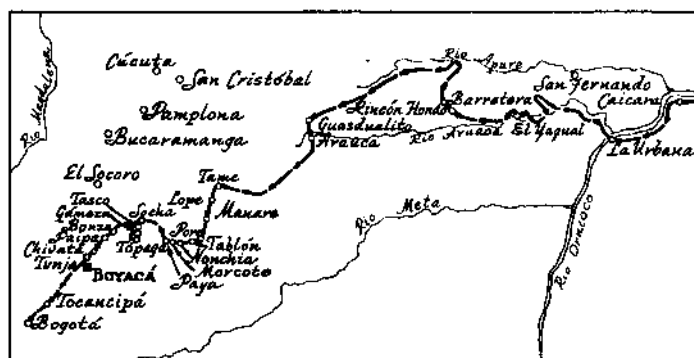
Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Activities of Bolivar in 1816

AFTER the arrival of General Morillo, Bolivar went to Haiti, where he collected men and munitions and then returned to his native country. But with a price on his head, and because of his inadequate forces, he again went to Haiti, finally returning to make a stand in Venezuela against the Spanish royalists.



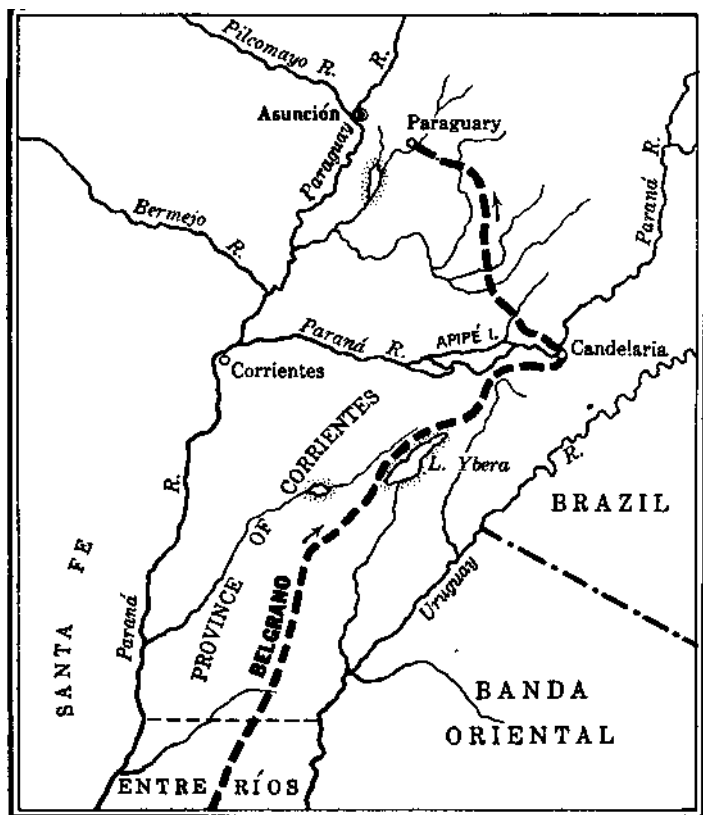
Campaign of 1818



Campaign of Boyaca, 1819

Campaigns of Bolívar, 1818 and 1819

IN 1818 the situation of Bolívar, after his defeat by Morillo, was desperate, but he had no intention of giving up and he immediately set about to organize a new army. By offering to pay a bounty of \$80 to each enlisted man and \$500 more to each soldier at the conclusion of the war he succeeded in enlisting, with the assistance of López Méndez in London, some six thousand English, Irish, and other foreign troops recently released from the Napoleonic wars in Europe. Most of the English members of these foreign legions arrived during the course of the year 1818. In order to increase his forces, Bolívar decided to march into New Granada and join the patriot troops there with his own. Consequently, at the end of June and the beginning of July, 1819, the Liberator led some two thousand native and five hundred English troops up the Orinoco Valley to the Andes and over the high Paya Pass eighty miles in length. In this crossing, which is now famous in military history, all of the horses perished and more than one hundred men froze to death. Arriving on the other side, Bolívar surprised and defeated the Spanish troops. After resting his men and obtaining a new supply of horses, he advanced to meet the royalists, whom he encountered at Boyacá on August 7, 1819. This battle is one of the most important of those fought for South American independence, and the victory enabled Bolívar to enter Bogotá, where three days later he proclaimed the republic of Colombia. To this new state was added Venezuela, and the new union was called the "United States of Colombia." On December 17, 1819, a fundamental law provided for a constitution, and Bolívar was made president and military dictator.

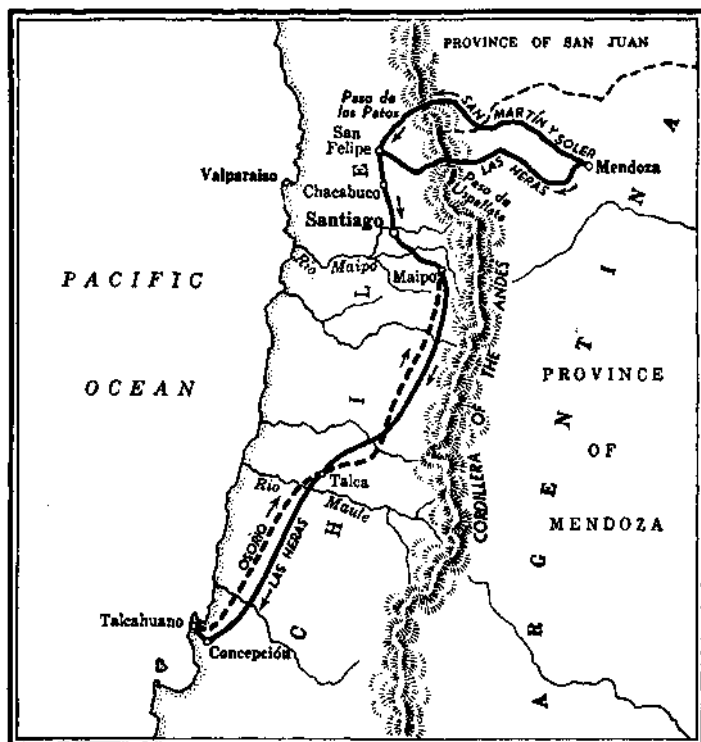


The Paraguayan campaign of General Belgrano, 1810-1811

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

The Argentine Attempt to Free Paraguay from Spain

WHEN the people of Buenos Aires in May, 1810, decided on independence from Spain they also decided to aid the neighboring regions to gain their independence as well. Accordingly they sent troops under General Manuel Belgrano to Paraguay. But the people of that region had their own plans, and the forces of Belgrano were defeated and finally returned to Buenos Aires.

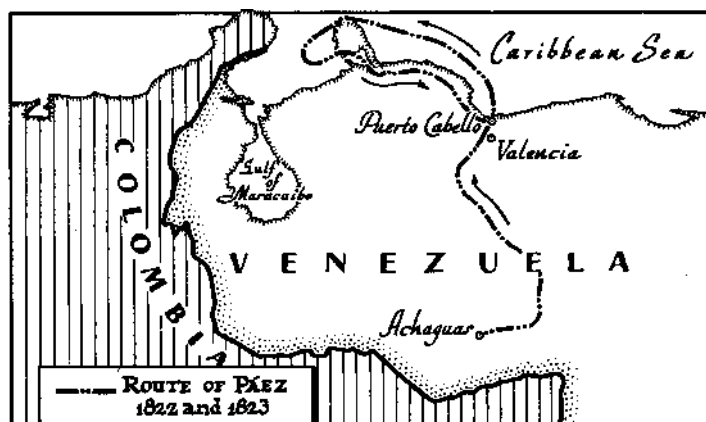


Route of San Martín's passage over the Andes and his liberating campaign in Chile, 1817 and 1818

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

San Martin Invades Chile

BY the end of 1816, San Martin found himself ready for an invasion of Chile. In three years' time he had collected an army which consisted of 3,000 infantrymen, 1,200 cavalrymen, and 250 artillerymen, and which soon proved to be one of the most efficient fighting forces ever assembled in South America. On January 17, 1817, San Martin began the advance into Chile. He divided his army into two parts, one of which went by way of the Uspallata Pass some 12,800 feet above sea level, and the other, commanded by himself, moved by way of the equally high Los Patos Pass to the north. After a well-timed march, marked by incredible hardships, the two forces united on the plain of Aconcagua in Chile. There, waiting only four days to refit and rest, San Martin began the pursuit of the Spaniards. On February 12, 1817, at Chacabuco near to Santiago, where the royalists and the patriots joined in battle, the flower of the Spanish army was defeated. The next day the victors entered the city, where San Martin was urged to take over the government in his own name. This honor, however, he declined, and suggested that O'Higgins, the Chilean Creole patriot, receive the office in his place.



Route of Páez, 1822 and 1823

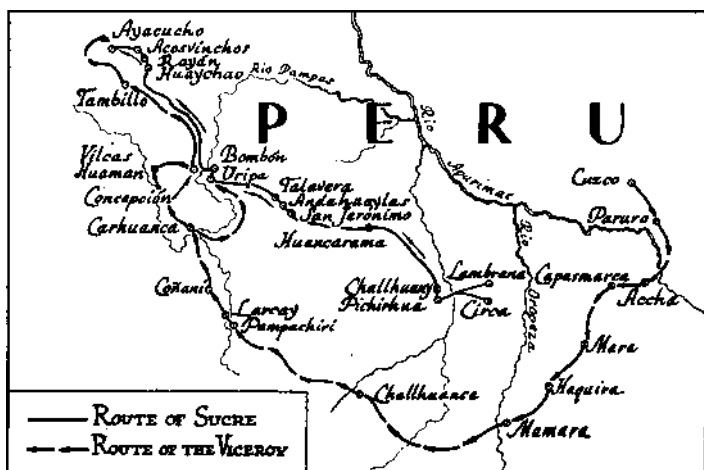
The Campaigns of Sucre and Paez

IN May, 1821, Bolivar's right-hand assistant, the able Creole, General Antonio José de Sucre, reached Guayaquil to carry out the Liberator's plans to revolutionize Ecuador. Sucre brought with him Colombian and Venezuelan troops, but they were not successful until after they were joined by some 1,200 men sent by San Martin from Peru. After considerable maneuvering, the Spaniards and patriots faced each other on May 24, 1822, at the decisive Battle of Pichincha. In this conflict Sucre won a great victory, and the independence of Ecuador was assured.

After the Battle of Carabobo on June 24, 1821, the victorious patriot forces of Bolivar under General Jose Antonio Paez and others began a mopping-up campaign to rid Venezuela of Spanish forces — some of whom had fled to Puerto Cabello, from which town they were finally driven later in 1823.



Route of Bolívar, 1822 and 1823



Campaign of Ayacucho, 1824

The Campaigns to Free Ecuador and Peru

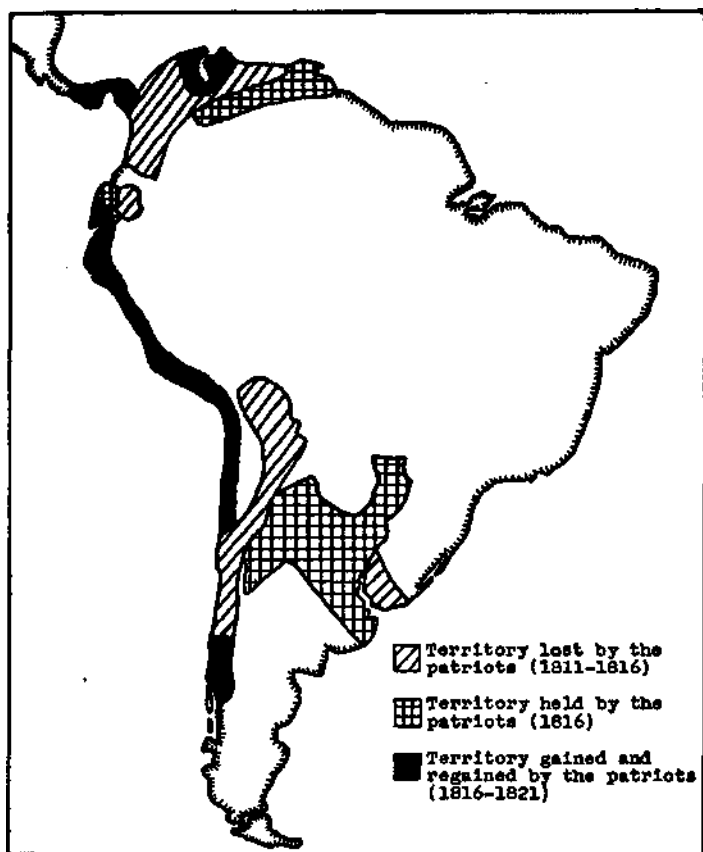
AFTER a hard struggle with enemy forces, Bolivar arrived at Quito on June 16, 1822, and persuaded the province to join with New Granada and Venezuela as part of the republic of Colombia. From Quito, Bolivar proceeded to the province of Guayaquil, which also agreed to join with the republic of Colombia. Soon several other provinces followed suit. While Bolivar was at Guayaquil Jose de San Martin, the liberator of southern South America, arrived and the final movement for the liberation of South America began.

On September 1, 1823, Bolivar landed at Callao, and several months later, on February 10, 1824, he was proclaimed dictator of Peru. At that time he had an army of perhaps ten thousand men, while the Spanish forces concentrated at Trujillo numbered about twice that many. But the royalists were quarreling among themselves, and Bolivar, taking advantage of the fact, went forth to battle. On August 6, 1824, the royalists were defeated at Junin by the combined forces of Bolivar and Sucre. Hastening back to Lima, Bolivar collected fresh troops and at the same time incidentally strengthened his own political prestige, which was then in danger. Sucre, left to his own devices, was hard pressed by the enemy; after considerable maneuvering the last great battle in the struggle for South American independence was fought at Ayacucho on December 9, 1824. All the royalist forces which were not annihilated surrendered to Sucre. But it was not until thirteen months later, on January 19, 1826, that the last of the royal troops were driven from Callao and Peru became completely free.

San Martin and Bolivar

Free Western South America from Spain

THE grand strategy in the wars for independence called for the freeing of northern and southern South America, and then the joining of patriot forces in the last great stronghold of the Spanish government on the southern continent. Both Bolivar and San Martin worked toward this end, and to complete their objective the former invited the latter to meet him at Guayaquil, Ecuador, in July, 1822. Accordingly, on July 26 and 27, the two great South American military leaders came together for the first time. What happened at this conference is not completely known. But shortly after it terminated San Martin returned to Lima, said farewell to **the** Peruvians on September 20, 1822, and returned to Chile. From there he went to Buenos Aires and finally to France, where he **died** in 1850 at Boulogne.



Areas of revolutionary activity in Spanish South America,
1811-1821

Areas of Revolutionary Activity against Spain

THE independence of Spanish South America was commenced and carried on not as a concerted unified movement but by scattered groups of patriots attempting to win freedom from the mother country by force of arms, and in some cases by force of words. Since the greatest stronghold of Spain in South America was in Peru, it was to be expected that that region would be the last to win independence. And it was not until patriot invaders from the north and from the south entered Peru that that country was finally freed from Spanish domination and Spanish South America became free forever.



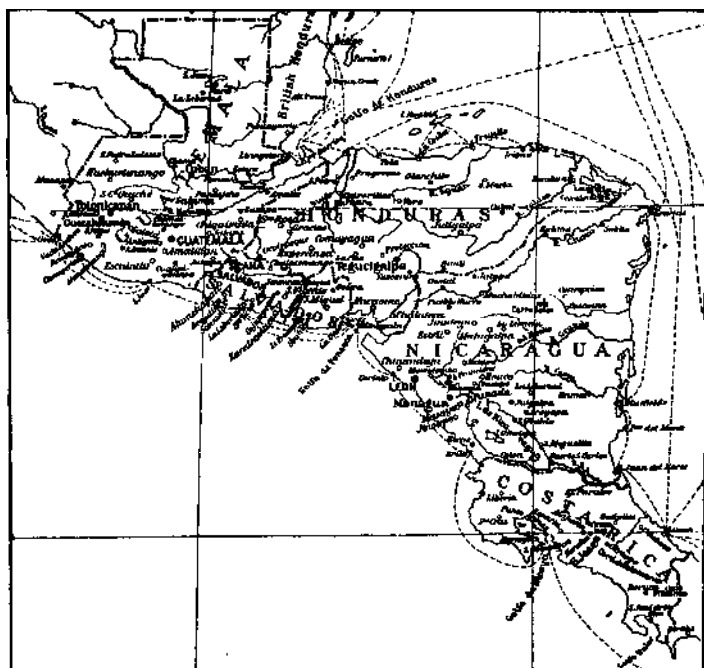
Latin America after the wars for independence, about 1828

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc. Based on text and map from *The Cambridge Modern History Atlas*. Used with permission of the publishers, Cambridge University Press, London, and The Macmillan Company, New York.

The Latin American States after the Wars for Independence

ALTHOUGH bound together by a common political, religious, and cultural heritage, the Spanish colonies of America did not constitute themselves into a single nation after emancipation as did the English colonies of North America. At the end of the wars there were the following states: Mexico and the United Provinces of Central America, comprising the territory of the Viceroyalty of New Spain; Great Colombia, including the territory of New Granada; Peru and Chile, carved out of the territory of the Viceroyalty of Peru; and the United Provinces of the River Plate, Paraguay, and Bolivia, formed out of La Plata Viceroyalty.

Brazil retained the whole territory of the former Portuguese colony of that name, with Uruguay (Banda Oriental) added to it under the name of Cisplatine Province, or State, from 1822 to 1828; and Haiti included the present territory of the Dominican Republic from 1822 to 1844. Cuba remained a Spanish colony until 1898.



The five Central American republics in the nineteenth century

The Central American States after the Wars for Independence

BEFORE independence, the territory of Central America formed the Captaincy General of Guatemala, including the province of Guatemala, the intendancies of Chiapas, San Salvador, Nicaragua, and Honduras, and the government of Costa Rica. A section of Nicaragua and Honduras on the Caribbean (Mosquito Land or Mosquitia) was inhabited by wild Indians. During colonial days these people maintained their independence from Spain. Buccaneers established posts along the coast. Gradually British settlements grew there. In 1786 Spain recognized British sovereignty over a portion of Yucatan and present Guatemala in exchange for the withdrawal of the British from the rest of Central America. Today this territory forms the British colony of Belize (British Honduras).

Like the other Central American provinces, Chiapas declared its independence at about the same time as the rest (1821), but separated from Guatemala and adhered to the Mexican Empire independently, remaining as part of that country to the present day; and Soconusco, also a part of Guatemala, was annexed to Mexico in 1842. The other five provinces formed the present nations: Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica. Panama, occupying the rest of the Isthmus, was part of Colombia until 1903.

PART SIX

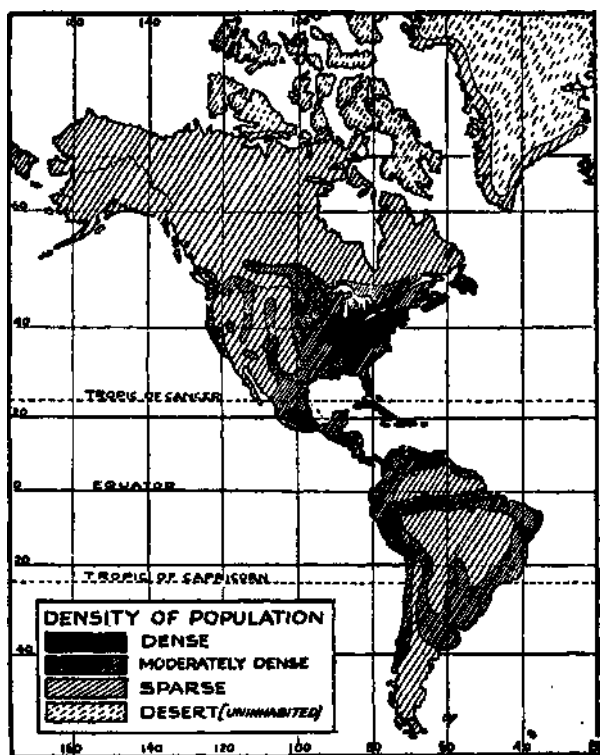
The National Period



Latin America today
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

The Republics of Latin America

LATIN AMERICA today consists of twenty independent republics, each with its own individual characteristics of political, economic, social, and intellectual life. Each nation jealously guards its own sovereign rights, and while they all co-operate in many Pan American problems, they often quarrel among themselves over boundaries and they continually refuse to unite politically into what some outsiders consider logical territorial groups.



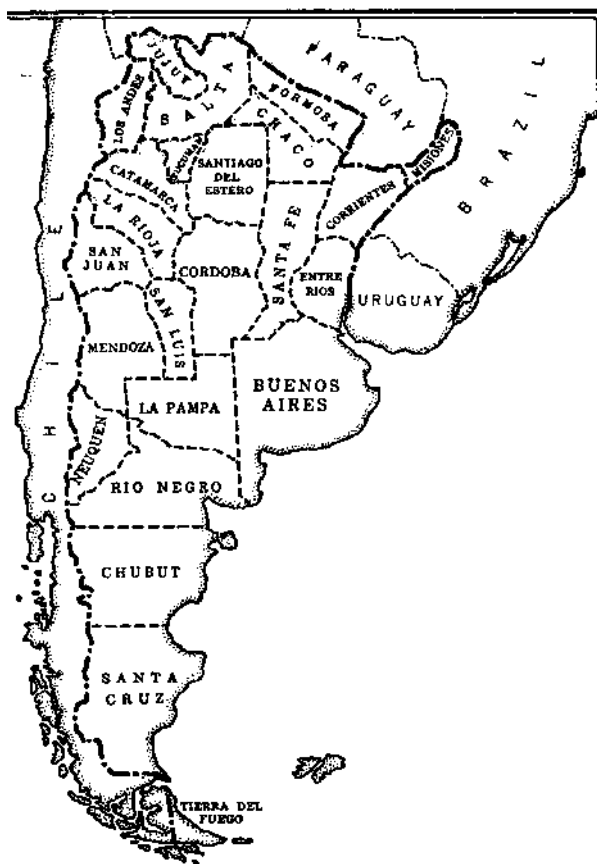
Density of population in the Western Hemisphere

Reproduced with permission from *The New World Atlas and Gazetteer*, published by P. F. Collier and Son Corporation, New York, 1921.

The People of Latin America

THE total population of Latin America is perhaps 130,000,000. Brazil ranks first with perhaps 44,000,000 people, followed by Mexico with perhaps 20,000,000 and Argentina with about 13,000,000.

Today the population of Argentina is more than half Italian, and perhaps some 80 per cent of the total number of inhabitants are of European origin. No other state can boast so large a percentage, although Uruguay, Chile, and Brazil follow next. Certain states are largely composed of mixed races (*mestizos*, mulattoes, *zambos*, and so on), and Indians and Negroes. The population of Peru and Paraguay is about 97 per cent mixed and native; Mexico, Venezuela, and Colombia have about 90 per cent mixed and native; Bolivia has about 85 per cent in the same class; Ecuador has about 70 per cent; and so on. A unique situation exists in Paraguay, where since 1870, in order to build up the population largely wiped out by the Paraguayan War, polygamy has been resorted to.

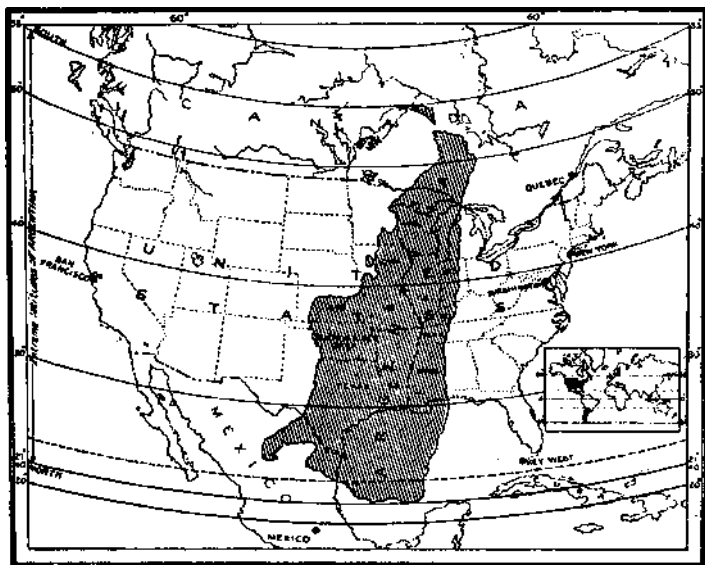


Political divisions of Argentina

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Argentina: Political Development

IN its political development the early history of Argentina is marked by a traditional and growing political and economic rivalry between Buenos Aires and the outlying provinces which soon burst into open warfare and which did not finally end until 1862. In this conflict, faction opposed faction, men of the coast opposed men of the plain, and there developed as a result a national literature with many interesting characteristics. As in so many of the Latin American states, individualism came to the fore and the *caudillo* dominated politics for many years. But at last the European element in the population brought to political, economic, social, and intellectual life a leaven and a stability which won for the country the respect of the world.



