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M. A. CARO,

Vice-President of the Republic of Colombia.

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THE REPUBLIC OF COLOMBIA

CONSULATE GENERAL OF COLOMBIA
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Table of Contents.

Chapter	I.	Area, Physical Geography, and Resources	6
Chapter	II.	The Political Divisions	21
Chapter	III.	The Cities of the Republic	48
Chapter	IV.	Historical Sketch	63
Chapter	V.	Political Institutions, Revenues and Money	76
Chapter	VI.	Agriculture, Fisheries, Manufactures	81
Chapter	VII.	Mines and Mining	85
Chapter	VIII.	Commerce and Transportation	107

List of Illustrations.

Vice-President Caro	Frontispiece
Cartagena, Partial View of Harbor	6
Tequendama Falls, near Bogotá	12
The River Amaime	14
In a Coffee Plantation	16
Atlantic Entrance, Panamá Canal	24
A Road in the Cauca Valley	30
Mr. James M Eder's Farm in Palmira, Cauca Valley	36
Village Scene, Serrezuela, Cundinamarca	38
Roadside Vegetation, Boyacá	40
A Cottage near San Gil, Santander	42
Sopetrán, Antioquia—Typical Andean Town	44
Cartagena, Government Building	46
Bolívar Square, Bogotá	48
The Cathedral of Bogotá	50
Monument to Bolívar in the Centenario Park, Bogotá	52
Monument to the Martyrs of the War of Independence, Bogotá	54
A Suburb of Bogotá	56
Bird's Eye View of Cali	60

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President Rafael Nuñez..... 72
Suburb of Cartagena "El Cabrero" on the day of President Nuñez's death..... 74
Native Mode of Harpooning Fish..... 82
La Pradera Iron Works, near Bogotá..... 84
La Mesa, Market Day..... 110
Medellín—Front Porch of Residence..... 112
On the Track over the Andes..... 116
Steamboat on the Magdalena River..... 120
Town of Barranquilla..... 124
Medellín, Public Market..... 128
Post Office Court Yard, Bogotá..... 130

CHAPTER I.

AREA, PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, AND RESOURCES.

The Republic of Colombia on the north is bounded by the Caribbean Sea; on the south by Ecuador, Brazil, and Peru; on the east by Brazil and Venezuela; on the west by the Pacific Ocean, and on the northeast by Costa Rica.

The area of the Republic is about 513,845 square miles, of which about one-fourth is inhabited. The greatest length is about 1,242 miles, from the mouth of the Golfito River, in the Golfo Dulce, to the mouth of the Avatiparana, and the greatest breadth, from Puntagallinas to the left bank of the Amazon River, about 1,118 miles. Its shape is irregular, the northern peninsula reaching 12° 25′ north latitude, its east and west extension being between 70° 40′ and 82° 40′ west longtitude, while its southern limit is nearly coincident with the equator. Its estimated area is more than double that of Spain and Portugal, and equal to that of New England, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Ohio, Indiana, West Virginia, Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, and Georgia.

On the Atlantic or Caribbean coast—which is upwards of 1,000 miles in length—there are the following bays and gulfs: Bahia Honda, which is well protected from the strong winds of the east and north, but it is rendered unsuitable for the establishment of a port by its lack of drinkable water; El

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Portete of Rio Hacha, of considerable commercial importance as a center of export trade; Dibulla; Santa Marta, connecting with the Cienega, a lagoon stretching 25 miles from south to north, with a breadth of 11 miles from east to west, communicating with the lakes of Pajaral and Cuatro Bocas, and which, though rather shallow, can be navigated by flat-bottomed steamboats; Barranquilla, above the mouth of the Magdalena, of which Sabanilla is the active port; Galerazamba; Cartagena, a splendid bay, known for centuries to navigators of the Caribbean; Zapote, Zizpata, and Golfo de Morrosquillo; the Gulf of Darien, with the estuary of the Atrato, and the ports of Turbo, Guacuba, Candelaria, etc.; Porto-Bello, San Blas, Chagres, and Bahia Del Almirante.

The coast line of the Pacific is hardly so important as that of the Atlantic, except along the Isthmus, where it forms the great Bay of Panamá, with the subordinate inlets of Parita Bay on the west and the Gulf of San Miguel on the east. Along the remainder of the line are Cupica, San Francisco, Solano, Palmar, Charambira (obstructed by a bar), the large Bay of Málaga, protected by the island of Palmas, with the harbors of Guapi and Izcuandé, the bays of Pasacaballos and Buenaventura, the harbors of Tumaco and Trinidad, and the gulfs of Montijo, David, and Dulce.

The islands on the Atlantic side are San Andrés and Providencia, near the Mosquito coast; Drago, Provisión (or Bastimentos), and Popa, between the points of Chiriquí and Tervi; Escudo de Veraguas, to the east of the point of Chiriquí; Barú, near the Bay of Cartagena; Los Gómez, formed by the delta of the Magdalena. On the Pacific side, Tumaco, Gorgona, the archipelago of Las Perlas, of which the principal island is that of El Rey or San Miguel, and the islands of Taboga, Taboguilla, Otoque, Cebaco and Coiba.

On the Atlantic side are the peninsulas of Toboló, which

shuts in on the east the lagoon of Chiriquí; San Blas, in the gulf of the same name; Mestizos, which shuts in on the north the ensenada de Cispata, in the Gulf of Morrosquillo, and the large peninsula of la Goagira. On the Pacific side, the peninsula of Azuero, which is the largest, and Punta Burica, in the Isthmus of Panamá.

The most notable capes on the Atlantic side are: Tiburon, at the entrance of the Gulf of Darien; Aguja, in front of Santa Marta; and those of Tela, Falso, and Chichibacoa, in the peninsula of la Goagira. On the Pacific side the only cape which need be mentioned is that of Corrientes, between the coasts of Quibdó and Lloró. The Isthmus of Panamá connects North and South America. It is about 422 miles long; its greatest width is 118 miles, its shortest 31 miles.

The principal features of the surface of Colombia consist of the three branches into which the great mountain range of the Andes divides as it enters the territory of the Republic. Near the southern boundary, between Tulcán and Timbio, the range parts into two branches, of which one, known as the Cordillera Occidental (western Cordillera), follows a northerly direction to the Department at Bolivar, where it ends opposite the town of Banco. The second branch follows a northeasterly direction, subdividing into two ranges to the east of Almaguer. Of these two ranges the one on the left, known as the Cordillera Central (central Cordillera), follows a northerly direction and comes to an end in the Department of Bolivar. The range on the right, known as the Cordillera Oriental (eastern Cordillera), turns more to the northeast, dividing in the Department of Santander into two branches, one of which runs into the Department of Magdalena, where it comes to an end, and the other toward the Republic of Venezuela.

In the western Cordillera the peaks of Chiles and Cumbal are covered with perpetual snow; in the central Cordillera

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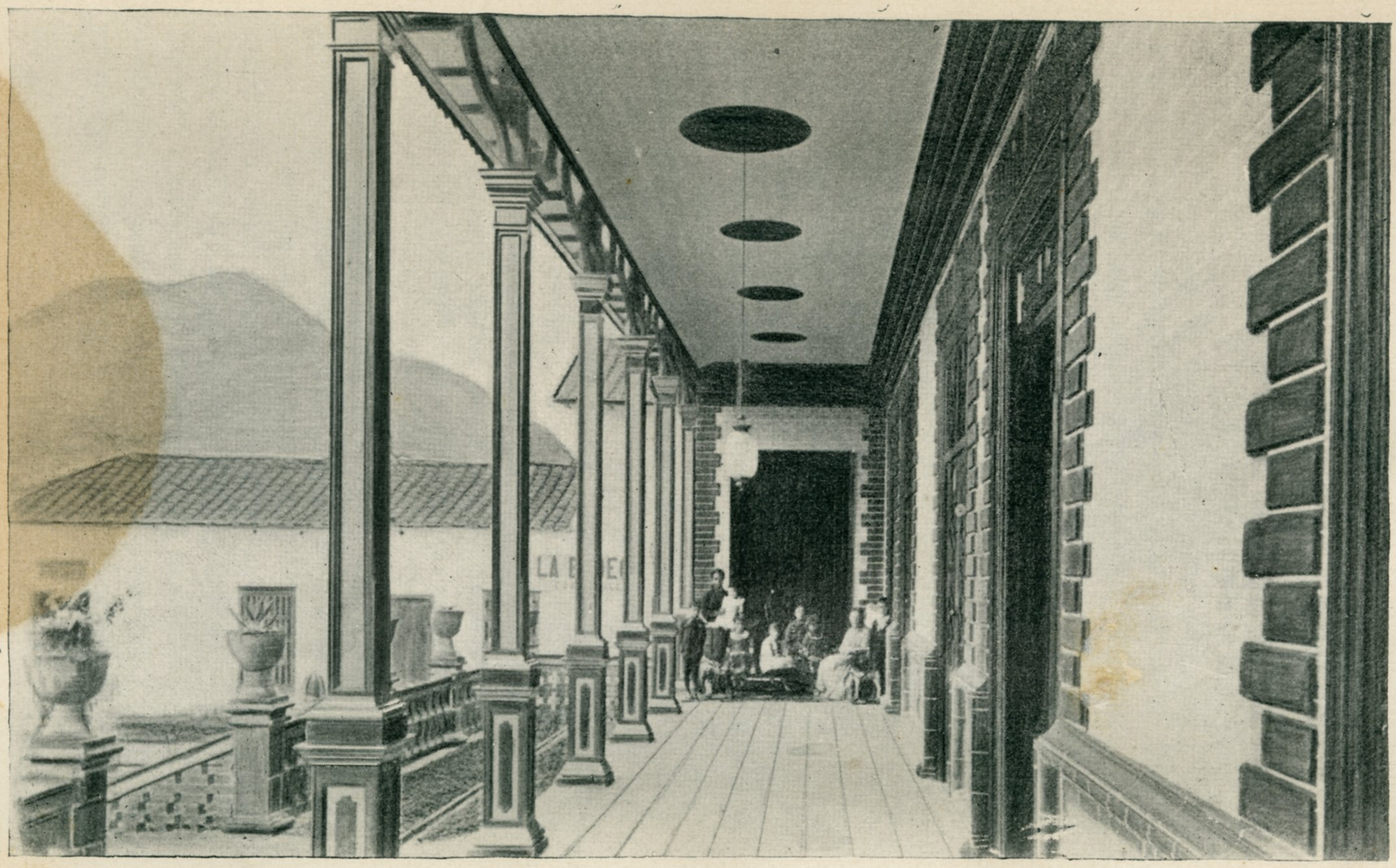
those of Coconuco, Puracé, Huila, Quindio, Tolima, Ruiz, Mesa de Herveo, and Santa Isabel, the last four being grouped together under the name of Páramo de Ruiz ; in the eastern Cordillera there is only the Sierra Nevada de Chita, or Güican.

In 5° 5′ north latitude, where the Cordillera of Quindio sinks down, the Cordillera of Suma Paz rises to the snow limit and is the most elevated of the three ranges. It runs northeast to the Páramos of Pamplona, from which it sends out a branch to meet the massif of the Sierra Nevada of Santa Marta. In its passage through the Department of Santander it attains in the Alto del Viejo an altitude of 12,965 feet, in Alto del Trigo of 9,965, and in the Boca del Monte of 12,735. The Sierra Nevada is said to reach a height of 23,779 feet, and it is certainly covered with perpetual snow over a large part of its summit. The western Cordillera, or Cordillera del Chocó, is the least remarkable of the three and has been worn down in many places into what are comparatively mere rounded hills with easy passages between. It continues northward, however, much farther than the central chain, and in fact extends through the Isthmus of Panamá. In the southern part of the Department of Cauca are the following volcanoes: Sotará (extinct), Pasto, and Chiles ; near the city of Popayán, Puracé ; the highest snow peak of the central Cordillera, Huila ; in the Department of Cauca, Azufral ; lastly, the volcano of Chiriquí, now extinct.

The most notable table-lands of the Colombian Andes are those of Túquerres, Pasto, and Popayan, in the Department of Cauca ; those of Santa Rosa and Herveo, in the Department of Antioquia ; that of Dolores, in the Department of Tolima ; those of Bogotá, Juan Diaz, Ubaté, and Simijaca, in the Department of Cundinamarca ; those of Chiquinquirá, Sogamoso, Tunja, and Cocuy, in the Department of Boyacá ;

Trecho de carretera en el Valle del Cauca.





MEDELLIN—~~FRONT PORCH OF RESIDENCE.~~
Residencia particular.

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and those of Pamplona and Jéridas, in the Department of Santander. The llanos or plains of the Orinoco extend eastward from the slopes of the Cordillera de Sumapaz. As far south as the Vichada they form an almost complete level, destitute of trees, and affording abundant pasturage, while farther south they are covered with forests, display considerable irregularity of surface, and are not infrequently broken by steep rocks rising to a height of from 300 to 600 feet.

The fundamental formations throughout Colombia are igneous and metamorphic, the great masses of the Cordilleras consisting of gneiss, granite, porphyry, and basalt. In many places the carboniferous strata have attained considerable development, though they have been thrown into strange confusion by some unknown disturbance. Volcanic forces are still at work, as is shown by occasional earthquakes, and also by such phenomena as those at Batan near Sogamoso, where the subterranean heat is great enough to affect the local climate. Glaciers are still extant in the Paramo de Ruiz, and possibly in some of the other snow-clad heights. The slopes of the various Cordilleras are frequently covered with deep beds of gravel, and the valleys are full of alluvial deposits of very various periods. The rivers have in many instances cut remarkable passages for themselves through the mountains, and, according to Codazzi, the Sogamoso has at one time been the outlet of a vast series of lakes which he believed to have occupied the highlands of Bogotá, Tunja, and Velez.

The numerous streams which water the territory of the Republic may be grouped into ~~four~~ five systems, which are definitely distinguished from one another by the Cordilleras and the valleys of the more important rivers.

These systems are: (1) The western or Pacific system, comprising all the streams which flow from the western Cor-

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dillera into the Pacific Ocean, and also the waters of the valley of the Atrato. (2) The central system of the Cauca River, comprising the streams which flow from the western Cordillera toward the east, and those which flow from the central Cordillera toward the west. (3) The central system of the Magdalena River, comprising the streams which flow from the central Cordillera toward the east, and those which flow from the eastern Cordillera toward the west. (4) The eastern system, made up of the streams which descend from the eastern Cordillera into the rivers Orinoco and Amazon.

The most important rivers which empty into the Pacific Ocean are: The Bayano or Chepo, which flows into the Gulf of Panamá; the Tuira or Darien, the most important river of the Isthmus of Panamá, and which flows into the Gulf of San Miguel or Darien del Sur; the San Juan, the Dagua, the Izcuandé, the Tapaje, the Patía, and the Mira. The Atrato, which also belongs to this system, empties into the Gulf of Urabá and runs in a direction opposed to that of the San Juan, from which it is separated by a range of small hills, which constitute what is called the Isthmus of San Pablo. Were this to be pierced by a canal and the navigation of the two streams improved, there would be a complete river passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The account, however, so frequently repeated, of the possibility of passing from the Atlantic to the Pacific by means of a canal excavated about 1788 in the Raspadura ravine by some enterprising monk, seems to have little or no foundation. The Atrato rises in the slopes of the western Cordillera, has a course of about 300 miles, and a breadth, during the last 9 miles, of from 750 to 1,000 feet. Its depth in this lower part of its passage varies from 40 to 70 feet or even more. At Quibdó, 220 miles from its mouth, it is still 850 feet wide and 8 to 20 feet deep, and as the fall of the river is only about

3 inches to a mile, steamboats can pass as far as the confluence of the San Pablo and Certiguí, 32 miles above Quibdó.

The whole Atrato valley was once a vast estuary of the sea, whose waves broke upon the very feet of the Cordilleras. The fossiliferous rocks near the head waters of the Tuira show that the country was at one time submerged by the Pacific Ocean, shell fish of the same character as the fossils being found living both in the Pacific and Atlantic at the present time. The swamps about the Atrato River rest on beds of gold-bearing clay.

The second system is made up of the river Cauca and its affluents. The former rise in the Páramo del Buey, in the central Cordillera. In the upper part of its course it flows through a volcanic region, and its waters are so impregnated with sulphuric and other acids that they are destructive of fish. These acids are mainly contributed by the head stream of the Rio Vinagre (Vinegar River), which rises in the Puracé volcano, and from the peculiarity of its waters receives this name. The Cauca follows a general direction from south to north, waters the Departments of Cauca, Antioquia, and Bolivar, and empties into the Magdalena River below Pinillos, or the Island of Mompox, through a mouth known as Guamal. Below Banco it divides into two branches, known respectively as Loba and Mompox, and reunites in what is known as the Boca de Tacaloa. Its principal tributaries are the Hondo, the Palacé, the Piendamó, the Ovejas, the Quinamayó, the Palo, the Amaime, the Sonso, the Bugalagrande, the Paila, the Vieja, the Otún, the Campoalegre, the Pozo, the Arma, the San Juan, the Tarasá, the Nechí, and the San Jorge.

The third system consists of the Magdalena River and its affluents. The former rises in the Laguna del Buey, in the Páramo de las Papas; it follows, with some deviations, a general direction from south to north; it waters the Departments

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of Tolima, Cundinamarca, Boyacá, Santander, Antioquia, Bolívar, and Magdalena, and empties into the Atlantic through two mouths known as Ceniza and Rio Viejo, between which stands the island of Los Gomez.

The principal affluents of the Magdalena are: the Paez, the Prado, the Saldaña, the Fusagasugá, the Bogotá, the Ríorrecio, the Lagunilla, the Gualí, the Guarinó, the Rio Negro, the Miel, the Nare, the Nus, the Cañorregla, the Carare, the Opón, the Colorado, the Sogamoso, the Cimitarra, the Lebrija, the Simití, the Cauca (already mentioned), and the Cesar, which rises in the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta, and whose junction with the Magdalena forms the pretty lagoon of Zapatosa.

The fourth system, which is of immense extent, consists of the streams of the eastern slope of the eastern Cordillera which flow into the Amazon and Orinoco.

The Amazon waters Colombian soil for more than 100 myriameters (621 miles), and forms in part the boundary between Colombia and Brazil, on the one side, and Colombia and Ecuador upon the other. Its principal Colombian affluents are: the Napo, the Putumayo, the Yupura or Caquetá, and the Rio Negro, composed of the Guainía and the Casiquiare. The Orinoco likewise waters the soil of Colombia. It receives the following Colombian tributaries: the Guaviare, the Meta, and the Arauca. As likewise connected with this system should be mentioned the Sinú, which rises in the Department of Antioquia and flows into the Gulf of Cispata.

Colombia has no lake of importance, but among its numerous lagoons the following are worthy of mention: Chiriquí, in the Department of Panamá, Aguila, in the Department of Cauca; Zapatosa, in the Department of Magdalena; Desparramadero de Sarare, on the confines of Venezuela; Término, in Casanare; Fúquene, Suesca, Guatavita,

and Siecha, in Cundinamarca; Tota and Socha in Boyacá; San Lorenzo, in Antioquia; Chucurí, in Santander; Simiti, Betanci, Ayapel, and Raya, in Bolívar. Near Bogota is the famous Guatavita, into which the Muyscas are said to have thrown their treasures.

Col. Codazzi demonstrated that in the highlands of Bogotá, Tunja and Vélez, where is now the densest population, there once existed a system of broad and deep lakes, which, breaking through their barriers, precipitated themselves through what are now the rivers Suarez and Sogamoso into the ocean, leaving the traces of their irruption boldly marked on the face of the country. The same authority conceives that this great cataclysm may have occurred within the past four centuries. Some evidence in support of his theory is afforded by two great stones which have been discovered on opposite sides of what must have been the borders of the principal lake. Both face towards the points of rupture of the mountains, and the faces of both are covered with sculptures, among which are distinguishable figures of the frog (the Chibcha sign of water) with outspread feet, and human figures with upraised arms, in attitude of surprise or alarm.

The climate of Colombia is very varied, notwithstanding its tropical situation, owing to the complex system of mountains by which the territory is traversed; so that all that one need do in order to experience very marked differences of temperature is to ascend from the valleys to the mountains. On the coast the heat is almost unceasing, though tempered by the breezes and the rains. In the interior there are valleys in which the heat is intense. The highest average temperature experienced in any part of the Republic is 86° F.; the lowest, in the inhabited portion of the Cordilleras, 20° F.

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The lower part of the valley of the Magdalena is oppressed with almost tropical heat. The waters of the river are lukewarm, and at Honda, 1,000 feet above the level of the sea, stones exposed to the sun's rays are too hot to place the hand upon.

On the plateaus the air is salubrious and the temperature is that of perpetual spring. On the plain of Bogotá, which is 8,000 feet above the sea, the thermometer ranges from 55° to 70° F., and the rain in the wet season falls but a few hours daily. The summits of the Cordilleras are usually covered with mists and the tops of the highest with perpetual snow. In the forests of Darien the rain falls almost unceasingly, and the Gulf of Chocó is seldom free from violent storms.

In Colombia there are no seasons, strictly speaking; but the name summer is given to the dry period and winter to the rainy. These two sorts of weather alternate generally at intervals of three months; but in certain parts of the country it rains during six consecutive months, and in others the so-called "summer" is almost unceasing.

Among the natural curiosities of the country are the falls of Tequendama, a beautiful cascade with an unbroken fall of over 600 feet, near Bogotá; the natural bridge of Pandi or Icononzo, spanning the river Suma Paz at an elevation of 600 feet; the cascade of the Rio Vinagre; the great orifices called Hoyo del Aire and Hoyo de los Pájaros, near Velez; the Peñon de Quitisoque, from the symmetrically pierced summit of which fall three beautiful streams of water; the Fura-Tena and the Boqueron de Peña Armada, which are two stupendous cuts made by the Rio Minero, the second 10,650 feet deep; and the natural tunnel of the Rio Suarez.

The minerals of Colombia are of all sorts, and very abundant. Those which are produced with the greatest

profit are the following: gold, in Antioquia, in Cauca, especially in the region of the Chocó, in Tolima and in Santander; silver, in Antioquia, Cauca (municipality of Toro,) and in Tolima; iron, in Cundinamarca (la Pradera and Pacho) and in Antioquia (Amagá); copper, in Boyacá (Moniquirá) and in the Department of Magdalena; platinum, in Chocó; sulphur, in Cundinamarca (Gachalá); salt, in Cundinamarca and Boyacá, where there are immense beds of rock salt, and in Antioquia, Cauca, and Tolima, where there are many salt springs; emeralds, in Boyacá (Muzo, Coscuez, and Somondoco); coal, lime, niter and chalk, throughout the country. On the banks of the river Nare, and at Quipile, in Cundinamarca, there are found rich but unexploited quarries of marble. In Chaparral and Yaguará, in the Department of Tolima, there are wells of petroleum; and at Hatoviejo (in the neighborhood of Bogotá) there are great quarries of a very fine gravel, which is useful for many purposes.

From Costa Rica to Venezuela, there is hardly a department of Colombia which does not possess in its soil more or less gold. It is claimed that Chocó, Antioquia, Mariquita, Popayán, Pamplona, Ocaña, Bucaramanga, and other places are exceedingly rich in that metal. The auriferous sands of Antioquia, according to M. Dufrénoy, afford results very nearly coinciding with those of California. Small diamonds are found with the gold, and in the same district the sulphate of mercury is abundant. In various parts of the country are mines of silver, copper, lead, iron, quicksilver, coal (in Bogotá, Cali, Soatá, Chiriquí, etc.), amethysts, and other varieties of rare and valuable stones and minerals. The great coal bed of Cali, it is believed, extends beyond the Cordilleras to the Pacific, and there are magnificent coal mines in Magdalena near the Caribbean coast. By a rea-

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sonable outlay these mines ought to produce an abundant supply of coal for ocean steamers, which now often depend for their fuel upon deposits in the Antilles brought across the sea for that purpose. On the table-lands of Bogotá, Túquerres, and Pamplona rock salt abounds, and lime, sulphur, alum, magnesia, asphaltum, and other valuable minerals exist in inexhaustible quantities in various parts of the Republic.

In the neighborhood of Ubalá there are deposits of copper, sulphate of lead with silver, sulphate of aluminum, and hyaline quartz. Sulphur of the best quality is found at a short distance from Gachalá. There is also an enormous deposit of sulphate of iron. Mercury is found at different points.

The warm regions of the valleys and coasts produce in abundance coffee, cacao, bananas of all sorts, yucca, arracacha, sugar cane, indigo, cotton, tobacco, vanilla, corn, rice, beans, and a great variety of fruits and medicinal plants. In the middle region of the Andes grow readily wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, and nearly all the fruits and vegetables of Europe. The wild flora is very varied, especially in the family of the orchids, so much esteemed in European markets. The forests abound in building, cabinet, and dye woods, Peruvian bark, the tagua, cocoa, caoutchouc, sarsaparilla, vanilla, ipecacuanha, and many species of gums and resins. Vast regions of the country are admirably adapted for the production of sugar. The meadows along the Gachetá River are admirably adapted to the production of coffee. The fique or maguey (*Fourroya fætida*) is abundant. Cotton likewise flourishes in this region, though it is but little cultivated.

The flora combines almost all the products of the tropical, the intertropical, and temperate zones. Within a single



IN A COFFEE PLANTATION.

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day's journey one may encounter the four seasons of the year and the vegetable peculiarities of all these zones. Rice, cotton, tobacco, sugar cane, and all tropical fruits grow along the coast, and the elevated plains yield maize, wheat, potatoes, and all the European fruits. The vast forests, yet imperfectly explored, abound with valuable productions. In Popayan the cinchona grows to perfection, and the sides of the mountains of Tolima are clothed to an elevation of 8,500 feet with wax palms 200 feet high. Besides these are found the Pitayó, cedar, balsam of tolu, vanilla, lignum vitæ, mahogany, caoutchouc, and the tree perhaps most precious of all, the *albataque*, the vine of the cross, and the arisa, all remarkable specifics, the first against inflammation, the second for stanching effusions of blood, and the third for instantaneously stopping bleeding at the nose. Notwithstanding the luxuriance of the vegetation, the species are not intermingled. Each kind occupies some tract of its own, where it flourishes to the almost total exclusion of others. Several geographers have with reason characterized the fertility of Colombia's soil as astonishing.

In the valley of the Cauca the sugar cane will continue in condition on the same land without replanting for eighty years. Indian corn yields three-hundred fold. The plantain yields 138,000 pounds of fruit in a space of 250 acres.

On the now useless plains of the southeastern half of the Republic vast herds of cattle would thrive. Their fertile lands are susceptible of cultivation, and their products could find an easy market by a narrow-gauge railroad to the Magdalena River, the construction of which is not an impossible or an improbable thing. From the forests, which exist here and there, might be extracted large quantities of gums, fibers, and precious woods. Coffee and cacao might be made to yield rich harvests.

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Throughout the region to the south of Gachalá, the quina, or Peruvian bark, is produced.

In the districts of Gachetá, Gachalá, and Ubalá there grows spontaneously the plant commonly known as laurel (*Myrica arguta*), which yields a species of vegetable wax, which promises to be of great importance in industry and the arts. This wax is greenish, brittle, and of a disagreeable odor; but on being properly treated it loses those objectionable qualities and becomes white. In some parts of the Republic, as in Cauca, large quantities of it are secured and mixed with tallow, to make candles for lighting. The wax is obtained by boiling the fruit of the laurel in water. The fruit so treated yields as high as 25 per cent. of wax, and one plant may give from 15 to 25 pounds of the fruit a year. This wax, furthermore, is susceptible of saponification.

In certain parts of Colombia is found the arraco, a tree which yields a brilliant rose-colored dye which is applicable to wood as a sort of varnish, brilliant in proportion to the number of coats applied. Mixed with the juices of the yucca leaf, this dye becomes quite black without losing its brilliancy.

Near Medina occurs a singular sort of tree, known as leche-miel (*Lacmelles edulis*), the bark of which exudes a milk-like juice which Baron Humboldt analyzed and found to contain the same caseine, and the same nutritious qualities as cows' milk. In the same region is found the dwarf palm, commonly known as vegetable ivory.

The fruit of the malagueta (*Xylopia longifolia*) is highly esteemed for its medicinal qualities, it being deemed especially useful in fevers, dysentery, etc., and as an antidote to the poison of snakes.

The currucay (*Isica helerophila*) yields a resin which is very white, aromatic, and rich in turpentine. When subjected to heat this resin becomes a brilliant paste similar to Burgundy pitch, for which latter substance, in most of its uses, the former might be substituted.

On the banks of the Gascunta River there grows in great abundance the necha (*Fevilla tarrilla*), which is highly recommended for the treatment of cancer, tumors, and nervous debility. The fruit contains a large proportion of a very fine oil, susceptible of varied application in the arts.

The sarsaparilla (*Smilax officinalis*), a plant of very great commercial importance, grows in great abundance on the Llanos of Colombia. It flourishes in a temperature of from 75° to 86° F., and at an elevation of from 1,000 to 2,600 feet above the level of the sea.

The cacao grows wild about Medina, and though the grains are smaller than in the cultivated plant, it is more rich in oil, and if cultivated, would excel in quality. The cacao popularly known as cacao cuadrado (*Herrania pulcherrima*), is exceedingly abundant throughout the territory of San Martin, immense groves of it being found there, as also on the Orinoco, and it seems to be the sort which, as cultivated in Venezuela, has a great reputation in Europe.

The cachipay palm (*Bactris gachipaes*) is interesting both for its wood and its fruit, the former being strong, compact, and lustrous, while the latter has a fleshy pulp, which, when cooked, is a palatable, wholesome and nutritious food.

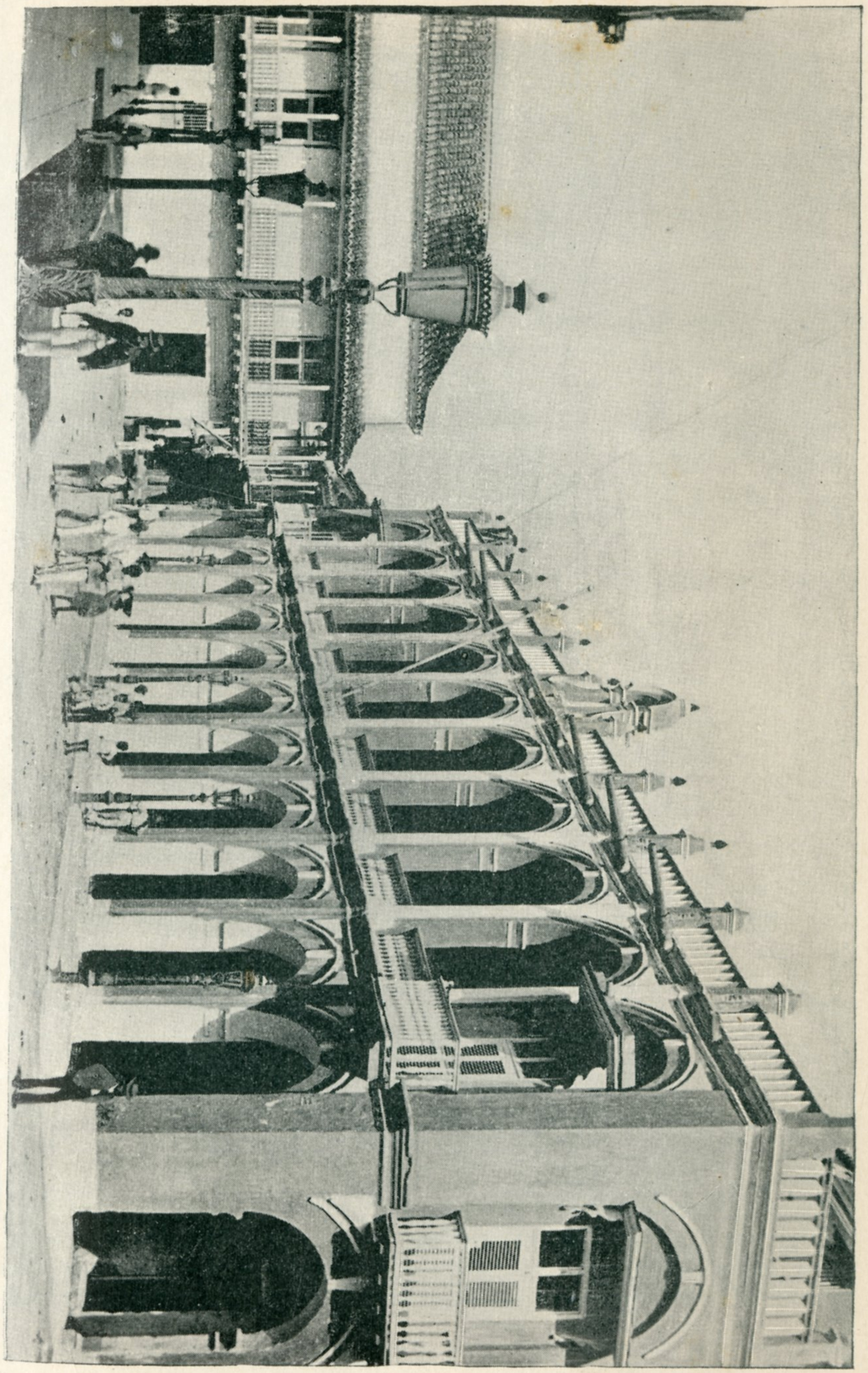
The Colombian fauna is very varied, and presents almost all the types which characterize the great American fauna. Among domestic animals there are very fine cattle on the llanos, or plains, and others, carefully bred and crossed with European varieties, in the savannah of Bogotá and the valleys of Ubaté, Chiquinquirá, and Sogamoso; excellent horses and mules of Andalusian breed in the same places, and in the valley of the Cauca; sheep, goat, assess, wine, etc.

The herds of cattle and horses of European origin are

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very numerous, and the plains upon which they feed and multiply are of immense extent.

The intertropical regions abound in wild animals. Among the native animals are the puma, jaguar, bear, sloth, deer, armadillo, cavy, opossum, tapir, many kinds of monkeys, the condor, parrots, humming birds, etc. Of monkeys there are at least seventeen distinct species ; the feline race is represented by seven or eight, including the puma and the jaguar ; there are two species of bears ; the alligator swarms in the Magdalena and some of the other rivers ; deer are common at various elevations ; the sloth, the armadillo, the guagua, the opossum, and the cavy prevail in the forests ; and the tapir or danta wanders in the higher regions. Among the birds may be mentioned the condor and ten other birds of prey, several species of swallows, numerous varieties of parrots, paroquets, lorries, and cockatoos, cranes and storks, the pleasant singing turpial, and the strangely colored sol-y-luna, which takes its name from the figure of the sun and moon on its wings. The boa constructor, the yaruma, the cascabel, and various other serpents are frequent enough in the warmer regions, but are not met with at a greater height than 5,400 feet above the sea. Insects are abundantly represented, the most important practically being the ants, which in some districts, as for instance the isthmus, are almost a plague. Turtle abounds on the coast and pearl oysters are the object of a very considerable fishery.



CARTAGENA. GOVERNMENT BUILDING.

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Cauca — RIO . AMAIME.

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CHAPTER II.

THE POLITICAL DIVISIONS AND THEIR RESOURCES.

Colombia is divided into nine political divisions, now termed departments, which were formerly independent States, each having separate legislatures. These departments, geographically arranged, are Panamá, Cauca, Tolima, Cundinamarca, Boyacá, Santander, Antioquia, Magdalena and Bolívar.

DEPARTMENT OF PANAMÁ.

The Department of Panamá is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea; on the west by the Republic of Costa Rica; on the south by the Pacific Ocean; on the east by the Department of Cauca.

The area of Panamá is 32,380 square miles, of which only about one-half is inhabited. Population of the department, 285,000. Its greatest length, from the Darien range to that of La Cruz, on the side of Costa Rica, is about 420 miles. The widest part of the isthmus lies between the mouth of the Escribanos River, on the Atlantic side, and the point of Mariato on the Pacific, a distance of about 118 miles. The narrowest part lies between the Gulf of San Blas, on the Atlantic, and the mouth of the river Chepo, on the Pacific, a distance on a straight line of 31 miles. Panamá is thus a little smaller than the islands of Cuba and Hayti, and not half the size of Paraguay. If the territory of the department

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were to be as densely populated as Belgium was said to be in 1860, it would contain no less than 9,000,000 inhabitants.

A massive range, known as the Cordillera de Baudó, traverses the isthmus through nearly its whole length, dwindling away in the neighborhood of Panamá. This range approaches now the southern coast and again the northern, and though not a very elevated one (1,557 feet, average height, with peaks of from 2,296 to 2,624 feet, and passes less than 900 feet high), it gradually increases in both height and breadth as it approaches Veraguas; in Chiriquí it reaches its greatest elevation and runs through the middle of the department into Costa Rica.

Various rivers flow into either the Atlantic or the Pacific, some through long and narrow valleys, others by shorter courses. The principal river of the department is the Tuira, or Darien River. It rises in the heights of Aspaves and receives the waters of a number of tributaries, among which may be named the Nique, Balsas, Paya, Puero, Cano, Limon, Chucunaque (which itself has several tributaries navigable for small vessels), and the Tayecua or Marca. As thus increased, the Tuira flows into the Gulf of San Miguel on the Pacific coast.

The river Coclé is some 70 miles long, being navigable for small vessels for about 40 miles. It rises in the Andes and receives the waters of fourteen tributary rivers and a multitude of brooks. The Rio de los Indios and the Calabébora rise in the desert range which traverses the isthmus and empty into the Atlantic. The first is navigable for 18 miles, and the second for 21. The Doraces forms the boundary with Costa Rica. The Chiriquí and the Guazaro flow into the Atlantic.

Another important river of the department is the Bayano, or Chepo, which rises in the Andes and flows west, and then

southwest into the Gulf of Panamá. It is about 160 miles in length, and is navigable for 125 miles. It collects on its course the waters of a number of tributary streams, The river Chagres is 102 miles long and navigable for about 60 miles. It receives the waters of more than twenty-one tributaries, and flows first southwest and then northwest, finally emptying into the Caribbean. Part of its channel has been utilized in the construction of the interoceanic canal.

The Sambú River rises in the heights of Aspave and flows neary parallel with the southern coast until it empties into the Gulf of San Miguel. It is navigable some 93 miles. The Chico and the Santa Maria flow into the Parita Gulf, the San Pedro and San Pablo flow into the Ensenada de Montijo, the Tabasará, Santiago, Fonseca, and Chiriquí-viejo empty into the Gulf of Alanje, and the Golfito flows into the Golfo Dulce, on the boundary of Costa Rica.

The Department of Panamá has no considerable lake or lagoon, unless we except what is called the lake of Chiriquí, on the Atlantic coast, which is rather a large bay than a lake. There are, however, a number of places, chiefly on the coast and on the banks of rivers, where marshes or ponds, more or less permanent and extensive, are to be found.

Both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts are sprinkled with islands; in some spots so thickly grouped as to constitute archipelagoes.

On the Atlantic side there are some 630 islands and islets, with an aggregate area of 147 square miles, of which about 115 square miles are susceptible of utilization for lumbering or colonization. The remainder is waste, unsheltered, and lacking both water and vegetation. At certain spots fish and turtle abound.

The islands of this department on the Pacific coast are larger and more numerous than those on the Atlantic side.

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In the group known as the Archipelago de la Perlas the principal island is that of San Miguel, which is about 16 miles long by 7 or 8 miles wide. The largest island on the coast is that of Coiba, a few miles from Bahia Honda, whose greatest length is some 22 miles and its greatest breadth is 15 miles. These Pacific islands are said to number in all 1,053, with an aggregate area of about 500 square miles.

The Department of Panamá has on the Atlantic side some 478 maritime miles of coast, 240 between the mouth of the Tarena River and Colon, and 238 between Colon and Costa Rica. On the side of the Pacific the coast of Panamá is 767 maritime miles in length (about 866 ordinary miles).

On the Atlantic coast the principal ports or bays are those of Colon, Almirante, Chiriquí, San Blas, Caledonia, and Porto Bello. Besides these there are some twenty-five smaller ports. Colon is built upon the island of Manzanillo, which divides an inlet of the sea of some 5 miles in depth, into what are known as the ports of Manzanillo and Naos, or Newbay.

On the Pacific coast the principal ports or bays are those of Panamá, San Miguel, Montijo, and Golfito. There are in addition some thirty smaller ports, among which may be mentioned that of Bocachica, which serves as the port for the town of David.

The climate of the department varies very much, it being in certain regions warm but healthful, in others damp and sickly, and in others cold and salubrious.

The whole coast, from the boundary of Costa Rica to the Gulf of Urabá, has a hot and damp climate, in which it is difficult for the white race to flourish, by reason of swamps and marshes whose exhalations are extremely unwholesome. To this is added the intensity of the heat, aggravated by the great humidity produced by the frequent rains, and by the



ATLANTIC ENTRANCE, PANAMÁ CANAL.

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aqueous vapors rising from the sea which the prevailing winds carry to the wooded plains that fringe the entire territory. There is a part of the Pacific coast to which this does not apply, for, from Panamá to Cape Burica, where there are no marshes or wooded plains, but on the contrary cereal-bearing fields, and rivers which water and fertilize that generally inhabited region, the climate is as a rule warm but not so damp, which permits the inhabitants to enjoy good health. The Cordilleras are all cool and salubrious, but their slopes are uninhabited, both on the southern side, which bears the cereal grasses, and on the northern, which is covered with woods.

The coast from Panamá to Chocó is unhealthy. The interior of the Isthmus of Darien is very sickly, and only the negroes and Indian half-breeds can stand its excessively rainy climate, hot and damp, and its atmosphere, which the marshes make malarious. Though about the Darien cordillera the temperature is milder, it can not be said that the region is salubrious ; and it will never be until the great woods and groves shall have disappeared.

In Porto Bello the climate is unhealthy, and the heat excessive by reason of the stagnation of the air, and because the port is surrounded by high mountains, and noxious exhalations emanate from vegetable matter, both terrestrial and aquatic. The nights there are often stifling, and the days marked by rain with thunder and lightning, such as can not but terrify the unaccustomed visitor.

It may be said that it rains in the Department of Panamá at least nine months in the year, and that, too, in extraordinary quantities. There occur, too, brief but very hard "scuds" or showers, and much thunder and lightning—a sure proof of the abundance of electricity in these regions.

The dry months are February, March, and a part of April,

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and the hottest months are August, September, and October, in which the heat becomes almost unbearable. In the other months the breezes and the continual rain render the heat less intense, though on the other hand they make the climate disagreeable.

In the territory which formerly constituted the provinces of Chiriquí and Veraguas the heat is intense, though tempered by the rains from April to December. In the part of the isthmus bordering upon the Cauca it rains all the year round, at such a rate as to make the rain fall 90 cubic inches, while in Europe it is only 28 or 29.

Gold is obtained from the rivers Marca and Balsas, in South Darien. There still lives the tradition of the famous mines of Cana or Espirítu Santo, in the neighborhood of the Tuira. At one time they were called "Potosi," on account of the abundance and fineness of the ore produced. There are likewise gold mines in the neighborhood of the rivers Coclé, Belen, and Indias and their tributaries. Of these the most noteworthy is that of San Antonio, on the Coclé, which is reported as yielding $40,000 a year. Other mines are found at las Tablas, las Minas, el Mineral de Veraguas, Soná, Lovaina, Gualaca, and San Lorenzo.

Salt is found in abundance throughout the department, and at many points its production is more profitable than that of gold.

Copper is found near San Felix, and near the road from David to Bocas del Toro. It exists also, there is reason for thinking, in the old province of Azuero.

Iron is to be found in and about the Cerro de San Cristóbal and in the ancient province of Azuero, according to indications.

Mineral coal is found near Bocas del Toro and in Golfo Dulce.

Mineral waters are found in the districts of Santiago and Calobre, near the headwaters of the Chonguinola, near the volcano at the foot of the Castillo Mount, near the Chiriquí River, in the Méndez ranch, near the Yeguas Pass, in Pan de Azúcar, and on the banks of the Gallequi River, near San Felix.

Pearls are found not only in the Archipelago de las Perlas, but in many other spots on the sea bottom, which would seem to be almost covered with these precious gems. As many as one million shells a year are said to be secured by divers, and though all do not contain pearls they are available as mother-of-pearl.

Chalk and lime also abound in various parts of the department.

The following woods, used for making dyestuff, are found in the department: Uvilla, curtidora, divi-divi, dragon's blood, tuno, mulberry, Brazilian wood (brasilete), igua, aguacate colorado, guayacan, añil amarillo de yuca, carocolito (purple shell), muqueva, ojo de venado (black), tagua de montaña (indelible carmine), and nazareno (purple).

The department yields woods of excellent quality and colossal growth, principally in South Darien, though they abound also in the mountains along the coasts and in the islands of both seas. The following may be named: Cacique, corotú, and espavé, fit for shipbuilding, and not infested by any sort of insect whatever; caimito, hueso, cerezo, macano, madroño, naranjillo, bola, and laurel, excellent for polished work and building, as are also the mora and guayacan, which are, furthermore, incorruptible; nispero and espinoso, which make the best boarding known; mahogany (black, red, or veined), rosewood, rosilla, quira, cocobolo, and roble amarillo (yellow oak), which do not rot; roble comun (common oak), adapted for ship timbers; el manzan-

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illo (manchineel), a building and cabinet wood, jicarrillo, and espino amarillo.

Among furniture woods may be named the cedars known as cebolla, espina, real, and papaya, all of excellent quality and exempt from the attacks of the "comejen" (timber worm); amarillo de Guayaquil, which is incorruptible; algarrobo del Perú, ijagua de montaña, alcornoque, chuchipate and chachojo, all very useful for building; maderon, very durable and available for inlaid work; alfahillo, the same; tanjiro, similar to mahogany; jigua blanca, jigua negra, saponario, the leaves and bark of which are used as soap; majagua, used by the Indians for making ropes; palo de lana (wool tree), similar to the ceiba or silk cotton tree, and which grows to a height of more than 100 feet, and is used for canoes; hobo, a durable and colossal tree; bongo and balso trees, of considerable thickness, but very light, resembling cork, and used for making rafts; yaya, very durable; mangle, cavalero, pena, salado, and colorado, the last very durable and suitable for shipbuilding; culuba, much used for making mats, etc.; gachapalá, and maría, good for masts; murciélago, hobo de puerco (or de cerdo), barrigon, haya, raton, carcún, sibo, and terciopelo, all useful to carpenters, as are also the guayabito de montaña, cerezo silvestre (wild cherry), pavo, mostrenco, and conaza.

The department produces cloves, equal in fragrance to those of Ceylon; palosanto, from which is obtained the famous balsam maria; copaiba, caucho, almáciga (mastic), copachí, chutra, caraña, cabima, cateba, croton, palo de sangre, saumedio jiguacanelo, bálsamo de drago, chiriquí, chinchire, tustele (yielding rubber, like the caucho), and palo de vaca.

Honey and beeswax are produced in great abundance.

The following fruits and vegetables are produced on the isthmus, both wild and in cultivation:

Aguacate, cacao, coco, pomaroda, mango, mamey del pais, naranjo dulce, naranjo agrio, limon, torovijo, marañon, guanábano, membrillo (quince), guayaba, zapote, brevo, hicaco, anon, hagua, ñame, uvito guagabilla, calanva, níspero, cerezo, higo (figs), caimito, higo chumbo, granado, papayo, sabio, granadillo, ciruela (plum), guate, curubo, piño, piñuelo, sapoya, berenjena (egg-plant), tomate (tomatoes), melon, sandía, calabaza dulce (squash), and eight sorts of aji (capsicum).

Among the palms of Panamá we may note the wine palm, the oil palm, the corozo, the royal, the chontadura, the umbrella palm, the cabeza de negro palm, the taparro, and the cocoa palm, which is remarkable not only for its fruit, but for being planted around settlements to protect houses from lightning, as it serves as a very efficient sort of lightning rod.

The great forests of Panamá contain many wild animals, among which we may name the tiger, black or spotted, the jaguar of Darien, as voracious as that of Venezuela, the cougar, the javali, or wild boar, the chunzo, erizo (hedge hog), lion, red, yellow, or black, oso hormiguero (ant bear), tigrillo (small tiger), zorro (fox), conejo (rabbit), tapir, venado (deer), puerco espin (porcupine), gato (cat), mono (monkey), and armadillo.

On the Atlantic coast there are the tortoises, whose shell is so largely used, and white and green turtles. On the Pacific, besides the pearl oysters, there are found many kinds of oysters and muscles, and crustaceans, such as lobsters, crabs, shrimps, etc. In the sea the animals to be feared are the tintorera (cuttle fish), the guaza, the manta, and the shark. In both oceans there abound the ceruzati, a

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fish weighing 55 pounds, and the mero, which weighs over 110. There are found also the bagre, the peztierra, the quichavo, the paro, and the casus, of some size, and the hurel, barbado, sábalo, hurello, corvina, cominata, and ruejo, of very fine flavor.

There are in Panamá two kinds of alligators and many kinds of iguanas. Among serpents we find the boa, the berrugosa, the equis, the bejuco, the cazadora, the boba, the viper, of many kinds and very poisonous, coral and many sorts of lizards.

DEPARTMENT OF CAUCA.

The Department of Cauca is bounded on the northwest by the Department of Panamá, on the north by the Caribbean Sea, on the east by the departments of Bolívar, Antioquia, Tolima, and Cundinamarca, and the Republics of Venezuela and Brazil, on the south by Brazil and Ecuador, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean.

The area of this department is 6,668 square myriameters (257,424 square miles), of which 585 are inhabited and cultivated and 6,083 unoccupied. Population, 641,000. This includes the territory of Caquetá and the districts of Huila, Inzá, and Páez, which were all attached to the department at its creation.

In the southern part of Cauca the Cordillera of the Andes divides into three branches. In this region are found the high table-lands of Pasto and Túquerres and the volcanoes of Chiles, Sotará, Cumbal, and Pasto.

The western Cordillera traverses the department from south to north parallel with the coast of the Pacific, and parallel with the western lies the central Cordillera, which keeps the same direction as far as the Department of Antioquia, where it breaks up into several branches and finally

dwindles away in Bolívar. In this cordillera are found the volcano of Puracé and the snow peaks of Coconuco, Huila, Quindío, and Mesa de Herveo. We may treat as a continuation or offshoot of the western Cordillera the Cordillera de Baudó, which likewise traverses the Department of Cauca very close to the coast of the Pacific and which prolongs itself into the Isthmus of Panamá.

The following rivers of the department flow into the Pacific: The Baudó, the San Juan, the Dagua, the Micay, the Timbiquí, the Guapi, the Iscuandé, the Tapaje, the Patiá, with its principal affluents; the Guachicon, the Mamaconde, the Mayo, the Guáitara, the Telembí and the Mira.

The Atrato rises in the Farallones del Citará. It runs at first towards the west and then towards the north, emptying finally into the gulf of Urabá, after traversing an immense region and receiving on the way the waters of many affluents, among which may be mentioned the Andágueda, the Quito, the Piedragorda, the Bevará, the Arquía, the Murrí, and the Sucio. The Atrato is navigable from its mouth to Lloró.

The León or Apurimiandó, which has its source in Antioquia, flows through the department and empties into the Gulf of Darien.

The eastern part of Cauca is watered by the Amazon, which forms the boundary on the south, and by the affluents of that great river, the principal of which are the Napo, the Putumayo, the Caquetá, the Baupes, and the Rio Negro. The Guaviare, which forms the boundary with Cundinamarca, and the Casiquiare, which unites the Rio Negro with the Orinoco, flow into the Orinoco.

The San Juan rises in the Caramanta Mountain, 10,075 feet above sea level. It receives the waters of the Tatamá, Tadó, Tamaná, and several other tributaries, and flows over

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a course of 245 miles into the ocean, which it enters through seven mouths. Its width ranges from 300 to 1,200 feet, and for about 140 miles it is navigable by small steamers. Its banks are high and devoid of marshes.

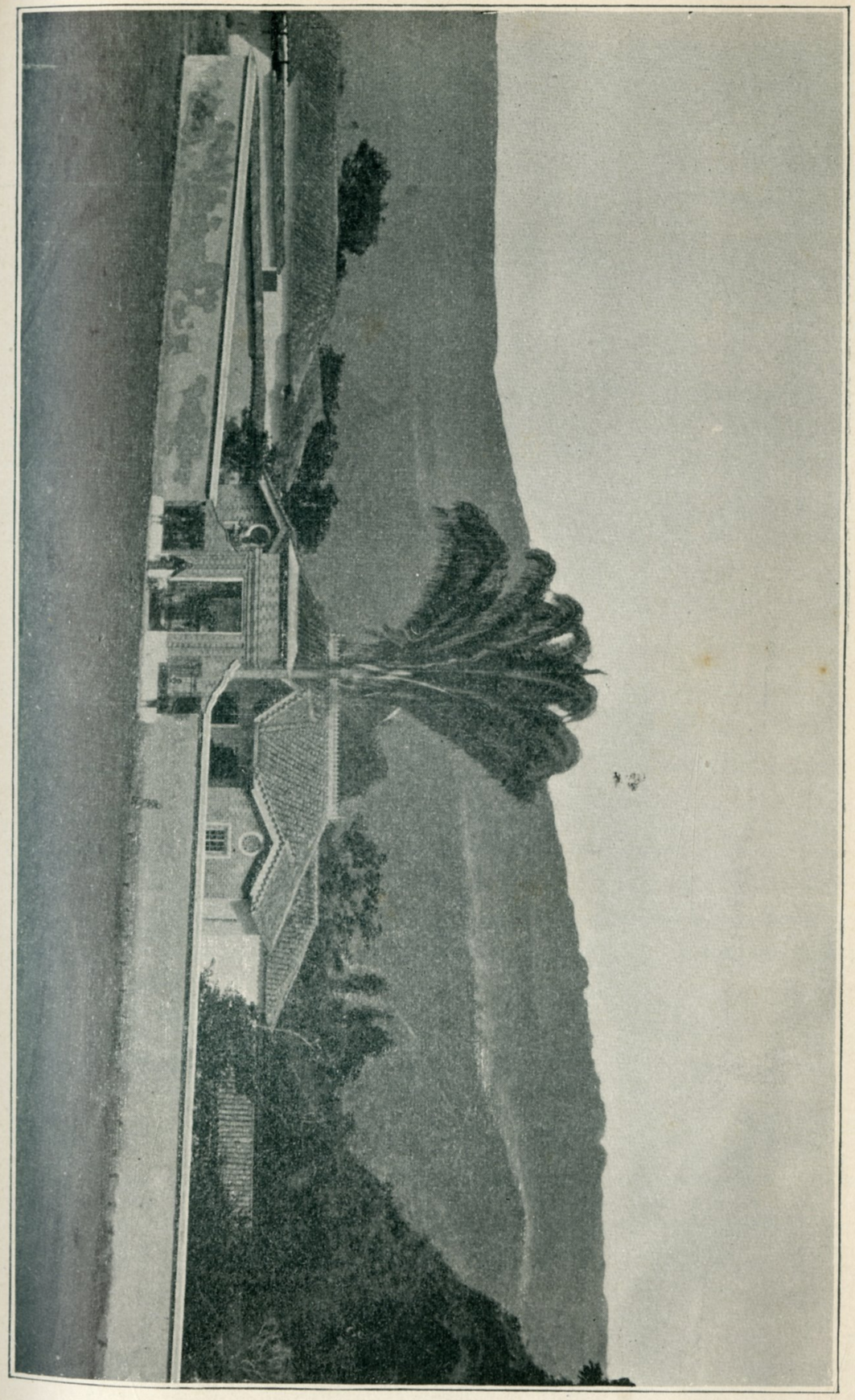
The Baudó rises in the tertiary range of the same name, and flows for the most part from north to south, parallel to the coast. After uniting with the Pepe, it takes a westerly direction to flow into the Pacific. It is about 142 miles long and navigable for small vessels for four-fifths of that distance. It receives the waters of 7 rivers and 35 smaller streams. Through one of these, the Nacora, boats can pass into the rivers Valle and Chorri, which flow into the South Sea.

The Dagua rises in the western Cordillera, some 15 miles from Cali. It is navigable for 62 miles.

The Patía may be said to rise in the Volcano of Sotará, although it is known by other names till after its junction with the Timbío. Its course is south southwest, until it joins the Guáitara, after which it flows northwest into the Pacific. It is navigable for 280 miles.

The Mira rises in Ecuador and enters Colombia at the point where it joins the San Juan. It empties into the Pacific through seven or more mouths. It is navigable by steamers for 27 miles; and by smaller vessels for twice that distance.

The Cauca rises in the Páramo del Buey, near the lake of the same name, and flows in a generally northeast direction, traversing the most populous region of the department, through a long and narrow valley between the Andean ranges, into the Department of Antioquia. It receives in its course (within the Department of Cauca) 96 rivers and 466 known streams of smaller size. It is navigable for 300 miles.



A COTTAGE NEAR SAN GIL, SANTANDER.

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Pag 41



CARTAGENA y su Bahia

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There are in the Department of Cauca quite a number of lagoons or ponds, but no lake of any importance in point of utility. They amount for the most part to but little more than the swamping of little tracts by the overflow of rivers in regions where the lay of the land is too nearly level to permit of the ready escape of the water. The only lake which need here be mentioned is that of Cocha, formerly called Mocoa, after the tribe of Indians whom the Spaniards found located there.

The department includes a number of islands, of which the following may be mentioned :

Tumaco, which is inhabited and was formerly the capital of the canton of that name ; Gorgona, which has a range of hills with seven peaks, and the coasts of which are inhabited ; Cascajal, containing the town of Buenaventura, and which is noticeable for its port and the very good water furnished by its little stream of San José ; Palmas, at the entrance of the bay of Magdalena, high, inhabited, and covered with palm trees. All of the islands together do not measure more than 77 square miles.

On the Atlantic coast the department has several ports. The bay of Candelaria is wide and roomy, but has only low lands around it. It is sheltered from all winds except those from the northwest. The whole gulf of Urabá might be called a port, since below Candelaria it is protected from the northers.

On its Pacific coasts the department has the port of Charambira, from which communication can be had, through the San Juan, with the ancient province of Chocó. Others worthy of mention are the "ensenadas" of Docampadó, Catripe, Arasí, Coquí, Puertococal, and the bays of Cabita, Solano, Nabugá, Limones, and Cupica. Buenaventura Bay is an inlet some 15 miles in depth. The port of Tumaco has to be

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approached against contrary winds through a single narrow channel.

In the region of Túquerres, the southernmost portion of the Department of Cauca, the climate is for the most part cold and healthful. Lower down, near the Patía, it is hot and unwholesome. The rains begin about the middle of September and continue until about the middle of December. Between that time and the middle of January there is about a month of summer, and then the rains commence and continue through February, March, April, and May. By the middle of June the summer has regularly set in and continues until the middle of September.

In the region of Pasto the climate as a rule is cold or temperate and healthful. The rains begin in the middle of September and last through October and November. December, January, and part of February are summer months; March, April, and May constitute a severe winter season, and then summer holds again until the middle of September.