Location of the Argentine Republic if placed at the corresponding latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere

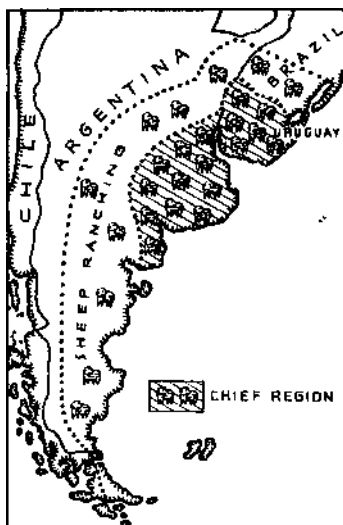
Courtesy of the Pan American Union.

Argentina: Location and Size

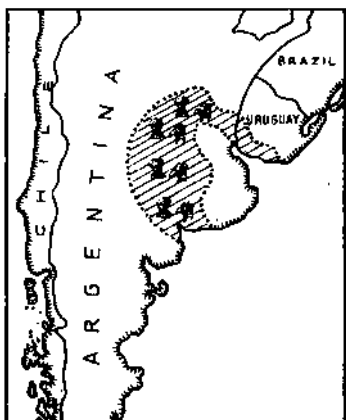
NEXT to Brazil, Argentina is the largest state in Latin America. It has an area of slightly over a million square miles, which is about equal to the area of the eleven Pacific and Mountain states in the United States. Its location in the southern continent is such that if it were placed at the corresponding latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere it would extend slightly above and below the northern and southern boundaries of the United States.



The Argentine pampa



Sheep-production areas



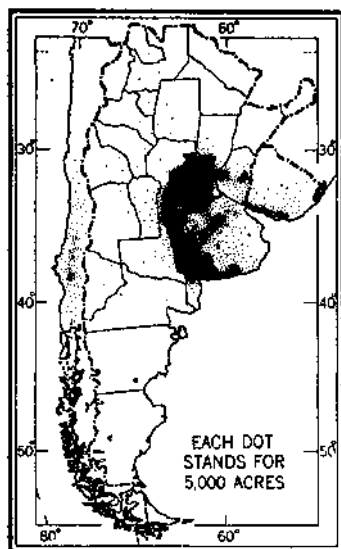
Wheat- and maize-production areas



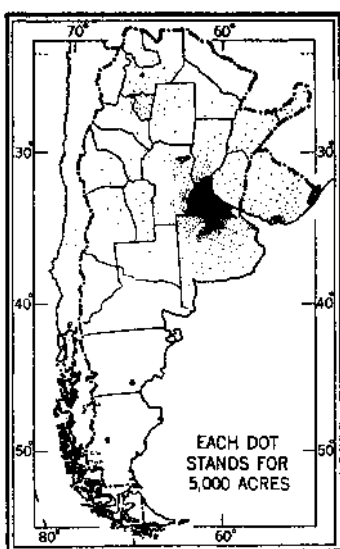
Cattle-production areas

Argentina: The Pampa

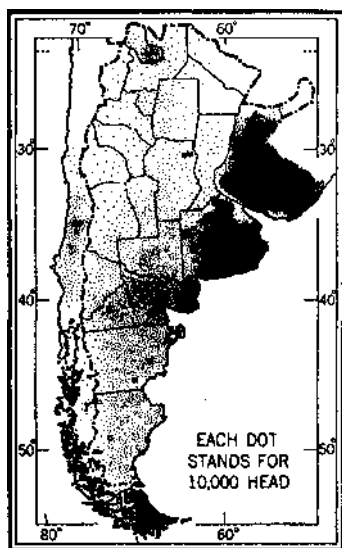
IN the midst of the Plata River basin lies the great treeless *pampa*, one of the richest grass lands in the world, and the center of agricultural production of Argentina. Here are the *estancias* of the great landowners of the country and here are raised millions of head of cattle, sheep, hogs, and horses. Over 60,000,000 acres of land are cultivated in Argentina and large portions of this area in the *pampa* are devoted to wheat raising. At the northeastern edge of this vast region lies the city of Buenos Aires.



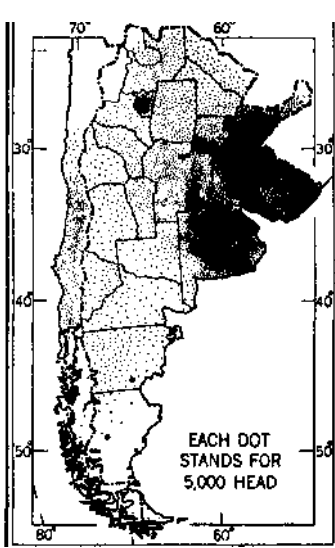
Acreage of wheat



Acreage of corn



Distribution of cattle .



Distribution of sheep

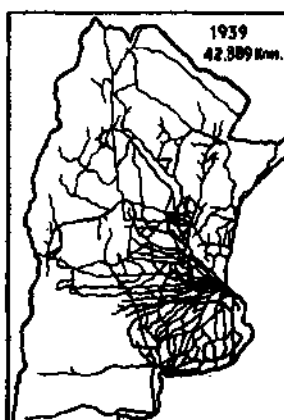
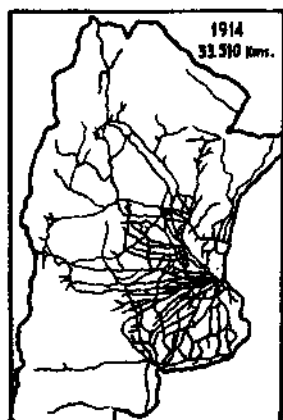
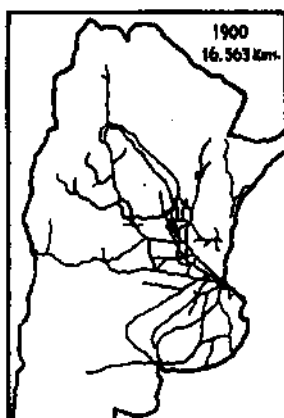
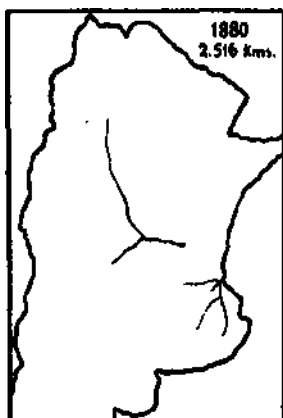
Courtesy of the United States Department of Agriculture.

Argentina: Some Agricultural Products

ARGENTINA is chiefly an agricultural and pastoral nation. The great *pampa* constitutes one of the best-suited natural pasture regions in the world, and on it are located the *estancias*, or large ranches, of the landed proprietors. Cattle production has increased rapidly. In 1875 there were perhaps 13,000,000 head of cattle in the country. In 1895 these had increased to 22,000,000, and by 1922 the number had increased to 37,000,000. In 1937 there were 33,000,000 head of cattle, 44,000,000 sheep, 4,000,000 hogs, and 8,500,000 horses in the country. From such pastoral developments have grown, particularly since 1910, great meat-packing and dairying industries. At the present time there are a number of meat-packing plants operated chiefly by American and British capital, most of whose products are shipped abroad. All of the flora of the Temperate Zone and many of the tropical flora are grown in Argentina. Among the cereal crops, wheat is the most important, about one fourth of all cultivated land, which totals over 60,000,000 acres, being devoted to its production. From 1890 to 1918 the acreage devoted to wheat increased 500 per cent. About three fifths of the country's crop is exported. Corn, alfalfa, and cotton are becoming increasingly important.

Argentina: Buenos Aires and Vicinity

BUENOS AIRES, the capital of the Argentine Republic, is the third largest city in the Western Hemisphere and it is the shipping center for the whole country. It is located on the Rio de la Plata estuary and it has an artificial harbor kept open by constant effort. Within a comparatively short distance are the great seaside resorts along the Atlantic edge of the *pampa*.

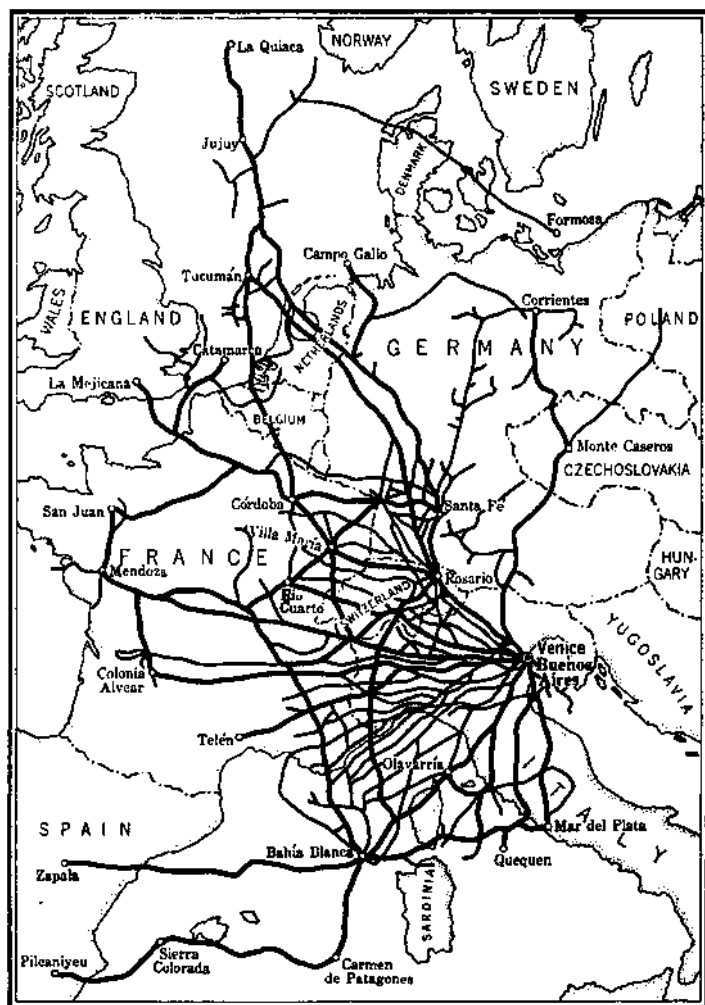


Development of Argentine railways, 1880 to 1939

Courtesy of *Informaciones Argentinas*, June-July, 1941. From *Argentina Economica*, 1940, by Emilio Llorens and Rafael García Mata.

Argentina: Railroad Development

As in the United States, population and settlement in Argentina expanded with the development of the railroads. But unlike that of the United States, this great expansion came after 1900 rather than before. Buenos Aires, like Chicago, is the terminus for many of the railways, and today it is one of the great shipping centers of the world.



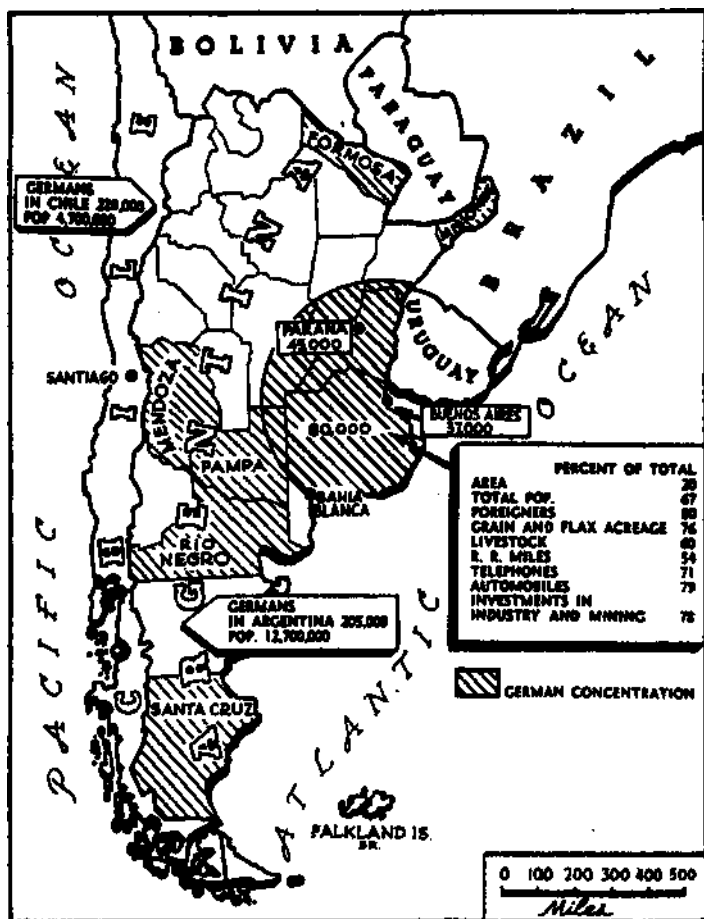
The railroads of Argentina superimposed on a map of
Central Europe

Courtesy of *Informaciones Argentinas*, January 1, 1939.

Argentina:

The Railroad Network

T H E total railway mileage of Argentina is about 25,000 and this very effectively covers the chief settled sections of the country. The extent of the lines can be better appreciated when a railroad map of the country is superimposed upon a map of Central Europe.

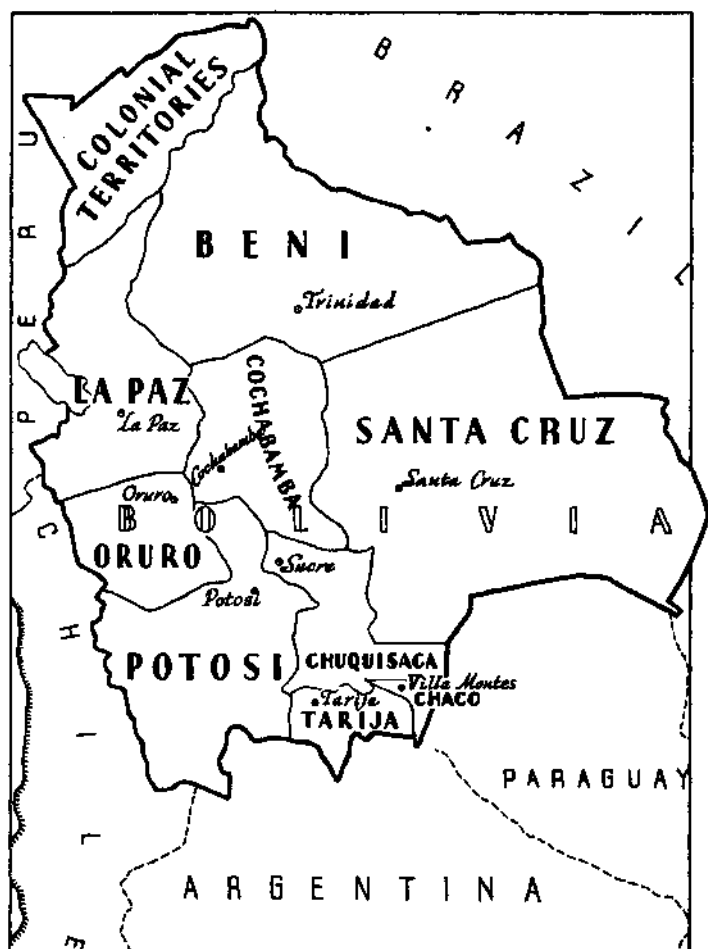


Germans in Argentina, 1939

Courtesy of the *Washington Post*, May 21, 1939.

Argentina: Population

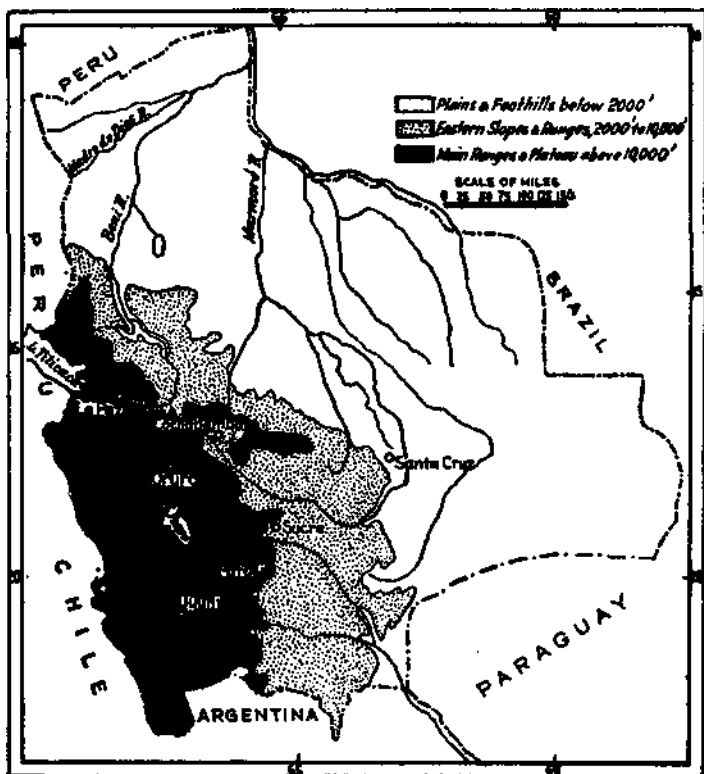
IN 1914 the people of Argentina numbered about 8,000,000. By the end of 1930 it was estimated that the population had increased to about 11,000,000 and by 1937 the population had grown to nearly 13,000,000. In the country as a whole there are on the average about twelve inhabitants per square mile. The densest center of population is in and about Buenos Aires, where in 1939 lived 3,498,000 persons, some 23 per cent of all the people in the country. In, 1934 about 60 per cent of Argentina was classed as urban, including people living in towns of 2,000 population or over. About 80 per cent of the people of Argentina are of European descent, with persons of Italian origin in the majority but with Germans widely scattered. Half-breeds, Indians, and a few Negroes constitute the remainder of the population.



Political divisions of Bolivia

Bolivia: Political Development

BOLIVIA was created by Bolivar, who gave the state his name, its first constitution, and a president. But a partisan of the Liberator, the *caudillo* Santa Cruz, ruled the state for twenty years, exercising his heedless ambition with little restraint. No subsequent executive in the next half century was able to gain sufficient power to maintain complete political stability, and anarchy, despotism, and temporary chimerical constitutions were the rule. Even in recent years the country has never been completely free from the threat of revolutions, and an economic equilibrium has not yet been attained.

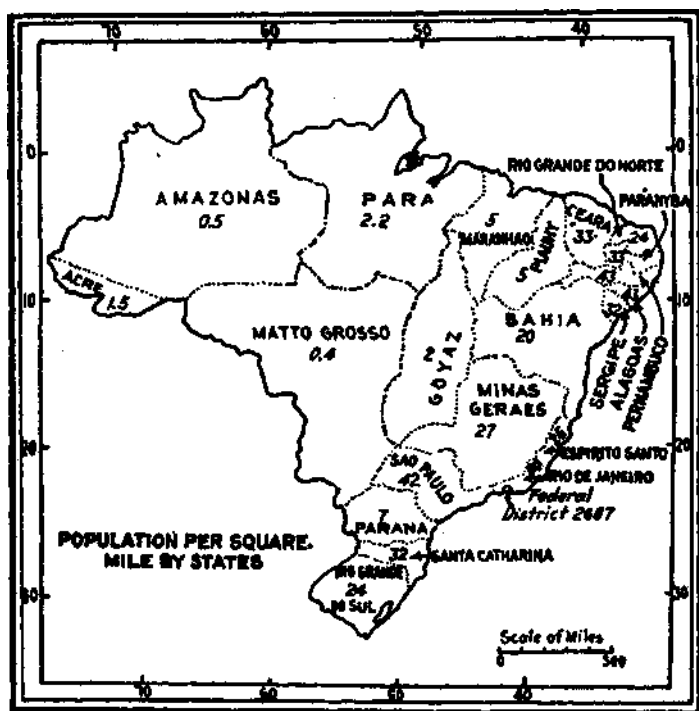


Physical map of Bolivia

Reproduced with permission from *Economic Geography of South America*, by R. H. Whitbeck, F. E. Williams, and W. F. Christians, published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 3rd ed., New York, 1940.

Bolivia: Topography

MUCH of the inhabitable part of Bolivia consists of a high plateau with towering mountains forming part of the Andes system. In the midst of the plateau at an elevation of more than 12,000 feet lies Lake Titicaca. The mountain passes are high and all land transportation has been difficult. To the east of the highland region are forested slopes and plains, which contain some of the headwaters of the Amazon tributaries.

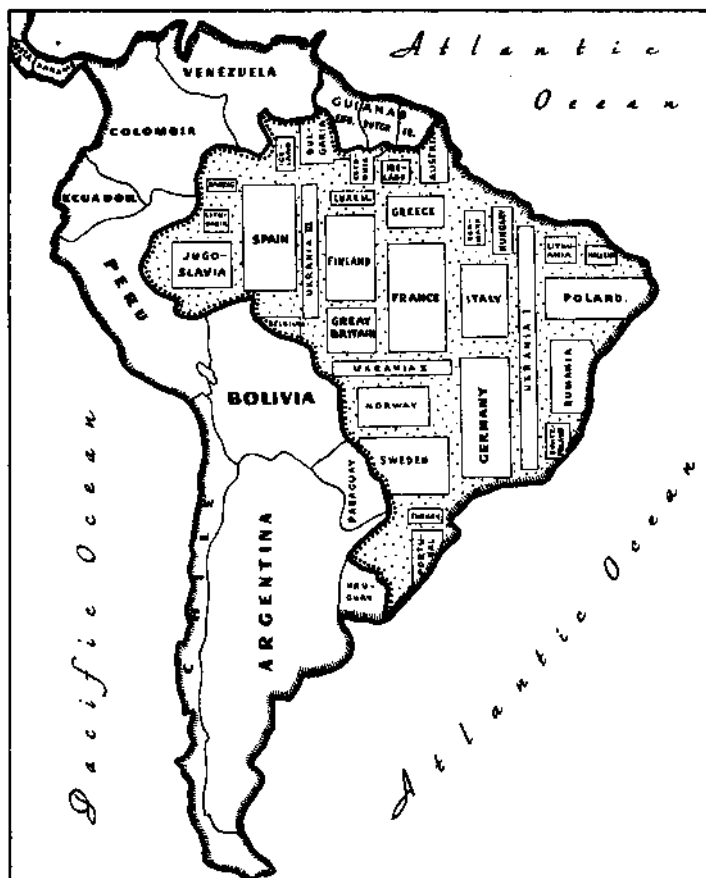


Political divisions of Brazil

Reproduced with permission from *Economic Geography of South America*, by R. H. Whitbeck, F. E. Williams, and W. F. Christians, published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 3rd ed., New York, 1940.

Brazil: Political Development

AMONG the Latin American nations, Brazil is the greatest in territory. It also has the largest population. Its historical development has been quite different from that of the other Latin American countries. In the first place, the early settlers were Portuguese instead of Spanish, and the Brazilians are today a Portuguese speaking people. In the second place, Brazil was the only Latin American nation to adopt for any length of time a monarchic form of government. The monarchy lasted in Brazil from the declaration of independence in 1822 until the Republican revolution in 1889, and is divided into two periods: the reign of Dom Pedro I (1822-1831) and the reign of Dom Pedro II (1831-1889). The Republican period may, in turn, be divided into two parts: The Old Republic (1889-1930) and The New Republic (1930 to the present).



Comparison of Brazil with European state areas

Brazil: Comparative Area

BRAZIL is the largest nation in the Western Hemisphere, with an area of nearly three and one-quarter million square miles, which about equals the United States together with Alaska. It is so large that the pre-war European states, with the exception of Russia, could be placed in it.

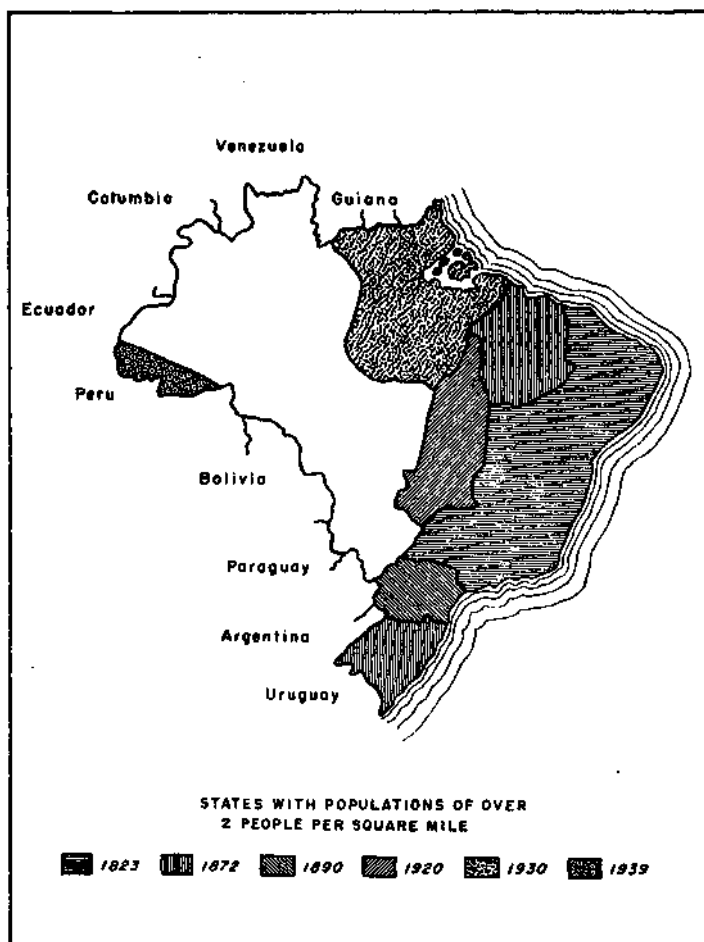


Comparison of the areas of Brazil and the United States

Comparison of the latitudes of Brazil and the United States

Brazil: Comparison with the United States

BRAZIL lies almost entirely in the Torrid Zone, with the equator extending through the mouth of the Amazon River. The tropical and subtropical factors have affected the characteristics of the people and the location of the products, and to a large extent have determined much of the history of the country, especially economic and social conditions.