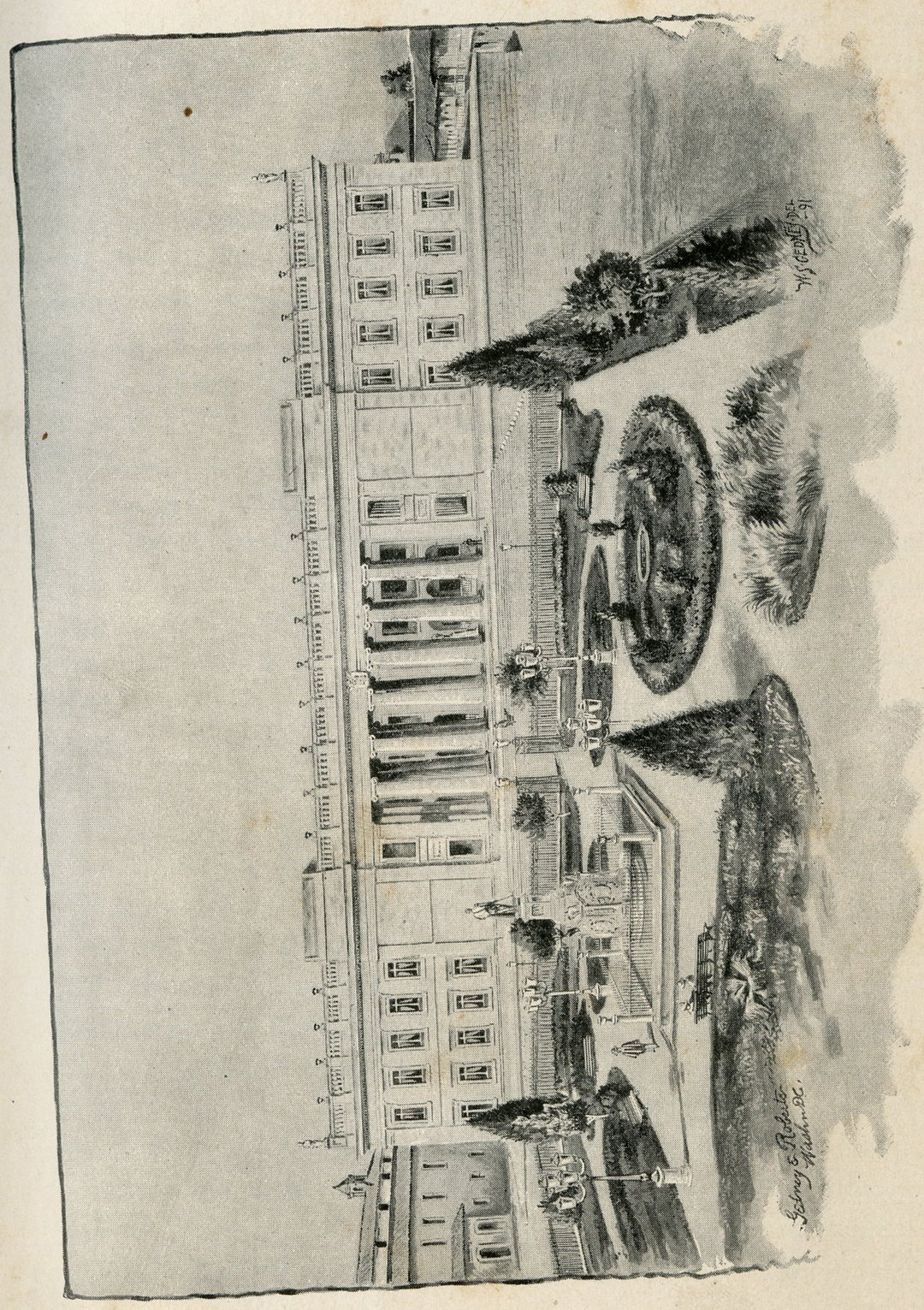
Within the region of Popayan, in this department, there is every species of climate, from the scorching heat of the Pacific coast to the piercing cold of Coconuco, Puracé, and Huila.

The whole valley of the Patía is unhealthy, it being boxed in between high mountain ranges and especially subject to malarial influences. The rest of the region enjoys a wholesome climate.

It is estimated that in this part of the department there is an annual rainfall of from 60 to 120 inches (five times the quantity assigned to Europe). There are violent winds and thunder-storms.

The valley of the Cauca River has a wholesome climate, though warm, but at the seasons of low water fevers are apt

Pag 40



CAPITOL, BOGOTA.

UNIVERSIDAD EAFIT Biblioteca Sala de Patrimonio Documental

to occur. The banks of the Cauca, covered with canebrakes, have a hot and unhealthy climate. In the valley it rains during March, April, May, September, October and November; the others are summer months. In the mountains the rains are frequent all the year through, and hail and snowstorms occur on the peaks during the summer.

The climate of the region of Barbacoas is sufficiently uniform. The coasts of the ocean are swept by western winds, and though hot and damp are not unhealthful. But the lands near the canebrakes and mangrove swamps, and those along the banks of the rivers, are exceedingly unhealthy. Near the headwaters of the rivers the climate is not bad. Where the elevation exceeds 3,000 feet it is not unhealthy, though there is much rain.

The climate of the region of Buenaventura varies considerably in the different sections. The districts of Cali and Roldanillo have a warm but healthy climate, except at the beginning and the end of the rainy season, when intermittent fevers prevail in the neighborhood of wet or marshy lands. Upon the cordillera it is cool and healthful. In the district of Raposo, owing to the heavy woods and mangrove swamps, the climate is very damp, and, as it is also hot, fevers and dysentery prevail. On the Pacific slope the rains are frequent throughout the year.

The lower portions of the valleys of the Atrato, the San Juan, and the Baudó in the region of the Chocó, are exceedingly hot and damp and consequently unwholesome, though the intermittent fevers which prevail are not usually dangerous ones. The shores of the Pacific and other lands which are ventilated by the ocean breezes are healthful, notwithstanding the moisture and heat. In the highlands, above an altitude of 3,000 feet, the climate is temperate and healthful.

Gold is found both in river bottoms and in veins in a great

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many localities scattered about the Department of Cauca. There are many mines, some of which have been known for a long time, but the working of these rich deposits is and has always been partial and desultory.

Silver is found at Quilichao, Caloto, and Cerrorico, and there are indications of its presence at Andágueda and Bebará.

Platinum is found at Guapi and in the gold placer mines of Barbacoas, Iscuandé, and Micay, though not in very large amounts. It occurs with gold in the basins of the Atrato and San Juan, chiefly in Lloró, Yato, and Chacarandá, where it abounds.

Copper is found in the Tablas River and at San Lorenzo, Yumbo, Yotoco, Cali, Pichinché, and Andágueda.

Iron of excellent quality is found near Cali. It abounds in Yumbo, and also at Vijes and Yotoco.

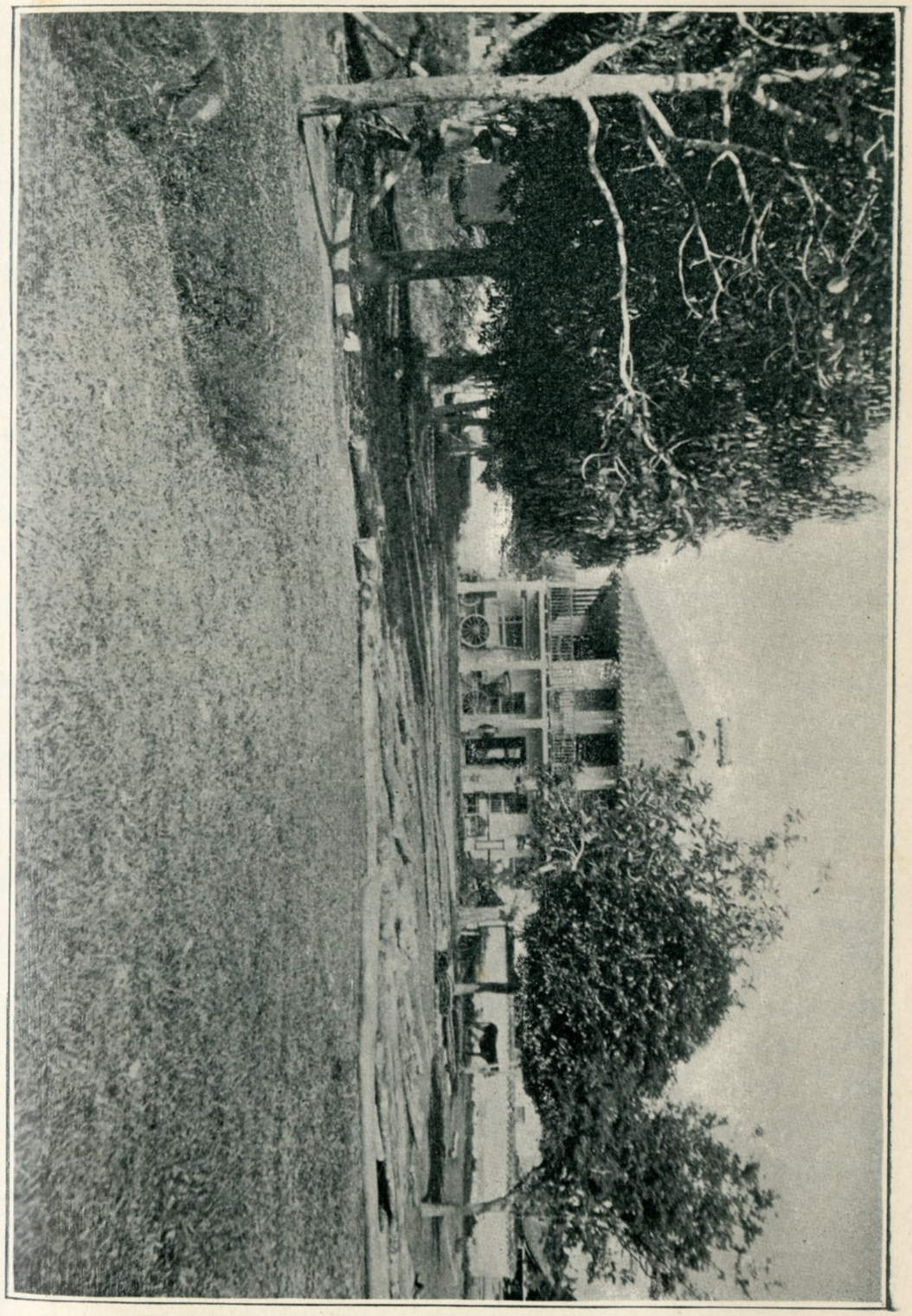
Salt is obtained in considerable quantities in a number of places. There are found besides, within the department, chalk, slate, amethysts, emeralds, coal, marble, lapiz, jet, lapiz lazuli, tin, lead, ochre, etc.

Mineral springs whose water is impregnated with iron, sulphur, etc., are found in various localities within this department.

DEPARTMENT OF TOLIMA.

The Department of Tolima is bounded on the north by Antioquia; on the east by Cundinamarca and Cauca; on the south and west by Cauca. The area is 18,434 square miles. Population, 306,000.

The territory of Tolima, situated in the angle formed by the separation of the Andes, at the Páramo de las Papas, into the central and the eastern Cordilleras, is part of the basin of the Magdalena, extending from south to north, a



MR. JAMES M. EDER'S FARM IN PALMIRA, CAUCA VALLEY.

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length of 315 miles from the Páramo de las Papas to the river Miel, the boundary on the north between this department and that of Antioquia.

The highest peaks of the central Cordillera are the Páramo de Guanacas, the Nevado del Huila, Barragán, the Nevado del Quindio, the Nevado de Santa Isabel, the Páramo de Ruiz, the Mesa de Herveo, and the splendid Nevado del Tolima, from which the department derives its name.

The central Cordillera of the Andes divides the Department of Tolima from the Department of Cauca. In its beginnings this cordillera is known as the Páramo del Buey, and contains peaks rising some 290 meters above the general level of the range. Among these are found the sources of the rivers Magdalena and Cauca, at an elevation of 12,857 feet.

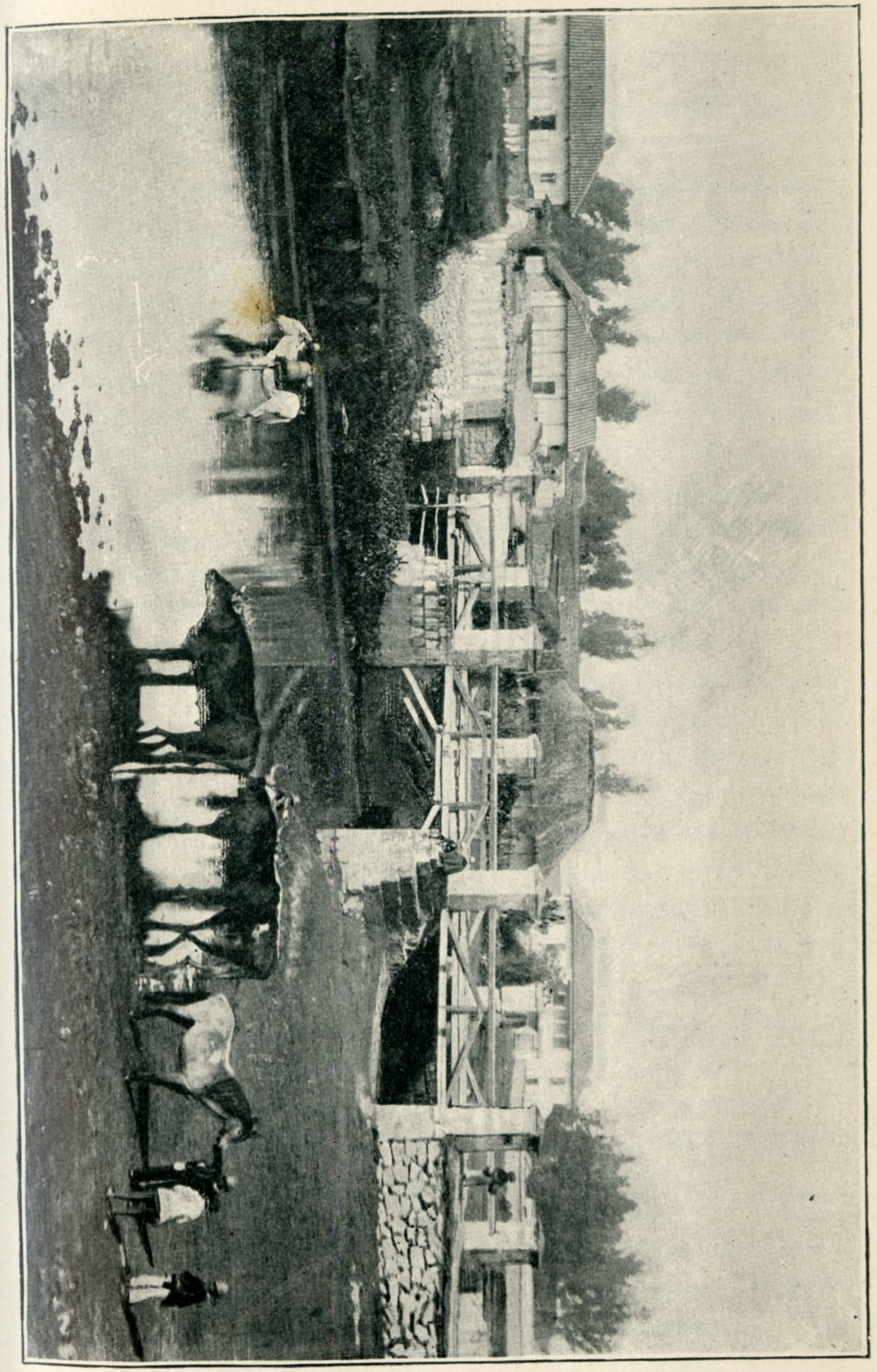
For about 15 miles of its length this cordillera maintains an altitude of from 13,000 to 14,625 feet. Five snow-covered peaks, known as the Coconuco, rise in one connected group, to heights ranging from 15,600 to 15,950 feet. The most northerly of the five is the volcano of Puracé, which constantly emits gases and vapors through a number of craters.

From the volcano of Puracé the cordillera takes a northeasterly direction, forming the páramo of Guanacas, the height of which, along the road to Papayán, is 11,433 feet, with peaks 650 feet higher still. The range then runs northwesterly, as the Páramo de Moras, 11,316 feet high. Turning again to the northeast, it swells into the Huila, crowned with three peaks, covered with perpetual snow, the highest of which is 18,525 feet above the level of the sea. The Huila is thought to be an extinct volcano. From this point the cordillera has in general a northerly direction, finally passing into the Department of Antioquia on the north.

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The eastern Cordillera of the Andes begins at the Páramo de las Papas, under which name it runs parallel with the Páramo del Buey for about 6 miles, turns suddenly toward the south for some 12 miles, reaching the height of 14,950 feet in the peak of Cutanga. The range then, after devious turnings, runs east and northeast into the Department of Cundinamarca. One of its offshoots forms, in latitude 2° 30′, the ridge which divides the waters which flow into the Orinoco from those which find their way into the Amazon.

All the streams of the department flow, directly or indirectly, into the Magdalena. Among those which rise in the central Cordillera the following may be named: the Páez, the Yaguará, the Aipe, the Plata, the Saldaña, the Luisa, the Coello, the Totare, the Riorrecio, the Lagunilla, the Sabandija, the Gualí, the Guarinó, and the Miel. The more important of those which rise in the eastern Cordillera are: the Suaza, the Gigante, the Neiva, the Frio, the Fortalecillas, the Cabrera, the Prado, and the Fusagasugá (which forms the boundary between Tolima and Cundinamarca). The Magdalena River rises in the Páramo de las Papas out of a small lake known as Laguna del Buey. From this source to the point at which the river leaves the department the distance in direct line is 347 miles, but along the actual course of the stream it is 478 miles. For about 124 miles the river is navigable for steamers, not uninterruptedly, however, as the Salto de Honda separates this course into two sections, divided by an interval of some 30 miles. For smaller boats the navigation extends 280 miles further. Another considerable river of the Department of Tolima is the Saldaña, which is navigable for small vessels about 75 miles. The river Páez may likewise be mentioned. In its course through the department the Magdalena receives the waters of 39 rivers of some importance, which



VILLAGE SCENE. SERREZUELA, CUNDINAMARCA.

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themselves receive those of more than 40 recognized though smaller streams.

Besides the Laguna del Buey already mentioned, and which is famous as the source of the Magdalena River, the following lakes of the Department of Tolima may be specified: the Laguna del Páramo, out of which flow two rivers, the Amoyá and the Cucuana. The Lagunetas, near Herveo, is remarkable for a multitude of curious aquatic plants, the abundance of which in certain portions of the lake gives to the latter the appearance of a number of distinct sheets of water. Its outlets are the Chinchiná and the Guali. Finally, in the Páramo of San Felix, at a place called Vallealto, there is an unnamed lake out of which flow the river Miel, a tributary of the Magdalena, and the Arma, a tributary of the Cauca River.

As the Department of Tolima comprises the wide valley of the upper Magdalena and a great part of the eastern and central Cordilleras of the Andes, it naturally has every variety of climate, from that of the torrid regions to that of the páramos and eternal snows. In the páramos the average temperature ranges from 45° to 54° F. The highest is 63° and the lowest 36°. Throughout the forests of the eastern Cordillera, in the cinchona region, the climate is healthy, the average temperature being from 52° to 57° F.

Along the valley of the Magdalena from San Agustin to Nare the average temperature ranges from 70° to 85°. The maximum heat is 90° and the minimum 63°. In the valleys of Melgar, Cunday, Payandé, Miraflores, Ataco, and Chaparral the average temperature ranges from 77° to 81°.

The great valley of the Magdalena, extending as it does from 2° north latitude to beyond 6°, experiences two rainy seasons and two dry ones. The sun passes over these places twice during each year, and by its direct heat so rare-

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fies the atmosphere as to cause the rushing in of the cooler air of other localities, which in its turn condenses into continued rains the aqueous vapor which abounds in the atmosphere. For the department as a whole it may be said that March, April, May, September, October, and November are the rainy months.

Gold is found in many portions of the department, and can be washed out of the sands of the rivers Saldaña, Atá, Blanco, Anamichú, and Cabrin.

Silver likewise occurs in various places in this department. The principal mines are said to be those of Santa Ana. Other mines of which mention is made are those of San Juan, Malpaso, Guarinó, Puano, Cristo de Lajas, and San José de Frias.

Copper is found in Natagaima in very great abundance. There are veins of over six feet through at la Mohosa, la Vieja and the Quebrada del Cauca. It is found also about the River Luisa, and an excellent ore is obtained at Rioblanco.

Other minerals found within the department are amethysts, rock crystal, magnetic ore, lime, jet, chalk, talc, iron pyrites, coal, asphaltum, cinnabar, lead, sulphur, alum, sulphate of iron, sulphate of magnesia, etc.

DEPARTMENT OF CUNDINAMARCA.

The Department of Cundinamarca is bounded on the north by the Republic of Venezuela and the departments of Boyacá and Santander, on the west by the departments of Antioquia and Tolima, on the south by the department of Cauca, and on the east by the Republic of Venezuela.

The area of Cundinamarca is about 92,000 square miles, of which only a small part is inhabited. Population, 569,000.

The eastern Cordillera of the Andes enters the Department of Cundinamarca and traverses it from south to north,



ROADSIDE VEGETATION. BOYACÁ.

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separating into various branches. The most mountainous part is the western, towards the Magdalena River. The most notable heights are the Nevado of Sumapaz and the "páramos" of Chamizal, Cruz-Verde, Pasquilla, el Hato, Sumapaz, and Choachí.

To the east of the eastern Cordillera is found the principal plain of Cundinamarca, known as the eastern region, which is very fertile and abounds in cattle. On the west lies the deep valley of the Magdalena, and the center comprises the rich savannahs of Bogotá, Ubaté, and Simijaca, the site in ancient times of an immense lake.

The innumerable streams of the eastern region almost all flow into the Meta and the Guayabero, which are tributaries of the Orinoco. Among the tributaries of the Meta in Cundinamarca may be named the Cabuyaro, the Guatiquia with its affluents, the Guacaravía and the Humea; the Rio Negro, the Guayuriba, the Chichimene, the Guamal, and the Pajure. Those of the western section flow into the Magdalena; of these the following are worthy of mention: the Fusagasugá, the Bogotá (known as the "Funza," in the earlier part of its course, before it precipitates itself over the splendid falls of Tequendama), the Seco, and the Rio Negro, which has many affluents and waters a vast and fertile region. The river Suarez rises in the lake of Fúquene and follows a northerly direction. The Sumapaz River, though small, is remarkable for the natural bridge of Icononzo, near Pandi.

DEPARTMENT OF BOYACÁ.

The Department of Boyacá is bounded on the north by Venezuela and Santander; on the east by Venezuela and Cundinamarca; on the south by Cundinamarca; on the west

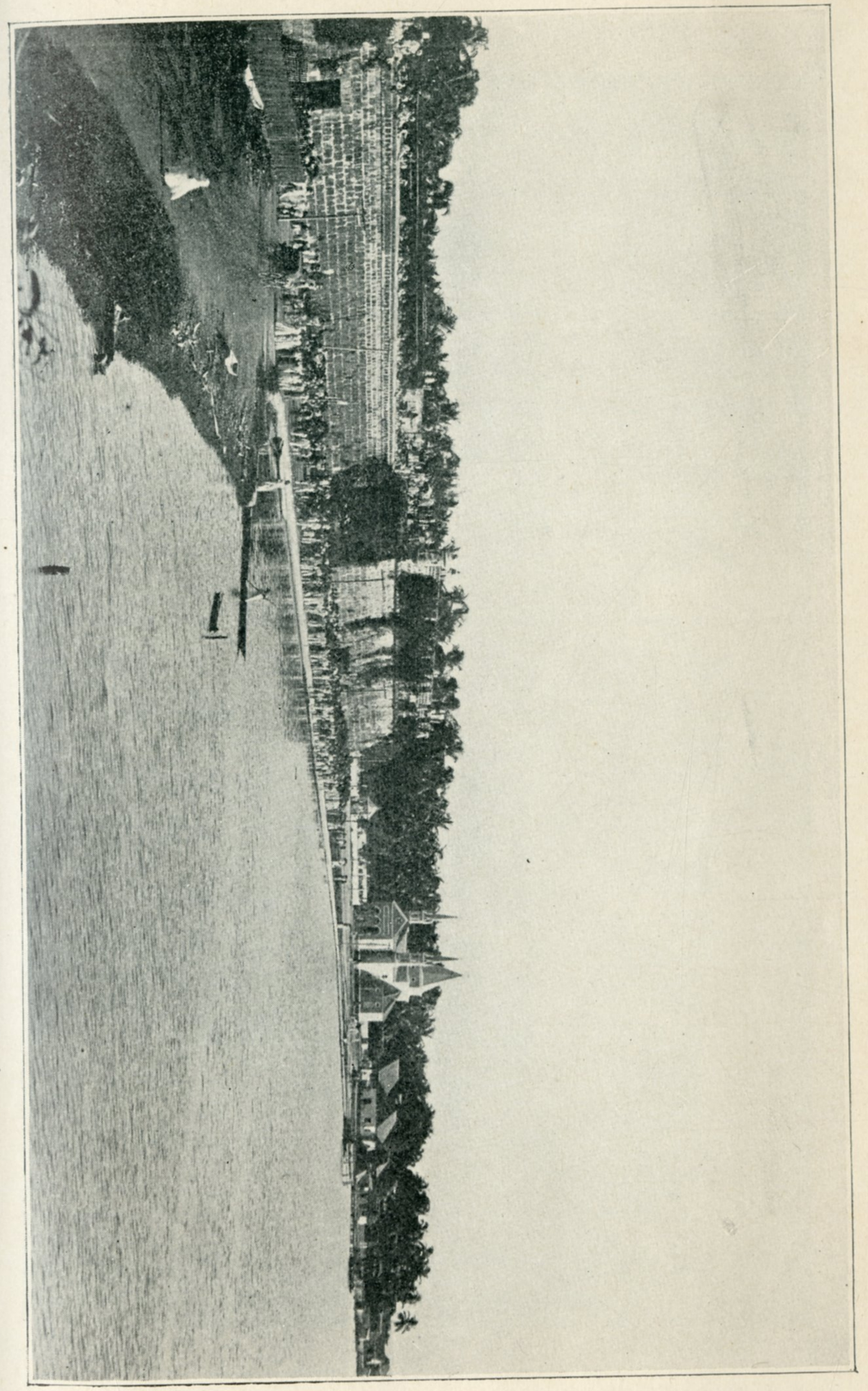
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by Cundinamarca, Santander, and Antioquia. The area of Boyacá is about 36,000 square miles, of which about one-fourth is inhabited. Population, 702,000.

The eastern Cordillera of the Andes traverses the Department of Boyacá from south to north, with branches on each side, the principal of which take an easterly direction and terminate on the plains of Casanare. The most notable heights in these ranges are the Sierra Nevada de Chita, the Boqueron del Consuelo, the Picachos de Ture, the Páramo de la Rusia, and Llanorredondo.

The majority of the rivers which water Boyacá descend from the eastern Cordillera, some towards the east and the others towards the west. Among the former the principal is the Meta, which is navigable from the confluence of the Humadea with the Rio Negro, and the principal tributaries of which are the following: the Upía, the Túa, the Parroblanco, the Cusiana, the Charte, the Cravo, the Tocaría, the Pauto, the Ariporo, the Chíre, the Casanare, the San Ignacio or Rio de Tame, the Cuiloto, the Ele, and the Lipa. The Carpanaparo flows directly to the Orinoco, into which also flows the Arauca, which forms the boundary between Boyacá and Venezuela. The principal river of the central region is the Chicamocha or Sogamoso, which after entering Santander flows into the Suarez. The western part of Boyacá is watered by the Suarez; the Minero, which afterwards joins with the Orta to form the Carare, an affluent of the Magdalena; and the Rio Negro, which forms the boundary with Cundinamarca.

The eastern Cordillera of the Andes, with its ramifications, divides the Department of Boyacá into two great regions: the eastern, which is level, low, of a hot climate, almost uninhabited and watered by many rivers, and the western region, high, cold, and healthful and abounding in

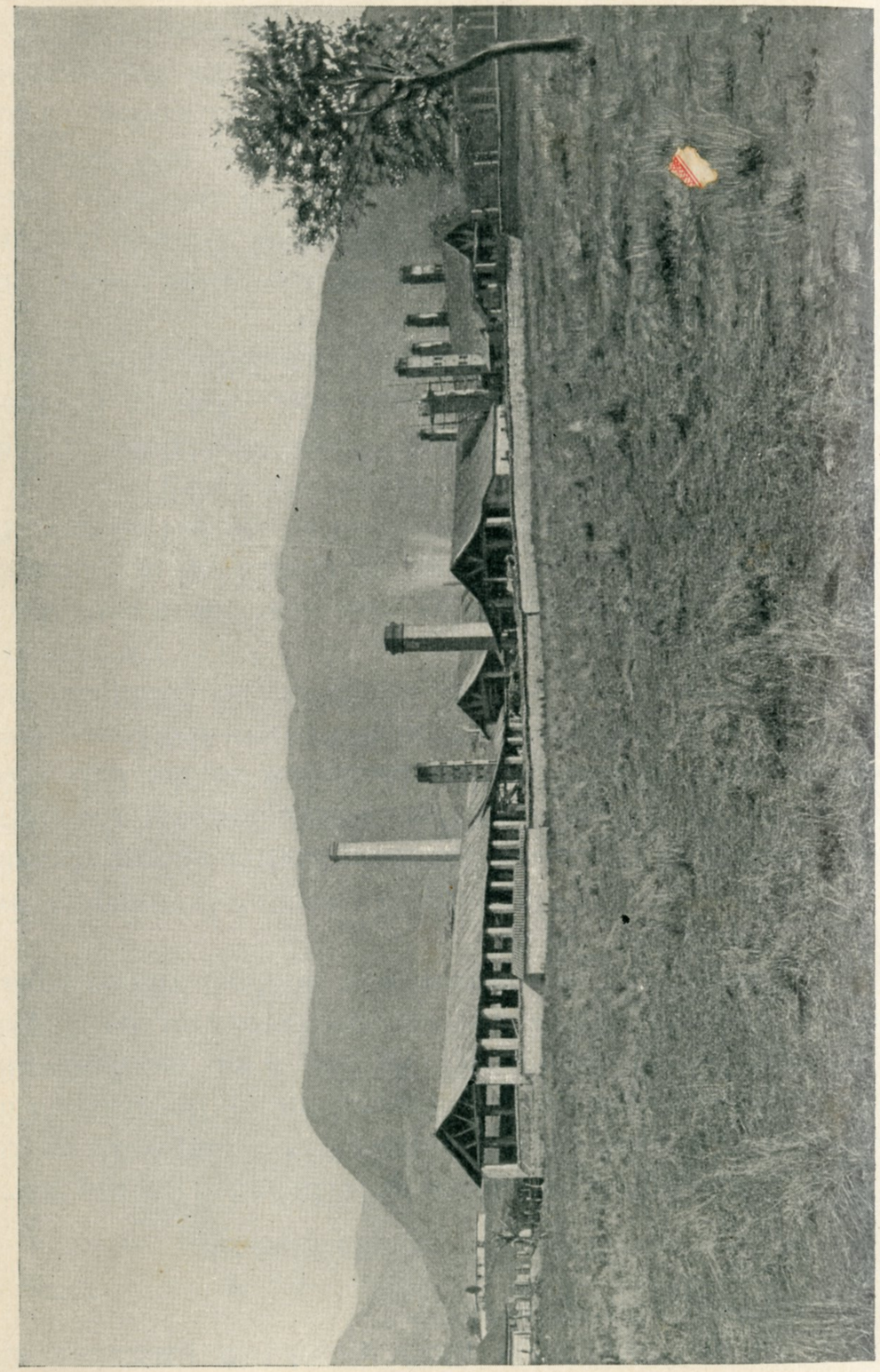


SUBURB OF CARTAGENA "EL CABRERO," ON THE DAY OF PRESIDENT NUÑEZ'S DEATH.

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(Cap. de los minerales) P. 28-



~~LA PRADERA IRON WORKS, NEAR BOGOTÁ.~~
Ferrería de la Pradera.

the Magdalena, flow the Lebrija, the Sogamoso, which is formed by the union of the Chicamocha and the Suárez, and is navigable almost throughout its course, the Colorado, the Opon, and the Carare.

DEPARTMEMT OF ANTIOQUIA.

The Department of Antioquia is bounded on the north by the departments of Bolívar and Cauca, on the east by Santander and Boyacá, on the south by Tolima and Cauca, and on the west by Cauca. The area of Antioquia is about 21,000 square miles, of which about two-thirds is inhabited. Population, 470,000.

The very numerous mountains of Antioquia are ramifications of the central Cordillera and of the Cordillera del Citará (a branch of the western Cordillera), which divide the territory of the department into three well-marked river basins: that of the Cauca in the center, that of the Magdalena on the east, and that of the Atrato on the west.

On its left bank the Cauca receives the following tributaries: the Cartama, San Juan, Tonusco, Ituango, Taraza, and Man. On the right it receives the Chinchiná, the Pozo, the Arma (which flows in an exceedingly deep channel), the Poblanco, the Aburrá, the San Andrés, and the Nechí, which receives the Porce and the Bagre, and is navigable om Zaragoza to its mouth.

Into the Magdalena the following rivers flow: the Miel, which rises in the Páramo de la Picona under the name of the Rio Dulce, and has for tributaries the Moro and the Samaná del Sur; the Rioloro, the Cocorná, the Nare, with its principal affluents, the Nus and the Samaná del Norte; the San Bartolomé or Cañorregla, the Ité, and the Tamar.

The principal rivers of Antioquia which flow into the Atrato are the Arquía, the Murri, and the Sucio. The following rivers also have their sources within the limits of Antioquia: the León (or Apurimiandó), which flows into the Gulf of Urabá; the Sinú, which flows into the Caribbean Sea; and the San Jorge, tributary of the Cauca.

The soil of the Department of Antioquia is quite sterile, but rich in mines of gold; its mountains are crossed by numberless veins, and its river beds form an uninterrupted series of gold-bearing sands. The richest sections are said to be in the lands watered by the Porce and Nechí Rivers. It would be difficult, even impossible, to estimate the value of the precious metals taken from Antioquian soil since the conquest, but even more difficult to form an idea of what still remains.

DEPARTMENT OF MAGDALENA.

The Department of Magdalena is bounded on the north and northeast by the Caribbean Sea; on the east by the Gulf of Maracaibo, the Republic of Venezuela, and the Department of Santander; on the south by Santander; on the west by Bolívar, from which it is separated by the Magdalena River. The area of the department is about 30,000 square miles, of which nearly one-third is inhabited. Population, 167,000.

A branch of the eastern Cordillera of the Andes traverses the eastern part of the department from south to north, under the local names of Sierra de Motilones and Sierra de Valledupar, and forms the watershed which divides the streams which flow into the Lake of Maracaibo from those which go to seek the Cesar and Magdalena rivers.

Towards the north of the department there is another mountain system which is wholly independent of the Andes. The heart or core of this system is the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta, comprising five snow-clad peaks, the highest

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of which is 17,355 feet high, and sends out offshoots in every direction in such wise as to resemble a star in shape.

The Magdalena River waters the department on the west, receiving numerous affluents, among which may be named the Lebrija and the Rancheria. The Cesar River runs in a southerly direction into the Magdalena. The Magdalena and the Cesar flow through the deepest and most extensive valleys in the department. The Goagira Peninsula is almost wholly composed of low, flat lands.

DEPARTMENT OF BOLIVAR.

The Department of Bolívar is bounded on the north by the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by the departments of Magdalena and Santander, from which it is divided by the Magdalena River; on the south by Antioquia; on the west by Cauca and the Atlantic. The area of the Department of Bolívar is nearly 30,000 square miles, of which less than one-half is inhabited. Population, 324,400.

The Department of Bolívar may be said to be in its eastern part a vast plain, low and almost wholly withdrawn from the mountain system of the country. Towards the south, along the boundary between Bolívar and Antioquia, is the range known as the Serranía de Ayapel; that of San Jerónimo traverses the entire department from south to north, and that of Abibe, which approaches the Point of Arboletes, all three being ramifications of the western Cordillera. Some offshoots of the western Cordillera enter the department from Antioquia and dwindle away near the banks of the Magdalena. The Magdalena waters all the eastern portion of the department. The Magdalena receives the waters of the Cauca, which in its turn has the San Jorge as a tributary. The Sinú, which has its rise in Antioquia, waters the western region of Bolívar and empties into the Atlantic through the

Gulf of Cispata. All of these rivers are navigable by steamers, as is also the Canal del Dique, an artificial arm of the Magdalena, which is a means of communication between Cartagena and the interior of the Republic.

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CHAPTER III.

THE CITIES OF THE REPUBLIC.

Bogotá is the capital of the Republic and the Department of Cundinamarca. It has 120,000 inhabitants, and is picturesquely situated in the savannah of the same name, at the foot of the heights of Guadalupe and Monserrate. It was founded by Gonzalo Jiménez de Quesada on the 6th of August, 1536, and constituted a city by the emperor Charles V. It is an archiepiscopal see, and contains thirty edifices dedicated to the Roman Catholic faith, counting both churches and chapels, among which may be specially mentioned the cathedral, on account of the elegance and purity of its style of architecture, and the Church of Our Lady of Lourdes, which has just been erected in the suburb of Chapinero, and will rank as one of the handsomest temples in the Republic.

Among the National Government buildings are the capitol, in course of erection, and the ancient convents of Santo Domingo and San Francisco, which have been adapted to official uses. The city contains a mint, a public market, three cemeteries (one of them for protestants), a national library with more than 40,000 volumes, a museum of antiquities and natural curiosities, an astronomical observatory founded by Don José Celestino Mutis, the celebrated scientist; a university, with faculties in law, medicine, natural sciences and engineering; an ecclesiastical seminary, an



BOLIVAR SQUARE, BOGOTÁ.

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institute of fine arts, and many public and private institutions for the education of the young of both sexes. Other notable buildings in Bogotá are the National Theatre, which has been recently built and is one of the finest in America; the municipal building; the panóptico, or penitentiary; the San Juan de Dios hospital, and the hospicio, or Orphan Asylum. There are three parks, those of Santander, Centenario, and Martyrs, there being in the first named a bronze statue of General Santander, while in the second there is a magnificent chapel (or "templete") in which is to stand a statue of the Liberator, Simon Bolívar. In the principal square there is another statue of Bolívar, which is a fine work of art. The city is abundantly supplied with water, and enjoys a delicious climate. The streets are not wide, but are almost all paved, and are lighted by electric lights. The dwelling houses are generally comfortable and of good appearance. A regular water service and a general system of sewers are in the course of introduction. A complete telephone system has been established.

The City of *Zipaquirá*, 12,000 inhabitants, is on a beautiful plain of singular fertility, is notable for the rich mine of salt which is being worked by the National Government, and supplies nearly all the towns of Cundinamarca and Boyacá, as well as many of those of Santander and Tolima. Zipaquirá is the principal center for the trade with Cundinamarca and Santander, sugar, cotton, rice, tobacco, and blankets being brought there to be exchanged for salt.

Facatativá 7,500 inhabitants, is at the western end of the savannah of Bogotá, and connected with the capital by both a steam railway and a wagon road, is the center of an active trade between the warm regions and the cold ones, and derives great profit from the carriage of foreign merchandise going from Honda to Bogotá.

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La Mesa, 14,000 inhabitants, is a picturesque city with a genial climate, located on a high and pleasant plain. It is the chief center of the commerce between the towns of Cundinamarca and those of Tolima.

Cáqueza and *Fómeque* are the most important towns of the eastern part of Cundinamarca.

Guaduas is situated in the center of a beautiful valley. It is especially important as a stage between Honda and Bogotá.

Fusagasugá is a summer resort and watering-place, with a delicious climate and a great abundance of water, fruits, and vegetables. It is the center of a very important growing coffee district.

Chocontá is noted for the manufacture of saddles and harness, in which a brisk trade is done.

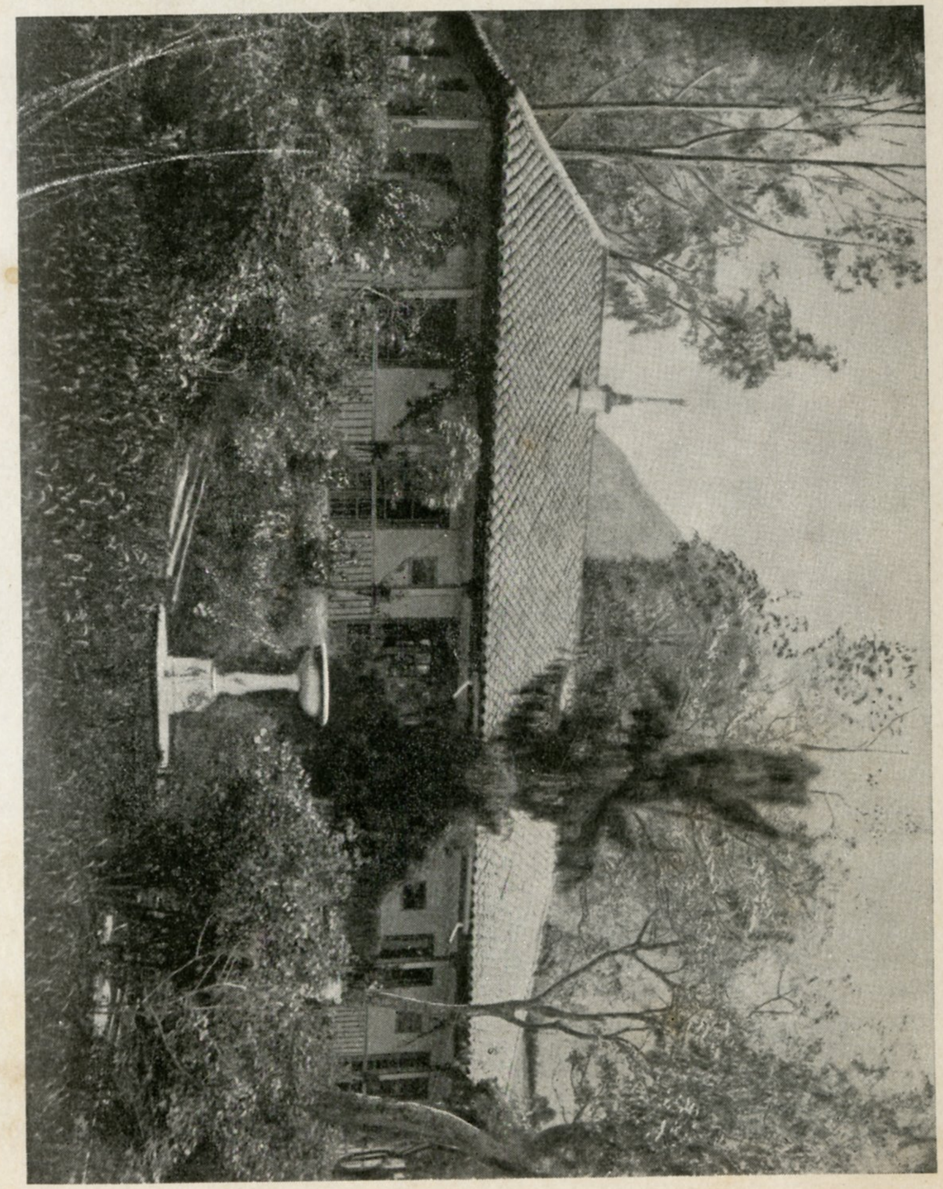
Tunja, 10,000 inhabitants, is the capital of the department of Boyacá, founded by Capt. Gonzalo Suarez Rendon in 1538; a town of some importance in the colonial period, and now the center of a large agricultural district. It covers a considerable area, and the houses are generally high and solidly built in an old style. It contains a number of churches and convents, and is the seat of the bishop of the diocese.

Sogamoso is in a rich valley, a cheerful town, the chief commercial center of the department.

Santa Rosa is pleasantly situated, and noted for the tastefulness of its dwellings.

Chiquinquirá, a large town, of some commercial importance, is much frequented by pilgrims to its Sanctuary of the Virgin, which is probably the finest temple in the Republic.

Moniquirá, 13,000 inhabitants, on the river of the same name, originally a settlement of the Aborigines, produces sweetmeats and conserves on a large scale. In its neighborhood there is a rich copper mine.



THE HOME OF BOLIVAR.

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THE CATHEDRAL OF BOGOTÁ.

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Socorro, a large, well-built, and commercial city of 20,000 inhabitants, was at one time capital of the Department of Santander.

Zapatoca, on the left bank of the river Suarez, which is crossed by a handsome iron bridge, is one of the most industrious towns in Santander.

San Gil, on the river of the same name is situated in a narrow valley, which hems it in ; but its plan is quite regular, its houses comfortable, and its general aspect an agreeable one. It contains a handsome church and several chapels, a hospital, an endowed college, and a fine iron bridge over the river.

Vélez, 15,000 inhabitants, is a town formerly of great importance ; its houses are good, its climate agreeable, and it produces very fine preserves.

Piedecuesta is situated in a picturesque valley with a genial climate and abundant water. The town is neat and cheerful, the houses comfortable, and the inhabitants very industrious.

Bucaramanga, the capital of the Department of Santander, a rich commercial city of 30,000 inhabitants, has grown rapidly of late years and will no doubt be much benefited by the railway built to connect it with the Magdalena. The dwelling houses are commodious and elegant, the streets straight, wide, and clean, and lighted by electric lights.

Girón, famous for its tobacco and its gold mines, contains also a church which is undoubtedly the finest in Santander.

Pamplona, an ancient city, was large and very important in the colonial period but is now considerably reduced. It is an Episcopal see, and contains a handsome cathedral, the chapels of various abandoned convents, and an endowed college.

San José de Cúcuta, 20,000 inhabitants, a town of recent origin, which had begun to grow very rapidly when it was

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destroyed by an earthquake, May 18, 1875. It has since been rebuilt, and is to-day the handsomest and commercially the most active town in Santander. A well-built railway connects it with the river Zulia, which is navigable by steamers.

Ocaña has a genial and healthful climate, and is situated on a sandy plain on the banks of the little stream known as the Rio Grande. It contains seven churches, and had at one time a number of convents.

Neiva, the former capital of the Department of Tolima, with 15,000 inhabitants, is situated in a warm but healthful valley, on the right bank of the Magdalena. The city is very clean, its streets are wide and straight, and almost all the houses have tiled roofs. It has an endowed college for males, and is the center of an active trade both with the neighboring departments and with foreign countries. The steamers on the upper Magdalena visit the place, though not with any great degree of regularity.

Ibagué, 12,360 inhabitants, the present capital of the Department of Tolima, is picturesquely situated between the rivers Chipalo and Combeima, affluents of the Coello. It has an endowed college. The houses have tiled roofs. A few rods from the town the Combeima is spanned by a fine iron bridge by which Tolima is connected with Cauca by way of Quindío.

Honda, at the confluence of the Magdalena and the Gualí, a place of great commercial importance as the head of navigation on the lower Magdalena, through which passes the traffic of all the central region of the Republic. It was a rich and popular city in the colonial period, with several convents and churches, a hospital and handsome public buildings, but it was almost completely destroyed by the earthquake of 1805.

Medellin, capital of the Department of Antioquia, 50,000



MONUMENT TO BOLIVAR IN THE CENTENARIO PARK, BOGOTÁ.

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inhabitants, situated at the foot of the peak of Santa Elena, on the bank of the Medellín River. The city is large, its streets are wide, straight and clean, the water supply is abundant, and the dwellings are attractive. It is the residence of the bishop of the diocese, and contains a university, a seminary, several public and private educational establishments, a hospital, a lunatic asylum, a house of refuge, a charitable institution, two orphan asylums, a convent of barefoot Carmelites, a theatre, a mint, a public museum and library, five churches and two chapels, several printing offices, a school of arts, a park, handsome public drives, several banks, and many rich commercial houses. It has a well-established telephone system, connected with those of neighboring towns.

Antioquia, 13,000 inhabitants, formerly a flourishing city, on the left bank of the river Cauca, is the residence of the bishop of Antioquia, and contains a handsome cathedral, a seminary, a hospital, and commodious dwellings.

Santa Rosa de Osos and *Remedios*, noted for the wealth of their gold mines.

Rio Negro, near Medellín, has a healthful and agreeable climate and is a well-built and cheerful town, with a hospital, a theatre, and handsome gardens.

Abejorral, a handsome and important town, is peopled with rich and industrious inhabitants, who are devoted to agriculture.

Marinilla, a short distance from Rio Negro, has a number of good dwellings and an endowed college.

Sonsón. a very rich and flourishing town, is noted for the fertility of its fields, the wealth of its mines, and the industry and morality of its inhabitants.

Manizales, 18,000 inhabitants, a town of recent origin but growing fast, being the center of the trade between the southern part of Antioquia and the Departments of Cauca

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and Tolima, is situated on the frontier of Cauca, and its position makes it, in a military sense, the key of Antioquia. It has suffered somewhat from earthquakes.

Salamina, after Manizales, is the most important town of southern Antioquia.

Popayán, capital of the Department of Cauca, with 10,000 inhabitants, was founded by Sebastián de Belalcázar, in 1536, at the foot of the volcano of Puracé. It is an Episcopal see and contains a mint, a seminary, a public college, and several schools, and other educational institutions. Among its Catholic churches, the most important are the cathedral and the Church of San Francisco, and among its public buildings the Episcopal palace and the Government house. The cemetery is considered one of the finest in the Republic. The climate of Popayán is very agreeable, its area large, and its houses comfortable and well-built. Thunder storms are common and the eruptious of Puracé frequent but harmless. Close to the town the Cauca River is crossed by a fine bridge of masonry.

Pasto, 18,000 inhabitants, at the foot of the volcano of Pasto (or la Galera), has a beautiful situation, with a delightful climate, and is abundantly supplied with water. The town is large, the houses having almost all tiled roofs and the streets being straight and well-paved. It has twelve churches and five convents (suppressed), a seminary, and an endowed college. It is an Episcopal see and was formerly the capital of the old province of Pasto. Its inhabitants are hardy, hospitable, and industrious. They manufacture woolen cloths, varnishes, and a great variety of curious woodenware, and carry on an active trade with Ecuador.

Barbacoas is situated at the confluence of the Guagüí and the Telembí, which together flow into the Patía, only a short distance off. Through these rivers steam navigation is

opened to the Pacific. This town carries on an active trade with Tumaco and the town of Panamá, Ecuador, and Perú. Some very rich gold mines are worked in the neighborhood.

Túquerres, a large town of straw-thatched and poorly built houses, has a very cold climate, but is surrounded by beautiful plains of extraordinary fertility. Not far away is the volcano of Túquerres, whose summit, composed almost exclusively of sulphur, gives out a strong odor, noticeable at some distance.

Quibdó, on the right bank of the Atrato, is the market for the gold of Chocó.

Buenaventura, on a little island of the Pacific, is the most important port of Cauca through which most of the commerce of the department goes. The submarine cable touches there, and it is the starting point of the railway to Córdoba.

Buga, a short distance from the Cauca River, and in easy communication with the Pacific, was a very important place in the colonial period, and still ranks among the first in the department by its population and agricultural wealth.

Cali, 16,000 inhabitants, the most important city in Cauca as to both population and trade, is situated on the Cali River, which is spanned by a handsome bridge. The houses are comfortable and attractive, and the streets wide, straight and clean. It has seven Catholic churches, of which the most important are those of San Francisco and San Pedro, two convents and several educational establishments.

Palmira, a flourishing agricultural town, is noted for the tobacco cultivated in its neighborhood, which is known as "tobacco de olor" (odorous tobacco); it enjoys a great reputation and is greatly sought after.

Cartago, on the banks of the River La Vieja, produces

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cacao, coffee, and tobacco in considerable quantities, and in its pastures large herds of cattle feed.

Cartagena, 25,000 inhabitants, capital of the Department of Bolívar, was founded by D. Pedro de Heredia in 1533, on a sandy island in the splendid bay of Cartagena on the Caribbean coast. The city proper is surrounded by thick walls and many bulwarks. From this the Gate of the Bridge leads to the ward or suburb of Jetzemaní, which is in turn connected by three bridges with an outer ward, named Pie de la Popa from the neighboring mount of La Popa, on whose summit stands a great building, formerly a convent, now a military hospital. Cartagena is one of the handsomest cities of the Republic, and was commercially the most important in the colonial period, during which it was on several occasions taken and sacked by pirates and corsairs. The Spanish Government made it one of the strongest places on the continent, by fortifications costing $59,000,000. On the mainland stands the castle of San Felipe, and at the entrance of the bay those of San Fernando and San José, the latter almost in ruins.

Cartagena is an Episcopal see and contains many handsome and well-built churches, such as the cathedral and the churches of Santo Dominigo and San Juan de Díos. It has a national custom-house, a handsome theatre, primary and professional schools, a hospital, a house of detention, three banks, a revolving light in the tower of the old convent of La Merced, and a stationery one on the castle of San Fernando, a good public library, a marble statue of the illustrious José Fernández Madrid, and several public buildings. In the Plaza de la Independencia there is a handsome promenade ornamented with busts of the patriots who were shot there in 1816. This city was the first to declare independence from Spain in 1811. In 1815 it endured a memo-



A SUBURB OF BOGOTÁ.

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rable siege by the Spanish army, which won for it the title of "her heroic city," and it has been since besieged several times during the civil wars. Its commerce has received a new impetus from the building of the railway to the Magdalena and the harbor improvements carried out by a North American Company.

Barranquilla, 20,000 inhabitants, on the western bank of the Magdalena, fifteen miles from the river's mouth, and connected by railway with the port of Sabanilla. Barranquilla is the river port from which start the steamers which navigate the Magdalena, and is the site of the custom-house, which was formerly at Sabanilla. The city has a considerable population, and contains many merchants and other strangers drawn thither by the activity of its commerce. It manufactures fine brandies, soaps, bricks, and tiles, and has a good shipyard and public aqueduct.

Mompox, 9,000 inhabitants, on the western bank of the Magdalena, was formerly a flourishing and important port, but the course of the river having changed, steamers can no longer approach the city, and this has much diminished the commercial importance of the place. It played a distinguished part in the war of independence, and contains a college which was generously endowed by Don Pedro Martinez Pinillos, and a very fine cemetery.

Carmen, noted for its tobacco; *Corozal*, surrounded by large and fertile plains, and *Magangué*, near the confluence of the Cauca and the Magdalena, famous for its fairs, are other towns of Bolívar.

Santa Marta, capital of the Department of Magdalena (6,000 inhabitants), founded by Rodrigo de Bastidas in 1525. In the colonial period it was very important, and even down to more recent times it was a commercial center of the first rank. It is a port of entry, and a line of railway is partially

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constructed, which may be continued to the Magdalena River. It is an Episcopal see, with a seminary, and a handsome cathedral, a hospital, a public library, and a handsome cemetery. The neighboring estate of San Pedro Alejandrino is remembered as the place where the liberator, Bolívar, died in 1830.

Río Hacha, 5,000 inhabitants, has been a much frequented port of entry, and is growing in importance.

Panamá, 25,000 inhabitants, capital of the department of that name, is situated at the head of the bay of the same name, a handsome city, of great importance from early colonial times, with a very active trade, and largely peopled by foreigners. It is an Episcopal see, and has a seminary, two hospitals, a theatre, a cathedral, and several other churches, and some ancient convents.

Colón, or as it has been called in the United States, *Aspinwall*, 5,000 inhabitants, connected with Panamá by a railway 49 miles in length. It was partly burned down during the civil war in 1885, but has since been rebuilt. It is situated on the island of Manzanillo, and was founded as late as 1855. It has a famous statue of Columbus, the gift of the Empress Eugenie, wife of Napoleon III.

Penonomé, *David*, *Los Santos*, and *Santiago* are towns of less importance.

Bocas del Toro is the capital of the district of the same name, and Yaviza the capital of the district of Darien.

No complete census of Colombia has been made; but on the basis of partial enumeration and other data, it is estimated that the population of the Republic is not less than 4,000,000, which is equivalent to about 300 inhabitants to the square myriameter (38 square miles).

The dominant race in the Republic is the white, of Latin origin, that came to America with the conquerors. The

pure indigenous race is found in the territories inhabited by savages, less than 200,000 in number. In the departments of Cundinamarca and Boyacá, and in parts of Cauca, the aboriginal elements of the population are found in the lower classes, with well-defined characteristics, but largely mixed with the white. The negro race, of African origin, abounds in the valley of the Cauca, in Antioquia, in Bolívar, and in Panamá, where there are also many mulattos and mestizos (of mixed white and Indian blood.) In the departments of the interior negroes are very rare.

The population of Colombia is not at all evenly distributed over its territory; the greater portion live in the Andine regions, at an elevation of from 2,500 to 8,600 feet above the level of the sea, and along the coasts and river banks.

According to recent estimates the population by departments is as follows:

Cundinamarca, 569,000, one-fourth whites and the rest Indians and half-breeds.

Boyacá, 702,000, most of them of the native race, either pure or mixed with the white; negroes rare.

Santander, 555,600, without counting the uncivilized Indians living near the banks of the Opon and the Carare.

Tolima, 230,000, some whites and some half-breed Indians. Many of the inhabitants came from Antioquia.

Antioquia, 570,000 inhabitants, almost all white; some negroes; hardly any Indians.

Cauca, 641,000, without counting the uncivilized Indians. The whites predominate, but there are many Indians in the south and on the mountains, and a number of negroes in the valley of the Cauca.

Bolívar, 324,400, mostly whites, with some of the negro race, pure or mixed.

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Magdalena, 167,000, of whom about 40,000 are uncivilized Indians.

Panamá, 285,000, whites, negroes, Indians, and mixed, the latter three predominating.

The common people are industrious, simple, hospitable and of singular probity. Life and property are absolutely safe. Highway robbery would be a novelty, and courtesy to strangers is proverbial. The upper classes are well-educated, intelligent, desirous of progress, courteous to strangers, patriotic, and sensible. The government is a centralized republic. The property and rights of foreigners are respected and protected. The disposition of the Government and of all classes is friendly to foreigners, and with rare exceptions the people are especially inclined to the citizens and institutions of the United States.

The better classes of the people are distinguished for intelligence, festive humor, hospitality, and generous impulses. The educated classes rank among the first in South America for their scientific and literary culture. The women of Medellin, Bogotá, Ocaña, and other cities are celebrated by travelers for their grace and beauty. In Bogotá the French fashions predominate, and the inhabitants incline to European manners. On the coast the people, owing to the climate, are wanting in energy. The llaneros (cowboys) on the plains wear nothing but a shirt and light drawers, a straw hat and bark sandals. They ride without a saddle, and live almost entirely on beef.

Throughout the country the prevailing language is the Spanish, which is written with notable purity and elegance in the principal literary centers, such as Bogotá, Popayán, Cartagena and Medellin. Almost all the inhabitants of aboriginal descent have forgotten their ancient tongues, to such a point that it is now difficult to study and classify those

languages. Only the savage tribes, which have never been christianized, and some residents of Tierra Adentro, in the Department of Cauca, retain their primitive speech.

The effort is being made in Colombia to diffuse instruction in all the sciences and liberal arts, and for this purpose there have been established universities, colleges, seminaries, institutes, libraries, and primary and normal schools, in which more than 300,000 pupils of both sexes are being taught.

There is also an astronomical observatory at Bogotá, that is at an elevation of 8,600 feet above the level of the sea.

During recent years the scale on which public instruction is afforded in Colombia has increased appreciably. More than 100,000 children attend the public schools maintained at the expense of the departments, and as there is no restriction on the liberty to teach, there are many private schools for both primary and professional instruction.

The Government maintains a national university comprising four faculties: philosophy and letters, medicine and natural sciences, law, and mathematics. It supports, besides, an institute of fine arts, an academy of music, an artisans' institute, various normal schools for the training of teachers, and a school of mines at Medellin.

The departmental governments maintain, upon their part, various colleges and scientific institutes, among which the universities of Antioquia, Cauca and Bolívar are specially worthy of mention. There are, besides, in the Republic several colleges supported by revenues of their own, produced by old endowments, such as those of Nuestra Señora del Rosario and San Bartolemé, in Bogotá, which are incorporated with the university; that of La Merced for girls, in Bogotá; that of San Simón, in Ibagué; Santa Librada, in Neiva; Guanentá, in San Gil; Jesus, María y José, in Chiquin-

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quirá ; Boyacá, in Tunja ; Santa Librada, in Cali ; two in the city of Pasto, and one in Pamplona.

In each Episcopal diocese there is a seminary for the education of priests. These seminaries are maintained by their own revenues, and are managed independently of the civil authorities.

The Roman Catholic is the religion of the state, but other creeds are tolerated. Almost all Colombians profess the Roman Catholic religion. The uncivilized Indians are idolaters.