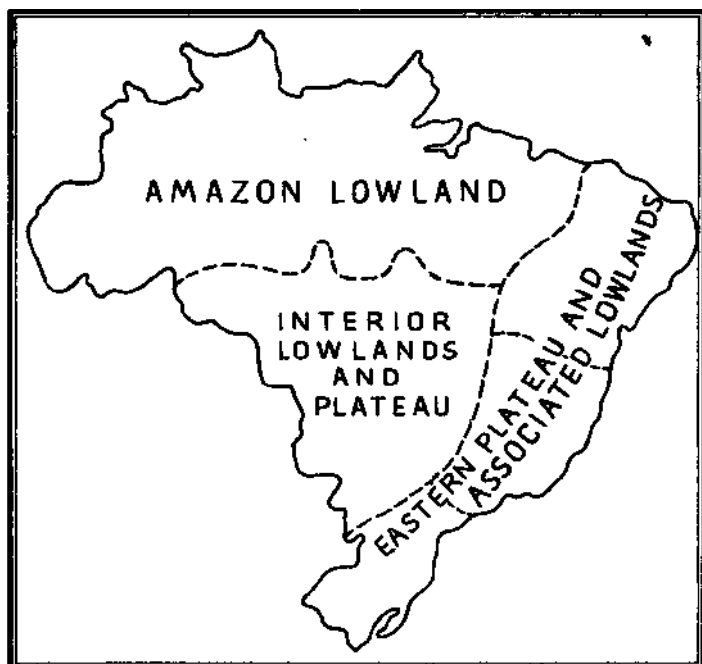


Brazil's advancing frontier

Prepared by Wayne D. Rasmussen. Reprinted from the *Land Policy Review*, October, 1941, with permission of the United States Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

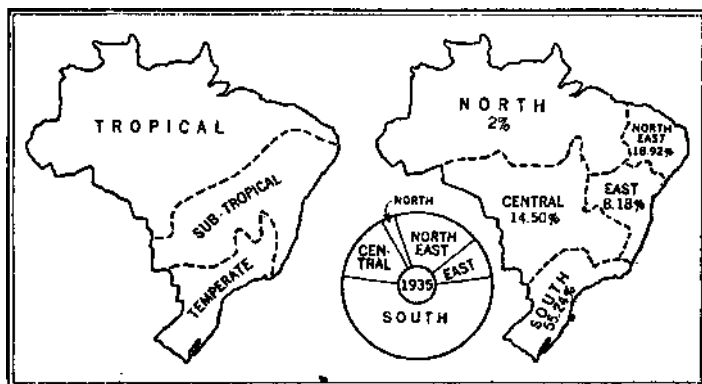
Brazil: Population

THE total population of Brazil is estimated at over forty-four million. Several large cities are found in the country: Rio de Janeiro, the capital, has a population of over 1,500,000; Sao Paulo, 1,250,000; Recife, 425,000; and Bahia, 350,000. A large proportion of the population, particularly in the interior, is of mixed blood. In the southern states, however, most of the population is of European stock. Large colonies of Germans and Italians, as well as of Portuguese and Spaniards, are to be found in that region. There are also some 250,000 Japanese in various sections of the country.



Geographical divisions of Brazil

Based on data from *Economic Geography of South America*, by R. H. Whitbeck, published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1926.



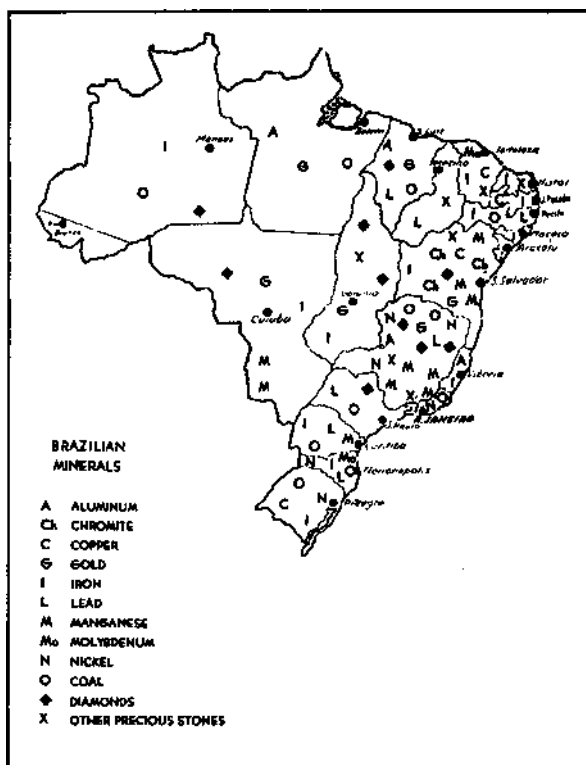
Climatic regions of Brazil and percentage of agricultural production

Courtesy of Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Brazil — *Statistics, Resources, Possibilities* (Rio de Janeiro, 1938), pp. 19, 97.

Brazil: Some Agricultural Products

THE first settlers in northern Brazil raised sugar cane, while the first settlers in southern Brazil raised cattle and other agricultural products. Coffee, produced so extensively in the state of Sao Paulo, was introduced in the eighteenth century, and today Brazil supplies about 70 per cent of the total output of the world, most of which passes through the single port of Santos. Rubber is found in a wild state in Brazil, and hence little effort has been made to cultivate it on plantations. Cotton is grown in most of the seaboard states.

Particularly since the First World War there has been a noticeable increase in livestock raising and in the resultant manufacturing industries. In 1925 there were about 34,000,000 head of cattle in Brazil, located chiefly in the southern states. Nearly a dozen meat-packing plants and 70 plants devoted to drying and salting meat existed at this period. In the same year there were about 16,000,000 swine and about 8,000,000 sheep in the southern sections of the country. In 1939 there were over 94,000,000 head of livestock in Brazil.

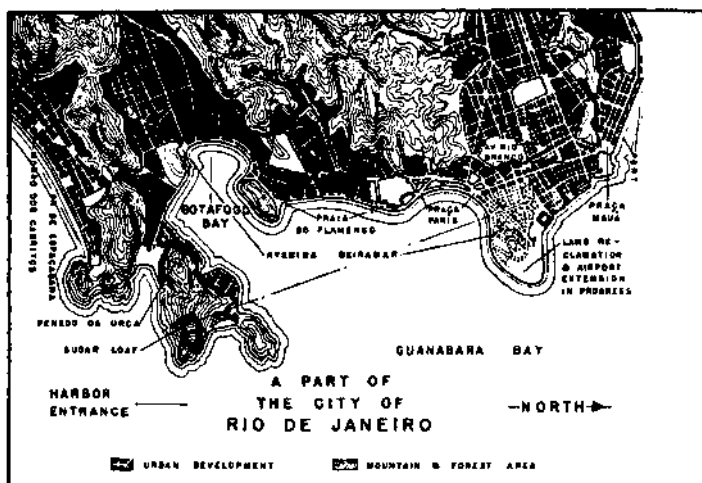


Brazilian minerals

Bulletin, Pan American Union, June, 1941.

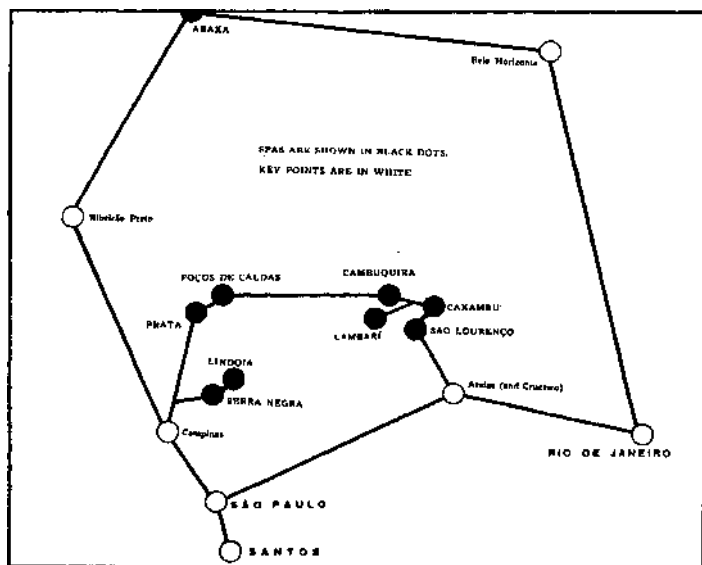
Brazil: Mineral Products

T H E mineral wealth of Brazil is very great. Manganese is exported to the United States, and the state of Minas Geraes alone is estimated to have deposits of some eleven billion metric tons of this mineral still undeveloped. Brazil furnishes most of the monozite consumed in the world. Coal deposits are extensive but of inferior quality. Gold and diamonds are produced in considerable quantities.



A part of the city of Rio de Janeiro, showing urban development between bay and hills

Bulletin, Pan American Union, May, 1938.



Routes to Brazilian spas

Courtesy of *Brazil Today*, I, No. 2, October, 1940.

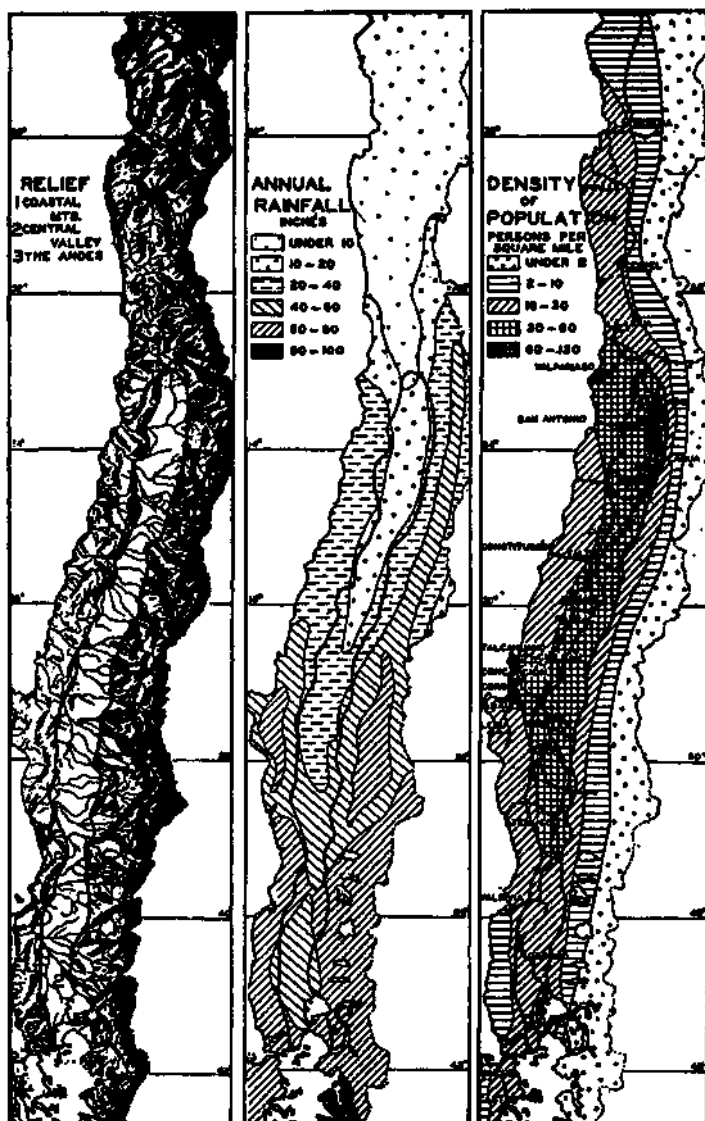
Brazil: Transportation

WITH good harbors, especially at Rio de Janeiro, a coast line of four thousand miles, and some forty thousand miles of interior navigable waterways, Brazil has naturally depended largely upon water transportation and particularly upon coastal communication between the cities on or near the ocean, which contain nearly two thirds of the country's population. In 1932 this coastal traffic amounted to nearly two million tons. To take care of this transportation there existed in 1933 a merchant marine of nearly five hundred thousand gross tonnage and consisting of nearly three hundred power-driven vessels.

In recent years increasing amounts of money have been spent on railroads, of which Brazil has some twenty thousand miles in operation. About half of this mileage is found in the states of Sao Paulo and Minas Geraes. The government has also spent considerable sums on highways, of which there are about seventy thousand miles. Interest in air travel has increased rapidly, in recent years, and several companies, including some European lines, have been established.

Chile: Political Development

IN her earlier political history Chile passed through an orgy of armed disorder and constitutional chaos, only to emerge eventually as a reputable state with many European characteristics. For the most part, her later executives have been respectable, self-made men, regularly chosen and little affected by the current despotic tendencies found in the leaders of other Latin American countries. Hence a semblance of political, social, and economic equilibrium appeared earlier in Chile than was usually the case elsewhere. Because of this she has gained an international status of importance.

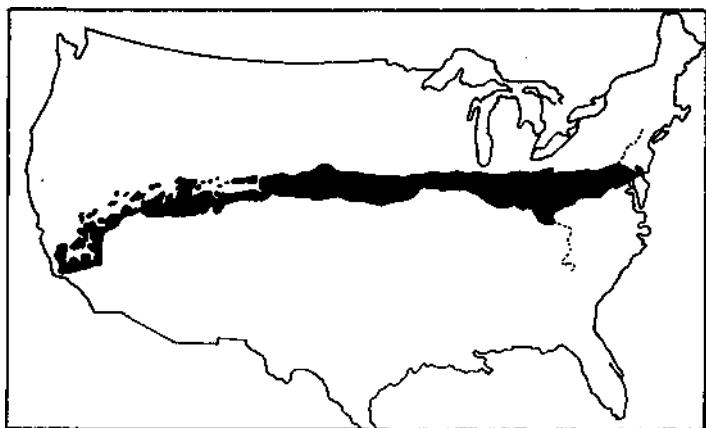


Middle Chile: relief, annual rainfall, and density of population

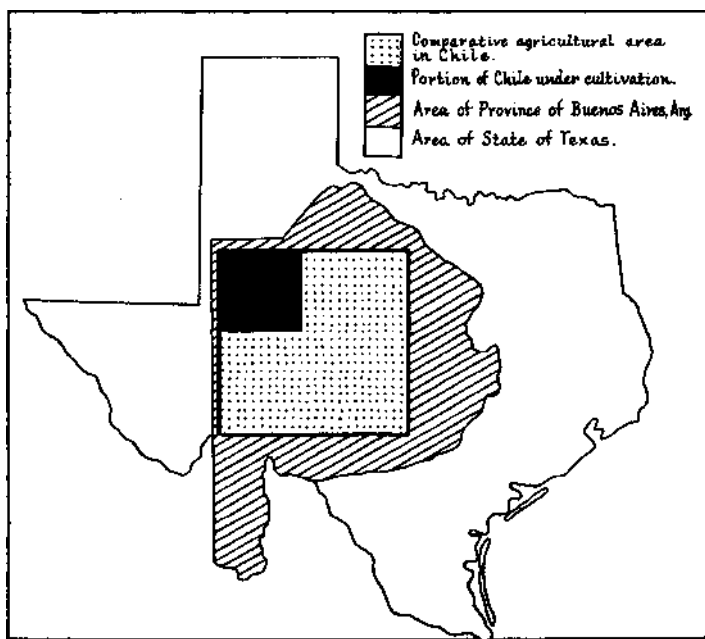
Reproduced with permission from *South America*, by Clarence F. Jones, published by Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1930.

Chile: Geographical Characteristics

CHILE is a long, narrow country with an area of nearly 300,000 square miles and a population of about four and one-half million. However, the most habitable section is the central portion, often called the "Vale of Chile." The topography, climate, and rainfall are somewhat similar to the Pacific coast of the United States, and Chile frequently has been called the California of South America.



Comparative areas of Chile and the United States

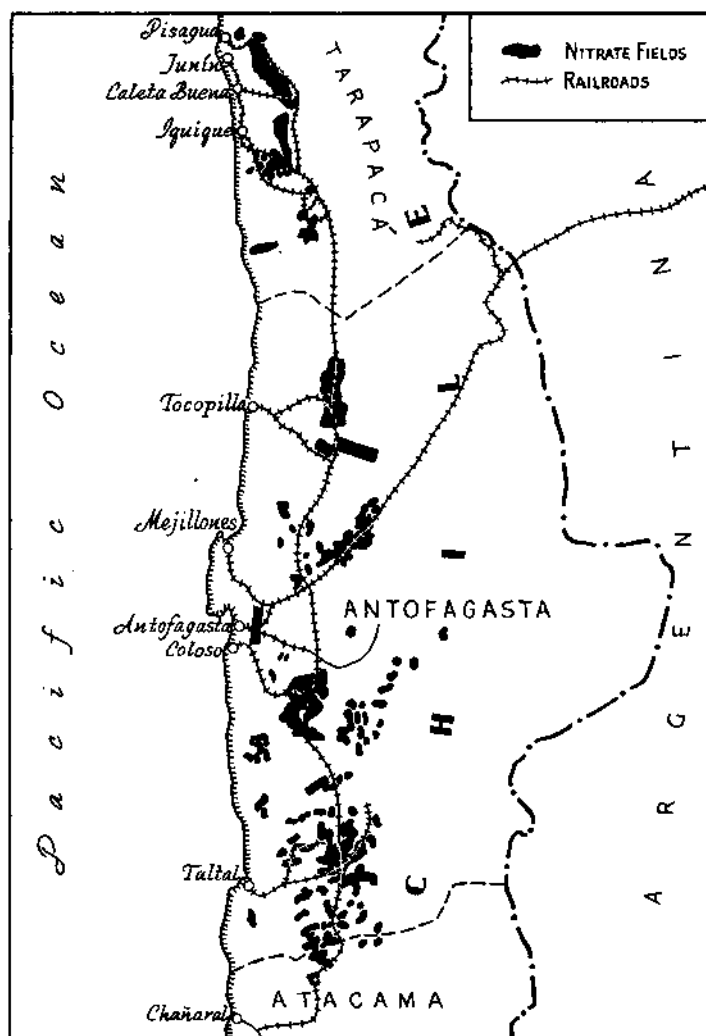


Comparisons with Texas

Based on data in *Our Competitors and Markets*, by Arnold W. Lahee, published by Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1924.

Chile: Agriculture

CHILE has an area somewhat greater than the eight south Atlantic states of the United States, yet less than a quarter of its territory can be devoted to agriculture, which represents a large proportion of Chilean industry. The area cultivated for wheat amounts to about 800,000 hectares. The country also produces corn, rye, oats, beans, potatoes, lentils, forage crops, fruits, honey, sugar beets, tobacco, and hemp. There are over 220,500 acres of vines, and grapes of excellent quality are exported to various countries. The pastoral industry has made great progress. Large quantities of wool are exported (9,512,100 kilos in 1936), as well as frozen mutton and other animal products. Chile is estimated to possess 2,462,730 head of cattle and 6,263,482 head of sheep, besides other domestic animals. Foodstuffs, leather, and textiles are the main Chilean manufactures.



Nitrate fields of Chile

Courtesy of the United States Department of Commerce.

Chile: The Nitrate Industry

THE nitrate industry has been the source of much wealth for Chile. The nitrate zone comprises a strip of country about 450 miles in length. There is a visible supply of nitrate mineral for at least one hundred years more. Until 1930 Chile exported more than 100,000,000 tons of nitrates, and in the years from 1880 to 1929 collected nearly \$1,000,000,000 in export taxes on nitrates and iodine. The exports of this product have decreased since 1913. In 1936 Chile exported approximately 1,300,000 metric tons of nitrate to various countries.

In July, 1930, there was organized in Chile the Compania Salitre de Chile, known as "Cosach." This became a great nitrate corporation which consisted of thirty-four Chilean nitrate companies. It was organized in order to strengthen Chilean competition with foreign companies producing synthetic nitrates. In return for granting the corporation the use of government nitrate lands and exemption from the government export tax, the Chilean government was given half of the stock and was to receive half of the profits of the Company. In 1931 the Guggenheim interests took over the management of the organization, then capitalized at \$375,000,000, in which thirty-six companies were united. The American concern introduced an improved and cheaper method of nitrate mining.

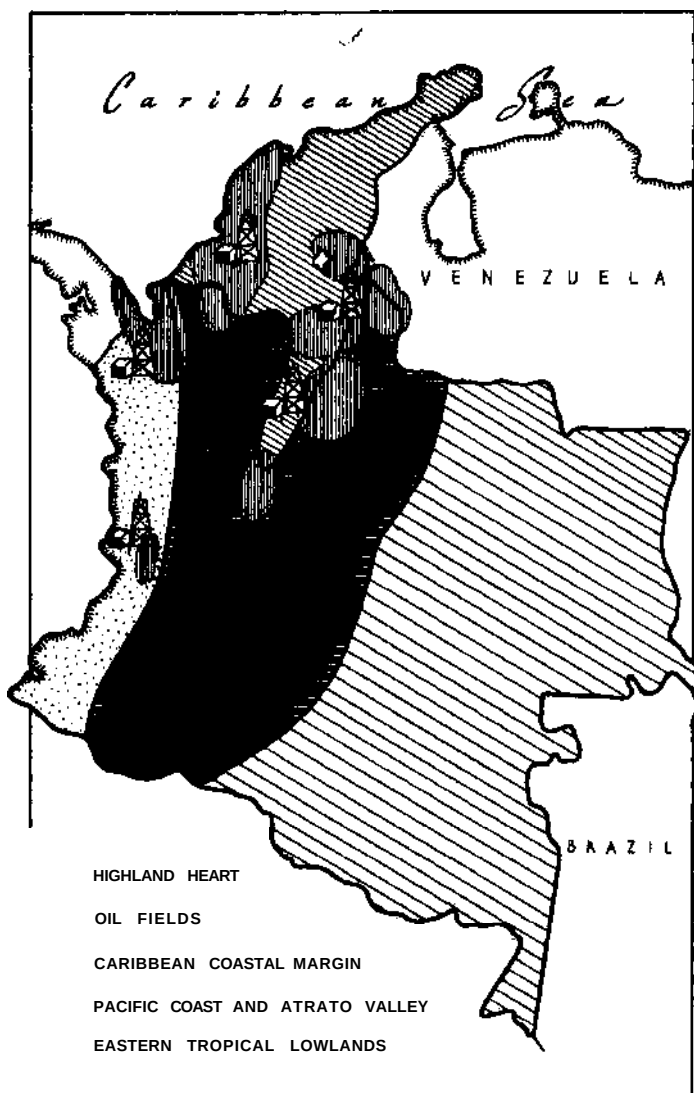


Political divisions of Colombia

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Colombia: Political Development

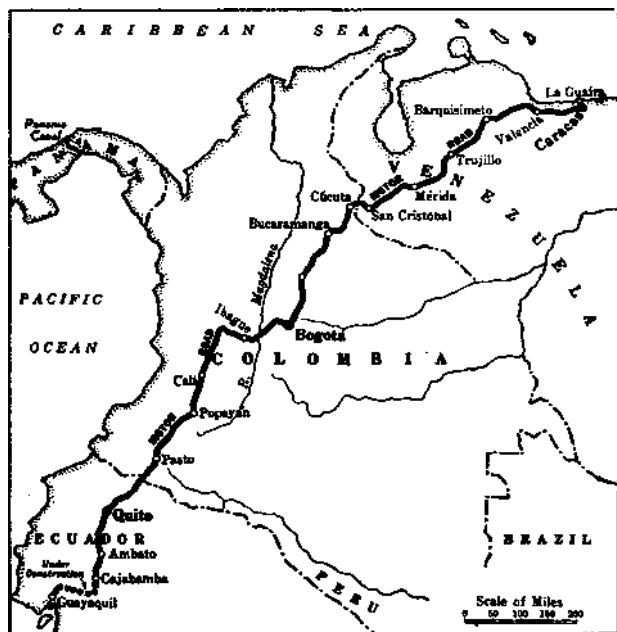
COLOMBIA was for a long time the victim of almost complete and constant anarchy in which rival ambitious despots fought each other for ideals frequently unattainable. Like its former political associates, Venezuela and Ecuador, the state has had numerous constitutions and has been largely a laboratory for political experimentation. In addition to political disorder, religious conflicts have arisen which have aggravated national friction and complicated and retarded civil progress, while at the same time the inevitable party struggles dissipated the nation's wealth and made financial stability almost impossible. Thus for a long time the state was unable to take its proper place among the leading countries of Latin America.



Oil-producing regions of Colombia

Colombia: Topography and Oil-Producing Regions

IN recent years, especially since the rapid development of the petroleum industry in the neighboring state of Venezuela, Colombia has undertaken a survey of its oil fields and has encouraged the investment of foreign capital in oil production.