Though a concordat with the Holy See was entered into after the adoption of the constitution of 1886, religious liberty is expressly guaranteed by articles 39 and 40 of that constitution, the text of which is as follows :

ART. 39. Nobody shall be molested on account of his religious opinions, or compelled by the authorities to profess beliefs or observe practices contrary to his conscience.

ART. 40. The exercises of all forms of worship not contrary to Christian morals, or to the laws shall be permitted. Acts contrary to Christian morals or subversive of social order shall be dealt with according to the ordinary laws.

CHAPTER IV.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

On the 14th of September, 1502, Columbus discovered Cape Gracias á Dios, which was afterwards to be the extreme point of the Colombian coast in that direction. In October, 1502, he discovered Almirante Bay, now known as Bocas del Toro. Columbus named the region Zerabora. He found there specimens of fine gold, and the natives declared that that gold had been brought from certain spots in the west, one of which they called Veragua.

From Almirante Bay Columbus proceeded to the great lagoon of Chiriquí, known as Alburema, and then followed the coast of Veragua to Porto Bello. On the 9th of November he continued his search for the passage to India which he hoped to find, but owing to the bad condition of his ships and the violence of the storm he was obliged to seek shelter among some small islands near the coast. The abundance of food, and the cornfields, which could be seen both on the islands and the mainland, led him to name this refuge Bastimento (place of supplies). On the 23d of November he was driven by stress of weather into a little port, which he named Retrete.

Unable as he was to take back to Spain the important news of the discovery of an interoceanic passage, Columbus wished at least to gratify the general eagerness to find new sources of wealth by carrying home numerous specimens of

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gold and a full description of the mines of Veraguas. With this end in view, he started from Retrete on the 5th of December and took a westerly course. After suffering fifteen days of hardship and danger, being exposed to a terrible storm, the explorers on the 7th of January, 1503, reached the mouth of the Belen River, known to the Indians as Kiebra.

The inhabitants of the country on its discovery were, like those of Mexico and Peru, distinguished into two grand branches, the savages of the lowlands and coast regions and the semi-civilized race of the table-lands. The Colombian highlanders were the Muyscas, or, more properly, Chibchas, the word Muysca, in the Chibcha tongue, merely signifying "men" or "people." The origin and the elements of civilization introduced among them were attributed to two mythical beings, Bochica and Nemterequeteba, who are frequently confounded one with the other.

The country was ruled by three powers. The spiritual chief was the electoral high priest of Iraca or Sugamuxi; the temporal princes were the Zaque of Hunsa, or Tunja, and the Zipa of Funza, who would seem to have been in the feudal constitution originally subordinate to the Zaque.

The Chibchas had a regular system of computing time. For money they used small circular gold plates, all cast of equal size. Their temples of the sun were built with stone columns, some vestiges of which were discovered in Leiva at the beginning of the present century. Their language was rich, sweet, and harmonious. The people were frugal and industrious, but little versed in the art of war, for although numbering about 2,000,000, Quesada subjugated them with less than 200 Spaniards.

Other architectural relics in various parts of the country were probably the work of a still more highly cultivated race

than the Chibchas, and perhaps allied to the Aymaras of Upper Peru.

Of the origin of the coast Indians, such as the Mesayas, Goajiros, etc., still mostly in a savage state and speaking their own language, little is known, except that they bear no resemblance to any of the other American families.

In 1508 Ojeda obtained from the Spanish Crown a grant of the district from Cape Vela westward to the Gulf of Darien, while the rest of the country from the Gulf of Darien to Cape Gracias á Dios was bestowed on his fellow adventurer, Nicuesa. The two territories designated, respectively, Nueva Andalucia and Castilla de Oro, were united in 1514 into the province of Tierrafirme and intrusted to Pedro Arias Dávila.

During 1513 Vasco Nuñez de Balboa started from Antigua del Darien, and was the first European to cross the isthmus. Standing on a height, he discovered the Pacific Ocean, on the 25th of September, 1513. The line traveled by Balboa was that from Puerto Carreto to the Gulf of San Miguel, so called because discovered on the day which the church assigns to St. Michael. Diego de Albites and Pedro Guzman were the first Spaniards to reach a small fishing station on the Pacific, known by the natives as Panamá on account of the abundance of fish and mussels. It was here, according to some histories, that Colonel Pedro Arias Dávila, the first governor of Castilla de Oro, founded the city of Panamá. According to Prescott the city was first founded on the Atlantic coast, and transferred to the Pacific in 1519, at the point now known as Panamá-viejo.

In 1514 Gabriel Rojo established himself at Agla, at the mouth of the Aglamonte, which was fortified by Dávila in 1516. In 1532, however, the inhabitants of both Agla and

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Antigua del Darien removed, under the leadership of Dávila, to Nombre de Dios and Panamá.

On the 6th of August, 1536, General Gonzalo Jiménez de Quesada started from Santa Marta with 700 infantry and 80 horse on an exploring expedition into the interior of New Granada. He led his party through the mountains of the Chimilas, and by Chiriguaná, Tamalameque, the Serrano River, Barrancabermeja, and as far as the farthest peak of the Sierra de Opon. After resting for a while at the heights of Velez, in Santander, they descended the Saravita, or Suarez, passed through the valley of Ubasá, Sorocatá, Turca, and by Gachetá to the country of the Chibchas. The 167 men who alone remained alive of the entire force captured Mequetá, the Chibcha capital, and afterwards Usaquen, Guasca, Guatavita, and Chocontá.

By the middle of the century the Spanish power was fairly established, and flourishing communities arose along the coasts and in the table-lands of Cundinamarca, formerly occupied by the Muyscas. For the better government of the colony the Spanish monarch erected a presidency of New Granada, which continued till 1718, when it was raised to the rank of a viceroyalty. In the following year, however, the second viceroy, Don Jorge Villalonga, Count de la Cueva, expressing his opinion that the maintenance of this dignity was too great a burden on the settlers, the viceroyalty gave way to a simple presidency.

In 1670 Fray Alonzo Ronquillo, of the order of Preaching Friars, founded the city of Medina.

In 1680 the buccaneers crossed the isthmus, starting from the same point as Balboa, and, aided by the Indians, descended the Chucunaque and took the city del real de Santa Maria.

In 1685 the mines of Cana were shut up by royal decree

in order to put a stop to the incursions of the filibusters. The road leading to the mines was closed, and the locality ceased to be inhabited.

In 1698 a colony of Scotchmen was established at what is still known as Puerto Escocés. This colony was promoted by Patterson, the founder of the bank of England. One year later the colony was abandoned, though it had at the entrance of the port two batteries of 52 guns each and a garrison of some 600 men. The intention of the founder was to establish an important colony on the Pacific, but the colonists were expelled by Pimienta, Captain-General at Cartagena.

A number of Spanish settlements were made along the rivers which flow into the Pacific, but in 1719 the natives rose against the Spaniards and destroyed these colonies.

In 1740 General Martinez de la Vega arranged a peace with the Indians, and Jesuits from Santa Fé and Panamá founded settlements at Molineca, Balsas, Tucubti, Chucunorena, Cape, and Yaviza. But hardly had these been founded when the Indians rose again, and the fathers had to flee for their lives.

In 1740 the viceroyalty was re-established, and continued as long as the Spanish authority. An insurrection against the home government was formally commenced in 1810, and an incessant war against the Spanish forces was waged till 1824. In 1819 the great national hero, Bolívar, effected a union between New Granada and Venezuela, to which was given the title of the Republic of Colombia. Ecuador joined the union in 1821; but in 1829 Venezuela withdrew, and in 1830 Ecuador followed her example. The Republic of New Granada was founded November 31, 1831, and in 1832 a constitution was promulgated.

About the middle of the last century several bands of fili-

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busters, led by Miguelillo, Pierre, Pierró, (a priest), Daniel, (a Hollander), and others, infested Panamá and committed all sorts of excesses, attacking vessels and crossing the isthmus from Portobello to the Pacific. Some of them were captured and executed at Cartagena; others were killed by Indians; some settled on the islets of San Blas, to live by catching turtles; the rest distributed themselves between the Gulf of Darien and Caledonia, where they built houses and planted fields.

In 1758 the Indians rose, at the instigation of the English, killed some 90 of these settlers, mostly French, and drove away the rest.

In the year 1785 the Viceroy-Archbishop Antonio Caballero y Góngora established forts at Mandinga, Concepción, Carolina, and Caiman, on the Gulf of Darien. During the same year Ariza, the Governor of Darien, established the fort at Príncipe with a garrison of 200 men. Ariza then opened a road from the fort to the mouth of the Sucubti, intending to continue the road thence to Carolina. This was the route which Balboa had followed.

Under a treaty made in 1790 with the chief cacique of the Indians, the Spaniards abandoned the forts upon the coast, and those on the rivers Sabana, Chucunaque, and Tiura.

The territory of the present Republic of Colombia corresponds to that of the viceroyalty of New Granada, which lasted until 1819. New Granada then united with Venezuela and Ecuador to form the (first) Republic of Colombia, which was divided in 1831. New Granada thereafter divided its territory into five departments, namely: Cundinamarca, Boyacá, Magdalena, Cauca, and the Isthmus. These were subdivided into provinces, the provinces into cantons, and the cantons into parochial districts. The President was

to hold office for four years, and the first on whom the dignity was bestowed was General Santander. His position, however, was far from enviable, for the country was full of all the elements of unrest and contention. One of his measures, by which New Granada became responsible for half of the debts of the defunct Republic of Colombia, gave serious offense to a large party, and he was consequently succeeded, not as he desired, by José María Obando, but by a member of the opposition José Ignacio de Márquez. This gave rise to a civil war during the years 1840 and 1841. The contest terminated in favor of Márquez, and he was succeeded in May, 1841, by General Pedro Alcántara Herran, who had assisted to obtain the victory. In 1840 the province of Cartagena seceded, and the new President had hardly taken office before Panamá and Veragua also declared themselves independent, under the title of the State of the Isthmus of Panamá. Their restoration, however, was soon effected; the constitution was reformed in 1843; education was fostered and a treaty concluded with the English creditors of the Republic. Further progress was made under General Mosquera from 1845 to 1849; a large part of the domestic debt was cleared off, immigration was encouraged, and free trade permitted in gold and tobacco. The petty war with Ecuador, concluded by the peace of Santa Rosa de Carchi, is hardly worthy of mention.

From 1849 to 1853 the Government was in the hands of General López, a member of the Liberal party, and under him various changes of a liberal tendency were effected. In January, 1852, slavery was entirely abolished. The next President was José María Obando, but his term of office had to be completed by Vice-Presidents Obaldía and Mallarino. In 1853 an important alteration of the constitution took place, by which the right was granted to every province to

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elect its Governor by popular vote in place of appointment as theretofore, by the Executive of the Republic, and the powers of the Provincial Legislative bodies were increased under further enactments of Congress. In 1856 and 1857, Antioquia and Panamá were organized as federal states. The Conservative party carried their candidate in 1857, Mariano Ospina, a distinguished statesman. In 1858, under a new constitution, the country was organized into a Federal Republic with eight states. An insurrection broke out in 1859, which was fostered by the Ex-President Mosquera, and finally took the form of a regular civil war. Bogotá was captured by the Liberals in July, 1861, and Mosquera assumed the chief power.

Gen. Mosquera, in order to emphasize a recognition of the states as sovereign and independent, convened a Congress composed of one plenipotentiary (so-called) from each state at Bogotá. This Congress established a Republic with the name of the United States of New Granada, adopted a new federal constitution, and made Mosquera dictator under title of Supreme Director of the War. Meanwhile the opposite party was victorious in the west, and their leader, Arboleda, who meanwhile defeated the Ecuadorians, under García Moreno, at Tulcan, was assassinated near Pasto, in 1862, and his successor, Canal, came to terms with Mosquera at Cali. The dictatorship was resigned into the hands of a convention at Rio Negro, in Antioquia, a provisional government was appointed, and a constitution was adopted (in 1863) which limited the Presidential term to two years, while forbidding immediate re-election; raised the nine States of the Republic into the category of sovereign States, empowering each to maintain its own military forces without restriction, and to exercise all the other attributes of inherent sovereignty, including the nullification of the federal laws. Under this

constitution Mosquera was elected President and served till 1864. The union between the three republics of the former federation was considered, but with no result.

The Presidency of Manuel Murillo (1864–'66) was disturbed by various rebellions, and even Mosquera, who next came to the helm, met such opposition that he made an offer to retire. On the refusal of his resignation he entered into a struggle with the majority in the Congress, and ultimately resorted to an adjournment and the unconstitutional arrest of a large number of the senators and representatives; but he soon found that the real power was with his opponents, who effected his arrest and condemned him first to two years' imprisonment, but afterwards by commutation to two years' exile.

The Presidency of Santos Gutierrez (1868–'70) was disturbed by insurrections in different parts of the Republic, the most important of which was that in Panamá, where the most absolute disorganization prevailed. In January, 1869, a treaty was concluded between the plenipotentiaries of the United States of America and Colombia, granting to the former power the right to construct a canal across the isthmus. It was approved by the President, but was rejected by the Colombian senate. In the same year the United States Government sent out an expedition under Commander Selfridge to make surveys in the valley of the Atrato. In 1870 a new treaty for an interoceanic canal was concluded between Gen. Hurlbut, the United States minister, and the Colombian commissioners, Justo Arosemena and Jacobo Sanchez, and it was approved by the Colombian Congress with some modifications.

Gen. E. Salgar, the radical candidate, was elected President for 1870–'72. He took great interest in popular education, and secured the passage by Congress of a bill making an appropriation for normal schools, and during his adminis-

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tration the Bank of Bogotá, with a capital of $235,000, was established November 25, 1870, the first bank successfully organized under state law.

Manuel Murillo succeeded to the Presidency for the term 1872–'74. Many disturbances grew out of election contests.

Santiago Pérez occupied the Presidency from 1874 to 1876. During the last year of his administration, his party (Liberal) became divided on the question of the candidacy of his successor, with the result of disturbances in four states. Rafael Nuñez and Aquileo Parra were the candidates, the last named being declared elected and occupying the Presidential term 1876–1878.

In April, 1878, General Trujillo was inaugurated President. During his administration, bonds payable out of the proceeds of the custom-house and of the salt monopoly were redeemed to the amount of $1,004,431, other liabilities, contracted in part by former administrations, were liquidated to the amount of $1,586,614; the disbursements in coin on account of the foreign debt reached $745,388.60, and those for ordinary current expenses, $1,509,691.60. The Legislature of the State of Bolívar passed a law tending to encourage the navigation of the Dique and Magdalena rivers, by offering a subvention and a guarantee of 7 per cent. interest on a capital of $200,000 to any company taking up the enterprise.

In April, 1880, Rafael Nuñez entered on the Presidency. Immediately on his taking office, President Nuñez successfully exerted his influence with Congress to enact measures giving right to use the forces of the National Government to suppress insurrections against the constituted authorities of a state. He also procured the incorporation of the National Bank of Colombia as the Government bank; capital $2,000,000. For the first time, diplomatic relations were



LA MESA, MARKET DAY.

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PRESIDENT RAFAEL NUÑEZ.

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established by treaty with Spain. An agreement with Venezuela was concluded, submitting to arbitration the unsettled boundary questions between the two countries. The boundary claims of Colombia were allowed in 1891, by Spain, as the arbitrator. All parts of the country were at peace during this administration.

In April, 1882, Señor Zaldúa was inaugurated President, but he died nine months later, and Otálora, who had been appointed Presidential substitute by Congress, exercised the Executive functions until the end of the term.

In April, 1884, Rafael Nuñez again became President, though owing to his absence his place was temporarily filled by General Hurtado, the first vice-president. During 1884 Radical revolutionary disturbances occurred, followed in 1885 by civil war in Boyacá, Cundinamarca, Magdalena, Panamá and Santander. In accordance with the Treaty by which the United States guarantees to preserve from interruption the free transit across the isthmus, United States marines and sailors were landed at Colon, the city having been burned by the revolutionists. In August, 1885, all the leading chiefs against the Government surrendered, and on September 5th the restoration of peace was officially announced.

In 1886 a new constitution was adopted abolishing the federal system and converting the States into departments, with governors appointed by the President of the Republic, and legislative assemblies elected by the people.

The Congress of the Republic, consisting of a Senate and House of Representatives, convenes every two years. The judiciary is irremovable, and criminals are allowed trial by jury.

The President's term of office was extended to six years without immediate re-election, capital punishment for mur-

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der was re-established, as also was the responsibility of the press and for spoken language, and the unlicensed trade in arms and ammunition was forbidden. Before 1886 the crime of murder was punished only by ten years of imprisonment (in practice reduced to two-thirds of that term); slander could not be punished, and the press was irresponsible even for calumnies, injurious defamation, and openly seditious publications.

After the adoption of the constitution of 1886 the Republic entered into a concordat with the Holy See, which, as it is claimed, has "harmonized the Church and the State without impairing the national sovereignity."

During 1886 and 1887 a new system of laws was adopted harmonizing with the change in the Government to that of a centralized republic. Rafael Nuñez was re-elected President for six years from August, 1886. After a few months exercise of the executive power, Nuñez retired to his home in Cartagena, and Carlos Holguin was appointed by Congress as Executive and filled that office until the end of the term. Nuñez was again re-elected President in December, 1891, with Miguel Antonio Caro as Vice-President; but Nuñez not assuming the duties of the office, Vice-President Caro became the Executive. President Nuñez died in Cartagena, in his residence of El Cabrero, in Sept., 1894.

Under encouragement of the executive branch of the Government a general railway act was adopted and measures were passed by the Congress of 1892, by which subsidies were granted for the construction of several important railways and other means of transportation. New cable lines along the coast and telegraph lines in the interior were inaugurated. Provision was made looking to the redemption of specie payment on a gold basis, and other matters considered of moment to the financial benefit of the country.

Since the adoption of the constitution of 1886, the only political disturbance of any importance was the rebellion of 1895, which the Government succeeded in suppressing in forty-five days, especially through the energy, ability and activity of the General-in-Chief of the army, Gen. Rafael Reyes.

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Tal vez en otra ocasión, hablar de instituciones políticas

CHAPTER V.

POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS—REVENUES AND MONEY.

Colombia is a unitary Republic. The Government consists of three departments—the executive, the legislative, and the judiciary. The executive authority is vested in a President of the Republic, who is assisted by ministers chosen by him, and a council of state consisting of seven members.

The President is elected by electoral colleges; his term of office is six years; and when for any reason he ceases to act as President, finally or temporarily, during his term, the Vice-President takes his place. The ministers and the President in certain cases are responsible for their official acts.

The legislative function is discharged by the Senate and the House of Representatives, together constituting the Congress, which convenes at the capital every two years on the 20th of July.

The Senate consists of twenty-seven members, three from each department, who are elected by the departmental assemblies (legislatures).

The House of Representatives consists of one member for every 50,000 inhabitants; their term of service is four years, and they are elected directly by citizens able to read and write, or who have an income of $500 a year, or real estate worth $1,500.

The judicial authority is exercised by the Supreme Court, composed of seven magistrates; the district courts and the

circuit judges. The magistrates of the Supreme Court are appointed by the President, with the approval of the Senate; they hold office during good behavior, and cannot be removed save on impeachment by the Senate. The magistrates of the superior tribunals are appointed by the President, on the nomination of the Supreme Court; they hold office during good behavior, and are responsible to the Supreme Court. In each judicial district there is a superior tribunal for the district and circuit courts, with such civil and criminal jurisdiction as the laws may invest them with. In each municipality there are as many municipal judges as the municipal council may determine.

The Republic is divided into nine departments, which may be grouped as follows: two on the Atlantic coast, Bolívar and Magdalena; two with coasts upon both oceans, Panamá and Cauca; and five in the interior, Tolima, Antioquia, Boyacá, Cundinamarca, and Santander. The departments are divided for administrative purposes into provinces, and these into municipal districts, of which there are 991.

In each department there is a legislative body, known as the departmental assembly, composed of one deputy for each 12,000 inhabitants. The basis of representation may be, and has been, changed by statute.

Municipal councillors and deputies to the departmental assemblies are elected directly by the citizens.

Each departmental assembly convenes every two years in the capital of its department, and, by means of "ordinances," regulates and promotes the local affairs of the department.

In each department there is a governor, appointed or removed by the President at his discretion, who is vested with executive authority, both as the agent of the central administration and as the chief of the departmental administration.

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In each municipal district there is a corporation known as the municipal council, which has charge of the affairs of the district. Administration is in the hands of the alcalde, an official who is at once the agent of the governor and a mandatary of the people of the district.

The regular army is determined by each session of Congress, but is usually maintained on a peace footing of 5,500. The reserve is estimated at 120,000 men.

The principal national revenues are those derived from customs, from the salt works, the stamp tax, the slaughter-house tax, and the Panamá Railroad. These, with other minor ones, amounted together in 1893 to $14,009,329. The departments have their own revenues, which amount to upwards of $6,000,000 per annum. Including the central and local government, it would appear that Colombia devotes about $20,000,000 a year to public expenses, which would be $5 per inhabitant. The revenues from customs duties, which in 1810 produced only $190,000 a year, amounted in 1893 to $9,506,981.

The nation owns all the deposits of rock salt, and also all salt springs whose water reaches the sixth degree of saturation.

The revenue from salines, which in colonial times produced only $65,000 annually, yielded the Republic $1,831,159 in 1893.

The total debt of Colombia is estimated at about $47,000,000, made up as follows: foreign debt, $12,000,000; domestic (consolidated, floating, etc.) $35,000,000, this sum including the paper money in circulation.

The domestic debt is being rapidly reduced, and it is expected that an agreement will be made with the holders of the foreign debt providing for the regular payment of the interest and the extinction of the principal as may be adjusted by the agreement.

Besides the National Bank, the Bank of Colombia, and the Bank of Bogotá, there are several private banks.

On May 7, 1887, Colombia entered into a treaty with the United States providing for the extradition of persons accused of murder or attempt at murder, of counterfeiting, forgery, fraudulent disposal of public funds, robbery, burglary, (where attended with violent entry of a public or private place), perjury or subordination of perjury, rape, arson, piracy, the destruction of railroads, tramways, or any construction the injury of which would involve danger to life. Article V. provides that no one accused of political crimes shall be handed over on any other charge than that which is mentioned in the request for his extradition. Article VII. provides that if the accused is not proved guilty within three months, he shall be set at liberty. Article X. says that neither of the contracting parties undertakes to surrender its own citizens for trial by the other. By Article XI., the fact that the accused may be liable to other charges shall not be held to debar him from extradition. One year's notice of the annulment of the convention must be given.

The silver peso, or dollar, of 10 reales or 100 centavos, equals 5 francs. Its value in money of the United States is (January, 1896) 52.1 cents. The peso is the legal tender, although in the country and in the retail trade the old dollar of 8 reales is generally used and is usually meant, unless peso fuerte or "peso de ley" is stipulated. It is nominally worth $1 or 5 francs, but by reason of the adoption of a paper currency the value of the Colombian dollar is much depreciated, except, of course, at Panamá and Colon, where paper has not yet been introduced. There the old Colombian peso, or the sol or Peruvian dollar, is the legal tender.

Coins.—Nickel: 2½ cents, 5 cents; common, in every-day use. Silver: ½ real, 1 real, 2 reales; not coined at

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present. Foreign coins have long since disappeared, and any that come in are bought up at the ports at a premium.

The gold coins are, the condor (10 pesos), worth $9,647 in United States values, and the double condor.

Legal-tender bills have been issued by the Government through the Banco Nacional de Colombia, which is its own exclusive property. The maximum of the issue, based on the general credit, amounts to $31,000,000. The bank is authorized to issue currency against coin deposits.

This issue of legal-tender paper was authorized in 1886, not only as a fiscal standard, but in consequence of the exportation of the greater part of the gold and silver money by reason of the deficiency of products. But for the appearance of the paper money there would have been a general fall of prices and a consequent economic crisis.

The coinage of gold and silver in Colombia since 1773 has been as follows: Gold $99,463,623; silver, $11,708,634.

The metric system was introduced in 1848, and the following are the only weights and measures recognized by the Government: in custom-house business the kilogram, equal to 2,205 pounds avoirdupois, is the standard. In ordinary commerce the arroba, of 25 pounds Spanish, or 12½ kilos; the quintal of 100 pounds Spanish or 50 kilos; the fanega, or corn measure of 1,000 ears; the fanega, or salt measure of 18 arrobas; and the carga, or 250 pounds Spanish, or 125 kilos, are generally used. The Colombian libra is equal to 1,102 pounds avoirdupois. The Colombian vara, or 80 centimeters, is used as a measure of length for retailing purposes, although the English yard is mostly employed, and the French liter is the legal standard for liquids.

CHAPTER VI.

AGRICULTURE, FISHERIES, MANUFACTURES.

The greater part of the inhabitants of the country devote themselves to agriculture, the products of which chiefly supply the domestic consumption, inasmuch as until the completion of projected railways, the difficulties of transportation prevent the exporting of any but a few articles, such as coffee, cotton, tobacco, cacao, and hides.

In Cundinamarca agriculture, to which the population are chiefly devoted, has progressed considerably in recent years, owing to the introduction of foreign machines, cattle, seeds, and grasses.

In Boyacá agriculture is almost the only industry of the inhabitants.

In Santander agriculture not only provides for domestic consumption, but, furthermore, produces for export to Boyacá and Cundinamarca great quantities of sugar, panela, cacao, tobacco, and rice.

In Tolima the inhabitants are chiefly employed in agriculture, and especially in cattle-raising, which is aided by the great abundance of natural pasture. The extraction of rubber, vegetable ivory, and the production of cacao and of the famous Ambalema tobacco are among the important resources of the department.

In Antioquia agriculture has to contend with great difficulties, owing to the sterility of the soil (except on the banks

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of the Cauca) and to the mountainous character of the country, which hinders the employment of machinery; nevertheless, the energy of the people goes far to overcome these obstacles.

In Cauca agriculture is the principal industry, owing to the fertility of the soil, which is well adapted for every sort of cultivation, and especially well adapted for cattle-raising. Coffee, cacao, tobacco, vegetable ivory, rubber, dyewoods, quina, etc., are produced in considerable quantities.

In Bolívar agriculture and cattle-raising are the chief industries. Many head of cattle are bred for exportation, and tobacco is an important product.

In Magdalena agriculture is the principal industry, cattle-raising being the chief resource of the department.

The horses of Goagira are famous for agility and strength. The production of coffee is assuming great proportions in Villanueva, Aguachica, and Gonzalez, and that of tobacco in Aguachica. Tagua (ivory nut) is largely grown in Loma de Corredor.

Cacao is raised and exported in large quantities from Tolima, Santander, and Cauca. Cattle-raising is an almost universal industry, but is most extensive in Bolívar and Magdalena. Wheat and barley are cultivated. Coffee forms the chief article of export of the country at the present time. The principal coffee centres are Cundinamarca, Santander, and Tolima. To a certain extent cotton is grown, but the native fibre is short and unsatisfactory and the exportation inconsiderable.

Hog-raising is so small an industry that American lard competes with the native article even in Bogotá, 700 miles from the coast.

Horse and mule-raising is somewhat extensive, but is conducted on a very small scale, so far as individuals are



NATIVE MODE OF HARPOONING FISH.

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BIRD'S EYE VIEW OF CALI.

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concerned. The latter animal, so useful and necessary, always commands a high and sometimes a seemingly unreasonable price. Foreign stock has been introduced to a limited extent, especially in Cundinamarca and Antioquia, but the far greater part of the horses are of native stock, many of which compete most favorably with the imported. Sheep-raising flourishes to a limited extent in the heights of Cundinamarca and Boyacá, but it is only sufficient for the necessities of their people. In other sections the sheep is rarely seen, and in the hot regions never.

Cinchona exists in vast quantities and of the best quality, but its recent cultivation in India has rendered it impossible for the Colombian article to compete with the Indian, because of the vast relative expense of transportation to the coast. There are no statistics to show the amount of sugar now raised ; but it is not sufficient to supply the necessities of the people, since sugar is not exported, but, on the contrary, forms a considerable article of import from the United States.

The Cauca valley is an excellent agricultural region, and the sugar cane raised there has the highest percentage of sugar of any in the world.

The tobacco of the country is excellent. The most satisfactory is said to be that of Ambalema. Large quantities are now exported to Germany. All kinds of vegetables flourish and only need cultivation to render them equal to those of other nations. Potatoes are cultivated.

The fishing industry is of small importance and only exists at the coast and on the great rivers. There is a pearl fishery in the Gulf of Panamá.

The tropical forests, with their undesirable climates and almost impassable vegetation, have conspired to render the chase an unprofitable industry. But in higher and more

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favorable regions the chase constitutes a profitable employment for many people.

The manufacturing industry is very backward, and produces only sugar, molasses, ordinary cotton and woolen cloths, some articles of iron, sole leather, saddles, shoes, furniture, straw hats, jewels, varnishes, books, pottery, mats, bags, carpets of maguey thread, cigars, cigarettes, brandy, rum, etc.

In Antioquia the principal manufactures are straw hats, spun or twisted silk, crockery (for the making of which a factory has been established in the district of Caldas), articles of wood and iron, and some sorts of cloth for popular consumption.

In Cauca there are produced common cotton and woolen cloths, and many household utensils, especially in Pasto, the inhabitants of which have special aptitude for this sort of work.

In Bolívar some manufacturing is done. In Cundinamarca manufacturing is carried on on a small scale, producing cloths and shawls of cotton and wool and other articles of popular wear. In Boyacá plain woolen and cotton cloths are manufactured.

In Santander there are manufactured in large quantities handkerchiefs, cotton counterpanes, ruanas, tablecloths, towels, hammocks, sacks of hemp, and other articles consumed in the department and exported to other parts of the Republic.

In Tolima are manufactured the Suaza hats which are in great demand throughout Colombia and even in other countries.

In Magdalena straw mats, etc., are made.

The iron foundries of "La Pradera," near Bogotá, are worthy of note, and represent an investment of upwards of $1,500,000 gold.

In that locality are found both iron and coal of superior quality. Besides the manufacture of castings of various kinds, the mills have recently begun to turn out iron rails of a very fair grade.

CHAPTER VII.

MINES AND MINING.

Although Colombia has never had a great gold mine, or a so-called "bonanza," it still ranks third among the great gold-producing countries of the world. According to the figures of the late Dr. Adolf Soetbeer, whose investigation into the production of the precious metals may justly be called a classic, the gold output of Colombia from 1537 to 1875 amounted to 1,231,500 kilos, worth $818,454,900.

This estimate is notably higher than those of Humboldt or Chevalier, who agree in estimating the output for the period 1537 to 1803 at 415,289 kilos, worth $275,000,000, but Soetbeer's figures are universally conceded to be the more reliable, on account of his more extended study of the question and the possession of facts and data denied the earlier investigators.

Señor Vicente Restrepo, a distinguished statistician of Colombia, the latest investigator of the gold and silver production, does not agree with any of the preceding authorities, and places the output from 1537 to 1882 at 876,774 kilos, worth $582,704,000.

Señor Restrepo divides the total yield of gold and silver among the different departments as follows, the values being given in pesos :

Antioquia,	$252,000,000	Santander,	$13,000,000
Cauca,	242,000,000	Bolívar,	6,000,000
Panamá,	74,000,000	Cundinamarca,	2,500,000
Tolima,	40,000,000	Boyacá and Magdalena,	500,000

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The following table gives the output in periods from 1537 to 1892.*

GOLD OUTPUT OF COLOMBIA.

Year.	Total for Period.		Yearly Average.	
	Kilos.	Value.	Kilos.	Value.
1537-1544	16,000	$10,633,600	2,000	$1,329,200
1545-1560	32,000	21,267,200	2,000	1,329,200
1561-1580	40,000	26,584,000	2,000	1,329,200
1581-1600	40,000	26,584,000	2,000	1,329,200
1601-1620	60,000	39,876,000	3,000	1,993,800
1621-1640	60,000	39,876,000	3,000	1,993,800
1641-1660	70,000	46,522,000	3,500	2,326,600
1661-1680	80,000	53,168,000	4,000	2,658,400
1681-1700	80,000	53,168,000	4,000	2,658,400
1701-1720	100,000	66,460,000	5,000	3,323,000
1721-1740	100,000	66,460,000	5,000	3,323,000
1741-1760	100,000	66,460,000	5,000	3,323,000
1761-1780	80,000	53,168,000	4,000	2,658,400
1781-1800	90,000	59,814,000	4,500	2,990,700
1801-1810	50,000	33,230,000	5,000	3,323,000
1811-1820	30,000	19,938,000	3,000	1,993,800
1821-1830	32,000	21,267,200	3,200	2,126,720
1831-1840	33,000	21,939,800	3,300	2,193,180
1841-1850	34,000	22,596,400	3,400	2,259,640
1851-1855	17,500	11,630,500	3,500	2,326,000
1856-1860	17,500	11,630,500	3,500	2,326,000
1861-1865	17,500	11,630,500	3,500	2,326,000
1866-1870	17,500	11,630,500	3,500	2,326,000
1871-1875	17,500	11,630,500	3,500	2,326,000
1876-1880	20,000	13,292,000	4,000	2,658,400
1881	.....	.....	4,814	3,200,000
1882	.....	.....	5,802	3,856,000
1883	.....	.....	5,802	3,856,000
1884	.....	.....	5,802	3,856,000
1885	.....	....	3,762	2,500,000
1886	.....	.....	3,762	2,500,000
1887	.....	.....	4,514	3,000,000
1888	.....	.....	4,514	3,000,000
1889	.....	.....	5,161	3,429,000
1890	.....	.....	5,416	3,599,473
1891	.....	.....	5,224	3,472,000
1892	.....	.....	4,864	3,232,500

Total, 1,234,500 kilos, worth $854,869,173.

*From 1537 to 1875, Soetbeer. From 1875 to 1892, Restrepo, *Engineering and Mining Journal* and U. S. Mint Reports.

The greater part of this vast sum was sent to Spain to help pay for that country's numerous and costly wars. A large amount of gold and silver money was used in the country but it was for many years of Spanish coinage.

Soetbeer estimates the silver produced in Colombia from 1537 to 1875 at 6 per cent. to 10 per cent. of the gold output, or from $49,227,000 to $82,000,000. Restrepo gives the production up to 1882 as $47,000,000. Since 1880 the production has been as follows:

	Kilos.	Value.
1880	24,057	$1,000,000
1881	24,057	1,000,000
1882	18,287	760,000
1883	18,287	760,000
1884	18,287	760,000
1885	9,625	400,000
1886	9,625	400,000
1887	24,061	1,000,000
1888	24,061	1,000,000
1889	14,725	612,000
1890	19,971	830,000
1891	31,232	1,298,000
1892	.....	1,806,000

In 1753 mints were founded at Bogotá and at Popayan. In 1866 a mint was founded at Medellín in Antioquia. According to Señor Nicolas Ortiz of Bogotá, the amount of gold and silver coined at these mints up to 1887 was as follows:

	Gold.		Silver.	
	Deposits. Kilos.	Coinage. Value in Pesos.	Deposits. Kilos.	Coinage. Value in Pesos.
Bogotá	166,307.5	99,563,623	279,620	12,674,417
Popayan	108,350.5	64,122,694	8,233	346,642
Medellin	4,397.1	2,168,517	97,699	4,670,918
Total	279,055.1	165,854,834	385,552	17,691,977

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Señor Ortiz estimates that during the period of this coinage, namely, from 1753 to 1887, there was exported uncoined gold to the value of $178,046,636. These figures agree very closely with those given in the table above.

Antioquia. The placers of Antioquia which were discovered about the middle of the 16th century have been continuously worked up to the present time, and they still supply a large part of the gold produced in the Republic. Among these may be mentioned Zaragoza, Zea, Cruces, Anorí, Campamento, Yarumal and Angostura, some of which were worked three centuries ago, and are still yielding good returns with improved methods of mining. The first mining town founded in this state was in all probability the pueblo of Antioquia, situated near the Cauca River, then called the Santa Maria. Gold was washed from its bars and alluvials as it is to-day. The mines at Arma, an Indian town, began to show signs of failure as early as 1580. About the same time the city of Cáceres was founded on the banks of the Cauca (1576), and Zaragoza near the confluence of the Porce and Nechí (1580). According to Restrepo, Cáceres furnished $1,800,000 in gold from 1580 to 1618, and Zaragoza, $6,000,000 from 1602 to 1620. The wealth of the Nechi was such that an attempt was made to drain it in 1634, but nothing came of it.

The first vein mines opened in Antioquia were those of Buriticá, of which Fray Jerónimo wrote in 1581: "Nearly 600 negro slaves are employed and the annual production is about $50,000." This low yield, which could hardly have been profitable, was caused by the crude method of working, the ore being picked or wedged out and crushed by hand. On the whole, it may be said, that little real progress was made in developing the mining industry during the 17th century, owing to the unhealthiness of the climate, the rapid

diminution of the native population consequent upon their enforced working in the mines and the great cost of negro slave labor. In the following century a great improvement took place, many new mines were discovered, notably those of Santa Rosa de Osos, Espinal, Quiuna, and El Rosario, and extensive works were undertaken for the purpose of supplying some of the mines with water. At the beginning of 1800, vein mines were being worked at Titiribí, Amagá, Santa Rosa and Dolores, but the methods employed were crude and the returns meagre, and as late as 1809, Dr. Restrepo, in his "Semanario de la Nueva Granada," wrote that he had but little faith in the future of this industry in Antioquia. He estimated the production at this time as worth about $1,250,000.

In 1825 mining began on some rich veins at Anorí, and shortly afterward an Englishman, Mr. James, erected the first mills in the country to crush the Anorí ore. From this time improved methods have slowly but surely replaced the crude and costly handwork of former days. Mills similar to the Anorí mill were quickly erected all over the state and with good success, especially at the Bolivia, Zancudo, and Frontino mines. In 1851 Mr. Tyrell Moore established the Hacienda de fundicion de Titiribí to smelt the auriferous silver ores of Zancudo and Chorros; but after the expenditure of some $600,000 the works failed. Later the owners of the mine established their own smelting plant under the direction of Señor Paschke. In 1884 this company operated 200 stamps and crushed from 3,000 to 4,000 tons per month. The monthly yield was about $40,000 and expenses $25,000. At present this is the most important mining company in Antioquia, its output reaching $768,000 per annum.

In 1852 an English company bought the Frontino mine

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and several veins known as Bolivia in the district of Remedios. In its early days this company met with many misfortunes on account of mismanagement; but the work was finally put on a profitable basis by Señor José M. Barreneche and his successor, Mr. Robert B. White, and now it is one of the important mines of the country. About 1865 chairs of chemistry, geology and metallurgy were established in the state college, and in 1867 a mining code was adopted. The just and equitable provisions of this code greatly advanced the mining industry, and so beneficial was it seen to be that in 1887 it was adopted as the National Mining Code by the Legislature at Bogotá.

In 1871 the number of mines in operation each employing more than three laborers was 556, of which 252 were placers and 104 vein mines. In the latter 820 crushers were in use. During recent years a considerable amount of English capital has been invested in Antioquia with very good results, and it is quite plain that this success will induce further investment. The north and northwestern part of the department contains countless veins of auriferous quartz, which would richly repay development. Labor is good and cheap, the Antioqueños being born miners, and the mining law in force is especially designed to promote and protect the mining industry.

Cauca. This department is but little inferior to Antioquia in the amount of gold produced, not only in the past, but also in the present. The first gold mined was undoubtedly from the Cauca River, but at what date is unknown. As early as 1547 gold was mined near Popayan; in 1581 Fray Jerónimo wrote that at first Anserma was the richest city in the province, some $70,000 yearly being obtained from the gold mines in the vicinity. Later Cartago produced $30,000 and Toro about $10,000 annually. Altogether

the province of Popayan produced about $760,000 annually.

In 1600 the territory of Barbacoas was conquered, and the city of that name founded. The mines of the district still produce some $12,000 to $15,000 in gold, principally from the Telembí River. In 1867 an American company commenced by hydraulicing at the Cargason mine, but their operations were only moderately successful. An American company also made an attempt to dredge the Telembí River, but their efforts resulted in total failure. In 1654 the Chocó was opened by the Jesuits and in a short time the working of its apparently inexhaustible alluvials commenced. As yet, although according to Restrepo, $126,000,000 in gold has been taken out of this Province, hardly a beginning has been made upon the more ancient alluvials, the greater part of the gold having been taken from the small creeks, river bars exposed at low water, and the recent alluvial deposits adjacent to the smaller streams. The work is as crude and wasteful now as it was two centuries ago, the batea, almocafre and barra being the only tools and a pit the only reservoir. There are along the San Juan and the Atrato rivers and their tributaries, miles of auriferous gravels containing from 10 to 30 cents in gold per cubic yard. Water can be obtained in any quantity, and with any desired head. These placers would be quickly worked if they occurred in California; but the inaccessibility of the Chocó and the reputed unhealthiness of its climate has until very recently prevented all attempts at exploration and development. Some years ago an American called Stein commenced working alone on the Andágueda River, one of the affluents of the Atrato, and in a few years took out $50,000 in gold. The gravel averaged 19 cents per cubic yard.

Many of the rivers of El Chocó are especially suitable for

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turning or draining, as they are extremely tortuous. At one place on the Tajuata River, a cut through a hill 60 feet high and 140 feet from side to side would drain the river bed for one and a quarter miles. This is perhaps an exceptional case, but there is no doubt that there are many places where the Tamaná, Condoto, San Juan and Andágueda rivers could be turned. In regard to the richness of these rivers, Mr. Robert B. White says: "I found that the heavy sand contained nearly an ounce of gold to the ton. * * * From what I have observed and from what I know of the results of the work of the natives, I can say that the stratum or bed that rests upon the rock produces by careful washing 10 ounces of gold to the square yard, and at points it will yield 50 ounces." He continues: "I do not know any rivers in any country outside of Colombia where such favorable conditions for the extraction of gold exist." No vein mines have ever been worked in El Chocó.

To return to the Cauca valley. From the middle of the 17th, and throughout the 18th century, placer mines were worked throughout the entire extent of the Cauca valley. In 1749 the mint of Popayan was opened, which greatly aided the mining industry. In 1634 the Arboledas commenced to work the vein mines at Marmato, the first opened in the Cauca.

The silver mines of Quiebra-Lomo were discovered in 1789, and at about the same time the mines of Echandía and Chachafruto. At the beginning of this century the annual output of the Chocó amounted to $1,000,000, while that of the rest of Cauca was about $400,000. In 1825 the house of Goldschmidt & Co. leased the gold mines owned by the Government in Supía and Marmato. This company did much to improve the methods of mining, introducing quartz mills and other scientific appliances. In 1860 operations were resumed

at the silver mines of Supía, the Echandía mines being worked by Señor B. Chaves, and the Pantano by the Western Andes Mining Company. These mines are now the most important in Cauca, the annual output being about $300,000, while that of the entire department is about $1,000,000.

Restrepo, in his "Gold and Silver Mines of Colombia," estimates the output as follows:

	CHOCÓ.	CAUCA.
XVI. Century,		$24,000,000
XVII. "	$23,000,000	35,000,000
XVIII. "	56,000,000	26,000,000
XIX. "	47,000,000	31,000,000
Total,	$126,000,000	$116,000,000

Tolima. This department, which is enclosed between the Central and Eastern Cordilleras, contains many gold mines of importance, and in Las Frias one of the most important silver mines in the country.

The gold and silver mines of Mariquita were discovered about the middle of the 16th century, but for some time the gold alluvials only were worked. The richest of these were called Santa Ana, Santo Cristo de Lajas, and Frias, and were worked up to 1727, when they were abandoned. It is said that at the time of their greatest prosperity, from 1585 to 1620, they yielded 320 ozs. of silver per ton.

The mines of Santa Ana, El Cristo and La Manta were reopened in 1785 by D'Eluyar, who introduced the Freiberg process, but during the eleven years in which he remained in charge the expenses reached $232,641 against a gross product of $27,247.

In 1824 the mines of Santa Ana and La Manta were leased to the firm of Herring, Graham & Powles of London. This company went to great expense in erecting smelting works, but the process did not succeed, and the Freiberg amalgamation process was again inaugurated. Up to 1837

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this company spent $1,109,488 and took out silver valued at $138,740. Restrepo estimates the total yield up to 1874, when the mines were exhausted, at $4,500,000.

About 1870, Mr. William Welton rediscovered the old mine of Frías, which he sold to the Tolima Mining Company, an English corporation. This mine, under able management, has become the most important in the department, if not in Colombia. Between 1871 and 1883, 5,123 tons of ore were exported to Swansea, the average value being between 274 and 376 ounces of silver, and the total yield 1,595,371 ounces. The present annual output is but little less than $800,000.

The El Cristo mine has been reopened, and is now being worked.

In the district of Mariquita an English company is hydraulicing the placers of Mal-Paso with good success. Hydraulicing is also in operation at Fresno, Cajóngora, and Orita. At Organos the Constancia mine is yielding some metal.

Panamá. The first gold obtained in Colombia was mined on the Isthmus of Panamá, all of whose rivers are more or less auriferous. The most celebrated mine in this department, if not in the whole country, is that of Espiritu Santo, at Cana, which was opened in 1680, and after yielding enormous amounts of gold, was abandoned in 1727. During the present century many abortive attempts were made to relocate and work this mine, but success was reserved for the Darien Gold Mining Company, Limited, an English corporation. Under the efficient superintendency of Mr. Thomas H. Leggett of New York, the mine was opened and a considerable quantity of gold extracted. It would appear, however, that the ore is bunchy, for the company is now in financial straits.

Santander and Bolivar. These departments produce some gold, but the amount is insignificant. The most important mines of Santander are those of Baja and the Veta mines, which annually produce about $30,000, The mines of Bolívar produce even less than those of Santander.

In the mineral industry, the annual statistical number of the *Engineering and Mining Journal*, Señor Pereira Gamba estimates the production of the principal mines of Colombia in 1891 as follows: Frontino and Bolivia Mining Company, $420,000; Colombian Mining Corporation, Limited, $64,000; Echandía mines, $240,000; Constancia mine, $50,000; Marmato mines, $60,000: Supía and Rio Sucio mines, $80,000, and the Mariquita and Fresno mines, $400,000. The Zancudo silver mine produced bullion valued at $780,000; the Frías mine, belonging to the Tolima Mining Company, $768,000. The total output of gold was 4,864 kilos, valued at $3,232,500, divided among the departments as follows: Antioquia, 2,660 kilos; Cauca, 1,024 kilos; Tolima, 1,044 kilos; Panamá, 60 kilos; Santander, 45 kilos, and Bolívar, 20 kilos. Of the whole amount 60 per cent. was alluvial. The total output of silver was $1,806,000.

Platinum. Colombia has the honor of being the country in which this valuable metal was first found, its discovery in the placers of El Chocó by Don Antonio de Ulloa in 1737 antedating its identification in Russia over eighty years. For many years it was considered valueless, no means being known to work it, and the miners threw it away. In 1788 the King of Spain offered two dollars per pound for it, and a considerable quantity was sent to the royal treasury.

At the beginning of the present century it was worth from eight to twelve dollars per pound, and the annual output varied from 300 to 500 kilos. The metal occurs in some of the placers of Antioquia and in Barbacoas, but in El

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Chocó only is its occurrence of economic importance. The chief sources of supply are the bars of the San Juan, Mungarra, Condoto, Iro, Geogodo and Tamaná rivers; a small quantity is annually obtained from the placers of the Condoto and Tamaná rivers. It is always found with gold, although the proportions are by no means constant. The placers of the Condoto are probably the most extensive platinum deposits in the world, and although they are by no means as rich as the Russian sand, they could be worked much cheaper, being very favorably situated for hydraulic mining. One placer, known as the Minas de Condoto, is controlled by an American company, now engaged in raising capital to work it. The deposit has an area of 25 square miles, all platiniferous and auriferous, the average contents per cubic yard being valued at 12 cents. The banks vary from 20 feet to 50 feet in height, and the bed rock is from 30 to 80 feet above river bed. In the near future the platinum deposits of El Chocó will prove a great source of wealth. At present the annual output, obtained entirely by hand-washing, is about 125 kilos, worth $38,000.

Mr. Charles Bullman, in the *Mineral Industry*, estimates the total output of Colombia at from 16,000 to 20,000 kilos, worth at present prices from $3,840,000 to $4,800,000.

Coal. Although four extensive coal beds are known to exist in Colombia, at one only are mining operations carried on. In Cundinamarca, near La Pradera, a company of that name is mining a bituminous coal and using it in its rolling mills. This company, which has invested $1,500,000 in its plant, is now engaged turning out rails for a road which is being built to Cipaquirá, at which place there is an enormous deposit of rock salt.

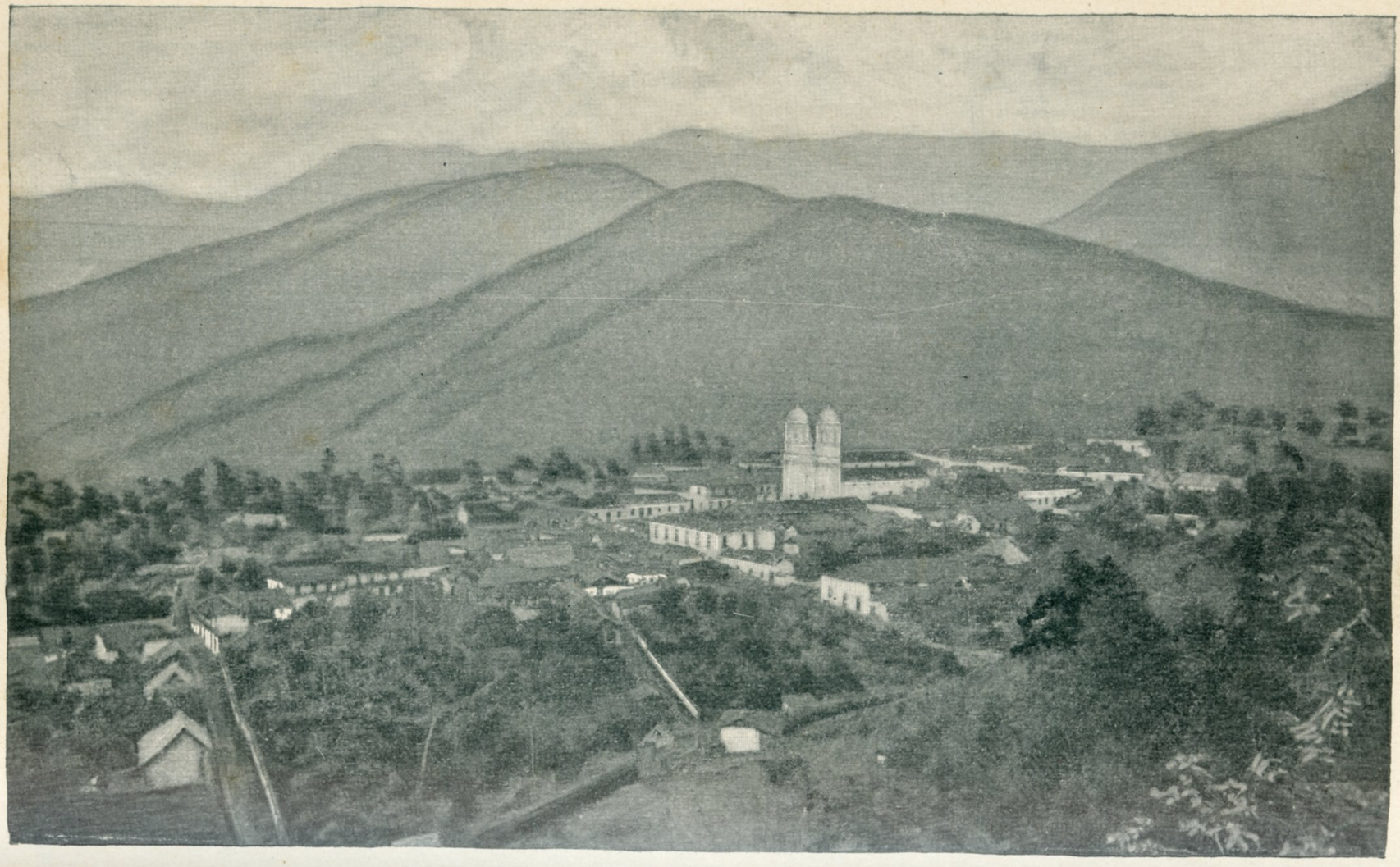
In the department of Magdalena, on the southeastern slope of the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta, there was dis-



MONUMENT TO THE MARTYRS OF THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE, BOGOTÁ.

Monumento á los mártires de la Independencia

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SOPETRÁN, ANTIOQUIA. TYPICAL ANDEAN TOWN.

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SCENE IN THE ANDES, EN ROUTE TO BOGOTA.

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covered in 1865, near the town of Serrejón by John May, an English engineer in government employ, a wide vein of cannel coal with surface outcroppings. Subsequent explorations demonstrated that this vein and other parallel veins extended northeasterly into the Goagira peninsula, a distance of more than 100 miles. Samples of the coal were analyzed in the United States and found to possess qualities equal to those of the best English and Scotch cannel coals. For the development of these mines, a railroad from the port of Rio Hacha to Sarrejón, a distance of about 60 miles, would be necessary. This line has been surveyed, and the Government is desirous of building it, not only to open up the coal mines, but to carry the largely increasing production of high grade coffee and other products from the vicinity of Villanueva and the southern slopes of the Sierra Nevada.

In the Department of Cauca coal is found near Cali, in the Cauca valley, and on the north coast at Punta de Piedra de Urabá. The latter deposit is reported to extend about 18 leagues north and south and to have a thickness of five metres.

A bed of lignite occurs not far distant at a place called Arboletes. The Colombian government in 1886 conceded the right to work these deposits to Señor Jorge Isaacs, but the concession expired two years later on account of delay in starting mining operations. Since then the concession has been several times renewed, and now runs to December 31, 1896.

The following analyses of these coals were published in the "Revista de Minas," Bogotá, 1888:

	Arboletes Lignite.	Urabá Anthracite.
Specific Gravity	1.56	1.79
Fixed Carbon	39.85	78.00
Volatile Matter	51.80	13.66
Ash	8.35	8.34

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These beds are very favorably situated for shipping, and if the quality remains uniform, will prove to be a source of great revenue.

The future of the Cali bed depends to a great extent upon the completion of the Cauca railroad, from Buenaventura to Cali. The coal has already been tried on the road and is said to be of excellent quality. Extensive deposits of iron ore occur near the coal, and at no distant day this place may be the seat of a great metallurgical industry, but nothing in this direction can be accomplished until cheap transportation to the coast is provided.

Emeralds. The mines of Muzo, about 75 miles from Bogotá, celebrated as the most famous in the world, were discovered by Lancheros in 1555. Mining began some years later in 1568, and so great was the output of fine stones that they ceased to be rare. They have been continuously worked since operations began, and although no record exists of the quantity or value of the stones produced, the mines have made fortunes for many generations of leasers. They were once leased by Messrs. Merino and Uribe, who paid an annual rent of $24,000. A new lease expiring in 1901 has been made.

The gems are found either in isolated crystals or in glodes with calcite and parisite in a bituminous limestone, said to be of lower cretaceous age, which lies upon a Triassic sandstone. The method of obtaining the gems is thus described by Streeter: "The mine has the form of a tunnel 100 yards deep and very inclined walls. Near the mouth are several large reservoirs, the water of which is controlled by a system of gates. The overlying barren rock is cut out in benches and falls to the bottom. When this begins to fill, the water is turned on and the rock swept away. This operation is repeated until the limestone is laid bare, when the gems are carefully broken out."

Salt. During 1891 there were mined 21,644 tons of salt worth $979,336, the profit to the government being $710,141. In 1890 the output was 16,559 tons, valued at $1,228,450, the profit being $945,033. This revenue amounted to $1,831,160 in 1893. Besides the above, a small amount of Peruvian salt is annually imported at Buenaventura and Tumaco, on the Pacific coast.

Copper. Deposits of this metal exist in large quantities in various parts of Colombia, but have not yet been opened up.

In a lengthy editorial in the New York "Sun," (Oct. 6th, 1889), under the title "The Treasure Houses of the World," the following comment is made: "* * but this much is certain, that the Incas, with their enormous wealth, and the Spanish conquerors, greedy as they were for gold, secured hardly a tithe of the precious deposits of the Northern Andes, and it is probable that this region alone could for many generations supply all the gold needed in every department of human activity."

This is a fitting characterization of the mineral wealth of Colombia.

The most important legal provisions about mines in Colombia, are the following:

I. DENOUNCEMENT OF MINES AND THE DUTIES OF THOSE DENOUNCING MINES.

The ownership of mines of gold, silver, platinum, and precious stones may be claimed for three reasons, as there are three classes of mines open to claim: (1) Those just discovered, (2) those abandoned by their former owners, (3) and the illegal excess of a lawful grant.

Having discovered a mine of any of these classes, the discoverer shall first come before the Alcalde of the district in which the mine is situated, in person or by attorney, giving him notice of the discovery, of the name and of the exact situation of the mine.

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He shall also state under which of the three heads above named he wishes the mine to be granted to him.

Within ninety (90) days thereafter, he must place the denunciation in writing before the Governor, stating the details, and accompanied by a copy of the notice first made.

When claiming the surplus land on a working mine two cases occur:

1. When the excess consists of claims (*pertenencias*) in excess of the legal number.

2. When the excess arises from error in the measurement or the calculation made by the interested party for the purpose of paying the tax spoken of hereafter.

In the first case, within the stated ninety days, the claimant must go to the owner of the mine, the excess of which he desires to acquire, and demand in the regular way that he shall establish the lawful bounderies of his mine by a competent court.

In order to save time, it is well to denounce the mine to the Governor at the same time, so that, should the decision be favorable, he must proceed at once to measure and take possession of the mine.

In the second case, the denunciation must be brought before the Governor within ninety days, following the date of the notice.

Furthermore, the principal duties, the omission of which, by those who denounce mines, will cause loss of the rights acquired, are the following:

1. The denouncement to the Governor within ninety days.

2. To present the *cartel* to the commissioner appointed to give possession, when said *cartel* is given to the denouncer, within the time needed for travel to such commissioner, and the twenty days additional, said time to count from the date on which he received the paper from the Secretary of the Exchequer.

3. To ask possession of the commissioner within sixty days following the expiration of the posting of the *cartel*, or if there has been opposition, within sixty days from the day on which he received the decision sent him by the Circuit Judge.

4. To be present to receive possession on the day appointed. This may be done in person or by agent.

5. To ask the deed of the Governor within sixty days following possession. It is understood that this is done, whenever the necessary fees are paid to the Collector of Taxes and the necessary stamped paper sent to the Secretary of the Exchequer.

6. To annually pay the legal tax.

It is well to remember that he who possesses and works a mine without a deed may acquire one by fulfilling the requirements established by law.

II. POSSESSION OF MINES.

The formalities that an officer with administrative jurisdiction should comply with in giving possession of a mine, when authorized by the Governor, are as follows:

1. To write on the executive commission a note of compliance.

2. To post in the most public place of the chief town of the district the notice (*cartel*) that must accompany the official papers on the day after its reception.

The *cartel* should remain posted for three consecutive weeks (or 21 days), after which it is taken down and on it a note is made stating this last fact.

3. To publish this notice by town crier on each of the three Sundays following the date it was posted, noting this on the *cartel* each time.

4. To personally cite the last owners of the mine, if the mine is denounced as an abandoned mine, before proceeding to give possession. This is done by making them know of the denunciation and of the official decree admitting it.

5. Whenever the former (last) owners are not found in the district in which the commisioner gives possession a requisition shall be sent at once to the Alcalde of the place where they are to be found, stating the facts mentioned before.

6. If the denouncer does not know the last possessor, or if he is not to be found in his vicinity or at the place of his last residence, the commissioner shall affix to the official record an edict making the notification, and publish it for two days running, making a note in the official record, and sending a copy to the Secretary of the Exchequer for publication in the official newspaper.

The notification is understood to be made at the end of thirty days, and within thirty days thereafter the last owners may appear. Consequently possession is only given sixty days after date of the official journal containing the edict.