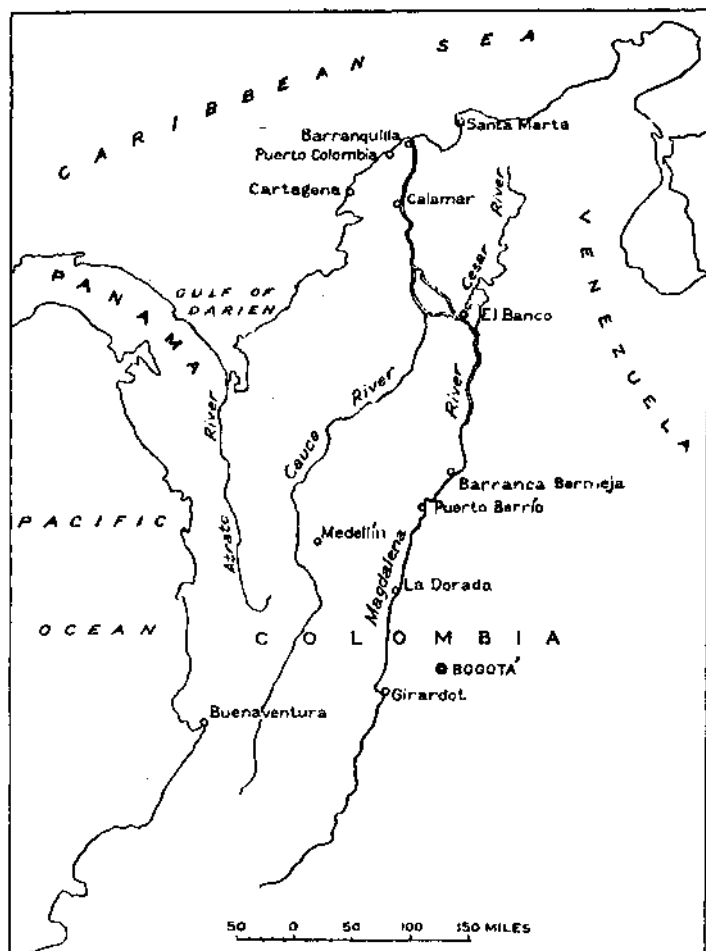
The Simon Bolivar Highway across northern South America
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.



The Scadta Airlines in Colombia, 1939

Colombia: Highway and Air Transportation

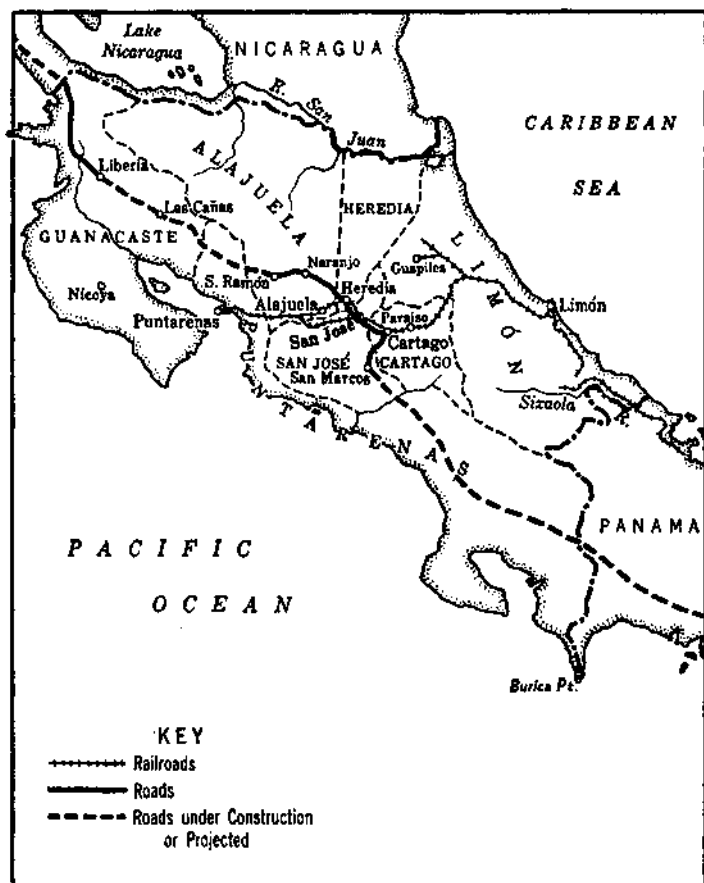
COLOMBIA has nearly 1,400 miles of railroads and an extensive system of modern highways. Extending across Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador is the great Simón Bolívar Highway. In 1928 the Colombian government floated a bond issue in New York for the purpose of building better transportation facilities. Since then road construction has increased rapidly. There are now more than 5,000 miles of motor highway in the country. Airways have established rapid communication with various sections of the country and with foreign countries. The first South American airline was established in Colombia in 1920 by the Sociedad Colombiana Alemana de Transportes Aéreos, known as Scadta.



The Magdalena River system in Colombia
Courtesy of the Pan American Union.

Colombia: River Transportation

T H E Magdalena River in Colombia is navigable for some 560 miles. Throughout much of the colonial period it was an important highway into the interior, and today it is still of considerable significance although railway, highway, and airway transportation are of growing importance.



Political divisions and transportation routes of Costa Rica
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

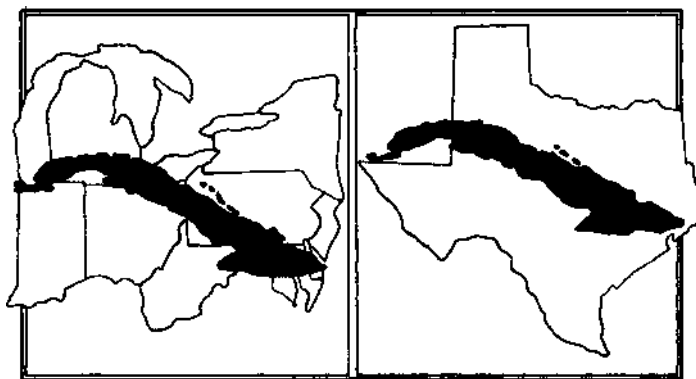
Costa Rica: Political Development and Transportation

COSTA RICA, with the largest proportion of whites in Central America, has enjoyed the most stable government and has become the most progressive state in the group. Yet it, too, has had revolutions, dictators, and numerous economic problems which at times have seemed almost insoluble.

Besides several navigable rivers, the republic has about 450 miles of railroads, and a good system of highways (about 1,800 miles) connecting the principal cities with each other and with the neighboring countries.



Political divisions of Cuba
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.



Length and area of Cuba
 in comparison with por-
 tions of the United States

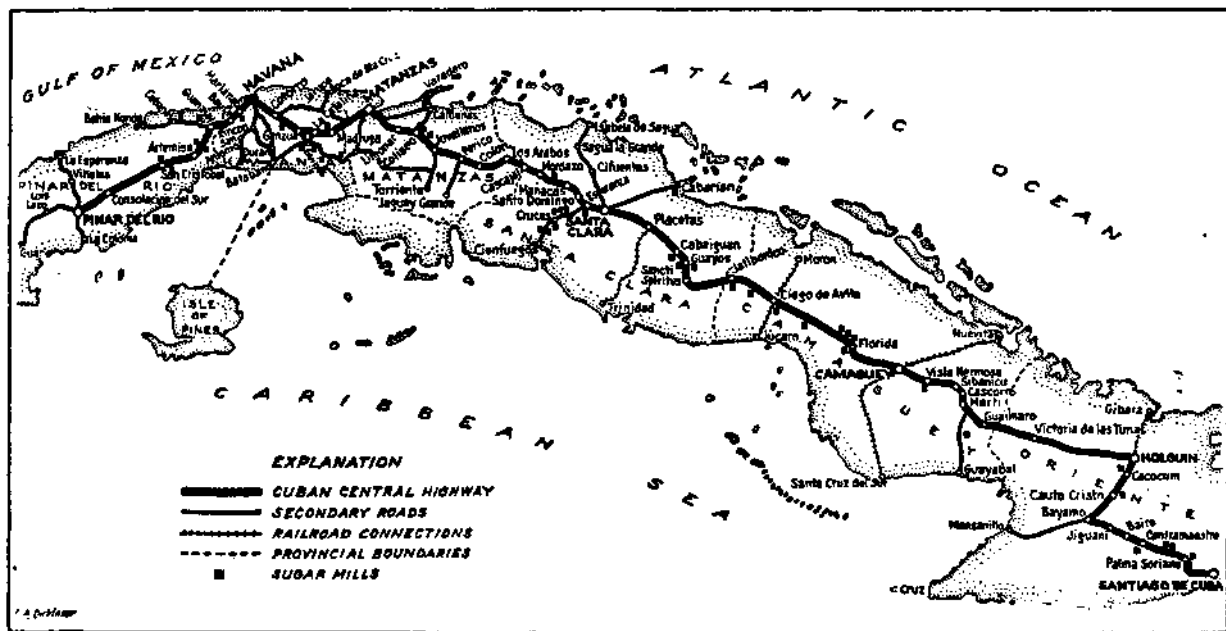
Length and area of Cuba
 in comparison with Texas

Reproduced with permission from *Our Competitors and Markets*,
 by Arnold W. Lahee, published by Henry Holt and Company,
 New York, 1924.

Cuba: Political and Geographical Characteristics

CUBA'S condition before 1898 was of such a nature that the citizens of the island had little opportunity for either self-expression or self-government. Consequently, with independence came many political, economic, and social disorders from which the country still suffers, despite the fact that marked improvement has been made in recent years.

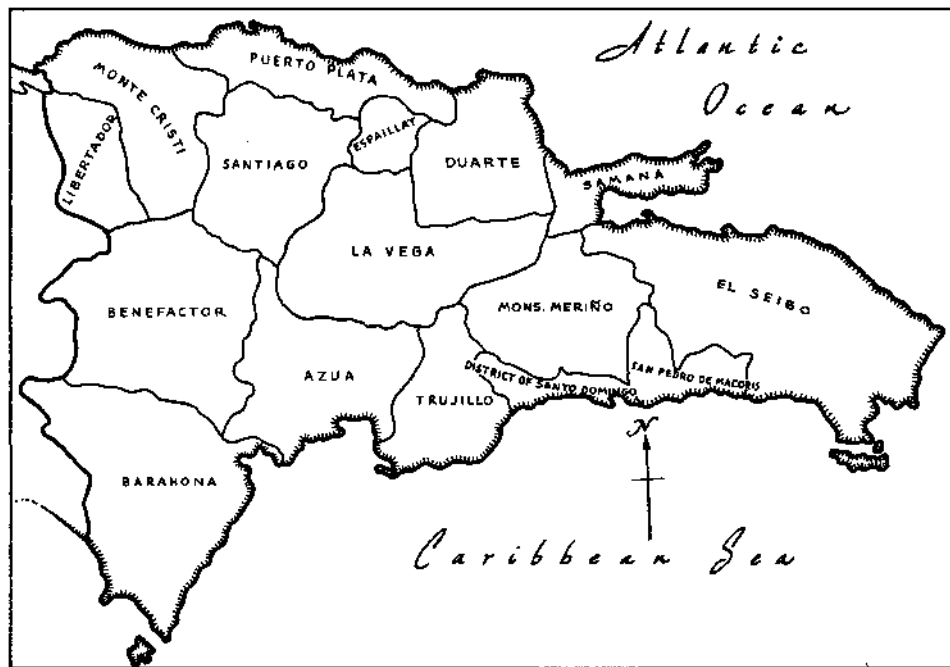
The island of Cuba extends in a northwest and southeast direction from about 85° to 74° W. Long., and from about 20° to about 23° N. Lat. The total length of the island is 730 miles, the greatest width being at the south, where it is some 160 miles across. The total area is about 42,000 square miles; it is therefore a little larger than Bulgaria and about the size of Pennsylvania. The coast line is over 2,000 miles long.



The transportation system of Cuba
 Courtesy of the New York Times, February 21, 1932.

Cuba: Transportation

At present there are about 3,000 miles of railroads in operation in Cuba. In 1929 an American company was given a contract to construct at a cost of more than \$100,000,000 a paved central highway nearly 750 miles long running the length of the island. Such rapid progress was made in the construction of this road that it was opened in 1931. By the beginning of the same year Cuba had nearly 2,000 miles of highway. Cuba is well supplied with steamship lines connecting it with Europe and the United States and other American countries. Since 1928 the people of Cuba have taken an increased interest in air transportation, and today the country is adequately supplied with airways.



Political divisions of the Dominican Republic

Dominican Republic: Political Development

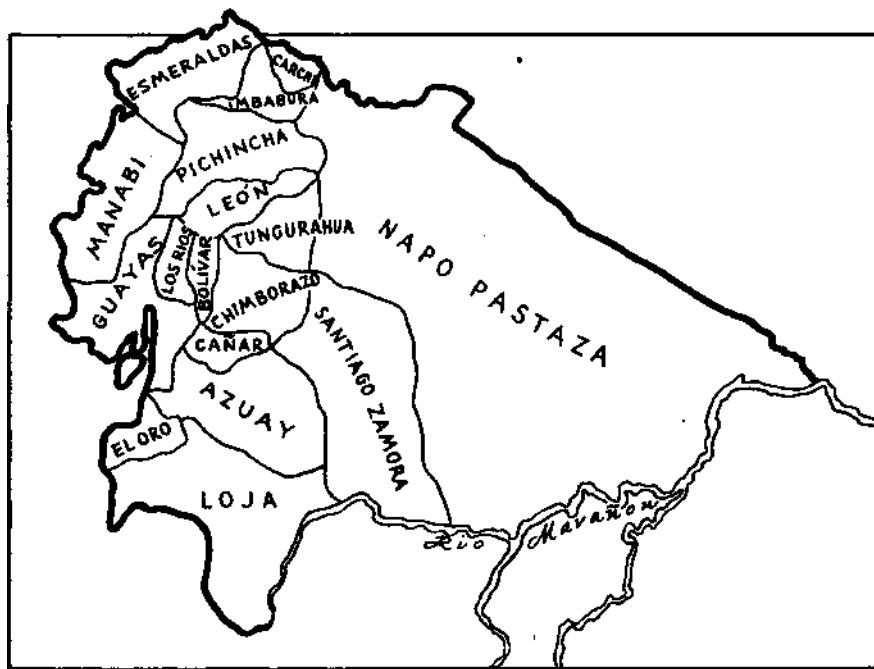
SINCE the separation of the two parts of the island of Haiti in 1844, Santo Domingo, as it was originally called, has suffered from innumerable dictators, frequent revolutions, excessive constitutional tinkering, serious foreign interference, and grave economic ills. However, in recent years a modicum of peace and prosperity has been established by dictatorial force, and the country has been able to make limited progress.



The transportation system of the Dominican Republic
 Courtesy of *The Dominican Republic*, January-February, 1940.

Dominican Republic: Transportation

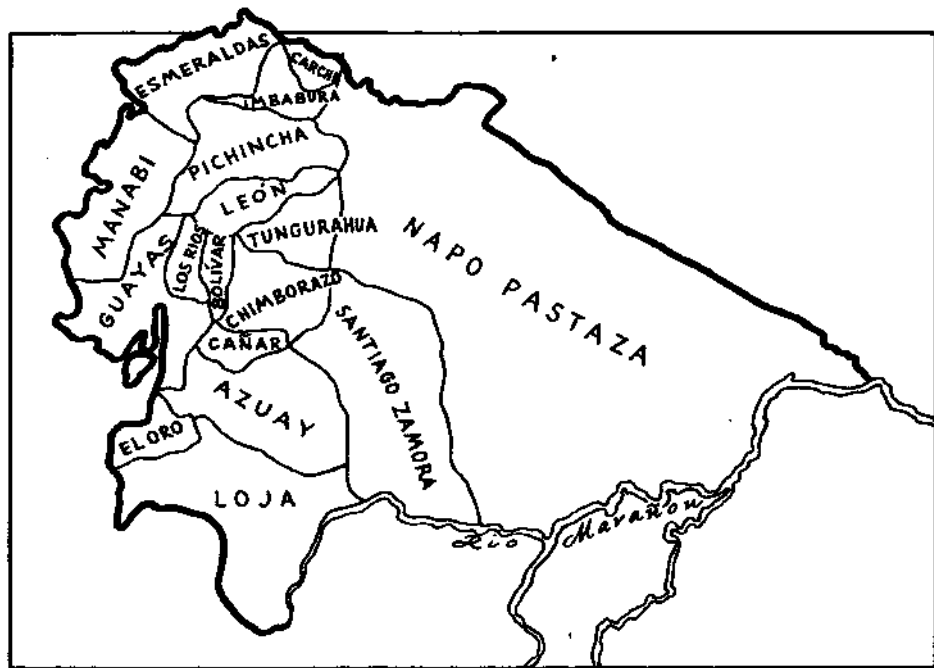
T H E Dominican Republic has 940 miles of coast line but few good harbors. Its rivers are not navigable. There are only about 70 miles of railroad in the country. Highway building, however, has increased recently and several hundred miles of good or fair roads exist. The Dominican Republic is connected with the United States and Puerto Rico by Pan American Airways.



Political divisions of Ecuador

Ecuador: Political Development

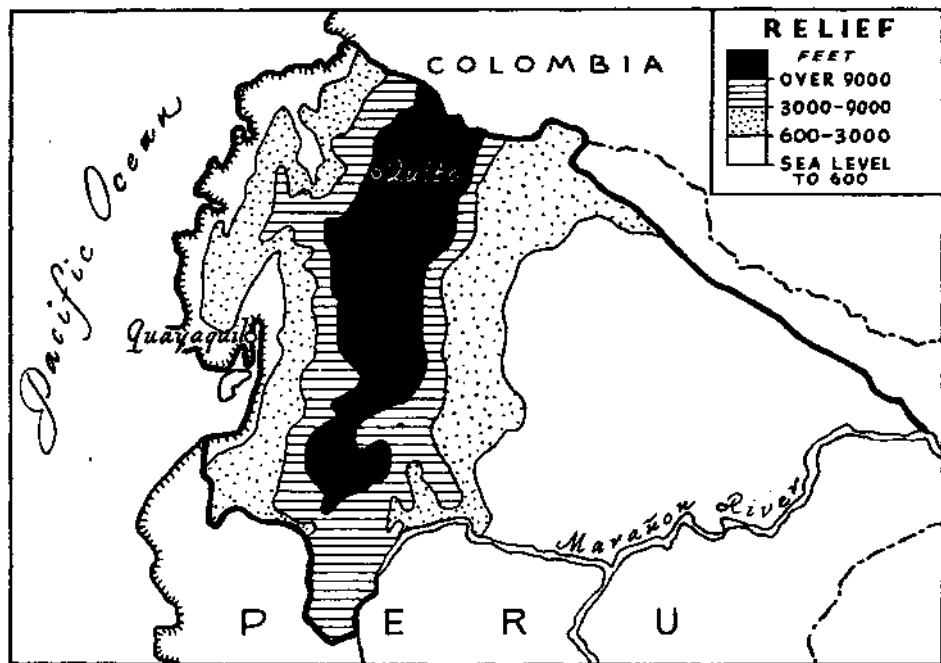
RELIGIOUS dissension, secession movements, sectional sentiment, and personal political rivalry have marked the path of Ecuador's history. Occasionally there has been an interim of peace and limited prosperity, but racial and intellectual factors have kept the country from making substantial progress. Moreover, the numerous constitutional changes have proved detrimental rather than beneficial to the national welfare, and advancement has been illusory and nearly impossible. Hence today the state ranks far behind the majority of **the Latin** American countries in international importance.



Political divisions of Ecuador

Ecuador: Political Development

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Physical features of Ecuador

Ecuador: Topography

ECUADOR, like its neighbors north and south, lies astride of the great Andes range with high mountains and plateaus and lower coasts and hinterland. These factors have affected the climate and the products, both agricultural and mineral, and have had a marked effect upon the people as well.

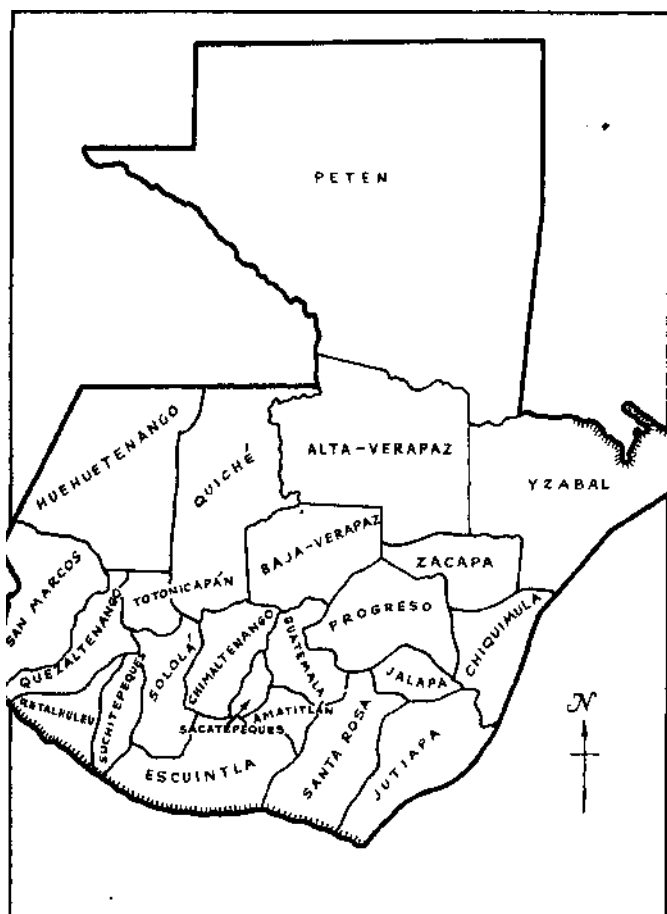


Political divisions of El Salvador

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

El Salvador: Political Development

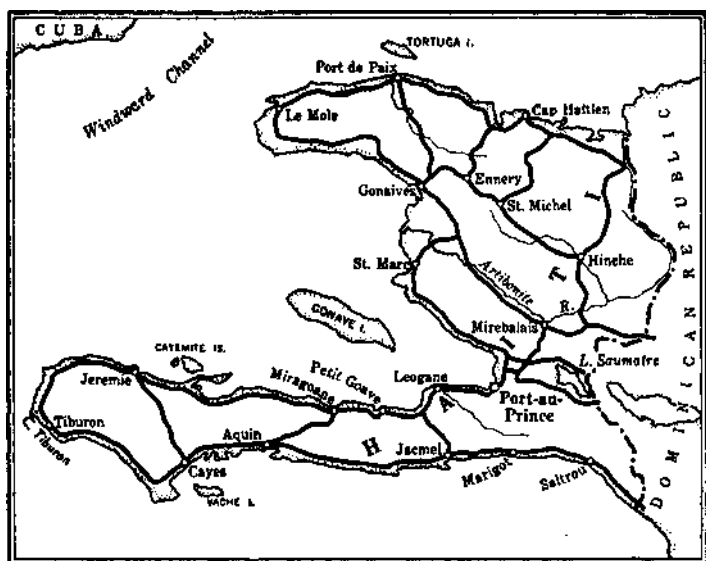
EL SALVADOR, the smallest state in Central America, has not had a peaceful political existence. Its mixed white and Indian population and the rivalry of its Conservative and Liberal factions have been factors making for revolutions and dictatorships. Besides, El Salvador has led the movement for Central American unity and hence has tended to become involved in difficulties with its neighbors. In recent years, however, internal political peace and some semblance of economic prosperity have helped El Salvador to assume an important position among the states of Central America.



Political divisions of Guatemala

Guatemala: Political Development

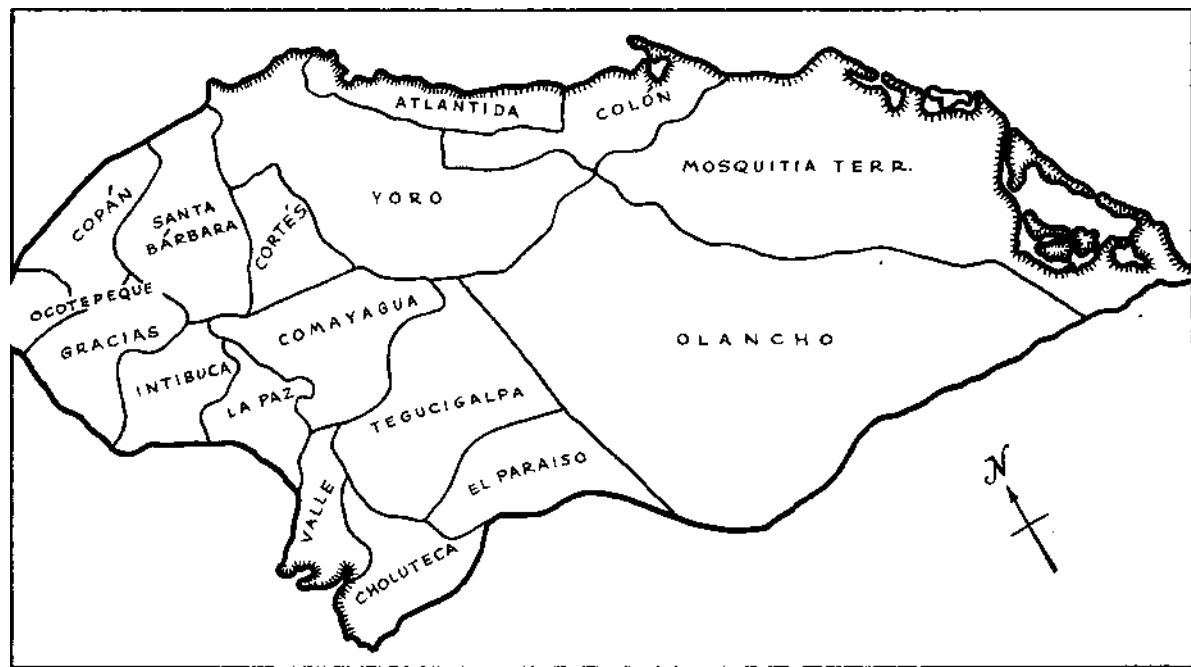
AMONG the Central American states, Guatemala has suffered perhaps the most from political despotism. From the dissolution of the Central American Confederation to the present time, her politics have been under the control of four strong men: Rafael Carrera, (1838-1865); Justo Rufino Barrios (1873-1885); Manuel Estrada Cabrera (1896-1920); and Jorge Ubico (1931 to the present).