7. If there is verbal opposition to the denouncement, note should be made according to law.

If the opposition is in writing, a note shall be added naming the day and hour of presentation, signed by the Alcalde and his Secretary.

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Opposition can be made on the date the denunciation is admitted and up to the day on which the posting is discontinued.

The last owners of a mine denounced as abandoned can oppose at the time of their citation, or, when they have been cited by summons, within the time given for travel and twenty days more, or when the citation is by published edict, within sixty days.

The owner and denouncers of an adjacent mine can oppose at the time of giving possession. Any opposition can not interfere with posting notice of possession.

8. In any of the cases of opposition just named, the commissioner shall recite in a single document all of the writings hitherto made, and shall send them to the Circuit Judge of the district in which the mine is situated. If the mine is located in two or more districts, the official document shall be sent to the judge named by the majority of the opposers; in case no election is made of a judge the documents shall be sent to the Circuit Judge of the district where the Alcalde resides who must give possession.

9. If there should have been no opposition and the denouncer demands possession within the sixty days following the day on which the posting of the notice of possession was discontinued, or if after opposition the official papers were returned by the Circuit Judge permitting possession to be given and the claimant claim possession within sixty days following the receipt of such decision, the commissioner shall order a decree announcing when he will give possession, also ordering the owners and denouncers of neighboring mines to appear.

He shall also name one or two experts, who shall be sworn for the proper survey of the mine. It must be remembered that not only the owners of adjacent mines are cited, but also those who by earlier discovery might have a right to the mine. For this reason it is said owners and denouncers of adjacent mines.

10. All of these formalities having been complied with, the commissioner shall go to the point where the mine was discovered for giving possession, and so shall do if there is no opposition from the owners or denouncers of adjacent mines. If there is any opposition he shall immediately suspend the act of giving possession and send an official statement of the proceeding to the Circuit Judge.

The act of giving possession shall be commenced by the measurement of the mine by the experts. This may be omitted if the claimant is satisfied with a claim less than the lawful amount.

But this can only be done in the place claimed, where the mine was stated to be situated. If there is no secretary present, the paper must be witnessed by two persons duly sworn. Even if the mine is not surveyed, it must be still marked by posts or land-marks.

The mode of giving possession of the excess or continuation of a mine is altogether different.

This last is as follows:

1. The Alcalde, having received the official papers from the Governor, shall notify the owner of a mine and the denouncer of the excess, that each must within twenty-four hours name an arbitrator for the survey of said mine and such excess.

2. If the interested parties can not be found the Alcalde shall proceed as in Paragraph No. 7, ante.

3. Notwithstanding, if the arbitrators are not promptly named by the interested party, they shall be named by the commissioner whose duty it is also to name the third.

4. Owners of adjacent mines shall be cited to appear at the time of giving possession, and they only have the right to oppose.

If any of them should oppose, the act of giving possession is to be suspended; but if any part of the land denounced should not be claimed by them, possession of such part shall at once be given to the denouncer.

5. Possession having been given, the official papers shall be given the Governor, or, in case of opposition, they are given to a competent tribunal.

It is necessary to say that the denouncer must inform himself of the day upon which possession is to be given, because if absent (or not represented) he loses the right to the claim.

III. EXTENSION OF MINES.

The size of an alluvial mine shall be either a square of three (3) kilometers on a side, or a rectangle, two (2) kilometers by five (5) kilometers. Sedimentary mines or those having the ore in layers or beds, shall consist of a square of (2) kilometers on a side.

Owners of alluvial mines situated in or on cultivated lands used for stock-raising, cannot work said mines without first denouncing them, the object of the denouncement being to collect the required tax.

The meter is the unit of lineal measure.

The *granadina* measures used in this work are as follows:

The miriameter is—two *leguas granadinas*.

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The kilometer—two *cuadras* and 50 *varas granadinas.*
The hectometer—one *cuadra* and 25 *varas granadinas.*
The decameter—12½ *varas.*
A meter—1¼ *varas.*
A decimeter—1⅛ *varas.*
A centimeter—1½ inch.
A milimeter—½ line.

That is so say, five kilometers make a *legua* of sixty-two and a half *cuadras* of a hundred *varas* each, which equal a *granadina.*

FIG. 1.

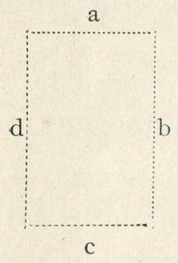
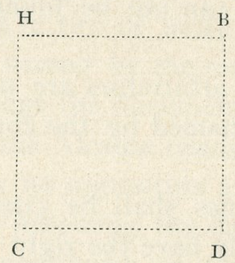


FIG. 2.



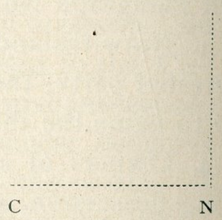


Fig. 1 shows one claim (*pertenencia*) of a vein mine. The lines of the sides, *d* and *b* which are parallel, are 600 meters each and represent the length of the claim; the lines of the sides *a* and *c* are 240 meters each. They are also parallel, and represent the width of the mine. Whatever the number of claims (*pertenencias*) given in the vein mine, the width is always the same. The shape of two or more claims (*pertenencias*) which is given is contained in the lines *d* and *b* prolonged.

The quadrangle (square) shown in Fig. 2 has all the sides equal and represents the full grant of a placer gold mine. Each one of the sides contains five kilometers or one *legua.*

The measure of the mines must be commenced by taking as a base the line between two points and following in the direction of a third, which must be clearly described in the denouncement.

For example, in Fig. 3, C and N are the two points that serve as the base, and the claim is laid in the form of a rectangle and to the north or south of it, as the denunciation demands.

The measurement of the excess must adjoin the legal claim, so that there can be no land which may be claimed between them. It is to be remembered

that the measurement of the mine is made on the surface of the land and not on a horizontal plane.

IV. FEES, TAXES, ETC.

For each mine which is denounced, whatever the class, there must be paid five *pesos* to the Treasury. This is to be receipted for on the bottom of the paper of denunciation.

For the deed the fee is ten *pesos.* Owners of mines must pay annually according to the class of mine—for each full legal claim on a vein mine two *pesos,* and for any fraction of a claim, two *pesos.*

For a full size placer gold mine, the tax is five *pesos* annually, and for any part of a full claim a proportionate part of this tax.

If the mine is of an irregular shape, it shall be measured and its tax will be in the same proportion as for a full claim given in Chapter II.

The payment of this tax is all that is necessary to preserve ownership of any mine legally acquired, whether it is worked or idle (*en estaca*).

However, the non-establishment of works within eight years from the date of the title will cause loss of the rights acquired, even though the annual tax be paid; and an equal or the same penalty will be incurred by those who, having established works, suspended operations for more than eight years.

V. LAWS RELATING TO COAL MINES AND PHOSPHATIC DEPOSITS.

The Republic reserves to itself the ownership in the coal mines and deposits, and in the deposits of guano, and of such other like fertilizer as may be found in the unsettled lands of the nation, or in the lands which may belong to it by reason of any other distinct title.

Said mines and deposits shall not be understood as sold or adjudicated along with the lands, but shall be developed for the account of the Republic by virtue of such contracts as the Executive Power may make for that purpose.

The contracts which the Executive Power may enter into for the development of the coal mines and fertilizer deposits, the ownership whereof the Republic has reserved to itself, may be carried out without the necessity of obtaining the approval of Congress, always provided that the contracting parties shall accept the following clauses:

1. That the duration of the contract shall not exceed fifty (50) years.

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2. That upon the expiration of said contracts, the wagon roads, railroads, machinery, and in addition thereto, the implements (*elementos*) employed in the exploitation by the parties engaged therein, shall, by gratuitous title, become the property of the Republic.

3. That the benefits accruing to the Republic from said exploitation shall not fall below fifteen (15) per cent. of the net profits of the business.

CHAPTER VIII.

COMMERCE AND TRANSPORTATION.

Colombia exports gold, silver, emeralds, quinine, coffee, cacao, tobacco, indigo, tagua (ivory nut), sarsaparilla, ipecacuanha, caoutchouc, dyes, balsams, resins, hides, straw hats, orchids, etc. It imports cloths of wool, cotton, linen, and silk, shoes, ready-made clothing, furniture, machines, haberdashery, watches, paper, drugs, spices, books, liquors, pottery, iron, flour, cigarettes, food conserves, and other domestic and industrial commodities. In 1880 the value of the exports amounted to $16,000,000, but during the ten preceding years it oscilated from eight to twelve millions. In 1890 it had risen to 20,457,855 pesos, Colombian currency, and in 1891 to 24,802,769 pesos. The imports in 1890 were $13,445,792. In 1891 the imports reached a value of $14,447,858. The foreign trade is chiefly with England, France, Germany, and the United States. The domestic commerce is very active, and consists principally of the exchange of the products of the cold districts for those of the warm.

The following tables, taken from Colombian authorities, are expressed in *pesos*, the value of which, as declared by the Director of the Mint of the United States, January 1, 1892, was 69.2 cents.

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Countries.	1889 Imports.	1891 Imports.	1889 Exports.	1891 Exports.
	Pesos.	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*
Great Britain	4,584,870	5,413,062	4,547,620	9,063,737
France	2,411,580	3,158,101	1,781,570	2,131,041
Germany	1,321,390	1,684,795	1,410,630	2,618,080
United States	1,230,470	1,643,727	3,950,555	8,245,180
Spain	154,620	388,534	8,130	2,822
Ecuador	147,900	126,201	71,500	75,207
Spanish Antilles	145,070	198,523	92,110	110,982
Dutch Antilles	122,290	114,456	173,770	189,770
French Antilles	.....	52	11,420	9,284
Peru	32,030	26,993	7,320	9,193
Venezuela	21,480	117,384	91,120	1,627,320
Italy	8,990	33,878	6,670	18,855
English Chan'l, for orders	.....	.....	85,700	104,081
Belgium	6,540	48,879	.....	781
Mexico	.....	.....	10,250	5,735
Nicaragua	2,360	.....	510	310
Costa Rica	2,300	.....	177,880	82,943
Netherlands	1,360	6,233	.....	13,100
Danish Antilles	.....	.....	280	65
British Antilles	1,620	581	5,580	74,679
Salvador	.....	.....	1,580	960
Not Specified	1,203,090	1,281,171	3,462,590	2,784
Isthmus of Panamá*	379,660	205,292	303,000	415,860
Total	11,777,620	14,447,858	16,199,780	24,802,769

*Treated as a foreign country.

The commerce of Colombia for 11 years was as follows :

Year.	Imports.	Exports.
1881	$12,071,480	$15,836,943
1882	12,355,555	18,514,116
1883	11,504,028	14,857,170
1884	9,926,486	13,501,178
1885	**2,440,559	**2,961,994
1886 (first 8 months)	6,879,541	14,171,241
1886 (last 4 months)	2,440,559	4,382,457
1887	8,714,143	13,807,406
1888	10,642,250	16,668,180
1889	11,777,624	16,199,718
1890	13,445,792	20,457,855
1891	14,447,858	24,802,769

**Four months. The ending of fiscal year changed in 1886 to December 31.

EXPORTS BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.

Articles.	1889	1890	1891
	Pesos.	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*
Coffee	3,516,293	4,262,030	10,136,740
Gold : bars, dust, or coined	3,307,122	2,815,152	4,567,398
Silver	643,747	682,037	656,065
Skins and hides	1,188,911	1,023,231	1,157,665
Cacao	254,812	189,452	283,464
India Rubber	372,865	477,182	552,920
Cotton	96,176	304,351	321,650
Woods	295,019	264,516	171,721
Tobacco	798,039	1,820,757	1,492,421

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF FOREIGN COMMERCE FOR 1889, 1890 AND 1891 WITH PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

	1889	1890	1891
	Pesos.	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*
United States :			
Imports from the U. S.	1,230,476	1,218,466	1,643,727
Exports to the U. S.	3,950,531	4,636,480	8,245,180
Great Britain :			
Imports from G. B.	4,584,873	4,990,198	5,413,067
Exports to G. B.	4,547,628	4,835,321	9,063,737
France :			
Imports from France	2,411,585	2,713,046	3,158,101
Exports to France	1,781,619	1,566,636	2,131,041
Germany :			
Imports from Germany	1,321,390	1,636,019	1,684,795
Exports to Germany	1,410,683	2,475,388	2,618,080

The maritime ports of entry are Rio Hacha, Santa Marta, Sabanilla, and Cartagena, on the Atlantic, Buenaventura and Tumaco, on the Pacific. Panamá, Colón, and Bocas del Toro are free ports.

The principal articles of export are cattle, cacoa, coffee, dyewoods, gold, silver, hides, ivory nuts, rubber, tobacco, and woods. The cattle go to the isthmus and to Central American countries, and have been shipped in large numbers to the West Indies. Nearly all the hides, and by far the greater part of the coffee, rubber, and construction woods, go to the United States, the gold, silver, and dyewoods to

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England, and the tobacco and ivory nuts to Germany. The United States minister at Bogotá reported that in 1888 34 per cent. of the exports went to Great Britain, 10 per cent. to France, 12 per cent. to Germany, and 40 per cent. to the United States.

The imports consist of manufactures of all sorts. In 1888, 49 per cent. came from Great Britain, 21 per cent. from France, 13 per cent. from Germany, and 12 per cent. from the United States.

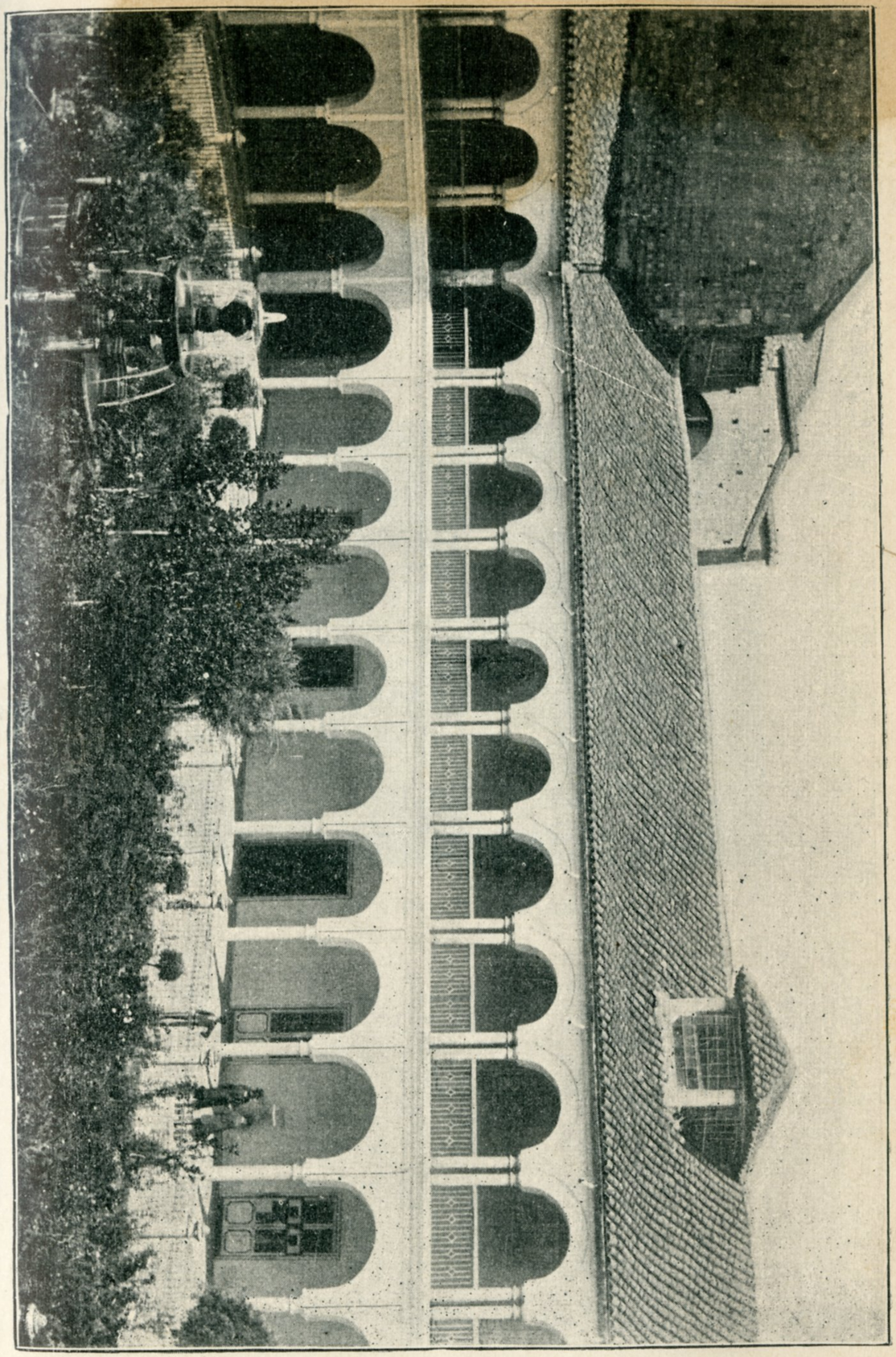
In *Cundinamarca* the exchange of the products of the warm regions for those of the cold is very active and profitable. Coffee, tobacco, indigo, and hides are the principal articles of export. The import trade of this department, conducted chiefly from Bogotá, is probably the most important in the Republic.

Boyacá carries on quite an active trade in agricultural products with the neighboring departments of Cundinamarca and Santander, and also produces some coffee.

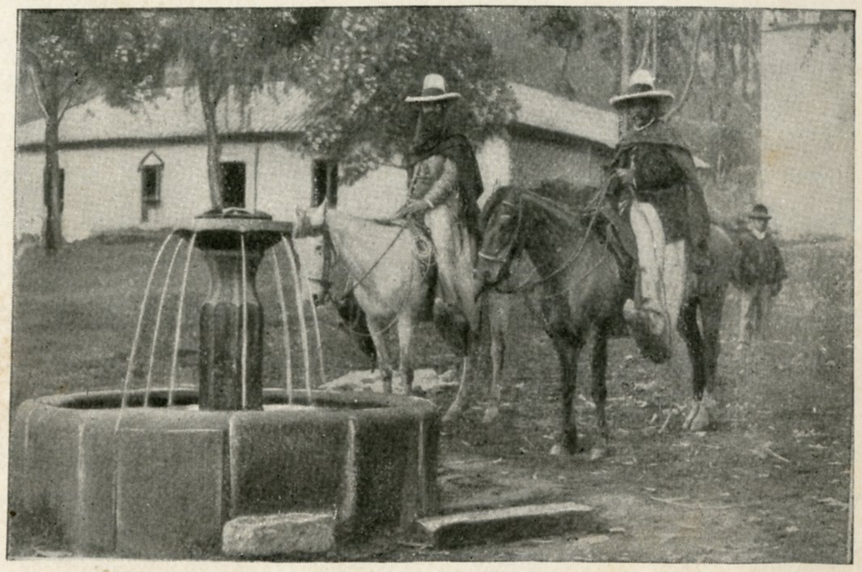
Santander exports to other departments quantities of coffee, sugar, cacao, tobacco, rice, handkerchiefs, coverlets, tablecloths, towels, hammocks, etc. Large quantities of coffee are exported.

The import trade of *Antioquia* is very active. Its principal center is Medellin, and it will be chiefly carried on through Puerto Berrío via the railway to Pavas, thence by mule and wagon roads to Medellin, until the railway now being built through to Medellin is completed.

The commerce of *Cauca* is carried on with the neighboring departments, with some of the Republics on the Pacific (especially Ecuador), and with the United States and Europe. Gold, coffee, tobacco, taguas, rubber, dyewoods, quinine bark, etc., are exported. The principal route for the foreign trade is that of Buenaventura, and Cali is its chief centre.



POST-OFFICE COURT-YARD, BOGOTA.



COSTUME OF NATIVE HORSEMEN.

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In *Bolivar*, Barranquilla and Cartagena are almost exclusively devoted to the carrying on of the export and import traffic between the interior of the Republic and foreign countries. Tobacco is an important export of this department.

In the commerce of *Magdalena* cocoanuts, bananas and cacao are important articles of export. A high grade of coffee is produced inland from Rio Hacha.

Commerce is the chief industry of *Panamá*. It is exceedingly active at Panamá and Colón, through which passes much of the trade of Europe and the United States with China and the countries of the Pacific.

Coffee is the principal article of plantation production. According to a report made in 1887 by United States Consul-General Walker, then at Bogotá, to the Department of State, coffee was produced almost solely in the departments of Cundinamarca and Santander, but Boyacá, lying between them, has recently become a large producer as well as the section of the Department of Magdalena lying to the southward of the port of Rio Hacha. Cundinamarca was then estimated to have over 3,000 acres (nearly five square miles) of plantations producing 5,000,000 pounds, and Santander over eleven square miles, producing 12,000,000 pounds. Of the whole amount 10 per cent. was supposed to be used in the country, leaving 15,300,000 pounds for export. This estimate of production is evidently too low, as the United States imported from Colombia 10,893,354 pounds during the year ending June 30th, 1888, and England over 5,275,000 pounds during that calendar year, which together exceeded it, while a small amount also was sent to other countries; and during the year ending June 30th, 1889, the imports of coffee from Colombia into the United States alone amounted to over 16,000,000 pounds. For the year ending June 30th, 1892,

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the imports were 11,792,738 pounds. The falling off was caused by the duty of 3 cents per pound imposed upon Colombian coffee by the proclamation of President Harrison, issued under the Tariff Act, October 1st, 1890, which proclamation went into effect on the 15th of March. Since the last statistics published by the United States Government, viz., for the year ending June 30th, 1892, shipments for consumption in the United States have been reduced and consumers pay an advanced price.

Large quantities of Colombian coffee produced in the eastern part of the country adjacent to Venezuela are marketed in Maracaibo and passes as a product of the last named country.

The excellence of Colombian coffee has enabled it to maintain the highest selling price in the United States and foreign markets—in fact, as no cargo of Java coffee is recorded as having been imported into the United States during the last twenty years, nor any of Mocha for a much longer period, and as coffee formerly sold at retail under the names of Bogotá and other Colombian (as well as Venezuelan names) have in name disappeared from the stores, there is an inference warranted that the coffee still abundantly served to families under the names of "Mocha" and "Old Government Java" are identical with those shipped from the before mentioned countries.

The land still available for coffee planting in Colombia admits in the future of a larger increased production, which is sure to be brought about by the cheapening and improvements of transportation by means of the railways projected and in process of construction.

"From 1866 to 1882, among all the agricultural products exported from Colombia," says Mr. Nicolás Sáenz,* "coffee

*Culture du Caffeier en Colombie, page 70.

occupied the second place in importance. During that time the production tripled itself. From 1866 to 1880, it increased from 70,000 to 200,000 quintals; and the value of the exportation of this product, which was, in 1867, $610,000, increased to $1,164,000 in 1870, to $1,931,000 in 1873, and to $2,038,000 in 1876. Afterwards it fell to $1,504,000 in 1878, from which time the production diminished. Coffee depreciated from 25 to 30 per cent. in consequence of the competition which Colombia suffered from countries that, because of having better implements and better and more rapid means of communication, were enabled to produce coffee at a lower price. Again in 1887 this industry assumed a new aspect in Colombia: in that year 6,651,835 kilograms* of coffee were exported; in 1888, 8,119,248, and in 1891, 16,391,992 kilograms."

According to the data we have been able to procure, it is estimated that in 1895 there were exported from Colombia 24,000,000 kilograms or, let us say, 52,800,000 pounds, which, at an average price of 19 cents per pound, represent a value of $10,032,000. The production increases from year to year, especially in the departments of Cundinamarca, Santander, Cauca, and Tolima; and the departments of Boyacá and Antioquia are beginning to show very good results. In the department of the Magdalena there are, at the present time, plantations situated on the slopes of the Sierra Nevada so noted for the fertility of its soil and the variety of its climates. There, too, is found the great advantage of the proximity to the sea, which lessens, in an extraordinary degree, the expenses of transporting the machinery and utensils necessary for labor and for the culture of the plant, and also those of transporting the bean.

Mr. Nicolás Sáenz, whom we have already quoted, says: "The development of the cultivation of coffee in this country

* A kilogram is a measure of weight equal to two and one-fifth pounds avoirdupois.

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may be proved by the following data from Cúcuta, which together with Bucaramanga and Ocaña, is one of the principal coffee markets in Colombia. In 1890, 4,371,640 kilograms of Colombian coffee, valued at $2,889,330, were exported from Cúcuta; in 1891, 6,432,867 kilograms, valued at $3,345,369; and in 1892, 7,535,833 kilograms, worth $4,000,604.

"Colombian coffee is considered equal to the best of South American coffees: that which possesses most aroma and has the smallest bean is exported to France and England; that which possesses the least aroma and has the largest bean is exported to the United States. Almost all the departments of Colombia, in particular, Santander, (where those great centers of production, Cúcuta, Ocaña and Bucaramanga, are to be found), Cundinamarca and Cauca, contain lands suitable for the cultivation of coffee.

"Speaking of the valley of the Cauca, (240 squarel eagues in extent), General Rafael Reyes says that at least two-thirds of the land are of the first quality, and that there is water in abundance. Each coffee tree yields on an average three pounds of coffee. The expense of clearing the land is not high, and the pasture is so abundant that it is not necessary to cultivate any to feed the animals needed on the plantation. Very often the crops of Indian corn and bananas cover the expenses of the coffee plantation. In the valley of the Cauca good land may be bought at the rate of $10 (Colombian currency) for 100 square *varas*.*

The climate is salubrious. The temperature varies from 18° Centigrade on the slopes of the Cordilleras to 24° on the banks of the river Cauca. The valley has a population of more than 200,000 inhabitants, and, at the ingathering of the crops, could supply harvest-men at the rate of $1.00 to $1.60 (Colombian money) each per day. General Reyes estimates that

*100 *varas* are equal to 80 meters.

a hundred would be a sufficient number of men for the cultivation and harvesting of 100,000 coffee trees.

"In consequence of coffee growing wild in the woods of the Cauca, there is the great advantage of being able to procure plants of the growth of a year and a half or two years to aid in establishing a plantation; and at the end of a year a crop may be gathered."

The prevailing system of long credits must be considered. This has always been a barrier to trade with the United States. The English, French, and Germans give at least six months' interest bearing credit from the date of the invoice, while the "three 6's" (six, twelve, and eighteen months) credits are not unknown. While it may be possible to sell upon somewhat less credits, it will be a question of time and improved transportation facilities to introduce the system which prevails in the United States. To their honor be it said that bankruptcy is scarcely ever known. It is said that but one failure has occurred in Medellin, a principal importing center, in forty-nine years, and then 50 cents on the dollar was paid. Neither fees nor licenses are required for commercial travelers in Colombia.

The following law concerning the registration of foreign companies and firms was signed by President Nuñez on May 25th, 1888.

ARTICLE I.—All corporations incorporated outside of Colombia, and which carry on a permanent business within its territory, shall each file a certified copy of its charter or articles of incorporation in the office of the Notary of the District where its business is to be carried on.

ARTICLE II.—Such corporations will not be considered to have legal status, nor will they be able to claim the protection of the law unless formally authorized by the Executive Power. Therefore such corporations as have not at this date been legalized in the manner herein provided, shall be considered not to exist if within six months after the publication of this law, they shall not have complied with its provisions.

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ARTICLE III.—Every corporation shall have in the country, at a fixed residence, a representative with equal powers of a manager for the transaction of its business in the country.

ARTICLE IV.—Should any corporation not appoint a representative, then the President of the Republic will appoint some one to represent the corporation, and such appointee shall enjoy the rights and privileges appertaining to the place, the same as if filled by an appointee of the corporation.

ARTICLE V.—The present law in no way affects the Panamá Interoceanic Canal Company, which will continue to be governed solely by the existing treaties and contracts.

The only present method of carrying merchandise to and from the coast is by means of the great rivers. Of these the Magdalena is the most important and has the best service. Others are navigable for certain distances by boats of light draft. With the exception of river traffic and nine short lines of railroads, the whole commerce of the country is carried on by means of mules.

Only a short time ago—in 1890—there were delayed in Honda, not over 60 miles from their destination, 28,000 bales of foreign merchandise, which could not be moved for lack of means of transportation. At that time the freight for 250 pounds of cargo reached the astonishing sum of $15 in gold, or $30 in the money of the country.

The country is among the most mountainous in the world. As a result all communication is and always has been most difficult and expensive. Nearly all freight must be transported by mule as soon as it leaves the great rivers.

In going from New York to Bogotá, a bale of goods arrives, say, at the port of Carthagena or at Port Colombia (Savanilla). If at the latter port, it is unloaded at the pier; thence it is put upon a freight car and taken to Barranquilla. There it passes through the custom-house, is carted across the city, and loaded upon a river steamer. It then goes 600 miles up the river to the head of navigation, Las Yeguas.



ON THE TRACK OVER THE ANDES.

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There it is unloaded into a storehouse, whence it is afterwards placed in a railroad car and carried 15 miles to Honda. Again it is placed in a storehouse, then placed upon a car and carried to Arranca-Plumas, where it is unloaded and carried down to the river bank by men. It is then loaded upon a ferry barge and passes to the other side of the Magdalena. There it is unloaded and carried up the steep river bank and deposited in a storehouse. Then begins the toilsome journey by mule trains over the Andes to Bogotá, a journey which consumes from five to twelve days in good weather, according to the weight of the loads and the inclination of the drivers· The distance is about 80 miles. When to the damage so often caused in making these changes is added that caused by rain, by carelessness, and by the accidents incident to mule transportation, it can be readily seen that everything is imported at a great percentage of loss to the consumer. Freights add greatly to the cost of all articles. For bringing a cargo of 250 pounds from Honda to Bogotá one must pay from $12 to $18, according to the state of the road. Heavy boxes, however, are carried by steam to Cambao, a point above Honda, and go to Bogotá in ox carts. Much more time is consumed in this way and freights are much higher.

This well illustrates what is going on all over the country. The exporter is, of course, subject to the same conditions.

The Magdalena is one of the most important highways of the country, in spite of the fact that its current is so rapid as to make the upward voyage both difficult and tedious. From Honda, where the progress is interrupted by rapids, a native boat takes only about three days to reach the sea ; while no fewer than eight days are spent, even when the water is low, in returning against the stream. Steamers of from 50 to 200 tons burden, however, have plied regularly since 1833 between Honda and Barranquilla. The Honda rapids

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can be surmounted by haulage, and steamers descend them in safety, though there is a fall of 20 feet in two miles, and of 16 in the first. Above this point the channel is clear about half way to the source; and though the traffic is still mainly carried on by native boats and rafts, a German named Alexander Weckbecker succeeded, in 1875, in taking a large steamboat—the *Moltke*—three times to the town of Neiva.

There are seven lines of steamers touching monthly at the port of Savanilla. Of these 4 carry the English flag, 1 is German, 1 Spanish, and the other French.

During 1888 there were 772 vessels, of 714,194 tons, entered at the Colombian ports, not including those of Panamá. Of these 557, of 693,632 tons, were steam vessels. Of the total tonnage, 410,939 tons were British.

During 1891 1,012 vessels, of 769,311 tons entered at Colombian ports, not including those of Panamá. Of these 639, of 741,708 tons, were steam vessels. Of the total tonnage, 422,148 tons were British.

The consular regulations to be followed in the shipment of merchandise to Colombia are as follows:

Every captain or master of a vessel or steamer bound for Colombian ports must present to the respective consul at the port of shipment, to be certified by him, a manifest, signed by the captain or master in triplicate form, which shall contain the following details:

(1) The port of clearance and port of destination;

(2) The class, nationality, name and tonnage of vessel;

(3) The name of the agent, the name of the shippers and of the consignees;

(4) The marks and numbers of each package and the gross weight of each shipment;

(5) The number of packages of every shipment.

Merchants shipping goods to the ports of Colombia must present to the respective consul an invoice in Spanish, in triplicate form, stating therein:

(1) The name of the shipper and the port of shipment, the name of the consignee, the port of destination, and the name of vessel or steamer;

(2) The mark, number, kind, description of contents, and the gross weight of each package. In regard to packages of the same kind and contents it is sufficient to give only the total weights. No more than a mark and a counter mark is allowed in an invoice.

(3) The total value of the invoice, it not being necessary to specify the value of each package.

It is not necessary to number such articles as bricks, tiles, lumber, undressed stone, wood for building purposes, grindstones, lime in barrels or sacks, sea salt, lead in sheets or bars, pig and sheet iron, rods, hoops, chains, anchors, iron stamps for mines, empty demijohns, large iron and copper boilers and live stock.

In order to describe the contents of packages, it is sufficient merely to specify the name, quality, quantity and materials composing the merchandise; but when an article is classified in the tariff according to its quality, or any other circumstance which distinguishes it from the other mentioned under a different class, such quality or circumstance should be expressed in the respective invoice.

If a manifest or invoice not containing the above requirements is presented to the consul, he must return it, without certification, to the interested party, stating the details which are wanting; but if the interested party insists upon having the consular certification, the consul will extend it, expressing therein the circumstances under which he has done so.

The consular fees are the following:

For certifying manifests for each port of destination...	$20 00
For certifying invoices of four packages and under...	4 00
For certifying invoices of five packages and over.....	8 00

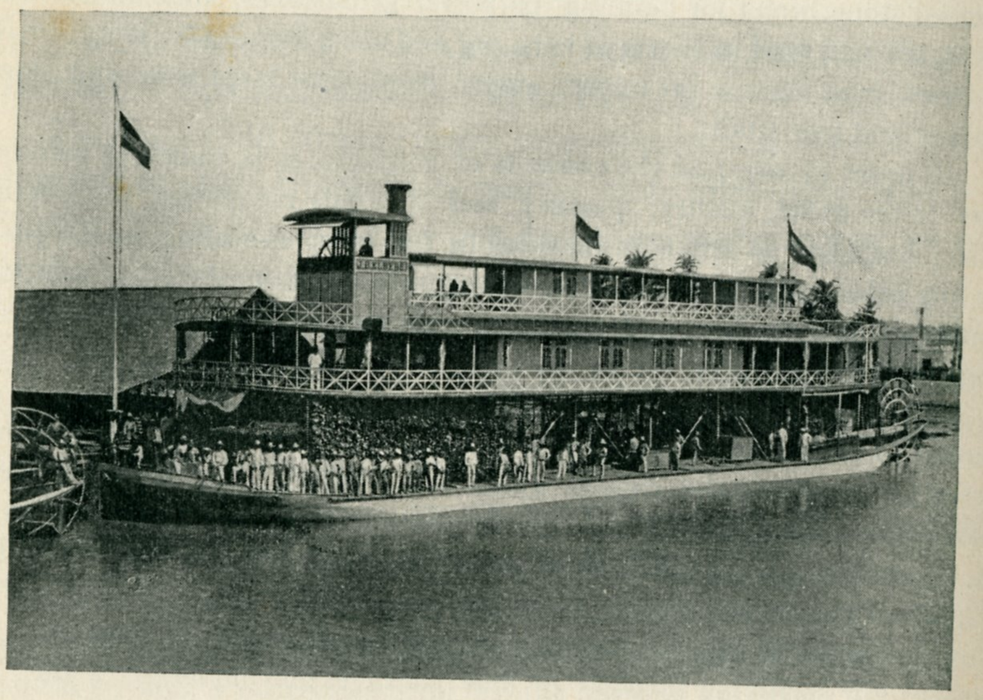
Manifests for the free ports of Panamá, Colón and Bocas del Toro are not subject to any consular fee.

RAILWAY SYSTEM.

In few countries in the world would a system of railway transportation prove of greater benefit to the people and of more profit to the owners than in Colombia. From the lowlands, with their products of the tropics, to the high tablelands, with their products of the temperate zone, what is

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now a question of days of travel would be reduced to a question of hours. The interchange of commodities in the internal trade would be multiplied many times and it would cease to transpire that in the case of poor crops in one section of the country, food products would have to be imported from foreign countries to meet the shortage, instead of being brought from another section of the same country where



STEAMBOAT ON THE MAGDALENA RIVER.

there is an abundance. The product of forest, farm and plain would be brought within the reach of all. The immense mineral wealth of the country in gold, silver, copper and coal would be no longer worked, as now, in a desultory manner, but with the application of all the methods known to modern science. When one realizes that which is true, viz., if all the boundaries of Colombia were absolutely impenetrable, and if the people were obliged to live entirely

on their internal resources, there is to be found in the country every article and every product to-day employed by countries most advanced in civilization in all branches of science, mechanics, art, architecture and domestic uses, in fact the means to place a Paris, London, or New York on any of the elevated plains of the country.

Foreigners are apt to magnify the dangers of the tropical countries and the difficulties of the building of railways. Distances in Colombia which now take days (should take but hours) the old Spanish conquerors consumed months in traversing. To-day there are steamboats on the Magdalena River, but during the early times of the conquest, and up to within a few years, the trip was made from the coast into the interior in canoes and small sailboats, taking months of time; and yet, in spite of all these difficulties, they built large cities of solid masonry, which now stand, after 300 years, as monuments to their enterprise, skill and patience. A good illustration of the directness of their methods is in the mule roads or trails, which have been in use since their time. Instead of going around hills and making side-cuttings, it was their practice to build their roads in as straight a line as possible, and the result is the difficult and tiresome roads of to-day. But these roads should not be accepted as a criterion of the difficulties of railway building, as the traveler, experienced in plotting a railway line, sees almost at a glance how a suitable grade could be obtained.

The cost of construction of railway lines in Colombia is no more than in many parts of the United States, plus the additional cost of transportation of imported material, the item of rails being actually cheaper, the cost of same delivered on the coast of Colombia from Europe being less than the price for which they can be bought at the mills in the United States. The surveys and estimates of the cost of construction made

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under the supervision of Mr. Shunk, the veteran Pennsylvania railroad builder, for the Intercontinental Railway Commission, may be taken as a fair basis of cost, as the line surveyed by Mr. Shunk's party from Quito, in Ecuador, northward through Colombia to the coast, passes through every variety of topography to be encountered in the country. His estimates are as follows: from Quito northward to La Bolsa, on the Cauca River, 440 miles, $32,000 per mile; from La Bolsa to Cali, 47 miles, $16,000 per mile; from Cali to Cartago, 124 miles, $13,000 per mile; from Cartago to Poblanco, 100 miles, $32,000 per mile; from Poblanco to Antioquia (city), 70 miles, $24,000 per mile; from Antioquia (city) to Cartagena on the coast, 375 miles, $22,500 per mile. Mr. Shunk's theory, as must be that of all practical men who study the subject, is that if a grand system of railways is to be undertaken, uniting those of the different South American countries and in turn connected directly with the United States, it must be by the use of one of the harbors on the Colombian coast as a gateway, preferably Cartagena, to be connected by steamship ferryage of little more than 60 hours from Tampa, in Florida, thereby saving a lengthy and in many parts unprofitable line through Central America and the Isthmus of Panamá.

The following data concerning the cost of work, labor, etc., is given from actual experience. Figures are in United States gold:

Common laborers,	25 to 40 cents daily.
Masons,	50 cents to $1.00 daily.
Blacksmiths,	50 cents to $1.20 "
Carpenters,	40 cents to $1.20 "

Excavation of dirt and loose rock in cuttings and embankments: One cubic yard moved an average distance of 20 yards, 37½ cents.

Rock excavations with the use of explosives, 20 cents to $1.00 per cubic yard.

Ties vary in cost in the different parts of the country. Prices, delivered by contract along the line, about the same as in the United States.

Clearing and extracting stumps and roots, customary width of narrow gauge road, $325 to 400 per kilometer; per lineal foot tunnel, narrow gauge road, $55 to $60.

The Congress of 1892 passed a general railway act, which gives the power to the Executive to grant concessions for the construction and operation of railways and to subsidize the same at a rate, in his discretion, up to $16,000 gold per mile, 3-feet gauge. Such subsidies to be paid on the opening for traffic of certain sections according to agreement, in revenue bonds, redeemable out of import duties at the National Custom-houses. The total of such bonds redeemed in any one year not to exceed a fixed percentage of the customs receipts, but the bonds to bear interest until redeemed. These bonds to be accepted at the Custom-houses in payment of duties, thus becoming a circulating security of value to importers, who, purchasing the same at a discount from the concessionaires, use them in payment of customs duties.

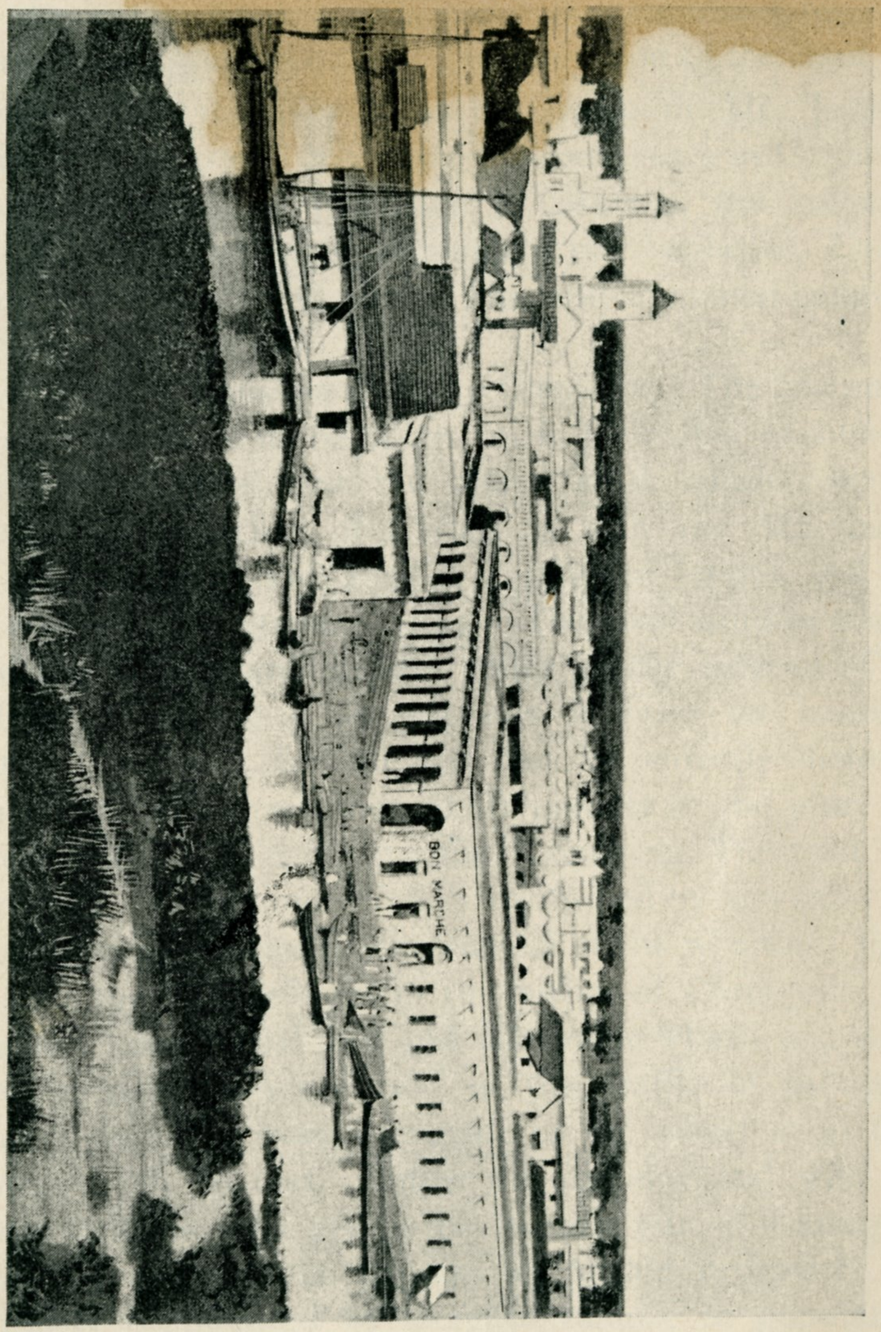
While there have been surveys made of roads which, constructed, will constitute a complete system of railways in the country, those in operation up to the present consist of isolated short lines, some of which, however, under recent contracts, are being pushed to completion; and as at the present time there are no concessions upon which some work has not been actually done or contracted to be commenced in the immediate future, Colombia seems to have entered upon what will be the most fruitful era of her existence.

Panamá Railroad. This was one of the first steam roads constructed south of the Rio Grande, and it was the necessary result of the enormous traffic that passed over the isthmus after the discovery of gold in California. A charter was obtained from the Government of Colombia in 1850 by

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a syndicate of New York capitalists, and one of its terms was that the Government of the United States should guarantee free transit at all times and protect the road and its appurtenances, in conformity with the agreement contained in the treaty of 1846 between the United States and the Republic of New Granada. Work was begun in 1850, and on January 28th, 1855, the first train passed over the track. Its cost was $7,500,000, and it is 47½ miles long, the northern terminus being Colón (Aspinwall), the southern, the city of Panamá. The Government of Colombia receives the sum of $250,000 annnally. In 1887 the stock of the road was purchased by the Panamá Canal Company, and it is still held by that corporation, although under the terms of the charter a majority of the directors must be citizens of the United States, and the headquarters of the company must be in New York.

Barranquilla Railway and Pier Company (*Bolivar Railway*). This road extends from Puerto Colombia, on the Caribbean Sea, to the port of Barranquilla, on the Magdalena River, and is 18.5 miles long. It was extended recently from Savanilla to Puerto Colombia, a distance of 3½ miles. The necessity for the construction of this road was brought about by the difficulties and dangers of navigation in the mouth of the Magdalena River, caused by shifting sand bars, vessels having formerly proceeded up to Barranquilla. Puerto Colombia consists of a railway station and other buildings, the Custom-house being located at Barranquilla. It is an open roadstead and unsheltered. Up to 1893, vessels were obliged to discharge and receive cargo a couple of miles from the shore, the same being lightered back and forth. There has however, been finished, what is the second longest pier in the world. The superstructure is of steel, screw pile, 4,000 feet, *i. e.*, 3,000 feet approach, 100 feet neck, 600 feet



TOWN OF BARRANQUILLA.

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head by 50 feet wide. On it are run three tracks. The screws are 40 inches in diameter in the head. The depth of water along the entire head is 26 feet. It accommodates four steamers discharging at once. The operation of the road and the building of the pier were in charge of Mr. John B. Dougherty, C. E., who has passed eleven years in Colombia, and supervised, under Francisco J. Cisneros, the construction of the first completed sections of the Antioquia, Cauca, Giradot and Dorada railways. The above named company is an English corporation.

Cartagena-Magdalena Railway Company. The first enterprise of importance to be taken up in Colombia exclusively by American capital was the above road, which connects the magnificent harbor of Cartagena with the Magdalena River at Calamar. This road is 60 miles in length, and was opened to traffic in January, 1894. This road handles a large part of the import and export traffic of the interior of the Republic on account of the superior facilities for handling freight at Cartagena, and the fact that its perfectly sheltered harbor is safe in any weather, at all periods of the year. In connection with this company, the Cartagena Terminal and Improvement Company, which is controlled by the same interests, owns by concession the control of the wharfage, lighterage and towing privileges in the harbor of Cartagena, and has already constructed new and admirable wharfs and warehouses for the accommodation of the traffic of the port. Maximum depth of water alongside of the wharf is 42 feet, minimum depth 29 feet. Under the stimulus and with the superior facilities thus given, the historic city of Cartagena should recover and even surpass its former prosperity. It has already commenced to increase rapidly in population. The construction of the road and belongings are first-class in every part. The head office of these companies is in

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Boston. The stockholders include many of the strongest and best known capitalists of that city and New York. Among them may be mentioned: T. Jefferson Coolidge, Fred. L. Ames, Oliver Ames, John L. Gardner, Albert W. Nickerson, J. Murray Forbes, Wm. H. Forbes, W. Powell Mason, Laurence Minot, Joseph S. Fay, Jr., Henry D. Hyde. Geo. V. L. Meyer, Henry Parkman, Allan Curtis, Thos. R. Wheelock, Fred. Ayer, Jas. B. Colgate, John A. Stewart, Morris K. Jessup, Gen. John Newton, Commodore Jas. D. Smith, and Chas. R. Flint. These companies were projected and organized through the instrumentality of Mr. S. B. McConnico, formerly of the Illinois Central Railway Service, who was for some time in charge of the construction.

The *Cúcuta Railway* runs from the inland port of San José de Cúcuta to the river Zulia, near the Venezuelan frontier, and is 34 miles in length. It has been recently extended to the Venezuelan frontier. This is an important aid to the commerce of Santander, and is said to pay a profit of 30 per cent. annually. Over it are transported large quantities of Cúcuta coffee, which is carried overland to Lake Maracaibo (Venezuela), and is exported from the port of that name. The cost of transportation by this method from Cúcuta to Maracaibo is $24.50, Venezuelan money (almost equal to United States gold), per ton. A concession exists for a railroad line from San José de Cúcuta to Tamalameque, on the Magdalena River. A preliminary survey has been made of this line, and it is said to present no serious engineering difficulties. The concession carries with it liberal subsidies, and will, undoubtedly, be profitable as well as of great benefit to the country tributary to it, as the products now passing out through Venezuela will then be transported over it to the Magdalena.

Bucaramanga (*Santander*) *Railway.* This road is projected to run from Bucaramanga to Puerto Wilches, on the

Magdalena River, a distance of 154 kilometers. A concession for this road had been for some time in the hands of private parties, until December, 1892, the same was cancelled, with the consent of the concessionaires, by Congress, and a contract was entered into for its construction and equipment for account of the Department of Santander, with the contracting house of Messrs. Punchard, McTaggart, Lowther & Co., of London. This firm could not carry on the contract, and a settlement was made whereby the concession given to the grantees was cancelled. This road will be of great importance to the department and undoubtedly profitable, as, like all other projected roads in Colombia, it has a large traffic waiting for it.

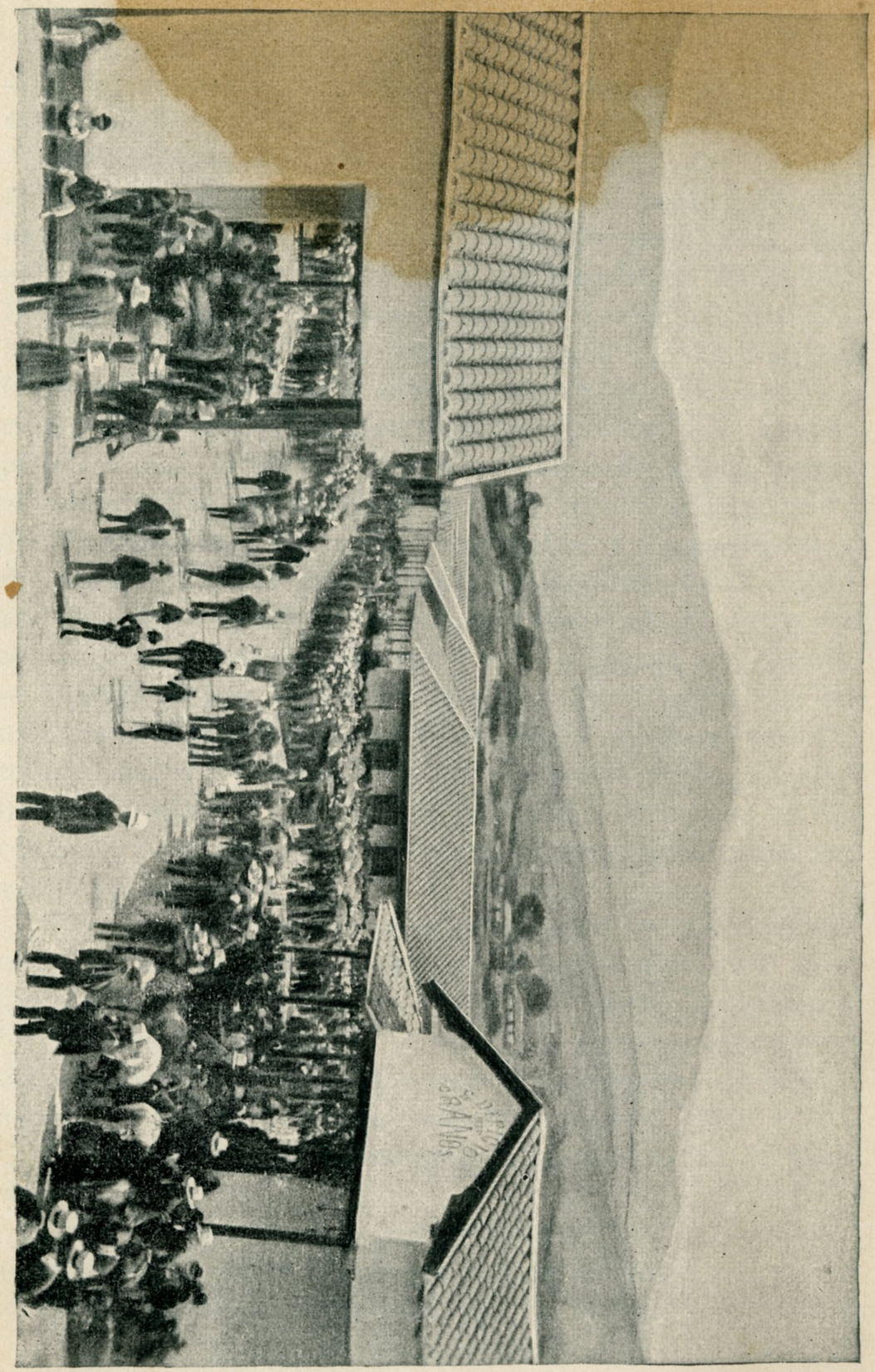
Antioquia Railroad. The first section of this road from Puerto Berrio, on the Magdalena, 30 miles to Pavas, has been in operation for some years. It is owned by the Departmental Government, and it is now in good condition. In November, 1892, a contract was entered into for the completion of the line to the city of Medellín, a distance of about 95 miles, between the Department of Antioquia and the firm of Messrs. Punchard, McTaggart, Lowther & Co. The contract price, including the construction of the new line, and practically the rebuilding of the first section already mentioned, and all equipment and appurtenances, was £1,250,000 sterling. For the payment by the Department of the contract price, the contractors ought to undertake to float a loan of the face value of £1,550,000 sterling, at an initial discount of 20 per cent. As security for the payment of the said loan and interest, were pledged a portion of the Departmental liquor tax, Custom-house bonds of the National Government, and the road itself. The entire line from Puerto Berrio to Medellín was to be open for traffic within four years from the first of January, 1893. The city of Medellín is the center of supply for a large

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and populous region and has a reputation for commercial integrity which is unrivaled. It is expected that this road will be continued from Medellín southward along the valley of Antioquia, to connect with the Cauca Railroad, thereby forming a rail connection from Buenaventura, on the Pacific coast, to the Magdalena River, and furnishing the much needed means for transportation of mining, agricultural, and other machinery and merchandise, as well as for the products of the Antioquia and Cauca valleys. On account of the inability of the constructing firm to comply with the terms of the contract, this was rescinded in September 1893, and the Departmental Government took charge of the road and its operation and construction.

Cauca Railroad. This road is planned to run from Buenaventura via Cali, to Manizales, in the Department of Cauca. The first section from Buenaventura, 16 miles, to San Cipriano, has been in operation for several years. In 1890 Mr. James L. Cherry, a citizen of the United States, acquired the section in operation together with the concession to complete the road. Mr. Cherry, as the representative of the Cauca Railway Company, a corporation organized in the United States, was engaged in carrying on the work of construction, and he claims to have built 5 additional miles. This road is liberally subsidized. If work on it is continued, it will soon reach large and valuable deposits of coal, which commodity commands a price of upwards of $20 per ton in the ports of the South Pacific. It will be of immense benefit to the region through which it passes, and at some time in the future unite with the Antioquia Railway.

La Dorada Railway. This road runs from Yeguas, the head of navigation on the lower Magdalena, via Honda, to Arrancaplumas on the upper Magdalena, around the dangerous rapids at Honda. It is 14 miles in length and



MAEDELLÍN PUBLIC MARKET.

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in 1893 secured concessions granting the privilege of its extension.

The *Giradot Railway.* The first section of this road, 25 miles long, has been in operation between Giradot, on the upper Magdalena, and Juntas de Apulo, for some years. The entire line is intended to connect the Magdalena River with Bogotá, a distance of about 80 miles. Under a concession made in 1895, this road, which belonged to the National Government, was turned over to Mr. S. B. McConnico, a citizen of the United States, together with the right to complete the road to Bogotá, and to operate it for a long period of years. . The Government granted to the concessionary liberal subsidies. He is now engaged in the prosecution of the work. Without taking into consideration what export and import traffic will be carried over this road, in preference to the old-established mule road between Bogotá and Honda, or through railway lines which may lead from Bogotá directly northward to the Magdalena River, the local travel and the transportation of freight between the plains of Bogotá and the Department of Tolima will render the enterprise an exceedingly profitable one. The road presents no unusual engineering difficulties.

The *Sabana Railroad* was constructed by a Colombian company, and extends from Bogotá 26 miles northward over the plains of Facatativá, from which place travel is continued by mule road to Honda. The road is in good condition and carries a large quantity of freight and passengers. It is now owned by the Government, and may become part of the Giradot railway, under the concession granted to Mr. McConnico.

The *Northern Railway* is intended to extend to Zipaquirá, a distance of 30 miles, where are located the large salt mines of the Government. This road will be entirely constructed

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by the end of this year. A continuation of this line from Zipaquirá northward to Bucaramanga has been carefully surveyed, and when constructed will form a most important connection between the Department of Tolima, over the Giradot railway, the plains of Bogotá and of the Department of Boyacá (by branches) with the Magdalena River, the line in construction between Bucaramanga and Puerto Wilches becoming its northern section. The extension of the proposed line from Bucaramanga northward along the high table-lands and thence to the Magdalena River at Tamalameque, has been under consideration. The advantage of such a line would be, that the Magdalena, from its mouth to Tamalameque, being deep enough for large boats, steamers of 800 or 1,000 tons could be used in place of the small stern-wheel steamers now in use, which are of sufficiently light draft for navigation above Tamalameque and carry not more than 200 tons. Merchandise could then be transported between the coast and Bogotá in 48 hours, at a greatly reduced cost, instead of in 20 to 30 days (including detentions) as at present. The construction of the road to San José de Cúcuta and other branches would make profitable feeders for this trunk line.

The *Santa Marta Railway* is something more than 26 miles in length and the concession for same includes the building of a line through to the Magdalena River, at the important port of Banco. It is owned by an English company. It has opened up a large banana and cocoa trade on the line of its route, and near it are located important deposits of coal at Rio Frio.

The postal service is well organized. Colombia is a member of the American Postal Union. In 1889 a parcel post convention was entered into with the United States.

The first telegraph was constructed in 1866 by Mr. Stiles, a citizen of the United States. There are now upwards of 6,000 miles in operation and more than 300 offices. All of the principal cities are connected with each other and with the systems of Venezuela and Ecuador, as well as by cable from Buenaventura across the isthmus with the United States and European countries. The telegraphs are all owned by the Government. The service is good and the rates in the country very low, being between any two points one-half cent per word.

On the Atlantic side, or Caribbean Sea, there are Custom-houses at Barranquilla, Cartagena, Santa Marta and Rio Hacha; on the banks of the Meta River, that of Orocué; on the Ecuador frontier, that of Ipiales; on the Venezuelan frontier, those of Cúcuta and Arauca.

Panamá, Colón and Bocas del Toro are free ports. Imports duties are collected upon the gross weights of merchandise and range from 1 to 120 cents per kilogram (2.2046 pounds). A few articles are admitted free. Among these are the following: gold and silver coins of at least 0.900 fineness; passengers' baggage up to 150 kilograms in weight, and the tools of artisans who intend settling in Colombia, up to 150 kilograms in weight. Machinery for mining is admitted at a reduced rate of duties and under special contract, —in all cases material for the construction of railways is admitted free.

On the Isthmus of Panamá the port charges at Colón, such as light dues, wharfage, etc., are levied and collected by the Panamá Railroad Company.

At Panamá there are no pilot charges, light dues or tonnage tax, there being no lights on the west coast and no pilots at the ports.

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