The Republic of Haiti
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Haiti: Political Development

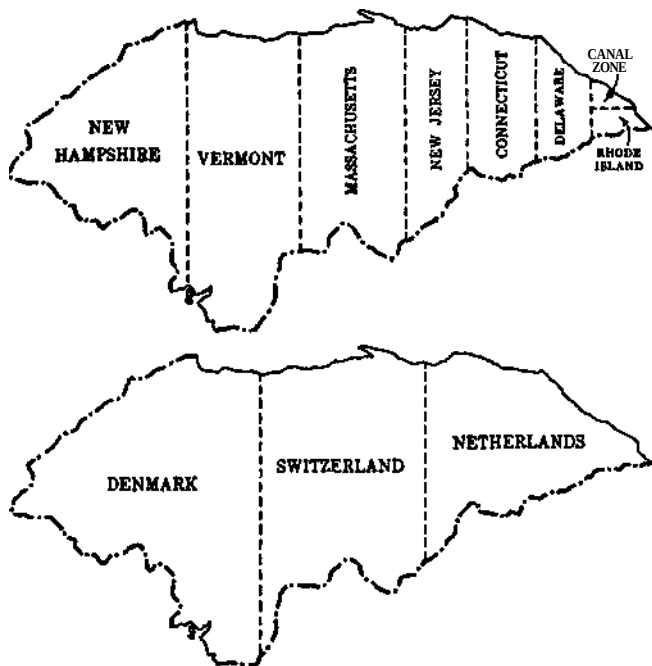
F E W countries have suffered more from a bad political start than Haiti, a land of crowded black population. Its political and economic problems have at times proved insurmountable and have led to outside interference. Even today the state has not been able to solve its manifold difficulties and it still remains backward in many respects.



Political divisions of Honduras

Honduras: Political Development

POPULATION, environmental factors, and the interference of neighbors in its political life, together with numerous revolutions and dictators, long prevented Honduras from attaining political stability. Even in recent years it cannot be said that political problems have been entirely solved.



Honduras: comparative areas
Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Honduras: Size and Population

HONDURAS is about the size of the state of Mississippi, with an area of some 44,000 square miles and a population of about 1,000,000 people. It is the third largest of the Central American countries.



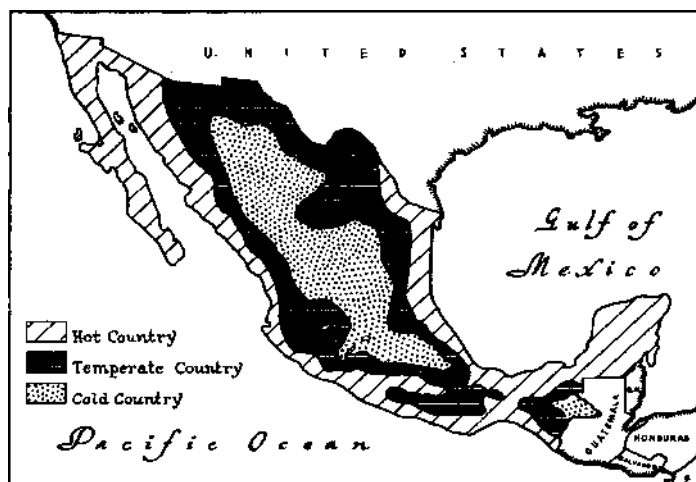
Political divisions of Mexico



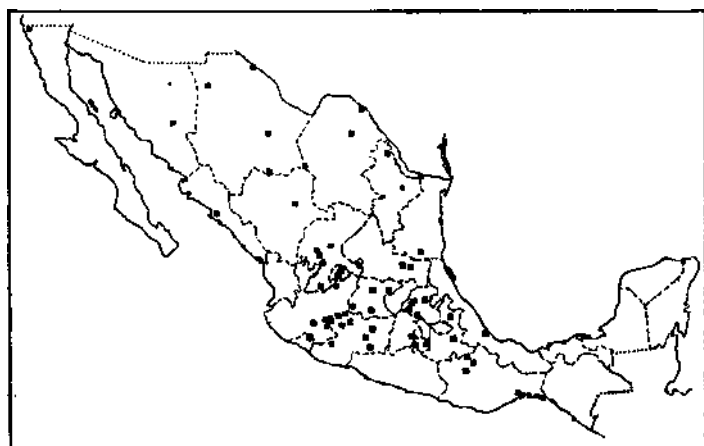
The area of Mexico compared with that of the British Isles

Mexico: Political Development

THE political history of Mexico since independence may be divided into five constitutional periods. The first is that of the federal republic, extending from 1824 to 1834. The second, in which the government may be classed as a centralized republic, extends from 1834 to 1846. The third division may be called the second period of the federal republic and lasts from 1846 to 1857. The fourth division, the period in which Mexican political life was guided by the Constitution of 1857, lasts from the date of the promulgation of that instrument until 1917. The fifth division extends from the adoption of the Constitution of 1917 to the present time.



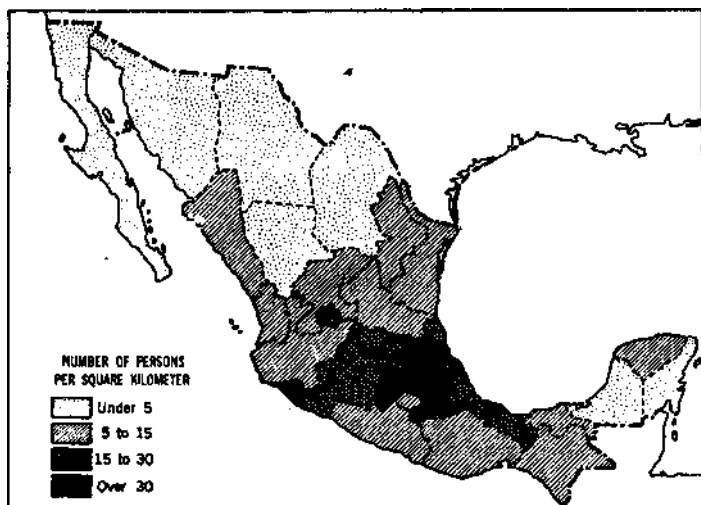
Climatic map of Mexico



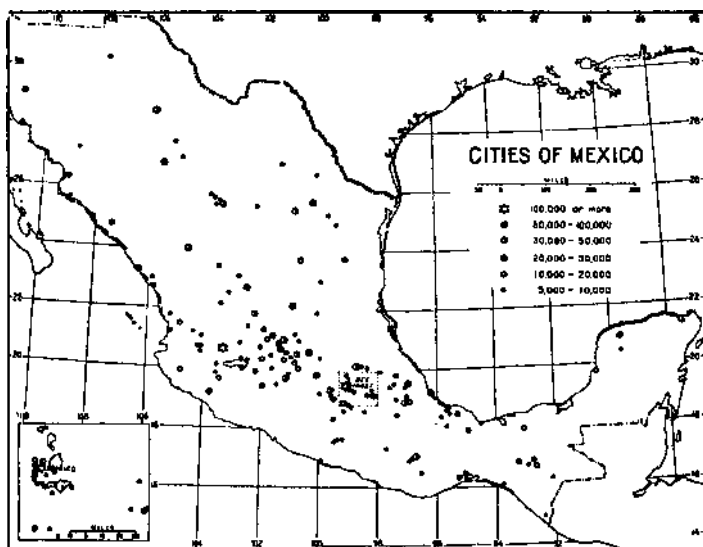
Mexican irrigation projects completed or under construction, 1936
 Courtesy of National Irrigation Commission of Mexico and of the
 Pan American Union.

Mexico: Topography and Climate

THE great bulk of Mexico is a lofty plateau bounded on the west and east by varying widths of coastal plain. The Sierra Madre Mountains enter Mexico from the north in two principal ranges, one closely following the Pacific Coast, and the other extending along the Atlantic some little distance inland but uniting with the former before the Isthmus of Tehuantepec is reached. Between 18° and 20° N. Lat. the eastern branch of the mountains unfolds into a series of broad tablelands some 15,000 square miles in area and 6,000 to 8,000 feet above sea level. These plateaus are known in Mexico as the *Tierra Fria*, or "cold land," and the lower valley between the two ranges at elevations from 3,000 to 6,000 feet is called the *Tierra Templada*, or "temperate land." The level gulf coast of Mexico broadens northward, varying from sandy desert land to marsh and tropical jungle. This plain, together with that of the Pacific Coast, which is generally narrower, is termed *Tierra Caliente*, or "hot land."



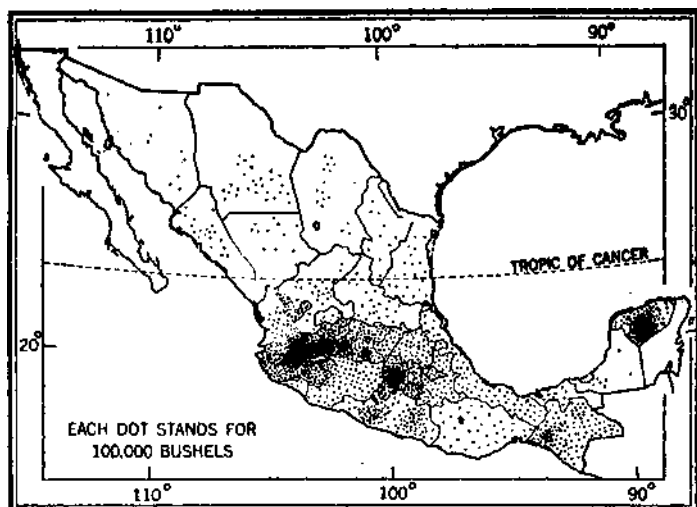
Mexico: number of persons per square kilometer
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc. Data based on map in *The Mexican Agrarian Problem*, by Frank Tannenbaum. Used with the permission of The Brookings Institution.



Distribution of cities in Mexico
 Courtesy of Pan American Union.

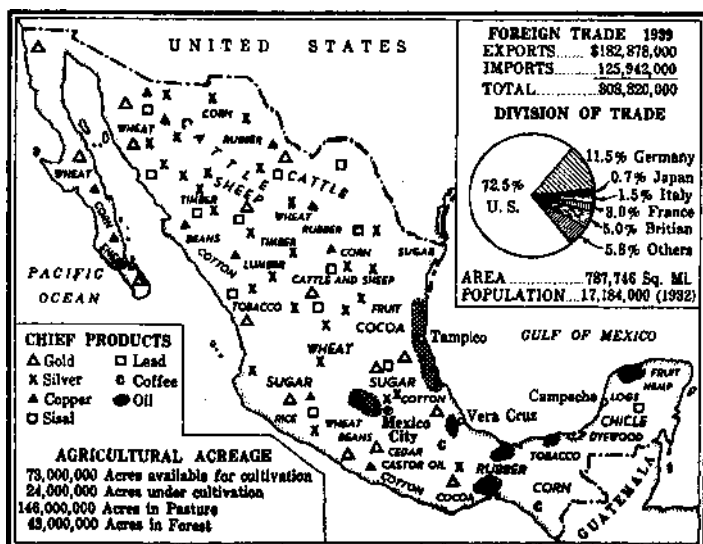
Mexico: Population

THE population of Mexico is about 16,500,000. Most of the people live in the rural districts and in small towns. The capital, Mexico City, has a population estimated at approximately one and a quarter millions. Measured by the standard of the United States, most Mexicans live in relative poverty. However, this is not a fair standard to apply to a people living in a country so different from the United States as Mexico is. Although deficient in many modern improvements and appliances which are considered essential in the United States, most Mexicans live the contented life of a rural population. The industrial and agricultural laborer's standard of living has improved a great deal during the last few years because of social and labor legislation adopted by the government. The nation as a whole has lately become self-conscious of its Indian origins and population, and a revaluation of Western civilization in terms of the Indian is in progress which promises to result in interesting developments.



Production of corn

Courtesy of the United States Department of Agriculture.



Principal products and trade of Mexico

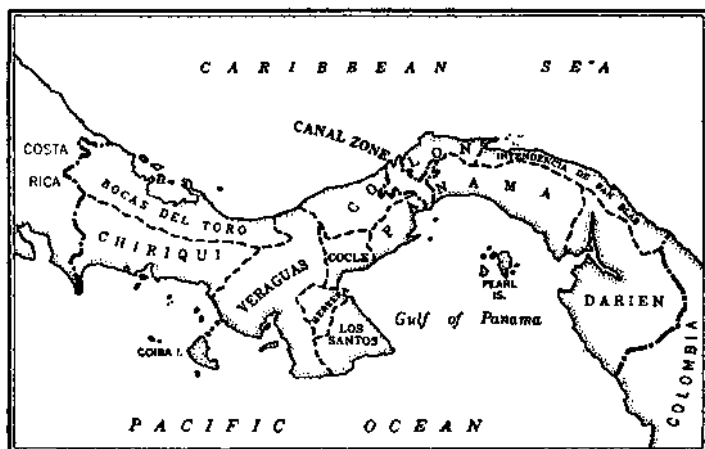
Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc. Data based on map published in the *Chicago Daily Tribune*, July 28, 1940.

Mexico: Chief Products

ALTHOUGH Mexico's greatest source of wealth is to be found in its mines and petroleum deposits, agriculture is the basic occupation of the people. Variations of climate and soil permit a great diversification of crops, ranging from henequen fiber in the lowlands to wheat produced in the highlands of the plateaus. The government has endeavored to help the rural population by the extension of agricultural credits, the promotion of irrigation projects in semi-arid and arid regions, mass education, and the division of lands. Corn is the most important staple of Mexico. Very little of it is exported, however, as virtually the entire crop is required for domestic consumption. Beans, chick-peas, and other grains also are produced. Cotton is produced on about 550,000 acres, its annual production being about 300,000 bales of 507 pounds each, mostly consumed within the country. Henequen fiber is cultivated in Yucatan and Campeche. Approximately 210,000 acres are devoted to this crop, and about 100,000 tons are produced and exported annually to the United States, Canada, and other countries. Bananas, to the amount of four million bunches, were exported in 1932 and over fifteen million bunches were sent out in 1936. Wheat is produced on about 1,300,000 acres. Other important products are chicle, coffee, winter vegetables, and fruits, of which a great deal is exported to the United States during the winter months.

Nicaragua: Political Development

THE political life of Nicaragua has been marked by rivalry between the cities of Leon and Granada, by quarrels between the Liberals and Conservatives, and by strife between dictators and would-be dictators. Another disquieting influence has arisen from the fact that within the country is a potential route between the oceans which has been an object of desire on the part of Britain and the United States. Moreover, because of the seriousness of its economic problems, outside interference has sometimes been necessary.



Political divisions of Panama
Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Panama: Political Development

FROM a turbulent province of Colombia, Panama emerged suddenly as a free state in 1903. Since then the country has enjoyed comparative political peace and prosperity, largely because of the influence of the United States, which controls the Canal Zone dividing the country.

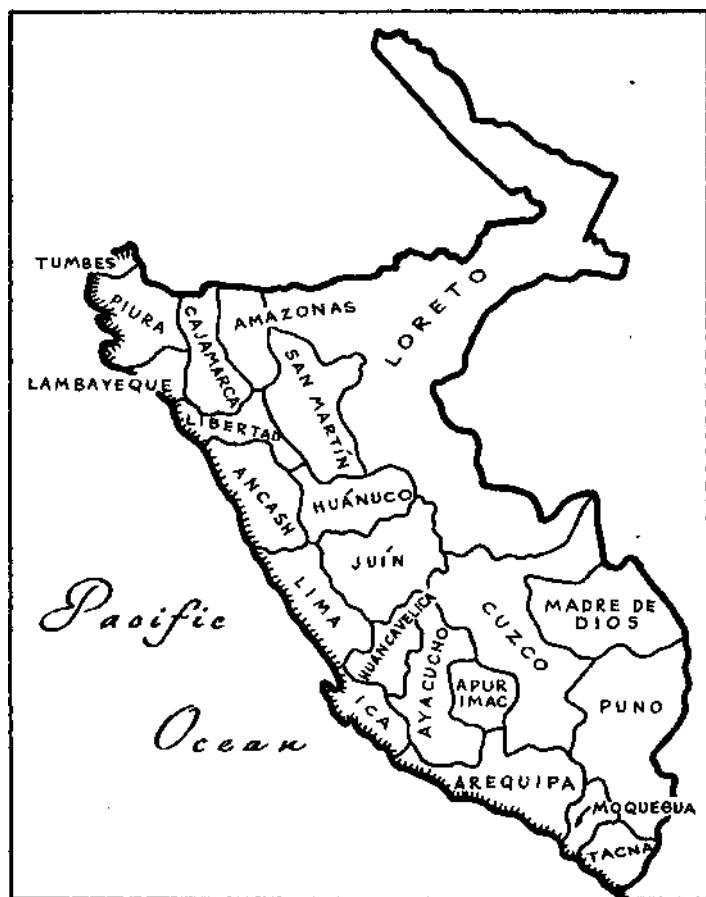
CONCEPCIO'N

SAN PEDRO

Political divisions of Paraguay

Paraguay: Political Development

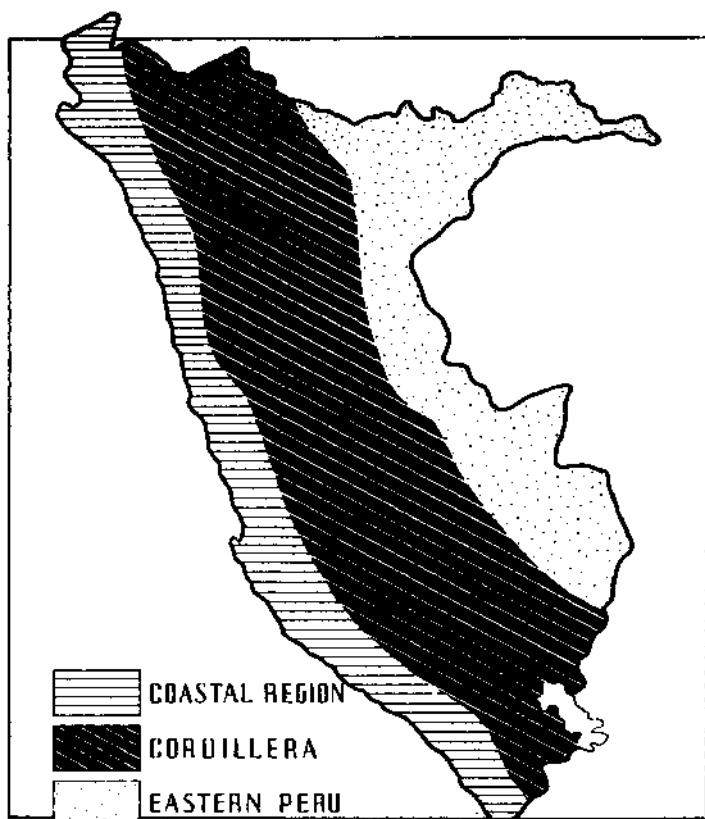
FOR three generations of her modern history Paraguay preserved a national seclusion not found elsewhere in Latin America. During that period her three paternal dictators guided her political, economic, social, and intellectual life in a manner impossible except in a hermit nation. But wars with neighbors exhausted the population and the national energy, and "backwardness" was the descriptive term that could be most accurately applied to Paraguay throughout the nineteenth and the early twentieth century. But in recent years, especially since the end of the Chaco War, the country has enjoyed a measure of prosperity and political stability.



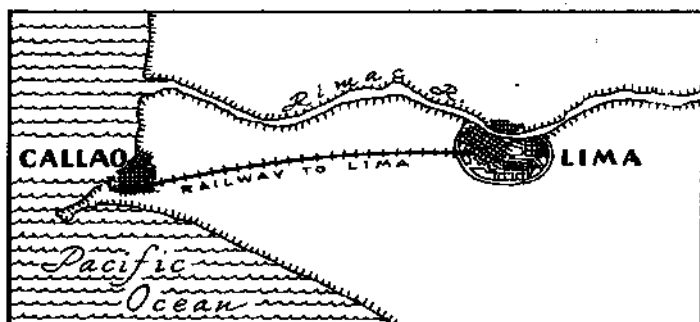
Political divisions of Peru

Peru: Political Development

PERU was the meeting place and battleground of Creole ideals and Spanish ideas, and its political transition from a colonial society to a modern state was a long and perilous one. The Peru that emerged from the revolutions for independence disappointed its liberator, and for two decades after its organization it was unable to reach a political equilibrium. Even in later years foreign disturbances and internal disorders made possible an unusual amount of personalism in politics. Ultimately, however, constitutional reforms and party coalitions brought comparative stability, and Peru began to emerge as one of the important South American states.



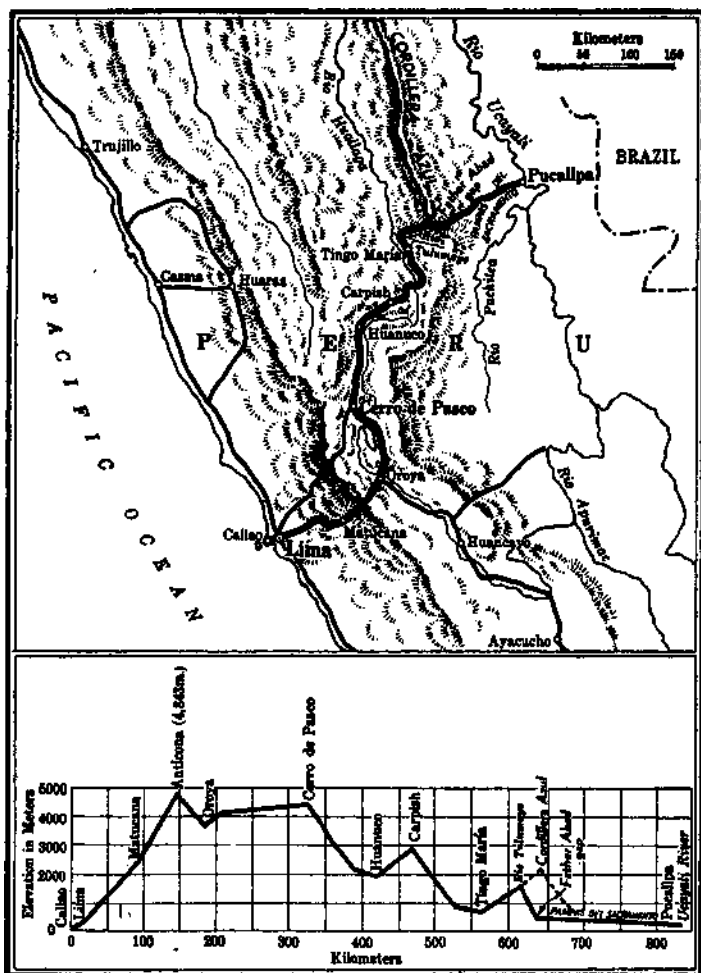
Geographical divisions of Peru



Lima and Callao in the nineteenth century

Peru: Geographical Regions

PERU is divided essentially into three parts, the coastal region, the high Andes mountains and plateaus, and the eastern lowland—which is largely jungle in character. Because of the differences in elevation, there are great differences in climate and products.



An example of highway building in Peru

Bulletin, Pan American Union, March, 1940. Map supplied by Miss Julia MacLean of the Pan American Union.

Peru: Transportation

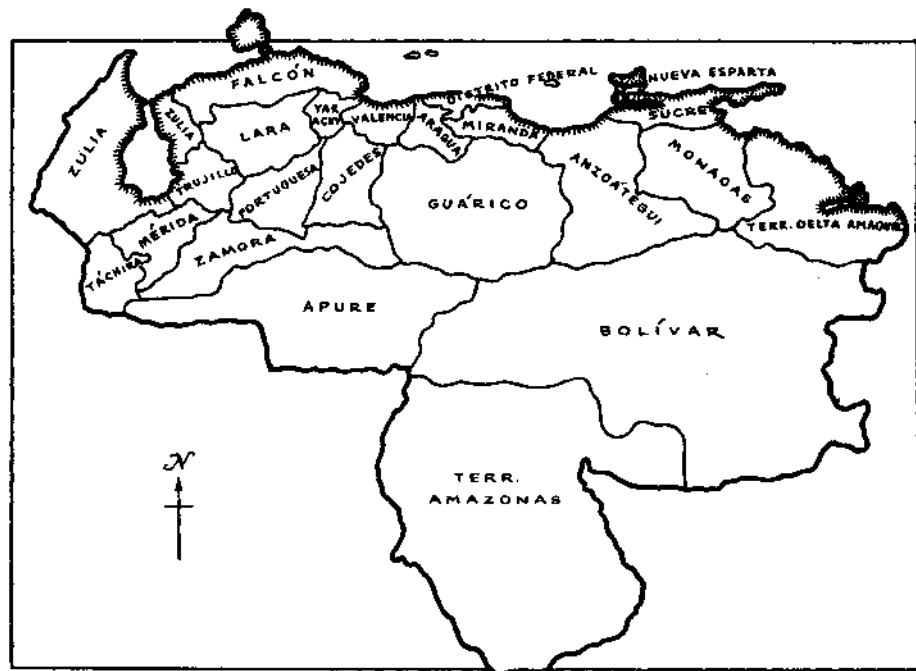
AN increasing amount of money is being spent in Peru upon the improvement of the transportation system. In 1937 there were 2,600 miles of railroad in operation, of which about half was owned by the government. Here and there short sections of improved highway have been constructed, but the topography makes traveling difficult and the cost of road building almost prohibitive in some sections. Recently a great deal of interest has been manifest in air transportation, and the country is now well served by airlines. The first air line was opened in 1928.



Political divisions in Uruguay
Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Uruguay: Political Development

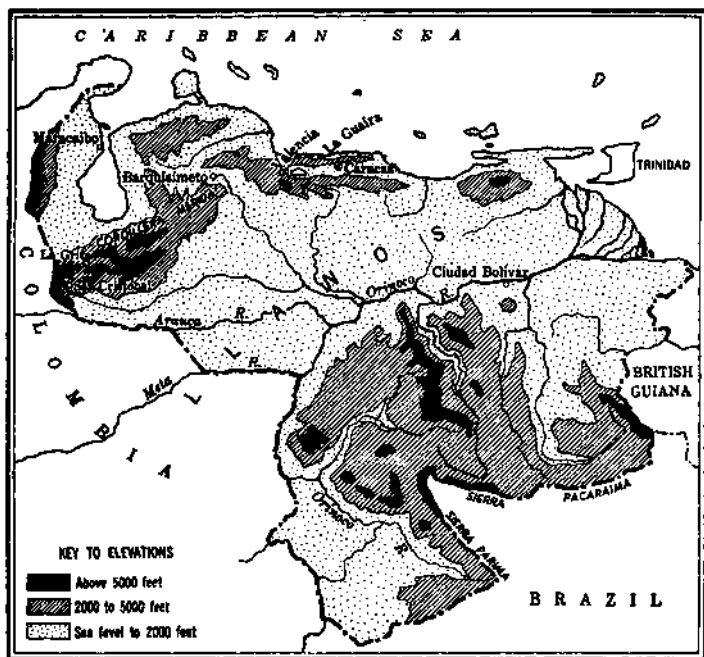
ALTHOUGH one of the smallest of the Latin American nations, Uruguay is today one of the most progressive. Its political history may be divided into four main periods. From 1811 to 1821, the Uruguayan people, under the leadership of Artigas, endeavored to establish an independent government of their own; from 1821 to 1828, the country was first under the Portuguese and Brazilian domination as the "Cisplatine Province," and later under the domination of Argentina; from 1828, when both Brazil and Argentina recognized the independence of Uruguay, until 1904, the country was in perpetual political chaos. Civil war ended during the presidency of Jose Batlle y Ordonez, who was able to enter into an agreement with his enemies (September 20, 1904). Since then the country has progressed very rapidly.



Political divisions of Venezuela

Venezuela: Political Development

VENEZUELA, as were Colombia and Ecuador, was a political offspring of Bolivar, but like many wayward children it was a disappointment to its parent. Dominated by three central figures, Paez, Guzmán Blanco, and Vicente Gómez, it has suffered from revolutionists, idealists, and dictators, and from a superfluity of constitutions. The established privileged class, forming the conservative element, has attempted to dominate the half-breed masses, the *llaneros*; and hence social differences have accentuated political friction. The result for the nation was chaotic politics, unstable and unsound finances, and intermittent social advancement, so that for a long time the state did not rank so high as it might have ranked among its neighbors.

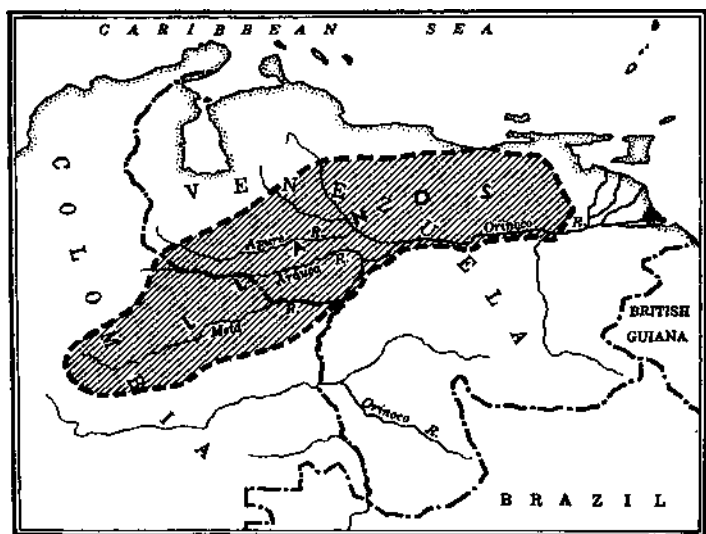


Physical map of Venezuela

Reproduced with permission from *Economic Geography of South America*, by R. H. Whitbeck, F. E. Williams, and W. F. Christians, published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 3rd ed., New York, 1940.

Venezuela: Topography and Climate

Two prongs of the Andes Mountains terminate in Venezuela, one on either side of Lake Maracaibo, while in the southern portion of the country are extensions of the older mountains of Brazil and the Guianas. Between these uplands are the great *llanos* flanking the Orinoco River. The topography gives Venezuela a variety of climates from temperate to tropical, and in consequence the country produces a wide variety of agricultural products.

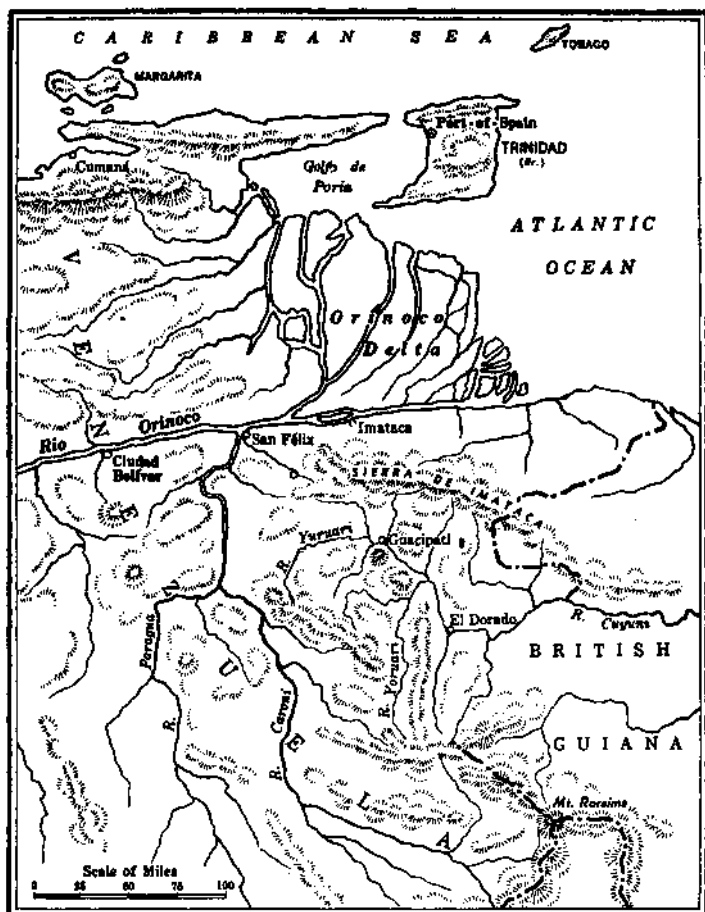


The llanos of Venezuela and Colombia

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Venezuela: The Llanos

THE open, grassy *llanos*, or plains, of Venezuela and Colombia provide a rich agricultural region and make possible the raising of millions of head of livestock, so that since colonial days the country has been rich in agricultural products. Like the people of the *pampas* of Argentina and of the great plains of the United States, the inhabitants of this region have been individuals of character and initiative, and their leaders have profoundly affected the political, economic, social, and cultural history of Venezuela, as well as of Colombia.



Delta of the Orinoco River

Courtesy of the Pan American Union.

Venezuela: The Orinoco River

THE Orinoco River is one of the great rivers of the world, and the third longest in Latin America. It is 1,450 miles long and it flows through much of the *llanos* section of Venezuela. In the rainy season the river is navigable for about 1,000 miles from the ocean. Its delta is a great region of tropical vegetation with comparatively few inhabitants.



Resources of the Americas

Latin America:

Products and Population

SINCE the economic life of Latin America is predominantly agricultural, or based upon agriculture, nearly every nation during the past fifty years has assumed an economic individuality with certain definite economic characteristics. Argentina and Uruguay, because of their lack of minerals and their abundant grasslands, have taken to stock raising and wheat growing. Brazil has become universally known as a coffee-producing country and supplies about 70 per cent of the world's coffee. Although many other products are grown, the national finances have usually reacted with the rise and fall in the price of that commodity, much as the financial fortunes of the South in the United States have followed the fluctuations of the cotton crop. Somewhat similar economic conditions have existed in Cuba, due to the specialization in sugar production. In Paraguay the widespread production of yerba mate has been an economic factor in the national life, while in Central American countries the banana has become the chief source of income. In many countries forest resources are being widely developed.

With an area of more than 8,000,000 square miles, Latin America embraces about one seventh of the total world area. But this vast region contains only about 4 per cent of the total population of the earth, or about 130,000,000 souls. Of these individuals, perhaps three fourths live along or near the borders of the continent. Great interior areas, perhaps one half of the whole of Latin America, have a population of less than one per square mile. These uninhabited, or nearly uninhabited, regions consist of extensive deserts, rugged mountain areas, or impenetrable and often unexplored jungle which, it can safely be said, will not be occupied until the pressure of population becomes several times greater.



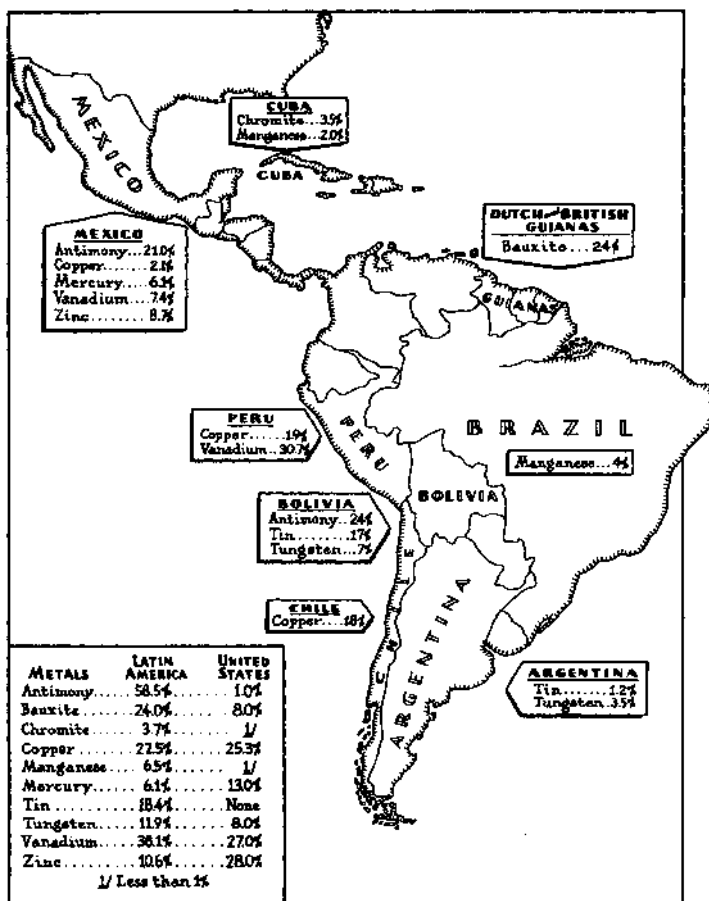
Fuel and power resources in Latin America

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc. Data from *Trade promotion series*, No. 126, United States Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington, D. C., 1931.

Latin America: Mineral Products and Manufacturing

IN minerals, Latin America is generally very poorly supplied. A great area in the heart of South America, almost the size of the United States, contains practically no known minerals. Most of the states are without coal and iron. In fact, the whole of South America produces only about one fifth as much coal as does Belgium. Mexico, with the greatest potential mineral wealth of any of the Latin American states, has thus far neglected to develop her resources fully. Even in regions once famous for gold and silver mines, production has either ceased or fallen off steadily. Among the states which, with the aid of foreign capital, have developed an economic individuality through minerals are Bolivia, which produces about one fourth of the world's tin; Peru, which mines about three fourths of the vanadium produced in the world; Chile, which supplies the world with 90 per cent of its iodine and ranks second in its production of copper; Venezuela, which ranks third in the production of the world's petroleum; Colombia, which produces much of the world's platinum and nearly all of the world's emeralds; and Mexico, which still produces about one third of the world's silver. Nevertheless, the total value of all the mineral products of South America is several times less than the value of the coal produced in England alone.

In none of the Latin American states has manufacturing been developed to anything approaching its maximum possibilities, although several of the states have developed an economic individuality along these lines, as, for example, Ecuador's manufacture of the Panama hat, and Mexico's production of certain ceramic and textile goods. The great states of Argentina and Brazil, lacking sufficient coal and iron, may never become leading manufacturing nations. Nevertheless, today in Argentina some 70 per cent of the manufactured products, largely controlled by meat packers, are from raw materials produced locally. Chile, with some iron and coal and a vast amount of potential hydroelectric power, may eventually become the leading manufacturing state of the southern continent. Mexico, likewise, with its tremendous mineral and agricultural resources, may become a leading manufacturing country if and when its handicraft economy is replaced by machine industrialism.

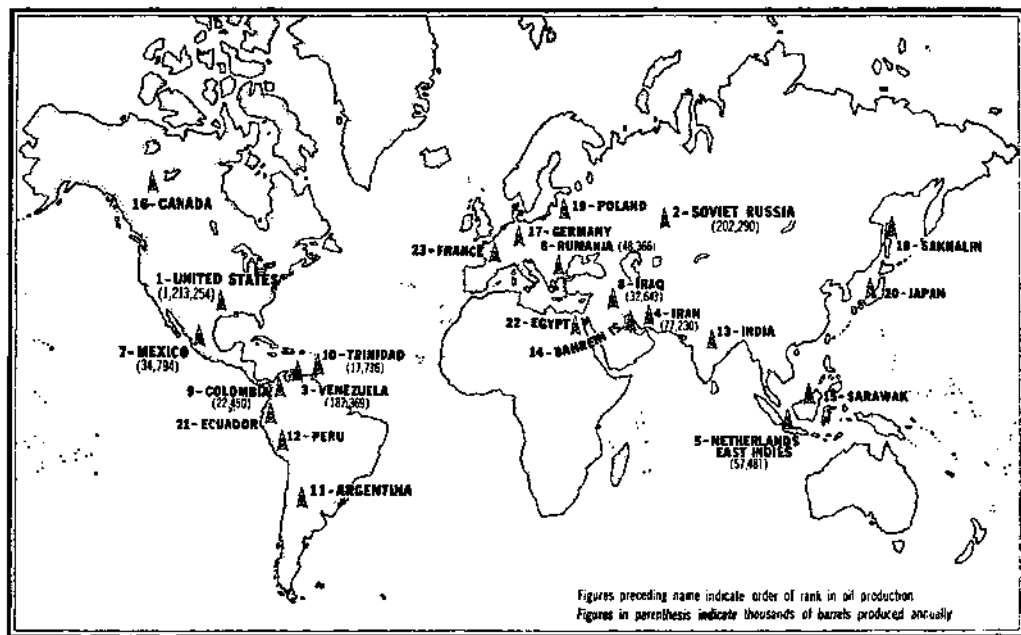


Principal sources of strategic metals in Latin America

Courtesy of Commercial Pan America, March, 1942 (redrawn).

Latin America: Strategic Metals

WITH the coming of the Second World War the United States, as well as Great Britain, has become increasingly aware of certain strategic mineral products of which Latin America produces important amounts. Especially since the United States entered the war in December, 1941, have these products become of significance for the continental defense and for certain manufacturing industries which enable the United States to carry the war into Asia and Europe. Since 1938, the last "normal" year, the amount of production of these items has been increased considerably, especially with the aid of United States capital supplied through lend-lease and the Export-Import Bank.

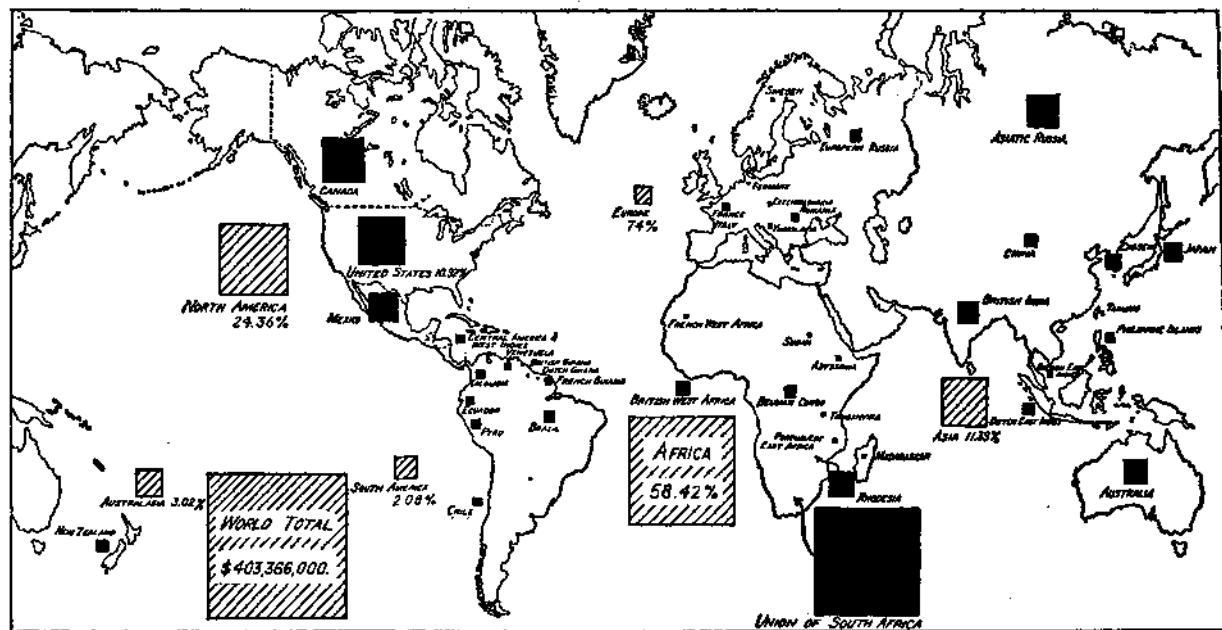


Principal oil-producing countries, 1939

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc. Map based on data from the *New York Times*, August 13, 1939.

Latin America: Oil Production

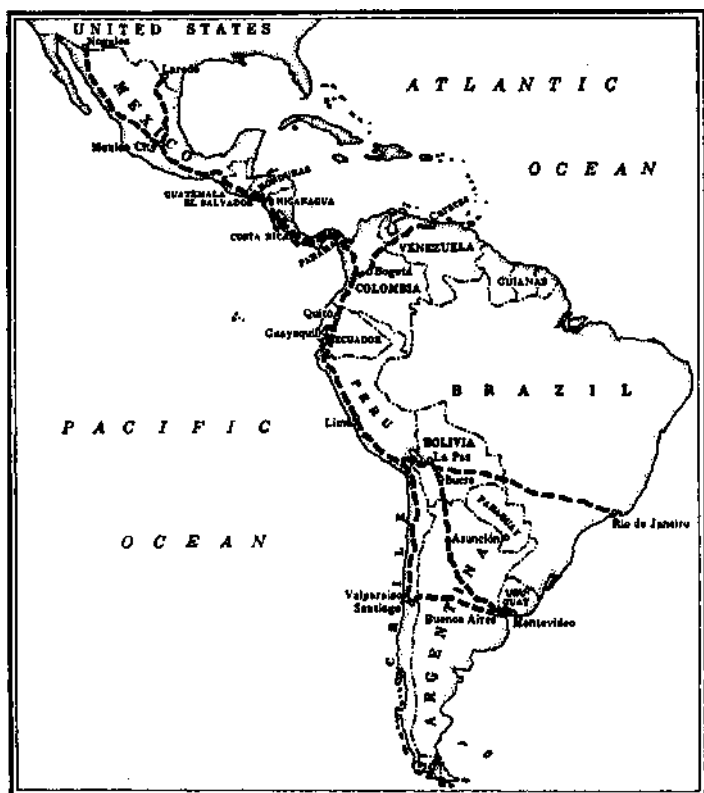
THE Western Hemisphere produces tremendous quantities of petroleum, with the United States, Venezuela, Mexico, and Colombia leading. However, many of the remaining states have some oil, and the search for new fields is almost continuous. Most of the oil resources are developed by foreign capital, especially from the United States.



Leading gold-producing nations and their output for 1929
Based on data and map in the *Literary Digest*, November 28, 1931.

Latin America: Gold Production

SINCE colonial days the countries of Latin America have produced gold, many of them in large quantities. In some sections of the Americas production has remained continuous, while in other regions the product appears to have been exhausted. Yet occasionally new fields are opened and a gold rush occurs.



The projected Pan American Highway
Courtesy of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

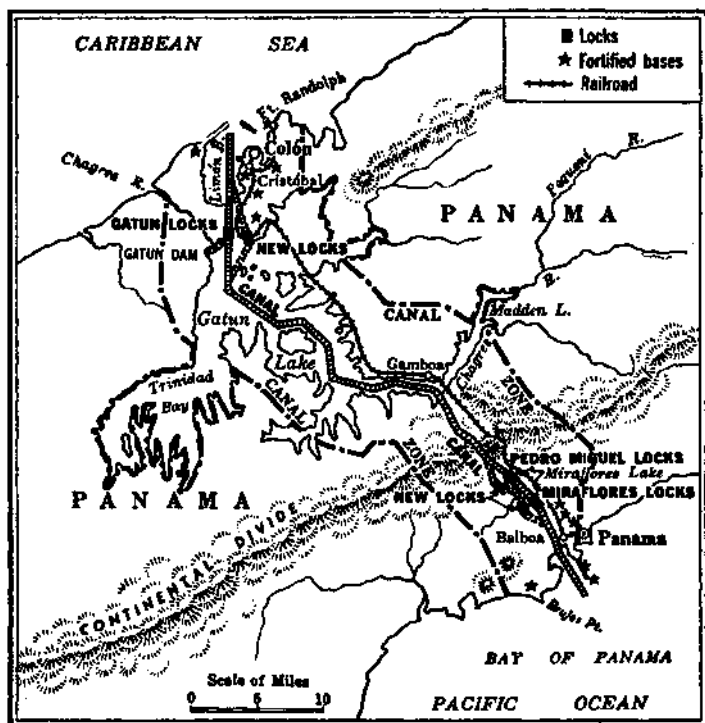
Latin America- The Pan American Highway Project

EVENTUALLY the Pan American Highway will extend from Alaska to Tierra del Fuego and will connect all the capital cities of the hemisphere. In Mexico and Central America, the road is about 60 per cent completed, while in South America about 76 per cent of the route is considered an all weather road. Recently there has been considerable thought given to connecting the highways of Cuba, especially, by automobile ferry with Florida and Yucatan.

South America:

The Pan American Highway

IN South America the cost per mile of constructing the Pan American Highway has varied greatly. In some countries, especially from Bolivia northward, the cost is almost prohibitive so far as the local governments are concerned. In consequence, foreign capital must be used to complete the road, since it is only as good as its weakest link.



Canal Zone, showing new locks and fortified bases

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

The Panama Canal: Its Acquisition and Construction

THE operations to dig a canal across Panama began in 1878. But the French company having the concession stopped the work in 1889 for lack of funds. In 1903, after the Spanish-American War had proved the necessity of a canal across the Isthmus, the United States government signed with Colombia a treaty (Hay-Herran) granting to the former a lease for ninety-nine years of a strip of land across the Isthmus in return for the payment of ten million dollars at once and an annual rent of a quarter of a million dollars. The treaty was ratified by the United States Senate but rejected by the Colombian Senate. The inhabitants of Panama were indignant and as a result on November 3, 1903, an insurrection broke out in Panama City and the independence of that province was declared. The United States intervened under the Treaty of 1846, preventing Colombian soldiers from using the railroad to cross from Colon to Panama City. A few days later President Roosevelt acknowledged the independence of Panama, despite the protests of Colombia.

By the end of February, 1904, the ratifications of the Hay-Bunau Varilla Treaty were exchanged and the treaty went into effect. This agreement gave the United States the right to build a canal across the Isthmus on a strip of land leased in perpetuity, in return for the payment of ten million dollars at once and a quarter of a million dollars as annual rental. Under one of its provisions the United States guaranteed Panama's independence and assumed the maintenance of public order in the country. A similar provision was included in the constitution of Panama (Article 136). This has led to repeated intervention in that country on the part of the United States. The canal was begun in 1904 and completed ten years later.



The proposed Nicaraguan canal and the Panama Canal compared
Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

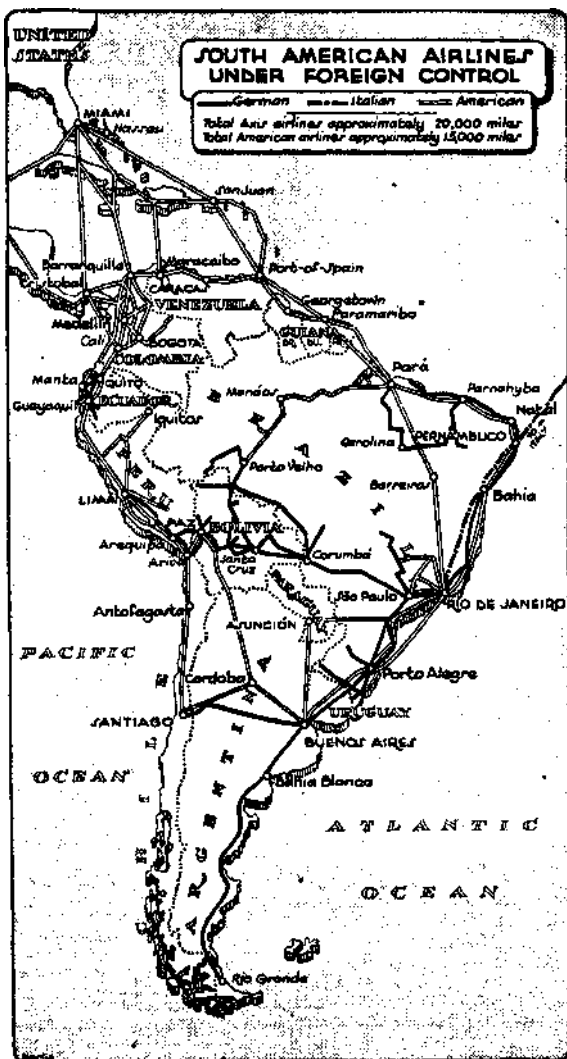
The Proposed Nicaraguan Canal: Negotiation and Plans

ON April 19, 1850, the United States and England signed what was known as the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty for a canal route through Nicaragua which provided that neither party should have exclusive control of the route and that no fortifications should be erected. This treaty lasted until 1901.

On June 21, 1867, the United States and Nicaragua signed a treaty which gave the former country the right of transit in any form across that Central American state, and the United States guaranteed the neutrality of the route. The canal, if constructed, was to be neutral.

In 1899 Secretary Hay began negotiations for a new treaty with England to replace that of 1850, and in February, 1900, the first draft of the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty was signed, providing for a neutral canal to be built by the United States. But the Senate amended the treaty, and in its new form (signed November 18, 1901) it was known as the Second Hay-Pauncefote Treaty. This provided that the Clayton-Bulwer agreement of 1850 should be abrogated and that the United States should build a canal and police the route.

In 1895 and in 1897 American engineers had surveyed the Nicaraguan route and reported favorably upon it. In 1899 the Walker Commission was authorized, which was to survey thoroughly all feasible canal sites. In the meantime at Washington, lobbyists for one route or the other were busy trying to influence Congress. In November the Walker Commission reported in favor of the Nicaraguan route, and a bill (called the Spooner Act) was introduced which passed the House in January, 1902, providing for the construction of a canal in Nicaragua. But in the same month the Walker Commission made a new recommendation that the Panama route be used, since the French Canal Company offered to sell out for \$40,000,000. In June, 1902, a bill passed the United States Congress authorizing the president to acquire the right of the French Company at the price stated to obtain from Colombia a strip of land in perpetuity six miles wide across the isthmus for the purpose of a canal which should be commenced immediately.



South American airlines under foreign control, April, 1941

Courtesy of the New York Times, April 27, 1941.

South America: Foreign Airlines

T H E Second World War called to the attention of the American nations the important part played in Latin American life by the Axis airways in the hemisphere. Many of these lines were manned by military pilots and all were subsidized by their governments. In some cases they competed with Pan American Airways, but in many instances the lines were short and often in regions of strategic military importance. As continental co-operation among the American states increased, steps were taken by the local governments, with the aid and encouragement of the United States government, first to restrict the activities of these foreign airlines and then to abolish them. By the end of 1942 all the foreign lines had been put out of commission for the duration of the war at least.

PART SEVEN

**Latin American Boundary
Controversies**





Territorial expansion of Brazil through boundary settlements

Reproduced with permission from *History of Latin America*, by Hutton Webster, published by D. C. Heath and Co., Boston, 1924.

The Expansion of Brazil

THE settlement of the boundaries between the various Latin American countries has been the cause of considerable dispute between the countries involved and has even led to war in several cases. At the time of independence, no definite boundaries existed between the various Spanish colonies in America or between these and the Portuguese colony of Brazil. The patriot governments agreed to accept in principle the *uti possidetis* of 1810 in their future negotiations for the settlement of the boundaries of their respective territories. But the interpretation of this provision was not always an easy one.

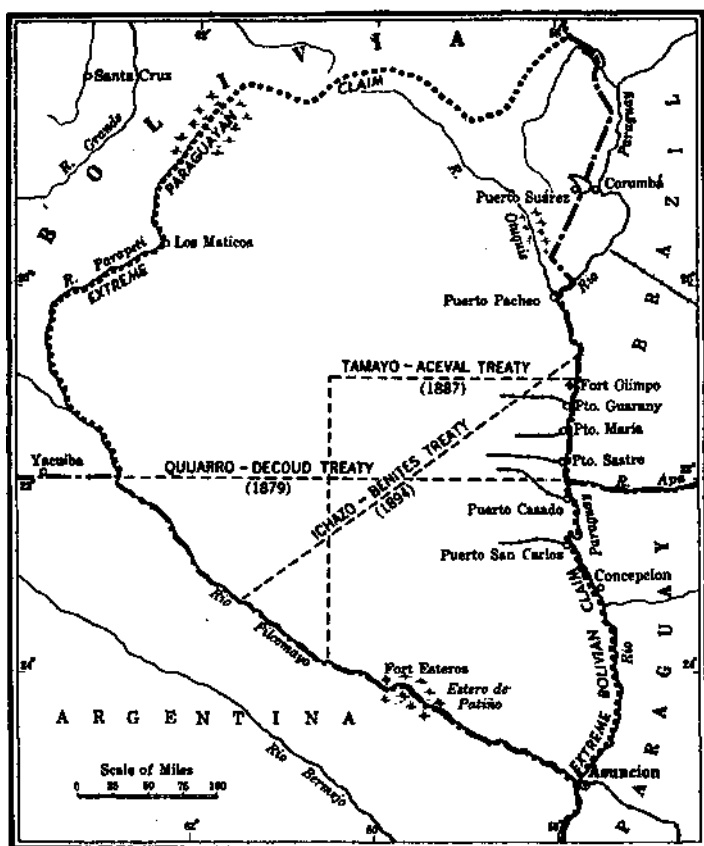


Territorial cessions to Argentina and Brazil following the Paraguayan War

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

The Paraguayan War

The Paraguayan war lasted from 1864 to 1870 because of the determined resistance of the Paraguayan people and the strategic advantages of Paraguay. The brunt of the war fell on Brazil. Despite jealousy and lack of co-operation between the allied commanders, the Paraguayan defenses were gradually broken down. On June 11, 1865, the Paraguayan fleet was destroyed in the Battle of Riachuelo. Then slowly the allied troops under the general command of President Mitre of Argentina advanced into Paraguayan territory. On February 19, 1868, the Brazilian fleet forced the dangerous passage of Humaita on the Paraguay River. The fortresses of Humaita fell a few months later. In 1868 General Mitre left the command of the allied forces in the hands of the Brazilian, Baron of Caxias, who on January 2, 1869, entered Asunción at the head of the Brazilian-Argentine-Uruguayan troops. The Paraguayan dictator, Lopez, withdrew toward the north. On March 1, 1870, he was attacked near Cerro Cora and killed. The war ended with his death. This conflict, one of the bloodiest ever fought in the Western Hemisphere, lasted six years, and reduced the population of Paraguay to about half.



The Paraguay-Bolivia boundary dispute

Courtesy of the American Geographical Society of New York.

The Chaco War

between Paraguay and Bolivia

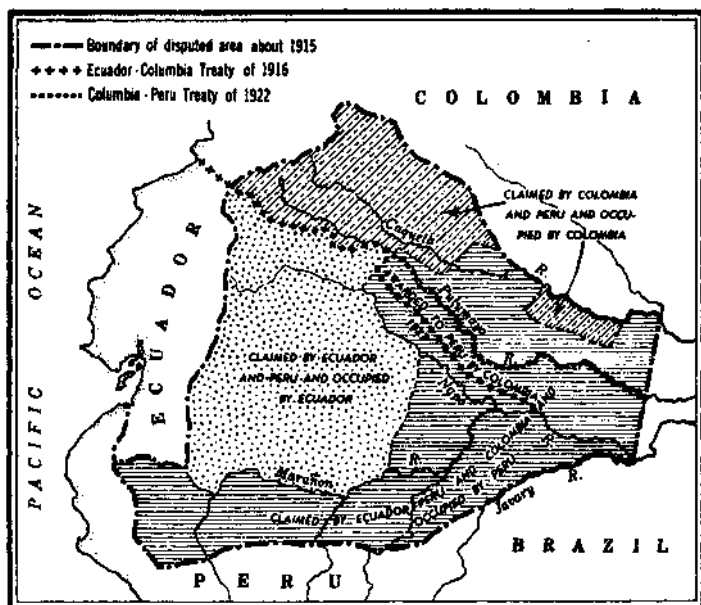
A TREATY of Limits signed in 1879 between Paraguay and Bolivia provided that the boundary between the two countries should be a line due west from the mouth of the Apa River to the Pilcomayo River; but this agreement was not ratified. In 1887 another treaty was signed more favorable to Paraguay; but this also was rejected. In 1927, at the invitation of Argentina, delegates from both nations met in Buenos Aires to discuss the matter. Unfortunately, in December, 1928, a clash between soldiers of the two nations led to a break in diplomatic relations between the two countries. Preparations for war followed. Despite all efforts of the other American nations and of the League of Nations to prevent an armed conflict, war broke out in all seriousness by the middle of 1932. The following year Paraguay declared war, intending to bring into play against Bolivia an embargo of armament sales from the neutrals. But Bolivia continued to purchase armament in Chile, which led to a protest and the breaking of diplomatic relations between Paraguay and Chile.



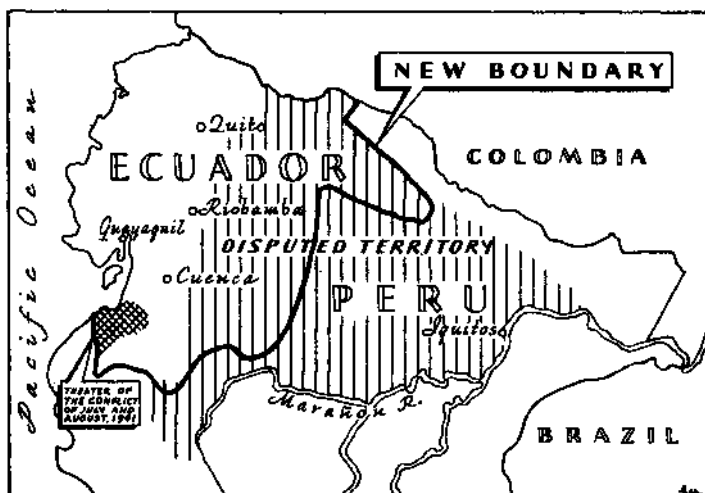
Boundary line between Bolivia and Paraguay fixed by the arbitral award of October 10, 1938
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Settlement of the Paraguay-Bolivia Dispute

IN 1933 the Inter-American Conference meeting at Montevideo secured the signing of a truce between Paraguay and Bolivia. Another truce was agreed upon in the middle of 1935. In August, 1937, the two countries renewed diplomatic relations. Finally on July 9, 1938, a treaty of peace and friendship was signed by the two countries at Buenos Aires, ending the conflict. This was due, in great measure, to the constant efforts of the six neutral delegates to the Chaco Peace Conference, representing Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Peru, the United States, and Uruguay. The treaty provided for the arbitration of the boundary between the sixty-second meridian and the Paraguay River. On October 10, 1938, the Arbitral College, made up of delegates of the same countries, rendered its decision, which was accepted by the two parties.



Boundary disputes of Ecuador
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

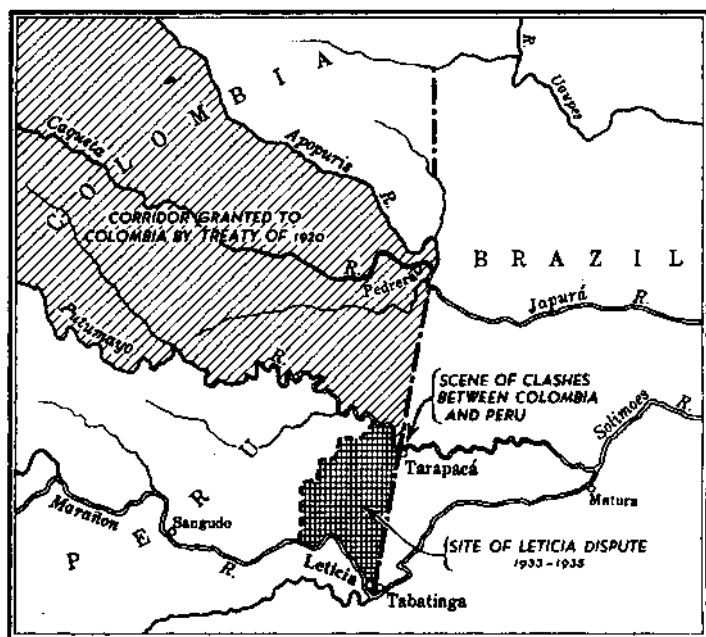


The Peru-Ecuador boundary dispute, 1941-1942

The Problem of Ecuador's Boundaries

ECUADOR AND COLOMBIA signed a treaty of limits in 1916 ending their long dispute over the boundary in the eastern section. Colombia also settled her dispute with Peru in 1922.

Ecuador and Peru signed boundary treaties in 1860, 1887, and 1890. In 1934 the two countries requested permission to send delegates to Washington to discuss the boundary question. In 1936 the two countries also signed a protocol, providing for the submission of their dispute to the arbitration of the President of the United States in case they could not reach a satisfactory agreement by direct negotiation. However, armed conflict occurred in 1941, but a settlement was effected at the Rio de Janeiro Conference of Foreign Ministers in January, 1942.



The Peru-Colombia boundary dispute

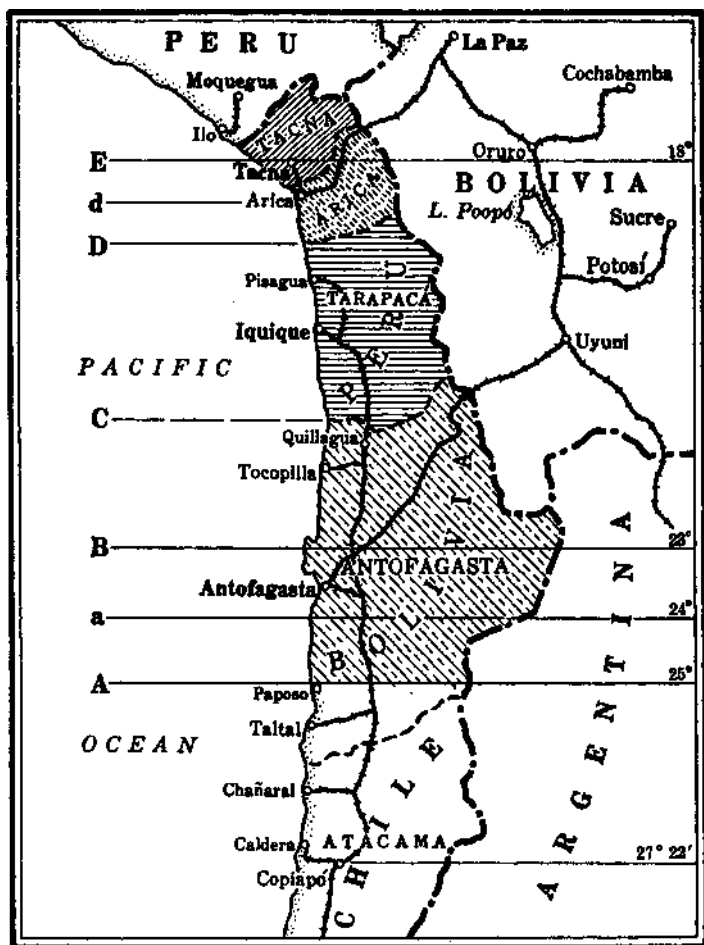
Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

The Problem of Leticia between Colombia and Peru

IN 1922 Colombia and Peru signed the Salomon-Lozano Treaty, which was not finally executed until 1930, to settle definitely their long-standing boundary dispute. In the midst of the territory considered by this treaty was the little hamlet of Leticia, 2,500 miles up the Amazon, which passed into the hands of Colombia. Suddenly, on the night of September 1, 1932, a group of armed Peruvians seized this village, declaring that it had been against the national interests to cede it to Colombia. The government of the latter country immediately demanded the evacuation of the region by Peru, and took the stand that the whole question was a domestic rather than an international one. At the same time Peru appealed to the Permanent Arbitration Commission at Washington to investigate the difficulty. Both countries meanwhile armed themselves for a long conflict. Thereupon Brazil in January, 1933, offered to mediate between the states, but no basis for mediation could be agreed upon.

On January 23 Colombia appealed to the American signers of the antiwar pact, while Peru at the same time appealed to the League of Nations. On February 17 Colombia appealed to the League under Article 15 of the Covenant. As a result, on February 21 the Council of the League turned over this new problem to its committee which was investigating the Chaco dispute. On February 25 this committee recommended that the League take over the disputed territory until negotiations between the belligerents should result in a permanent and just settlement. The United States concurred in this recommendation instead of invoking the Monroe Doctrine as many expected it would do. On May 25, 1933, representatives of Colombia and Peru at Geneva accepted the League's recommendations, and hostilities between the two countries ceased. A special commission of the League, composed of a United States citizen, a Brazilian, and a Spaniard, then proceeded in July, 1933, to South America to study the problem firsthand.

On May 19, 1934, the two countries agreed to accept the so-called Brazilian Formula drafted by Mello Franco, foreign minister of Brazil. Ratifications were finally exchanged on September 27, 1935. The agreement recognizes the boundary fixed by treaty on March 24, 1922, and ratified January 23, 1928.



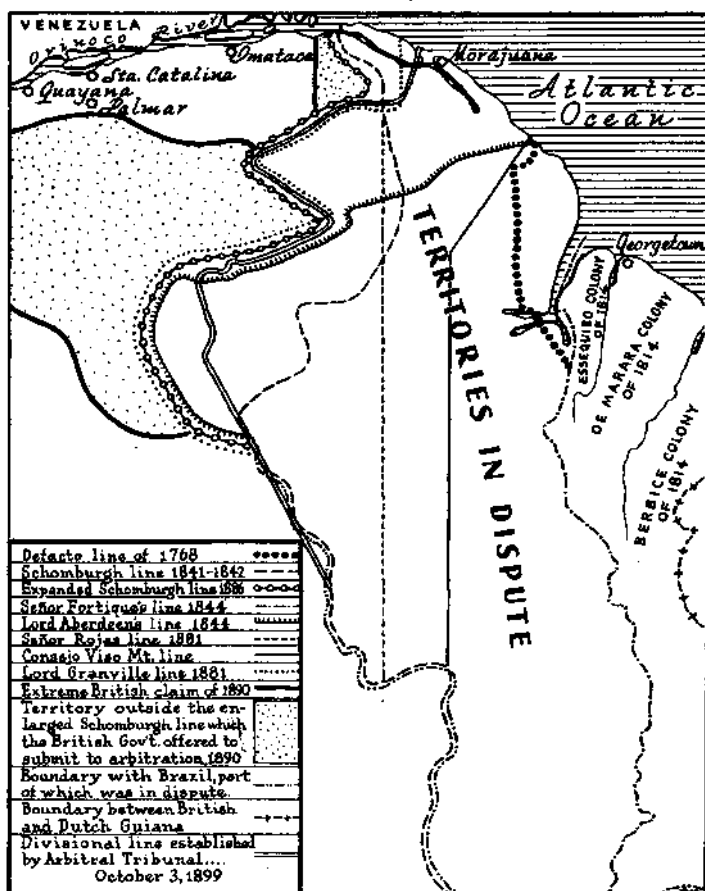
Chilean expansion northward

A. Original Chile-Bolivian boundary; B. Claimed by Chile in 1842; a. Established by treaty in 1866, but in A-B nitrate revenues were divided equally; C. Original Peru-Bolivian boundary; D. Boundary of Chile as a result of the War of the Pacific, 1883, with D-E to be occupied by Chile ten years; d. Chile-Peruvian boundary by settlement of 1929.

Reproduced with permission from *Tocna and Arica*, by W. J. Dennis, published by Yale University Press, New Haven, 1931.

The War of the Pacific and the Boundary Settlement

THE Treaty of Anc6n (1883), which ended the War of the Pacific, gave rise to long controversy between Peru and Chile, known as the Question of the Pacific, which was not settled until 1929. One of its provisions declared that the province of Tarapaca was to be ceded by Peru to Chile in perpetuity; the province of Tacna was to be occupied by Chile for ten years, and at the end of that period a plebiscite was to decide to which of the two nations it would belong. The country receiving the province would pay the other ten million pesos. In 1898 an agreement was signed (Billinghurst-Latorre) whereby the question of whether the plebiscite should be held or not was to be submitted to the arbitration of the Spanish crown. This agreement was not ratified by Chile, and Tacna continued to be governed by Chilean authorities. In 1910 Peru severed diplomatic relations with Chile. Twelve years later the two governments accepted the mediation of the United States and decided to submit the question of the plebiscite to the arbitration of the President of the United States. President Coolidge, in 1925, decided that a plebiscite should be held; but it was not possible to hold it, because of the unrest which prevailed in the disputed area. Diplomatic relations having been re-established in 1928 at the suggestion of Secretary Kellogg, the following year a plan was adopted by the two countries whereby Chile was to receive the province of Arica and Peru that of Tacna. Chile further agreed to pay to Peru six million dollars and to build port facilities in Arica for Peru. The treaty was ratified on July 28, 1929.

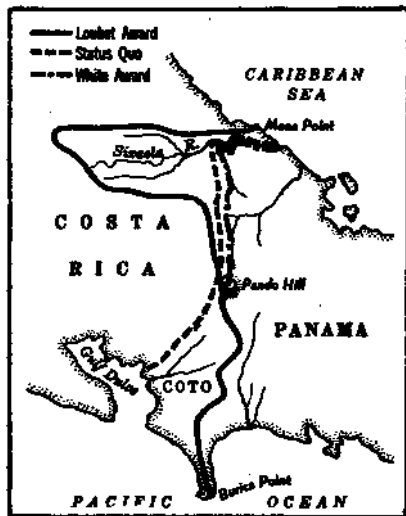


The Venezuelan controversy with Great Britain

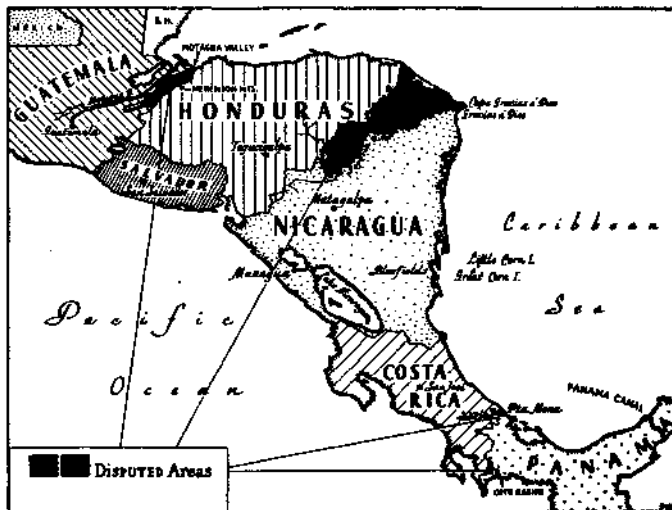
The Venezuela-British Guiana Boundary Dispute

PREVIOUS to 1814 the Dutch had settled on the Essequibo River and the Spaniards on the Orinoco, but no line of demarcation had been drawn between them, and when in 1814 the Dutch ceded western Guiana to England the indefinite boundary went with the region. When Venezuela declared her independence and assumed jurisdiction over her territory, the question of her boundary became an important one. Both states desired as much of the land as could be obtained and extended their claims as far as possible, England asserting her claim to the region north of the Orinoco River, and Venezuela claiming the territory north of the Essequibo. In 1835 the German-English surveyor and naturalist, Robert Hermann Schomburgh, began to lay out a boundary line west of the Essequibo River, but in 1841 Venezuela protested against this action, and the line was removed. However, the following year the English claimed territory even farther to the westward. Finally in 1850 each state agreed to remain outside of the disputed territory. Nevertheless, violations of this arrangement occurred almost immediately, in part because of the discovery of gold deposits in the mutually claimed region. By 1885 England asserted her right to some 76,000 square miles of land, and in the next year increased her claim to 109,000 square miles.

In 1876 Venezuela appealed to the United States to lend her moral support in settling the difficulty, and in 1882 the latter offered to arbitrate the question, but nothing came of the matter. Finally, on February 20, 1887, Venezuela broke off diplomatic relations with England, and in the following May Venezuela's minister in Washington appealed to the United States to use her influence in having the question arbitrated. In 1895 President Cleveland pressed for a settlement of the boundary controversy, and in 1899 an arbitral tribunal met in Paris and handed down a decision mainly favorable to England but giving Venezuela the mouth of the Orinoco River.



Costa Rica-Panama boundary dispute
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.



Boundary disputes in Central America

Some Central American Boundary Disputes

THE Central American countries have submitted several of their boundary disputes to arbitration as follows: Honduras with El Salvador in 1880; Costa Rica and Colombia in 1880; Costa Rica with Nicaragua in 1886 and 1896; Honduras and El Salvador in 1886; Guatemala with Mexico in 1892; Honduras with Nicaragua in 1894; Honduras with Guatemala in 1895; Honduras with El Salvador in 1895; Nicaragua with Honduras in 1904; and Costa Rica with Panama in 1910. The boundaries between Guatemala and Honduras, between Honduras and Nicaragua, and between Costa Rica and Panama remain unsettled.

The United States War with Mexico

IN December, 1845, Texas had become a state in the American Union and President Polk of the United States had sent an army to the region of the Rio Grande del Norte under the command of General Taylor. There, on April 26, 1846, the American and Mexican forces clashed. The incident gave President Polk the opportunity, for which he had been waiting, to declare to the American Congress that a state of war already existed between the two nations.

In the war that ensued Mexico had little chance of victory. The country was divided by political strife, her financial and economic forces were disrupted, and her army was poorly equipped. The American forces, despite the valiant resistance of the Mexicans at certain points, were rapidly able to occupy northern Mexico and later to invade the central region by way of Vera Cruz. Santa Anna, who had been returned to Mexico on an American man-of-war under the persuasion that he would put an end to the war, revived the Mexican hopes of victory and was elected provisional president (December, 1846). As the head of the national armies, he blundered and was defeated by General Winfield Scott. The latter entered the Mexican capital at the head of the American forces on September 14, 1847.

Meanwhile, an American army had also seized Alta California. Helpless, Mexico accepted peace terms dictated by the United States. The treaty of peace was signed at Guadalupe-Hidalgo on February 2, 1848, Mexico ceding Texas, New Mexico, and Alta California to the United States in exchange for payment by the United States of an indemnity of fifteen million dollars. The United States also agreed to pay any claims against Mexico by American citizens to the amount of three and one-quarter million dollars. As a result of this war Mexico lost more than half of its national territory.

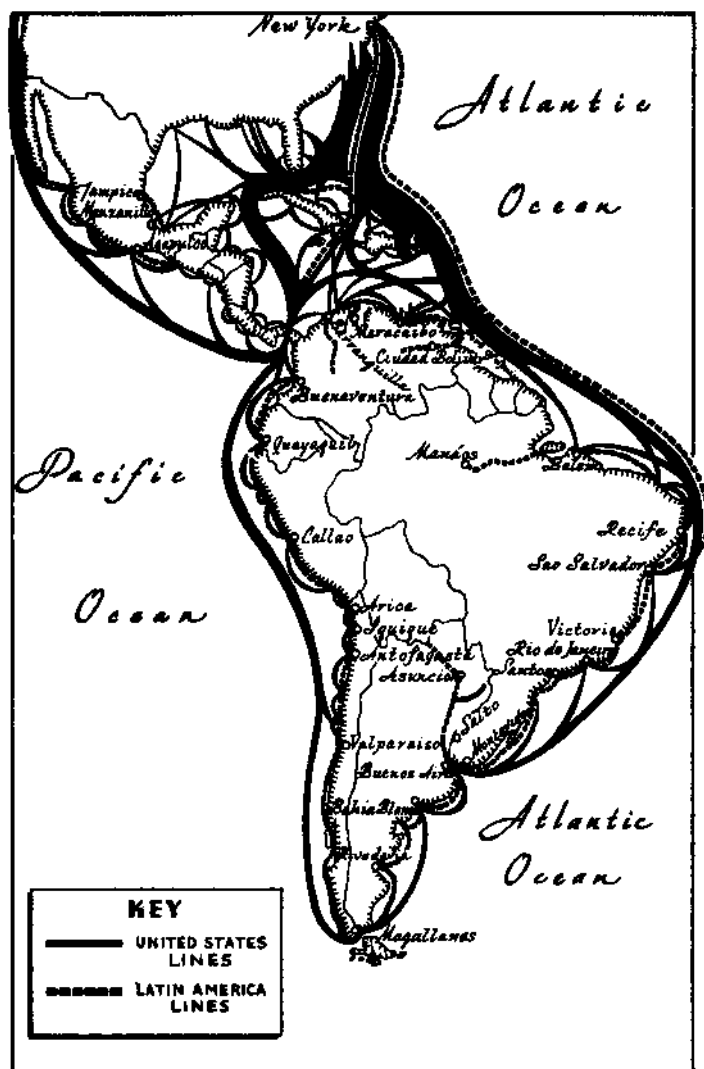
PART EIGHT

**Latin American Relations
with the United States
and Europe**

Latin American Air Connections with Europe and the United States

BOTH France and Germany competed in the establishment of transatlantic air communication with Latin America in the past few years. France established a combined air and steamship passenger and mail service to the east coast of South America, while Germany began in 1932 a regular Zeppelin and sea plane service to the same region. The former organization was known as the French Aeropostale Company, and the latter as the German Luft-hansa Company. On February 3, 1934, the German company began a five-day schedule to Rio de Janeiro by plane which operated fortnightly on alternate weeks with the "Graf Zeppelin" service. During the summer of 1934 this time was cut to three and a half days from Berlin and Paris to Rio de Janeiro. In December, 1934, the Dutch Airlines inaugurated air service by way of the Cape Verde Islands to Dutch Guiana. This route connected with Pan American Airways to all points which they serve.

Italy too became interested in air communication with Latin America, and on December 23, 1940, established a line (the L. A. T. I.) from Rome to Rio de Janeiro via Seville, the Portuguese Cape Verde Islands, and Natal or Recife in Brazil. For a time, after the beginning of the Second World War, this was the only Axis connection with South America.



Principal shipping lanes between Latin America and the United States

Latin American Shipping Connections with the United States

IN normal times, despite the Panama Canal, a great bulk of shipping between the United States and South America is in **the** Atlantic Ocean. Formally it was difficult for passengers, especially, to go from the eastern seaboard of the United States direct to South American ports. The most satisfactory routes were via Europe and European lines. But since the First World War this situation has been remedied and tourist traffic from the United States has increased rapidly with all parts of Latin America.

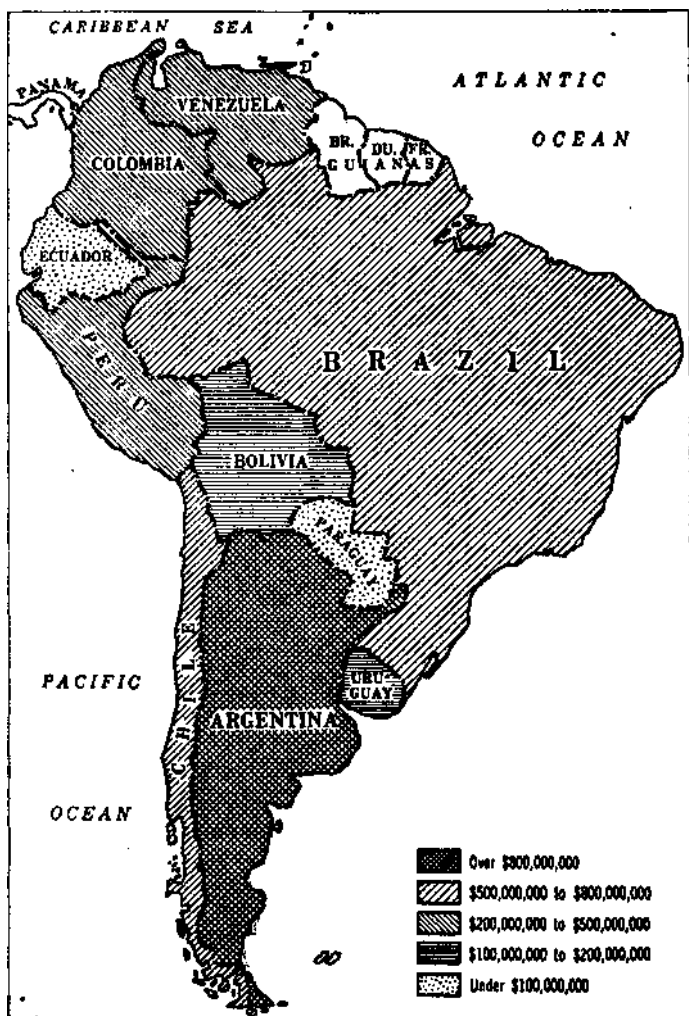


Reciprocal trade agreements between the United States and Latin America, May, 1942

Latin American Trade Agreements with the United States

FOR many years the peoples of Latin America complained against our highly protective and frequently prohibitive tariff barriers. They resented our highhanded sales tactics and felt that this was an exceedingly vicious form of imperialism. The coming of the depression in 1929 necessarily changed the attitude of the United States somewhat, and with the development of the Good Neighbor policy a system of trade agreements was substituted for tariffs. This project of Secretary of State Hull bore fruit in numerous ways and it became the chief instrument of United States commercial policy. It is based on his reciprocal trade program in which reciprocal trade agreements, containing most-favored-nation clauses, have been arranged with fifteen countries of Latin America as follows:

<i>Country</i>	<i>Date signed</i>	<i>Date effective</i>
Cuba	August 24, 1934	September 3, 1934
Haiti	March 28, 1935	June 3, 1935
Brazil	February 2, 1935	January 1, 1936
Honduras	December 18, 1935	March 2, 1936
Colombia	September 13, 1935	May 20, 1936
Guatemala	April 24, 1936	June 15, 1936
Nicaragua	March 11, 1936	October 1, 1936
El Salvador	February 19, 1937	May 31, 1937
Costa Rica	November 28, 1936	August 2, 1937
Ecuador	August 6, 1938	October 23, 1938
Venezuela	November 6, 1939	December 16, 1939
Cuba (Supplementary 1)	December 18, 1939	December 23, 1939
Argentina	October 14, 1941	November 15, 1941
Cuba (Supplementary 2)	December 23, 1941	January 5, 1942
Peru	May 7, 1942	July 29, 1942
Uruguay	July 21, 1942	January 1, 1943
Mexico	December 23, 1942	January 30, 1943

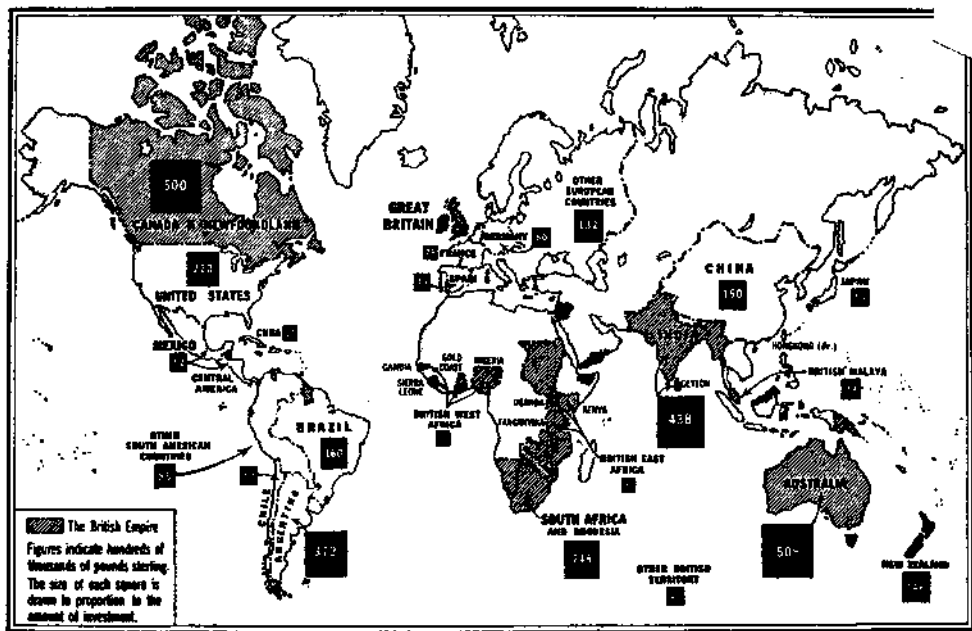


Approximate United States investments in South America during the World Depression

Reproduced with permission from the *New York Times*, March 13, 1932.

Latin America: United States Investments

ALONG with an increase in trade in Latin America has gone an increase in the interest of United States capital in Latin American enterprises. In 1913 United States investments in South America amounted to only \$100 000,000, with an equal amount invested in Cuba and \$1,050,000,000 invested in Mexico. From this period on, investments in Latin America increased rapidly, especially in the financing of mining enterprises, the building of railroads and telegraph and telephone lines, and the construction of power plants. Between 1916 and 1924 large sums were invested in Chilean copper mines and in the mines of Peru. There also followed huge investments in petroleum in Colombia, Venezuela, Peru, Ecuador, and Bolivia. American capital also made investments in the development of tin in Bolivia and the production of sugar in Cuba as well as in various Mexican enterprises. But the Depression of the 1930's brought a slackening of interest in Latin American affairs on the part of American industrialists. By the beginning of 1942 United States long-term investments in Latin America equaled some \$4,050,000,000, or 37 per cent of all United States investments abroad.



British investments in Latin America compared with those in other parts of the world (1939)

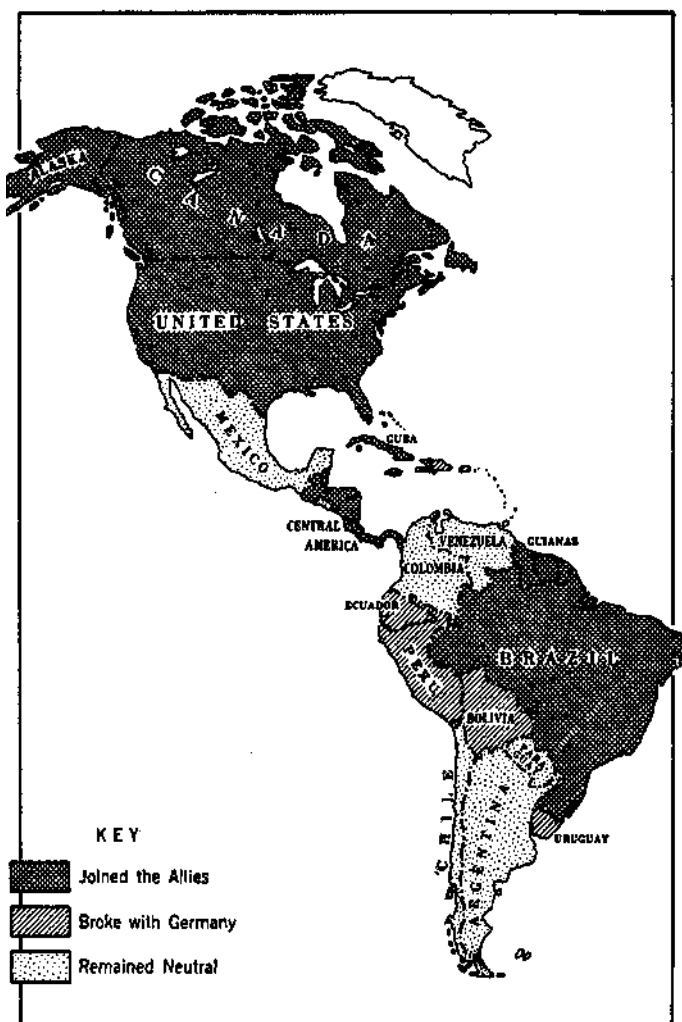
Reproduced with permission from the *New York Times*, June 25, 1939.

Latin America: British Investments

DESPITE the first World War and its aftermath, Great Britain managed to maintain her economic position in Latin America. Her investments were nearly a billion pounds sterling in 1913 and £1,139,659,470 in 1925. She purchased almost 21 per cent of Latin America's exports in 1913 and about 18 per cent in 1925, while she furnished nearly 24 per cent of Latin America's imports in the former year and a little less than 18 per cent in the latter. Great Britain's Latin American trade was valued at \$897,000,000 in 1924. In 1929 and 1930 the British made a vigorous effort to increase their trade with Latin America. By 1933 their share of this trade increased from 14.9 per cent in 1929 to 18.1 per cent. Later, however, trade between Great Britain and Latin America consistently declined until Latin American purchases in Britain were only 10.5 per cent (about \$140,000,000) of their total value.

Among the Latin American countries, Argentina has consistently been the best customer for British manufactured goods, except during the period of the First World War and thereafter until about 1930, and again during the new European conflict. On the other hand the United Kingdom has remained dependent upon Argentina for nearly half of its consumption of fresh beef.

British investments in Argentina amounted to approximately two billion dollars before the Second World War. Total British investments in Latin America were estimated at approximately five and a half billions of dollars.



The Western Hemisphere and the World War of 1914-1918

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.

Latin America and the First World War

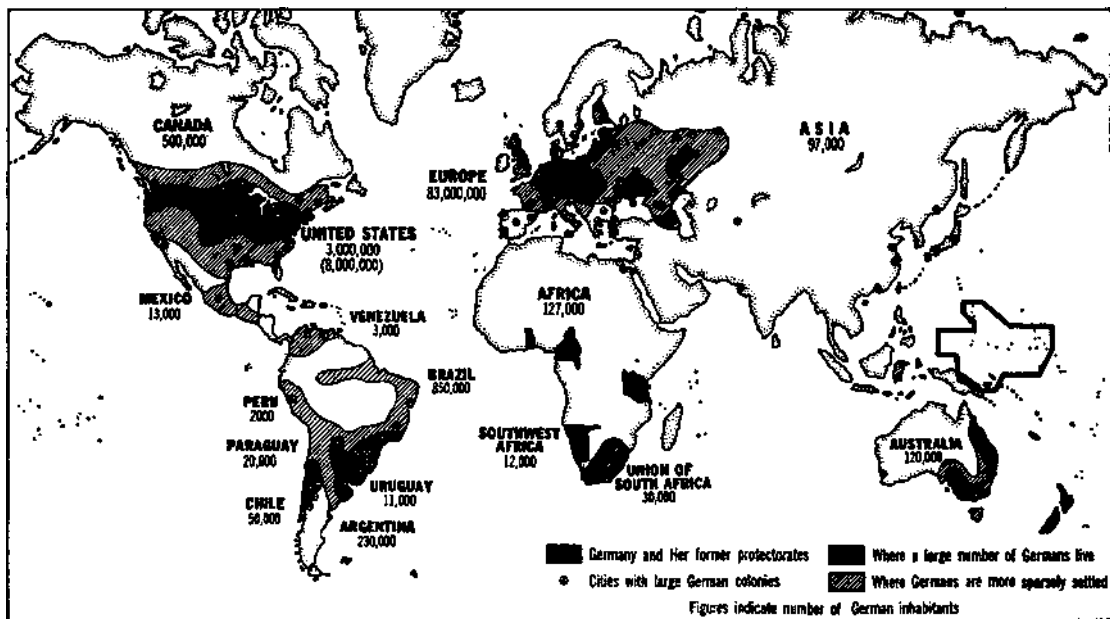
DURING the First World War, eight Latin American nations joined the Allies in declaring war against Germany, on the following dates: Brazil, on October 26, 1917; Costa Rica, on May 23, 1918; Cuba, on April 7, 1917; Guatemala, on April 23, 1918; Haiti, on July 13, 1918; Honduras on July 19, 1918; Nicaragua, on March 8, 1918; and Panama, on April 7, 1917. Peru and Uruguay did not actually declare war, but they broke off diplomatic relations with Germany on October 6 and October 7, 1917, respectively. Bolivia, on April 13, 1917; the Dominican Republic, in July, 1917; and Ecuador, on December 7, 1917, also severed relations with Germany. Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Paraguay, El Salvador, and Venezuela remained neutral.



The Second World War line-up in Latin America
 Courtesy of the *New York Times*, February 1, 1942.

Latin America and the Second World War

T H E attack of Japan on the United States on December 7, 1941, was the signal for Mexico, the Central American countries, and the West Indian republics to declare war upon Japan and the other Axis powers. Venezuela broke off diplomatic relations on the last day of the year. The other states of South America held back, and it was not until the Conference of Foreign Ministers at Rio de Janeiro in January, 1942, that the remaining countries of South America, except Chile and Argentina, broke off diplomatic relations with the Axis governments. Both Chile and Argentina, however, announced a friendly neutrality toward the Allies. On August 22 Brazil, after several of her ships had been sunk, declared war upon Germany and Italy.



Germans in Latin America as compared with those in other parts of the world (1939)

Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc. Map based on data from the *New York Times*, July 2, 1939.

Latin America: German Inhabitants

EVEN before the First World War the German government appears to have considered German emigrants to all parts of the world as subjects of the Fatherland on the principle of once a German always a German. Certainly with the coming of Hitler into power, a concerted attempt was made to use people of German origin everywhere for the advancement of Nazi motives. The Second World War saw the consequent rise of fifth column activities on the part of Nazi agents throughout the world, and especially in Latin America. This in turn resulted in anti-Nazi sentiment and anti-Nazi action in many of the states of the Western Hemisphere. This anti-German sentiment culminated at the Rio de Janeiro conference of foreign ministers in January, 1942, and thereafter the movement against German fifth columnists was accentuated in all parts of Latin America.

The Pan American Neutrality Zone

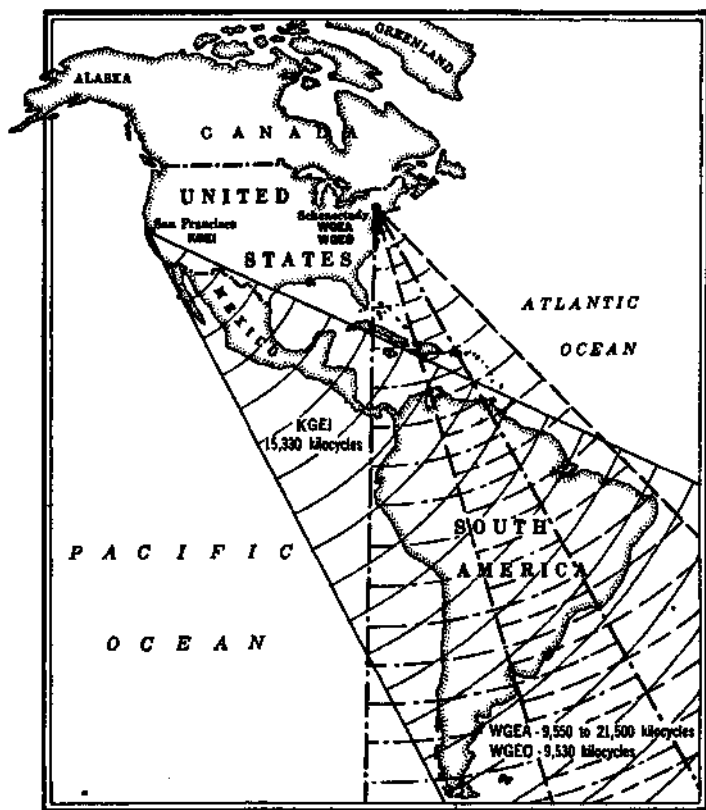
THE most significant conference held during the year 1939 was that known as the Pan American Conference on Neutrality. As a result of the European conflict beginning in 1939 the nations of the Western Hemisphere (with the exception of Canada) met at Panama on September 23 to consider the problem of continental neutrality. As a result of the deliberations the delegates signed on October 2, 1939, the "Declaration of Panama," which presented a united front to the belligerents and which created a "safety zone" about the continent, exclusive of Canada, in which no belligerent might commit a hostile act. The zone varied from 250 miles to 1,250 miles in width and was to be jointly policed by the navies of the United States and the Latin American countries. All the governments concerned agreed to consult together regarding the problems growing out of the war.



United States defense bases in the Atlantic and Caribbean area
Courtesy of the *Washington Post*, August 4, 1940.

Western Hemisphere Defense Bases, 1940

EARLY in August, 1940, the United States acquired from Great Britain, in exchange for over-aged destroyers, eight Atlantic naval bases for the better defense of the Western Hemisphere. The next month the United States government invited all of the Latin American republics to make free use "on the fullest co-operative basis" of any one or all of these bases. This friendly gesture was widely welcomed throughout the hemisphere.



United States radio and Latin American countries
 Courtesy of Farrar & Rinehart, Inc. Data from the General Electric Co.

United States Broadcasts to Latin America

IN July, 1939, the General Electric Company at Schenectady put on the air, through its new one-hundred-kilowatt short-wave station, programs for Latin America which would drown out and cover German and Italian stations. News is an important item in these broadcasts, and it is sent in Spanish and Portuguese so that many Latin American newspapers can utilize this information direct from the United States. In July, 1940, the Columbia Broadcasting System extended its "School of the Air" to thirteen Latin American countries, calling it "Radio Escuela de las Americas." By this date, eleven short-wave stations were broadcasting to Latin America under the control of General Electric, Westinghouse, National Broadcasting Company, Columbia Broadcasting System, and World-wide Broadcasting Company. In March, 1942, the National Broadcasting Company announced its "Inter-American University of the Air" and in May the Columbia Broadcasting System inaugurated broadcasts over 76 Latin American stations. The news items and variety entertainments carried to listeners in Latin America tell of United States customs, culture, and habits, and give important speeches, concerts, travel and fashion talks, scientific discussions, and so on.

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